Title: Fast inhibition slows and desynchronizes auditory efferent neuron activity

<u>Authors</u>

Matthew Fischl[1,2], Alia Pederson[1,3], Rebecca Voglewede[1], Hui Cheng[4], Jordan Drew[1,5], Lester

Torres Cadenas[1], and Catherine J.C. Weisz[1*]

<u>Author Affiliations:</u>

[1]Section on Neuronal Circuitry, National Institute on Deafness and Other Communication

Disorders, NIH, Bethesda, MD 20892, USA

[2]Current affiliation: Lafayette College, Neuroscience Program, Easton, PA 18042, USA

[3]Current affiliation: The University of Texas at Austin Dell Medical School, Austin, TX 78712,

USA

[4]Bioinformatics and Biostatistics Collaboration Core, National Institute on Deafness and Other

Communication Disorders, NIH, Bethesda, MD 20892, USA

[5]Current affiliation: Institute for Learning and Brain Sciences, University of Washington, Seattle,

WA, 98195, USA

[*]Corresponding Author and Lead Contact: Catherine J.C. Weisz, Section on Neuronal Circuitry,

National Institutes of Health, National Institute on Deafness and Other Communication

Disorders, Bethesda, MD 20892, USA. Email: <u>catherine.weisz@nih.gov</u>

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be

fulfilled by the lead contact, Catherine Weisz (catherine.weisz@nih.gov).

Fast inhibition slows and desynchronizes auditory efferent neuron activity

Abstract

The encoding of acoustic stimuli requires precise neuron timing. Auditory neurons in the cochlear
nucleus (CN) and brainstem are well-suited for accurate analysis of fast acoustic signals, given
their physiological specializations of fast membrane time constants, fast axonal conduction, and
reliable synaptic transmission. The medial olivocochlear (MOC) neurons that provide efferent
inhibition of the cochlea reside in the ventral brainstem and participate in these fast neural circuits.
However, their modulation of cochlear function occurs over time scales of a slower nature. This
suggests the presence of mechanisms that restrict MOC inhibition of cochlear function. To
determine how monaural excitatory and inhibitory synaptic inputs integrate to affect the timing of
MOC neuron activity, we developed a novel in vitro slice preparation ('wedge-slice'). The wedge-
slice maintains the ascending auditory nerve root, the entire CN and projecting axons, while
preserving the ability to perform visually guided patch-clamp electrophysiology recordings from
genetically identified MOC neurons. The 'in vivo-like' timing of the wedge-slice demonstrates
that the inhibitory pathway accelerates relative to the excitatory pathway when the ascending
circuit is intact, and the CN portion of the inhibitory circuit is precise enough to compensate for
reduced precision in later synapses. When combined with machine learning PSC analysis and
computational modeling, we demonstrate a larger suppression of MOC neuron activity when the
inhibition occurs with in vivo-like timing. This delay of MOC activity may ensure that the MOC
system is only engaged by sustained background sounds, preventing a maladaptive hyper-
suppression of cochlear activity.

Introduction

The encoding of acoustic stimuli is enhanced and sharpened by active cochlear processes termed
'cochlear amplification', including electromotility of outer hair cells (OHC)[1–4]. Medial
olivocochlear (MOC) neurons provide efferent feedback to the OHCs to inhibit this
electromotility[5–10]. The subsequent suppression of sound-evoked basilar membrane vibrations
improves detection of salient sounds in background noise, provides protection from noise-evoked
damage, and may contribute to auditory attention[11–16]. While the impact of the cholinergic MOC
synapses onto OHCs is well-characterized at the synaptic output level, the synaptic inputs onto

MOC neurons in the ventral nucleus of the trapezoid body (VNTB) within the superior olivary

complex (SOC) are incompletely characterized. Recent work in positively identified MOC neurons

in brain slices from transgenic mice has demonstrated that cochlear nucleus (CN) T-stellate cells

provide ascending afferent excitation, along with descending excitation from the inferior colliculus

(IC)[17]. MOC neurons also receive afferent inhibition from the medial nucleus of the trapezoid body

(MNTB) which can delay spontaneous APs in vitro[18], and may prevent MOC neuron suppression

of rapidly changing auditory stimuli[19]. MOC neuron properties allow for high frequency APs

(>300 Hz) in vitro[17,20,21]. However, in vivo, MOC neurons rarely fire APs faster than 100 Hz even

with high intensity sound stimulation[22–25], and have variable latencies to APs[23,24,26]. These results

indicate that MOC neurons do not operate as a simple reflex that is immediately active in response

to excitatory drive from the CN. Rather, a combination of excitatory, inhibitory, and modulatory

inputs may shape MOC activity in changing sound conditions.

The ascending auditory pathways from the cochlea through the brainstem have electrical

and morphological specializations for temporal precision and fidelity. In particular, the three-

neuron pathway (AN–GBC–MNTB) that provides the primary inhibitory synapses throughout the

SOC are among the fastest, most powerful, high-fidelity circuits in the brain[27–30]. It is unknown

whether the MNTB–GBC pathway projections to MOC neurons are also exceptionally fast, or how

the timing of inhibition affects MOC neuron function.

Brain slice preparations used for synaptic physiology studies allow extensive

pharmacological manipulations of circuitry, but often sever long-distance or circuitous projections,

thus losing the cellular interactions that govern the timing, strength, and plasticity of incoming

neuron pathways. Therefore, we developed a novel asymmetric slice preparation, the 'wedge-

slice', that maintains sound-evoked monaural ascending circuitry[31]. This preparation enables

investigation into how integration of ascending excitation and inhibition affects MOC neuron

function. On one side, the slice is thin enough to allow the light penetration needed for visualization

during typical whole-cell patch clamp electrophysiology experiments from MOC neurons. On the

other (contralateral) side, where primary excitatory and inhibitory auditory inputs originate, the

slice is thicker. This maintains the auditory nerve root as it enters the CN, the full circuitry of the

CN, and the primary excitatory (direct) and inhibitory (via MNTB) axon projections from the CN

to the VNTB where MOC neuron recordings are performed.

We compared the synaptic inputs to MOC neurons when stimulated at the midline (MdL)

to bypass intrinsic CN circuitry vs stimulating the auditory nerve (AN) root to engage the full

complement of CN circuits. We found that GBC-MNTB projections to MOC neurons are

exceptionally fast and temporally precise, similar to projections to other auditory nuclei. Both the

speed and precision of the circuit can be attributed to GBC neurons compensating for reduced

precision in later synapses and highlighting the 'coincidence detector' function of GBCs[32–34]. A

computational model of MOC neurons demonstrated that the enhanced speed of the AN–GBC–

MNTB–MOC inhibitory pathway as measured during in vivo-like wedge-slice conditions has a

larger effect on suppressing activity in MOC neurons compared to with simple stimulation (MdL-

stimulation). This increased speed of inhibition delayed AP onset in MOC neurons, while

variability of inhibitory timing across the population of MOC neurons results in stochastic activity

that may provide smooth inhibition of cochlear function.

Results

<u>Midline stimulation in wedge-slice preparations evokes mixed excitatory and inhibitory post-</u>

<u>synaptic currents (PSCs)</u>

Ascending axons conveying acoustic information from the CN throughout the SOC

traverse near the ventral surface of the brainstem. This includes axons projecting to MOC neurons

in the VNTB that provide sound-evoked excitation, primarily T-stellate and possibly small cell

cap (SCC) neurons[17,35–38]. This also includes axons of GBCs which provide sound-evoked

inhibition via intervening MNTB neurons[18]. To investigate the convergence of these pathways,

whole cell patch-clamp recordings were performed in voltage-clamp from positively identified

MOC neurons in brainstem slices from postnatal day fourteen through nineteen (P14-P19) ChAT-

IRES-Cre; tdTomato mice of both sexes. We used a combination of uniformly thick (300 micron)

slices cut at ~15 degrees off the coronal plane[18] and wedge-slices[31] (**Figure 1A**) while electrically

stimulating close to the ventral surface of the slice near the midline (MdL) to evoke

neurotransmitter release from pre-synaptic axons. These axons likely originated in the CN

contralateral to the MOC neuron. With this technique, both excitatory and inhibitory circuits

originating at the contralateral CN can be simultaneously stimulated. MdL-stimulation in this

location is expected to directly activate T-stellate cell axons resulting in mono-synaptically

evoked, short latency excitatory post-synaptic currents (Midline-evoked EPSCs: MdL-EPSCs).

Additionally, stimulation of GBC axons accessed from the same location results in inhibitory post-
synaptic currents (Midline-evoked IPSCs: MdL-IPSCs) evoked via the di-synaptic GBC–MNTB-
MOC pathway that inhibits MOC neurons[18]. Other as-yet uncharacterized synaptic inputs to MOC
neurons may also be activated with this technique. Consistent with activation of multiple classes
of pre-synaptic axons, MdL-stimulation resulted in multi-component PSCs in 13/21 recordings
(**Figure 1B**). PSCs occurred with a short latency from stimulation (1.85±0.53 ms, n=557 PSCs in
21 neurons; a subset of PSC latency data was previously published[31]).

With the high intracellular chloride concentration used in voltage-clamp recordings to
maximize detection of IPSCs (intracellular chloride concentration = 60 mM, E_{Cl} ~-20 mV), both
'excitatory' and 'inhibitory' PSCs were inward at a membrane holding potential of -60 mV, and
therefore indistinguishable based on polarity. To distinguish between MdL-EPSCs and MdL-
IPSCs, in all cells the MOC neuron holding potential was alternatively set to the AMPA receptor
reversal potential of 0 mV to isolate outward, chloride-mediated PSCs that can be classified as
'inhibitory' that are likely either GABAergic or glycinergic. In each experiment, stimulation was
performed repeatedly (20-80 stimulations; **Figure 1B**), and in each sweep, PSCs were detected
and analyzed for parameters of onset latency, rise time (10-90% of peak), amplitude, and time
constant of decay. These parameters (excluding amplitude) were used to sort PSCs into statistically
defined clusters using k-means analyses (Methods). Clusters observed at both –60 mV and 0 mV
holding potentials were classified as 'inhibitory' MdL-IPSCs and clusters observed only at –60
mV were classified as 'excitatory' MdL-EPSCs (**Figure 1C**, each peak indicates a different
'cluster').

Following classification of PSCs as 'excitatory' or 'inhibitory' based on the presence or
absence of the PSC cluster at a holding potential of 0 mV, we further characterized MdL-PSCs
recorded at -60 mV. Latency to the first MdL-EPSC was shorter than the latency to the first MdL-
IPSC (p=4.79E-06). MdL-EPSCs and MdL-IPSCs had similar amplitudes at -60 mV (p=0.69).
MdL-EPSCs had faster kinetics than MdL-IPSCs (rise time: p=8.02E-04, time constant of decay:
p=4.95E-07, **Table S1, Figure 1D**), consistent with earlier work[18]. Patterns of PSCs varied
somewhat across MdL stimulation experiments. Patterns included recordings with EPSCs only
(6/21), IPSCs only (4/21), a single group of EPSCs and a single group of IPSCs (5/21 recordings),
and more complex patterns of EPSCs and IPSCs (6/21) (**Figure 1C**). In all recordings with both
EPSCs and IPSCs (11/21), EPSCs always occurred with a shorter latency than IPSCs. This shorter

latency was expected given that the MdL-EPSC pathway is mono-synaptic (T-stellate-MOC) while

the MdL-IPSC pathway is di-synaptic (GBC-MNTB-MOC), consistent with an extra synapse in

the MdL-IPSC pathway incurring a delay.

Figure 1. Stimulation of axons at the midline of the ventral brainstem evokes multi-component PSCs in MOC neurons. A. Schematic of wedge-slice preparation showing monaural circuitry of MOC neurons from ascending AN

axons from the cochlea into the CN, excitatory (green) T-stellate and GBC projections to the SOC, inhibitory (purple)
projections from the MNTB to the VNTB containing MOC neurons, and MOC axons (black) projecting back to
cochlear OHCs. Note: the cochlea is not present in the recording preparation. Upper left schematic indicates atlas
coordinates of position along rostral-caudal extent of thick portion of the slice[39]. B. Voltage-clamp traces from an
identified MOC neuron during MdL-stimulation (1 Hz), evoking PSCs in multiple clusters at a holding potential of 0
mV (top) and -60 mV (bottom). 20 sweeps overlaid (black), with grey line indicating the average waveform. Dashed
lines indicate the approximate onset of PSCs in clusters of excitatory (blue) and inhibitory (magenta) PSCs. C.
Gaussian distributions fitted to frequency histograms (normalized) of the latency to PSC onset for clusters of MdL-
EPSCs (blue), and MdL-IPSCs (magenta). Each row represents PSCs recorded in a different MOC neuron. D.
Comparison of parameters observed in MdL-EPSCs and MdL-IPSCs.
164

<u>Auditory nerve stimulation-evoked PSCs</u>

The above experiments detail the relative timing of synaptic inputs to MOC neurons

evoked simultaneously at the MdL from mono-synaptic excitatory and di-synaptic inhibitory

inputs. The timing of synaptic inputs in above experiments with MdL-stimulation is artificial

because the full complexity of ascending circuitry is not activated in this stimulation paradigm,

including AN synapses onto CN neurons, intrinsic CN circuits, and the potential differential

propagation of APs down the specialized CN axons. To test the integration of ascending, monaural,

excitatory, and inhibitory synaptic inputs to MOC neurons with a more in vivo-like timing, PSCs

were evoked in MOC neurons by stimulating the contralateral AN root in wedge-slice preparations

(**Figure 2A**), which have an intact CN.

