Efficient and sustained optogenetic control of sensory and cardiac systems

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Abstract

Optogenetic control of cells is a key life sciences method and promises novel therapies. Here we report on ChReef, an improved variant of the channelrhodopsin ChRmine. ChReef offers minimal photocurrent desensitization, a unitary conductance of 80 fS and closing kinetics of 30 ms, which together enable reliable optogenetic control of cells at low light levels (nano-Joule) with good temporal fidelity and allows sustained stimulation. We demonstrate efficient and reliable red-light pacing and depolarization block of ChReef-expressing cardiomyocyte clusters. Towards clinical application we used AAV-based gene transfer to express ChReef in retinal ganglion cells where it restores visual function in blind mice with light sources as weak as an iPad screen. Toward optogenetic hearing restoration, ChReef enables stimulation of the auditory pathway in rodents and non-human primates with nano-Joule threshold enabling efficient and frequency-specific stimulation by LED-based optical cochlear implants. Thus, ChReef bears great potential for life sciences and clinical application.

Keywords: channelrhodopsin, automated patch-clamp, neural circuit, hearing, visual system, cardiomyocyte

Running title:

Efficient optogenetic control of sensory pathways and cardiomyocytes

With an ever-growing toolkit of light-sensitive proteins (opsins) and optical devices, optogenetics

has driven progress in the life sciences[1]. It is routinely used to manipulate the activity of specific

cell types *in vivo* in genetically tractable species such as mice, fish, or flies. In medicine, concurring

progress in optogenetic modification of retinal neurons and visual coding by light amplifying

goggles has enabled a first successful clinical application of optogenetics for vision restoration[2].

Yet, several challenges remain to be tackled for realizing the full potential of optogenetics. For

example, the low single-channel conductance of non-selective cation conducting

channelrhodopsins (ChRs: e.g. 40 fS for ChR2[3]) limits their utility. The required high levels of

expression and high light doses bear the risk of proteostatic stress and phototoxicity in the target

tissue[4]. In the visual system, low single-channel conductance impedes versatile optogenetic

stimulation by natural light or computer screens and necessitates the use of light amplifying

goggles for optogenetic vision restoration. The energy demand of state-of-the-art optogenetic

control also challenges the power budget of medical devices such as future optical cochlear

implants for improved hearing restoration[4,5]. Kalium- and Anion-selective cryptophyte

channelrhodopsins (KCRs and ACRs) with larger single channel conductance have recently been

reported serving efficient inhibition of excitable cells[6,7]. Aiming for a depolarizing ChR for efficient

excitation, we targeted the cryptophyte ChR ChRmine that mediates large depolarizing

photocurrents and has red-shifted light absorption (λ_{max} = 520 nm)[8–10]. This way ChRmine, has

enabled control of cardiac activity of mice by light applied from outside[11] as well as implant-free

deep brain optogenetics[12]. Here, we demonstrate that ChRmine exhibits a comparatively high

unitary conductance. Yet, strong desensitization of ChRmine remains an unsolved key problem,

impeding applications that require sustained or high rate optogenetic stimulation. We

deciphered the mechanistic underpinnings of ChRmine desensitization and overcome it in the

ChRmine T218L/S220A variant ChReef ("**ChR** that **e**xcites **ef**ficiently") that provides advanced

utility when applied to cardiomyocytes (CMs) of the heart, the eye, and the ear.

Results

ChRmine is a high unitary conductance ChR that exhibits strong light-dependent inactivation

Using patch-clamp recordings from neuroblastoma-glioma cells (NG cells) expressing the

cryptophyte ChR ChRmine fused to TS-EYFP-ES for improved plasma membrane targeting[8,13,14],

we found that the stationary photocurrent of ChRmine is only about 20% of the peak current

(Stationary-Peak-Ratio: 0.22 ± 0.12 (n = 57), Fig. 1b, Figs. S1 and S2, Table S1). In fact, the ChRmine

stationary photocurrent density at saturating light intensity (Fig. 1c, $J_{-60mV} = 21.6 \pm 15.8$ pA/pF, n

= 44) did not exceed that of other state of the art depolarizing ChRs (Fig. 1c, Table S2).

Interestingly, the stationary photocurrent showed an initial increase with light intensity followed

by a decrease to a submaximal value despite increasing light intensity (Fig. 1f), suggesting a

substrate (photon) inhibition of the partial type[15] that had, to our knowledge, not yet been

described previously.

As the unitary conductance of ChRs is too small to be directly determined by single

channel recordings, we investigated the variance in photocurrent ensembles using stationary and

non-stationary noise analysis[16]. As ChR conductance approaches the detection limit in stationary

noise analysis[3,6,7,17], we upscaled data collection by automated patch-clamp (Syncropatch 384,

Nanion) operated in synchrony with LED-based illumination (Fig. S3). This way, we could

Figure 1. Electrophysiological characterization of ChRmine variants. a-e, Photocurrents of NG cells expressing channelrhodopsin variants were elicited at saturating light intensity (λ = 532 nm) and recorded by whole-cell patch-clamp at a membrane potential of -60 mV. **a**, Stationary-Peak-Ratios of the photocurrents of ChRmine-TS-EYFP-ES ("ChRmine", black circle, n=57), ChRmine-TS-EYFP-ES S220A ("ChRmine S220A", red triangle, n=38), ChRmine-TS-EYFP-ES T218L ("ChRmine T218L", blue rhombus, n=18) and ChRmine-TS-EYFP-ES T218L/S220A ("ChReef", magenta square, n=21). **b**, Current densities of ChRmine variants: stationary photocurrent densities of ChRmine (n=44), ChRmine S220A (n=35), ChRmine T218L (n=18) and ChReef (n=16) at saturating light intensity. (λ = 532 nm) **c**, Stationary photocurrent densities of Chronos-EYFP (yellow pentagon, λ = 473 nm, n=14), Chrimson-EYFP (red hexagon, λ = 594 nm, n=8, f-Chrimson-EYFP (green rhombus, λ = 594 nm, n=11, [18]), CatCh-EYFP (blue triangle, λ = 473 nm, n=11) and ChR2-EYFP T159C (cyan triangle, λ = 473 nm, n=9) at saturating light intensities, ChRmine and ChReef replotted for comparison. **d**, Channel closing kinetics of ChR variants. τ_{off} values of Chronos-EYFP (pentagon, λ = 473 nm, n=8), Chrimson-EYFP (λ = 594 nm, n=5 [from ref. [18]]), f-Chrimson-EYFP (λ = 594 nm, n=5, [from ref. [18]]), CatCh-EYFP (λ = 473 nm, n=9) and ChR2-EYFP T159C (λ = 473 nm, n=8), ChRmine (λ = 532 nm, n=7) and ChReef (λ = 532 nm, n=7). **e**, Exemplary photocurrent traces of ChRmine, ChRmine S220A, ChRmine T218L and ChReef. **f**, Light intensity dependence of the normalized stationary photocurrents of ChRmine (n=7), ChRmine S220A (n=4), ChRmine T218L (n=4) and ChReef (n=4) (λ = 532 nm). The solid lines colored in red, blue, and magenta show fits to the data using a hyperbolic function. The black solid line shows a fit to the data using an equation describing a substrate inhibition of the partial type (see online methods). **g-k**, Noise analysis of ChRmine and ChReef photocurrents. **g, i**, Exemplary plots showing the difference of the power spectral densities (PSD) of whole-cell currents recorded from HEK293T cells expressing ChReef **(g)** or ChRmine **(i)** under light and dark conditions at a membrane potential of -100 mV. The PSD difference was normalized to the fitted value at 0 Hz. Solid lines: fit to the PSD difference by a single Lorentzian function, dashed line: fit by a double Lorentzian function. **h**, Non-stationary noise analysis of whole-cell photocurrents recorded at a membrane potential of -100 mV: relation between the variance of an exemplary ChReef photocurrent and its average value. Thin line: moving average of the variance, bold line: linear fit to the data. **j**, Statistical comparison of single channel conductance values of ChRmine, ChReef and CatCh obtained by stationary (grey circles for ChRmine, magenta squares for ChReef and blue triangles for CatCh) and non-stationary (grey hexagons for ChRmine and magenta diamonds for ChReef) noise analyses. **k**, Statistical comparison of PSD form factor values for ChRmine (grey circles) and ChReef (magenta squares). The form factor is defined as the ratio of mean ΔPSD values at 7.5 to 12.5 Hz (region between the red lines depicted in panels a and c) and 75 to 125 Hz (region between the yellow lines depicted in panels f and g). ($p < 0.05$ (*), 0.005 (**), 0.001 (***), 0.0001(****), the comparisons were done using Tukey´s HSD (honestly significant difference test). **a-j**, The symbols in **(b)** and horizontal bars in **(a-d, j, k)** indicate average values, the error bars show SD **(a-d, f, j, k).**

simultaneously record ensembles of photocurrents from dozens of HEK293 cells (holding

potential: –100 mV) elicited by blue light for the efficient ChR2 mutant CatCh[17] or green light for

ChRmine (Fig. S3).

Strict quality measures, regarding background noise ($I_{RMS,\ dark}$ < 5.5 pA) and stationary

photocurrent size (> 200 pA), limited the number of suitable recordings to 14/149 for CatCh and

12/71 for ChRmine. Still, a sample size sufficing statistical comparison could be obtained within

days, due to the highly parallelized approach. Fitting the power spectra with Lorentzian functions

revealed a significantly larger single channel conductance of ChRmine compared to CatCh (Fig.

1i, j, ChRmine: 88.8 ± 39.6 fS, n=12 vs. CatCh: 34.8 ± 25.1 fS, n=14, p < 0.001). We confirmed this

finding by non-stationary noise analysis (Fig. 1g, Fig. S4, 111.3 ± 33.2 fS (n=17); holding potential:

–100 mV) using short (5 ms) light pulses at a rate of 0.2 Hz to avoid desensitization. The stationary

noise analysis provided further insight into ChRmine function: in addition to the power spectral

density in the low frequency range (2.5 to 25 Hz) it also exhibited a pronounced shoulder at

higher frequencies (75 to 125 Hz – yellow lines, Fig. 1i). This likely indicates the presence of a

second, short-lived open state. We hypothesize that this state results from absorption of a

second photon, inducing a parallel low conducting photocycle that underlies the observed

substrate inhibition. Parallel photocycles have been implicated in desensitization of green algal

ChRs[19,20].

Minimization of light-dependent inactivation results in exceptionally high stationary

photocurrents

With the objective of optimizing ChRmine for life sciences and medical applications, we

investigated the effect of mutations at the homologous position (F219Y) and the adjacent

positions (T218L and S220A) to the F219Y mutation in helix 6 of ChR2, which significantly

accelerated channel closing in green algal ChRs[18]. The electrophysiological characterization of the

ChRmine mutants was carried out by manual and automated patch-clamp experiments in NG-

and HEK293 cells, respectively. ChRmine F219Y showed strongly reduced photocurrents and

channel closing kinetics (ChRmine F219Y: $\tau_{off\,(-60\,mV)} = 58.1 \pm 5.4$ ms, n=19) similar to ChRmine wt

(ChRmine wt: $\tau_{off\,(-60\,mV)} = 63.5 \pm 15.7$ ms, n=7) (Fig. S5, Fig. S6). We also also found similar τ_{off}

values for ChRmine T218L ($\tau_{off\,(-60\,mV)} = 59.1 \pm 21.3$ ms, n=7) and ChRmine T218L/S220A ("ChReef")

($\tau_{off\,(-60\,mV)} = 58.3 \pm 12.5$ ms, n=7, $\tau_{off\,(-60\,mV)}$ at 36 °C: 35 ± 3 ms, n=6) (Table S1, Fig. S5, Fig. S6),

whereas ChRmine S220A had slower channel closing kinetics ($\tau_{off\,(-60\,mV)} = 152.7 \pm 19.8$ ms, n=6).

Importantly, ChRmine T218L, ChRmine S220A and ChReef showed a regular light

dependence (hyperbolic, sigmoidal on log-scale, Fig. 1f). Hence, the helix 6 mutants lacked the

light-dependent inactivation process found in wild-type ChRmine. In line with this notion,

photocurrent desensitization was strongly reduced in the mutants (Fig. 1a, S Fig. S1,

Supplementary Table 1): from ChRmine T218L (Stationary-Peak-Ratio: 0.44 ± 0.13, n=18), to

ChRmine S220A (Stationary-Peak-Ratio: 0.62 ± 0.14, n=38) and ChReef (Stationary-Peak-Ratio:

0.62 ± 0.15, n=21). ChReef showed the largest stationary photocurrent density, considerably

exceeding most of current state of the art ChRs (Fig. 1c, d, Supplementary Table 1 and 2) (ChReef:

97.6 ± 65.0 pA/pF, n=16 vs. ChRmine WT (21.6 ± 15.8 pA/pF, n=44), except for the blue light

activated and slowly deactivating ($\tau_{off\,(-60\,mV)} = 279 \pm 86$ ms, n=31) green algal ChR *Co*ChR

H94E/L112C/K264T (CoChR-3M)[21] (Fig. S5). We consider ChReef better suited for future

optogenetic therapies than *Co*ChR-3M, because of its more red-shifted action spectrum and its

much faster channel closing kinetics. These properties reduce the risk of phototoxic effects and

enables photostimulation at higher frequencies (Fig. 1d, Fig. S5, Fig. S7). Ion permeability ratio

determinations from the shift of the reversal potential upon ion replacement using the Goldman–

Hodgkin–Katz equation showed that the ion permeability ratios were not significantly different

in ChReef and ChRmine wt (Fig. S8). ChReef is an unselective cation channel (P_K/P_{Na} ~ 1) that

exhibits a considerable proton conductance (P_H/P_{Na} ~ 10^5) and virtually no calcium conductance.

In comparison, ChR2 has muhigher proton and calcium permeability (e.g. ChR2 variant CatCh[17]:

P_H/P_{Na} ~ 10^6, P_{Ca}/P_{Na} ~ 0.15, [17]). Hence, ChReef provides lower risk for possible adverse effects

resulting from Ca^{2+} and H^+ influx, which may arise upon long-term optogenetic stimulation.

Next, we determined the single channel conductance of ChReef which is statistically

indistinguishable to ChRmine (Fig. 1j; 81.9 ± 34.7 fS, n=13, stationary noise analysis and 100.5 ±

38.0 fS, n=15, non-stationary noise analysis). The high-frequency power spectral density

component found in ChRmine was not detectable for ChReef (Fig 1g, l, k), which we propose to

reflect a considerably accelerated transition of the parallel photocycle open state into the main

photocycle that results in the minimization of the light-dependent inactivation (Fig. 1 f). The

finding that the channel closing kinetics of ChRmine and ChReef could be fitted to a mono-

exponential function indicates that the short-lived second open state does not noticeably

contribute to the stationary photocurrent of ChRmine, in line with the suggested role of a parallel

photocycle in photocurrent reduction. The photocurrent desensitization kinetics of the ChRmine

variants at saturating light intensities could be approximated by a bi-exponential function (τ_{DES1}

~ τ_{off}, τ_{DES2} > 1 s, Fig. S9). The relative amplitude of the slowly desensitizing component was much

smaller in ChReef than in ChRmine wt (Fig. S9), indicating the contribution of a slow process,

likely substrate inhibition of the partial type, to photocurrent desensitization in ChRmine wt.

