Title: Striatal fiber photometry reflects primarily non-somatic activity

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Abstract:

Calcium recording via fiber photometry is commonly used as a proxy for recording population
neuronal activity *in vivo*, yet the biological source of the photometry signal remains unclear.
Here, using simultaneous *in vivo* extracellular electrophysiology and fiber photometry in the
striatum, along with endoscopic 1-photon and 2-photon calcium imaging, we determined that the
striatal fiber photometry signal reflects primarily non-somatic, and not somatic, changes in
calcium.

 Main Text:

Fiber photometry enables recording of bulk calcium fluctuations in genetically defined neuronal
populations. While use of this technique has grown in popularity in recent years[1], it remains
unclear whether the photometry signal reflects changes in action potential firing (*i.e.*, 'spiking')
or non-spiking related changes in calcium. In microscope-based calcium imaging, the potential
for neuropil to contaminate somatic calcium signals motivated both optical and analytical
approaches for isolating somatic calcium signals from neuropil[2–5]. However, these approaches
cannot be applied to fiber photometry as the technique does not retain spatial information of the
emitted fluorescence.

In the striatum, fiber photometry recordings exhibit different temporal profiles than spiking when
aligned to the same behavioral events[6]. Event-related changes in spiking occur in close
proximity (<1 s) to actions, whereas fiber photometry signals can ramp up for several seconds

Figure 1. Electrophysiological correlates of fiber photometry. a, (*left*) Experimental setup: An optical fiber coupled to a 32-channel array (lower right) was implanted in the striatum to simultaneously record fiber photometry signals and multiunit spiking. Inset: Geometry of the array/fiber bundle. (*right*) Representative example of the three types of collected data. **b,** Photograph showing electrode damage and GCaMP expression. **c,** Average photometry and spiking activity aligned to the onset of movement. **d,** Average photometry and spiking aligned to photometry peaks. **e,** Average photometry transients split into quintiles of increasing peak prominence (p1-p5 represent photometry transients of increasing amplitudes). **f,** Spiking changes at each quintile of photometry peak prominence. **g,** (*left*) Correlation between maximum photometry and maximum spiking for each photometry peak quintile (subjects represented by color, quintiles by shape) (*right*) Quantification of (*left*). **h,** Average photometry and spiking aligned to spiking burst (s1-s5 reflect busts of increasing number of spikes). **i,** Spiking bursts of increasing amplitude. **j,** Photometry response to increasing amplitude of bursts. **k,** (*left*) Correlation between maximum photometry and spiking for burst quintiles (subjects represented by color, quintiles by shape). (*right*)

before actions[6]. To investigate this discrepancy, we performed simultaneous fiber photometry
and electrophysiological recordings in freely moving mice (n = 6). We expressed GCaMP6s in
the striatum using either a non-specific viral strategy in wildtype mice (n = 5) or a Cre-
dependent strategy in Drd1a-Cre mice (n = 1). In the same surgery, we implanted an array of 32
tungsten microwires surrounding an optical fiber for collecting both photometry signals and
spiking activity (**Fig. 1a, b**). We compared simultaneously recorded photometry and multi-unit
spiking (n = 73 units from 6 mice) around movement initiation (**Fig 1c; Extended Data Fig. 1**).
As previously reported[6], the photometry signal "ramped" up for ~10 seconds before the
movement, while average striatal spiking increased transiently around the start of movement
(**Fig. 1c**). We further sorted units into those that were positively (n = 29) or negatively (n = 12)
modulated around the movement start and observed little evidence for ramping in either
population (**Extended Data Fig. 1**).

Extended Data Figure 1. Response heterogeneity to initiation of movement. a, Mean spiking activity of the 73 recorded units around the start of movement. **b,** Ring plot showing the proportion of positively, negatively modulated, or unmodulated units. **c,** Average response of positively modulated units. **d,** Average response of negatively modulated units.

