**Title:**

**Cell-type specific optogenetic fMRI on basal forebrain**

**reveals functional network basis of behavioral**

**preference**

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**Graphic abstract:**

**Highlights:**

- Optogenetic stimulations of basal forebrain (BF) neurons evoked distinct cell-type specific whole-brain BOLD activations.
- Optogenetic activation of inhibitory (PV and SOM) or excitatory (VGLUT2 and ChAT) neurons in BF drove internally or externally oriented behavior respectively.
- A decoding model linking the BF-modulated BOLD activations, low dimensional structural networks, and behavioral preference revealed a functional network basis of BF-modulated behavioral preference .

## Abstract

The basal forebrain (BF) is an anatomically and neurochemically complex structure that plays key roles in regulating various brain functions. Although BF is best known for cholinergic neurons that influence functional network dynamics and behaviors, non-cholinergic neurons are the dominant neuronal population in BF, and are found to contribute as well. However, it remains unclear how cholinergic and non-cholinergic BF neurons modulate large-scale functional networks and their relevance in intrinsic and extrinsic behaviors. With our optimized awake mouse optogenetic fMRI approach, we revealed optogenetic stimulations of four BF neuron types evoked distinct cell-type specific whole-brain BOLD activations, which could attribute to BF-originated low dimensional structural networks. Optogenetic activation of inhibitory (PV and SOM) or excitatory (VGLUT2 and ChAT) neurons in BF drove internally or externally oriented behavioral preference, respectively. Furthermore, we uncovered the functional network basis of the above BF-modulated behavioral preference, through a decoding model linking the BF-modulated BOLD activations, low dimensional structural networks, and behavioral preference. To summarize, we decoded a functional network basis of differential behavioral preference with cell-type specific optogenetic fMRI on BF, and provided an avenue for investigating mouse behaviors from a whole-brain view.

## Introduction

The basal forebrain (BF) is a set of heterogeneous telencephalic structures on the medial and ventral parts of the cerebral hemispheres[1,2]. The basal forebrain is most commonly known as a key cholinergic brain region[1–3]. However, cholinergic neurons only represent 10–20% of all BF neurons, and much more non-cholinergic neurons, including glutamatergic, parvalbumin-positive (PV) and somatostatin-positive (SOM) GABAergic neurons, are present in BF[1–3]. Previous studies reported that the above four types of BF neurons exhibit both complex local connectivity and long-range projections to the cortex[3,4]. Traditionally, studies of BF have focused on its cholinergic neurons and revealed its involvement in a variety of brain functions, including arousal, attention, memory, learning, motivation and reward both in health and diseases[5–12]. However, BF non-cholinergic neurons were also found to contribute to many brain functions as well[3,13–17].

As the cholinergic and non-cholinergic BF neurons all have large-scale cortical and subcortical projections, it is long speculated BF may contribute to the whole-brain functional network dynamics. One recent human fMRI study found global BOLD signal peaks coincided with negative activations in BF, which was associated with arousal fluctuations[18]. Another macaque fMRI study showed unilateral inactivation of BF with muscimol resulted in a decrease in the amplitude of BOLD signal in ipsilateral regions, which receive strong projection from BF neurons[19]. Both studies suggested that the extensive variations in large-scale cortical activity observed through fMRI were linked to BF, which was assumed to be contributed by BF cholinergic neurons. However, in those two studies, direct evidence was lacking to attribute such modulation to BF cholinergic system.

Specific modulation of the cholinergic system, combined with rodent fMRI, revealed its impact on large-scale network activity[20–22]. Chemogenetic activation of BF cholinergic neurons[22] or pharmacological inhibition of the cholinergic system[20,21] in anesthetized rats, both demonstrated significant decreases in functional connectivity (FC) and BOLD amplitude within the default mode-like (DMN-like) network, which appears contradictory. Neurophysiological studies in rats showed gamma oscillations were synchronized and of

high gamme power between the BF and DMN-like nodes (i.e., anterior cingulate area

(ACA), retrosplenial cortex (RSP)) during internally oriented behaviors, such as quiet

wakefulness and grooming[23,24]. Furthermore, optogenetic activation of BF PV neurons

enhanced BF gamma oscillations and promoted grooming behavior[25], suggesting the

regulation of non-cholinergic neurons to DMN-like network and internally oriented behavior.

However, It remains unclear the relationship among the cell-type specific BF modulations,

large-scale functional networks and their behavioral relevance.

Therefore, in this study, we established a decoding model to link the BF-modulated

large-scale BOLD activations and corresponding behavioral preference via combining (1)

the cell-type specific opto-fMRI on BF VGLUT2, ChAT, PV and SOM neurons, (2) the BF

cell-type specific anatomical projections and (3) optogenetic free-moving behavioral test.

Firstly, through our systematically optimized awake mouse opto-fMRI setup, we found

distinct global BOLD responses evoked by the cell-type specific activations of BF neurons.

Then, combining the BF cell-type specific anatomical projections, we found BF-originated

low dimensional structural networks significantly contributed to cell-type specific opto-fMRI

activations. Furthermore, we revealed that activation of BF excitatory (VGLUT2 and ChAT)

or inhibitory (PV and SOM) neurons induced externally or internally oriented behavioral

preference, respectively. Importantly, we developed a model to link the BF-modulated

BOLD activations inside the magnet and behavioral preference outside the magnet, and

decoded the global patterns of internally and externally oriented behaviors. In conclusion,

we revealed both cholinergic and non-cholinergic neurons modulated global functional

networks with corresponding internally and externally oriented behavioral preferences, and

provided a new perspective to link the BOLD activations to behavioral relevance.

# Results

## Optogenetic stimulations of BF neurons evoke distinct cell-type specific BOLD activations

We combined Cre-dependent virus (AAV2/9-hSyn-DIO-ChrimsomR-mCheery-WPRE-pA) and VGLUT2-, ChAT-, PV- and SOM-Cre mice to express of ChrimsomR in glutamatergic, cholinergic, PV and SOM GABAergic neurons in BF (Fig. 1A and S1). To accommodate the limited space in cryogenic coil, flexible PMMA optical fibers were used in combination with our previous awake mouse fMRI[26–28] to establish the awake mouse opto-fMRI setup (Fig. 1A-D). The biband EPI pulse sequence[28] was employed to achieve faster acquisition (TR = 500 ms) while maintaining whole brain coverage (in-plane resolution = 150 $\mu m^2$ with 38 axial slices).