Photocurrent desensitization generally results from the difference in the distribution of open and

closed states before (peak current at high intensities) and at steady-state (stationary current).

Experiments at suboptimal wavelength ($\lambda \sim 632$ nm) and subsaturating intensities (~ 1 mW/mm^2)

showed that even without sizable peak current the stationary photocurrent of ChReef remained

elevated (Figs. S10 and S11). The combination of high unitary conductance and minimal light-

dependent inactivation qualifies ChReef for efficient and sustained optogenetic stimulation.

Optogenetic stimulation of cardiac tissue

To assess the utility of ChReef for life science applications and future optogenetic therapies, we

turned to the cardiac, visual, and auditory systems. We first benchmarked ChReef to ChRmine

for pacing cardiomyocyte (CM) clusters generated from neonatal mouse hearts and upon near

complete AAV2/9 mediated-ChR expression (Figure 2a,b; 96 ± 1,8% for ChReef and 98 ± 0,5% for

ChRmine, N=2 isolations and n=5 coverslips each, unpaired student t-test, p = 0.11). We achieved

reliable optical pacing at 1 Hz with green (510 nm, 5 ms) and red (630 nm, 50 ms) light pulses at

irradiances below 100 µW/mm^2 and 350 µW/mm^2, respectively in both ChReef- and ChRmine-

CMs (Fig. S12a-c). Higher pacing rates increased the light requirement, in particular for red light

for which we found significantly lower pacing thresholds with ChReef at rates of ≥3 Hz (Fig. S12d-

f), likely reflecting the higher steady-state currents mediated by ChReef (Fig. S10 and S11).

Optogenetic cardiac defibrillation of ventricular arrhythmia[22–24] and cardioversion of

atrial arrhythmia[23,25,26] are exciting targets for future clinical translational[27]. Here, we compared

the efficiency of ChReef and ChRmine for inducing a depolarization block of CMs, considered the

most effective mechanism for optogenetic termination of cardiac arrhythmia[28]. Continuous

illumination with green light prevented electrically-evoked contraction of CM clusters with

significantly lower light requirements for ChReef than for ChRmine, while no effect was found in

non-transduced control CM clusters (Fig. 2c, d). Using red light revealed an even stronger

advantage of ChReef for depolarization block of CMs: contraction was prevented in 14 of 15

ChReef-expressing clusters compared to only 7 of 17 ChRmine-expressing clusters (Fig. 2e, f).

Figure 2. Optical prevention of electrical excitation of cardiac cell clusters. a-b, Image of a cardiac cell cluster comprising neonatal mouse cardiomyocytes identified by cardiac troponin I staining (white) expressing ChRmine (green) with nuclei stained by Hoechst in blue, bar equals 50 μm. **b**, Image of a cardiac cell cluster comprising neonatal mouse cardiomyocytes identified by cardiac troponin I staining (white) expressing ChReef (green) with nuclei stained by Hoechst in blue, bar equals 50 μm. **c**, Representative traces of contractions of cardiac cell clusters expressing ChRmine (left) and ChReef (middle) or wild type controls (right, representative example for 4 cardiac cell clusters) induced by electrical stimulation (black dots: 0.2 ms biphasic, 45 V) and prevented by continuous illumination with green light (green bar: 510 nm, 5 s, 36 μW/mm^2 for ChRmine and 14 μW/mm^2 for ChReef and 1 mW/mm^2 for WT). Note the still existing contractions during the illumination in the WT example defined as unsuccessful termination. **d**, Aggregated data of the required light intensities to inhibit electrical excitation with green light for ChRmine (black) and ChReef (red) expressing cardiac cell clusters. Statistical comparison with a two-sided unpaired student's t test (p = 0.001, N = 3 individual isolations and AAV transductions; n = 15 for ChRmine expressing cardiac cell clusters and 14 for ChReef). **e**, Representative traces of contractions of cardiac cell clusters expressing ChRmine (left) and ChReef (middle) and one wild type cardiac cell cluster (right) induced by electrical stimulation (black dots: 0.2 ms biphasic, 45 V) and the effect of continuous illumination with red light (red bar: 630 nm, 5 s, 1 mW/mm^2 for ChRmine and 100 μW/mm^2 for ChReef and 1 mW/mm^2 for WT). Note the still existing contractions during the illumination in the ChRmine example defined as unsuccessful termination. **f**, Aggregated data of the efficiency in preventing contractions with red light (maximal light intensity: 1 mW/mm^2) for ChRmine and ChReef expressing cardiac cell clusters. Statistical analysis was performed with Fisher´s exact contingency test (p = 0.0028; N = 3 individual isolations and AAV transductions; n = 17 individual cardiac cell clusters for ChRmine and 15 for ChReef).

In line with the results from neonatal mouse CMs, we found similar effects in human induced pluripotent stem cell (hIPSC) derived CMs in which the increase in required light intensities with higher pacing frequencies was also significantly more pronounced for ChRmine compared to ChReef (Fig S13a-d). The depolarization block was only achievable in 6 out of 19 CM clusters expressing ChRmine, but in all ChReef-expressing CM clusters using red light (Fig S13e). This seems highly relevant, as sustained depolarization of the heart muscle upon long wavelength light would be required for future transmural optogenetic termination of arrhythmia[29].

Optogenetic vision restoration

Optogenetic restoration of vision is currently being evaluated in clinical trials. In the PIONEER trial, intravitreal injection of AAVs is used to express ChrimsonR in retinal ganglion cells (RGCs)[2]. A current disadvantage of this approach is that the low light sensitivity requires light-amplifying goggles that employ relatively high light intensities. This limits the dynamic range of optogenetic encoding of visual information and poses a potential risk of phototoxicity for long-term use. Here, we tested the potential of expressing ChReef and ChRmine in retinal ganglion cells for low light optogenetic vision restoration in the rd1 mouse model of retinopathy[30]. AAV-PHP.eB carrying either of the EYFP-tagged ChRs under the control of the human synapsin (hsyn) promotor were intravitreally injected (Fig. 3a). Despite the use of the general neuronal hsyn promoter, opsin expression was largely limited to the RGC and inner plexiform layers of the retina (Fig. S14). Opsin expression in coronal brain slices was evident for RGC axons in the lateral geniculate nucleus and superior colliculus (Fig. S15). Responses to optogenetic stimulation of the eye to a green LED or an iPad screen positioned close to the mouse eye were recorded by multielectrode arrays inserted into the contralateral primary visual cortex (V1) 3-4 weeks after AAV-administration (Fig. 3b). Single-unit V1 activity could be elicited by full field LED flashes of 200 ms duration at 1 Hz in both ChReef and ChRmine-injected mice (Fig. 3c-f, Fig. S16).

For both ChReef and ChRmine, we observed cells that responded at light intensities as low as 0.25 $\mu W/mm^2$ (50 nJ/mm^2, Fig. 3d arrows and Fig. S16a), which is around the light intensities observed in indoor settings[31] demonstrating high light sensitivity conferred to retinal ganglion cells by both ChRs. Importantly, ChReef injected animals showed stronger and more sustained V1 activity compared to ChRmine, especially at low light intensities (Fig. 3c-f, Fig. S16).

In further support of high sensitivity vision restoration, full-field stimuli presented to the eye from

an iPad screen also elicited V1 activity in both ChRmine and ChReef injected mice (Fig. 3g-i).

Again, V1 activity was stronger and more sustained in ChReef compared to ChRmine expressing

animals (Fig. 3i). This indicates that ChReef enables the use of computer screens for versatile

visual stimulation in vision research and for restoring vision in blind patients at lower light

intensities.

Figure 3. ChReef-mediated vision restoration in rd1 mice has low light requirements

a, Schematic representation of the intravitreal injection approach (left) and expression pattern

of both opsins - ChRmine and ChReef – in retinas of rd1 mice after intravitreal injection (right).

Scale bar represents 0.5 mm. **b**, Vision-restored mice were presented with 200 ms flashes of green

light (530 nm) while recording extracellularly in primary visual cortex using 32-channel silicon
probes (left). An example brain slice showing the probe's insertion site in V1 (right, electrode
track marked by CellTracker™ CM-DiI). Scale bar represents 0.5mm. **c**, Raster plots of two
example single units recorded in V1 of ChRmine- and ChReef-injected mice. **d**, Normalized
average firing rates of V1 single units in response to varying light intensities. Line and shaded
area represent mean ± SEM. Gray lines indicate time clusters of significant difference between
the two conditions (Permutation test: see Methods, p (from top to bottom, Bonferroni-Holm
corrected) = 0.4062, 0.5021, 0.0162, 0.0042, 0.0048, 0.0066), n = 151 cells in 6 mice (ChRmine),
123 cells in 6 mice (ChReef)). **e**, Average normalized firing rate during the stimulus window for
the same neurons as in d (Mann-Whitney-U-test, p (from top to bottom, Bonferroni-Holm
corrected) = 0.2349, 0.1468, 0.0671, 0.0451, 0.0001, 0.0049). Central line indicates median, box
includes data from 25th to 75th percentile and the whiskers span the most extreme data points
not considering outliers (empty circles). **f** Average normalized firing rate during the stimulus
window as in **e**. Error bars represent ± SEM. **g**, Schematic depicts the experimental approach for
h-i. In contrast to green LED flashes, here we employed an iPad screen to present white, full-field
flashes of 200 ms. **h**, Raster plots of two example V1 neurons are shown. **i**, Normalized firing rates
of V1 single units in response to the iPad-delivered full-field flash, n = 90 cells in 5 mice (ChRmine),
110 cells in 6 mice (ChReef). Line and shaded area represent mean ± SEM. Inset shows the
average normalized firing rate during the stimulus for the same cells (Mann-Whitney-U-test, p =
0.0093).
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To test if ChReef expression in the retina of rd1 mice enables behavioral responses to light, we

performed the light-room/dark-room test (Fig. S17a). This tests an innate behavior of sighted

mice to spend more time in the dark-room [32,33]. First, we used epifluorescence imaging to confirm

robust YFP expression in the retina of intravitreally AAV-PHP.eB-hSyn-ChReef injected rd1 mice

(Fig. S17b). Next, we placed injected rd1 mice as well as wildtype control (WT) and untreated rd1

mice in the light-room/dark-room environment. To control for a potential room bias, the

experiment was repeated four times while alternating which room was lighted. As previously

established[32], we found that sighted WT mice spent the majority of their time in the dark-room,

whereas rd1 mice did not show a preference between the two rooms (Fig. S17c). Notably, all rd1

mice were outside three standard deviations (SDs) of the WT distribution. We thus used 3 SDs of

the wildtype distribution as a threshold for defining if a mouse was sighted or blind. We found

that rd1-ChReef mice were below this threshold, and thus, similar to sighted mice (Fig. S17c),

preferred the dark-room revealing partial restoration of vision.

Optogenetic stimulation of the auditory pathway

Optogenetics promises to improve the restoration of hearing by cochlear implants (CIs)[4,5].

Electrical CIs (eCIs) used in currently ~1 M otherwise deaf users, bypass dysfunctional or lost

sensory hair cells by direct electrical stimulation of spiral ganglion neurons (SGNs). eCIs typically

enable 1-to-1 conversation in a quiet environment, yet, understanding speech in background

noise remains a major unmet clinical need[34]. Optogenetic SGN stimulation could transform CI

hearing as light, different from current, can be confined in space. Hence, optical CI (oCI) provide

near natural spectral selectivity of optogenetic SGN stimulation, outperforming the eCI[35,36]. One

of the challenges for clinical translation of the optical CI (oCI) is the increased power budget that

results from upscaling the number of stimulation channels (oCI: 64 planned vs. eCI: 12-24) and

the higher energy required per stimulus[4,5]. Using the ChRs currently available, pulse energy

thresholds for optogenetic SGN stimulation range from 1.500 nJ to 12.000 nJ[5] compared to 50 nJ

for eCI[37]. Reducing the required pulse energy by greater light efficiency of optogenetic SGN

stimulation remains a key objective *en route* to clinical translation of the oCI. Here, we employed

physiological analysis of the auditory system in mice and gerbils for assessing the potential of

ChReef for energy-efficient optogenetic SGN stimulation.

First, we studied optogenetic stimulation at the levels of SGN population as well as of individual

SGNs and cochlear nucleus neurons in C57B/6J mice 3-10 weeks after early postnatal

intracochlear injection of AAV2/9 carrying ChReef or ChRmine. Expression of both ChR variants

under the control of the human synapsin promotor was found in approximately 75% of the SGNs

(Fig. 4b) and line profile analysis confirmed targeting to the cell membrane (Fig. 4c). Optically

evoked auditory brainstem responses (oABR, Fig. 4a-g) were elicited in all mice upon stimulation

with green (522 nm, optimal excitation) and orange (594 nm) light delivered by a laser-coupled

optical fiber to the cochlea. oABR energy thresholds of ChReef expressing mice (Fig. 4g, 522 nm:

170 ± 120 nJ, n = 10 vs. 270 ± 240 nJ, n = 10 for ChRmine; p = 0.127, t-$test$) were a magnitude

lower than the previously reported lowest threshold found with f-Chrimson[18] (1.500 ± 100 nJ, p

< 0.0005). ChReef oABR thresholds were significantly lower than those for ChRmine for longer

wavelength light (594 nm, 1.250 ± 1070 nJ, n=16 vs. 2.450 ± 1.160 nJ, n = 13; p = 0.004, t-test)

relevant for future clinical oCI. Next, we investigated the potential of ChReef for optogenetic

restoration of auditory function in two mouse models of deafness: i) acute ototoxic (kanamycin)

ablation of hair cells and ii) genetic disruption of otoferlin, a synaptic protein essential for

synaptic sound encoding[38]. oABR thresholds and latencies remained unaltered in both models

(Fig. 4g, S18). To evaluate the temporal fidelity of optogenetic SGN stimulation, we recorded

oABRs in response to green (522nm) and orange (594nm) light pulses at different stimulation

rates (1 ms, 10 mW, Fig. 4i) and pulse durations (Fig. 4h). oABR amplitudes declined with

increasing stimulation rate, whereby ChReef showed detectable oABRs to stimulation rates up to

100 Hz compared to 50 Hz for ChRmine. Both ChReef and ChRmine enabled oABRs in response

to 20 μs-long durations of green light pulses whereby the duration eliciting the maximal P1-N1

oABR amplitude was shorter for ChReef (Fig. 4i: 200 μs for ChReef vs. 600 μs).