To further quantify the relationship between photometry and simultaneously recorded spiking,
we examined changes in spiking aligned to rapid increases in fluorescence (termed: photometry
transients) in 114 units recorded from 8 mice (6 WT and 2 Drd1a-Cre). Spiking activity
increased during the rising phase of the photometry transients, preceding the peak of the
photometry transient by ~500ms (**Fig. 1d**), similar to prior reports[7]. We sorted all photometry
transients into quintiles based on peak amplitude (p1-p5, **Fig. 1e**) and found an orderly
relationship such that across all animals, larger photometry transients were associated with
greater increases in spiking (**Fig. 1f**). However, this relationship was highly variable among
individual animals, with the size of photometry transient explaining 32% of the overall variance
in spiking activity but ranging from 0-98% across mice (**Fig. 1g**). The strength of this correlation
was not dependent on number of units in each recording (**Extended Data Fig. 2a**). Moreover,
there were no significant correlations between the transient amplitude (peak prominence) and
absolute firing rates of recorded units, the number of spikes in bursts coincident with these
transients, nor the number of units that were positively modulated coincident with photometry
peaks of different sizes (**Extended Data Fig. 2b–d**). We also quantified the converse
relationship, to determine whether larger spiking bursts resulted in larger changes in photometry
fluorescence. Here, we observed an increase in photometry signal following spiking bursts (**Fig.
1h**) but found no quantitative relationship between the strength of bursts and the amplitude of
coincident photometry transients (**Fig. 1i–k**). We conclude that photometry transients are
associated with transient increases in spiking, but larger photometry transients do not
necessarily reflect larger changes in spiking of the underlying population.

There are multiple explanations for why a larger photometry response might not reflect a larger
change in spiking. For instance, ensembles of co-activated striatal neurons are spatially
clustered[8,9], so the size of observed transients may depend on the distance between the
photometry fiber and an activated neuronal cluster, and not the amount of spiking in that cluster.
Alternatively, the photometry signal may reflect calcium changes in the neuropil, which exhibit
different spatial and temporal dynamics than somatic calcium[10]. To test this possibility, we
performed microendoscopic recordings and compared the full field fluorescence signal to both
somatic and neuropil signals extracted from the same imaging movies. We expressed
GCaMP6m in dorsal striatum direct or indirect pathway medium spiny neurons (MSNs) of
Drd1a-Cre (n = 6) or A2a-Cre (n = 6) mice, using a Cre-LoxP viral strategy (**Fig. 2a**) and
recorded calcium activity from these populations through an optical guide tube containing a 1-
mm diameter microendoscope gradient index (GRIN) lens[9]. We spatially cropped each of these
recordings to the approximate area of a 200-µM photometry fiber for analysis, resulting in 48
movies for analysis.

Three component signals were extracted from each movie (**Fig. 2b**): 1) A proxy for the
photometry signal (the average fluorescence of the raw recording, termed: pPhotom), 2)
average somatic activity (individual somatic activity traces extracted with CNMFe via the
CaImAn Python library[11]), and 3) non-somatic activity (regions of interest in each movie that
contained no somatic activity). In both Drd1a-Cre and A2a-Cre animals, the pPhotom signal
correlated more strongly with non-somatic than somatic signals (Pearson's coefficient of
determination, $p < 0.001$; **Fig. 2c, f**). We also calculated the Jaccard Similarity Index to compare
binarized signals, independent of amplitude of changes. Again, the non-somatic signal had
higher similarity to the pPhotom signal than the somatic signal ($p < 0.001$; **Fig. 2d, g**). To test
whether the relationship between the pPhotom and somatic signals was dependent on the
number of recorded somatic signals, we randomly selected increasing numbers of somatic

signals (from 1-80). The correlation with pPhotom increased with additional somatic signals but
plateaued at an R^2 ~0.5 in D1-MSNs and R^2 ~0.3 in A2a-MSNs (**Fig. 2e, h**), whereas the
correlation with non-somatic signals averaged >0.9 for both. Based on significantly stronger
correlations between pPhotom and non-somatic vs. somatic signals in all analyses, we conclude
that the striatal photometry signal reflects primarily non-somatic changes in calcium.

