1 **Title:** Cell-type-specific plasticity in synaptic, intrinsic, and sound response properties of deep-
2 layer auditory cortical neurons after noise trauma
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Abstract

Peripheral damage drives auditory cortex (ACtx) plasticity, but the underlying synaptic and cellular mechanisms remain poorly understood. We used a combination of *in vitro* slice electrophysiology, optogenetics, and *in vivo* two-photon imaging to investigate layer 5 extratelencephalic (ET) and layer 6 corticothalamic (CT) neuronal plasticity in mice, following noise-induced hearing loss (NIHL). Thalamocortical (TC) input was initially balanced between CTs and ETs but shifted to CT-dominant one day post-NIHL and then normalized by day seven. This transient shift was accompanied by increased quantal size and suprathreshold excitability in CTs, with minimal changes in ETs. *In vivo*, CTs exhibited persistent elevation in sound intensity thresholds, while ETs showed a transient shift in frequency tuning and reduced high-frequency responsiveness that recovered within a week. These findings reveal distinct, cell-type-specific plasticity mechanisms in deep-layer ACtx neurons following peripheral damage and highlight potential targets for treating hearing loss-related disorders such as tinnitus and hyperacusis.

Keywords

auditory cortex, noise-induced hearing loss, plasticity, thalamocortical circuits, excitatory neurons, in vivo imaging, in vitro electrophysiology

Introduction

In all sensory systems, damage to peripheral organs induces compensatory plasticity mechanisms in the brain, which contributes to preserving function by increasing neural responsiveness to surviving sensory inputs. In the cortex, this homeostatic plasticity is characterized by increased central gain and has been well documented across sensory modalities (Rasmusson, 1982; Merzenich et al., 1983; Robertson and Irvine, 1989; Kaas et al., 1990; Gilbert and Wiesel, 1992). In the auditory system, exposure to loud noise induces cochlear damage that often leads to a reduction in auditory nerve input due to cochlear synaptopathy and the degeneration or death of both hair and spiral ganglion cells (Ryan and Bone, 1978; Liberman and Dodds, 1984; Kujawa and Liberman, 2009). Despite this peripheral damage, the sound-evoked activity of excitatory cortical principal neurons is frequently restored, or even enhanced, within days of noise-induced hearing loss (NIHL; (Qiu et al., 2000; Auerbach et al., 2014; Chambers et al., 2016; Resnik and Polley, 2017; Kumar et al.), reflecting robust cortical and subcortical homeostatic plasticity mechanisms. These mechanisms support perceptual hearing threshold recovery, especially in quiet backgrounds, even after a dramatic loss of peripheral input (Chambers et al., 2016; Resnik and Polley, 2021)

In the auditory cortex (ACtx), noise-induced cochlear damage is associated with enhanced central gain, reduced cortical inhibitory (GABAergic) activity, increased spontaneous firing, and reorganization of frequency tuning towards less damaged regions of the cochlea (Seki and Eggermont, 2003; Kotak et al., 2005; Sarro et al., 2008; Scholl and Wehr, 2008; Yang et al., 2011; Takesian et al., 2013; Chambers et al., 2016; Resnik and Polley, 2017). Recent studies in ACtx layer (L) 2/3 neurons revealed that this plasticity is mediated by cell-type-specific mechanisms, enabling a precise and cooperative division of labor amongst cortical interneurons (Kumar et al., 2023). However, the plasticity mechanisms governing excitatory projection neurons remain less understood. Addressing this knowledge gap requires examining the distinct contributions of deep-layer neurons, specifically L5 extratelencephalic neurons (ETs, also known as pyramidal tract or PT neurons) and L6 corticothalamic neurons (CTs), as L5 and 6 represent the primary output pathways from the ACtx. CTs exclusively target the thalamus and readily modulate local cortical gain, while also modulating ongoing thalamocortical oscillatory activity, forming key nodes in cortico-thalamo-cortical loops (Olsen et al., 2012; Guo et al., 2017; Ibrahim et al., 2021; Shepherd and Yamawaki, 2021). ETs also project to the thalamus as well as the midbrain, striatum, and amygdala (Harris and Shepherd, 2015; Chen et al., 2019; Williamson and Polley, 2019; Shepherd and Yamawaki, 2021; Issa et al., 2023). These projections are crucial for connecting the auditory system to downstream targets involved in motor control, sensorimotor integration, learning, and higher-order cognitive processes (Winer, 2005; Bajo et al., 2010; Stebbings et al., 2014; Xiong et al., 2015; Ford et al., 2024; Quass et al., 2024). It is therefore essential to determine how ETs, CTs, and their thalamocortical inputs change after NIHL. Given the importance of cortico-thalamo-cortical loops in perception and cognition in normal and pathological states (Tononi and Edelman, 1998; Tononi et al., 1998; Jones, 2001; Llinas et al., 2005; Sherman, 2007; Shepherd and Yamawaki, 2021), understanding these mechanisms may highlight novel approaches to enhance perceptual recovery after hearing loss and mitigate plasticity-induced disorders such as tinnitus and hyperacusis (Henton and Tzounopoulos, 2021).

To address these gaps in knowledge, we employed a mouse model of NIHL to investigate plasticity mechanisms after noise trauma. We used a combination of *in vitro* slice electrophysiology and *in vivo* two-photon imaging to characterize changes in thalamocortical synaptic strength, intrinsic excitability, and sound response properties of ETs and CTs after NIHL. Our findings highlight cell-type-specific plasticity mechanisms, offering insights into cortical plasticity in response to peripheral damage.

Materials and Methods
Animals
All mice handling was approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee at the University of Pittsburgh. 66 male and 38 female Ntsr1-Cre mice (MMRRC, B6.FVB(Cg)-Tg(Ntsr1-Cre)GN220Gsat/Mmcd) were used for experiments shown in Figures 1-5, S1-2; 3 male and 1 female Ntsr1-Cre mice as well as 4 male and 5 female Ntsr1-Cre x Ai148 mice (JAX, Ai148(TIT2L-GC6f-ICL-tTA2)-D) were used for Figure 6; 7 male and 2 female C57Bl/6J mice were used for Figure 7.

Surgical methods for *in vitro* electrophysiology
Mice (P28-35) were anesthetized with isoflurane (induction: 3% in oxygen, maintenance: 1.5-2% in oxygen) and secured in a stereotaxic frame (Kopf). Core body temperature was maintained at ~37°C with a heating pad and eyes were protected with ophthalmic ointment. Lidocaine (1%) was injected under the scalp and a midline incision was made to expose the skull. ETs were retrogradely labeled by injecting green fluorescent latex microspheres (Lumafluor) into the right inferior colliculus (1 mm posterior to lambda and 1 mm lateral, at an injection depth of 0.75 mm), schematized in **Figure 1A**. To transduce CTs, an AAV (AAV9-FLEX-tdTomato, titer: $1e^{13}$ gc/mL, 1:2 dilution in PBS, Addgene) was injected into the right ACtx of Ntsr1-Cre mice through a small burr hole (~0.4 mm diameter, ~4 mm lateral to lambda). A glass micropipette containing the viral vector was lowered into ACtx to a depth of ~1 mm using a micromanipulator (Kopf). A syringe pump (World Precision Instruments) was then used to inject 200 nL over the course of 2 minutes, at a rate of 100 nL/min.

To facilitate stimulation of thalamic afferents, 500 nL of AAV9-CaMKIIa-hChR2(H134R)-EYFP (titer: $8.96e^{13}$ gc/ml, Addgene) was injected into the right medial geniculate body (MGB) of Ntsr1-Cre mice (3 mm posterior/2 mm lateral/3 mm deep) at a rate of 100 nL/min, alongside injections of microspheres and AAV9-FLEX-tdTomato, as described earlier. This resulted in widespread expression across multiple MGB subdivisions. Post injection, the scalp was closed with cyanoacrylate adhesive and mice were given a subcutaneous injection of carprofen (5 mg/kg).

Surgical methods for *in vivo* two-photon imaging
Mice (P56-72) were anesthetized with isoflurane (induction: 5% in oxygen, maintenance: 1.5-2% in oxygen) and secured in a stereotaxic frame (Kopf). Dexamethasone (2 mg/kg) was administered via an intraperitoneal injection to mitigate brain edema. Core body temperature was maintained at ~37 °C with a heating pad and eyes were protected with ophthalmic ointment. Lidocaine (1%) was injected under the scalp and a midline incision was made to expose the skull. To transduce ETs, an AAV (AAVretro-hSyn1-GCaMP6s-P2A-nls-tdTomato, titer: $5e^{12}$ gc/mL, Addgene), was injected into the right inferior colliculus of C57 mice through a small burr hole (5 mm posterior to bregma and 1.2 mm lateral). A glass micropipette containing the viral vector was lowered to depths of 0.3 and 0.8 mm using a micromanipulator (Kopf). A syringe pump (Nanoject III, Drummond) was used to inject 300 nL at each site at a rate of 10-15 nL/min. CTs were transduced with GCaMP6s through intracranial injection into the ACtx (AAV5-Syn-FLEX-GCaMP6s-WPRE-SV40, titer: $7e^{12}$ gc/mL, Addgene) or through transgenic crossing with the Ai148 mouse line. Post injection, the scalp was closed with nylon sutures and mice were administered with a subcutaneous injection of carprofen (5 mg/kg). Viruses were allowed to express for a minimum of three weeks prior to two-photon imaging. Cranial windows were created by stacking three round glass coverslips (one 4 mm, two 3 mm, #1 thickness, Warner Instruments), etched with piranha solution (sulfuric acid and hydrogen peroxide), then glued together with optically transparent, UV-cured adhesive (Norland Products). The skull was exposed by removing the dorsal portion of the scalp and periosteum, then treated with etchant (C&B metabond) followed by 70% ethanol. A custom stainless steel headplate (iMaterialize,

(Romero et al., 2020) was then attached to the skull using dental cement (C&B metabond). A 3
mm circular craniotomy was made over right ACtx and the cranial window was placed into the
opening. An airtight seal was achieved using Kwik-Sil (World Precision Instruments) around the
edge of the window before cementing it into place. Vetbond (3M) was used to bind the surrounding
tissue to the dental cement. Following the implant surgery, mice were given a subcutaneous
injection of carprofen (5 mg/kg). Implants were allowed to heal for at least five days before the
first day of imaging.
151
Slice electrophysiology
Mice (P58-65) were first anesthetized with isoflurane and then immediately decapitated. Brains
were rapidly removed and coronal slices (300 µm) containing right ACtx were prepared in a cutting
solution at 1 $^{\circ}$C using a Vibratome (VT1200 S, Leica). The cutting solution (pH 7.4, ~300 mOsm)
contained (in mM): 2.5 KCl, 1.25 NaH_2PO_4, 25 $NaHCO_3$, 0.5 $CaCl_2$, 7 $MgCl_2$, 7 Glucose, 205
sucrose, 1.3 ascorbic acid, and 3 sodium pyruvate (bubbled with 95% O_2/5% CO_2). Slices were
immediately transferred to a holding chamber and incubated at 34 °C for 40 min before recording.
The holding chamber contained ACSF, with the following composition (in mM): 125 NaCl, 2.5 KCl,
26.25 $NaHCO_3$, 2 $CaCl_2$, 1 $MgCl_2$, 10 glucose, 1.3 ascorbic acid, and 3 sodium pyruvate, pH 7.4,
~300 mOsm (bubbled with 95% O_2/5% CO_2). After incubation, slices were stored at room
temperature until recording.
163
Whole-cell recordings in voltage- and current-clamp modes were performed in slices bathed in 31
$^{\circ}$C carbogenated ACSF, identical to the incubating solution. Borosilicate pipettes (World Precision
Instruments) were pulled into patch electrodes with 3–6 MΩ resistance (Sutter Instruments). For
current-clamp recordings, pipettes were filled with a potassium-based intracellular solution,
containing (in mM): 128 K-gluconate, 10 HEPES, 4 $MgCl_2$, 4 Na_2ATP, 0.3 Tris-GTP, 10 Tris
phosphocreatine, 1 EGTA, and 3 sodium ascorbate (pH = 7.25, 295 mOsm). For voltage-clamp
recordings of optogenetically-evoked excitatory postsynaptic currents (EPSCs), a cesium-based
internal solution was used, containing (in mM): 126 $CsCH_3O_3S$, 4 $MgCl_2$ 10 HEPES, 4 Na_2ATP,
0.3 TrisGTP, 10 Tris-phosphocreatine, 1 CsEGTA, 1 QX-314, and 3 sodium ascorbate (pH = 7.25,
295 mOsm). Recordings were made using a MultiClamp-700B amplifier with a Digidata-1440A
A/D converter and Clampex software (Molecular Devices). Data were sampled at 10 kHz and
filtered at 4 kHz. Pipette capacitance was compensated, and series resistance (R_{series}) was
maintained below 25 MΩ. R_{series} was measure in voltage clamp mode (command potential set at
-70 mV) by applying a -5 mV voltage step and calculating the ratio of the step voltage to the peak
current immediately following the step. Input resistance (R_{input}) was calculated in voltage-clamp
mode (command potential set to -70 mV) by giving a -5 mV step, which resulted in transient
current responses. The difference between baseline and steady state hyperpolarized current (ΔI)
was used to calculate R_{input} using the following formula: R_{input} = -5 mV/ΔI – R_{series}. Resting
membrane potential (V_{Rest}) was measured in current-clamp mode (I = 0) by averaging membrane
potential for 20 sec after break-in. For intrinsic property measurements, the following drugs were
included in the bath: 20 µM DNQX (AMPA receptor antagonist), 50 µM APV (NMDA receptor
antagonist), and 20 µM SR 95531 Hydrobromide (Gabazine - a $GABA_A$ receptor antagonist).
Depolarizing current pulses (25 pA increments of 1 sec duration) were injected from a holding
potential of -70 mV (adjusted with DC current if necessary) to assess suprathreshold firing
properties. Action potential (AP) width was defined as the full width at the half-maximum amplitude
of the first AP at rheobase. AP threshold was determined from the phase-plane plot as the
membrane potential where the depolarization slope (dV/dt) exceeded 10 V/sec.
191
Light-evoked EPSCs and strontium quantal events (Sr^{2+}-mEPSCs) were evoked by optogenetic
stimulation of presynaptic axons. A collimated blue LED light source (470 nm, Thorlabs) was
directed through a diaphragm and a 40x microscope objective lens, restricting illumination to a

small spot within the targeted cortical layer. ETs and CTs were selected for dual whole-cell
recordings based on visual alignment along the radial (depth) axis using differential interference
contrast optics. To ensure anatomical proximity consistent with columnar organization, we
assessed the tangential (horizontal) distance between the somata of the recorded pairs. Post-hoc
measurements across all recorded pairs revealed that the mean tangential distance was
approximately 20 µm (18.81 ± 1.86 µm; n = 59 pairs). The light intensity required to elicit a stable,
maximal plateau response was determined for each cell pair using a 0.15 ms light pulse. EPSCs
were recorded in voltage clamp mode at -70 mV. Peak amplitudes were averaged over a 1 ms
window. To isolate monosynaptic responses, recordings were performed in the presence of
tetrodotoxin (TTX, 1µM) to block sodium channels and 4-aminopyridine (4-AP, 100 µM) potassium
channel blocker to depolarize the terminals. Representative traces for figures were generated by
averaging 10 consecutive EPSCs.