Using our optimized awake mouse opto-fMRI setup and standardized data processing protocol (Fig.1A and Fig. S2)[26–29], we observed robust and cell-type specific large-scale BOLD fMRI activations (Fig. 1E and Fig. S3). Activation of VGLUT2 neurons in the BF elicited the strongest and most widespread BOLD activations throughout the brain among all four cell types (Fig. 1E, upper panel). Activation of ChAT neurons resulted in positive activations across extensive cortical and subcortical regions, including the prefrontal cortex (PFC), ACA, RSP, orbital (ORB), visual (VIS), auditory (AUD), entorhinal (ENT) areas as well as a large proportion of striatum and thalamus (Fig. 1E, upper middle panel). In PV-Cre group, ACA showed significant positive activation (Fig.1E, lower middle panel). In SOM-Cre group, significant positive activations were observed in ACA, striatum and anterior thalamus (Fig. 1E, lower panel). Interestingly, the VGLUT2- and ChAT-Cre groups exhibited significant negative activation constrain within the motor (Mot) and somatosensory (SS) areas, while the PV-cre group showed negative activation within VIS.

Notably, we consistently observed positive activations in the DMN-like regions (Fig.1E and Fig. 2A-C). Importantly, BF PV neurons exhibited the highest specificity for DMN-like activations (Fig. 2D and Fig. S5) rather than VGLUT2 neurons. Such a phenomenon was consistent with the previous finding in rats that optogenetic stimulation of BF PV neurons activated the DMN-like network and associated behaviors[25].

**BF-originated low dimensional structural networks significantly contribute to cell-type specific opto-fMRI activations.**

To investigate whether the functional activation was directly governed by corresponding anatomical projections from BF neurons, we adopted the previously published anterograde axon tracing data[4] and registered to our standard MRI space (Fig. 3A and 3B). Cholinergic BF neurons displayed widely spread projections to the cortex, while the non-cholinergic neurons mainly innervated subcortical brain regions and had limited projections to most parts of the cortex (Fig. 3B). To evaluate the structural-functional correspondence across BF cell types, we calculated the spatial correlation between functional activations (Fig. 1E and Fig. 2A) and anatomical outputs (Fig. 3B). Weak structural-functional correspondence was found for all BF cell types (Fig. 3C, brown arrows and Fig. S6-7), suggesting direct anatomical projections weakly contributed to opto-fMRI activation patterns.

One potential contributor to the functional responses was secondary projections of the regions that receive direct projections from BF neurons (Fig. 4A). To examine such a hypothesis, we generated the cell-type specific BF secondary projection matrix by spatial weighting the voxel-wise whole-brain mesoscopic connectivity matrix[30,31] based on the BF direct projections (Fig. 4B & Fig.S8). We concatenated secondary projections from four types of BF neurons to cover all projections originating from BF, including those from local interaction of BF cell types. Then, the concatenated secondary projections were further decomposed using the non-negative matrix factorization (NMF) analysis (Fig. 4B & Fig. S8). One significant advantage of NMF over other dimensionality reduction techniques is its ability to ensure that all elements in the decomposed low-rank matrix are non-negative, which is crucial for interpreting both NMF components and associated weights as actual network activity.

Subsequently, we identified six low-dimensional NMF components that were predominantly composed of brain stem, olfactory, DMN-like, visual, hippocampus and sensorimotor network (Fig. 4C & Fig.S9), respectively. We observed that low-dimensional structural networks exhibited a higher explained variance in cell-type specific opto-fMRI responses compared to the direct projections (Fig. 4D-E and Fig. S10), indicating their

dominant effect on cerebral dynamics. The scaling coefficients of NMF components were

then defined as optimal feature vectors, representing the engagement levels of NMF

components under optogenetic activation of BF neurons (Fig. 4F). Therefore, these

findings provide evidence that BF originated low dimensional structural networks

significantly contributed to cell-type specific opto-fMRI activations.

**Inhibitory (PV and SOM) or excitatory (VGLUT2 and ChAT) neurons in BF**

**support internally or externally oriented behaviors respectively.**

We further investigate whether cell-type specific modulation of BF exerted an impact

on mouse internally and externally oriented behaviors. The behavioral test was conducted

in the arena under the same optogenetic stimulation paradigms as in the fMRI experiments

to examine the locomotion speed, quiet wakefulness, grooming and object explorations

(Fig. 5A-C). The VGLUT2-Cre group exhibited a significantly higher locomotion speed (Fig.

5D), which was consistent with the wakefulness and avoidance behavior-promoting effect

of BF VGLUT2 neurons[3,15,16]. The ChAT-Cre group demonstrated significantly higher novel

object explorations (Fig. 5E), which is consistent with the involvement of cholinergic

systems in attention, learning, and memory[11,12]. There were no discernible differences in

familiar object exploration among the groups (Fig. S11). Moreover, optogenetic stimulation

of BF PV neurons resulted in the highest DMN-associated behavior, specifically grooming

(Fig. 5G), which is consistent with the previous study in rats[25]. SOM-Cre group exhibited a

greater duration of quiet wakefulness in comparison to other subpopulations (Fig. 5F), in

line with the sleep-promoting[3] and locomotion-inhibiting effects[32] of BF SOM neurons.

To further investigate the preference of BF cell types in mouse behaviors, we

normalized behavioral performances by dividing each maximum (Fig. 5H). Subsequently,

we found activated VGLUT2 and ChAT neurons preferentially drove externally oriented

behaviors such as locomotion and novel object exploration, while activated PV and SOM

neurons drove internally oriented behaviors like grooming and quiet wakefulness (Fig. 5H).

## Decoding model links BF-modulated BOLD activations and internally and externally oriented behavioral preference

As the same optogenetic stimulation paradigm was applied in opto-fMRI and behavioral test, we hypothesized that cell-type-specific activation maps and behavior-related cerebral patterns share common low-dimensional (NMF) space (Fig. 6A). Therefore, we constructed a decoding model (Fig. 6B) to predict the behavior related global patterns, based on the feature vectors of BOLD activations (Fig. 6C) and behavioral performance (Fig. 5G-H). The model's regression coefficients were identified as behavior-related feature vectors, representing predicted cerebral patterns of each behavior in the NMF space (Fig. 6D). The minimal deviation angle (Fig. 6E, red shadow) between feature vectors of BOLD activations (Fig. 6C) and behaviors (Fig. 6D) indicated the behavioral preference, e.g., the feature vector of VGLUT2 group had minimal deviation angle with that of locomotion (Fig. 6E), corresponding to its preference on locomotion (Fig. 5D). The significantly negative correlations between the deviation angles and empirical behavioral results (Fig. 6F) further suggested that low dimensional network organization supported the behavioral preference of BF cell types.

Based on the behavior-related feature vectors (Fig. 6D) and the spatial patterns of NMF components (Fig. 3C), we further predicted the cerebral responses of behaviors (Fig. 6G). Interestingly, the predicted global pattern of grooming showed opposing patterns between intrinsic networks (i.e., DMN-like network) and extrinsic networks (e.g., salience network) (Fig. 6G, lower middle panel), which was consistent with previous findings in rats[33] and human[34–37]. The predicted global pattern of quiet wakefulness (Fig. 6G, lower panel) exhibited high spatial similarity to that of grooming, and both of these were opposing to that of locomotion (Fig. 6G, upper panel). Moreover, the predicted global pattern of novel exploration (Fig. 6G, upper middle panel) exhibited robust positive responses in the prefrontal cortex and hippocampus, consistent with previous evidence of cholinergic innervation to these regions involved in novelty preference[38–40].