To ensure that electrical stimulation indeed excited CN neurons via synaptic activation,

and not direct electrical activation which would bypass the strength and timing of AN–CN

synapses, we performed 2-photon calcium imaging of bushy cells in wedge-slices from

Atoh7/Math5[Cre] mice[40,41] expressing GCaMP6f[42] in bushy cells, to measure supra-threshold

activation during AN-stimulation. AN axons were stimulated in control conditions and with bath

application of glutamate receptor antagonists to block synaptic transmission at AN–CN synapses.

If the AN electrical activation stimulates glutamate release from AN axons to synaptically activate

bushy cells, blockade of the glutamate receptors is expected to reduce the somatic calcium

response. However, if AN electrical stimulation directly evokes APs in bushy cells, the calcium

response would be insensitive to glutamate receptor blockers.

AN-stimulation-evoked calcium responses were quantified for 388 neurons in 14 fields of

view from 8 animals (**Figure 2B,E**). Of these neurons, 227 were classified as 'active' in the control

condition. AN-evoked calcium responses in active bushy cells were significantly reduced by bath

application of the AMPA receptor antagonist CNQX (p=1.04E-20) or the combination of CNQX

and the NMDA receptor antagonist APV (p=1.14E-34). Calcium responses significantly recovered

upon wash of glutamate receptor blockers (CNQX recovery: p=2.74E-13; CNQX+APV recovery: p=2.54E-24). There was a small but significant difference in the ΔF/F values between the CNQX and the CNQX+APV groups (p=0.005) (**Figure 2B-D**), confirming active NMDA receptors in bushy cells[43]. We explored this difference further by calculating a % suppression for each of the neurons. CNQX suppressed the calcium signal by ~68% while the cocktail of CNQX+APV suppressed the signal by ~75% (p=0.004) (**Table S2, Figure 2F**). Across cells, calcium suppression with CNQX and APV was significant but not quite complete, perhaps due to incomplete penetration of antagonists into the thick wedge-slice. However, it is notable that GBCs have a particularly small somatic AP[44–46] and an abundance of calcium permeable glutamate receptors[43]. Therefore, the relative contribution of the AP-evoked calcium signal to the total evoked calcium signal may be small, resulting in a relatively large residual calcium signal in the case of incomplete glutamate receptor block even if APs are suppressed. However, the sensitivity of calcium responses in bushy cells to glutamate receptor blockers suggests that AN-stimulation is likely activating CN neurons via synaptic, and not direct electrical excitation, maintaining the AN-CN synapses in the wedge-slice circuit for a more in vivo-like network activation.

Figure 2. AN-stimulation in a wedge-slice evokes activity via synaptic activation of CN neurons. A Schematic of a wedge-slice, as in Figure 1, with stimulation at the auditory nerve root (AN-stimulation). Note: the cochlea is not present in the preparation. B. Calcium imaging of bushy cells in Atoh7/Math5[Cre]; GCaMP6f mice during AN-stimulation in: B. Baseline (no stimulation), Bi. control AN-stimulation at 100 Hz, 20 pulses, Bii. AN-stimulation

with blockers of AMPA and NMDA receptors (5 μM CNQX, 50 μM APV) in the aCSF. Biii. AN-stimulation after wash of AMPA and NMDA receptor blockers. C. Same CN imaging region as in B, annotated with ROI's over individual bushy cells used for fluorescence analysis. D. Heat maps showing change in fluorescence in same region as B and C during AN-stimulation, color scale indicates fluorescence change from baseline in: Di. control, Dii. AMPA and NMDA block, and Diii. wash. E. Raw fluorescence intensity changes for ROIs in C during 3 'bouts' (bout: 20 pulses, 100 Hz) of AN-stimulation in control conditions. F. Quantification of fluorescence changes of bushy cells in response to AN-stimulation in control, glutamate receptor blockade (CNQX or CNQX + APV) and wash. Scale bar in B (50 μm) applies to all panels in B-D.

Multi-component synaptic responses evoked by AN-stimulation

To test how the extensive intrinsic circuitry of the intact CN and specialized axons projecting to the SOC change the relative timing of excitatory and inhibitory synaptic inputs to MOC neurons, the AN was electrically stimulated in a wedge-slice while PSCs were recorded in contralateral MOC neurons (**Figure 3A**). Electrical stimulation at the AN root evoked PSCs in 11 of 43 MOC recordings. Similar to MdL-evoked PSCs, AN-evoked PSCs at a membrane holding potential of -60 mV occurred in multi-component PSC patterns (**Figure 3B**). Overall, the latency to the first PSC was significantly longer in AN- vs MdL-evoked PSCs (AN-PSC latency: 5.51±1.00 ms, n=11 cells; MdL-PSC latency: 1.99±0.45 ms, n=21 cells, Mann-Whitney U test p=2.29E-5), consistent with an increased total number of intervening synapses causing a longer synaptic delay.

In two experiments, AN-stimulation protocols were repeated with high intensity electrical stimulation (>2000 μA), to cause greater current spread in the tissue and intentionally bypass the AN–CN synapse. The high stimulation intensity significantly decreased PSC latency (AN-high stim level latency: 1.65±0.1 ms, n=18 PSCs; AN-intermediate stim level latency: 4.58±0.3 ms, n=27 PSCs; n=2 neurons, Mann-Whitney U test p=1.90E-8; **Figure 3C, Figure 4G**). This indicates that with intentionally high stimulation intensity CN axons projecting to MOC neurons were directly stimulated, bypassing intrinsic circuitry of the CN. Remaining experiments used the lower stimulation intensity that synaptically engages, not electrically bypasses, the full complement of CN circuits.

Figure 3. AN-stimulation evokes excitatory and inhibitory PSCs in MOC neurons. A. Schematic of the wedge-slice, indicating electrical stimulation of AN axons (AN-stimulation) projecting to the CN. B. Voltage-clamp traces from identified MOC neurons during AN-stimulation at 1Hz, 0 mV (top) and -60 mV (bottom). Black traces are 50

246 overlaid sweeps. Grey line indicates average trace. Dashed lines indicate approximate PSC onset latency for clusters
247 of excitatory (blue) and inhibitory (magenta) PSCs. C. Voltage-clamp traces at -60 mV from a different MOC neuron
248 than in (B) of PSCs evoked by AN-stimulation when the stimulus intensity is increased to levels high enough to evoke
249 short-latency PSCs.
250

<u>Machine Learning Algorithm to classify excitatory and inhibitory PSCs</u>

Analysis of synaptic integration requires classification of synaptic responses as excitatory

or inhibitory. In some (4/11) experiments with AN-stimulation the MOC neuron membrane

holding potential was set to 0 mV to isolate IPSCs. Similar to MdL-stimulation recordings, IPSCs

occurred in clusters that aligned with a subset of the clusters recorded at -60 mV (**Figure 3B**),

indicating that both EPSCs and IPSCs are evoked in MOC neurons by AN-stimulation. However,

for the cells lacking 0 mV data, we were initially unable to classify PSC clusters. Therefore, we

used parameters of PSCs evoked from MdL-stimulation to develop a machine learning approach

to characterize EPSCs and IPSCs, and then used this algorithm of MdL-evoked PSC characteristics

to classify AN-evoked PSCs as excitatory or inhibitory. To accomplish this, first we developed a

RandomForest-based classification algorithm to identify EPSCs and IPSCs by training the model

on identified MdL-EPSCs and MdL-IPSCs recorded at -60 mV (**Figure 4A-D**).

Next, we used the trained RandomForest algorithm to classify AN-PSCs recorded at -60

mV as excitatory or inhibitory. The 344 AN-PSCs from 11 MOC neuron recordings were clustered

in the same manner as the MdL-PSCs (above), and the PSC parameters were calculated on a PSC-

by-PSC basis (rise time, time constant of decay, amplitude, animal age) or a cluster-by-cluster

basis (onset jitter, peak jitter, PSC probability). The AN-PSCs were then fed into the trained

RandomForest algorithm, which gave the probability that each AN-PSC could be classified as AN-

EPSC or AN-IPSC.

<u>AN-evoked synaptic responses</u>

We then determined the effect of AN-PSCs on MOC neurons. Following classification of

AN-EPSCs and AN-IPSCs responses at -60 mV using the RandomForest algorithm above, the

parameters of AN-EPSCs and AN-IPSCs for all clusters were summarized to determine their

effects on MOC neurons (**Table S3, Figure 4E**). AN-EPSCs and AN-IPSCs at -60 mV had similar

amplitudes (p=0.14) and kinetics (rise time: p=0.35, time constant of decay p=0.67). The median

AN-EPSC latency occurred with a significantly shorter latency than AN-IPSCs (p=0.04), but in

two cells AN-IPSCs occurred with shorter latencies than AN-EPSCs, similar to projections to

MSO neurons[28]. AN-evoked PSCs also occurred in complicated patterns that could have multiple

excitatory or inhibitory clusters (**Figure 4F,** each peak indicates a different 'cluster'). PSCs evoked

by AN-stimulation were more likely to have 'complex' patterns with two or more clusters of either

EPSCs or IPSCs (AN 8/11 vs MdL 8/21 complex clusters), interpreted here as PSCs from multiple

pre-synaptic sources.

Figure 4. Multi-component PSCs evoked by AN-stimulation in a wedge-slice. A. Data points for each of seven variables (amp = amplitude; TTP = time to peak; tau = time constant of decay; prob = PSC probability) from MdL-EPSCs (blue) and MdL-IPSCs (magenta) used to train the RandomForest machine learning algorithm. B. Importance plot of variables used for RandomForest algorithm. C. Multidimensional Scaling (MDS) plot of proximity matrix showing separation of MdL-EPSCs and MdL-IPSC variables. D. ROC Curve for excitatory and inhibitory MdL-PSCs. The algorithm had a 99.89% classification accuracy. E. Comparison of parameters of AN-EPSCs and AN-IPSCs. F. Gaussian fits to frequency histograms (normalized) indicating the latency to clusters of AN-EPSCs (blue) and AN-IPSCs (magenta). Each row represents a different MOC neuron. G. Gaussian fits to frequency histograms (normalized) indicating the latency to clusters of AN-PSCs after the stimulation intensity was increased to higher levels that recruit short-latency PSCs. Numbers in panels in F and G indicate PSC clusters recorded from the same MOC neuron with intermediate (F) and high (G) stimulation intensities.

Comparison of PSCs evoked by MdL- vs AN-stimulation demonstrated a specialized function of CN circuitry, which was both intact and engaged during AN-stimulation but not MdL-stimulation. Above data (**Figure 4**) examines all AN-PSCs, but here we consider the first excitatory cluster and first inhibitory cluster to isolate our analyses to direct ascending pathways. The overall latency to the first AN-PSCs was increased compared to MdL-PSCs, as expected because AN-stimulation includes at least one more synapse (AN-CN neurons) compared to MdL-stimulation. This occurred for both EPSCs and IPSCs (MdL-EPSC vs AN-EPSC latency, p=8.98E-5; MdL-IPSC vs AN-IPSC latency, p=0.049). However, the additional circuitry added during AN-stimulation does not alter EPSC and IPSC timing to the same degree. When comparing MdL-stimulation evoked EPSCs and IPSCs, MdL-EPSCs are significantly shorter latency than MdL-IPSCs (p=4.79E-6), and MdL-IPSCs are never recorded before MdL-EPSCs in any cell. In contrast, when stimulating the AN, there is no significant difference in latency between AN-EPSCs and AN-IPSCs (p=0.30), suggesting that the CN circuitry can compensate in speed for the additional synapse present in the IPSC pathway to equalize the timing of the excitatory and inhibitory pathways (**Table S4, Figure 5A**). This is also apparent when calculating the "E-I latency difference" on a cell-by-cell basis, for which the latency to the first IPSC is subtracted from the latency to the first EPSC. MdL-stimulated EPSCs all had positive E-I latency difference values that were significantly different from zero (One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test, p=0.0039), indicating that excitation always preceded inhibition. However, the AN-stimulation E-I latency difference was smaller than the MdL-stimulation E-I latency difference (MdL: 2.80±0.88, n=11 cells; AN: 0.14±2.87, n=7 cells, Mann-Whitney U test p=0.085), and not significantly different from zero (One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test, p=1). Further, two AN-stimulation experiments had negative E-I latency differences, indicating that inhibition preceded excitation in

these cells. These data confirm the unusual speed of the inhibitory pathway from the CN to the SOC relative to the excitatory pathway. Further, comparison of AN-stimulation and MdL-stimulation synaptic timing demonstrates that the remarkable speed of the inhibitory pathway is localized to components of the circuit added to the preparation during AN-stimulation, namely the AN synapse onto the GBCs and the GBCs themselves.

