A molecular basis of somatotopic map formation

Authors: Kevin T. Sangster[1,2], Xinying Zhang[1,2], Daniel del Toro[3], Christina Sarantopoulos[1,2],

Ashley M. Moses[4], Shreya Mahasenan[1], Daniel T. Pederick[4], Sophie Perreault[5], Catherine Fallet-

Bianco[6,7], R. Brian Roome[8], Elena Seiradake[9,10], Liqun Luo[4], Artur Kania[1,2,11,12] *

Affiliations:

[1]Institut de Recherches Cliniques de Montréal (IRCM); Montréal, QC, Canada.

[2]Integrated Program in Neuroscience, McGill University; Montréal, QC, Canada.

[3]Department of Biomedical Sciences, Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences, Institute of Neurosciences, IDIBAPS, CIBERNED, University of Barcelona; Barcelona, Spain.

[4]Department of Biology, Howard Hughes Medical Institute, Stanford University; Stanford, CA, USA.

[5]Azrieli Research Center at CHU Sainte-Justine; Montréal, QC, Canada.

[6]Department of Pathology, CHU Sainte-Justine; Montréal, QC, Canada.

[7]Department of Pathology and Cell Biology, Université de Montréal; Montréal, QC, Canada.

[8]Spinal Circuits and Plasticity Unit, National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke; Bethesda, MD, USA.

[9]Department of Biochemistry, Oxford University; Oxford, UK.

[10]Kavli Institute for Nanoscience Discovery, University of Oxford; Oxford, UK.

[11]Division of Experimental Medicine, McGill University; Montréal, QC, Canada.

[12]Department of Anatomy and Cell Biology, McGill University; Montréal, QC, Canada.

*Corresponding author. Email: artur.kania@ircm.qc.ca

Summary: Somatotopy is a recurring organisational feature of the somatosensory system where adjacent neurons and their connections represent adjacent regions of the body. The molecular mechanisms governing the formation of such "body maps" remain largely unknown. Here we demonstrate that the cell surface proteins teneurin-3 and latrophilin-2 are expressed in opposing gradients aligning with the somatotopic map in the dorsal horn of the mouse spinal cord. Genetic manipulation of these proteins in spinal dorsal horn or sensory neurons distorts the somatotopy of neuronal connections and impairs accurate localisation of a noxious stimulus on the surface of the body. Our work provides the foundation for a molecular model of somatotopic map formation and insights into the role of somatotopic maps in the ability to accurately locate somatosensory stimuli or topognosis.

Main Text:

Introduction

The architecture of neuronal connections reflects their functional logic. A key organisational

feature of neuronal circuits are "topographic maps" that maintain the spatial relationship between

a group of neurons and their post-synaptic targets. The consequence of this, in the context of

sensory processing, is that information concerning adjacent stimuli is communicated by adjacent

neurons at multiple relay nodes of a sensory system. The classical paradigm for studying the

development of such organisation are retinotopic maps whose connectivity is driven by gradients

of cell surface proteins and refined by cellular-level processes[1–7]. However, knowledge of the

molecules that wire other sensory maps, particularly those in the somatosensory system, remains

limited.

Somatotopic maps are a unique example of topographic maps where nearby neurons represent

contiguous anatomical structures. Somatotopic organisation is characteristic of most vertebrate

somatosensory circuits, including the dorsal horn of the spinal cord (DH)[8–10], ventrobasal

thalamus[11,12], and primary somatosensory cortex[13,14]. The rodent DH exhibits a mediolateral

(ML) organisation that corresponds to the proximodistal (PD) axis of the body, where the medial

DH receives sensory inputs from distal regions (e.g. the paw), while the lateral DH corresponds

to more proximal regions of the body (e.g. the shoulder/hip to midline)[8–10]. This organisation is

also reflected by neuronal activity within the DH induced by sensory stimuli[15–17]. The ML map is

oriented orthogonally to the DH laminae that receive modality-specific sensory inputs[18,19]; the

result is a columnar-like architecture where a vertical "columel" processes noxious, thermal, and

light touch information originating in a particular location on the surface of the body[16,20].

Despite the discovery of somatotopic maps over a century ago, the mechanisms that underlie their development remain poorly understood and their precise role in internal representation of our bodies is speculative[13,21–23]. It is known that neuronal activity plays a critical role in the refinement of developing body maps[24–26]. On the other hand, sensory axons are somatotopically sorted immediately upon entry into the DH, suggesting a contribution by hard-wiring molecular signals[27–31]. However, the identity of these has remained elusive: none of the classical neuronal connectivity molecules appear to be involved despite their extensive study. Here, we identify cell surface proteins teneurin-3 (Ten3) and latrophilin-2 (Lphn2) as essential for the formation of the DH somatotopic map and provide evidence that its miswiring attenuates the accuracy of somatosensory stimulus localisation.

Ten3 and Lphn2 expression reflects the ST organisation of the DH

Recent work has shown that heterophilic repulsion mediated by Ten3 and Lphn2, in combination with Ten3-Ten3 homophilic attraction, establish a point-to-point topography of neuronal connections in the hippocampus[32–34]. To determine whether Lphn2 and Ten3 could direct the development of DH connectivity, we examined their expression in the mouse lumbosacral DH at embryonic day (e) 14.5, when cutaneous afferents begin their entry into spinal laminae I-IV[35,36]. We observed complementary mRNA gradients that spanned the limb somatotopic map: *Lphn2* mRNA expression was high in the medial DH (representing the distal limb) and low in the lateral DH, whereas *Ten3* mRNA expression was high in the lateral DH (representing the proximal limb) and low in the medial DH (Figure 1A). Analysis of protein expression using an anti-Ten3 antibody [32] and *Lphn2-mVenus* knock-in mice[37] revealed similar mediolateral gradients (Figure 1B).

We then examined the afferent inputs to the DH: the primary sensory neurons residing

within the dorsal root ganglia (DRG). Although there is no apparent somatotopic organisation of

DRG neurons within individual ganglia, different ganglia innervate distinct regions of skin

termed "dermatomes"[8,38,39]. Correspondingly, we did not observe any spatial bias to *Ten3* or

Lphn2 expression in individual ganglia along either the dorsoventral or mediolateral axes (Figure

S1A). Meanwhile, we did observe an inverse relationship between *Ten3* and *Lphn2* mRNA levels

in individual DRG neurons, where those that expressed high levels of *Ten3* also expressed low

levels of *Lphn2* and vice versa (Figure S1B). Additionally, DRG neurons that predominantly

express either *Ten3* or *Lphn2* could be identified across all major sensory neuron subtypes

(Figure S1C).

Reflecting the dermatome organisation, ganglia enriched in distal hindpaw-innervating neurons

(L3-L5) had high *Lphn2* and low *Ten3* levels of mRNA. Conversely, ganglia enriched in more

proximally-projecting neurons (L1-2 and L6) had low *Lphn2* and high *Ten3* (Figure 1C). Thus,

the sensory neuron expression of *Lphn2* and *Ten3* correlated with DH Lphn2 and Ten3 gradients

and the somatotopic map of limb: distal limb sensory neurons that innervate the Lphn2-high

medial DH express high levels of *Lphn2*, and proximal sensory neurons that innervate the Ten3-

high lateral DH express high levels of *Ten3*. A similar correlation could be made between the

protein gradients in the DRG axons located in the dorsal root entry zone (DREZ) immediately

outside the DH and the gradients in the DH (Figure 1B, quantified in Figure S1D). Next, to

determine if Ten3 and Lphn2 gradients align with somatotopic maps in other somatosensory

regions, we examined *Ten3* and *Lphn2* mRNA expression in the ventrobasal (VB) thalamus, an

important node in the ascending somatosensory pathway, and uncovered a similar gradient that

aligned with the VB somatotopic map[11] (Figure S1E). Finally, to examine whether such

Ten3/Lphn2 gradients are evolutionarily conserved we examined the expression of *TENM3* and

ADGRL2 mRNAs, which encode the human homologues of mouse Ten3 and Lphn2, in the human fetal dorsal horn and observed similar mediolateral gradients (Figure S1F). Thus, our observations suggest that Ten3 and Lphn2 are expressed in gradients along the proximodistal axis of somatotopic maps in a conserved manner across the somatosensory system.