Figure 4. ChReef-mediated optogenetic stimulation of the mouse auditory nerve has low light requirements and acceptable temporal fidelity. a, Schematic representation of optical auditory brainstem recordings (oABR) and juxtacellular recordings from single putative spiral ganglion neurons (SGNs). **b**, Mid-modiolar cochlear slice at the apical turn displaying SGN transduction (Parvalbumin - magenta) and transduction (GFP - green). **c,** Line profile analysis in single SGNs for ChRmine and ChReef expressing SGN- Relative GFP fluorescence of ChRmine and ChReef transduced SGNs by the distance from the cellular membrane. **d**, Density of GFP positive cells across all cochlear turns for ChRmine (black) and ChReef (magenta) injected mice. **e,f**, exemplary traces for oABRs driven with varying radiant flux (1 ms pulses at 10 Hz, colors code the radiant energy in μJ) for exemplary mice injected with AAV2/9-hSyn-ChReef-ES-EYFP-TS (**e**) or AAV2/9-

hSyn-ChRmine-ES-EYFP-TS (**f**). **g**, Energy threshold of oABRs for ChReef (magenta) and ChRmine
(black) using both 522 nm (left panel, data presented on separate axis) and 594 nm (right panel)
light: center line: mean, box: median, error bars: 75 percentile, n=15 mice for ChReef and n=12
mice for ChRmine (*p = 0.004, t-test). **h**, P1-N1 amplitudes of oABRs for varying pulse durations
using ~10 mW pulses at 10 Hz (mean ± SD). **i**, P1-N1 amplitudes of oABRs at varying repetition
rates using 1 ms, 10 mW pulses (mean ± SD) with 522 nm (ChReef: magenta; ChRmine: black). **j**,
Exemplary responses of SGNs to 1ms, ~6mW pulses at 20Hz illustrating two SGN response
categories: single spike responding (<=1.1spikes per pulse, black) and multiple spike responding
SGNs (>1.1 spike per pulse, blue). **k**, Energy threshold of individual SGNs and median threshold
(n=10, criteria: spike per pulse > 0.005, vector strength > 0.3). **l,m**, Median of first spike latency
and first spike jitter for single spike (n=11) and for multiple spike (n=7) responding pSGNs. **n, o,**
Spike probability and vector strength of single spike and multiple spike responding SGNs at
varying stimulation rates (samples size as in l, m).

To further scrutinize the temporal SGN response to ChReef-mediated optogenetic stimulation

(1ms, 6 mW, 20Hz, delivered as for oABR), we turned to *in vivo* recordings from single 'putative

SGNs' (here forth coined SGNs)[18,39,40] (Fig. 4a). Approximately two-thirds of the SGNs responded

with a single spike and the other third with multiple spikes (mostly 2-3 but some with more tonic

discharge, Fig. 4j, l-n), reminiscent of responses of CatCh-expressing SGNs in Mongolian gerbils[41].

Single SGN energy thresholds (Fig. 4k, < 2.000 nJ) tended to be higher than oABR thresholds but

still much lower than all previously reported values (>6.000 nJ, for f-Chrimson, vf-Chrimson and

Chronos[40,42]). First spike latency and first spike latency jitter were comparable among the two

SGN groups (Fig. 4l, m). Next, we studied spike probability and spike synchronization with the

stimulus (vector strength) as a function of stimulation rate for both SGN groups (Fig. 4n-p).

Consistent with the oABR, many SGNs failed to reliably follow stimulus rates beyond 50 Hz (Fig.

4i). Both, recordings of oABRs and single SGNs entailed optogenetic stimulation over several

hours without obvious loss of responsiveness along the experiment. Finally, we performed patch-

clamp recordings of optogenetically (green-light) driven synaptic transmission from ChReef-

expressing SGNs to bushy cells in acute slices of the cochlear nucleus (Fig. S20). Excitatory

postsynaptic recordings were reliably evoked for rates of optogenetic stimulation ≤50 Hz.

To assess the potential of ChReef for future optogenetic hearing restoration, we measured the

spectral spread of excitation in the cochlea, a limiting factor of eCIs. We performed

multielectrode array recordings of multi-unit activity in the inferior colliculus (IC[35], Fig. 5a, Fig.

S22) of Mongolian gerbils in response to green light (522 nm) elicited either by an optical fiber or

LED-based multichannel cochlear implants[43]. Following postnatal cochlear injection of AAV-

PHP.S-hSyn-ChReef (Fig. 5b, Fig. S21), we recorded ChReef-mediated oABRs and moved on to IC

recordings in gerbils with low oABR thresholds (215.5 ± 153 nJ, *n*=10, Fig. S22). The energy

threshold for 1 ms light stimuli to elicit multi-unit activity in the IC (d'prime of 1) amounted to

101 ± 73 nJ for optical fiber stimulation (*n* = 10) and 238.5 ± 235 nJ when stimulating with single

LEDs (531 nm, 11 LEDs in n=2 gerbils, Fig 5c, Fig. S24c). The temporal fidelity of multi-unit activity

(Fig. S23) was consistent with results obtained in mouse SGNs (Fig. 4). The spread of excitation

with fiber and LED stimulation was comparable to the natural hearing, i.e. found with pure tones

(Fig.5d-g, Fig. S24d). We found a clear shift of the center of excitation when addressing LEDs of

different tonotopic positions (Fig. S24a, b). We then turned to ototoxic deafening confirmed with

recordings among acoustic stimulation (Fig 5c, S22e). The energy threshold for 1 ms light stimuli

to elicit multi-unit activity (i.e. a d'prime of 1) amounted to 345.4.6 ± 349 nJ (Fig. 5c) and the

spectral spread remained comparable (Fig. S24d).

In an effort to further evaluate the potential of ChReef for clinical translation, we turned

to the common marmoset as a non-human primate model (Fig. 5h). AAV.PHP.eB-hSyn-ChReef

along with kanamycin was administered into the left cochlea of mature marmosets from a

micropump via a microcatheter inserted into scala tympani via the round window from a

posterior tympanotomy. In order to ensure efficient administration of the viral suspension and

to avoid cochlear pressure build up, a vent was generated next to the stapes footplate or by

stapes removal rupturing the oval window membrane.

Figure 5: Characterizing the optogenetic activation of the auditory pathway by inferior colliculus recordings in Mongolian gerbil and ABR in the Common marmoset

a, Schematic of experimental setup. **b**, Example image of gerbil cochlea showing ChReef (GFP; green) expression in spiral ganglion neuron (parvalbumin; red). Scale bar 50 µm. **c**, Neuronal thresholds computed as level eliciting a d' of 1. Type of stimulation from left to right: optical fiber (522 nm); LED; LED after deafening; acoustic stimulation at 19 kHz prior and after deafening. **d-g,** Exemplary spatial tuning curves (STC) for different stimulus modalities: 19 kHz stimulation (d), laser pulses delivered via optical fiber (e), optical stimulation delivered by single LED prior (f) and after deafening (g). White stars indicate the electrode with the smallest intensity to reach d' of 1 (best electrode). **h**, Schematic of experimental setup for marmosets. **i**, Confocal imaging of

ChReef expression in the apical turn of the left cochlea. 30% of SGNs identified with parvalbumin (red) weakly expressed eYFP. **j.** oABR recordings in a common marmoset resulting in successful activation of the auditory pathway. An optical fiber emitting green light (525 nm, top panel) was inserted through a cochleostomy enlargening the round window niche. Auditory responses were observed from 4.7 mW, with 1 ms long pulses while no responses were found even with 43 mW green light pointing directly at the facial nerve with pulses of 1 and even 5 ms duration (bottom panel).

11 weeks (75 ± 19 days; means ± SD) later we tested for oABRs to green light stimulation from an optical fiber placed into the round window and cochleostomies (Fig. S25a, b). This way, we could demonstrate first proof of concept for optogenetic hearing in one out of nine marmosets (Fig. 5j). No responses were elicited by directly illuminating the neighboring facial nerve with green light at maximally possible radiant fluxes. Histological examination revealed substantial ChReef expression in SGNs of the treated (left) cochlea in three out of nine animals (expression rate: 33 % [oABR positive], 23.3 % and 0.7 % SGN [oABR negative]). None of the SGNs across all turns of the right cochlea were positive (Fig. S25). Immunohistochemical analysis of whole mounts of the organ of Corti revealed near complete loss of hair cells on the kanamycin injected side (Fig. S26). Together, these data prove the principle of nano-Joule and sustained optogenetic stimulation of the rodent and primate auditory pathway, capitalizing on the higher single-channel conductance, longer open times, and sustained photocurrents of ChReef

Discussion

ChReef is a new optogenetic actuator for sustained optogenetic control of excitable cells enabling firing rates of up to 50-100 Hz with nano-Joule light requirements which we expect to facilitate a wide range of optogenetic applications. Combining good membrane targeting, higher single

channel conductance, moderate open times, and low photocurrent desensitization, ChReef

enabled breakthroughs in three different optogenetic applications: Efficient red-light

optogenetic excitation block of CMs, optogenetic vision restoration at low light intensities, and

lowering the energy threshold for optogenetic activation of the auditory pathway by one order

of magnitude. The closing kinetics of ChReef (~30 ms deactivation time constant) provide a good

match to the temporal fidelity required for optogenetic control of cardiomyocytes and retinal

ganglion cells. For the auditory system, the temporal fidelity of SGN stimulation was inferior to

that observed with ultrafast ChRs such as f-Chrimson, vf-Chrimson and Chronos (deactivation

time constants of 3, 1.5, and <1 ms at body temperature, respectively)[14,18,40,42]. Current eCI

coding strategies employ high stimulation rates (~1 kHz) for sampling the envelope of the sound

signal. However, good speech understanding was obtained at much lower rates (from 20 Hz[44]) in

the range achievable by ChReef-mediated SGN stimulation (up to ~100 Hz). Nonetheless, future

efforts should aim for generating ChReef variants with faster closing kinetics to enhance the

temporal fidelity of optogenetic stimulation and to shift the absorption to longer wavelengths

for better alignment with red-light laserdiode-based medical devices such as optical cochlear

implants. Moreover, enhancing target cell specific expression of ChReef variants by developing

optimal combinations of capsids and promoters and derisking the transgene by removing the

fluorescent tag remain important objectives for future studies prior to clinical translation.

Material and Methods

ChR variant generation

The humanized DNA sequence, coding for *Rl*CCR1-309 (*Rhodomonas lens ChR*, also called

ChRmine, accession number: MN194599[10,45]), C-terminally fused to TS-EYFP-ES was cloned into

the mammalian expression vector pcDNA3.1 (−) (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, USA). The previously

described targeting sequences of the inward rectifying potassium channel Kir2.1 (TS and ES) were

employed for optimized plasma membrane expression[8,13,14]. The mutations F219Y, T218L and

S220A were introduced into ChRmine by site-directed mutagenesis using the primers shown in

Supplementary Table 3.

The pcDNA3.1(-) derivatives carrying the humanized DNA sequences of Chronos-EYFP

(*Stigeoclonium helveticum* ChR, accession number: KF992040[46]), ChR2-EYFP (C-terminally

truncated variant Chop2-315 of ChR2 from *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, accession number:

AF461397[47]), CatCh-EYFP (ChR2 L132C), Chrimson-EYFP (*Chlamydomonas noctigama* ChR,

accession number: KF992060[46]) and f-Chrimson-EYFP (Chrimson Y261F/S267M[40]) were kindly

provided by Ernst Bamberg (MPI of Biophysics). The humanized DNA sequence, coding for *Co*ChR

(*Chloromonas oogama* ChR, accession number: KF992041[46,48], Addgene plasmid #59070), C-

terminally fused to EGFP and the humanized DNA sequence, coding for *Gt*CCR4 (*Guillardia theta*

ChR 4, accession number: MF039475.1[48,49]), C-terminally fused to EYFP, were cloned into the

mammalian expression vector pcDNA3.1 (−) (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, USA). The humanized DNA

sequence, coding for *Gt*CCR2 (*Guillardia theta* ChR 2, accession number: XM_005841372 [49]) C-

terminally fused to EYFP, cloned into the mammalian expression vector pcDNA3.1 (−) were

obtained from Addgene (plasmid # 159121). The previously described ChR variants ChR2 T159C[18],

ChRmine Y260F[9] and *Co*ChR H94E/L112C/K264Tv[50] were generated by site-directed mutagenesis

using the primers shown in Supplementary Table 3.

***In vitro* measurements**

Cell culture and transfection

The manual patch-clamp recordings of ChR variants were conducted in the neuroma glioblastoma

cell line NG108-15 (ATCC, HB-12377TM, Manassas, USA) cultured in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle

Medium (DMEM, Sigma, St. Louis, USA) supplemented with 10 % fetal calf serum (Sigma, St.

Louis, USA) and 1 % penicillin/streptomycin (Sigma, St. Louis, USA) (supplemented DMEM:

DMEM⁺) at 37 °C and 5 % CO_2. Cells were seeded on 24-well plates one day prior to transfection

by Lipofectamine with pcDNA3.1(-) derivatives carrying the aforementioned ChR variants at a

NG108-15 cell confluency of 50-70 %. For each well, a transfection mix of 100 µl DMEM, 3 µl

Lipofectamine LTX (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, USA) and 500 ng of the pcDNA3.1(-) derivatives was

prepared and added to a well with 400 µl of DMEM⁺. Twenty-four hours after transfection the

medium was exchanged against 500 µl DMEM⁺ supplemented with 1 µM all-trans retinal.

For automated patch-clamp recordings, HEK293T cells (DSMZ, Braunschweig, Germany)

or NG108-15 (ATCC, HB-12377TM, Manassas, USA) cells were seeded in a T75 culture flasks or 6-

well plates and allowed to grow for one day before transfection. The cells were seeded at a

density of 16 thousands cells/cm² in DMEM⁺ (initial concentration before adhesion 80 thousands

cells/ml). For noise analysis experiments transfection of HEK293T cells was done in T75 flasks.

Immediately prior to transfection, the media was replaced with 12 mL of OptiMEM

(ThermoFisher, Waltham, Massachusetts, U.S.) with 1.25 µM all-trans-retinal (Sigma, St. Louis,

MO, U.S.). Then, 19.5 µg of plasmid DNA and 78.1 µg of polyethyleneimine (PEI, Polysciences,

Warrington, PA, U.S.) were separately dissolved in 1.5 ml of OptiMEM (ThermoFisher, Waltham,

Massachusetts, U.S.) each. The DNA and PEI solutions were then combined and incubated for 15

minutes at room temperature. The resulting DNA/PEI mix was added to the cells and incubated

at 37°C and 5% CO_2 for 4 hours. After transfection, the media in the flask was changed back to

DMEM$^+$ supplemented with 1 μM all-trans-retinal. The cells were then incubated at 37°C and 5%

CO_2 for 40 hours prior to the automated patch-clamp experiment. For all other experiments with

automated patch-clamp transfections of HEK293T or NG108-15 cells were done in 6-well plates

without prior media exchange. For each well 2.5 μg of plasmid DNA and 7.5 μg of PEI were

separately dissolved in 0.2 ml of OptiMEM. The DNA and PEI solutions were then combined and

incubated for 15 minutes at room temperature. The resulting DNA/PEI mix was added to the

wells of 6-well plate and incubated at 37°C and 5% CO_2 for 16 hours. After transfection, the media

in the flask was exchanged to new DMEM$^+$ supplemented with 1 μM all-trans-retinal. The cells

were then incubated at 37°C and 5% CO_2 for 28 hours prior to the automated patch-clamp

experiment.

Manual patch-clamp recordings and data analysis

The electrophysiological characterization of the ChR variants was conducted by whole cell patch-

clamp recordings of transiently transfected NG108-15 cells at membrane potential of -60 mV, if

not stated differently. Cells were patched two days after transfection under voltage-clamp

conditions using the Axopatch 200B amplifier (Axon Instruments, Union City, USA) and the

DigiData1322A interface (Axon Instruments, Union City, USA). Patch pipettes with a resistance of

2-6 MΩ were fabricated from thin-walled borosilicate glass on a horizontal puller (Model P-1000,

Sutter Instruments, Novato, USA). The series resistance was <15 MΩ. The bath solution contained

140mM NaCl, 2mM $CaCl_2$, 2mM $MgCl_2$, 10mM HEPES, pH 7.4; and the pipette solution contained

110mM NaCl, 2mM MgCl$_2$, 10mM EGTA, 10mM HEPES, pH 7.4. All recordings were performed at

room temperature (20°C)**.** Light pulses were applied by a fast computer-controlled shutter

(Uniblitz LS6ZM2, Vincent Associates, Rochester, USA) using diode-pumped solid-state lasers

focused into an optic fiber (d=400 μm). The open-source statistic software "R" as well as Origin

9.0 (OriginLab, Inc., Northampton, MA, USA) and GraphPad Prism (GraphPad Software, La Jolla,

CA, USA) were employed for data analysis.

