1 *The superficial tufted and mitral cell output neurons of the mouse olfactory bulb have a dual*
2 *role in insulin sensing*
3
4 *Running Title: Insulin sensing superficial tufted cells*
5

6 Louis John Kolling[3], Catherine Anne Marcinkiewcz[2] and *Debra Ann Fadool[1,2, 3]
7
*Corresponding Author
319 Stadium Drive, Suite 3008
King Life Sciences Building
[1]Department of Biological Science
[2]Program in Neuroscience and [3]Institute of Molecular Biophysics
The Florida State University
Tallahassee, FL 32306
USA
dfadool@bio.fsu.edu
850 644-4775
18
19 [2]Department of Neuroscience & Pharmacology
20 The University of Iowa
21 Iowa City, IA 52242 USA

22
23 Number of pages = 48 (including embedded figures and supplemental)
24 Number of figures = 8
25 Number of supplementary figures = 1
26 Number of tables = 2
27 Supplementary statistical table (excel) = 1
28
29 Number of words in manuscript excluding abstract, methods and citations = 5952
30
31 **KEY WORDS** = Kv1.3 channel, insulin, olfactory bulb, tufted cells, output neurons,
32 olfaction

33 **SUMMARY STATEMENT**
34
35 Superficial tufted cells, as output neurons of the olfactory bulb, were electrophysiologically
36 studied to be insulin sensitive. Brain insulin signaling represents a manner in which olfactory and
37 metabolic circuitry are intertwined.
38
39

ABSTRACT

The olfactory bulb (OB) contains multiple, parallel projection neurons to relay the nature of a stimulus. In a mouse *ex vivo* slice preparation, we used patch-clamp electrophysiology to measure intrinsic properties, excitability, action potential (AP) shape, voltage-activated conductances, and neuromodulation in the newly-categorized superficial tufted cells (sTCs) compared with those of mitral cells (MCs). We propose that a marked difference in voltage-dependent current represents distinct ion channel populations that affect the kinetics of action potentials, and evokes an increase in sTC firing frequency, albeit both types of projection neurons having similar AP spiking activity. Triple-colored immunofluorescence and RNA scope were used to detect co-localization of the Kv1.3 ion channel and the insulin receptor in sTCs, with ~73% of sTCs expressing both. The sTCs were modulated by bath application of insulin – increasing AP firing frequency by 97%, attributable to an 8% decrease in the intraburst interval, and a reduction of the latency to first spike by 37%. We conclude that there may be a range of neuromodulators of sTCs that may alter excitability and fine-tune olfactory information processing or metabolic balance.

INTRODUCTION

Sensory systems typically carry multiple types of parallel output, or projection neurons, to relay differing specificity with regards to the nature of the stimulus. The olfactory bulb (OB) processes electrically-encoded odor information, and relays it to overlapping, but not identical, cortical regions via two types of primary projection neurons – namely mitral (MCs) and tufted cells (TCs) (Price and Powell, 1970; Vaaga and Westbrook, 2016). Albeit both receiving synaptic connections from the olfactory sensory neurons (OSNs) at defined and evolutionarily-conserved integration units called glomeruli, less has been studied concerning TCs in terms of biophysical properties and sources of modulation (Liu and Shipley, 2008; Burton and Urban, 2014; Jones et al., 2020). We and other investigators typically recorded from both populations of neurons, referring to them collectively as M/TCs (Fadool and Levitan, 1998; Tucker and Fadool, 2002; Youngstrom and Strowbridge, 2015; Liu et al., 2016). In model organisms, such as drosophila and zebrafish, MCs and TCs are not readily distinguishable from one another (Nagayama et al., 2014). The neurolaminae of mice are significantly more distinct, allowing the complexity of the olfactory circuity to be more easily assessed.

Fig. 1. **Categorization and interactions of the principal projection neurons of the olfactory**
bulb. The olfactory bulb neurolamina is divided across the glomerular layer (GLM), external
plexiform layer (EPL), the mitral cell layer (MCL), and the innermost granule cell layer (GCL). Also
shown is the olfactory mucosa containing the olfactory sensory neurons (OSNs). This schematic
highlights the four classes of output or projection neurons, namely the external tufted cells (eTCs,
pink), the superficial tufted cells (sTCs, gray), the middle tufted cells (mTCs, purple), and the mitral
cells (MCs, red). The soma of the eTCs are found within the GLM. The sTC soma reside in the
superficial one-third of the EPL. The deep two-thirds of the EPL contain both the mTCs and
misplaced MCs. The MCL houses the eponymous MCs. Blue plus signs (+) represent excitatory
synapses, red minus signs (-) represent inhibitory synapses, and pink plus signs (+) represent
excitatory dendro-dendritic interactions originating from external tufted cells (eTCs). Reciprocal
synapses are denoted by a double arrow. PG = periglomerular cell, sSAC = superficial short axon
cell, EPLi = interneuron of the external plexiform layer, GCL = granule cell layer, GC = granule cell,
PPG = preproglucagon neuron, dSAC = deep short axon cell. *Modified from Huang* et al. *2021.*

Like many budding areas of research, the standardization of categorical terminology is not

considered until there is enough information to classify. Jones et al. 2020 aptly stated that the

"nomenclature around TC subtypes has been somewhat confusing in the field (Jones et al.,

2020)." Both early works and more recent reviews describe 4 distinct classes of projection

neurons – external TC, internal TC, middle TC, and MC (Pinching and Powell, 1971a,b;

Mori, 1987; Shepherd, 2004; Hayar et al., 2004; Mori and Sakano, 2022). A more recent

work proposed to alternatively reclassify output neurons based upon size and location into

three types: putative MCs (pMC; >20 um diameter and located in the MCL), EPL located TC

(lower EPL TC; <20 um diameter), and putative TC (pTC; <20 um diameter located in the

MCL) (Gadiwalla et al., 2025). Herein, our study uses the naming convention originating

from Cajal and then reestablished by Jones et al. (2020), based upon the position of the TC

soma within its respective neurolamina – namely, external tufted cells (eTCs), middle tufted

cells (mTCs), and superficial tufted cells (sTCs) (**Fig. 1**). Of the three subclasses of TCs, the

eTC are the best studied. The eTCs are a select population of juxtaglomerular cells that

demonstrate rhythmic and spontaneous action potential bursting (Hayar et al., 2004a,b, 2005;

Antal et al., 2006; Zhou et al., 2006; Ma and Lowe, 2007; Liu and Shipley, 2008). The eTC

are known to receive monosynaptic input from olfactory sensory neurons (OSNs) and

establish glutaminergic synaptic connections to short-axon cells and periglomerular cells

within the bulb (Hayar et al., 2004a,b, 2005), and their activation can provide feedforward

excitation of MC (De Saint Jan et al. 2009). eTCs actually process sensory input before it

reaches the sTCs and MCs (De Saint Jan et al., 2009; Najac et al., 2011; Gire et al., 2012;

Igarashi et al., 2012; Vaaga and Westbrook, 2016). The eTCs receive the greatest signal from

activated OSNs, and stimulate neighboring sTCs, mTCs, and MCs via glutamatergic dendro-

dendritic interactions (De Saint Jan *et al*., 2009; Najac *et al*., 2011; Jones *et al*., 2020). This

feed-forward excitation from eTCs provides "biphasic input" to other M/TCs that may also

receive direct monosynaptic input from a specific OSN family member (Najac *et al*., 2011;

Vaaga and Westbrook, 2016; Jones *et al*., 2020).

Because the eTC are well characterized, and the mTCs are less accessible for patch-clamp

recordings, we decided to focus our study on a lesser known type of TC, the sTC, which are

expressed superficially in the external plexiform layer (EPL)(Jones et al., 2020; Chen et al.,

2024). mTC soma are found between the MCL and the inner (deep) two-thirds of the external

plexiform layer (EPL), whereas the soma of superficial tufted cells (sTCs) are located in the

outer (superficial) one-third of the EPL. Like MCs, sTCs and mTCs receive input from

olfactory sensory neurons (OSNs) at defined glomeruli, and pass sensory information to

various subcortical areas. The sTCs and mTCs, however, project, to distinctly different brain

regions than MCs; even if a M/TC pair projects to the same subcortical region, it will project

to different parts of it (Nagayama et al., 2010, 2014; Igarashi et al., 2012). Excellent

foundational work has been done to characterize the innate biophysical differences between

TCs and MCs (Burton and Urban, 2014), but the categorization of the assessed cells preceded

the boundaries set by the current naming methods (Jones et al., 2020). As such, no previous

report has characterized the innate biophysical differences between MCs and sTCs, nor

investigated the function of sTCs to sense metabolically-relevant molecules or

neuromodulators.

In this study, we compare the biophysical properties of MCs and sTCs in *ex vivo* brain slices

from male and female mice. Using current- and voltage-clamp recordings, we found that

action potential (AP) properties and voltage-activated currents differed between sTCs and

MCs. To better understand the complementary function of sTCs to MCs, we examined the

response of sTCs to a known modulator and a vestibule blocker of Kv1.3 – a predominant ion

channel carrying 60-80% of the outward current in MCs (Fadool and Levitan, 1998; Colley et

al., 2004). Our results directly show that sTCs are more excitable than MCs. This is correlated

with differing voltage-activated currents, and a differing AP shape. We further find that sTCs

are modulated by the presence of insulin, suggesting a role for sTCs in metabolic circuitry

(Fadool et al., 2004; Palouzier-Paulignan et al., 2012; Aimé et al., 2014). Our study

demonstrates that the Kv1.3 ion channel is necessary for the insulin-sensing property of sTCs,

as it is in MCs (Fadool et al., 2004, 2011; Tucker et al., 2013).

RESULTS

Superficial tufted cells have greater input resistance and slightly lower voltage-

activated current at hyperpolarizing potentials than that of mitral cells

Superficial tufted cells (sTCs) have greater EPSC amplitude when stimulated by direct

olfactory sensory neuron activation over that of mitral cells (MCs) (Jones et al., 2020), albeit

both being the predominant output neurons of the OB. Less has been studied to reveal the

nature of intrinsic properties and voltage-activated conductances in sTCs. We used ex vivo

slice electrophysiology in the voltage-clamp configuration, therefore, to study intrinsic

properties as well as outward currents, which are largely driven by the Kv1.3 channel in MCs

(Fadool *et al.*, 1997; Fadool and Levitan, 1998). The resting membrane potential (RMP) was

not significantly different between MCs and sTCs (MCs = -55.8 $\pm$ 6.3 mV (20) vs. sTCs = -

58.0 $\pm$ 6.5 mV (22); Student's *t*-test, *p* = 0.2906).

Macroscopic currents were acquired in response to a series of 400 ms duration (P_d) voltage

steps that increased in increments of 20 mV from -100 mV to +40 mV. The resulting current-

voltage (IV) relationship was plotted in **Fig. 2A** using the peak transient current value for each

step normalized to the +40 mV step. It was noted that the amplitude of the outward current at

hyperpolarizing potentials (a window between -60 to -20 mV) was significantly greater in

MCs vs. that of TCs (**Fig. 2B**). A two-way repeated measure, mixed factor analysis of

variance (2-w RM mixed ANOVA) was applied using cell type and voltage as factors. There

was a main effect of cell type (F (1, 22) = 9.430; *p* = **0.0056) as well as a voltage x cell type

interaction (F (7, 154) = 5.542; *p* <0.0001). A Sidak's post-hoc test showed that the evoked

current was significantly greater for MCs at the -60 mV (*p* = 0.0202), -40 mV (*p* = 0.0049)

and -20 mV (*p* = 0.0311) voltage steps. This difference only existed in this hyperpolarized

window and was not observed once highly depolarized at the +40 mV step (**Fig. 2C**, MCs =

5180 $\pm$ 2540 pA (11) vs. sTCs = 3746 $\pm$ 1030 pA (13), Mann-Whitney U, *p* = 0.2066). We

next measured the kinetics of inactivation and deactivation for the voltage-activated currents

at a hyperpolarized (V_c = -40 mV) and depolarized (V_c = +40 mV) range, respectively. The

kinetics of inactivation (τ_{Inact}) did not differ between cell types (**Fig. 2D, Left**, MCs = 71.2 $\pm$

19.0 ms (10) vs. sTCs = 57.0 $\pm$ 28.6 ms (13), Student's *t*-test, *p* = 0.1894) at V_c = -40 mV,

however the kinetics of deactivation (τ_{Deact}) was significantly faster for sTCs at this command

voltage (**Fig. 2D, Right**, MCs = 2.19 $\pm$ 0.67 ms (11) vs. sTCs = 1.47 $\pm$ 0.61 ms (13), Mann-

Whitney U, **p* = 0.0107). Neither time constant differed between cell types at a V_c = +40 mV

step (**Fig. 2E**, τ_{Inact}: MCs = 75.6 $\pm$ 30.9 ms (11) vs. sTCs = 158 $\pm$ 140 ms (13), Mann-Whitney

U, $p = 0.3031$; τ_{Deact}: MCs = 1.14 ± 0.41 ms (10) vs. sTCs = 1.12 ± 0.52 ms (13), Student's *t*-

test, $p = 0.9043$). Overall, although sTCs tend to have higher input resistance than MCs, the

outward voltage-activated currents of sTCs are less responsive to changes in voltage.

