Vagus nerve stimulation recruits the central cholinergic system

to enhance perceptual learning

Kathleen A. Martin[1-5], Eleni S. Papadoyannis[6], Jennifer K. Schiavo[1-4], Saba Shokat Fadaei[1-4], Sofia Orrey Valencia[1-4], Nesibe Z. Temiz[7], Matthew J. McGinley[8-9], David A. McCormick[10], Robert C. Froemke[1-5,*]

[1] Skirball Institute for Biomolecular Medicine, New York University School of Medicine, New York, NY, USA

[2] Neuroscience Institute, New York University School of Medicine, New York, NY, USA

[3] Department of Otolaryngology, New York University School of Medicine, New York, NY, USA

[4] Department of Neuroscience and Physiology, New York University School of Medicine, New York, NY, USA

[5] Center for Neural Science, New York University, New York, NY, USA

[6] Princeton Neuroscience Institute, Princeton University, Princeton, New Jersey

[7] Friedrich Miescher Institute for Biomedical Research, Basel, Switzerland

[8] Duncan Neurological Research Institute, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston TX 77030

[9] Department of Neuroscience, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston TX 77030

[10] Institute of Neuroscience, University of Oregon, Eugene OR 97403

* correspondence to: robert.froemke@med.nyu.edu

Abstract

Perception can be refined by experience up to certain limits. It is unclear if perceptual limitations

are absolute or could be partially overcome via enhanced neuromodulation and/or plasticity.

Recent studies suggest the utility of peripheral nerve stimulation - specifically vagus nerve

stimulation (VNS) - for altering neural activity and augmenting experience-dependent plasticity,

although little is known about central mechanisms recruited by VNS. Here we developed an

auditory discrimination task for mice implanted with a VNS electrode. VNS occurring during

behavior gradually improved discrimination abilities beyond the level achieved by training alone.

Using two-photon imaging, we identified changes to auditory cortical responses and activation of

cortically-projecting cholinergic axons with VNS. Anatomical and optogenetic experiments

indicated that VNS could enhance task performance via activation of the central cholinergic

system. These results highlight the importance of cholinergic modulation for the efficacy of VNS,

perhaps enabling further refinement of VNS methodology for clinical conditions.

Introduction

Sensory processing is refined over development and must continue to be adaptive throughout life, in order to adequately regulate behavior in dynamic and challenging environments. This requires that adult perceptual and cognitive abilities are not fixed, but rather can be improved with additional experience and training. Perceptual learning, i.e., improvement in sensory perceptual abilities with practice, has been shown to occur across a wide range of domains, including visual processing of orientation, binocularity, and other spatial features[1–7], auditory processing of pitch and temporal intervals[8–12], and the detection and recognition of sensory stimuli in other modalities[13–15]. However, changes in perceptual abilities can often be quite limited and stimulus-specific, even after extensive periods of training[5,16–18]. It is generally believed that adult perceptual learning across species relies on neural mechanisms of synaptic plasticity within the cerebral cortex[1,7,14,17], but it remains unclear what factors might limit cortical plasticity achieved by perceptual training and any consequent changes in perception and behavior. Conversely, mechanisms for plasticity not engaged during training might then be available for recruitment by other means, and perhaps improve sensory perceptual abilities even further.

Studies of the mammalian auditory system have proved to be especially revealing for determining the mechanisms connecting perceptual learning and neural plasticity. A long literature has connected changes in auditory experience with long-lasting neural changes in the central auditory system. In particular, many studies have demonstrated how auditory training affects tonotopic maps and single neuron responses, showing that acoustic stimuli predictive of outcome generally have enhanced representations in the auditory cortex[8,9,11,12,19,20]. Despite clear evidence that behavioral training eventually affects cortical maps and receptive fields, it is less clear how these

changes are initially induced and occur throughout experience and learning to produce perceptual

changes[21,22]. One consistent finding across systems and species is that central neuromodulatory

systems such as the cholinergic basal forebrain are important for sensory perceptual learning and

cortical plasticity[23–38]. However, it remains unclear the extent to which modulatory systems are

endogenously recruited under different contexts or forms of training, and if it might be possible to

artificially leverage central modulation to further improve perceptual learning.

Peripheral nerve stimulation provides an opportunity to augment performance and lead to lasting

improvements in auditory perceptual abilities via activation of neuromodulatory systems. Vagus

nerve stimulation (VNS) has been used for several clinical applications in humans, including

treating epilepsy[39,40], alleviating treatment-resistant depression[41], and motor deficits after stroke [42].

Despite its well-established benefits, less is known about the circuit mechanism through which

VNS acts. This has led to experimental approaches for studying VNS in a range of species

including rats[43,44], ferrets[45], and non-human primates[46]. Recently, in collaboration we developed

and validated a VNS cuff electrode for mice[47–50] to investigate the role of neuromodulation in

VNS-mediated motor and perceptual learning. Previous work in non-human model organisms has

shown that vagus nerve stimulation can induce neuroplasticity in primary sensory areas[43,44,51] and

in motor areas[50,52,53]. This enhanced neuroplasticity is thought to be partially mediated by

indirectly activating neuromodulatory networks, including noradrenergic neurons in locus

coeruleus[49,54,55] and cholinergic neurons in basal forebrain[48–50] via the nucleus tractus solitarii

(NTS) [56,57]. With the development of VNS cuffs for mice, we aimed to study the circuit

mechanisms and modulatory systems activated by VNS, asking how VNS might be applied to

promote plasticity and improve auditory perceptual learning.

Results

Auditory perceptual training in head-fixed mice

We first developed an auditory task to parametrically quantify the psychophysical abilities of mice

for frequency discrimination. A total of 38 mice (5 female wild-type, 11 male wild-type, 8 female

ChAT-Cre, 14 male ChAT-Cre) were used for behavioral studies. Animals were head-fixed and

progressively trained to classify presented pure tones in a two-alternative forced-choice (2AFC)

task for a water reward. On each trial, mice were presented with an auditory stimulus of one

frequency ranging between 4-38 kHz at 70 dB sound pressure level (SPL). Mice were trained to

lick left in response to tones of one specific 'center' frequency (varied between 11-16 kHz across

individual animals), and to lick right for tones of any other 'non-center' frequency in a 2.5s

response period (**Fig. 1a**, **Extended Data Fig. 1a,b**, lick rates were significantly higher in the 1

second following tone offset, N=6 mice). There were eight non-center tones with four tones up to

1.5 octaves lower than the center frequency, and four tones up to 1.5 octaves higher than the center

frequency in the full training set (**Fig. 1b**).

Mice learned the task in three stages, with additional frequencies added as individual performance

improved. During stage 1 (first shaping stage), we only presented two frequencies (the 'center'

tone and one 'non-center' tone 1.5 octaves from center; **Fig. 1b**, light blue). Animals completed

stage 1 after reaching our performance criterion (≥80% correct) for three consecutive days (**Fig.**

1c). The number of days to reach performance criteria in stage 1 was variable across individual

mice, from 5-37 days (**Fig. 1d,e**). There were no significant differences in performance across

stage one by sex or genotype (wild-type vs ChAT-Cre in C57Bl/6J background; wild-type males:

10.8 ± 3.8 days in stage 1, mean±s.d., N=11; wild-type females: 16.4 ± 7.7 days, N=5; ChAT-Cre

males: 10.1±3.9 days, N=14; ChAT-Cre females: 7.8±5.4 days, N=8; p=0.05 for genotype, p=0.62

for sex, two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons correction). Following stage 1, we

then introduced one other 'non-center' frequency that was 1.5 octaves away from the center

frequency in the opposite direction (**Fig. 1b**, medium blue), and trained animals in this second

shaping stage for three days (**Fig. 1c,d**). We then introduced all other frequencies (stage 3; **Fig.**

1c,d, N=38 mice), with all animals being trained in stage 3 for at least nine days (**Extended Data**

Fig. 1c). Overall performance plateaued at days 7-9 of stage 3, but was variable across individuals

(**Extended Data Fig. 1d,e,f**, peak performance was not significantly correlated with total days

trained in stage 3, Pearson's R=0.31, minimum five days of training prior to baseline; Days 0-2:

64.7±1.0%; Days 6-8: 70.0±1.2%; Max day ± 1 day: 72.6±1.3%, Mean±s.d.; $p<10^{-4}$ one-way

ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons correction, N=38 animals). Performance improved

across non-center frequencies throughout stage 3 with the largest improvement occurring at the

frequencies ±0.5 octaves from center (**Fig. 1f**, N=38 mice, day 1 of stage 3 compared to maximum

performance, minimum of 3 days of stable performance, **Extended Data Fig. 1g,h**).

Task performance varied considerably across animals even after days to weeks of training (**Fig.**

1f, Extended Data Fig. 1e,f,g,h). On the day of peak performance, animals correctly identified

frequencies as the center frequency at 84.5±12.7% of the time (N=38 animals, mean±s.d.,

minimum 3 days of stable performance). Animals generally had stable performance across days

after at least nine days in the full version of the task (**Fig. 1g**). Even after performance stabilized,

most animals continued to make a significant number of errors on the non-center frequencies

closest to the center, either a quarter octave or a half octave away from the center frequency (**Fig.**

1h; error rates at ±0.25 octaves: 67.6±19.0%; error rates at ±0.5 octaves: 45.2±20.6%, mean±s.d.;

significantly higher errors compared to center tone responses, $p<10^{-5}$, one-way ANOVA with

Tukey's multiple comparisons correction).

We explored if there was a discrimination threshold further by overtraining a subset of mice for

36.3±12.4 days in stage three (**Extended Data Fig. 2a**, range: 21-48 days, N=6). We then altered

the reward structure of the task, such that all errors had a larger impact on the amount of water the

mice received. Specifically, we increased the magnitude of reward for all trials (from ~3μL to

~6μL) and reducing the overall number of trials (from 400 to 200) for an additional 12-13 days of

behavior (**Extended Data Fig. 2b**). There was no significant improvement in performance at the

center frequencies or frequencies ±0.25 and ±0.5 octaves from center when comparing all days

with the increased reward size and the five finals days with smaller rewards (**Extended Data Fig.**

2c,d,e, at 0: small reward: 78.9±4.1% correct, mean±s.e.m., large reward: 83.5±3.3%, p=0.15,

Student's two-tailed paired t-test; at ±0.25: small reward: 36.9±6.8%, large reward: 35.4±4.3%,

mean±s.e.m.; p=0.67, Student's two-tailed paired t-test; at ±0.5: small reward: 64.2±7.0% correct,

large reward: 71.4±6.3%, mean±s.e.m.; p=0.08, Student's two-tailed paired t-test). These data

show that while head-fixed mice have relatively stable frequency discrimination abilities,

performance remained imperfect even after many days of continued positive reinforcement to

correctly resolve frequencies within 0.25-0.5 octaves[35,58,59].

Long-term vagus nerve stimulation in mice

Our behavioral results showed that, once a certain level of performance was obtained, additional

training did not consistently refine perceptual abilities in an individual animal beyond a certain

level. This is consistent with a substantial literature on psychophysics and perceptual learning in

humans and other species[5,16–18,35]. We wondered if this was a fixed perceptual limit (e.g., set by

physical limitations of the sensory epithelium) or if it could be improved by engagement of central

mechanisms of neuromodulation and plasticity. Methods such as transgene expression and

optogenetic stimulation can lead to lasting behavioral gains in rodents[21], but these approaches are

currently infeasible or impractical in many species including human subjects. However,

stimulation of the vagus nerve has recently been shown to influence neural responses in the central

nervous system, altering physiological and cognitive variables[41,43,54,55,60]. Some of these effects

may be due to indirect activation of central modulation, but little is known about the underlying

mechanisms by which VNS initiates prolonged enhancement of behavior.

We adapted the bipolar VNS cuff used in rats[43] to make custom vagus nerve cuff electrodes for

use in mice[47–49] and verified successful stimulation of the vagus nerve by measuring impedance of

the cuff electrode. We implanted custom cuff electrodes around the left vagus nerve in adult mice

(**Fig. 2a**). We measured cuff impedance daily in awake animals for days to months post-

implantation over the course of behavioral training (**Extended Data Fig. 3a,b**). Cuff impedances

<10 kΩ were considered potentially viable for VNS, and many animals had stable cuff impedances

in this range for weeks (**Extended Data Fig. 3b**). We used change in heart rate as a physiological

signature for effective VNS (**Extended Data Fig. 3c-f**). When cuff impedance values were very

high (e.g., ~100 MΩ; **Extended Data Fig. 3d**), VNS was ineffective at affecting physiological

variables such as heart rate, consistent with our previous work[47]. We thus defined as sham

implantations either those electrodes for which impedance values were over 10 kΩ and/or cases in

which VNS did not elicit significant changes in heart rate (**Extended Data Fig. 3f**, 7/10 animals

with viable cuffs <10kΩ had significantly lower heart rate distributions in sessions with 500 ms of

VNS every 10s than in sessions without VNS).

Vagus nerve stimulation improves auditory perceptual learning over days

We next asked how VNS might affect the performance of fully trained animals on the 2AFC task.

After several days of training on stage 3 (average 14.8+/-8.4 days, range 6-36 days), we implanted

17 animals with a vagus nerve cuff. Of the animals implanted, seven trained mice had <10 kΩ cuff

impedances and VNS elicited changes in heart rate (**Extended Data Fig. 3**) and were subsequently

included and analyzed as part of the experimental group. All other animals were part of the sham-

implanted control group (N=10). Experimental and control animals did not have any significant

differences in baseline performance, including peak performance, response rate, and learning rate

(**Extended Data Fig. 4a,b,c,d,e**). After implantation, animals recovered for about a week with *ad*

lib water, and training on the 2AFC task was reinstated after 4-10 days of additional water

restriction (total days in stage 3: average 19.0±8.5 days, range 10-40 days). Prior to the start of

VNS pairing, implanted animals were trained for 3-7 days post-implantation without VNS, to

establish a new baseline level of performance and ensure that this was comparable to their pre-

implantation behavior (**Extended Data Fig. 4f**, change in performance (experimental): -1.8±1.6%

correct, mean±s.e.m., p=0.38, Student's two-tailed paired t-test, N=7; change in performance

(control): 0.4±1.0% correct, mean±s.e.m., p=0.68, Student's two-tailed paired t-test, N=10 mice;

p=0.28 for experimental and control comparison, Student's two-tailed unpaired t-test). VNS

occurred during behavior in a blockwise manner, with a 'block' being a set of 50 trials. In blocks

1, 3, and 5 there was no VNS, and training was identical to that previously described in **Figure 1**.

In blocks 2 and 4, VNS was performed concurrently with tone presentation, essentially being

paired with all center and non-center stimuli. Specifically, we stimulated the vagus nerve for 500

ms at 30 Hz with a 100 µs pulse width centered around the 250 ms tone, such that VNS began 125

ms before tone onset and continued for 125 ms after tone offset (**Fig. 2b**). By design, this meant

that VNS pairing was performed irrespective of trial outcome, in contrast to a recent important

study of motor learning[50]. For experimental animals, VNS stimulation intensity was 0.6-0.8 mA,

fixed per animal. For sham-implanted, control animals, VNS stimulation intensity varied from 0

to 0.8 mA. Animals underwent VNS pairing for 20 consecutive days.