The photocurrents of the ChRmine variants were measured in response to green light pulses

(λ=532 nm) of varying duration with a saturating intensity of 23 mW/mm^2. The photocurrents of

Chronos, Catch and ChR2 T159C were measured upon the application of blue light pulses (λ=473

nm) of varying duration with a saturating intensity of 31 mW/mm^2. The stationary current

densities ($J_{-60\,mV}$) of the ChRmine variants were calculated as the quotient of the mean stationary

current upon stimulation with a 2 s light pulse and the capacitance of the cell. The stationary

current densities ($J_{-60\,mV}$) of Chronos, Catch and ChR2 T159C were calculated as the quotient of

the mean stationary current upon stimulation with a 0.5 s light pulse and the capacitance of the

cell. To avoid an experimental bias, cells were chosen for the recordings independent of the

brightness of their fluorescent signal.

The stationary-peak-ratio of the photocurrents of the ChRmine variants was calculated as the

quotient of the mean stationary current upon stimulation with a 2 s light pulse and the peak

current. The peak recovery of the ChRmine variants was assessed by photocurrent recordings

upon illumination with two subsequent 3 s light pulses with a varying time between the light

pulses (Δt between pulses, ms, ranging from 50 to 3350 ms). Peak recovery was calculated as the

quotient of the difference between the peak and stationary current of pulse two (I_{p2}-I_{s2}) and peak

and stationary current of pulse one (I_{p1}-I_{s1}) in %. The time constant of the peak recovery ($\tau_{peak\text{-}}$

$_{recovery}$) was determined by a fit of the quotient of the difference between the peak and stationary

currents of two subsequent 3s light pulses at saturating intensity to a monoexponential function.

The light intensity dependence of the stationary photocurrent of the ChRmine variants was

investigated by photocurrent measurements upon illumination with 2 s light pulses (λ=532 nm).

The EC$_{50}$ values were determined by hyperbolic fitting. For ChRmine wt the fitting range was

thereby restricted to the range, which could be approximated by a hyperbolic function. The light

intensity dependence of ChRmine wt was furthermore fitted to an equation corresponding to a

steady state minimal kinetic model describing a substrate inhibition of the partial type [15]:

$$I = I_{max}\frac{\left(1 + \frac{E}{K_i}R_c\right)E}{\left(1 + \frac{E}{K_i}\right)E + K_a} \qquad \text{[Equation 1]}$$

I: stationary photocurrent, I_{max}: maximal stationary photocurrent if $K_i \rightarrow \infty$, E: irradiance, R_c:

effective ratio of single channel currents (i_1/i_2), K_a: effective equilibrium constant for light

dependent closed (C) to open transitions (O1), K_i: effective equilibrium constant for light

dependent transitions between open states (O1/O2). The light intensity dependence shown in

Figure 1 was fitted with the following parameters: K_a=0.021±0.005, K_i=0.062±0.029,

R_c=0.47±0.05. Although the informative value of the fitted parameters is limited due to the

absence of a more detailed description of the ChRmine photocycle, which could serve as a basis

for a precise kinetic model, the fit demonstrates that the light intensity dependence of the

stationary photocurrent of ChRmine resembles a substrate inhibition of the partial type.

The τ_{off} values of all shown ChR variants were determined by a fit of the decaying

photocurrent elicited in response to a 3 ms light pulse to a monoexponential function. In order

to investigate the dependence of the off-kinetics on the membrane potential τ_{off} values were

determined at membrane potentials ranging from -120 mV to +60 mV.

The action spectra of the ChRmine variants were determined by peak current recordings in

response to ns-light-pulses of wavelengths ranging from 430 to 590 nm with pulse energies at

the different wavelengths set to equal photon counts of $5*10^{18}$ photons/m^2 using the Opolette

355 tunable laser system (Opotek Inc, Carlsbad, USA).

Automated patch-clamp recordings and data analysis

The automated patch-clamp recordings were done using Syncropatch 384 (Nanion, Munich,

Germany) equipped with prototype illumination units. The Syncropatch 384 robot was operated

using the Biomek v2.1 software. The data was acquired using the PatchControl v2.1 software.

The cells that were transfected were washed twice with DPBS (ThermoFisher, Waltham,

Massachusetts, U.S.) and then treated with 3 ml of TrypLE (ThermoFisher, Waltham,

Massachusetts, U.S.) at 37°C for 7 minutes (HEK293T) or 15 minutes (NG108-15). After the TrypLE

treatment, 3 ml of standard external solution was added to the cells and incubated at 4°C for 5

minutes. The standard external solution was composed of 140 mM NaCl, 4 mM KCl, 2 mM CaCl$_2$,

1 mM MgCl$_2$, and 10 mM HEPES, with pH adjusted to 7.4 using NaOH. The osmolarity of the

solution was set to 298 mOsm by adjusting the concentration of glucose. The cells were then

resuspended by pipetting and centrifuged at 200 g for 10 minutes, and the supernatant was

discarded. Finally, the cells were resuspended in 10 mL of Standard External Solution.

To begin, the S-type chip (Nanion, Munich, Germany) was filled with 80 µl per well of

Divalent-Free solution, and the chamber's bottom was subsequently filled with Internal solution.

The Divalent Free solution contained 140 mM NaCl, 4 mM KCl, and 10 mM HEPES, with pH

adjusted to 7.4 using NaOH. The osmolarity of the solution was set to 289 mOsm by adjusting the

concentration of glucose. The Internal solution was composed of 10 mM NaCl, 10 mM KCl, 110

mM KF, 10 mM HEPES, and 10 mM EGTA, with pH adjusted to 7.2 using KOH. The osmolarity of

the solution was set to 285 mOsm by adjusting the concentration of glucose. Next, 20 µl per well

of solution was removed, and 20 µl per well of detached cells were introduced to the chip. The

cells were then captured by a suction pulse of -200 mbar for 5 s, followed by consecutive suction

pulses of -50 mbar for 1 min. Subsequently, the voltage was decreased incrementally from 0 mV

to -100 mV in steps of 25 mV while maintaining the cells under a pressure of -50 mbar HEK293T)

or -80 mbar (NG108-15). After this, 20 µl per well of solution was removed from the chip, and 40

µl per well of seal enhancer solution was added. The seal enhancer solution contained 130 mM

NaCl, 4 mM KCl, 10 mM $CaCl_2$, 1 mM $MgCl_2$, and 10 mM HEPES, with pH adjusted to 7.4 using

NaOH. The osmolarity of the solution was set to 302 mOsm by adjusting the concentration of

glucose. The chip then underwent three wash steps, during which 40 µl of solution was removed

from each well and replaced with 40 µl per well of standard external solution (unless another

extracellular solution composition is specified). After the second wash step, two suction pulses

of -220 mbar were applied for 2 s each to establish a whole-cell configuration for HEK293T cells

or three suction pulses of -350 mbar were applied for 5 s each to establish a whole-cell

configuration for NG108-15 cells. After completing all of the procedures described, the remaining

volume of solution in the wells was 100 µl. To illuminate the cells during the planar patch clamp

experiment, a specialized illumination unit was utilized. The unit consists of 96 LEDs (Lumileds

Luxeon Z, Schiphol, Haarlemmermeer, The Netherlands) that are coupled to light fibers. During

the experiment, the end of the fiber is submerged under the solution and positioned 7 mm from

the cell being measured. The illumination units with LEDs of different colors were used in the

planar patch-clamp experiments: green LEDs (λ_{max} = 530 nm, LXZ1-PM01), blue LEDs (λ_{max} = 470

nm, LXZ1-PB01), orange LEDs (λ_{max} = 590 nm, LXZ1-PL02) and red LEDs (λ_{max} = 632 nm, LXZ1-

PD01). To regulate the intensity of light used in each measurement, the forward current of the

illumination unit was adjusted. The intensity was measured directly at the output of the light

fibers using a bolometer (Coherent OP-2 VIS, Santa Clara, California, U.S.). The intensity of light

was specified for each type of measurement.

The data collection for the noise analyses of both types started with measurement of

photocurrent dependence on the membrane voltage (IV curve). The range of voltages was from

-120 mV to 60 mV with equidistant 20 mV steps. Each sweep was separated into three

consecutive steps, with 2 s in the dark, 2 s under the illumination of a saturating intensity for the

stationary photocurrents of the measured ChRs (4 mW/mm^2 for ChReef and ChRmine; 6

mW/mm^2 for CatCh) and 1 s in the dark. This data was used to calculate the reversal potentials,

which were used to determine the electrochemical potentials on the membranes. This step was

followed by different protocols and data treatment procedures for stationary and non-stationary

analyses. The data treatment encompassed a thorough selection of recordings that met our strict

quality control criteria, followed by the processing of the selected raw traces using our

proprietary Python library and custom scripts developed in-house.

For stationary analyses, all cells were held at a voltage of -100 mV or -60 mV. 40

consecutive pairs of sweeps, 6.5 s long each, were recorded at a sampling rate of 20 kHz. Each

pair of sweeps was followed by 25 s of non-recorded waiting time in the dark. The first sweep of

each pair had a 6-second illumination pulse at an intensity of 0.4 mW/mm^2 (0.6 mW/mm^2 for

CatCh), and the second sweep was recorded under dark conditions.

Sweeps suitable for stationary noise analysis were selected based on the following

criteria. Basic parameters of the seals were assessed for each sweep, and only sweeps with a seal

resistance over 1 GΩ, a membrane capacitance lower than 50 pF, and a series resistance below

20 MΩ were used for further analysis. The parameters of the dark noise were then assessed using

parts recorded under the dark conditions for the sweeps with data recorded under illumination

conditions. Sweeps with a root mean square deviation (IRMS) of dark currents over 5.5 pA were

disregarded. The stability of the noise was assessed by dividing the dark part of the current into

100 pieces, calculating IRMS in all of them, and disregarding sweeps with a standard deviation of

IRMS over 0.3 pA. The recorded sweeps were grouped back into pairs of consecutive traces that

were recorded under light and dark conditions. Only those pairs with stationary photocurrents

over 200 pA during the interval from 2 to 6 s after turning on the illumination were considered.

Cells that had four or more pairs of traces remaining after applying all of the aforementioned

quality control criteria were selected for stationary noise analysis. For each pair, the interval from

2 to 6 s was taken. The sweep recorded under the light conditions was fitted to a double

exponential function, and the resulting fit was subtracted from the sweep. A mean current was

subtracted from the sweep recorded in the dark. After these corrections, the power spectral

density (PSD) was calculated for both sweeps. The differences between the PSD under the light

and dark conditions were determined and then averaged for each cell. The averaged difference

PSDs were then fitted to the single Lorentzian function in a range from 2.5 to 25 Hz. This allowed

for the determination of the corner frequency and the difference PSD at 0 Hz (f_c and S_0

correspondingly as in eq. 2). Open probabilities of the channels (P_o) were then determined for

each cell, taking into consideration their relation (eq. 3) to corner frequency and off kinetics

(where τ_{off} was determined from the single exponential fit of the photocurrent decrease after

turning off the light). Only cells whose difference PSD met the criteria of $1\ Hz < f_c < 15\ Hz$ and $0 <$

$P_o < 1$ were considered in the determination of the single channel conductance values.

$$S(f) = \frac{S_0}{1 + \left(\frac{f}{f_c}\right)^2} \qquad\qquad \text{[Equation 2]}$$

$$1 - P_o = \frac{1}{2\,\pi f_c \tau_{off}} \qquad\qquad \text{[Equation 3]}$$

The variances σ^2 of the noise associated with the opening and closing of the ChRs were

determined by utilizing the obtained values of f_c and S_0 (eq. 4). The unitary photocurrents were

subsequently calculated by applying the relation between the mean and variance in the binomial

distribution (eq. 5) to the mean net stationary current I and σ^2. Afterwards, the unitary

photocurrents were converted to single channel conductances by dividing them by the

electrochemical potential gradient.

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{\pi \, f_c \, S_0}{2} \qquad\qquad \text{[Equation 4]}$$

$$i = \frac{\sigma^2}{I \, (1 - P_o)} \qquad\qquad \text{[Equation 5]}$$

In the non-stationary analysis, 300 sweeps were recorded for each cell at the holding

voltage of -100 mV or -60 mV. At -100 mV each sweep had a 5 ms illumination step at an intensity

of 14 mW/mm^2 forward current so that recordings are done close to single turnover conditions,

preventing protein from going to the putative second open state upon absorption of a second

photon. At -60 mV each sweep had an illumination step of 150 ms at an intensity of 0.4 mW/mm^2.

After each illumination step the dark currents were recorded for 5 s.

The non-stationary noise analysis involved several steps to select the suitable sweeps for

analysis. Firstly, basic parameters of the seals were assessed, and only those sweeps that met the

following criteria were used: seal resistance over 1 GΩ, membrane capacitance lower than 50 pF,

and series resistance below 20 MΩ. Sweeps with root mean square deviation (IRMS) of dark

currents over 4.5 pA were disregarded. Only cells with a peak photocurrent over 500 pA (over

100 pA for -60 mV traces) were considered. To minimize possible unwanted effects of the

photocurrent rundown, only the sets of at least 50 consecutive recordings (25 recordings for -60

mV traces) with negligible rundown of the peak photocurrent (lower than 1 pA/sweep) were

considered and the variance of the photocurrent was determined as a half of the average of the

squared differences between pairs of consecutive recordings. The dependence of the variance

on the photocurrent value was then fitted linearly to determine the unitary photocurrent as a

proportionality factor (eq. 6) and the background current variance as the free term ($\sigma_b{}^2$, squared

IRMS at photocurrent of 0 pA). Finally, any cells that had linear fits indicating σ_b smaller than 4

pA were excluded from the analysis, since none of the recordings showed such a low IRMS value

based on its direct calculation in the dark current. The remaining cells were used to compute the

single channel conductance.

$$\sigma^2 = P_o(1 - P_o)Ni^2 + \sigma_b^2 \approx P_o Ni^2 + \sigma_b^2 = I \cdot i + \sigma_b^2 \qquad \text{[Equation 6]}$$

The photocurrents of the ChR variants at a membrane voltage of -60 mV were measured in

response to green LED pulses (λ=530 nm) for ChRmine variants and GtCCR4, or blue LED pulses

(λ=470 nm) for CatCh, CoChR, CoChR-3M, and GtCCR2. Light pulses of 2 s duration with a

saturating intensity (green LED at 5.6 mW/mm² and blue LED at 8.3 mW/mm²) were used to

determine photocurrent densities and desensitization kinetics. The stationary photocurrent

densities of the ChR variants were calculated as the quotient of the mean stationary photocurrent

upon stimulation with a 2 s light pulse and the capacitance of the cell. Due to the lack of a

fluorescence control, we selected only cells with peak photocurrents greater than 20 pA. To avoid

bias that could inflate the apparent mean value of photocurrent density for small photocurrent

variants, cells with photocurrent densities in the lowest 15% were excluded for each variant.