Ten3 and Lphn2 are required for the somatotopic organisation of sensory afferents

Based on the observed expression patterns in the DH and DRG, as well as the previously described functions of these proteins[33], we hypothesized the following: (1) repulsion from Ten3 in the DH acting on Lphn2 in DRG axons directs distal limb afferents to the medial DH (Figure 1D, left), (2) a combination of repulsion from Lphn2 in the medial DH acting on Ten3 in the DRG axons and attraction from Ten3 in the lateral DH acting on Ten3 in DRG axons cooperate to direct proximal limb afferents to the lateral DH (Figure 1D, right). To test our hypothesis, we first challenged DRG axons with purified Lphn2^{Lec} (the teneurin-binding lectin domain of Lphn2) and the Ten3 extracellular domain. We found that both Lphn2^{Lec} and Ten3 repel DRG axons *in vitro* (Figure S2), thereby demonstrating that Ten3 and Lphn2 can guide DRG axons *in vitro*. Next, we generated conditional knockouts (cKOs) of *Ten3* and *Lphn2* in the DRG and DH (Figure S3A; see methods), hereby referred to as Ten3$^{\Delta DRG}$, Lphn2$^{\Delta DRG}$, Ten3$^{\Delta DH}$, and Lphn2$^{\Delta DH}$. To assess the distribution of sensory afferents along the mediolateral extent of the DH, we co-injected cholera toxin subunit B (CTB) and wheat germ agglutinin (WGA) subcutaneously to the hindpaw or dorsal midline. These preferentially label myelinated (e.g. innocuous touch-relaying) and unmyelinated (e.g. pain and temperature-relaying) sensory afferents, respectively[10,26,40].

First, we examined distal limb afferent inputs to the DH, which we hypothesized to be guided by Ten3 (DH) → Lphn2 (DRG) repulsion (Figure 1D, left). We examined these afferents

in Ten3$^{\Delta DH}$ and Lphn2$^{\Delta DRG}$ cKO mice and littermate controls by injecting CTB/WGA into the

hindpaw and quantified the distribution of the labelled axons along the ML and superficial-deep

(SD) axes of the DH (Figure S3B; see methods). In wild-type mice, the paw representation is

disproportionally large and duplicated at the most medial extreme of the dorsal horn[10,16,26,41]. In

our controls, we saw the expected wild-type distribution of afferents, however in Ten3$^{\Delta DH}$ cKO

mice we observed a dramatic shift in the ML distribution of labelled afferents (Figures 2A-C and

S3C). Despite the shift in ML position, CTB and WGA-labelled axons remained closely aligned

with each other along the ML axis (Figure S3D), and there was no shift in the distribution of

CTB and WGA-labelled axons along the orthogonal SD axis (Figures S3E-S3G). The

Lphn2$^{\Delta DRG}$ cKO mice exhibited a milder but significant shift along the ML axis and no change in

the SD axis distribution or in the ML alignment between CTB and WGA-labelled afferents

(Figures 2D-F and S3H-L).

Next, we examined proximal afferent inputs to the DH, which we hypothesized to be

guided by a combination of Lphn2 (DH) → Ten3 (DRG) repulsion and Ten3 (DH) → Ten3

(DRG) attraction (Figure 1D, right). We therefore examined these afferents in Ten3$^{\Delta DH}$,

Lphn2$^{\Delta DH}$, and Ten3$^{\Delta DRG}$ cKO mice and compared them to littermate controls by injecting

CTB/WGA subcutaneously at the dorsal midline. Like for the distal limb afferents, we observed

a dramatic shift in the ML distribution of proximal afferents in the Ten3$^{\Delta DH}$ cKO mice (Figures

3A-C and S4A). However, this was accompanied by a decrease in the ML alignment of the CTB

with the WGA-labelled afferents (Figure S4B), and an expansion in the SD distribution of both

classes of afferents (Figures S4C-S4E). Lphn2$^{\Delta DH}$ cKO mice exhibited a comparatively mild but

significant shift along the ML and SD axes, without a consequence on the alignment of CTB

with the WGA-labelled afferents (Figures 3D-F and S4F-J). Unexpectedly, the Ten3$^{\Delta DRG}$ cKO

mice did not exhibit any significant changes in the targeting of afferents in the DH (Figures 3G-I

and S4K-O), indicating that Ten3 in the DRG may be dispensable for correct somatotopic and

laminar targeting. Importantly, Ten3 (DH) → Lphn2 (DRG) repulsion is likely intact in Ten3$^{\Delta DRG}$

cKO mice, suggesting that this repulsion alone may be sufficient to separate the distal and

proximal inputs along the ML axis. Together, our cKO experiments demonstrate that Ten3 and

Lphn2 are essential for the correct somatotopic organisation of primary sensory afferents in the

DH, with the severity of miswiring phenotypes depending on the gene deleted and the targeted

tissue.

Computational modelling of somatotopic map formation in the DH

To interpret the observed phenotypes and gain further insights into the developmental programs

that produce the DH somatotopic map, we constructed a comprehensive computational model of

DH somatotopic map formation. Over the past 40 years, several computational models of

topographic map formation in the visual system have been developed and iteratively improved.

We first determined if these theoretical models of topographic map formation could be applied to

somatotopic maps. We therefore adapted the Koulakov model[7,42,43] (see methods) as it is a

relatively abstract model without excessive constraints regarding the cellular mechanisms. It also

effectively predicts the observed effects of genetic manipulations[44], and incorporates guidance

cues, competition, and activity-dependent refinement into a single unified model[7]. After adapting

this model to the DH somatotopic map, we then performed Bayesian Simulation-Based Inference

(SBI) using the Sequential Monte Carlo method for Approximate Bayesian Computation (ABC-

SMC) to identify parameter values for our model that fit both the observed control and cKO data

in an unbiased manner (Figure 4A; see methods).

Using the parameter values fit above, we first confirmed that this model was able to accurately reproduce the proximal → lateral and distal → medial connectivity between DRG and DH neurons under wild-type conditions (Figures 4B and S5A). We then confirmed that we were able to closely recapitulate the observed distributions of CTB/WGA along the ML axis in both controls and all cKOs examined experimentally above (Figure 4C). Inspection of the parameter values (table S1) revealed that the best fitting model incorporates a prominent role for activity-dependent refinement of connectivity, consistent with previous observations[24–26]. Furthermore, disrupting activity dependent refinement in our model produced a broadening of DRG axon terminal zones and disruptions to DH somatotopy that was qualitatively similar to experimental observations (Figures S5B-D), validating this component of the model. Our model also indicates that there is strong competition between DRG axons for DH space along the ML axis, consistent with previous results showing an expansion of the saphenous nerve afferent termini when the afferents of the sciatic nerve are eliminated[45,46]. We recreated this experiment *in silico* by ablating proximal limb DRG neurons and observed a similar expansion of the remaining axons to fill the available ML extent of the DH (Figures S5E and S5F), further validating our model. Additional inferences of our model are that Ten3 (DH) → Lphn2 (DRG) repulsion plays a more prominent role than Lphn2 (DH) → Ten3 (DRG) repulsion or Ten3 (DH) → Ten3 (DRG) attraction, and that the loss of Lphn2 or Ten3 likely impacts both guidance and activity-dependent refinement, particularly in the Ten3$^{\Delta DH}$ cKOs. Taken together, we show that despite being developed for a different sensory system patterned by gradients of unrelated molecular cues, a theoretical model of topographic map formation in the visual system can be adapted to accurately represent the developing somatotopic map in the DH.