Sr^{2+}-mEPSCs were recorded in slices incubated for 30 mins in a modified Sr^{2+}-ACSF solution
containing (in mM): 125 NaCl, 2.5 KCl, 26 $NaHCO_3$, 4 $SrCl_2$, 4 $MgCl_2$, 15 glucose, 1.3 ascorbic
acid, and 3 sodium pyruvate, pH 7.4, ~300 mOsm, oxygenated w/ 95% O_2-5% CO_2. All other
recording conditions, including the cutting solution, cesium-based internal solution, and light
stimulation, remained the same as described above. Data were analyzed using Clampfit (11.2).
A 400 ms window preceding LED onset (pre-LED) and a 400 ms window beginning 100 ms after
LED onset (post-LED) were used for event detection. The amplitude of LED-evoked quantal
events was calculated using the equation: $\frac{[(Apost*Fpost)-(Apre*Fpre)]}{Fpost-Fpre}$, where $Apost$ is the average
amplitude of post-LED Sr^{2+}-mEPSCs, $Fpost$ is the frequency of post-LED events, $Apre$ is the
average amplitude of pre-LED events, and $Fpre$ is their frequency (Whitt et al., 2022). Event
detection was optimized by lowpass filtering the traces with a 1 kHz Gaussian filter. Events were
included if they had a rise time < 3 ms and amplitude > 3 x root mean square (RMS) noise. Cells
with RMS noise > 2 or where $Fpost$ - $Fpre$ < 2 Hz were excluded from the analysis.

Noise and sham exposure
23-29 days after viral injections, mice were anesthetized with isoflurane (induction: 3% in oxygen,
maintenance: 1.5-2% in oxygen) during a unilateral noise exposure procedure. A plastic pipette
tip, connected to a calibrated speaker (FT17H, Fostex), was inserted into the left ear. Core body
temperature was maintained at ~37 °C with a heating pad and eyes were protected with
ophthalmic ointment. Sham- and noise-exposed mice were treated identically, but noise-exposed
mice were presented with 8-16 kHz broadband noise at 116 dB SPL for one hour.

Bandwidth limiting was achieved using a DS360 Ultra-Low Distortion Function Generator
(Stanford Research Systems) in combination with a 3-pole Butterworth filter. The speaker (Type
4231, Brüel & Kjær) was calibrated using a 1/4-inch microphone (Model 4954-B, Brüel & Kjær) to
accurately determine the output voltage required to achieve the desired sound level.

Auditory brainstem responses (ABRs)
ABR measurements were made from the left (exposed) ear and conducted in a sound-attenuating
chamber (ENV-022SD, Med Associates). Subdermal electrodes were positioned with the active
electrode at the vertex, the ground electrode ventral to the right pinna, and the reference electrode
ventral to the left pinna. A calibrated speaker (CF-1, Tucker-Davis Technologies) delivered
acoustic stimuli to the left ear via a pipette tip affixed to a plastic tube connected to the speaker.
ABR measurements were recorded in response to 1 ms tone bursts at 10, 16, 24, and 32 kHz,
presented in descending order from 80 to 0 dB SPL (or until 10 dB SPL below threshold).
Threshold was defined as the lowest stimulus intensity that evoked a detectable Wave 1
response. A Wave 1 response was identified as the first consistent deflection that decreased in

amplitude and increased in latency as sound intensity decreased, distinguishing it from
background noise. ABR measurements were acquired using BioSigRX software at a rate of 18.56
Hz, averaged over 512 repetitions, and filtered with a 300-3,000 Hz bandpass filter.
248
Two-photon imaging
Mice (P55-104) were acclimated to head fixation in the two-photon imaging rig for 30 min/day for
three consecutive days before the start of experiments. Imaging was performed at three
timepoints: one day pre-exposure (-1d), one day post-exposure (1d), and seven days post-
exposure (7d). No additional head-fixation occurred between 1d and 7d. ABRs were performed
before each imaging session to assess peripheral sound responses and hearing status. Mice with
ABR click thresholds of 50 dB SPL or greater on -1d were excluded from the study. Noise-exposed
mice were excluded if their click thresholds increased by less than 10 dB SPL from -1d to 1d.
Similarly, sham-exposed mice were excluded if their click thresholds increased by more than 10
dB SPL across the same timepoints.
259
On -1d, widefield epifluorescence imaging was used to generate an ACtx tonotopic map, allowing
identification of primary auditory area A1 (Romero et al., 2020). The two-photon field of view (FoV)
was centered over A1 for all subsequent recordings. Two-photon excitation was provided by an
Insight X3 laser tuned to 940 nm (Spectra-Physics). A 16x/0.8NA water-immersion objective
(Nikon) was used to obtain a 512 x 512 pixel FoV at 30 Hz with a Bergamo II Galvo-Resonant 8
kHz scanning microscope (Thorlabs). Scanning software (Thorlabs) and stimulus generation
hardware (National Instruments) were synchronized with digital pulse trains. For both widefield
and two-photon imaging, the microscope was rotated 40-55 degrees from the vertical axis to
image the lateral portion of mouse ACtx while the mouse remained upright. Imaging was
conducted in a dark, sound attenuating chamber, and mice were monitored using infrared
cameras (Genie Nano, Teledyne).
271
ETs were imaged 420-580 µm below the pial surface using laser powers of 45-130 mW, while
CTs were imaged 600-790 µm below the pial surface with powers ranging from 111-150 mW.
Fluorescence images were acquired at either 1x (750 x 750 µm) or 2x (375 x 375 µm) digital
zoom. Raw calcium imaging data were processed using Suite2P (Pachitariu M, 2016) to perform
rigid/non-rigid registration, region of interest (ROI) detection, and spike deconvolution. All ROIs
were visually curated, and any low quality or non-somatic ROIs were excluded from further
analysis. The same FoV was imaged across all three timepoints. Individual neurons were
matched across days using ROIMatchPub, an open-source MATLAB plugin
(https://github.com/ransona/ROIMatchPub).
281
282 Each imaging session included the presentation of two stimulus sets. Eight pure tones (4 - 45 kHz
283 in half-octave steps) were presented at four intensities (20 - 80 dB SPL in 20 dB SPL steps). In
284 addition, white noise bursts were presented at seven intensities (20 - 80 dB SPL in 10 dB SPL
285 steps). All stimuli were 50 ms in duration, followed by a 2 sec inter-trial interval. Stimuli were
286 delivered in a pseudorandom order, and each stimulus was repeated 20 times.
287
Two-photon imaging analysis
Deconvolved calcium traces (**Figure S3A**) were normalized for each cell by z-scoring relative to
the average baseline activity during the 500 ms preceding sound onset. Evoked stimulus
responses were quantified as the mean z-scored activity during the 0 - 500 ms window following
sound onset. To determine whether a neuron was responsive to the given stimulus, the z-scored
activity during the stimulus window was compared to 1000 samples of time-shifted responses,
generated by circularly shifting the trace by 5 - 20 sec. A neuron was considered significantly
responsive if its evoked response exceeded the 98th percentile of the randomly shifted distribution

(adapted from Khoury et al 2023). The best frequency of each neuron was defined as the
frequency that evoked the highest z-scored response after averaging across intensities. Intensity
thresholds were defined as the lowest sound intensity that produced a significant z-scored
response.
300
Stimulus decoding
We trained a multinomial logistic regression classifier to decode stimulus identity (either pure tone
frequency at 80 dB SPL or white noise intensity) on a trial-by-trial basis. All neurons were pooled
across mice for each exposure and day condition. Using 5-fold cross-validation, the classifier was
trained on the mean evoked activity (0 - 500 ms following sound onset) from 200 randomly-
selected neurons. Decoding accuracy was quantified as the fraction of correctly classified trials in
the held-out test set. Because the full dataset contained between 562 to 2687 neurons per
condition, we repeated this decoding procedure 2000 times, each time resampling (with
replacement) a new population of 200 neurons. This resampling strategy ensures that decoding
accuracy estimates were not biased by group size differences. We then calculated the mean and
standard deviation of the resultant decoding accuracy distribution for each exposure/day
condition. P values were computed explicitly from the bootstrapped distributions of decoding
accuracies (Day and Delgutte, 2016).
314
315 **Image processing**
316 Image captioning for Figure 1C was performed using Qcapture (QImaging). All images were
317 imported and processed using ImageJ (https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/).
318
Statistics
For statistical comparisons between two independent groups that passed the Shapiro-Wilk test
for normality, we used unpaired t-tests. For non-normally distributed data, Mann-Whitney U (rank-
sum) tests were used. Comparisons involving more than two groups were assessed using N-way
ANOVAs, with appropriate corrections for multiple comparisons. For correlation analyses, we
calculated Spearman's rank correlation coefficient (rho). Significance levels are denoted as:
$*P < 0.05$, $**P < 0.01$, $***P < 0.001$, $****P < 0.0001$. All group data are presented as mean ± SEM
unless otherwise specified. See Tables 1 and 2 for detailed statistical values and test results.
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Results
To induce a stereotyped hearing loss, we followed standard approaches (see Methods) and
exposed mice to 8-16 kHz broadband noise at 116 dB SPL for 1 hour (noise-exposed, NE). As a
control, a separate cohort of littermate mice was sham-exposed (SE) using identical procedures,
but without noise presentation. To assess hearing thresholds pre and post NE or SE (-1d, 1d, and
7d), we measured auditory brainstem responses (ABRs) (**Figure S1A-H**), which reflect the
synchronous activity of auditory nuclei, from the auditory nerve (wave I) to the inferior colliculus
(wave V) (**Figure S1I**). Following NE, we observed significantly elevated ABR thresholds and
reduced wave I amplitudes both 1d (**Figure S1A-I**) and 7d (**Figure S2A-H**) after NE, across all
tested frequencies. In contrast, ABR thresholds and wave I amplitudes were unchanged in SE
mice (**Figure S1A-I**). Together, these data confirm that our NE protocol produces a persistent
hearing threshold shift lasting at least one week.
341
Transient shift in TC synaptic strength from CT and ET equivalent to CT dominant one day
after NE
Communication between ACtx and the auditory thalamus, the MGB, is mediated by reciprocally
connected corticothalamic (CT) and thalamocortical (TC) pathways. TC neurons in the MGB
provide strong input to ACtx, innervating both ETs and CTs (Hooks et al., 2013; Yamawaki and