Desensitization kinetics were determined by fitting the decays of the photocurrents from their

peak to stationary levels to a biexponential function. Normalized values for fast and slow

components' amplitudes were calculated as quotients of the corresponding amplitudes and the

sum of the two amplitudes.

Light pulses of 5 ms duration with an intensity of 13.0 mW/mm² for the green LED (ChRmine

variants, GtCCR4) and 19.3 mW/mm² for the blue LED (CatCh, CoChR, CoChR-3M, and GtCCR2)

were used to determine off-kinetics. The τ_{off} values of all ChR variants were determined by fitting

the decaying photocurrent elicited in response to a 5 ms light pulse to a monoexponential

function. To determine τ_{off} for CoChR, only cells with stationary photocurrent densities lower

than 50 pA/pF were selected to avoid effects of intracellular proton accumulation affecting pH-

dependent off-kinetics. To investigate the dependence of the off-kinetics on the membrane

potential, τoff values were determined at membrane potentials ranging from -120 mV to +60 mV.

For intensity dependence experiments, light pulses of 2 s duration were used for green light

(λ=530 nm) and orange light (λ=590 nm), while light pulses of 4 s duration were used for red light

(λ=632 nm). The intensity of light was regulated by adjusting the forward current of the

respective illumination unit. Alternating between fixed and variable light intensities was

employed to control for photocurrent rundown effects. The stationary photocurrents recorded

at varying intensities were normalized against preceding and subsequent measurements at fixed

intensities. The resulting dependencies for each recorded cell were fitted to hyperbolic functions

and normalized by their respective amplitudes from the fits. The normalized dependencies were

then averaged between the cells.

For the determination of relative ion permeability, photocurrents of ChRmine and ChReef in

response to green LED pulses (λ=530 nm) of 2 s duration were measured at different voltages,

and reversal potentials were determined. Permeability ratios were calculated according to the

Goldman–Hodgkin–Katz equation. To assess the relative permeability of potassium ions relative

to sodium (PK/PNa), we measured photocurrent at voltages ranging from -120 mV to +60 mV in

10 mV steps and assessed reversal potential shifts after exchanging the standard intracellular

solution (KF-based) with a NaF-based intracellular solution containing 10 mM NaCl, 10 mM KCl,

110 mM NaF, 10 mM HEPES, and 10 mM EGTA, with pH adjusted to 7.2 using NaOH. A reverse

exchange of the intracellular solution was performed to account for reversal potential drift. The

shift in reversal potential due to the solution exchange was calculated as the difference between

the reversal potential in the NaF-based intracellular solution and the average of the two reversal

potentials measured in the KF-based intracellular solution (before exchange and after reverse

exchange). Cells with a reversal potential drift greater than 5 mV were excluded from the analysis.

To assess the relative permeability of calcium ions relative to sodium (P_{Ca}/P_{Na}), we measured

photocurrent at voltages ranging from -120 mV to +60 mV in 10 mV steps and assessed reversal

potential shifts after extracellular solution dilution, which changed the NaCl concentration from

$[NaCl]\_ini$ = 140 mM to $[NaCl]\_fin$ = 11 mM and the $CaCl_2$ concentration from $[CaCl_2]\_ini$ = 2.5

mM to $[CaCl_2]\_fin$ = 83 mM. An additional series of extracellular solution dilutions was performed

to return sodium and calcium concentrations to their initial values to account for reversal

potential drift. The shift in reversal potential due to the solution exchange was calculated as the

difference between the reversal potential in the Ca-based extracellular solution and the average

of the two reversal potentials measured in the Na-based extracellular solution (before dilution

and after reverse dilution series). Cells with a reversal potential drift greater than 10 mV were

excluded from the analysis.

To assess the relative permeability of protons relative to sodium (P_H/P_{Na}), we measured

photocurrent at voltages ranging from -121 mV to 59 mV in 3 mV steps. The permeability of

protons relative to sodium was calculated from the photocurrent reversal potential using a

standard intracellular solution and an NMG-based extracellular solution containing 90 mM

NMDG, 3.2 mM NaCl, and 10 mM MES, with pH adjusted to 6.4 using HCl.

Data analysis was performed using our proprietary Python library and custom scripts developed

in-house.

***Ex vivo* and *in vivo* experiments – General**

rAAV purification and cloning of constructs for *ex vivo* and *in vivo* experiments

Viral vector purification procedure was performed as previously published[14] and an extensive

description is available in ref.[51]. In brief, triple transfection of HEK-293T cells was performed using

the pHelper plasmid (TaKaRa, USA), trans-plasmid with either the AAV2/9, PHP.eB or PhP.S

capsid[52] and cis-plasmid with either ChRmine or ChReef under the control of human synapsin or

CAG promotor. Cells were regularly tested for mycoplasma contamination. Viral particles were

harvested cells and medium; precipitated from medium with 40% polyethylene glycol 8000

(Acros Organics, Germany) in 500mM NaCl and combined with cell pellets for processing. Pellets

were suspended in 500mM NaCl, 40mM Tris, 2.5mM MgCl2, pH 8, and 100 Uml−1 of salt-

activated nuclease (Arcticzymes, USA) at 37 °C for 30 min. Cleared lysates were purified over

iodixanol (Optiprep, Axis Shield, Norway) step gradients (15%, 25%, 40%, and 60%) at 350,000 ×

g for 2.25 h. rAAV containing fractions were concentrated using Amicon filters (EMD, UFC910024)

and formulated in sterile phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) supplemented with 0.001% Pluronic F-

68 (Gibco, Germany). Viral vector titers were determined by the number of DNase I resistant vg

using AAV titration kit (TaKaRa/Clontech) by qPCR (StepOne, Applied Biosystems) according the

manufacturer's instructions or with adaptations to usage in crystal digital PCR (dPCR) system.

Here, dilutions of purified vector DNA were subjected to crystal dPCR using 5x Naica PCR reaction

mix (Stilla, R10056) supplemented with primers provided in the AAV titration kit, 0,8mg/µl Alexa

647 (Invitrogen, 11570266) and 1.5x Eva Green (Biotum, #31000-T). Formation of droplet crystals

and PCR was performed in a Naica Geode (Stilla) using Naica Ruby or Sapphire Chips (Stilla) and

finally analyzed in the Naica Prism3 reader (Stilla) equipped with Crystal Reader and Crystal Miner

softwares (Stilla). rAAVs titers and quantification method used is indicated for each rAAV in the

respective methods chapter. Purity of produced viral vectors was routinely checked by silver

staining (Pierce, Germany) after gel electrophoresis (Novex™ 4–12% Tris–Glycine, Thermo Fisher

Scientific) according to the manufacturer's instruction. Viral vector stocks were kept at −80 °C

until injection. In summary, final constructs used for gene therapy in rodents consisted of

ChRmine (mice) or ChReef (mice, gerbils and marmosets) under control of the human synapsin

(neuronal targeting) or CAG promoter (cardiac cluster stimulation) tagged with enhanced yellow

fluorescent protein (eYFP) with enhancement of trafficking signal (TS) and ER export signal (ES)

packed into PHP.eB for vision restoration experiments, for stimulation of the auditory pathway:

AAV2/9 for mice and or PHP.S for gerbils and PHP.eB for marmosets, and in AAV2/9 for cardiac

cell cluster stimulation.

Animals

All animal experiments were carried out in compliance with the relevant national and

international guidelines (European Guideline for animal experiments 2010/63/EU) as well as in

accordance with German laws governing animal use. The procedures have been approved by the

responsible regional government office. Rodents were kept in a 12h light/dark cycle with ad

libitum access to food and water.

Preparing neonatal mouse cardiomyocytes

Hearts were explanted from p0-p3 mice killed by decapitation and directly placed on ice cold PBS.

Remaining tissue and atria were carefully removed, and ventricular cardiomyocytes (CMs)

isolated with the neonatal heart dissociation kit for mouse and rat (Miltenyi, Germany). 1.5 – 2

million cells were plated on a 6-well-plate coated with 10 µg/ml fibronectin (Sigma; F1141-5MG)

and maintained in IMDM (GlutaMAX, no phenol red; Gibco 21056-023) supplemented with 10%

FBS superior (Sigma; S0615) and 1% Penicillin/Streptomycin (Life Technologies; 15140122) in

standard cultivation conditions (37°C, 5% CO_2). One day later, medium was exchanged to reduce

FBS to 0.5% and AAV transduction was performed with AAV2/9-CAG-ChRmine-TS-EYFP-ES with

$1.1x10^{10}$ GC/ml (qPCR) and AAV2/9-CAG-ChReef-TS-EYFP-ES with $6x10^{10}$ GC/ml (qPCR)

corresponding to ~226 and ~69vp/cell, respectively. On day 3, the cells were dissociated and

plated on ∅ 10 mm round coverslips in CM clusters compromising 50.000 cells within 15 µl locally

on an 8 µl 0.1% gelatine drop. Cells were incubated in this small drop for 20 min to build cardiac

clusters and afterwards medium filled up in the well. After 1-2 days CM cluster started to beat

spontaneously and 0.5% FBS IMDM medium was exchanged every 2-3 days.

Preparing hiPSC-derived cardiomyocytes

Human CMs were differentiated from the induced pluripotent stem cell line UMGi014-A clone 2,

which was created from dermal fibroblasts from a male donor using integration-free Sendai virus

and was described previously. CMs differentiation and purification involved WNT signaling

modulation and lactate-based metabolic selection as described previously[53,54]. Differentiated

CMs were cryopreserved for further use. For measurements, 1.5 – 2 million cells were thawed

and plated on a 6-well-plate coated with 16 mg/mL Geltrex (Thermo Fisher Scientific; A1413302)

and maintained in CM culture medium (RPMI 1640 medium (GlutaMAX; Thermo Fisher Scientific;

72400054), B27 (Thermo Fisher Scientific; 1750404) supplemented with 2 mM thiazovivin

(Sigma-Aldrich; 420220-10MG), at 37°C and 5% CO2. Medium was replaced after two days to

remove residues of thiazovivin and changed every 2-3 days afterwards. AAV transduction was

performed with MyoAAV-CAG-ChRmine-TS-EYFP-ES with ~$1x10^{11}$ GC or MyoAAV-CAG-ChReef-

TS-EYFP-ES with ~$1.8x10^{10}$ GC (CdPCR). Four days after transduction, cells were dissociated and

plated on Ø10 mm round coverslips in cardiac cell clusters comprising 50.000 cells within 8 µl

drop on a Geltrex/DMEM/Ham's F-12 coated area. Cells were incubated in this drop for 40

minutes to build cardiac clusters and afterwards medium was filled up with CM culture medium.

After two days cardiac clusters started to beat spontaneously. Medium was replaced every 2-3

days.

Analysis of optogenetically evoked contraction of CM clusters

Experiments with beating CM clusters were performed between day 3 and 5 after plating for the

neonatal CMs and after 3-7 days for the hIPSC-derived CMs with continuous perfusion with

Tyrode solution (comprising 140 mM NaCl, 5.4 mM KCl, 1.8 mM $CaCl_2$, 2 mM $MgCl_2$, 10 mM

glucose, and 10 mM HEPES; pH 7.4, adjusted with NaOH) to keep the cells at approximately 35 °

C. Electrical stimulation (0.2 ms long biphasic pulses, 45 V for neonatal CMs and 25 V for hiPSC-

derived CMs) was performed with two platinum electrodes and the Myostim stimulator

(Myotronic, Germany) and light stimulation with a LedHub (Omicron). 510 nm light was

generated by a 500 – 600 nm LED, filtered through a ET500/20 excitation filter and reflected onto

the cells via a 561 nm beamsplitter (AHF, F38-561). 630 nm light was generated with the 625 LED

through a 635/18 excitation filter and reflected onto the cells via a 409/493/573/652

beamsplitter (AHF, F68-409) within an inverted IX73 microscope and through a 20x objective

(LUCPLFLN20XPH/0,45). Imaging light was filtered by a 780 nm long pass filter (Schott RG780) to

avoid excitation of ChRmine and ChReef by the illumination and images were taken with a UI-

306xCP-M camera (iDS, Germany) and analysed online with the custom made Myocyte online

Contraction Analysis (MoCA) software recently described in detail48 giving the absolute average

of motion vectors per frame |V| as output through NI 9263 CompactDAQ (NI, Austin, U.S.)

recorded with Powerlab 8/35 and LabChart 8.1.16 software for analysis. The software and

Powerlab were also used to trigger electrical pacing and LEDs. Light intensity was calibrated with

the S170C sensor and Powermeter (Thorlabs, Germany). To determine the threshold of optical

pacing, CM clusters were illuminated by ten consecutive light pulses (5 ms for 510 nm; 50 ms for

630 nm in neonatal CMs and 5 ms for 630 nm in hIPS derived CMs) with the indicated repetition

rates. Light intensity was lowered stepwise to the light intensity at which pacing capability was

lost. The lowest intensity capable to trigger contractions 1:1 with the last 8 of 10 light pulses was

defined as pacing threshold. Excitation block was tested during supramaximal electrical pacing

(0.2 ms long biphasic pulses, 45 V for neonatal CMs and 25 V for hiPSC-dervied CMs) at a

repetition rate 0.5 Hz above the spontaneous beating frequency or with 1 Hz if no spontaneous

beating was observed. 5 s long light pulses were used, and excitation block defined as successful,

when electrical stimulation failed to induce any detectable contraction during the illumination

period.

Histology for cardiomyocytes

Neonatal heart cells as well as hiPSC-derived CMs were fixed in 4% formaldehyde for 20 min, permeabilised with 0.2% Triton X100 for 20 min and stained in DPBS (Sigma; D8537) supplemented with 5% donkey serum for 2 h with primary antibodies against cardiac troponin I (ab47003, Abcam: 1:800) and for 1 h with secondary antibodies conjugated with Cy5 (711-175-152, JacksonLab, U.S., 1:400) diluted in DPBS with 1:1000 DAPI (0018860.01, Th.Geyer) at room temperature. Images of single CMs for analysis of expression rate were taken through a 10x (10X/NA 0,4 Olympus UPLSAPO) or 20x objective (20x/NA 0,7 Olympus UCPLFLN PH) with an IX83 inverted fluorescence microscope equipped with an ORCA-flash 4.0 digital camera (C11440, Hamamatsu Photonics) and the MT20 illumination system as light source controlled via the CellSens® software. Acquisition of images was performed with following filter settings: 387/11 excitation, 410 beamsplitter and 440/40 emission for DAPI, 485/20, 504 and 525/30 for eYFP, 560/25, 582, and 684/24 for Cy5. Transduction rate was calculated by the percentage of eYFP positive cells among all CMs identified by cardiac troponin I antibody-staining.

CM clusters were imaged with a LSM 800 confocal microscope (Zeiss) equipped with spectral multi-alkali photomultiplier detectors. Z-stack acquisition was performed using a Plan-Apochromat 20x/0.8 M27 via the ZEN 2.6 (blue edition) software (Zeiss) with a pinhole of 55 μm for Dapi, 24 μm for eYFP, 27 μm for the red channel and 31 μm to image Cy5. Pictures were post-processed using stack correction (Background+Decay+Flickr), extended depth of focus (Wavelets, highest Z-Stack Alignment) and Image calculator (subtraction of autofluorescence) of the Zen 3.4 (blue edition) software.

