Title: Circuit and synaptic organization of forebrain-to-midbrain pathways that promote and suppress vocalization

Running title: Inhibitory neurons push and pull the midbrain USV circuit

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Abstract

Animals vocalize only in certain behavioral contexts, but the circuits and synapses through which forebrain neurons trigger or suppress vocalization remain unknown. Here we used transsynaptic tracing to identify two populations of inhibitory neurons that lie upstream of neurons in the periaqueductal gray that gate the production of ultrasonic vocalizations in mice (i.e., PAG-USV neurons). Activating PAG-projecting neurons in the preoptic hypothalamus (POA$_{PAG}$ neurons) elicited USV production in the absence of social cues. In contrast, activating PAG-projecting neurons in the central-medial boundary zone of the amygdala (Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons) transiently suppressed USV production without disrupting non-vocal social behavior. Optogenetics-assisted circuit mapping in brain slices revealed that POA$_{PAG}$ neurons directly inhibit PAG interneurons, which in turn inhibit PAG-USV neurons, whereas Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons directly inhibit PAG-USV neurons. These experiments identify two major forebrain inputs to the PAG that trigger and suppress vocalization, respectively, while also establishing the synaptic mechanisms through which these neurons exert opposing behavioral effects.

Keywords: vocalization, ultrasonic, preoptic, hypothalamus, amygdala, periaqueductal gray

Introduction

The decision to vocalize is often a matter of life and death, as vocalizations are an important medium for sexual and social signaling between conspecifics but may also inadvertently advertise the caller's location to eavesdropping predators. Consequently, many factors influence the decision to vocalize, including the presence of external sensory and social cues, as well as the animal's own internal state and past experience. Work from the last five decades has established the midbrain periaqueductal gray (PAG) as an obligatory gate for the production of vocalizations in all mammals (Fenzl and Schuller, 2002; Jurgens, 1994, 2002, 2009; Subramanian et al., 2020; Sugiyama et al., 2010; Tschida, 2019), and it is thought that forebrain inputs to the PAG regulate the production of vocalizations in a context-dependent fashion. In line with this idea, forebrain regions including the cortex, amygdala, and hypothalamus have been implicated in regulating vocalization as a function of social context (Bennett et al., 2019; Dujardin and Jurgens, 2006; Gao et al., 2019; Green et al., 2018; Jurgens, 1982, 2002; Kyuhou and Gemba, 1998; Ma and Kanwal, 2014; Manteuffel et al., 2007). Notably, although electrical or pharmacological activation of various forebrain regions can elicit vocalizations (Jurgens, 2009; Jurgens and Ploog, 1970; Jurgens and Richter, 1986), these effects depend on an intact PAG (Jurgens and Pratt, 1979; Lu and Jurgens, 1993; Siebert and Jurgens, 2003), suggesting that the PAG acts as an essential hub for descending forebrain control of vocalization. Despite the centrality of the PAG to vocalization, the synaptic mechanisms through which forebrain neurons interact with the PAG vocal gating circuit to either promote or suppress vocalization remain unknown.

A major challenge to understanding the synaptic mechanisms through which descending forebrain neurons influence vocalization was that, until recently, the identity of the PAG neurons that play an obligatory role in vocal gating remained unknown. The PAG is a functionally heterogeneous structure important to many survival behaviors (Bandler and Shipley, 1994;

Carrive, 1993; Evans et al., 2018; Holstege, 2014; Tovote et al., 2016), thus hindering the

identification of vocalization-related PAG neurons and forebrain inputs to these neurons that

might influence vocalization. To overcome this challenge, we recently used an intersectional

activity-dependent genetic tagging technique to identify neurons in the PAG of the mouse that

gate the production of ultrasonic vocalizations (USVs) (i.e., PAG-USV neurons (Tschida et al.,

2019)), which mice produce in a variety of social contexts (Chabout et al., 2015; Holy and Guo,

2005; Maggio and Whitney, 1985; Neunuebel et al., 2015; Nyby et al., 1979; Portfors and

Perkel, 2014; Whitney et al., 1974). The identification of PAG-USV neurons opens the door to

identifying their monosynaptic inputs and to understanding how these afferent synapses

modulate neural activity within the PAG vocal gating circuit to influence vocal behavior.

Here we combined intersectional methods and transsynaptic tracing to identify neurons that

provide monosynaptic input to PAG-USV neurons and to local PAG inhibitory interneurons.

Using this transsynaptic tracing as an entry point, we then identified inhibitory neurons in both

the hypothalamus and the amygdala that provide synaptic input to the PAG vocal gating circuit.

In male and female mice, we found that optogenetic stimulation of hypothalamic afferents to the

PAG-USV circuit promoted USV production in the absence of any social cues, whereas similar

stimulation of amygdalar afferents to the PAG-USV circuit in males suppressed spontaneous

USV production elicited by social encounters with females. Lastly, we used optogenetic

assisted circuit mapping in brain slices to deduce the synaptic mechanisms through which these

forebrain afferents act on PAG-USV neurons and PAG interneurons to exert their opposing

effects on USV production. This study provides the first functional description of the synaptic

logic that governs the decision to vocalize, a behavior fundamental to communication and

survival.

Results

Inhibitory neurons in the hypothalamus and amygdala provide input to the PAG vocal gating circuit

To identify forebrain neurons that provide input to the PAG vocal gating circuit, we performed

transsynaptic tracing from PAG-USV neurons, which are primarily glutamatergic and reside in

the caudolateral PAG (Tschida et al., 2019). Briefly, to label inputs to PAG-USV neurons, we

used an activity-dependent labeling strategy (CANE; see Methods) to express Cre-dependent

helper viruses in PAG-USV neurons (Rodriguez et al., 2017; Sakurai et al., 2016; Tschida et al.,

2019). A pseudotyped replication-deficient rabies virus was subsequently injected into the

caudolateral PAG, allowing selective transsynaptic labeling of direct inputs to PAG-USV

neurons (Fig. 1A, see Methods). Due to the difficulty in eliciting robust and reliable USVs from

female mice, transsynaptic tracing from CANE-tagged PAG-USV neurons was performed only

in male mice. Because the activity of many glutamatergic PAG neurons is shaped by potent

inhibition from GABAergic PAG neurons (Tovote et al., 2016), we also performed transsynaptic

tracing from local GABAergic neurons in the caudolateral and ventrolateral PAG that likely

provide inhibition onto PAG-USV neurons, an idea we confirmed in a later section of the

Results. To label direct inputs to local GABAergic PAG interneurons, Cre-dependent helper

viruses were injected into the caudo/ventrolateral PAG of a VGAT-Cre mouse, and a

pseudotyped replication-deficient rabies virus was subsequently injected at the same site to

enable transsynaptic tracing from these cells (Fig. 1B; N=4 males, N=2 females). These rabies

tracing experiments revealed monosynaptic inputs to PAG-USV neurons as well as to local

GABAergic PAG neurons from a variety of forebrain areas (Table 1, Fig. S1-4). We

subsequently focused on thoroughly characterizing forebrain afferents from the hypothalamus

and amygdala, two brain regions important for the regulation and production of emotional and

social behaviors, including vocalization (Chen and Hong, 2018; Duvarci and Pare, 2014; Ehrlich

et al., 2009; Gothard et al., 2020; Janak and Tye, 2015; LeDoux, 2007; Sternson et al., 2013).

Within the hypothalamus, we observed labeling of neurons in the medial preoptic area (POA,

Fig. 1A-B), a region that plays a crucial role in sexual behavior (Balthazart and Ball, 2007;

McKinsey et al., 2018; Newman, 1999; Wei et al., 2018) and more specifically in the production

of courtship vocalizations in rodents and in songbirds (Alger and Riters, 2006; Bean et al., 1981;

Floody, 1989, 2009; Floody et al., 1998; Fu and Brudzynski, 1994; Gao et al., 2019; Riters and

Ball, 1999; Vandries et al., 2019). Within the amygdala, we observed inputs to both PAG cell

types from neurons spanning the rostral portion of the boundary between the central and medial

amygdala (referred to here as the central-medial boundary zone (Amg$_{C/M}$), see below)

continuing caudally to the central amygdala (CeA) (Fig. 1A-B). Although the amygdala

contributes to the sensory processing of and behavioral responses to social and emotional

vocalizations (Fecteau et al., 2007; Gadziola et al., 2016; Hall et al., 2013; Schönfeld et al.,

2020), whether and how the amygdala contributes to the *production* of vocalizations remains

understudied (see Hall et al., 2013, Ma and Kanwal, 2014; Matsumoto et al., 2012).

To characterize the neurotransmitter phenotypes of these upstream hypothalamic and

amygdala neurons, we performed two-color *in situ* hybridization on transsynaptically labeled

neurons for mRNA transcripts expressed in glutamatergic and GABAergic cells (vesicular

glutamate transporter (vGluT2) and vesicular GABA transporter (VGAT); Fig. 1C, see Methods).

This experiment revealed that the majority (~84%, Fig. 1C-D) of PAG-projecting POA neurons

(i.e. POA$_{PAG}$ neurons) and almost all (~98%, Figure 1D) of PAG-projecting Amg$_{C/M}$ and CeA

neurons (i.e. Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ and CeA$_{PAG}$ neurons) are GABAergic. In summary, the PAG vocal

gating circuit receives input from inhibitory neurons in both the preoptic hypothalamus and the

amygdala.

Activating PAG-projecting POA neurons elicits USVs in the absence of social cues

The POA plays a crucial role in courtship, raising the possibility that POA_{PAG} neurons are

important to promoting USV production. To test this idea, we selectively expressed

channelrhodopsin (ChR2) in POA_{PAG} neurons by injecting a Cre-dependent AAV driving ChR2

expression into the POA and injecting a retrogradely-infecting AAV that drives Cre expression

into the caudolateral PAG, the region in which PAG-USV neurons are concentrated (Fig. 2A).