Figure 2. Photometry signal correlates strongly with non-somatic but not somatic changes in calcium. a, Experimental setup: Cre-dependent GCaMP6m was injected in the dorsomedial striatum (DMS) of D1-Cre or A2a-Cre mice and a miniature microscope was used to record neural activity. **b,** Three signals were extracted from calcium images: 1) average of the entire field (pPhotom), 2) average somatic signal through (via CNMFe cell extraction), and 3) average non-somatic signal, by masking regions were somas were present. **c,** Linear correlations between photometry and somatic and non-somatic signals in D1-positive neurons. **d,** Jaccard similarity between signal transients in the average signal, and somatic and non-somatic signals transients in D1-positive neurons. **e,** Correlation between photometry and somatic signals, as the activity of different numbers of cells was averaged. **f–h,** Same as **c–e** for A2A-positive neurons.

We further hypothesized that if photometry reflects primarily neuropil, the pPhotom signal
should be correlated across the whole imaging field, as dendritic and axonal arbors of medium
spiny neurons can extend >500µm from somas, which are themselves only ~10-20µm in
diameter[11,12]. To test this idea, we divided the unprocessed movies into 6x6-pixel square
regions (~12 microns, similar in size to an average soma) and calculated correlations between
each small region across the movies. High temporal correlations were observed between these
regions in each movie (Avg. R^2 = 0.95 ± 0.04; **Extended Data Fig. 3c, d).** In other words,
regardless of where a 6x6-pixel region was located, it had a strong temporal correlation with any
other 6x6-pixel region from the same movie. In addition, all individual 6x6-pixel regions
correlated strongly with the pPhotom signal, independent of their location in the imaging field
(Avg. R^2 = 0.97 ± 0.02; **Extended Data Fig. 3e, f).** In contrast, individual somatic signals
exhibited low temporal correlations with one another (Avg. R^2 = 0.06±0.13), and with the
pPhotom signal (Avg. R^2 = 0.21±0.12; **Extended Data Fig. 3d–f).** These analyses further
support our conclusion that photometry primarily reflects changes in neuropil calcium.

One potential confound of 1-photon endoscopic calcium imaging is that out of focus somas may

Extended Data Figure 2. Size of photometry transient is not correlated with neuronal bursting. a, Correlation between photometry transient size and spiking burst strength, around bursts where there was a photometry transient present. **b,** Correlation between photometry transient size and absolute firing rate, time-locked to photometry transients. **c,** Heatmap showing number of responsive neurons to photometry peaks in each quintile. Each column represents one unit and rows represent whether that unit was responsive during each photometry quintile. Numbers on the bottom show how many quintiles each unit was responsive to (from 0-5). **d,** Correlation between the number of cells in the recording and the R^2 value of the spiking and photometry transient relationship.

not be detected by the extraction algorithm and may therefore contaminate the "non-somatic"
signal. To eliminate this possibility, we performed volumetric 2-photon (2P) calcium imaging
through a GRIN lens in dorsal striatum MSNs (n = 4 mice; **Fig. 3a**). Cell body locations (ROIs)
were extracted from three different optical planes with the EXTRACT cell-extraction algorithm[13].
The contribution of out-of-focus somas to the average signal (pPhotom) was examined by
comparing the correlations between pPhotom and masked movies that excluded somas from
one, two, or all three optical planes (**Fig. 3b**). If out-of-focus somas contributed substantially to
the pPhotom signal we would expect the correlation to be reduced as somas from different focal
planes were excluded. This was not the case (one-way ANOVA, F = 1.12, p = 0.37; **Fig. 3c**).

Finally, we applied spatial filters of different frequencies using 2D Fast Fourier Transformations
(2D-FFTs) and tested how the resulting filtered movies correlated with the pPhotom signal (**Fig.**
3d). The pPhotom signal correlated best with low spatial frequencies, consistent with full-frame
changes (*i.e.*, at 0-2 cycles/frame, $R^2 > 0.85$). Soma-sized spatial frequencies (ranging from 25-
50 cycles/frame) correlated more weakly, at similar levels to average somatic signals in above
analyses (**Fig. 3e**, $R^2 \sim 0.4$).