Auditory brainstem circuits contain extremely precise neurons, so the timing and precision of synaptic inputs evoked from MdL- vs AN-stimulation experiments was investigated to determine if MOC synaptic inputs are comparably temporally precise. The onset jitter of PSCs was computed for the first EPSC cluster and first IPSC cluster per MOC neuron for both MdL- and AN-stimulation (**Figure 5B**). A simplistic view suggests that each additional synapse in a pathway would increase the overall pathway jitter, resulting in EPSCs having less jitter than IPSCs in all recording configurations. Indeed, monosynaptic T-stellate-MOC MdL-EPSCs had lower jitter than di-synaptic GBC-MNTB-MOC MdL-IPSCs (p=0.015). However, AN-EPSC jitter is not different from AN-IPSC jitter (p=0.30), The lack of difference in jitter between the excitatory and inhibitory pathways with AN-stimulation suggests that the inhibitory pathway can compensate for having an additional synapse by having enhanced precision in the CN. There was no difference in PSC probability between MdL-EPSCs and MdL-IPSCs (p=0.08), and there was also no difference in probability of AN-EPSCs and AN-IPSCs (p=0.16). However, when stimulating at the AN, both the excitatory and inhibitory pathways have a lower probability of PSCs compared to stimulating at the MdL (**Table S4, Figure 5C**). This was unexpected for the inhibitory pathway that has a high proportion of suprathreshold PSPs[33,43,45], and unexpectedly indicates a reduced throughput at the endbulb–GBC synapse compared to stimulating the GBC–MNTB synapse alone in our experiments with MdL-stimulation.

Figure 5. Comparison of PSCs evoked from MdL- vs AN-stimulation. A-C. Plot of A. Latency to PSC onset, B. Synaptic jitter of PSC onset, and C. Probability of recording a PSC for MdL- vs AN-EPSCs and IPSCs in the first cluster recorded in each MOC neuron.

Summation of ascending MdL-evoked synaptic inputs drives APs in MOC neurons

The voltage-clamp experiments above demonstrate that the inhibitory pathways projecting to MOC neurons can be remarkably fast when the in vivo-like circuitry is intact. However, the impact of the timing of inhibition on MOC neuron AP activity is unknown. We tested integration under more physiological conditions of low intracellular chloride (7.2 mM, $E_{Cl} = -74$ mV), without intracellular QX-314, and in the current-clamp configuration. We stimulated both excitatory and inhibitory synaptic pathways simultaneously to record post-synaptic potentials (PSPs) and resulting APs in MOC neurons using the MdL-stimulation configuration because these experiments were high-throughput enough to allow pharmacological blockade of inhibitory synaptic inputs. MdL-stimulation was applied in trains to evoke PSPs (MdL-PSPs) (**Figure 6A, Ai**). Summation of MdL-PSPs evoked APs, with increased stimulation rates evoking APs with an increased probability, increased rate, and reduced latency to the first AP (Friedman ANOVA: AP probability: p=0.031, AP rate: p=0.007, number of stimulations to first AP: p=0.041, Latency to first AP: p=4.6E-4; **Figure 6A, C; Table S5**).

We then tested the effect of inhibition on AP rates in MOC neurons in response to MdL-stimulation by blocking inhibitory neurotransmitter receptors. In the absence of inhibitory

366 neurotransmission, there was an increased AP probability and rate, decreased number of
367 stimulations to the first AP, and decreased latency to the first AP for 100 and 200 Hz stimulation
368 rates (**Figure 6B, C; Table S5**).

Figure 6. Inhibition reduces AP activity in MOC neuron recordings in response to MdL-PSPs. A. Current-clamp recordings from an MOC neuron while evoking MdL-PSPs for 20 pulses at 10, 50, 100, and 200 Hz. Three sweeps shown, overlaid, at each stimulation rate. Ai. Zoom of regions in each panel of (A) indicated by dashed box, showing the first five PSPs evoked in MdL-stimulation trains. B. 100 Hz MdL-stimulation-evoked PSPs summate to generate AP trains in control conditions (left), in the presence of 50 µM gabazine and 1 µM strychnine to block inhibitory inputs ("Inhibition block", center), and after wash of inhibitory receptor blockers (right). 5 sweeps are overlaid per condition. C. Quantification of AP probability (left), frequency (center), and latency to first AP (right) for 5-8 neurons.

Computational model of MOC neurons to assess integration of excitation and inhibition

In the MdL-stimulation experiments above, pharmacological blockade of inhibition increased APs in MOC neurons. We next asked how the effect of inhibition on MOC activity would change when excitatory and inhibitory pathways were stimulated with the in vivo-like synaptic timing that we observed in the AN-stimulation experiments. However, the short window of time for wedge-slice viability for AN-stimulation experiments made the additional pharmacological experiments necessary for testing the effect of inhibition on MOC neuron activity prohibitive. Therefore, we built a computational model of an MOC neuron to test the integration of excitation and inhibition with synaptic inputs that mimic AN-stimulation experiments. The model MOC neuron had topology generated from a published MOC neuron morphology (Figure 9[47], **Figure 7A**), and ion channels and biophysical properties were tuned to mimic the recorded synaptic and AP activity of MOC neurons (Methods).

The model MOC neuron responded to synaptic inputs based on recorded mini-EPSPs (mEPSP) and mini-IPSPs (mIPSP) with closely matched amplitudes and waveforms (**Figure 7B, Bi**), confirming that the model MOC neuron responds to synaptic inputs similarly to biological MOC neurons. Next, synaptic potentials were simulated within the model MOC neuron to mimic PSPs evoked from MdL-stimulation experiments both in control conditions, and with pharmacological blockade of inhibitory synaptic inputs (**Figure 7C, Ci**). IPSPs were then added to the model to mimic MdL-stimulation conditions, with the IPSP onset being longer latency than the EPSP onset by +2.8 ms (E-I latency difference +2.8 ms), as measured in MOC neuron MdL-stimulation recordings (**Figure 7C, D**).

The responses of the model MOC neuron to repeated synaptic inputs were then tested by comparing model responses to activity recorded in MOC neurons in response to 100 Hz trains of MdL-stimulation (**Figure 6, Figure 7E**). Trains of MdL-PSPs were simulated within the model, first using the relative timing of excitatory and inhibitory synaptic inputs recorded during MdL-stimulation as above (E-I latency difference: +2.8 ms) and then with IPSPs absent to mimic

pharmacological blockade of IPSPs in MOC neuron recordings (**Figure 7F**). Consistent with
patch-clamp data, single control PSPs (EPSPs + IPSPs) did not evoke APs in the model MOC
neuron. However, summation of PSPs evoked APs (latency 38.5 ms), similar to the latency to AP
in MdL-stimulation experiments (49.75±29.06 ms). IPSPs were then removed from the model and
summation of EPSPs initiated APs with a shorter latency (24.4 ms). This decrease in latency to
APs in the absence of IPSPs is consistent with recordings from MOC neurons, and consistent with
inhibition delaying APs.

413
Figure 7. A computational MOC model replicates responses to MdL-stimulation. A. Topology of the model MOC
neuron. B. Waveform of mEPSPs from MOC neuron recordings (light blue line, grey shading indicates standard
deviation) with overlaid mEPSP generated from the model MOC neuron (dark blue). Bi. Waveform of mIPSPs from
MOC neuron recordings (magenta line, grey shading indicates standard deviation) with an overlaid mIPSP generated
from the model MOC neuron (purple). C. Waveform of control evoked PSPs from MOC neuron recordings (combined
EPSP and IPSP, black line, grey shading indicates standard deviation) overlaid with PSPs from the model MOC
neuron in control conditions (combined EPSP and IPSP, grey line). Ci. Waveform of excitatory evoked-PSP from
MOC neuron recordings after pharmacological block of inhibitory receptors (no inhibition, EPSP only, blue line, grey
shading indicates standard deviation) overlaid with PSPs from the model MOC neuron with excitatory PSPs only (no
inhibition, EPSP only, dark blue line). D. Comparison of model evoked-PSPs in control (EPSP and IPSP, grey),

excitatory only (inhibition removed, EPSP only, dark blue), and inhibitory only conditions (excitation
only, purple). E. Current-clamp recordings from MOC neurons during 100 Hz, 20 pulse MdL-stimulation to evoke
APs in control (evoked EPSP and IPSP, black), and excitatory only conditions (inhibition blocked, EPSP only, blue).
F. Response of the model MOC neuron to PSPs simulated at 100 Hz, 20 pulse trains with synaptic timing mimicking
MdL-stimulation synaptic timing in control (EPSP and IPSP, grey), excitatory only (inhibition removed, EPSPs only,
dark blue), and inhibitory only conditions (excitation removed, IPSP only, purple).

We next used the MOC neuron model to determine how the timing of inhibition relative to

excitation affects MOC neuron activity in the in vivo-like AN-stimulation configuration. In this

configuration, the median latency to synaptic inhibition is closer to that of synaptic excitation

compared to the greater synaptic timing separation in the MdL-stimulation configuration, and in

some cells, inhibition preceded excitation (see Figure 3,4). We first generated single PSPs with

varying excitatory and inhibitory synaptic timing ranging from EPSPs preceding IPSPs from 0 to

10 ms in 1 ms increments (E-I latency difference 0 to +10 ms), and IPSPs preceding EPSPs from

0 to 10 ms in 1 ms increments (E-I latency difference 0 to -10 ms). Integrated PSPs generated from

these combinations had systematically varying amplitudes (**Figure 8A**). Simulating PSPs with the

most extreme observed E-I latencies from AN-stimulation recordings also resulting in integrated

PSPs with varying amplitudes (**Figure 8B**).

We then simulated trains of PSPs in the MOC model to analyze the effect of synaptic timing

on AP latency and rate. PSPs with E-I latencies from -10 to +10 ms were simulated at rates of 100

Hz. PSPs summated to evoke APs with latencies and rates that systematically varied depending on

E-I latency difference (**Figure 8C**). With only EPSPs (IPSPs removed), model APs occurred at

31.5 Hz. Adding simulated inhibitory PSPs during train stimulation increased the latency to the

first AP and reduced AP rate in all cases. The degree of the effect of inhibition depended on the

E-I latency difference, with the most effective inhibition occurring with E-I latency differences of

-10, -1, and +9 ms (AP latency: ~48 ms, AP rate: ~20 Hz), and the least effective inhibition

occurring with E-I latency differences of -6.0 and +4.0 ms (AP latency: ~43 ms, AP rate: ~23.5

Hz). In wedge-slice recordings with AN-stimulation, E-I latency differences in all cells ranged

from -4.4 ms to +3.5 ms, a range that nearly includes both minimal and maximal effects of

inhibition on increasing AP latency and decreasing AP rate. Notably, the median AN-evoked E-I

latency difference (+0.4 ms) had a greater effect on delaying and decreasing the rate of APs

compared to the median MdL-evoked E-I latency difference (+2.8 ms) (**Figure 8D**), indicating

that inhibitory synaptic inputs have a greater effect on suppressing APs in MOC neurons when

occurring with the in vivo-like timing measured in AN-stimulation experiments. However, there

was a much reduced effect of inhibition if the IPSP amplitude was decreased to match recordings

in which background MNTB activity caused synaptic depression of IPSPs[19] (**Figure 8D**). The

variability in timing of inhibitory inputs recorded in different MOC neurons paired with the degree

of prior synaptic depression suggests that inhibition may have a different effect on each MOC

neuron in the brain, and can thus flexibly adjust MOC neuron activity and de-synchronize the

population of MOC neurons.