Optogenetic activation of POA_{PAG} cell bodies was sufficient to elicit USVs in male and female

mice that were singly tested in the absence of social partners or social cues (USVs elicited in

N=6 of 8 males, N=3 of 4 females; 10 Hz trains or tonic pulses of 1-2s duration; Fig. 2A-B,

Movie S1). Although optogenetic activation of POA_{PAG} neurons often elicited robust USV

production, the efficacy of optogenetic stimulation (number of USVs elicited per trial, number of

successful trials) as well as the latency from stimulation to USV onset were variable both within

and across individual mice (Fig. 2B, F). This vocal effect was specifically attributable to

optogenetic activation of the POA, as delivery of blue light to the POA of GFP-expressing mice

failed to elicit USVs (AAV-FLEX-GFP injected into the POA of Esr1-Cre males, see below for

additional Esr1-Cre data, N=5, Fig. 2F). In summary, optogenetic activation of POA_{PAG} neurons

is capable of promoting USV production in both male and female mice, consistent with the

known role of the POA in promoting appetitive courtship behaviors.

To begin to describe the molecular phenotype of POA_{PAG} neurons, we used situ hybridization to

establish that these cells express VGAT (319/319 neurons were VGAT$^+$; Fig. 2C), similar to the

POA neurons that we labeled via transsynaptic tracing from the PAG vocal gating circuit. We

also noted that the majority of POA_{PAG} neurons co-express Estrogen Receptor 1 (Esr1), a

prominent marker for neurons in the POA (278/319 Fig. 2C) (Fang et al., 2018; Moffitt et al.,

2018; Wei et al., 2018). Given that POA_{PAG} neurons express Esr1, we next tested whether

optogenetic activation of Esr1$^+$ POA neurons was sufficient to elicit USV production, by injecting

a Cre-dependent AAV driving the expression of ChR2 into the POA of Esr1-Cre mice. We

observed that optogenetically activating Esr1$^+$ POA neurons was sufficient to elicit USV

production in male (N=4 of 5) and female mice (N=3 of 4) that were tested in the absence of any

social partners or social cues (Fig. 2D). In contrast, optogenetic activation of VGlut2$^+$ neurons

within the POA failed to elicit USV production (Fig. 2F, N=3 males, POA of VGlut-Cre mice

injected with AAV-FLEX-ChR2). Our findings confirm and extend the recent finding that

optogenetic activation of GABAergic POA neurons elicits USV production in male and female

mice (Gao et al., 2019).

To test whether activation of the Esr1$^+$ POA neurons that project to the PAG is sufficient to elicit

USVs, we optogenetically activated the axon terminals of Esr1$^+$ POA neurons within the PAG

(Fig. 2E). Bilateral Esr1$^+$ POA$_{PAG}$ terminal activation within the PAG was sufficient to elicit USV

production (N=1 of 2 males; N=4 of 6 females, 20 Hz trains of 2-10s duration). This treatment

also evoked escape behavior in 4 of 8 of the tested animals, which was not observed following

optogenetic activation of Esr1$^+$ POA cell bodies, suggesting that viral spread to PAG-projecting

neurons nearby to the POA may account for these effects. Finally, we sought to test the idea

that optogenetic activation of Esr1$^+$ POA neurons promotes USV production through their

projections to the PAG rather than through other regions that they also innervate, and we also

tested whether USV production could be elicited by activating non-POA hypothalamic inputs to

the PAG. In fact, USVs were not elicited by optogenetically activating either Esr1$^+$ POA axon

terminals in the ventral tegmental area (VTA) (Fig. 2F, 0/2 females, 0/2 males) or PAG-

projecting neurons within the ventromedial hypothalamus (VMH) (Fig. 2F, 0/3 males, AAV-retro-

Cre injected in the PAG, AAV-FLEX-ChR2 injected in the VMH). Therefore, GABAergic POA

neurons, including Esr1$^+$ cells, act via their synapses in the caudolateral PAG to promote USV

production.

Although these control experiments are consistent with the idea that POA$_{PAG}$ and Esr1$^+$ POA

neurons act directly on the vocal gating mechanism in the PAG, a remaining possibility is that

they promote USV production through hedonic reinforcement. To control for this possibility, we

performed real-time place preference tests in which optogenetic stimulation of either POA_{PAG} or

Esr1$^+$ POA neurons was applied when mice were in only one of two sides of the test chamber.

We observed that optogenetic activation of POA_{PAG} neurons drove a slightly negative place

preference on average (mean PP=0.39 +/- 0.07 for N=7 mice; Fig. S5A) and that optogenetic

activation of Esr1$^+$ POA cell bodies did not positively reinforce place preference (mean PP=0.46

+/- 0.02 for N=5 mice). In contrast, optogenetic activation of Esr1$^+$ POA axon terminals within

the VTA positively reinforced place preference (mean PP=0.59 +/- 0.06, N=4 mice, Fig. S5A).

We also note that when using the same stimulation parameters that were sufficient to elicit

USVs, optogenetic activation of either POA_{PAG} or Esr1$^+$ POA neurons did not drive mounting of

other mice (N=7 POA_{PAG}-ChR2 mice tested; N=4 POA-Esr1-ChR2 mice tested) nor did it induce

overt locomotion (Fig. S5B). These experiments indicate that activation of POA_{PAG} neurons can

elicit USVs in a manner that does not depend on positive reinforcement and without recruiting

other courtship behaviors.

Because the POA lies upstream of the PAG, we anticipated that optogenetic activation of the

POA would elicit USV production at longer latencies than observed for optogenetic activation of

PAG-USV neurons. Indeed, we found that the minimum and mean latencies to elicit USVs by

optogenetic stimulation of POA neurons were 664.5 +/- 320.9 ms and 1782.6 +/- 407.6 ms

respectively (Fig. S6, calculated from N=9 POA_{PAG}-ChR2 and N=7 POA-Esr1-ChR2 mice).

These latencies are longer than those observed when optogenetically activating PAG-USV

neurons (PAG-USV activation: min. latency from laser onset to first USV was 23.4 ± 8.6 ms,

mean latency was 406.6 ± 0.5 ms) (Tschida et al., 2019)) but are comparable to the latencies

from optogenetic activation of the hypothalamus to observed effects on behavior that have been

reported in other studies (Lin et al., 2011; Wei et al., 2018). We also found that USV bouts

elicited by optogenetic activation of the POA often outlasted the duration of the optogenetic

stimulation, sometimes by many seconds (Figs. 2, S6). This contrasts with what is observed

following optogenetic activation of PAG-USV neurons, in which USV bout durations map on

tightly to the duration of optogenetic stimulation (Tschida et al., 2019), and suggests that brief

optogenetic stimulation in the POA can be transformed into longer-lasting changes in neural

activity within the POA or across POA-to-PAG synapses.

Acoustic characterization of USVs elicited by activation of POA neurons

Given that optogenetic stimulation of the POA elicited USVs in the absence of any social cues,

we wondered whether such optogenetically-evoked USVs were acoustically similar to the USVs

that mice produce during social interactions. To compare the acoustic features of

optogenetically-elicited USVs to those of USVs produced spontaneously to a nearby female, we

employed a recently described method using variational autoencoders (VAEs) (Goffinet, 2019;

Sainburg et al., 2019). Briefly, the VAE is an unsupervised modeling approach that uses

spectrograms of vocalizations as inputs and from these data learns a pair of probabilistic maps,

an "encoder" and a "decoder," capable of compressing vocalizations into a small number of

latent features while attempting to preserve as much information as possible (Fig. 3A-B).

Notably, this method does not rely on user-defined acoustic features, nor does it require

clustering of vocalizations into categories. We applied this approach to spectrograms of USVs to

compare the acoustic features of female-directed and optogenetically-elicited USVs from the

same mice and found that the VAE converged on a concise latent representation of only five

dimensions. We then employed a dimensionality reduction method (UMAP) (McInnes, 2018) to

visualize the latent features of these USVs in 2D space (Fig. 3C). This analysis revealed that for

some mice, female-directed and optogenetically-elicited USVs were acoustically similar (Fig.

3C, left), while for other mice, a subset of optogenetically-elicited USVs were acoustically

distinct from female-directed USVs (Fig. 3C, right). To quantify the difference between female-

directed and optogenetically-elicited USVs for each mouse, we estimated the Maximum Mean

Discrepancy (Gretton, 2012) between distributions of latent syllable representations as in

(Goffinet, 2019). In addition, a baseline level of variability in syllable repertoire was established

for each mouse by estimating the MMD between the first and second halves of female-directed

USVs emitted in a recording session (Fig. 3D). A paired comparison revealed significantly larger

differences between female-directed and optogenetically-elicited USVs than expected by

variability within the female-directed recording sessions alone (Fig. 3D, two-sided, continuity-

corrected Wilcoxon signed-rank test, W=5, p<0.01), or than expected by across-day variability in

female-directed recording sessions from control animals (gray points, Fig. 3D, female-directed

USVs were recorded on 2 different days from N=10 control mice, p=0.003 for difference

between female-directed vs. female-directed in control mice and opto vs. female-directed in

experimental mice, Mann Whitney U test). In conclusion, many USVs elicited by optogenetic

activation of POA neurons resemble female-directed USVs, although a subset differs in their

acoustic features from USVs found in the animals' female-directed repertoires.

We next sought to understand in more detail exactly how these acoustically unusual

optogenetically-elicited USVs differed from natural USVs. When the latent representations of

these two types of USVs were plotted together for all mice in our dataset, it became clear that

optogenetically-elicited USVs and female-directed USVs are largely acoustically overlapping

except in one region of the UMAP representation (upper middle portion of Fig. 3E, dominated by

blue points). Despite this outlying region of acoustically distinct optogenetically-elicited USVs,

we conservatively estimate that only 20% of condition information (optogenetically-elicited

versus female-directed) can be predicted by latent syllable descriptions, consistent with largely

overlapping distributions of natural and optogenetically-elicited USVs (0.20 bits, 5-fold class-

balanced logistic regression). We then re-plotted UMAP representations of the USVs, with each

USV syllable color-coded according to syllable energy (i.e., amplitude, Fig. 3F, left) or frequency

bandwidth (Fig. 3F, right). This analysis revealed that the acoustically unusual optogenetically-

elicited USVs tended to be louder and had greater frequency bandwidths than female-directed

USVs. Visual inspection of spectrograms of optogenetically-elicited USVs also confirmed that

those that did not overlap acoustically with natural USVs tended to be louder and have greater

frequency bandwidths (Fig. 3F, bottom, opto 1 and opto 2), while optogenetically-elicited USVs

that overlapped with natural USVs did not possess these unusual acoustic features (Fig. 3F,

bottom, opto 3). To determine whether the differences between optogenetically-elicited and

natural USVs were consistent across mice, we summarized each recording session by the

mean latent representation of its syllables, and then summarized the shift from natural to

optogenetically-elicited syllable repertoires by the corresponding vector between summary

points. A shuffle test revealed significantly larger alignment between these vectors than

expected by chance (mean cosine similarity=0.50, p<1e-5), indicating that optogenetically-

elicited USVs differed from female-directed USVs in a manner that was consistent across mice.

