

A direct GABAergic output from the basal ganglia to frontal cortex

Arpiar Saunders¹, Ian A. Oldenburg¹, Vladimir K. Berezovskii¹, Caroline A. Johnson¹, Nathan D. Kingery², Hunter L. Elliott³, Tiao Xie³, Charles R. Gerfen⁴ & Bernardo L. Sabatini¹

The basal ganglia are phylogenetically conserved subcortical nuclei necessary for coordinated motor action and reward learning¹. Current models postulate that the basal ganglia modulate cerebral cortex indirectly via an inhibitory output to thalamus, bidirectionally controlled by direct- and indirect-pathway striatal projection neurons (dSPNs and iSPNs, respectively)^{2–4}. The basal ganglia thalamic output sculpts cortical activity by interacting with signals from sensory and motor systems⁵. Here we describe a direct projection from the globus pallidus externus (GP), a central nucleus of the basal ganglia, to frontal regions of the cerebral cortex (FC). Two cell types make up the GP–FC projection, distinguished by their electrophysiological properties, cortical projections and expression of choline acetyltransferase (ChAT), a synthetic enzyme for the neurotransmitter acetylcholine (ACh). Despite these differences, ChAT⁺ cells, which have been historically identified as an extension of the nucleus basalis, as well as ChAT[−] cells, release the inhibitory neurotransmitter GABA (γ -aminobutyric acid) and are inhibited by iSPNs and dSPNs of dorsal striatum. Thus, GP–FC cells comprise a direct GABAergic/cholinergic projection under the control of striatum that activates frontal cortex *in vivo*. Furthermore, iSPN inhibition of GP–FC cells is sensitive to dopamine 2 receptor signalling, revealing a pathway by which drugs that target dopamine receptors for the treatment of neuropsychiatric disorders can act in the basal ganglia to modulate frontal cortices.

iSPNs are the major dopamine 2 receptor (D2R)-expressing cells in the brain and project from dorsal striatum to GP, suggesting that the therapeutic effects of drugs that target D2Rs to treat schizophrenia⁶, bipolar disorder⁷ and obsessive compulsive disorder⁸ may involve GP circuits. GP neurons are generally described as GABAergic, spontaneously active, and projecting to the thalamus and all nuclei of the basal ganglia⁹. Thus the GP is thought to coordinate subcortical activity through inhibition. Nevertheless, there are ChAT⁺ neurons in and around GP that project to cortex^{10,11} and appear to be innervated by striatal projection neurons from dorsal striatum^{12,13}, despite the rarity of iSPN synapses at the ultra-structural level¹⁴. In macaques, GP neurons with nucleus basalis-like firing properties respond to reward¹⁵, a computation attributed to the basal ganglia¹⁶. Furthermore, humans with GP lesions exhibit reduced metabolism in frontal cortices and psychiatric symptoms reminiscent of patients with frontotemporal lobe damage, consistent with loss of substantial extrinsic input¹⁷. Therefore, we examined if the GP contains a projection system to FC that is functionally integrated into basal ganglia circuitry.

Retrograde labelling with fluorescent microspheres (retrobeads) in mice expressing eGFP under the control of the dopamine 2 receptor locus (*Drd2-eGFP*) identified ipsilateral FC-projecting neurons within GP and clustered on the GP–nucleus basalis and GP–striatum borders (Fig. 1a and Extended Data Fig. 1a–c). Nearly all GP–FC projecting neurons cells express the GABA vesicular transporter (*Vgat*, also known as *Slc32A1*) and synthetic enzyme GAD65 (also known as *Gad2*), while a subset (72%) also express ChAT (Extended Data Fig. 1d, e). These

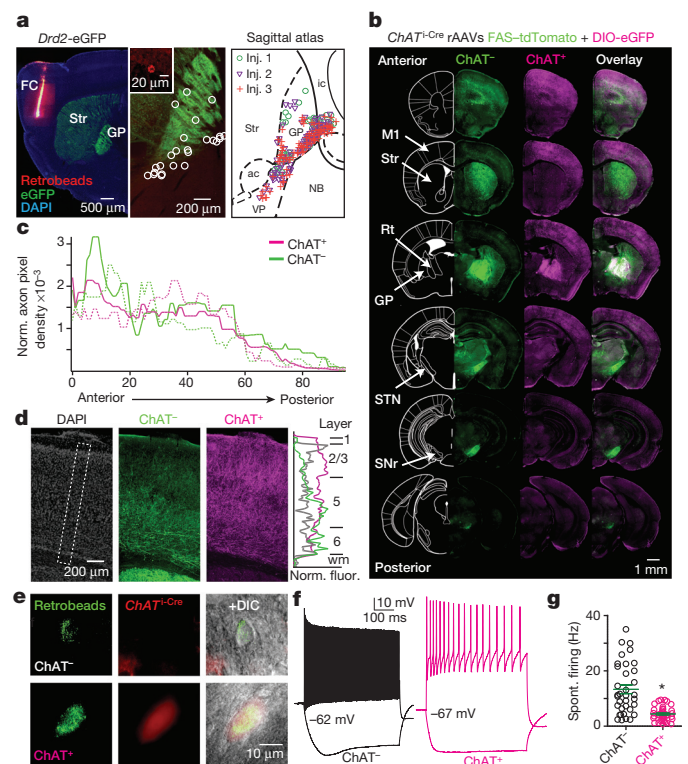


Figure 1 | The GP and bordering nucleus basalis contain two cell types that project to FC. **a**, Left, sagittal section from a *Drd2-eGFP* mouse injected with retrobeads into FC. Center, retrobead⁺ neurons (inset and highlighted with circles) in a medial section of GP. Right, retrobead⁺ overlay from three separate injections, spanning ~300 μ m and excluding ventral basal forebrain. ac, anterior commissure; ic, internal capsule; Str, striatum; VP, ventral pallidum; NB, nucleus basalis. **b–d**, Anterograde labelling of ChAT⁺ and ChAT[−] GP–FC axons. **b**, Coronal sections from a *ChAT⁺Cre* mouse injected in GP (Extended Data Fig. 3g) with rAAVs DIO-eGFP (Cre-On) and FAS–tdTomato (Cre-Off) sampled from a whole-brain reconstruction. M1, primary motor cortex; Rt, thalamic reticular nucleus; SNr, substantia nigra reticulata. **c**, Anterior–posterior distribution of normalized ChAT⁺ and ChAT[−] cortical axon densities (two mice, solid and dotted lines). **d**, Left, GP–FC axons across layers in anterior M1. Right, normalized average fluorescence from dotted box. wm, white matter. **e**, ChAT⁺ and ChAT[−] GP–FC cells are distinguishable in acute brain slices following green retrobead injection in FC of *ChAT⁺Cre;Rosa26^{lsl-tdTomato}* mice. **f**, Example membrane voltage (V_m) traces for GP–FC cells following positive (ChAT⁺, 1.7; ChAT[−], 0.9 nA) and negative (ChAT⁺, −0.2; ChAT[−], −0.1 nA) current injections (500 ms) to determine maximum firing rates and hyperpolarized membrane properties. Resting V_m is indicated. **g**, Whole-cell spontaneous firing rates ($n = 45$ ChAT⁺ cells, $n = 35$ ChAT[−], 10 mice). * $P < 0.05$ (Mann–Whitney test).

¹Department of Neurobiology, Howard Hughes Medical Institute, Harvard Medical School, 220 Longwood Avenue, Boston, Massachusetts 02115, USA. ²Neurobiology Imaging Facility, Department of Neurobiology, Harvard Medical School, 220 Longwood Avenue, Boston, Massachusetts 02115, USA. ³Image and Data Analysis Core, Harvard Medical School, 220 Longwood Avenue, Boston, Massachusetts 02115, USA. ⁴Laboratory of Systems Neuroscience, National Institute of Mental Health, Bethesda, Maryland 20892, USA.

results indicate that GP–FC projection neurons may be GABAergic but can be subdivided based on cholinergic marker expression (hereafter ChAT⁺ and ChAT⁻ cells). ChAT⁺ cells of the ventral nucleus basalis also express GABAergic markers¹⁸, suggesting that much of the basal forebrain cholinergic system may co-release GABA (Extended Data Fig. 1f, g). ChAT⁻ GP–FC cells do not express parvalbumin (Extended Data Fig. 1h–j), thus they are distinct from GP neurons that project to posterior basal ganglia nuclei¹⁹ and other non-cholinergic cortically projecting cells in the basal forebrain²⁰. Analysis in a rhesus macaque confirmed that similar classes of neurons are conserved in primates: retrograde labelling followed by ChAT immunostaining identified ChAT⁻ and ChAT⁺ cortically projecting neurons in GP (Extended Data Fig. 2a–e). In both macaque and mouse, ChAT⁺ cells were distributed around the GP and GP–nucleus basalis border, areas that in the mouse are exposed to iSPN axons (Extended Data Fig. 2f, g).

The projection patterns of mouse ChAT⁻ and ChAT⁺ GP–FC cells were determined by selectively expressing fluorophores in each cell class²¹ and analysing 3D brain reconstructions (two mice, Extended Data Fig. 3 and Supplementary Video 1). ChAT⁺ and ChAT⁻ GP cells target anterior cortices, yet arborize in different but overlapping cortical layers and subcortical nuclei (Fig. 1b–d and Extended Data Fig. 4). In most cortical regions, ChAT⁺ axons arborize in layers 1–6, most densely in layers 1–3, whereas ChAT⁻ axons arborize densely in layers 5 and 6 and are absent from layer 1. In ectorhinal cortex, ChAT⁻ axons extend into layer 1 (Extended Data Fig. 3k).

ChAT⁺ and ChAT⁻ GP–FC cells are electrophysiologically distinct (Fig. 1e–g and Extended Data Fig. 5a–f): retrobead⁺ ChAT⁻ cells exhibit hyperpolarization-activated cation currents (I_h) and, compared to ChAT⁺ cells, have smaller somata ($1,740 \pm 391$ versus $5,139 \pm 547 \mu\text{m}^3$), narrower action potentials, higher maximum firing rates (~ 200 versus 30 Hz) and less spike accommodation. ChAT⁻ cells were spontaneously active at all ages studied, whereas ChAT⁺ cells become spontaneously active around sexual maturity (Extended Data Fig. 5g) and, once active, have lower firing rates (4.4 ± 0.39 versus 13.3 ± 1.6 Hz). Thus, ChAT expression subdivides these putative GABAergic GP–FC neurons into physiologically distinct cell types that may differentially affect cortical and subcortical activity during development and in adulthood.

The influence of this projection on FC was assayed *in vivo* using extracellular recordings in awake, head-fixed mice while optogenetically manipulating GP (Fig. 2 and Extended Data Fig. 6). Mice were habituated to restraint and periodically pressed a lever for a water reward. Periods without lever presses were analysed to avoid confounds of motor behaviour. Pulsed optogenetic activation (473 nm, 5 ms pulses at 10 Hz for 3 s) of channelrhodopsin (ChR2)-transduced *Vgat*⁺ neurons of GP but not of mCherry-transduced controls entrained firing in FC, as shown by the population activity during the stimulation period and immediately following individual stimuli (ChR2⁺, $n = 90$ units, 5 mice; mCherry⁺, $n = 99$ units, 3 mice) (Fig. 2a and Extended Data Fig. 6a, b). For each unit the light modulation of the activity index (I_{light}) was calculated: $I_{\text{light}} = 0$ represents no change in firing, whereas values of +1 or -1 indicate that all firing occurred during light stimulation or non-stimulation periods, respectively. Optogenetic stimulation decreased firing rates $\sim 20\%$ overall ($I_{\text{light}} = -0.11 \pm 0.02$, $P < 0.0001$ Kruskal–Wallis test, Fig. 2a); however, individual units showed increases ($\sim 4\%$, $n = 4$ of 90) or decreases ($\sim 42\%$, $n = 38$ of 90, $P < 0.05$, Student's *t*-test) in firing rate. No significant light-induced changes were observed above chance in controls ($n = 0$ and 2 of 99 units with significantly increased and decreased activity, three mice) (Extended Data Fig. 6c).

To establish if ongoing activity in GP basally sculpts FC firing, we suppressed GP activity using the light-driven proton pump archaerhodopsin (ArchT). Constant illumination of ArchT⁺ GP (594 nm, 3 s) increased ($\sim 26\%$, $n = 25$ of 96) or decreased ($\sim 20\%$, $n = 19$ of 96) firing of individual FC units (two mice, $P < 0.05$ Student's *t*-test, Fig. 2b). These bidirectional changes resulted in no significant change in population firing rate ($I_{\text{light}} = 0.02 \pm 0.01$, $P > 0.05$ Kruskal–Wallis test). Units in mCherry controls (two mice) were not modulated at a rate

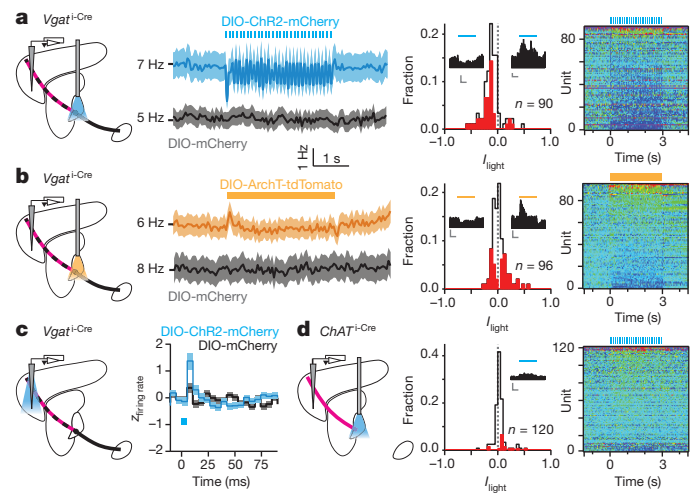


Figure 2 | GP–FC cells modulate FC firing rates *in vivo*. **a, b,** ChR2 stimulation or ArchT inhibition of *Vgat*⁺ GP somata bidirectionally modulates firing rates in FC. Left, schematic showing extracellular recordings in FC during optical stimulation of ChAT⁺ (axons shown in magenta) and ChAT⁻ (axons shown in black) in GP with pulsed 473 nm (5 ms pulses, 10 Hz for 3 s, **a**) or constant 594 nm (3 s, **b**) illumination. The mixed ChAT⁺/ChAT⁻ GP–FC projection appears striped. Middle left, mean firing rate (\pm s.e.m.) of all FC units in response to 473 nm stimulation (**a**) of ChR2⁺ (blue; $n = 90$ units, 5 mice) or control (black; $n = 99$ units, 3 mice) mice or 594 nm stimulation (**b**) of ArchT⁺ (yellow; $n = 96$ units, 3 mice) or control mCherry⁺ (black; $n = 63$, 2 mice) mice (*ChAT*⁺ mice expressing mCherry in GP). Middle right, histogram of indices of light modulation (I_{light}) of FC unit firing rates (I_{light} , calculated as $(f_{\text{Light On}} - f_{\text{Light Off}}) / (f_{\text{Light On}} + f_{\text{Light Off}})$). Red bars indicate significantly modulated units ($P < 0.05$, *t*-test). ChR2⁺ stimulation excited 4 and inhibited 38 units; ArchT⁺ stimulation excited 25 and inhibited 19 units. Insets, example units, scale bar 5 Hz/1 s. Right, pseudo-coloured plot of changes in f for each unit, normalized to the baseline period and ordered by I_{light} . **c,** Pulsed ChR2 stimulation of *Vgat*⁺ GP axons in FC increases firing rates on a millisecond time scale. Left, schematic showing optrode placement in FC used for stimulation and recording. Right, mean (\pm s.e.m.) z-scored firing rates after each 5 ms light pulse (blue rectangle) relative to equivalent baseline period 3 s prior (ChR2⁺, $n = 111$, 5 mice; mCherry⁺, $n = 92$, 2 mice). **d,** Pulsed ChR2 depolarization of *ChAT*⁺ GP somata increases firing rates in FC. Left, experimental schematic (as in **a**). Middle, histogram of I_{light} for FC units (as in **a**), ChR2⁺ excited 15 and inhibited 2 of 120 units from four mice. Right, pseudo-coloured plot of changes in firing rate for all units.

greater than chance ($n = 1$ and 2 of 63 units with significant increased or decreased activity, respectively) (Extended Data Fig. 6d). In response to ArchT-mediated inhibition or ChR2-mediated excitation of GP, some FC units altered activity within < 50 ms of light onset (Extended Data Fig. 6e). These gain- and loss-of-function experiments indicate that activity in GP rapidly, potently and bidirectionally modulates neurons in frontal cortex *in vivo*. Furthermore, local stimulation of ChR2-expressing GP axons in FC using an optical fibre/electrode combination (optrode) revealed that activity of GP–FC neurons is sufficient to modulate FC. Pulsed illumination of ChR2⁺ axons did not persistently change FC activity, but transiently increased firing rates within 5–10 ms of light onset ($n = 111$ units, 5 mice), an effect not seen in control mCherry⁺ axons ($n = 92$ units, 2 mice) (Fig. 2c and Extended Data Fig. 6f, g).