We found that VNS pairing led to enduring improvements in 2AFC task performance for most

animals, which emerged gradually over days and largely enhanced correct responses to the ±0.25

and ±0.5 octave flanking non-center tones (**Fig. 2c**). We initially quantified the change in

performance across all stimuli over all five training blocks ('Δ % correct') as the overall correct

rate on each day relative to the average performance on the final three days of training prior to

pairing initiation. Given there was a significant increase in response rate in experimental animals

relative to control animals (**Extended Data Fig. 5a,b,c,d**), we included no response trials for

comparisons between experimental and control animals. The maximum change in 2AFC task

performance occurred several days after initiating VNS pairing during training (**Fig. 2c**, peak

performance after 15.4±2.8 days, mean±s.d., N=7 mice). We compared behavioral performance

on the final three days of VNS pairing (day 18-20) to the baseline behavioral performance on the

three days of training just before the start of VNS pairing in experimental and sham-implanted

control animals. Behavioral performance significantly increased in experimental animals (**Fig. 2d**,

N=7 mice, before VNS: 65.4±2.8% correct over all center/non-center stimuli, including no

response trials (day 18-20 of VNS: 77.1±3.1% correct over all stimuli, p=0.008, Student's two-

tailed paired t-test), but not in sham control animals (**Fig. 2d**, N=10 mice, before VNS: 68.5±2.4%

correct, day 18-20 of VNS: 67.4±2.8% correct over all stimuli, p=0.65, Student's two-tailed paired

t-test). Experimental animals had a significantly larger improvement in performance than sham

animals (**Fig. 2e**, mean difference in performance (experimental): 11.7±3.0% correct, mean±s.e.m;

mean difference (sham): -1.1±2.4% correct, mean±s.e.m., N=10, p=0.002, Student's one-tailed

unpaired t-test).

As VNS occurred with presentation of both center and non-center stimuli, we asked if performance

at certain frequencies were specifically improved after days of VNS pairing (**Fig. 2f**, all 17 sham

and experimental animals individually displayed in **Extended Data Fig. 5e**). We noticed that, on

average, behavioral performance improved at both the center frequency (**Fig. 2f,g**, Day -2-0:

71.6±7.0%, mean±s.e.m.; Day 18-20: 84.9±5.0%, p=0.02, Student's two-tailed paired t-test) and

the non-center tones flanking the center (**Fig. 2f**; ±0.25 and ±0.5 octaves from center). To correct

for perceptual improvements at the center frequency across animals, we normalized the behavioral

performance at individual frequencies on the final days of VNS pairing (days 18-20) and baseline

performance (**Fig. 2h-k**, N=7 experimental mice; N=10 control mice). Most of the improvement

in behavioral performance came from gradual reductions in errors at non-center frequencies ±0.25

and 0.5 octave from the center frequency in experimental animals compared to control animals

(**Fig. 2h**). The reduction of normalized errors, and resulting improved performance, at frequencies

±0.25-0.5 octaves from center (**Fig. 2h-j**, 'Experimental', for ±0.25: p=0.04, Student's two-tailed

paired t-test; for ±0.5: p=0.01, N=7) were not observed for ±0.25-0.5 octave stimuli in control

animals receiving sham VNS (**Fig. 2h-j**,'Sham', for ±0.25: p=0.13, Student's two-tailed paired t-

test; for ±0.5: p=0.81, Student's two-tailed paired t-test, N=10 mice). Additionally, the reduction

in errors between the final days of VNS (days 18-20) and the three days immediately prior were

significantly reduced in experimental animals relative to control animals at frequencies ±0.5

octaves from center (**Fig. 2k**, for ±0.5: p=0.002, Student's one-tailed unpaired t-test).

As the behavioral effects of VNS pairing gradually emerged over several days, we wondered if

there were also immediate, acute perceptual effects during the paired training sessions, and/or if

there were improvements occurring each day from block to block with successive training within

a daily session. We first analyzed behavioral differences across blocks with and without VNS

pairing, specifically comparing block one and three (without VNS) vs block two and four (with

VNS). We focused on these two blocks of trials to capture potential differences, e.g., in

motivational state as animals acquired more water rewards. In sessions with blocks of VNS,

performance did not selectively improve during VNS pairing blocks compared to unpaired blocks,

across all stimuli in experimental (**Fig. 3a**; block one performance without VNS: 79.5±3.2%

correct, mean±s.e.m.; block two performance with VNS: 79.1±1.9%,; block three performance

without VNS: 77.6±3.4%; block four performance with VNS: 75.8±2.5%; N=7, p=0.78, one-way

ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons correction), or sham-implanted control animals (**Fig.**

3a; open circles, block one performance without VNS: 73.3±2.7% correct, mean±s.e.m.; block two

performance with VNS: 65.5±4.6%; block three performance without VNS: 70.9±3.5%; block four

performance with VNS: 64.9±4.8%,; p=0.37, one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple

comparisons correction; N=10). Similarly, there was no significant change in performance

between blocks with and without VNS for experimental and control animals (**Fig. 3b**; difference

in experimental animals: -1.1±1.3% lower in sessions without VNS, mean±s.e.m.; difference in

control animals: -6.9±3.8% lower in sessions without VNS, p=0.23, Student's two-tailed unpaired

t-test). There also could be rapid changes in motivation, learning, or other aspects of animal state

within a session from block to block independent of VNS pairing. To account for this, we

compared performance per block in the three initial baseline sessions prior to initiating VNS

pairing. We found that performance was stable across all blocks in these baseline sessions (**Fig.**

3c; block one performance: 68.0±4.3% correct, mean±s.e.m.; block two performance: 63.9±3.6%

correct; block three performance: 63.1±3.7% correct; block four performance: 63.7±3.4%; N=7,

p=0.78, one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons correction). Additionally, there was

no significant change in performance across specific frequencies in blocks with or without VNS

in experimental or control animals (**Fig. 3d,e**, p=0.28 for frequencies, p=0.11 for experimental

group, two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons correction). There was also no

significant change in response rate across blocks in both experimental and control animals (**Fig.**

3f,g; experimental means: block one response rate: 97.1±2.0%; block two: 98.2±1.6%; block three:

95.0±3.0%; block four: 95.5±2.8%; N=7, p=0.77, one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple

comparisons correction; control means: block one response rate: 96.7±1.6%; block two:

91.9±3.8%; block three: 93.9±2.1%; block four: 85.7±5.7%; N=10, p=0.20, one-way ANOVA

with Tukey's multiple comparisons correction).

Instead of immediate gains in performance during or just after VNS pairing, these results indicate

that behavioral changes took days to emerge, accruing over daily sessions with VNS pairing. This

would suggest that the gradual changes in performance might be observed even in block one across

days, before any VNS pairing occurred on that day. To test this hypothesis, we compared

performance on block one (i.e., the first 50 2AFC trials without VNS pairing of each day) to

performance over all blocks across days. Experimental animals exhibited similar rates of

improvement over time for block one alone compared to performance on all trials following block

1 (**Fig. 3h-j**). Across animals, the change in performance during block one of the final days of

VNS was significantly correlated with change in performance over all other trials (**Fig. 3l**,

Pearson's R=0.78, p=0.008). In contrast, control animals did not exhibit the same significant

improvements in performance in block one (**Fig. 3j-l**).

VNS pairing enables long-term cortical plasticity

Our results demonstrate that VNS pairing enhanced perceptual learning even beyond the limits

achieved just by behavioral training. As these gains emerged gradually over days, we suspected

that a mechanism related to enduring neuroplasticity was being engaged by VNS pairing. Previous

studies in rats pairing pure tones with VNS[43,51] found changes to neuronal populations and

tonotopic maps of primary auditory cortex (A1), strongly suggesting that auditory cortex is a locus

of potentially behaviorally-relevant plasticity.

To identify possible long-term changes in cortical responses and receptive fields triggered by VNS

pairing, we performed longitudinal two-photon imaging in mouse auditory cortex of seven

untrained animals (**Fig. 4a**; 6 wild-type females, 1 wild-type male). We injected all mice with a

CaMKII-GCaMP6f in auditory cortex, waited 2-4 weeks for viral expression, and then implanted

a VNS cuff electrode on the left vagus nerve. We paired a tone of a single frequency with VNS by

coincidental presentation every 2.5 seconds for 5 minutes each day for at least 5 days (up to 20

days). We performed these experiments outside the context of behavior, so that we could monitor

neural changes that might be more directly attributed to VNS-mediated plasticity, avoiding the

confound of cortical plasticity that might occur due to training[8,9,11,12]. In each animal, we tracked

a consistent population of neurons over days of pairing (**Fig. 4a-c**, **Extended Data Fig. 6**). We

also presented pure tones of 4-64 kHz every 1-3 days throughout the pairing procedure to monitor

changes across a wider frequency range of the receptive fields (**Fig. 4a**). Additionally, after the

initial pairing session, we presented the same set of frequencies both 15 minutes and 2 hours after

VNS pairing to look for more acute changes of auditory responses in a subset of animals. In control

animals (1 wild-type female, 3 wild-type males), we performed the same pairing protocol,

presenting a tone of a single frequency every 2.5 seconds, but without coincident VNS (**Fig. 4a**).

Changes in tuning were assessed in the same manner.

We imaged from layer 2/3 excitatory neurons in each animal (N=7 mice, 144.8±33.2 neurons per

animal, mean±s.d.) in a 300 μm x 300 μm region. 455/1081 neurons (42.1%) recorded prior to

VNS-tone pairing were responsive to at least one frequency between 4-64 kHz, and 371/953

neurons (37.8%) recorded on day 5 of pairing were responsive (with 465 cells imaged on both

sessions). There was no change in the percentage of significantly responsive neurons across days

and type of pairing (sham or experimental pairing) (**Fig. 4d,** p=0.96 for experimental animals,

p=0.20 for sham animals, Student's paired t-test, p=0.11 for difference across time points for

experimental and sham animals, Student's unpaired t-test). For each animal, we computed the

overall best frequency across auditory cortex in the region of imaging (initial best frequency, 'Pre

peak'), and 78/455 responsive neurons (17.1%) on the first imaging day had significant or maximal

responses to that local best frequency. We then chose a frequency that was initially under-

represented at the level of individual neuronal tuning profiles as the 'paired frequency', with

29/455 responsive neurons (6.4%) initially responding to that frequency across animals before

VNS pairing.

VNS pairing modified the tuning curves of auditory-responsive cells over minutes to days, as

quantified by the percentage of active neurons responding to a certain stimulus (**Fig. 4e-g**). We

measured the change in number of responsive neurons at three frequencies: the initial best

frequency ('Pre peak'; black), the paired frequency ('P', blue), and a frequency one octave from

the paired frequency ('±1', gray) to ask how stimulus-specific these changes were. We focused

our analysis of frequency receptive fields to several time points throughout pairing, trying to

highlight any plasticity that could occur over minutes to hours (**Fig. 4h,i**) or over days (**Fig. 4j-l**).

Since there was significant individual variability in reaching peak behavioral improvement, we

postulated that a similar variability could be present in VNS-mediated long-term plasticity across

animals. To that end, we looked at the number of days it took animals to show maximal changes

at the paired frequency (**Fig. 4k,l**).

At shorter time scales (15 minutes post initial pairing, **Fig. 4h**, 2 hours post initial pairing, **Fig. 4i**),

there were not significant changes in response to the paired frequency ('P', blue), initial best

frequency ('Pre peak', black), or the frequency one octave away from the paired frequency (±1,

gray). However, consistent with the gradual time course of behavioral enhancement we observed

with VNS, reliable and lasting cortical changes required several days to emerge. At both long-term

time points (after five days of pairing and the day with maximal changes at the paired frequency),

two major changes resulted from VNS pairing but not control pairing (**Fig. 4j-l**). First, the overall

number of neurons responding to the paired frequency significantly increased (Day 5:

113.3±132.2% increase at paired frequency, mean±s.d., one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple

comparisons correction; response at paired frequency was significantly different than 'Pre peak'

with p<0.05; Max: 263.2±295.2% increase; mean±s.d., response at paired frequency was

significantly different than 'Pre peak' with p=0.02, one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple

comparisons correction, N=7 mice). Second, the number of neurons responding to the original best

frequency decreased (Day 5: -38.4±29.4% decrease, mean±s.d.; Max: -31.3±19.4% decrease). The

maximum change in percent of responsive neurons relative to initial tuning at the paired frequency

occurred after several days of pairing (4.9±3.5 days; mean±s.d.; n=1018 neurons initially; n=934

neurons on day of max response; N=7 mice). As in our past studies of the behavioral effects of

pairing auditory stimuli with basal forebrain stimulation[35], we hypothesize that both the changes

to the paired and original best frequencies are required together, in order to effectively reshape

cortical tuning curves for improving sensory perception.

VNS activates cholinergic basal forebrain neurons projecting to auditory cortex

A major outstanding question regarding the utility of VNS across species is the mechanisms of

action. Specifically, it remains unclear how and where VNS leads to either direct or indirect

activation of different brain regions (including auditory cortex). We reasoned that central

neuromodulation was involved, given the diverse set of clinical applications of VNS in human

subjects[39–42], the slower rates for consistent perceptual improvement and cortical plasticity seen in

mice [35,61] and the known anatomical projections from NTS[56,57]. However, many of the effects of

VNS have been historically attributed to the titratable activation of the locus coeruleus and

consequent central noradrenergic release[49,54,55,62]. The potential contribution of cholinergic

modulation to VNS has been more controversial. Conventionally the cholinergic basal forebrain

was thought to receive only indirect input from NTS via locus coeruleus[56,57]. While behavioral

evidence links motor learning with the recruitment of cholinergic basal forebrain neurons via

VNS[50,63], there are differences in the functional organization of cholinergic inputs to various

cortical regions[30,64–67]. Thus, we next wanted to establish if the central cholinergic system might

contribute to the sensory perceptual improvements we observed with VNS.

We asked if basal forebrain cholinergic cells were functionally activated by VNS. To do this, we

performed fiber photometry of basal forebrain cholinergic neurons in untrained animals with VNS

cuffs. We injected ChAT-Cre mice with a Cre-dependent GCaMP6s in basal forebrain and

implanted a fiber above the injection site. VNS was applied every 10 seconds for 20 trials and

lasted 500 ms at 30Hz at 0.8-1.0 mA (**Fig. 5a**). Consistent with other results[50], we found 500 ms

of VNS was sufficient to induce prolonged activation of basal forebrain cholinergic neurons in a

subset of trials (**Fig. 5b,c**). The average activation of cholinergic cell bodies by VNS on individual

trials was negatively correlated with baseline fluorescence, such that trials with relatively high

baseline prior to VNS onset were more likely to have lower average activation (**Extended Data**

Fig. 7a,b, Pearson's R=-0.30, p=0.02).

Since VNS robustly activated cholinergic basal forebrain neurons, we wanted to better understand

the anatomical pathway contributing to this activation. Previous work has shown that NTS projects

to LC[56], which in turn projects to basal forebrain[57]. We wanted verify if cholinergic neurons of the

basal forebrain were primarily indirectly activated by VNS via NTS projections to the locus

coeruleus or whether there was another previously underexplored pathway. To do this, we

performed retrograde tracing studies from cholinergic neurons in basal forebrain using a Cre-

inducible, retrograde pseudotyped monosynaptic rabies virus[68,69]. We targeted cholinergic neurons

by injecting pAAV-TREtight-mTagBFP2-B19G and pAAV-syn-FLEX-splitTVA-EGFP-tTA in

the basal forebrain of ChAT-Cre mice (N=3) or a AAV1 EF1a-FLEX-GTB (N=3) followed by an

injection of SADΔG-mCherry two weeks later (**Fig. 5d**). We found mCherry expression in both

NTS and locus coeruleus, indicating that basal forebrain cholinergic neurons likely receive direct

input from both areas (**Fig. 5e**, **Extended Data Fig. 7c,d**). We verified this result by injecting a

Cre-dependent tdTomato with a retrograde promoter in basal forebrain of TH-Cre animals

(**Extended Data Fig 7e**). We again saw tdTomato expression in NTS (**Extended Data Fig. 7e**).

These anatomical studies show that cholinergic basal forebrain neurons receive input from TH+

neurons in both locus coeruleus and NTS (**Extended Data Fig. 7f**).