Shepherd, 2015). However, the impact of NIHL on TC synaptic strength onto these two projection
neuron populations remains unknown.
349
To address this question, we performed dual recordings from ETs and CTs within the same brain
slice while photoactivating TC axons. This recording configuration enabled us to calculate the
ratio of synaptic strength at TC→CT versus TC→ET synapses (the CT/ET ratio) under identical
experimental conditions. Although comparing absolute EPSC amplitudes with optogenetic
recordings is not ideal due to variability in viral infection efficiency per mouse/brain area, the dual
recording approach of the CT/ET ratio is well-suited for detecting relative, noise-induced changes
in TC input strength between CTs and ETs.
357
To study TC→CT and TC→ET synapses, we drove expression of channelrhodopsin-2 (ChR2) in
CAMKII-expressing MGB neurons by injecting AAV-CaMKII-ChR2-YFP into the MGB (**Figure 1A-**
C, see Methods). To stimulate ChR2-expressing TC axons, we used a collimated blue LED light
source directed through a diaphragm and a 40x microscope objective lens. Monosynaptic photo-
evoked AMPA receptor (AMPAR)-mediated EPSCs were recorded simultaneously from vertically
aligned ETs (green) and CTs (red) (**Figure 1A-C**). To selectively label ETs and delineate ACtx
boundaries, we injected green fluorescent microspheres (retrobeads) into the right inferior
colliculus (IC, **Figure 1A, and 1C, middle**) (Joshi et al., 2015; Joshi et al., 2016). To selectively
label CTs, we injected Ntsr1-Cre transgenic mice, which selectively express Cre-recombinase in
CTs, with AAV-FLEX-tdTomato (**Figure 1C, right**). All electrophysiological experiments were
performed in the presence of TTX to block action potentials, and 4-AP to enhance presynaptic
depolarization (see Methods). Because CT dendrites are primarily restricted to the deep cortical
layers, photostimulation was confined to L5-6 (**Figure 1B**).
371
One day after NE, we observed a dramatic shift in TC input from equivalent (CT/ET ratio ~ 1) to
CT dominant (CT/ET ratio > 5) (two-way ANOVA, main effect for exposure, F = 5.44, p = 0.02;
main effect for day, F = 2.25, p = 0.14). By 7d post-exposure, TC input had recovered to a
balanced state, with equivalent excitation of CTs and ETs (**Figure 1D, F**). Together, these results
indicate that NIHL transiently enhances thalamic excitation of CTs relative to ETs, which recovers
7d after NE.
378
Transient increase in the *q* on TC→CT synapses 1 day after NE
To understand the mechanisms underlying the shift toward greater relative thalamic excitation of
CTs relative to ETs, we next examined the synaptic properties of TC→CT and TC→ET synapses,
as well as the intrinsic excitability of CTs and ETs following NE. Because these recordings were
performed in the presence of TTX and 4-AP, and the ChR2 activation directly depolarized
presynaptic terminals, the probability of release (*p*) was likely saturated at all synapses (*n*). We
therefore chose to assess the quantal size (*q*), first, in TC→CT synapses.
386
To evaluate the amplitude of quantal events, we replaced calcium (Ca^{2+}) with strontium (Sr^{2+}) in
the bath solution (**Figure 2A-D**). Sr^{2+} desynchronizes evoked neurotransmitter release, allowing
the analysis of quantal events originating from the stimulated synapses (**Figure 2A-D**) (Oliet et
al., 1996; Kouvaros et al., 2020). Following maximal photostimulation of L5-6, we observed a
significant increase in the average amplitude of quantal events at TC→CT synapses 1d after NE
(unpaired t-test, p = 0.04; **Figure 2A-B**), which recovered by 7d after NE (unpaired t-test, p =
0.68; **Figure 2C-D**). This increase in *q* likely reflects enhanced synaptic strength at TC→CT
synapses, either due to postsynaptic changes or changes in vesicle content. Consistent with
these findings, we also found that average TC→CT EPSC amplitudes, elicited by L5-6
photostimulation, were significantly enhanced 1d after NE compared to SE (Mann-Whitney U test,

p = 0.004; **Figure 2E-F**), which then recovered by 7d (unpaired t-test, p = 0.94; **Figure 2G-H**).
Together, these results suggest that an increase in q at TC→CT synapses contribute to the
greater relative thalamic excitation in TC→CT compared to TC→ET after NE.
400
Transient increase in CT suprathreshold intrinsic excitability one day after NE
Next, we investigated the effect of NE on CT intrinsic excitability. Neither input resistance (R_{input})
nor action potential width or threshold (AP_{width}, AP_{thres}) changed at either 1d or 7d after NE (**Figure**
3A, C-D). However, the resting membrane potential (V_{rest}) was significantly more hyperpolarized
1d after NE (two-way ANOVA, main effect for exposure, F = 19.81, p < 0.0001; main effect for
day, F = 9.40, p = 0.003; exposure x day interaction, F = 6.91, p = 0.01; **Figure 3B**). We also
observed a significant difference in the V_{rest} of SE mice between 1d and 7d (two-way ANOVA,
Bonferroni corrected for multiple comparisons, p = 0.0007). However, this difference does not
impact the main conclusions of the study, which are based on comparisons between well-
controlled SE and NE groups. When we evaluated suprathreshold excitability, we found that CTs
displayed a significant increase in overall firing frequency in response to depolarization (two-way
ANOVA, main effect for exposure, F = 9.45, p = 0.004; exposure x current steps interaction, F =
3.82, p < 0.0001; **Figure 3E-F**), suggesting an increased suprathreshold excitability of CTs
concurrent with increased TC→CT input 1d after NE. There were no differences in CT intrinsic
suprathreshold excitability between SE and NE mice 7d after exposure (two-way ANOVA, main
effect for exposure, F = 2.64, p = 0.11; exposure x current steps interaction, F = 0.91, p = 0.52;
Figures 3G-H). Taken together, these results suggest that despite a transient hyperpolarization
of V_{rest} after NE, a combination of intrinsic and synaptic mechanisms that increase TC→CT
synaptic strength and CT suprathreshold excitability likely contribute to the shift of TC input from
equivalent between CT and ET to CT dominant 1d after NE.
421
No changes in the q of TC→ET synapses after NE
We next assessed TC→ET synapses using a similar electrophysiological approach as described
for TC→CT synapses (**Figure 2**). We found no significant changes in q at either 1d or 7d following
NE (1d, Mann-Whitney U test, p = 0.64; 7d, Mann-Whitney U test, p > 0.9999; **Figure 4A-D**).
However, the average TC→ET EPSC amplitudes were significantly reduced 1d after NE
compared to SE (two-way ANOVA, main effect for exposure, F = 8.32, p = 0.005; main effect for
day, F = 0.05, p = 0.82; exposure x day interaction, F = 4.97, p = 0.03; **Figure 4E-F**). This
reduction was recovered by 7d post NE (**Figure 4E,F**). Given that p is likely saturated in TC→ET
synapses, and q remained unchanged, the reduction in L5-6 TC→ET EPSCs likely reflects a
decrease in n. Alternatively, this result may be influenced by the inherent limitations of our
experimental setup, particularly variability in AAV infection efficiency across mice and brain areas,
which can complicate interpretation of synaptic strength (see Discussion).
434
Because ETs have extensive dendritic arbors throughout the cortical column, and TC projections
to ETs span several cortical layers (Harris and Shepherd, 2015; Ji et al., 2016), we also evaluated
TC→ET EPSCs elicited after photostimulating L1-4 (L1-4 TC EPSCs) . No significant differences
were observed at either 1d or 7d after NE (two-way ANOVA, main effect for exposure, F = 1.88,
p = 0.18; main effect for day, F = 1.43, p = 0.24; exposure x day interaction, F = 3.35, p = 0.08;
Figure 4G-H). Together, these findings support a cell-type-specific increase in q at TC→CT
synapses, which likely contributes to the enhanced thalamic excitation onto CTs relative to ETs
1d after NE. Additionally, our results suggest that the observed increase in the CT/ET ratio is likely
influenced by the reduction in TC→ET EPSC amplitude **(Figure 4E)**, although the absolute
magnitude of this decrease should be interpreted with caution due to the limitations of our
optogenetic stimulation approach (see Discussion).

446
No changes in ET intrinsic excitability after NE
After establishing that NIHL differentially affects TC input onto ETs versus CTs, we next examined whether NE also alters the intrinsic excitability of these neurons in a cell-type-specific manner. R_{input}, V_{rest}, AP_{width}, $AP_{threshold}$, and firing frequency-current (F-I) functions were unchanged at both 1d and 7d post NE in ETs (**Figure 5A-H**). This finding supports cell-type-specific intrinsic plasticity in deep layer neurons after NIHL, whereby ETs remain intrinsically stable while CTs exhibit a transient decrease in subthreshold excitability and a transient increase in suprathreshold excitability.

Changes in CT sound response properties persist 7 days after NE
To examine the consequences of NIHL in ET and CT sound response properties, we recorded the sound-evoked activity of neural populations using two-photon (2P) calcium imaging. This technique allowed us to longitudinally image the same populations of genetically defined cell-types across time before and after noise exposure and characterize changes in sound response properties. Head-fixed, awake mice passively listened to auditory stimuli, and we recorded responses one day prior to exposure (-1d), then again one and seven days after exposure (1d and 7d), matching our previous electrophysiological studies. We selectively expressed GCaMP6s in CTs to examine how CT responses to sounds change following NE (**Figure 6A**, see Methods). We imaged a total of 4943 CTs across 8 unique fields of view in SE mice (-1d: 1649 neurons; 1d: 1681 neurons; 7d: 1613 neurons) and 7731 CTs across 14 unique fields of view in NE mice (-1d: 2687 neurons; 1d: 2546 neurons; 7d: 2498 neurons). We then determined which neurons were significantly active during sound presentation and used these sound-responsive neurons for all subsequent analyses (see Methods).

We first examined frequency responses by presenting pure tones of varying frequencies (4-45 kHz in 0.5 octave steps) and intensities (20-80 dB SPL in 20 dB SPL steps; **Figure S3B**). Averaging across intensity, we initially observed that CTs exhibited unstable frequency encoding, as evidenced by fluctuations in average pure tone responses in SE animals (two-way ANOVA, main effect for day, F = 0.66, p = 0.52; frequency × day interaction, F = 3.68, p < 0.0001; **Figure 6B**). Nevertheless, we observed strong changes in CT sound responses following NE (two-way ANOVA, main effect for day, F = 11.62, p < 0.0001; frequency × day interaction, F = 2.78, p = 0.0004; **Figure 6C**). CTs exhibited increased population responses to low frequency sounds (4-11 kHz) 7 days after NE. Next, we compared average population tuning curves by aligning activity to each neuron's best frequency (BF) and comparing these aligned tuning curves across days. Frequency tuning curves remained stable in SE mice (two-way ANOVA, main effect for day, F = 0.52, p = 0.59; frequency × day interaction, F = 0.81, p = 0.67; **Figure 6D**). NE induced a slight but significant increase in responses 0.5 octaves below BF (two-way ANOVA, main effect for day, F = 9.36, p < 0.0001; frequency × day interaction, F = 0.52, p = 0.94; **Figure 6E**). To investigate if individual neurons altered their tuning preferences following noise exposure, we matched the same cells across days and quantified changes in BF compared to baseline on day -1. While not significant, CTs displayed a trend to decrease BF following NE (two-way ANOVA, main effect for exposure, F = 1.00, p = 0.32; main effect for day, F = 1.14, p = 0.32; frequency × day interaction, F = 1.33, p = 0.27; **Figure 6F**). To examine how these changes in frequency responses impacted population encoding, we used a multinomial logistic regression model to predict stimulus frequency from neural activity. Decoding frequency identity from CT activity did not reveal any effect of noise exposure on population-level encoding (**Figure 6G**). Together, these results suggest that noise exposure does not profoundly change CT frequency tuning.

We next examined intensity tuning by presenting broadband noise bursts between 20-80 dB SPL (in 10 dB SPL steps). As with pure tone responses, CTs showed subtle changes in broadband

noise responses following SE (two-way ANOVA, main effect for day, F = 3.54, p = 0.03;
frequency × day interaction, F = 2.51, p = 0.003; **Figure 6H**). In contrast, there was a marked
decrease in intensity responses following NE (two-way ANOVA, main effect for day, F = 13.87, p
< 0.0001; frequency × day interaction, F = 5.45, p < 0.0001; **Figure 6I**). Specifically, CTs exhibited
decreased activity in response to low intensity noise (< 60 dB SPL) following NE, which did not
recover by 7d. There was also a slight but significant increase in responses to 80 dB SPL noise
7d after NE. Consequently, NE led to a significant increase in intensity thresholds (two-way
ANOVA, main effect for exposure, F = 14.75, p = 0.0002; main effect for day, F = 4.165, p = 0.02;
frequency × day interaction, F = 4.94, p = 0.008; **Figure 6J**). This was also evident when looking
at the absolute intensity thresholds (**Figure S4A**). Despite these changes, decoding analyses did
not reveal any significant changes in population encoding (**Figure 6K**). Together, this suggests
that noise exposure leads to decreased sensitivity in CTs to low intensity noise that does not
recover within a week.
510
Transient changes in ET sound response properties 1 day after NE
We next examined the activity of ETs through selective expression of GCaMP6s (**Figure 7A**, see
Methods). We imaged a total of 2337 ETs across 9 unique fields of view in 5 SE mice (-1d: 705
neurons; 1d: 820 neurons; 7d: 812 neurons) and 1703 ET neurons across 8 unique fields of view
in 4 NE mice (-1d: 562 neurons; 1d: 565 neurons; 7d: 576 neurons). As before, only neurons that
were significantly active during sound presentation were used for subsequent analyses.
517
We found that the average population responses to pure tones remained unchanged in SE mice
(two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), main effect for day, F = 0.68, p = 0.51; frequency × day
interaction, F = 1.03, p = 0.41; **Figure 7B**). In contrast, NE led to a shift in the representation of
frequencies across the ET population (two-way ANOVA, main effect for day, F = 19.35,
p < 0.0001; frequency × day interaction, F = 1.93, p = 0.02; **Figure 7C**). 1d after NE, the average
response to 23 kHz pure tones significantly decreased compared to baseline. This reduction in
activity then recovered to baseline levels by 7d and was accompanied by a significant increase in
response to lower frequency sounds (11-16 kHz). BF-aligned tuning curves were consistent
across days in SE mice (two-way ANOVA, main effect for day, F = 0.58, p = 0.56; frequency × day
interaction, F = 0.58, p = 0.90; **Figure 7D**). Conversely, NE led to significant changes in the
average tuning curves (two-way ANOVA, main effect for day, F = 12.03, p < 0.0001;
frequency × day interaction, F = 1.84, p = 0.02; **Figure 7E**). Specifically, 7d after NE, ETs
increased the magnitude of their responses at, and one octave below, BF. This was accompanied
by a significant decrease in BF itself on day 1 which then recovered by day 7 in NE animals (two-
way ANOVA, main effect for exposure, F = 17.67, p < 0.0001; main effect for day, F = 2.23, p =
0.11; exposure × day interaction, F = 11.34, p < 0.0001; **Figure 7F**). Frequency decoding revealed
that SE populations exhibited stable predictive accuracy across days, while NE led to a significant
decrease in accuracy 1d after NE and a subsequent recovery 7d after NE (**Figure 7G**). These
findings suggest that one day following NE, ETs reduce their activity at high frequencies and
consequently shift to lower BFs, decreasing the ability to accurately decode stimuli from
population activity. These perturbations then return to baseline seven days after NE.
539
We next examined whether ET intensity tuning changed following NE. As expected, noise
responses were similar across days in SE mice (two-way ANOVA, main effect for day, F = 0.20,
p = 0.82; intensity × day interaction, F = 0.94, p = 0.50; **Figure 7H**). We observed that NE led to
significant changes in intensity responses (two-way ANOVA, main effect for day, F = 8.01, p =
0.0003; frequency × day interaction, F = 2.90, p = 0.0005; **Figure 7I**). 1d after NE, ETs displayed
a loss of responses to low intensities (< 50 dB SPL) and a reduction in responses at higher
intensities. On 7d, responses partially recovered but remained below baseline for 70 dB SPL. We
then quantified changes in single neuron intensity thresholds with cells matched across imaging

days (two-way ANOVA, main effect for exposure, F = 11.23, p = 0.0009; main effect for day, F = 6.56, p = 0.002; exposure × day interaction, F = 3.496, p = 0.03; **Figure 7J**). 1d after NE, ETs displayed an increased threshold which reverted to baseline by 7d. This recovery was also evident when looking at the absolute intensity thresholds (**Figure S4D**). We also observed a threshold decrease 7d after SE, driven by a slightly higher threshold prior to exposure. Finally, we decoded sound intensity from population activity using multinomial logistic regression. Similar to our frequency decoding findings, we found that decoding accuracy transiently decreased 1d following NE (**Figure 7K**). Together, these findings suggest that ETs recover from transient changes in tuning to both frequency and intensity following noise exposure.