Statistics of optogenetic stimulation of CM clusters

All dots represent the individual result from one CM cluster and the mean is shown with the

standard error of the mean as bars. Statistical analysis was performed with a 2-way ANOVA with

Holm-Sidak multiple comparison test for the optical pacing, unpaired students t-test for the

excitation block with 510 nm as well as for the expression rate, and Fisher´s exact contingency

test for the defibrillation capability with 630 nm.

Methods for optogenetic stimulation of the visual system

Intravitreal injection

All *in vivo* electrophysiological experiments were carried out in compliance with the relevant

national and international guidelines (European Guideline for animal experiments 2010/63/EU)

as well as in accordance with German laws governing animal use. The procedures have been

approved by the responsible regional government office. Rodents were kept in a 12h light/dark

cycle with ad libitum access to food and water.

3-months old female and male Rd1 (C3HeB/FeJ, JAX 000658) mice were anesthetized with a

subcutaneous injection of a fentanyl (0.05 mg/kg), midazolam (5 mg/kg), and medetomidine (0.5

mg/kg) (FMM) cocktail. Mice were then secured using a bite bar and placed on top of a

temperature controller (Supertech) to maintain a body temperature of 37°C. For local anesthesia

of the eyes, eye drops containing 0.5% Proxymetacain were applied and hydration gel (Bayer,

Bepanthen) was placed on the eyes to prevent dryness whenever possible. Before injection, a

hole posterior to the ora serrata was created using a 27-gauge needle. Then, a Hamilton syringe

was guided through this hole into the intravitreal space and 2µl of virus solution of PHP.eB-hsyn-

ChRmine-TS-EYFP-ES (1,89x10^{13} GC/ml, dPCR) or PHP.eB-hsyn-ChReef-TS-EYFP-ES (8,59x10^{13}

GC/ml, dPCR) was injected at 4µl/min using a motorized injector (Stoelting). After 5 min the

syringe was withdrawn and the anesthesia was reversed with a subcutaneous injection of a

naloxone (1.2 mg/kg), flumazenil (0.5 mg/kg), and atipamezole (2.5 mg/kg) cocktail.

Optical stimulation

For visual stimulation at different light intensities, a LED (530 nm, Thorlabs, M530L4) in

combination with a filter wheel and 6 different neutral density filters (Thorlabs, FW1AND) was

used. Light intensities were measured using a digital optical power and energy meter (Thorlabs,

PM100D). Green light was presented to the contralateral eye from a distance of 2 cm while the

eye ipsilateral to the recording site was covered. Visual stimulation was timed (200 ms at 1 Hz)

using a pre-programmed pulse generator (Doric, OTPG_8), which was synchronized with the

electrophysiological recordings. Accordingly, for visual stimulation using a screen, white full field

flashes (200 ms at 1 Hz) were presented using PsychoPy[55] on an iPad screen (LG LP097QX1) 5 cm

from the contralateral eye. A photodiode was used to synchronize the visual stimulation with the

electrophysiological recordings.

Electrophysiological recordings

Three to four weeks after intravitreal virus injections, electrophysiological measurements were

performed. To enable stable fixation in the recording setup, a head-post was implanted onto the

skull of vision restored mice at least 5 days before electrophysiological recordings using standard

surgical procedures. To record neural activity, 32-channel silicon probes (Cambridge NeuroTech,

type H10b) with a 32-channel headstage (Intan technologies, C3324) were connected via a SPI

interface cable (Intan technologies, C3216) to an USB interface board (Intan technologies,

C3100). Data was recorded at 20 kHz using RHX software. Mice were anesthetized using FMM

cocktail and head-fixed in a holding tube. The head of the mouse was aligned in all three axes to

the coordinate system of the probe manipulator. Openings in the skull above the primary visual

cortex (AP: 3.9 mm, ML: 2.1 mm) were created using a drill, and the probe was lowered into V1

at a speed of 2 μm/s. Data was acquired at different depths (DV: -0.4 mm to -0.8 mm below the

brain surface) in both hemispheres during separate recordings and stimulation of the

contralateral eye. Electrophysiological recordings were performed 10 min after reaching the

desired depth. CM-Dil (Thermo Fisher, CellTracker) was applied to the probe prior to brain

insertion to allow post-hoc confirmation of the recording site.

Analysis of neural responses to optogenetic stimulation of the visual system

Electrophysiological recordings were analyzed using kilosort3[56], and spike sorting results were

manually curated using the phy software (https://github.com/cortex-lab/phy). Only units with

stable responses across the duration of the session and high kilosort quality scores were included

in subsequent analysis. To obtain continuous firing rate estimates, single unit responses were

binned with a bin size of 1 ms and convolved with a gaussian kernel with a standard deviation of

10 ms. Trial-averaged responses were normalized to the mean and standard deviation of the

baseline (400ms before stimulus onset) across all intensities. Units that did not respond to the

highest light intensity were excluded (mean normalized firing rate during the stimulus smaller

than 2.58). The Gramm toolbox[57] was used to visualize raster plots. For significance testing across

time points a permutation based method[58] was used as described[59]. Briefly, using unpaired t-

tests differences between the two conditions for each time point are determined and

subsequently time clusters are identified using the bwconncomp.m function in Matlab (4

connected components). Time cluster significance is determined by comparison the t-statistics

of the actual data against the t-statistics of shuffled data (10000 permutations with randomized

labels).

Histology and imaging after optogenetic stimulation of the visual system

To visualize retinal expression patterns, eyes of vision restored animals after the

electrophysiological experiments were collected and fixed in 4% PFA for 1h at RT. After washing

in PBS, retinas were prepared and fixed again for 10 min in 4% PFA at RT. Fixed and washed

retinas were put in 30% Sucrose and subjected two three rounds of freezing and thawing on dry

ice. Then retinas were incubated for 1h in 10% normal donkey serum (NDS) and subsequently in

primary antibody solution (rabbit-GFP (Proteintech, 50430-2-AP), 1:666 in PBS with 3% NDS and

0.5% Triton-X) for 4 days at 4°C. After incubation, retinas were washed in PBS and incubated in

secondary antibody overnight at 4°C (AlexaFluor 488 (Invitrogen, A32970), 1:500 in PBS with 3%

NDS and 0.5% Triton-X). Finally, washed retinas were mounted in DAPI-containing Vectashield

(Vector Laboratories, H-1200).

For post-hoc analysis of recording sites, brains were collected and incubated in 4% PFA at 4°C

overnight. Then brains were washed and embedded in 4% agarose. 100µm coronal slices were

cut using a vibratome (Leica microsystems, VT1000S) and stained for 2h at RT (DAPI, Thermo

Fisher Scientific, D1306, 2.5 µg/ml). Washed brain slices were mounted on microscope slides in

Vectashield (Vector Laboratories, H-1200).

Images were captured using a Leica TCS SP8 laser scanning confocal microscope with 63×/ 20x oil

immersion or a 10× air objectives (Leica Microsystems). Images were merged and processed

using LAS X (Leica Microsystems) and Adobe Photoshop software.

Behaviour experiments for vision restoration in mice

1005 Mice were maintained on a standard 12hr light/dark cycle, in ventilated and humidity-controlled

1006 racks, at room temperature. Mice of both sexes were used and experiments were performed

1007 during the daytime (corresponding to the mouse's subjective nighttime). All procedures related

1008 to the behaviour experiments were performed in accordance with the Canadian Council on

1009 Animal Care and approved by the Montreal Neurological Institute's Animal Care Committee.

***In vivo* epifluorescence imaging of the retina**

1011 As there is some variability across mice in the success of intravitreal injections, 3 weeks following

1012 intravitreal injections we performed a screen of fluorescence expression in their retina. Mice had

1013 to show clear YFP expression in their fundus images when viewed under an epifluorescence

1014 microscope (Phoenix Micron IV) to be selected to undergo behavioral testing with the light-

1015 room/dark-room test.

Light-room/dark-room test

The test environment consisted of two custom-made 30 cm x 30 cm x 85 cm rooms built from

black corrugated plastic. Both rooms had a lid, which housed four white-light LED arrays (YM E-

Bright). The light intensity on the floor of the light-room was 120 μW (measured with Thorlabs

S130C, set to 530nm). There was a small opening between the two rooms to allow a mouse to

pass from one room to the other. Experiments were performed three weeks after intravitreal

injection. Since we have found that, for blind rd1 mice, a subset of them spent all their time in

the room they start the trial in, which could bias results (for instance, if they started in the dark-

room, and spent all their time there, it might look like they are sighted), for each trial we started

mice in the light-room. Furthermore, to ensure that any preference for a room had to do with

the lighting conditions, and not a preference for a specific one of the rooms independent of

lighting conditions, we studied room preferences across four trials, switching which room was lit

between trials. All trials were performed on the same day. The first trial last for 10 minutes and

was considered habituation and was not used for analysis. Trials 2-4 lasted for 15 minutes each

and were analyzed and averaged together. We recorded the mouse's position with an overhead

camera (Logitech C270 HD) in the light-room. Analysis was performed in Bonsai [60], which was set

up to detect the presence or absence of the mouse in the light room.

1033

Optogenetic stimulation of auditory pathway in rodents

Postnatal AAV injection into the cochlea in mice and Mongolian gerbils

The same injection approach was performed for all animals which later would be subject to

either: auditory brainstem recordings, juxtacellular recordings from single putative SGNs, *ex vivo*

acute slice electrophysiology in mice, or recordings from the inferior colliculus in Mongolian

gerbils. AAV injections into the left ear were performed at postnatal day 6 in C57BL/6J wild-type

or B6;129P2-Otof[tm1.1Erei] (MGI: 4950055 [61]) mice or at postnatal day 7.3 ± 1.3 days in Mongolian

gerbils[18,51]. The right ear served as a non-injected control. In brief, mouse and gerbil pups were

randomly selected for virus injections. Under general isoflurane anesthesia (5% for anesthesia

induction, 1–3% for maintenance with frequent monitoring of the hind-limb withdrawal reflex

and anesthesia adjustments, accordingly) and local xylocaine as well as buprenorphine (0.1

mg/kg) and carprofen (5 mg/kg) administration for analgesia, the cochlea of the left ear was

accessed via a retroauricular incision. Body temperature was maintained at physiological

temperature. The cochlea was gently punctured using a quartz capillary pipette, which was kept

in place to inject the virus of following titers:

Mice: AAV2/9-hsyn-ChRmine-TS-EYFP-ES 5.1×10^{13} GC/ml (qPCR),

1050   AAV2/9-hsyn-ChReef-TS-EYFP-ES 3.1×10^{13} (qPCR) and 2.45×10^{13} GC/ml (dPCR)

1051 Gerbil: PHP.S-hsyn-ChReef-TS-EYFP-ES 5.25×10^{13} GC/ml (qPCR)

1052 After virus injection the tissue in the injection area was repositioned and the wound was sutured.

1053 Carprofen (5 mg/kg) was administered for analgesia the day after surgery.

1054

Optical stimulation of the auditory pathway in rodents *in vivo*

The left cochlea was exposed by performing a retroauricular incision behind the pinna followed

by a bullostomy, where the round window was visualized and punctured. For mice a 50 µm

optical fiber coupled to a 594 nm (OBIS LS OPSL, 100 mW, Coherent Inc., Santa Clara, United

States) or a 522 nm (Oxxius combined with a motorized Power Attenuator, Lannion, France)

diode laser was used. For gerbils a 200 µm optical fiber was only coupled to the prior mentioned

522 nm laser. Laser power was calibrated prior to each experiment using a laser power meter

(Thorlabs PM100USB).

1063

Optically evoked auditory brainstem responses in mice and deafness models

Data were obtained from 40 adult C57Bl/6J wild-type mice of either sex (22 male, 18 female) 78.9

± 26.3 days after virus injection (see: postnatal AAV injection into the cochlea) mice were

subjected to *in vivo* optical stimulation and recordings. For evaluation in deafness models, 4

additional C57Bl/6J and 5 B6;129P2-Otof$^{tm1.1Erei}$ mice, all injected with ChReef-YFP, were

subjected to the same type of recordings. For the kanamycin deafness model, the cochlea was

deafened after confirming comparable intensity thresholds of ChReef to previous recorded mice

by application of kanamycin (200 mg/ml). For this, kanamycin was delivered locally by inserting

a microfile needle into the round window. It was left for approximately 7 minutes before

additional measurements were performed to confirm deafness by absence of acoustically evoked

auditory brainstem responses. Surgeries and measurements were performed under anesthesia

using isoflurane (5% for anesthesia induction, 1–3% for maintenance with frequent monitoring

of the hind-limb withdrawal reflex and anesthesia adjustments, accordingly) and analgesia by

sub-cutaneous injections of buprenorphine (0.1 mg/kg body weight) and meloxicam (5 mg/kg

body weight). Body temperature was maintained at 37°C using a custom-designed heat plate

through all the procedures.

Stimulus generation and delivery, as well as data acquisition was performed using a custom-

written software (MATLAB, MathWorks, Natick, MA, United States) employing National

Instrument data acquisition cards and a custom-build laser-controller. Recordings were

conducted in a soundproof chamber (IAC Acoustics, IL, United States). Optically evoked ABRs

(oABRs) and acoustically evoked ABRs (aABRs) were recorded by placing needle electrodes

behind the pinna, on the vertex, and on the back of the anesthetized mice. The difference in

potential between the vertex and mastoid subdermal needles was amplified using a custom-

designed amplifier, sampled at a rate of 50 kHz for 20 ms, filtered (300–3000 Hz) and averaged

across 1000 stimulus presentations. The ABR threshold was defined and determined as the

lowest light or sound intensity for which one of the 3 waves was reliably visible. The latency of a

given wave was defined as the time delay between the stimulus onset and the peak of the wave

of interest. The amplitude was defined as the difference between the positive peak (P) and the

negative through (N), of a wave of interest.

1093

1094   **Data analysis of optically evoked auditory brainstem responses in mice**

1095   The mouse ABR data was analyzed using custom-made Matlab software (The MathWorks, Inc.,

1096   Natick, MA, USA). Averages were expressed as mean ± standard deviation. For statistical

1097   comparison between two groups, data sets were tested for equality of variances (F-test) followed

1098   by two-tailed unpaired Student's t-test.

1099

Juxtacellular recordings from optically driven single putative SGNs in mice

Data were obtained from 3 adult mice in age between 163 and 307 days after AAV injection (see:

postnatal AAV injection into the cochlea). Surgery was performed under general anesthesia by

isoflurane (see Optically evoked auditory brainstem responses in mice). Body temperature was

maintained at 37°C using a custom-designed heat plate through all the procedures.

