Microprism-based two-photon imaging of the lateral cortex of the mouse inferior

colliculus reveals novel organizational principles of the auditory midbrain.

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Abstract:

To navigate real-world listening conditions, the auditory system relies on the integration of

multiple sources of information. However, to avoid inappropriate cross-talk between inputs,

highly connected neural systems need to strike a balance between integration and segregation.

Here, we develop a novel approach to examine how repeated neurochemical modules in the

mouse inferior colliculus lateral cortex (LC) allow controlled integration of its multimodal inputs.

The LC had been impossible to study via imaging because it is buried in a sulcus. Therefore we

coupled two-photon microscopy with the use of a microprism to reveal the first-ever sagittal

views of the LC to examine neuronal responses with respect to its neurochemical motifs under

anesthetized and awake conditions. This approach revealed marked differences in the acoustic

response properties of LC and neighboring nonlemniscal portions of the inferior colliculus. In

addition, we observed that the module and matrix cellular motifs of the LC displayed distinct

somatosensory and auditory responses. Specifically, neurons in modules demonstrated

primarily offset responses to acoustic stimuli with enhancement in responses to bimodal stimuli,

whereas matrix neurons showed onset response to acoustic stimuli and suppressed responses

to bimodal stimulation. Thus, this new approach revealed that the repeated structural motifs of

the LC permit functional integration of multimodal inputs while retaining distinct response

properties.

Introduction:

The inferior colliculus (IC) is a critical integration center in the auditory system (1). The IC comprises a major lemniscal division, the central nucleus (ICC), that receives primarily ascending auditory projections (2-4) and two non-lemniscal divisions known as the dorsal (DC) and lateral (LC) cortices that receive massive descending auditory as well as non-auditory input (5-10) as reviewed in (11). The LC and DC appear to differ in their strategy for integrating these inputs. The DC does not contain known structural heterogeneities but has a tonotopic arrangement of neuronal responses on its surface (12, 13). In contrast, the LC contains repeated neurochemical motifs, here referred to as modules, that express the inhibitory neurotransmitter GABA as well as other metabolic markers (14). Areas outside the modules, referred to as matrix, stain strongly for calretinin (15). We and others have determined that nearly all of the long- and short-range connectivity of the LC is governed by the module/matrix organization (15-18). Unfortunately, how the LC integrates these inputs while maintaining distinct paths of information flow is not known. For example, LC neurons are known to respond to multisensory stimuli (19, 20), but information from different modalities enters the LC in segregated channels (17). Thus, integration across the module/matrix border must occur, but the mechanisms of this integration are unknown. Traditional methods of studying the LC, such as multichannel electrophysiology, pose significant challenges in unambiguously assigning individual recorded neurons to residence in matrix or modules. Imaging approaches, such as two-photon (2P) microscopy, have proven to be enormously valuable in understanding the fine spatial structure of neural response properties in the auditory system (21-23). However, because of its superficial location on the dorsal surface of the mouse midbrain, the DC is the only part of the IC that has been characterized by 2P imaging (12, 13, 24). Optically, it has been impossible to characterize the functions of the LC, which is laterally embedded deep in a brain sulcus. This inability to image the LC impedes our knowledge about how the LC performs the

critical tasks of segregation and integration, whether neurons in the modules or surrounding

matrix have different response properties, or whether tonotopy or other spatial structure in

response properties exists. Here, we describe a novel approach using a 45º microprism inserted

into the sulcus that separates the LC from the cerebellum to investigate the fine-scale functional

organization of the LC from its lateral surface through 2P imaging. The 2P images obtained from

the microprism revealed the first-ever images of the LC in vivo showing its characteristic

GABAergic modules. Compared to the DC imaged from the surface, the acoustically and

somatosensory-evoked calcium signals obtained by the 2P imaging of the LC through the

microprism revealed functional distinctions between the different cellular motifs of the LC. For

instance, while modules were more responsive to somatosensory stimulation than matrix, the

latter was more acoustically-responsive and had a lower detection threshold for complex

sounds. Additionally, modules and matrix were found to differently process the spectral and

temporal features of the acoustic information. These findings suggest that the non-lemniscal

divisions of the IC contain rich but distinct platforms for the processing of different features of

auditory information as well as multisensory integration.

Results:

The insertion of 45º microprism for imaging the LC from the side.

GAD67-GFP knock-in mice on a Swiss Webster background were crossed with Thy1-

jRGECO1a mice to produce a GAD67-GFPx jRGECO1a hybrid mouse, which was used to

visualize GABAergic modules, to identify the dense network of GABAergic neurons and

terminals in modules of the LC in the green channel (25), and the calcium indicator, jRGECO1a,

in the red channel (26). A standard craniotomy was performed (27) with modifications to suit the

specific characteristics of the IC in terms of its location, depth, and high density of the

surrounding vasculature (28). The craniotomy (~ 3 x 4 mm) did not drill directly into the sagittal

and lambdoid sutures which allowed minimal disruption of the superficial sinuses below the skull

(Figure 1A) as indicated by the minimal bleeding near the bone flap (Figure 1B). During drilling,

pressurized air and a cold stream of saline were used to remove the bone debris and dissipate

heat. Because the IC sits deeper in the brain compared to the surrounding structures, the direct

insertion of the 45° microprism was found to push the IC ventrally. Therefore, a fine diamond

knife was used to separate the lateral surface of the IC from the surrounding tissues without

damaging the transverse and sigmoid sinuses (Figures 1C and D). This step was followed by a

gentle retraction of the knife medially to generate a pocket to secure the microprism (Figure 1E).

The successful insertion of the microprism was assessed by examining the reflection of the

diamond knife from the microprism's top glass surface (Figures 1F and G). Holding the

microprism down and retracting the knife upward simultaneously resulted in securing the

microprism in its pocket (Figure 1H). Locking the microprism down in its pocket for 10 minutes

with the diamond knife (Figure 1J) is critical to ensure that the microprism is stabilized and to

prevent bleeding. Filling the gap between the skull surface and the microprism with saline was

found to generate motion artifact due to the heart pulsation, so 1% agarose was used to fill the

gap to reduce the motion artifact and add more stability to the microprism (Figure 1K). To

compare response properties between the LC and DC, direct imaging (i.e., without a

microprism) of the dorsal surface of the IC, where the DC is located, was also conducted by

scanning the DC surface from the most medial to lateral regions following the convex curvature

of the surface (Figures 1L and M).

The 2P characterization of GABAergic and non-GABAergic neuronal distribution on the

LC and DC surfaces with histological validation.

Following the surgery, the anesthetized animals were taken immediately for imaging.

Examination of the distribution of GABAergic modules in the LC was critical to validate the

target area for functional calcium imaging. Therefore, the 920 nm laser beam was initially used

to scan for GFP, which is expressed in the GABAergic cells of GAD67-GFP knock-in mice. The

insertion of the microprism was initially viewed by low magnification epifluorescence imaging of

the GFP signals from the whole surface of the IC along with the inserted microprism (Figure

2A). This step validated the location of the microprism relative to the IC under the microscope

and ensured there was no bleeding that could block the field of view. The 2P images of the GFP

signals from the LC imaged via the microprism (Figures 2C and E, the irregular white lines)

across different animals revealed the LC characteristic GABAergic modules, which were

consistent with previous 3D reconstructions of modules from the coronal sections (14, 17). To

further validate the microprism location and the ability to image the LC from the lateral surface,

a laser lesion (see Methods) was created via the microprism (Figure 3A), which was validated

histologically (Figure 3B). For comparison, the whole dorsal surface of the IC was scanned from

medial to lateral borders (Figure 2B, the dotted white lines). Unlike the LC, most of the dorsal

surface of the IC showed a non-clustered distribution of the GABAergic cells (Figures 2D and F,

blue boxes). However, the lateral horizon of the IC dorsal surface showed clusters of

GABAergic cells and terminals that were confirmed to be modules, which comprise the

prominent feature of the LC (Figures 2D and F, red boxes). To further validate the presence of

GABAergic modules in the dorsolateral surface of the IC, a laser lesion was created in a

GABAergic module located in that area (Figures 3C and D), which was confirmed histologically

(Figure 3E), demonstrating that it is possible to image a portion of the LC directly from its dorsal

surface.