To verify the predicted spatial patterns of mouse behaviors, we first conducted the awake mouse fMRI scanning with simultaneous behavioral monitoring using two customized MR-compatible cameras (Fig. 7A). We observed apparent grooming behavior

during the scanning (Fig. 7B) and corresponding functional activations (Fig. 7C). Significant

positive correlation between the empirical (Fig. 7C) and predicted (Fig. 6G) spatial maps

indicated the validity of predicted global patterns of mouse behaviors. We further

conducted another verifying experiment with simultaneous calcium fiber photometry in

ACA, primary motor area (MOp), and entorhinal cortex (ENT) during free-moving behaviors

(Fig. 7E-F). We found a notable positive correlation between the predicted spatial weights

and neural activities (Fig. 7G) during quiet wakefulness, grooming, and novel object

exploration. The negative correlation during locomotion was unexpected but somewhat

reasonable, as the locomotion consistently elicits widespread activation and can potentially

confound the analysis of other behaviors[41]. Thus, the above two verifying experiments

highlighted the reliability of our decoding model and the resulting predicted global patterns

of mouse behaviors. Therefore, our results provided a framework for behavioral research

through the lens of cerebral network basis, linking the BF-modulated BOLD activations to

the internally and externally oriented behavioral preference.

# Discussion

The functional roles of BF cholinergic and non-cholinergic neurons, from large-scale

functional networks to behaviors, remain elusive. We first demonstrated cell-type specific

whole-brain responses and corresponding internally and externally oriented behavioral

preference induced by optogenetic activation of four BF neuron types. Subsequently, we

developed a decoding model to link the BF-modulated BOLD activations and behavioral

preference based on the organization of a low-dimensional cerebral network. Ultimately,

we predicted the global patterns of mouse behavioral preference via our model, which were

verified by two different experiments, i.e., (1) awake mouse fMRI with simultaneous

grooming monitoring and (2) calcium fiber photometry during free-moving behavior test. In

summary, our results demonstrated that both cholinergic and non-cholinergic BF neurons

modulate cerebral functional networks and corresponding internally and externally oriented

behavioral preference. Our results also provided a framework for investigating animal's

behaviors in the whole brain view.

It is not trivial to acquire high-quality opto-fMRI data in mice, with many limiting factors

such as anesthesia, low SNR, and image artifacts caused by fiber implants. So far, most

previous opto-fMRI studies in rodents have been conducted under anesthesia[42–49], with

only a few exceptions[50–52]. To avoid the confounding factors of various anesthesia

methods[53,54], we established the awake opto-fMRI setup based on our extensive

experience in awake mouse fMRI[26–29]. Furthermore, a multiband EPI pulse sequence was

employed to acquire functional images to achieve faster acquisition while maintaining

whole brain coverage[28]. To take advantage of the high SNR provided by the cryogenic RF

(radio frequency) coil, a flexible PMMA optic fiber implant was used to accommodate the

limited space of the cryogenic coil (Fig. 1B). Importantly, PMMA has similar magnetic

susceptibility to that of the brain tissue[55] thus reduced imaging artifacts caused by fiber

implantation (Fig. 1C). In conclusion, we have optimized the setup for awake mice opto-

fMRI systematically to acquire high-quality opto-fMRI data.

With the optimized approach described above, we revealed cell-type specific whole-

brain responses under optogenetic activation of BF neurons. The most strong and

widespread BOLD responses (Fig. 1E, upper panel) and corresponding highest locomotion

speed (Fig. 5D) of BF VGLUT2 group possibly attribute to the promoting wakefulness and

avoidance behavior effects of BF VGLUT2 neurons[3,14,15]. The activation of the PFC, Mot,

SS, AUD, VIS, and striatum (Fig. 1E, upper panel) and corresponding highest novel object

exploration (Fig. 5E) of the ChAT group were consistent with the BF cholinergic neuron

involved circuits that modulate recognition memory, sensory perception and attention

regulation[38,40,56–59]. The higher quiet wakefulness (Fig. 5F) of SOM group may attribute to

the sleep-promoting[3] and locomotion-inhibiting effects[32] of BF SOM neurons. Importantly,

PV group showed positive activation mainly within DMN-like network, resulting the highest

specificity for DMN-like activations of PV group than other groups (Fig.1E, lower middle

panel and Fig. 2D), along with the corresponding highest grooming (Fig. 5G). The above

results were consistent with previous work on BF PV neurons' modulation on DMN-like

networks and internally oriented behaviors[25]. Interestingly, we consistently observed

positive activations in the DMN-like regions (Fig. 1E and Fig. 2) under the activation of all

four BF neuron types, indicating the complex yet robust interaction between BF and cortical

DMN-like network. It also supports the notion that BF may be part of a subcortical DMN

network[24,25,35,60–62]. Therefore, the current study provided a more complete perspective for

whole-brain functional responses and corresponding behavioral preference from

activations of four BF neuron types.

It is well known that the primary anatomical projections are key regulators of functional

dynamics. Interestingly, we found weak structural-functional correspondence between BF

cell-type specific anatomical projections and functional activations. Such phenomenon was

consistent with the finding that functional connectivity originated from dopamine neurons

in the ventral tegmental area[46] and serotonin neurons in the dorsal raphe[42] were uncoupled

with corresponding dopaminergic and serotoninergic neuron projection density,

respectively. Our results demonstrated the low dimensional structural networks

decomposed from BF-originated secondary projections significantly contributed to the cell-

type specific BOLD activations. As previous studies demonstrated that the low dimensional

structural networks served as the backbone of functional dynamics and cognitions in

human or marmoset brain[63,64], our finding suggested the dominating effects of low

dimensional structural networks on functional activations are markedly consistent across

species.

However, a framework to systematically establish the link among the cell-type specific

BF modulations, global structural networks, and behavioral preference is lacking. Thus,

our study built a decoding model to link the BF-modulated global activation patterns and

the behavioral preference in a low dimensional network space (Fig.6). After projecting high

dimensional BOLD activations into low dimensional space spanned by structural networks,

i.e., NMF components (Fig. 4C), the dimension of resulting features, i.e., weights of NMF

components (Fig. 4F and 6C), were much closer to the dimension of mouse behaviors.

Using the low dimensional features as model inputs highly improved the computational

efficiency. More importantly, such a strategy enhanced the feasibility of capturing

discriminative features from BF-modulated BOLD activation patterns, which were

subsequently used to model the corresponding behavioral preference. Also, our BF cell-

type specific opto-fMRI, including manipulation on four neuron types instead of one[22],

provided more complete and informative BOLD features as the model inputs, improving

the robustness of our decoding model.

Interestingly, our modeling approach provided a general methodology to explore the

global patterns of behaviors. Based on the decoding model, we back-reconstructed the

global patterns of mouse behaviors, such as quiet wakefulness and grooming (Fig.6 B&G).