In summary, optogenetic activation of the POA elicits USVs whose acoustic features are largely

overlapping with those of female-directed USVs produced by the same animal, despite the

artificiality inherent to optogenetic stimulation.

Activating PAG-projecting Amg$_{C/M}$ neurons transiently suppresses USV production

We next sought to understand how PAG-projecting amygdala neurons contribute to

vocalization. We began with a viral strategy designed to express ChR2 in PAG-projecting

Amg$_{C/M}$ and CeA neurons, by injecting a Cre-dependent AAV driving ChR2 expression targeted

to the amygdala and then injecting AAV-retro-Cre into the PAG (Fig. 4). Surprisingly, given the

strong transsynaptic labeling of both the CeA and Amg$_{C/M}$ achieved with modified rabies tracing

from the PAG vocal gating circuit, we found that this viral strategy failed to label neurons in the

CeA and instead only labeled Amg$_{C/M}$ neurons, whose cell bodies reside medial to the CeA and

dorsal to the medial amygdala (Figs. 4A, S7). To ensure that this labeling pattern was due to

restricted tropism of the AAV-retro-Cre virus and not to inaccurate targeting of the CeA, we

repeated the injections of the AAV-retro-Cre virus in the PAG of a Cre-dependent tdTomato

reporter mouse. Again, we observed cell body labeling in the Amg$_{C/M}$ but not in the CeA (Fig.

S8), suggesting that in contrast to the modified rabies virus used in the transsynaptic tracing

from the PAG vocal gating circuit, the AAV-retro-Cre virus can infect Amg$_{C/M}$ but not CeA

neurons.

To test whether PAG-projecting Amg$_{C/M}$ neurons influence USV production, we first tested the

effects of optogenetically activating these neurons in isolated mice. Optogenetic activation of

Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons failed to elicit USV production and also did not drive any other overt

behavioral effects. However, when Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons were optogenetically activated in male

mice that were actively courting females and vocalizing, USV production was immediately and

reversibly suppressed (Fig. 4B, N=8 mice). This suppressive effect was restricted to the period

when Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons were being optogenetically stimulated, and USV production

rebounded following the end of the optogenetic stimulation period (Fig. 4B). After using *in situ*

hybridization to confirm that most Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons are GABAergic (~92% Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$

neurons express VGAT, Fig. 4C), we used a similar intersectional viral strategy to express

ChR2 selectively in GABAergic Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons (Fig.4D, AAV-retro-FLEX-ChR2 injected into

the PAG of a VGAT-Cre mouse). With this strategy, we found that optogenetic activation of

GABAergic Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons robustly suppressed the male's USV production during

courtship encounters with a female (Fig. 4D, N=4 male mice). Finally, we tested the effects on

vocal behavior of optogenetically activating the axon terminals of GABAergic Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$

neurons within the PAG (Fig. 4D). Such bilateral terminal activation was also sufficient to

suppress USV production (in N=3 of 3 males; Fig. 4D).

One possibility is that activating Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons suppresses USV production by putting the

mouse into a fearful or aversive state, rather than through a direct suppressive effect of Amg$_{C/M-}$

$_{PAG}$ neurons on the PAG vocal gating circuit. To test this idea, we carefully examined the non-

vocal behaviors of male mice during optogenetic activation of Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons. Mice

exhibited neither freezing nor fleeing during optogenetic stimulation of Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons and,

more notably, they usually continued to follow and sniff the female during the laser stimulation

periods (Movie S2; distance between male and female did not increase during optogenetic

stimulation, Fig. S5B). We also confirmed that the change in USV production rates driven by the

optogenetic activation of Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons was different from the change in spontaneous

USV rates over time in mice that did not receive laser stimulation (Fig. 4D, black trace), the

change in USV rates over time in GFP control mice (Fig. 4D, green trace), and the change in

USV rates over time in Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$-ChR2-expressing mice that were connected to a dummy

ferrule that only shined blue light over their head (Fig. 4D, gray trace; $p < 0.01$ for differences

between ChR2 groups vs. control groups during laser time, one-way ANOVA followed by post-

hoc pairwise Tukey's HSD tests). Finally, we performed real-time place preference tests in

which Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons were optogenetically activated when mice were in one of two sides of

a test chamber (Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons were labeled with either the AAV-retro-Cre or the AAV-

retro-ChR2 viral strategies). This experiment revealed that activation of Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons

does not drive a negative place preference (Fig. S5A). In summary, activating Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$

neurons transiently and selectively suppresses USVs produced by male mice during courtship,

an effect that cannot be accounted for by the mouse being put into a fearful or aversive state.

Axonal projections of POA$_{PAG}$ and Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons

To further characterize the anatomy of POA$_{PAG}$ and Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons, we used intersectional

methods to label these neurons with GFP and tdTomato respectively and traced their axonal

projections throughout the brain (Fig. S9, AAV-retro-Cre injected into caudolateral PAG, AAV-

FLEX-GFP into POA, AAV-FLEX-tdTomato into Amg$_{C/M}$). We observed dense projections from

both POA$_{PAG}$ and Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons to a variety of dopaminergic cell groups, including the

VTA, SNc and retrorubral/A8 region. We also note that Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons provide input to the

lateral preoptic area (Fig. S9, top left), while POA$_{PAG}$ neurons provide input to the same region

in which Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ cell bodies reside (Fig. S9, middle left). As expected, we also observed

dense and overlapping terminal fields from both of the cell groups within the caudolateral PAG

(Fig. S9, bottom right).

Synaptic interactions between POA$_{PAG}$ and Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons and the PAG vocal gating

circuit

The functional and anatomical experiments described above establish that two different

populations of inhibitory forebrain neurons provide input to the PAG vocal gating circuit, one of

which (the POA) promotes USV production in the absence of any social cues, while the other

(the Amg$_{C/M}$) suppresses spontaneous USVs produced by male mice during courtship. To

understand how two different GABAergic and presumably inhibitory inputs to the PAG can exert

opposing effects on vocal behavior, we performed ChR2-assisted circuit mapping experiments

in brain slices to characterize the properties of POA and Amg$_{C/M}$ synapses onto PAG-USV

neurons and nearby GABAergic PAG neurons.

Given that optogenetic activation of GABAergic Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons suppresses USV

production, we predicted that GABAergic Amg$_{C/M}$ neurons directly inhibit PAG-USV neurons. To

test this idea, we performed whole-cell voltage clamp recordings from PAG-USV neurons while

optogenetically activating Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ axons within the PAG. Briefly, AAV-FLEX-ChR2 was

injected into the Amg$_{C/M}$ of a VGAT-Cre;Fos-dsTVA crossed mouse in order to express ChR2 in

GABAergic Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ axon terminals within the PAG. After four weeks, we used the CANE

method (Rodriguez et al., 2017; Sakurai et al., 2016; Tschida et al., 2019) to infect PAG-USV

neurons with a pseudotyped CANE-rabies virus driving the expression of mCherry (CANE-RV-

mCherry, Fig. 5A-B, see Methods). We visually targeted our recordings to mCherry-expressing

PAG-USV neurons and optogenetically activated Amg$_{C/M}$ terminals in the presence of TTX and

4AP in order to isolate monosynaptic pathways (Fig. 5C-D). Activating Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ terminals

evoked inhibitory postsynaptic currents (IPSCs) in a majority (16/29) of the mCherry-labeled

PAG-USV neurons from which we recorded (mean current=180.3 pA at 0 mV in TTX/4AP).

These evoked IPSCs were completely abolished by application of the $GABA_A$ receptor

antagonist gabazine (Fig. 5E-F). No optogenetically-elicited EPSCs were detected when

recording at -70 mV, the chloride reversal potential. These findings support the idea that

$Amg_{C/M-PAG}$ activity suppresses ongoing USV production by directly inhibiting PAG-USV

neurons.

Given that activating GABAergic POA_{PAG} neurons elicits vocalization (Fig. 2), and that the

majority of PAG-USV neurons are glutamatergic (Tschida et al., 2019), we hypothesized that

POA_{PAG} axons act via local GABAergic interneurons in the PAG to disinhibit PAG-USV neurons.

To test this hypothesis, we first performed whole-cell patch clamp recordings from GABAergic

PAG neurons while optogenetically activating POA_{PAG} axons within the PAG. GABAergic PAG

neurons were labeled by injecting AAV-FLEX-mCherry into the PAG of a VGAT-Cre mouse,

while AAV-FLEXa-ChR2 was injected into the POA to express ChR2 in POA_{PAG} axon terminals

within the PAG (Fig. 6A-B). After waiting four weeks to achieve functional expression of ChR2 in

POA_{PAG} axon terminals, we cut brain slices from these mice and recorded optogenetically-

evoked currents from fluorescently identified VGAT$^+$ PAG neurons (see Methods). Optical

stimulation of POA_{PAG} axons with blue light evoked IPSCs in the majority (26/36) of voltage

clamped GABAergic PAG neurons from which we recorded (mean current=328.8 pA at 0 mV)

(Fig. 6C). These evoked IPSCs persisted upon application of TTX/4AP and were blocked by

gabazine, indicating that POA_{PAG} axons make inhibitory synapses directly onto GABAergic PAG

neurons (Fig. 6D).

To test whether these GABAergic PAG neurons synapse onto PAG-USV neurons, as predicted

of a disinhibitory circuit mechanism, we injected AAV-FLEX-ChR2 into the PAG of a VGAT-

Cre;TVA crossed mouse in order to express ChR2 in local VGAT$^+$ neurons (Fig. 6E). After two

weeks, we used CANE to selectively infect PAG-USV neurons with CANE-RV-mCherry (Fig. 6).

Several days later, we visually targeted mCherry-expressing PAG-USV neurons for whole-cell

recordings while optogenetically activating local GABAergic PAG neurons in the presence of

TTX and 4AP (Fig. 6F). Optogenetically activating local VGAT$^+$ neurons evoked IPSCs in almost

all (13/16) of the PAG-USV neurons from which we recorded (mean current=579.9 pA at 0 mV

in TTX/4AP) and these currents were completely abolished by application of gabazine (Fig. 6G-

H). This experiment confirms the presence of a functional connection between local inhibitory

neurons and the PAG-USV neurons that gate USV production.

