Neurexins control the strength and precise timing of glycinergic inhibition in the

auditory brainstem

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Abstract

Neurexins play diverse functions as presynaptic organizers in various glutamatergic and GABAergic synapses. However, it remains unknown whether and how neurexins are involved in shaping functional properties of the glycinergic synapses, which mediate prominent inhibition in the brainstem and spinal cord. To address these issues, we examined the role of neurexins in a model glycinergic synapse between the principal neuron in the medial nucleus of the trapezoid body (MNTB) and the principal neuron in the lateral superior olive (LSO) in the auditory brainstem. Combining RNAscope with stereotactic injection of AAV-Cre in the MNTB of neurexin1/2/3 conditional triple knockout mice, we showed that MNTB neurons highly express all isoforms of neurexins although their expression levels vary remarkably. Selective ablation of all neurexins in MNTB neurons not only reduced the amplitude but also altered the kinetics of the glycinergic synaptic transmission at LSO neurons. The synaptic dysfunctions primarily resulted from an impaired Ca^{2+} sensitivity of release and a loosened coupling between voltage-gated Ca^{2+} channels and synaptic vesicles. Together, our current findings demonstrate that neurexins are essential in controlling the strength and temporal precision of the glycinergic synapse, which therefore corroborates the role of neurexins as key presynaptic organizers in all major types of fast chemical synapses.

Introduction

Neurexins are evolutionarily conserved synaptic adhesion molecules and their genetic mutations are highly associated with autism and schizophrenia (Gomez et al., 2021; Sudhof, 2008; 2017). In the vertebrates, neurexins are encoded by three genes Nrxn1, Nrxn2, Nrxn3, each of which contains distinct promoters for expressing longer α- and shorter β-neurexins (Ullrich et al., 1995; Ushkaryov et al., 1992). Both α- and β-neurexins are critical and non-redundant in regulating the formation and function of synapses (Anderson et al., 2015; Missler et al., 2003; Sudhof, 2017). Triple knockout (KO) of α-neurexins causes a significant decrease in the density of GABAergic but not glutamatergic synapses while producing a strong reduction in both inhibitory and excitatory synaptic transmission(Missler *et al.*, 2003). Triple KO of β-neurexins reveals a significant phenotype only in glutamatergic synapses, but not in GABAergic synapses (Anderson *et al.*, 2015). Deletion of all neurexins, including Nrxn1/2/3 α- and β-neurexins, leads to profound but strikingly distinct phenotypes in different synapses, which further points to the diverse actions of neurexins in specific neurons (Chen et al., 2017; Luo et al., 2020). Consistently, transcriptomic analysis has revealed that the expression profiles of various neurexins differ remarkably in excitatory neurons versus inhibitory neurons even among distinct subtypes of interneurons (Foldy et al., 2016; Fuccillo et al., 2015; Lukacsovich et al., 2019; Uchigashima et al., 2019). Despite the multifaceted roles of neurexins widely observed in various glutamatergic and GABAergic synapses (Boxer and Aoto, 2022; Chen *et al.*, 2017; Luo et al., 2021; Sudhof, 2017), however, it remains largely unknown how neurexins may regulate the functional properties of the glycinergic synapses, which mediate essential inhibition in the spinal cord, brainstem and retina (Assareh et al., 2023; Brill et al., 2020; Chang et al., 2023; Feng et al., 1998; Foster et al., 2015; Gomeza et al., 2003a; Gomeza et al., 2003b; Zeilhofer et al., 2012).

In the mature mammalian auditory brainstem, it is well-characterized that the principal neurons in the medial nucleus of the trapezoid body (MNTB) project glycinergic synaptic inputs to the lateral superior olive (LSO) (Fischer et al., 2019; Kotak et al., 1998; Nabekura et al., 2004; Sanes and Friauf, 2000). These synapses are robust, precise and extremely reliable even during high frequency stimulation(Krachan et al., 2017). Strong evidence has shown that the

MNTB-LSO glycinergic synapses are subject to extensive refinement during development, including transmitter type switch, the elaboration of dendrites and axonal arbors followed by synaptic pruning, to achieve exquisite control of fast inhibition(Brill *et al.*, 2020; Kim and Kandler, 2003; Kotak *et al.*, 1998; Nabekura *et al.*, 2004; Sanes and Friauf, 2000). However, the molecular mechanisms of shaping their functional characteristic remain incompletely understood.