Thus, the predicted global patterns offered potential 'reference templates', similar to the

"arousal template"[65], and could be used to infer the behavioral occurrence through the

spatial correlation between the template and the empirical imaging data[18,65]. Nevertheless,

it is difficult to experimentally verify the predicted global patterns (Fig. 6G) in the MRI

scanner. Thus, we further modified our awake mouse fMRI setup to allow the animal's

forelimbs to groom during the fMRI scanning (Fig. 7B), and obtained the empirical

grooming evoked BOLD activations (Fig. 7C). The significant correlation between empirical

and predicted grooming patterns (Fig. 7D) provided the experimental validation for our

decoding model. Interestingly, the grooming pattern with activations in DMN regions and

de-activations in extrinsic networks (e.g., salience network) was in line with BOLD

responses during internally focused cognitive state in the previous human studies[34–37].

Together, these results suggested the reliability of our modeling approach, which could be

further used in inferring the global patterns of behaviors in future imaging studies.

Previous human imaging studies[34–37] revealed significant DMN activation and dorsal

attention network suppression under internally focused conditions. Such a phenomenon

was in accordance with our empirical groom activations (Fig.7C), suggesting the cross-

species consistency of the anti-correlated relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic

networks[66]. During the external task condition, the BF and DMN were deactivated together

in human fMRI studies[34,35,67]. The BF's prominent structural connectivity with DMN-like

cortical regions has been suggested to parallel its known modulatory projections involving

cholinergic, GABAergic, and glutamatergic systems[4]. In our study, we revealed the highest

specificity for the DMN activations with corresponding grooming preference under the

optogenetic activations of BF PV neurons (Fig.2 & 4). Such results agreed with previous

studies that projections of BF PV neurons have been specifically linked to the control of

DMN state transitions in rats[25,33]. Therefore, we confirmed the BF PV neurons on the DMN

activity during the internally oriented behaviors.

An important limitation in our model was the assumption that the same optogenetic

stimulation paradigm induced a similar global response inside and outside the magnet.

Naturally, the brain state of the mouse was undoubtedly different in those two environments.

However, it is not unreasonable to assume that the strong cerebral responses were more

dominated by the optogenetic stimulations than the environment. Moreover, our empirical

evidence provided experimental support for the validity of our modeling approach (Fig. 7).

Another limitation was the lack of recording the natural activity of cell-type specific BF

neurons during various behaviors, such as grooming, for better confirmation of different BF

neuron types associated with behavioral preferences. Besides, the current study only

examined the cell-type specific effects of BF neuron activation. Future investigations

should incorporate cell-type specific inhibition of BF neurons for a more complete view.

Last but not least, the complex interactions among BF neuron types[3] were not specifically

considered in the current model, and further biological modeling incorporating these local

connections could be conducted in the future. Nevertheless, our concatenated secondary

projections covered all potential outputs originating from BF regardless of the local

interactions within BF. Thus, our results were unlikely to be affected by the complex

interactions among BF neuron types.

# Methods

## Animals

All animal experiments were approved by the Animal Care and Use Committee of the

Institute of Neuroscience, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Shanghai, China. Experiments

were conducted with mice at 8-10 weeks of ages, weighted 18-30 g. Number of mice in

each experiment was listed in Table1. No statistical methods were used to predetermine

sample sizes but our sample size is similar to previous publications[51,68]. Wild-type mice

were purchased from institute-approved vendors (Shanghai Laboratory Animal Center, or

LingChang Experiment Animal Co., China), and ChAT-IRES-Cre, VGLUT2-IRES-Cre, PV-

IRES-Cre and SOM-IRES-Cre mice (Jackson stock #: 006410, 016963, 008069 and

013044 respectively) were obtained from Jackson Laboratory. Mice were group-housed

(5–6/cage) under a 12-h light/dark cycle (light on from 7 a.m. to 7 p.m.) with food and water

*ad libitum*.

Table 1 Summary of Number of mice used in each experiment.

| | | ChAT-Cre | PV-Cre | SOM-Cre | VGLUT2-Cre | Wild-type |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| optogenetic stimulations with | fMRI imaging | 8 | 11 | 10 | 8 | 7 |
| | free-moving behavioral test | 7 | 8 | 7 | 7 | 7 |
| Verifying experiment 1: fMRI imaging with behavioral monitoring | | - | - | - | - | 11 |
| Verifying experiment 2: Fiber photometry | | - | - | - | - | 6 |
| Comparing artifacts of PMMA and SiO$_2$ optical fiber | | | | | | 5 |

## Stereotaxic surgeries

All stereotaxic surgeries were conducted under isoflurane anesthesia (5% for

induction and 1-1.5% for maintenance), and animals were placed on a stereotaxic frame

with a heating pad (mouseSTAT, Kent scientific cooperation). A midline sagittal incision

was made along the scalp to expose the skull. Two craniotomies (~0.4 mm in diameter)

were made on top of bilateral BF (AP 0 mm, ML ±1.3 mm), targeting the intermediate

portion of the BF, including the horizontal limb of the diagonal band of Broca (HDB),

magnocellular preoptic nucleus (MCPO) and substantia innominate (SI). AAV2/9-hSyn-

DIO-ChrimsonR-mCherry-WPRE-hGH pA (Titer: 4.76 × $10^{12}$ v.g. /mL; BrainVTA Co., China)

was injected into each side of BF(AP 0 mm, ML ±1.3 mm, DV -5.0 mm from dura) utilizing

Nanoject III (Drummond Scientific) via a glass pipette (1 nL/s, 20 nL/cycle, inter-cycle

interval 10 s, total 20 cycles and 0.4 µL). After each injection, the needle was slowly pulled

up following a 10-min waiting period to prevent backflow. Then scalp was sutured, and

mouse was placed in a postoperative incubator for anesthesia recovery.

Optical fiber and head holder implantation for awake optogenetic fMRI were performed

two weeks after virus injection. Head holder design and the surgical procedure were

modified from our previous study[26]. The scalp over the skull was removed, and then the

periosteum was removed with cotton swabs dipped in 3 % hydrogen peroxide. The tissue

covering the skull posterior to the lambda point was also removed for firmer fixation of the

head post. Then, the exposed skull was cleaned by saline. After drying the surface of skull,

a coat of self-etch adhesive (3 M ESPE Adper Easy One) was applied followed by light

curing.