We next wanted to explore if VNS could activate basal forebrain cholinergic axons projecting to

auditory cortex. Previous studies found that VNS can activate cholinergic fibers in cortex[48,49], but

for much longer stimulation periods than used in our task (1-10 second periods of VNS). Thus, we

used two-photon imaging of cholinergic axon fibers in auditory cortex (**Fig. 5f**) to more

specifically monitor recruitment of cortically-projecting cholinergic inputs that might produce the

behavioral and neuronal effects of VNS tone pairing described above (VNS for 500 ms at 30 Hz

at 0.8 mA). ChAT-Cre mice were injected with Cre-dependent GCaMP6s in basal forebrain, a

window was implanted over auditory cortex and a VNS cuff was applied to the left vagus nerve

(N=6). VNS was applied for 500 ms at 30 Hz at 0.8-1.0 mA every 2.5-26.6 seconds. We found

that VNS strongly activated many cholinergic axon fibers in auditory cortex on a trial-by-trial basis

at various timescales with some trials reaching maximum activation during or immediate after

VNS offset and some persisting for several seconds (**Fig. 5g**). VNS activated cholinergic axons

across regions within auditory cortex and across animals (**Fig. 5h,i**). Interestingly, unlike with

activation of cholinergic cell bodies via VNS, there was no significant correlation between baseline

activity and VNS evoked activation (**Extended Data Fig. 7g**, Pearson's R=0.04, p=0.71). The

difference in trial-by-trial activation of axons and cell bodies could be due to differences in

experimental techniques (measurement of bulk activation vs activation of axon segments) and/or

due to the diversity of inputs and projection targets of subsets of cholinergic neurons[64,65].

We then asked if VNS-mediated task improvement required acetylcholine receptors in auditory

cortex acutely. To do this, after we infused either atropine (a muscarinic acetylcholine receptor

antagonist) or vehicle in auditory cortex 30 minutes prior to behavior after animals underwent 20

days of VNS pairing (**Fig. 5j**). We then applied VNS in the same manner as described previously

(block-wise for 50 trials on/off, 500ms centered around center and non-center frequencies).

Blocking activation of local acetylcholine receptors increased the error rate at the frequencies

±0.25 octaves from center (**Fig. 5k,l**, at ±0.25: atropine: orange, 91.0±24.5%, mean±s.d.; vehicle:

gray, 63.3±26.4%, mean±s.d., N=5, p=0.03, Student's one-tailed paired t-test). Therefore, VNS

applied at levels that induce behavioral improvements activates auditory cortical projecting

cholinergic neurons in basal forebrain and acetylcholine in auditory cortex impacts behavior

acutely.

Optogenetic manipulation of the central cholinergic system and VNS

In the final set of experiments, given the activation of cholinergic fibers in auditory cortex, we

asked how cholinergic modulation related to long-term VNS pairing in behaving animals. Since

areas of cortex receive input from distinct subsets of cholinergic neurons[64,65], we aimed to target

only the auditory cortical-projecting cholinergic neurons. For projection-specific opsin expression,

we bilaterally injected a retrograde, Cre-dependent channelrhodopsin-2 (ChR2) virus in auditory

cortex and implanted optic fibers above basal forebrain in eight ChAT-Cre animals trained on the

2AFC task (**Fig. 6a, Extended Data Fig. 8a**). After 9+ days in stage three, instead of VNS pairing

(as these animals were not cuffed), we optogenetically stimulated auditory cortical-projecting

cholinergic neurons in the same manner as VNS: 500 ms duration, 30 Hz pulse rate, centered

around the 250 ms tone during training blocks two and four. Control animals were trained in the

same manner, did not have significantly different baseline behavior (**Extended Data Fig. 8b,c,**)

and underwent the same pairing protocol as optogenetic stimulation animals but were injected with

a retrograde, Cre-dependent fluorophore virus (rg-FLEX-tdTomato), instead of channelrhodopsin-

2. Given that there was not a significant change in response rate before and after optogenetic

pairing (**Extended Data Fig. 8d**), no response trials were not included in comparisons for control

and ChR2-positive animals.

We found that optogenetic activation of cholinergic neurons during behavior led to similar

improvements in perceptual learning as with VNS pairing. The maximum change in 2AFC task

performance occurred several days after optogenetic pairing (**Fig. 6b**, N=8 mice). We compared

behavioral performance on the last three days optogenetic pairing ('Last 3') to three days of

baseline behavioral performance ('-2-0'). Maximum performance was significantly increased past

the level obtained just from days of stage three training in optogenetic stimulation animals (**Fig.**

6c,d, before optogenetic pairing: 71.1±3.1% correct over all center/non-center stimuli,

mean±s.e.m, last three days of pairing: 76.3±2.8% correct over all stimuli, N=8 mice, p=0.01,

Student's two-tailed paired t-test), but not control animals (**Fig. 6c,d**, pre: 74.8±2.5% correct,

mean±s.e.m, last three days of pairing: 75.6±3.0%, N=7, p=0.67, Student's two-tailed paired t-

test; difference in performance prior to optogenetic activation and during, experimental: 5.3±1.6%,

mean±s.e.m., N=8, control: 0.8±1.7%, N=7, p=0.04, Student's one-tailed unpaired t-test).

Performance gains occurred at specific non-center flanking frequencies as with VNS pairing,

specifically at ±0.5-1.5 octaves from center (**Fig. 6e,** behavior of individual animals shown in

Extended Data Fig. 8e). Optogenetic stimulation animals, but not control animals, had a

significant reduction in errors at the frequencies ±0.5 and ±1 octave from the center frequency, but

not ±0.25 octaves from center (**Fig. 6f,g,h,i**, control: difference at ±0.25: -1.4±2.2, difference at

±0.5: -1.6±5.8%, difference at ±1: 3.8±5.9, mean±s.e.m.; optogenetic stimulation animals:

difference at ±0.25: -1.0±2.2%, difference at ±0.5: -12.0±4.8%, difference at ±1: -14.0±5.5%,

mean±s.e.m., for ±0.25: p=0.55, for ±0.5: p=0.09, for ±1: p=0.02, Student's one-tailed unpaired t-

test). Similar to VNS experimental animals, optogenetic activation of cholinergic basal forebrain

neurons did not acutely improve performance (**Fig. 6j**) or alter response rate (**Fig. 6k**). While

behavioral performance in block 1 did not show the significant improvement over time seen in

VNS experimental animals (**Fig. 6l**), the change in block 1 performance and overall performance

on the last three days of pairing relative to baseline were positively correlated (**Fig. 6m**, R=0.67,

p=0.06, N=8), consistent with VNS experimental animals.

While the decrease in error rates with optogenetic pairing occurred over a broader range of

stimulus frequencies than VNS pairing, the time course and specific reductions to off-center

flanking tones was a consistent feature of both pairing methods. These observations support the

hypothesis that the predominant effects of VNS pairing for this 2AFC task in mice is through

cholinergic recruitment. To test this hypothesis more directly, in **Figure 7** we show the results of

optogenetic suppression of cholinergic basal forebrain neurons during VNS pairing. In other

trained ChAT-Cre animals (N=6 mice also shown in **Fig. 1**), we bilaterally injected a Cre-

dependent inhibitory opsin (archaerhodopsin) in the basal forebrain, implanted optic fibers

bilaterally over basal forebrain (**Extended Data Fig. 9a**), and implanted a cuff electrode on the

left vagus nerve (**Fig. 7a**). We verified successful cuff implantation in six animals by looking for

both low impedance and reliable reduction in heart rate in response to VNS (**Extended Data Fig.**

9b,c,d). After 9+ days of stage three training, we began VNS pairing as before, i.e., performing

VNS on each training day during blocks two and four. During VNS pairing blocks, we

concurrently optogenetically suppressed ChAT+ basal forebrain neurons continuously for 500

msec starting 125 ms before tone onset. Given that there was not a significant change in response

rate before and after optogenetic pairing (**Extended Data Fig. 9e**), no response trials were not

included in comparisons for control and ChR2-positive animals. Optogenetic suppression of basal

forebrain cholinergic neurons completely prevented behavioral gains from VNS pairing in overall

performance (**Fig. 7b,c**, N=6 mice, before VNS and optogenetic suppression: 62.2±2.3% correct

over all center/non-center stimuli, day 18-20 of VNS and optogenetic suppression: 62.7±2.3%

correct over all stimuli, p=0.79, Student's two-tailed paired t-test) and compared to performance

gains seen in experimental animals (**Fig. 7d**, p=0.01, Student's two-tailed unpaired t-test).

Inhibition of cholinergic basal forebrain neurons during VNS also prevented VNS-mediated

improvements at frequencies ±0.25 and ±0.5 octaves from center (**Fig. 7e-g**, individual animals

shown in **Extended Data Fig. 9f**). No long-term changes were induced in these animals, as

performance on block one remained similar to baseline even after 18-20 days of VNS when

cholinergic activity was suppressed (**Fig. 7h,i**). Collectively our results highlight the importance

of the central cholinergic modulatory system for enhancements of perceptual learning via VNS.

Discussion

Although the central nervous system is highly plastic, there are limitations on the extent of changes induced by different experiences or mechanisms. For the auditory 2AFC task we used here, animals made the most errors within half an octave of the 'lick left' reference tone; VNS pairing could reduce error rates and sharpen behavioral performance, albeit not completely. Some limits in terms of plasticity and behavioral improvement are set by the physical properties of the sensory epithelium. In the visual domain, this includes retinal photoreceptor density and single-photon sensitivity[70,71]; for the auditory system, the ability to resolve different frequencies is constrained by the biophysics of the cochlear membrane and hair cell dynamics[58,59]. These properties are likely to provide hard bounds on perceptual resolution and are difficult to overcome by alternative mechanisms for potential plasticity.

Other limitations, however, might be due to other factors such as motivational state, behavioral engagement, and/or the understanding of task rules and variables. These other factors likely reflect the activation (or lack thereof) of central modulatory systems including the cholinergic basal forebrain[31,72,73]. Indeed, here we found that bidirectional regulation of cholinergic modulation could affect 2AFC task performance, with activation of cholinergic neurons enhancing task performance, whereas suppressing cholinergic neuron activity blocked the effects of VNS. Similarly, we and others have previously shown that engagement in similar auditory[29–31,67] or visual[27] tasks activates neurons of the cholinergic basal forebrain, that cholinergic modulation is important for task performance[28,31], and that artificially enhancing cholinergic modulation (via pharmacology or electrical/optogenetic stimulation) can boost task performance past the levels achieved purely by behavioral training[24,28,31,34,35]. It remains unclear why the cholinergic basal

forebrain is not normally fully engaged during task performance. As the effects of VNS on task

performance were weakest for the best-performing animals, it is possible that the degree of

cholinergic activation is a major predictor of individual sensory processing abilities and perceptual

learning rates.

The vagus nerve is remarkably complex, connecting to with several peripheral organs to provide

a multiplexed input to the brainstem NTS[74]. In turn, the NTS sends projections to several regions

important for central neuromodulation, including the oxytocin system of the hypothalamus[75], the

noradrenergic locus coeruleus[56,57,75], and the cholinergic basal forebrain[64–66]. Potentially any or all

of these systems might be activated by VNS, although little is known how patterns of vagal

activation (either naturally occurring or via VNS) lead to similar or differential recruitment of

these diverse modulatory systems. The specific parameters used for VNS (e.g., stimulation rate or

intensity) might also lead to variability in terms of which types of vagus nerve fibers[76] and/or

downstream systems are reliably activated. We used here a consensus VNS parameter set found to

generally be effective across a number of different outcome measures and species[43,47–50], but there

could be other stimulation regimes or longer-term dynamics that might shift the net effects of VNS.

There may also be species-specificity in terms of central consequences of VNS. While aspects of

the neuroanatomical organization of the vagus and NTS seem largely conserved, the thickness and

composition of the vagus nerve bundle is considerably different across species, which would result

in different subsets of fibers being activated by electrical stimulation[77,78].

Despite this complexity, it appeared that VNS as used here in mice largely resulted in cholinergic

modulation of auditory cortex. Although NTS projects to locus coeruleus[56] and locus coeruleus

projects to basal forebrain[57], our anatomical tracing studies also revealed direct projections from

both the locus coeruleus and NTS to the basal forebrain, indicating that the cholinergic system

might be a major point of convergence for vagal inputs from the brainstem to affect cortical

function and behavior. Previous studies have shown that enhancement of perceptual learning and

behavioral performance with cholinergic modulation can be surprisingly slow, taking days to

weeks to emerge[24,61]. This is similar to the gradual improvements in 2AFC performance we

observed here with VNS pairing. In contrast, the effects of locus coeruleus pairing can be much

more rapid, but possibly at the expense of initial performance[61], and over-activation of the locus

coeruleus can cause behavioral arrest[79]. Previous work investigating how autonomous system can

activate central brain areas showed that activation of the autonomous system can cause anxiety-

like behaviors potentially via activation of the noradrenergic system[80]. This might account for why

we observed essentially no effects of VNS stimulation during or immediately after paired blocks,

but instead that the results of VNS pairing required days to be observed across animals. The

relatively slow expression of changes after VNS pairing might reflect a sleep-dependent process

requiring days for consolidation, and/or plasticity within neuromodulatory areas such as the basal

forebrain[29,30] or locus coeruleus[61] than then impact enhanced functionality only after reaching

some threshold level of modification. Additionally, if these systems are somewhat in opposition

or require temporally precise coordination[63,81], especially in terms of their short-term effects, it is

possible that combined stimulation of multiple modulatory centers leads to no net improvement in

the moment. Our work provides evidence that the sustained activation of the autonomous system

over many days can reverse the initial impact of activation from producing anxiety-like behaviors[80]

to mediating lasting perceptual improvements.

Neuroprosthetic devices can provide successful treatments for a wide range of debilitating

conditions, and perhaps could be adopted for use in augmenting performance outside of clinical

care. Some types of devices are implanted centrally, such as deep brain stimulation electrodes,

temporal lobe electrodes for regulating seizures, or motor cortex implants in cases of tetraplegia.

The invasive nature of central implants limits their utility to only the most severe conditions. In

contrast, more human subjects have received neuroprosthetic implants for peripheral nerve

stimulation; e.g., cochlear implants have been used in over 500,000 people and are largely

successful in terms of hearing restoration. Vagus nerve cuffs have been used in over 100,000

human subjects, mainly for treatment of epilepsy as well as other conditions[40]. A new generation

of less-invasive or non-invasive peripheral nerve stimulators targeting the hypoglossal nerve or

the auricular branch of the vagus nerve may be promising in terms of efficacy, although much

more work is required to validate these devices and determine optimal stimulation regimes[82]. Our

data suggest that some outcomes of successful VNS might take days, weeks, or even longer to be

revealed, and our results provide a potential mechanistic basis by which VNS can enhance auditory

perceptual learning.

Methods

Animals

All procedures were approved under an NYU Langone Institutional Animal Care and Use

Committee protocol. Male and female mice aged 6-20 weeks old were used in all experiments

(**Fig. 1**: N=38, 25 male, 13 female; **Fig. 2**: N=17, 12 male, 5 female; **Fig. 3**: N=17, 12 male, 5

female; **Fig. 4**: N=13, 4 male, 9 female; **Fig. 5**. N=14, 7 male, 7 female; **Fig. 6**: N=15, 7 male, 8

female; Fig. 7: N=6, 6 male). Genotypes used were wild-type C57BL/6J (The Jackson Laboratory,

Stock No: 000664), ChAT-Cre (The Jackson Laboratory, Stock No: 028861), and TH-Cre (The

Jackson Laboratory, Stock No: 008601). All mice had a C57BL/6J background. Mice were housed

in a temperature and humidity controlled room maintained on a 12 hour light/dark cycle. Animals

used in behavior were given 1 mL water/day. If their weight dropped below 80% of original, they

were given *ad libitum* water until weight returned to ≥80% original value.

2AFC Behavioral Training

Behavioral events (lick detection, auditory stimulus delivery, water reward delivery) were

monitored and controlled by custom MATLAB programs interfacing with an RZ6 auditory digital

signal processor (Tucker-Davis Technologies) via RPvdsEx software (Tucker-Davis

Technologies). Licks were detected using capacitance sensors (SparkFun, Part number:

AT42QT1011) and water was delivered using solenoids (The Lee Company, Part number:

LHDA0581215H). Animals were restrained using custom headposts (Ponoko).

Behavioral training on the auditory 2AFC task began after 7+ days of water restriction.