Figure 3. Out-of-focus cells do not contribute substantially to the fiber photometry signal. a, Experimental set-up: we expressed GCaMP6s in the DMS and performed volumetric two-photon imaging of three consecutive optical planes. **b,** The raw movie from optical plane 1 (OP1) was masked with somatic ROIs from either optical plane 1 only (OP1), or optical plane 1 and optical plane 2 (OP1+2), or from the three optical planes (OP1+2+3). **c,** Correlations between the average signal of the raw movie (pPhotom) and the masked movies **d,** 2D-FFTs were used to test the contribution of different spatial frequencies. Top row shows an example of the transformation between the time and space domain without applying any bandpass filter. Bottom row shows the same process but applying a bandpass filter that includes only the signal that is between 0 and 2 cycles per frame (full-frame). **e,** Correlations between the pPhotom signal and signal from different spatial frequencies (bin-width = 2 cycles/frame)

We conclude that the photometry signal from cell bodies in the striatum correlates more strongly
with non-somatic than somatic calcium. This is consistent with recordings from cholinergic
neurons in the striatum[10] and may explain differences in the time-course of striatal photometry
and spiking activity preceding actions[6]. This may be also be relevant to recent experiments that
decoded position and speed information from hippocampal or cortical neuropil[15,16]. There are
limitations to our study. First, the results presented here are limited to recordings from the
striatum. Striatal neurons have extensive dendritic arbors that may accentuate the neuropil
contribution to the fiber photometry signal[11,12]. Second, our photometry recordings were
performed with GCaMP6s or GCaMP6m, which both have relatively slow kinetics[10]. Different
relationships may be observed with GCaMP variants with faster kinetics, target GCaMP to
specific cellular compartments[17,18], or experiments that position the recording probe in axonal
projection fields[19]. Despite these limitations, we argue that fiber photometry of cell bodies should
not be interpreted as a proxy for spiking activity in a structure, but rather as primarily reflecting
changes in neuropil calcium, which may therefore reflect inputs to a structure more so than
outputs from that structure.

Extended Data Figure 3. Fiber photometry correlates with whole-field changes in fluorescence signal. a, Experimental setup: D1-Cre mice were injected with Cre-dependent GCaMP6m in the DMS. **b,** Three signals were extracted from raw movies: 1) average of the entire field (pPhotom), 2) somatic signals (via CNMFe cell extraction), and 3) soma-sized regions (6x6 pixels) throughout the field. **c,** Heatmap showing the correlations among each extracted somatic signal (bottom), and among each soma-sized pixel (top). **d,** Quantification of **c**. **e,** Correlation between somatic signals and soma-sized pixels and pPhotom. **f,** same as **e**, but for increasing numbers of cells and pixels.

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Competing Interests statement
The authors have no competing interests.

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Methods:

Subjects:
The animals used in this study were 12 wildtype C57BL6 mice, 8 Drd1-Cre, 6 A2a-Cre, and 4 Drd1-Cre; Ai14 mice on a C57BL6/J background. Animals were housed in either the Washington University in St Louis animal facilities in standard vivarium cages with *ad libitum* food and water and a non-reversed 12-hour dark/light cycle or the Northwestern University animal facility with a reversed 12-hour light/dark cycle. All experimental procedures were approved by the Washington University Animal Care and Use Committee and the Northwestern University Animal Care and Use Committee.

Viral transduction:
Anesthesia was induced with 3-5% isoflurane and maintained at 0.5-1.5% isoflurane during stereotactic surgery. Ear bars and mouth holder were used to keep the mouse head in place while the skin was shaved and disinfected with a povidone/iodine solution. The skull was exposed and 1-mm diameter craniotomy was made with a microdrill mounted to the stereotaxic manipulator. Injections were performed with a glass pipette mounted in a Nanoject 3 infusion system (Drummond Scientific). 500 nL of virus AAV1-Syn-GCaMP6s AAV2/9-CAG-FLEX-GCaMP6m-WPRE.SV40 (1.37×10^{12} genome copies (GC) $\cdot$ ml^{-1}; Penn Vector Core), or AAV2/9-CaMKII-GCaMP6s (1.2×10^{12} GC $\cdot$ ml^{-1}) virus was infused over 10 minutes into either the dorsal striatum (AP +0.5 mm, ML +1.5 mm, DV -2.8 mm) or ventral striatum (AP +0.5 mm, ML +1.2 mm, DV -4.5 mm). The injector was left in place for 5 or 10 minutes before removal.