We also performed whole-cell recordings from mCherry-labeled PAG-USV neurons while

optogenetically activating POA$_{PAG}$ axons within the PAG (AAV-FLEX-ChR2 injected into the

POA of a VGAT-Cre;Fos-dsTVA crossed mouse, CANE method used to infect PAG-USV

neurons with CANE-RV-mCherry as described above; Fig. S10A, see Methods). After first

confirming that we could optogenetically evoke IPSCs in mCherry-negative cells in each slice,

we visually targeted our recordings to mCherry-expressing PAG-USV neurons. Optogenetic

activation of POA$_{PAG}$ terminals evoked IPSCs in only 1 of 23 PAG-USV neurons (Fig. S10B).

Although there are caveats to interpreting a low probability of synaptic connection in brain

slices, POA$_{PAG}$ neurons appear to provide fewer or weaker synaptic inputs to PAG-USV neurons

than to nearby GABAergic PAG neurons, supporting the idea that POA$_{PAG}$ neurons primarily act

through PAG interneurons to disinhibit PAG-USV neurons and promote USV production.

Discussion

Here we used a combination of monosynaptic rabies tracing, optogenetic manipulations of

neural activity in freely behaving animals, and optogenetics-assisted circuit mapping in brain

slices to elucidate the functional relevance and synaptic organization of descending inputs to

the PAG vocal gating circuit. We identified two populations of forebrain inhibitory neurons, one

located in the preoptic hypothalamus and the other in a central-medial boundary zone within the

amygdala, that drive opposing effects on vocal behavior. Optogenetic activation of POA_{PAG}

neurons drives robust and long-lasting bouts of vocalization in the absence of any social cues

normally required to elicit vocalizations, and the acoustic features of optogenetically-elicited

USVs shared many features with spontaneously produced social USVs. In contrast, optogenetic

activation of a $VGAT^+$ population of $Amg_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons transiently suppressed USV production

in male mice during active courtship without disrupting other non-vocal courtship behaviors.

Further, activation of $Amg_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons did not elicit fearful or aversive behavior, indicating

that the effect on vocal behavior was not driven or accompanied by a generalized change in

behavioral state. Finally, we paired optogenetic activation of descending POA or $Amg_{C/M}$ inputs

to the PAG with whole-cell recordings from PAG-USV or GABAergic PAG neurons to investigate

how these POA and $Amg_{C/M}$ inputs drive opposing effects on vocal behavior. These slice

experiments support a model in which $Amg_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons directly inhibit PAG-USV neurons to

suppress vocalization, while POA_{PAG} neurons directly inhibit GABAergic PAG interneurons,

which in turn inhibit PAG-USV neurons, resulting in a net disinhibition of PAG-USV neurons that

promotes vocalization. To our knowledge, this is the first study to reveal the synaptic and circuit

logic by which forebrain afferents to the PAG influence the decision to vocalize, a key behavior

for communication and survival.

We observed that, when optogenetically activated, POA_{PAG} neurons act directly through the

PAG to elicit USV production in both male and female mice (Fig. 2), confirming and extending a

recent report that activation of GABAergic POA neurons elicits USVs in both sexes (Gao et al.,

2019). These findings contrast with the behavioral observation that female mice in general

produce fewer USVs than males. For example, female mice produce only about 1/5 of the total

USVs recorded during male-female courtship interactions (Neunuebel et al., 2015), and we

observed that female mice vocalize at lower rates than males when encountering novel female

social partners (unpublished observations). Taken together, these findings suggest that different

levels of POA$_{PAG}$ activity in males and females might contribute to sex differences in vocal

behavior but, when strongly activated by optogenetic methods, POA$_{PAG}$ neurons in males and

females are similarly potent in their ability to activate the downstream PAG vocal gating circuit

and elicit USVs. Although it remains unknown which factors might drive differential activation of

male and female POA$_{PAG}$ neurons, it is possible that sex differences in the density (Campi et al.,

2013; Gorski et al., 1978; Orikasa and Sakuma, 2010; Panzica et al., 1996), synaptic

organization (Raisman and Field, 1971), and gene expression patterns (Moffitt et al., 2018; Xu

et al., 2012), including those of sex hormone receptors (Cao and Patisaul, 2013) of POA

neurons, might all contribute to this sexually dimorphic behavior (for a review, see Lenz et al.,

2012). More broadly, our findings add to a growing body of literature indicating that male and

female brains contain latent circuits for sex-typical behaviors that can be unmasked by artificial

neural activation but that are gated in a sex-specific manner during natural behavior (Clyne and

Miesenbock, 2008; Gao et al., 2019; Rezaval et al., 2016; Wei et al., 2018).

We also found that similar to activation of POA$_{PAG}$ neurons, optogenetic activation of Esr1^{+} POA

neurons was sufficient to elicit USV production. Although a previous study reported that

activation of Esr1^{+} POA neurons promotes mounting (Wei et al., 2018), we failed to observe

mounting when we optogenetically activated either POA$_{PAG}$ neurons or Esr1^{+} POA neurons in

male and female mice. Although the reasons for this discrepancy remain uncertain, one

possibility is that our use of lower intensity optical stimulation can account for this difference (3-5

mW, 10-20 Hz vs. 10mW, 40 Hz in Wei et al., 2018), and that the level of Esr1^{+} POA neuronal

activation required to elicit USV production is lower than the threshold to elicit mounting. An

interesting possibility is that different projection-defined subsets of Esr1^{+} POA neurons

contribute to distinct aspects of courtship behavior, similar to what has been described for the

contribution of projection-defined subsets of galanin-expressing POA neurons to distinct aspects

of parental behavior (Kohl et al., 2018; Wu et al., 2014). Notably, though, a recent study found

that ablation of VGAT$^+$ POA neurons did not affect the numbers of social USVs produced by

male and female mice, although the acoustic features of male courtship USVs were altered

following ablation of these neurons (Gao et al., 2019). In contrast, ablation or silencing of POA

neurons greatly reduces non-vocal consummatory courtship behaviors including mounting and

ejaculation (Bean et al., 1981; Floody, 1989; Wei et al., 2018). These findings are consistent

with the idea that POA$_{PAG}$ neurons promote the production of USVs during later stages of

courtship (Gao et al., 2019), which differ acoustically from USVs produced in earlier phases of

courtship (Hanson and Hurley, 2012; Keesom et al., 2017; Matsumoto and Okanoya, 2016;

White et al., 1998). These findings also suggest that other neuronal populations that lie

upstream of the PAG vocal gating circuit, and that are potentially interconnected with the POA,

serve to promote USV production during the early phases of courtship and in other behavioral

contexts.

Here we employ a newly described VAE-based unsupervised modeling method to compare the

acoustic features of optogenetically-elicited USVs to each animal's repertoire of female-directed

USVs. Interestingly, although synchronous optogenetic activation of POA$_{PAG}$ neurons is likely

quite different from the natural activity patterns of these neurons, the majority of optogenetically-

elicited vocalizations fall within the distribution of naturally produced USVs. This finding provides

further experimental support for a model in which the PAG-USV neurons that are disinhibited by

input from the POA gate USV production but do not directly pattern the acoustic content of

vocalizations. The VAE also allowed us to identify and interrogate the acoustic features of

optogenetically-elicited vocalizations that fell outside the natural acoustic distribution. We found

that these unusual optogenetically-elicited USVs were louder and greater in frequency

bandwidth, which we speculate may arise because synchronous optogenetic activation of POA

neurons activates the PAG vocal gating circuit more strongly than occurs during natural

behavior. Another possibility is that because the mice in our experiments were singly tested in

the absence of social partners and thus typically were not moving at high speeds during

optogenetic stimulation, the USVs elicited by optogenetic stimulation of POA$_{PAG}$ neurons may be

more similar acoustically to spontaneous USVs emitted in response to stationary social cues,

such as female urine, rather than in response to a mobile female partner. Interestingly, a

previous study found that the USVs produced by males in response to female urine were louder

and had greater frequency bandwidth than those produced to female social partners (Chabout

et al., 2015), reminiscent of the difference between female-directed and optogenetically-evoked

USVs in our dataset.

The current study also identifies a novel population of GABAergic Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons that lie at

a boundary zone between the central amygdala and the medial amygdala and that project to

PAG-USV neurons (i.e., Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons). Although this population of cells remains to be

characterized comprehensively at a molecular and physiological level, our data show that

transiently activating these neurons transiently suppresses USV production without driving

fearful or aversive responses. Additionally, optogenetically activating Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons

suppresses vocalization without interrupting non-vocal courtship behaviors more generally,

providing additional support for the idea that PAG-USV cells are specialized neurons that gate

USV production but that do not control non-vocal aspects of courtship.

We found that Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons make inhibitory synapses on PAG-USV neurons, which in

turn gate vocalizations by exciting downstream vocal-respiratory pattern generating circuits

(Tschida et al., 2019). Thus, the Amg$_{C/M}$ to PAG pathway provides a monosynaptic substrate

through which vocalizations can be rapidly and effectively suppressed. We anticipate that such

descending inhibitory inputs onto PAG-USV neurons act rapidly to suppress vocalization in

behavioral contexts (in the presence of predators, conspecific competitors, etc.) in which

vocalizing is risky or otherwise adverse, although this idea remains to be tested. Although

POA$_{PAG}$ neurons are also GABAergic, we found that optogenetically activating these neurons

promotes rather than suppresses USV production, likely through a disynaptic disinhibition of

PAG-USV neurons mediated by local PAG interneurons. Consistent with the idea that

disinhibition within the PAG is important for vocal production, work in primates has shown that

pharmacological blockade of GABA receptors lowers the threshold for vocalization and elicits

spontaneous vocalizations as well (Forcelli et al., 2017; Jurgens, 1994; Lu and Jurgens, 1993).

Indeed, disinhibition of glutamatergic projection neurons has emerged as a prominent circuit

motif within the PAG for releasing a variety of behaviors, including freezing (Tovote et al., 2016),

pup grooming (Kohl et al., 2018), and antinociception (Morgan and Clayton, 2005). Our results

support a model in which PAG-USV neuronal activity is tightly regulated by descending inputs

as well as inputs from local GABAergic PAG neurons, which in turn integrate a variety of

behaviorally relevant forebrain inputs to appropriately gate PAG-USV activity and hence USV

production. More generally, such disinhibitory circuit motifs in the PAG may provide a failsafe

mechanism that carefully regulates the behavioral contexts in which crucial but potentially costly

behaviors, including vocalization, are produced.