Training started with habituation to head-fixation with water delivered to the mouse while it sat in

a plexiglass tube. This was followed by lick port sampling sessions, in which the animal could

receive water by alternating licking between the two ports with a minimum of 3 seconds between

possible rewards. Mice typically learned to alternate ports while licking for 2-4 μL water droplets

in 2-4 sessions. Once animals reliably licked to receive water from lick ports, stage 1 training was

begun (i.e., animals were trained to lick left for the center frequency and lick right for one non-

center frequency). The center frequency was chosen to be either 11.3, 13.4, or 16 kHz (each animal

had a single consistent center frequency pseudo-randomly selected from those three values). Non-

center frequencies were set per animal to be ±0.25, ±0.5, ±1.0, and ±1.5 octaves from the selected

center frequency. In stage 1, the only non-center frequency was either +1.5 octaves or -1.5 octaves

from center (and whether higher or lower frequency was also pseudo-randomly assigned per

animal).

In stage 1, while an animal's performance remained <80% correct, they were rewarded

with water regardless of behavior choice on 15% of trials to help promote consistent licking during

training. Once performance reached ≥80% correct for three consecutive days in stage 1, animals

moved to stage 2 in which the other non-center frequency (either ± 1.5 octaves away) was added.

After three days in stage 2, animals moved to stage 3 regardless of performance (in which all other

non-center stimuli ±0.25, ±0.5, and ±1.0, octaves from the center frequency were also presented

and rewarded for right-side licking).

On each trial, a 250 ms tone was presented and animals had to classify the tone as the center

frequency (green) or any other frequency (shades of gray). Stimuli were presented at 70 dB SPL

in a pseudorandom order, such that the likelihood of center:non-center was 1:1 (with frequency

uniformly chosen from the non-center distribution on non-center trials). After a 250 ms delay,

animals had to lick left to report the stimulus as 'center' and had to lick right to report the stimulus

as 'non-center'. If the animal did not respond during the 2.5 seconds of the response epoch, the

trial was classified as a 'no response' trial (which were excluded from analysis except where

otherwise noted). If the lick response was correct, a small water reward (2-4 µL) was delivered to

the corresponding lick port. Inter-trial intervals were 3±0.5 seconds (mean±s.d.) on trials with a

correct response and 6±0.5 seconds (mean±s.d.) on trials with an incorrect response or without a

response. Animals were not punished for licking outside of the response epoch. Animals generally

performed between 350-500 trials/day.

Vagus nerve stimulation in mice

The custom cuff electrode design was adapted for mice from a previous cuff electrode designed

for rats[43,44]. A bipolar stimulating peripheral nerve cuff electrode was custom built using micro-

renathane tubing (Braintree Scientific, Part number: MRE-040), coated platinum iridium wire

(Medwire, Part number: 10IR9/49T), and gold pins (Mouser Electronics, Part number: 575-

100140). The tubing was used as the base for the portion of the cuff that interacts with the nerve.

It was cut in 1.0-1.5 mm segments, with an interior diameter of 0.025 inches to allow for nerve

swelling after implantation. Two platinum iridium wires with the coating removed were glued

(Dentsply Sirona, Triad gel) to the interior of the tubing about 0.5 mm apart. Gold pins were

soldered to the end of the wires opposite the tubing. The coating on the wire was only removed for

small portions at both ends to limit non-coated contact only to the gold pins and within the interior

circumference of the tubing. Wires were 2.5-3.0 cm in length in order to span from the skull to the

position of the cervical vagus. Non-absorbable silk suture string (Braintree Scientific, Part number:

SUT-S 104) was added to each side of the cuff opening to improve cuff handling and manipulation

during implantation. Viable cuff electrodes were determined by an impedance reading between 1-

10 kΩ at 1 kHz when submerged in saline (Peak Instruments LCR45).

Impedance measurements were taken each day of stimulation (Peak Instruments LCR45,

Frequency: 1kHz). Measurements of breathing rates, SpO_2, and heart rates were collected using a

thigh sensor (MouseOx) in animals lightly anesthetized with 0.75-1.5% isoflurane during VNS.

The vagus nerve was stimulated using a high-current stimulus isolator (World Precision

Instruments A385) triggered by a digital signal processor (RZ6, Tucker-Davis Technologies). VNS

parameters were based on previous work[43,48–50]: 100 µs pulse width, 30 Hz stimulation rate, 0.5

second duration. Stimulation intensity was 0.6-0.8 mA, based on the magnitude of the effect on

vitals (VNS intensity was 0.8 mA for imaging studies of **Figs. 4,5**).

Surgeries were performed on mice aged 6-12 weeks. Mice were anesthetized using

isoflurane (1.0-2.5%) and positioned in a stereotaxic frame (Kopf, model 923-B). Body

temperature was maintained at 37°C with a heating pad and rectal temperature probe. For behavior

and imaging experiments, a custom headpost[31] was attached to the skull using dental cement

(C&B-metabond), after thorough cleaning using hydrogen peroxide. Following all surgical

procedures, animals were given a nutritionally-fortified water gel for recovery assistance (Clear

H_2O DietGel Recovery, Part number: 72-06-5022).

For cuff implantation, a magnetic retractor base plate (Fine Science Tools, Part number:

1800-03) was used instead of a stereotaxic frame to allow for more flexible positioning of the

animal. Mice were positioned semi-supine at a 45° angel on their right side. Hair on the chest was

removed with Nair from the sternum to the left shoulder. The surgical site was sterilized by

alternating 70% ethanol and betadine washes. A 1.5 cm incision was made 0.5-1.0 cm to the left

of the top of the sternum, then the submandibular gland was separated and retracted from

connective tissue. Using blunt forceps (Fine Science Tools, Part number: 11231-30), the left

sternocleidomastoid and omohyoid muscles were separated and retracted until the carotid sheath

was accessible. A sterilized cuff electrode was led subcutaneously from the left side of the scalp

incision, between the ear and eye, and down to the chest incision site. Once positioned, the cuff

end of the electrode was deposited near the carotid sheath and the gold pin leads remained exposed

on the head. Using sharp forceps (Fine Science Tools, Part number: 11251-30), a 4 mm stretch of

the cervical vagus nerve was isolated from surrounding nerves and vasculature without direct

contact with the nerve. The cuff electrode was positioned around the vagus nerve so the nerve was

not taut and the non-coated intra-cuff wires had even contact with the nerve. The cuff was knotted

closed with non-absorbable silk suture string and muscles were returned to their original positions.

Absorbable sutures (Ethicon, Part number: W1621T) were occasionally made on the muscles to

keep the cuff from lifting the nerve ventrally. The submandibular gland was repositioned and the

skin was sutured closed with absorbable sutures (Ethicon, Part number: VCP433). The sutures

were sterilized with betadine and then sealed with surgical glue (Meridian). The electrode cuff

leads were secured near the headpost using dental cement (C&B-metabond). The incision was

covered with 4% topical lidocaine (L.M.X. 4). Cuff electrode impedance (1 kHz) was recorded

immediately after surgery and maintained a similar measurement from before implantation.

Successful cuff implantation was verified using both impedance measurements and changes in

vitals readings as described above.

All VNS during behavior started after the animals reached stable performance after a

minimum of nine days from start of stage three. All animals in either the VNS or sham group

received 17-20 days of stimulation. On each day of stimulation, animals performed a total of 400

trials, with 100 trials (two blocks of 50 trials, blocks two and four) of behavior with VNS. All

auditory stimuli were stimulated to avoid the animal using solely VNS to identify specific stimuli.

VNS lasted 500 ms and was centered around the tone, i.e., it started 125ms prior to tone onset and

ended 125ms after tone offset. Stimulation days ended with 100 trials of unstimulated behavior.

Two-photon calcium imaging

Cranial window implantation over left auditory cortex was performed, as previously described[31].

For cell body imaging, 1.0 µL of diluted CaMKII.GCaMP6f (AAV1, diluted 1:3 with dPBS or

AAV9, diluted 1:10 with dPBS, Addgene number: 100834) was injected in three locations

throughout auditory cortex (1.5 mm from lambda, along lateral suture). For axon imaging, 1.0 µL

of pAAV.Syn.Flex.GCaMP6s.WPRE.SV40 (diluted 1:2 in dPBS; Addgene: 100845-AAV5; AP:

-0.5 mm, ML: -1.8 mm, DV: -4.5 mm from brain surface) was injected in basal forebrain of

heterozygous ChAT-Cre mice.

Two-photon fluorescence of GCaMP6f/s was excited at 900 nm using a mode locked

Ti:Sapphire laser (MaiTai, Spectra-Physics, Mountain View, CA) and detected in the green

channel. Imaging was performed on a multiphoton imaging system (Moveable Objective

Microscope, Sutter Instruments) equipped with a water immersion objective (20X, NA=0.95,

Olympus) and the emission path was shielded from external light contamination. Images were

collected using ScanImage (Vidrio). To image auditory cortex, the objective was tilted to an angle

of 50–60°. Awake animals were head-fixed under the microscope and the stimulus isolator was

connected to the VNS cuff. We imaged using one of two systems: either a microscope covering

approximately ~300 μm^2 regions with galvo-galvo scanning at ~4Hz (0.26 s/frame) or a

microscope covering approximately ~450 μm^2 regions with resonance scanning at ~30Hz (laser

power ≤40 mW).

For VNS pairing while imaging excitatory neurons, the speaker was ~10 cm away from the

ear contralateral to the window. A consistent region of excitatory neurons in layer 2/3 of A1 (based

on vasculature and relative orientation of neurons) was imaged over all days of pairing. For

baseline imaging, pure tones (70 dB SPL, 4–64 kHz, 250 ms, 10 ms cosine on/off ramps, quarter-

octave spacing, 10 trials for each frequency) were delivered in pseudo-random sequence every 5

seconds. During pairing, one frequency (chosen based on the initial tuning of the area) was played

concurrently with VNS every 2.5 seconds for 5 minutes.

Collected data were processed using the Suite2p analysis pipeline[83]. Recorded frames were

aligned using a non-rigid motion correction algorithm. Regions of interest (representing excitatory

neurons or cholinergic axon segments) were segmented in a semi-automated manner using a

Suite2p based classifier. Additional ROIs were manually drawn on an average image of all motion-

corrected images. Calcium fluorescence was extracted from all ROIs. Semi-automated data

analysis was performed using custom Matlab (MathWorks) software. For each ROI, we corrected

for potential neuropil contamination as previously described[84]. The ΔF/F (%) was calculated as

the average change in fluorescence during the stimulus epoch relative to the 750 ms immediately

prior to stimulus onset: ΔF/F (%)=((F_t−F_0)/F_0)∗100. ROIs were included in additional analysis if

they had a significant response (both $p<0.05$ Student's two-tailed, paired t-test comparing activity

during any stimulus and pre-stimulus epochs and had a mean ΔF/F equal to 5% or above for all

trials with a particular frequency). Neurons were matched across sessions using the automated

MATLAB algorithm ROIMatchPub (https://github.com/ransona/ROIMatchPub) with a matching

criteria threshold of 0.4 (consistent with Seghal, et al., 2021) and manually verified (examples

shown in **Extended Data Fig. 5**).

Fiber photometry

Heterozygous ChAT-Cre mice were bilaterally injected with 1.0 µL of pAAV.Syn.Flex.GCaMP6s.WPRE.SV40 (diluted 1:2 in dPBS; Addgene: 100845-AAV5) in basal forebrain (AP: -0.5 mm, ML: -1.8 mm, DV: -4.5 mm from brain surface). Animals were head-posted and a 400 µm optical fiber (Thorlabs, Item# CFMC54L05) was implanted in the left hemisphere slightly above the injection site at -4.3 D-V. Experiments were performed three to four weeks after surgery. Photometry was performed using a custom-built rig (Falkner et al., 2016; Carcea et al., 2019). A 400 Hz sinusoidal blue light (40-45 µW) from a 470 nm LED (Thorlabs, Item# M470F1) connected to a LED driver (Thorlabs, Item# LEDD1B) was delivered via the optical fiber to excite GCaMP6s. We also used a control 330 Hz light (10 µW) from a 405 nm LED (Thorlabs, Item# M405FP1) connected to a second LED driver. Light travelled via 405 nm and 469 nm excitation filters via a dichroic mirror to the brain. Emitted light traveled back through the same optical fiber via dichroic mirror and 525 nm emission filter, passed through an adjustable zooming lens (Thorlabs, Item# SM1NR05) and was detected by a femtowatt silicon photoreceiver (Newport, Item# 2151). Recordings were performed using RX8 Multi-I/O Processor (Tucker-Davis Technologies). The envelopes of the signals were extracted in real time using Synapse software (Tucker-Davis Technologies). The analog readout was low-pass filtered at 10 Hz. Additional analysis was performed using custom MATLAB (Mathworks) software.

Circuit tracing

For monosynaptic pseudotype tracing studies, 0.5 µL of a mix of pAAV-TREtight0mTag-BFP2-B19G (diluted 1:20 in dPBS; Addgene: 100799-AAV1) and pAAV-syn-FLEX-splitTVA-EGFP-tTA (diluted 1:200 in dPBS; Addgene: 100798-AAV1) was injected into basal forebrain (AP: -0.5

mm, ML: -1.8 mm, DV: -4.5 mm from brain surface) of ChAT-Cre mice. After one week, 0.25 µL

of EnvA G-Deleted Rabies-mCherry (diluted 1:5 in dPBS; Addgene: 32636) was injected in the

basal forebrain using the same coordinates. For mapping potential connectivity between basal

forebrain, locus coeruleus and nucleus tractus solitarius, 0.75 µL of rgAAV-FLEX-tdTomato

(diluted 1:3 in dPBS; Addgene number: 28306) was injected in TH-Cre mice in basal forebrain

(AP: -0.5 mm, ML: -1.8 mm, DV: -4.5 mm from brain surface) using either a Hamilton syringe (5

µL) or Nanoject (Drummond Scientific; Part number: 3-000-207).

Animals were deeply anaesthetized with isoflurane and then transcardially perfused with

phosphate buffered saline (1x PBS) followed by 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) in PBS. Animals

injected for circuit tracing studies were perfused 3-6 weeks after viral injection. Animals injected

for optogenetics behavioral experiments were perfused after completion of behavioral training.

After at least 12 hours in 4% PFA, brains were either transferred to PBS for sectioning with a

vibratome or to a 30% sucrose-PBS solution for 24-48 hours to prepare for cryosectioning. For

cryosectioning, brains were embedded in Tissue-Plus^{TM} O.C.T. Compound medium (Thermo

Fisher Scientific, Item# 23-730) and sectioned using a cryostat (Leica). All sections were cut at 50

µm.

For animals injected with monosynaptic pseudotyped rabies, brain sections were washed

with PBS (3x10 min at room temperature) and incubated for 2 hours at room temperature in

blocking solution containing 5% normal goat serum (Millipore Sigma, Item # G6767) in 1% Triton

X-100 (Millipore Sigma, Item #11332481001) dissolved in PBS. Brain slices containing basal

forebrain were incubated in primary antibody (1:500 dilution of 3% normal goat serum in 1%

Triton X100 dissolved in PBS of chicken anti-GFP IgY, Abcam catalog # ab13970 and rabbit anti-

mCherry IgG, Abcam catalog # ab167453) for 24-48 hours at 4°C. Afterwards, slices were washed

and incubated for 1–2 hours at room temperature in secondary antibody (1:500 dilution in PBS,

goat anti-chicken IgY Alexa Fluor 488, Thermo Fisher Scientific cat. # A11039 and goat anti-

Rabbit IgG (H+L) Cross-Absorbed Secondary Antibody, Alexa Fluor 555, Thermo Fisher

Scientific Part number # A21428). Brain slices containing locus coeruleus and NTS were

incubated in primary antibody (1:500 dilution of 3% normal goat serum in 1% Triton X100

dissolved in PBS, rabbit anti-mCherry IgG, Abcam catalog # ab167453) for 24-48 hours at 4°C.