Changes in synaptic, intrinsic, and sound response properties correlate with hearing loss severity

To address whether the degree of neural plasticity was tied to the extent of hearing loss or recovery in individual animals, we correlated each animal's ABR click threshold shift with the magnitude of the synaptic, intrinsic, and sound response changes. We found that many of the measured plastic changes scaled significantly with trauma severity (**Figure 8**). In particular, the relative strengthening of TC input to CTs was more pronounced in animals with greater hearing loss: the CT/ET EPSC ratio was positively correlated with ABR threshold shift (**Figure 8A**; Spearman's ρ = 0.46, p = 0.002). The average L5-6 TC→CT q and EPSC amplitude increased with worsening ABR thresholds (**Figure 8B-C**; ρ = 0.34, p = 0.03), whereas TC→ET EPSCs were inversely related to hearing status (**Figure 8D**; ρ = –0.36, p = 0.02), further supporting both an enhanced synaptic TC drive onto CTs and a diminished TC drive onto ETs in mice with more severe hearing loss. In line with these synaptic effects, the intrinsic properties of CTs also covaried with hearing loss: animals with larger ABR threshold shifts had more hyperpolarized CT resting potentials (**Figure 8E**; ρ = –0.51, p = 0.002). We also noted that the increase in CT firing showed an overall positive trend with ABR shift (**Figure 8F**; max firing frequency; ρ = 0.31, p = 0.08), although this did not reach significance, likely due to the limited sample size for this measure, which is a general limitation for these correlations. Alternatively, this result could suggest that suprathreshold excitability changes occurred uniformly after trauma rather than scaling with severity of hearing loss.

We next asked whether the *in vivo* sound responses were related to the degree of hearing loss or recovery across animals. One day after exposure, the elevation in CT neuronal threshold (Δ intensity threshold) was positively correlated with ABR shift (**Figure 8G**; ρ = 0.32, p = 0.01). Animals with persistently high ABR thresholds retained larger CT threshold elevations 7d post exposure (**Figure 8H**; ρ = 0.31, p = 0.02). The transient threshold shift observed in ETs one day after exposure also scaled with hearing loss (**Figure 8I**; ρ = 0.23, p = 0.03). In contrast, ETs no longer showed a correlation by 7 days (**Figure 8J**; ρ = 0.07, p = 0.47), consistent with their response properties largely recovering despite the sustained peripheral deficit. Thus, inter-animal variability in both synaptic and sensory response plasticity generally tracked the severity of noise-induced hearing loss, whereas the rapid recovery of the ET projection by 7 days occurred regardless of residual hearing impairment.

Discussion

Our findings provide new insights into the cellular and circuit mechanisms underlying the cortical plasticity of deep-layer neurons in the auditory cortex (ACtx) following noise-induced hearing loss (NIHL). We identified distinct changes in the synaptic, intrinsic, and sound response properties of L5 extratelencephalic (ET) and L6 corticothalamic (CT) neurons. One day after NIHL, thalamocortical input was temporarily reweighted to favor CTs over ETs. We hypothesize that this transient shift in relative thalamic drive acts as a compensatory mechanism to preserve auditory signaling following peripheral damage. Overall, the cell-type-specific plasticity observed in ETs

599 and CTs advances our understanding of how ACtx adapts to cochlear injury and preserves
600 hearing function post-NIHL.
601
Enhanced thalamocortical input and intrinsic excitability in L6 CT neurons after NIHL
CTs form reciprocal and nonreciprocal feedback loops with the thalamus to modulate TC activity
through gain control and temporal filtering (Llano and Sherman, 2008; Olsen et al., 2012; Mease
et al., 2014; Guo et al., 2017; Clayton et al., 2021; Ibrahim et al., 2021). Optogenetic experiments
revealed a selective enhancement of TC input to CTs one day after NE. In simultaneous
recordings of neighboring CTs and ETs, CTs received significantly stronger excitation from
thalamic afferents compared to ETs one day after NE (**Figure 1**). Although our optogenetic
approach could be influenced by variability in viral infection and a likely saturation of release
probability under our recording conditions (**Figure 2E-H**, **Figure 4E-H**), the within-animal
comparison between CTs and ETs effectively controls for the variability in viral infection.
Importantly, quantal analysis, which permits comparison of synaptic strength across different
animals and brain slices, also showed an increased quantal amplitude (*q*) at thalamocortical
synapses onto CTs (**Figure 2A-D**), supporting a genuine upregulation of thalamocortical quantal
synaptic strength onto CT circuits after noise trauma.
616
In parallel with these synaptic changes, CTs became intrinsically more excitable one day after
NIHL, especially for suprathreshold stimuli (**Figure 3E-F**). The combination of enhanced synaptic
excitation and intrinsic excitability suggests that CTs are poised to fire more readily in response
to thalamic input following trauma. Such rapid strengthening of CT excitability likely represents an
early homeostatic adjustment aimed at preserving cortical activity levels despite reduced cochlear
input. Because CTs provide feedback to both the lemniscal (primary) and non-lemniscal auditory
thalamus, their increased excitability could boost the overall gain of thalamocortical transmission
and stabilize network activity across multiple circuits. This fast CT upregulation may be a
compensatory mechanism to enhance perceptual processing after NIHL, potentially through
improved sensory gain control and/or multisensory/contextual modulation (Jones, 1998, 2001;
Super et al., 2001; Llinas et al., 2005; Larkum, 2013).
628
Persistent reduction in low-intensity sound responses of L6 CT neurons
Despite the overall increase in excitability of CTs, we observed a paradoxical reduction in their
responsiveness to low intensity sounds following NIHL. One day after NIHL, CTs responded
weakly to near-threshold tones, as shown by sound-evoked measurements *in vivo* (**Figure 6H-**
K). This loss of sensitivity to faint sounds persisted one week after NIHL and cannot be explained
by the enhanced thalamocortical input or intrinsic excitability described above (which would
predict an increase in firing). One potential contributing factor is the slight hyperpolarization of CT
V_{rest} observed one day after NIHL (**Figure 3B**), which could raise the spiking threshold. However,
this intrinsic change is likely not the main cause, because by 7 days post-NIHL V_{rest} had returned
to baseline, yet their low-intensity sound responses remained reduced. It is possible that changes
in intracortical excitation or inhibition onto CTs may be selectively gating out weaker inputs after
trauma. It is possible, for example, that CTs received enhanced feedforward inhibition or that their
spike timing was altered *in vivo* in a way that requires a stronger synchronized input to elicit firing.
Although we did not directly measure changes in L6 inhibitory circuits, any increase in local
inhibition would further limit CT activity in response to weak stimuli, counterbalancing their higher
intrinsic and thalamus-driven excitability.
645
Why might ACtx suppress responses to low intensity sounds after NIHL? One interpretation is
that the auditory system is trading off raw sensitivity for reliability. By raising the threshold for ACtx
responses to soft inputs, the system could avoid spurious firing to unreliable background noise.
This idea is consistent with the notion that CT feedback circuits help resolve competing demands

of sound detection vs. discrimination (Olsen et al., 2012; Guo et al., 2017; Ibrahim et al., 2021).
This nuanced plasticity in CTs, whereby global excitability increases but responsiveness to weak
inputs decreases, potentially optimizes the signal-to-noise ratio of auditory cortical output after
NIHL.
654
655 **Minimal thalamocortical and intrinsic changes with transient retuning in L5 ET neurons**
656 **after NIHL**
657 In contrast to CTs, ETs exhibited relatively minimal changes in their intrinsic and synaptic
658 properties after NIHL. We observed no significant alterations in ETs' intrinsic excitability at either
659 1 day or 7 days post-NIHL (**Figure 5**), consistent with previous studies (Nogueira et al., 2023).
660
While the quantal amplitude (q) of thalamocortical synapses onto ETs remained unaltered
(**Figure 4A–D**), the most notable early synaptic effect on ETs was a transient reduction in overall
thalamic drive observed one day post-NIHL (**Figure 4E–F**). Optogenetic EPSCs recorded from
ETs were smaller at one day post-NIHL, which might indicate a decrease in the number of
functional thalamic release sites (n), given the likely saturated probability of release during our
recordings. We acknowledge that our optical stimulation approach has limitations (including
variability in viral transduction and possible saturation of release probability), so the absolute
magnitude of this reduction should be interpreted cautiously. Nevertheless, by 7 days post-NIHL
the thalamocortical input to ETs had recovered (**Figure 4E, F**), and the balance of thalamic drive
between CTs and ETs returned to near pre-NIHL levels. The early drop in ET input is thus best
viewed as a short-term adjustment, likely contributing to the shift we saw toward CT-dominant
thalamic excitation one day after noise trauma. Importantly, even at its weakest point, some
thalamic input to ETs was preserved, allowing these neurons to continue participating in cortical
processing during the acute phase after NIHL.
675
Although ETs showed little change in their excitability, they did undergo a rapid shift in sound-
evoked tuning after NIHL. One day post-NIHL, ETs became less responsive to high-frequency
tones (**Figure 7**). To compensate for this loss, ETs increased their gain 7d after NE. As a result,
ETs recovered their frequency tuning (**Figure 7F**) but conversely responded proportionally more
to lower-frequency inputs that were spared by the trauma (**Figure 7C,E**). Furthermore, ET
population encoding largely returned to baseline (**Figure 7G,K**), coinciding with the recovery of
thalamocortical input strength to ETs (**Figure 4E-F**). Such transient retuning and lasting gain
enhancement likely helps the animal continue to perceive sounds in the frequency ranges that
remain intact, thereby partially compensating for the loss at damaged frequencies.
685
Given the minimal intrinsic and postsynaptic changes in ETs, this reorganization is likely mediated
by enhanced excitatory and/or decreased inhibitory intracortical inputs; however, our studies did
not study these inputs. ETs are major sources of corticofugal projections to subcortical structures;
thus, maintaining their sound-evoked activity may ensure continued engagement and/or trigger
plasticity in downstream targets like the MGB and the inferior colliculus (IC) during the acute post-
trauma period. This is supported by related findings that corticofugal outputs from L5 neurons
become hyperactive after cochlear injury (Asokan et al., 2018). This sustained potentiation is
thought to underlie network hyperexcitability and reorganization in the aftermath of hearing loss.
Thus, the transient bias of ETs toward lower-frequency responsiveness in our study may reflect
a functional routing of cortical drive to preserve auditory throughput to the thalamus and midbrain.
696
A caveat in our approach is that we identified ETs and CTs using different labeling strategies
(retrobead tracing versus Cre-dependent viral tagging). Retrobeads remain sequestered in
vesicles and are designed to be inert, causing minimal if any impact on neuronal health (Katz and
Iarovici, 1990). Similarly, AAV labeling yields long-term fluorescent protein expression with low