ChAT⁺ GP–FC axons project heavily to cortex, but sparsely within the basal ganglia and thalamus (Extended Data Fig. 4), such that activation of these cells in GP should minimally engage canonical basal ganglia outputs. Pulsed excitation in GP increased firing rates in the FC ($n = 120$ units, 4 mice) by 11% ($I_{\text{light}} = 0.04 \pm 0.01$, $P < 0.0001$ Kruskal–Wallis test, Fig. 2d), bidirectionally modulating activity of a subset of individual units (increases: $\sim 13\%$, $n = 15$ units; decreases: $\sim 2\%$, $n = 2$). Illumination of ChAT⁺ axons in FC using an optrode confirmed that

these effects were due to activation of GP–FC projection neurons: firing rates transiently increased 5–10 ms after light onset ($n = 74$ units, 3 mice) without persistent changes during the 3 s period of pulsed stimulation (Extended Data Fig. 6g, h). Lastly, ArchT mediated suppression of ChAT⁺ GP neurons with constant yellow light did not significantly affect firing rates above chance ($\sim 1\%$ increased, $n = 1$ of 120, four mice; $\sim 3\%$ decreased, $n = 3$ of 120) (Extended Data Fig. 6i), possibly due to low basal firing rate of these cells.

To determine the synaptic mechanisms by which ChAT⁺ and ChAT⁻ GP–FC cells modulate cortex, we examined the neurotransmitters released by each cell type (Fig. 3 and Extended Data Fig. 7a, b). Whole-cell voltage-clamp recordings in acute brain slices targeted neurons with somata within $\sim 150 \mu\text{m}$ of ChR2⁺ axons (Extended Data Fig. 7c). Pharmacology and manipulation of the holding potential assayed ChR2-evoked synaptic currents due to opening of ionotropic GABA, glutamate

and ACh receptors. In a subset of neurons in FC slices ($n = 5$ of 94 neurons, five mice), optogenetic activation of ChAT⁻ axons evoked inhibitory postsynaptic currents (IPSCs) whose properties were consistent with direct GABA release from ChR2-expressing axons and monosynaptic activation of GABA_A receptors (Fig. 3a, b). Similar analysis in subcortical slices of ChR2-expressing ChAT⁺ axons that ramify around the GP–nucleus basalis border (Extended Data Fig. 7d–f) revealed excitatory postsynaptic currents (EPSCs) in a small number of cells ($n = 2$ of 85 cells, six mice) which were unaffected by application of glutamate receptor antagonists but abolished by nicotinic ACh receptor (nAChR) antagonists (Extended Data Fig. 7g–i). In addition, larger and more prevalent IPSCs were detected ($n = 7$ of 85) that were insensitive to antagonists of nAChR and glutamate receptors but were abolished by antagonists of GABA_A receptors (Fig. 3a, b), consistent with direct release of GABA from ChAT⁺ GP axons and monosynaptic activation of GABA_A receptors. We conclude that both ChAT⁺ and ChAT⁻ GP–FC cells release GABA, consistent with the expression of markers for GABA synthesis and handling, and that ChAT⁺ cells additionally release ACh.

Recordings in acute brain slices from mice expressing GFP in cortical GABAergic interneurons identified the FC neurons monosynaptically targeted by each GP–FC cell class (Extended Data Fig. 8a–d). Activation of ChAT⁻ axons evoked IPSCs in interneurons in layers 2/3, 5 and 6, as well as pyramidal neurons in layers 5 and 2/3. Activation of ChAT⁺ axons evoked IPSCs in a small number of interneurons in layers 1, 2/3 and 6 and EPSCs in interneurons in layers 1 and 6. These results suggest that ChAT⁻ GP–FC cells inhibit interneurons and pyramidal neurons across cortical layers, whereas ChAT⁺ GP–FC cells can activate and inhibit cortical interneurons through the release of ACh and GABA.

Target-specific neurotransmitter release suggests a separation of GABA and ACh release sites within individual ChAT⁺ axons in cortex. To examine this possibility, we labelled ChAT⁺ GP–FC presynaptic terminals (PSTs) with synaptophysin–GFP and determined the proximity of a variety of pre- and postsynaptic proteins in ultra-thin brain slices by fluorescence immunohistochemistry (‘array tomography’) and custom image analysis routines (Fig. 3c–g and Extended Data Fig. 8e–k). Reconstructed portions of FC (eight stacks, two mice) contained GFP⁺ volumes that resembled ‘pearls on a string’. Detected GFP⁺ ‘pearls’ had volumes consistent with PSTs²² and co-localized with synapsin I, bassoon and GAD1/2, supporting their identity as PSTs capable of synthesizing GABA. GFP⁺ PSTs co-localized with gephyrin but not PSD-95, indicating that they oppose inhibitory but not excitatory postsynaptic densities (Fig. 3e). The majority of GFP⁺ PSTs immunostained for at least one of the GABA/ACh vesicular transporters ($n = 4,274$ of 6,071), but all combinations were observed: VACHT alone ($n = 2,030$), VGAT alone ($n = 407$) and both VGAT and VACHT ($n = 1,837$). Within individual PSTs expressing both vesicular transporters, the VGAT and VACHT punctae were separable ($318 \pm 39 \text{ nm}$ between centroids), suggesting that individual axonal boutons can co-release GABA and ACh but do so through distinct vesicular pools (Fig. 3f, g).

ChAT⁺ GP–FC projection neurons have been previously identified as part of the nucleus basalis. To be included in the basal ganglia, GP–FC cells should receive synaptic inputs typical of GP: glutamatergic inputs from the subthalamic nucleus (STN) and GABAergic inputs from SPNs of the dorsal striatum. Indeed, STN axons arborize in the regions containing GP–FC cells and electrical stimulation of the STN–GP axon tract evoked glutamatergic EPSCs in ChAT⁺ and ChAT⁻ FC-projecting cells (Extended Data Fig. 9a–e). Similarly, axons of iSPNs and, surprisingly, dSPNs ramified around ChAT⁺ GP neurons (Fig. 4a and Supplementary Video 2). Optogenetic stimulation of axons of either striatal cell class evoked GABAergic IPSCs in nearly all GP–FC cells (iSPNs: ChAT⁺, 20 of 22; ChAT⁻, 19 of 20 from 11 mice; dSPNs: ChAT⁺, 12 of 12; ChAT⁻, 11 of 11 from 11 mice; Fig. 4b and Extended Data Fig. 10a, b). In contrast, ChAT⁺ cells of the nucleus basalis or substantia innominata do not receive dorsal SPN input (Extended Data Fig. 10c–e). Together these results indicate that GP–FC cells are distinct from nucleus

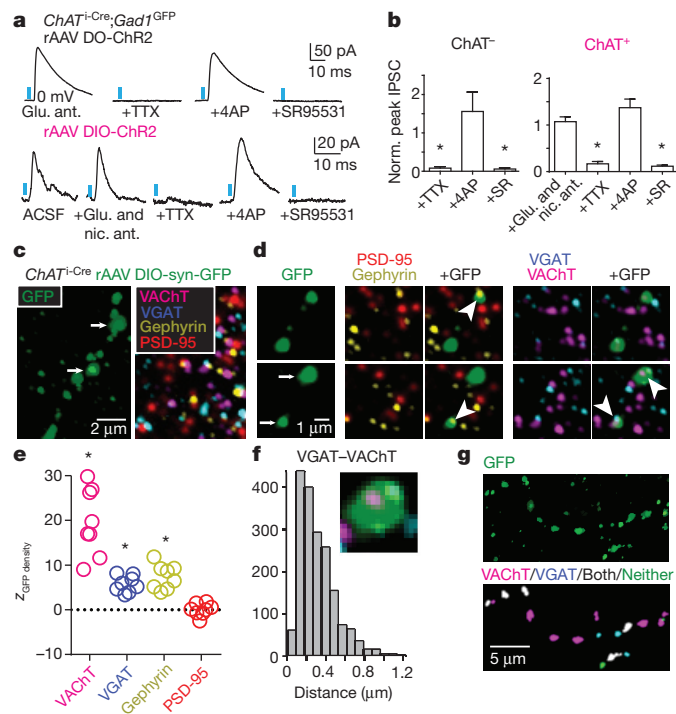


Figure 3 | GP–FC cells release GABA and ACh in FC. **a, b**, DIO (Cre-On) or DO (Cre-Off) rAAV transduction in the GP of ChAT⁻Cre;GAD1^{GFP} mice targets ChR2 to ChAT⁺ or ChAT⁻ GP neurons. **a**, Top, IPSCs in a layer 6 interneuron evoked by optogenetic activation of ChAT⁻ axons under baseline conditions of glutamate receptor antagonism (NBQX and CPP) and following co-application of (from left to right) voltage-gated Na⁺ channel blocker TTX, voltage-gated K⁺ channel blocker 4-aminopyridine (4AP) and the GABA_A receptor antagonist SR95531. Bottom, IPSCs in a ChR2⁺ neuron at the GP–nucleus basalis border following optogenetic activation of surrounding ChAT⁺ cells under baseline conditions (ACSF) and following co-application of glutamate (NBQX & CPP) and nicotinic (MEC, MLA & DH β E) receptor antagonists, TTX, 4AP and SR95531. **b**, IPSC peaks across conditions normalized to baseline (ChAT⁻, $n = 5$ cortical interneurons; ChAT⁺, $n = 7$ ChR2⁺ GP/nucleus basalis cells). * $P < 0.05$ (Mann–Whitney test). **c–g**, Co-localization analysis of virally labelled ChAT⁺ presynaptic axon terminals (PSTs) in FC using array tomography. **c**, Left, maximum projection ($z = 2.17 \mu\text{m}$) through layer 1 of FC showing GFP⁺ axon following injection of rAAV DIO-synaptophysin–GFP into the GP of a ChAT⁻Cre mouse. Right, a single plane of immunohistochemical labelling. **d**, Consecutive z planes illustrating synaptic marker association with GFP⁺ PSTs (arrows in **c**). PSTs about gephyrin but not PSD-95 and contain both VGAT and VACHT punctae (arrowheads). **e**, z scores for mean marker densities within GFP⁺ PSTs for real versus PST-randomized data ($n = 8$ stacks), indicating higher densities in the real data. * $P < 0.001$ for all stacks. **f**, Centroid separation of VGAT and VACHT punctae within the same GFP⁺ PST ($n = 1,851$ comparisons). **g**, Top, maximum projection of GFP⁺ axon in layer 1. Bottom, GFP⁺ PSTs colour-coded by VGAT/VACHT identity.

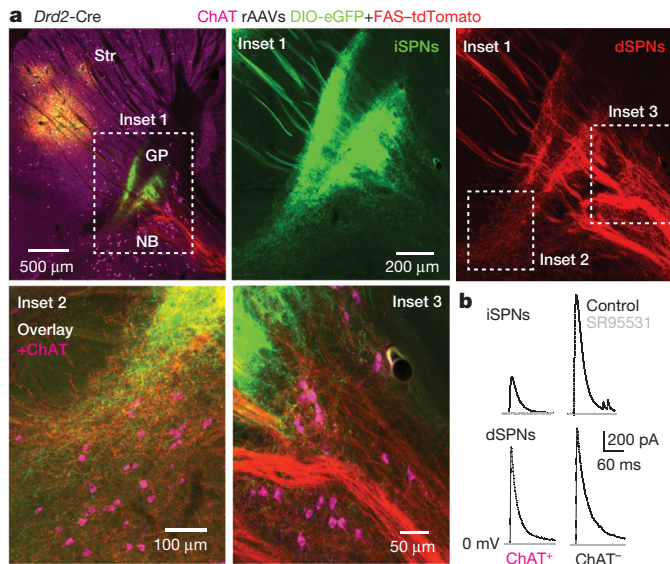


Figure 4 | The GP–FC projection is a basal ganglia output sensitive to antipsychotic drugs. **a**, Top left, sagittal section from a *Drd2-Cre* mouse injected with rAAVs DIO-eGFP (Cre-On) and FAS–TdTomato (Cre-Off) into dorsal striatum. Inset 1, iSPN and dSPN innervation zones in relation to ChAT⁺ GP cells. Insets 2 and 3, ChAT⁺ GP–FC clusters. **b**, Optogenetic activation of iSPNs (*Adora2a-Cre;Rosa26^{lsl-ChR2-eYFP/+}* mice, top) or dSPNs (*Drd1a-Cre;Rosa26^{lsl-ChR2-eYFP/+}* mice, bottom) in dorsal striatum evoked SR95531-sensitive IPSCs in retrobead⁺ GP–FC ChAT⁺ and ChAT[−] cells following injection in FC. **c**, iSPN but not dSPN IPSCs are decreased through D2R activation and reversed by an antipsychotic. Mean IPSC amplitudes normalized to baseline. Cell numbers are indicated. **P* < 0.05 versus ACSF (Mann–Whitney test); ***P* < 0.05 quinpirole versus quinpirole + sulpiride (paired *t*-test on cells with both conditions, *n* = 5). Error bars denote s.e.m.

basalis neurons and are functionally integrated into basal ganglia circuitry through direct, indirect and hyperdirect (STN–GP)²³ pathways. Although iSPNs and dSPNs both inhibit GP–FC cells, differences in synaptic strength and short-term plasticity (Extended Data Fig. 10b, f, g) suggest that dynamic activity in each pathway could differentially inhibit the GP–FC projection.

The presence of a GABAergic output to cortex under control of striatal SPNs could be important for understanding the aetiology and treatment of motor and psychiatric diseases^{24,25}. For example, schizophrenia is genetically associated with D2Rs²⁶, treated with drugs that block D2Rs⁶ and often manifests coincident with developmental changes in cortical inhibition²⁷. Schizophrenics exhibit imbalances in GABA²⁸ and ACh²⁹ systems, as well as molecular and morphological changes in prefrontal interneurons³⁰. Since GP–FC cells are present in primates (Extended Data Fig. 2), release GABA and ACh onto interneurons (Fig. 3 and Extended Data Fig. 8a–d) and are inhibited by D2R-expressing iSPNs (Fig. 4), we examined whether D2R signalling affects iSPN synapses onto GP–FC cells. Indeed, the D2R agonist quinpirole reduced the amplitude of iSPN-mediated IPSCs in GP–FC neurons in acute brain slices (Fig. 4c). This reduction was reversed by the antipsychotic sulpiride and was not seen in dSPN mediated IPSCs, confirming that striatal dopamine could disinhibit the GP–FC projection through antipsychotic-sensitive D2R signalling (Extended Data Fig. 10h).

The existence of GP–FC cells suggests a major revision to basal ganglia models^{2,24}. Striatal direct and indirect pathways were proposed to exert opposite effects on cortical activity through bidirectional control of ascending thalamic drive. The GP–FC projections bypass thalamus, allowing dSPNs and iSPNs to modulate cortex in concert. Furthermore, the hyperdirect cortical projection through the STN excites GP–FC neurons directly, forming a two-synapse loop for recurrent cortical modulation. The effects of GP–FC neurons on cortex are complex, mediated by GABA and ACh acting on diverse postsynaptic targets. The context of GP–FC activity during behaviour, the specific identities of cortical targets, and the mechanisms and consequences of GABA/ACh co-release will be the subjects of further investigation.

Online Content Methods, along with any additional Extended Data display items and Source Data, are available in the online version of the paper; references unique to these sections appear only in the online paper.

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Author Contributions A.S., I.A.O. and B.L.S. designed the experiments. A.S. performed the anatomical and acute slice experiments, analysed the data and assisted all other parts of the study. I.A.O. performed the *in vivo* recordings and analysed data. C.A.J. assisted with immunohistochemistry experiments and mouse genotyping. V.K.B. performed rhesus macaque anatomical experiments. C.R.G. sliced and imaged mouse brains for 3D reconstructions. N.D.K. performed the sectioning, staining and imaging for array tomography. H.L.E. and T.X. assisted in the image analysis for axon detection in whole-brain reconstructions and array tomography analysis, respectively. A.S. and B.L.S. wrote the manuscript with contributions from the other authors.