Fig. 2. Outward voltage-activated current properties of mitral cells and superficial tufted cells. *A,*
Family of voltage-activated currents, $V_h = -80$ mV where V_c was stepped in 20 mV increments from -
100 mV to +40 mV using a $P_d = 400$ ms. Colored sweeps correspond to significantly different
colored data points in (*B*). *B,* Normalized IV plots (2-w mixed RM ANOVA, cell type ***p =
0.0056, Sidak's post-hoc test, #*p* < 0.05, ##*p* < 0.01; voltage x cell type interaction ****p < 0.0001).
C, Violin plot of non-normalized peak transient voltage-activated current at +40 mV, Mann-Whitney
U. Violin plot of the *Tau* of inactivation (*left*) and deactivation (*right*) at (**D**) Vc = -40 mV and (**E**)
+40 mV, respectively, Mann-Whitney U (*p = 0.0107). MC = mitral cell population sampled, sTC =
superficial tufted cell population sampled.

Kv1.2 and Kv1.3 expression is similar between superficial tufted and mitral cells

The drug MgTx is a selective blocker of Kv1.2 and Kv1.3 ion channels when applied to the extracellular membrane at 1 nM concentration (Garcia-Calvo et al., 1993; Garcia et al., 1997; Bartok et al., 2014). It has a slow k_{on} of 10 min and an even slower k_{off} of 2 h (Garcia-Calvo et al., 1993; Nikouee et al., 2012; Chen and Chung, 2014), therefore, we did not attempt a washout of the vestibule blocker during our patch recording. After collecting baseline voltage-clamp recordings on MCs for 15 min, 1 nM MgTx was added to the bath to wash over the slice for 15 min. Another set of voltage-clamp recordings was then collected (**Fig. 3A**). The same repeated-measure paradigm was then applied to a separate group of sTCs (**Fig. 3B**). MgTx reduced voltage-activated currents in both MCs and sTCs in a voltage-dependent manner (**Fig. 3C).** Here, a 2-w mixed RM ANOVA was applied using drug and voltage as factors. For the MC recordings, there was a main effect of drug ($F_{(1, 9)} = 43.62$, ****$p < 0.0001$) as well as a voltage x drug interaction ($F_{(7, 63)} = 43.86$, ****$p < 0.0001$). A Sidak's post-hoc test demonstrated significant differences at the -20 mv ([###]$p = 0.0008$) voltage step and all further depolarizing steps ([####]$p < 0.0001$). For the sTC recordings, there was a main effect of drug ($F_{(1, 12)} = 25.51$, ***$p = 0.0003$) as well as a voltage x drug interaction ($F_{(7, 60)} = 19.87$, ****$p < 0.0001$). A Sidak's post-hoc test demonstrated significant differences at -30 mv and above ([####]$p < 0.0001$). Using a 3-way mixed-effects analysis (3-w mixed RM ANOVA), we found no difference in MgTx-mediated effects on voltage dependence between MCs and sTCs (**Fig. 3C, Bottom**, voltage x cell type x drug interaction $F_{(7, 123)} = 0.7633$, $p = 0.6190$).

Fig. 3. Sensitivity of mitral and superficial tufted cells to a selective blocker of Kv channels. *A,* Family of voltage-activated currents recorded as in Figure 3 prior (***Top,*** Baseline) and following (***Bottom,*** +1 nM MgTx) 15-min bath application of margatoxin (MgTx) in a representative ***A,*** mitral cell (MC) and ***B,*** superficial tufted cell (sTC). *C,* Normalized IV plots prior (solid symbols) and following (open symbols) bath application of MgTx in a population of MCs (***Left,*** 2-w mixed RM ANOVA, drug F (1, 9) = 43.62, ****p < 0.0001, with a Sidak's post hoc test, ###p = 0.0008, ####p < 0.0001; voltage x drug interaction F (7, 63) = 43.86, ****p < 0.0001) and a population of sTCs (***Right,*** 2-w mixed RM ANOVA, drug ***p = 0.0003, Sidak's post-hoc test, ####p < 0.0001; voltage x drug interaction ****p < 0.0001). *C, **Bottom*** – 3-way mixed RM ANOVA result comparing the two IV plots in *C, **Left-Right*** (3-w mixed RM ANOVA, voltage x cell type interaction F (7, 123) = 3.879, ***p = 0.0008; voltage x drug interaction F (7, 123) = 57.42, ****p < 0.0001; cell type x drug interaction F (1, 123) = 0.4244, p = 0.5160; voltage x cell type x drug interaction F (7, 123) = 0.7633, p = 0.6190).

Superficial tufted cells are more excitable than mitral cells

We next wanted to compare evoked AP firing frequency between MCs and sTCs as a metric

for cellular excitability. After obtaining the whole-cell configuration, cells were current-

clamped using a V_h of -60 mV (near RMP) for comparison of excitability across cell types.

Each MC or sTC was stimulated with a family of injected current steps that increased in 25

pA increments from -50 pA to 175 pA (**Fig. 4A**) to determine the threshold for first firing. On

average, the current needed to evoke APs (rheobase) was lower in sTCs than in MCs (**Fig. 4B**,

MCs = 69.3 $\pm$ 44.9 pA (22) vs. sTCs = 34.2 $\pm$ 24.1 pA (30), Mann-Whitney U, **p = 0.0021).

Both cell types increased AP firing frequency in response to current step, but sTCs had a

significantly greater frequency than that of MCs (**Fig. 4C**). Here, we applied a 2-w mixed RM

ANOVA using cell type and current as factors. As anticipated, there was a main effect for

injected current ($F(7, 263) = 71.39$, ****$p < 0.0001$). There was also a main effect for cell

type ($F (1, 51) = 11.92$, **$p = 0.0011$) and a current x cell type interaction ($F (7, 263) = 3.656$,

***$p = 0.0009$). A Sidak's post-hoc test indicated a significant difference in current

dependence at the current injection window between 25 and 75 pA (25 pA - $^{\$\$}p = 0.0077$, 50

pA - $^{\$\$}p = 0.0017$, and 75 pA - $^{\$\$\$}p = 0.0001$). The increased AP firing frequency in response

to injected current was likely attributed to a change in interspike interval (ISI). As shown in

Fig. 4D, the ISI was shorter in sTCs compared to that of MCs. A 2-w mixed RM ANOVA

using cell type and injected current as factors demonstrated a main (negative) effect for

injected current ($F (1.643, 38.07) = 33.74$). There was also a main effect for cell type ($F (1,$

$49) = 37.53$, **** $p < 0.0001$) and a current x cell type interaction ($F (6, 139) = 5.873$, ****p

< 0.0001). A Sidak's post-hoc test indicated a significant difference between cell types at the

current injection window between 100 and 150 pA (100 pA - $^{\#}p = 0.0101$, 125 pA - $^{\#\#}p$

$= 0.0022$, and 150 pA - $^{\#}p = 0.0294$).

Fig. 4. Spike firing properties compared between mitral cells (MC) and superficial tufted cells (sTC). *A,* Representative action potential trains evoked by various current steps as indicated, recorded from a MC (***Left***) vs. sTC (***Right***). *B,* Violin plot comparing the current needed to evoke action potentials (rheobase), Mann-Whitney U, **$p = 0.0021$. Line plots for *C,* mean spike frequency across current step and *D,* mean interspike interval (ISI). Line plot data were analyzed with a *(C)* 2-w mixed RM ANOVA, cell type **$p = 0.0011$; current x cell type interaction ***$p = 0.0009$, Sidak's post-hoc test, [$$]$p < 0.01$, [$$$]$p < 0.001$, *(D)* 2-w mixed RM ANOVA, cell type ****$p < 0.0001$; current x cell type interaction ****$p < 0.0001$, Sidak's post-hoc test, [#]$p < 0.05$, [##]$p < 0.01$.

Because potassium channel currents can greatly influence the characteristics of APs (**Fig. 2-4**), we wanted to determine any differences in AP shape or kinetics that could accompany these findings. Many AP parameters require a clearly defined baseline in order to be assessed accurately, and the parameters are dependent on current injection magnitude. The metrics of

'maximum decay slope' and 'time to achieve maximum decay slope' are not dependent upon

correct identification of the recording baseline, and we therefore examined these metrics

simultaneously across all current injection steps. sTCs achieved steeper maximum decay

slopes than MCs, which also differed in a current-dependent manner (**Fig. 5A, C**). We applied

a 2-w mixed RM ANOVA using cell type and current step as factors. There was a main effect

of cell type ($F_{(1, 50)}$ = 5.914, $*p$ = 0.0186) and a current x cell type interaction ($F_{(6, 127)}$ =

5.562, $****p < 0.0001$); a Sidak's post-hoc test indicated that cell-type significant differences

occurred at current steps 50 pA - $p^{\#\#\#}$ = 0.0006, 75 pA - $^{\#\#\#\#}p < 0.0001$, and 100 pA - $^{\#\#}p$ =

0.0074. APs recorded in sTCs also exhibited faster times to achieve maximum decay slope

than those in MCs, independent of current injection step (**Fig. 5B, C**). We applied a 2-w

mixed RM ANOVA using cell type and current step as factors. There was no effect of current

step ($F_{(0.1425, 3.016)}$ = 9.085, p = 0.0524), but there was a main effect of cell type $F_{(1, 50)}$

= 4.088, $*p$ = 0.0486. A Sidak's post-hoc test, demonstrated that sTCs were faster at all

current injections at and above 75 pA (75 pA - $^{\#\#\#}p$ = 0.0002, 100 pA - $^{\#\#}p$ = 0.0031, 125 pA -

$^{\#}p$ = 0.0300, 150 pA - $^{\#}p$ = 0.0274).

Due to differences in excitability between MCs and sTCs (**Fig. 4**), the current injection step of

75 pA had the largest sample size for the comparison of AP characteristics that are dependent

upon verifiable baseline. Overall, we found that the APs of sTCs have greater peak

magnitude, greater antipeak (after-hyperpolarization) amplitude, faster rise kinetics, and faster

decay kinetics than MCs (**Table 1**). Mean values, sample sizes, p values, and statistical tests

are reported within each column.

	Peak Amplitude (mV)	Time to Peak Amplitude (ms)	Antipeak Amplitude (mV)	Time to Antipeak (ms)	Half Width (FWHM) (ms)
Mitral Cells	51.1 ± 10.0	5.83 ± 0.26	-12.1 ± 2.4	11.4 ± 0.7	1.78 ± 0.36
N	11	11	11	11	11
Superficial Tufted Cells	60.8 ± 7.0	5.72 ± 0.09	-15.1 ± 2.5	9.20 ± 0.90	1.32 ± 0.16
N	11	11	11	11	11
p-value	**0.0150**	ns (0.1970)	**0.0079**	**< 0.0001**	**< 0.0001**
Test used	†	†	⊤	†	⊤
	Max Rise Slope (mV/ms)	Time to Max Rise Slope (ms)	Max Decay Slope (mV/ms)	Time to Max Decay Slope (ms)	Rise Time to Half Amplitude (ms)
Mitral Cells	88.4 ± 35.2	5.11 ± 0.17	-44.3 ± 13.2	0.866 ± 0.167	5.09 ± 0.11
n	15	11	15	15	11
Superficial Tufted Cells	117.0 ± 44.0	5.06 ± 0.17	-79.5 ± 20.4	0.612 ± 0.105	5.11 ± 0.05
n	20	11	20	20	11
p-value	**0.0493**	ns (0.8338)	**< 0.0001**	**< 0.0001**	ns (0.7969)
Test used	†	⊤	‡	†	⊤
	Decay Time to Half Amplitude (ms)	Rise Slope 10% to 90% (mV/ms)	Rise Time 10% to 90% (ms)	Decay Slope 90% to 10% (mV/ms)	Decay Time 90% to 10% (ms)
Mitral Cells	6.87 ± 0.38	58.8 ± 24.1	1.04 ± 0.82	-31.3 ± 8.2	1.41 ± 0.21
n	11	11	11	11	11
Superficial Tufted Cells	6.43 ± 0.16	74.1 ± 18.3	0.784 ± 0.151	-56.7 ± 11.2	0.911 ± 0.107
n	11	11	11	11	11
p-value	**0.0021**	ns (0.1087)	ns (0.3192)	**< 0.0001**	**< 0.0001**
Test used	†	‡	†	‡	†

Table 1. Action potential shape compared between mitral cells (MCs) vs. superficial tufted cells
(sTCs). Recordings were made while holding cells near rest (V_h = -60 mV) and injecting 75 pA of
current. Values are mean $\pm$ standard deviation. ns = not significant, †= Student's *t*-test, ‡= *t*-test with
Welch's correction, $\overline{\text{T}}$= Mann-Whitney U.

Superficial tufted cells do not show a higher propensity to bursting activity

than mitral cells

Previous reports demonstrate that MCs are less likely to exhibit trains of AP activity than TCs

in general (Liu and Shipley, 2008; Burton and Urban, 2014; Jones *et al.*, 2020). As such, we

wanted to determine if this was also true of sTCs by applying further refined spike analysis.