By exploiting selective genetic access to PAG-USV neurons as a point of entry into central

circuits for social and courtship vocalizations, we have begun to map the brain-wide architecture

and synaptic organization of circuitry for a complex, natural behavior. In addition to the inputs

from the POA and Amg$_{C/M}$ that were the focus of this study, our transsynaptic tracing identified a

number of forebrain regions whose projections converge onto the PAG vocal gating circuit,

consistent with the idea that the PAG integrates a wide variety of social, environmental, and

interoceptive information to gate vocalization in a context-appropriate manner. Given that

context-dependent vocal gating is a hallmark of human vocalizations, including speech (Stivers

et al., 2009), it will be of great interest in future studies to more fully describe the neuronal

populations whose inputs to the PAG shape vocal behavior. We note that vocal behavior is not

simply binary: in addition to deciding whether or not to vocalize, an animal must produce

vocalizations that are appropriate for a given situation. The elucidation of circuit and synaptic

mechanisms through which forebrain inputs to the PAG vocal gating circuit influence USV

production represents an important first step toward understanding how forebrain-to-midbrain

circuits regulate the production of vocalizations across different behavioral contexts to enable

effective communication.

Materials and Methods

CONTACT FOR REAGENT AND RESOURCE SHARING

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to the co-

corresponding authors, Katherine Tschida (kat227@cornell.edu) or Richard Mooney

(mooney@neuro.duke.edu).

EXPERIMENTAL MODELS AND SUBJECT DETAILS

Animal statement. All experiments were conducted according to protocols approved by the

Duke University Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee.

Animals. For optogenetic activation and axonal tracing experiments, the following mouse lines

from Jackson labs were used: C57 (000664), Esr1-Cre (017911), VGAT-Cre (016962), Ai14

(007908). Fos-dsTVA mice (Jackson Labs, 027831) were used for activity-dependent labeling of

PAG-USV neurons employed in the transsynaptic tracing experiments and in whole-cell

recording experiments. In a subset of whole-cell recording experiments, VGAT-Cre homozygous

mice were crossed to Fos-dsTVA homozygous mice.

METHOD DETAILS

Viruses: The following viruses and injection volumes were used: AAV2/1-hSyn-FLEX-ChR2-

eYFP (Addgene), AAV-pgk-retro-Cre (Addgene), AAV-hsyn-retro-FLEX-ChR2 (Addgene), AAV-

FLEX-GFP (Addgene), AAV-FLEX-tdTomato (Addgene), AAV-FLEX-oG (Duke Viral Vector

Core). EnvA-ΔG-RV-GFP, CANE-RV-mCherry, and AAV-FLEX-TVA-mCherry were produced in

house as previously described (Rodriguez et al., 2017; Sakurai et al., 2016; Tschida et al.,

2019). The final injection coordinates were as follows: POA, AP=0.14 mm, ML= 0.3 mm, DV=

5.5 mm; $Amg_{C/M}$, AP=-1.5 mm, ML= 2.3 mm, DV= 4.6 mm; PAG, AP=-4.7 mm, ML= 0.7 mm,

DV= 1.75 mm. Viruses were pressure-injected with a Nanoject II (Drummond) at a rate of 4.6 nL

every 15s.

Transsynaptic tracing from PAG-USV and GABAergic PAG neurons: To selectively infect

PAG-USV neurons with viruses, ds-Fos-TVA males were given social experience with a female

(30-60 mins.) that resulted in high levels of USV production (500-5000 USVs total). Males were

then anesthetized (1.5-2% isoflurane), and the caudolateral PAG was targeted for viral injection.

For transsynaptic tracing from PAG-USV neurons, the PAG was injected with a 4:1:1 mixture of

CANE-LV-Cre, AAV-FLEX-TVA-mCherry, and AAV-FLEX-oG (total volume of 300 nL). After a

wait time of 10-14 days, the PAG was then injected with EnvA-ΔG-RV-GFP (100 nL, diluted

1:5), and animals were sacrificed after waiting an additional 4-7 days.

To transsynaptically label inputs to GABAergic PAG neurons, the caudolateral PAG of VGAT-

Cre mice was injected with a 1:1 mixture of AAV-FLEX-TVA-mCherry, and AAV-FLEX-oG (total

volume of 100 nL). After a wait time of 10-14 days, the PAG was then injected with EnvA-ΔG-

RV-GFP (100 nL, diluted 1:5), and animals were sacrificed after waiting an additional 4-7 days.

We note that because our goal was to identify long-range inputs onto PAG-USV and GABAergic

PAG neurons, we used survival times that prioritized visualization of afferent cell bodies in

distant locations rather than the integrity of the starter cell populations (which die off over time).

Hence, we do not include quantification of starter cell populations within the PAG, as these

cannot be meaningfully related to the numbers of cells that provide monosynaptic input to PAG-

USV and GABAergic PAG neurons.

In vivo optogenetic stimulation: Custom-made or commercially available (RWD) optogenetic

ferrules were implanted in the same surgeries as viral injection just above target brain locations

and were fixed to the skull using Metabond (Parkell). Neurons or their axon terminals were

optogenetically activated with illumination from a 473 nm laser (3-15 mW) at 10-20 Hz (50 ms

pulses, 2-10s total) or with phasic laser pulses (1-2s duration). Laser stimuli were driven by

computer-controlled voltage pulses (Spike 7, CED).

Post-hoc visualization of viral labeling: Mice were deeply anaesthetized with isoflurane and

then transcardially perfused with ice-cold 4% paraformaldehyde in 0.1 M phosphate buffer, pH

7.4 (4% PFA). Dissected brain samples were post-fixed overnight in 4% PFA at 4 °C,

cryoprotected in a 30% sucrose solution in PBS at 4 °C for 48 hours, frozen in Tissue-Tek

O.C.T. Compound (Sakura), and stored at –80 °C until sectioning. To visualize viral labeling

post-hoc, brains were cut into 80 μm coronal sections, rinsed 3x in PBS, and processed for 24

hours at 4 degrees with NeuroTrace (1:500 Invitrogen) in PBS containing 0.3% Triton-X. Tissue

sections rinsed again 3 x 10 mins. in PBS, mounted on slides, and coverslipped with

Fluoromount-G (Southern Biotech). After drying, slides were imaged with a 10x objective on a

Zeiss 700 laser scanning confocal microscope.

Floating section two-color *in situ* hybridization: *In situ* hybridization was performed using

hybridization chain reaction (HCR v3.0, Molecular Instruments). Dissected brain samples were

post-fixed overnight in 4% PFA at 4 °C, cryoprotected in a 30% sucrose solution in RNAse-free

PBS (i.e., DEPC-PBS) at 4 °C for 48 hours, frozen in Tissue-Tek O.C.T. Compound (Sakura),

and stored at –80 °C until sectioning. 80-μm thick coronal floating sections were collected into a

sterile 24 well plate in DEPC-PBS, fixed again briefly for 5 min. in 4% PFA, then placed in 70%

EtOH in DEPC-PBS overnight. Sections were rinsed in DEPC-PBS, incubated for 45 min in 5%

SDS in DEPC-PBS, rinsed and incubated in 2x SSCT, pre-incubated in HCR hybridization

buffer at 37 °C, and then placed in HCR hybridization buffer containing RNA probes overnight at

37 °C. The next day, sections were rinsed 4 x 15 minutes at 37 °C in HCR probe wash buffer,

rinsed with 2X SSCT, pre-incubated with HCR amplification buffer, then incubated in HCR

amplification buffer containing HCR amplifiers at room temperature for ~48 hours. On the final

day, sections were rinsed in 2x SSCT, counterstained with DAPI (Thermo Fisher, 1:5000),

rinsed again with 2x SSCT, then mounted on slides and coverslipped with Fluoromount-G

(Southern Biotech). After drying, slides were imaged with a 10x or 20x objective on a Zeiss 700

laser scanning confocal microscope. Cells were scored from 2-7 sections of tissue per brain

region from each animal, and the absence or presence of staining within cells was quantified

manually by comparing labeling within cells to background labeling in nearby regions known to

be negative for a given RNA transcript.

USV recording and analysis. To elicit USVs, single-housed males or females were presented

with a freely moving female, either in a novel test chamber or in the home cage. USVs were

recorded with an ultrasonic microphone (Avisoft, CMPA/CM16), amplified (Presonus

TubePreV2), and digitized at 250 kHz (Spike 7, CED). USVs were detected using codes from

the Holy lab (http://holylab.wustl.edu/) using the following parameters (mean frequency > 45

kHz; spectral purity > 0.3; spectral discontinuity < 0.85; min. USV duration = 5 ms; minimum

inter-syllable interval = 30 ms). To elicit USVs for tagging of PAG-USV neurons using CANE (for

transsynaptic tracing and slice experiments), Fos^{TVA} males were given social experience with a

female (30-60 min. session), either in their home cage fitted with an acoustically permeable lid

or in a test chamber that had no lid and allowed easy microphone access. Sixty minutes from

the start of the session, Fos^{TVA} males were anesthetized and taken for injection of the PAG with

viruses (see above), such that injections began approximately 2 hours from the start of USV

production.

Real-time place preference tests: Mice were lightly anesthetized to connect the 473 nm laser

to the optogenetic ferrule, then mice were placed in the center of a custom-made two-sided test

chamber, illuminated with infrared light only. The side of the chamber in which each mouse

received optogenetic stimulation was chosen randomly for each place preference test. When

the mouse was in the selected side, it received continuous 10 Hz optogenetic stimulation using

the minimum laser power that had either elicited or inhibited USV production for that same

mouse. Place preference was scored over a 20 minute test period as the proportion of the total

time that the mouse spent in the stimulated side of the chamber.

Quantification of optogenetically-elicited body movements: The mouse's position was

measured using custom Matlab codes that detected and tracked the centroid of the mouse's

body position across video frames (Logitech webcam, 30 frames per second), and speed of

movement was calculated as the change in position across pairs of frames. To align movement

with optogenetic activation of POA or $Amg_{C/M}$ neurons, we first estimated the temporal offset

between the webcam video and USV audio by calculating the time of the peak cross-covariance

between the high-pass filtered webcam audio and the low-pass filtered USV audio. This offset

was then used to align the mouse's movement to the onset of each optogenetic laser stimulus.