The experimental/ surgical procedure consisted of the following steps: 1) The left cochlea was

exposed via a bullostomy and the round window membrane was visualized. The cochlea of all

animals was acutely deafened, following application of kanamycin (200 mg/ml). 2) The optical

fiber was placed in the round window niche (see methods, Optical stimulation *in vivo*). 3) After

positioning the fiber or 10 minutes after kanamycin application, optically induced oABRs were

recorded and their threshold was determined. 4) The optical fiber was taken out, and the animal

underwent a tracheotomy procedure and was subsequently intubated. 5) The animal was

positioned in a custom-designed stereotactic head holder. 6) The optical fiber was placed in the

round window niche (see methods, Optical stimulation *in vivo*). 7) Following removal of the

pinnae, the scalp was reflected and portions of the lateral interparietal and left occipital bone

were removed. Next, the cerebellum was partially aspirated to expose the left semi-circular

canal. A reference electrode was placed on the contralateral muscles behind the right ear and

was constantly maintained in a moist state to ensure optimal contact. Utilizing the left semi-

circular canal as a reference point, a micromanipulator (Luigs Neumann SM 10) was employed to

insert a borosilicate glass capillary into the cochlear meatus (WPI 1B120F-4, length 100mm, OD

1.5 mm, ID 0.84 mm). 8) The optical stimulus consisted of laser pulses with a duration of 1ms, a

stimulation rate of 20 Hz, and radiant flux of 6 mW. Using the micromanipulator's step function,

putative optically sensitive spiral ganglion neurons (SGNs) were identified. Action potentials were

amplified using an ELC-03XS amplifier (NPI Electronic, Tamm, Germany), filtered (300–20000 Hz),

digitized (National Instruments card PCIe-6323), analysed, and prepared for display using

custom-written MATLAB (The MathWorks, Inc.) software.

1126

Data analysis of juxtacellular recordings from optically driven single putative SGNs in mice

In accordance with prior work[42], neurons were classified as 'putative SGNs' if they met the

following criteria: i) they exhibited a monophasic and ii) positive waveform, iii) were recorded at

a depth exceeding 1000 µm below the cerebellum surface, and iv) displayed a first spike latency

of less than 3ms in response to a 1ms light pulse presented at 6mW. We detected the initial spike

that followed each stimulus and calculated both its average latency and latency jitter,

represented by the standard deviation of the first spike latency. Additionally, we computed the

vector strength and spikes per pulse by examining the discharge rate starting 150 ms into the

stimulus train and extending it for the entire 350 ms stimulation train. This analysis characterizes

the neuronal discharge during the adapted state of the neuron. For estimating the light intensity

threshold, the laser intensity was gradually lowered until there were no more time-locked

responses during the adapted state of the neuron. This protocol was only completed for six

recorded neurons.

1140

Ex vivo **acute auditory brainstem slice electrophysiology**

At the age of 20 – 23 days, two weeks after AAV injection (see: postnatal AAV injection into the

cochlea), brainstem slices were prepared as previously described[62]. In brief, the brain was

immediately immersed in ice cold cutting solution (Supplementary Table 4) and pinned, dorsal

side down, on a wax stage. With the ventral side of the brainstem exposed, the meninges were

removed with curved forceps and a mid-sagittal cut was performed using a straight razor,

splitting the brain in two hemispheres. Scissors were used to cut between the cerebellum and

the occipital lobe of each hemisphere in order to separate the hind-brain from the fore-brain.

The two blocks of hind-brain, containing brain-stem and cerebellum, were glued with

cyanoacrylate glue, (Loctite 401, Henkel) medial side down, on the stage of a Leica (Wetzlar,

Germany) VT 1200 vibratome. The lateral side of both brain blocks was facing upwards and was

facing towards the advancing blade. A vibration amplitude of 1.5mm was used and the blade was

placed at the height of the cerebellar flocculus. Cerebellar tissue was sectioned at an advancing

speed of 0.05 – 0.1 mm/s and discarded. Thereafter, a speed of 0.02mm/s was used to obtain

150µm thick parasagittal slices of the cochlear nucleus. The slices were incubated in artificial

cerebro-spinal fluid (aCSF, Table S4) for a total of 30 minutes in a 35°C water bath (Julabo,

Seelbach, Germany), after which they were maintained in aCSF at room temperature (23 – 25 °C)

until recording. The pH of both the cutting solution and the aCSF was adjusted to 7.4. The

osmolarity was, in mOsm, 310 for the aCSF and 320 for the cutting solution. Both solutions were

continuously aerated with carbogen (95% O_2, 5% CO_2). An EPSC10 USB patch clamp amplifier was

used for all recordings and was driven by the Patchmaster Next software (HEKA Elektronik GmbH,

Reutlingen, Germany). The sampling interval was set to 25µs and the filter at 7.3 kHz. For better

visualization of the slice's cell layers and auditory nerve fibers (ANFs), differential interference

contrast (DIC) microscopy was used on upright Olympus BX51WI microscope with a water

immersion LUMPLFLN40XW objective (Olympus, Hamburg, Germany). All recordings were

performed at near physiological temperature (33 − 35°C). The bath solution flowed through an

inline solution heater (SC-20 with CL-200A controller; Warner Instruments, Hamden, CT, USA).

The temperature of the solution was monitored by a thermistor placed between the opening of

the inflow tube and the slice in the recording chamber.

Borosilicate filamentous glass capillaries (GB150F, inner diameter: 0.86 mm, outer diameter: 1.50

mm, length: 80 mm, Science Products GmbH, Hofheim, Germany) were used to pull patch

pipettes on a P-1000 micropipette puller (Sutter Instruments Co., Novato, CA, USA). The

resistance at the tip of the pipette was strictly $2-3$ MΩ to avoid increases of the series resistance

(R_s) over long recordings. The pipettes were filled with intracellular solution (details on Table S4),

which additionally contained 1 mM of Alexa-568 (Invitrogen / Fisher Scientific, Schwerte,

Germany). The pH of the solution was adjusted to 7.4 and its osmolarity to 325 mOsm, to prevent

osmotic collapse of the patched neuron, preserve the cell's vigour and prevent fluctuations of

the R_s over long recordings. Voltage clamp experiments were performed with a V_{hold} = -70 mV,

corrected for a liquid junction potential of 12 mV. Only cells with R_s values less than 8 MΩ were

included in the analysis. Afferent fiber optogenetic stimulation was performed using a green laser

included in the Oxxius multi-wavelength bundle (LBX-488-40-CSB, maximum Power: 40 mW; LCX-

532-50CSB, maximum power: 50 mW; OBIS-594-100, maximum power: 100 mW; LBX-638-100-

CSB, maximum power: 100mW; Laser 2000 GmbH, Wessling, Germany). Synapses were driven

with trains of stimuli yielding varying success rates of optically eliciting excitatory postsynaptic

currents, hereafter termed oEPSC probability (P_{oEPSC}). P_{oEPSC} was defined as $\frac{Number\ of\ oEPSCS}{50}$, 50

signifying the number if 1ms light pulses that were delivered to the ANF. Minimal stimulation

irradiance was defined as the lowest value that could yield a P_{oEPSC} = 1 at 10 Hz. This irradiance

value was used later in the experiment to assess the P_{oEPSC} at higher frequencies. For ANF

stimulation, 5, 10, 20, 33, 40, 50 and 100 Hz were the tested frequencies. In direct transduction

experiments, where the photocurrent properties of ChReef were measured, 10, 20, 30, 50, 100,

200, 300 and 350 Hz were used instead. Electrophysiology data were analysed using Igor Pro

(Wavemetrics, Lake Oswego, OR, USA). Evoked release was analysed using custom Igor scripts.

Confocal z-stacks were processed with the NIH ImageJ software[63]. Figures were assembled for

display using open-source vector graphic software Inkscape (https://inkscape.org).

1195

Immunohistochemistry and immunofluorescence imaging for acute slice electrophysiology

The 150 μm thick slices that were used for electrophysiological recordings were fixed for 30

minutes in Formaldehyde (FA) at room temperature after the experiment. Afterwards they were

washed in PBS for 10 minutes to halt fixation and blocked with GSDB for 1 hour at room

temperature. After fixation the slides were kept for 10 minutes in ice cold PBS to halt fixation and

then washed for 1 hour at room temperature in goat serum dilution buffer, which contained in

16% normal goat serum, 450 mM NaCl, 0.3% Triton X-100, and 20 mM phosphate buffer (PB, pH

7.4). The slides were then incubated in primary antibodies diluted in GSDB, for 3 hours, in a wet

chamber at room temperature. Four washing steps followed, that lasted 10 minutes each, two

of them with Wash Buffer (450 mM NaCl, 0.3% Triton X-100 and 20mM PB) and two more with

PBS. The slides were then incubated with secondary antibodies overnight at 4°C and, afterwards,

washed twice with Wash Buffer and twice more with PBS as before. Before mounting, the slides

were maintained in 5mM PB for 10 minutes and were then mounted with a drop of Mowiol (Carl

Roth GmbH, Karlsruhe, Germany) and covered with a thin glass coverslip. Double sided tape

spacers of 120µm thickness were used for mounting to flank the slice before the application of

Mowiol. This way, the coverslip's weight would not be applied fully on the slice, avoiding extra

vertical pressure, which resulted in better preservation of structural integrity of the tissue.

Immunofluorescence imaging was performed on a Zeiss LSM 780 Microscope with a 40x NA1.4

Oil Plan-Apochromat objective. *Primary antibodies:* chicken-anti-GFP (1:500, Abcam, Berlin,

Germany), guinea-pig-anti-vGLUT1 (1:1000, Synaptic Systems GmbH, Göttingen, Germany).

Secondary antibodies: goat-anti-chicken 488 (1:200, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, USA)

goat-anti-guinea-pig 568 (1:200, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, USA).

1218

Inferior colliculus recordings during optical stimulation of the cochlea in the Mongolian gerbil

Multi-channel recordings of neuronal clusters were performed in the tonotopically organized

central nucleus of the inferior colliculus (IC) of Mongolian gerbils at the age of 82.9 ± 18.1 days;

while stimulating SGNs optically or acoustically as previously described[35]. Briefly, a craniotomy

was performed on the right hemisphere of the animal's skull to access the IC, contralateral to the

injected ear. A linear 32-electrode silicon probe (Neuronexus, Ann Arbor, USA) was positioned

above the brain ~2mm lateral to lambda and then was slowly inserted ~3.3mm into the brain

(measured from the surface of visual cortex) using a micromanipulator. Mapping of recording

sites was done using acoustic stimuli (Fig. S13) and the probe was further advanced (or retracted)

accordingly. Recordings were performed using a Digital Lynx 4S recording system (Neuralynx;

Dublin, Ireland) along with custom-built hardware, in combination with custom-written and

established MATLAB software.

1231

Data analysis of inferior colliculus recordings

The recorded signal from the 32 channels was bandpass filtered between 600 and 6000 Hz,

digitized and spike times were computed as any waveform crossing three times the mean

absolute deviation of the signal (MAD). A one millisecond refractory period was included to not

overestimate the spike count of the signal. Post-stimulus time histograms (PSTH) were computed

by binning spike counts in 0.2 ms bins. The first three consecutive bins crossing threshold of 3x

MAD indicate t_{on} and, respectively, the last three consecutive bins over threshold indicate t_{off}.

Based on the time window extracted, the signal was further analyzed and sorted in a two-

dimensional matrix according to stimulus intensity and corresponding recording site. From this

matrix, we calculated the cumulative distribution index (d') based on spike rates calculated across

increasing intensities starting with 0 intensity condition. This indicates a change/increase in the

neuronal firing rate in relation to baseline levels i.e. a d' of 1 indicates an increase in firing rate

of 1 standard deviation from baseline and distinguish triggered signals from noise[35]. Based on

these computed matrices, iso-contour lines at integer d' values were constructed and minimums

specify thresholds to d' indicated. A d' of 1 indicates an increase in firing rate of 1 standard

deviation from baseline and distinguish triggered signals from noise[35]. Based on these computed

matrixes, iso-contour lines at integer d' values were constructed and minimums specify

thresholds to d' indicated.

To analyze temporal properties, activity obtained from responsive recording channels were

extracted and channels reaching a d' of 1 when optically stimulating at 1 mW were analyzed

further. To calculate the number of spikes per stimulus, we divided the spike counts recorded by

the number of repeats per recording and by the number of pulses from stimulation rate used. To

calculate the vector strength, a measure of spike timing relative to stimulation cycle the following

formula was employed as previously[41]:To analyze temporal properties, responsive recording

channels were extracted and channels reaching a d' of 1 when optically stimulating at 1 mW were

analyzed further. To calculate the number of spikes per stimulus, we divided the spike counts

recorded by the number of repeats per recording and by the number of pulses from stimulation

rate used To calculate the vector strength, a measure of spike timing relative to stimulation cycle

the following formula was previously[41]:

1261

$$VS = \frac{\sqrt{[\sum_{i=1}^{n} \cos \theta i]^2 + [\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sin \theta i]^2}}{n} \qquad \text{[Equation 7]}$$

1262

1263 With θ describing the spike timing computed from stimulus onset to following stimulus onset for

1264 a given stimulus cycle (phase). The Rayleigh test (eq. 8) was then performed in order to test the

1265 significance of vector strength for each unit and each repeat.

$$L = 2 * length(\theta i) * (VS^2) \qquad \text{[Equation 8]}$$

1266

1267 If L<13.8, p>0.001 and vector strength significance is rejected and set to 0. Firing rates were

1268 computed across all recordings by dividing the spike counts recorded in the determined spike

1269 window by the duration of that spike window. These values were normalized to the highest firing

1270 rate recorded for plotting.

1271

LED-based multichannel cochlear implant calibration

LED based implants were assembled as previously described[43] but employing green CreeLEDs

(531 nm). Prior to each experiment, optical implants were calibrated using custom-made

software built with MATLAB (v2012a) and an integrating sphere (2P3, Thorlabs, Dachau,

Germany). Each LED is calibrated individually using pulsed stimulation with 1 ms pulses from 0 to

100% of maximum 10mA current provided by a current source generated with a custom-made

system based on NI-DAQ-Cards (NI PCI-6229; National Instruments; Austin, US).

1279

LED-based multichannel cochlear implant stimulation

Upon careful insertion through the round window until the most proximal LED, LEDs were

individually addressed using a custom-made system based on NI-DAQ-Cards (NI PCI-6229;

National Instruments; Austin, US). To screen for optical intensity thresholds, each LED was

individually stimulated from 0 to 20% of 10mA current at 1% steps and from 20% to 100% of

10mA current at 10% steps.

1286

Deafening

Following the first set of recordings, the implant was left in place and a solution of 200 mg/ml

kanamycin diluted in saline was injected carefully through the round window. The solution was

left to sit for 15-30 minutes and following deafening confirmation from acoustic recordings, the

experiment protocols were repeated.

Brain histology

Following the end of the experiment, the animal was sacrificed under deep anesthesia via cervical

dislocation and brains/cochleae were collected. Brains were left in 8% FA over a week and

transferred to 30% sucrose for 24 hours. Brains were then carefully mounted using cryomatrix

gel (Shandon Cryomatrix, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham MA, USA) and sectioned coronally.

Slices were 50 µm thick, transferred onto microscope slides (Thermo Superfrost/ColorFrost Plus,

Charged 90° - CS/1440CS/1440, Erie Scientific, Ramsey MI, USA) and prepared for antibody

staining. The staining follows the cochleae staining protocol, after PBS washing, sections were

blocked with goat serum dilution buffer (GSDB) for 1h at room temperature before primary

antibodies for parvalbumin (1:300, guinea pig, Synaptic Systems, Goettingen, Germany) and GFP

(to label ChReef, 1:500, chicken, Abcam, Cambridge, UK). Goat anti-guinea-pig-568 and goat anti-

chicken-488 were used for secondary antibodies and incubated at room temperature for 1h –

slides were ultimately mounted with Mowiol and imaged the following day. Images were taken

in oil at 40x using LSM510 (Zeiss, 467 Jena, Germany) microscope and analyzed with ImageJ (U.