After determining the supra-threshold current injection step, we injected cells at that threshold

using a P_d of 5000 ms and a T_s = 30 s for 10 total sweeps (**Fig. 5D**). We defined a "train" as

having 3 or more APs within a 100 ms period (Balu et al., 2004), and only directly compared

cells receiving identical current injection magnitude. sTCs did not exhibit more AP trains

within their respective recording periods (**Fig. 5E,** MCs = 28.7 $\pm$ 21.1 (7) AP trains vs. sTCs =

25.1 $\pm$ 21.3 AP trains (7), Student's *t*-test, *p* = 0.7582), nor did the trains of sTCs contain more

AP spikes (**Fig. 5F,** MCs = 10.8 $\pm$ 11.9 spikes/train (6) vs. sTCs = 11.3 $\pm$ 7.2 spikes/train (6),

Student's *t*-test, *p* = 0.2796). sTCs did not exhibit differing pause duration between trains

(**Fig. 5G,** MCs = 950 $\pm$ 890 ms (6) vs. sTCs = 1660 $\pm$ 1720 ms (6), Mann-Whitney U, *p* =

0.3939), nor a differing latency period to first spike (**Fig. 5H,** MCs = 327 $\pm$ 249 ms (6) vs.

sTCs = 535 $\pm$ 404 ms (7), Mann-Whitney U, *p* = 0.1375). To assess whether sTCs showed a

higher propensity to be a 'bursting cell' (as opposed to a regularly-firing cell), we assessed the

firing activity from all current-clamp recordings to determine the categorical type of each MC

and sTC. A cell was categorized as a "bursting cell" if any of its sweeps contained at least two

bursts separated by a pause duration of > 100 ms. sTCs did not show a statistically different

preference toward bursting or regularly firing than that of MCs (**Fig. 5I**, MCs = 28.6% (21),

sTCs = 40% (30), Chi-squared test, *p* = 0.40061, X^2 = 0.7065).

Fig. 5. Action potential shape and spike train activity compared between mitral cells (MC) and superficial tufted cells (sTC). Line plot for *A,* maximum decay slope (max decay slope) and *B,* time to achieve maximum decay slope from peak magnitude (time to max decay slope) across current step. Line plot data were analyzed with **(A),** 2-w mixed RM ANOVA, cell type *p = 0.0186, Sidak's post-hoc test, ##p < 0.01, ###p < 0.001; current x cell type interaction ****p < 0.0001, **(B),** 2-w mixed RM ANOVA, cell type *p = 0.0486, Sidak's post-hoc test, #p < 0.05, ##p < 0.01, ###p < 0.001. *C,* Representative pair of action potentials recorded in response to a 75 pA current injection held near rest (Vh = -60 mV). *D,* Representative raster plot for a cell stimulated with a 50-pA current injection using a P_d = 5 s for each cell type, respectively. Successive trials are stacked vertically below. Violin plots computed across a 50 s recording period (10, 5s sweeps) compare *E,* mean number of bursts, *F,* mean spikes per train, *G,* mean pause duration between trains, and *E,* mean latency to first spike. *E-F,* were analyzed using a Student's *t*-test, *G-H* were analyzed using Mann-Whitney U; *p* > 0.05. *I,* Relative proportion of cells eliciting spike train behavior among sampled MCs (*Left*) and sTCs (*Right*), respectively (Chi-squared test, p = .40061, X^2 = 0.7065, n = 51).

Co-localization of Kv1.3 channel and the insulin receptor in superficial tufted cells

MCs are known be modulated by insulin, and Kv1.3 is necessary for this modulation (Fadool and Levitan, 1998; Fadool et al., 2000, 2011; Tucker et al., 2010; Kuczewski et al., 2014). We found sTCs to be modulated by margatoxin (**Figure 3**), suggesting expression of Kv1.3. We therefore performed multiplex fluorescent *in situ* hybridization (RNAscope) to determine co-expression of Kv1.3 and the insulin receptor (IR) in sTCs, similar to what we have observed for MCs (Marks and Fadool, 2007; Colley et al., 2009; Marks et al., 2009; Thiebaud et al., 2016). Using a transgenic GFP label for M/TCs under control of the *Tbx21* promoter, we performed RNAscope targeting *Kv1.3*, *GFP*, and *Insr* on six coronal sections sampled 512 μm apart along the antero-posterior axis (AP axis), in both male and female mice. We observed co-localization of the channel and the receptor markedly distributed with the expression of the *Tbx21* promoter by imaging at low power across the entire olfactory bulb (**Fig 6A-D**). We then moved to higher magnification in the EPL to visualize the sTC specifically, and the colocalization of the channel and receptor with the *Tbx21* reporter expression (**Fig. 6E-H**). A 2-way comparison revealed a main effect of AP axis on Tbx21+ cell count (**Fig. 6I**, *p = 0.0118) with no interactive effect of axis on sex or laminar layer (p = 0.3020; M MCL, M EPL, M GLM, F MCL, F EPL, F GLM as columns variables; M = male, F = female). We then examined the percentage of Tbx21+ cells co-labeled with both *Kv1.3* and *Insr* along the antero-posterior axis, and found no main effect of AP axis (**Fig. 6J,** p = 0.5736) or interactive effects on sex or laminar layer (p = 0.7359). Without regard for antero-posterior position or sex (since these were not found to be factors for co-labeling), we assessed the percentage of Tbx21+ cells that express both *Kv1.3* and *Insr*. We find triple-labeling of 82.1 $\pm$ 4.3 % in the MCL, 73.4 $\pm$ 8.2 % in the EPL, and 76.2 $\pm$ 6.8 % in the GLM. ANOVA comparisons across neurolaminae revealed a subtle difference in the percentage of all Tbx21+ cells expressing *Kv1.3* alone (**Fig. 6K**, *p = 0.0159) and expressing both *Kv1.3* and *Insr* (**Fig. 6M**, *p = 0.0373). We further performed immunolabeling for Kv1.3 and Insr proteins in tandem with Tbx21 reporter expression. As predicted based upon previous reports (Marks *et al.*, 2009; Colley *et al.*, 2009), co-labeling for both IR and Kv1.3 was observed in the soma and near the axon initial segment of most MCs imaged (**Fig. S1**).

Fig. 6. Colocalization of M/TCs with the Kv1.3 channel (*Kv1.3*) and insulin receptor (*Insr*) using RNAscope. Photomicrographs demonstrating neurolaminar distribution of Tbx21 reporter expression (green, **A**), *Kv1.3* expression (magenta, **B**), and *Insr* expression (yellow, **C**), separately and merged (white, **D**). **E–H**: Same as **A–D**, but to demonstrate localization to sTCs with the inclusion of a DAPI nuclear stain. **I:** Coronal sections were sampled along the anter-posterior axis (AP axis) at ~512 μm intervals and assessed for total number of M/TCs (Tbx21+ cells) and for percentage of M/TCs expressing both *Kv1.3* and *Insr* (**J**). Each data point represents the average from 5 separate mice, separated by laminar layer and sex. **K–M:** Percentage of M/TCs (Tbx21+ cells) expressing *Kv1.3* alone (**K**), *Insr* alone (**L**) or both (**M**). Statistical comparisons for **K–M** are Kruskal-Wallis (ANOVA) with Dunn's multiple comparisons test. Each data point represents the average of all six antero-posterior sections from each mouse, one data point per mouse per neurolaminar layer, respectively. $^*p < 0.05$, GLM = glomerular layer, EPL = external plexiform layer, GCL = granule cell layer.

Superficial tufted cells are modulated by insulin via the Kv1.3 ion channel

To further explore the complementary physiological role of sTCs, we wanted to determine if

their excitability could be modulated by insulin—knowing that MCs are modulated by 0.1 μm

insulin (Fadool *et al*., 2000, 2011). After sampling for supra-threshold current, synaptic

blockers were added to the bath solution. Evoked APs were established using the threshold

current with a $P_d = 5000$ ms and $T_s = 30$ s for a 5-min paradigm (10 recordings). A

representative set of baseline recordings and an associated raster plot is shown in **Fig. 7A,**

prior (left) and subsequent (right) to bath application of insulin for 15 min.

Insulin significantly reduced the average latency to first spike by ~38% (**Fig. 7B**, sTC pre =

1220 ± 723 ms (11) vs. sTC post = 649 ± 403 ms (11), paired *t*-test, *p = 0.0132). On average,

insulin also increased the AP frequency by ~98% (**Fig. 7C**, sTC pre = 4.76 ± 1.76 Hz (11) vs.

sTC post = 8.49 ± 4.98 Hz (11), paired *t*-test, *p = 0.0381), and decreased the average

intraburst interval by ~8% (i.e., the pause between APs within a particular burst) (**Fig. 7D**,

sTC pre = 65.1 ± 13.6 ms (11) vs. sTC post = 60.3 ± 14.9 ms (11), paired *t*-test, *p = 0.0136).

All statistical tests were performed on non-normalized data, however, plots were generated as

normalized paired values to visualize individual cell changes across the sampled cells.

Fig. 7. Bath application of insulin increases spike firing frequency, and shortens latency to first spike and intraburst interval in superficial tufted cells (sTCs). *A,* Representative spike trains (***Top***) that were elicited in response to 25 pA current injection while holding the cell near rest (V_h = -60 mV) prior (***Left,*** Baseline) and subsequent (***Right,*** Insulin) to hormone stimulation using P_d = 5 s. (***Bottom***) Representative associated raster plot. Line graph comparing *B,* latency to first spike, *C,* spike firing frequency, and *D,* intraburst interval, prior (pre) and following (post) insulin stimulation in the same cell. Data were analyzed with a paired *t*-test using non-normalized data *(B)* *p = 0.0132, *(C)* *p = 0.0381, and *(D)* *p = 0.0136.

The modulation of MCs by insulin has been shown to depend on the Kv1.3 ion channel using either pharmacological block or targeted gene-deletion (Fadool *et al*., 2000, 2011; Colley *et al*., 2004). Since previous reports demonstrate Kv1.3 expression in sTCs (Kues and Wunder, 1992; Fadool *et al*., 2000; Colley *et al*., 2007), we wanted to determine if insulin modulation of sTCs was also Kv1.3-dependent. Using transgenic mice lacking the *Kv1.3* gene (Kv1.3-/-, see methods) we first compared the AP bursting characteristics between the sTCs of GFP mice (Kv1.3 +/+), and the sTCs of Kv1.3 -/- mice. In accordance with the findings in Kv1.3 -

447 /- MCs (Fadool *et al*., 2004, 2011; Tucker *et al*., 2010; Thiebaud *et al*., 2016), we found that

448 Kv1.3 -/- sTCs tend to burst more often, and have shorter bursts with faster intraburst

449 frequency. Kv1.3 -/- sTCs also have shorter latency to first spike and faster overall evoked AP

450 frequency than Kv1.3 +/+ sTCs (**Table 2**). Mean values, sample sizes, *p* values, and statistical

451 tests are reported within each column.

	Bursts per 50 s (n)	Spikes per Burst (n)	Burst Duration (ms)	Intraburst Interval (ms)	Intraburst Frequency (Hz)
Kv1.3 +/+ sTCs	24.8 ± 10.0	7.6 ± 3.1	414.6 ± 209.5	65.1 ± 12.9	17.0 ± 5.6
n	11	11	11	11	11
Kv1.3 -/- sTCs	55.0 ± 9.6	6.0 ± 1.4	215.0 ± 82.4	45.6 ± 11.7	26.1 ± 8.7
n	4	4	4	4	4
p-value	**0.0003**	ns (0.2362)	**0.0305**	**0.0291**	**0.0048**
Test used	†	‡	‡	†	T̄

	Pause Duration (ms)	Latency to First Spike (ms)	AP Frequency (Hz)	Event Frequency (Hz)	% Bursting Cells
Kv1.3 +/+ sTCs	729.8 ± 354.1	1221.6 ± 689.4	4.8 ± 1.7	7.6 ± 2.6	
n	11	11	11	11	
Kv1.3 -/- sTCs	655.3 ± 210.4	419.5 ± 298.7	7.1 ± 2.2	7.6 ± 2.5	
n	4	5	5	5	
p-value	ns (0.7183)	**0.0090**	**0.0475**	ns (0.7427)	
Test used	†	‡	†	T̄	

Table 2. Spike bursting properties in superficial tufted cells (sTCs) compared between wildtype
(WT) and Kv1.3 -/- mice. Recordings were made while holding cells near rest (V_h = -60 mV) and
injecting 75 pA of current. Data were computed across a 50 s recording period (10, 5s sweeps).
Values are mean $\pm$ standard deviation. ns = not significant, †= Student's *t*-test, ‡= *t*-test with Welch's
correction, T̄= Mann-Whitney U

Using Kv1.3 -/- mice, we next repeated the previous insulin experiment shown **Fig. 7**. A

representative set of baseline recordings and associated raster plot for sTCs evoked APs is

shown in **Fig. 8A,** prior (left) and subsequent (right) to bath application of insulin for 15 min

as recorded in the Kv1.3-/- mice. Unlike in recordings acquired from Kv1.3 +/+ mice, insulin

did not alter latency to first spike (**Fig. 8B**, Kv1.3-/- sTC pre = 420 $\pm$ 334 ms (5) vs. Kv1.3-/-

sTC post = 390 $\pm$ 232 ms (5), paired *t*-test, *p* = 0.5694). Insulin also did not affect AP firing

frequency (**Fig. 8C**, Kv1.3-/- sTC pre = 7.09 $\pm$ 2.48 Hz (5) vs. Kv1.3-/- sTC post = 7.13 $\pm$

2.93 Hz (5), paired *t*-test, *p* = 0.9300, n = 5), nor affect the intraburst interval (**Fig. 8D***,* Kv1.3-

/- sTC pre = 45.6 $\pm$ 13.6 ms (4) vs. Kv1.3-/- sTC post = 52.7 $\pm$ 17.8 ms (4), paired *t*-test, *p* =

0.1990, n = 4) in Kv1.3-/- mice. The same 5 cells were used for all pre/post comparisons, but

one cell did not fire quickly enough for burst analysis (see methods).