To measure the effects of optogenetic stimulation on the distance between an interacting male

and female mouse, the position of each mouse was tracked manually in every 6th frame, and the

distance between mice was scored as the distance from the center of the male's head to the

base of the female's tail.

Comparison of acoustic features of optogenetically-elicited USVs to female-directed

USVs: 52,821 USV syllables were segmented automatically with MUPET 2.0 using default

parameter settings (Van Segbroeck et al., 2017). 23,805 of these syllables came from

recordings of 15 mice recorded under both natural and optogenetic conditions (56% natural

USVs). The remaining 29,016 syllables came from recordings of a control group of 10 mice

used to establish across-day syllable repertoire variability. False positives (noise) from the

experimental group were manually removed by visual inspection of spectrograms, with 79% of

the original syllables retained. Syllables were analyzed using Autoencoded Vocal Analysis v0.2

(Goffinet, 2019), a Python package for generating low-dimensional latent descriptions of animal

vocalizations using a variational autoencoder (VAE) (Kingma, 2013). Briefly, the VAE jointly

trains two probabilistic maps: an encoder and a decoder. Spectrograms are encoded into low-

dimensional "latent" representations which can be subsequently decoded to approximately

reconstruct the original spectrograms. Both encoding and decoding distributions are

parameterized by convolutional neural networks. We trained a VAE on spectrograms of single

USV syllables from both experimental and control groups using the following parameters:

min_freq=30e3, max_freq=110e3, nperseg=1024, noverlap=512, spec_min_val=-5.0,

spec_max_val=-1.5, mel=False, time_stretch=True, within_syll_normalize=False. Each input

spectrogram was 128-by-128 pixels (16000 dimensions) and the VAE converged on a

parsimonious representation of only 5 dimensions. To visualize these 5-dimensional spaces, the

latent representations of syllable spectrograms are projected into two dimensions using the

UMAP algorithm (McInnes, 2018). To quantify differences in syllable repertoires, we estimate

the Maximum Mean Discrepancy (Gretton, 2012) between distributions of latent syllable

representations as in (Goffinet, 2019). First, a baseline level of variability in syllable repertoire

was established for each mouse by estimating MMD between the first and second halves of

female-directed syllables emitted in a recording session. Then MMD between each mouse's

natural and optogenetically-elicited repertoires was estimated. A paired comparison test

revealed significantly larger differences between optogenetic and natural repertoires than

expected by variability within the natural condition recording sessions alone (two-sided,

continuity-corrected Wilcoxon signed-rank test, W=9, p<5e-3). We then estimated MMD

between female-directed syllable repertoires recorded on different days, using the set of 10

control mice.

Whole-cell recordings: Mice that received viral injections 2-4 weeks prior were deeply

anesthetized with isoflurane and standard procedures were used to prepare 300 μm thick

coronal slices. The brain was dissected in ice-cold ACSF containing the following (in mM): 119

NaCl, 2.5 KCl, 1.30 $MgCl_2$, 2.5 $CaCl_2$, 26.2 $NaHCO_3$, 1.0 $NaHPO_4$-H_2O, and 11.0 dextrose and

bubbled with 95% O_2/5% CO_2. The brain was mounted on an agar block and sliced in ice-cold

ACSF with a vibrating-blade microtome (Leica). Slices were incubated for 15 minutes at 32ºC in

a bath of NMDG recovery solution containing the following (in mM): 93.0 NMDG, 2.5 KCl, 1.2

NaH_2PO_4, 30.0 $NaHCO_3$, 20.0 HEPES, 25.0 glucose, 2.0 thiourea, 5.0 Na L-ascorbate, 2.0 Na-

pyruvate, 10.0 $MgSO_4$ $7H_2O$, 0.5 $CaCl_2$, and 95.0 HCl. Slices were then moved to a bath of

HEPES storage solution containing the following (in mM): 93.0 NaCl, 2.5 KCl, 1.2 NaH_2PO_4,

30.0 $NaHCO_3$, 20.0 HEPES, 25.0 glucose, 2.0 thiourea, 5.0 Na L-ascorbate, 2.0 Na-pyruvate,

10.0 $MgSO_4$ $7H_2O$, and 0.5 $CaCl_2$, and allowed to gradually reach room temperature over the

course of 1 hour, where they remained for the duration. Recordings were performed in ACSF at

a temperature of 32ºC. For voltage clamp experiments patch electrodes (4-8 MΩ) were filled

with cesium internal solution containing the following (in mM): 130 cesium methanesulfonate, 5

QX-314 Br, 10 HEPES, 8 TEA-Cl, 0.2 EGTA, 4 ATP-Mg salt, 0.3 GTP-Na salt, and 10

phosphocreatine. Recordings were made using a Multiclamp 700B amplifier whose output was

digitized at 10 kHz (Digidata 1440A). Series resistance was <25 MΩ and was compensated up

to 90%. Signals were analyzed using Igor Pro (Wavemetrics). Neurons were targeted using

interference contrast and epifluorescence to visualize fluorescent indicators previously

expressed via viral injection. ChR2-expressing axon terminals were stimulated by 5-20 ms laser

pulses (3-10 mW) from a 473 nm laser delivered via fiber optic inside the recording pipette

(Optopatcher, A-M Systems). To confirm the direct nature of optogenetically evoked currents

2µM TTX (Tocris) and 100µM 4AP (Sigma-Aldrich) were added to the ACSF and perfused onto

slices. To confirm that evoked currents were GABAergic, 10µM gabazine (Tocris) was applied.

Pharmacological agents including were bath applied for 10 minutes before making recordings.

Data availability: The data that support the findings of this study are available from the co-

corresponding authors upon request.

Code availability: All custom-written Matlab codes used in this study are available from the co-

corresponding authors. The latest version of Autoencoded Vocal Analysis, the Python package

used to generate, plot, and analyze latent features of mouse USVs, is freely available online:

https://github.com/jackgoffinet/autoencoded-vocal-analysis.

QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSES

Statistics: Parametric, two-sided statistical comparisons were used in all analyses unless

otherwise noted (alpha=0.05). No statistical methods were used to predetermine sample sizes.

Error bars represent standard error of the mean unless otherwise noted. Mice were selected at

random for inclusion into either experimental or control groups for optogenetic experiments.

Mice were only excluded from analysis in cases in which viral injections were not targeted

accurately, or in cases with absent or poor viral expression.

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Figure 1. Inhibitory neurons in the hypothalamus and amygdala provide input to the PAG vocal gating circuit

A   Monosynaptic Inputs to PAG-USV neurons (N=4 mice)

B   Monosynaptic Inputs to PAG-VGAT$^+$ neurons (N=6 mice)

C   POA inputs to PAG-VGAT$^+$ neurons

D

Figure 1: Inhibitory neurons in the hypothalamus and amygdala provide input to the PAG vocal gating circuit. (A) (Left) Viral strategy shown for transsynaptic labeling of direct inputs to PAG-USV neurons (performed in N=4 males). (Right) Confocal images are shown of starter PAG-USV neurons, upstream neurons labeled within the POA, and upstream neurons labeled within the Amg$_{C/M}$ and CeA (B) Same, for transsynaptic labeling of direct inputs to GABAergic PAG neurons (performed in N=4 males, N=2 females). (C) Representative confocal image of in situ hybridization performed on transsynaptically-labeled POA neurons that provide direct input to GABAergic PAG neurons (labeled with GFP, shown in white), showing overlap with expression of VGAT (green) and VGlut2 (red). DAPI shown in blue. (D) Quantification of overlap of transsynaptically labeled POA and amygdala neurons (CeA and Amg$_{C/M}$ combined) with VGAT and VGlut2 (N=2 male mice per condition). Total numbers of neurons scored for overlap in each condition are indicated by the numbers over the bars. See also Table S1 and Figures S1-4.

Figure 2. Activating PAG-projecting POA neurons elicits USVs in the absence of social cues

Figure 2: Activating PAG-projecting POA neurons elicits USVs in the absence of social cues. (A) (Left) Viral strategy to express ChR2 in POA$_{PAG}$ neurons. (Right) Example trial showing that optogenetic activation of POA$_{PAG}$ neurons elicits USV production in an isolated animal. (B) (Left) Raster plot shows USVs elicited in many trials in a representative mouse following optogenetic activation of POA$_{PAG}$ neurons. (Middle) Mean USV rate aligned to delivery of blue light pulses plotted for that same mouse. (Right) Mean USV rate plotted for N=9 mice following optogenetic activation of POA$_{PAG}$ neurons. (C) Representative confocal image and quantification of in situ hybridization performed on POA$_{PAG}$ neurons (tdTomato, red), showing overlap with Esr1 (white) and VGAT (green). DAPI is blue, N=2 mice. (D) (Left) Viral strategy used to express ChR2 in Esr1$^+$ POA neurons. (Middle) Raster plot shows USVs elicited in many trials in a representative mouse following optogenetic activation of Esr1$^+$ POA neurons. (Right) Mean USV rate plotted for N=7 mice following optogenetic activation of Esr1$^+$ POA neurons. (E) Same as (D), for experiments in which the axon terminals of Esr1+ POA neurons were optogenetically activated within the PAG. Data shown for stimulation with10s-long, 20 Hz blue light pulses. Please note that one mouse in which USVs were elicited by optogenetic stimuli that did not include the 10s-long, 20 Hz stimulus is excluded from the summary analysis shown in the right-most panel. See also Figures S5, S6, and S9. (F) Summary plots show mean number of USVs per second of optogenetic stimulation (left, p=0.0013, one-way ANOVA between all groups, with post-hoc t-tests showing that each experimental condition was significantly different from control conditions at p<.01), mean number of optogenetic trials with USVs (middle, p=1.8E-6, one-way ANOVA between all groups, with post-hoc t-tests showing that each experimental condition was significantly different from control conditions at p<.01), and mean latency from onset of optogenetic stimulus to onset of first USV (right) for mice in which optogenetic stimulation was applied to POA$_{PAG}$ neurons (N=9 mice), Esr1$^+$ POA neurons (N=7 mice), Esr1$^+$ POA axon terminals within the PAG (N=5 mice), GFP-expressing Esr1$^+$ POA neurons (N=5 mice), VGlut$^+$ POA neurons (N=3 mice), VMH$_{PAG}$ neurons (N=3), and Esr1+ POA axon terminals within the VTA (N=4 mice).