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METHODS

Mice. Bacterial artificial chromosome (BAC) transgenic mice expressing eGFP under the control of the dopamine 2 receptor locus (*Drd2-eGFP*) were used to define the anatomical border of the globus pallidus externus (GP) and ventral pallidum through the expression of eGFP in striatal iSPNs (GENSAT, founder line S118). Cre recombinase was targeted to specific cell types of the basal ganglia using knock-in or BAC transgenic mice to drive Cre expression under gene-specific regulatory elements. Cre knock-in mice for choline acetyltransferase (*ChAT*)³¹ and *Slc32a1* (vesicular GABA transporter, also known as *Vgat*)³² were provided by B. Lowell (Beth Israel Deaconess Medical Center) and are available from the Jackson Labs (*ChAT^{Cre}*, stock no. 006410; *Vgat^{Cre}*, stock no. 016962). *Gad2^{Cre}* were purchased from Jackson Labs (stock no. 010802)³³. All knock-in mice link Cre expression to the gene of interest using an internal ribosome entry site. Targeting Cre expression in dSPNs was achieved with BAC transgenic mice expressing Cre under control of the dopamine receptor 1 (*Drd1a*) or in iSPNs with Cre under control of the adenosine 2A receptor (*Adora2a*) or dopamine 2 receptor regulatory elements and obtained from GENSAT (*Drd1a-Cre*, founder EY262, stock no. 017264-UCD; *Adora2a-Cre*, founder KG139, stock no. 031168-UCD; *Drd2-Cre*, founder ER43, stock no. 017268-UCD)^{34,35}. The ChAT-GFP BAC transgenic line used to identify ChAT⁺ neurons was purchased from Jackson Labs (no. 007902)³⁶. To visualize the full processes of Cre-expressing cells, Cre mice were bred to incorporate a Cre-activated tdTomato reporter allele³⁷ (Ai14; Jackson Labs, stock no. 007914; referred to as *Rosa26^{isl-tdTomato}*). To visualize the somata of Cre-expressing cells, the Cre-activated ZsGreen reporter allele was used³⁷ (Ai6; Jackson Labs, stock no. 007906; referred to *Rosa26^{isl-zsGreen}*). To target channelrhodopsin-2 (ChR2) to all Cre-expressing cells, Cre driver mice were bred to incorporate a Cre-activated ChR2(H134R)-eYFP transgene³⁸ (Ai32; Jackson Labs, stock no. 012569; referred to as *Rosa26^{isl-ChR2-eYFP}*). In experiments designed to identify cortical cells neighbouring ChR2⁺ ChAT⁺ or ChAT⁺ GP-FC axons as pyramidal or interneurons, *ChAT^{Cre}* mice also carried a *Gad1^{GFP}* knock-in allele³⁹ to highlight a subset of cortical interneurons synthesizing GABA. Unless otherwise noted, we do not distinguish between mice heterozygous or homozygous for knock-in alleles. Wild-type mice refer to C57BL/6 obtained from Charles River. Transgenic mice were of a mixed genetic background. All experimental manipulations were performed in accordance with protocols approved by the Harvard Standing Committee on Animal Care following guidelines described in the US National Institutes of Health Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals.

Virus preparation. Cre-On or Cre-Off conditional expression was achieved using recombinant adeno-associated virus (rAAV) carrying transgenic cassettes whose transcription was activated or inactivated by Cre⁴⁰. Cre-On conditional expression of channelrhodopsin-2 (ChR2-mCherry, H134R variant), eGFP, mCherry, or synaptophysin-mCherry was achieved by using a double-floxed inverted open reading frame (DIO). Cre-Off conditional expression of ChR2-mCherry was achieved by starting the open reading frame in the non-inverted orientation with respect to the promoter (DO). To achieve simultaneous Cre-On eGFP and Cre-Off tdTomato labelling, DIO-eGFP was mixed 1:1 with FAS-tdTomato, an alternative Cre-Off rAAV backbone that achieves Cre-Off expression through excision of the open reading frame using alternative *loxP* sites. DIO, DO and FAS rAAVs all use the EF1 α promoter and were packaged in serotype 8 by a commercial vector core facility, except for DIO-ArchT-tdTomato which uses a CAG promoter and was packaged as serotype 5 (University of North Carolina). All rAAVs were stored in undiluted aliquots at a concentration >10¹² genomic copies per ml at -80 °C until intracranial injection.

Stereotaxic intracranial injections. Male and female mice (postnatal day (P) 20–120) were anaesthetized with isoflurane and placed in a small animal stereotaxic frame (David Kopf Instruments). Under aseptic conditions, the skull was exposed and a small hole was drilled. For rAAVs injections, 200–350 nl total volume was delivered bilaterally into the ventral GP/dorsal nucleus basalis or 500 nl into dorsal striatum through a pulled glass pipette at a rate of 200 nl min⁻¹ using a Microinject system (World Precision Instruments). GP injection coordinates were 0.7 mm posterior from Bregma, 2.0 mm lateral and 3.8 mm below the pia. Dorsal striatum injection coordinates were 0.9 mm anterior from Bregma, 2.2 mm lateral and 2.5 mm below the pia. After surgical procedures, mice received flunixin for analgesia and were returned to their home cage for >21 days to allow for maximal gene expression. To identify GP neurons that project to frontal cortex, 200 nl of fluorescent retrobeads (Red-1X or Green, Lumafuor) were injected into frontal (anterior to striatum) cortical areas including secondary motor (M2), primary motor (M1), primary somatosensory (S1) and dorsal and ventral agranular insular (AID and AIV) cortices. Frontal cortex injection coordinates were 1.9 mm anterior from Bregma, 1.8 mm lateral and 2 mm below the pia. Following surgery, mice received flunixin and were returned to their home cage for 3–9 days before experimentation. Stereotaxic coordinates were adjusted slightly by age.

Fixed tissue preparation and imaging. Mice were deeply anaesthetized with isoflurane and transcardially perfused with 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) in 0.1 M sodium phosphate buffer (1 \times PBS). Brains were post-fixed for 1–3 days, washed in 1 \times PBS and sectioned (40 μ m) coronally, sagittally or horizontally using a Vibratome (Leica). Slices were then immunostained (see Immunohistochemistry) or mounted on slides (Super Frost). After drying, slices were coverslipped with ProLong anti-fade mounting media containing DAPI (Molecular Probes) and imaged with an Olympus VS110 slide scanning microscope using the 10 \times objective. Fluorescent proteins introduced through rAAVs or transgenic alleles were never immune-enhanced, except in 3D brain reconstructions (see 3D brain reconstruction and analysis). Confocal images (1–2 μ m optical sections) were acquired with an Olympus FV1000 laser scanning confocal microscope (Harvard Neurobiology Imaging Facility) through a 63 \times objective.

Immunohistochemistry. Immunohistochemistry conditions were the same for both mouse and macaque sections. For ChAT immunohistochemistry, slices were incubated in a 1 \times PBS blocking solution containing 5% normal horse serum and 0.3% Triton X-100 for 1 h at room temperature. Slices were then incubated overnight at 4 °C in the same solution containing anti-choline acetyltransferase antibody (1:100, Millipore AB144P). The next morning, sections were washed three times for 5 min in 1 \times PBS then incubated for 1 h at room temperature in the blocking solution containing donkey anti-goat Alexa 647 or Alexa 488 (1:500, Molecular Probes). For macaque sections, streptavidin conjugated to Alexa 350 or Alexa 488 (1:1,000, Molecular Probes) was also included in the secondary reaction to visualize biotinylated dextran amine (BDA) signal. The same protocol was used for NeuN (1:100, Millipore MAB377) and Parvalbumin (1:1,000, Millipore MAB1572) immunostaining with anti-mouse Alexa 647 secondary antibodies (1:500, Molecular Probes). Immunostained mouse sections were mounted and imaged as described above. Immunostained macaque sections were mounted as described below.

Retrograde tracing in a rhesus macaque. A 10-year-old male rhesus macaque was prepared for surgery under aseptic conditions. Anaesthesia was initiated with ketamine (15 mg kg⁻¹) and valium (1 mg kg⁻¹) and the macaque was given an intravenous catheter and intubated. Isoflurane (1–2% in oxygen) was used to maintain anaesthesia. Bilateral circular craniotomies were made over the frontal cortex, exposing the principal and arcuate gyri. Tracer injections were targeted to cortical areas that receive projections from the 'Ch4id' and 'Ch4iv' cell groups⁴¹. Specifically, tracers were injected along the principal and arcuate gyri (corresponding to the area between Mesulam *et al.* cases 23, 26 and 6) as well as the ventral orbital frontal cortex (Mesulam case 19) using a micromanipulator to guide a 10 μ l Hamilton syringe. In the right hemisphere, Red 1X retrobeads (Lumafuor) were injected at 16 dorsal locations and 4 ventral locations. In the left hemisphere, BDA (10% in sterile saline) was injected at 12 dorsal locations and 2 ventral locations. At each site, 0.5 μ l of tracer was injected at two depths, 1 and 2 mm below the cortical surface. After injection, the skull fragments were replaced and the macaque was allowed to recover on a water-heated pad under constant observation. After a 21-day survival period, the macaque was killed with a barbiturate overdose (>50 mg kg⁻¹, to effect) and perfused through the heart with normal saline followed by 4% formaldehyde in 1 \times PBS, pH 7.4. The brain was removed from the skull and post-fixed for 24 h in the same fixative solution. Following cryoprotection for 3 days in 30% sucrose solution, the hemispheres were separated, blocked and cut in 40 μ m coronal sections using a freezing microtome. Throughout the extent of GP, coronal slices from both hemispheres were sampled at a rate of 1 out of 12 to check for retrograde labelling. To visualize BDA labelling in the left hemisphere, slices were rinsed in 1 \times PBS and immunostained (see Immunohistochemistry). Slices from the retrobead-injected right hemisphere were unenhanced. Slices were mounted on gelatin-covered slides using an acetone-xylene drying procedure then coverslipped with DPX mounting medium. Sampled sections from the right hemisphere showed non-specific fluorescent microsphere labelling throughout subcortical areas and thus were not considered further. Sampled sections from left hemisphere contained cells with retrograde labelling in the GP/nucleus basalis area consistent with Ch4iv and Ch4id groups. Flanking sections to those showing retrograde labelling were then double immunostained for ChAT and BDA (see Immunohistochemistry) and imaged as described above. All experimental manipulations were performed in accordance with protocols approved by the Harvard Standing Committee on Animal Care following guidelines described in the US National Institutes of Health Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals.

Slice preparation. Acute brain slices were obtained from mice using standard techniques. Mice were anaesthetized by isoflurane inhalation and perfused through the heart with ice-cold artificial cerebrospinal fluid (ACSF) containing 125 mM NaCl, 2.5 mM KCl, 25 mM NaHCO₃, 2 mM CaCl₂, 1 mM MgCl₂, 1.25 mM NaH₂PO₄ and 11 mM glucose (~308 mOsm per kg). Cerebral hemispheres were removed, placed in ice-cold choline-based cutting containing 110 mM choline chloride, 25 mM NaHCO₃, 2.5 mM KCl, 7 mM MgCl₂, 0.5 mM CaCl₂, 1.25 mM NaH₂PO₄, 25 mM glucose, 11.6 mM ascorbic acid, and 3.1 mM pyruvic acid, blocked and transferred

into a slicing chamber containing ice-cold choline-based cutting solution. Sagittal slices (350 μm thick) were cut with a Leica VT1000 s vibratome and transferred to a holding chamber containing ACSF at 34 °C for 30 min and then subsequently incubated at room temperature. Both cutting solution and ACSF were constantly bubbled with 95% O₂/5% CO₂. In a subset of experiments, acute brain slices were cut in ice-cold ACSF.

Acute slice electrophysiology and two-photon imaging. Individual slices were transferred to a recording chamber mounted on a custom-built two-photon laser scanning microscope (Olympus BX51WI) equipped for whole-cell patch-clamp recordings and optogenetic stimulation. Slices were continuously superfused (3.5–4.5 ml min⁻¹) with ACSF warmed to 32–34 °C through a feedback-controlled heater (TC-324B; Warner Instruments). Cells were visualized through a water-immersion 60 \times objective using differential interference contrast (DIC) illumination. Epifluorescence illumination was used to identify those cells labelled by fluorescent microspheres and/or expressing fluorescent genetic markers. Patch pipettes (2–4 M Ω) pulled from borosilicate glass (G150F-3, Warner Instruments) were filled either with a Cs⁺-based low Cl⁻ internal solution containing 135 mM CsMeSO₃, 10 mM HEPES, 1 mM EGTA, 3.3 mM QX-314 (Cl⁻ salt), 4 mM Mg-ATP, 0.3 mM Na-GTP, 8 mM Na₂-Phosphocreatine (pH 7.3 adjusted with CsOH; 295 mOsm per kg) for voltage-clamp recordings, or with a K⁺-based low Cl⁻ internal solution composed of 135 mM KMeSO₃, 3 mM KCl, 10 mM HEPES, 1 mM EGTA, 0.1 mM CaCl₂, 4 mM Mg-ATP, 0.3 mM Na-GTP, 8 mM Na₂-Phosphocreatine (pH 7.3 adjusted with KOH; 295 mOsm per kg) for current-clamp recordings. Alexa Fluor 594 (20 μM) was added to both internals. Series resistance (<25 M Ω) was measured with a 5 mV hyperpolarizing pulse in voltage clamp and left uncompensated. Membrane potentials were corrected for a \sim 7 mV liquid junction potential. After the recording was complete, cellular morphology was captured in a volume stack using 740 nm two-photon laser light (Coherent). All recorded GP-FC neurons were labelled with microspheres following injection in frontal cortex. In experiments where ChAT expression was not marked fluorescently, ChAT⁺ or ChAT⁻ GP-FC neurons were distinguished based on soma size and spontaneous firing rate in cell-attached mode. Cortical neurons were classified as pyramidal or interneurons based on dendritic morphology and *Gad1*^{Cre} expression. For analyses of intrinsic properties shown in Fig. 1f and Extended Data Fig. 5a–f, mice were age P18–22. For whole-cell spontaneous firing rates shown in Fig. 1g, all ages assayed (P13–56) were included. For all analyses of intrinsic properties, NBQX (10 μM), CPP (10 μM) and SR95531 (50 μM) were included in the bath. For pharmacological analyses of synaptic transmission in Fig. 3a, b mice were P66–127. For optogenetic activation experiments of ChAT⁻ cells, NBQX (10 μM) and CPP (10 μM) were included in the bath. For ChAT⁺ cells, the bath solution was drug-free. IPSCs evoked from ChAT⁻ cells ($V_{\text{hold}} = 0$ mV) were blocked by the voltage-gated sodium channel blocker tetrodotoxin (TTX, 1 μM), demonstrating action potential-dependent ChR2-mediated transmitter release. IPSCs could be rescued in the continued presence of TTX by enhancing ChR2-mediated depolarization of terminals with application of the voltage-gated K⁺ channel blocker 4-aminopyridine (4AP, 500 μM) and were subsequently abolished in the presence of the GABA_A receptor antagonist SR95531 (50 μM), indicating direct (monosynaptic) release of GABA by ChAT⁻ cells. For the ChAT⁺ cell type, evoked EPSCs ($V_{\text{hold}} = -70$ mV) were unaffected by application of CPP and NBQX, but abolished by nicotinic receptor antagonist cocktail of MEC (10 μM), MLA (0.1 μM) and DH β E (10 μM), indicative of ACh release and activation of ionotropic nicotinic receptors. IPSCs evoked from ChAT⁺ activation were blocked by SR95531, but not by CPP, NBQX, MEC, MLA or DH β E, indicating GABA_A receptor activation independent of glutamatergic and nicotinic signalling. ChAT⁺ IPSCs were blocked by TTX and rescued by 4AP, confirming direct release of GABA by ChAT⁺ cells. For the screen of cortical synaptic connectivity reported in Extended Data Fig. 8b, NBQX and CPP were included in the bath for both ChAT⁺ and ChAT⁻ GP-FC cell experiments. In a subset of these experiments, TTX and 4AP were also included. See Extended Data Fig. 8c, d for comparison. For FC layer 1 experiments involving optogenetic activation of all *ChAT*^{Cre}-expressing neurons reported in Extended Data Fig. 7k, l, mice were age P27–91 and NBQX and CPP were included in the bath. For optogenetic experiments involving iSPNs or dSPNs reported in Fig. 4b, c and Extended Data Fig. 10f–h, mice were age P30–37. NBQX, CPP, scopolamine (10 μM), CGP55845 (5 μM) & AM251 (10 μM) were included in the bath and quinpirole (8 μM) and sulpiride (10 μM) were used for flow-ins. For experiments involving optogenetic activation of striatum reported in Extended Data Fig. 10e, mice were age P43–45 and NBQX and CPP were included in the bath. For experiments involving electrical stimulation of the STN–GP axons reported in Extended Data Fig. 9d, e, mice were aged P38–42 and SR95531 was included in the bath.