Figure 8. Varying latencies of summating EPSPs and IPSPs adjust model MOC neuron AP onset and rate. A.
PSPs in the model MOC neuron resulting from summation of EPSPs and IPSPs at the E-I latency differences indicated.
B. PSPs in the model MOC neuron resulting from summation of EPSPs and IPSPs at E-I latency differences from
recorded MOC neurons. C. APs in the model MOC neuron resulting from summation of 100 Hz trains of simulated
EPSPs and IPSPs at the E-I latency differences indicated. Raster plots above the APs indicate timing of AP peak.
Changing E-I Latency Differences adjusted the AP rate between ~20 and 24 Hz, indicated above the rasters. D. APs
in the model MOC neuron resulting from summation of simulated EPSPs and IPSPs with E-I latency differences

recorded in MOC neurons, or with reduced a IPSP amplitude (0.51 times the control value) to mimic prior synaptic
depression.
475

Together, our results indicate that inhibition from the MNTB can delay initial spiking of

MOC neurons, and that the precise timing of inhibition can flexibly adjust MOC activity rates. In

addition, the inhibitory pathway to MOC neurons is exceptionally fast and precise, due to the

properties of synaptic transmission and neuron function localized to the AN synapses onto CN

cells, the CN cells themselves, and CN projection axons.

Discussion

MOC neuron activity

Diverse synaptic inputs to MOC neurons likely converge to adjust MOC function under

changing hearing conditions. The sound responses of MOC neurons in vivo have low thresholds,

V-shaped tuning curves, sound-evoked firing rates up to 110 Hz, and a variable latency from sound

onset to APs that decreases with loud sounds[24,25,48–50]. Histological and lesion experiments have

shown synaptic inputs to MOC neurons from a variety of auditory and non-auditory

neurons[35,37,38,51–62]. In vitro patch-clamp recordings of synaptic inputs to MOC neurons include

functional demonstration of ascending excitatory synaptic inputs from CN T-stellate cells[17] and

possibly CN SCC neurons[36], as well as descending, facilitating excitatory synaptic inputs from the

IC[17]. Inhibitory synaptic inputs were recorded in putative MOC neurons[63] and more recently

originating in the MNTB as shown in genetically identified MOC neurons[18]. Serotonergic

excitation of MOC neurons[64] suggests function of additional modulatory inputs. These diverse

inputs likely underestimate the convergence of synaptic inputs to MOC neurons. The in vitro

wedge-slice preparation combined with machine learning and single-neuron computational

modeling used here is a first step in probing synaptic integration in MOC neurons in vitro, from

monaural ascending circuits with in vivo-like timing.

Functional synaptic inputs to MOC neurons

The wedge-slice includes the monaural ascending circuitry to MOC neurons beginning

with AN axon terminals from Type I SGN onto CN neurons including GBC, T-stellate cells, and

other CN cells. CN axons projecting to the SOC are intact[31]. Type II SGN terminations in the CN

including onto granule and other cells[65–67] are also present. Intrinsic CN circuitry remains intact,

including excitatory and inhibitory connections within the CN[68–80] and reciprocal connectivity
between bushy[81] and T-stellate cells[82]. Absent from the preparation are the cochlea, commissural
pathways between the CN, and most descending circuits to the CN. While we did not determine
the cell types generating synaptic responses in MOC neurons, the varied patterns of multiple peaks
of PSCs, found both in AN- and MdL-stimulation experiments, suggest diverse excitatory and
inhibitory inputs. These patterns suggest either additional direct CN projections, or poly-synaptic
inputs with a contralateral CN origin. Additional potential sources of excitation are SCC neurons[36],
axon collaterals from the GBCs[83,84], or other as-yet unidentified sources. For inhibition, there may
be an additional direct projection from the CN[85], but poly-synaptic inputs are likely because of the
~3-4 ms delay between first and second clusters of IPSCs in most recordings. Potential poly-
synaptic inhibitory inputs from auditory neurons include the LNTB[86,87], the superior peri-olivary
nucleus (SPON)[88,89], other inhibitory neurons in the VNTB[90], or the MOC neurons themselves,
which are cholinergic but likely also GABAergic[91–93].

Speed and fidelity of the GBC–MNTB inhibitory pathway

The GBC-MNTB pathway inhibits many other SOC neurons, including the LSO, MSO,
lateral olivocochlear neurons (LOC), and SPON neurons. The pathway has large Endbulb of Held
synapses from the AN onto the GBCs, while the GBCs have large diameter, heavily myelinated
axons[29,94–96], and a termination in the large Calyx of Held onto MNTB neurons. High fidelity
synaptic transfer throughout the pathway allows activity up to hundreds of Hz[94,97–100,101–113]. The
high speed of this pathway was demonstrated in the GBC–MNTB synapses to the MSO[28]. In our
present results, in two MOC neuron recordings the inhibitory pathway is shorter latency than the
excitatory pathway, despite having an additional synapse, but the excitatory pathway on average
has a shorter latency than the inhibitory pathway. One interpretation of this is that in addition to
the inhibitory pathway being fast, the excitatory pathway is also exceptionally fast, which is
unexpected due to the ~5 ms AP latency in T-stellate cells[114]. Another possibility is that MNTB
axon branches to MOC neurons are slower conducting compared to MNTB axon branches to MSO
neurons.

Our results also pinpoint the segments of the inhibitory pathway responsible for both its
speed and precision by directly comparing the relative latency differences, jitter, and response
probability between EPSCs and IPSCs evoked using MdL- vs AN-stimulation. Studies have

indicated that, although GBC's have large[32,33,43,115], often supra-threshold[45,70,115,116] PSPs, some

amount of synaptic summation is required for the precise phase-locking and enhanced entrainment

of GBC's[32–34,114] that is also attributed to a low somatic resistance with a short temporal integration

window[43,45,117]. In our results, addition of the CN with AN-stimulation reduces the probability of

activity in the pathway, confirming that there is not a 1:1 PSP:AP relationship and that synaptic

summation contributes to the 'coincidence detector' function of GBC's. There may also be

species-specific circuit differences, intact inhibitory CN circuits, decreased release probability

from AN axons, or smaller post-synaptic responses in the GBC. Our observed decreased latency

of inhibitory PSCs relative to excitatory PSCs was also only apparent when the circuit included

the full CN via AN-stimulation, not with MdL-stimulation that lacked GBC participation,

pinpointing the speed of the inhibitory pathway to the CN and GBCs. Finally, with MdL-

stimulation, the inhibitory pathway has more synaptic jitter than the excitatory pathway. However,

this is compensated for in the AN-stimulation experiments to result in equal total jitter between

the excitatory and inhibitory pathways. In accordance with the precision of the endbulb of Held–

GBC synapse[72], this suggests that this portion of the inhibitory pathway that is added during AN-

stimulation experiments relative to MdL-stimulation experiments is so precise that it can

compensate for increased jitter at later synapses.

Integration of excitation and inhibition at MOC neurons

Our findings from both AN-stimulation experiments in wedge-slices and the computational

MOC model inform knowledge of the role of integration of synaptic inhibition and excitation on

MOC neurons both at the single cell and the population level. The presence of any inhibition in

the model reduced AP rates from control values. In recordings, inhibition was variable and

sometimes shorter latency relative to excitation. Then, in the MOC neuron computational model,

changing synaptic timing to reflect the different latencies of EPSCs relative to IPSCs (E-I latency

difference) resulted in variable amplitude summed PSPs and variable AP rates. E-I latency

differences that corresponded to values from MOC neuron recordings ranged from having a

minimal effect on reducing AP rates when inhibition lags excitation, to having the maximal effect

when inhibition slightly precedes excitation by ~1 ms. Interestingly, the most striking example in

which inhibition preceded excitation by 4.4 ms did not have the strongest effect on MOC AP rates

in the model, suggesting that closely-timed synaptic inhibition and excitation are most effective at

reducing MOC neuron activity. Further, we speculate that if the timing of inhibition is different

across the population of MOC neurons, in addition to the more variable excitatory timing, each

cell will have slightly different AP latencies and rates in response to a sound, thus de-synchronizing

MOC activity across the population.

Our results present a model that while MOC neurons receive rapid and precise excitation

at the single cell level, multiple mechanisms are in place to syncopate, broaden, and smooth

activity at the population level. This extends from broadly tuned inhibitory inputs[18], variable

axonal projection patterns in the cochlea [24,25,118–122], low synaptic release probability paired with

synaptic facilitation at MOC axon terminals onto cochlear outer hair cells (OHC)[123], and a slow

post-synaptic response in the OHC. Our results add fast and precisely timed synaptic inhibition to

the list of mechanisms to smooth MOC efferent activity, which paradoxically adds imprecision to

the MOC system to exert slow effects on cochlear gain control.

Author contributions: MF performed experiments, analyzed data, prepared figures, and edited the

manuscript. AP performed computational modeling, analyzed data, and edited the manuscript.

RV performed computational modeling, analyzed data, and edited the manuscript. HC performed

machine learning analysis and prepared figures. JD performed computational modeling. LT

analyzed data, prepared figures, and edited the manuscript. CW conceptualized the project,

analyzed data, prepared figures, wrote the manuscript, and acquired funding.

Acknowledgements: Thank you to Dr. Lena Ebbers and Dr. Hans Nothwang from Carl von

Ossietzky Universität Oldenburg for the Atoh7/Math5 Cre mice. Thank you to Dr. Kirupa

Suthakar for thoughtful discussions and a critical reading of the manuscript.

This research was supported by the Intramural Research Program of the NIH, NIDCD, Z01

DC000091 (CJCW) and the Bioinformatics and Biostatistics Core of the NIH / NIDCD.

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no competing financial interests.

Keywords: auditory, efferent, olivocochlear, MNTB, inhibition, cochlear nucleus, globular bushy

cell, T-stellate cell

References

1.   Ashmore, J. *et al.* The remarkable cochlear amplifier. *Hear. Res.* **266**, 1–17 (2010).

2.   Fettiplace, R. & Hackney, C. M. The origin of the cochlear amplifier. *Hear. Res.* (2010)

doi:10.1016/j.heares.2009.12.011.

3.   Dallos, P. The active cochlea. *J. Neurosci.* **12**, 4575–4585 (1992).

4.   Oghalai, J. S. The cochlear amplifier: augmentation of the traveling wave within the inner

ear. *Curr. Opin. Otolaryngol. Head Neck Surg.* **12**, 431–8 (2004).

5.   Fex, J. Efferent inhibition in the cochlea related to hair-cell dc activity: study of

postsynaptic activity of the crossed olivocochlear fibres in the cat. *J. Acoust. Soc. Am.* **41**,

666–75 (1967).

6.   Mountain, D. C. Changes in endolymphatic potential and crossed olivocochlear bundle

stimulation alter cochlear mechanics. *Science (80-.).* **210**, 71–72 (1980).

7.   Siegel, J. H. & Kim, D. O. Efferent neural control of cochlear mechanics? Olivocochlear

bundle stimulation affects cochlear biomechanical nonlinearity. *Hear. Res.* **6**, 171–182

(1982).

8.   Guinan, J. J. Physiology of Olivocochlear Efferents. in *The Cochlea: Springer Handbook*

of Auditory Research (eds. Dallos, P., Fay, R. & Popper, A.) 435–502 (Springer-Verlag,

1996).

9.   Guinan, J. J. Cochlear efferent innervation and function. *Curr. Opin. Otolaryngol. Head*

Neck Surg. **18**, 447–453 (2010).

10.   Elgoyhen, A. B. & Katz, E. The efferent medial olivocochlear-hair cell synapse. *J.*

Physiol. Paris **106**, 47–56 (2012).

11.   Kawase, T., Delgutte, B. & Liberman, M. C. Antimasking effects of the olivocochlear

reflex. II. Enhancement of auditory-nerve response to masked tones. *J. Neurophysiol.* **70**,

2533–2549 (1993).

12.   Guinan, J. J. *Physiology of the Medial and Lateral Olivocochlear Systems*. (2011).

doi:10.1007/978-1-4419-7070-1.

13.   Winslow, R. L. & Sachs, M. B. Effect of electrical stimulation of the crossed

olivocochlear bundle on auditory nerve response to tones in noise. *J. Neurophysiol.* **57**,

1002–1021 (1987).

14.   Rajan, R. Involvement of Cochlear Efferent Pathways in Protective Effects Elicited with

Binaural Loud Sound Exposure in Cats. *J. Neurophysiol.* **74**, 582–597 (1995).

15.   Reiter, E. R. & Liberman, M. C. Efferent-mediated protection from acoustic

overexposure: relation to slow effects of olivocochlear stimulation. *J. Neurophysiol.* **73**,

506–514 (1995).

16.   Terreros, G., Jorratt, P., Aedo, C., Elgoyhen, A. B. & Delano, P. H. Selective Attention to

Visual Stimuli Using Auditory Distractors Is Altered in Alpha-9 Nicotinic Receptor

Subunit Knock-Out Mice. **36**, 7198–7209 (2016).

17.   Romero, G. E. & Trussell, L. O. Distinct forms of synaptic plasticity during ascending vs

descending control of medial olivocochlear efferent neurons. *Elife* **10**, (2021).

18.   Torres Cadenas, L., Fischl, M. J. & Weisz, C. J. C. Synaptic Inhibition of Medial

Olivocochlear Efferent Neurons by Neurons of the Medial Nucleus of the Trapezoid

Body. *J. Neurosci.* **40**, 509–525 (2020).