Ten3$^{\Delta DH}$ cKOs exhibit an altered somatotopic distribution of neural activity and behavioural responses

Given the observed miswiring phenotypes, we asked if this miswiring was accompanied by alterations in the function of the DH neuronal circuitry. Towards this end, we selected the cKO with the most severe miswiring phenotype (Ten3$^{\Delta DH}$) and examined the consequence of injecting the hindpaw with formalin, a noxious stimulus that results in a somatotopically restricted induction of the neuronal activity marker c-Fos in DH neurons[15]. Following injection of formalin into the distal hindpaw, both cKO mice and control littermates displayed a significant induction of c-Fos in the DH ipsilateral to the injection (Figures S6A and S6B). While controls showed increased c-Fos expression predominantly in the somatotopically appropriate medial DH, Ten3$^{\Delta DH}$ cKO mice exhibited a greater number of c-Fos-expressing cells in the lateral DH (Figures 5A-D). Matching the more widespread induction of c-Fos, cKO mice also had more c-Fos-expressing cells on the side ipsilateral to the injection when compared to control littermates (Figures S6C-S6E).

In addition to being able to induce somatotopically restricted c-Fos activity, formalin injection elicits highly accurate licking of the injection site. Thus, using this paradigm we sought to examine the functional impact of somatotopic miswiring on the ability to locate a stimulus on the surface of the body, or topognosis. We first examined the precision of topognosis in Ten3 constitutive knockout (Ten3^{KO}) mice[32,47]. Compared to control littermates, Ten3^{KO} mice spent less time licking regions of the limb close to the injection site and more time licking regions of the limb farther from the injection (Figures 6F and G), potentially indicating a deficit in their ability to precisely locate the stimulus. Meanwhile, the total duration of licking, an indication of stimulus intensity, was not different between KO and control mice (Figure 6H). However,

Ten3^{KO} mice also showed defects in the ability to remove an adhesive tape placed on their

hindlimbs, suggesting broad deficits in sensorimotor coordination (Figures S6I and S6J).

We next assessed topognosis in Ten3$^{\Delta DH}$ cKO mice given the magnitude of their anatomical

miswiring phenotype. Similar to the Ten3^{KO} mice, Ten3$^{\Delta DH}$ cKO mice exhibited a reduction in

time spent licking areas close to the injection and increase in time licking areas farther from the

injection site (Figures 5E and S6K), indicating impaired topognosis. This phenotype was not

accompanied by any significant changes in total licking duration (Figure S6L). Finally, unlike

the Ten3^{KO} mice, Ten3$^{\Delta DH}$ mice performed normally in the adhesive removal assay (Figures S6M

and S6N), indicating normal sensorimotor coordination. Together, these data indicate that loss of

Ten3 in the DH, in addition to causing significant disruptions to DH somatotopy, impairs

somatosensory topognosis.

Discussion

Our study provides foundational insights into the molecular logic of somatotopic map formation.

First, our experimental observations and modelling argue that the somatotopic map formed

between peripheral sensory neurons and those in the spinal DH is driven by graded expression of

Ten3 and Lphn2. This complements previous studies on their role in establishing of neuronal

connections through binary or all-or-nothing attractive and repulsive signalling. Additionally, we

also provide direct functional evidence of the importance of somatotopic maps in the ability to

localise a stimulus on the surface of the body.

Several parallels and distinctions between our work and that on the formation of retinotopic

maps can be made. Like in retinotopic maps, past studies and this work suggest that axon-axon

interactions such as pre-ordering prior to arrival in target area and inter-axon competition, as well

as activity-dependent refinement, play an important role in the establishment of the DH

somatotopic map. However, while disrupting EphA/ephrin-A signalling largely results in the

formation of additional discrete terminal zones of retinal axons in the superior colliculus[5], we

generally observe broadening and/or shifting of sensory axon terminal zones in the ML axis of

the DH, without the formation of additional ones, suggesting fundamental cellular/molecular

differences between these processes. Of particular interest would be the significance of

Ten3/Lphn2 and EphA/ephrin-A co-expression, the latter of which have been implicated in

somatosensory cortex somatotopic map formation by specifying afferent thalamic axon

connectivity[48,49]. Finally, the presence of Ten3/Lphn2 gradients in many regions of the

developing nervous system raises the possibility that they pattern all somatotopic maps within

the somatosensory system, and more generally, circuits whose organising principle requires the

preservation of spatial relationship between neurons and their targets[50].

Although we cannot rule out other DH functions of Ten3 contributing to the impaired topognosis

phenotype, to our knowledge, our data represent the only functional evidence indicating a

requirement for somatotopic maps in topognosis. More generally, our data adds to the currently

limited behavioural evidence that topographic maps are required for correct sensory processing.

Finally, the unchanged duration of licking in response to formalin in Ten3$^{\Delta DH}$ cKOs suggests that

stimulus intensity and location can be dissociated, echoing the idea of parallel

motivational/affective and discriminatory systems underlying nociception[51]. Our genetics-based

precise manipulation of a somatotopic map provides a new inroad into questions such as body

map plasticity, the integration of somatotopic somatosensory maps with somatotopic motor

maps, or those of other sensory modalities, and their overall function in representing our bodies

and whole-body action planning[23].

References and Notes

1. Sperry, R.W. (1963). Chemoaffinity in the orderly growth of nerve fiber patterns and connections*. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences *50*, 703–710. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.50.4.703.

2. Cheng, H.-J., Nakamoto, M., Bergemann, A.D., and Flanagan, J.G. (1995). Complementary gradients in expression and binding of ELF-1 and Mek4 in development of the topographic retinotectal projection map. Cell *82*, 371–381. https://doi.org/10.1016/0092-8674(95)90426-3.

3. Drescher, U., Kremoser, C., Handwerker, C., Löschinger, J., Noda, M., and Bonhoeffer, F. (1995). In vitro guidance of retinal ganglion cell axons by RAGS, a 25 kDa tectal protein related to ligands for Eph receptor tyrosine kinases. Cell *82*, 359–370. https://doi.org/10.1016/0092-8674(95)90425-5.

4. Cline, H.T., and Constantine-Paton, M. (1989). NMDA receptor antagonists disrupt the retinotectal topographic map. Neuron *3*, 413–426. https://doi.org/10.1016/0896-6273(89)90201-8.

5. Feldheim, D.A., Kim, Y.-I., Bergemann, A.D., Frisén, J., Barbacid, M., and Flanagan, J.G. (2000). Genetic Analysis of Ephrin-A2 and Ephrin-A5 Shows Their Requirement in Multiple Aspects of Retinocollicular Mapping. Neuron *25*, 563–574. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0896-6273(00)81060-0.