Acute slice data acquisition and analysis. Membrane currents and potentials were recorded using an Axoclamp 700B amplifier (Molecular Devices) filtered at 3 kHz and digitized at 10 kHz using National Instruments acquisition boards and a custom version of ScanImage written in MATLAB (Mathworks). Electrophysiology

and imaging data were analysed offline using Igor Pro (Wavemetrics), ImageJ (NIH), MATLAB (Mathworks) and GraphPad Prism (GraphPad Software). In current, voltage-clamp traces represent the average waveform of 3–6 acquisitions; in figures, current-clamp traces are individual acquisitions. Passive membrane properties were calculated from current deflections in voltage clamp ($V_{\text{hold}} = -70$ mV). Cells were considered spontaneously active with maintained action potential firing (>20 s) within 2 min of whole-cell break-in. Average V_{rest} was calculated for non-spontaneously active cells 1–3 min after break in. Peak amplitudes were calculated by averaging over a 1 ms window around the peak. In Extended Data Fig. 9d, e, AMPAR and NMDAR currents were isolated from the stimulation artefact by subtracting the NBQX resistant component ($V_{\text{hold}} = -70$ mV) followed by the CPP/NBQX resistant component ($V_{\text{hold}} = +40$ mV) following a 3 min wash-in period from current averages consisting of 10–15 consecutive acquisitions (20 s inter-stimulus interval). For pharmacological analyses in Fig. 4c current averages were calculated from 15 consecutive acquisitions (20 s inter-stimulus interval) before and after a 3 min wash-in period and then normalized to averages corresponding to the same time with no drug flow in. For pharmacological analyses in Figs 3a, b, 3–7 consecutive acquisitions (20 s inter-stimulus interval) were averaged following a 3 min wash-in period for NBQX and CPP or a 4 min wash-in period for MEC, MLA and DH β E. For TTX and 4AP conditions, current averages were composed of the acquisitions following full block or first-recovery of ChR2-evoked currents, respectively. Current responses reported in Extended Data Fig. 8b were considered monosynaptic if present in TTX/4AP or <3.1 ms onset latency. Data (reported in text and figures as mean \pm s.e.m.) were compared statistically using the following Mann–Whitney test or Fisher's Exact test. *P* values smaller than 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

Optogenetic and electrical stimulation in acute slices. To activate ChR2 in acute slices, 473 nm laser light (Optoengine) was focused onto the back aperture of the 60 \times water-immersion objective to produce collimated whole-field illumination. Square pulses of laser light were delivered every 20 s and power was quantified for each stimulation by measuring light diverted to a focal plane calibrated photodiode through a low-pass dichroic filter. For ChR2 introduced with rAAVs, light (2 ms; 1.3–4.4 mW per mm²) was used across conditions except in some cases following bath application of TTX and 4AP where increasing the power or duration of light stimulation was necessary to recover currents (for example, changing the duration from 2 to 4 ms). For ChR2 activation of dSPN or iSPN inputs onto GP-FC cells (*Drd1a-Cre*; *Rosa26*^{lsl-ChR2-eYFP/+} or *Adora-Cre*; *Rosa26*^{lsl-ChR2-eYFP/+} mice), a consistent light stimulation (1 ms; 1.3 mW per mm²) was delivered directly over the recorded cell and the resulting currents were used to compare synaptic strength across cells. For pharmacological analysis reported in Fig. 4c and Extended Data Fig. 10h and paired-pulse comparisons reported in Extended Data Fig. 10f, g, the objective was moved 0.16–1.4 mm into dorsal striatum (median = 0.4 mm) and stimulation strength and duration (0.5–1 ms; 0.06–4.4 mW per mm²) were adjusted to produce first-peak currents between 26–547 pA (median = 226 pA). Stronger light powers (2–7 ms; 4.4 mW per mm²) were used activate ChR2 in *ChAT*^{Cre} cells (*ChAT*^{Cre}; *Rosa26*^{lsl-ChR2-eYFP/+} mice) in cortex (Extended Data Fig. 7k, l). For electrical activation of the STN axonal projection into GP, a bipolar tungsten electrode (TST33A10KT; World Precision Instruments) was placed at the anterior border of the STN and 0.1–0.5 ms square pulse of current was applied and power adjusted to maintain evoked currents while minimizing the stimulus artefact.

Reagents. Drugs (all from Tocris) were applied via bath perfusion: SR95531 (10 μM), TTX (1 μM), 4AP (500 μM), scopolamine (10 μM), (2S)-3-[[1S]-1-(3,4-Dichlorophenyl)ethyl]amino-2-hydroxypropyl]-(phenylmethyl)phosphonic acid (CGP55845; 5 μM), *N*-(Piperidin-1-yl)-5-(4-iodophenyl)-1-(2,4-dichlorophenyl)-4-methyl-1*H*-pyrazole-3-carboxamide (AM-251; 10 μM), 2,3-dihydroxy-6-nitro-7-sulfamoyl-benzo(*f*)quinoxaline (NBQX; 10 μM), *R,S*-3-(2-carboxypiperazin-4-yl)propyl-1-phosphonic acid (CPP; 10 μM), *N*,2,3,3-Tetramethylbicyclo[2.2.1]heptan-2-amine, (MEC; 10 μM), [1 α ,4(S),6 β ,14 α ,16 β]-20-Ethyl-1,6,14,16-tetramethoxy-4-[[[2-(3-methyl-2,5-dioxo-1-pyrrolidinyl)benzoyl]oxy]methyl]aconitane-7,8-diol (MLA; 0.1 μM), (2S,13bS)-2-Methoxy-2,3,5,6,8,9,10,13-octahydro-1*H*,12*H*-benzo[*j*]pyrano[3,4-*g*]indolizin-12-one (DH β E; 10 μM), (S)-(-)-5-Aminosulfonyl-*N*-[(1-ethyl-2-pyrrolidinyl)methyl]-2-methoxybenzamide ((-)-sulpiride; 10 μM) and (4*R*-trans)-4,4a,5,6,7,8,8a,9-Octahydro-5-propyl-1*H*-pyrazolo[3,4-*g*]quinolone ((-)-quinpirole; 8 μM). CPP and NBQX were combined to make a cocktail of antagonists to target ionotropic glutamate receptors, while MEC, MLA and DH β E were combined to make a cocktail to antagonize nicotinic receptors.

Biocytin labelling of STN axonal projections. Acute parasagittal slices (350 μm thick, 10° off-sagittal) were prepared from wild-type mice (P34) as described above. This cutting orientation preserves the reciprocal connections between the STN and GP¹². In circulating warm ACSF (32–34 °C), patch pipettes filled with biocytin (0.2%, Molecular Probes) containing internal solution containing 135 mM KMeSO₃, 5 mM KCl, 5 mM HEPES, 4 mM Mg-ATP, 0.3 mM Na₂-phosphocreatine (pH 7.4 adjusted using KOH; 295 mOsm per kg) were targeted to the STN under DIC illumination. A picospritzer (Picospritzer III; Parker Instrumentation) was used to puff the solution

into the centre of STN for 1 h (400 ms pulse at 1 Hz, 5–10 p.s.i.). The slice was allowed to recover for 0.5 h before being transferred to 4% PFA in 1× PBS overnight. The following morning, slices were rinsed in 1× PBS before avidin–biotinylated HRP complex (ABC) processing (Vectastain)⁴³. Slices were then wet-mounted onto glass slides, coverslipped and imaged under bright-field illumination using the 10× objective of an Olympus VS110 slide scanner microscope.

In vivo electrophysiology. At least one week after the initial injections, male mice were surgically implanted with a permanent titanium headpost. In this surgery the coordinates for GP, FC and M1 were marked on the surface of the skull based on stereotaxic coordinates. The headpost was secured and the animal's skull was covered with C&B metabond (Parkell Inc.). Animals were subsequently housed alone and allowed to recover for one week before habituation to restraint. Mice were water restricted (to a target of 85% of their free feeding weight) and habituated to restraint in a custom-made lever-press training rig. This rig allows the animal to press a lever in response to an auditory cue. Animals were trained for increasing durations for at least 3 days until they were able to tolerate head restraint for 90 min without struggling. In this time animals achieved an intermediate level of performance on the task, where they knew the association between lever press and reward, but were not proficient at recognizing and responding to tones. One day before the first recording day animals were anaesthetized with isoflurane and received a craniotomy over the region of interest. In this surgery, if necessary, a chronic fibre (62.5 µm core multimode fibre (<http://www.ecablemart.com>) attached to a ceramic LC ferrule (Pfp Inc.) was implanted at the same coordinates as the GP viral injection, but at a depth of 2.8 mm. All chronic fibres were pre-screened to have >80% transmission at 473 nm light. A ceramic ferrule connector linked the chronic fibre to a standard LC cable. Light shuttering and output control was through an acousto-optic modulator (AA systems) and had a >1,000:1 occlusion ratio. Recordings were made using 16- or 32-channel silicone probes with 177 µm² recording sites (Neuronexus Technologies) spaced 50 µm apart and lowered to a depth of ~1,000 µm below the surface of the brain. Optrode recordings were made with a 16-channel probe of the same configuration fitted with an optical fibre 100 µm above the top recording site (Neuronexus Technologies, OA series). Stimulation intensity for blue-light fibre stimulation was 5 mW from fibre tip (~400 mW per mm²), optrode stimulation was 10 mW from fibre tip (~800 mW per mm²) and yellow-light fibre stimulation was 3 mW from fibre tip (~250 mW per mm²). All *in vivo* electrophysiology was acquired using the omniplex system (Plexon Inc.) and filtered at 300–8 KHz. Spike detection was done by level crossing, generally at 50 µV and clustering to remove the noise cluster using an offline sorter (Plexon Inc.). Units that were separable were counted separately, but many units were accepted as multi-unit. All analysis here assumes each unit as a possible multi-unit and is only separated when necessary. Units with firing rate <0.1 Hz in the baseline period were excluded for analysis. All analysis was performed using custom scripts in Igor Pro. Data visualization and statistical analysis was done using Igor Pro and GraphPad Prism. Index of Modulation (I_{light}) was calculated as the difference in firing rate with the light on, minus the firing rate of the light off divided by the sum of those firing rates, it varies from -1 to 1 where a 0 indicates no change and 1 indicates all activity was detected with the light on. Latency analysis was carried out similar to other groups⁴⁴, firing rate for each unit was binned in 50-ms periods aligned to the onset of optogenetic stimulation. The mean and standard deviation of the firing rate was determined for a baseline period one second long ending with the light onset. The first bin after light onset to deviate more than ± 2 s.d. from the baseline mean was reported as the bin of first change. Units where no change was detected within the first 500 ms were ignored. By this metric units can have both an increasing and decreasing first bin irrespective of the net change in firing rate. The *z* score of millisecond-timescale firing-rate changes was calculated by obtaining a mean and standard deviation of firing in 20 × 5 ms bins from a baseline period 3 s before each 5 ms blue pulse. This baseline period had the same number of pulses as the actual stimulation trial (4,500–6,000 pulses) but was shifted to a period of no illumination. The actual firing rate was *z* scored (mean subtracted and divided by the s.d.) by this baseline mean and s.d., to find significant deviations. *z* scores from each unit were averaged to create a population value (Fig. 2c and Extended Data Fig. 6g). All mCherry control experiments were performed in *ChAT⁺Cre* mice following transduction of rAAV DIO-mCherry in the GP. All ArchT experiments were performed in *Vgat⁺Cre* or *ChAT⁺Cre* mice following transduction of rAAV DIO-ArchT-tdTomato into the GP.

Three-dimensional brain reconstruction and analysis. Following fixation, brains were frozen and sectioned at 50 µm. GFP and tdTomato were immuno-enhanced in free-floating sections using mouse-anti GFP (1:1,000, abCam ab1218) and rabbit-anti RFP (1:2,000, Rockland Antibodies 600-401-379) followed by anti-mouse Alexa 488 (1:200, Jackson ImmunoResearch 115-545-062) and anti-rabbit Cy3 (1:2,000; Jackson ImmunoResearch 111-165-144) secondary antibodies. Sections were mounted on slides and counterstained with Neurotrace Blue (Invitrogen) and imaged on a Zeiss microscope with a Ludl motorized stage controlled with NeuroLucida software

(Microbrightfield). Imaging was performed with a 10× objective and a Hamamatsu Orca Flash 4 camera. Each coronal section containing between 80–200 tiles merged with NeuroLucida software. Coronal sections were aligned and Nissl labelling normalized using NeuroLucida, Adobe Photoshop and ImageJ software. Aligned sections were rendered in three dimensions and cortical areas defined using Imap software (Bitplane). Custom algorithms were written in MATLAB (Mathworks) to detect and quantify axons by cortical area. In brief, 2D multiscale hessian filtering⁴⁵ was followed by non-maximum suppression and then by hysteresis thresholding⁴⁶. Hysteresis thresholds were applied to both the response (largest eigenvalue of hessian) and anisotropy (difference of eigenvalues after normalizing by Gaussian filter response). For anterior–posterior analysis of axon densities (Fig. 1c), raw data was five-point median filtered and peak normalized. For average fluorescence measurements across layers (Fig. 1d), the fluorescence signal from each channel was normalized to peak and baseline subtracted by the white matter signal.

Array tomography. Mice were deeply anaesthetized with isoflurane and transcardially perfused with 4% PFA, 2% sucrose in 0.1 M sodium phosphate buffer (1× PBS). Brains were post-fixed for one day, washed in 1× PBS and sectioned into 300-µm sagittal slabs using a Vibratome (Leica). Frontal cortex was then cut out using a razor blade and dehydrated through a series of alcohol dilutions before being infiltrated with LR White acrylic resin (Sigma Aldrich L9774-500G) overnight. Tissue was then placed in a LR White-filled gel cap that was polymerized at 50 °C overnight. Blocks of tissue were cut on an ultramicrotome (Leica EM UC7) into ribbons of 70-nm thin sections. Sections were then manually lifted onto gelatin-coated slides, air dried and then heated on a hot plate (~80 °C) for 10 min. Slides were marked by PAP pen liquid blocker. Ribbons were treated with 50 mM glycine in 1× TBS for 5 min, followed by 5 min in blocking buffer (5% BSA, 0.05% Tween 20 in TBS) before primary antibody staining. Staining was performed in blocking buffer overnight at 4 °C. After primary antibody staining, the slides were washed three times with TBS, followed by blocking buffer for 5 min. Secondary antibody staining was performed in blocking buffer for 30 min at room temperature. All secondary antibodies were used at a dilution of 1:150. Slides were washed with TBS and then rinsed with ultra-pure H₂O for 20 s. SlowFade Gold antifade reagent with DAPI (Molecular Probes S36939) was added to each slide before coverslipping. After imaging, the coverslip was removed and the slide was treated with elution buffer (0.2 M NaOH, 0.1% SDS in dH₂O) for 20 min at room temperature. The slide was washed with TBS three times and rinsed with ultra-pure H₂O for 20 s. After rinsing, each slide was allowed to air dry, then put on a hot plate for 10 min before staining. Subsequent stains followed the same protocol. The dilutions and staining order are as follows: Stain 1: chxαGFP 1:100(GTX13970, GeneTex); musαGephyrin 1:100(612632, Biosciences Pharmingen); rabαGAD 65-67 1:1,000 (ab11070, Abcam); Stain 2: rabαPSD95 1:100(3450, Cell Signaling Tech.); Stain 3: musαBassoon 1:100 (ab82958, Abcam); rabαSynapsin 1 1:100 (5297S, Cell Signaling Tech.); Stain 4: rabα Parvalbumin 1:100(PV-25, Swant); Stain 5: musαV AChT 1:100(139 103, Synaptic Systems); rabαVGAT 1:100(131 011, Synaptic Systems).