Figure 3. Acoustic characterization of USVs elicited by optogenetic activation of POA neurons

A Variational Autoencoder

B Latent Space

PC 1

PC 2

C Female-directed USVs
Optogenetically-elicited USVs

Mouse #1

Mouse #2

D
N=6 POA$_{PAG}$-ChR2
N=6 Esr1-POA-ChR2
N=3 Esr1-terminal ChR2
N=10 control mice

MMD

Within-mouse fd vs. fd

Within-mouse opto vs. fd

E
All mice (N=15)
n=9720 female-directed USVs
n=8989 optogenetically-elicited USVs

F Syllable Energy (dB)   Bandwidth (kHz)

opto 1   opto 2   opto 3   fd 1   fd 2

kHz

200 ms

Figure 3: Acoustic characterization of USVs elicited by optogenetic activation of POA neurons. (A) The VAE takes spectrograms as input (left), maps the spectrograms to low-dimensional latent representations using an encoder (middle), and approximately reconstructs the input spectrogram using a decoder (right). (B) (Left) Dimensionality reduction techniques such as PCA or UMAP can be used to visualize the resulting latent vectors. (Right) Interpolations in latent space correspond to smooth USV syllable changes in spectrogram space exhibiting realistic dimensions of variation. (C) UMAP projections of latent syllable representations of female-directed USVs (red) and optogenetically-elicited USVs (blue) from two example mice. (D) MMD was calculated between distributions of latent syllable representations to generate three comparisons: female-directed USVs from the first half of the recording session vs. female-directed USVs from the second half, all female-directed USVs vs. opto-USVs (N=16 experimental mice), and female-directed USVs from two different recordings sessions in N=10 control mice (gray points). Note that larger MMD values indicate that distributions are more dissimilar (E) UMAP projections of latent descriptions of female-directed (red) and optogenetically-elicited USVs (blue) for all mice (N=15). (F) UMAP projections of optogenetically-elicited USVs only, color-coded by total energy (left) and frequency bandwidth (right). Example spectrograms of opto-USVS and female-directed USVs are plotted below, and the location of each example USV in UMAP space is indicated by the colored dots on the grayscale UMAP projection on the bottom left.

Figure 4: Activation of Amg_{C/M-PAG} neurons transiently suppresses USV production

Figure 4: Activating Amg_{C/M-PAG} neurons transiently suppresses USV production. (A) (Left) Viral strategy used to express ChR2 in Amg_{C/M-PAG} neurons. (Right) Confocal image of representative Amg_{C/M-PAG} cell body labeling achieved with this viral strategy. (B) (Left) Spectrogram showing a representative trial in which optogenetic activation of Amg_{C/M-PAG} neurons suppresses USV production during the laser stimulation period. (Right) Group data quantified for N=8 mice. (C) Confocal image and quantification of in situ hybridization performed on Amg_{C/M-PAG} neurons (GFP, shown in white), showing overlap with VGlut2 (red) and VGAT (green). DAPI in blue, N=2 mice. (D) Left: viral strategy used to express ChR2 in the PAG axon terminals of Amg_{C/M-PAG} neurons. Right: Quantification of the number of USVs produced in the 1s period prior to optogenetic stimulation (pre), the 1s period of optogenetic stimulation (laser), and the 1s period following optogenetic stimulation (post). Data for each mouse were normalized by dividing the pre, laser, and post measurements by the total number of USVs produced during the pre-laser period. Group averages are shown for mice in which Amg_{C/M-PAG} neurons were optogenetically activated (N=12, dark blue), mice in which the PAG axon terminals of Amg_{C/M-PAG} neurons were optogenetically activated (N=3, light blue), control mice in which the blue laser was shined over the mouse's head but not connected to the optogenetic ferrule (N=9, gray), control mice in which GFP was expressed in Amg_{C/M-PAG} neurons (N=4, green), and control mice in which the laser was triggered but not turned on (N=6, black). Error bars represent S.E.M. Please note that the decay in USV rates over time in the control groups reflects the natural statistics of USV production (increasing probability that a bout will end as time progresses). See also Figures S5, S7, S8, and S9.

Figure 5: Amg$_{C/M}$ neurons provide direct inhibition onto PAG-USV neurons

Figure 5: Amg$_{C/M}$ neurons provide direct inhibition onto PAG-USV neurons. (A) Viral strategy (left) and schematic (right) for whole-cell patch clamp recordings from fluorescently identified CANE-tagged PAG-USV neurons while optogenetically activating Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ axons. (B) Example image of overlap of neurobiotin and mCherry-labeled PAG-USV cells with ChR2-expressing Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ axon terminals in the PAG. (C) Example of light-evoked IPSCs at different voltages from one PAG-USV cell recorded in TTX/4AP while stimulating Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ axons (left). IPSCs were abolished by bath gabazine application (right). (D) The peak magnitude of light-evoked currents at different membrane voltages for the same cell as (C) shows that the current reverses around the reversal potential of chloride and is abolished by gabazine. Currents were identified as IPSCs in this manner based on their reversal behavior and, for a subset of cells, by disappearance in gabazine. (E,F) Light-evoked IPSCs recorded in TTX/4AP (observed in n = 16 of 29 CANE-tagged cells from 9 mice) were abolished by application of gabazine (n = 10 cells also recorded in gabazine, N=10 cells, p<0.001, paired t-test). IPSC amplitude refers to the peak of the light-evoked current at 0 mV holding potential. Error bars represent S.E.M.

Figure 6: POA neurons provide direct inhibition onto VGAT⁺ PAG neurons, which provide direct inhibition onto PAG-USV neurons

Figure 6: POA neurons provide direct inhibition onto VGAT$^+$ PAG neurons, which provide direct inhibition onto PAG-USV neurons. (A) Viral strategy (left) and schematic (right) for whole-cell patch clamp recordings from fluorescently identified VGAT$^+$ PAG cells while optogenetically activating POA$_{PAG}$ axons. (B) Example image of mCherry-labeled VGAT$^+$ neurons with ChR2-labeled POA$_{PAG}$ axon terminals in the PAG. (C, D) Light-evoked IPSCs (observed in n=26 of 36 VGAT$^+$ neurons recorded from 11 mice) persisted in TTX/4AP and were abolished by bath application of gabazine (n=10 cells recorded at baseline, n=22 cells recorded in TTX/4AP, and n=13 cells also recorded in gabazine including the following pairs: 6 cells recorded in both baseline and TTX/4AP, 3 cells recorded in both baseline and gabazine, and 10 cells recorded in both TTX/4AP and gabazine, p=0.03, one-way ANOVA comparing baseline vs. TTX+4-AP vs. SR-95531, followed by a post-hoc t-test revealing a significant difference between TTX+4-AP vs. SR-95531, p<.018). IPSC amplitude refers to the peak of the light-evoked current at 0 mV holding potential. Error bars represent S.E.M. (E) Viral strategy (left) and schematic (right) for whole-cell recordings from fluorescently identified CANE-tagged PAG-USV neurons while optogenetically activating local VGAT$^+$ PAG neurons. (F) Example image of mCherry-labeled CANE-tagged PAG-USV neurons and ChR2-labeled VGAT$^+$ PAG neurons. (G,H) Light-evoked IPSCs recorded in TTX/4AP (observed in n = 13 of 16 CANE-tagged cells from 4 mice) were abolished by gabazine application (N=10 cells also recorded in gabazine, p<0.001, paired t-test). IPSC amplitude refers to the peak of the light-evoked current at 0 mV holding potential. Error bars represent S.E.M. See also Figure S10.

Figure 7: Model of bidirectional descending control of the PAG vocal gating circuit

Figure 7: Model of bidirectional descending control of the PAG vocal gating circuit. Inhibitory neurons

within the POA provide direct input to inhibitory neurons within the PAG, which in turn provide direct input to

PAG-USV neurons. In this manner, activation of POA_{PAG} neurons disinhibits PAG-USV neurons, which provide

excitatory input to downstream vocal premotor neurons and drive USV production. Conversely, inhibitory

neurons within the $Amg_{C/M}$ provide direct inhibitory input to PAG-USV neurons. Hence activation of $Amg_{C/M-PAG}$

neurons reduces PAG-USV activity and transiently suppresses USV production.

Supplementary Information: We have included ten supplemental figures, three supplemental movies, and one supplemental table.

Figure S1, related to Figure 1: Monosynaptic rabies-based tracing reveals POA and amygdala inputs to the midbrain vocalization circuit.

Figure S1, related to Figure 1: Monosynaptic rabies-based tracing reveals preoptic and amygdala inputs to the midbrain vocalization circuit. (A) Example confocal images showing transsynaptic labeling of neurons in the preoptic area of the hypothalamus (POA, green) that provide monosynaptic input to GABAergic PAG neurons (left-most confocal image, VGAT-Cre female; middle confocal image, VGAT-Cre male) or to PAG-USV neurons (right confocal image, Fos^{TVA} male; blue, Neurotrace). (B-C) Same, for transsynaptically labeled neurons in (B) the central-medial boundary region of the amygdala (Amg$_{C/M}$) and (C) the central amygdala (CeA). Coronal brain atlas images show the approximate plane of section of the confocal images to the right. Red rectangles superimposed on the atlas images indicate the approximate location of the brain regions shown in the confocal images. See also Table S1 and Figures S2-4. Scale bars, 250 μm. All brain atlas images were obtained from the Allen Mouse Brain Reference Atlas, (https://mouse.brain-map.org/experiment/thumbnails/100048576?Image_type=atlas).

Figure S2, related to Figure 1: Monosynaptic rabies-based tracing reveals cortical inputs to the midbrain vocalization circuit.