Using the 1040 nm laser, the GAD67-GFPx jRGECO1a hybrid mouse showed a non-clustered

cellular expression of jRGECO1a on the surface of the DC (Figure 4A) or on the surface of the

LC imaged via microprism (Figure 4B), as expected. The IC of anesthetized animals in each

experimental setup was then imaged to measure calcium signals over the course of

pseudorandom presentations of either 500 ms pure tones of different combinations of

frequencies (5-40 kHz, half octave intervals) and sound levels (40-80 dB SPL, 10 dB intervals)

or broadband noise without or with amplitude modulation (AM-noise) of different combinations of

AM frequencies (2-256 Hz, one-octave intervals) and sound levels (40-80 dB SPL, 10 dB

intervals). As shown by two representative cells from the DC imaged from the dorsal surface or

LC imaged via microprism, these acoustic stimulation paradigms successfully elicited transient

cellular calcium signals that varied depending on the stimulus type (Figures 4C and D).

The auditory cellular organization of the LC via microprism versus the DC.

As indicated by the GFP signals and consistent with Figure 2, imaging the LC of the hybrid mice

via microprism showed clusters of GABAergic modules, which take different irregular shapes on

the surface of the LC (Figure 5A - irregular white lines). Based on the best pure tone frequency

of each responsive cell (13), an inconsistent and fragmentary tonotopic organization was seen

over the LC imaged via microprism (Figure 5B). For comparison, the surface of the DC was

imaged directly from the dorsal surface using the routine imaging setup. To view the majority of

the DC surface, imaging was done by scanning the DC from its medial to the lateral horizon to

generate a composite map (see Methods). As indicated by the GFP signals, it was noted that

the most lateral region of the surface of the IC showed clusters of the GABAergic cells and

terminals (i.e., modules, Figure 5C – irregular white lines) and are therefore considered part of

the LC. Based on the best pure tone frequency of each responsive cell (13), the DC showed a

tonotopic organization of cells along the rostromedial to caudolateral axis tuned to lower or

higher frequencies, respectively (Figure 5D). This tonotopic organization is similar to those

previously described (12, 13). It was also noticed that a large area of the DC was tuned to the

lowest tested frequency (5kHz), which could indicate a bias to the low frequency on the surface

of the DC. To quantify tuning differences between DC and LC, the cumulative distribution

function based on the cells' best frequency showed a low-frequency bias in the DC, similar to

previous work (24, 29-31), while most of the LC cells imaged via microprism were tuned to

higher frequencies (Figure 5E, Mann-Whitney Test: z = -10.5, p < 0.001, a median of best-tuned

frequency = 5 and 7.1 Hz for DC and LC via microprism, respectively).

Detection of AM is critical to identify natural sounds as well as to aggregate sound sources

during auditory scene analysis, which is important for communication (32-34). The IC also is the

first site in the ascending auditory pathway where a substantial number of neurons are rate-

tuned to AM (32, 35-38). Even though calcium indicators do not provide a spike-by-spike

readout of neural activity, their integrated signal does correlate with the number of spikes

produced by a neuron over short time windows (39, 40). Thus, this integrated signal can be

used to measure rate responses to AM. Using this integrated signal, we tested the ability of the

cells of LC imaged via microprism in its different motifs to respond to broadband noise at

different AM rates. We observed a significant fraction of cells that did not respond to pure tones

responded to AM-noise (Figure 6A, paired-sample t-test: $t_{(6)}$ = -11.13, p = 3.1×10^{-5}, the

percentage of responsive cells mean ± SEM = 34.7 ± 9.2% and 56.2 ± 8.9% for pure tones and

AM-noise, respectively). We also observed that modules and matrix differentially process the

temporal information. For instance, the matrix had a significantly greater fraction of cells that

respond only to AM-noise compared to the modules (Figure 6B – striped blue bar, Mann-

Whitney Test, p =0.02), which suggests that neurons in the matrix are more sensitive to

complex sounds compared to those in the modules. In contrast, both cellular motifs had similar

fractions of cells that are responsive to pure tones (Figure 6B – solid blue bar, Mann-Whitney

Test, p =0.58). These findings suggest that neurons in the matrix are more responsive to

sounds of greater spectral and temporal complexity than those in the modules. In the DC, like

the LC imaged via microprism, a significant fraction of cells that did not respond to pure tones

did respond to AM-noise (Figure 6C, paired samples t-test: $t_{(3)}$ = -5.8, p = 0.01, the percentage

of responsive cells mean ± SEM = 78.4 ± 3.6% and 97.3 ± 0.4% for pure tones and AM-noise).

Regardless of the sound type, animals showed a lower fraction of responsive neurons to the

acoustic stimulation in the LC imaged via microprism compared to DC (pure tone: two-sample t-

test, $t_{(9)}$ = 2.9, p = 0.02, the percentage of responsive cells mean ± SEM = 78.5±11.0% and

35.0±9.2% for DC and LC, respectively, AM-noise: two-sample t-test, $t_{(9)}$ = 3.5, p = 0.007, the

percentage of responsive cells mean ± SEM = 98.1±1.7% and 56.3±8.8% for DC and LC,

respectively). To evaluate if any optical artifacts due to imaging through a prism could be

responsible for this finding, the number of responsive cells imaged from the lateral-most dorsal

surface of the IC, which we consider part of the LC because of the presence of GABAergic

modules (LC imaged from the dorsal surface), was quantified and compared with that obtained

from the LC imaged via microprism. We observed that there were no significant differences

between the number of tone or noise-responsive neurons between the LC imaged via

microprism or directly from the dorsal surface (pure tone: two-sample t-test, $t_{(9)}$ = 1.1, p = 0.28,

AM-noise: two-sample t-test, $t_{(9)}$ = 1.6, p = 0.14).

LC and DC have different spectral and temporal modulation indices.

Given that more cells from LC imaged via microprism and DC had responses to AM-noise

compared to pure tones, we further quantified the selectivity to spectral or temporal modulation

by computing the spectral modulation index (SMI) or the temporal modulation index (TMI),

respectively, for all the responsive cells (see Methods) across the tested sound levels.

For the LC imaged via microprism, the LC matrix has a greater proportion of spectrally

modulated cells than modules most prominently at sound levels below 70 dB (Figure 7A, two-

way ANOVA: p = 7.1×10^{-7}, 1.0, and 0.01 for the region, sound level, and interaction,

respectively, the percentage of modulated cells mean ± SEM for modules vs. matrix) suggesting

that the cells in the matrix have a lower threshold to detect complex spectral features of sound.

Similarly, the matrix had more cells responsive to temporal modulation as a main effect (Figure

7B, two-way ANOVA, p = 7.1×10^{-7}, 1.0, and 0.32 for the region, sound level, and interaction,

respectively), which was consistent with the above results (Figure 6B).

The DC and LC imaged via microprism were found to have different profiles of modulation of

responses to spectral and temporal complexity. Although there is a general trend for SMI and

TMI to decrease with increasing sound-pressure level, corresponding to an increase in pure-

tone responsiveness, overall there is a statistically-significant higher level of average SMI and

TMI in the LC compared to the DC (Figures 7C and D, SMI: two-way ANOVA, $p < 0.001$ for all

region, sound level, and interaction, TMI: two-way ANOVA, $p < 0.001$ for all regions, sound

level, and interactions). These results suggested that neurons in the LC are more sensitive to

spectral and temporal modulation than those in the DC.

The somatosensory vs. auditory responses over the LC imaged via microprism.

Somatosensory inputs from many cortical and subcortical structures have been identified in the

non-lemniscal division of the IC, particularly in the LC (17, 19, 41) Previous work has shown

that while somatosensory projections mostly target the modules, the auditory projections tend to

target the matrix (17), which indicates that the LC is a multisensory integration site. Therefore,

we examined the somatosensory and auditory cellular responses on the surface of the LC by

coupling the two-photon imaging with the microprism with a whisker or acoustic stimulation (see

Methods). Acoustic stimulation was done with 500 ms broadband noise at 80 dB SPL. After the

acoustic or somatosensory stimulation, evoked cellular responses were observed from the LC

neurons imaged via microprism either at the beginning of the stimulation (Figures 8A and B –

onset responses) or at the termination of the stimulation (Figures 8C and D – offset responses).