Fig. 8. Insulin fails to modulate spike firing frequency in superficial tufted cells of Kv1.3-/- mice. *A,* Representative spike trains (***Top***) and associated raster plot (***Bottom***) recorded as in *Figure 9*. Line graphs Line graph comparing ***B,*** latency to first spike, ***C,*** spike firing frequency, and ***D,*** intraburst interval, prior (pre) and following (post) insulin stimulation in the same cell. Data were analyzed with a paired *t*-test using non-normalized data, $p > 0.05$.

Discussion

We have demonstrated that the two major output neurons in the olfactory bulb have different biophysical properties, despite both neurons expressing IR kinase and exhibiting modulation by insulin. sTCs are more excitable, as evidenced by the lower threshold needed to evoke an AP, a decreased ISI, and a greater AP firing frequency particularly at lower current injection. We found that the APs of sTCs have greater peak amplitude, greater anti-peak amplitude, faster rise kinetics, and faster decay kinetics than those of MCs – while at the same time, the incidence of a train of AP activity was similar between the two output neurons. While there

are differences in the voltage dependence of voltage-activated outward currents between MCs

and sTCs, both are blocked by the Kv1.3 vestibule blocker, MgTx. We determined that

voltage-activated outward currents in sTCs are modulated by insulin, and that the Kv1.3 ion

channel is necessary for this modulation.

Burton and Urban (Burton and Urban, 2014) first compared mitral cell biophysical properties

with that of what they called "tufted cells", which were projection neurons whose cell bodies

resided in the superficial 50% of the EPL. Prior to their publication, physiologists often

clustered mitral and tufted cells together as a homogenous neuronal population (Fadool and

Levitan, 1998; Tucker and Fadool, 2002; Youngstrom and Strowbridge, 2015; Liu et al.,

2016) due to their similar function as output neurons. Using new nomenclature described by

Jones et al. (Jones et al., 2020), we now know that TCs are comprised of a variety of sub-

classes that are functionally distinct with differential sensitivity to inhibitory/excitatory

circuits to putatively sharpen tuning specificity for odorants during sensory processing (Zhou

et al., 2023). The tufted cells first measured by Burton and Urban (2014) likely consisted of a

mixed population of sTCs and mTCs. Nonetheless, some of our data measured in strictly

sTCs, align well with what they reported for "tufted cells" in general. Burton and Urban found

that their TCs had a higher instantaneous frequency (peak instantaneous rate) that differed

with current injection magnitude than that of MCs, and that the AP shape of their TCs

exhibited a narrower half width (FWHM), a steeper decay slope, and faster time to anti-peak

(after-hyperpolarization). Our comparative measurements were quite similar. Thus, we

similarly report that sTC have greater intrinsic excitability than that of MCs. Unlike this

earlier study, however, we found that the AP shape in sTCs compared with that of MCs, has a

greater peak amplitude, steeper maximum rise slope, a greater anti-peak amplitude, and the

minimum current necessary to evoke a first AP (threshold) is lower.

Burton and Urban further found that their TCs were more likely to elicit spike trains (stutter)

compared with that of MCs, which they characterized based upon the increased co-efficient of

variation of the ISI observed in the TCs. We did not observe a greater overall firing

irregularity in our recorded sTCs, and in fact, we found the opposite - our recorded MCs had a

greater ISI variance at lower levels of current injection than that of sTC. Also inconsistent

with our findings; sTCs and MCs did not have significantly different AP train properties

(spikes per train, pause duration, or latency to first spike), nor did sTCs have a statistically

higher propensity to elicit a spike train. The likely inclusion of both sTCs and mTCs in their

study could account for these differential findings. In fact, Antral et al. (2006) also reports in

their study of eTC, that they observed two subclassifications, nonbursting (contained lateral

dendrites) and bursting (lacked lateral dendrites), that were found to be both morphologically

and functional diverse. We believe that we have complemented the findings of Burton and

Urban, expanding upon their comparisons to more specifically characterize selectively the

sTCs and not multiple subtypes clustered together.

Differences in ion channel expression could underlie the greater excitability of sTCs

compared to that of MCs. We found voltage-activated currents in the window of -60 to -20

mV to be greater in MCs than those of sTCs. It is well known that *shaker* family members

have a voltage-activation above -50 to -40 mV (Zagotta and Aldrich, 1990), therefore Kv1.2

and Kv1.3 likely are not highly responsible for the difference in voltage-activated currents

between the two cell types. This is corroborated by the fact that both cell types exhibited a

similar pharmacological response to MgTx and both are shown to be similarly modulated by

bath application of insulin, previously demonstrated to be the result of Kv1.3 being used as a

substrate for tyrosine phosphorylation in the OB in a use- or activity-dependent manner

(Fadool et al., 2000, 2011). We also measured a select slowing of the deactivation kinetics in

MCs at the sampled -40 mV hyperpolarizing step that might selectively lower MC excitability

vs. that in sTCs. A comparison of MC activity in Kv1.3-/- mice vs. pharmacological block of

the channel in the current study, may reveal differences in underlying ion channel expression

between sTCs and MCs. The threshold for activation of voltage-activated outward currents in

the MCs of Kv1.3-/- mice were previously found to be shifted +20 mV in the positive

direction compared to wild-type MCs (Fadool et al., 2004), but these Kv1.3-/- MCs have an

upregulation of a *slack* sodium-activated potassium (K_{Na}) channel (Lu et al., 2010), an

increase in calcium channel expression (Fadool et al., 2004), and may have increased chloride

currents (Koni et al., 2003). Therefore, the threshold for activation of voltage-activated

currents in sTCs and Kv1.3-/- MCs is both higher than that of wildtype MCs, but the precise

nature of any differences in channel expression (i.e., perhaps sTCs express higher levels of

K_{Na} channels than MCs) is not known. This opens the door to a larger area of research that is

beyond the scope of this report.

sTCs are modulated by the presence of insulin, and our data demonstrate that this modulation

depends upon the Kv1.3 ion channel. Insulin's primary role in the periphery is to mobilize

glucose from the bloodstream following a meal; however, insulin is known to have many roles

as a signaling molecule in the central nervous system (CNS). The levels of insulin in the CNS

do not mirror the levels of insulin in the periphery, and the highest concentration of insulin

receptors and binding affinity to insulin (outside the pancreas) is found in the OB (Baskin et

al., 1983; Hill et al., 1986; Gupta et al., 1992; Schwartz et al., 1992; Myers Jr. and White,

1993; White, 1997; Wickelgren, 1998; Banks et al., 1999; Fadool et al., 2000; Aimé et al.,

2012; Palouzier-Paulignan et al., 2012; Fadool and Kolling, 2020). MCs have an interesting

co-localization of IR kinase and Kv1.3 with adaptor proteins that functions to cluster signaling

transduction cascades in close proximity (Marks and Fadool, 2007; Marks et al., 2009). In the

brain, insulin resistance is implicated in the progression of neurodegeneration and dementia

(Kuljiš and Salković-Petrišić, 2011; Arnold et al., 2018; Ferreira et al., 2018; Hong et al.,

2021; Femminella et al., 2021). Our report elevates the role of Kv1.3 as a target for the

investigation of olfactory function, and, by extent, the complexities of insulin signaling in the

OB. Though not annotated directly, previous histological reports suggested expression of

Kv1.3 in sTCs. These include Figure 1E from Kues 1992 (Kues and Wunder, 1992), Figure 7

from Fadool 2000 (Fadool et al., 2000), and Figure 9 from Colley 2007 (Colley et al., 2007).

At this time, we do not know of any reports that previously suggested expression of insulin

receptors on sTCs. MCs are known to be modulated by insulin in a similar manner to our sTC

findings (Fadool et al., 2000, 2011; Das et al., 2005; Tucker et al., 2010; Aimé et al., 2012;

Kuczewski et al., 2014), and this modulation in MCs is known to occur via phosphorylation of

Kv1.3 (Bowlby et al., 1997; Fadool and Levitan, 1998; Fadool et al., 2000, 2011).

While we know that IR kinase is also co-localized with glucagon-like 1 peptide receptors in

MCs (Thiebaud et al., 2016) and have discovered an array of neuromodulators that alter Kv1.3

channel function and general excitability of these output neurons (Cook and Fadool, 2002;

Tucker and Fadool, 2002; Colley et al., 2009; Fadool et al., 2011; Mast and Fadool, 2012;

Tucker et al., 2013; Huang et al., 2017; Thiebaud et al., 2019), the possibility of

neuromodulation of sTCs remains highly likely and greatly unexplored. Herein, we have

distinguished these two output neurons in terms of biophysical function, but there may be a

range of neuromodulators that can affect and fine tune odor information coding or regulation

of metabolic state (Thiebaud et al., 2016, 2019; Kolling et al., 2022). Moreover, we have

recently enhanced total excitability of the output neurons (MCs and all classes of TCs) using

cell selective CRISPR genome editing of Kv1.3 to support a new function of the olfactory

system – metabolic regulation and energy homeostasis (Kolling et al., 2022). Thus, there is

much to discover concerning both the division of olfactory function between MCs and TCs

(odor context, valence, vs. odor identity), as well as the combined parallel function of

olfactory output neurons in regulating whole-body metabolism.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Ethical approval

All animal procedures were reviewed and approved by Florida State University (FSU)

Laboratory Animal Resources (Protocol 202000045) that abided by the American Veterinary

Medical Association (AVMA) and the National Institutes of Health (NIH). In preparation for

OB slice electrophysiology, mice were anesthetized with isoflurane (Aerrane; Baxter,

Deerfield, IL, USA) using the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC)-

approved drop method and then were killed by decapitation (AVMA Guidelines on

Euthanasia, June 2007). In preparation for histology, mice were anaesthetized with a mixture

of ketamine (100 mg/kg body weight) and xylazine (10 mg/kg body weight) prior to

intracardial perfusion with 4% paraformaldehyde and euthanasia by decapitation (AVMA

Guidelines on Euthanasia, June 2007). Our work was guided by the animal ethics checklist

reported by Grundy, 2015 (Grundy, 2015).

Solutions and reagents

Salts and sugars, unless otherwise noted, were obtained from Thermo Fisher Scientific

(Waltham, MA, USA) or Sigma-Aldrich Chemical (St. Louis, MO, USA). Artificial cerebral

spinal fluid (aCSF) contained (in mm): 119 NaCl, 26.2 $NaHCO_3$, 1 NaH_2PO_4, 2.5 KCl, 1.3

$MgCl_2$, 2.5 $CaCl_2$ and 22 d-glucose (pH 7.3; 300–310 mOsm). Sucrose-modified aCSF was

used for vibratome sectioning and recovery, and contained (in mm): 83 NaCl, 26.2 $NaHCO_3$,

1 NaH_2PO_4, 3.3 $MgCl_2$, 0.5 $CaCl_2$, 72 sucrose and 22 d-glucose (pH 7.3; 300-310 mOsm) (Jan

and Westbrook, 2007). Slice intracellular (pipette) solution contained (in mm): 135 potassium

gluconate, 10 KCl, 10 HEPES (N-2-hydroxyethylpiperazine-N-2-ethane sulfonic acid), 10

$MgCl_2$, 0.4 NaGTP and 2 NaATP (pH 7.3; 280–285 mOsm). PBS contained the following (in

mm): 136.9 NaCl, 2.7 KCl, 10.1 Na_2HPO_4, and 1.8 KH_2PO_4 (pH 7.4). Paraformaldehyde

(PFA) for tissue fixation consisted of 4% PFA (Eastman Kodak, Rochester, NY, USA) in

PBS. Blocking buffer and incubation buffer consisted of 2% bovine serum albumin fraction V

(BSA) (Invitrogen, Waltham, MA, USA) and 0.2% Tween-20 (Fisher, Hampton, NH, USA)

in 1X PBS (Salameh et al., 2017).