We utilized the triple Nrxn1/2/3 conditional KO mice (Nrxn123 cTKO) (Chen *et al.*, 2017) to ablate all neurexins in MNTB principal neurons with stereotactic injection of adeno-associated -virus (AAV) expressing Cre-recombinase. Combining this with the RNAscope technique, we verified that MNTB neurons highly express various isoforms of neurexins. Selective injection of AAV-Cre, but not AAV-EGFP, successfully blocked expression of all neurexins in MNTB neurons. Functionally, pan-neurexin deletion significantly impaired both the amplitude and the kinetics of the glycinergic synaptic transmission. Surprisingly, deletion of all neurexins led to a significantly higher number of glycinergic synapses innervating the LSO and higher frequency of spontaneous neurotransmitter release. Application of low extracellular Ca^{2+} blocked the glycinergic neurotransmission of both control and neurexin-deficient synapses, but with a significant difference in its effectiveness. Moreover, treatment with EGTA, a high-affinity Ca^{2+} chelator with slow binding kinetics, caused a much stronger inhibition of neurotransmission in neurexin-deficient synapses, suggesting a significant disruption of the tight coupling between voltage-gated Ca^{2+} channels and synaptic vesicles in the MNTB-LSO glycinergic synapses.

Results

Neurexins are highly expressed in MNTB neurons

To study the role and mechanism of neurexins in the glycinergic synapse between MNTB neurons and LSO neurons, which are critical in computing sound localization in mammalian auditory brainstem (Grothe et al., 2010), we first characterized the expression of Nrxn1-3 in the principal neurons of the MNTB by fluorescent *in-situ* hybridization (FISH) using the RNAscope technique. As shown in Figure 1, MNTB neurons in wild-type (WT) mice expressed Nrxn1,

Nrxn2, and Nrxn3, although the expression level of each gene appeared to vary remarkably. As

an initial exploration, we took advantage of Nrxn123 cTKO mice that enable deletion of all

neurexins following the expression of Cre recombinase (Chen *et al.*, 2017), to bypass the

functional redundancy of different neurexins. Neuronal specific deletion of all neurexins was

achieved by stereotactic injection of AAV-Cre-EGFP into the MNTB at P0 (TKO). As a control,

AAV-EGFP was injected (Ctrl). Successful virus injection and expression of Cre recombinase

in MNTB neurons were confirmed by strong EGFP fluorescence (Figure 1d-e). FISH data

further demonstrated that the recombinase dramatically blocked the expression of all neurexins,

as compared to the normal expression of neurexins when EGFP was expressed (Figure 1f,

compared to 1b). Altogether, these data show that the glycinergic neurons in the MNTB highly

express various neurexin genes, which can be specifically deleted by stereotactic injection of

AAV-Cre in Nrxn123 cTKO mice.

Neurexins are essential for dictating the strength and kinetics of the MNTB-LSO

glycinergic synapse

Since neurexins play an essential role in orchestrating functional organization of various

synapses including both glutamatergic and GABAergic synapses, we hypothesize that deletion

of all neurexins may have a significant impact on glycinergic synapses. To test the hypothesis,

we sought to examine how neurexins may regulate the function of the MNTB-LSO glycinergic

synapse in the auditory brainstem. Because LSO neurons receive excitatory glutamatergic

inputs and inhibitory GABAergic/glycinergic inputs, we used a pharmacological approach to

isolate the glycinergic inputs. By blocking glutamatergic inputs with CNQX and AP5, we were

able to selectively record inhibitory postsynaptic currents (IPSCs) from LSO neurons, which

can be completely inhibited by strychnine, a potent glycine receptor inhibitor (Figure S1).

To specifically examine the role of neurexins in regulating the glycinergic synapse, we used

an optogenetic approach in which two AAVs, AAV-Cre-EGFP and AAV-DIO-ChR2-mCherry,

were co-injected in Nrxn123 cTKO mice. As a control, AAV-ChR2-EYFP was used for injection.

Virus injection was performed at P0 and acute slices derived from these mice were analyzed

at P13-14. We verified the successful expression of ChR2 by examining the fluorescence and

further by recording optogenetically-evoked action potentials from the soma of MNTB neurons.

Reliable action potential (AP) firing can be induced by single or repetitive high-frequency light

stimulation (Figure S1c). In control mice, optogenetic stimulation of MNTB neurons robustly

triggered large IPSCs recorded from LSO neurons (Figure 2a-b), which can be fully blocked by

strychnine (Figure S1d) and are thus purely glycinergic. In TKO mice with co-injection of Cre

and ChR2, however, optogenetic stimulation induced significantly smaller IPSCs (Figure 2a-b).

On average, we observed ~60% reduction in the peak amplitude (Figure 2b), similar to previous

findings at other different synapses (Chen *et al.*, 2017; Luo *et al.*, 2020). Furthermore, the

kinetics of IPSCs were dramatically reduced as indicated by significantly slower rise time and

decay time in TKO mice as compared to the control (Figure 2c-d). Together, these data strongly

suggest that neurexins are essential for the intact function of the glycinergic synapse.