Auditory and somatosensory responses were evoked in the neurons of both matrix and modules

imaged via microprism (Figures 9A, B, D) and the cells were categorized within each motif into

cells that respond only to acoustic stimulation, only to somatosensory stimulation, or to both

stimuli (Figure 9F). The quantification of the percentage of cells in both modules and matrix

revealed that the percentage of responsive cells to sound only was higher than that of cells

responsive to somatosensory stimulation or those responsive to both stimuli with no preference

(Modules: Figure 9H, one-way ANOVA, $p = 4.0 \times 10^{-5}$, the percentage of responsive cells mean ±

SEM = 41.9 ± 5.4% (auditory-only response), 4.2 ± 0.8% (somatosensory-only response), and

10.2 ± 1.4% (auditory + somatosensory responses)) (Matrix: Figure 9I, One-way ANOVA, $p =$

2.4×10^{-4}, the percentage of responsive cells mean ± SEM = 43.7 ± 8.5% (auditory response),

0.88 ± 0.36% (somatosensory response) and 2.9 ± 0.34% (auditory + somatosensory

responses)). However within the pool of responsive cells and normalized against modules, we

observed that more sound-responsive cells were found in the matrix, while more somatosensory

responsive cells were found in the modules (Figures 9B, D, F, and J, Mann-Whitney Test, $p =$

0.028, Mann-Whitney Test, $p = 0.028$), which was consistent with the reported difference in

inputs to modules compared to matrix (17). Most of the acoustically-responsive cells in the

matrix showed onset responses, and the cells showing acoustically-driven offset responses

were clustered in the modules (Figures 9C and K, onset response: Mann-Whitney Test, $p =$

0.028, offset response: Mann-Whitney Test, $p = 0.028$).

Additionally, most of these auditory-offset cells were also responsive to somatosensory

stimulation as shown by the merged responses (Figure 9F), which suggests a multisensory

integrative function by those cells as discussed later. Given the specific spatial location of the

somatosensory-responsive cells in the modules which contain clusters of GABAergic cells, we

asked if somatosensory stimulation could suppress the auditory response when both stimuli are

presented simultaneously (bimodal stimulation). To test this hypothesis, we calculated and

visualized the response index (RI), which was calculated as the ratio of the cellular response to

bimodal stimulation to the cellular response to acoustic response alone for auditory-responsive

cells. We observed that cells in the modules had a higher odds of having an enhancement

response to bimodal stimulation than matrix, while cells in the matrix had a higher odds of

having a suppressive response to bimodal stimulation (Figures 9G and L, enhanced response:

Mann-Whitney Test, p = 0.028, matrix median odds = 0.68, suppressed response: Mann-

Whitney Test, p = 0.028, matrix median odds = 1.33).

Consistent with the above data, the LC imaged from the dorsal surface (Figures 10A-D,

dorsolateral) shared common response profiles with the LC. For instance, the LC imaged via

microprism or directly from the dorsal surface had a higher percentage of somatosensory

responsive cells than the DC (Figure 10A-D, dorsal and dorsomedial) as quantitatively shown

(Figure 10H, one-way ANOVA, p = 0.02, the percentage of somatosensory responsive cells

mean ± SEM = 1.3 ± 0.83% (DC), 8.2 ± 2.4% (LC imaged from the dorsal surface), and 8.1 ±

0.64% (LC imaged via microprism), which suggest that the LC is the main region of the IC shell

that processes somatosensory information, consistent with the anatomical reports (17, 20, 42,

43). The matrix of the LC imaged from the dorsal surface had more responsive cells to sound

(Figures 10E and I, Mann-Whitney Test, p = 0.028, the matrix:module median ratio = 1.5), and

less responsive cells to somatosensory stimulation compared to its modules (Figures 10E and I,

Mann-Whitney Test, p = 0.028, matrix:module median ratio = 0.28). Additionally, more

acoustically onset responsive cells were found in the matrix (Figures 10F and J, Mann-Whitney

Test, p = 0.028, matrix:module median ratio = 10.2), while more acoustically offset responsive

cells were found in the modules (Figures 10F and J, Mann-Whitney Test, p = 0.028,

matrix:module median ratio = 0.02). More acoustically responsive cells in the matrix displayed

suppressed responses following the bimodal stimulation (Figures 10G and K, Mann-Whitney

Test, & p = 0.028, matrix:module median ratio = 1.5). In contrast, more acoustically responsive

cells in the modules displayed enhanced responses following the bimodal stimulation (Figures

10G and K, Mann-Whitney Test, & p = 0.028, matrix:module median ratio = 0.42). These data

confirmed the findings obtained from the LC imaged via microprism and emphasized the

functional difference between the LC and DC.

The acoustic and somatosensory response from LC imaged via microprism and DC

imaged from the dorsal surface in awake animals.

To determine if the presence of ketamine/xylazine anesthesia influenced the response

properties detailed above, additional experiments were performed in awake animals (n=5 total,

3 from LC using prism and 2 from dorsal surface). Similar to what was observed under

anesthesia, the cells of the LC imaged via microprism did not show clear evidence for tonotopy

(Figure 11B). In contrast, the data obtained from imaging the DC under awake preparations

showed a similar tonotopic map (Figure 11D) as that observed under anesthesia, though a

greater proportion of high-frequency cells were observed leading to the observation of a low-

frequency border similar to the previous under awake preparations (12). Similar to the results

obtained under anesthesia, the LC imaged via microprism had more cells tuned to higher

frequencies compared to the DC (Figure 12A, Mann-Whitney test, p<0.001, a median of best-

tuned frequency = 10 and 5 kHz for LC and DC, respectively). Both LC imaged via microprism

and DC imaged directly from its dorsal surface were more responsive to AM-noise than pure

tones (Figure 12B, DC: χ^2 test = 72.73, p< 0.001, the percentage of responsive cells = 69.2 vs.

85.8% for pure tone vs. AM-noise, respectively, LC: χ^2 test = 43.6, p = 1.8×10^{-9}, the percentage

of responsive cells = 58.7 vs. 76.1% for pure tone vs. AM-noise, respectively). Within the

responsive cells population, the DC was found also to have more responding cells to sound

either pure tone or AM-noise compared to the LC imaged via microprism (Figure 12C, pure

tone: χ^2 test = 17.8, p = 4.8×10^{-4} the percentage of responsive cells = 62.9 vs. 37.1% for DC vs.

LC, respectively, AM-noise: χ^2 test = 23.6, p = 2.9×10^{-5} the percentage of responsive cells =

61.9 vs. 38.1% for DC vs. LC, respectively). Additionally, the matrix also showed more

responsive cells to sound compared to the modules regardless of the stimulus type (Figure 12D,

pure tone: χ^2 test = 31.9, p = 5.2x10^{-7}, the percentage of responsive cells = 30.8 vs. 69.2% for

modules vs. matrix, respectively, AM-noise: χ^2 test = 11.1, p = 0.01, the percentage of

responsive cells = 37.6 vs. 62.4% for modules vs. matrix, respectively).

For somatosensory responses, similar to the anesthetized preparation, neurons in modules

imaged via microprism had more cells responsive to somatosensory stimulation than the matrix,

while the latter had more responsive cells to broadband noise (Figures 13A, C, E, and G,

auditory response: χ^2 test = 31.9, p = 5.2x10^{-7}, the percentage of responding cells = 22 vs. 78%

for modules vs. matrix, respectively, somatosensory response: χ^2 test = 11.1, p = 0.01, the

percentage of responding cells = 63.6 vs. 36.4% for modules vs. matrix, respectively). Similar to

anesthetized data, we found that most of the auditory responsive cells in the modules and

matrix had suppressed auditory responses following bimodal stimulation (Figures 13F and H, χ^2

test = 31.9, p = 5.2x10^{-7}, matrix: The percentage of responding cells = 69.6 vs. 30.4% for

suppressed vs. enhanced responses, respectively, modules: The percentage of responding

cells = 95 vs. 5% for suppressed vs. enhanced responses, respectively), indicating an overall

suppression in the cellular auditory response.

Discussion:

Summary:

As a new imaging approach, a microprism was used to image the LC surface, which is hidden in

a brain sulcus, to provide the first-ever sagittal image of the LC in vivo and to examine its

functional organization, which revealed the functional distinction between the LC imaged with

microprism and DC imaged directly from the dorsal surface. Imaging the LC either via

microprism or from the dorsal surface revealed that it contains repeated cellular motifs as

clusters of GABAergic cells and terminals forming irregular shapes called modules that were

embedded in areas of mostly non-GABAergic cells called matrix. Although modules and matrix

were found to be activated by somatosensory and auditory stimuli, they were functionally

distinct. The matrix had more auditory-responsive cells with a lower threshold for complex

sound detection and had more cells processing complex spectral and temporal auditory features

than modules. In contrast, modules had more somatosensory responsive cells, which was

consistent with the previously-described anatomical differences in input to the modules

compared to matrix (17). Somatosensory stimulation was found to suppress the auditory

response in the matrix, which suggests that multisensory interactions exist between the matrix

and modules. These findings indicate that the LC specifically processes multisensory

information, which is a critical functional distinction between the LC and DC. Despite the ability

of DC and LC to extract the basic spectral features of auditory information, more cells in the LC

and DC were responsive to AM-noise than pure tone, which fits the function of the IC shell as a

nonlemniscal division. The spectral and temporal modulation of the LC and DC were found to be

more pronounced at lower sound levels, which could help in acoustic object detection in noisy

environments. However, the LC was generally more responsive to sounds with greater spectral

and temporal complexity than those in the DC.