To reduce imaging artifacts caused by fiber implantation and also accommodate the

limited space of the cryogenic RF coil, we chose flexible fiber optic implants (200 µm in

diameter; NA 0.5; Inper Co., China) made of poly-methylmethacrylate (PMMA) which has

similar magnetic susceptibility to the brain tissue/water[55]. Two craniotomies (~0.4 mm in

diameter) were made on top of bilateral BF and the PMMA optic fibers were inserted into

bilateral BF (AP 0 mm, ML ±1.3 mm, DV -4.8 mm from dura). After draining the overflow of

liquid from the craniotomy with dust-free paper, the light curing flowable dental resin was

applied and cured with blue light for 20 s to fix the optic cannula to skull. After adhering the

skin surrounding the exposed skull with tissue adhesive, the dental resin was applied on

the occipital bone, and a custom-made MRI-compatible head holder was place closely on

the same place. Then, the flexible PMMA optic fibers were bent and fixed on the surface

of skull and head holder with dental resin (Fig. 1B). Finally, other exposed regions of the

skull was covered with a thick smooth layer of dental cement. After surgery, the mice were

placed in a postoperative incubator for anesthesia recovery.

**Habituation for awake mouse optogenetic fMRI (opto-fMRI)**

After 1-week recovery from the fiber and head holder implantation, mice were

habituated for awake fMRI for seven days (Fig. 1A). Mice were head-fixed on an animal

bed with the recorded acoustic MRI scanning noise, following a previously described

habituation paradigm [28]. The detailed schedule was listed in Table 2. No reward was given

during and after the habituation training.

Table 2 Summary of habituation schedules for awake mouse ofMRI

| | Day1 | Day2 | Day3 | Day4 | Day5 | Day6 | Day7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Duration of Habituation | 60 min | 60 min | 60 min | 60 min | 60 min | 60 min | 60 min |
| Acoustic Noise | - | 60 dB | 60 dB | 90 dB | 90 dB | 110 dB | 110 dB |

"−" denote absence.

**Optogenetic fMRI acquisition**

All MRI data were acquired with a Bruker BioSpec scanner (9.4T/30cm, Bruker,

Billerica, USA, ParaVision 6). An 86 mm volume coil was used for transmission and a 4-

channel cryogenic phased array mouse head coil (Bruker) was used for receiving. A thick

layer of Kwik-cast was applied smoothly over the mouse skull immediately before the MRI

scanning to reduce distortion caused by air. The mouse was first secured in the animal bed

without any anesthesia. Light delivery systems were kept outside the magnet and 7 m fiber

optic patch cable (200 μm in diameter; NA 0.5; Doric Lens) were used to deliver light into

the bore of the scanner. Optical patch cable was attached to the implanted optic fiber using

a zirconia sleeve (Thorlabs). Then the mouse was placed inside the MRI scanner. A T2-

weighted structural image was acquired for co-registration with following parameters:

TR = 3400 ms, TE = 33 ms, field of view = 16 × 16 mm$^2$, matrix size = 256 × 256, slice

thickness = 0.5 mm, 30 axial slices, RARE factor = 8, and number of averages = 2. After

field map based local shimming within the mouse brain, Biband-EPI was acquired using

the multiband EPI sequence [28] with the following parameters: TR = 500 ms, TE = 15 ms,

flip angle = 38.8°, bandwidth = 300 kHz, field of view = 15 × 10.5 mm$^2$, matrix size = 100 ×

70, nominal slice thickness = 0.48 mm (slice thickness 0.4 mm with a gap of 0.08 mm),

674 or 737 volumes (scan 1-3: 674 volumes and scan 4-6: 737 volumes), and 38 axial

slices per scan. During the Biband-EPI scanning, an Arduino Uno board

(https://www.arduino.cc/) was use to synchronize the scanner trigger and the lasers for

optogenetic stimulations. Red light (10 Hz, 5% duty cycle) was delivered to the bilateral BF

utilizing 638 nm laser (Shanghai Laser & Optics Century Co., Ltd.), and the power at the

fiber tip was 5 mW. The overall stimulation setup was shown in Fig. 1D. For each EPI run,

28 stimuli were delivered with durations of 0.5 s or 2 s, and a random inter-trial-interval

time of 15 +/- 5 s.

**Simultaneous behavioral monitoring and fMRI acquisition**

For the awake mouse fMRI with simultaneous behavior monitoring, a similar imaging

protocol was used as mentioned above, with the following difference: Biband-EPI TR = 750

ms, flip angle = 46.6° and 10000 volumes per scan. In addition, two custom-made MR-

compatible video cameras (sampling rate of 25 fps, 1080 × 980 pixels) was placed inside

the bore to record the spontaneous behaviors, e.g., grooming and body motion, which were

later used to estimate the grooming evoked BOLD activations.

**fMRI data processing**

After the image format conversion, the mouse brain was extracted manually utilizing

ITK-SNAP (http://www.itksnap.org/). All subsequent procedures were performed utilizing

custom scripts in MATLAB 2020a (MathWorks, Natick, MA) and SPM12

(http://www.fil.ion.ucl.ac.uk/spm/). Images of each scan were registered to the scan-

specific structural image utilizing rigid body transformation, and the scan-specific structure

image was then nonlinearly transformed to the 3D Allen Mouse Brain Common Coordinate

Framework, v3 (CCFv3, http://atlas.brain-map.org/) for group analysis Then, a light spatial

smoothing (0.4 mm isotropic Gaussian kernel) was performed. Furthermore, BOLD signals

were regressed by "6 rp + 6 Δrp + 10 PCs" nuisance signals to minimize the effects of

scanner drift, motion and other non-neural physiological noises (Fig. S2), adopted from our

previous study [26]. "6 rp + 6 Δrp" nuisance signals represented 6 head motion parameters

and their 1$^{st}$ order first derivatives, and "10 PCs" were the first 10 principal components

from the BOLD signals of non-brain tissue, e.g., the muscles. The Pearson's correlation

coefficients between the frame-wise displacement (FD) and DVARS (D referring to

temporal derivative of time courses, VARS referring to RMS variance over voxels) were

calculated to quantitatively evaluate to what extent the motion related signal was reduced

by given regressors [29].

## General linear model of cell-type specific optogenetic stimulations and spontaneous behaviors

GLM based statistical analysis was conducted utilizing the awake mouse-specific

hemodynamic response function (HRF) from our previous study [26]. Standard first level

analysis was done for individual EPI scans. For the awake mouse fMRI experiment with

optogenetic stimulations, the period of optogenetic stimulations was set as the predictors.

Also, a flexible factorial model including cell-type specific optogenetic stimulations and

individual mouse (as random effect) was conducted for second level analysis to generate

the activation maps and then thresholded with FDR corrected $p < 0.05$.

For the awake mouse fMRI experiment with simultaneous behavior monitoring, the

behaviors (e.g., grooming and body motion) were used as the predictors and thus the

remaining period was used implicitly as the baseline. A one-sample t-test was conducted

for second level analysis to generate the activation maps with FDR corrected $p < 0.05$.