Imaging was performed using a Zeiss Axio Imager Z1 Upright Fluorescence Microscope. A position list was generated at 20× in cortex to identify the regions of interest on each section. Four images were then acquired with Zeiss Plan-Apochromat 63×/1.4 oil DIC objective and stitched into a single final image (Mosaix, Axiovision). Individual stacks were aligned in FIJI using the MultiStackReg plugin, initially using the DAPI channel and then a second alignment to the stack from the first imaging session. Fine alignments were then performed using the synapsin I stack and the Register Virtual Stack Slices plugin of FIJI to correct for warping. Background fluorescence was then subtracted from the aligned stacks using a 10 pixel rolling ball filter and contrast was adjusted to 0.1% through the FIJI software. Image analyses were carried out with custom-written scripts in MATLAB (Mathworks). GFP⁺ volumes and diffraction-limited synaptic markers were computationally detected from image stacks. GFP⁺ ‘pearls’, which correspond to putative presynaptic terminals (PSTs), were identified as varicosities belonging to a ‘string’ with multi-plane-spanning volumes. All synaptic markers were treated as single pixel point sources within a given *z* plane. Images were segmented to exclude DAPI⁺ nuclei and areas containing no tissue. Co-localization analyses of GFP⁺ pearls and synaptic markers were performed by quantifying the mean voxel densities within GFP⁺ pearls (0 distance) and from 102–512 nm outside pearl volumes. Mean voxel densities for real data were compared to those mean densities (Extended Data Fig. 8i) following randomization of diffraction-limited immunopuncta (1,000 rounds). *z* scores (as in Fig. 3e; Extended Data Fig. 8k) were calculated from 0 distance mean densities following 10 rounds of GFP⁺ pearl randomization:

$$z \text{ score} = \frac{(\text{mean}_{\text{real}} - \text{mean}_{\text{random}})}{\sqrt{\left(\frac{\sigma_{\text{real}}^2}{n_{\text{real}}} + \frac{\sigma_{\text{random}}^2}{n_{\text{random}}}\right)}}$$

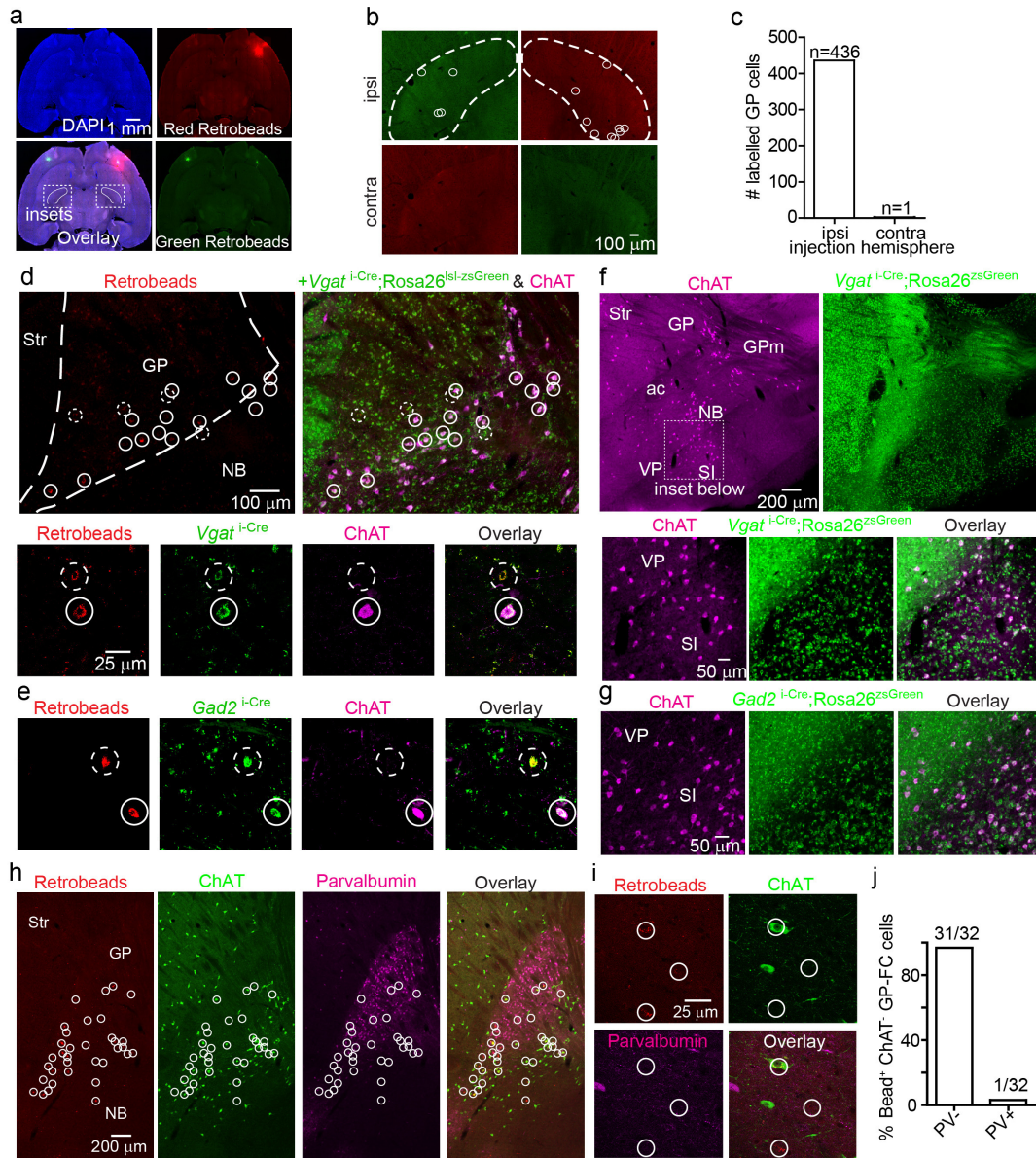
In total, the array tomography data set consisted of *n* = 8 stacks from *n* = 2 mice, with *n* = 4 stacks in layers 1–3 and *n* = 4 stacks in layer 5. Each stack consisted of

26–31 × 70 nm slices, with a total volume of $7.6 \times 10^5 \mu\text{m}^3$. Note that the plot in Fig. 3f, which reports the distances between VGAT–VACHT punctae within the same GFP⁺ pearl, excludes $n = 8$ singleton values between 1.2–1.6 μm .

Code availability. Code for axon detection and array tomography co-localization analysis is available upon request.

Statistical methods. No statistical methods were used to predetermine sample size.

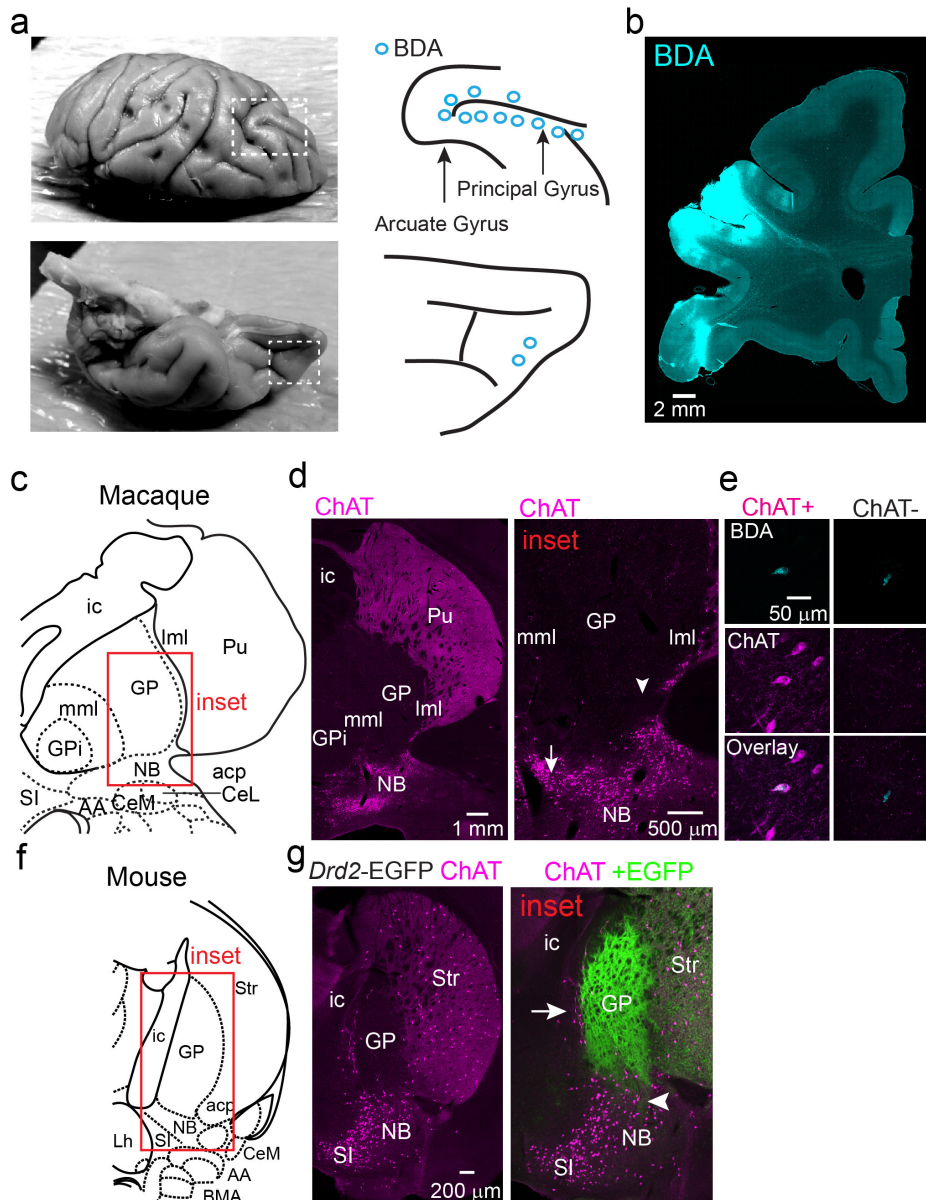
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Extended Data Figure 1 | Anatomical and molecular properties of GP-FC cells and ChAT⁺ cells of the substantia innominata and ventral pallidum.

a–c, GP-FC cells project exclusively to ipsilateral cortex. **a**, Low-magnification horizontal section from a wild-type mouse injected bilaterally in FC with red (right hemisphere) and green (left hemisphere) retrobeads. DAPI (blue), nuclear stain. Boxed insets show location of GP in **b**. Green signal in the right hemisphere is due to bleed through from the red channel. **b**, High-magnification of left and right GP from the same brain as in **a**. Retrobead⁺ cells from ipsilateral (ipsi) and contralateral (contra) injections are highlighted with white circles. Dashed lines demarcate the approximate boundaries of the GP. **c**, Summary graph showing nearly all retrobead⁺ cells ($n = 436$ of 437, from four mice) resulted from injections in ipsilateral FC. **d**, **e**, FC retrobead labelling in *Vgat*^{i-Cre};*Rosa26*^{Isl-zsGreen} or *Gad2*^{i-Cre};*Rosa26*^{Isl-zsGreen} mice followed by ChAT immunostaining (magenta) demonstrates that nearly all retrobead⁺ GP cells (red) are *Vgat*^{i-Cre}-positive or *Gad2*^{i-Cre}-positive (green) while a subset of retrobead⁺ neurons are also ChAT⁺ (solid circles) and the remainder are ChAT⁻ (dashed circles). Nearly all retrobead⁺ GP cells were *Vgat*⁺ ($n = 159$ of 159 cells, from three mice) or *Gad2*⁺ ($n = 231$ of 233 cells, from two mice), whereas 72% were ChAT⁺ ($n = 215$ of 300 cells, from five mice) and 28% ChAT⁻ ($n = 85$ of 300 cells). NB, nucleus basalis. **d**, Top,

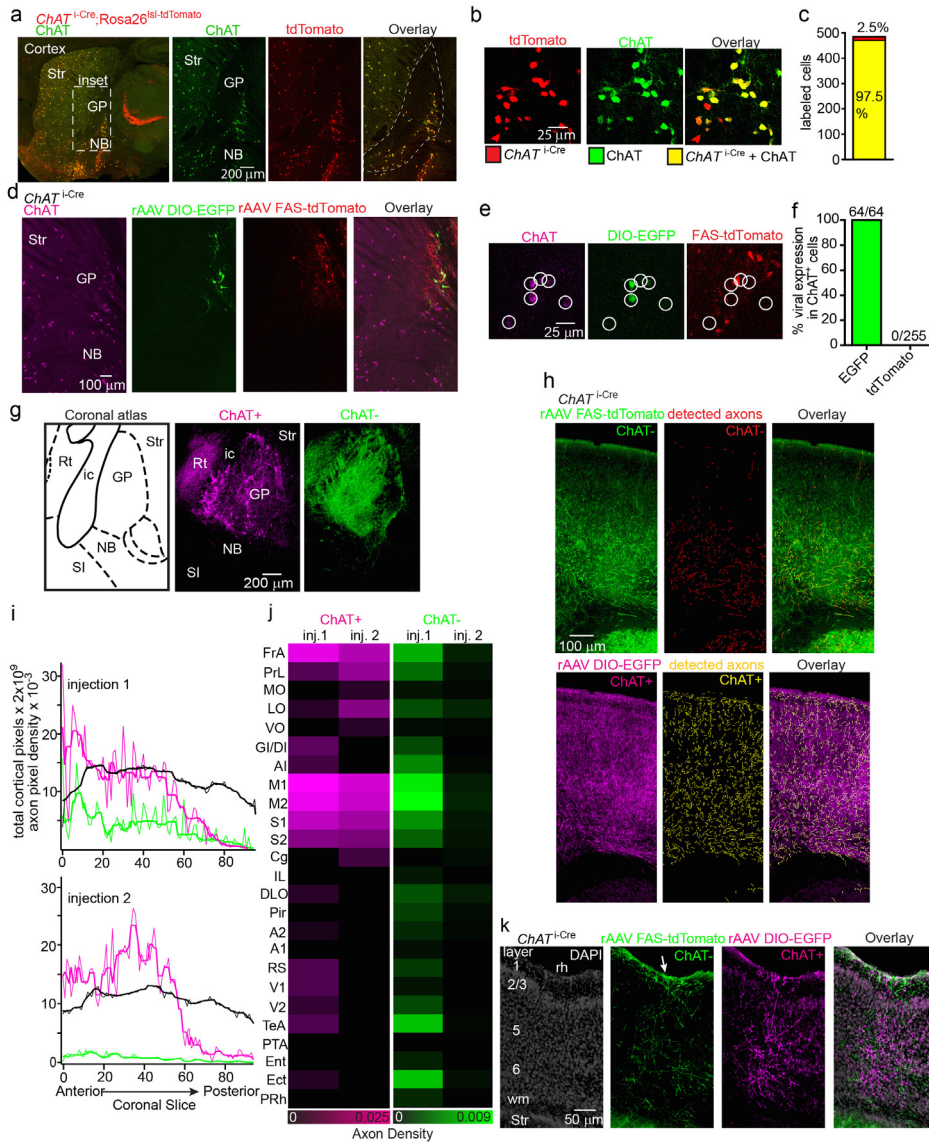
low-magnification sagittal view of the GP. Bottom, a single confocal plane from stacks used to quantify marker co-localization in *Vgat*^{i-Cre};*Rosa26*^{Isl-zsGreen} mice. **e**, A single confocal plane from stacks used to quantify marker co-localization in *Gad2*^{i-Cre};*Rosa26*^{Isl-zsGreen} mice. **f**, **g**, ChAT⁺ neurons of the substantia innominata (SI) and ventral pallidum (VP) also express *Vgat* and *Gad2*. GPm, medial globus pallidus (entopeduncular nucleus). **f**, Top, low-magnification ventral view of a sagittal section from a *Vgat*^{i-Cre};*Rosa26*^{Isl-zsGreen} mouse immunostained for ChAT. Bottom, high-magnification view of the substantia innominata and bordering ventral pallidum. **g**, High-magnification view of the substantia innominata/ventral pallidum in a *Gad2*^{i-Cre};*Rosa26*^{Isl-zsGreen} mouse immunostained for ChAT. **h**–**j**, ChAT⁻ GP-FC cells do not express parvalbumin (PV). **h**, Low-magnification view of sagittal section through the GP of a wild-type mouse injected with retrobeads (red) in FC and immunostained for ChAT (green) and parvalbumin (magenta). White circles highlight retrobead⁺ GP-FC cells. **i**, A single confocal plane showing retrobead⁺ GP-FC cells (circled in white) and immunostaining for ChAT and parvalbumin. **j**, Confocal quantification of co-localization between retrobead⁺ ChAT⁻ GP-FC cells and parvalbumin ($n = 32$ cells, from two mice).



Extended Data Figure 2 | ChAT⁺ and ChAT⁻ GP-FC cells are present in a rhesus macaque.