toxicity and negligible effect on neuronal physiology at the doses used. Indeed, both approaches
are widely used, often together, and are not known to alter intrinsic excitability or synaptic function
(Joshi et al., 2015; Yamawaki and Shepherd, 2015; Joshi et al., 2016; Lur et al., 2016; Yamawaki
et al., 2021; Kouvaros et al., 2023). Moreover, any subtle labeling-related effects (e.g., mild
immune activation from viral infection) would be expected to affect sham- and noise-exposed
groups equally and are therefore unlikely to confound the main conclusions of our study.
707
Layer-specific adaptive strategies in ACtx after NIHL
Our study of deep-layer ETs and CTs complements and extends recent research on plasticity in
superficial layers of ACtx (Chambers et al., 2016; Resnik and Polley, 2017, 2021; Kumar et al.,
2023), revealing a layer-specific pattern of adaptation after NIHL. Recent results showed that L2/3
interneurons exhibit cell-type-specific plastic changes following NIHL, with different subclasses of
inhibitory neurons showing distinct time courses and levels of recovery (Resnik and Polley, 2021;
Kumar et al., 2023) . Such findings underscore that each cortical layer (and cell-type) may deploy
unique mechanisms to cope with degraded sensory input. In superficial layers, the priority may
be maintaining local network stability and gain control. Adjustments in L2/3 circuits (especially
among inhibitory interneurons) likely serve to enhance principal neuron gain while preventing
hyperexcitability when thalamic input is reduced or imbalanced (Kumar et al., 2023). Although our
study focused on plasticity in the deeper layers, we did not directly examine GABAergic
interneuron changes. However, it is likely that the infragranular adaptations we observed are
modulated by the alterations in inhibition occurring in supragranular layers. One potential
mechanism is through cortical disinhibition: supragranular vasoactive intestinal peptide (VIP)
interneurons, which become hyperactive post-trauma (Kumar et al., 2023), inhibit parvalbumin
(PV) interneurons across layers (Letzkus et al., 2011; Pfeffer et al., 2013; Kullander and Topolnik,
2021), including those that normally target the apical dendrites of infragranular pyramidal cells.
Thus, a reduction in PV activity after trauma would release deep-layer neurons from dendritic
inhibition, allowing them to respond more strongly.
728
On the other hand, ETs and CTs engage in plasticity that appears geared toward preserving
output and driving broader compensatory changes. These projection neurons are the main
conduits of cortical influence on subcortical structures (ETs projecting to the thalamus, midbrain,
and other sub-cortical centers, CTs projecting exclusively to the thalamus). The plastic changes
in deep layers, such as enhanced CT excitability and transient ET retuning, suggest that deep-
layer circuits are working to propagate adaptive signals throughout the auditory pathway and
perhaps trigger plasticity in lemniscal, non-lemniscal, and even multisensory pathways. For
instance, the rapid CT plasticity might initiate compensatory adjustments in thalamic relay
neurons or even in other cortical areas by altering the feedback they provide to the MGB. Similarly,
stable firing in ETs ensures that activity continues to flow to multiple subcortical centers, which
could drive plastic reweighting or gain changes.
740
Complementary roles of ET and CT plasticity after NIHL
Viewed together, the divergent changes in ETs and CTs represent complementary adaptations
that serve the shared goal of maintaining auditory function after NIHL. CTs, with their
strengthened thalamic inputs and heightened intrinsic excitability, primarily contribute to
normalizing cortical activity and refining sensory processing. By increasing the gain of
thalamocortical transmission, CTs amplify the cortical representation of incoming sounds, which
can compensate for reduced peripheral input. At the same time, our data suggest that CT circuits
impose a stricter threshold for low-intensity inputs thereby filtering out noise and enhancing the
discrimination of important signals. This dual action of CT plasticity (boosting overall
responsiveness while gating insignificant inputs) aligns with models in which cortical feedback
optimizes the trade-off between detection and discrimination (Olsen et al., 2012; Guo et al., 2017;

Ibrahim et al., 2021). In practical terms, the CT pathway may be elevating the "signal" and
suppressing the "noise": it reduces spurious activity to trivial stimuli (or spontaneous activity from
a damaged cochlea) and ensures that meaningful auditory cues still evoke strong cortical
responses. Such a mechanism would preserve perceptual stability and potentially improve
functions like speech understanding in noisy environments.
757
ETs likely ensure that the overall drive to subcortical auditory structures is maintained. Even
though ETs did not markedly change their own excitability, their transient shift to favor
responsiveness to lower frequency sounds and the putative recruitment of intracortical inputs
allow them to continue sending signals to downstream nuclei. By preserving ET activity, the ACtx
guarantees that key downstream centers remain engaged and active during the critical period
after injury. ET circuits provide a broad corticofugal output and are crucial for high-level cognitive
processes, acoustic-motor behaviors, and auditory plasticity (Bajo et al., 2010; Li et al., 2021;
Souffi et al., 2021; Lesicko and Geffen, 2022). Thus, this sustained subcortical drive could itself
trigger adaptive plasticity in those centers.
767
768 It should be noted that although these mechanisms are aimed at preserving hearing function after
769 cochlear damage, they operate on a delicate balance. Even within ostensibly
770 homeostatic/compensatory changes, there is a risk of overcompensation, hyperactivity and
771 thalamocortical dysrhythmia, which can contribute to disorders like tinnitus and hyperacusis
772 (Llinas et al., 2005; Henton and Tzounopoulos, 2021; Smith et al., 2025)
773
In conclusion, our work reveals cell-type-specific plasticity in ACtx ETs and CTs following noise
trauma. The observed changes in synaptic strength, intrinsic properties, and sound response
tuning suggest a coordinated adaptive response aimed at preserving auditory function directly or
via triggering adaptive plasticity in MGB and the ACtx. These findings contribute to a broader
understanding of cortical plasticity in sensory processing and may inform therapeutic strategies
for enhancing recovery from hearing loss and mitigating hearing loss-related disorders, such as
tinnitus and hyperacusis.
781

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Figure Legends

Figure 1. Transient shift in TC synaptic strength from CT and ET equivalent to CT dominant one day after NE.

(A) Schematic illustration of stereotaxic injections of retrograde microspheres to label L5 extratelencephalic neurons (ETs, green), and viral vectors (AAVs) for expression of ChR2 in thalamocortical (TC) inputs and tdTomato in L6 corticothalamic neurons (CTs, red) in Ntsr1-Cre mice.

(B) Schematic illustration of slice electrophysiology experiment involving photostimulation of ChR2 expressing TC afferents and simultaneous (dual) recording from an ET (green) and a CT (red).

(C) Images in 4X magnification showing the extent of ACtx area in bright-field (left), green-labeled ETs and TC axons (middle) and red-labeled CTs.

(D) Average CT/ET EPSC ratio after optogenetically stimulating thalamic L5-6 input 1d and 7d after SE and NE. (1d SE: 18 cells/6 mice; 1d NE: 26 cells/9 mice; 7d SE: 10 cells/6 mice; 7d NE: 10 cells/6 mice). Asterisks indicate significant differences (***$p<0.001$, two-way ANOVA and Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons).

(E, F) Representative traces of EPSCs in dual recordings from both CT (solid line) and ET (dotted line) neurons evoked by maximal photostimulation of L5-6 thalamocortical inputs in 1d SE (E, left) and 1d NE (E, right); 7d SE (F, left) and 7d NE (F, right). Different colored traces represent different pairs of simultaneously recorded CTs and ETs.

Detailed statistical values are listed in Table 1.

Figure 2. Transient increase in the q of TC→CT synapses 1 day after NE.
(A, C) Average amplitude of light-evoked quantal EPSCs (Sr^{2+}-mEPSCs) in CTs in response to L5-6 thalamocortical maximal photostimulation in 1d (A) and 7d (C), post SE (black) and NE (red) mice (1d SE: 7 cells/3 mice; 1d NE: 6 cells/3 mice; 7d SE: 5 cells/2 mice; 7d NE: 6 cells/2 mice). Asterisks indicate significant differences (*p<0.05, unpaired t-test).
(B, D) Representative Sr^{2+}-mEPSCs traces (top left) and representative average traces of quantal Sr^{2+}-mEPSCs traces (top right). Amplitude histogram of events before (background noise) and after stimulation from the same cell (bottom) in 1d (B) and 7d (D) after SE (black) and NE (red) mice. The arrowhead indicates the onset of light stimulus. The dotted line indicates 400ms time window before stimulus (pre-LED). The solid line represents a 400ms time window, which started 100 ms after the stimulus (post-LED) and was used to analyze the amplitude of Sr^{2+}-mEPSCs (1d SE: 7 cells/3 mice; 1d NE: 6 cells/3 mice; 7d SE: 5 cells/2 mice; 7d NE: 6 cells/2 mice).
(E, G) Summary graph of the average CT EPSC amplitudes in response to L5-6 thalamocortical maximal photostimulation in 1d (E) and 7d (G) SE (black) and NE (red). (1d SE: 18 cells/6 mice; 1d NE: 26 cells/9 mice; 7d SE: 10 cells/6 mice; 7d NE: 10 cells/6 mice). Asterisks indicate significant differences (**p<0.01, Mann-Whitney U test).
(F, H) Representative traces of L6 CT EPSCs in response to L5-6 thalamocortical maximal photostimulation in 1d SE (F, black line) and 1d NE (F, red line) and 7d SE (H, black line) and 7d NE (H, red line).
Detailed statistical values are listed in Table 1.

Figure 3. Transient increase in suprathreshold CT intrinsic excitability 1 day after NE.

(A) Average CT input resistance (R_{input}) 1d and 7d after SE (black) or NE (red) (1d SE: 22 cells/8 mice; 1d NE: 23 cells/5 mice; 7d SE: 23 cells/6 mice; 7d NE: 21 cells/4 mice).

(B) Average CT resting membrane potential (V_{rest}) 1d and 7d after SE (black) or NE (red) (1d SE: 22 cells/8 mice; 1d NE: 23 cells/5 mice; 7d SE: 23 cells/6 mice; 7d NE: 21 cells/4 mice).

(C) Average CT AP width 1d and 7d after SE (black) or NE (red) (1d SE: 21 cells/8 mice; 1d NE: 21 cells/5 mice; 7d SE: 23 cells/6 mice; 7d NE: 21 cells/4 mice).

(D) Average CT AP threshold of 1d and 7d after SE (black) or NE (red) (1d SE: 21 cells/8 mice; 1d NE: 19 cells/5 mice; 7d SE: 23 cells/6 mice; 7d NE: 21 cells/4 mice).

(E, G) Representative traces of CT firing in response to depolarizing current (50, 100, 200 pA current injections), 1d SE (E, left) vs. 1d NE (E, right); and 7d SE (G, left) vs. 7d NE (G, right).

(F, H) Average firing frequency as a function of injected current amplitude, 1d SE vs. 1d NE (F), and 7d SE vs. 7d NE (H). Current injections from 25 to 250 pA with an increment of 25 pA (1d SE: 21 cells/8 mice; 1d NE: 21 cells/5 mice; 7d SE: 23 cells/6 mice; 7d NE: 21 cells/4 mice). Asterisks indicate significant differences (**$p<0.01$, two-way ANOVA and Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons).

Detailed statistical values are listed in Table 1.

Figure 4. No changes in the _q_ of TC→ET synapses after NE.

(A, C) Average amplitude of Sr^{2+}-mEPSCs in ETs in response to L5-6 thalamocortical maximal photostimulation in 1d (A) and 7d (C), post SE (black) and NE (red) (1d SE: 5 cells/4 mice; 1d NE: 7 cells/5 mice; 7d SE: 7 cells/2 mice; 7d NE: 5 cells/2 mice).

(B, D) Representative Sr^{2+}-mEPSCs traces (top left) and representative average traces of quantal Sr^{2+}-mEPSCs traces (top right). Amplitude histogram of events before (background noise) and after stimulation from the same cell (bottom) in 1d (B) and 7d (D) after SE (black) and NE (red) mice. The arrowhead indicates the onset of light stimulus. The dotted line indicates 400ms time window before stimulus (pre-LED). The solid line represents a 400ms time window, which started 100 ms after the stimulus (post-LED) and was used to analyze the amplitude of Sr^{2+}-mEPSCs (1d SE: 5 cells/4 mice; 1d NE: 7 cells/5 mice; 7d SE: 7 cells/2 mice; 7d NE: 5 cells/2 mice).

(E, G) Summary graph of the average L5 ET EPSC amplitudes in response to L5-6, and L1-4 thalamocortical maximal photostimulation in 1d SE vs. 1d NE, or 7d SE vs. 7d NE mice (L5-6: 1d SE: 18 cells/6 mice; 1d NE: 26 cells/9 mice; 7d SE: 10 cells/6 mice; 7d NE: 10 cells/6 mice; L1-4: 1d SE: 8 cells/3 mice; 1d NE: 7 cells/4 mice; 7d SE: 9 cells/5 mice; 7d NE: 12 cells/4 mice).

(F, H) Representative traces of L5 ET EPSCs in response to L5-6, and L1-4 thalamocortical maximal photostimulation in 1d SE (F left, H left, black) vs. 1d NE (F left, H left, red), 7d SE (F right, H right, black) vs. 7d NE (F right, H right, red) mice.

Detailed statistical values are listed in Table 1.

Figure 5. No changes in ET intrinsic excitability after NE.
(A) Average ET R_{input} 1d and 7d after SE (black) or NE (red) (1d SE: 21 cells/6 mice; 1d NE: 21
cells/5 mice; 7d SE: 20 cells/5 mice; 7d NE: 23 cells/6 mice).
(B) Average ET V_{rest} 1d and 7d after SE (black) or NE (red) (1d SE: 21 cells/6 mice; 1d NE: 21
cells/5 mice; 7d SE: 20 cells/5 mice; 7d NE: 23 cells/6 mice).
(C) Average ET AP width 1d and 7d after SE (black) or NE (red) (1d SE: 21 cells/6 mice; 1d NE:
21 cells/5 mice; 7d SE: 20 cells/5 mice; 7d NE: 23 cells/6 mice).
(D) Average ET AP threshold 1d and 7d after SE (black) or NE (red) (1d SE: 21 cells/6 mice; 1d
NE: 21 cells/5 mice; 7d SE: 20 cells/5 mice; 7d NE: 23 cells/6 mice).
(E, G) Representative traces of ET firing in response to depolarizing current injection (50, 100,
200 pA), 1d SE (E, left) vs. 1d NE (E, right); and 7d SE (G, left) vs. 7d NE (G, right).
(F, H) Average firing frequency as a function of injected current amplitude, 1d SE vs. 1d NE (F),
and 7d SE vs. 7d NE (H). Current injections from 25 to 350 pA with an increment of 25 pA. (1d
SE: 21 cells/6 mice; 1d NE: 20 cells/5 mice; 7d SE: 20 cells/5 mice; 7d NE: 23 cells/6 mice).
Detailed statistical values are listed in Table 1.
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Figure 6. Changes in CT sound response responses persist 7 days after NE.

(A) Example two-photon field of view from CTs imaged before and after exposure.

(B) Average responses to pure tones across all CTs in SE mice (-1d: n=507 neurons; 1d: n=460 neurons; 7d: n=432 neurons). Asterisks indicate significant pairwise differences.

(C) Same as (**A**) for NE mice (-1d: n=713 neurons; 1d: n=638 neurons; 7d: n=646 neurons). Asterisks indicate significant pairwise differences.

(D) Tuning curves aligned to best frequency (BF) in SE mice.