The novelty of the imaging setup and technical considerations

Given its ability to reflect the light at its hypotenuse, microprism-based 2P- microscopy has been

successfully used to image the six cortical layers in the somatosensory and visual cortices of

mice (44) and to image other inaccessible cortical surfaces like those folded in the brain sulci

such as the medial prefrontal cortex (45) or entorhinal cortex (45-47). In those studies, the glass

window glued to the microprism was used, which requires significant skill and potential removal

of brain regions to allow prism access (46). Another approach is to use a micro metal or

diamond-made knife to create a pocket with minimal tissue damage (44, 48). Accordingly, we

combined and modified some of these procedures to improve the microprism implantation to

image the sagittal surface of the LC, which is deeply embedded into the brain tissue in a highly

vascular area, with minimum damage to the IC or the surrounding vasculature.

Previous work using microprisms has been done chronically for up to 60 days (45, 46, 49), with

minimal tissue inflammation (44). The current study was initially done on anesthetized animals

to examine and validate the new approach, which later revealed similar organizational

differences between LC and DC in awake animals. Although imaging through a microprism and

1-mm cover glass appears to have minimal impact on image quality compared to direct 2P

imaging (50), it was important to compare LC imaging via microprism with the direct 2P imaging

of the dorsal surface to validate the new imaging method. We found no significant differences

between LC response properties when imaging via microprism or imaging directly from the

dorsal surface. However, we did observe significant functional differences between the LC and

the DC.

Responsiveness to spectral and temporal features.

While the LC showed inconsistent and fragmented tonotopy, the DC showed a consistent one,

which was reported before (12, 13). However, the surface of the DC was biased to lower

frequencies than the DC, which is consistent with previous imaging and recording studies (24,

29-31). Despite their response to pure tones, the DC and LC, particularly in the matrix, were

more responsive to AM-noise, which fits their function as nonlemniscal divisions (6, 51, 52).

Consistently, some recorded units in the LC was found to have higher firing rate to broadband

noise than to their characteristic frequency (53). Given its critical role in communication for

humans and animals (32-34, 37), the IC neurons demonstrate tuned rate responses to

temporally-patterned stimuli across different species (33, 35, 54, 55). To our best knowledge, all

of the work studying the temporal coding of the IC was run through recording electrodes

spanning the dorsoventral axis of the IC targeting mostly the central nucleus. However, recoding

from the superficial portion of such a dorsoventral axis revealed the presence of unsynchronized

neurons to the AM-noise, which is likely located on the DC (36).

The spectral and temporal features of animal vocalization and speech are not independent (34).

We observed that neurons in the LC, particularly in the matrix, had greater responsiveness to

spectral and temporal modulation than neurons in the DC. Given the role of inhibition in the

spectral and temporal processing (56-58), the GABAergic cells of the modules could play an

important role to increase the spectral and temporal modulation indices, especially at lower

sound levels, which could be critical for localizing objects in noisy environments given the

importance of spectral and temporal cues for sound localization (59-61). Therefore, future work

is critical to image the functional responses of the GABAergic cells of the modules and compare

them with the non-GABAergic cells inside and outside the modules.

Somatosensory vs. auditory response:

In the LC, we observed that most auditory-responsive neurons, particularly onset-responsive

neurons, were found in the matrix, which receives mostly auditory inputs (17). However, a

subpopulation of acoustically-driven offset-responsive neurons preferably resides in the

modules compared to the matrix. Given that the offset response could be generated as a

rebound to the termination of the ongoing inhibition during the sound presentation (62),

GABAergic cells in the modules could play an important role in the coding of sound termination

as found before in the cortex (63). Because some of the offset acoustically-driven cells inside

the modules were also activated by the somatosensory stimulation, this fraction of cells could

then encode the termination of somatosensory-associated sounds through the local inhibitory

circuits of the modules. Under in-vivo recording of the mouse IC, the offset responses were

previously reported from cells that were non-GABAergic and preferably located in the caudal

and shallower parts of the IC (64).

Consistent with the previous reports, we observed that combined auditory-somatosensory

stimulation generally suppressed neural responses to auditory stimuli when presented alone

and that this suppression was most prominent in the LC matrix. These findings are consistent

with other reports demonstrating auditory-somatosensory suppression in the nonlemniscal IC

(20, 42). Mechanistically, it is not known if such suppressive responses are created in the LC or

are inherited from other brain regions since auditory-somatosensory interactions occur as early

in the cochlear nucleus, and are also found in the IC, thalamus, and cortex (65-72), reviewed in

(41, 73). We note that a systematic exploration of the stimulus space was not conducted here

such that other acoustic or somatosensory stimuli, different relative amplitudes, or different

relative timings of the stimuli could have produced enhancement rather than suppression.

Future work will be needed to further explore this stimulus space to more fully understand

multisensory processing in the LC.

Conclusions:

Here, using a novel microprism approach to image the LC in anesthetized and awake mice, we

observed that 1) DC displayed tonotopic organization which was not consistently present in the

LC, 2) DC neurons were generally more sound-responsive than LC neurons but that neurons in

both regions had preferential responses to spectrally- and temporally-complex stimuli, 3) that

matrix regions of the LC were more responsive to spectrally- and temporally-complex stimuli

than modules and that modules were more responsive to somatosensory stimuli and 4) that

bimodal stimulation led to suppressive responses that were more prominent in the matrix and

enhancement that was more prominent in modules. These data highlight significant

organizational differences between the LC and DC and between modules and matrix in the LC.

Future work using microprisms in the LC will help to reveal the potential differential role of matrix

vs. module neurons in multisensory integration tasks in behaving animals.

Materials and methods:

Animal subjects:

Male mice of 8-12 weeks of age were used. Males were used as our preliminary data suggest male/female differences in DC organization (74) and will be published separately. GAD67-GFP knock-in mice (developed and shared with permission from Dr. Yuchio Yanagawa at Gunma University and obtained from Dr. Douglas Oliver at the University of Connecticut), where GFP is exclusively expressed in GABAergic cells (25), were used to visualize the GABAergic cells and LC modules. To simultaneously monitor calcium signals and visualize the GFP+ cells, Tg(Thy1-jRGECO1a)GP8.20Dkim/J mice (Jackson Laboratory, Stock# 030525) were crossed with GAD67-GFP knock-in mice to generate GAD67-GFPxThy1-jRGECO1a hybrid mice. The mice were housed and bred at the animal research facility of The Beckman Institute for Advanced Science and Technology. The animal care facilities are approved by the Association for Assessment and Accreditation of Laboratory Animal Care (AAALAC). To phenotype the GFP-positive animals, an epifluorescence microscope was used for the transcranial examination of the pups at postnatal day 4 using excitation: 472/30 nm and emission 520/35 nm filters along with dichroic 505 nm long pass at low power magnification (2.5x/0.08, Olympus objective, MPlanFL N, Japan). The positive pups exhibited a green fluorescence in the cerebellum, the cerebral cortex, and the olfactory bulb and were only kept with their parents until weaning. The genotyping for jRGECO1a was done using a probe composed of a forward primer: GCCGCCGAGGTCAAGA & a reverse primer: TCCAACTTGATGTCGACGATGTAG) by Transnetyx™ (Transnetyx, USA). Samples of the mice's tail snip around one month of age were used for genotyping. All applicable guidelines for the care and use of animals were followed. All procedures were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC).

Surgery

The general procedures of craniotomy were previously described (27), with modifications to place craniotomy over the IC. Before surgery, mice were anesthetized with a mixture of

ketamine, xylazine, and acepromazine (100 mg/kg, 3 mg/kg, and 3mg/kg, respectively)

delivered intraperitoneally. The anesthesia was maintained during the surgery and imaging

using only ketamine (100 mg/kg). To prevent neural edema during or after the craniotomy, an

intramuscular injection of dexamethasone sodium (4.8 mg/kg) was given just before the surgery

using an insulin syringe. After placing the animal in the stereotaxic apparatus (David Kopf

Instruments, USA), both eyes were protected by applying Optixcare lubricant eye gel (Aventix

Animal Health, Canada). The hair on the scalp was then removed by massaging the scalp with

a depilatory cream (Nair) using a cotton-tipped applicator and leaving the cream on the scalp for

4-5 minutes. The cream was then removed by a thin plastic sheet (flexible ruler) to leave a hair-

free area on the scalp. The remaining tiny hairs were then removed by alcohol swab and the

area was then sterilized by applying 10% Povidone Iodine (Dynarex, USA) using a sterile

cotton-tipped applicator. The medial incision was made with a scalpel blade #10, and 0.2 ml of

0.5% lidocaine was injected intradermally into the scalp. The skin extending from the medial line

to the temporalis muscle was completely removed using a pair of microscissors to produce a

wide skinless area above the skull. A pair of no. 5/45 forceps were used to remove any

remaining periosteum. The remaining dried or firmly attached pieces of periosteum were

removed with a scalpel blade #10. The skull was cleaned with sterile saline and dried with

gently pressurized air. Using the stereotaxic apparatus, a wide area of ~3 x 4 mm above the left

IC was made. A micro drill bit (size #80, Grainger, USA) was used to drill through the skull

starting from the rostrolateral (Figure 1A, yellow circle) region to lambda (Figure 1A, black circle)

following the border in a clockwise direction (Figure 1A, dotted black rectangle). To prevent

overheating of the superficial brain tissues and to mitigate the occasional spurts of skull

bleeding during the drilling, ice-cold sterile saline was used to intermittently irrigate the surface.