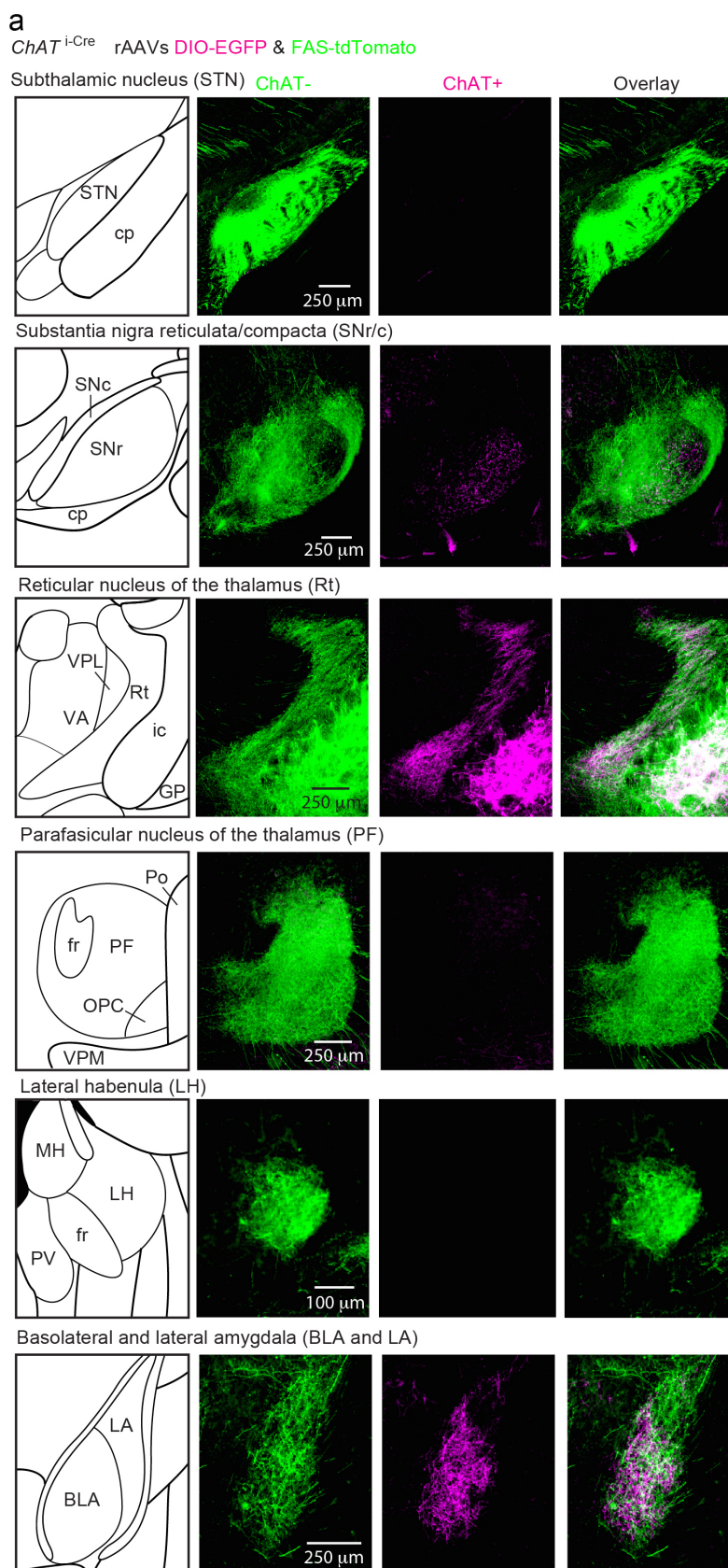
a, In order to label frontal cortical projection neurons from Ch4iv and Ch4id regions of the nucleus basalis adjacent to the GP of a rhesus macaque⁴¹, the neuronal tracer biotinylated dextran amine (BDA) was injected at multiple sites along the arcuate and principal gyri and in the orbital cortex. Left, dorsal (top) and ventral (bottom) views of a fixed macaque brain. Dashed boxes indicate the injected areas. Right, schematic of the injection sites. Blue circles correspond to $2 \times 0.5 \mu\text{l}$ BDA injections at 1 and 2 mm below the pial surface. **b**, Coronal section through the injection area after immunostaining to visualize BDA. **c–e**, Immunostaining for BDA and ChAT identifies retrogradely labelled ChAT⁺ and ChAT⁻ GP-FC cells. **c**, Coronal section from macaque atlas containing GP and nucleus basal. **d**, Left, ChAT immunostaining highlights traditional anatomical boundaries of the GP–putamen and GP–nucleus basal. Same plane as in **c**. Right, higher magnification view of GP–nucleus basal border corresponding to the inset in **c**. ChAT⁺ neurons are distributed around the ventral GP/dorsal nucleus basal and along laminae separating the GP from the putamen (lateral medullary laminae, lml) and globus pallidus internus (medial medullary laminae, mml).

Arrow and arrowhead indicate approximate locations of BDA⁺ChAT⁺ (680 μm anterior) and BDA⁺ChAT⁻ (360 μm anterior) example GP-FC cells shown in **e**. **e**, Single confocal planes showing example BDA⁺ChAT⁺ and BDA⁺ChAT⁻ GP-FC cells. **f**, **g**, ChAT immunostaining in a *Drd2-eGFP* mouse distinguishes traditional anatomical boundaries of the GP–nucleus basal from the territory occupied by iSPN axons. **f**, Coronal section from the mouse atlas. **g**, Left, ChAT immunostaining highlights traditional anatomical boundaries of the GP–striatum and GP–nucleus basal. Same plane as in **f**. Right, higher magnification view of GP–nucleus basal border region corresponding to the inset in **f**. As in macaque, ChAT⁺ cells are distributed along GP borders between striatum and the internal capsule (ic) and at the border of ventral GP–dorsal nucleus basal. Overlay of GFP fluorescence demonstrates iSPN axons arborize throughout the GP, abutting ChAT⁺ cells on the GP border regions (arrow), and ventrally in the dorsal nucleus basal (arrowhead). AA, anterior amygdaloid area; ac, anterior commissure posterior; CeL, central lateral division of amygdala; CeM, central medial division of amygdala; GP, globus pallidus externus; GPI, globus pallidus internus; Lh, lateral hypothalamus; Pu, putamen; SI, substantia innominata; Str, striatum.



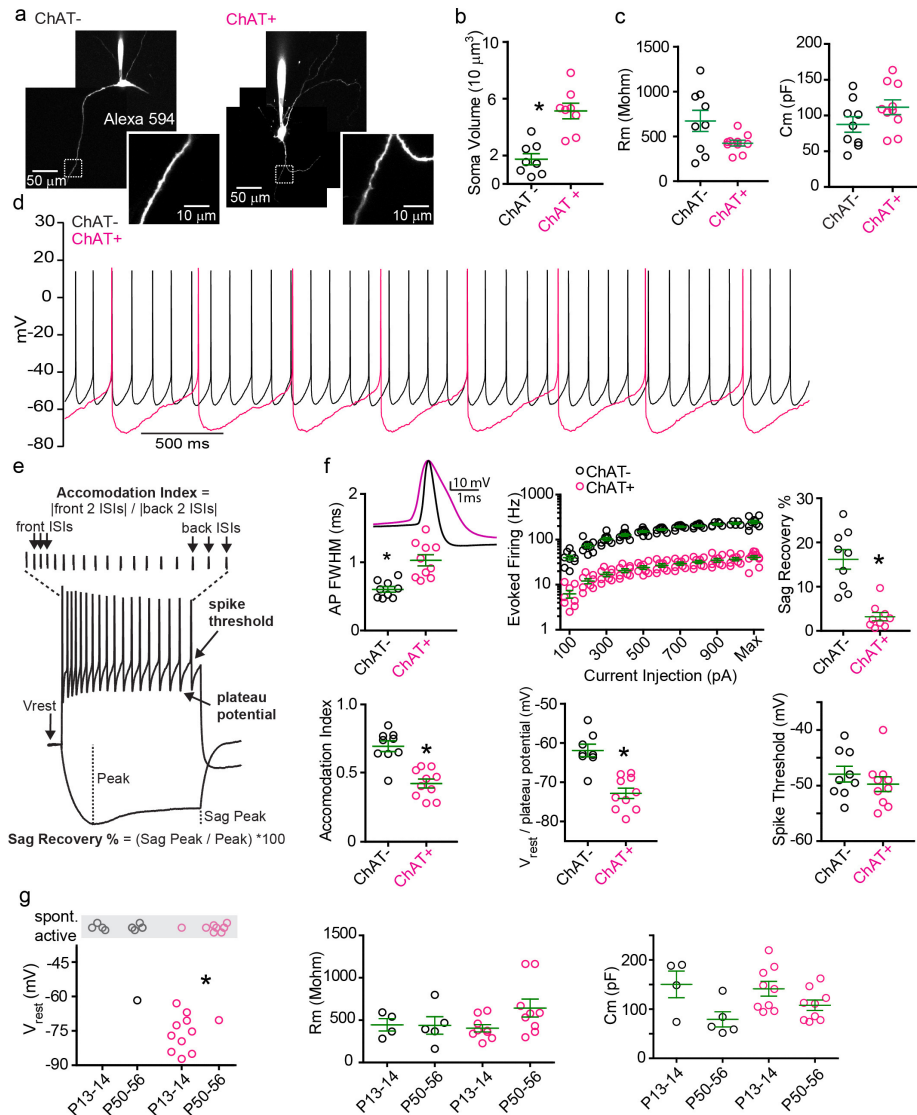
Extended Data Figure 3 | Validation of *ChAT⁺Cre* knock-in mouse and rAAV strategy for Cre-On/Off labelling of GP-FC axons in cortex. **a–c**, The *ChAT⁺Cre* mouse expresses Cre selectively in GP/nucleus basalis neurons with high penetrance. **a**, Left, low-magnification view of sagittal section through *ChAT⁺Cre; Rosa26^{Isl-tdTomato}* mouse immunostained for ChAT. Right, inset showing higher magnification view of the GP and nucleus basalis. Dashed line approximates the boundaries for quantifying Cre-reporter and ChAT co-localization. **b**, Single confocal plane showing overlap of Cre-reporter expression and ChAT immunostaining of ChAT⁺ cells at the GP–nucleus basalis border. **c**, Quantification of confocal co-localization between the Cre-reporter⁺ and ChAT⁺ cells ($n = 471$ of 484 tdTomato⁺ ChAT⁺, $n = 12$ of 484 tdTomato⁺ only, $n = 1$ of 484 ChAT⁺ only, from three mice). **d–f**, Transduction of the GP in a *ChAT⁺Cre* mouse with DIO-eGFP (Cre-On) and FAS-tdTomato (Cre-Off) rAAVs effectively targets GFP and tdTomato to ChAT⁺ and ChAT⁻ cells respectively. **d**, Sagittal section through the GP following transduction of the DIO-eGFP (green) and FAS-tdTomato (red) rAAVs and immunostaining for ChAT (magenta). **e**, Single confocal plane showing ChAT⁺ cells (circled in white) co-localized with GFP but not tdTomato. **f**, Quantification of confocal co-localization between ChAT, GFP and tdTomato ($n = 319$ ChAT⁺ cells, from two mice). **g**, Left, coronal atlas. Right, injection site for injection 1 (Fig. 1b–d), showing ChAT⁺ (Cre-On) expression limited to GP and the immediately adjacent nucleus basalis. ChAT⁻ (Cre-Off) expression is limited to GP with slight leak in striatum. ChAT⁺ and

ChAT⁻ axons arborize in the thalamic reticular nucleus (Rt), SI, substantia innominata; NB, nucleus basalis; ic, internal capsule. **h**, Coronal section of anterior M1 illustrating automated axon detection of ChAT⁻ and ChAT⁺ axons. **i**, Densities of detected ChAT⁻ (green) and ChAT⁺ (magenta) axons along with total cortical area (black) in successive 50- μ m coronal slices (anterior–posterior) across the cortical mantle ($n = 2$ mice). Densities and area are shown raw (thin line) and after five point median filtering (thick line). Median-filtered data are reported in Fig. 1c. **j**, Average density of ChAT⁺ and ChAT⁻ GP-FC axons by cortical area. FrA, frontal association; PrL, prelimbic; MO, medial orbital; LO, lateral orbital; VO, ventral orbital; GI/DI, granular/dysgranular insular; AI, agranular insular; M1, primary motor; M2, secondary motor; S1, primary sensory; S2, secondary sensory; Cg, cingulate; IL, infralimbic; DLO, dorsolateral orbital; Pir, piriform; A2, secondary auditory; A1, primary auditory; RS retrosplenial; V1, primary visual; V2, secondary visual; TeA, temporal association; PTA, parietal; Ent, entorhinal; Ect, ectorhinal; PRh, perirhinal. **k**, Coronal section illustrating the distribution of GP-FC axons across layers of ectorhinal cortex, a posterior cortical area that receives a large GP-FC projection. ChAT⁻ axons target superficial layers 1 and 2/3 (arrow), in addition to deeper layers 5 and 6, as in anterior cortices including M1. The ChAT⁺ axons arborize across all cortical layers in both ectorhinal and anterior cortical areas. rh, rhinal fissure; Str, striatum; wm, white matter.



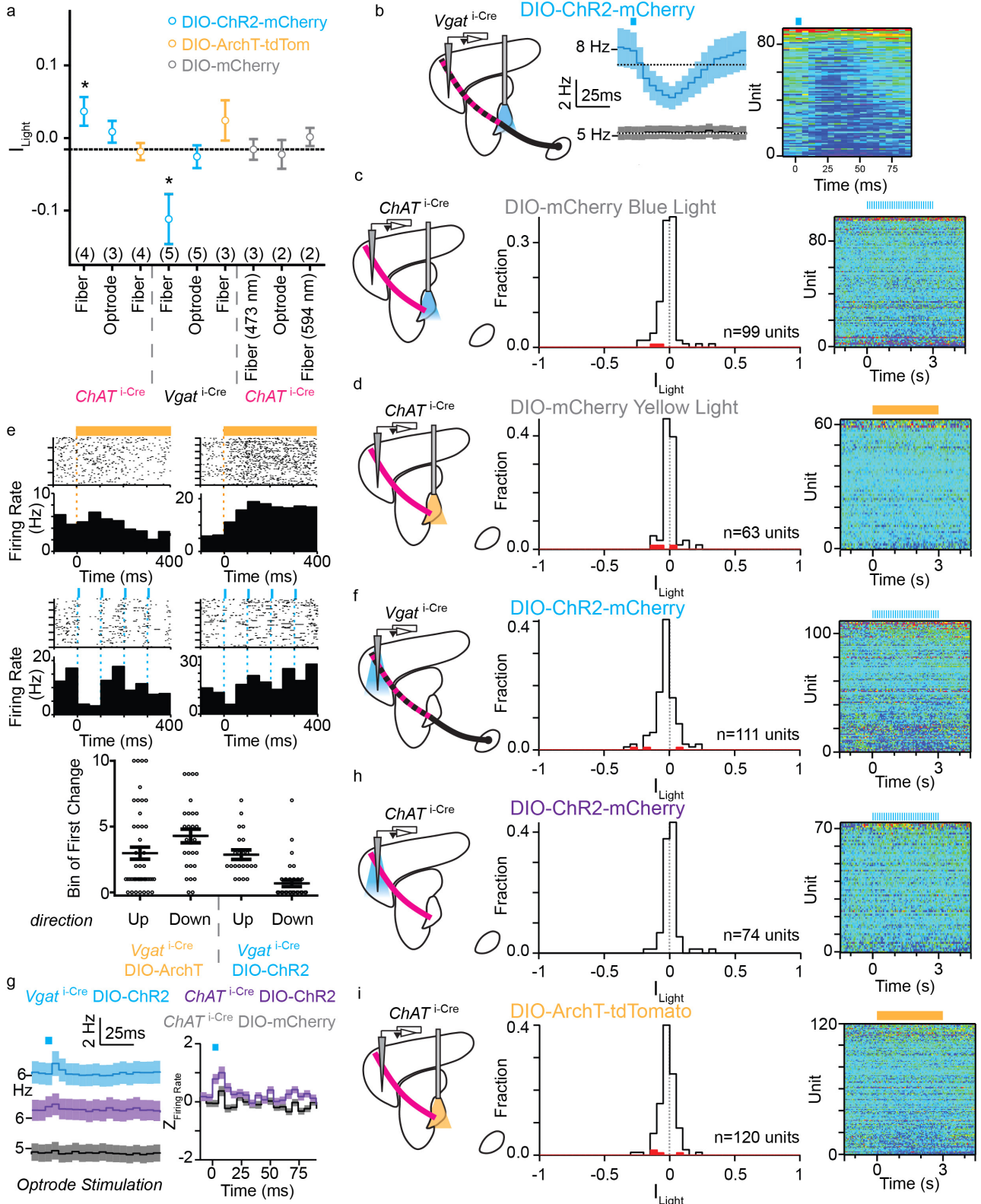
Extended Data Figure 4 | ChAT⁺ and ChAT⁻ GP-FC cells target distinct but overlapping subcortical nuclei. **a**, Coronal sections from 3D brain reconstructions illustrating subcortical nuclei targeted by ChAT⁺ and ChAT⁻ axons following transduction of *ChAT*^{i-Cre} GP/dorsal nucleus basalis with

rAAVs DIO-eGFP (magenta, Cre-On) and FAS-tdTomato (green, Cre-Off) ($n = 2$ mice, examples from injection 1). Left, coronal atlas. Right, high-magnification views of subcortical nuclei.