(E) Same as (**D**) for NE mice. Asterisks indicate significant pairwise differences (*p<0.05, Bonferroni corrected for multiple comparisons).

(F) Change in BF of matched cells in SE (black) and NE (red) mice (1d SE: n=40 neurons; 1d NE: n=36 neurons; 7d SE: n=35 neurons; 7d NE: n=40 neurons).

(G) Accuracy of a multinomial logistic regression classifier trained to decode the frequency of pure tones at 80 dB SPL. Dashed line represents chance level. Error bars represent standard deviation of decoding iterations.

(H) Average responses to white noise bursts at different intensities across all ETs in SE mice (-1d: n=438 neurons; 1d: n=460 neurons; 7d: n=411 neurons). Asterisks indicate significant pairwise differences (Bonferroni corrected for multiple comparisons).

(I) Same as (**H**) in NE mice (-1d: n=636 neurons; 1d: n=559 neurons; 7d: n=587 neurons). Asterisks indicate significant pairwise differences (Bonferroni corrected for multiple comparisons).

(J) Change in intensity thresholds across days in SE (black) and NE (red) mice (1d SE: n=27 neurons; 1d NE: n=31 neurons; 7d SE: n=29 neurons; 7d NE: n=25 neurons). Asterisks indicate significant pairwise differences (**p<0.01, ***p<0.001, Bonferroni corrected for multiple comparisons).

(K) Accuracy of a multinomial logistic regression trained to decode sound intensity. Dashed line represents chance level. Error bars represent standard deviation of decoding iterations.

Detailed statistical values are listed in Table 1.

Figure 7. Transient shift in ET sound response properties one day after NE.
(A) Example two-photon field of view from ETs imaged before and after exposure.
(B) Average responses to pure tones across all ETs in SE mice (-1d: n=385 neurons; 1d: n=414 neurons; 7d: n=400 neurons).
(C) Same as in (**A**) for NE mice (-1d: n=268 neurons; 1d: n=235 neurons; 7d: n=296 neurons). Asterisks indicate significant pairwise differences (Bonferroni corrected for multiple comparisons).
(D) Tuning curves aligned to best frequency (BF) in SE mice.
(E) Same as in (**D**) for NE mice. Asterisks indicate significant pairwise differences (*p<0.05, ****p<0.0001, Bonferroni corrected for multiple comparisons).
(F) Change in BF of matched cells in SE (black) and NE (red) mice (1d SE: n=68 neurons; 1d NE: n=54 neurons; 7d SE: n=68 neurons; 7d NE: n=71 neurons). Asterisks indicate significant pairwise differences (*p<0.05, ****p<0.0001, Bonferroni corrected for multiple comparisons).
(G) Accuracy of a multinomial logistic regression classifier trained to decode the frequency of pure tones at 80 dB SPL. Dashed line represents chance level. Error bars represent standard deviation of decoding iterations. Asterisks indicate significant pairwise differences (*p<0.05, ****p<0.0001, bootstrap test Bonferroni corrected for multiple comparisons).
(H) Average responses to white noise bursts at different intensities across all ETs in SE mice (-1d: n=331 neurons; 1d: n=270 neurons; 7d: n=299 neurons).
(I) Same as (**H**) in NE mice (-1d: n=226 neurons; 1d: n=222 neurons; 7d: n=252 neurons). Asterisks indicate significant pairwise differences (Bonferroni corrected for multiple comparisons).
(J) Change in intensity thresholds across days in SE (black) and NE (red) mice (1d SE: n=42 neurons; 1d NE: n=49 neurons; 7d SE: n=50 neurons; 7d NE: n=51 neurons). Asterisks indicate significant pairwise differences (*p<0.05, **p<0.01, Bonferroni corrected for multiple comparisons).
(K) Accuracy of a multinomial logistic regression trained to decode sound intensity. Dashed line represents chance level. Error bars represent standard deviation of decoding iterations. Asterisks indicate significant pairwise differences (*p<0.05, bootstrap test Bonferroni corrected for multiple comparisons).

Figure 8. Changes in synaptic, intrinsic, and sound response properties correlate with the severity of noise trauma.

(A) Correlation between ABR click threshold shift and average CT/ET EPSC ratio after optogenetically stimulating thalamic L5-6 input (**Figure 1D**) in 1d SE (black) and NE (red) mice (1d SE: 18 cells/6 mice; 1d NE: 26 cells/9 mice). Line depicts a linear regression of the data points.

(B) Same as (**A**) for amplitude of light-evoked quantal EPSCs (Sr^{2+}-mEPSCs) in CTs in response to L5-6 thalamocortical maximal photostimulation (**Figure 2A**) in 1d SE (black) and NE (red) mice (1d SE: 7 cells/3 mice; 1d NE: 6 cells/3 mice).

(C) Same as (**A**) for average CT EPSC amplitudes in response to L5-6 thalamocortical maximal photostimulation (**Figure 2E**) in 1d SE (black) and NE (red) mice (1d SE: 18 cells/6 mice; 1d NE: 26 cells/9 mice).

(D) Same as (**A**) for ET EPSC amplitudes in response to L5-6 thalamocortical maximal photostimulation (**Figure 4E**) in 1d SE (black) and NE (red) mice (1d SE: 18 cells/6 mice; 1d NE: 26 cells/9 mice).

(E) Same as (**A**) for CT resting membrane potential (V_{rest}, **Figure 3B**) in 1d SE (black) and NE (red) mice (1d SE: 22 cells/8 mice; 1d NE: 23 cells/5 mice).

(F) Same as (**A**) for the maximum firing frequency from the F-I curve (**Figure 3F**) in 1d SE (black) and NE (red) mice (1d SE: 21 cells/8 mice; 1d NE: 21 cells/5 mice).

(G, H) Same as (**A**) for the change in intensity thresholds (**Figure 6J**) in 1d (**G**) or 7d (**H**) SE (black) and NE (red) mice (1d SE: n=27 neurons; 1d NE: n=31 neurons; 7d SE: n=29 neurons; 7d NE: n=25 neurons).

(I, J) Same as (**A**) for the change in intensity thresholds (**Figure 7J**) in 1d (**I**) or 7d (**J**) SE (black) and NE (red) mice (1d SE: n=42 neurons; 1d NE: n=49 neurons; 7d SE: n=50 neurons; 7d NE: n=51 neurons).

Figure S1. Changes in ABR threshold and Wave I amplitude 1 day after NE.

(A) ABR threshold shifts 1d after SE and NE. For clicks and different tone frequencies, 1d SE: 24 mice; 1d NE: 25 mice; Asterisks indicate significant differences (****p<0.0001, clicks: Mann-Whitney U test; frequency: two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni correction for multiple comparison).

(B, C) ABR absolute thresholds for 1d NE (B) and 1d SE (C). For clicks and different tone frequencies, -1d NE: 25 mice; 1d NE: 25 mice; -1dSE: 24 mice; 1d SE: 24 mice; Asterisks indicate significant differences (****p<0.0001, clicks: Mann-Whitney U test, frequency: two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni correction for multiple comparison).

(D-H) Wave I amplitudes for -1d SE, 1d SE, -1d NE and 1d NE mice for clicks (D), 10 kHz (E), 16 kHz (F), 24 kHz (G) and 32 kHz (H). -1d SE: 14 mice; 1d SE: 14 mice; -1d NE: 14 mice; 1d NE: 14 mice. Detailed statistical values are listed in tables.

(I) Representative traces of ABR recordings (in response to 16 kHz tones) with thresholds highlighted (dotted rectangle) before (left), 1d NE (middle), and 1d SE (right).

Detailed statistical values are listed in Table 2.

Figure S2. Changes in ABR threshold and Wave I amplitude do not recover 7 days after NE.

(A) ABR threshold shifts 7d after SE and NE. For clicks and different tone frequencies, 7d SE: 12 mice; 7d NE: 13 mice; Asterisks indicate significant differences (**$p<0.01$, clicks, Mann-Whitney U test; ****$p<0.0001$, frequency, two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni correction for multiple comparison).

(B, C) ABR absolute thresholds in 7d NE (B) and 7d SE (C). For clicks and frequency, -1d NE: 13 mice; 7d NE: 13 mice; -1d SE: 12 mice; 7d SE: 12 mice; Asterisks indicate significant differences (***$p<0.001$, clicks, Mann-Whitney U test; ****$p<0.0001$, frequency, mixed-effects with Bonferroni correction for multiple comparison).

(D-H) Wave I amplitudes between -1d -SE, 7d SE, -1d -NE and 7d NE for clicks (D), 10 kHz (E), 16 kHz (F), 24 kHz (G) and 32 kHz (H). -1d -SE: 6 mice; 1d SE: 6 mice; -1d NE: 6 mice; 7d NE: 6 mice.

Detailed statistical values are listed in Table 2.

Figure S3. Two-photon imaging spike deconvolution pipeline.
(A) An example trace comparing the recorded calcium signal to the deconvolved trace used for
analysis.
(B) Two example CT neuron responses to frequency stimuli and their intensity-averaged tuning
curves. Light grey curves indicate individual trials, and the colored trace shows the average
stimulus response.
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Figure S4. Increases in absolute intensity thresholds recover in ET neurons but remain
elevated in CT neurons.
(A) CTs Intensity thresholds across days in SE (black) and NE (red) mice (-1d SE: n=66 neurons;
-1d NE: n=71 neurons; 1d SE: n=27 neurons; 1d NE: n=31 neurons; 7d SE: n=29 neurons; 7d
NE: n=25 neurons). Asterisks indicate significant pairwise differences (*$p<0.05$, Bonferroni
corrected for multiple comparisons).
(B) ETs intensity thresholds across days in SE (black) and NE (red) mice (-1d SE: n=66 neurons;
-1d NE: n=67 neurons; 1d SE: n=42 neurons; 1d NE: n=49 neurons; 7d SE: n=50 neurons; 7d
NE: n=51 neurons). Asterisks indicate significant pairwise differences (*$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$,
Bonferroni corrected for multiple comparisons).
Detailed statistical values are listed in Table 2.
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1210

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7

Figure 8

Figure S1

Figure S2

Figure S3

Figure S4

Table 1. Statistical values for Figures 1-7

Figure	Statistical test	Main effect 1	Main effect 2	Interaction effect	N (cells/mice)	Multiple comparison
1D	2-way ANOVA Bonferroni	Exposure: $F(1,60) = 5.44$ $p = 0.023$	Day: $F(1,60) = 2.25$ $p = 0.14$	$F(1,60) = 7.19$ $p = 0.0095$	1d SE: 18/6 1d NE: 26/9 7d SE: 10/6 7d NE: 10/6	1d SE vs 1d NE, p = 0.0002 7d SE vs 7d NE, p > 0.99 1d SE vs 7d SE, p > 0.99 1d NE vs 7d NE, p = 0.021
2A	Unpaired t-test	n/a	n/a	n/a	1d SE: 7/3 1d NE: 6/3	p = 0.037
2C	Unpaired t-test	n/a	n/a	n/a	7d SE: 5/2 7d NE: 6/2	p = 0.68
2E	Mann-Whitney U test	n/a	n/a	n/a	1d SE: 18/6 1d NE: 26/9	p = 0.0042
2G	Unpaired t-test	n/a	n/a	n/a	7d SE: 10/6 7d NE: 10/6	p = 0.94
3A	2-way ANOVA Bonferroni	Exposure: $F(1,85) = 0.15$ $p = 0.70$	Day: $F(1,85) = 2.26$ $p = 0.14$	$F(1,85) = 0.33$ $p = 0.57$	1d SE: 22/8 1d NE: 23/5 7d SE: 23/6 7d NE: 21/4	ns for all groups
3B	2-way ANOVA Bonferroni	Exposure: $F(1,85) = 19.81$ $p < 0.0001$	Day: $F(1,85) = 9.40$ $p = 0.0029$	$F(1,85) = 6.91$ $p = 0.010$	1d SE: 22/8 1d NE: 23/5 7d SE: 23/6 7d NE: 21/4	1d SE vs 1d NE, p < 0.0001 1d SE vs 7d SE, p = 0.0007 1d NE vs 7d NE, p > 0.99 7d SE vs 7d NE, p > 0.99
3C	2-way ANOVA Bonferroni	Exposure: $F(1,82) = 3.852$ $p = 0.0531$	Day: $F(1,82) = 4.345$ $p = 0.0402$	$F(1,82) = 0.0081$ $p = 0.9284$	1d SE: 21/8 1d NE: 21/5 7d SE: 23/6 7d NE: 21/4	1d SE vs 1d NE, p > 0.99 1d SE vs 7d SE, p = 0.95 1d NE vs 7d NE, p = 0.79 7d SE vs 7d NE, p = 0.88
3D	2-way ANOVA Bonferroni	Exposure: $F(1,80) = 3.73$ $p = 0.057$	Day: $F(1,80) = 0.91$ $p = 0.34$	$F(1,80) = 1.26$ $p = 0.27$	1d SE: 21/8 1d NE: 19/5 7d SE: 23/6 7d NE: 21/4	1d SE vs 1d NE, p = 0.23 1d SE vs 7d SE, p > 0.99 1d NE vs 7d NE, p = 0.93 7d SE vs 7d NE, p > 0.99
3F	2-way ANOVA Bonferroni	Exposure: $F(1,40) = 9.45$ $p = 0.0038$	Current steps: $F(2.431, 97.24) = 155.5$ $p < 0.0001$	$F(10,400) = 3.82$ $p < 0.0001$	1d SE: 21/8 1d NE: 21/5	225 pA, p = 0.029 250 pA, p = 0.024 ns for all other groups
3H	2-way ANOVA Bonferroni	Exposure: $F(1,42) = 2.64$ $p = 0.11$	Current steps: $F(2.369, 99.49) = 208.3$ $p < 0.0001$	$F(10,420) = 0.91$ $p = 0.52$	7d SE: 23/6 7d NE: 21/4	ns for all groups
4A	Mann-Whitney U test	n/a	n/a	n/a	1d SE: 5/4 1d NE: 7/5	p = 0.64
4C	Mann-Whitney U test	n/a	n/a	n/a	7d SE: 7/2 7d NE: 5/2	p > 0.99
4E	2-way ANOVA Bonferroni	Exposure: $F(1,61) = 8.32$ $p = 0.0054$	Day: $F(1,61) = 0.052$ $p = 0.82$	$F(1,61) = 4.97$ $p = 0.030$	1d SE: 18/6 1d NE: 26/9 7d SE: 10/6 7d NE: 10/6	1d SE vs 1d NE, p = 0.0002 1d SE vs 7d SE, p > 0.99 1d NE vs 7d NE, p = 0.50 7d SE vs 7d NE, p > 0.99
4G	2-way ANOVA Bonferroni	Exposure: $F(1,32) = 1.88$ $p = 0.18$	Day: $F(1,32) = 1.43$ $p = 0.24$	$F(1,32) = 3.35$ $p = 0.077$	1d SE: 8/3 1d NE: 7/4 7d SE: 9/5 7d NE: 12/4	1d SE vs 1d NE, p > 0.99 1d SE vs 7d SE, p > 0.99 1d NE vs 7d NE, p = 0.23 7d SE vs 7d NE, p = 0.12
5A	2-way ANOVA Bonferroni	Exposure: $F(1,81) = 0.27$ $p = 0.60$	Day: $F(1,81) = 0.016$ $p = 0.90$	$F(1,81) = 1.41$ $p = 0.24$	1d SE: 21/6 1d NE: 21/5 7d SE: 20/5 7d NE: 23/6	ns for all groups
5B	2-way ANOVA Bonferroni	Exposure: $F(1,81) = 1.55$ $p = 0.22$	Day: $F(1,81) = 0.030$ $p = 0.86$	$F(1,81) = 1.55$ $p = 0.22$	1d SE: 21/6 1d NE: 21/5 7d SE: 20/5 7d NE: 23/6	ns for all groups
5C	2-way ANOVA Bonferroni	Exposure: $F(1,81) = 3.80$ $p = 0.055$	Day: $F(1,81) = 0.014$ $p = 0.91$	$F(1,81) = 0.23$ $p = 0.63$	1d SE: 21/6 1d NE: 21/5 7d SE: 20/5 7d NE: 23/6	ns for all groups