19.   Torres Cadenas, L., Cheng, H. & Weisz, C. J. C. Synaptic plasticity of inhibitory synapses

onto medial olivocochlear efferent neurons. *J. Physiol.* **600**, 2747–2763 (2022).

20.   Tong, H. *et al.* Protection from noise-induced hearing loss by kv2.2 potassium currents in

the central medial olivocochlear system. *J. Neurosci.* **33**, 9113–21 (2013).

21.   Sinclair, J. L., Barnes-Davies, M., Kopp-Scheinpflug, C. & Forsythe, I. D. Strain-specific

differences in the development of neuronal excitability in the mouse ventral nucleus of the

trapezoid body. *Hear. Res.* **354**, 28–37 (2017).

22.   Fex, J. Single fibre analysis of crossed efferent fibres. *Acta Physiol. Scand.* **55**, 7–32

(1962).

23.   Robertson, D. & Gummer, M. Physiological and morphological characterization of

efferent neurones in the guinea pig cochlea. *Hear. Res.* **20**, 63–77 (1985).

24.   Liberman, M. C. & Brown, M. C. Physiology and anatomy of single olivocochlear

neurons in the cat. *Hear. Res.* **24**, 17–36 (1986).

25.   Brown, M. C. Morphology and response properties of single olivocochlear fibers in the

guinea pig. *Hear. Res.* **40**, 93–109 (1989).

26.   Robertson, D. Horseradish peroxidase injection of physiologically characterized afferent

and efferent neurones in the guinea pig spiral ganglion. *Hear. Res.* **15**, 113–21 (1984).

27.   Jercog, P. E., Svirskis, G., Kotak, V. C., Sanes, D. H. & Rinzel, J. Asymmetric excitatory

synaptic dynamics underlie interaural time difference processing in the auditory system.

PLoS Biol. **8**, e1000406 (2010).

28.   Roberts, M. T., Seeman, S. C. & Golding, N. L. A mechanistic understanding of the role

of feedforward inhibition in the mammalian sound localization circuitry. *Neuron* **78**, 923–

35 (2013).

29.   Ford, M. C. *et al.* Tuning of Ranvier node and internode properties in myelinated axons to

adjust action potential timing. *Nat. Commun.* **6**, 1–14 (2015).

30.   Brand, A., Behrend, O., Marquardt, T., McAlpine, D. & Grothe, B. Precise inhibition is

essential for microsecond interaural time difference coding. *Nature* **417**, 543–547 (2002).

31.   Fischl, M. J. & Weisz, C. J. C. In Vitro Wedge Slice Preparation for Mimicking In Vivo

Neuronal Circuit Connectivity. *J. Vis. Exp.* (2020) doi:10.3791/61664.

32.   Rhode, W. S., Oertel, D., Smith, P. H., Oertel, D. & Smith, P. H. Physiological response

properties of cells labeled intracellularly with horseradish peroxidase in cat ventral

cochlear nucleus. *J. Comp. Neurol.* **213**, 448–463 (1983).

33.   Smith, P. H. & Rhode, W. S. Characterization of HRP-labeled globular bushy cells in the

cat anteroventral cochlear nucleus. *J. Comp. Neurol.* **266**, 360–375 (1987).

34.   Joris, P. X., Carney, L. H., Smith, P. H. & Yin, T. C. Enhancement of neural

synchronization in the anteroventral cochlear nucleus. I. Responses to tones at the

characteristic frequency. *J. Neurophysiol.* **71**, 1022–36 (1994).

35.   Brown, M. C., Mukerji, S., Drottar, M., Windsor, A. M. & Lee, D. J. Identification of

inputs to olivocochlear neurons using transneuronal labeling with pseudorabies virus

(PRV). *J. Assoc. Res. Otolaryngol.* **14**, 703–17 (2013).

36.   Hockley, A., Wu, C. & Shore, S. E. Olivocochlear projections contribute to superior

intensity coding in cochlear nucleus small cells. *J. Physiol.* (2021) doi:10.1113/JP282262.

37.   De Venecia, R. K., Liberman, M. C., Guinan, J. J. & Brown, M. C. Medial olivocochlear

reflex interneurons are located in the posteroventral cochlear nucleus: A kainic acid lesion

study in guinea pigs. *J. Comp. Neurol.* **487**, 345–360 (2005).

38.   Darrow, K., Benson, T. E. & Brown, M. C. Planar multipolar cells in the cochlear nucleus

project to medial olivocochlear neurons in mouse. *J. Comp. Neurol.* **520**, 1365–75 (2012).

39.   Paxinos, G. & Watson, K. B. *The Mouse Brain in Stereotaxic Coordinates*. (Academic

Press).

40.   Kronander, E., Michalski, N., Lebrand, C., Hornung, J.-P. & Schneggenburger, R. An

organotypic slice culture to study the formation of calyx of Held synapses in-vitro. *PLoS*

One **12**, e0175964 (2017).

41.   Yang, Z., Ding, K., Pan, L., Deng, M. & Gan, L. Math5 determines the competence state

of retinal ganglion cell progenitors. *Dev. Biol.* **264**, 240–254 (2003).

42.   Chen, T.-W. *et al.* Ultrasensitive fluorescent proteins for imaging neuronal activity.

Nature **499**, 295–300 (2013).

43.   Cao, X.-J. & Oertel, D. Auditory Nerve Fibers Excite Targets Through Synapses That

Vary in Convergence, Strength, and Short-Term Plasticity. *J. Neurophysiol.* **104**, 2308–

2320 (2010).

44.   Yang, Y., Ramamurthy, B., Neef, X. A. & Xu-friedman, M. A. Low Somatic Sodium

Conductance Enhances Action Potential Precision in Time-Coding Auditory Neurons. **36**,

11999–12009 (2016).

45.   Oertel, D. Synaptic responses and electrical properties of cells in brain slices of the mouse

anteroventral cochlear nucleus. *J. Neurosci.* **3**, 2043–2053 (1983).

46.   Cao, X. J., Shatadal, S. & Oertel, D. Voltage-sensitive conductances of bushy cells of the

mammalian ventral cochlear nucleus. *J. Neurophysiol.* **97**, 3961–3975 (2007).

47.   Brown, M. C. & Levine, J. L. Dendrites of medial olivocochlear neurons in mouse.

Neuroscience **154**, 147–59 (2008).

48.   Robertson, D. & Gummer, M. Physiological and morphological characterization of

efferent neurones in the guinea pig cochlea. *Hear. Res.* **20**, 63–77 (1985).

49.   Fex, J. Single Fibre Analysis of Crossed Efferent Fibres. *Acta Physiol. Scand.* **55**, 7–32

(1962).

50.   Liberman, M. C. Physiology of cochlear efferent and afferent neurons: Direct comparisons

in the same animal. *Hear. Res.* **34**, 179–191 (1988).

51.   Horvath, M. *et al.* Intracochlear injection of pseudorabies virus labels descending auditory

and monoaminerg projections to olivocochlear cells in guinea pig. *Eur. J. Neurosci.* **18**,

1439–1447 (2003).

52.   Ota, Y., Oliver, D. L. & Dolan, D. F. Frequency-Specific Effects on Cochlear Responses

During Activation of the Inferior Colliculus in the Guinea Pig. *J. Neurophysiol.* **91**, 2185–

2193 (2004).

53.   Gómez-Nieto, R., Rubio, M. E. & López, D. E. Cholinergic input from the ventral nucleus

of the trapezoid body to cochlear root neurons in rats. *J. Comp. Neurol.* **506**, 452–68 (2008).

54. Suthakar, K. & Ryugo, D. K. Descending Projections from the Inferior Colliculus to Medial Olivocochlear Efferents: Mice with Normal Hearing, Early Onset Hearing Loss, and Congenital Deafness. *Hear. Res.* (2016) doi:10.1016/j.heares.2016.06.014.

55. Benson, T. E. & Brown, M. C. Ultrastructure of synaptic input to medial olivocochlear neurons. *J Comp Neurol* **499**, 244–57 (2006).

56. Faye-Lund, H. Projection from the inferior colliculus to the superior olivary complex in the albino rat. *Anat. Embryol. (Berl).* **175**, 35–52 (1986).

57. Caicedo, A. & Herbert, H. Topography of descending projections from the inferior colliculus to auditory brainstem nuclei in the rat. *J. Comp. Neurol.* **328**, 377–92 (1993).

58. Thompson, A. M. & Thompson, G. C. Relationship of descending inferior colliculus projections to olivocochlear neurons. *J. Comp. Neurol.* **335**, 402–412 (1993).

59. Vetter, D. E., Saldaña, E. & Mugnaini, E. Input from the inferior colliculus to medial olivocochlear neurons in the rat: a double label study with PHA-L and cholera toxin. *Hear. Res.* **70**, 173–86 (1993).

60. Mulders, W. H. A. M. & Robertson, D. Inputs from the cochlea and the inferior colliculus converge on olivocochlear neurones. *Hear. Res.* **167**, 206–213 (2002).

61. Mulders, W. H. A. M. & Robertson, D. Evidence for direct cortical innervation of medial olivocochlear neurones in rats. *Hear. Res.* **144**, 65–72 (2000).

62. Groff, J. A. & Liberman, M. C. Modulation of cochlear afferent response by the lateral olivocochlear system: activation via electrical stimulation of the inferior colliculus. *J. Neurophysiol.* **90**, 3178–200 (2003).

63. Robertson, D. Physiology and Morphology of Cells in the Ventral Nucleus of Trapezoid Body and Rostral Periolivary Regions of the Rat Superior Olivary Complex Studied in Slices. *Audit. Neurosci.* **2**, 15–31 (1996).

64. Suthakar, K. & Weisz, C. J. C. Serotonergic Modulation of Medial Olivocochlear Neurons. (2023). Abstracts of the 46th Annual Midwinter Meeting, Association of Research in Otolaryngology.

65. Berglund, A. M., Benson, T. E. & Brown, M. C. Synapses from labeled type II axons in the mouse cochlear nucleus. *Hear. Res.* **94**, 31–46 (1996).

66.   Benson, T. E. & Brown, M. C. Postsynaptic targets of type II auditory nerve fibers in the
cochlear nucleus. *J. Assoc. Res. Otolaryngol.* **5**, 111–25 (2004).

67.   Weisz, C. J. C. *et al.* Outer hair cell glutamate signaling through type II spiral ganglion
afferents activates neurons in the cochlear nucleus in response to non-damaging sounds. *J.*
Neurosci. (2021) doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.0619-20.2021.

68.   Arnott, R. H., Wallace, M. N., Shackleton, T. M. & Palmer, A. R. Onset neurones in the
anteroventral cochlear nucleus project to the dorsal cochlear nucleus. *JARO - J. Assoc.*
Res. Otolaryngol. **5**, 153–170 (2004).

69.   Xie, R. & Manis, P. B. Glycinergic synaptic transmission in the cochlear nucleus of mice
with normal hearing and age-related hearing loss. *J. Neurophysiol.* **110**, 1848–59 (2013).

70.   Rhode, W. S. & Greenberg, S. Lateral suppression and inhibition in the cochlear nucleus
of the cat. *J. Neurophysiol.* **71**, 493–514 (1994).

71.   Wickesberg, R. E. & Oertel, D. Tonotopic projection from the dorsal to the anteroventral
cochlear nucleus of mice. *J. Comp. Neurol.* **268**, 389–99 (1988).

72.   Kuenzel, T. Modulatory influences on time-coding neurons in the ventral cochlear
nucleus. *Hear. Res.* **384**, 107824 (2019).

73.   Xie, R. & Manis, P. B. GABAergic and glycinergic inhibitory synaptic transmission in the
ventral cochlear nucleus studied in VGAT channelrhodopsin-2 mice. *Front. Neural*
Circuits **8**, 1–15 (2014).

74.   Ngodup, T., Romero, G. E. & Trussell, L. O. Identification of an inhibitory neuron
subtype, the l-stellate cell of the cochlear nucleus. *Elife* **9**, 1–40 (2020).

75.   Campagnola, L. & Manis, P. B. A Map of Functional Synaptic Connectivity in the Mouse
Anteroventral Cochlear Nucleus. *J. Neurosci.* **34**, 2214–30 (2014).

76.   Cant, N. B. & Benson, C. G. Parallel auditory pathways: projection patterns of the
different neuronal populations in the dorsal and ventral cochlear nuclei. *Brain Res Bull* **60**,
457–474 (2003).

77.   Doucet, J. R. & Ryugo, D. K. Projections from the ventral cochlear nucleus to the dorsal
cochlear nucleus in rats. *J. Comp. Neurol.* **385**, 245–64 (1997).

78.   Ferragamo, M. J., Golding, N. L. & Oertel, D. Synaptic inputs to stellate cells in the
ventral cochlear nucleus. *J Neurophysiol* **79**, 51-63. (1998).