6. Rashid, T., Upton, A.L., Blentic, A., Ciossek, T., Knöll, B., Thompson, I.D., and Drescher, U. (2005). Opposing Gradients of Ephrin-As and EphA7 in the Superior Colliculus Are Essential for Topographic Mapping in the Mammalian Visual System. Neuron *47*, 57–69. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2005.05.030.

7. Triplett, J.W., Pfeiffenberger, C., Yamada, J., Stafford, B.K., Sweeney, N.T., Litke, A.M., Sher, A., Koulakov, A.A., and Feldheim, D.A. (2011). Competition is a driving force in topographic mapping. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences *108*, 19060–19065. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1102834108.

8. Grant, G., and Ygge, J. (1981). Somatotopic organization of the thoracic spinal nerve in the dorsal horn demonstrated with transganglionic degeneration. Journal of Comparative Neurology *202*, 357–364. https://doi.org/10.1002/cne.902020305.

9. Takahashi, Y., Chiba, T., Kurokawa, M., and Aoki, Y. (2003). Dermatomes and the central organization of dermatomes and body surface regions in the spinal cord dorsal horn in rats. Journal of Comparative Neurology *462*, 29–41. https://doi.org/10.1002/cne.10669.

10. Odagaki, K., Kameda, H., Hayashi, T., and Sakurai, M. (2019). Mediolateral and dorsoventral projection patterns of cutaneous afferents within transverse planes of the mouse spinal dorsal horn. Journal of Comparative Neurology *527*, 972–984. https://doi.org/10.1002/cne.24593.

11. Francis, J.T., Xu, S., and Chapin, J.K. (2008). Proprioceptive and Cutaneous Representations in
the Rat Ventral Posterolateral Thalamus. Journal of Neurophysiology *99*, 2291–2304.
https://doi.org/10.1152/jn.01206.2007.

12. Tasker, R.R., Organ, L.W., and Hawrylyshyn, P. (1976). Sensory Organization of the Human
Thalamus. Applied Neurophysiology *39*, 139–153. https://doi.org/10.1159/000102487.

13. Penfield, W., and Boldrey, E. (1937). Somatic motor and sensory representation in the cerebral
cortex of man as studied by electrical stimulation. Brain *60*, 389–443.
https://doi.org/10.1093/brain/60.4.389.

14. Ebner, F.F., and Kaas, J.H. (2015). Chapter 24 - Somatosensory System. In The Rat Nervous
System (Fourth Edition), G. Paxinos, ed. (Academic Press), pp. 675–701.
https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-374245-2.00024-3.

15. Bullitt, E. (1991). Somatotopy of spinal nociceptive processing. Journal of Comparative
Neurology *312*, 279–290. https://doi.org/10.1002/cne.903120210.

16. Levinsson, A., Holmberg, H., Broman, J., Zhang, M., and Schouenborg, J. (2002). Spinal
Sensorimotor Transformation: Relation between Cutaneous Somatotopy and a Reflex Network.
J. Neurosci. *22*, 8170–8182. https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.22-18-08170.2002.

17. Warwick, C., Salsovic, J., Hachisuka, J., Smith, K.M., Sheahan, T.D., Chen, H., Ibinson, J.,
Koerber, H.R., and Ross, S.E. (2022). Cell type-specific calcium imaging of central sensitization
in mouse dorsal horn. Nat Commun *13*, 5199. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-022-32608-2.

18. Rexed, B. (1952). The cytoarchitectonic organization of the spinal cord in the cat. Journal of
Comparative Neurology *96*, 415–495. https://doi.org/10.1002/cne.900960303.

19. Gatto, G., Bourane, S., Ren, X., Di Costanzo, S., Fenton, P.K., Halder, P., Seal, R.P., and
Goulding, M.D. (2021). A Functional Topographic Map for Spinal Sensorimotor Reflexes. Neuron
109, 91-104.e5. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2020.10.003.

20. Willis, W.D., and Coggeshall, R.E. (1991). Sensory Mechanisms of the Spinal Cord (Springer US)
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4899-0597-0.

21. Grünbaum, A.S.F., and Sherrington, C.S. (1901). Observations on the physiology of the cerebral
cortex of some of the higher apes. (Preliminary communication.). Proceedings of the Royal
Society of London *69*, 206–209. https://doi.org/10.1098/rspl.1901.0100.

22. Hassler, R. (2019). New Aspects of Brain Functions Revealed by Brain Diseases. In Frontiers in
Brain Research, J. D. French, ed. (Columbia University Press), pp. 242–288.

23. Gordon, E.M., Chauvin, R.J., Van, A.N., Rajesh, A., Nielsen, A., Newbold, D.J., Lynch, C.J.,
Seider, N.A., Krimmel, S.R., Scheidter, K.M., et al. (2023). A somato-cognitive action network
alternates with effector regions in motor cortex. Nature *617*, 351–359.
https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-023-05964-2.

24. Mendelson, B. (1994). Chronic embryonic MK-801 exposure disrupts the somatotopic
organization of cutaneous nerve projections in the chick spinal cord. Developmental Brain
Research *82*, 152–166. https://doi.org/10.1016/0165-3806(94)90158-9.

25. Beggs, S., Torsney, C., Drew, L.J., and Fitzgerald, M. (2002). The postnatal reorganization of
primary afferent input and dorsal horn cell receptive fields in the rat spinal cord is an activity-
dependent process. European Journal of Neuroscience *16*, 1249–1258.
https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1460-9568.2002.02185.x.

26. Granmo, M., Petersson, P., and Schouenborg, J. (2008). Action-Based Body Maps in the Spinal
Cord Emerge from a Transitory Floating Organization. J. Neurosci. *28*, 5494–5503.
https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.0651-08.2008.

27. Mirnics, K., and Koerher, H.R. (1995). Prenatal development of rat primary afferent fibers: II.
Central projections. Journal of Comparative Neurology *355*, 601–614.
https://doi.org/10.1002/cne.903550409.

28. Smith, C.L. (1983). The development and postnatal organization of primary afferent projections
to the rat thoracic spinal cord. Journal of Comparative Neurology *220*, 29–43.
https://doi.org/10.1002/cne.902200105.

29. Fitzgerald, M. (1987). Prenatal growth of fine-diameter primary afferents into the rat spinal cord:
A transganglionic tracer study. Journal of Comparative Neurology *261*, 98–104.
https://doi.org/10.1002/cne.902610108.

30. Silos-Santiago, I., Jeng, B., and Snider, W.D. (1995). Sensory afferents show appropriate
somatotopy at the earliest stage of projection to dorsal horn: NeuroReport *6*, 861–865.
https://doi.org/10.1097/00001756-199504190-00009.

31. Arcaro, M.J., Schade, P.F., and Livingstone, M.S. (2019). Body map proto-organization in
newborn macaques. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences *116*, 24861–24871.
https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1912636116.

32. Berns, D.S., DeNardo, L.A., Pederick, D.T., and Luo, L. (2018). Teneurin-3 controls topographic
circuit assembly in the hippocampus. Nature *554*, 328–333.
https://doi.org/10.1038/nature25463.

33. Pederick, D.T., Lui, J.H., Gingrich, E.C., Xu, C., Wagner, M.J., Liu, Y., He, Z., Quake, S.R., and Luo,
L. (2021). Reciprocal repulsions instruct the precise assembly of parallel hippocampal
networks. Science *372*, 1068–1073. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.abg1774.