Optical guide implantation and head bar placement
We used a 1.4-mm-diameter drill bit to create another craniotomy (AP=1.0mm; ML=1.5mm) for implantation of the optical guide tube. We fabricated this guide tube by using ultraviolet liquid adhesive (Norland #81) to fix a 2.5-mm-diameter disc of #0 glass to the tip of a 3.8-mm-long, extra-thin 18-gauge stainless steel tube (McMaster-Carr). We ground off any excess glass using a polishing wheel (Ultratec). Using a 27-gauge blunt-end needle, we aspirated the cortex down to DV=–2.1mm from the dura and implanted the exterior glass face of the optical guide tube at DV=–2.35mm. After stereotaxic placement of these components, we attached a headbar to the entire assembly using Metabond (Parkell) and dental acrylic. For mice used for two-photon imaging, we used additional dental acrylic to construct a reservoir for holding water for the water-immersion objective lens. Mice recovered for 3–4 weeks before two-photon imaging experiments or mounting of the miniature microscope.

Gradient Index (GRIN) lens implantation and mounting of miniature microscope.
After 3-4 weeks, we inserted a gradient refractive index (GRIN) lens (1mm diameter; 4.12mm length; 0.46 numerical aperture; 0.45 pitch; GRINTECH GmbH or Inscopix Inc.) into the optical guide tube. In mice with uniform indicator expression, we secured the GRIN lens in the guide tube with ultraviolet (UV)-light curable epoxy (Loctite 4305). For miniscope imaging, after affixing the GRIN lens, we lowered a miniature microscope (nVistaHD, Inscopix Inc.) towards the GRIN lens until the fluorescent tissue was in focus. To secure the miniature microscope to the cranium, we created a base on the cranium around the GRIN lens using blue-light curable resin (Flow-It ALC; Pentron). We attached the base plate of the miniature microscope to the resin base using UV-light curable epoxy (Loctite 4305). After affixing its base plate, we released the microscope and attached a base plate cover (Inscopix Inc.). We coated the resin with black nail polish (Black Onyx, OPI) to make it opaque.

Implantation of electrode arrays:
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Following viral infusion, a combined electrophysiology/fiber photometry device was implanted.
Fiber optic cannulae (200 µm, 0.50 NA) with 1.25mm ceramic ferrules were purchased from
Thorlabs and cut to 6mm long. These cannulae were mounted in a custom electrode array with
32 Teflon-coated tungsten microwires (35 µm diameter; Innovative Neurophysiology) that
positioned the wires in a semi-circle surrounding a central gap where the photometry fiber was
mounted. This combined photometry/electrical recording device was implanted into the right
DMS (AP, +0.5 mm, ML, +1.5 mm, DV, -2.8 mm). The device was secured to skull with a thin
layer of adhesive dental cement (C &B Metabond, Parkell) followed by a larger layer of acrylic
dental dement (Lang Dental). After the cement fully cured animals were placed back in their
home-cage on a pre-heated pad at 37°C. After recovery, animals received a subcutaneous
injection of meloxicam (10 mg · kg^{-1}) and were returned to their home-cages for recovery. Mice
recovered for at least 2 weeks to allow for viral expression prior to recording.