Slices were washed and incubated for 1–2 hours at room temperature in secondary antibody (1:500

dilution, goat anti-Rabbit IgG (H+L) Cross-Absorbed Secondary Antibody, Alexa Fluor 555,

Thermo Fisher Scientific Part number # A21428). Finally, slides were washed and coverslipped

using VECTASHIELD Antifade Mounting Medium with DAPI (Vector Labs Part number#: H-

1200-10). For all other animals, brain sections were washed with PBS and mounted using

VECTASHIELD Antifade Mounting Medium with DAPI. Slides were imaged using a Carl Zeiss

LSM 700 confocal microscope with four solid-state lasers (405/444, 488, 555, 639 nm) with

appropriate filter sets and/or an Olympus AS-VSW whole slide scanner with an X-cite 120LED

Boost High-Power LED Illumination system.

Individual brain sections were aligned with the Allen Brain Mouse Atlas[85] using the

QuickNII system[86]. The QuickNII system uses manual annotation and semi-automatic spatial

registration to transform the reference atlas to match the anatomical landmarks in the

corresponding experimental images. We then focused our quantification analysis to specific brain

areas of interest – basal forebrain (AP: -0.5 mm), locus coeruleus (AP: -5.34) and solitary nucleus

(AP: -6.36). Using the brain region outlines generated by QuickNII, we manually counted the

number of cell bodies in each area. All labeled cells were marked in dots in shades of gray on the

reference image for the corresponding anatomical plane.

Optogenetic stimulation or inhibition of basal forebrain cholinergic neurons

To stimulate auditory cortical projecting cholinergic neurons, 1.0 µL of AAVrg.EF1a.

doublefloxed.hChR2(H134R).EYFP.WPRE-HGHpA (diluted 1:2 with dPBS; Addgene number:

20298) was injected into auditory cortex as described above in ChAT-Cre animals. For optogenetic

inhibition, 0.50 µL of AAV5.FLEX.ArchT.tdTomato (diluted 1:2 with dPBS; Addgene number:

28305) was injected in basal forebrain of ChAT-Cre animals using the coordinates described

above. In both cases, optic fibers were implanted 50 µm above basal forebrain and the animal was

head-posted. Optic fibers were custom made of glass fibers (200 µm core; Thorlabs FT200UMT)

fitted with zirconia LC connectors (Precision Fiber Products MM-FER2007C-2300), secured

using glue (Krazy Glue). All fibers used had at least an 80% efficiency prior to implantation.

For optogenetic stimulation during behavior, cholinergic basal forebrain neurons were

bilaterally stimulated in the same way as VNS pairing (500 ms centered around the tone at 30 Hz;

two blocks of 50 stimulation trials surrounded by unstimulated trials). For optogenetic inactivation

experiments, cholinergic basal forebrain neurons were bilaterally inhibited using a 500 ms pulse,

presented in conjunction with VNS pairing. Light (either blue or yellow) was delivered using a

driver (Thorlabs LEDD1B), fiber coupled LED (Thorlabs M470F3 or M565F3), a patch cable

(Thorlabs M129L01), and a bifurcated fiber bundle (Thorlabs BFYL2LF01) connected to the

fibers using a mating sleeve (Thorlabs ADAL1). Laser power was calibrated across days and

between 1-3 mW for all optogenetics experiments during behavior.

Author Contributions

K.A.M., J.K.S and R.C.F. designed the experiments. K.A.M, E.S.P, and J.K.S. performed the

experiments. K.A.M. performed analysis. E.S.P., S.S.F., and S.O.V. provided technical assistance.

N.Z.T., E.S.P., D.A.M., M.J.M., and R.C.F. designed and validated the VNS cuff electrode. K.A.M

and R.C.F. wrote the manuscript.

Acknowledgments

We thank A. Agha, C.L. Ebbesen, E. Glennon, E. Kay-Rivest, R.A. Kolaric, K.I. Nagel, D.H.

Sanes, D.M. Schneider, M.A. Svirsky, J.T. Roland, and S. Valtcheva for comments, discussions,

and/or technical assistance. We thank the GENIE Program, Janelia Research Campus, and the

Howard Hughes Medical Institute for provision of GCaMP6s and ScanImage. This work was

funded by grants from the Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency (N66001-17-2-4010 to

R.C.F., D.A.M., and M.J.M.), the National Institute on Deafness and Other Communication

Disorders (DC012557 to R.C.F.), and the National Science Foundation (to K.A.M. and J.K.S.).

References

1. Fu, Y.-X. *et al.* Temporal Specificity in the Cortical Plasticity of Visual Space Representation. *Science (1979)* **296**, 1999–2003 (2002).
2. Gilbert, C. D., Li, W. & Piech, V. Perceptual learning and adult cortical plasticity. *J Physiol* **587**, 2743–2751 (2009).
3. Khan, A. G. *et al.* Distinct learning-induced changes in stimulus selectivity and interactions of GABAergic interneuron classes in visual cortex. *Nat Neurosci* **21**, 851–859 (2018).
4. Poort, J. *et al.* Learning Enhances Sensory and Multiple Non-sensory Representations in Primary Visual Cortex. *Neuron* **86**, 1478–1490 (2015).
5. Schoups, A., Vogels, R., Qian, N. & Orban, G. Practising orientation identification improves orientation coding in V1 neurons. *Nature* **412**, 549–553 (2001).
6. Yan, Y. *et al.* Perceptual training continuously refines neuronal population codes in primary visual cortex. *Nat Neurosci* **17**, 1380–1387 (2014).
7. Yao, H. & Dan, Y. Stimulus Timing-Dependent Plasticity in Cortical Processing of Orientation. *Neuron* **32**, 315–323 (2001).
8. Recanzone, G. H., Schreiner, C. E. & Merzenich, M. M. Plasticity in the frequency representation of primary auditory cortex following discrimination training in adult owl monkeys. *The Journal of Neuroscience* **13**, 87 LP – 103 (1993).
9. Polley, D. B., Steinberg, E. E. & Merzenich, M. M. Perceptual Learning Directs Auditory Cortical Map Reorganization through Top-Down Influences. *The Journal of Neuroscience* **26**, 4970 LP – 4982 (2006).
10. Karmarkar, U. R. & Buonomano, D. v. Temporal specificity of perceptual learning in an auditory discrimination task. *Learning and Memory* **10**, 141–147 (2003).
11. Edeline, J.-M., Pham, P. & Weinberger, N. M. Rapid development of learning-induced receptive field plasticity in the auditory cortex. *Behavioral Neuroscience* vol. 107 539–551 Preprint at https://doi.org/10.1037/0735-7044.107.4.539 (1993).
12. Bakin, J. S. & Weinberger, N. M. Classical conditioning induces CS-specific receptive field plasticity in the auditory cortex of the guinea pig. *Brain Res* **536**, 271–286 (1990).
13. Recanzone, G. H., Merzenich, M. M., Jenkins, W. M., Grajski, K. A. & Dinse, H. R. Topographic reorganization of the hand representation in cortical area 3b owl monkeys trained in a frequency-discrimination task. *J Neurophysiol* **67**, 1031–1056 (1992).
14. Feldman, D. E. & Brecht, M. Map Plasticity in Somatosensory Cortex. *Science (1979)* **310**, 810–815 (2005).
15. Wilson, D. A. & Stevenson, R. J. Olfactory perceptual learning: the critical role of memory in odor discrimination. *Neurosci Biobehav Rev* **27**, 307–328 (2003).
16. Karni, A. & Sagi, D. The time course of learning a visual skill. *Nature* **365**, 250–252 (1993).
17. van Kerkoerle, T., Marik, S. A., Meyer zum Alten Borgloh, S. & Gilbert, C. D. Axonal plasticity associated with perceptual learning in adult macaque primary visual cortex. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* **115**, 10464 LP – 10469 (2018).

18. Tsodyks, M. & Gilbert, C. Neural networks and perceptual learning. *Nature* **431**, 775–781 (2004).

19. Bao, S., Chang, E. F., Woods, J. & Merzenich, M. M. Temporal plasticity in the primary auditory cortex induced by operant perceptual learning. *Nat Neurosci* **7**, 974–981 (2004).

20. David, S. v, Fritz, J. B. & Shamma, S. A. Task reward structure shapes rapid receptive field plasticity in auditory cortex. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* **109**, 2144 LP – 2149 (2012).

21. Froemke, R. C. Plasticity of Cortical Excitatory-Inhibitory Balance. *Annu Rev Neurosci* **38**, 195–219 (2015).

22. Magee, J. C. & Grienberger, C. Synaptic Plasticity Forms and Functions. *Annu Rev Neurosci* **43**, 95–117 (2020).

23. Kilgard, M. P. & Merzenich, M. M. Cortical Map Reorganization Enabled by Nucleus Basalis Activity. *Science (1979)* **279**, 1714–1718 (1998).

24. Reed, A. *et al.* Cortical Map Plasticity Improves Learning but Is Not Necessary for Improved Performance. *Neuron* **70**, 121–131 (2011).

25. Edeline, J.-M., Hars, B., Maho, C. & Hennevin, E. Transient and prolonged facilitation of tone-evoked responses induced by basal forebrain stimulations in the rat auditory cortex. *Exp Brain Res* **97**, 373–386 (1994).

26. Bakin, J. S. & Weinberger, N. M. Induction of a physiological memory in the cerebral cortex by stimulation of the nucleus basalis. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* **93**, 11219 LP – 11224 (1996).

27. Goard, M. & Dan, Y. Basal forebrain activation enhances cortical coding of natural scenes. *Nat Neurosci* **12**, 1444–1449 (2009).

28. Pinto, L. *et al.* Fast modulation of visual perception by basal forebrain cholinergic neurons. *Nat Neurosci* **16**, 1857–1863 (2013).

29. Guo, W., Robert, B. & Polley, D. B. The Cholinergic Basal Forebrain Links Auditory Stimuli with Delayed Reinforcement to Support Learning. *Neuron* **103**, 1164-1177.e6 (2019).

30. Robert, B. *et al.* A functional topography within the cholinergic basal forebrain for encoding sensory cues and behavioral reinforcement outcomes. *Elife* **10**, e69514 (2021).

31. Kuchibhotla, K. V *et al.* Parallel processing by cortical inhibition enables context-dependent behavior. *Nat Neurosci* **20**, 62–71 (2017).

32. Letzkus, J. J. *et al.* A disinhibitory microcircuit for associative fear learning in the auditory cortex. *Nature* **480**, 331–335 (2011).

33. Poorthuis, R. B., Enke, L. & Letzkus, J. J. Cholinergic circuit modulation through differential recruitment of neocortical interneuron types during behaviour. *J Physiol* **592**, 4155–4164 (2014).

34. Thiel, C. M., Friston, K. J. & Dolan, R. J. Cholinergic Modulation of Experience-Dependent Plasticity in Human Auditory Cortex. *Neuron* **35**, 567–574 (2002).

35. Froemke, R. C. *et al.* Long-term modification of cortical synapses improves sensory perception. *Nat Neurosci* **16**, 79–88 (2013).

36. Wilson, D. A., Fletcher, M. L. & Sullivan, R. M. Acetylcholine and Olfactory Perceptual Learnin. *Learning and Memory* **11**, 28–34 (2004).

37. Hegedüs, P., Sviatkó, K., Király, B., Martínez-Bellver, S. & Hangya, B. Cholinergic activity reflects reward expectations and predicts behavioral responses. *iScience* **26**, 105814 (2023).

38. Hangya, B., Ranade, S. P., Lorenc, M. & Kepecs, A. Central Cholinergic Neurons Are Rapidly Recruited by Reinforcement Feedback. *Cell* **162**, 1155–1168 (2015).

39. Penry, J. K. & Dean, J. C. Prevention of Intractable Partial Seizures by Intermittent Vagal Stimulation in Humans: Preliminary Results. *Epilepsia* **31**, S40–S43 (1990).

40. Fisher, B., DesMarteau, J. A., Koontz, E. H., Wilks, S. J. & Melamed, S. E. Responsive Vagus Nerve Stimulation for Drug Resistant Epilepsy: A Review of New Features and Practical Guidance for Advanced Practice Providers. *Front Neurol* **11**, (2021).

41. O'Reardon, J. P., Cristancho, P. & Peshek, A. D. Vagus Nerve Stimulation (VNS) and Treatment of Depression: To the Brainstem and Beyond. *Psychiatry (Edgmont)* **3**, 54–63 (2006).

42. Meyers, E. C. *et al.* Vagus Nerve Stimulation Enhances Stable Plasticity and Generalization of Stroke Recovery. *Stroke* **49**, 710–717 (2018).

43. Engineer, N. D. *et al.* Reversing pathological neural activity using targeted plasticity. *Nature* **470**, 101–104 (2011).

44. Nichols, J. A. *et al.* Vagus nerve stimulation modulates cortical synchrony and excitability through the activation of muscarinic receptors. *Neuroscience* **189**, 207–214 (2011).

45. Lai, J. & David, S. v. Short-Term Effects of Vagus Nerve Stimulation on Learning and Evoked Activity in Auditory Cortex. *eNeuro* **8**, ENEURO.0522-20.2021 (2021).

46. Lockard, J. S., Congdon, W. C. & DuCharme, L. L. Feasibility and Safety of Vagal Stimulation In Monkey Model. *Epilepsia* **31**, S20–S26 (1990).

47. Mughrabi, I. T. *et al.* Development and characterization of a chronic implant mouse model for vagus nerve stimulation. *Elife* **10**, e61270 (2021).

48. Mridha, Z. *et al.* Graded recruitment of pupil-linked neuromodulation by parametric stimulation of the vagus nerve. *Nat Commun* **12**, 1539 (2021).

49. Collins, L., Boddington, L., Steffan, P. J. & McCormick, D. Vagus nerve stimulation induces widespread cortical and behavioral activation. *Current Biology* **31**, 2088-2098.e3 (2021).

50. Bowles, S. *et al.* Vagus nerve stimulation drives selective circuit modulation through cholinergic reinforcement. *Neuron* **110**, 2867-2885.e7 (2022).

51. Buell, E. P. *et al.* Vagus Nerve Stimulation Rate and Duration Determine whether Sensory Pairing Produces Neural Plasticity. *Neuroscience* **406**, 290–299 (2019).

52. Hays, S. A. *et al.* Vagus nerve stimulation during rehabilitative training enhances recovery of forelimb function after ischemic stroke in aged rats. *Neurobiol Aging* **43**, 111–118 (2016).

53. Hays, S. A. *et al.* Vagus nerve stimulation during rehabilitative training improves functional recovery after intracerebral hemorrhage. *Stroke* **45**, 3097–3100 (2014).

54. Groves, D. A., Bowman, E. M. & Brown, V. J. Recordings from the rat locus coeruleus during acute vagal nerve stimulation in the anaesthetised rat. *Neurosci Lett* **379**, 174–179 (2005).