A stream of pressurized air was also applied during the drilling procedures to prevent

overheating and remove the debris produced by the drilling. Caution was taken not to pierce the

dura when performing the craniotomy while crossing the sagittal or the lambdoid sutures to

avoid damaging the underlying sinuses. After drilling, the skull was irrigated in sterile saline and

the bone flap (the undrilled bone over the craniotomy area) was gently examined for complete

separation from the rest of the skull (Figure 1B). Using a pair of no. 5/45 forceps, the bone flap

was gently removed. To control the bleeding if it occurred, a piece of sterile hemostatic gel

(Adsorbable Gelatin Sponge USP, Haemosponge, GBI, India) which was pre-soaked in ice-cold

saline, was applied to the bleeding spot. Once the bleeding ceased, the brain was kept covered

in sterile saline. In some surgeries, the dura was peeled off from the surface of the IC while

removing the bone flap. In the surgeries where the dura remained intact, a Bonn microprobe

(F.S.T, Germany, Item # 10032-13) was used to pierce the dura in an area that is not above the

IC and devoid of cortical vasculature (e.g., a part of exposed cerebellum). After piercing, the

dura was carefully and gently lifted, and a pair of no. 5/45 forceps were used to grab the dura to

gently tear it to the extent of the transverse sinus to avoid bleeding of the major venous

structures.

Using the stereotaxic apparatus, a 30° diamond knife (F.S.T, Germany, Item # 10100-30) was

placed in its vertical position. From the medial line, the knife was placed at the lateral horizon of

the IC. The knife was then inserted 1.5 mm ventrally. Caution was taken to avoid hitting any

major blood vessels to avoid bleeding. From its position, the knife was retracted 0.3-0.5 mm

medially to create an initial pocket for the insertion of the microprism (Figures 1C-E). The

microprism (1.5 mm-silver coated, Tower Optical Corporation) was then inserted, so one of its

sides was parallel to the lateral surface of the diamond blade, the other side was facing up, and

its hypotenuse was facing ventrally (Figures 1F and G). The wooden piece of a cotton swab was

carefully driven down to push the microprism until its top surface was at the same level as the

IC dorsal surface. Keeping the microprism in its place with the wooden end of a swab, the

diamond knife was carefully retracted upward leaving the microprism behind (Figure 1H). If the

retraction of the diamond knife pulled the prism up, the wooden piece would be used to push it

down simultaneously with the knife movement. To control the bleeding, a piece of sterile

hemostatic gel was used as before. The tip of the diamond knife was used to secure the

microprism in its position for at least 10 minutes (Figures 1I and J). During that time, the solution

of the 1% agarose was prepared for use. A pair of forceps were then used to gently place a

sterile 5 mm cover glass #1 (Thomas Scientific, USA) over the skull covering the opened area

above the IC. The cover glass was secured by a wooden trimmed piece of sterile cotton swab

by gently pressing the cover glass from the top. Since the surface of the IC was located below

the surfaces of both the cerebellum and cerebral cortex, the cover glass usually traps about a

0.7-1.0 mm thick sheet of sterile saline. The movement of the liquid medium caused by heart

pulsation was found to be a source of motion artifact during imaging, so the gap between the

surface of the IC and the cover glass was filled with 1% agarose gel that was made in saline at

a temperature range of 33-35°C (Figure 1K). The extra agarose gel pieces were cut off and

removed by the scalpel blade and the wet skull was then dried out using pressurized air. A

titanium headpost as described before (27) was glued carefully on the top of the skull to be at

the same level as the cover glass. Following the manufacturer's instructions, the C&B Metabond

(Parkell, Japan) was used to secure the headpost in its place. Excluding the steps of the

microprism insertion, the same procedures were followed for DC imaging from the surface

(Figure 1L). For awake preparations, the same procedures were followed under isoflurane

anesthesia starting with 4% of isoflurane as an induction dose with 1-2% isoflurane during the

surgery. The animal was transferred under the microscope objective and left to recover from

isoflurane anesthesia for 1 hour before imaging. To ensure the animal's recovery, the animal

was visually inspected for its breathing rate (75) and for ongoing limb movements.

Acoustic stimulation:

Using a custom-made MATLAB (The MathWorks, Natick, MA, USA) code, either 500 ms pure

tone or AM-noise was generated. Thirty-five (5x7) pure tones with a series of sound pressure

levels (40, 50, 60, 70, 80 dB SPL) and a series of carrier frequencies (5000-40000 Hz with a

half-octave gap) were presented with a cosine window. Forty-five (5x9) 100% AM white noise

bursts with a series of sound pressure levels (40, 50, 60, 70, 80 dB SPL) and modulation

frequencies (0, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, 64, 128, 256 Hz) were generated. The stimuli of either pure tone

or AM-noise combinations were played in random sequence to the mice with a 600 ms

interstimulus interval (ISI) by a TDT RP2.1 processor (Tucker-Davis Technologies, US) and

delivered by a TDT ES1 speaker (Tucker-Davis Technologies, US). In other sets of

experiments, 500 ms of nonmodulated broadband noise was presented 5 times with ISI of 600

ms at 80 dB SPL to examine the acoustic activity between modules and matrix compared to

somatosensory stimulation.

The output of the TDT ES1 speaker was calibrated using a PCB 377A06 microphone, which

feeds a SigCal tool to generate a calibration file for all tested frequencies (5–40 kHz). To enable

the custom-made MATLAB code to read this calibration file, the values were first processed by

MATLAB signal processing toolbox (sptool) to generate a 256-tap FIR filter to apply the

calibration using the following parameters [arbitrary magnitudes, least square, order: 256,

sampling rate: 97,656.25, frequency vector (5–40 kHz), amplitude vector (40–80 dB SPL), and

weight vector ones (1128)].

Somatosensory stimulation:

The somatosensory stimulation was done by deflecting the right whiskers of the animals at an

average excursion of 1.2 mm with a 50 Hz rate over 500 ms to match the acoustic stimulus. A

total of five stimuli were presented with 600 ms ISI. The whisker deflection was performed using

a Brüel & Kjær vibrator (V203 10/32 UNF- CE, United Kingdom) that was driven by a wave

generator (4063, BK precision, USA) after amplifying the signals with an SLA1 100 W power

amplifier (ART, USA).

Two-Photon imaging:

Immediately after surgery, the anesthetized animal was taken and secured under the microscope objective by clamping the arms of the head post to two perpendicular metal posts mounted on the microscope stage. A custom-built 2P microscope was used. The optical and the controlling components were supplied from Bruker, Olympus, and Thorlabs. The imaging of the DC was made using a 20X water-immersion objective (LUMPlanFI/IR, 20X, NA: 0.95, WD: 2 mm; Olympus Corporation, Tokyo, Japan), while the lateral surface of the IC was imaged by the long working distance 16x water-immersion objective (N16XLWD-PF - CFI LWD Plan Fluorite Objective, 16X, NA: 0.8, WD: 3.0 mm; Nikon, Tokyo, Japan) to be able to reach the focal point of the microprism at its hypotenuse. For imaging both the GFP or jRGECO1a signals, the excitation light was generated by InSight X3 laser (Spectra-Physics Lasers, Mountain View, CA, USA) tuned to a wavelength of 920 or 1040 nm, respectively. A layer of a 1:1 mixture of wavelength multipurpose ultrasound gel (National Therapy, Canada) with double deionized water was used to immerse the objective. This gel was able to trap the water and reduce its evaporation during imaging. The emitted signals were detected by a photomultiplier tube (Hamamatsu H7422PA-4, Japan) following a t565lp dichroic and a Chroma barrier et525/70m filter for GFP and et595/50m filter for jRGECO1a signals. Images (512x512 pixels) were collected at a frame rate of 29.9 Hz in the resonant galvo mode. Data were collected from the dorsal surface of the IC by scanning the surface of the IC based on the GFP and jRGECO1a signals through the medial and lateral horizons of the IC. Generally, the scanning was started by moving the 20x objective to the most ventromedial position, where there is no ability to see any cells (Figure 2B, medial horizon). Then, the objective was started to slowly move dorsolaterally to get cells in focus (Figure 1M), where the average depth of the first field of view was 169 μm. The lateral movement of the objective was intended to be aligned and parallel to the curvature of the DC surface indicated by getting the superficial cells in focus to avoid any possibility of

imaging the upper layers of the central nucleus of the IC, so the average depth of the most

superficial point of the imaging was 92 μm. The scanning was ended by moving the objective to

the most ventrolateral position of the IC, where there is no ability to see GFP laterally (Figure

2B, lateral horizon), where the last field of view was collected at an average depth of 225 μm.