Electrophysiological recordings:
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267 Neurophysiological signals were recorded by a multi-channel neurophysiology system (Plexon
268 Omniplex, Plexon Inc). Spike channels were acquired at 40 kHz and band-pass filtered at 150
269 Hz to 3 kHz before spike sorting. Recordings were performed in a 9" x 12" clear plastic box and
270 lasted between one and three hours. Video and tracking data was also recorded in real-time
271 with the Plexon Cineplex system.
272
Fiber photometry recordings:
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Fiber photometry acquisition was performed with a Neurophotometrics fiber photometry system
(FP3001, Neurphotometrics LTD). Briefly, this system utilizes a 470nm blue light LED which
was left on continuously at 40-100uW to excite GCaMP, and a fluorescence light path that
includes a dichroic mirror to pass emitted green fluorescence to a CMOS camera (FLIR
BlackFly). Fluorescence signals from the camera are processed with Bonsai (https://bonsai-
rx.org/docs) and transmitted as a voltage signal to the Plexon Omniplex for simultaneous
digitizing with the electrophysiological data.
281
Electrophysiology/Fiber photometry data analysis:
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283 Single and multiunits were manually discriminated using principal component analysis (Offline
284 Sorter; Plexon), using MANCOVA analyses to determine if single unit clusters were statistically
285 distinct from multi-unit clusters. Where single unit isolation did not reach statistical significance,
286 spike clusters were combined into multiunits. Data analysis was performed using a custom
287 Python/Neuroexplorer pipeline (code available at: https://osf.io/8j7g2/), described below.
288
Photometry signal preprocessing. The fiber photometry signal was processed using a custom
python/Neuroexplorer5 pipeline (code available at: https://osf.io/8j7g2/). We first applied both a
lowpass (6Hz) and a highpass filter (0.0005Hz) to the photometry signal to correct for high
frequency noise and photo bleaching, respectively. Photometry peaks were then identified using
the scipy.signal.find_peaks function, setting a prominence threshold of 1. Photometry peak
amplitude quantiles were created by diving the peak timestamps into five groups containing an
equal number of peaks each, using the pandas function pd.qcut.
296
Burst Analysis. Only recordings that had at least 10 units were used for the burst analysis. From
these recordings, 10 units were pseudo-randomly (avoiding very high/low firing rate) picked and
their firing activity was pooled. Bursts of spiking were detected using the Burst Analysis tool in
Neuroexplorer, using a firing rate based algorithm. The parameters were set as follows:
Hisotgram Bin: 0.05 seconds; Guassian Filter width: 5 bins; Burst Detection Threshold: 3
standard deviations; Minimum number of spikes in burst: 5.