79.   Muniak, M. A. & Ryugo, D. K. Tonotopic organization of vertical cells in the dorsal

cochlear nucleus of the CBA/J mouse. *J. Comp. Neurol.* **522**, 937–949 (2014).

80. Ostapoff, E. M., Morest, D. K. & Parham, K. Spatial organization of the reciprocal

connections between the cat dorsal and anteroventral cochlear nuclei. *Hear. Res.* **130**, 75–

93 (1999).

81. Gómez-Nieto, R. & Rubio, M. E. A bushy cell network in the rat ventral cochlear nucleus.

J. Comp. Neurol. **516**, 241–263 (2009).

82. Cao, X.-J., Lin, L., Sugden, A. U., Connors, B. W. & Oertel, D. Nitric Oxide-Mediated

Plasticity of Interconnections Between T-Stellate cells of the Ventral Cochlear Nucleus

Generate Positive Feedback and Constitute a Central Gain Control in the Auditory

System. *J. Neurosci.* **39**, 6095–6107 (2019).

83. Kuwabara, N., DiCaprio, R. a & Zook, J. M. Afferents to the medial nucleus of the

trapezoid body and their collateral projections. *J. Comp. Neurol.* **314**, 684–706 (1991).

84. Smith, P. H., Joris, P. X., Carney, L. H. & Yin, T. C. Projections of physiologically

characterized globular bushy cell axons from the cochlear nucleus of the cat. *J. Comp.*

Neurol. **304**, 387–407 (1991).

85. Weingarten, D. J. *et al.* An inhibitory glycinergic projection from the cochlear nucleus to

the lateral superior olive. 1–9 (2023) doi:10.3389/fncir.2023.1307283.

86. Cant, N. B. & Hyson, R. L. Projections from the lateral nucleus of the trapezoid body to

the medial superior olivary nucleus in the gerbil. *Hear. Res.* **58**, 26–34 (1992).

87. Kuwabara, N. & Zook, J. M. Projections to the medial superior olive from the medial and

lateral nuclei of the trapezoid body in rodents and bats. *J. Comp. Neurol.* **324**, 522–538

(1992).

88. Kulesza, R. J. & Berrebi, A. S. Superior paraolivary nucleus of the rat is a GABAergic

nucleus. *JARO - J. Assoc. Res. Otolaryngol.* **1**, 255–269 (2000).

89. Kelly, J. B., Liscum, A., Van Adel, B. & Ito, M. Projections from the superior olive and

lateral lemniscus to tonotopic regions of the rat's inferior colliculus. *Hear. Res.* **116**, 43–

54 (1998).

90. Albrecht, O., Dondzillo, A., Mayer, F., Thompson, J. A. & Klug, A. Inhibitory projections

from the ventral nucleus of the trapezoid body to the medial nucleus of the trapezoid body

in the mouse. *Front. Neural Circuits* **8**, 1–15 (2014).

91. Frank, M. M. *et al.* Experience-dependent flexibility in a molecularly diverse central-to-

peripheral auditory feedback system. *Elife* **12**, (2023).

92. Kitcher, S. R., Pederson, A. M. & Weisz, C. J. C. Diverse identities and sites of action of

cochlear neurotransmitters. *Hear. Res.* (2021) doi:10.1016/j.heares.2021.108278.

93. Kitcher, S. R. & Weisz, C. J. Imaging GABAergic activity in the cochlea. (2023).

Abstracts of the 46th Annual Midwinter Meeting, Association of Research in

Otolaryngology.

94. Brownell, W. E. Organization of the cat trapezoid body and the discharge characteristics

of its fibers. *Brain Res.* **94**, 413–433 (1975).

95. Warr, W. B. Fiber degeneration following lesions in the multipolar and globular cell areas

in the ventral cochlear nucleus of the cat. *Brain Res.* **40**, 247–70 (1972).

96. Lauer, A. M., Connelly, C. J., Graham, H. & Ryugo, D. K. Morphological

Characterization of Bushy Cells and Their Inputs in the Laboratory Mouse (Mus

musculus) Anteroventral Cochlear Nucleus. *PLoS One* **8**, 1–16 (2013).

97. Spirou, G. A., Brownell, W. E. & Zidanic, M. Recordings from cat trapezoid body and

HRP labeling of globular bushy cell axons. *J. Neurophysiol.* **63**, 1169–1190 (1990).

98. Kopp-Scheinpflug, C., Tolnai, S., Malmierca, M. S. & Rübsamen, R. The medial nucleus

of the trapezoid body: Comparative physiology. *Neuroscience* **154**, 160–170 (2008).

99. Guinan, J. J., Guinan, S. S. & Norris, B. E. Single auditory units in the superior olivary

complex: I: Responses to sounds and classifications based on physiological properties. *Int.*

J. Neurosci. **4**, 101–120 (1972).

100. Sommer, I., Lingenhöhl, K. & Friauf, E. Principal cells of the rat medial nucleus of the

trapezoid body: an intracellular in vivo study of their physiology and morphology. *Exp.*

Brain Res. **95**, 223–239 (1993).

101. Wu, S. H. & Kelly, J. B. Response of neurons in the lateral superior olive and medial

nucleus of the trapezoid body to repetitive stimulation: intracellular and extracellular

recordings from mouse brain slice. *Hear. Res.* **68**, 189–201 (1993).

102. Taschenberger, H. & von Gersdorff, H. Fine-tuning an auditory synapse for speed and

fidelity: developmental changes in presynaptic waveform, EPSC kinetics, and synaptic

plasticity. *J. Neurosci.* **20**, 9162–73 (2000).

103. Kopp-Scheinpflug, C., Lippe, W. R., Dörrscheidt, G. J. & Rübsamen, R. The medial

nucleus of the trapezoid body in the gerbil is more than a relay: Comparison of pre- and

postsynaptic activity. *JARO - J. Assoc. Res. Otolaryngol.* **4**, 1–23 (2003).

104.   Kopp-Scheinpflug, C., Steinert, J. R. & Forsythe, I. D. Modulation and control of synaptic
transmission across the MNTB. (2011) doi:10.1016/j.heares.2011.02.007.

105.   Kopp-Scheinpflug, C., Tolnai, S., Malmierca, M. S. & Rübsamen, R. The medial nucleus
of the trapezoid body: comparative physiology. *Neuroscience* **154**, 160–70 (2008).

106.   Barnes-Davies, M. & Forsythe, I. D. Pre- and postsynaptic glutamate receptors at a giant
excitatory synapse in rat auditory brainstem slices. *J. Physiol.* **488 (Pt 2**, 387–406 (1995).

107.   Mc Laughlin, M. *et al.* The interaural time difference pathway: A comparison of spectral
bandwidth and correlation sensitivity at three anatomical levels. *J. Assoc. Res.*
Otolaryngol. **15**, 203–218 (2014).

108.   Guinan, J. J. & Li, R. Y. Signal processing in brainstem auditory neurons which receive
giant endings (calyces of Held) in the medial nucleus of the trapezoid body of the cat.
Hear. Res. **49**, 321–34 (1990).

109.   Takahashi, T., Forsythe, I. D., Tsujimoto, T., Barnes-Davies, M. & Onodera, K.
Presynaptic calcium current modulation by a metabotropic glutamate receptor. *Science*
274, 594–7 (1996).

110.   Borst, J. G., Helmchen, F. & Sakmann, B. Pre- and postsynaptic whole-cell recordings in
the medial nucleus of the trapezoid body of the rat. *J. Physiol.* **489 (Pt 3**, 825–40 (1995).

111.   Smith, P. H., Joris, P. X. & Yin, T. C. Anatomy and physiology of principal cells of the
medial nucleus of the trapezoid body (MNTB) of the cat. *J. Neurophysiol.* **79**, 3127–3142
(1998).

112.   Tolnai, S., Hernandez, O., Englitz, B., Rübsamen, R. & Malmierca, M. S. The medial
nucleus of the trapezoid body in rat: spectral and temporal properties vary with anatomical
location of the units. *Eur. J. Neurosci.* **27**, 2587–98 (2008).

113.   Englitz, B., Tolnai, S., Typlt, M., Jost, J. & Rübsamen, R. Reliability of synaptic
transmission at the synapses of held in vivo under acoustic stimulation. *PLoS One* **4**,
(2009).

114.   Rhode, W. S. & Smith, P. H. Encoding timing and intensity in the ventral cochlear
nucleus of the cat. *J. Neurophysiol.* **56**, 261–86 (1986).

115.   Pfeiffer, R. R. Classification of response patterns of spike discharges for units in the
cochlear nucleus: tone-burst stimulation. *Exp. brain Res.* **1**, 220–35 (1966).

116. Spirou, G. A., Rager, J. & Manis, P. B. Convergence of auditory-nerve fiber projections
877   onto globular bushy cells. *Neuroscience* **136**, 843–863 (2005).

878   117. McGinley, M. J. & Oertel, D. Rate thresholds determine the precision of temporal
879   integration in principal cells of the ventral cochlear nucleus. *Hear. Res.* **216**–**217**, 52–63
880   (2006).

881   118. Warr, W. Organization of Olivocochlear Efferent Systems in Mammals. in *The*
882   *Mammalian Auditory Pathways: Neuroanatomy, Springer Handbook of Auditory*
883   *Research* (eds. Webster, D. B., Popper, A. & Fay, R.) 410–448 (Springer-Verlag, 1992).

884   119. Brown, M. C. Morphology of labeled efferent fibers in the guinea pig cochlea. *J Comp*
885   *Neurol* **260**, 605–618 (1987).

886   120. Vetter, D. E., Adams, J. C. & Mugnaini, E. Chemically distinct rat olivocochlear neurons.
887   *Synapse* **7**, 21–43 (1991).

888   121. Brown, M. C. Recording and Labeling at a Site along the Cochlea shows Alignment of
889   Medial Olivocochlear and Auditory-Nerve Tonotopic Mappings. *J. Neurophysiol.*
890   jn.00842.2015 (2016) doi:10.1152/jn.00842.2015.

891   122. Brown, M. C. Single-unit Labeling of Medial Olivocochlear Neurons: The Cochlear
892   Frequency Map for Efferent Axons. *J. Neurophysiol.* (2014) doi:10.1152/jn.00045.2014.

893   123. Ballestero, J. *et al.* Short-term synaptic plasticity regulates the level of olivocochlear
894   inhibition to auditory hair cells. *J. Neurosci.* **31**, 14763–74 (2011).

895
896

  Supplementary Tables

	MdL-EPSC	MdL-EPSC n (clusters / cells)	MdL-IPSC	MdL-IPSC n (clusters / cells)	p-value (Mann-Whitney U Test)
Amplitude, -60 mV (pA)	66.95±3.95	25/17	55.39±3.10	21/15	0.69
Rise Time (ms)	0.63±0.19	25/17	0.86±0.15	21/15	8.02E-04
Time constant of decay (τ, ms)	2.23±0.52	23/17	3.51±0.93	21/15	4.95E-07
Latency (ms)	1.92±0.37	18/18	4.47±0.93	15/15	4.79E-06

900 **Table S1.** Parameters of MdL-stimulation-evoked PSCs from Figure 1D, for all clusters.

901
902

	ΔF/F	p-value	% suppression from control
control (106)	1.176±0.075		
CNQX	1.059±0.018	1.04E-20	67.67±12.43
CNQX wash	1.150±0.073	2.74E-13	
control (121)	1.160±0.071		
CNQX + APV	1.039±0.009	1.14E-34	74.51±11.31
CNQX + APV wash	1.125±0.055	2.54E-24	

904 **Table S2**. Top: Fluorescence changes in Atoh7/Math5Cre; GCaMP6f expressing bushy cells in control conditions,
905 with CNQX, and wash of CNQX. Bottom: Fluorescence changes in control, with CNQX + APV, and wash of
906 CNQX + APV. Differences between conditions tested with Friedman's ANOVA followed by post-hoc Dunn's Test.
907 % suppression from control: (control DF/F-block DF/F) / (control DF/F-1)*100%. Number of cells for each set of
908 experiments in parentheses.

909
910

	AN-EPSC	AN-EPSC n (clusters / cells)	AN-IPSC	AN-IPSC n (clusters / cells)	p-value (Mann-Whitney U Test)
Amplitude -60 mV (pA)	60.6±39.0	13/8	25.6±11.1	17/10	0.14
Rise Time (ms)	0.86±0.15	13/8	0.92±0.31	17/10	0.35
Time constant of decay (τ, ms)	2.80±1.65	11/8	3.59±1.50	16/10	0.67
Latency (ms)	5.83±1.22	13/8	6.71±0.87	17/10	0.04

911
912 **Table S3**. Parameters of AN-stimulation evoked PSCs from Figure 4E, for all clusters.