The following synaptic blockers and channel vestibule blocker were prepared as concentrated

stock solutions in aCSF, stored at -20°C until day of use, and then diluted to the following

working concentrations: 10 µM gabazine (catalog #104104-50-9, MilliporeSigma, Burlington,

MA, USA), 5 µM 2,3-dioxo-6-nitro-7-sulfamoyl-benzo[f]quinoxaline (NBQX, catalog

#ab120045, Abcam, Waltham, MA, USA), 25 µM (2R)-amino-5-phosphonovaleric acid (AP5,

catalog #ab120003, Abcam), 1 nM margatoxin (MgTx, catalog # M8278, MilliporeSigma),

0.1 uM insulin (Fadool et al., 2011*a*) (catalog #I2643, MilliporeSigma), and 100 nM

tetrodotoxin (TTX, catalog # 120055, Abcam). Prior to use, MgTx and insulin were

additionally mixed with 0.05% bovine serum albumin (BSA fraction V, catalog # BSAV-RO,

Sigma-Aldrich) to prevent loss of peptide to tubing and plasticware while recording.

Animals

All mice were housed at the FSU vivarium on a standard 12 h/12 h light/dark cycle and in

accordance with institutional requirements for animal care. Mice were individually housed in

conventional-style rodent cages containing separate food and water that could be obtained *ad*

libitum. Mice were maintained on chow that was comprised of 13.5% kcal fat, 59.1% kcal

carbohydrate, and 28.05% kcal protein (Catalog #5001, Purina Company, St. Louis, MO,

USA).

B6:CBA-Tg(Tbx21-cre)1Dlc/J mice with cre recombinase expression limited to mitral and

tufted cells (catalog #024507, Jackson Labs, Bar Harbor, ME, USA;

RRID:IMSR_JAX:024507) were crossed with B6J.129(B6N)-Gt(ROSA)26Sor[tm1(CAG-cas9^,-]

[EGFP)Fezh]/J mice (catalog #026175, Jackson Labs; RRID:IMSR_JAX:026175) to generate

progeny mice with bicistronic spCas9/EGFP expression limited to the mitral and tufted cells.

The EGFP signal, along with anticipated physiological parameters, was used to identify mitral

vs. tufted cells (Chen and Shepherd, 1997; Marks *et al*., 2009). A total of 76 Tbx21-cre x

Cas9/EGFP male and female mice were used in our experiments for electrophysiology and

RNAscope (referred to as simply 'GFP mice' throughout) and ranged from 19 to 28 postnatal

days (PD) in age.

Kv1.3-/- mice were crossed with Thy1-YFP mice to generate progeny mice with

fluorescently-labeled OB neurons. Kv1.3-/- mice (RRID:IMSR_JAX:027392) were produced

previously by excision of the N-terminal one-third of the *Kv1.3* gene (Xu et al., 2003; Koni et

al., 2003) and were a generous gift from Drs. Leonard Kaczmarek and Richard Flavel (Yale

University, New Haven, CT, USA). Thy1-YFP mice (RRID:IMSR_JAX:014130) were a gift

from Dr. Gouping Feng (MIT Broad Institute, Boston, MA, USA) (Feng et al., 2000). A total

of 5 Kv1.3-/- x YFP male and female progeny mice were used for electrophysiology (referred

to as simply 'Kv1.3-/- mice' throughout) and ranged from PD19-28 in age.

Olfactory bulb slice recordings

OB slices for electrophysiological recordings were acquired from GFP or Kv1.3-/- mice as

described previously (Fadool et al., 2011; Mast and Fadool, 2012; Huang et al., 2017;

Thiebaud et al., 2019; Kolling et al., 2022). Briefly, mice were anesthetized by inhalation of

isoflurane, quickly decapitated, and the OBs were rapidly exposed by removing the dorsal and

lateral portions of the skull (Nickell et al., 1996). The OBs (while still attached to the

forebrain) were quickly removed, glued to a sectioning block with Superglue (Lowe's Home

Improvement, Tallahassee, FL, USA) and submerged in oxygenated (95% O_2/5%CO_2), ice-

cold, sucrose-modified artificial cerebral spinal fluid (aCSF) to prepare the tissue for

sectioning. Coronal sections (300 μm) were cut in oxygenated, ice-cold, sucrose-modified

aCSF using a Series 1000 Vibratome (Leica, Wetzlar, Germany; RRID:SCR_016495). The

OB sections were allowed to recover in an interface chamber (Krimer and Goldman-Rakic,

1997) with oxygenated, sucrose-modified aCSF at 33° C for 15 min and then were maintained

at room temperature (rt) in oxygenated normal aCSF until needed (Fadool *et al*., 2011). OB

slices were recorded in a continuously-perfused (Ismatec; 1-2 ml/min), submerged-slice

recording chamber (RC-26, Warner Instruments, Hamden, CT, USA) with aCSF at rt.

OB slices were visualized at 10x and 40x using an Axioskop 2FS Plus Microscope (Carl Zeiss

Microimaging, Thornwood, NY, USA) equipped with fluorescent excitation and infrared

detection capabilities (CCD100; Dage-MTI, Michigan City, IN, USA). Electrodes were

fabricated from borosilicate glass (#1405002; Hilgenberg GmbH, Malsfeld, Germany) to a

diameter of ~2 μm to yield pipette resistances ranging from 4 to 8 MΩ. Positive pressure was

retained when navigating through the OB laminae until a high resistance seal (1.5–10 GΩ)

was obtained on a positionally-identified MC or sTC in the slice (Fadool et al., 2011). The

morphology and biophysical properties of the neurons were used to distinguish MCs and sTCs

(Nickell et al., 1996; Schoppa and Westbrook, 2001; Fadool et al., 2004; Fadool and Kolling,

2020). MCs were selected only if > 50% of their cell body resided within the MCL. sTCs

were selected only if their cell body resided in the outer one-third of the EPL, and were not

selected if their cell body partially resided within the GLM. In addition, GFP mice provided

fluorescent markers that served as secondary confirmation of cell identity, and were readily

distinguishable. The cell-attached configuration was established by applying gentle suction to

the lumen of the pipette while monitoring resistance. Whole-cell access was obtained by

applying a 100 ms, 1 mV pulse across the membrane while applying sharp suction to the

lumen of the pipette. Membrane voltage and current properties were generated using

pCLAMP, version 9 or 10, in conjunction with a Multiclamp 700B amplifier (Axon

Instruments; RRID:SCR_011323/Molecular Devices; RRID:SCR_018455). The analog signal

was filtered at 3 kHz and minimally digitally sampled every 100 μs with a Digidata 1440A

digitizer (Axon Instruments, Molecular Devices; RRID:SCR_021038). The pipette

capacitance was electrically compensated through the capacitance neutralization circuit of the

Multiclamp 700B amplifier. Resting membrane potentials were corrected for a calculated -7

mV junction potential offset. Membrane capacitance was acquired from the membrane test

function of Clampex 10.7 (Axon Instruments, RRID:SCR_011323). Input resistance was

calculated using Ohm's law by injecting a -50 pA current and measuring the induced voltage

deflection. For clarity across disciplines, this report uses the electrophysiological terminology

that is used by the pCLAMP software suite. Where applicable, other common names are

included in parentheses.

After establishing a whole-cell configuration, cells were first sampled for adequate resting

potential (less than -50 mV), proper access resistance (less than 40 MΩ), and adequate input

resistance (greater than 150 MΩ) prior to initiating either a series of current- or voltage-clamp

recordings. For current-clamp recordings, cells were held at -60 mV (near rest; V_h) between

pulses to compare data across cells. Peri-threshold current levels were determined by

incrementally injecting a family of current pulses of 1000 millisecond (ms) duration (P_d).

Current was injected every 30 seconds (s) and was stepped in 25 pA increments from -50 pA

to 175 pA to obtain action potential (AP) characteristics and current-dependence data.

Following the determination of spike threshold, cells were stimulated with 10 super-threshold

sweeps using a P_d of 5000 ms (typically ranging from 15 to 150 pA) every 30 s (T_s) to acquire

spike frequency and latency data. Current-clamp data were acquired in the presence of

synaptic blockers and voltage-clamp data were acquired in the presence of 20 μM TTX to

eliminate unwanted AP spiking (see Solutions).

AP characteristics, latency to first spike, spike event frequency, interspike interval, intratrain

interval, and spike train length were measured using Clampfit software as described

previously (Balu et al., 2004; Fadool et al., 2011; Mast and Fadool, 2012). A train was defined

as three or more consecutive spikes within a period of 100 ms or less, as established by Balu

et al. (Balu et al., 2004). M/TC firing is intrinsically intermittent and is characterized by

variable train characteristics. As such, classical means of computing spike timing variability,

such as peri-stimulus time histograms, were less suitable for the behavior of these neurons.

Therefore, alternative means of spike analysis were applied as described previously (Balu et

al., 2004; Fadool et al., 2011; Thiebaud et al., 2016; Kolling et al., 2022). For voltage-clamp

recordings, cells were held at -80 mV (V_h), then stepped from -100 mV to +40 mV (V_c) in

+20 mV increments for a duration of 400 ms (P_d) with a stimulation interval (T_s) of 45 s.

RNA scope and quantification

Five male and five female GFP mice (10 mice total) were anesthetized with ketamine/xylazine

and fixed via transcardial perfusion of PBS followed by 4% PFA. Brains were cryoprotected

in 30% sucrose before being embedded in OCT and flash frozen. Mouse brains were

cryosectioned coronally at 16 μm, and sections were collected 1:10. Sections were mounted

on histobond glass slides, and RNAscope was performed according to the ACDbio

manufacturer's protocol using commercially available probes for *GFP, Kv1.3* and *Insr*. The

sequence of the mouse *GFP* transgene was used to verify the selection of GFP RNAscope

probe. Images were acquired using an Olympus VS200 slidescanner at 20X, and analysis was

performed using QuPath software (v 0.5). The 'cell detection' function was first used to

identify Tbx21+ cells, then object classifiers were created for *Kv1.3* and *Insr* using a threshold

for mean fluorescent intensity within each cell. Validation of this workflow was performed

manually, once per neurolaminar layer (MCL, EPL, and GLM).

Experimental design and statistical analyses

Before performing any statistical comparisons, data were first analyzed with the Dixon's Q

test to identify any outliers. Data were then checked for normal distribution and homogeneity

of variance using the Fmax test. Analysis of data collected did not identify any outliers.

Where collected data violated homogeneity of variance (failed the Fmax test), the selection of

applied statistics was changed to the nonparametric equivalent. Paired comparisons (innate

properties, action potential kinetics, bursting metrics) were analyzed using Student's *t* test or

Mann-Whitney U at the 95% confidence level ($\alpha < 0.05$). There were no sex-specific

differences in the measured parameters, so measurements from both sexes were combined. IV

plots, frequency and interspike interval (ISI) were analyzed using a mixed two-way RM

ANOVA with current and voltage as factors (IV) or current and cell type as factors (frequency

and ISI); at the 95% confidence level ($\alpha < 0.05$). Modulation of voltage-activated current

between cell types was analyzed using a mixed three-way RM ANOVA with voltage, cell

type, and drug as factors; at the 95% confidence level ($\alpha < 0.05$). Insulin modulation data

were analyzed using within-cell comparisons by applying a paired *t* test at the 95% confidence

level ($\alpha < 0.05$). Categorical AP spike train type analysis was performed using a Chi-Square

test, where the expected proportion of sTCs eliciting spike trains was set as the observed

proportion of MCs eliciting spike trains; 95% confidence level ($\alpha < 0.05$). For the two-way

RM ANOVA tests, the Sidak method for multiple comparison testing was used as the post-

hoc analysis to make mean-wise comparisons between cell types or between drug treatments.

All reported values in the text represent the mean ± SD. Figures largely report individual data

points using violin graphs and represent number of cells as noted in the figure legends.

Sample sizes for the line graphs are reported in the figure legends. Where means are reported

in the figures, the error is reported as the SEM. Individual *p* values are reported for each

experiment within the corresponding graph with the individual F statistic described in the

results section. Statistical tests were performed using GraphPad Prism 9 (GraphPad Software)

while the graphs and figures were produced using a combination of Origin v8 (OriginLab

Corporation; RRID:SCR_014212), Adobe Photoshop CS4 (Adobe; RRID:SCR_014199), and

GraphPad Prism 9 (GraphPad Software; RRID:SCR_002798).

All electrophysiological data were analyzed using pClamp, version 10 (Clampfit 10.7;

Molecular Devices; RRID:SCR_011323) and Igor Pro, version 6.12A (WaveMetrics Inc.;

RRID:SCR_000325) with the plug-in NeuroMatic, version 2 (written by Jason Rothman;

http://www.neuromatic.thinkrandom.com; RRID:SCR_004186). Exact *p* values, statistical

tests, and parameters are given in the results text/figures for each data set. Specific variables

required for independent replication (sample size, number of animals, etc.) and full statistical

reporting can be found in the methods and results text/figures for each respective experiment

and the supplemental statistical table (Supplemental Table 1).