55. Hulsey, D. R. *et al.* Parametric characterization of neural activity in the locus
coeruleus in response to vagus nerve stimulation. *Exp Neurol* **289**, 21–30 (2017).
56. van Bockstaele, E. J., Peoples, J. & Telegan, P. Efferent projections of the nucleus
of the solitary tract to peri-Locus coeruleus dendrites in rat brain: Evidence for a
monosynaptic pathway. *Journal of Comparative Neurology* **412**, 410–428 (1999).
57. Schwarz, L. A. & Luo, L. Organization of the Locus Coeruleus-Norepinephrine
System. *Current Biology* **25**, R1051–R1056 (2015).
58. King, J. *et al.* Rodent auditory perception: Critical band limitations and plasticity.
Neuroscience **296**, 55–65 (2015).
59. Heffner, H. & Masterton, B. Hearing in Glires: Domestic rabbit, cotton rat, feral
house mouse, and kangaroo rat. *J Acoust Soc Am* **68**, 1584–1599 (1980).
60. Klein, A. S., Dolensek, N., Weiand, C. & Gogolla, N. Fear balance is maintained
by bodily feedback to the insular cortex in mice. *Science (1979)* **374**, 1010–1015
(2021).
61. Martins, A. R. O. & Froemke, R. C. Coordinated forms of noradrenergic plasticity
in the locus coeruleus and primary auditory cortex. *Nat Neurosci* **18**, 1483–1492
(2015).
62. Yakunina, N., Kim, S. S. & Nam, E.-C. Optimization of Transcutaneous Vagus
Nerve Stimulation Using Functional MRI. *Neuromodulation: Technology at the*
Neural Interface **20**, 290–300 (2017).
63. Hulsey, D. R. *et al.* Reorganization of Motor Cortex by Vagus Nerve Stimulation
Requires Cholinergic Innervation. *Brain Stimul* **9**, 174–181 (2016).
64. Do, J. P. *et al.* Cell type-specific long-range connections of basal forebrain circuit.
Elife **5**, e13214 (2016).
65. Kim, J.-H. *et al.* Selectivity of Neuromodulatory Projections from the Basal
Forebrain and Locus Ceruleus to Primary Sensory Cortices. *The Journal of*
Neuroscience **36**, 5314 LP – 5327 (2016).
66. Gielow, M. R. & Zaborszky, L. The Input-Output Relationship of the Cholinergic
Basal Forebrain. *Cell Rep* **18**, 1817–1830 (2017).
67. Laszlovszky, T. *et al.* Distinct synchronization, cortical coupling and behavioral
function of two basal forebrain cholinergic neuron types. *Nat Neurosci* **23**, 992–
1003 (2020).
68. Wickersham, I. R., Finke, S., Conzelmann, K.-K. & Callaway, E. M. Retrograde
neuronal tracing with a deletion-mutant rabies virus. *Nat Methods* **4**, 47–49 (2007).
69. Liu, K. *et al.* Lhx6-positive GABA-releasing neurons of the zona incerta promote
sleep. *Nature* **548**, 582–587 (2017).
70. Hecht, S., Shlaer, S. & Pirenne, M. H. ENERGY, QUANTA, AND VISION .
Journal of General Physiology **25**, 819–840 (1942).
71. Baylor, D. A., Lamb, T. D. & Yau, K. W. Responses of retinal rods to single
photons. *J Physiol* **288**, 613–634 (1979).
72. Reimer, J. *et al.* Pupil fluctuations track rapid changes in adrenergic and cholinergic
activity in cortex. *Nat Commun* **7**, 13289 (2016).
73. McGinley, M. J. *et al.* Waking State: Rapid Variations Modulate Neural and
Behavioral Responses. *Neuron* **87**, 1143–1161 (2015).
74. Prechtl, J. C. & Powley, T. L. The fiber composition of the abdominal vagus of the
rat. *Anat Embryol (Berl)* **181**, 101–115 (1990).

75. Cunningham, J. T., Mifflin, S. W., Gould, G. G. & Frazer, A. Induction of c-Fos
and ΔFosB Immunoreactivity in Rat Brain by Vagal Nerve Stimulation.
Neuropsychopharmacology **33**, 1884–1895 (2008).
76. Mao, X., Chang, Y.-C., Zanos, S. & Lajoie, G. Rapidly Inferring Personalized
Neurostimulation Parameters with Meta-Learning: A Case Study of Individualized
Fiber Recruitment in Vagus Nerve Stimulation. *bioRxiv* (2022)
doi:10.1101/2022.09.06.506839.
77. Settell, M. L. *et al.* Functional vagotopy in the cervical vagus nerve of the domestic
pig: Implications for the study of vagus nerve stimulation. *J Neural Eng* **17**, (2020).
78. Chang, R. B., Strochlic, D. E., Williams, E. K., Umans, B. D. & Liberles, S. D.
Vagal Sensory Neuron Subtypes that Differentially Control Breathing. *Cell* **161**,
622–633 (2015).
79. Carter, M. E. *et al.* Tuning arousal with optogenetic modulation of locus coeruleus
neurons. *Nat Neurosci* **13**, 1526–1533 (2010).
80. Hsueh, B. *et al.* Cardiogenic control of affective behavioural state. *Nature* (2023)
doi:10.1038/s41586-023-05748-8.
81. Hulsey, D. R., Shedd, C. M., Sarker, S. F., Kilgard, M. P. & Hays, S. A.
Norepinephrine and serotonin are required for vagus nerve stimulation directed
cortical plasticity. *Exp Neurol* 112975 (2019)
doi:10.1016/j.expneurol.2019.112975.
82. Yap, J. Y. Y. *et al.* Critical Review of Transcutaneous Vagus Nerve Stimulation:
Challenges for Translation to Clinical Practice . *Frontiers in Neuroscience* vol. 14
Preprint at https://www.frontiersin.org/article/10.3389/fnins.2020.00284 (2020).
83. Pachitariu, M. *et al.* Suite2p: beyond 10,000 neurons with standard two-photon
microscopy. *bioRxiv* 61507 (2017) doi:10.1101/061507.
84. Kerlin, A. M., Andermann, M. L., Berezovskii, V. K. & Reid, R. C. Broadly Tuned
Response Properties of Diverse Inhibitory Neuron Subtypes in Mouse Visual
Cortex. *Neuron* **67**, 858–871 (2010).
85. Lein, E. S. *et al.* Genome-wide atlas of gene expression in the adult mouse brain.
Nature **445**, 168–176 (2007).
86. Puchades, M. A., Csucs, G., Ledergerber, D., Leergaard, T. B. & Bjaalie, J. G.
Spatial registration of serial microscopic brain images to three-dimensional
reference atlases with the QuickNII tool. *PLoS One* **14**, 1–14 (2019).
1054
1055

    Figure Legends

    Figure 1. 2AFC task for mouse auditory frequency discrimination. a, Behavioral

    schematic showing trial structure. On each trial, a head-restrained and water-restricted

    mouse is presented with a pure tone of a single frequency for 0.25 seconds at 70 dB SPL.

    Mice were trained to classify tones as either the center frequency (green) or non-center

    (shades of gray, with dark gray indicating closest to the center tone frequency and light gray

    indicating furthest from the center) by licking left (for center) or right (for non-center) in a

    response epoch 0.25-2.5 seconds from tone presentation. If tones were classified correctly,

    reward was delivered on the corresponding lick port. Inter-trial interval (ITI), 2.5 to 7

    seconds. **b**, Set of auditory training stimuli. The center frequency (11.3-16.0 kHz, specified

    per animal) was rewarded if the animal licked left; non-center frequency (±0.25-1.5 octaves

    from center frequency) was rewarded if the animal licked right. A single non-center

    frequency either -1.5 or 1.5 octaves from center tone was used in stage 1, the other ±1.5

    octave frequency was added in stage 2, all other stimuli added in stage 3. **c**, Mean

    performance across all three stages for example wild-type male mouse. When performance

    reached ≥80% for three consecutive days in stage 1 (lightest blue), this animal was

    transitioned to stage 2 (middle blue) for three days before moving to stage 3. Error bars,

    binomial confidence interval. **d**, Performance for all animals relative to day 1 of stage 2

    (N=38 mice). Heat map, % correct performance for each stage of training. Gray, no data

    (ND) as animals were not trained on those days. **e**, Number of days in stage 1 for all animals

    (median 10 days, inter-quartile range 7-13 days. Open circles, wild-type females (N=5);

    filled circles, wild-type males (N=11); open squares, ChAT-Cre females (N=8); filled

    squares, ChAT-Cre males (N=14). **f**, Percent reported center (i.e., licked left) across all

stimuli in on day one of stage 3 (dotted lines) and day of maximum performance (solid

lines). Gray lines, individual mice. Colored circles, means (N=38). **g**, Stability of individual

performance at end of stage 3 (before starting VNS). Mean overall performance was stable

for final six days of stage three; final days 1-3 (performance: 70.5±1.3% correct,

mean±s.e.m, N=38) compared to final days 4-6 (performance: 70.5±1.3%, p=0.998

compared to final days 1-3, Student's two-tailed paired t-test). Individually, only 2/38

animals showed a significant difference (p<0.05, Student's two-tailed paired t-test) on final

days 1-3 vs final days 4-6 (bold lines), 36/38 animals had individually stable performance

(thin lines). n.s., not significant. **h**, Error rate for each stimulus. Small circles, individual

mice. Error rate was significantly higher at ±0.25 and 0.5 octaves (dark gray, ±0.25 octave

error rate: 67.6±3.1%, mean±s.e.m; medium gray, ±0.5 octave error rate: 45.2±3.3%)

compared to center (green, center tone error rate; 15.5± 2.1%, $p<10^{-5}$ compared to ±0.25-

0.5, one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons correction). **, p<0.001.

1092

Figure 2. VNS during behavior improves perceptual discrimination over days. a,

Schematic of cuff electrode implantation on mouse left vagus nerve. **b**, Schematic of VNS

pairing during behavior. VNS was performed in two blocks of 50 trials (blue, blocks 2 and

4), interleaved between blocks of no stimulation (gray, blocks 1, 3 and 5). VNS parameters:

500 ms duration, 30 Hz rate, 0.6-0.8 mA intensity, centered around the tone for that trial.

During blocks of VNS, stimuli of all frequencies (center and non-center) were presented

during behavior. **c**, VNS pairing during behavior gradually improved performance relative

to baseline (days after VNS cuff implantation prior to start of VNS pairing) over days (N=7

mice). **d**, Performance over all stimuli improves after VNS pairing, but not in sham control

animals. Percent correct on final days of VNS pairing (Days 18-20) across all frequencies

in experimental animals (blue, closed circles, 77.1±3.1%, mean±s.e.m., N=7) in comparison

to the behavior three days prior to VNS (black, closed circles, 'Day -2-0', 65.4±3.8%,

p=0.008, Student's two-tailed paired t-test). Percent correct on final days (Days 18-20)

across all frequencies in sham control animals (blue open circles, 67.4±2.8%, mean±s.e.m.,

N=10) in comparison to behavior three days prior to sham pairing onset (black open circles,

68.5±2.5%, mean±s.e.m., N=10, p=0.65, Student's two-tailed paired t-test). **e**, Difference

in performance on day 18-20 of VNS or sham pairing compared to three days prior to pairing

onset in experimental animals (closed circles, 11.7±3.0%, mean±s.e.m., N=7) compared to

sham control animals (open circles, -1.1±2.4%, mean±s.e.m., N=10, p=0.004, Student's

one-tailed unpaired t-test). **f**, Percent reported center at each frequency relative to center son

the three days prior to VNS onset (black, 'Days -2-0', gray lines are individual mice) and

behavior on the final days of VNS pairing (blue, 'Days 18-20', light blue lines are individual

animals, N=7 mice). **g**, Percent correct at center frequency significantly increased on final

days of VNS pairing (blue, Days 18-20, 84.9±5.0%, mean±s.e.m.) compared to three days

prior to pairing onset (black, Days -2-0, 71.6±7.0%, mean±s.e.m., p=0.02, Student's two-

tailed paired t-test). **h**, Average percent reported center at ±0.25 (dark gray) and ±0.5

(medium gray) octaves normalized by performance at center frequency gradually reduced

over days of stimulation (shaded blue) in experimental animals (solid line, N=7), but not

sham controls (dotted line, N=10). **i**, Percent reported center normalized by performance at

center frequency at ±0.25 octave from center was reduced over days prior to VNS pairing

onset (black, Days -2-0) compared to the final days of VNS pairing (blue, Days 18-20) in

experimental animals (solid lines, closed circles, Days -2-0: 91.6±7.0%, Days 18-20:

67.2±8.1%, mean±s.e.m., p=0.04, Student's two-tailed paired t-test), but not sham controls

(dotted lines, open circles, Days -2-0: 95.3±3.9%, Days 18-20: 87.2±4.7%, mean±s.e.m.,

p=0.13, Student's two-tailed paired t-test). **j**, Percent reported center normalized by

performance at center frequency at ±0.5 octave was reduced over days prior to VNS pairing

onset (black, Days -2-0) compared to the final days of VNS pairing (blue, Days 18-20) in

experimental animals (solid lines, closed circles, Days -2-0: 78.8±7.1%, Days 18-20:

49.2±6.8%, mean±s.e.m., p=0.01, Student's two-tailed paired t-test), but not sham-

implanted control animals (dotted lines, open circles, Days -2-0: 74.8±5.1%, Days 18-20:

75.9±6.4%, mean±s.e.m., p=0.81). **k**, Difference in normalized percent reported center at

±0.25 and ±0.5 octave frequencies from center for sham controls (open circles, difference

at ±0.25: -8.1±4.9, difference at ±0.5: 1.1±4.6%, mean±s.e.m.) and experimental animals

(closed circles, difference at ±0.25: -24.3.1±9.2%, difference at ±0.5: -29.6±8.6%,

mean±s.e.m., for ±0.25: p=0.06, for ±0.5: p=0.002, Student's one-tailed unpaired t-test).

1138

Figure 3. VNS induces long-lasting behavioral improvements. a, Performance for all

stimuli is stable across blocks 1-4 on final three days with VNS in experimental animals

(closed circles, block 1: 79.5±3.2% correct, mean±s.e.m., no VNS, black; block 2:

79.1±1.9%, VNS, blue; block 3: 77.6±3.4%, no VNS, black; block 4: 75.8±2.5%, VNS,

blue; p=0.78, one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons correction; N=7) and

control animals (open circles, block 1: 73.3±2.7% correct, mean±s.e.m., no VNS, black;

block 2: 65.5±4.6%, VNS, blue; block 3: 70.9±3.5%, no VNS, black; block 4: 64.9±4.8%,

VNS, blue; p=0.37, one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons correction;

N=10). **b**, Difference in performance across blocks with and without VNS for experimental

(closed circles, average difference: -1.1±1.3%, mean±s.e.m.) and control animals (open

circles, average difference: -6.9±3.8%, p=0.23, Student's two-tailed unpaired t-test). **c**,

Performance for all stimuli was stable across blocks 1-4 prior to any days of VNS (block 1:

68.0±4.3% correct, mean±s.e.m., no VNS, black; block 2: 63.9±3.6%, VNS, blue; block 3:

63.1±3.7%, no VNS, black; block 4: 63.7±3.4%, VNS, blue; p=0.78, one-way ANOVA

with Tukey's multiple comparisons correction; N=7). **d**, Percent reported center at each

frequency relative to center stimulus on final days of VNS pairing in blocks with VNS (blue,

blocks 2 and 4, light blue lines are individual animals) or without (black, blocks 1 and 3,

gray lines are individual animals) in experimental (solid lines) and control mice (dotted

lines). **e**, Difference in performance across block types (with or without VNS) at each

frequency relative to the center stimulus for experimental (solid line) and control animals

(dotted line, p=0.28 for frequencies, p=0.11 for experimental group, two-way ANOVA with

Tukey's multiple comparisons correction). **f**, Response rate is stable across block 1-4 on

final three days with VNS pairing in experimental (closed circles, block 1: 97.1±2.0%

correct, mean±s.e.m., no VNS, black; block 2: 98.2±1.6%, VNS, blue; block 3: 95.0±3.0%,

no VNS, black; block 4: 95.5±2.8%, VNS, blue; p=0.77, one-way ANOVA with Tukey's

multiple comparisons correction; N=7) and sham animals (open circles, block 1: 96.7±1.6%

correct, mean±s.e.m., no VNS, black; block 2: 91.9±3.8%, "VNS", blue; block 3:

93.9±2.1%, no VNS, black; block 4: 85.7±5.7%, "VNS", blue; p=0.20, one-way ANOVA

with Tukey's multiple comparisons correction; N=10). **g**, Difference in response rate across

blocks with and without VNS for experimental (closed circles, average difference:

0.9±1.1%, mean±s.e.m.) and control animals (open circles, average difference: -6.5±3.7%,

p=0.13, Student's two-tailed unpaired t-test). **h**, Mean change in percent correct relative to

the three baseline days for all stimuli in block one (i.e., 50 trials prior to receiving VNS

during behavior that day, black) and all subsequent trials (including 100 trials with VNS,

blue) in an example animal. **i**, Summary of change in percent correct for all stimuli in block

one (N=7 mice). **j**, Performance in block one during baseline sessions prior to VNS onset

(black, 'Days -2-0') compared to performance on final days of VNS pairing (blue, 'Days

18-20') in experimental (closed circle, solid lines, average performance (Days -2-0):

68.0±4.3%, mean±s.e.m., average performance (Days 18-20): 79.5±3.2%, p=0.03,

Student's two-tailed paired t-test, N=7) and control animals (open circle, dotted lines,

average performance (Days -2-0): 69.5±1.9%, mean±s.e.m., average performance (Days

18-20): 73.3±2.7%, p=0.17, Student's two-tailed paired t-test, N=10). **k**, Difference in

performance in block 1 between the three days prior to VNS pairing onset (Days -2-0) and

the final three days of VNS pairing (Days 18-20) in experimental (closed circles, average

difference: 11.5±4.1%, mean±s.e.m.) and control animals (open circles, average difference:

3.8±2.6%, p=0.057, Student's one-tailed unpaired t-test). **l**, Correlation between change in

performance in block one and all subsequent trials in experimental animals (closed circles,

Pearson's R=0.89, p=0.008, N=7) and control animals (open circles, Pearson's R=0.57,

p=0.09, N=10).