	MdL-EPSC (18)	MdL-IPSC (15)	AN-EPSC (8)	AN-IPSC (11)
Latency (ms)	1.92±0.37	4.47±0.93	5.22±0.98	6.19±0.77
Onset Jitter (ms)	0.25±0.13	0.50±0.17	0.37±0.13	0.56±0.11
Probability	0.80±0.19	0.45±0.15	0.24±0.08	0.14±0.06

917 **Table S4.** Parameters of the first cluster of PSCs evoked from MdL- and AN-stimulation from Figure 5. Numbers in
918 parentheses indicate number of cells.

Rate	Treatment (n)	AP Prob	AP Rate (Hz)	# stimulations to first AP	Latency to first AP
10 Hz	Control (7)	0	0	>20	>2000
10 Hz	Block (7)	0	0	>20	>2000
10 Hz	Wash (5)	0	0	>20	>2000
50 Hz	Control (7)	0.005±0.005	0.25±0.25	19.0±1.0	379.2±20.9
50 Hz	Block (7)	0.053±0.053	2.63±2.63	7.80±4.40	144.4±86.87
50 Hz	Wash (5)	0	0	>20.0	>400
100 Hz	Control (7)	0.035±0.015	3.49±1.51	14.15±4.30	139±44.6 #
100 Hz	Block (7)	0.078±0.036 *	7.78±3.75 *	5.40±2.76 *	49.8±29.1 *
100 Hz	Wash (5)	0.051±0.03	5.08±3.00	9.50±5.13	126±56.7
200 Hz	Control (7)	0.045±0.040 #	9.00±8.00 #	14.2±4.20 #	69.3±22.3 #
200 Hz	Block (7)	0.075±0.047 *	15.0±9.40 *	6.00±2.00 *	26.3±12.0 *
200 Hz	Wash (5)	0.013±0.013	2.67±2.67	16.6±3.50	75.7±19.5

Table S5. Measurements of AP probability, rate, the number of stimulations to first AP, and latency to first AP in 5-
8 MOC neuron recordings in response to MdL-stimulation at the frequency indicated, from Figure 6C. Measurements
are presented in control, during pharmacological blockade of post-synaptic inhibitory receptors ("block"), and wash
conditions, as median±MAD. Numbers in parentheses indicate n. # indicates significantly different from control 10
Hz stimulation (Friedman ANOVA with post-hoc Dunn's test). * indicates significantly different from control within
stimulus frequency comparison (P<0.05, Paired Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test).

STAR Methods

Fast inhibition slows and desynchronizes auditory efferent neuron activity

Matthew Fischl, Alia Pederson, Rebecca Voglewede, Hui Cheng, Jordan Drew, Lester Torres Cadenas, and Catherine J.C. Weisz

RESOURCE AVAILABILITY
Lead Contact
Further information requests for resources and reagent should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the lead contact, Catherine Weisz (catherine.weisz@nih.gov).

Materials availability
This study did not generate new unique materials.

Data and code availability
DATA
Electrophysiology and imaging data will be deposited and publicly available by the date of publication.

CODE
All original code will be deposited and will be publicly available as of the date of publication.

ANALYSIS TOOLS
Any additional information required to reanalyze the data reported in this paper is available from the lead contact upon request.

EXPERIMENTAL MODEL DETAILS
Ethical approval and animal housing
Animal procedures followed National Institutes of Health guidelines, as approved by the National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke/National Institute on Deafness and Other Communication Disorders Animal Care and Use Committee. Pre-weaned mice postnatal age 13-21 (P13-P21) were used for experiments and were housed with parents and littermates before use. Mice were housed in the NIDCD animal facility with a 12:12 light/dark cycle where food and water were provided *ad libitum*. Mice of both sexes were used for experiments. For consideration of sex as a biological factor, postsynaptic currents (PSCs) recorded during stimulation of the ventral acoustic stria ('midline stimulation'; MdL-stimulation) were analyzed and compared between the sexes (see below for complete methods). No significant differences were found for excitatory or inhibitory PSCs using the metrics of onset latency, onset jitter, rise time, decay tau, amplitude and probability. Datasets were therefore pooled.

Median ± MAD		Onset Latency (ms)	Onset Jitter (ms)	Rise Time (ms)	Decay Tau (ms)	Amplitude (nA)	Probability
Male	EPSCs (10)	2.11 ± 0.43	0.19 ± 0.08	0.61 ± 0.28	2.44 ± 0.50	-0.05 ± 0.02	0.48 ± 0.21
Female	EPSCs (11)	2.02 ± 0.67	0.41 ± 0.15	0.73 ± 0.20	2.23 ± 0.55	-0.04 ± 0.02	0.52 ± 0.31
Male	IPSCs (8)	5.01 ± 1.98	0.53 ± 0.08	1.26 ± 0.59	5.79 ± 2.85	-0.07 ± 0.02	0.39 ± 0.11
Female	IPSCs (10)	5.30 ± 1.26	0.44 ± 0.20	1.40 ± 0.32	3.34 ± 0.48	-0.05 ± 0.02	0.25 ± 0.16

Table M1: Values for metrics analyzed for PSCs evoked with midline (MdL) stimulation for comparison of sex as a biological factor. n # for each group in parentheses represents # of peaks (clusters) analyzed. Comparisons made between sexes showed no significant differences with Mann-Whitney U Test.

ChAT-IRES-Cre x tdTomato mouse line
ChAT-IRES-Cre transgenic mice on either a C57BL/6J (RRID:IMSR_JAX:028861) or a C57BL/6N (RRID:IMSR_JAX:018957) background strain were crossed with tdTomato reporter mice (Ai14, Cre reporter allele inserted into Rosa 26 locus; RRID:IMSR_JAX:007914) to yield offspring heterozygous for each allele for experiments. These mice were used to target MOC neurons for patch-clamp recordings as previously described (Torres Cadenas et al., 2020).

Atoh7/Math5 Cre x GCaMP6f mouse line
Atoh7/Math5 Cre mice (Yang et al., 2003, RRID:MGI:3717726) were crossed with GCaMP6f Ai95(RCL-GCaMP6f, RRID:IMSR_JAX:028865) mice for use in calcium imaging experiments of cochlear nucleus bushy cells.

METHOD DETAILS
Brain slice preparation
Mice were killed by carbon dioxide inhalation at a rate of 20-30% of chamber volume per minute, then decapitated. The brain was removed in cold artificial cerebrospinal fluid (aCSF) containing the following (in mM): 124 NaCl, 1.2 $CaCl_2$, 1.3 $MgSO_4$, 5 KCl, 26 $NaHCO_3$, 1.25 KH_2PO_4, and 10 dextrose; 1 mM kynurenic acid was included during slice preparation. The pH was equal to 7.4 when bubbled with 95% O_2/5% CO_2. In experiments in which mini-post-synaptic potentials (mPSPs) were recorded, 1 μM tetrodotoxin (TTX) was included in the aCSF.

Asymmetric slices were obtained as previously described (Fischl & Weisz 2020). Briefly, the brainstem was carefully dissected from the skull to maintain a portion of the auditory nerve roots entering the cochlear nucleus, similar to methods used for thick slice preparations (Jercog et al., 2010; Roberts et al., 2013). Then, a wedge-shaped section was acquired using a stage with an adjustable angle such that the lateral edge of one hemisphere was approximately 1-1.2 mm thick and contained the cochlear nucleus, and the opposite lateral edge was ~200 μm, creating a thickness of ~300-400 μm where MOC neurons were identified for patch-clamp experiments in the ventral nucleus of the trapezoid body (VNTB). An additional 300 μm slice was obtained rostral to the 'wedge slice' and used for additional experiments. For some experiments utilizing midline stimulation for evoked PSPs or for recordings of miniPSPs, symmetrical brain slices

were prepared as previously described (Torres Cadenas et al., 2020). Sections were transferred to an incubation chamber and maintained at $35 \pm 1°C$ for 30-60 min. Slices then cooled to room temperature until used for experiments within 4 hours of slicing. Wedge slices were used immediately after a short recovery incubation (30 min) to improve cell viability which tends to diminish more rapidly than typical symmetrical slices due to reduced aCSF solution penetration in the larger tissue volume.

Patch-clamp recordings
Sections were transferred to a recording chamber which was continuously perfused with aCSF at a rate of 5-10 mL/min. The bath temperature was held at $35 \pm 1°C$ using an in-line heater (Warner) coupled to a temperature controller (Warner). The tissue was viewed using a Nikon Eclipse Ni-E microscope with an Apo LWD 25X/1.10 NA water-immersion objective attached to a Retiga Electro CCD camera (QImaging) operated using NIS Elements software (version 4.51.01). Epifluorescence illumination with red emission filters were used to locate MOC neurons in the VNTB for recordings. Targeted cells were then observed using DIC optics for patch-clamp recordings.

Pipettes for patch-clamp recordings were pulled from 1.5 mm borosilicate glass capillaries to resistances between 3-7 MOhm. For voltage-clamp experiments an internal solution containing (in mM) 76 Cs-methanesulfonate, 56 CsCl, 1 $MgCl_2$, 1 $CaCl_2$, 10 HEPES, 10 EGTA, 0.3 Na-GTP, 2 Mg-ATP, 5 Na_2-phosphocreatine, 5 QX-314, and 0.01 Alexa Fluor-488 hydrazide was used. The pH was adjusted to 7.2 with CsOH. For current-clamp experiments, an internal solution containing (in mM) 125 K-gluconate, 5 KCl, 1 $MgCl_2$, 0.1 $CaCl_2$, 10 HEPES, 1 EGTA, 0.3 Na-GTP, 2 Mg-ATP, 1 Na_2-phosphocreatine, and 0.01 Alexa Fluor-488 hydrazide was used. The pH was adjusted 7.2 with 1N KOH. Liquid junction potentials were -6 mV, CsCl solution and -2 mV, KGlu solution and were not adjusted for. Electrophysiology recordings were performed using a HEKA EPC10 amplifier controlled using PatchMaster NEXT (version 1.1). The recordings were sampled at 50 kHz and filtered on-line at 10 kHz. Series resistance was compensated between 60-85%. Cells were voltage-clamped at -60 mV unless stated otherwise. In current-clamp, holding currents were injected to maintain the baseline membrane potential at -60 mV.

Stimulation of auditory nerve and ventral acoustic stria
Post-synaptic currents (PSC) and post-synaptic potentials (PSP) recorded in MOC neurons were evoked by electrical stimulation of axons using a bipolar tungsten electrode (WPI). For auditory nerve (AN) stimulation, the electrode was lowered onto the approximate center of the auditory nerve root diameter between the cut end of the nerve and its entry into the CN. For stimulation at the midline, the electrode was placed just lateral to the midline (contralateral hemisphere to the MOC neuron recording) near the ventral surface of the tissue onto fibers of the ventral acoustic stria. The stimulation was applied with an Iso-Flex Stimulus Isolation Unit (A.M.P.I.) and the intensity was adjusted to obtain consistent amplitude postsynaptic responses in MOC neurons (stimulation range 10-2000 µA). In two experiments using AN-stimulation, the stimulus intensity was increased until the PSC latencies jumped to a shorter value (see figure 3,4), indicating direct recruitment of CN axons and bypassing of auditory nerve synapses onto CN cells. To isolate inhibitory currents in voltage-clamp, the membrane potential was clamped at 0 mV, the approximate reversal potential for AMPA-mediated glutamatergic currents. Inhibitory inputs

were blocked where indicated with bath application of strychnine (1 µM) and Gabazine (SR95531, 50 µM).

Miniature PSP recordings
For miniature PSP (mPSP) recordings, 1 µM tetrodotoxin (TTX, Alomone Labs) was included in the aCSF. Recordings were performed for several minutes to collect baseline (control) mPSPs. Inhibitory inputs were blocked using bath application of strychnine (1 µM) and Gabazine (SR95531, 50 µM) and gap free recordings were again taken during pharmacological manipulation. mPSPs were detected using using MiniAnalysis software version 6.0.7 (Synaptosoft) using a threshold of 2 x RMS noise. PSCs were then accepted or rejected based on the characteristic PSC waveform. The decay time constants of PSCs were calculated in Mini Analysis software from individual events.