	Test					
5D	2-way ANOVA Bonferroni	Exposure: F (1,81) = 1.60 p = 0.21	Day: F (1,81) = 0.12 p = 0.73	F (1,81) = 0.64 p = 0.43	1d SE: 21/6 1d NE: 21/5 7d SE: 20/5 7d NE: 23/6	ns for all groups
5F	2-way ANOVA Bonferroni	Exposure: F (1,39) = 3.386 p = 0.073	Current steps: F (2.016, 78.63) = 815.9 p < 0.0001	F (14,546) = 1.274 p = 0.22	1d SE: 21/6 1d NE: 20/5	ns for all groups
5H	2-way ANOVA Bonferroni	Exposure: F (1,41) = 0.022 p = 0.88	Current steps: F (2.604, 106.8) = 716 p < 0.0001	F (14,574) = 1.07 p = 0.39	7d SE: 20/5 7d NE: 23/6	ns for all groups
6B	2-Way ANOVA Bonferroni	Frequency: F (7, 11168) = 2.07 p = 0.043	Day: F (2, 11168) = 0.66 p = 0.52	F (14,11168) = 3.68 p < 0.0001	-1d: 507/5 1d: 460/5 7d: 432/5	4 kHz: -1d vs 1d, p = 0.18; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.52; 1d vs 7d, p > 0.99 6 kHz: -1d vs 1d, p = 0.016; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.14; 1d vs 7d, p > 0.99 8 kHz: -1d vs 1d, p = 0.40; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.20; 1d vs 7d, p > 0.99 11 kHz: -1d vs 1d, p > 0.99; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.84; 1d vs 7d, p > 0.99 16 kHz: -1d vs 1d, p > 0.99; -1d vs 7d, p > 0.99; 1d vs 7d, p > 0.99 23 kHz: -1d vs 1d, p = 0.21; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.47; 1d vs 7d, p > 0.99 32 kHz: -1d vs 1d, p = 0.031; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.0052; 1d vs 7d, p > 0.99 45 kHz: -1d vs 1d, p < 0.0001; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.023; 1d vs 7d, p = 0.29
6C	2-Way ANOVA Bonferroni	Frequency: F (7, 15952) = 19.68 p < 0.0001	Day: F (2, 15952) = 11.62 p < 0.0001	F (14,15952) = 2.78 p = 0.0004	-1d:713/8 1d: 638/8 7d: 646/8	4 kHz: -1d vs 1d, p > 0.99; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.0029; 1d vs 7d, p = 0.0064 6 kHz: -1d vs 1d, p = 0.50; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.029; 1d vs 7d, p = 0.73 8 kHz: -1d vs 1d, p > 0.99; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.028; 1d vs 7d, p = 0.16 11 kHz: -1d vs 1d, p = 0.081; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.0041; 1d vs 7d, p < 0.0001 16 kHz: -1d vs 1d, p > 0.99; -1d vs 7d, p > 0.99; 1d vs 7d, p > 0.99 23 kHz: -1d vs 1d, p = 0.46; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.26; 1d vs 7d, p > 0.99 32 kHz: -1d vs 1d, p > 0.99; -1d vs 7d, p > 0.99; 1d vs 7d, p > 0.99 45 kHz: -1d vs 1d, p > 0.99; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.41; 1d vs 7d, p > 0.99
6D	2-Way ANOVA	Frequency: F (8, 8780) = 195.0 p < 0.0001	Day: F (2, 8780) = 0.52 p = 0.59	F (16,8780) = 0.81 p = 0.67	-1d: 507/5 1d: 460/5 7d: 432/5	n/a
6E	2-Way ANOVA Bonferroni	Frequency: F (8, 12876) = 166.4 p < 0.0001	Day: F (2, 12876) = 9.36 p < 0.0001	F (16,12876) = 0.52 p = 0.94	-1d:713/8 1d: 638/8 7d: 646/8	bf-2: -1d vs 1d, p > 0.99; -1d vs 7d, p > 0.99; 1d vs 7d, p > 0.99 bf-1.5: -1d vs 1d, p > 0.99; -1d vs 7d, p > 0.99; 1d vs 7d, p > 0.99 bf-1: -1d vs 1d, p > 0.99; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.43; 1d vs 7d, p = 0.17 bf-0.5: -1d vs 1d, p = 0.67; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.03; 1d vs 7d, p = 0.0007 bf: -1d vs 1d, p > 0.99; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.17; 1d vs 7d, p = 0.17 bf+0.5: -1d vs 1d, p > 0.99; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.58; 1d vs 7d, p = 0.34 bf+1: -1d vs 1d, p = 0.97; -1d vs 7d, p > 0.99; 1d vs 7d, p = 0.62 bf+1.5: -1d vs 1d, p > 0.99; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.65; 1d vs 7d, p > 0.99 bf+2: -1d vs 1d, p > 0.99; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.87; 1d vs 7d, p = 0.87
6F	2-Way ANOVA	Exposure: F(1, 316) = 1.00 p = 0.32	Day: F(2, 316) = 1.14 p = 0.32	F (2,316) = 1.33 p = 0.27	-1d SE: 72/5 1d SE: 40/5 7d SE: 35/5 -1d NE: 99/8 1d NE: 36/8 7d NE: 40/8	n/a
6G	Bootstrap Bonferroni (see Methods)	n/a	n/a	n/a	-1d SE: 507/5 1d SE: 460/5 7d SE: 432/5 -1d NE: 713/8 1d NE: 638/8 7d NE: 646/8	-1d SE vs -1d NE: p = 0.63 1d SE vs 1d NE: p = 0.71 7d SE vs 7d NE: p = 0.40 -1d SE vs 1d SE: p > 0.99 -1d SE vs 7d SE: p > 0.99 1d SE vs 7d SE: p > 0.99 -1d NE vs 1d NE: p > 0.99 -1d NE vs 7d NE: p > 0.99 1d NE vs 7d NE: p > 0.99
6H	2-Way ANOVA Bonferroni	Intensity: F (6, 9142) = 96.27 p < 0.0001	Day: F (2, 9142) = 3.54 p = 0.029	F (12,9142) = 2.51 p = 0.0027	-1d: 438/5 1d: 460/5 7d: 411/5	20 dB: -1d vs 1d, p > 0.99; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.90; 1d vs 7d, p > 0.99 30 dB: -1d vs 1d, p > 0.99; -1d vs 7d, p > 0.99; 1d vs 7d, p > 0.99 40 dB: -1d vs 1d, p > 0.99; -1d vs 7d, p > 0.99; 1d vs 7d, p > 0.99 50 dB: -1d vs 1d, p = 0.38; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.55; 1d vs 7d, p = 0.013 60 dB: -1d vs 1d, p > 0.99; -1d vs 7d, p > 0.99; 1d vs 7d, p > 0.99 70 dB: -1d vs 1d, p = 0.48; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.24; 1d vs 7d, p > 0.99 80 dB: -1d vs 1d, p = 0.0014; -1d vs 7d, p < 0.0001; 1d vs 7d, p = 0.61

6I	2-Way ANOVA Bonferroni	Intensity: F (6, 12453) = 104.6 p < 0.0001	Day: F (2, 12453) = 13.87 p < 0.0001	F (12,12453) = 5.45 p < 0.0001	-1d:636/8 1d: 559/8 7d: 587/8	20 dB: -1d vs 1d, p > 0.99; -1d vs 7d, p > 0.99 1d vs 7d, p > 0.99 30 dB: -1d vs 1d, p = 0.76; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.77; 1d vs 7d, p > 0.99 40 dB: -1d vs 1d, p = 0.0008; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.0001; 1d vs 7d, p > 0.99 50 dB: -1d vs 1d, p < 0.0001; -1d vs 7d, p < 0.0001; 1d vs 7d, p > 0.99 60 dB: -1d vs 1d, p = 0.50; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.021; 1d vs 7d, p = 0.63 70 dB: -1d vs 1d, p > 0.99; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.69; 1d vs 7d, p = 0.48 80 dB: -1d vs 1d, p > 0.99; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.026; 1d vs 7d, p = 0.0068
6J	2-Way ANOVA Bonferroni	Exposure: F (1, 243) = 14.75 p = 0.0002	Day: F (2, 243) = 4.17 p = 0.017	F (2,243) = 4.94 p = 0.0079	-1d SE: 66/5 1d SE: 27/5 7d SE: 29/5 -1d NE: 71/8 1d NE: 31/8 7d NE: 25/8	-1d SE vs -1d NE: p > 0.99 1d SE vs 1d NE: p = 0.0064 7d SE vs 7d NE: p = 0.0016 -1d SE vs 1d SE: p = 0.27 -1d SE vs 7d SE: p > 0.99 1d SE vs 7d SE: p = 0.45 -1d NE vs 1d NE: p = 0.36 -1d NE vs 7d NE: p = 0.0006 1d NE vs 7d NE: p = 0.14
6K	Bootstrap Bonferroni (see Methods)	n/a	n/a	n/a	-1d SE: 438/5 1d SE: 460/5 7d SE: 411/5 -1d NE: 636/8 1d NE: 559/8 7d NE: 587/8	-1d SE vs -1d NE: p = 0.85 1d SE vs 1d NE: p = 0.38 7d SE vs 7d NE: p = 0.62 -1d SE vs 1d SE: p > 0.99 -1d SE vs 7d SE: p > 0.99 1d SE vs 7d SE: p > 0.99 -1d NE vs 1d NE: p > 0.99 -1d NE vs 7d NE: p > 0.99 1d NE vs 7d NE: p > 0.99
7B	2-Way ANOVA	Frequency: F (7, 9568) = 18.96 p < 0.0001	Day: F (2, 9568) = 0.68 p = 0.51	F (14, 9568) = 1.04 p = 0.41	-1d: 385/5 1d: 414/5 7d: 400/5	n/a
7C	2-Way ANOVA Bonferroni	Frequency: F (7, 6368) = 23.07 p < 0.0001	Day: F (2, 6368) = 19.35 p < 0.0001	F (14, 6368) = 1.93 p = 0.0191	-1d: 268/4 1d: 235/4 7d: 296/4	4 kHz: -1d vs 1d, p > 0.99; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.087; 1d vs 7d, p = 0.098 6 kHz: -1d vs 1d, p > 0.99; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.22; 1d vs 7d, p = 0.23 8 kHz: -1d vs 1d, p > 0.99; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.17; 1d vs 7d, p = 0.13 11 kHz: -1d vs 1d, p = 0.50; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.0003; 1d vs 7d, p = 0.054 16 kHz: -1d vs 1d, p > 0.99; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.039; 1d vs 7d, p = 0.0055 23 kHz: -1d vs 1d, p = 0.020; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.70; 1d vs 7d, p = 0.0003 32 kHz: -1d vs 1d, p = 0.19; -1d vs 7d, p > 0.99; 1d vs 7d, p = 0.38 45 kHz: -1d vs 1d, p = 0.33; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.43; 1d vs 7d, p > 0.99
7D	2-Way ANOVA	Frequency: F (8, 7831) = 99.52 p < 0.0001	Day: F (2, 7831) = 0.58 p = 0.56	F (16, 7831) = 0.58 p = 0.90	-1d: 385/5 1d: 414/5 7d: 400/5	n/a
7E	2-Way ANOVA Bonferroni	Frequency: F (8, 5363) = 98.43 p < 0.0001	Day: F (2, 5363) = 12.03 p < 0.0001	F (16, 5363) = 1.84 p = 0.021	-1d: 268/4 1d: 235/4 7d: 296/4	bf-2: -1d vs 1d, p > 0.99; -1d vs 7d, p > 0.99; 1d vs 7d, p > 0.99 bf-1.5: -1d vs 1d, p > 0.99; -1d vs 7d, p > 0.99; 1d vs 7d, p > 0.99 bf-1: -1d vs 1d, p > 0.99; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.031; 1d vs 7d, p = 0.0064 bf-0.5: -1d vs 1d, p = 0.78; -1d vs 7d, p > 0.99; 1d vs 7d, p = 0.12 bf: -1d vs 1d, p = 0.54; -1d vs 7d, p < 0.0001; 1d vs 7d, p < 0.0001 bf+0.5: -1d vs 1d, p > 0.99; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.96; 1d vs 7d, p = 0.18 bf+1: -1d vs 1d, p > 0.99; -1d vs 7d, p > 0.99; 1d vs 7d, p = 0.49 bf+1.5: -1d vs 1d, p > 0.99; -1d vs 7d, p > 0.99; 1d vs 7d, p > 0.99 bf+2: -1d vs 1d, p > 0.99; -1d vs 7d, p > 0.99; 1d vs 7d, p > 0.99
7F	2-Way ANOVA Bonferroni	Exposure: F (1, 480) = 17.67 p < 0.0001	Day: F (2, 480) = 2.23 p = 0.11	F (2, 480) = 11.34 p < 0.0001	-1d SE: 114/5 1d SE: 68/5 7d SE: 68/5 -1d NE: 111/4 1d NE: 54/4 7d NE: 71/4	-1d SE vs -1d NE: p > 0.99 1d SE vs 1d NE: p < 0.0001 7d SE vs 7d NE: p = 0.40 -1d SE vs 1d SE: p = 0.14 -1d SE vs 7d SE: p > 0.99 1d SE vs 7d SE: p = 0.067 -1d NE vs 1d NE: p < 0.0001 -1d NE vs 7d NE: p = 0.39 1d NE vs 7d NE: p = 0.015