## Specificity of DMN-like activations driven by BF neurons

The ICA-based functional networks were adopted from a previous study[69], in which

they identified macro-communities to spatially encompass six macroscopic networks of the

mouse cerebrum. Briefly, the mouse resting state (rs-)fMRI dataset was fed into MELODIC

(Multivariate Exploratory Linear Optimized Decomposition of Independent Components) [70]

to perform within-subject spatial ICA. Using preset 30 components and the ICA-FIX pre-

processing pipeline, 23 out of 30 components were detected in meaningful anatomical

regions of the mouse brain and considered as rs-fMRI functional networks. Then,

hierarchical network analysis was performed based on total correlation matrices of the 23

group ICA signal components and subsequently merged the group ICA components into

six cerebral clusters, i.e., DMN-like (Fig. 2B), somatosensory, sensory, hippocampus, basal

ganglia and olfactory networks (Fig. S4). The proportion of significantly activated voxels

that overlapped with ICA-based functional networks (Fig. 2B and Fig. S4) was calculated

with opto-fMRI responses were thresholded at FDR-corrected p < 0.05, while ICA-based

functional networks were thresholded at z > 3.

Receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curves were computed to evaluate the

specificity of opto-fMRI activations (Fig. 1E and Fig. 2A) on mouse ICA-based functional

networks (Fig. 2B and Fig. S4A)[71]. Briefly, functional networks and opto-fMRI responses

were normalized between 0 and 1, and were binarized using a series of 100 thresholds to

keep the 0-100% of activations, respectively. The resulting binary functional networks and

opto-fMRI responses were compared using the ROC analysis with the corresponding

functional network, i.e., DMN-like network, as the ground truth. The true positive and false

positive rate vectors were plotted against each other and the resulting area under the curve

(AUC) was used as the measurement of the specificity of opto-fMRI activations on mouse

functional networks. The AUC results were then compared against a null distribution of the

same datasets using the permutation test with 1000 times shuffling of the cell-type specific

opto-fMRI responses.

**Anterograde axon tracing from BF neurons**

The whole-brain axonal projections data from the four BF cell types is modified from

our previous study[4]. Briefly, ChAT-Cre, PV-Cre, SOM-Cre or VGLUT2-Cre mice were

anesthetized with ~1.5% isoflurane in oxygen, 300-400 nL output tracing vector (AAV2-

EF1a-FLEX-mCherry, titer: ~$10^{12}$ gc/mL) was inject into the right BF. Two to three weeks

after AAV injection, mice were deeply anesthetized with isoflurane and immediately

perfused intracardially with PBS followed by 4% PFA. Brain was removed and post-fixed

in 4% PFA in PBS at 4 ℃ overnight, dehydrated in 30% sucrose in PBS for 48 hr, embedded

in Tissue Freezing Medium, cut in 30 or 50 µm coronal sections and mounted with

VECTASHIELD antifade mounting medium with DAPI. All sections were imaged utilizing

20X/0.75 objective in a high-throughput slide scanner for further 3D reconstruction and

quantification. The digitized analysis was performed with a software package which

consists of three modules: image registration, signal detection, and quantification.

**Voxel-wise whole-brain mesoscopic structural connectivity**

Whole-brain structural connectivity was obtained from the Allen Mouse Brain

Connectivity Atlas ([http://connectivity.brain-map.org/](http://connectivity.brain-map.org/)), which was based on 428 viral

microinjection experiments in C57BL/6J male mice. Briefly, adeno-associated viral

anterograde tracers, containing genes encoding for enhanced green fluorescent protein,

were sterotactically injected at different sites in mice. After the injection, 2 weeks were

allowed for the protein expression before the animals were killed, the brain was extracted,

sectioned, imaged with two-photon microscope, reconstructed into 3D fluorescence maps,

and transformed into a common reference space [72]. Then, the connectome data were

aggregated according to a voxel-wise interpolation model [31], modeling the connectivity at

each voxel as a radial basis kernel-weighted average of the projection patterns of nearby

injections. Thus, a high-resolution mouse brain connectome ($100 \ \mu m^3$) was estimated

according to a Voronoi diagram based on Euclidean distance between neighboring voxels

[31]. The Voronoi-based resampling allowed us to spatially weight voxels with respect to

neighboring areas, and preserve the intrinsic architectural foundation of the connectome.

Finally, fiber tracts and ventricular spaces were filtered out, yielding a final weighted and

directed 15,314 × 15,314 matrix composed of $0.027 \ mm^3$ aggregate Voronoi voxels.

Notably, the structural connectivity matrix was transformed by the logarithm operation

similar to our previous study [63].

**Non-negative matrix factorization**

To further investigate how the BF modulated global organizations of mouse cerebral

functional networks, we firstly concatenated the four cell-type secondary projections from

BF neurons (Fig. S8), in which the secondary projections was adopted from source-

weighted whole-brain mesoscopic structural connectivity by cell-type output from BF

neurons, thus resulting a 15,314 × 61,256 connectivity matrix (Fig. S8). Considering the

bilateral optogenetic stimulations on BF neurons, we averaged the connectivity strengths

from ipsilateral and contralateral hemispheres for both cell-type specific output from BF

(Fig. 4B) and whole-brain mesoscopic structural connectivity matrix. Then, the non-

negative matrix factorization (NMF) was performed on the resulting secondary connectivity

matrix (15,314 × 61,256, Fig. 4B). The spatial NMF components ($W_{p_0 \times 15,314}$) were back-

projected to whole-brain BOLD signals to reconstruct the time course of each component

($S_{t \times p_0}$) for each individual EPI scan. NMF was chosen over other dimensional reduction

methods, e.g., PCA or ICA, because it enhances the interpretability of the resulting low

dimensional components. To estimate the appropriate dimensionality of the NMF analysis,

we calculated the mean cophenetic coefficients following the NMF decomposition (a

measure of the optimal number of subgroups in the connectivity matrix), and found the

maximum coefficient in the top 6 components (Fig. S9A). Thus, we chose the top 6 NMF

components in all following analysis.

**Optogenetic free-moving behavioral test**

Free-moving optogenetic behavioral test was performed in a 40 × 40 × 40 cm$^3$ arena

(Fig.5A). To keep the behavioral testing condition similar to the MRI experiment, the phase

of familiarization was set to 30 min with two familiar objects in two corners of arena. Then,

one of the familiar objects was replaced by a novel one (different shape, texture, size, and

color). The same optogenetic stimulations as in MRI were then delivered to the bilateral

BF immediately (Fig.5B). Animal behaviors were recorded utilizing a video camera (25 fps,

1080 × 980 pixels), which was positioned 50 cm above the center of the arena floor.

To analyze the recorded video, a set of behaviors including (1) locomotion speed, (2)

quiet wakefulness, (3) grooming, (4-5) familiar and novel object explorations were recorded.

Object exploration was defined as the mouse's nose was < 1 cm from the object and the

dwell time was < 4 s. Locomotion was labelled when the speed was > 2 cm/s excluded the

period of object explorations. Moreover, we fitted the outline of mouse body by an ellipse

and used the major ($a$) and minor ($b$) axes of the ellipse to distinguish the grooming and

quiet wakefulness. The behavioral state of grooming was termed when the mouse was in

a quasi-stationary condition (speed < 2 cm/s) and the outline of mouse body was sub-

rounded (i.e., $a - b$ > 2 cm). The remaining quasi-stationary behavior (speed < 2 cm/s,

$a - b$ < 2 cm) was defined as the quiet wakefulness with short periods (dwell time < 5 s)

excluded. Durations of the five types of behaviors were scored.