To further address the physiological role of neurexins in action potential evoked

neurotransmission at the glycinergic synapse, we applied electric stimulation to activate

presynaptic fibers of MNTB neurons by placing a stimulating electrode in the midway between

the MNTB and the LSO. Consistent with our optogenetic approach, afferent-evoked large

IPSCs were predominantly glycinergic as they can also be fully blocked by strychnine (Figure

S1). A modest but significant decrease in synaptic strength was observed in Nrxn123 TKO mice

as compared to control mice (Figure 2e-f), confirming the important role of neurexins in the

glycinergic synapses. The modest effect of the pan-neurexin deletion on synaptic strength in

the MNTB-LSO synapses is likely due to the incomplete AAV virus transfection in MNTN

neurons. Therefore, it is likely that a small fraction of MNTB neurons may still express relatively

normal expression of neurexins. It is worth pointing out that extensive efforts were made to

optimize our virus injection protocols by adjusting the injection parameters including the needle

angle, virus titers, and volume. On average, it was estimated that approximately ~80% neurons

in the MNTB expressed GFP and thus were infected by AAV-Cre. It is also possible that other

sources of glycinergic inputs other than the MNTB afferents are likely to present but are

obscured in wild-type animals by the predominant glycinergic inputs from MNTB neurons

(Jalabi et al., 2013).

The mechanism of neurexins for regulating the MNTB-LSO glycinergic synapse

Since neurexins play multifaceted roles in regulating pre- and/or post-synaptic functions,

we explored the potential mechanisms by initially examining the paired-pulse ratio (PPR) of

IPSCs, which has been routinely used for identifying a presynaptic origin of regulation. As

shown in Figure 2i, IPSCs evoked by two consecutive stimuli at various intervals showed a

paired-pulse depression in both control and TKO mice. However, the PPRs were significantly

increased by deletion of neurexins (Figure 2j, s2), suggesting that neurexins are required for

maintaining a high release probability of the glycinergic nerve terminal.

We then recorded and analyzed spontaneous IPSCs from LSO neurons. Compared to the

control, there was no significant difference in both the amplitude and kinetics of sIPSCs (Figure

3a-d) in TKO mice, indicating the normal content of synaptic vesicle as well as the normal

function of postsynaptic glycine receptors. Surprisingly, however, we found that deletion of all

neurexins caused a small but significant increase in the frequency of sIPSCs (Figure 3a-b),

which is opposite to previous reports of either no change or decrease in the miniature frequency

at glutamatergic or GABAergic synapse (Chen *et al.*, 2017; Luo *et al.*, 2020). To test whether

the increase in sIPSC frequency may be caused by an increase in the number of glycinergic

synapses, we performed immunostaining of brainstem sections containing the LSO with

antibodies specific for GlyT2 or VGAT, synaptic markers for the glycinergic neurons. Consistent

with the increased frequency of sIPSCs, we found a significant increase in the density   of both

GlyT2 (Figure 3e-f) and VGAT (Figure 3g-h) staining, suggesting more abundant glycinergic

terminals at the LSO of TKO mice. Together, these data show that the pan-neurexin deletion in

MNTB neurons has surprisingly increased the baseline glycinergic neurotransmission, which is

distinct from the phenotypes observed in glutamatergic and GABAergic neurons (Chen *et al.*,

2017; Luo *et al.*, 2021).

Deletion of neurexins impairs the tight coupling between voltage-gated Ca^{2+} channels

and synaptic vesicles at the glycinergic synapse

Because neurexins are shown to exert diverse impacts including specifying the function of

voltage-gated Ca^{2+} channels and their spatial clustering within the presynaptic active zone

(Chen *et al.*, 2017; Luo *et al.*, 2020; Missler *et al.*, 2003), we approached the matter by first

exploring the effect of pan-neurexin deletion on the calcium sensitivity of neurotransmitter

release at the MNTB-LSO synapse. We perfused the brain slice with low Ca^{2+} (0.2 mM) ACSF

while recording IPSCs continuously. In both control and Nrxn123 TKO mice, the perfusion of

low Ca^{2+} ACSF gradually decreased the amplitude of IPSCs (Figure 4a, c). However, the

reduction rate was much faster in TKO mice such that IPSC amplitudes dropped more than 50%

in TKO vs ~10% in control when extracellular $[Ca^{2+}]$ reached to approximately 1.5 mM (Figure

4b, d). The extracellular $[Ca^{2+}]$ blocking 50% of IPSCs were estimated as 1.1 mM and 1.5 mM

respectively for control and TKO mice, which are significantly different (Figure 4e, f), suggesting

that neurexins indeed are crucial for regulating calcium sensitivity of transmitter release at the

glycinergic synapse.