Figure S2, related to Figure 1: Monosynaptic rabies-based tracing reveals cortical inputs to the midbrain vocalization circuit. (A) Example confocal images showing transsynaptic labeling of neurons in the infralimbic cortex (green) that provide monosynaptic input to GABAergic PAG neurons (left-most confocal image, VGAT-Cre female; middle confocal image, VGAT-Cre male) or to PAG-USV neurons (right confocal image, Fos[TVA] male; blue, Neurotrace). (B-E) Same, for transsynaptically labeled neurons in (B) insular cortex, (C) motor (M1, M2), and cingulate (Cg) cortices, (D) M1, M2, and somatosensory cortex (S1), and (E) auditory cortex. Coronal brain atlas images show the approximate plane of section of the confocal images to the right. Red rectangles superimposed on the atlas images indicate the approximate location of the brain regions shown in the confocal images. See also Table S1 and Figures S1, S3, and S4. Scale bars, 250 μm. All brain atlas images were obtained from the Allen Mouse Brain Reference Atlas, (https://mouse.brain-map.org/experiment/thumbnails/100048576?Image_type=atlas).

Figure S3, related to Figure 1: Monosynaptic rabies-based tracing reveals additional hypothalamic inputs to the midbrain vocalization circuit.

Figure S3, related to Figure 1: Monosynaptic rabies-based tracing reveals additional hypothalamic inputs to the midbrain vocalization circuit. (A) Example confocal images showing transsynaptic labeling of neurons in the anterior hypothalamus (green) that provide monosynaptic input to GABAergic PAG neurons (left-most confocal image, VGAT-Cre female; middle confocal image, VGAT-Cre male) or to PAG-USV neurons (right confocal image, Fos^{TVA} male; blue, Neurotrace). (B-D) Same, for transsynaptically labeled neurons in (B) the paraventricular nucleus (PVN), lateral hypothalamus (LH), and zone incerta (ZI), (C) ventromedial hypothalamus (VMH) and LH, (D) posterior hypothalamus, and (E) premammillary nucleus. Coronal brain atlas images show the approximate plane of section of the confocal images to the right. Red rectangles superimposed on the atlas images indicate the location of the brain regions shown in the confocal images. See also Table S1 and Figures S1, S2, and S4. Scale bars, 250 µm. All brain atlas images were obtained from the Allen Mouse Brain Reference Atlas, (https://mouse.brain-map.org/experiment/thumbnails/100048576?Image_type=atlas).

Figure S4, related to Figure 1: Monosynaptic rabies-based tracing reveals additional subcortical inputs to the midbrain vocalization circuit.

Figure S4, related to Figure 1: Monosynaptic rabies-based tracing reveals additional subcortical inputs to the midbrain vocalization circuit. (A) Example confocal images showing transsynaptic labeling of neurons in the ventral pallidum (green) that provide monosynaptic input to GABAergic PAG neurons (left-most confocal image, VGAT-Cre female; middle confocal image, VGAT-Cre male) or to PAG-USV neurons (right confocal image, Fos^{TVA} male; blue, Neurotrace). (B-D) Same, for transsynaptically labeling of neurons in (B) lateral septum, (C) bed nucleus of the stria terminals (BNST), (D) lateral habenula, and (E) paraventricular nucleus of the thalamus (PVT). Coronal brain atlas images show the approximate plane of section of the confocal images to the right. Red rectangles superimposed on the atlas images indicates the location of the brain regions shown in the confocal images. See also Table S1 and Figures S1-3. Scale bars, 250 μm. All brain atlas images were obtained from the Allen Mouse Brain Reference Atlas, (https://mouse.brain-map.org/experiment/thumbnails/100048576?Image_type=atlas).

Figure S5, related to Figures 2 and 4: Additional information related to the optogenetic activation of POA$_{PAG}$, POA-Esr1$^+$ neurons, and Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons

A   Real-time place preference tests

POA$_{PAG}$-ChR2 (N=7)
POA-Esr1-ChR2 (N=5)
Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$-ChR2 (N=6)
POA-Esr1-ChR2 VTA terminals (N=4)

B   Effects of optogenetic activation on movement

Figure S5, related to Figures 2 and 4. Additional information related to the optogenetic activation of POA$_{PAG}$, POA-Esr1+ neurons, and Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons. (A) Real-time place preference tests were performed in which either POA or Amg$_{C/M}$ neurons were optogenetically activated when mice were in one of two sides of a test chamber (see Methods). (B) The mean speeds of mice were calculated and aligned to the onset of optogenetic activation of POA$_{PAG}$ neurons (top left), POA-Esr1^{+} neurons (top right), and Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons (bottom left). (Bottom, right) Distances between male Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$-ChR2 mice and their female social partners were calculated and aligned to the onset of optogenetic activation of Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons.

Figure S6, related to Figure 2: Additional characterization of USVs elicited by optogenetic activation of POA neurons

Figure S6, related to Figure 2. Additional characterization of USVs elicited by optogenetic activation of POA neurons. Top: the minimum latency from the onset of optogenetic stimulation to the onset of the first optogenetically-elicited USV is plotted for three groups of mice: ChR2 expressed in POA_{PAG} neurons (N=9 mice, blue points), ChR2 expressed in Esr1^{+} POA neurons (N=7 mice, black points), and ChR2 expressed in axon terminals within the PAG of Esr1^{+} POA neurons (N=5 mice, red points). Bottom: same plot as above, but with the y range restricted from 0 to 0.5s. (B) Quantification of the duration of USV bouts elicited by 2s, 10-20 Hz optogenetic stimulation of POA neurons. Each column represents a different mouse, and each point represents the duration of a USV bout elicited by a 2s-long optogenetic stimulus. Colors as in (A). Please note that 5 animals shown in (A) had only a small number of 2-s long optogenetic activation trials and were therefore not included in the analysis shown in (B).

Figure S7, related to Figure 4: Extent of cell body labeling of Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons

Figure S7, related to Figure 4. Extent of cell body labeling of Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons. Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons were labeled by injecting AAV-retro-Cre into the caudolateral PAG and AAV-FLEX-GFP into the Amg$_{C/M}$. (A-C) Three planes of coronal section are shown that cover the rostral to caudal extent of Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ cell body labeling.

Figure S8, related to Figure 4: Comparison of hypothalamus and amygdala cell body labeling achieved after transsynaptic tracing from the PAG vocal gating circuit versus AAV-retro-Cre injection into the caudolateral PAG

Figure S8, related to Figure 4. Comparison of hypothalamus and amygdala cell body labeling achieved after transsynaptic tracing from the PAG vocal gating circuit versus AAV-retro-Cre injection into the caudolateral PAG. Representative coronal sections are shown for forebrain cell body labeling observed after monosynaptic rabies-based tracing from GABAergic PAG neurons (bottom rows, GFP-labeled cells) or AAV-retro-Cre injection into the caudolateral PAG of an Ai14 reporter mouse (top rows, tdTomato-labeled cells, see Methods). A-F show different planes of section as noted. Note that although both $Amg_{C/M}$ and CeA neurons are labeled after transsynaptic tracing from PAG-GABA neurons (D-F, bottom row), CeA neuronal labeling is absent after injection of AAV-retro-Cre (F, top row). Scale bars, 250 μm.

Figure S9, related to Figures 2 and 4: Dual tracing of the axonal projections of POA$_{PAG}$ and Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons

Rostral PAG/retrorubral

POA

Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$

Caudal PAG

VTA/SNr

250 μm

Figure S9, related to Figures 2 and 4. **Dual tracing of the axonal projections of POA$_{PAG}$ and Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons.** POA$_{PAG}$ neurons are labeled with GFP, and Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons are labeled with tdTomato. (Top left) Plane of section through the POA shows the beginning of POA$_{PAG}$ cell body labeling in green and axonal projections to the lateral POA from Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons in red. (Middle left) Plane of section through the Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ shows axonal projections from POA$_{PAG}$ neurons that overlap with Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ cell bodies. (Bottom left) Plane of section through the VTA/SNr. (Top right) Plane of section including the rostral PAG and retrorubral area. (Bottom right) Place of section through the caudal PAG, showing the overlapping terminal fields of POA$_{PAG}$ and Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons. These representative images are from a female mouse, and we found that POA$_{PAG}$ and Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons have similar axonal projections in males and females (data not shown).

Figure S10, related to Figure 6: POA neurons provide direct inhibition onto few PAG-USV neurons

Figure S10, related to Figure 6. **POA neurons provide direct inhibition onto few PAG-USV neurons.**

(A) Viral strategy (left) and schematic (right) for whole-cell patch clamp recordings from fluorescently identified PAG-USV cells while optogenetically activating POA_{PAG} axons. (B) Light-evoked IPSCs were observed in 1 of 23 mCherry-labeled PAG-USV neurons recorded from 7 mice.

Movie S1, related to Figure 2. Optogenetic activation of POA$_{PAG}$ neurons elicits USVs. An isolated male mouse is shown which has ChR2 is expressed in POA$_{PAG}$ neurons. Optogenetic activation of these neurons with pulses of blue light elicits USV production. Video is shown at the top, a spectrogram (bottom) showing the optogenetically-elicited USVs is synchronized to the video, and pitch-shifted audio (80 kHz to 5 kHz transformation) is included to place the USVs within the human hearing range.

Movie S2, related to Figure 4. Optogenetic activation of Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons transiently suppresses USV production. A male mouse which has ChR2 expressed in Amg$_{C/M-PAG}$ neurons is shown interacting with and producing USVs directed at a female social partner. Optogenetic activation of these neurons with pulses of blue light transiently suppresses USV production without suppressing non-vocal courtship behavior. Video is shown at the top, a spectrogram (bottom) showing the optogenetically-elicited USVs is synchronized to the video, and pitch-shifted audio (80 kHz to 5 kHz transformation) is included to place the USVs within the human hearing range.

Table S1, related to Figure 1. List of forebrain inputs to the PAG vocal gating circuit.

Cortical regions	VGAT+ PAG	PAG-USV
Prelimbic/infralimbic	+	+
Insular	+	+
M1/M2	+	+
Cingulate	+	+
S1/S2	+	+
Auditory	+	+
Subcortical	VGAT+ PAG	PAG-USV
Ventral pallidum	+	+
Lateral septum	+	+
BNST	+	+
Habenula	+	+
Zona incerta	+	+
Hypothalamus	VGAT+ PAG	PAG-USV
Preoptic	+	+
Anterior hypothalamus	+	+
Lateral hypothalamus	+	+
PVH	+	+
VMH	+	+
Posterior hypothalamus	+	+
Premammillary/mammillary	+	+
Amygdala	VGAT+ PAG	PAG-USV
Central-medial boundary	+	+
Central amygdala	+	+
Thalamus	VGAT+ PAG	PAG-USV
PVT	+	+