Figure Legends

Fig. 1. **Categorization and interactions of the principal projection neurons of the olfactory**
bulb. The olfactory bulb neurolamina is divided across the glomerular layer (GLM), external
plexiform layer (EPL), the mitral cell layer (MCL), and the innermost granule cell layer (GCL). Also
shown is the olfactory mucosa containing the olfactory sensory neurons (OSNs). This schematic
highlights the four classes of output or projection neurons, namely the external tufted cells (eTCs,
pink), the superficial tufted cells (sTCs, gray), the middle tufted cells (mTCs, purple), and the mitral
cells (MCs, red). The soma of the eTCs are found within the GLM. The sTC soma reside in the
superficial one-third of the EPL. The deep two-thirds of the EPL contain both the mTCs and
misplaced MCs. The MCL houses the eponymous MCs. Blue plus signs (+) represent excitatory
synapses, red minus signs (-) represent inhibitory synapses, and pink plus signs (+) represent
excitatory dendro-dendritic interactions originating from external tufted cells (eTCs). Reciprocal
synapses are denoted by a double arrow. PG = periglomerular cell, sSAC = superficial short axon
cell, EPLi = interneuron of the external plexiform layer, GCL = granule cell layer, GC = granule cell,
PPG = preproglucagon neuron, dSAC = deep short axon cell. *Modified from Huang* et al. *2021.*

Fig. 2. Outward voltage-activated current properties of mitral cells and superficial tufted cells. *A,*
Family of voltage-activated currents, V_h = -80 mV where V_c was stepped in 20 mV increments from -
100 mV to +40 mV using a P_d = 400 ms. Colored sweeps correspond to significantly different
colored data points in (**B**). **B,** Normalized IV plots (2-w mixed RM ANOVA, cell type ***p =
0.0056, Sidak's post-hoc test, $^#p < 0.05$, $^{##}p < 0.01$; voltage x cell type interaction ****$p < 0.0001$).
C, Violin plot of non-normalized peak transient voltage-activated current at +40 mV, Mann-Whitney
U. Violin plot of the *Tau* of inactivation (*left*) and deactivation (*right*) at **(D)** V_c = -40 mV and **(E)**
+40 mV, respectively, Mann-Whitney U (*p = 0.0107). MC = mitral cell population sampled, sTC =
superficial tufted cell population sampled.

Fig. 3. Sensitivity of mitral and superficial tufted cells to a selective blocker of Kv channels. *A,*
Family of voltage-activated currents recorded as in Figure 3 prior (***Top,*** Baseline) and following
(***Bottom,*** +1 nM MgTx) 15-min bath application of margatoxin (MgTx) in a representative *A,* mitral
cell (MC) and *B,* superficial tufted cell (sTC). *C,* Normalized IV plots prior (solid symbols) and
following (open symbols) bath application of MgTx in a population of MCs (***Left,*** 2-w mixed RM
ANOVA, drug F (1, 9) = 43.62, ****$p < 0.0001$, with a Sidak's post hoc test, $^{###}p = 0.0008$, $^{####}p <$
0.0001; voltage x drug interaction F (7, 63) = 43.86, ****$p < 0.0001$) and a population of sTCs
(***Right,*** 2-w mixed RM ANOVA, drug ***p = 0.0003, Sidak's post-hoc test, $^{####}p < 0.0001$; voltage x
drug interaction ****$p < 0.0001$). *C, Bottom* – 3-way mixed RM ANOVA result comparing the two
IV plots in *C, Left-Right* (3-w mixed RM ANOVA, voltage x cell type interaction F (7, 123) = 3.879,
***p = 0.0008; voltage x drug interaction F (7, 123) = 57.42, ****$p < 0.0001$; cell type x drug
interaction F (1, 123) = 0.4244, p = 0.5160; voltage x cell type x drug interaction F (7, 123) = 0.7633,
p = 0.6190).

Fig. 4. Spike firing properties compared between mitral cells (MC) and superficial tufted cells (sTC).
A, Representative action potential trains evoked by various current steps as indicated, recorded from
a MC (***Left***) vs. sTC (***Right***). *B,* Violin plot comparing the current needed to evoke action potentials
(rheobase), Mann-Whitney U, **p = 0.0021. Line plots for *C,* mean spike frequency across current
step and *D,* mean interspike interval (ISI). Line plot data were analyzed with a *(C)* 2-w mixed RM
ANOVA, cell type **p = 0.0011; current x cell type interaction ***p = 0.0009, Sidak's post-hoc test,

$^{\$\$}p < 0.01$, $^{\$\$\$}p < 0.001$, **(D)** 2-w mixed RM ANOVA, cell type ****$p < 0.0001$; current x cell type
interaction ****$p < 0.0001$, Sidak's post-hoc test, $^{\#}p < 0.05$, $^{\#\#}p < 0.01$.

Fig. 5. Action potential shape and spike train activity compared between mitral cells (MC) and
superficial tufted cells (sTC). Line plot for **A,** maximum decay slope (max decay slope) and **B,** time
to achieve maximum decay slope from peak magnitude (time to max decay slope) across current step.
Line plot data were analyzed with **(A),** 2-w mixed RM ANOVA, cell type *p = 0.0186, Sidak's post-
hoc test, ##p < 0.01, ###p < 0.001; current x cell type interaction ****p < 0.0001, **(B),** 2-w mixed
RM ANOVA, cell type *p = 0.0486, Sidak's post-hoc test, #p < 0.05, ##p < 0.01, ###p < 0.001. **C,**
Representative pair of action potentials recorded in response to a 75 pA current injection held near
rest (Vh = -60 mV). **D,** Representative raster plot for a cell stimulated with a 50-pA current injection
using a $P_d = 5$ s for each cell type, respectively. Successive trials are stacked vertically below. Violin
plots computed across a 50 s recording period (10, 5s sweeps) compare **E,** mean number of bursts, **F,**
mean spikes per train, **G,** mean pause duration between trains, and **E,** mean latency to first spike. **E-F,**
were analyzed using a Student's *t*-test, **G-H** were analyzed using Mann-Whitney U; $p > 0.05$. **I,**
Relative proportion of cells eliciting spike train behavior among sampled MCs (**Left**) and sTCs
(**Right**), respectively (Chi-squared test, p = .40061, $X^2 = 0.7065$, n = 51).

Fig. 6. Colocalization of M/TCs with the Kv1.3 channel (*Kv1.3*) and insulin receptor (*Insr*) using
RNAscope. Photomicrographs demonstrating neurolaminar distribution of Tbx21 reporter expression
(green, **A**), *Kv1.3* expression (magenta, **B**), and *Insr* expression (yellow, **C**), separately and merged
(white, **D**). **E–H**: Same as **A–D**, but to demonstrate localization to sTCs with the inclusion of a DAPI
nuclear stain. **I:** Coronal sections were sampled along the anter-posterior axis (AP axis) at ~512 μm
intervals and assessed for total number of M/TCs (Tbx21+ cells) and for percentage of M/TCs
expressing both *Kv1.3* and *Insr* (**J**). Each data point represents the average from 5 separate mice,
separated by laminar layer and sex. **K–M:** Percentage of M/TCs (Tbx21+ cells) expressing *Kv1.3*
alone (**K**), *Insr* alone (**L**) or both (**M**). Statistical comparisons for **K–M** are Kruskal-Wallis (ANOVA)
with Dunn's multiple comparisons test. Each data point represents the average of all six antero-
posterior sections from each mouse, one data point per mouse per neurolaminar layer, respectively. $^{*}p$
< 0.05, GLM = glomerular layer, EPL = external plexiform layer, GCL = granule cell layer.

Fig. 7. Bath application of insulin increases spike firing frequency, and shortens latency to first spike
and intraburst interval in superficial tufted cells (sTCs). **A,** Representative spike trains (**Top**) that
were elicited in response to 25 pA current injection while holding the cell near rest (V_h = -60 mV)
prior (**Left,** Baseline) and subsequent (**Right,** Insulin) to hormone stimulation using $P_d = 5$ s.
(**Bottom**) Representative associated raster plot. Line graph comparing **B,** latency to first spike, **C,**
spike firing frequency, and **D,** intraburst interval, prior (pre) and following (post) insulin stimulation
in the same cell. Data were analyzed with a paired *t*-test using non-normalized data **(B)** *p = 0.0132,
(C) *p = 0.0381, and **(D)** *p = 0.0136.

Fig. 8. Insulin fails to modulate spike firing frequency in superficial tufted cells of Kv1.3-/- mice. **A,**
Representative spike trains (**Top**) and associated raster plot (**Bottom**) recorded as in *Figure 9*. Line
graphs Line graph comparing **B,** latency to first spike, **C,** spike firing frequency, and **D,** intraburst
interval, prior (pre) and following (post) insulin stimulation in the same cell. Data were analyzed with
a paired *t*-test using non-normalized data, $p > 0.05$.

Table 1. Action potential shape compared between mitral cells (MCs) vs. superficial tufted cells
(sTCs). Recordings were made while holding cells near rest (V_h = -60 mV) and injecting 75 pA of

current. Values are mean $\pm$ standard deviation. ns = not significant, †= Student's *t*-test, ‡= *t*-test with
Welch's correction, $\overline{\text{T}}$= Mann-Whitney U.

Table 2. Spike bursting properties in superficial tufted cells (sTCs) compared between wildtype
(WT) and Kv1.3 -/- mice. Recordings were made while holding cells near rest (V_h = -60 mV) and
injecting 75 pA of current. Data were computed across a 50 s recording period (10, 5s sweeps).
Values are mean $\pm$ standard deviation. ns = not significant, †= Student's *t*-test, ‡= *t*-test with Welch's
correction, $\overline{\text{T}}$= Mann-Whitney U

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We would like to thank Carley Huffstetler, Alexis Cox, and Tyla Dolezel for routine technical

assistance and in maintaining mouse colonies. We would like to thank Jaime White-James for

the oversight of our animal husbandry and routine mouse care needs.

COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors have no interests to declare, scientific or financial.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

All authors critically evaluated the work for important intellectual content. All authors

acquired, analyzed, or interpreted data in the study. As such, we confirm that all approved the

final version of the manuscript; agreed to be accountable for all aspects of the work in

ensuring that questions related to the accuracy or integrity of any part of the work are

appropriately investigated and resolved; and all persons designated as authors qualify for

authorship, and all who qualify for authorship are listed. In using the CRediT (Contributor

Roles Taxonomy) guidelines, L.K. and D.F. were responsible for project conceptualization,

data curation, formal analysis, funding acquisition, methodology, validation, visualization,

and writing the original draft, reviewing, and editing. L.K. was responsible for

electrophysiological recordings. C.M. and D.F. were responsible for project administration

and supervision. L.K., C.M. and D.F. were responsible for the provision of resources.

FUNDING

This work was supported by the United States Department of Agriculture NIFA Predoctoral

Fellowship 2019-07151, an endowment from the Robinson Family and the Tallahassee

Memorial Hospital, a grant from the Higher Education Emergency Relief Fund (HEERF II), a

grant from the National Institute on Aging (NIA) at NIH as F32AG084196, and a grant from

the National Institute of Diabetes, and Digestive and Kidney Diseases (NIDDK) at NIH as

R01DK133464.

DATA AVAILABILITY

924 All data referenced in this report are summarized in the primary figures contained in the

925 publication. All summarized electrophysiological recordings data are stored in the Fadool

926 Laboratory and are available upon request.

REFERENCES

Aimé P, Hegoburu C, Jaillard T, Degletagne C, Garcia S, Messaoudi B, Thevenet M, Lorsignol A,
Duchamp C, Mouly AM and Julliard AK (2012). A physiological increase of insulin in the
olfactory bulb decreases detection of a learned aversive odor and abolishes food odor-induced
sniffing behavior in rats. *PLoS One* **7,** e51227–e51227.

Antal M, Eyre M, Finklea B and Nusser Z (2006). External tufted cells in the main olfactory bulb
form two distinct subpopulations. *Eur J Neurosci* **24(4),** 1124-1136.

Arnold SE, Arvanitakis Z, Macauley-Rambach SL, Koenig AM, Wang H-Y, Ahima RS, Craft S,
Gandy S, Buettner C, Stoeckel LE, Holtzman DM and Nathan DM (2018). Brain insulin
resistance in type 2 diabetes and Alzheimer disease: Concepts and conundrums. *Nature Rev*
Neurol **14,** 168–181.

Balu R, Larimer P and Strowbridge BW (2004). Phasic stimuli evoke precisely timed spikes in
intermittently discharging mitral cells. *J Neurophysiol* **92,** 743–753.

Banks WA, Kastin AJ and Pan W (1999). Uptake and degradation of blood-borne insulin by the
olfactory bulb. *Peptides* **20,** 373–378.

Bartok A, Toth A, Somodi S, Szanto TG, Hajdu P, Panyi G and Varga Z (2014). Margatoxin is a
non-selective inhibitor of human Kv1.3 K+ channels. *Toxicon* **87,** 6–16.

Baskin DG, Porte Jr. D, Guest K and Dorsa DM (1983). Regional concentrations of insulin in the rat
brain. *Endocrinol* **112,** 898–903.

Biju KC, Marks DR, Mast TG and Fadool DA (2008). Deletion of voltage-gated channel affects
glomerular refinement and odorant receptor expression in the mouse olfactory system. *J Comp*
Neurol **506,** 161–179.

Bowlby MR, Fadool DA, Holmes TC and Levitan IB (1997). Modulation of the Kv1.3 potassium channel by receptor tyrosine kinases. *J Gen Physiol* **110,** 601–610.

Burry RW (2011). Controls for immunocytochemistry: An update. *J Histochem Cytochem* **59,** 6.