One of the critical factors affecting the calcium sensitivity of release is the spatial distance

between Ca^{2+} channels and synaptic vesicles (Eggermann et al., 2011; Luo *et al.*, 2020).

Additionally, neurexins have been shown to promote tight coupling of Ca^{2+} channels with

synaptic vesicle at the glutamatergic calyx of Held synapse (Luo *et al.*, 2020). Because the

MNTB-LSO glycinergic synapse is similar on multiple aspects of the functional characteristics,

being fast, robust, and precise, to the calyx of Held synapse, we tested whether neurexins are

also required for the tight coupling of Ca^{2+} channels with synaptic vesicle. We incubated the

brain slice with high-concentration EGTA-AM and continuously recorded IPSCs from individual

LSO neurons. As illustrated in Figure 5, EGTA-AM treatment slightly blocked IPSCs at control

synapses, suggesting the relative ineffectiveness of EGTA in interfering neurotransmitter

release (Figure 5a, b). By contrast, at the neurexin-deficient synapses, EGTA-AM treatment

remarkably impaired IPSCs (Figure 5c, d). On average, the blocking effects of EGTA at

neurexin-deficient synapses (53.2 ± 5.4%) were much stronger than the effect at control

synapses (15.6 ± 4.3%). Therefore, consistent with previous studies at the calyx of Held

synapse (Luo *et al.*, 2020), our data provide further support that neurexins are key synaptic

organizers for tightly clustering voltage-gated Ca^{2+} channels with synaptic vesicles at the

glycinergic synapse.

Discussion

Using the MNTB-LSO synapse as a model, here we provide first assessment of the role of

neurexins at glycinergic synapses that mediate prominent synaptic inhibition in the brainstem.

Our findings in general strongly corroborate the idea that neurexins are central presynaptic

organizers in all major types of fast chemical synapses including glutamatergic, GABAergic and

glycinergic.

Specifically, we have shown that various neurexin genes express concurrently in these

glycinergic neurons but the expression level of each appears to vary significantly (Figure 1).

This finding is consistent with many studies in glutamatergic and GABAergic neurons, which

converge to show that multiple genes, isoforms, and splicing sites of neurexins normally co-

express in individual neurons and the expression profiles are highly cell-type specific and brain

region specific (Fuccillo *et al.*, 2015; Schreiner et al., 2014; Treutlein et al., 2014; Uchigashima

et al., 2019). Distinct neurexins may interact separately and/or redundantly with diverse

signaling molecules to form specific molecular codes for shaping neuronal connectivity and

functional properties (Aoto et al., 2015; Aoto et al., 2013; Dai et al., 2019; Lin et al., 2023; Lloyd

et al., 2023; Sudhof, 2017). The observed differential expression of individual neurexins

suggests the possibility that specific isoforms may exert dominant regulatory roles in

neurotransmission in different synapses. For instance, compelling evidence indicates that

Nrxn3, arguably the best studied neurexin isoform, is selectively required for intact synaptic

function in the olfactory bulb GABAergic neurons (Aoto *et al.*, 2015; Trotter et al., 2023).

Understanding the distinct roles of each neurexin isoform in regulating glycinergic synaptic

transmission is crucial for future studies. Particularly noteworthy is the potential involvement of

Nrxn3, the most abundant isoform, in this synapse.

We further show that neurexins are critical in controlling the strength and precise timing of

the glycinergic synaptic inhibition at LSO neurons by clustering Ca^{2+} channels tightly with

synaptic vesicles in presynaptic release sites (Figures 2, 4 and 5). These data strongly

corroborate two perspectives on the function of neurexins as central presynaptic organizers.

First, deletion of all neurexins not only weakens the glycinergic synaptic connectivity but also

impairs the temporal precision of synaptic inhibition, exactly as it does at the glutamatergic

calyx of Held synapse (Luo *et al.*, 2020). Since both the glutamatergic calyx of Held synapse

and the glycinergic MNTB-LSO synapse in the auditory brainstem are extremely strong and

fast (Beiderbeck et al., 2018; Grothe, 2003), the orchestrating role of neurexins in controlling

the timing and magnitude of their synaptic transmission is therefore desirable for the auditory

information processing. Secondly, neurexins execute their role at the glycinergic synapse

mainly by tightly organizing Ca^{2+} channels within the release sites, again exactly as it does at

the calyx of Held synapse (Luo *et al.*, 2020). Nanodomain coupling between Ca^{2+} channels and

synaptic vesicles has been found in many fast central synapses and is functionally crucial for

increasing the efficacy and speed of neurotransmission (Eggermann *et al.*, 2011). This similar

role of neurexins in clustering Ca^{2+} channels tightly at presynaptic active zones of not only the

glutamatergic synapse but also the glycinergic synapse prompts a shared mechanism and

further research on the potential molecular candidates.