34. Gringrich, E.C., Pederick, D.T., Zhang, Y., and Luo, L. (2025). Ten3–Lphn2-mediated target
selection across the extended hippocampal network demonstrates a repeated strategy for
circuit assembly. Preprint at bioRxiv, https://doi.org/10.1101/2025.08.13.670207
https://doi.org/10.1101/2025.08.13.670207.

35. Ozaki, S., and Snider, W.D. (1997). Initial trajectories of sensory axons toward laminar targets in
the developing mouse spinal cord. Journal of Comparative Neurology *380*, 215–229.
https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1096-9861(19970407)380:2<215::AID-CNE5>3.0.CO;2-6.

36. Hasegawa, H., Abbott, S., Han, B.-X., Qi, Y., and Wang, F. (2007). Analyzing Somatosensory
Axon Projections with the Sensory Neuron-Specific Advillin Gene. J. Neurosci. *27*, 14404–
14414. https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.4908-07.2007.

37. Anderson, G.R., Maxeiner, S., Sando, R., Tsetsenis, T., Malenka, R.C., and Südhof, T.C. (2017).
Postsynaptic adhesion GPCR latrophilin-2 mediates target recognition in entorhinal-
hippocampal synapse assembly. Journal of Cell Biology *216*, 3831–3846.
https://doi.org/10.1083/jcb.201703042.

38. Molander, C., and Grant, G. (1985). Cutaneous projections from the rat hindlimb foot to the
substantia gelatinosa of the spinal cord studied by transganglionic transport of WGA-HRP
conjugate. Journal of Comparative Neurology *237*, 476–484.
https://doi.org/10.1002/cne.902370405.

39. Prats-Galino, A., Puigdellívol-sánchez, A., Ruano-Gil, D., and Molander, C. (1999).
Representations of hindlimb digits in rat dorsal root ganglia. Journal of Comparative Neurology
408, 137–145. https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1096-9861(19990524)408:1<137::AID-
CNE10>3.0.CO;2-3.

40. Maslany, S., Crockett, D.P., and David Egger, M. (1992). Organization of cutaneous primary
afferent fibers projecting to the dorsal horn in the rat: WGA-HRP versus B-HRP. Brain Research
569, 123–135. https://doi.org/10.1016/0006-8993(92)90378-M.

41. Swett, J.E., and Woolf, C.J. (1985). The somatotopic organization of primary afferent terminals
in the superficial laminae of the dorsal horn of the rat spinal cord. Journal of Comparative
Neurology *231*, 66–77. https://doi.org/10.1002/cne.902310106.

42. Koulakov, A.A., and Tsigankov, D.N. (2004). A stochastic model for retinocollicular map
development. BMC Neurosci *5*, 30. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2202-5-30.

43. Tsigankov, D.N., and Koulakov, A.A. (2006). A unifying model for activity-dependent and activity-
independent mechanisms predicts complete structure of topographic maps in ephrin-A
deficient mice. J Comput Neurosci *21*, 101–114. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10827-006-9575-7.

44. Hjorth, J.J.J., Sterratt, D.C., Cutts, C.S., Willshaw, D.J., and Eglen, S.J. (2015). Quantitative
assessment of computational models for retinotopic map formation. Developmental
Neurobiology *75*, 641–666. https://doi.org/10.1002/dneu.22241.

45. Fitzgerald, M. (1985). The sprouting of saphenous nerve terminals in the spinal cord following
early postnatal sciatic nerve section in the rat. Journal of Comparative Neurology *240*, 407–413.
https://doi.org/10.1002/cne.902400408.

46. Fitzgerald, M., Woolf, C.J., and Shortland, P. (1990). Collateral sprouting of the central terminals
of cutaneous primary afferent neurons in the rat spinal cord: Pattern, morphology, and
influence of targets. Journal of Comparative Neurology *300*, 370–385.
https://doi.org/10.1002/cne.903000308.

47. Leamey, C.A., Merlin, S., Lattouf, P., Sawatari, A., Zhou, X., Demel, N., Glendining, K.A.,
Oohashi, T., Sur, M., and Fässler, R. (2007). Ten_m3 Regulates Eye-Specific Patterning in the

Mammalian Visual Pathway and Is Required for Binocular Vision. PLOS Biology *5*, e241.
https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.0050241.

48. Vanderhaeghen, P., Lu, Q., Prakash, N., Frisén, J., Walsh, C.A., Frostig, R.D., and Flanagan, J.G.
(2000). A mapping label required for normal scale of body representation in the cortex. Nat
Neurosci *3*, 358–365. https://doi.org/10.1038/73929.

49. Dufour, A., Seibt, J., Passante, L., Depaepe, V., Ciossek, T., Frisén, J., Kullander, K., Flanagan,
J.G., Polleux, F., and Vanderhaeghen, P. (2003). Area Specificity and Topography of
Thalamocortical Projections Are Controlled by ephrin/Eph Genes. Neuron *39*, 453–465.
https://doi.org/10.1016/S0896-6273(03)00440-9.

50. Chon, U., Pederick, D.T., Song, J.H., Zhang, Y., Rana, I., and Luo, L. (2025). Inverse expression of
Ten3 and Lphn2 across the developing mouse brain reveals a global strategy for circuit
assembly. Preprint at bioRxiv, https://doi.org/10.1101/2025.08.13.670004
https://doi.org/10.1101/2025.08.13.670004.

51. Melzack, R., and Casey, K. (1968). Sensory, motivational, and central control determinants of
pain. Kenshalo DR, editor. The skin senses: proceedings. Springfield (Illinois): Charles C.
Thomas, 423–443.

52. Sieber, M.A., Storm, R., Martinez-de-la-Torre, M., Müller, T., Wende, H., Reuter, K., Vasyutina, E.,
and Birchmeier, C. (2007). Lbx1 Acts as a Selector Gene in the Fate Determination of
Somatosensory and Viscerosensory Relay Neurons in the Hindbrain. J. Neurosci. *27*, 4902–
4909. https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.0717-07.2007.

53. Pietri, T., Eder, O., Blanche, M., Thiery, J.P., and Dufour, S. (2003). The human tissue
plasminogen activator-Cre mouse: a new tool for targeting specifically neural crest cells and
their derivatives in vivo. Developmental Biology *259*, 176–187. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0012-
1606(03)00175-1.

54. Lai, H.C., Seal, R.P., and Johnson, J.E. (2016). Making sense out of spinal cord somatosensory
development. Development *143*, 3434–3448. https://doi.org/10.1242/dev.139592.

55. Müller, T., Brohmann, H., Pierani, A., Heppenstall, P.A., Lewin, G.R., Jessell, T.M., and
Birchmeier, C. (2002). The Homeodomain Factor Lbx1 Distinguishes Two Major Programs of
Neuronal Differentiation in the Dorsal Spinal Cord. Neuron *34*, 551–562.
https://doi.org/10.1016/S0896-6273(02)00689-X.

56. Paixão, S., Balijepalli, A., Serradj, N., Niu, J., Luo, W., Martin, J.H., and Klein, R. (2013).
EphrinB3/EphA4-Mediated Guidance of Ascending and Descending Spinal Tracts. Neuron *80*,
1407–1420. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2013.10.006.

57. Bouet, V., Boulouard, M., Toutain, J., Divoux, D., Bernaudin, M., Schumann-Bard, P., and Freret,
T. (2009). The adhesive removal test: a sensitive method to assess sensorimotor deficits in
mice. Nat Protoc *4*, 1560–1564. https://doi.org/10.1038/nprot.2009.125.