**Decoding the global patterns of mouse behaviors**

A general decoding model was used to predict the cerebral responses of mouse

behaviors (Fig. 6B). As the optogentic fMRI and free-moving behavioral tests were

conducted in different days, we divided the total behavior length into 6 runs for each mouse,

keeping temporal alignment with the order of fMRI scanning. Then, we averaged both the

weights of NMF components and behavioral performances across mouse individuals, and

only considered the group-wise behavioral variability under optogenetic stimulations on

cell-type specific neurons. The resulting cell-type specific BOLD weights of NMF

components ($W_{4 \times 6 \times 6}$) were set as the model predictors (4 cell-types, 6 runs and 6 NMF

components), and the cell-type specific behavioral performances ($Y_{4 \times 6}$) were termed as

the model output.

We randomly divided 6 runs into two groups to generate encode and decode datasets

respectively, and repeated 20 times for traversing all random conditions, i.e., choose 3 runs

as encoding dataset from all 6 runs. The regularization penalty was estimated on the

encoding dataset utilizing marginal maximum likelihood estimation with minor

modifications that reduced numerical instability for large regularization parameters. To

avoid over fitting, ridge regression was chosen over other regularization methods (e.g.,

LASSO or elastic net) because a sparseness prior would isolate the best contributing

model variables and completely reject variables which have slightly less informative.

Regression coefficients ($\beta_0$, $\beta_1$, $\beta_2, \beta_3$, $\beta_4$, $\beta_5$ and $\beta_6$) were termed as the representative

vector $[\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4, \beta_5, \beta_6]$ for each mouse behavior in NMF space, and further used to

construct corresponding spatial patterns ($[\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4, \beta_5, \beta_6] \cdot W_{6 \times 15314}$) by multiplying the

spatial NMF components ($W_{p_0 \times 15,314}$ and $p_0 = 6$).

## Histology and microscopy

To verify the expression of the virus and placements of the optical fibers, mice were deeply anesthetized and immediately perfused utilizing 0.1M phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), followed by 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) in PBS. The brain tissues were removed and post-fixed overnight in 4% PFA. Subsequently, the brains were transferred to a 30% sucrose solution at 4 °C for 48 hr. Brain samples were embedded with OCT compound (NEG-50, Thermo Scientific) and cut into 50-μm sections utilizing a cryostat (HM525 NX, Thermo Scientific). Brain sections were stored at -20 °C before further processing. For histology examination, brain sections were washed in PBS and coverslipped with mounting media containing DAPI (# F6057, Sigma). The fluorescence images were captured utilizing an epifluorescence microscope (VS120, Olympus).

## Free-moving behavioral tests with simultaneous fiber photometry

To verify the predicted behavior-related cerebral patterns, the neuronal activity of primary motor area (MOP), entorhinal area (ENT) and anterior cingulate area (ACA) were recorded using calcium fiber photometry during spontaneous behavior in the same arena as above. AAV2/9-hSyn-GCaMP6s-WPRE-hGH pA (titer: $2.69×10^{12}$ v .g. /mL; BrainVTA) was injected into unilateral MOP (AP +0.98 mm, ML +1.5 mm, DV -0.54 mm from dura), ENT (AP -3.88 mm, ML +3.75 mm, DV -2.3 mm from dura) and ACA (AP +0.14 mm, ML -0.3 mm, DV -1.07 mm from dura). Three optic fibers (200 μm in diameter; NA 0.48; Newdoon Co., China) were inserted into the three regions respectively, and secured with the light curing flowable dental resin. Finally, the exposed skull was covered with dental cement.

Four weeks after the surgery, the same free-moving behavioral test as above was performed with simultaneous fiber photometry recording and behavioral monitoring (Fig. 7E). Three patch cables were connected to the three fiber implants with sleeves. Three 465 nm LEDs (CLED_465, Doric Lens) were used as excitation sources. Excitation power at the tip of the fiber was ~20 μW. Three fluorescence optical mini cubes (FMC5_E1(465-480)_F1(500-540), Doric Lens) and three visible femtowatt photoreceivers (NPM_2151_FOA_FC, Doric Lens) were used for the fluorescence detection. During

recording, a software-controlled lock-in detection algorithm was implemented in the TDT

RZ2 system utilizing the fiber photometry 'Gizmo' of the Synapse software

(https://www.tdt.com/). The photometry signals were recorded at a sampling rate of 1017

Hz.

To analyze the photometry data, a median filter with 10-min window length was applied

to the raw GCaMP6s photometry signals to capture the infra-slow baseline drift. The

median-filtered calcium signal was then regressed out from the raw photometry signals

using the least-squares regression. Then, the changes of calcium signals were quantified

as (F-F0)/F0, where F was fluorescence intensity at each time point and F0 was calculated

by mean minus double standard deviations. The calcium time series were further down-

sampled to 25 Hz for subsequent analysis using the MATLAB function *interp1()*. Finally,

the neuronal firing rate was evaluated by deconvolution of the normalized calcium signals

(F-F0)/F0 using the first-order auto-regressive model.

For behavioral state classification, the same criteria was applied to label the

spontaneous behavioral state of each mouse (details in the section of Optogenetic free-

moving behavioral test).

**Comparing imaging artifacts of PMMA and $SiO_2$ fiber optic implants**

A separate cohort of wild-type mice was utilized to compare imaging artifacts induced

by PMMA and $SiO_2$ fiber optic implants (200 μm in diameter; NA 0.48) inserted unilaterally

into the basal forebrain. To accommodate the limited space of the cryogenic RF coil, the

ceramic ferrules of $SiO_2$ fiber optic implants were trimmed. All other surgical procedures

and fMRI acquisition parameters were identical to those described above. The artifact size

caused by the fiber optic implant in T2 or EPI images was measured, and a two-tailed

paired t-test was employed to determine statistical significance.

## Data availability

The manuscript released a cell-type specific awake mouse optogenetic fMRI, behaviors and anterograde tracing dataset on basal forebrain dataset, which is available at https://cstr.cn/33145.11.BSDC.1688548668.1676512675817205762. The Allen Mouse Brain Connectivity Atlas (https://portal.brain-map.org) was published previously as open resource.

## Code availability

Codes used in this study are available at https://github.com/TrangeTung/optogenetic_BF_fMRI.

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## Author Contributions Statement

Y.Z., C.T., M.X. and Z.L. designed the study; Y.Z., C.T., J.L., Y.X., M.P., K.Z. and W.L.

collected the MRI and behavioral data; Y.Z., C.T. and Z.L. preprocessed and organized the

MRI and behavioral data; W.P. and M.X. collected and preprocessed the anterograde

tracing data; C.T., Y.Z. and Z.L. conducted the decoding modeling. Y.Z., C.T., M.X. and Z.L.

wrote the original draft and revised the draft. All authors discussed and approved the

manuscript.