On the other hand, our data surprisingly reveal that deletion of neurexins may promote the

formation/maintenance of the glycinergic synapse, as evidenced by the increase in the

frequency of spontaneous synaptic events measured at LSO neurons as well as the increase

in the glycinergic synaptic density in Nrxn123 TKO mice (Figure 3). Early studies of TKOs of α-

neurexins or β-neurexins lead to general conclusion that neurexins are not essential for the

formation/maintenance of excitatory and inhibitory synapses (Anderson *et al.*, 2015; Missler *et*

al., 2003). Moreover, deletion of all α-neurexins and β-neurexins has no impact on the

formation/maintenance of glutamatergic synapse (Luo *et al.*, 2020) and GABAergic synapse

made by somatostatin-positive interneurons (Chen *et al.*, 2017), but produces partial loss

(~30%) of GABAergic synapse made by parvalbumin-positive interneurons (Chen *et al.*, 2017).

There are several possibilities that may explain our present findings on the glycinergic synapse.

First, the most parsimonious explanation would be that neurexins play contradictory dual roles

at the glycinergic synapse: orchestrate the synchronized synaptic transmission by promoting

tight coupling of Ca^{2+} channels with synaptic vesicles at the presynaptic active zone; restrict

the formation of weaker synapse or spontaneous transmission. Another well-established

example of synaptic protein with dual functions in synaptic transmission is synaptotagmin 1,

which acts as a calcium sensor to trigger synchronous release while clamps and restricts

spontaneous fusion of vesicles on the other hand(Sudhof, 2013). It is worthy of note that

synaptotagmin can specifically interact with neurexins (Hata et al., 1993). Second, deletion of

neurexins impairs the strength of the MNTB-LSO synapse, which may indirectly interfere with

synaptic elimination process and therefore lead to an increase in synaptic density. Third, the

more abundant glycinergic synapses may arise from the developmental compensation of

synapse formation by other sources of glycinergic neurons (Jalabi *et al.*, 2013). Strong

reduction in the strength of the MNTB-LSO synapse caused by selective deletion of neurexins

may shift the winner of synaptic competition toward other parallel but much weaker glycinergic

inputs in normal animals.

Methods

Mouse breeding and virus injection.

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

Bioland Laboratory, Guangzhou National Laboratory, Guangzhou, China. Transgenic Nrxn123

cTKO mice of either sex were used for all experiments. Mice were housed at room

temperature on a 12 h light–dark cycle (7:00 to 19:00, light) with food and water freely

available.

To delete neurexins in MNTB neurons, we injected P0 mice with AAV2/9-hSyn-EGFP-

P2A-Cre-WPRE-hGH-Poly (Cat:PT-0156, BrainVTA Co., China). Mice were anesthetized on

ice and immediately transferred to a stereotaxic apparatus (RWD Life Technology, China).

Injection was achieved by connecting a glass pipette with tip diameter 20-30 μm to Nanoject

III programmable nanoliter injector (Drummond Scientific Company, USA). To enhance virus

infection efficiency, we decreased the dosage per injection while increasing the frequency of

injections. Additionally, we ensured the pipette remained immobilized for 20-30 seconds to

guarantee virus absorption at injection sites. As a result of this strategy, we estimated that the

vast majority of MNTB neurons were inoculated by AAVs. Bilateral injections were performed

at the following coordinates: AP from the most rostral point: 5.61 mm, ML: ±0.27 mm, DV:

3.58 mm. For optogenetics experiments, we injected 200 nl (AAV2/9-hSyn-EGFP-P2A-Cre-

WPRE-hGH-PolyA and AAV2/9-EF1α-DIO-hChR2(H134R)-mCherry-WPRE-hGH-Poly, 1:1,

Cat: PT-0002, BrainVTA Co., China) or 100 nl of AAV2/9-hSyn-hChR2(H123R)-EYFP-WPRE-

hGH-PolyA (Cat: PT-1317, BrainVTA Co., China) into each-side MNTB. P13-14 mice of either

sex were used for most experiments including electrophysiology, FISH and

immunohistochemistry.

Acute slice preparation for electrophysiology

Coronal brain slices containing both the MNTB and LSO were prepared similarly as described

previously. In brief, mice of P13-14 were decapitated; brains were rapidly isolated and fixed

on the cutting platform a vibratome (VT1200s; Leica, USA), which was immersed in

oxygenated cold ACSF containing (in mM): 119 NaCl, 26 $NaHCO_3$, 10 glucose, 1.25

NaH_2PO_4, 2.5 KCl, 0.05 $CaCl_2$, 3 $MgCl_2$, 2 Na-pyruvate, and 0.5 ascorbic acid, pH 7.4.