58. Roome, R.B., Bourojeni, F.B., Mona, B., Rastegar-Pouyani, S., Blain, R., Dumouchel, A., Salesse,
C., Thompson, W.S., Brookbank, M., Gitton, Y., et al. (2020). Phox2a Defines a Developmental

Origin of the Anterolateral System in Mice and Humans. Cell Reports *33*, 108425.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.celrep.2020.108425.

59. Hunskaar, S., and Hole, K. (1987). The formalin test in mice: dissociation between inflammatory
and non-inflammatory pain. Pain *30*, 103–114. https://doi.org/10.1016/0304-3959(87)90088-1.

60. Mogil, J.S., Wilson, S.G., Bon, K., Eun Lee, S., Chung, K., Raber, P., Pieper, J.O., Hain, H.S.,
Belknap, J.K., Hubert, L., et al. (1999). Heritability of nociception I: Responses of 11 inbred
mouse strains on 12 measures of nociception. Pain *80*, 67–82. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0304-
3959(98)00197-3.

61. del Toro, D., Carrasquero-Ordaz, M.A., Chu, A., Ruff, T., Shahin, M., Jackson, V.A., Chavent, M.,
Berbeira-Santana, M., Seyit-Bremer, G., Brignani, S., et al. (2020). Structural Basis of Teneurin-
Latrophilin Interaction in Repulsive Guidance of Migrating Neurons. Cell *180*, 323-339.e19.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2019.12.014.

62. Schneider, C.A., Rasband, W.S., and Eliceiri, K.W. (2012). NIH Image to ImageJ: 25 years of
image analysis. Nat Methods *9*, 671–675. https://doi.org/10.1038/nmeth.2089.

63. Bankhead, P., Loughrey, M.B., Fernández, J.A., Dombrowski, Y., McArt, D.G., Dunne, P.D.,
McQuaid, S., Gray, R.T., Murray, L.J., Coleman, H.G., et al. (2017). QuPath: Open source
software for digital pathology image analysis. Sci Rep *7*, 16878.
https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-017-17204-5.

64. Schmidt, U., Weigert, M., Broaddus, C., and Myers, G. (2018). Cell Detection with Star-Convex
Polygons. In Medical Image Computing and Computer Assisted Intervention – MICCAI 2018
Lecture Notes in Computer Science., A. F. Frangi, J. A. Schnabel, C. Davatzikos, C. Alberola-
López, and G. Fichtinger, eds. (Springer International Publishing), pp. 265–273.
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-00934-2_30.

65. R Core Team (2021). R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing (R Foundation
for Statistical Computing).

66. Schindelin, J., Arganda-Carreras, I., Frise, E., Kaynig, V., Longair, M., Pietzsch, T., Preibisch, S.,
Rueden, C., Saalfeld, S., Schmid, B., et al. (2012). Fiji: an open-source platform for biological-
image analysis. Nat Methods *9*, 676–682. https://doi.org/10.1038/nmeth.2019.

67. Südhof, T.C. (2025). Signaling by latrophilin adhesion-GPCRs in synapse assembly.
Neuroscience. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroscience.2025.03.041.

68. Sisson, S.A., Fan, Y., and Beaumont, M. (2018). Handbook of Approximate Bayesian
Computation (CRC Press).

69. Schälte, Y., Klinger, E., Alamoudi, E., and Hasenauer, J. (2022). pyABC: Efficient and robust
easy-to-use approximate Bayesian computation. Journal of Open Source Software *7*, 4304.
https://doi.org/10.21105/joss.04304.

70. Wickham, H. (2016). ggplot2: Elegant Graphics for Data Analysis (Springer-Verlag New York).

71. Kassambara, A. (2022). rstatix: Pipe-Friendly Framework for Basic Statistical Tests.

Methods

Acquisition of human tissue

Collection of the human fetal spinal cord samples were obtained with the parents' written informed consent through a spontaneous or induced abortion donor program at the Centre hospitalier universitaire - Sainte-Justine (CHU-SJ), approved by the IRCM and CHU-SJ Research Ethics Committee under the name "Pour une meilleure compréhension du développement de la moelle épinière et des maladies qui y sont associées". Donor spinal cords were dissected and fixed for 24h in formalin, then processed for cryosectioning as below.

Mouse lines

All animal studies were approved by the IRCM's Animal Care Committee in agreement with Canadian Council on Animal Care (CCAC) guidelines, as per protocol numbers 2021-12AK and 2023-11AK. Mice were group-housed with access to food and water *ad libitum*. All mice were maintained on a mixed C57BL/6 and 129/Sv background and both male and female mice were used in all experiments. Mouse lines used in this study include *Lbx1:Cre*[52], *PLAT:Cre*[53], *Ten3^{fl}*[32], *Lphn2^{fl}*[37], *Lphn2-mVenus*[37], and *Ten3^{KO}*[47]. Within the spinal cord, *Lbx1:Cre* drives recombination within the dI4/dILA, dI5/dILB neurons which make up the majority of the DH while sparing most other spinal populations and the DRG[54–56]. *PLAT:cre* is expressed in neural crest derived cells, including DRG neurons, while sparing the spinal cord and brain[53]. *PLAT:Cre* was chosen over alternatives like *Pirt:Cre* and *Advilin:Cre* since these are expressed in neural crest-derived cells as early as Theiler Stage 15 (e9.5) and throughout DRG neurons by e11.5 (Figure S2A).

Cutaneous CTB/WGA injections

Adult mice (>8 weeks old) were anaesthetised via continuous inhalation of isofluorane (1-3%)

and injected with 4 µL of a mixture of 5 mg/mL CTB-AF488 (Thermo Fisher Scientific , cat.

#C34775) and 20 mg/mL WGA-AF555 (Thermo Fisher Scientific , cat. #W32464) dissolved in

sterile PBS. Blunt forceps were used to pinch and stabilize the skin and injections were

performed into the dermis using a beveled glass capillary needle. Distal injections were

performed to the glabrous skin of the hindpaw between the two distal-most promontories.

Proximal injections were performed at the dorsal midline at the same rostrocaudal level as the

iliac crest. All mice were perfused after three days following the injection as described below.

Adhesive removal assay

The adhesive removal assay was performed as previously described[57,58]. In brief, mice were

tested on their ability to remove an adhesive (half of a 1.5 mL Eppendorf tube cap label, cut into

a semicircle) placed on the plantar surface of the hindpaw. The assay was repeated for five

consecutive days, with the first four days considered training days and only the final day used for

comparison. The latency to remove the adhesive was recorded in seconds, with a maximum time

of 30 minutes. If mice exceeded the maximum time, it was marked as a "failure to remove" and

the latency was recorded as 30 minutes for the purpose of data analysis. Mice then returned to

their home cage.

Formalin Assay and c-Fos induction

The formalin assay was performed as previously described[58–60]. Mice were first habituated to the

testing chamber (a clear plastic cylinder filmed from below). They were then subcutaneously

injected with 20 µL of 2% formalin (in 0.9% saline) to the plantar surface of the hind paw using

a 28G needle and returned to the chamber. Mice were filmed from below for 60 minutes

following injection. All quantification of time spent licking each region of the body was done in

the acute phase (0-10 minutes after injection). Mice were then anesthetized and, after an

additional 30 minutes, perfused as described below to analyze the distribution of c-Fos protein

(after a total of 90 minutes following the stimulus).