Figure 4. VNS enables long-term plasticity in excitatory neurons in auditory cortex. a,

Schematic of VNS-tone pairing while performing two photon imaging of excitatory neurons

in auditory cortex. During VNS-tone pairing, VNS was for 500ms at 30Hz, centered around

the 250ms tone of one frequency every 2.5s. Pairing was done every day for up to 20 days.

Control animals also heard a tone of one frequency at the same rate without the coincident

VNS. During unpaired, passive tone presentation, tones ranging from 4-64 kHz at 70 dB

are presented for 250ms every 5-10s. Passive tone presentation was performed every 1-3

days. **b**, Portion of imaging region with ROIs colored for the frequency eliciting the

maximal response in example animal during two days of passive tone presentation (Day 0:

prior to receiving any VNS-tone pairing; Day 3: after receiving three days of VNS-tone

pairing). Initial best frequency ("Pre-peak", black, open arrow), pairing frequency ("P",

blue, closed arrow) and frequency ± one octave from the paired frequency ("±1", gray, open

arrow) represented for example animal on color bar. **c**, Example ROIs tracked across 5 days

of passive tone presentation (top: subset of neurons tracked over time; bottom: spatial

overlap of all neurons tracked across all sessions within consistent imaging area, different

colors represent different days of imaging). **d**, Percentage of significantly responsive

neurons over two time points (initial day of unpaired passive tone presentation and day 5 of

VNS pairing) in control (dotted lines, open circles; initial day: 33.0±8.1% significantly

responsive to any frequency, mean±s.d, day 5: 21.5±10.6% responsive, N=4 mice,

n=192±35.8 neurons per animal) and experimental animals (solid lines, closed circles;

initial day: 30.2±10.7% significantly responsive to any frequency, mean±s.d, day 5:

30.0±7.9% responsive, N=7 mice, n=145.3±20.5 neurons per animals, mean±s.d., p=0.96

for experimental animals, p=0.20 for sham animals, Student's paired t-test, p=0.11 for

1211	difference across time points for experimental and sham animals, Student's unpaired t-test).
1212	**e**, Example neuron during initial passive tone presentation, after 5 days of VNS-tone pairing
1213	and after 12 days of VNS-tone pairing for select frequencies. The paired tone was 16 kHz
1214	(seen in blue) for this animal. Mean response for each frequency is represented in black and
1215	individual trials are shown in gray. **f**, Passive tuning curves across all frequencies for
1216	example neuron prior to first VNS pairing (lightest gray), +15 minutes post first VNS
1217	pairing (light gray), 5 days of VNS pairing (medium gray), and after 12 days of pairing
1218	(dark gray). 'VNS', paired tone was 16 kHz for this animal. '+1', tone one octave from
1219	paired tone. 'Pre', initial best frequency pre-peak across the population. **g**, Percentage of
1220	neurons responsive to 4 to 64 kHz prior to VNS pairing (lightest gray), 3 days of VNS
1221	pairing (light gray), 5 days of VNS pairing (medium gray) and after 9 days of pairing (dark
1222	gray) in example animal. The paired tone was 22.7 kHz for this animal. **h**, Change in percent
1223	responsive 15 minutes after initial VNS-tone pairing relative to initial responses at the
1224	frequency with the maximum initial response (Pre-peak; open circle; -31.4±29.9%;
1225	mean±s.d.), paired frequency (blue; 4.4±75.7%; mean±s.d.) and frequency one octave away
1226	from the paired frequency (gray; 59.3±164.1%; mean±s.d., N=9 mice, n=1303 neurons,
1227	144.8±33.2 neurons per animal, mean±s.d.; p=0.21; one-way ANOVA with Tukey's
1228	multiple comparisons correction). Example animal from **g** highlighted in dark gray. **i**,
1229	Change in percent responsive 2 hours after initial VNS-tone pairing relative to initial
1230	responses at the frequency with the maximum initial response (Pre peak; open circle; -
1231	9.0±52.9%; mean±s.d.), paired frequency (blue; 14.1±110.0%; mean±s.d.) and frequency
1232	one octave away from the paired frequency (gray; 64.8±119.5%; mean±s.d., N=9 mice,
1233	n=1303 neurons, 144.8±33.2 neurons per animal, mean±s.d.; p=0.29; one-way ANOVA

with Tukey's multiple comparisons correction). Example animal from **g** highlighted in dark gray. **j**, Change in percent responsive at day 5 of pairing relative to initial responses for at the frequency with the maximum initial response ('Pre peak', black), paired frequency (blue), and frequency one octave away from the paired frequency (±1, gray) for experimental (paired: 113.3±132.2%, mean±s.d.; Pre peak: -38.4±29.4%; Freq ±1: 57.9±133.4%; N=7 mice, n=953 total neurons, 136.1±16.5 neurons per animal; p=0.055; one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons correction) and sham animals (paired: -28.0±68.5%, mean±s.d.; Pre peak: -50.4±19.0%; Freq ±1: 38.2±188.9%; N=4 mice, n=737 neurons total, 184.3±37.1 neurons per animal; p=0.56; one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons correction). Example animal from **g** highlighted in dark gray. **k**, Distribution of days to maximum response at paired frequency (4.9±3.5 days; mean±s.d.; N=7 mice). Gray circle is animal represented in **g**. **l**, Change in percent responsive at day of maximum population response to paired frequency relative to initial response at with the maximum initial response ('Pre peak', black), paired frequency (blue), and frequency one octave away from the paired frequency (±1, gray) for experimental (paired: 263.2±295.2%, mean±s.d.; Pre peak: -31.3±19.4%; Freq ±1: 22.3±105.1%; N=7 mice, n=934 neurons total, 133.4±15.5 neurons per animal; p=0.02; one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons correction) and sham animals (paired: 82.0±33.6%, mean±s.d.; Pre peak: -28.7±30.1%; Freq ±1: 100.1±163.8%; mean±s.d., N=4 mice, n=750 neurons total, 187.5±43.8 neurons per animal; p=0.19; one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons correction). Day of maximum population response was determined for individual animals in **k**. Example animal from **g** highlighted in dark gray.

Figure 5. Stimulating the vagus nerve activates auditory-cortical projecting cholinergic basal forebrain. a, Schematic of fiber photometry from cholinergic basal forebrain neurons. **b**, ΔF/F from all VNS applications for one example animal. VNS was applied for 500 ms at 30 Hz at 1.0 mA every 10 seconds. **c**, Average ΔF/F for all VNS trials across animals with mean baseline ΔF/F less than zero (N=3 mice; n=36 trials). **d**, Schematic for mapping inputs to cholinergic basal forebrain neurons using retrograde, Cre-dependent, pseudotyped monosynaptic rabies. Example image of injection area in basal forebrain, corresponding section from the Allen Brain Atlas, and location of GFP labeled neurons. The regions of interest are highlighted in red. Each animal is represented in a distinct shade of gray (N=3). **e**, Location of mCherry labeled neurons in section containing NTS labeled by dots in shades of gray. Regions of interest are highlighted in red. Each animal is represented in a distinct shade of gray (N=6). **f**, Schematic of imaging of basal forebrain cholinergic axons in auditory cortex. Trace of fluorescent activity is from one example animal from one example region. VNS applied for 500 ms at 30 Hz at 0.8 mA every 20 s. **g**, VNS triggered average from one example region. Example animal is the same shown in **f**. **h**, Distribution of time to max ΔF/F relative to VNS onset across all VNS applications in all regions in all animals (N=6 mice, 16.5±6.3 regions per animal, mean±s.d., n=270 trials). VNS was applied for 500ms at 30Hz at 0.8-1.0 mA every 2.5-26.7s. **i**, Average ΔF/F for 1s baseline prior to VNS onset and 1s following VNS onset (shaded in light blue in **l**, N=6, VNS: 128.7±36.4% ΔF/F, mean±s.e.m., p=0.02, Student's two-tailed paired t-test). **j**, Schematic for local injection of either atropine (orange) or vehicle (gray, control) in auditory cortex after 20 days of VNS pairing during behavior. After local injection, VNS was applied during behavior in the same manner as described in **Figure 2**.

k, Percent reported center across all frequencies for either atropine (individual animals

represented in light orange, mean in darker orange) or vehicle (individual animals

represented in light gray, mean in darker gray). **l**, Normalized percent reported center for

atropine or vehicle at frequencies ±0.25 (atropine: orange, 91.0±24.5%, mean±s.d.; vehicle:

gray, 63.3±26.4%, mean±s.d., N=5, p=0.03, Student's one-tailed paired t-test) and ±0.5

from center (atropine: orange, 69.5±48.0%, mean±s.d.; vehicle: gray, 57.0±20.2%,

mean±s.d., N=5, p=0.21, Student's one-tailed paired t-test).

1287

Figure 6. Activating auditory cortical projecting cholinergic basal forebrain neurons improves perceptual performance. a, Schematic of optogenetic activation of auditory cortical projecting cholinergic BF neurons during behavior. Auditory cortical projecting cholinergic BF neurons were targeted using a retrograde Cre-dependent channelrhodopsin injected into auditory cortex of ChAT-Cre mice. ChAT+ BF activation was applied in the same blockwise fashion as previously described for 500 ms at 30 Hz centered around the tones. **b**, Optogenetic activation of ChAT+ BF neurons during behavior gradually improved performance over days (N=8 mice). **c**, Performance over all stimuli improves after optogenetic pairing in experimental animals (closed circles), but not control animals (open circles). Percent correct on the final three days of channelrhodopsin pairing for each animal all frequencies (light blue; experimental mean: 76.3±2.8%, mean±s.e.m., N=8; control mean: 75.6±3.0%, N=7) in comparison to the behavior three days prior to pairing onset (black; experimental mean: 71.1±3.1%, p=0.01, Student's two-tailed paired t-test, N=8; control mean: 74.8±2.5%, p=0.67, Student's two-tailed paired t-test, N=7). **d**, Difference in performance on the last three days of channelrhodopsin pairing relative to three days prior to pairing onset for experimental (closed circles, 5.3±1.6%, mean±s.e.m., N=8) or control animals (open circles, 0.8±1.7%, N=7, p=0.04, Student's one-tailed unpaired t-test). **e**, Percent reported center at each frequency relative to center stimulus on the three days prior to optogenetic pairing onset (black) and behavior on the last three days of channelrhodopsin pairing (light blue) in experimental (solid lines, N=8) and control animals (dotted lines, N=7). **f**, Percent reported center normalized by performance at the center frequency at ±0.25 octave frequency from center was not significantly reduced over days prior to channelrhodopsin pairing onset (black, Days -2-0) compared to the final days of

channelrhodopsin pairing (blue, 'Last 3') in experimental animals (solid lines, closed circles, Days -2-0: 84.6±6.4%, Last 3: 83.6±6.9%, mean±s.e.m., p=0.67, Student's two-tailed paired t-test) or control animals (dotted lines, open circles, Days -2-0: 87.5±4.8%, Last 3: 86.2±5.0%, mean±s.e.m., p=0.56, Student's two-tailed paired t-test). **g**, Percent reported center normalized by performance at the center frequency at ±0.5 octave frequency from center was significantly reduced over days prior to optogenetic pairing onset (black, Days -2-0) compared to the final days of channelrhodopsin pairing (blue, 'Last 3') in experimental animals (solid lines, closed circles, Days -2-0: 70.9±7.9%, Last 3: 58.9±9.7%, mean±s.e.m., p=0.04, Student's two-tailed paired t-test), but not control animals (dotted lines, open circles, Days -2-0: 62.9±7.2%, Last 3: 61.3±5.3%, mean±s.e.m., p=0.80, Student's two-tailed paired t-test). **h**, Percent reported center normalized by performance at the center frequency at ±1 octave frequency from center was not significantly reduced over days prior to channelrhodopsin pairing onset (black, Days -2-0) compared to the final days of channelrhodopsin pairing (blue, 'Last 3') in experimental animals (solid lines, closed circles, Days -2-0: 47.5±9.0%, Last 3: 33.5±6.8%, mean±s.e.m., p=0.04, Student's two-tailed paired t-test) or control animals (dotted lines, open circles, Days -2-0: 30.7±5.9%, Last 3: 34.4±10.2%, mean±s.e.m., p=0.55, Student's two-tailed paired t-test). **i**, Difference in normalized percent reported center at ±0.5 and ±1 octave frequencies from center for control animals (open circles, difference at ±0.5: -1.6±5.8, difference at ±1: 3.8±5.9%, mean±s.e.m.) and experimental animals (closed circles, difference at ±0.5: -12.0±4.8%, difference at ±1: -14.0±5.5%, mean±s.e.m., for ±0.5: p=0.09, for ±1: p=0.02, Student's one-tailed unpaired t-test). **j**, Performance for all stimuli is stable across blocks 1-4 on final three days with optogenetic stimulation in experimental animals (closed circles, block 1:

74.7±2.6% correct, mean±s.e.m., no ChR2+ pairing, black; block 2: 75.1±2.7%, ChR2+

pairing, blue; block 3: 75.2±3.5%, no ChR2+ pairing, black; block 4: 74.8±3.1%, ChR2+

pairing, blue; p=0.99, one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons correction;

N=8). **k**, Response rate is stable across block 1-4 on final three days with optogenetic pairing

in experimental animals (block 1: 92.3±3.7% correct, mean±s.e.m., no ChR2+ pairing,

black; block 2: 92.2±4.1%, ChR2+ pairing, blue; block 3: 92.0±4.5%, no ChR2+ pairing,

black; block 4: 92.3±4.5%, ChR2+ pairing, blue; p=0.99, one-way ANOVA with Tukey's

multiple comparisons correction; N=8). **l**, Performance in block one during baseline

sessions prior to optogenetic pairing onset (black, Days -2-0: 72.6±3.5%, mean±s.e.m.)

compared to performance on final three days of channelrhodopsin pairing (blue, Last 3:

74.7±2.6%, p=0.50, Student's two-tailed paired t-test, N=8). **m**, Correlation between change

in performance in block one and all subsequent trials (Pearson's R=0.67, p=0.06, N=8).