Transverse slices of 250 µm were sectioned and transferred into a beaker with bubbled ACSF

containing (in mM): 119 NaCl, 26 NaHCO3, 10 glucose, 1.25 NaH_2PO_4, 2.5 KCl, 2 $CaCl_2$, 1

$MgCl_2$, 2 Na-pyruvate, and 0.5 ascorbic acid, pH 7.4. Slices were recovered at 35°C for 30

minutes, and stored at room temperature (~21-23°C) for experiments.

Whole-cell voltage-clamped recordings

Whole-cell voltage-clamped recordings were made from visually identified LSO neurons in

acute brain slices using an Axopatch 700B amplifier (Molecular Devices, USA) and pClamp

11 software (Molecular Devices, USA). Patch pipettes were pulled from borosilicate glass

capillaries using a two-stage vertical puller (PC-100, Narashige, Japan). Pipette resistance

was 4-6 MΩ when filled with an internal solution containing (in mM): 145 K-gluconate, 6 KCl,

10 HEPES, 3 Na_2-phosphocreatine, 4 Mg-ATP, 0.3 Na_2-GTP, 0.2 EGTA, 2 Qx-314; pH 7.2

with KOH. With the extracellular [Cl^-] of 133 mM and a temperature of 22°, the equilibrium

potential of the Cl^- was approximately −78.8 mV. In voltage-clamp configuration, IPSCs were

recorded by holding cells at 10 mV in ACSF containing CNQX (20 µM), D-AP5 (50 µM), to

block AMPA, NMDA receptors, respectively. For some experiments, 2 µM strychnine, a

potent glycine receptor antagonist, was added to ACSF to verify that IPSCs recorded at LSO

neurons are glycinergic. Membrane potentials were not corrected for liquid junction potential.

Electrical fiber stimulation was performed using a concentric bipolar electrode (CBAEB75,

FHC Inc, USA) positioned medially to the LSO and MNTB. Short pulses (0.1 ms) were

delivered via an isolated stimulator (Model 2100; A-M Systems, USA). For optogenetics, a

light simulation of 5 ms was delivered by LED (pE-300 white, CoolLED, UK).

Whole-cell current-clamp recordings

Whole-cell current-clamped recordings were performed similarly as voltage-clamped

recordings, except that the internal solution did not contain Qx-314. Action potentials at MNTB

neurons were recorded by holding the membrane potential at approximately −70 mV. For

optogenetics, a light simulation of 5 ms was delivered by LED (pE-300 white, CoolLED, UK).

RNAscope fluorescent in-situ hybridization (FISH) and immunohistochemistry

Mice were anesthetized and perfused at speed of 1ml/min with 1×PBS for 10 min followed by

4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) for 10 min. Brains were removed and stored in 4% PFA overnight

at 4C. After going through a 10%, 20%, and 30% sucrose gradient for cryo-protection, the tissue

was embedded in OCT (Cat：14020108926, Leica) and rapidly frozen on dry ice. Transverse

sections at 16 μm were cut at -20 °C using a cryostat (CM3050-S, Leica) and mounted directly

on Superfrost Plus slides (Cat: PRO-04, Matsunami Platinum Pro). FISH and

immunohistochemistry were performed using the RNAscope multiplex platform (Multiplex

Reagent Kit, Cat: 323100; Co-detection ancillary Kit, Cat: 323180, Advanced Cell Diagnostics)

following the manufacturer's instructions. RNA probes for Nrxn1, Nrxn2, and Nrxn3 (Cat:

461511-C3, 533531-C2, 505431 respectively, Advanced Cell Diagnostics) and primary antibody

against VGluT1 (guinea pig, polyclonal, 1:500, Millipore) were used. Secondary antibodies

were Alexa Fluor conjugates (1:400; Thermo Fisher). Samples were mounted with a

Vectashield hard-set antifade mounting medium (Cat: H-1500, Vector Laboratories). Images

were acquired using Zeiss LSM800 confocal microscope with a 63x oil-immersion objective

(1.4 numerical aperture) or OLYMPUS IXplore SpinSR confocal microscope with a 60x oil-

immersion objective (1.5 numerical aperture). Image analysis were performed using Zeiss 2.6,

cellSens Dimension 3.2 and Image J.