Generally, each field of view was selected based on the expression of GFP signals as an

indicator for the cells in focus and being acoustically active by using a search stimulus that was

500 ms broadband noise with zero modulation at 80 dB SPL. The z-axis of the objective was

determined relative to the pia surface. The relative position of each region was tracked through

the micromanipulator (MP-285, Sutter Instruments) that controlled the microscope objective.

The positions of imaged areas were further aligned across animals to a common coordinate

using the midline, lateral extremes, and the vasculature landmarks taken via imaging of the GFP

signals of the cranial window with low magnification (4x Olympus objective, 4x4 binning, 50 ms

frame time) using a Lumen 200 bulb (Prior Scientific Inc, USA) and CoolSNAP MYO camera

(Photometrics, USA, excitation: 488 nm and emission: 515–550 nm). Imaging of the lateral

surface of the IC via microprism was done similarly. However, a 16x objective with a long

working distance was used to enable reaching the focal point at the microprism hypotenuse. In

both cases, the frame timing of the scanner and the sound stimuli were both digitized and time-

locked using a Digidata 1440A (Molecular Devices, Sunnyvale, CA, USA) with Clampex v. 10.3

(Molecular Devices, Sunnyvale, CA, USA).

Laser lesion:

The laser lesion was produced using a 720 or 820 nm laser beam at 74-80 mW power at the

level of the objective for 100 to 250 seconds depending on the size of the lesioned area, the

speed of laser scanning (frame rate), and the depth of the lesion (z-axis length). In brief, the

area of interest and the dimension of the laser lesion were initially determined using 920 nm as

indicated by the GFP signals through scanning one of the GABAergic modules. The depth of the

GABAergic modules was then determined by counting the optical slices starting from their

superficial surface. The tunable laser was then switched from 920 nm to the shorter wavelength

(720 or 820 nm) to scan the same area and depth at a rate (1-2 frames/ second).

Data processing:

Data collection: The data were collected as separate movies (512x512 pixels) for each pure

tone or AM-noise runs in a resonant galvo mode. Depending on the amplitude and frequency

combinations for each type of acoustic stimulus, 40- or 52-second periods were assigned as a

movie's length for pure tone (35 stimulus combinations), or AM-noise (45 stimulus

combinations), respectively. Using ImageJ software, the z-projection was used to compute one

single image representing either the sum, the standard deviation, or the median of all the image

sequences in the movie. Based on these single images, the region of interest (ROI) was

manually drawn around each detectable cell body. Figures 4A and B represent the sum of the

images sequences of the movie collected from the dorsal surface, or the lateral surface of the IC

via microprism, respectively. For the subsequent processing steps, Python open-source libraries

were used (listed below).

Motion Correction and Filtering: The imread function from the OpenCV library was used in

grayscale mode to import images into a numpy array from a single folder containing TIFF

images. The array was then exported as a single TIFF stack into a temporary folder using the

mimwrite function from the imageio library, and the process was repeated for each folder. The

NoRMCorre algorithm (76) embedded in the CaImAn library (77) was used to apply motion

correction to each of the TIFF files. The data were then imported into a numpy array, rounded,

and converted to 16-bit integers. The images were filtered using a 2D Gaussian filter with a

sigma value of 1 (surface View) / 2 (prism View) in each direction, then a 1D Gaussian temporal

filter with a sigma value of 2 was applied using the ndimage.gaussian_filter and

ndimage.gaussian_filter1d function from the scipy library, respectively.

Data Extraction: The ROI sets, which were manually created using ImageJ, were imported using

the read_roi_zip function from the read_roi library. The sets were then used to create two

masks; one mask was used as a replica of the ROIs and the second mask was made around

the original ROI (roughly four times larger in area). The smaller mask was applied to find the

average pixel value within each ROI, while the larger mask was applied to find the average pixel

value of the neuropil. The neuropil correction was applied using the following equation (78);

$$\text{Corrected value} = \text{Date value} - (0.4 \text{ X Neuropil value})$$

To identify the calcium signals, Δf/f was calculated by using the following equation.

$$\frac{\Delta f}{f} = \frac{(\text{Date value} - \text{Background value})}{\text{Background value}}$$

where the background value is the slope estimating the background levels with fluorescence

bleaching factored in. The data were then reorganized so that all segments with the same

stimulus frequency and stimulus amplitude were grouped. The area under the curve (AUC) of

the calcium signals was then used as a metric to determine the magnitude of the response and

for subsequent analysis (79, 80).

Cell Flagging: The correlation coefficient between each of the trials was calculated using the

stats. Pearson function from the scipy library. The average correlation coefficient was calculated

for each stimulus frequency and stimulus amplitude. Similar to previous work (12), if the

average correlation coefficient was above the threshold of 0.6, the cell was flagged as being

responsive to that stimulus combination of frequency and amplitude, and the best tone and

modulation frequencies were calculated for every cell (13). Knowing the best tonal frequency

(BTF) and modulation frequency (BMF) for each neuron enabled us to calculate the SMI and

TMI following these equations;

SMI

$$= \frac{\text{Response to BTF} - \text{Response to unmodulated noise}}{\text{Response to BTF} + \text{Response to unmodulated noise}}$$

The SMI has values ranging from (-1 to 1). While neurons with values closer to 1 are more

responsive to pure tone, neurons with values closer to -1 are more responsive to noise with no

modulation.

<div align="center">TMI</div>

$$= \frac{\text{Response to BMF} - \text{Response to unmodulated noise}}{\text{Response of BMF} + \text{Response to unmodulated noise}}$$

Similarly, the TMI has values ranging from (-1 to 1). While neurons with values closer to 1 are

more responsive to AM-noise, neurons with values closer to -1 are more responsive to noise

with no modulation.

For the comparison between somatosensory and auditory responses, the threshold of 0.4 was

used as a cutoff threshold to determine the responsive cells to each stimulation. The average

response of each somatosensory, acoustic (500 ms of unmodulated noise), or simultaneous

somatosensory and acoustic (bimodal) stimulation was then calculated for each responsive cell.

To examine the effect of somatosensory stimulation on auditory responses, the response index

(RI) was calculated for the auditory-responsive cells using the following equation;

<div align="center">RI</div>

$$= \frac{\text{Auditory response to bimodal stimulation}}{\text{Auditory response to auditory stimulation only}}$$

Reurons with RI values > 1 have enhanced or higher responses induced by simultaneous

auditory and somatosensory stimulation, while neurons with RI values < 1 have downregulated

or suppressed auditory responses induced by auditory and simultaneous somatosensory

stimulation.

Map Generation: The average radius for all ROIs was calculated to ensure that all cells on the

tonotopic map had uniform radii. A color key was also generated for every corresponding map.

A blank canvas was generated using the Image module from the pillow library, and a circle was

created for each cell and filled with a corresponding color to its value.

Statistics:

All statistical analyses and graphs were made using Origin Pro 2022 software. The normality of

the distributions of the data was examined using a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. The Mann-

Whitney test as well as two-sample or paired t-test were used to examine the difference in data

distribution or the difference between samples of non-normal and normal distribution,

respectively. Either one-way or two-way ANOVA as well as Fisher as a post hoc test were used

for the mean comparison between different groups of normal distribution. The Chi-square (χ^2)

test was used to compare the samples based on cell numbers of their cellular population. The

cumulative frequency function was computed to calculate the fraction of cells tuned at each

frequency based on their best frequency. Differences were deemed significant when p-value

<0.05. The upper and lower dimentians of the each box plot are at the 25th and 75th percentile,

with whiskers at 95% spread.