## Competing Interests Statement

702     The authors declare no competing interests.

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# Figures and Figure Legends

**Figure 1 | Whole brain opto-fMRI responses driven by cell-type specific neuronal**
**activations of the basal forebrain in awake mice.**
(A) Schematic setup of opto-fMRI and experimental timeline.
(B) Flexible PMMA fiber for optogenetic light delivery within cryogenic coil. Light was
delivered to bilateral basal forebrain (BF) via two PMMA optical fibers. PMMA,
polymethylmethacrylate.
(C) Reduced image artifact by PMMA optical fiber compared to SiO2 fiber. SiO2, silicon
dioxide. Statistical significance was determined using paired t-test (two tails, N=5 animals).
Error bar, the standard error of the mean.
(D) Optogenetic stimulation paradigm.
(E) BOLD responses under optogenetic stimulations of cell-type specific BF neurons with
FDR corrected p < 0.05.
(F) Region-of-interest (ROI) definitions based on CCFv3 Allen mouse brain atlas.
Abbreviations were list in Supplementary Table 1.
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**Figure 2 | Consistent activations in mouse default mode-like network (DMN-like) under cell-type specific optogenetic stimulations of basal forebrain neurons.**

(A) BOLD activation maps in 3D view under cell-type specific optogenetic stimulations of basal forebrain (BF) neurons. The activation maps were same as Fig. 1E.

(B) DMN-like component of mouse in 3D view (left panel) and axial slice view (right panel).

(C) Significant BOLD activations in DMN-like regions under cell-type specific manipulation on BF neurons. Statistical significance was determined using a one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post hoc test for group comparison. Each dot represented an individual EPI run. Error bar, the standard deviation (S.D.) of the mean.

(D) Highest specificity of DMN-like activations modulated by BF PV neurons. Pie charts showing the composition by mouse functional networks for the cell-type specific opto-fMRI responses.

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**Figure 3 | Direct anatomical projections weakly contribute to opto-fMRI activation**
**patterns of BF neurons.**
(A) Viral injection procedure for tracing BF projections.
(B) Whole-brain anatomical projections from 4 BF neuron types.
(C) Weak spatial similarities (brown line) between anatomical projection and functional
activation maps for four BF neuron types. The size of each circle indicates the spatial
similarity (Pearson's correlation coefficients, C.C.).
(D) Spatial maps (upper panel) and quantitative evaluations (lower panel) of the overlay
between anatomical projections and functional activations.
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**Figure 4 | BF originated low dimensional structural networks significantly contributed to cell-type specific opto-fMRI activations.**

(A) Hypothesis of the contribution of secondary projections on cell-type specific opto-fMRI activations.

(B) Computational pipeline of non-negative matrix factorization (NMF) on BF originated whole-brain mesoscopic secondary projections.

(C) Spatial maps of three low dimensional structural networks (i.e., the first six NMF components) in 3D view.

(D-E) Quantification (D) and spatial distributions (E) of explained variance for opto-fMRI

activations from the direct projections and low dimensional structural networks (as in Figure

4C) respectively. Statistical significance was calculated by two-tailed paired t-test. Notably,

the null control was constructed by spatially shuffling the BOLD activation maps. Each dot

represented an individual EPI run. Box, 25-75% range and median line; whisker, minimum

to maximum range; plus mark, the mean value.

(F) Cell-type specific opto-fMRI activations in six dimensional NMF space. Feature vector

for each BF cell type was normalized by its magnitude.

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**Figure 5 | Inhibitory (PV and SOM) or excitatory (VGLUT2 and ChAT) neurons in BF supported internally or externally oriented behaviors respectively.**

(A-B) Schematic of the free-moving behavioral experiments under optogenetic stimulations.

(C) Representative behavioral traces.

(D-G) Behavior performances under optogenetic activations of four BF neuron types, including locomotion (D), novel object exploration (E), quiet wakefulness (F) and grooming (G). Details of multiple comparison across cell-types were list in supplementary Table 2. Each dot represented the averaged behavioral performance in each experimental session. Box, 25-75% range and median line; whisker, minimum to maximum range; plus mark, the mean value.

(H) Ranking of preferred optogenetic stimulated BF cell types across mouse behaviors showed inhibitory or excitatory neurons in BF supported internally or externally oriented behaviors respectively. The behavioral performance was normalized by dividing its maximum for the mean of each behavior (D-G).

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**Figure 6 | A decoding model predicted the global patterns of opto-induced behaviors**
**outside the magnet based on the low dimensional networks.**
(A) Hypothesis: cell-type specific activation maps and behavior-related cerebral patterns
shared common low-dimensional (NMF) space as the same optogenetic stimulation
paradigm was applied in opto-fMRI and behavioral test.
(B)Schematics of decoding model to link BF modulated BOLD activations and behavioral
preference.
(C-D) Feature vectors of cell-type specific BF modulations (C, as in Fig. 3G) and predicted
behavior-related cerebral patterns (D). Colored lines and black arrows, predicted and
corresponding averaged feature vectors for each behavior. Each colored line represented

an individual decoding process (N = 20). We randomly chosen 3 sessions as training
dataset out of 6 sessions for each process and repeated this process to cover all
combinations.
(E) Deviation angles between feature vectors in Fig. C and Fig. D. Red shadow
represented the minimal angle across cell-type specific BF modulations in each behavior
(wild-type excluded), indicated the most distinct behavioral preference.
(F) Significant correlations between deviation angles and empirical behavioral
performance. Smaller deviation angles indicated shorter distances to the behavioral
feature vectors in NMF space, i.e., higher behavioral preference of BF cell types. Each dot
represented an individual decoding process (N = 20, as in Figure 5D-G). Black line
represented the best linear fit. C.C., Pearson's correlation coefficients.
(G) Predicted cerebral responses of mouse behaviors based on the low dimensional NMF
space.

**Figure 7 | Experimental validations of predicted behavior-related cerebral responses.**

(A) Schematic of the fMRI experimental setup with simultaneous behavior monitoring.

(B) Example of spontaneous grooming during awake mouse fMRI scanning.

(C) Empirical activation maps of mouse spontaneous grooming.

(D) Significant correlation between empirical and predicted activation maps of mouse

grooming. Each dot represented an individual brain region, scaled according to the voxel

number of each region. C.C., Pearson's correlation coefficients.

(E) Schematic of the free-moving behavioral experiments with simultaneous calcium fiber

photometry in primary motor area (MOp), anterior cingulate area (ACA) and entorhinal

cortex (ENT) respectively.

(F) Representative calcium signals in MOp, ACA and ENT regions during spontaneous

behaviors.

(G) High correlation between the predicted responses and empirical neuronal activity in

MOp, ACA and ENT during quiet wakefulness, grooming and novel object exploration,

except for locomotion. C.C., Pearson's correlation coefficients.