Pharmacological manipulations

To estimate the calcium sensitivity of neurotransmitter release, we perfused the slice with ACSF containing low Ca^{2+} (0.2 mM) and continuously recorded eIPSC. EC_{50} of Ca^{2+} sensitivity was determined using a sigmoidal function ($Y = Min + (Max-Min)/(1+10\hat{}((LogEC_{50}-X) * n)))$, where Y represents IPSC amplitude, X denotes the calculated extracellular Ca^{2+} concentration, Min refers to the minimal amplitude, Max represents the maximum amplitude. To estimate the spatial relationship between voltage-gated Ca^{2+} channels and synaptic vesicles, we perfused the slice with ACSF containing 20 μM EGTA-AM for 25~30 mins while continuously recording eIPSC. The blocking effect of EGTA on eIPSCs were evaluated by comparing eIPSCs before and after EGTA treatment.

Statistical analysis

Data were analyzed in the IgorPro (Version 8) and GraphPad Prism 9 software. Summary of data was displayed as mean ± SEM. Statistical analysis was performed using Student's *t* test, two-way ANOVA, and Mann-Whitney U test. Significance of difference was accepted at $P < 0.05$.

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Conceptualization, F.L.; Experiments, H.J., R.X., X.N., Z.S., X.X., R. P.; Data analysis, H.J.,

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Y.Z, F.L.

DECLARATION OF INTEREST

The authors declare no competing financial interests.

Figure legends

Fig.1 Neurexins are highly expressed in MNTB neurons. (**a**) Immunohistochemistry and RNAscope FISH showing expression of various isoforms of neurexins in the MNTB, which make glycinergic synapses with LSO neurons (**b**) Summary of expression of various isoforms of neurexins in the MNTB of WT mice. Nrxn1 (n = 29), Nrxn2 (n = 29), P = 0.0001; Nrxn1 (n = 29), Nrxn3 (n = 24), P = 0.0001; Nrxn2 (n = 29), Nrxn3 (n = 24), P = 0.0001. (**c**) Diagram of auditory brainstem and virus injection in Nrxn123 cTKO mice. (**d**) Representative images of Nrxn3 FISH in the MNTB of mice injected with AAV-EGFP or AAV-Cre-EGFP. Scale bar: 50 μm. (**e**) Selected ROI in high magnification showing Nrxn3 FISH in MNTB neurons expressing EGFP or Cre-EGFP. Scale bar: 10 μm. (**f**) Summary of expression of various neurexins in the MNTB of Nrxn123 cTKO mice injected with AAV-EGFP and AAV-Cre-EGFP. Nrxn1: EGFP (n = 9), Cre (n = 19), P = 0.0053; Nrxn2: EGFP (n = 8), Cre (n = 14), P = 0.0038; Nrxn3: EGFP (n = 9), Cre (n = 14), P = 0.0016.

Data are means ± SEM. Number of sections analyzed are indicated in the bars (**b**, **f**); Statistical differences were assessed by Student's t test. (**P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001). Source data are provided as a Source Data file.

Figure 2 Deletion of neurexins reduces the strength and kinetics of glycinergic synapse. (**a**) Representative IPSC traces of LSO neurons evoked by optogenetic stimulation of ChR2 expressed in MNTB neurons. (**b-d**) Summary of IPSC amplitude, rise time, and decay time constant. Ctrl (n = 15), TKO (n = 11), P = 0.0119, P = 0.0004, P = 0.002. unpaired two-sided t-test. (**e-h**) Same as a-d, except that IPSCs were evoked by afferent fiber stimulation. Ctrl (n = 15), TKO (n = 16), P = 0.0267, P = 0.152, P = 0.241. (**i**) Representative IPSCs traces of LSO neurons evoked by a pair of fiber stimulation at 50 ms interval. (**j**) Summary of paired-pulse ratio (PPR) of IPSCs in relationship to different paired pulse intervals. Ctrl (n = 12), TKO (n = 12), P < 0.0001, two-way ANOVA.

Data are means ± SEM. Number of neuron are indicated in the bars (**b-d**, **f-h**) or graph (**j**). Statistical differences were assessed by Student's t test or two-way ANOVA test. (*P < 0.05,

**P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001).

Figure 3 Deletion of neurexins increases sIPSC frequency and glycinergic synapse

density of LSO neurons. (**a**) Representative sIPSC traces of LSO neurons. (**b**) Summary of

sIPSC amplitude and frequency. Ctrl (n = 14), TKO (n = 9), P = 0.057, P = 0.015, unpaired two-

sided t-test. (**c**) Representative sIPSC waveforms of LSO neurons. (**d**) Summary of sIPSC rise

time and decay time constant. Ctrl (n = 14), TKO (n = 9), P = 0.376, P = 0.82, unpaired two-

sided t-test. (**e**) Representative confocal microscopy images of MNTB-LSO-containing

brainstem slice with specific labeling of GlyT2 (red) and EGFP (green) from both control and

Nrxn123 TKO mice at P14. Scale bar, 10 μm. (**f**) Summary of glycinergic synaptic density

quantified by GlyT2 immunostaining. Ctrl (n = 42), TKO (n = 42), P = 0.0001, unpaired two-

sided t-test. (**g-h**), Same as (**e-f**) except for specific labeling of VGAT (red) and EGFP (green).