Histology:

After the 2P imaging, the mouse was transcardially perfused with 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA)

solution in PBS solution. The isolated brain was then placed overnight in PFA for a complete

fixation. The brain was then moved from the PFA to a graded sucrose solution (10, 20, and

30%) until it sunk. 50 μm coronal sections were taken at the level of the IC using a Leica

cryostat. The sections were then mounted on a slide, coverslipped, and imaged using an

epifluorescence microscope for imaging the GFP signals as an indicator for the GABAergic cells

in the GAD67-GFP knock-in mouse (excitation: 488 nm and emissions: 515–550 nm).

Artwork:

The cartoon of the mouse brain in Figures 1 C, F, and I was obtained from Brain Explorer 3D

viewer Allen Mouse Brain (https://connectivity.brain-map.org/3d-viewer?v=1) and modified to be

suitable for illustration. All figures were designed and made using Adobe Illustrator (Adobe, San

Jose, CA). To keep working within the Adobe environment to avoid losing the resolution of the

figures, Adobe Photoshop (Adobe, San Jose, CA) was used to crop the borders of some images

to save space.

Acknowledgment

We thank Dr. Kush Paul (Bruker) for initial training on the craniotomy surgery, Dr. Jason

Maclean (The Department of Neurobiology, University of Chicago) for assistance with 2P

imaging, Dr. Michael Jacobs Goard (Neuroscience Research Institute, The University of

California- Santa Barbara) for his guidance in the use of microprisms, Dr. Taher Saif

(Department of Mechanical Science and Engineering, The University of Illinois Urbana-

Champaign) for measuring the deflecting distance of the somatosensory stimulating probe using

a high-speed camera. We also thank the NIDCD for funding this work under grant #

R01DC013073 and R01DC016599.

Competing interests

On behalf of all authors, there are no financial or non-financial competing interests to be

declared.

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Figure 1: A brief Illustration of the surgical procedures.

(A) A surface view of the mouse's skull showing the landmarks of the craniotomy over the IC.

(B) An image of the bone flap after finishing the drilling. (C-E) A cartoon and two images of the

brain surface showing the insertion and the pocket made by the diamond knife at the lateral

surface of the left IC. (F-H) A cartoon and two images of the brain surface showing the insertion

of the microprism into its pocket to directly face the LC after displacing the blade of the diamond

knife. (I-K) A cartoon and two images of the brain surface showing the final setup of the

microprism for two different animals. (L) An image of the brain surface showing the placement of

a glass window for the surface imaging of the DC. (M) A cartoon of the coronal section of the IC

demonstrating the different fields of views taken along the mediolateral axis parallel to the

curvature of the IC surface at different depths (1-5) from the pial surface. Cereb: Cerebellum,

Ctx: Cerebral cortex, DC: Dorsal cortex of the IC, IC: Inferior colliculus, ICC: Central nucleus of

the IC, Lam. Lambdoid, LC: Lateral cortex of the IC, Sag. Sagittal, SS: Sigmoid sinus, TS:

Transverse sinus.

Figure 2: The distribution of GABAergic cells on the LC imaged via microprism, and DC

imaged from the dorsal surface.

All images were taken for the GFP signals exclusively expressed in GABAergic cells. (A-B) Low

magnification of epifluorescent images for the GFP signals obtained from the IC surface with or

without the microprism, respectively. The dotted white line in B represented the medial and

lateral horizons of the IC. (C-E) The 2P images of the GABAergic cells on the LC imaged via

microprism showing the GABAergic modules across multiple animals. (D and F) The 2P images

of the GABAergic cells on either the dorsolateral surface of the DC imaged directly from its

dorsal surface showing the GABAergic modules across multiple animals (red boxes) or its

dorsomedial surface showing a homogenous distribution of GABAergic cells of different sizes

with no signs of the GABAergic modules across multiple animals (blue boxes). All solid irregular

white lines were made at the border of the GABAergic modules; D: Dorsal, IC: Inferior colliculus,

L: Lateral, R: Rostral. Cereb: Cerebellum, TS: Transverse sinus.

Figure 3: The validation of imaging setup.

All images were taken for the GFP signals exclusively expressed in GABAergic cells and

processes. (A) A low magnification image of the IC surface with the microprism showing a laser

lesion spot made through the microprism to validate the position of the microprism relative to the

IC. (B) A histological coronal section at the level of the IC showing that the laser lesion made by

the microprism was located at the sagittal surface of the LC imaged via microprism. (C-D) Low-

magnification images of the IC surface from the dorsal surface show a laser lesion spot made

on the dorsolateral surface of the LC on the GABAergic module. The dotted white lines

represent the alignment of the laser lesion to the location of the GABAergic module at the

dorsolateral surface. (E) A histological coronal section at the level of the IC showing that the

laser lesion made on the IC surface targeted the GABAergic module at the dorsolateral portion

of the LC. The solid irregular white line was made at the border of the GABAergic modules. D:

Dorsal, IC: Inferior colliculus, L: Lateral, R: Rostral, Cereb: Cerebellum, TS: Transverse sinus.

Figure 4: 2P expression of jRGECO1a along with evoked signals in the DC imaged from

the dorsal surface and LC imaged via microprism.

(A-B) The 2P images of the jRGECO1a expression on the DC imaged from the dorsal surface

and the LC imaged via a microprism, respectively. (C-D) The time traces of the evoked calcium

signals by either different frequencies and amplitudes of pure tones or different overall

amplitudes and rates of AM of broadband noise, respectively, which were obtained from two

different cells on the DC (top traces) or the LC imaged via microprism (bottom traces); The

length of the colored bars (top) indicates the intensity of the stimulus, while the color indicates

the tone or AM frequency depending on the color scale (bottom). AM-noise: Amplitude

modulated broadband noise, D: Dorsal, DC: Dorsal cortex, L: Lateral, LC: Lateral cortex,

m.prism: Microprism, R: Rostral.

Figure 5: The auditory cellular organization of the LC imaged via microprism vs. DC

imaged from the dorsal surface.

(A and C) The 2P images of GFP (green) and jRGECO1a expression (red) on either the LC

imaged via the microprism or the DC imaged from the dorsal surface, respectively. (B and D)

The pseudocolor images show the responsive cells to the pure tone of different combinations of

frequencies and levels on the surface of the LC imaged via the microprism or the DC imaged

from its dorsal surface, respectively, as well as the non-responsive cells (black filled red circles).

(E) The cumulative distribution function of the best tone frequencies of all cells collected either

from the LC imaged via microprism (blue line) or the DC imaged directly from its dorsal surface

(red line). D: Dorsal, L: Lateral, R: Rostral. (*p<0.05, LC vs. DC).

Figure 6: The cellular response to pure tones and AM-noise of the LC imaged via

microprism vs. DC imaged from the dorsal surface.

(A and C) Bar graphs showing the difference in the cellular response to pure tone (tone) vs. AM-

noise on the LC imaged via microprism or the DC imaged directly from the dorsal surface,

respectively (*p<0.05, pure tone vs. AM-noise). (B) A bar graph showing the difference in the

cellular response to the pure tone (tone) and AM-noise of the matrix after normalization against

modules imaged via microprism (*p<0.05, matrix vs. modules). LC: Lateral cortex, DC: Dorsal

cortex.

Figure 7: Modulation of responses by temporal and spectral complexity in the LC imaged

via microprism vs. DC imaged from the dorsal surface.

(A and B) Bar graphs showing the percentage of spectrally (two-way ANOVA: $f_{(1, 4, 9)}$ = 50.3, 0.0,

and 4.0 - p = 7.1×10^{-7}, 1.0, and 0.01 for the region, sound level, and interaction, respectively,

Fisher post hoc, p = 5.1×10^{-6}, 4.9×10^{-4}, 0.02, 0.058, and 0.14 for modules vs. matrix at 40, 50,

60, 70, and 80 dB, respectively) or temporally (two-way ANOVA: $f_{(1, 4, 9)}$ = 19.3, 0.0, and 1.2 - p =

7.1×10^{-7}, 1.0, and 0.32 for the region, sound level, and interaction, respectively, Fisher post hoc,

p = 2.7×10^{-7} for modules vs. matrix) modulated cells, respectively, across different sound levels

in modules (green bars) vs. matrix (blue bars) imaged via microprism. (*p<0.05, matrix vs.

modules). (C and D) box plots showing the mean (black lines) and the distribution (colored dots)

988 of the SMI (two-way ANOVA: $f_{(1, 4, 14583)}$ = 48.4, 210.4, and 21.3 - p < 0.001 for the region, sound

989 level, and interaction, respectively, Fisher post hoc test, p = 6.2×10^{-4}, 4.2×10^{-5}, <0.001, and <

990 0.001 for LC vs. DC at 40, 60, 70, and 80 dB respectively) and TMI (Figure 7D, two way

991 ANOVA: $f_{(1, 4, 16139)}$ = 431.4, 59.1, and 8.3 - p < 0.001 for the region, sound level, and interaction,

992 respectively, Fisher post hoc test, p = 0.002, <0.001, < 0.001, <0.001, and <0.001 for LC vs. DC

993 at 40, 50, 60, 70, and 80 dB, respectively), respectively, across different sound levels in LC

994 imaged via microprism (blue) vs. DC imaged directly from the dorsal surface (red) (*p<0.05, LC

995 vs. DC).