Tissue fixation, freezing and sectioning

Mice were anesthetized via intraperitoneal injection of a Ketamine/Xylazine mixture (0.1mL/g

body weight of 10 mg/mL Ketamine, 1 mg/mL Xyaline, in 0.9% saline). Mice were then

perfused with approximately 15 mL of 1x PBS followed by 15 mL of 4% PFA in PBS. Spinal

cords were post-fixed in 4% PFA overnight, washed 3x with PBS and left in a 30% sucrose in

PBS solution until they had sunk. Tissue was cryosectioned into 25 µm sections for adult tissue

used for immunohistochemistry and 12 µm sections for embryonic tissue and adult tissue used

for mRNA detection using RNAscope (Advanced Cell Diagnostics (ACDbio)).

DRG explant culture on Ten3/Lphn2 stripes

DRG explants from E15.5 embryos were dissected and plated on 6 cm dishes containing stripes,

prepared essentially as previously described[61]. Briefly, 100 µg/mL of Fc recombinant protein,

Lphn2-Lec or Tenm3, were mixed with Alexa 594-conjugated anti-hFc antibody (Thermo Fisher

Scientific, cat. #A-11014) in PBS. Proteins were injected into matrices (90 μm width) and placed

on 60 mm dishes, resulting in red fluorescent stripes. After 30 min incubation at 37°C, dishes

were washed with PBS and matrices removed. Dishes were coated with 100 μg/mL Fc

conjugated with anti-hFc (Jackson ImmunoResearch, cat. #109-001-008) for 30 min at 37°C and

washed with PBS. Stripes were further coated with 20 μg/mL Laminin in PBS for at least 2 h and

washed with PBS. Explants were then cultured for 1-2 days in vitro at 37°C, 5% CO2 in

Neurobasal medium plus B27 supplement with the addition of 20 ng/mL Nerve Growth Factor

(NGF) and 10 ng/mL Glial cell line-Derived Neurotrophic Factor (GDNF). Samples were then

fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde for 20 minutes and stained with rabbit monoclonal anti-beta-III

tubulin antibody (Sigma-Aldrich, cat. #ZRB1140) after 20 min permeabilization in 1% BSA,

0.1% Triton X-100 in PBS. Cy2 anti-rabbit IgG secondary antibody (Jackson ImmunoResearch,

cat. #111-225-144) was used to detect tubulin. For all conditions n ≥ 15 DRG explants were

used. The numbers of beta-III-tubulin-positive (green) pixels on red or black stripes were

quantified with ImageJ (version 1.54p)[62] using a custom-made automatic macro (available upon

request).

Immunohistochemistry

Tissue sections were washed three times with 1x PBS for 5 minutes, blocked for 30 minutes

using a solution of 5% heat-inactivated horse serum (HIHS) and 0.1% Triton X-100 in PBS

(0.1% tPBS). They were then incubated primary antibody solution (primary antibody in 1%

HIHS, 0.1% tPBS) overnight and washed three times with 1x PBS for 5 minutes before being

incubated with a secondary antibody (in 1% HIHS, 0.1% tPBS) for 1 hour at room temperature,

washed three more times with 1x PBS for 5 minutes, and counterstained with DAPI (4′,6-

diamidino-2-phenylindole, Fisher Scientific, cat. # D1306). Slides were coverslipped using a

solution of 10% Mowiol (Sigma) and 25% glycerol, then allowed to dry prior to imaging.

Primary antibodies used were Rabbit anti-Ten3[32] (1:500), Goat anti-GFP (1:500, Abcam,

ab6673), Mouse anti-NeuN (1:1000, Millipore Sigma, MAB377), Rabbit anti-WGA (1:500,

Millipore Sigma, T4144), Goat anti-CTB (1:5000, List Biological Laboratories, #703), Rabbit

anti-c-Fos (1:1000, Cell Signaling Technology, #2250S), Goat anti-TrkA (1:500, R&D Systems,

AF1056), Goat anti-TrkB (1:500, R&D Systems, AF1494), and Goat anti-TrkC (1:500, R&D

Systems, AF373). Donkey secondary antibodies conjugated to Alexa 488, Cy3, or Cy5 were used

(1:500, Jackson ImmunoResearch). Micrographs of tissue sections were acquired using the Leica

DM6 or SP8 microscopes.

RNAscope ISH and analysis

RNAscope *in situ* mRNA detection was performed according to the manufacturer's protocol

using the RNAscope multiplex fluorescent reagent kit (ACDbio, cat. #323100). Probes used

were Mm-Tenm3-C1 (ACDbio, cat. #411951) and Mm-Lphn2-C2 (ACDbio, cat. #319341-C2).

All images of RNAscope-stained sections were acquired using a Leica SP8 confocal microscope.

RNAscope images were quantified using QuPath bioimage analysis software (version 0.4.4) [63].

Nuclear segmentation was performed using StarDist[64] and individual puncti and clusters were

identified using the QuPath subcellular object detection pipeline. Subcellular detection counts

associated with individual cells and their associated coordinates were exported from QuPath and

analyzed further in R[65] (version 4.0.5). The x coordinate location of each cell (mediolateral

position) was remapped to a 100-unit standard space and counts for a cells within a given area

were binned and visualized as mean counts per cell ± one standard error.

CTB and WGA Image analysis

Initial preprocessing of images from CTB/WGA injections was performed using Fiji[66] (version

2.14.0/1.54f). Images were first cropped to the dorsal horn up until lamina V and an outline was

manually drawn to indicate the region of interest (ROI). For analyses of both tracers, the two

channels were first merged using the imageCalculator "Add" function. Fluorescence intensity

from all channels were scaled using "Enhance Contrast" with "saturated=0.1" before being

thresholded using the auto threshold method "MaxEntropy dark". Preprocessed images and

manually drawn ROIs were then further analyzed in R[65] (version 4.0.5). To account for the

curvature of the dorsal horn (with laminae curved downward almost 90 degrees at the lateral

extreme), pixel coordinates within each ROI were remapped to a set of anatomical coordinates

according to the following functions:

610
$$f_{ML}(x,y) = \begin{cases} x, & x \leq max(x)/2 \\ \tan^{-1}((x - x_0)/(y - y_0)), & x > max(x)/2 \end{cases}$$

612   for mapping x and y pixel coordinates to ML coordinates, and

614
$$f_{SD}(x,y) = \begin{cases} y, & x \leq max(x)/2 \\ \sqrt[2]{(x - x_0)^2 + (y - y_0)^2}, & x > max(x)/2 \end{cases}$$

for mapping x and y pixel coordinates to SD coordinates. Where (x_0, y_0) is the origin, with x_0 set

at the midpoint of the ROI and y_0 set at the lamina IV/V border for f_{SD} and the lamina V/VI

border for f_{ML}. $Max(x)$ refers to the maximum x coordinate within the ROI and not the whole

image. ML and SD coordinates were then normalized to between 0 and 1. Representative

examples of these remapped coordinates are provided here (Figure S2B). The DH was then

divided into 50 bins along the ML or SD axes and the fluorescence intensity in each bin is

represented as a percent of the total signal (such that the values of all bins sum to 100). Since the

bins are created based on distance along the given axis, they are not necessarily of equal size

(also given the variability of DH anatomy) and therefore the fluorescence intensity is

additionally normalized to bin area.

c-Fos image analysis

Counts of c-Fos-positive cells was performed manually using the Cell Counter plugin for Fiji[66]

(version 2.14.0/1.54f) and xml files containing the coordinates of each marker were exported for

further processing in R[65] (version 4.0.5). Marker coordinates were remapped to standardized

anatomical coordinates as described above. For the remainder of the analyses, the DH was then

divided into 5 bins along the ML or SD axes and the raw unnormalized count of c-Fos positive

cells per bin was used.