303
304 *Normalization of signals:* In all peri-event histograms (PEHs), all the signals were z-scored to a
305 baseline period encompassing the first 25% of the analyzed interval.
306
Classification of responsive units. The classification of responsive units in Figure 2 F-G was
done by creating a PEH of each neuron around the photometry peak (figure 2D). We set a
baseline period for each neuron (-4 to -2 seconds from the photometry peak) and considered a
neuron to be responsive if firing in a signal window (-1 to 1 seconds from the photometry peak)
was at least 3 z-scores higher than the baseline window for at least 250 consecutive
milliseconds. We chose 3 standard deviations based on a permutation analysis that detected
<1% false positives with this threshold (data not shown).
314
One-photon endoscopic calcium imaging recordings:
Brain imaging in freely moving mice occurred in a circular arena (31cm in diameter). To
habituate mice to this arena, mice explored it for 1h on each of three sequential days before any
Ca^{2+} imaging. Prior to each imaging session we head-fixed each mouse by its implanted head
bar and allowed the mouse to walk or run-in place on a running wheel. We then attached the
miniature microscope and adjusted the focal setting to optimize the field-of-view. After securing
the microscope to the head of the mouse, we detached the mouse from its head restraint and
allowed it to freely explore the circular arena. After allowing ≥10min for the mouse to habituate
to the arena, fluorescence Ca^{2+} imaging commenced using 50–200µW of illumination power at
the specimen plane and a 20-Hz frame acquisition rate.
325
326 **Endoscopic calcium imaging analysis:**
327 *Cropping.* To better match the surface area of the most commonly used fiber photometry fiber,
328 we cropped each 1mm GRIN lens images into six 200micron square regions with the FIJI
329 distribution of ImageJ[1].
330
331 *Somatic activity extraction.* We used the CalmAn[2] cell body extraction Jupyter notebook pipeline
332 to extract somatic activity from 1P movies. Briefly, this pipeline implements motion correction
333 and the CNMF-E algorithm[3] in an online notebook, returning quality metrics and images of
334 extracted somatic signals for subsequent analysis. We then averaged the activity trace of
335 somatic signals.
336
337 *Non-somatic activity extraction.* After the ROIs of cell bodies were extracting using the CalmAn
338 pipeline, these ROIs were used to mask activity coming from those ROIs. The remaining activity
339 was averaged for each frame of the movie to create an average non-somatic signal.
340
341 *Extraction of photometry signals.* The proxy for photometry signal was obtained by averaging
342 the intensity of the entire field for each frame of the raw movie.
343
Two-photon calcium imaging recordings:
Drd1-Cre; Ai14 mice injected with AAV2/9-CaMKII-GCaMP6s were used for two-photon calcium
imaging. GCaMP6s was constitutively expressed in both MSN types, whereas tdTomato
expression was restricted to D1-MSNs. After habituating mice to head-fixation on a running
wheel, we used two-photon microscope with a piezoelectric actuator (Bruker) to acquire movies
of Ca^{2+} activity and tdTomato expression at three imaging planes separated by 20 µm in the
dorsal striatum of head-fixed mice during wheel running. We used a tunable laser (Insight X3,
Spectra Physics) and a 16x/0.8NA objective (Nikon) to acquire 512 x 512 pixel movies of each
plane at a 30-Hz frame acquisition rate (effectively 6 Hz per plane). We used λ = 920 nm to

simultaneously excite tdTomato and GCaMP6s fluorescence which we detected using GaAsP
photomultiplier tubes and band-pass filters (520/40 for GCaMP6s and 595/50 for tdTomato).
355
Two-photon calcium imaging processing:
We used an exponential fit to normalize slow variations in green and red fluorescence intensity
assumed to be due to photobleaching. We then motion corrected the tdTomato movie using
NormCorre[4]. We then applied the tdTomato motion correction transformations to the movie
frames of the green GCaMP6s fluorescence movie. We then corrected for fluctuations in
background fluorescence intensity in the GCaMP6s movie by applying a Gaussian low-pass
filter to each image, then dividing each image frame by its low-pass filtered version. We then
down sampled the GCaMP6s movie by a factor of 2 via linear interpolation.
364
Two-photon calcium imaging analysis:
Data analysis was performed using a custom Python/Neuroexplorer pipeline (code available at:
https://osf.io/8j7g2/), described below:
Fast Fourier Transformations (FFTs). All FFTs analyses were done using the numpy.fft2 module
of numpy. To obtain the signal coming from different spatial frequencies, an FFT was applied to
each frame, then a bandpass filter was applied through a circular mask that selected for specific
spatial frequencies. Finally, an inverse FFT was performed to recreate a filtered image that
contained only the spatial frequencies allowed by the filter.
373
374 *Non-somatic activity extraction.* After the ROIs of cell bodies were extracting using the
375 EXTRACT pipeline, these ROIs were used in the raw movie to mask all the activity coming from
376 those ROIs. The remaining activity was then averaged for each frame of the movie.
377
Histology:
At the end of the experiments, we performed histological verification of implant placements.
Animals were anesthetized with isoflurane, decapitated, and their brains were quickly removed
and placed in 10% formalin solution. Brains were incubated overnight in 10% formalin solution,
and then moved to 30% sucrose solution until sectioning. Coronal slices containing the striatum
were prepared using a freezing microtome (Leica SM2010R). Slices were mounted on
microscope slides with a mounting media and imaged with an epifluorescence microscope
(Zeiss). For in vivo electrophysiology electrode placement was assessed via observation of
implant tract or electric-lesions that were made under anesthesia before decapitation
(performed with a 5-s long pulse of 10 mA; Ugo Basile Lesion Making Device).
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