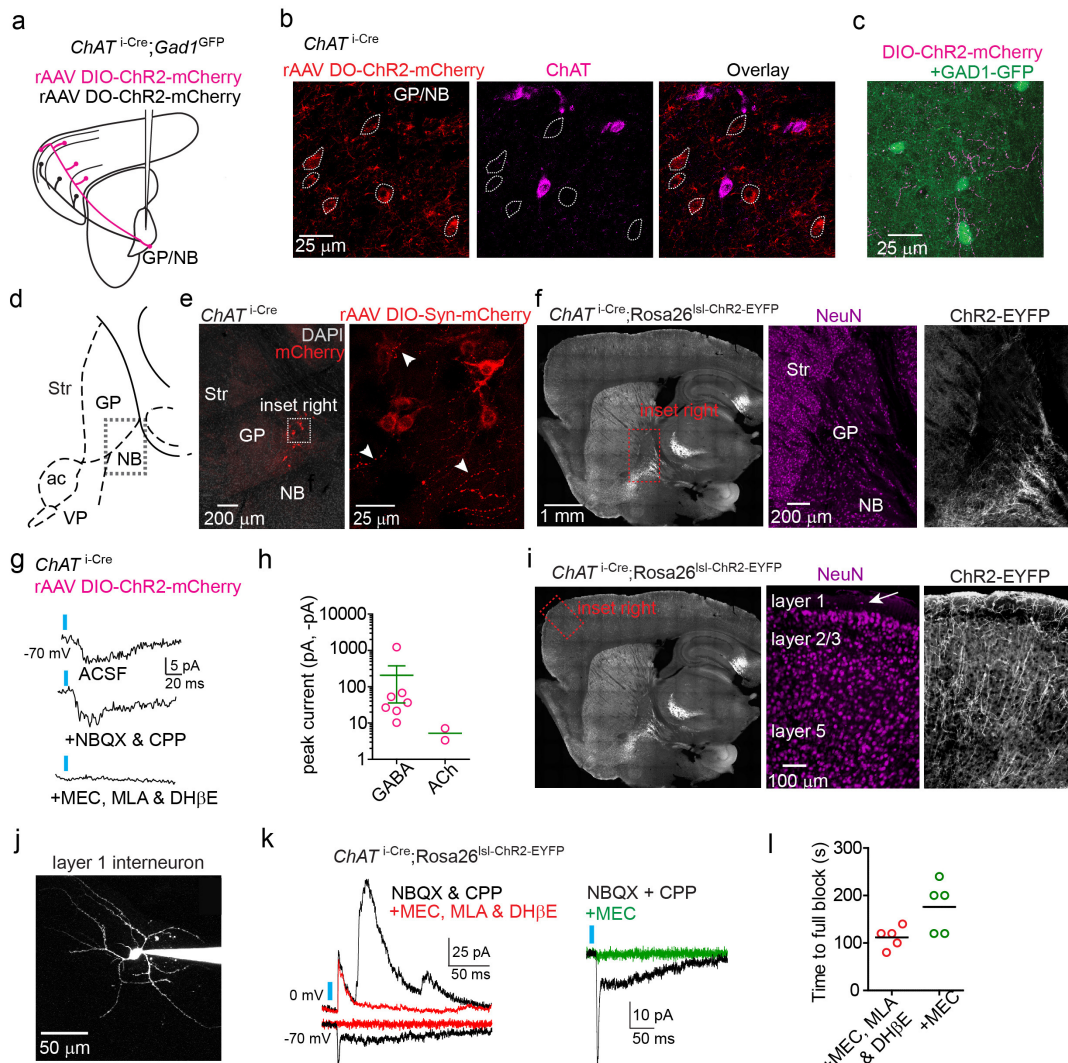
Extended Data Figure 5 | GP-FC cells are distinguished by active and passive membrane properties. **a**, Maximum intensity two-photon projections of example ChAT⁻ (left) and ChAT⁺ (right) GP-FC cells following whole-cell recording. Dashed insets show high-magnification projections through dendrites. **b**, ChAT⁺ cells have larger soma than ChAT⁻ cells. Soma volumes were quantified from two-photon stacks (from four P18–22 mice; $n = 8$ ChAT⁺ cells, $n = 8$ ChAT⁻ cells). **c**, Passive membrane properties of GP-FC cells ($n = 9$ ChAT⁻, $n = 10$ ChAT⁺, from four P18–22 mice). **d**, Representative waveforms of spontaneously active ChAT⁻ and ChAT⁺ GP-FC cells. **e**, Schematic of quantified membrane properties following positive and negative current injections. ISI, interspike interval. **f**, Active membrane properties of GP-FC cells ($n = 8$ –9 ChAT⁻, $n = 10$ ChAT⁺). Representative

action potential waveforms from a spontaneously active ChAT⁻ cell or from minimal current injection in a ChAT⁺ cell. Evoked firing rates were calculated for 500-ms current injections. $*P < 0.05$ (Mann-Whitney test). **g**, Developmental comparison of GP-FC membrane properties before (P13–14, $n = 2$ mice) and around (P50–56, $n = 3$ mice) sexual maturity. Left, ChAT⁻ GP-FC cells are spontaneously active throughout postnatal development (P13–14, $n = 4$ of 4; P50–56, $n = 4$ of 5), while ChAT⁺ cells tend to become spontaneously active after sexual maturity (P13–14, $n = 1$ of 11; P50–56, $n = 7$ of 8). GP-FC membrane resistance (middle) does not change before and after sexual maturity but membrane capacitance (right) is reduced (ChAT⁻: P13–14, $n = 4$; P50–56, $n = 5$; ChAT⁺: P13–14, $n = 9$; P50–56, $n = 9$). $*P < 0.05$ (Fisher's exact test); error bars denote mean \pm s.e.m.



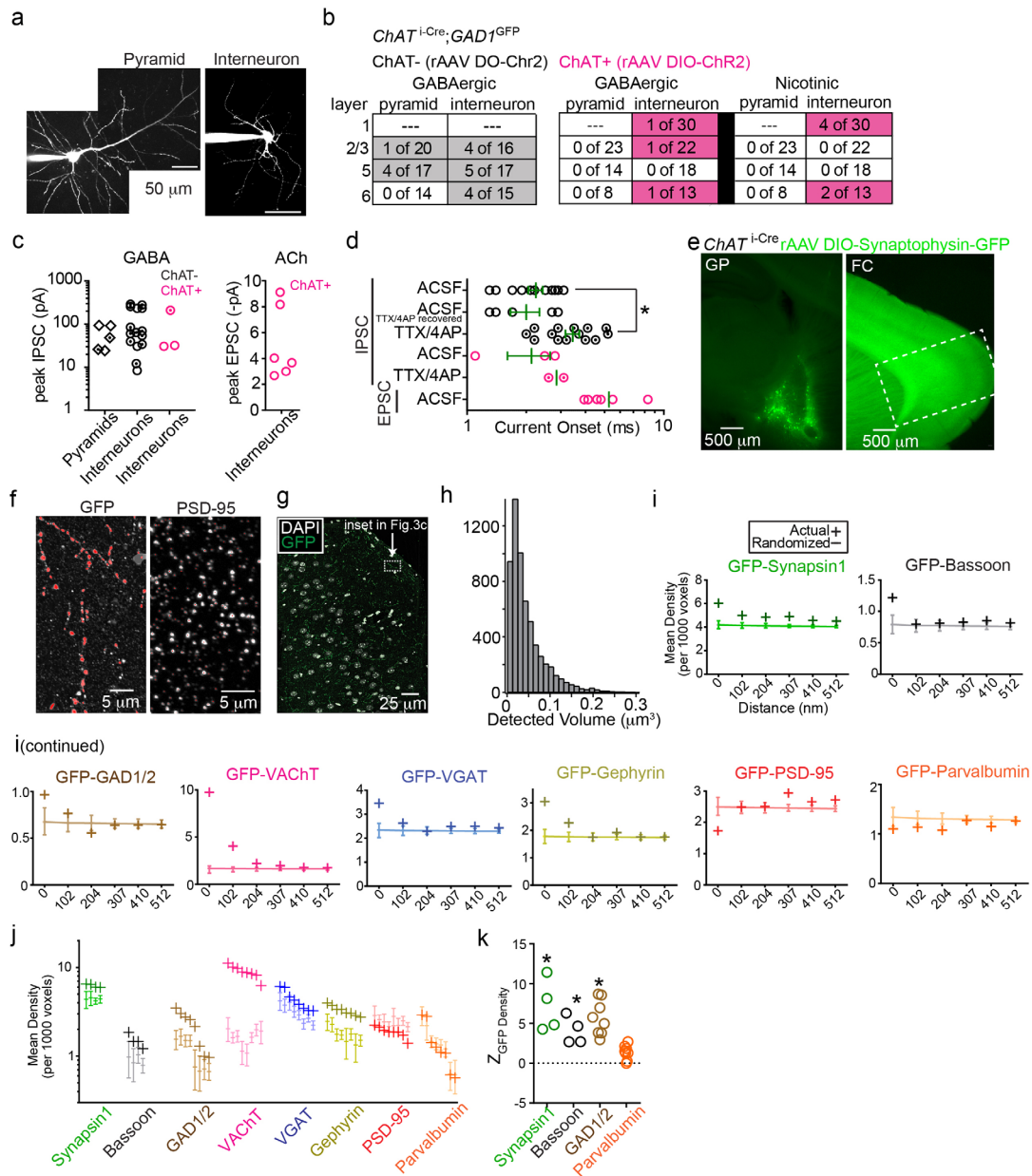
Extended Data Figure 6 | Optogenetic manipulations of GP–FC cells coupled with *in vivo* extracellular FC recordings in an awake behaving mouse. **a**, Summary plot of mean (and 95% confidence interval) indices for light modulation (I_{light}) of FC unit firing rate by experimental condition. Dashed line denotes average of blue light fibre mCherry⁺ control. The number of mice for each condition are shown in parentheses. * $P < 0.0001$, Kruskal–Wallis test. **b**, Pulsed ChR2 depolarization of *Vgat*^{Cre} GP somata increases firing rates in FC on a millisecond timescale. Left, experimental schematic. Extracellular recordings in FC are coupled with fibre-delivered pulses of blue light (5-ms pulses of 473 nm, 10 Hz for 3 s) in GP. Middle, mean firing rate (\pm s.e.m.) of all FC units in response to pulsed blue light in ChR2⁺ (blue) or control (black) mice (ChR2⁺, $n = 90$ units from five mice; mCherry⁺, $n = 99$ units from three mice). Dotted line represents mean pre-stimulation firing rate. Right, pseudo-coloured plot of normalized firing rate for all units. **c**, Fibre-delivered pulsed blue light illumination of mCherry⁺ GP somata in *ChAT*^{Cre} mice shows no light-induced changes in the firing rates of FC units above chance (increased, 0 of 99; decreased, 2 of 99; from three mice). Right, pseudo-coloured plot of normalized firing rate for all units. **d**, Fibre-delivered constant yellow light illumination of mCherry⁺ GP somata in *ChAT*^{Cre} mice shows no light-induced changes in the firing rates of FC units above chance (increased, 1 of 63; decreased, 2 of 63; from two mice;). Right, pseudo-coloured plot of normalized firing rate for all units. **e**, Latencies of light-induced modulation of FC firing following fibre-based illumination of ChR2⁺ (pulsed blue light) or ArchT⁺ (constant yellow light) GP somata in *Vgat*^{Cre} mice. Top, spike raster plots (upper) and firing rate histograms (lower, 50-ms bins) from example FC units exhibiting light-induced decreases and increases in firing rates. Onset times for light pulses are shown with coloured dash lines. Bottom, summary graph plotting light-effect latencies for those FC units with statistically significant modulations. Firing rates are binned every 50 ms, such that ‘Bin of first change’ = 0 contains the spikes from 0–50 ms after light onset. First change is determined as the first bin to deviate more than ± 2 s.d.

from the mean baseline firing. Units in which no change is detected within 500 ms are excluded. Individual units may have a first increasing and first decreasing bin if their activity is biphasic. Mean 50 ms bin of first activated by ArchT in *Vgat*^{Cre} mice was 3.0 ± 0.5 , $n = 47$ of 96 units; first suppressed 4.3 ± 0.5 , $n = 28$ of 96 units; first activated by ChR2 2.9 ± 0.3 , $n = 22$ of 90 units, first suppressed by ChR2 0.7 ± 0.2 , $n = 35$ of 90 units. **f**, Optrode-delivered pulsed blue light illumination of ChR2⁺ axons in FC from *Vgat*^{Cre} mice shows no persistent changes in the firing rates of FC units above chance (increased, 1 of 111; decreased, 2 of 111 from five mice). Right, pseudo-coloured plot of normalized firing rate for all units. **g**, Pulsed blue light illumination of GP–FC axons using an optrode leads to increases in firing rate on the millisecond timescale. Left, mean (\pm s.e.m.) firing rates on a millisecond time scale of all units in response to pulsed blue light illumination of GP axons in FC for *Vgat*^{Cre} mice expressing ChR2 (blue) or mCherry (black) or *ChAT*^{Cre} mice expressing ChR2 (purple). Right, z score of inter-pulse interval firing rates (20×5 -ms bins) comparing positive and negative deviations from preceding baseline period without light. **h**, Optrode-delivered pulsed blue light illumination of ChR2⁺ axons in FC from *ChAT*^{Cre} mice shows no persistent changes in the firing rates of FC units above chance (increased, 0 of 74 from three mice; decreased, 0 of 74). Right, pseudo-coloured plot of normalized firing rate for all units. **i**, Fibre-delivered constant yellow light illumination of ArchT⁺ GP somata in *ChAT*^{Cre} mice shows no light-induced changes in the firing rates of FC units above chance (increased, 1 of 120; decreased, 3 of 120 from four mice). Right, pseudo-coloured plot of normalized firing rate for all units. In plots of I_{light} , red bars indicate units that were statistically significantly modulated by light (t -test, $P < 0.05$). For pseudo-coloured plots of normalized firing rate, units are normalized to the baseline period, before light onset, and ordered by I_{light} (low to high). Blues and purples represent low firing rates whereas yellow and red represent higher firing rates. Red represents modulations three or more times baseline.