996 **Figure 8: The waveforms of the somatosensory vs. acoustic responses of the LC imaged**

997 **via microprism.**

998 (A-B) The time traces of the evoked calcium signals by the beginning of auditory or

999 somatosensory stimuli, respectively (onset responses). (C-D) The time traces of the evoked

1000 calcium signals by the termination of auditory or somatosensory stimuli, respectively (offset

1001 responses).

1002 **Figure 9: Types of somatosensory and auditory responses from the LC neurons imaged**

1003 **via microprism.**

1004 (A) The 2P images of GFP (green) and jRGECO1a expression (red) in the LC imaged via

1005 microprism showing the modules within white irregular lines. (B, D, and F) The pseudocolor

1006 images show the auditory or somatosensory responsive cells of the LC imaged via microprism

1007 as well as the merged response, respectively (C and E) The pseudocolor images show onset

1008 (ON), offset (OFF), or onset/offset (ON/OFF) responsive cells of the LC imaged via microprism

1009 to auditory and somatosensory stimuli, respectively. (G) The pseudocolor images show

1010 enhanced and suppressive response of the auditory responsive cells of the LC imaged via

1011 microprism following the bimodal stimulation based on their response index (RI). (H and I) Bar

graphs showing the percentage of responsive cells to auditory (Aud.), somatosensory (Som.),

or both stimuli in modules and matrix imaged via microprism, respectively – Modules: one-way

ANOVA: $f_{(2, 11)}$ = 38.1 - p = 4.0×10^{-5}, Fisher posthoc test, p = 1.9×10^{-5} or 7.6×10^{-5} for the

percentage of responsive cells to sound only vs. the percentage of responsive cells to

somatosensory stimulation only or to both, respectively and p = 0.23 for the percentage of

responsive cells to somatosensory stimulation only vs. both, Matrix: one-way ANOVA: $f_{(2, 11)}$ =

23.9 - p = 2.4×10^{-4}, Fisher posthoc test, p = 1.7×10^{-4} or 2.4×10^{-4} for the percentage of responsive

cells to sound only vs. the percentage of responsive cells to somatosensory stimulation only or

to both, respectively - p = 0.77 for the percentage of responsive cells to somatosensory

stimulation only vs. both) (*p<0.05, vs. Aud.). (J) A box plot showing the normalized cell fraction

of auditory (Aud.) or somatosensory (Som.) responsive cells in the matrix normalized to those in

modules imaged via microprism (*p<0.05, matrix vs. modules). (K) A box plot showing the cell

fraction of onset (ON. Aud.) or offset (OFF. Aud.) auditory responsive cells in the matrix

normalized to those in modules imaged via microprism (*p<0.05, matrix vs. modules). (L) A box

plot showing the cell fraction of the responsive cells of enhanced (Enh. resp.) or suppressive

(Supp. resp.) response in the matrix normalized to those in modules imaged via microprism

following bimodal stimulation (*p<0.05, matrix vs. modules). D: Dorsal, R: Rostral.

Figure 10: The somatosensory vs. auditory responses over the DC neurons.

(A) A low magnification of the image obtained from the IC surface. (B-D) The top row: The 2P

images of GFP (green) and jRGECO1a expression (red) of three main regions (dorsolateral,

dorsal, and dorsomedial) of the DC surface imaged from the dorsal surface showing the

modules within irregular white lines in the dorsolateral region, the bottom row: The pseudocolor

images show the somatosensory responsive cells after somatosensory stimulations. (E) The

pseudocolor images show the responsive cells of the LC imaged from the dorsal surface to

merged responses of auditory and somatosensory as well as the merged responses. (F) The

pseudocolor images show onset (ON), offset (OFF), or onset/offset (ON/OFF) responsive cells

of the LC imaged from the dorsal surface to auditory stimulation. (G) The pseudocolor images

show the enhanced and suppressive response of the auditory responsive cells of the LC imaged

from the dorsal surface following the bimodal stimulation based on their response index (RI). (H)

A box plot shows the percentage of somatosensory responsive cells in LC imaged either from

the dorsal surface (LC (dors.)) or via microprism (LC (m. p.)) as well as the DC - one-way

ANOVA: $f_{(2, 11)}$ = 6.7 & p = 0.02, Fisher posthoc test, p = 0.01 or 0.01 for the percentage of

somatosensory responsive cells on the DC vs. LC imaged by microprism or LC imaged from the

dorsal surface, respectively - p = 0.95 for the percentage of somatosensory responsive cells on

LC imaged via microprism vs. LC imaged from the dorsal surface) (*p<0.05, vs. DC). (I) A box

plot showing the cell fraction of auditory (Aud.) or somatosensory (Som.) responsive cells in the

matrix normalized to those in modules imaged from the dorsal surface (*p<0.05, matrix vs.

modules). (J) A box plot showing the cell fraction of onset (ON. Aud.) or offset (OFF. Aud.)

auditory responsive cells in the matrix normalized to those in modules imaged from the dorsal

surface (*p<0.05, matrix vs. modules). (K) A box plot showing the cell fraction of the responsive

cells of enhanced (Enh. Resp.) or suppressed (Supp. Resp.) responses in the matrix normalized

to those in modules imaged from the dorsal surface following bimodal stimulation (*p<0.05,

matrix vs. modules). Cereb: Cerebellum, Ctx: Cerebral cortex D: Dorsal, R: Rostral, TS:

Transverse sinus.

Figure 11: The acoustic response from LC imaged via microprism and DC imaged from

the dorsal surface in awake animals.

(A and C) The 2P images of GFP (green) and jRGECO1a expression (red) on either the LC

surface imaged via the microprism or the DC imaged directly from the dorsal surface,

respectively showing the modules within irregular white lines. (B and D) The pseudocolor

images show the responsive cells to the pure tone of different combinations of frequencies and

levels of the LC imaged via the microprism or the DC imaged directly from the dorsal surface,

respectively, as well as the non-responsive cells (black filled red circles). D: Dorsal, L: Lateral,

R: Rostral.

Figure 12: Unique acoustic responses from the LC imaged via microprism vs. DC imaged

from the dorsal surface.

(A) The cumulative distribution function of the best tone frequencies of all cells collected either

from the LC imaged via microprism (blue) or the DC (red). (B) A bar graph showing the

percentage of responsive vs. nonresponsive cells to pure tone or AM-noise within the LC

imaged via microprism or the DC (*p<0.05, pure tone vs. AM-noise). (C) A bar graph showing

the percentage of responsive cells to pure tone or AM-noise for LC imaged via microprism vs.

DC (*p<0.05, LC vs. DC). (D) A bar graph showing the percentage of responsive cells to pure

tone or AM-noise for modules vs. matrix imaged via microprism(*p<0.05, matrix vs. modules).

Non-resp.: Non-responsive, Resp.: Responsive.

Figure 13: The somatosensory response from LC imaged via microprism in awake

animals.

(A, C, and E) The pseudocolor images show the auditory or somatosensory responsive cells of

the LC imaged via microprism to auditory and somatosensory stimulations as well as the

merged response, respectively. (B and D) The pseudocolor images show onset (ON), offset

(OFF), or onset/offset (ON/OFF) responsive cells of the LC imaged via microprism to auditory

and somatosensory stimulations, respectively. (F) The pseudocolor images show the enhanced

or suppressed responses of the auditory responsive cells following the bimodal stimulation

based on their response index (RI). (G) A bar graph showing the cell fraction of auditory (Aud.)

or somatosensory (Som.) responsive cells in the matrix vs. modules imaged via microprism

(*p<0.05, matrix vs. modules). (H) A bar graph showing the cell fraction of the responsive cells

of suppressed (Supp. resp.) or enhanced (Enh. resp.) response in the matrix vs. modules

imaged via microprism following bimodal stimulation (*$p < 0.05$, low vs. high response). D:

Dorsal, R: Rostral.

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1122   Figure 11

Tone freq (kHz) 5.0 — 40.0   Non-responsive

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1125 Figure 12:

1128   Figure 13:

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