S. National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, Maryland, USA).

Immunostaining, confocal imaging and image analysis for cochlear cryosections of mice and Mongolian gerbils

Directly after the end of the optogenetic measurements, cochleae from both sides were prepared as previously described[14,18,40]. In short, samples were fixed for an hour in 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA), decalcified for 3-4 days in 0.12 M ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA), dehydrated in 25% sucrose solution for 24 hours and cryosectioned (mid-modiolar cryosections, 25 μm tick). Immunofluorescence staining were done in 16% goat serum dilution buffer (16% normal goat serum, 450 mM NaCl, 0.6% Triton X-100, 20 mM phosphate buffer, pH 7.4). The following primary antibodies were used at 4 °C overnight: chicken anti-GFP (1:500, ab13970 Abcam, USA) and guinea pig anti-parvalbumin (1:300, 195004 Synaptic Systems, Germany); and secondary antibodies for one hour in room temperature: goat anti-chicken 488 IgG (1:200, A-11039 Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA) and goat anti-guinea pig 568 IgG (1:200, A-1107 Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA). Finally, slices were mounted in Mowiol 4-88 (Carl Roth, Germany). Samples were imaged with a confocal microscope SP8 (Leica, Germany) mounted with a 40x oil objective. For each cochlear turn (apex, middle and base) an image was taken focusing on the modiolus.

Image analysis was performed by a custom-written MATLAB script modified from[51]. Briefly, SGN somas and modiolus area were manually detected using a touch screen from the parvalbumin images. Next, individual somas were automatically segmented using Otsu's threshold method from every Z-stack and a mask corresponding to the given SGN was defined for the Z-stack for which the mask was fulfilling the criteria of size (area and diameter) and circularity. In case the segmentation was not correct, the segmentation of the given SGN soma was performed manually. Next, the median GFP brightness of each SGNs was measured and its distribution was

fitted with a Gaussian mixture model with up to 3 components. A threshold, above which SGNs

somas were considered as transduced, was defined as average + 3 x standard deviation of the

Gaussian distribution with the lowest mean.

To assess the subcellular expression profiles of ChRmine and ChReef in SGNs, we utilized a

custom-written Python program to plot fluorescence line profiles, incorporating a manual

verification process. The process began by using the manually detected centroids (as explained

in the previous analysis) of all cells to generate 2D square crops of the images, each containing

one complete SGN. For each 2D crop, the Z-plane was selected by maximizing fluorescence in the

cytoplasmic parvalbumin channel.

Cell membrane masks were automatically generated based on the cytoplasmic parvalbumin

channel fluorescence using a fixed threshold. Line profiles were then automatically positioned

perpendicular to these masks and avoiding intersection with surrounding cells. Manual

verification of SGN masks and line profile positions was conducted using a custom graphical

interface developed with Napari. The Z-plane was manually checked for a noticeable

fluorescence drop indicating the nucleus's position; cells lacking a discernible nucleus were

excluded to prevent bias from including line profiles in the nuclear region or parallel to the cell

surface. Any line profiles that intersected visually identifiable nuclei were excluded from further

analysis.

Only cells and line profiles that passed manual verification were used in further analysis. Cells

with fewer than three confirmed line profiles were automatically excluded. Fluorescence data

from the YFP channel was recorded along each line profile and averaged across all lines for each

cell, creating an expression line profile for each cell. These expression line profiles from all

verified cells were then averaged, and the standard deviation was calculated.

1353

Methods of optogenetic stimulation of the auditory pathway in the common marmoset

Animal housing

Data were obtained from nine 2.5 to 3.75 year old common marmosets of either sex (5 male, 4

female). Animals were pair housed in a colony of about 50 animals consisting of several rooms

with acoustic but no visual contact to neighboring pairs. The colony maintained a 12h:12h light-

dark cycle at a temperature of 26 ± 1.5 °C and a relative humidity of 60 - 80 %. Animals were fed

ad libitum a diet of fresh fruits, vegetables, nuts, arabic gum, rice, pasta, potatoes, meal worms,

crickets, joghurt, various minerals as well as pellets. Water was always available and was

occasionally mixed up with unsweetened tea.

Injection method

First, animals received Metacam (0.2 mg/kg BW) either orally – or if not possible – via s.c.

injection and were anesthetized with injections of Alfaxan (10mg/kg BW, i.m.) and Midazolam

(0.125 mg per animal, i.m.). Additionally, dexamethasone (5 mg/kg BW, i.m.) and Cerenia (1

mg/kg BW, s.c.) were also applied. The fur around the surgical site was removed. Then, an

intravenous catheter was placed in the vena saphena and the animal was intubated using a 00

Miller blade and a custom-made unblocked endotracheal tube for artificial ventilation. Next,

anesthesia was transferred to a combined volatile-intravenous anesthesia with Sevoflurane (ca.

2 – 3 %) and Propofol-Remifentanil (0.3 – 0.4 mg/kg/min; 10 – 25 µg/kg/h, respectively) to effect.

During surgery body temperature was maintained between 37 and 38°C with a heating pad and

a forced air warming blanket wrapped around the animals' body. Additionally, physiological

parameters were monitored throughout the surgery via ECG and pulse oximetry. Surgery itself

was performed under standard aseptic technique. Local analgesia was achieved with Carbostesin

injections around the surgical site. The cochlea was accessed via a retroauricular incision, blunt

dissection of post-auricular as well as temporal muscles to expose the linea temporalis and

mastoidectomy ventral to the linea temporalis. Utmost care was used to avoid damaging the

horizontal semicircular canal and facial nerve which served as guiding landmarks. Animals were

initially deafened with flushes of 10 % Neomycin as described previously [64]. In later experiments,

Neomycin was added to the viral suspension to a final concentration of 10 %. In addition, the

ossicle chain was disrupted by removal of the malleus. The viral suspension was administered

either via a pipette pulled from borosilicate and pressure injection or a silicone catheter was used

to slowly (15 µl/30 min; UMP3, World Precision Instruments) inject. In both cases, the round

window membrane was identified and gently ruptured. To prevent pressure build-up inside the

cochlea during slow injection, a ventilation hole was opened either with a rose burr next to the

oval window or by removing the stapes when surgical access was favorable. Excess viral

suspension was carefully suctioned to avoid unwanted transfection of surrounding tissue. In later

experiments, Dexamethasone was added to the viral suspension (2 %). Three different titers of

viral suspension (15µl) were used 5x 10^{10} , 10^{11}, und 5x 10^{11} GC) and injected in three animals

each. Animals were randomly assigned to each group and experimenters were blinded to the

condition. After virus injection the round window and vent holes were closed with autologous

tissue, the mastoidectomy closed by replacing the temporal and post-auricular muscles. The skin

and muscles were then sutured with 5/0 absorbable suture. For direct post-operative pain

management, Buprenorphine (0.005 mg/kg BW, s.c.) was administered. To prevent hypoglycemia

Glucose (5%, 2 ml) was administered s.c. Post-operative care included repeated antibiotic

administration (Amoxicillin 37.5 mg/kg BW) every 48 h for 8 days as well as analgesia via

Metacam administration (0.2 mkg/kg BW, p.o.).

Acoustic auditory brainstem recordings

Hearing status of animals was assessed with a custom built mobile audiometry setup twice

throughout the experiment: first several weeks before virus injection and second after a recovery

period of 2 to 4 weeks after virus injection. Towards this, animals were anesthetized with a

mixture of Alfaxan (10mg/kg BW, i.m.) and Midazolam (0.125 mg per animal, i.m.). Further,

Metacam (0.2 mg/kg BW) was administered either orally – or if not possible – via s.c. injection.

After anesthesia initiation animals were placed on a heat pad, wrapped in a forced air warming

blanket and body temperature maintained at 37 to 38 °C. Otoscopic evaluation of ear canals was

performed next to rule out signs of infection and was found to be normal in all cases. Afterwards,

animals were transferred onto a warmed saline bag on a heat pad within a stereotaxic frame.

Animals were not fixed inside the frame but made use of custom-made ear bars containing

earphone (Etymotic ER-4PT) and microphone (Sennheiser MKE 2 P-C) inserts. Ear bars were

gently inserted into the outer ear canals. Monitoring of the microphone signal upon acoustic

stimulation ensured correct placement. Auditory stimuli were calibrated separately with 3D

printed ear molds of common marmosets where a 1/8th inch microphone (G.R.A.S. 46 BE) was

placed at the position of the tympanic membrane. Stimulus generation and delivery, as well as

data acquisition was performed using a custom-written software (MATLAB, MathWorks, Natick,

MA, United States) employing National Instrument data acquisition cards and a custom-build

laser-controller. Recordings were conducted in a dedicated operating theater for non-human

primate surgery. If necessary, anesthesia was maintained by re-injecting Alfaxan (5 mg/kg BW).

Acoustically evoked ABRs (aABRs) were recorded by placing needle electrodes behind the pinna,

on the vertex, and on the neck of the anesthetized animals. The difference in potential between

the vertex and mastoid subdermal needles was amplified using a custom-designed amplifier,

sampled at a rate of 50 kHz for 10 ms, filtered (300–3000 Hz) and averaged across at least 750

stimulus presentations. In case of pure tone stimulation a bandpass filter centered on the pure

tone frequency removed stimulus artifacts observed sometimes. The ABRs threshold was defined

and determined as the lowest light or sound intensity for which one of the 5 waves (aABR) or 2

waves (oABR) was reliably visible.

Optically driven auditory brainstem recordings

11 (± 3 SD) weeks after virus injection, animals were subjected to *in vivo* optical stimulation and

recordings. Here, the general surgical and anesthesia procedure was the same as for the virus

application. After again a retroauricular incision, to avoid excessive bleeding due to scar tissue

development, the surgical approach to the cochlea was adjusted and included removal of the

posterior bony part of the ear canal. Next, needle electrodes were placed behind the pinna, on

the vertex, and on the neck and the difference in potential between the vertex and mastoid

subdermal needles was amplified and treated as described for the aABR measurements above.

A 200 μm optical fiber coupled to both a 525 nm (Oxxius, France) and a 488 nm (OBIS) laser was

used for optical stimulation. Laser power was calibrated prior to each experiment using a laser

power meter (Gentec EO-Solo , or S140C Thorlabs, Germany). After the cessation of optical

stimulation experiments, animals were euthanized under deep anesthesia via an injection of an

overdose of pentobarbital and transcardially perfused with 4 % FA with the descending aorta

clamped.

Immunostaining and confocal imaging of cochlear cryosections

After euthanasia, temporal bones were postfixed in 4 % FA for 48 h. The facial nerves exiting

the foramen stylomastoideus were dissected and the soft tissue overlying the temporal bones

were removed to allow trimming bone around the cochlea under visual guidance. Next, the

cochlea and vestibular organs were transferred into 5 M EDTA for decalcification. During a period

of at least 2 weeks, EDTA was regularly exchanged and softened bone removed from the cochlea.

Additionally, the facial nerve was removed from its bony capsule overlying the cochlea. Once

completed, the cochlea was prepared for whole mounts of the organ of Corti and mid-modiolar

cochlear cryosections. Here, the spiral ligament and bone lamella of the apex were carefully

removed to access the organ of Corti and dissecting it by cutting the spiral lamina. Next, the stria

vascularis and tectorial membrane were removed. This procedure was repeated until the whole

organ of Corti was dissected into consecutive whole mounts and the cochlear modiolus. Finally,

the whole mounts and modioli were stored in phosphate buffered saline. The modioli were then

processed similarly to rodent samples: after a 24 h dehydration step in 25 % sucrose solution,

samples were cryosectioned (mid-modiolar cryosections, 16 µm tick). Immunofluorescence

staining was performed in 16% goat serum dilution buffer (16% normal goat serum, 450 mM

NaCl, 0.6% Triton X-100, 20 mM phosphate buffer, pH 7.4). The following primary antibodies

were used at 4 °C overnight: chicken anti-GFP (1:500, ab13970 Abcam, USA) and guinea pig anti-

parvalbumin (1:300, 195004 Synaptic Systems, Germany) as well as mouse anti-NF200 (1:400,

Sigma, St. Louis, USA); and secondary antibodies for one hour in room temperature: goat anti-

chicken 488 IgG (1:200, Invitrogen Scientific, USA), goat anti-guinea pig 568 IgG (1:200,

Invitrogen, USA) and anti-mouse 633 (1:200, Invitrogen). Finally, slices were mounted in Mowiol

4-88 (Carl Roth, Germany). Whole mounts were first permeabilized with TritonX 0,5% in PBS.

Staining was then performed in 10 % goat serum dilution buffer and guinea pig anti-parvalbumin

(1:200; Synaptic systems, Germany), rabbit anti-Otoferlin (1:500; SySy) and chicken anti-GFP

(1:500; Abcam) were used as primary antibodies. As secondary antibodies anti-chicken 488

(1:1000; Invitrogen), anti-guinea pig 568 (1:1000; Invitrogen) and anti-rabbit 633 (1:1000;

Thermo Fisher) were used. Samples were imaged with a confocal microscope SP8 (Leica,

Germany) mounted with a 40x oil objective. For each cochlear turn (apex, middle and base) an

image was taken focusing on the modiolus. Image analysis was performed by a custom-written

MATLAB script modified from[65]. Briefly, SGN somas and modiolus area were manually detected

using a touch screen from the parvalbumin images. Next, individual somas were automatically

segmented using Otsu's threshold method from every Z-stack and a mask corresponding to the

given SGN was defined for the Z-stack for which the mask was fulfilling the criteria of size (area

and diameter) and circularity. In case the segmentation was not right, the segmentation of the

given SGN soma was performed manually. Next, the median GFP brightness of each SGNs was

measured and its distribution was fitted with a Gaussian mixture model with up to 3 components.

A threshold, above which SGNs somas were considered as transduced, was defined as average +

3 x standard deviation of the Gaussian distribution with the lowest mean. The density of inner

hair cells (IHCs) along the whole mounts was calculated by placing a curve along the (presumed)

IHC, measuring its length and assessing the number of identified IHC.

Data analysis

During the injection, oABR measurements as well as histological analysis, experimenters were

blinded to the experimental group. Unblinding was performed afterwards.

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1486   **Data availability statement:** The data that support the findings of this study is available from the
1487   corresponding authors upon reasonable request.

1488   **Code availability statement:** The code used for analysis is available from the corresponding
1489   authors upon reasonable request.

1490

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1521

Author contributions

TM, TMa, BW, EM and TB designed the research. ChR construct design and mutagenesis were

conducted by TMa. In vitro characterization was a collaborative effort by MZ, AA, AG and IW

under supervision of TMa. Virus design and production was done by KK. Optogenetic cardiac

stimulation experiments were performed by MH, SMK, MA, LC, and TB. Optogenetic vision

restoration research was undertaken by DS, KDRG, ST, and EM. VH, TA, FE, AV, and BW performed

the optogenetic stimulation of the auditory periphery with supervision of TM. Marmoset work

was performed by MJ, AM, BW, AH, KK and AR. MZ, TH, AA, AV, FE, DS, TB and TA prepared

figures with input from other authors. TM, TMa, and BW wrote the paper with contributions of

EM, TB. TM, EM and TB acquired funding. All authors have reviewed and approved the final
version of the manuscript for submission.

1533

1534 **Competing interests**

1535 TM is co-founder of the OptoGenTech Company. TM, MZ and TMa are authors on a pending
1536 patent application related to this work, filed by Universitaetsmedizin Goettingen and
1537 OptoGenTech (EPA-22155173). Remaining authors declare no conflict of interest.

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