Calcium Imaging
Calcium imaging of activity in CN bushy cells was performed using the Atoh7/Math5 Cre mouse line crossed with a GCaMP6f mouse line (see above). Asymmetric wedge slices were prepared as described above (Experimental Model Details). aCSF used for recording calcium signals was modified to contain 2 mM $CaCl_2$. Epifluorescence illumination with green emission filters were used to locate bushy cell neurons in the anteroventral cochlear nucleus (AVCN). The AVCN was targeted to increase the potential for imaging of globular bushy cells (GBCs) which project to the contralateral MNTB. Calcium signals were imaged using a Nikon Eclipse Ni-E microscope with an Apo LWD 25X/1.10 NA water-immersion objective in 2-photon excitation mode at 920 nm (Mai Tai HP, Spectra-Physics). A single focal plane was imaged for data collection. Imaging was performed at 3 Hz for 20 seconds using the resonant scanning galvos (Nikon Elements software version 4.51.01). Protocols consisted of 5 seconds of baseline data collection followed by auditory nerve stimulation in 3 bouts (each bout is 20 pulses at 100 Hz), at 5 seconds intervals, followed by an additional 5 seconds after the third stimulation bout, then at least 30 seconds without imaging or stimulation. Control data was acquired for several minutes before glutamate receptor blockers were applied. In a subset of experiments, CNQX (5 µM) was applied alone to block ionotropic glutamate receptors. In remaining calcium imaging experiments, APV (50 µM) was also added to additionally block NMDA receptors. Acquisition protocols were repeated during blocker application. Blockers were applied for ~10 minutes before washout. After washout, protocols were repeated to assess recovery of control conditions.

Computational MOC neuron model
A model of a single MOC neuron was constructed using NEURON v8 (Carnevale & Hines, 2006) and Python 3. The neuron topology was generated from a published MOC neuron morphology (Figure 9 from, (Brown & Levine, 2008)). The number of segments was empirically determined to be 86, inserted using the nseg function, and compartments were organized into larger morphological groups including the soma (length 33.6 µm, diameter 6.1 µm), axon (length 180.0 µm, diameter 1 µm), and dendrites. The three primary dendrites projected from the soma (lateral: length 12.8 µm, diameter 1 µm), dorsal (length 10.1 µm, diameter 1 µm), and medial (length 7.3 µm, diameter 1 µm). Each of these three primary dendrites branched further into 8 to 46 dendrites with lengths from 1.5 to 31.4 µm, and diameters from 1-2 µm. This detailed neuron topology allowed specific control of physiological properties. The uniform axial resistance was 210 ohm-cm, and membrane capacitance was 1 µF/cm^2. Channels were inserted into the

membrane (Table 1) to recapitulate our experimental results. HCN channel reversal potential was set to -38 mV. The model was run at 35 C.

Post-synaptic potentials (PSP) were simulated at the soma to replicate recorded values. The model MOC neuron responded to synaptic inputs based on recorded mini-EPSPs (mEPSP) and mini-IPSPs (mIPSP) with output amplitudes and waveforms closely matching recorded values (mean±SD; mEPSP: amplitude: 0.86±0.23 mV, time constant of decay: 8.65±1.43 ms, n=6 neurons; mIPSP: amplitude: -1.57±1.41 mV, time constant of decay: 18.1±9.68 ms, n=7 neurons; model MOC mEPSP: amplitude: 0.90 mV, time constant of decay: 8.21 ms; model MOC mIPSP: amplitude: -1.56 mV, time constant of decay: 14.4 ms.

Next, synaptic potentials were simulated within the model MOC neuron to mimic PSPs evoked from MdL-stimulation experiments both in control conditions, and with pharmacological blockade of inhibitory synaptic inputs (MOC recording control evoked-PSP: amplitude: 1.88±0.95 mV, time constant of decay: 10.7±4.00 ms, n=9 neurons; inhibition blocked evoked-PSP (EPSP only): amplitude: 2.20±1.17 mV, time constant of decay: 14.1±7.50 ms, n=9 neurons; model MOC control evoked-PSP: amplitude: 1.64 mV, time constant of decay: 14.8 ms; model MOC inhibition blocked evoked-PSP (EPSP only): amplitude: 1.91 mV, time constant of decay: 16.4 ms. To achieve these output parameters, model MOC neuron input values were as follows: MOC model EPSP input parameters: rise time = 0.2 ms, time constant of decay = 6 ms, synaptic weight = 0.0015, reversal potential = 0 mV, resulting amplitude = 8.506 mV). The inhibitory PSP was designed so that simulation of EPSPs and IPSPs in the model replicated control MOC neuron current-clamp recordings of evoked PSPs. The model MOC IPSP output parameters were amplitude: -0.269 mV, time constant of decay: 14.8 ms. To achieve these values, the model MOC IPSP input parameters were as follows: rise time = 2.75 ms, time constant of decay = 3.64, synaptic weight 0.00032, reversal potential = -90 mV, resulting amplitude = -0.536 mV).

PSPs with excitatory and inhibitory components were simulated with onset timing that systematically changed in 1 ms increments from excitation-inhibition latencies (E-I latency) from -10 (IPSPs precede EPSPs by 10 ms) to +10 (EPSPs precede IPSPs by 10 ms). E-I latencies were also simulated within the model to replicate recorded PSC latencies (Results text). PSPs were then simulated within the model in trains of 20 pulses at 100 Hz, using either the excitation-only PSP, or the combined PSPs with E-I latencies that systematically varied between -10 and +10, in 1 ms intervals.

The model will be available at Model dB (identifier # TBD at acceptance)

Channels	Location (segments)	Conductance
High Threshold K$^+$ (h.HT)	All	0.02 S/cm^2
Low Threshold K$^+$ (h.LT)	All	12 mS/cm^2
Low Threshold K$^+$ (h.kbl_LT)	All	0.6 ms^-1
H-H type Na$^+$ (h.na)	All	8 nS/cm^2
HCN (h.Ih_400t8)	All	12 µS/cm^2
High Threshold K$^+$ (h.HT)	Axon	0.32 mS/cm^2
Low Threshold K$^+$ (h.LT)	Axon	6 cS/cm^2
H-H type Na$^+$ (h.na)	Axon	9 kS/cm^2

Methods Table 1. Biophysical properties of a modeled MOC neuron compared to measured values recorded from MOC neurons.

QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Statistics for PSCs
Analysis of synaptic inputs to MOC neurons required classification of evoked PSCs as excitatory or inhibitory. Clampfit software was used to detect individual PSCs for analysis. Latency to PSC onset, rise time, latency to PSC peak, amplitude and decay time constant (tau decay) were measured for PSCs recorded at both –60 mV and 0 mV holding potential. A single exponential function fit was used to calculate the time constant of decay (τ). These data were then used for individual cell clustering analysis (below).

Individual cell clustering analysis
Clustering analysis was performed using PSC metrics in order to sort PSCs into statistically defined clusters. Clustering was performed with PSCs collected at both –60 mV and 0 mV holding potential, when available. For each cell's PSCs, values for onset latency, rise time, amplitude and decay time constant collected from Clampfit were imported into R. Function libraries utilized for clustering included {parameters}, {factoextra} and {NbClust}. The appropriate number of clusters was determined using the gap statistic method (Tibshirani et al. 2001). This method was chosen because of its ability to select "one" as the optimal number of clusters where appropriate. The "clusGap" function was used with kmax=10 (max# of clusters), nstart=25 (# of random start centers) and B=500 (bootstrapping). Once the appropriate number of clusters was determined, a k-means cluster analysis was performed in R using the "kmeans" function to sort the PSCs into clusters (with centers=output # from gap statistic analysis and nstart=25). Once the PSCs were assigned a cluster number, statistical analyses were performed on each cluster. For PSCs collected with midline stimulation where data was acquired at 0 mV holding potential, a cluster was deemed inhibitory if it was present at both -60 mV and 0 mV. A cluster was categorized as excitatory if PSCs from the cluster were-only present at -60 mV. This was a robust categorization, with only two out of eleven cells having a PSC mis-identified in the cluster, in both cells a single excitatory PSC was classified into an inhibitory cluster (2 out of 654 mis-identified PSCs). PSCs acquired with auditory nerve (AN) stimulation were analyzed via the same cluster analysis. AN stimulation PSCs were categorized as excitatory or inhibitory using a machine learning algorithm (see below). Statistical comparisons between excitatory and inhibitory PSC clusters were then made across the population.

Machine Learning Algorithm to classify post-synaptic currents (PSCs)
A RandomForest machine learning algorithm was utilized to classify recorded PSCs as excitatory or inhibitory based on the variables of PSC rise time, time constant of decay, amplitude, probability of occurrence within a cluster, onset jitter within a cluster, peak jitter within a cluster, and animal age. All values were continuous except for animal age, which was treated as a categorical variable. The model included 952 PSCs recorded in the ML-stimulation configuration at a holding potential of -60 mV, from 22 MOC neurons. These PSCs had been previously classified as excitatory or inhibitory based on recordings from the same neurons at a holding potential of 0 mV and the clustering analysis described below. After training the

RandomForest algorithm on this data, the model classification accuracy reached 99.89%, with out-of-bag (OOB) error stabilization at 150 'trees'. Re-running the algorithm on the training dataset determined that it was able to distinguish excitatory and inhibitory events perfectly with an area under the curve (AUC) of 1, indicating excellent ability of the model to distinguish excitatory vs inhibitory PSCs. The model was then used to classify the individual PSCs in the AN stimulation dataset recorded at -60 mV as excitatory or inhibitory. First, the RandomForest algorithm determined the probability that each of the 344 PSCs was excitatory or inhibitory. PSCs were given the classification that had the highest probability (>0.5) by the algorithm. The algorithm gave slightly higher classification probabilities for excitatory (0.81±0.14, n=181) compared to inhibitory (0.75±0.12, n=163) PSCs. AN stimulation PSCs were grouped into 28 clusters determined above through cluster analysis. Three clusters contained both excitatory and inhibitory PSCs. Two cells had a majority of one classification (7 of 10 excitatory and 19 of 21 excitatory and one cell was approximately split 6 of 11 excitatory). For further analyses, we separated these three mixed clusters into an excitatory and inhibitory cluster each to yield a total of 31 AN-stimulation clusters.

Calcium Imaging
After acquisition of fluorescent signals in cochlear nucleus bushy cells in Atoh7/Math5 Cre; GCaMP6f wedge slices (see above), fluorescence changes in response to electrical stimulation of axons were measured to determine the effect of synaptic stimulation of bushy cells with and without blockers of post-synaptic receptors. Polygonal ROIs were drawn by hand around neurons and any major processes that could be resolved (Elements software version 4.51.01), and average intensity values for ROIs were calculated for each frame. Maximum fluorescence elicited from AN stimulation within a protocol was compared to baseline average (F) of each ROI. Fluorescence change (ΔF) and relative fluorescence change ($\Delta F/F$) was calculated using Excel. Heat maps were constructed from the intensity value output of a given frame from the Elements software using custom MATLAB scripts. Baseline values were calculated as the average pixel intensity of the first 15 frames (~5 seconds) before axon stimulation. Cells were considered active if the average fluorescence of an ROI reached two standard deviations (SD) above the baseline average in at least 2 of the 3 stimulations during a protocol. Active cells were then used to compare the $\Delta F/F$ between control and glutamate block conditions.

Data analysis and statistics
Statistical analyses were performed in Origin (v2021 and v2022). Normality tests were performed on data sets using the Shapiro-Wilk test. The majority of data sets were non-normally distributed so non-parametric testing was employed. The Mann-Whitney U test was used for testing between two independent groups. A One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test determined whether E-I latency difference values were significantly different from zero for MdL- and AN-stimulation PSCs. Action potential metrics collected at different stimulus rates (Figure 6) were compared in the control condition using Friedman's ANOVA. Post-hoc Dunn's test was used to test significance between stimulus rates. Action potential metrics were also compared between control and inhibition block conditions using paired Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test. Calcium imaging data were analyzed using Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA where post-hoc Dunn's test was used to test whether control data sets between the CNQX and CNQX+APV conditions were significantly different from each other. Population data are summarized in box plots with the box representing the 1st and 3rd quartiles, the line representing the median, the square representing the

mean and the error bars representing the 10th and 90th percentiles. Figures were prepared in Origin and Adobe Illustrator.

References

Brown, M. C., & Levine, J. L. (2008). Dendrites of medial olivocochlear neurons in mouse. *Neuroscience, 154*(1), 147–159. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroscience.2007.12.045

Carnevale, N. T., & Hines, M. L. (2006). *The Neuron Book*. Cambridge University Press.

Jercog, P. E., Svirskis, G., Kotak, V. C., Sanes, D. H., & Rinzel, J. (2010). Asymmetric excitatory synaptic dynamics underlie interaural time difference processing in the auditory system. *PLoS Biology, 8*(6), e1000406. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.1000406

Roberts, M. T., Seeman, S. C., & Golding, N. L. (2013). A mechanistic understanding of the role of feedforward inhibition in the mammalian sound localization circuitry. *Neuron, 78*(5), 923–935. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2013.04.022

Torres Cadenas, L., Fischl, M. J., & Weisz, C. J. C. (2020). Synaptic Inhibition of Medial Olivocochlear Efferent Neurons by Neurons of the Medial Nucleus of the Trapezoid Body. *The Journal of Neuroscience : The Official Journal of the Society for Neuroscience, 40*(3), 509–525. https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.1288-19.2019