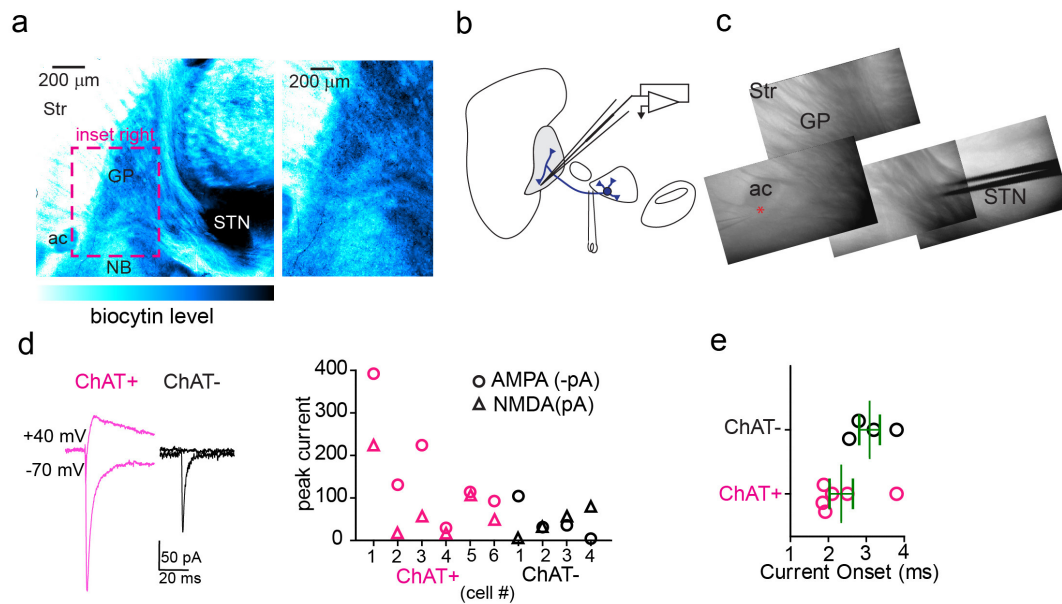
Extended Data Figure 7 | ChR2-mediated stimulation of $ChAT^{+Cre}$ axons following rAAV transduction or with a Cre-activated allele evokes ACh- and GABA-mediated currents. **a, b,** Targeting ChR2 expression to $ChAT^{+}$ and $ChAT^{-}$ GP-FC cells. **a,** Schematic of $ChAT^{+}$ (magenta) or $ChAT^{-}$ (black) GP-FC axons expressing ChR2-mCherry after DIO (Cre-On) or DO (Cre-Off) rAAV transduction in the GP of $ChAT^{+Cre};GAD1^{GFP}$ mice. **b,** rAAV DO-ChR2-mCherry transduced into the $ChAT^{+Cre}$ GP expresses ChR2-mCherry selectively in Cre⁻ neurons. Single confocal plane showing neighbouring ChR2-mCherry⁺ soma (dotted outline) and $ChAT^{+}$ soma at the GP-nucleus basalis border. Of 158 ChR2-mCherry⁺ neurons surrounding 223 $ChAT^{+}$ neurons, 0 were ChR2-mCherry⁺ $ChAT^{+}$ (from two mice). **c,** $ChAT^{+}$ axons surrounding $GAD1^{GFP}$ expressing cells in FC layer 6. **d–f,** $ChAT^{+}$ GP-FC cells ramify local axon collaterals around the GP-nucleus basalis border. **d,** Sagittal atlas with the GP-nucleus basalis border indicated with a dashed box. **e,** Left, low-magnification view of $ChAT^{+Cre}$ GP following transduction with rAAV DIO-synaptophysin-mCherry. DAPI (grey), nuclear stain. Right, maximum projection confocal stack (28 μ m) of inset region. Example putative presynaptic boutons indicated by arrowheads. **f,** Left, low-magnification sagittal section from $ChAT^{+Cre};Rosa26^{lsl-ChR2-eYFP/+}$ mouse. Right, high-magnification inset of frontal cortex showing distribution of neurons (NeuN immunostain, magenta) and ChR2-eYFP⁺ processes (white). **g, h,** Following rAAV transduction in $ChAT^{+Cre}$ mice, ChR2 activation of local $ChAT^{+Cre}$ axon collaterals results in rare nicotinic EPSCs but prevalent GABAergic IPSCs onto ChR2⁻ GP/nucleus

basalis neurons (EPSC = 2 of 85 cells; IPSC = 7 of 85 cells from six mice). **g,** Light-evoked EPSC from an example ChR2⁻ GP/nucleus cell voltage-clamped at -70 mV (top) was insensitive to glutamate receptor block with NBQX and CPP (middle), but abolished by bath application of MEC, MLA & DH β E (bottom), suggesting the EPSC resulted from ACh release and nicotinic receptor activation. **h,** Summary of peaks from nicotinic EPSCs and GABAergic IPSCs evoked from $ChAT^{+Cre}$ axons onto ChR2⁻ GP/nucleus basalis cells. **i,** Left, low-magnification image of sagittal section from a $ChAT^{+Cre};Rosa26^{lsl-ChR2-eYFP/+}$ mouse. Right, high-magnification inset from frontal cortex showing distribution of neurons (NeuN immunostain, magenta) and ChR2-eYFP⁺ processes (white), expressed in axons from basal forebrain and in local cortical interneurons. **j,** Maximum intensity two-photon projection of a layer 1 interneuron following whole-cell recording. **k,** Left, light-evoked current responses from two layer 1 interneurons held at indicated potentials to optogenetic activation in a $ChAT^{+Cre};Rosa26^{lsl-ChR2-eYFP/+}$ mouse in baseline conditions (black, NBQX & CPP) and after bath application of nicotinic receptor antagonist cocktail (red, MEC, MLA & DH β E). Right, nicotinic EPSCs are blocked by bath application of the non-selective blocker MEC alone (green). **l,** Time until full block of light-evoked nicotinic EPSCs following bath application of either nicotinic receptor antagonist cocktail (MEC, MLA & DH β E, $n = 5$ cells from three mice) or MEC alone ($n = 5$ cells from three mice). Inter-stimulus interval = 20 s.



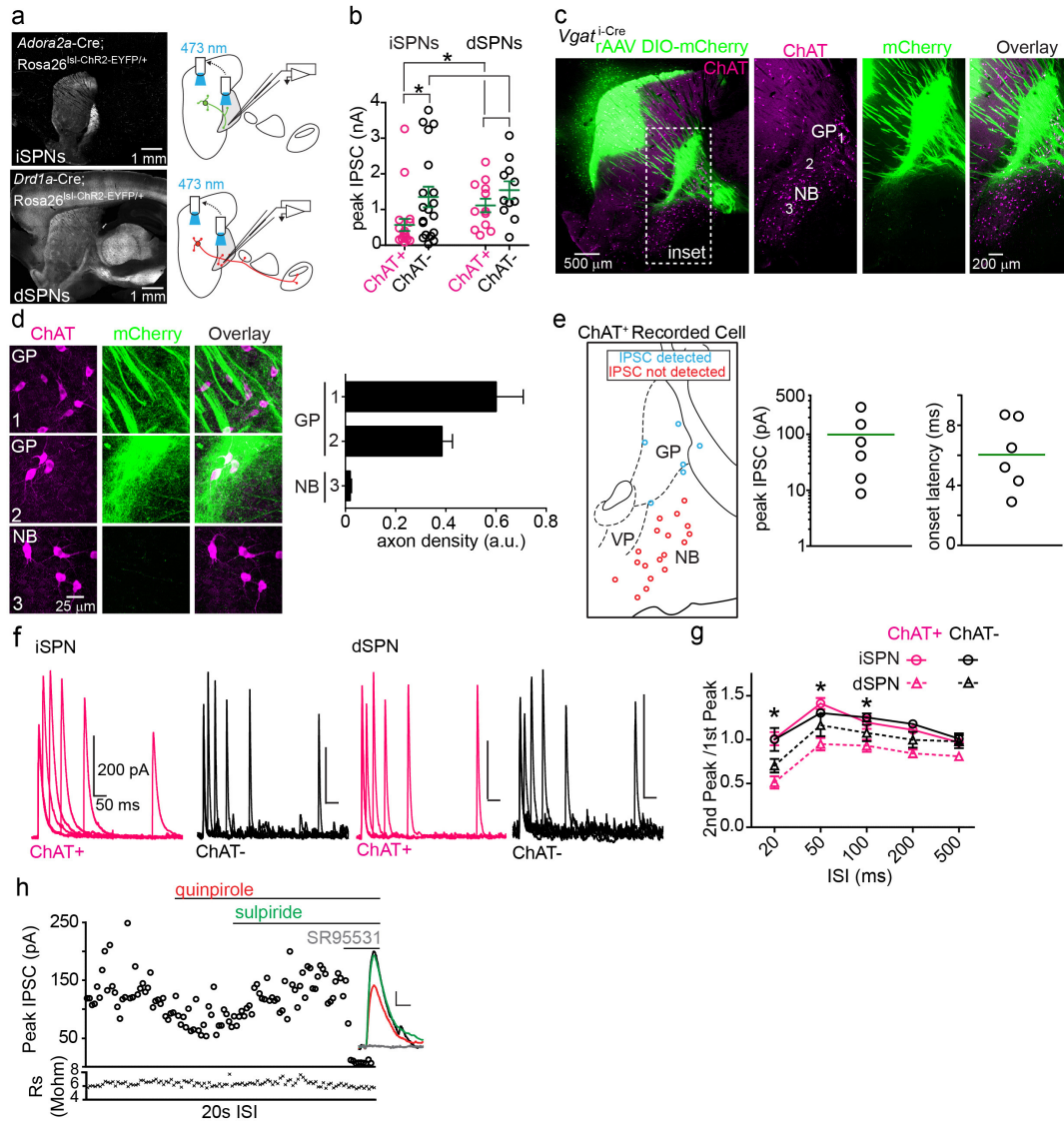
Extended Data Figure 8 | Synaptic connectivity and array tomography marker co-localization analysis of GP-FC axons in FC. **a–d**, Ionotropic synaptic connectivity of ChAT⁺ and ChAT⁻ GP-FC neurons onto FC cell types and layers. **a**, Example morphologies of FC neurons identified as pyramidal (from layer 5) or an interneuron (from layer 1). **b**, Summary of cortical neurons with Chr2-evoked monosynaptic ionotropic GABAergic or nicotinic currents from ChAT⁺ or ChAT⁻ axons by cortical layer. **c**, Peak currents induced by Chr2 activation of ChAT⁺ or ChAT⁻ GP-FC cells in FC. Postsynaptic cells are grouped across layers as pyramidal or interneurons. Left, GABAergic IPSCs reported with either TTX/4AP in the bath or following wash-in are plotted with dotted data. IPSCs recorded in baseline conditions (ChAT⁻, NBQX & CPP; ChAT⁺, ACSF only) are plotted with undotted data. Each cell is represented once. (ChAT⁻: $n = 5$ pyramidal, $n = 15$ interneurons from 13 mice; ChAT⁺: $n = 3$ interneurons from 15 mice). Right, nicotinic EPSCs recorded in ACSF, present after bath application of CPP and NBQX and fully blocked by nicotinic receptor antagonists (MEC, MLA, DHβE, $n = 5$ interneurons from 15 mice). **d**, Onset latencies for IPSCs and EPSCs induced by Chr2 activation of ChAT⁺ or ChAT⁻ GP-FC cells under baseline conditions only (ACSF) or in the presence of TTX/4AP. ‘Baseline_{TTX/4AP}’ refers to the subset of cells with IPSCs recorded under both baseline conditions and recovered following wash-in of TTX/4AP ($n = 5$; same data as Fig. 3b). Onset latencies of ChAT⁻ IPSCs were longer in TTX/4AP ($n = 14$) than ACSF ($n = 11$). * $P < 0.05$ (Mann-Whitney); error bars denote mean \pm s.e.m. **e–k**, Array-tomography-based co-localization analysis of ChAT⁺ presynaptic

terminals (PSTs) in FC. **e**, Left, 300 μ m sagittal slab from a *ChAT^{l-Cre}* mouse injected with 300 nl of rAAV DIO-synaptophysin-GFP in GP. Right, box indicates area of FC prepared for array tomography. **f**, Automated detection of GFP⁺ volumes (pearls) and synaptic markers. Left, maximum projection of GFP⁺ axons following computational detection of string-associated pearls (in red). Right, a single 70 nm plane showing diffraction-limited immunohistochemical punctae for PSD-95 and computational detection of point sources (in red). **g**, Maximum projection ($z = 2.17 \mu$ m) through layers 1–3 of FC following injection of rAAV DIO-synaptophysin-GFP into the GP of a *ChAT^{l-Cre}* mouse. Inset shows location of axon shown in Fig. 3c. **h–k**, GFP⁺ pearls are putative GABAergic PSTs. **h**, Individual volumes for all detected GFP⁺ PSTs ($n = 6,071$ pearls from two mice; $n = 4$ layers 1 & 2/3 stacks, $n = 4$ layer 5 stacks). **i**, Mean density by distance plots for GFP⁺ PSTs versus synapsin I, bassoon, GAD1/2, VACHT, VGAT, gephyrin, PSD-95 and parvalbumin from example stack. Crosses indicate means from real data, while lines denote mean values following 1,000 rounds of marker randomization. Error bars denote 99% confidence intervals. **j**, Mean densities within GFP⁺ PSTs (0 distance) for all markers and all stacks. Real and randomized data are indicated as in **i**. **k**, z score summary ($n = 8$ stacks) quantifying the differences in mean density for the synaptic markers shown in **j** (and not reported in Fig. 3e) within GFP⁺ PSTs (0 distance) for the real data and following ten rounds of randomization of GFP⁺ volumes. Positive z scores indicate higher densities in the real data. * $P < 0.001$ for all stacks.



Extended Data Figure 9 | GP-FC cells receive glutamatergic synapses from the STN. **a**, Left, low-magnification view of parasagittal slice showing the GP following biocytin labelling of the STN and avidin-HRP/DAB visualization of STN projections. Right, high-magnification view of inset showing DAB-labelled projections in the GP and around the GP-nucleus basalis border. **b**, Schematic of experimental strategy to electrically stimulate STN projections to GP. A bipolar electrode was placed at the anterior border of STN and GP-FC cells were targeted for whole-cell voltage-clamp recording. **c**, Acute parasagittal slice showing location of the bipolar electrode and recording pipette (red

asterisk). **d**, **e**, Electrically evoked glutamatergic currents in GP-FC cells following stimulation of STN-GP axon tract. **d**, Left, example NBQX-subtracted AMPAR ($V_{\text{hold}} = -70 \text{ mV}$) then CPP-subtracted NMDAR ($V_{\text{hold}} = +40 \text{ mV}$) currents evoked in GP-FC cells under baseline conditions (SR95331, scopolamine, CGP55845). Right, summary of AMPAR and NMDAR peak currents in ChAT⁺ ($n = 6$) and ChAT⁻ ($n = 4$) GP-FC cells (from seven mice). **e**, Onset latencies of glutamatergic currents (ChAT⁺: $2.3 \pm 0.3 \text{ ms}$, $n = 6$ cells; ChAT⁻: $3.08 \pm 0.3 \text{ ms}$, $n = 4$ cells, from seven mice). Bars denote mean \pm s.e.m.



Extended Data Figure 10 | GP-FC cells receive GABAergic synapses from dorsal striatal iSPNs and dSPNs with different presynaptic properties.

a, Left, sagittal sections from an *Adora2a-Cre*; *Rosa26*^{Isl-ChR2-eYFP/+} (top) or *Drd1a-Cre*; *Rosa26*^{Isl-ChR2-eYFP/+} (bottom) mouse where ChR2-eYFP is expressed in either iSPNs or dSPNs, respectively. Right, light was delivered first over the recorded cell (peak IPSCs in **b**) and then in dorsal striatum (pharmacological analysis in Fig. 4c and Extended Data Fig. 10h and presynaptic properties in **f**, **g**). **c**, **d**, SPNs from dorsal striatum arborize axons in and around the GP-nucleus basalis border but not in the basal forebrain. **c**, Left, sagittal section from a *VGAT*^{i-Cre} mouse injected with rAAV DIO-mCherry into dorsal striatum. Right, higher-magnification view of inset. Axons from SPNs arborize in the GP proper and GP-nucleus basalis border regions (areas 1 and 2) but not in the more ventral region of the basal forebrain (area 3, nucleus basalis proper/substantia innominata). **d**, Left, example maximum projection confocal stacks ($z = 28\text{--}42\ \mu\text{m}$) from the inset regions in **c**. Right, binary axonal quantification from the regions indicated. SPN axon density is sharply reduced in nucleus basalis proper/substantia innominata. **e**, Synaptic connectivity screen for dorsal striatal SPN IPSCs onto ChAT⁺ neurons of the GP and basal forebrain. ChAT-GFP mice were injected with Cre-Off rAAV

DO-ChR2-mCherry in dorsal striatum and whole-cell recordings were targeted to ChAT⁺ neurons ($n = 23$ cells, from four mice) in combination with optogenetic activation. NBQX and CPP were included in the bath to block glutamatergic transmission. Left, sagittal map of recording locations of ChAT⁻ GFP⁺ neurons with detected IPSCs (blue) and no detected IPSCs (red). Right, peaks and onset latencies for detected IPSCs. Green lines denote means. In every experiment, IPSCs onto ChAT⁻ GFP⁺ neurons of the GP were detected before recordings were targeted to more ventral areas. **f**, **g**, Paired pulse optogenetic activation of iSPNs (*Adora2a-Cre*; *Rosa26*^{Isl-ChR2-eYFP/+}) and dSPNs (*Drd1a-Cre*; *Rosa26*^{Isl-ChR2-eYFP/+}) in dorsal striatum reveals differences in short-term synaptic plasticity properties in GP-FC cells. **f**, Examples of optogenetically evoked paired pulse IPSCs (interstimulus interval = 20, 50, 100, 200 and 500 ms) from iSPNs (left) and dSPNs (right) in GP-FC cells. **g**, Mean 2nd/1st peak IPSC ratios (iSPN: $n = 13$ ChAT⁺, $n = 9$ ChAT⁻ cells from 11 mice; dSPN: $n = 9$ ChAT⁺, $n = 8$ ChAT⁻ cells from six mice). * $P < 0.05$ iSPNs versus dSPNs (ChAT⁺ and ChAT⁻ grouped together, Mann-Whitney); error bars denote s.e.m. **h**, Example iSPN peak IPSCs in a ChAT⁻ GP-FC cell following application of quinpirole, sulpiride and SR95531. Inset, average IPSCs. Scale bar, 20 pA/10 ms. Rs, series resistance.