7G	Bootstrap Bonferroni (see Methods)	n/a	n/a	n/a	-1d SE: 385/5 1d SE: 414/5 7d SE: 400/5 -1d NE: 268/4 1d NE: 235/4 7d NE: 296/4	-1d SE vs -1d NE: p = 0.098 1d SE vs 1d NE: p < 0.0001 7d SE vs 7d NE: p = 0.1750 -1d SE vs 1d SE: p > 0.9999 -1d SE vs 7d SE: p > 0.9999 1d SE vs 7d SE: p > 0.9999 -1d NE vs 1d NE: p > 0.9999 -1d NE vs 7d NE: p > 0.9999 1d NE vs 7d NE: p = 0.0360
7H	2-Way ANOVA	Intensity: F (6, 6279) = 44.38 p < 0.0001	Day: F (2, 6279) = 0.2007 p = 0.8182	F (12, 6279) = 0.9433 p = 0.5019	-1d: 331/5 1d: 270/5 7d: 299/5	n/a
7I	2-Way ANOVA Bonferroni	Intensity: F (6, 4879) = 47.49 p < 0.0001	Day: F (2, 4879) = 8.014 p = 0.0003	F (12, 4879) = 2.900 p = 0.0005	-1d: 226/4 1d: 222/4 7d: 252/4	20 dB: -1d vs 1d, p > 0.9999; -1d vs 7d, p > 0.9999; 1d vs 7d, p > 0.9999 30 dB: -1d vs 1d, p = 0.6319; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.6348; 1d vs 7d, p > 0.9999 40 dB: -1d vs 1d, p = 0.1788; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.0191; 1d vs 7d, p < 0.0001 50 dB: -1d vs 1d, p > 0.9999; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.0541; 1d vs 7d, p = 0.1216 60 dB: -1d vs 1d, p = 0.0061; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.1869; 1d vs 7d, p = 0.5673 70 dB: -1d vs 1d, p = 0.1120; -1d vs 7d, p = 0.0510; 1d vs 7d, p > 0.9999 80 dB: -1d vs 1d, p = 0.5423; -1d vs 7d, p > 0.9999; 1d vs 7d, p = 0.2016
7J	2-Way ANOVA Bonferroni	Exposure: F (1, 368) = 11.23 p = 0.0009	Day: F (2, 368) = 6.555 p = 0.0016	F (2, 368) = 3.496 p = 0.0313	-1d SE: 99/5 1d SE: 42/5 7d SE: 50/5 -1d NE: 83/4 1d NE: 49/4 7d NE: 51/4	-1d SE vs -1d NE: p > 0.9999 1d SE vs 1d NE: p = 0.0043 7d SE vs 7d NE: p = 0.0148 -1d SE vs 1d SE: p > 0.9999 -1d SE vs 7d SE: p = 0.0096 1d SE vs 7d SE: p = 0.0806 -1d NE vs 1d NE: p = 0.0068 -1d NE vs 7d NE: p > 0.9999 1d NE vs 7d NE: p = 0.0117
7K	Bootstrap Bonferroni (see Methods)	n/a	n/a	n/a	-1d SE: 331/5 1d SE: 270/5 7d SE: 299/5 -1d NE: 226/4 1d NE: 222/4 7d NE: 252/4	-1d SE vs -1d NE: p = 0.1970 1d SE vs 1d NE: p = 0.0450 7d SE vs 7d NE: p = 0.0910 -1d SE vs 1d SE: p > 0.9999 -1d SE vs 7d SE: p > 0.9999 1d SE vs 7d SE: p > 0.9999 -1d NE vs 1d NE: p > 0.9999 -1d NE vs 7d NE: p > 0.9999 1d NE vs 7d NE: p = 0.4230

Table 2. Statistical values for Supplemental Figures S1-S4

Figure	Statistical test	Main effect 1	Main effect 2	Main effect 3	Interaction effect	N (mice)	Multiple comparison
S1A clicks	Mann-Whitney U test	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	1d SE: 24 1d NE: 25	p < 0.0001
S1A frequencies	2-way ANOVA Bonferroni	Exposure: F (1,47) = 235.5 p < 0.0001	Frequency: F (2.598, 122.1) = 2.16 p = 0.11	n/a	F (3,141) = 3.93 p = 0.0099	1d SE: 24 1d NE: 25	p < 0.0001 for all groups
S1B clicks	Mann-Whitney U test	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	-1d NE: 25 1d NE: 25	p < 0.0001
S1B frequencies	2-way ANOVA Bonferroni	Exposure: F (1,48) = 388.5 p < 0.0001	Frequency: F (2.855, 137.1) = 27.68 p < 0.0001	n/a	F (3,144) = 3.84 p = 0.011	-1d NE: 25 1d NE: 25	p < 0.0001 for all groups
S1C clicks	Mann-Whitney U test	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	-1d SE: 24 1d SE: 24	p = 0.56
S1C frequencies	2-way ANOVA Bonferroni	Exposure: F (1,46) = 0.26 p = 0.61	Frequency: F (2.778, 127.8) = 25.46 p < 0.0001	n/a	F (3,138) = 0.90 p = 0.45	-1d SE: 24 1d SE: 24	ns for all groups
S1D	3-way ANOVA	Exposure: F (1,52) = 20.93 p < 0.0001	Day: F (1,52) = 11.06 p = 0.0016	Intensity: F (2.25,117) = 393.2 p < 0.0001	F (7,364) = 8.59 p < 0.0001	-1d SE: 14 1d SE: 14 -1d NE: 14 1d NE: 14	n/a
S1E	3-way ANOVA	Exposure: F (1,52) = 29.84 p < 0.0001	Day: F (1,52) = 16.36 p = 0.0002	Intensity: F (3.153,163.9) = 314.5 p < 0.0001	F (5,260) = 25.95 p < 0.0001	-1d SE: 14 1d SE: 14 -1d NE: 14 1d NE: 14	n/a
S1F	3-way ANOVA	Exposure: F (1,52) = 31.2 p < 0.0001	Day: F (1,52) = 17.9 p < 0.0001	Intensity: F (2.026,105.3) = 253.9 p < 0.0001	F (7,364) = 8.47 p < 0.0001	-1d SE: 14 1d SE: 14 -1d NE: 14 1d NE: 14	n/a
S1G	3-way ANOVA	Exposure: F (1,52) = 20.63 p < 0.0001	Day: F (1,52) = 16.83 p = 0.0001	Intensity: F (1.636,85.08) = 205 p < 0.0001	F (7,364) = 7.61 p < 0.0001	-1d SE: 14 1d SE: 14 -1d NE: 14 1d NE: 14	n/a
S1H	3-way ANOVA	Exposure: F (1,52) = 28.62 p < 0.0001	Day: F (1,52) = 22.12 p < 0.0001	Intensity: F (2.136,111.1) = 253.8 p < 0.0001	F (6,132) = 11.39 p < 0.0001	-1d SE: 14 1d SE: 14 -1d NE: 14 1d NE: 14	n/a
S2A clicks	Mann-Whitney U test	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	7d SE: 12 7d NE: 13	p = 0.0025
S2A frequencies	2-way ANOVA Bonferroni	Exposure: F (1,23) = 32.09 p < 0.0001	Frequency: F (2.194, 50.46) = 3.02 p = 0.053	n/a	F (3,69) = 3.018 p = 0.036	7d SE: 12 7d NE: 13	10 kHz, p = 0.0003 16 kHz, p < 0.0001 24 kHz, p < 0.0001 32 kHz, p = 0.044
S2B clicks	Mann-Whitney U test	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	-1d NE: 13 7d NE: 13	p = 0.001
S2B frequencies	Mixed-effects Bonferroni	Exposure: F (1,24) = 47.89 p < 0.0001	Frequency: F (2.801, 65.36) = 3.87 p = 0.015	n/a	F (3,70) = 3.07 p = 0.033	-1d NE: 13 7d NE: 13	10 kHz, p < 0.0001 16 kHz, p < 0.0001 24 kHz, p < 0.0001 32 kHz, p = 0.0063

S2C clicks	Mann-Whitney U test	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	-1d SE: 12 7d SE: 12	p = 0.3261
S2C frequencies	2-way ANOVA Bonferroni	Exposure: F (1,22) = 0.060 p = 0.81	Frequency: F (2.435, 53.56) = 7.61 p = 0.0006	n/a	F (3,66) = 0.35 p = 0.79	-1d SE: 12 7d SE: 12	ns for all groups
S2D	3-way ANOVA	Exposure: F (1,20) = 27.6 p < 0.0001	Day: F (1,20) = 4.35 p = 0.0016	Intensity: F (1.954,39.07) = 189 p < 0.0001	F (7,140) = 2.73 p = 0.011	-1d SE: 6 7d SE: 6 -1d NE: 6 7d NE: 6	n/a
S2E	3-way ANOVA	Exposure: F (1,20) = 16.63 p = 0.0006	Day: F (1,20) = 3.69 p = 0.069	Intensity: F (1.852,37.03) = 67.87 p < 0.0001	F (5,100) = 1.54 p = 0.18	-1d SE: 6 7d SE: 6 -1d NE: 6 7d NE: 6	n/a
S2F	3-way ANOVA	Exposure: F (1,20) = 19.92 p = 0.0002	Day: F (1,20) = 3.49 p = 0.077	Intensity: F (2.058,41.15) = 79.58 p < 0.0001	F (6,120) = 1.95 p = 0.078	-1d SE: 6 7d SE: 6 -1d NE: 6 7d NE: 6	n/a
S2G	3-way ANOVA	Exposure: F (1,20) = 15.3 p = 0.0009	Day: F (1,20) = 3.958 p = 0.061	Intensity: F (2.063,41.26) = 85.47 p < 0.0001	F (7,140) = 4.634 p = 0.0001	-1d SE: 6 7d SE: 6 -1d NE: 6 7d NE: 6	n/a
S2H	3-way ANOVA	Exposure: F (1,18) = 13.38 p = 0.0018	Day: F (1,18) = 2.07 p = 0.17	Intensity: F (1.879,33.83) = 54.56 p < 0.0001	F (6,108) = 3.48 p = 0.0035	-1d SE: 6 7d SE: 6 -1d NE: 6 7d NE: 6	n/a
S4A	2-way ANOVA Bonferroni	Exposure: F(1,243) = 1.65 p = 0.20	Day: F(2,243) = 2.57 p = 0.08	n/a	F(2,243) = 2.23 p = 0.11	-1d SE: 66/5 1d SE: 27/5 7d SE: 29/5 -1d NE: 71/8 1d NE: 31/8 7d NE: 25/8	-1d SE vs -1d NE: p = 0.35 1d SE vs 1d NE: p = 0.44 7d SE vs 7d NE: p = 0.074 -1d SE vs 1d SE: p > 0.99 -1d SE vs 7d SE: p > 0.99 1d SE vs 7d SE: p > 0.99 -1d NE vs 1d NE: p = 0.013 -1d NE vs 7d NE: p = 0.018 1d NE vs 7d NE: p > 0.99
S4B	2-way ANOVA Bonferroni	Exposure: F(1,319) = 0.53 p = 0.47	Day: F(2,319) = 2.95 p = 0.054	n/a	F(2,319) = 2.23 p = 0.03	-1d SE: 66/5 1d SE: 42/5 7d SE: 50/5 -1d NE: 67/4 1d NE: 49/4 7d NE: 51/4	-1d SE vs -1d NE: p = 0.012 1d SE vs 1d NE: p = 0.17 7d SE vs 7d NE: p = 0.63 -1d SE vs 1d SE: p = 0.95 -1d SE vs 7d SE: p = 0.17 1d SE vs 7d SE: p > 0.99 -1d NE vs 1d NE: p = 0.016 -1d NE vs 7d NE: p > 0.99 1d NE vs 7d NE: p = 0.021