1346

Figure 7. Inhibiting cholinergic basal forebrain neurons during VNS blunts VNS-

mediated perceptual improvements. a, Schematic of VNS and optogenetic inhibition of

cholinergic BF neurons during behavior. VNS was applied in the same blockwise fashion

as previously described. Cholinergic BF neurons were optogenetically inhibited using a

Cre-dependent Archaerhodopsin and green light (565 nm) for the entire duration of VNS

during behavior (500 ms). **b**, Optogenetic inhibition of ChAT+ BF neurons during VNS

during behavior abolishes improved performance (N=6 mice). **c**, Performance did not

improve after optogenetic inhibition during VNS. Percent correct on the final three days of

optogenetic inhibition during VNS (Days 18-20; yellow; 62.7±2.3%, mean±s.e.m., N=6) in

comparison to the behavior three days prior to VNS (black; 62.2±2.3%, p=0.79, Student's

two-tailed paired t-test). **d**, Difference in performance on day 18-20 of VNS pairing relative

to three days prior to pairing onset for animals receiving VNS with optogenetic inhibition

of cholinergic basal forebrain neurons (yellow, 0.5±1.7%, mean±s.e.m., N=6) or without

(blue, 11.7±3.0%, mean±s.e.m., N=7, p=0.01, Student's two-tailed unpaired t-test). **e**,

Percent reported center at each frequency relative to center stimulus on the three days prior

to start of optogenetic inhibition with VNS pairing onset (black) and the final three days of

pairing (yellow, Days 18-20, N=6 mice). **f**, Percent reported center normalized by

performance at the center frequency at ±0.25 and ±0.5 octave frequency from center was

not significantly reduced over days prior to VNS pairing onset (black, Days -2-0 (±0.25):

97.6±2.5%, Days -2-0 (±0.5): 84.3±6.3%, mean±s.e.m.) compared to the final days of VNS

pairing (yellow, Days 18-20 (±0.25): 94.5±1.8%, Days 18-20 (±0.5): 79.8±6.5%,

p(±0.25)=0.15, p(±0.5)=0.33, Student's two-tailed paired t-test). **g**, Difference in

normalized percent reported center at ±0.25 and ±0.5 octave frequencies from center for

animals with optogenetic inhibition of cholinergic basal forebrain neurons during VNS pairing (yellow, difference at ±0.25: -3.1±1.8%, difference at ±0.5: -4.5 ±4.2%, mean±s.e.m.) or without (blue, difference at ±0.25: -24.3±9.2%, difference at ±0.5: -29.6 ±8.6%, mean±s.e.m., for ±0.25: p=0.04, for ±0.5: p=0.03, Student's one-tailed unpaired t-test). **h**, Performance in block one during baseline sessions prior to pairing onset (black, Days -2-0: 62.4±3.4%, mean±s.e.m.) compared to performance on final days of VNS and optogenetic inhibition of cholinergic basal forebrain neuron pairing (yellow, Days 18-20: 65.8±3.4%, p=0.15, Student's two-tailed paired t-test, N=6). **i**, Correlation between change in performance in block one and all subsequent trials (Pearson's R=-0.26, p=0.63, N=6).

Extended Data Figure 1. Performance is stable and does not significantly improve

after seven days in stage 3. a, Lick rates relative to tone offset from one session in six fully

trained example animals (shades of gray represent individual animals). **b**, Lick rates in the

second after tone offset (2.6±0.84 licks/s, mean±s.d., N=6) are significantly higher than lick

rates 2-3 seconds after tone offset (0.2±0.3 licks/s, p=0.0002, Student's two-tailed paired t-

test, N=6). **c**, Change in performance across all frequencies throughout all days in stage 3

relative to the performance on the first three days of stage 3 (N=38). **d**, Correlation between

total days animals spend in stage three and peak performance in stage 3 (Pearson's R=0.31,

p=0.06, N=38). **e**, Mean performance significantly improved across days (Days 0-2:

64.7±1.0%; Days 6-8: 70.0±1.2%; Days max±1: 72.6±1.3%, mean±s.d.; p<0.00002 one-

way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons correction, N=38 animals). **f**, Across-

animal performance is variable on day 7 of stage three (69.0±8.0%, mean±s.d., N=38

animals). **g**, Percent reported center at each frequency relative to center stimulus on days 0-

2, days 6-8 and behavior on day of maximum performance in stage 3. **h**, Error rate at

frequencies 0 (green; day 1-3: 18.7±2.3%, day 7-9: 18.3±2.0%, Max day ± 1 day:

15.0±1.8%, mean±s.e.m.; p=0.36, one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons

correction), ±0.25 (dark gray; day 1-3: 79.2±2.4%, day 7-9: 71.0± 2.7%, Max±1:

73.0±2.5%, mean±s.e.m.; p=0.07, one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons

correction) and ±0.5 (medium gray; day 1-3: 69.8±2.9 %, day 7-9: 56.2±2.7%, Max±1:

53.6±2.9%, mean±s.e.m.; p=0.0002, one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons

correction) from center over days 0-2 (open circles, white), 6-8 (open circles, gray), and

max (± 1 day, closed circles) in stage 3.

1401

Extended Data Figure 2. Additional training did not continue to improve

performance. a, Percent reported left for all days in stage 3 for animals trained for 21-48

days in stage 3 (36.3±12.4 days in stage 3, N=6). ND (gray) represents days with no data

collection. **b**, Schematic for reward size modulation experiments performed in days

following performance shown in **a**. After animals were fully trained and had stable

performance, animals received rewards of double the volume for all frequencies for 12-13

additional days. **c**, Performance over all frequencies over days of altered reward size. **d**,

Average percent reported center for the five days prior to increased reward size and last five

days on increased reward size. **e**, Performance across the two reward sizes (smaller reward,

more trials: open circle, larger reward, fewer trials: closed circle) at 0 (small reward:

78.9±4.1% correct, for large reward: 83.5±3.3%, mean±s.e.m; p=0.15, Student's two-tailed

paired t-test), ±0.25 (small reward: 36.9±6.8% correct, large reward: 35.4±4.3%, mean±

s.e.m.; p=0.67, Student's two-tailed paired t-test), and ±0.5 (small reward: 64.2±7.0%

correct, large reward: 71.4±6.3%, mean± s.e.m.; p=0.08, Student's two-tailed paired t-test).

1416
1417

Extended Data Figure 3. VNS transiently alters heart rate in viable cuffs. a, Impedance

over days post-implantation from a representative animal (top) and all 7 wild-type mice

used for VNS pairing behavioral experiments. Gray, individual animals; black, mean±s.d.

every 10 days (N=7 mice). **b,** Cuff impedance is stable over time. Impedance reading on

day 0 (day of cuff implantation) and the first measurement 30+ days after implantation (30-

54 days) (Day 0 mean: 2.7±0.6 kΩ, day 30-54 mean: 2.3±1.6 kΩ, mean±s.d., N=7 mice,

p=0.56, Student's two-tailed paired t-test). **c,** Description of vitals recordings. Sessions with

and without VNS application were alternated. Between 10 and 20 VNS bouts occurred in

each VNS session and lasted 500 ms at 0.1 Hz. Stimulation intensity was consistent within

a session but was systematically changed throughout the day (ranging from 0.2 to 1.4 mA).

The following data is from sessions with VNS (0.8-1.0 mA) compared to the baseline

sessions immediately prior or following. **d,** Distribution of heart rate was not significantly

different during VNS or baseline sessions in two animals with cuff impedances >100MΩ

(Sham 1, cuff impedance: 100MΩ, p=0.66, Mann Whitney U two-sided test; Sham 2, cuff

impedance: 120MΩ, p=0.48, Mann Whitney U two-sided test). **e,** Raw heart rate from

example animal with viable cuff. VNS was applied at 0.1 Hz and lasted 500 ms. **f,**

Distribution of heart rates in VNS and baseline sessions for ten animals with potentially

viable cuffs (VNS significantly reduced heart rate in 7/10 animals; Animal 1, cuff

impedance: 0.2 kΩ, $p<10^{-5}$, Mann Whitney U two-sided test; Animal 2, cuff impedance: 3.4

kΩ, $p<10^{-5}$; Animal 3, cuff impedance: 3.0 kΩ, $p<10^{-5}$; Animal 4, cuff impedance: 0.1 kΩ,

p=0.03; Animal 5, cuff impedance: 2.8 kΩ, $p<10^{-5}$; Animal 6, cuff impedance: 3.9 kΩ, $p<10^{-}$

^{5}; Animal 7, cuff impedance: 3.9 kΩ, $p<10^{-5}$; Sham 3, cuff impedance: 2.1 kΩ, p>0.05;

Sham 4, cuff impedance: 1.9 kΩ, p>0.05; Sham 5, cuff impedance: 3.6 kΩ, p>0.05).

Extended Data Figure 4. Experimental and control animals have consistent behavior

prior to VNS pairing. a, Distribution of days in stage one for sham control (gray, 13.9±6.0

days, mean±s.d., N=10) and experimental animals (black, 10.4±4.4 days, mean±s.d., N=7,

p=0.16, Mann Whitney U two-sided test). **b**, Distribution of days spent in stage 3 prior to

VNS pairing for sham control (gray, 17.5±6.8 days, mean±s.d., N=10) and experimental

animals (black, 21.1±10.6 days, mean±s.d., N=7, p=0.40, Mann Whitney U two-sided test).

c, Distribution of response rate in stage 3 for sham control (gray, 96.1±5.0%, mean±s.d.,

N=10) and experimental animals (black, 91.3±7.5%, mean±s.d., N=7, p=0.14, Mann

Whitney U two-sided test). **d**, Distribution of peak performance in stage 3 for sham control

(gray, 73.4±6.1%, mean±s.d., N=10) and experimental animals (black, 68.7±10.0%,

mean±s.d., N=7, p=0.36, Mann Whitney U two-sided test). **e**, Percent reported center for

sham (dotted lines, N=10) and experimental animals (solid lines, N=7, p=0.20, two-way

ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons correction). **f**, Performance is not affected by

VNS cuff implantation in experimental (-1.8±1.7%, mean±s.e.m., N=7, p=0.38, Student's

two-tailed paired t-test) or sham animal (0.4±1.0%, mean±s.e.m., N=10, p=0.68, Student's

two-tailed paired t-test; difference between sham and experimental: p=0.28, Student's two-

tailed unpaired t-test).

1458

Extended Data Figure 5. Impact of VNS pairing on experimental and control animals.

a, Change in response rate for the three days prior to VNS onset and on days 18-20 of VNS

pairing for sham (gray, -7.8±2.4% response rate, mean±s.e.m., N=10) and experimental

animals (black, 4.5±2.1% response rate, mean±s.e.m., N=7, p=0.002, Student's two-tailed

unpaired t-test). **b**, Response rate across frequencies for the three days prior to VNS onset

(black) and on days 18-20 of VNS pairing (blue) for experimental animals (p=0.32 across

frequencies, p<0.001 across days, ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons correction).

c, Percent correct on final days of VNS pairing (Days 18-20) across all frequencies in

experimental animals (blue, closed circles, without: 80.4±2.4%, mean±s.e.m., with:

77.1±3.1%, N=7) in comparison to the behavior three days prior to VNS (black, closed

circles, 'Day -2-0', without: 71.6±3.5%, with: 65.4±3.8%) with (p=0.008, Student's paired

t-test) and without no response trials (without: p=0.02, Student's paired t-test). **d**, Change

in response rate for the three days prior to VNS onset and days 18-20 of VNS pairing across

three groups of intensities used for control animals (p=0.4, one-way ANOVA with Tukey's

multiple comparisons correction, N=10). **e**, Percent of trials reported as center for all

animals used in VNS pairing experiments for the three days prior to VNS onset (black) and

on days 18-20 of VNS pairing (blue) used in Figure 2 and 3 (Control: N=10, dotted lines;

Experimental: N=7, solid lines).

1477

Extended Data Figure 6. Tracking neurons during two-photon imaging. a, Example

ROIs in an example animal during unpaired passive tone presentation on days 0, 3, 6, 9 and

11 days of VNS pairing. Average Pearson's R correlation for 20x20 pixel area containing

ROIs and surrounding area across all days. **b**, Average Pearson's R correlation for 20x20

pixel area containing ROIs and surrounding area across all days of passive tone presentation

("Imaging days") for all VNS pairing animals (N=7; Average R (animal 1): 0.59±0.15,

mean±s.d.; Average R (animal 2): 0.67±0.12; Average R (animal 3): 0.69±0.08; Average R

(animal 4): 0.52±0.18; Average R (animal 5): 0.69±0.13; Average R (animal 6): 0.61±0.15;

Average R (animal 7): 0.57±0.19).

Extended Data Figure 7. Activation of basal forebrain cholinergic neurons by VNS. a,

Correlation between baseline activity of cholinergic cell bodies in 1.5s prior to VNS onset

and average activity in 1.5s following VNS onset (Pearson's R=-0.30, p=0.02, N=3 mice,

n=60 trials). **b**, Cholinergic cell body responses prior to or during VNS separated by

baseline responses (higher than zero or lower than or equal to zero). Responses in 500ms

after VNS were significantly higher in trials with low baseline (during VNS: 0.47±0.16%

ΔF/F, p=0.006, Student's two-tailed t-test) but not during trials with high baseline (during

VNS: -0.21±0.19% ΔF/F, p=0.26, Student's two-tailed t-test). **c**, Example basal forebrain

and NTS section with alignment to corresponding output from QuickNII system of Allen

Brain Atlas section with either basal forebrain or NTS circled in white. **d**, Schematic for

mapping inputs to cholinergic basal forebrain neurons using retrograde, Cre-dependent,

pseudotyped monosynaptic rabies. Location of mCherry labeled neurons in section

containing LC labeled by dots in shades of gray. The region of interest is highlighted in red.

Each animal is represented in a distinct shade of gray (N=5). **e**, Schematic of injection of

retrograde Cre-dependent tdTomato into basal forebrain of TH-Cre mice. Location of

tdTomato labeled neurons in section containing NTS labeled by dots in shades of gray. The

region of interest is highlighted in red. Each animal is represented in a distinct shade of gray

(N=4). **f**, Schematic of proposed anatomical connections between NTS, locus coeruleus

and basal forebrain. **g**, Correlation between baseline cholinergic axon activity in 1s prior to

VNS onset and average activity in the 1s following VNS onset (Pearson's R=0.04, p=0.71).

1507

1508	**Extended Data Fig. 8. Impact of stimulating auditory cortical projecting cholinergic**
1509	**neurons on individual animal performance. a**, Verification of fiber placement over basal
1510	forebrain in one example animal. Scale bar is 1200 μm. **b**, Distribution of peak performance
1511	prior to optogenetic pairing onset of control (open circles, 77.1±2.5% correct, mean±s.e.m.)
1512	and experimental animals ('ChR2', closed circles, 72.1±2.8% correct, mean ± s.e.m.,
1513	p=0.15, Mann Whitney U two-sided test). **c**, Percent of trials reported center for control
1514	(dotted lines, mean in blue, individual animals in gray, N=7) and experimental animals
1515	(solid lines, mean in blue, individual animals in gray, N=8). **d**, Difference in response rate
1516	in the three days prior to optogenetic or sham pairing and on the last three days of
1517	optogenetic or sham pairing in control (open circles, -0.28±7.5% change in response rate,
1518	mean±s.e.m, N=7) or experimental animals (closed circles, -1.7±1.8% change in response
1519	rate, mean±s.e.m., N=8, p=0.86, Student's two-tailed unpaired t-test). **e**, Percent of trials
1520	reported as center for 15 animals in **Figure 6** for the three days prior to optogenetic or sham
1521	pairing onset (black) and on the last three days with optogenetic or sham pairing (blue).
1522	Experimental animals are represented with solid lines and sham animals are represented
1523	with dotted lines.
1524	
1525	

Extended Data Figure 9. Impact of inhibiting cholinergic neurons in basal forebrain

during VNS on individual animal performance. a, Verification of fiber of fiber

placement over basal forebrain in one example animal. Scale bar is 1200 μm. **e**, Percent of

trials reported as center for 6 animals in **Fig. 7** for the three days prior to VNS onset (black)

and days 18-20 of VNS stimulation (orange). **b,** Description of vitals recordings. Sessions

with and without VNS application were alternated. Between 10 and 20 VNS bouts occurred

in each VNS session and lasted 500 ms at 0.1 Hz. Stimulation intensity was consistent

within a session but was systematically changed throughout the day (ranging from 0.2 to

1.4 mA). The following data is from sessions with VNS (0.8-1.0 mA) compared to the

baseline sessions immediately prior or following. **c**, Example baseline and VNS session

from example animal. **d**, Distribution of heart rates in VNS (blue) and baseline (gray)

sessions for six animals with potentially viable cuffs ($p < 0.001$, Mann Whitney U two-sided

test). **e**, Difference in response rate in the three days prior to VNS pairing and on day 18-20

of VNS pairing with inhibition of cholinergic basal forebrain neurons ($1.4 \pm 3.3\%$ change in

response rate, mean±s.e.m, N=6). **f**, Percent of trials reported as center for 6 animals in

Figure 7 for the three days prior to optoinhibition during VNS pairing onset (black) and on

the last three days with optoinhibition during VNS pairing (orange).

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7