Burton SD and Urban NN (2014). Greater excitability and firing irregularity of tufted cells underlies distinct afferent-evoked activity of olfactory bulb mitral and tufted cells. *J Physiol* **592,** 2097.

Chen F, He A, Tang Q, Li S, Liu X, Yin Z, Yao Q, Yu Y and Li A (2024). Cholecystokinin-expressing superficial tufted cells modulate odour representation in the olfactory bulb and olfactory behaviours. *J Phyiol* **602(14),** 3519-3543.

Chen R and Chung SH (2014). Binding modes of two scorpion toxins to the voltage-gated potassium channel kv1.3 revealed from molecular dynamics. *Toxins (Basel)* **6,** 2149–2161.

Coecke S, Balls M, Bowe G, Davis J, Gstraunthaler G, Hartung T, Hay R, Merten OW, Price A, Schechtman L, Stacey G and Stokes W (2005). Guidance on good cell culture practice. A report of the second ECVAM task force on good cell culture practice. *Altern Lab Anim* **33,** 261–287.

Colley B, Tucker K and Fadool DA (2004). Comparison of modulation of Kv1.3 channel by two receptor tyrosine kinases in olfactory bulb neurons of rodents. *Recept Channels* **10,** 25–36.

Colley BS, Biju KC, Visegrady A, Campbell S and Fadool DA (2007). Neurotrophin B receptor kinase increases Kv subfamily member 1.3 (Kv1.3) ion channel half-life and surface expression. *Neuroscience* **144,** 531–546.

Colley BS, Cavallin MA, Biju K, Marks DR and Fadool DA (2009). Brain-derived neurotrophic factor modulation of Kv1.3 channel is disregulated by adaptor proteins Grb10 and nShc. *BMC Neurosci* **10,** 8.

Cook KK and Fadool DA (2002). Two adaptor proteins differentially modulate the phosphorylation and biophysics of Kv1.3 ion channel by Src kinase. *J Biol Chem* **277,** 13268–13280.

Das P, Parsons AD, Scarborough J, Hoffman J, Wilson J, Thompson RN, Overton JM and Fadool DA (2005). Electrophysiological and behavioral phenotype of insulin receptor defective mice. *Physiol Behav* **86,** 287–296.

Fadool DA, Holmes TC, Berman K, Dagan D and Levitan IB (1997). Tyrosine phosphorylation modulates current amplitude and kinetics of a neuronal voltage-gated potassium channel. *J Neurophysiol* **78,** 1563–1573.

Fadool DA and Kolling LJ (2020). Role of olfaction for eating behavior. In *The Senses: A Comprehensive Reference*, Second Edi., ed. Fritzsch B and Meyerhof W, pp. 675–716. Elsevier.

Fadool DA and Levitan IB (1998). Modulation of olfactory bulb neuron potassium current by tyrosine phosphorylation. *J Neurosci* **18,** 6126–6137.

Fadool DA, Tucker K and Pedarzani P (2011). Mitral cells of the olfactory bulb perform metabolic sensing and are disrupted by obesity at the level of the Kv1.3 ion channel. *PLoS One* **6,** e24921.

Fadool DA, Tucker K, Perkins R, Fasciani G, Thompson RN, Parsons AD, Overton JM, Koni PA,
Flavell RA and Kaczmarek LK (2004). Kv1.3 channel gene-targeted deletion produces "Super-
Smeller Mice" with altered glomeruli, interacting scaffolding proteins, and biophysics. *Neuron*
41, 389–404.

Fadool DA, Tucker K, Phillips JJ and Simmen JA (2000). Brain insulin receptor causes activity-
dependent current suppression in the olfactory bulb through multiple phosphorylation of Kv1.3.
J Neurophysiol **83,** 2332–2348.

Femminella GD *et al*. (2021). Does insulin resistance influence neurodegeneration in non-diabetic
Alzheimer's subjects? *Alzheimer's Res & Ther* **13,** 1–11.

Feng G, Mellor RH, Bernstein M, Keller-Peck C, Nguyen QT, Wallace M, Nerbonne JM, Lichtman
JW and Sanes JR (2000). Imaging neuronal subsets in transgenic mice expressing multiple
spectral variants of GFP. *Neuron* **28,** 41–51.

Ferreira LSS, Fernandes CS, Vieira MNN and De Felice FG (2018). Insulin resistance in Alzheimer's
disease. *Front Neurosci* **12,** 830.

Gadiwalla, S, Guillaume C, Huang L, White SJB, Basha N, Petersen PH and Galliano E (2025) *Ex*
vivo functional characterization of mouse olfactory bulb projection neurons reveals a
heterogeneous continuum. *eNeuro* 12(3), ENEURO.0407-24.2025.

Garcia ML, Hanner M, Knaus HG, Koch R, Schmalhofer W, Slaughter RS and Kaczorowski GJ
(1997). Pharmacology of potassium channels. *Adv Pharmacol* **39,** 425–471.

Garcia-Calvo M, Leonard RJ, Novick J, Stevens SP, Schmalhofer W, Kaczorowski GJ and Garcia
ML (1993). Purification, characterization, and biosynthesis of margatoxin, a component of
Centruroides margaritatus venom that selectively inhibits voltage-dependent potassium
channels. *J Biol Chem* **268,** 18866–18874.

Gire DH, Franks KM, Zak JD, Tanaka KF, Whitesell JD, Mulligan AA, Hen R and Schoppa NE
(2012). Mitral cells in the olfactory bulb are mainly excited through a multistep signaling path. *J*
Neurosci **32,** 2964–2975.

Grundy D (2015). Principles and standards for reporting animal experiments in The Journal of
Physiology and Experimental Physiology. *J Physiol* **593,** 2547–2549.

Gupta G, Azam M and Baquer NZ (1992). Modulation of rat brain insulin receptor kinase activity in
diabetes. *Neurochem Int* **20,** 487–492.

Hayar A, Karnup S, Shipley MT and Ennis M (2004a). Olfactory bulb glomeruli: External tufted
cells intrinsically burst at theta frequency and are entrained by patterned olfactory input. *J*
Neurosci **24(5),** 1190-1199.

Hayar A, Karnup S, Ennis M and Shipley MT (2004b). External tufted cells: A major excitatory
element that coordinates glomerular activity. *J Neurosci* **24,** 6676–6685.

Hayar A, Shipley MT and Ennis M (2005) Olfactory bulb external tufted cells are synchronized by
multiple intraglomerular mechanisms. *J Neurosci* **25(36),** 8197-8208.

Hill JM, Lesniak MA, Pert CB and Roth J (1986). Autoradiographic localization of insulin receptors
in rat brain: Prominence in olfactory and limbic areas. *NeuroSci* **17,** 1127–1136.

Holmes TC, Fadool DA and Levitan IB (1996). Tyrosine phosphorylation of the Kv1.3 potassium
channel. *J Neurosci* **16,** 1581–1590.

Hong S, Han K and Park C-Y (2021). The insulin resistance by triglyceride glucose index and risk for
dementia: population-based study. *Alzheimer's Res & Ther* **13,** 1–10.

Huang Z, Thiebaud N and Fadool DA (2017). Differential serotonergic modulation across the main
and accessory olfactory bulbs. *J Physiol* **595,** 3515–3533.

Igarashi KM, Ieki N, An M, Yamaguchi Y, Nagayama S, Kobayakawa K, Kobayakawa R, Tanifuji
M, Sakano H, Chen WR and Mori K (2012). Parallel mitral and tufted cell pathways route
distinct odor information to different targets in the olfactory cortex. *J Neurosci* **32,** 7970–7985.

Jan DD Saint and Westbrook GL (2007). Disynaptic amplification of metabotropic Glutamate
Receptor 1 responses in the olfactory bulb. *J Neurosci* **27,** 132–140.

Jones S, Zylberberg J and Schoppa N (2020). Cellular and synaptic mechanisms that differentiate
mitral cells and superficial tufted cells into parallel output channels in the olfactory bulb. *Front
Cell Neurosci* **14,** 443.

Kolling LJ, Tatti R, Lowry T, Loeven AM, Fadool JM and Fadool DA (2022). Modulating the
excitability of olfactory output neurons affects whole-body metabolism. *J Neurosci* **42,** 5966–
5990.

Koni PA, Khanna R, Chang MC, Tang MD, Kaczmarek LK, Schlichter LC and Flavell RA (2003).
Compensatory anion currents in Kv1.3 channel-deficient thymocytes. *J Biol Chem* **278,** 39443–
39451.

Krimer LS and Goldman-Rakic PS (1997). An interface holding chamber for anatomical and
physiological studies of living brain slices. *J Neurosci Meth* **75,** 55–58.

Kuczewski N, Fourcaud-Trocmé N, Savigner A, Thevenet M, Aimé P, Garcia S, Duchamp-Viret P
and Palouzier-Paulignan B (2014). Insulin modulates network activity in olfactory bulb slices:
impact on odour processing. *J Physiol* **592,** 2751–2769.

Kues WA and Wunder F (1992). Heterogeneous expression patterns of mammalian potassium
channel genes in developing and adult rat brain. *Eur J Neurosci* **4,** 1296–1308.

Kuljiš RO and Salković-Petrišić M (2011). Dementia, diabetes, Alzheimer's disease, and insulin
resistance in the brain: progress, dilemmas, new opportunities, and a hypothesis to tackle
intersecting epidemics. *J Alzheimer's Dis* **25,** 29–41.

Kwon Y, Jeon YW, Kwon M, Cho Y, Park D and Shin JE (2020). βPix-d promotes tubulin
acetylation and neurite outgrowth through a PAK/Stathmin1 signaling pathway. *PLoS One* **15,**
e0230814.

Liu A, Savya S and Urban NN (2016). Early odorant exposure increases the number of mitral and
tufted cells associated with a single glomerulus. *J Neurosci* **36,** 11646–11653.

Liu S and Shipley MT (2008). Multiple conductances cooperatively regulate spontaneous bursting in
mouse olfactory bulb external tufted cells. *J Neurosci* **28,** 1625.

Lu S, Das P, Fadool DA and Kaczmarek LK (2010). The slack sodium-activated potassium channel
provides a major outward current in olfactory neurons of Kv1.3-/- super-smeller mice. *J*
Neurophysiol **103,** 3311–3319.

Ma J and Lowe G. (2007). Correlated firing in tufted cells of mouse olfactory bulb. *Neurosci*
169(4), 1715-1738.

Marks DR and Fadool DA (2007). Post-synaptic density perturbs insulin-induced Kv1.3 channel
modulation via a clustering mechanism involving the SH3 domain. *J Neurochem* **103,** 1608–
1627.

Marks DR, Tucker K, Cavallin MA, Mast TG and Fadool DA (2009). Awake intranasal insulin
delivery modifies protein complexes and alters memory, anxiety, and olfactory behaviors.28. *J*
Neurosci **29,** 6734–6751.

Mast TG and Fadool DA (2012). Mature and precursor brain-derived neurotrophic factor have
individual roles in the mouse olfactory bulb. *PLoS ONE* **7,** e31978–e31978.

Mori K (1987). Membrane and synaptic properties of identified neurons in the olfactory bulb. *Prog*
Neurobiol **29,** 275–300.

Mori K and Sakano H (2022). Processing of odor information during the respiratory cycle in mice.
Front Neural Circ **16,** 861800.

Myers Jr. MG and White MF (1993). The new elements of insulin signaling. Insulin receptor
substrate-1 and proteins with SH2 domains. *Diabetes* **42,** 643–650.

Nagayama S, Enerva A, Fletcher ML, Masurkar A V, Igarashi KM, Mori K and Chen WR (2010).
Differential axonal projection of mitral and tufted cells in the mouse main olfactory system.
Front Neural Circ **4,** 120

Nagayama S, Homma R and Imamura F (2014). Neuronal organization of olfactory bulb circuits.
Front Neural Circuits **8,** 98.

Najac M, Jan D de Saint, Reguero L, Grandes P and Charpak S (2011). Monosynaptic and
polysynaptic feed-forward inputs to mitral cells from olfactory sensory neurons. *J Neurosci* **31,**
8722–8729.

Nickell WT, Shipley MT and Behbehani MM (1996). Orthodromic synaptic activation of rat
olfactory bulb mitral cells in isolated slices. *Brain Res Bull* **39,** 57–62.

Nikouee A, Khabiri M, Grissmer S and Ettrich R (2012). Charybdotoxin and margatoxin acting on
the human voltage-gated potassium channel h Kv1.3 and its H399N mutant: An experimental
and computational comparison. *J Phys Chem B* **116,** 5132–5140.

Palouzier-Paulignan B, Lacroix MC, Aime P, Baly C, Caillol M, Congar P, Julliard AK, Tucker K
and Fadool DA (2012). Olfaction under metabolic influences. *Chem Senses* **37,** 769–797.

Pinching AJ and Powell TPS (1971a). The neuropil of the periglomerular region of the olfactory
bulb. *J Cell Sci* **9(2),** 379-409.

Pinching AJ and Powell TPS (1971b). The neuron types of the glomerular layer of the olfactory bulb.
J Cell Sci **9(2),** 305–345.