Ctrl (n = 42), TKO (n = 42), P = 0.0047, unpaired two-sided t-test.

Data are means ± SEM. Number of neuron or sections/animals for immunostaining are

indicated in the bars (**b**, **d**, **f** and **h**). Statistical differences were assessed by Student's t test.

(*P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001). Source data are provided as a Source Data file.

Figure 4 Deletion of neurexins increases the Ca^{2+} sensitivity of release at the glycinergic

synapse. (**a**) Representative time courses of IPSC amplitudes for individual LSO neurons of

control mice during the perfusion of low Ca^{2+} ACSF. (**b**) Representative IPSC traces of control

mice before and during low Ca**$^{2+}$** perfusion at the indicated points in **a**. (**c** & **d**) Same as **a** & **b**,

except of TKO mice. (**e**) Summary of normalized IPSC amplitudes plotted against the calculated

extracellular Ca^{2+} concentration for control and TKO mice. Ctrl (n = 7), TKO (n = 9), P = 0.0311

for 0.92 mM Ca^{2+}, P = 0.0104 for 1.10 mM Ca^{2+}, P = 0.0208 for 1.28 mM Ca^{2+}, P = 0.0067 for

1.46 mM Ca^{2+}, P = 0.0007 for 1.64 mm Ca^{2+}, unpaired two-sided t-test. (**f**) Summary of EC$_{50}$ of

Ca^{2+} for half-blocking of IPSCs and the blocking effect of 0.2 mM Ca^{2+} on IPSC amplitude. Ctrl

(n = 7), TKO (n = 9), P = 0.0139, P = 0.3985, unpaired two-sided t-test.

Data are means ± SEM. Number of neuron are indicated in the graph (**e**) or bars (**f**). Statistical

differences were assessed by Student's t test. (*P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001). Source

data are provided as a Source Data file.

Figure 5 Deletion of neurexins increases the blocking effect of EGTA on glycinergic IPSCs. (**a**) Representative time courses of IPSC amplitudes for individual LSO neurons of control mice during the treatment of high concentration of EGTA-AM. (**b**) Representative IPSC traces of control mice before and after EGTA. (**c, d**) Same as a, b, except of TKO mice. (**e**) Summary of IPSC amplitude before and after EGTA treatment of control mice. Ctrl (n = 7), TKO (n = 7), P = 0.0201, paired two-sided t-test. (**f**) Summary of IPSC amplitude before and after EGTA treatment of TKO mice. Ctrl (n = 7), TKO (n = 7), P = 0.0123, paired two-sided t-test. (**g**) Summary of the blocking percentage of IPSCs by EGTA. Ctrl (n = 7), TKO (n = 7), P = 0.0001, unpaired two-sided t-test.

Data are means ± SEM. Number of neuron are indicated in the bars (**e** to **g**). Statistical differences were assessed by Student's t test. (*$P < 0.05$, ***$P < 0.001$). Source data are provided as a Source Data file.

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Figure S1

a Representative sIPSC traces of LSO neurons before and after application of potent glycine receptor blocker strychine (stry) (left) and summary of sIPSC amplitude without and with stry (right).
b Representative eIPSC traces of LSO neurons before and after stry application (left) and summary of eIPSC amplitude without and with stry (right).
c Representative action potential (AP) firing of MNTB neurons infected with ChR2 during high frequency repetitive pulse stimulation of 473 nm.
d Representative oIPSC traces of LSO neurons before and after stry application (left) and summary of oIPSC amplitude without and with stry (right).

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Figure S2

a,b Representative IPSC traces of LSO neurons evoked by paired-pulse (20 Hz) optogenetic stimulation of ChR2 expressed in MNTB neurons in control (**a**) and Nrxn TKO (**b**) mice. Top, individual trials. Bottom, averaged trace of IPSC.

607   **c** Summary of paire-pulse ratio (PPR) of IPSC amplitude.

Figure s3

a Summary of eIPSC amplitude of control during 0.2 mM Ca^{2+} perfusion. Mean ± SEM.
b Summery of eIPSC amplitude of TKO during 0.2 mM Ca^{2+} perfusion. Mean ± SEM.
c Average of eIPSC amplitude before and after 0.2 mM Ca^{2+} perfusion. Mean ± SEM.
(**P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001), paired t-test.

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Figure s4

a Summary of eIPSC amplitude of control during 10 µM EGTA-AM treatment. Mean ± SEM.
b Summary of eIPSC amplitude of TKO during 10 µM EGTA-AM treatment. Mean ± SEM