Price JL and Powell TP (1970). The mitral and short axon cells of the olfactory bulb. *J Cell Sci* **7,**
631–651.

de Saint Jan D, Hirnet D, Westbrook GL and Charpak S (2009). External Tufted Cells Drive the
Output of Olfactory Bulb Glomeruli. *J Neurosci* **29,** 2043–2052.

Salameh S, Nouel D, Flores C and Hoops D (2017). An optimized immunohistochemistry protocol
for detecting the guidance cue Netrin-1 in neural tissue. *MethodsX* **5,** 1–7.

Saper CB (2009). A guide to the perplexed on the specificity of antibodies. *J Histochem Cytochem*
57, 1.

Schoppa NE and Westbrook GL (2001). Glomerulus-specific synchronization of mitral cells in the
olfactory bulb. *Neuron* **31,** 639–651.

Schwartz MW, Figlewicz DP, Baskin DG, Woods SC and Porte Jr. D (1992). Insulin in the brain: a
hormonal regulator of energy balance. *Endocr Rev* **13,** 387–414.

Shepherd GM (2004). *The synaptic organization of the brain*, 5th ed. Shepherd GM. Oxford
University Press.

Spencer VA, Kumar S, Paszkiet B, Fein J and Zmuda JF (2014). Cell culture media for fluorescence
imaging. *Genet Eng Biotechnol News* **34,** 10.

Thiebaud N, Gribble F, Reimann F, Trapp S and Fadool DA (2019). A unique olfactory bulb
microcircuit driven by neurons expressing the precursor to glucagon-like peptide 1. *Scientific*
Rep **9,** 15542.

Thiebaud N, Johnson MC, Butler JL, Bell GA, Ferguson KL, Fadool AR, Fadool JC, Gale AM, Gale
DS and Fadool DA (2014). Hyperlipidemic diet causes loss of olfactory sensory neurons,
reduces olfactory discrimination, and disrupts odor-reversal learning. *J Neurosci* **34,** 6970–6984.

Thiebaud N, Llewellyn-Smith IJ, Gribble F, Reimann F, Trapp S and Fadool DA (2016). The incretin hormone glucagon-like peptide 1 increases mitral cell excitability by decreasing conductance of a voltage-dependent potassium channel. *J Physiol* **594,** 2607–2628.

Tucker K, Cavallin MA, Jean-Baptiste P, Biju KC, Overton JM, Pedarzani P and Fadool DA (2010). The Olfactory Bulb: A Metabolic Sensor of Brain Insulin and Glucose Concentrations via a Voltage-Gated Potassium Channel. *Results Probl Cell Differ* **52,** 147–157.

Tucker K, Cho S, Thiebaud N, Henderson MX and Fadool DA (2013). Glucose sensitivity of mouse olfactory bulb neurons is conveyed by a voltage-gated potassium channel. *J Physiol* **591,** 2541–2561.

Tucker K and Fadool DA (2002). Neurotrophin modulation of voltage-gated potassium channels in rat through TrkB receptors is time and sensory experience dependent. *J Physiol* **542,** 413–429.

Vaaga CE and Westbrook GL (2016). Parallel processing of afferent olfactory sensory information. *J Physiol* **594,** 6715.

Velez P, Schwartz AB, Iyer SR, Warrington A and Fadool DA (2016). Ubiquitin ligase Nedd4-2 modulates Kv1.3 current amplitude and ion channel protein targeting155. *J Neurophysiol* **116,** 671–685.

White MF (1997). The insulin signalling system and the IRS proteins. *Diabetologia* **40 Suppl 2,** S2-17.

Wickelgren I (1998). Tracking insulin to the mind. *Science (1979)* **280,** 517–519.

Wu S, Zhang Y and De Luca F (2019). The effect of a high-calorie diet on bone growth is mediated by the insulin receptor. *Bone* 166–175.

Xu J, Koni PA, Wang P, Li G, Kaczmarek L, Wu Y, Li Y, Flavell RA and Desir G V (2003). The voltage-gated potassium channel Kv1.3 regulates energy homeostasis and body weight. *Human Mol Gen* **12,** 551–559.

Youngstrom IA and Strowbridge BW (2015). Respiratory modulation of spontaneous subthreshold synaptic activity in olfactory bulb granule cells recorded in awake, head-fixed mice. *J Neurosci* **35,** 8758.

Zagotta WN and Aldrich RW (1990). Alterations in activation gating of single Shaker A-type potassium channels by the Sh5 mutation. *J Neurosci* **10,** 1799–1810.

Zhou F-W, Hook C and Puche AC (2023). Frequency-dependent centrifugal modulation of the activity of different classes of mitral and tufted cells in olfactory bulb. *J Neurophysiol* **129,** 1515–1533.

Zhou Z, Xiong W, Zeng S, Xia A, Shepherd GM, Greer CA and Chen WR (2006). Dendritic excitability and calcium signaling in the mitral cell distal glomerular tuft. *Eur J Neurosci* **24(6),** 1623-1632.

1156 Zhishang Zhou 1, Wenhui Xiong, Shaoqun Zeng, Andong Xia, Gordon M Shepherd, Charles A
1157   Greer, Wei R Chen

1158

1159

1160 **Supplemental figures**

1161

Fig. S1. Colocalization of the insulin receptor (InsR) and Kv1.3 channel (Kv1.3) in superficial

tufted cells (sTCs) and mitral cells (MCs). Photomicrographs demonstrating antisera control

experiments in *A,* HEK 293 cells (*in vitro* specificity controls) and *B,* coronal mouse olfactory

bulb sections acquired from GFP mice (*ex vivo* controls where transgenic GFP labels M/TCs

under control of the Tbx21 promoter; green). *A,* Cells were transiently transfected with cDNA

encoding the InsR receptor, the Kv1.3 channel, or were mock transfected, and then were

incubated with primary antisera or the omission of primary antisera (*panels 1-6*). *B,* Olfactory

bulb sections were incubated with (*panel 1*) omission of primary and secondary antisera,

(*panel 2*) antisera against GFP, (*panel 3*) antiserum against GFP + InsR, or (*panel 4*)

antiserum against GFP + InsR + anti-rabbit. *C-D,* Photomicrographs demonstrating labeling

in coronal mouse olfactory bulb sections acquired from GFP mice using both InsR and Kv1.3

antiserum. *C,* Separate channels were imaged for endogenous GFP+ M/TCs (*panel 1*), InsR

(*panel 2*), Kv1.3 (*panel 3*), Merge (overlayed green + magenta + red, respectively, yields

cyan; *panel 4*), and Annotated (see arrow code below, *panel 5*). *D,* Same as in (C), but for

tufted cells and glomeruli (*panel 1*), InsR (*panel 2*), Kv1.3 (*panel 3*), Merge (glomeruli

overlayed magenta + red yields violet; *panel 4*), and Annotated (*panel 5*).

1178

1179   **Supplemental methods**

1180

cDNA constructs and antisera

Insulin receptor (IR) cDNA was a gift from Dr. R. Roth, Stanford University, in the pECE

vector. The entire IR gene was removed using the unique restriction sites Sal I and Xba I, and

ligated into pcDNA3 between the Xho I and Xba I sites in the multiple cloning region under

control of the cytomegalovirus (CMV) promoter (Fadool *et al*., 2000). Rat Kv1.3 (rKv1.3)

was subcloned into the multiple cloning region of pcDNA$_3$ (now available only as 3.1;

RRID:Addgene_23252; originally 3.0 Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) at the unique HindIII

restriction site, under control of the CMV promoter (Holmes et al., 1996).

1189

Monoclonal antibodies targeting the beta subunit of the IR or green fluorescent protein were

purchased from Santa Cruz Biotechnology (Dallas, TX, USA). Anti-IR antibody was

purchased pre-conjugated to Alexa Fluor 647 (Anti-INSR catalog # sc-57342 AF647;

RRID:AB_784102); validated by Wu and associates (Wu et al., 2019). Anti-IR antibody was

generated against the C-terminus of the beta subunit of human insulin receptor protein. Anti-

GFP antibody was purchased pre-conjugated to Alexa Fluor 488 (catalog # sc-9996 AF488;

RRID:AB_627695); validated by Kwon and associates (Kwon et al., 2020). Anti-GFP was

generated against amino acids 1-238, representing full length GFP. FSU120, a rabbit

polyclonal antiserum, was generated against the 46-amino acid sequence 478-

MVIEEGGMNHSAFPQTPFKTGNSTATCTTNNNPNDCVNIKKIFTDV-523, representing

the unique coding region of the Kv1.3 channel between transmembrane domain 6 and the

carboxy terminal (Fadool *et al*., 2000). The purified peptide was produced by Genmed

Synthesis (San Francisco, CA, USA), the antiserum was produced and then affinity purified

by Cocalico Biologicals (Reamstown, PA, USA). We have validated this epitope in several

previous studies (Fadool *et al*., 2000, 2004; Colley *et al*., 2007; Marks and Fadool, 2007; Biju

et al., 2008; Marks *et al*., 2009) and this latest regeneration of the antisera, specifically (Velez

et al., 2016; Kolling *et al*., 2022). Alexa Fluor 546 (Invitrogen, catalog #A-11035;

RRID:AB_2534077) was used to label the FSU120 antibody for imaging.

1208

Culturing, immunocytochemistry, and immunohistochemistry

Human embryonic kidney 293 (HEK 293; RRID:CVCL_0045) cells were used that are not

listed as a commonly-misidentified cell line at the International Cell Line Authentication

Committee Registry (ICLACR). Our HEK 293 cells were a generous gift from Dr. Robert

Margolskee (Monell Chemical Senses Center, Philadelphia, PA, USA) and have been

authenticated for cross-contamination and misidentification by profiling the cellular genome.

Cell culture practices at Florida State University have followed "Guidance on Good Cell

Culture Practices" (Coecke et al., 2005). Our most recent cryopreserved batch of HEK 293

cells was prepared in 2016, and each aliquot is used between passages 4 and 25. HEK 293

cells were grown in supplemented Modified Eagle Medium composed of minimal essential

media (MEM; 12360; GIBCO, Life Technologies/ Invitrogen, Durham, NC) plus 2%

penicillin/streptomycin (15140; GIBCO, Invitrogen) and 10% fetal bovine serum (16000;

GIBCO, Invitrogen). Before transient transfection, cells were grown to 90% confluency (7

days), dissociated with trypsin-EDTA (Sigma-Aldrich) and mechanical trituration, diluted in

MEM to a concentration of 600 cells/mL, and replated on Corning dishes (catalog no. 25000;

Thermo Fisher Scientific). To accommodate imaging on a glass substrate, two, 12 mm circle

glass coverslips (Catalog #12-545-90, Thermo Fisher Scientific) were placed flat inside each

35 mm dish. cDNA was introduced into HEK 293 cells with Lipofectamine 3000 transfection

reagent (Invitrogen catalog #L3000015) in OptiMEM serum-reduced media

(Invitrogen/GIBCO) 3-5 days after passage as previously described (Cook and Fadool, 2002).

Briefly, cells were transfected for 4 hours (h) with 1.0 □g of each cDNA construct per 35-mm

dish. Plasmid DNA with no coding insert (control vector) served as the control to equalize

total ug of cDNA added to each dish/slip. Thirty-six hours after transfection, cover slips were

placed "cells up" on glass slides and fixed in 4% PFA for 20 min at rt. Cells were rinsed in

two 5-min changes of 1X PBS before proceeding with immunocytochemistry. Cells were first

blocked in blocking buffer for 30 min followed by three 5-min changes of 1X PBS. Antibody

labeling for GFP and IR was performed using a 1:50 dilution in incubation buffer for 60 min

at rt. Labeling for Kv1.3 was performed using a 1:50 dilution in incubation buffer for 90 min

at rt, followed by secondary labeling with a species-specific antibody at a 1:500 dilution in

incubation buffer for 45 min at rt.

1239

Immunohistochemistry (IHC) was performed in the same manner as immunocytochemistry.

GFP mice were anesthetized and then terminated by cardiac perfusion using 4% PFA as

previously described (Thiebaud et al., 2014). The mice were decapitated, and skulls

decalcified to flash freeze the brain in protective medium (Biju *et al*., 2008). Coronal sections

at 14-μm thickness (Model 1850UV, Leica Biosystems) were prepared for slide-mounting.

Labeling control consisted of blocking and incubation in buffer without antibodies. No-

primary (omission of FSU120 primary antisera) and singly-labeled controls were performed to

determine the specificity of the anti-rabbit secondary antibody with pre-conjugated antibodies.

Slides were cover-slipped with Fluoromount-G^{TM} (Invitrogen) before imaging. Imaging was

performed on a Leica confocal microscope (THUNDER Imager, Wetzlar, Germany;

RRID:SCR_023794) using a 40X oil-immersion lens, and appropriate laser lines for each

reporter (475 nm, 551 nm, 642 nm). Post-hoc analyses were performed using Photoshop CS4

(Adobe, San Jose, CA, USA; RRID:SCR_014199). The minimum and maximum thresholds

for each color channel were adjusted uniformly for all images before using the "difference"

feature to align multidimensional images in Photoshop. This method allowed for transient

removal of specific channels in order to more clearly determine co-localization of reporters.

1256