Computational modelling

To adapt the Koulakov model[7,42,43] to the DH ST map, we added parameters governing the

strength of Ten3/Lphn2 repulsion/attraction since the original model assumed all

repulsive/attractive interactions to be of equal strength which may not hold in our case. We also

reasoned that it was possible for activity-dependent refinement to be disrupted in our cKOs,

either due to the synaptic roles of Teneurins and Latrophilins[67], or as a secondary circuit-level

consequence of ST miswiring, which might then further contribute to the observed ML

distribution shifts. We thus incorporated into our model the ability of cKOs to affect activity-

dependent refinement and added additional parameters to govern how this interaction occurs, if

at all. These parameters determine how much the effect of activity-dependent refinement should

be dampened in each cell based on the decrease in Ten3 or Lphn2 in that cell compared to the

amount it would express under wild-type conditions using the following formula:

648
$$f(x) = 1 - a \cdot \frac{x^{1/b}}{x^{1/b} + 1}$$

Where x is the absolute decrease in expression compared to wild-type conditions for that cell.

For a complete list of model parameters and their description see table S1. The Koulakov model

stochastically adds or removes connections to attempt to minimize a global energy value $E =$

$E_{chem} + E_{act} + E_{comp}$ that contains three components: chemoaffinity energy (E_{chem}), activity

energy (E_{act}), and competition energy (E_{comp}) where the probability of adding or removing a

connection proportional to the change in energy. E_{chem} is calculated according to the following

equation:

658
$$E_{chem} = a_{chem} \cdot \sum_{(A,D)\epsilon S_C} k_{tl} \cdot t(D) \cdot l(A) + k_{lt} \cdot l(D) \cdot t(A) - k_{tt} \cdot t(D) \cdot t(A)$$

With functions t and l describing the levels of Ten3 and Lphn2 in a given axon A or dendrite D and S_C denoting the set of all connected pairs of axons and dendrites. Meanwhile E_{act} is calculated according to:

$$E_{act} = -\frac{\gamma}{2} \sum_{(A_1,D_1),(A_2,D_2)\epsilon S_C} e^{-dist(A_1,A_2)/b_{act}} \cdot e^{-dist(D_1,D_2)^2/2a_{act}^2}$$

and E_{comp} by:

$$E_{comp} = \sum_{A\epsilon S_A} -a_{comp} \cdot \sqrt[2]{n(A)} + b_{comp} \cdot n(A)^2 + \sum_{D\epsilon S_D} d_{comp} \cdot n(D)^2$$

Where n describes the number of synapses formed by a given axon or dendrite and S_A and S_D describing the sets of all axons and dendrites respectively. In all simulations we used a linear array of 50 DH neurons across the ML axis with a matching number of DRG axons and ran the simulation for 25,000 iterations (500 steps per axon), since we found the energy E for most combinations of parameters to plateau by this point. To simulate the tracer injections, each DRG axon was given an amount of tracer according to a gaussian distribution centered at a particular PD location with the center, σ (determining the PD spread of the tracer), and concentration (determining the total amount of tracer per axon) being determined by simple grid search to best match the observed tracer distributions each ABC-SMC iteration. For simulated distal injections,

two gaussians were chosen to mimic the duplicated medial representation of the distal limb.

Parameter values for the Koulakov model were fit using ABC-SMC[68] using the PyABC package (version 0.12.16)[69]. Uniform priors were used for all parameter values. PyABC was run until the "epsilon over walltime" value began to plateau, with a population size of 1000, a maximum number of populations equal to 10, and epsilon values determined using the quantile epsilon method with the parameter alpha equal to 0.1. From this, we obtained posterior distributions over the simulation parameters and a point estimate for the best model (table S1). Simulations of "nerve cut" experiments[45,46] were run using the parameters from our best fit model and eliminating the lateral half of axons innervating the DH. Simulations of experiments disrupting activity-dependent refinement[24,26] were run using the parameters from our best fit model with an 80% reduction in the gamma value.

Statistical Analysis

All statistical analyses were performed in R[65] (version 4.0.5) and the specific statistical tests used are described in figure legends. Figures generated in R using ggplot2[70] (version 3.4.2). The two-way mixed ANOVA tests were performed using the rstatix package[71] (version 0.7.1) according to the formula: fluorescence ~ genotype*position + Error(ID/position) and the genotype*position interaction terms are reported.

Data and code availability

Code is available at (https://github.com/k-sangster/somatotopic_maps). All other data are available in the main paper and supplementary materials. All materials are available through requests to the corresponding author.

Acknowledgments: We thank Meirong Liang and IRCM animal facility staff for technical

support; Drs. Jeffrey Mogil and Samantha Butler for comments on the manuscript; Dr. Farin

Bourojeni and other members of the Kania laboratory for advice, feedback, and discussions. This

work was supported by project grants from the Canadian Institutes of Health Research (CIHR;

PJT-162225, MOP-77556, PJT-153053, PJT-159839, and PJT-197987) to AK and National

Institutes of Health (NIH; R01-NS050580) to LL. AK holds the Doggone Foundation Chair of

Excellence in Pain and receives support from the Fondation IRCM. KTS is a recipient of a CIHR

doctoral scholarship (FRN:494078). XZ is a recipient of a Fonds de recherche du Québec -Santé

doctoral scholarship.

Author contributions: K.T.S. Performed all experiments except for the in-vitro and behavioural

experiments, analysed the data, and performed the computational modelling. The in-vitro

experiments were performed and analysed by D.d.T. with reagents generated by E.S. Behavioural

experiments using $Ten3^{KO}$ mice were performed by A.M.M. and D.T.P. and quantified by S.M.

Behavioural experiments using $Ten3^{\Delta DH}$ mice were performed by X.Z. and quantified by C.S.

R.B.R contributed to investigation and conceptualization. L.L., S.P., T.B. and C.F.B. provided

reagents. A.K. supervised the study and acquired funding. A.K. and K.T.S. wrote the paper.

Competing interests: Authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Figure 1. Complementary expression of Ten3 and Lphn2 in the DH and DRG. **A**, *Ten3* and

Lphn2 mRNA localisation in the lumbosacral DH at e14.5 (left). Quantification of RNAscope

puncta and fluorescence intensity (right, n = 4 embryos). **b**, Localisation of Ten3 and Lphn2

proteins, with anti-Ten3 and anti-GFP antisera, respectively, in the lumbar DH and adjacent

dorsal root entry zone (DREZ) of *Lphn2-mVenus* knock-in mice at e14.5 (left). Quantification of

fluorescence intensity in the DH (right, n = 3 embryos) **C**, *Ten3* and *Lphn2* mRNA localisation in

lumbar DRG at e14.5 (left) and quantification of mRNA puncta (right, n = 3 embryos). **D**,

Hypothesized interactions governing DH somatotopic map formation based on the expression

and previously described roles of Ten3 and Lphn2. All data shown as mean ± SEM. Scale bars in

(**A**,**B**) = 100 μm, (**C**) = 50 μm. Axis labels in this and subsequent figures: M, medial; L, ventral;

D, dorsal; V, ventral.

Figure 2. Aberrant somatotopy of distal sensory afferents in the DH of Ten3 and Lphn2 cKOs. A,D, Schematic of lost and preserved interactions in (**A**) Ten3$^{\Delta DH}$ cKOs and (**D**) Lphn2$^{\Delta DRG}$ cKOs (top) and the observed shift in the ST distribution of sensory afferents in the cKOs (bottom, filled lines) compared to controls (bottom, dotted lines). **B,E**, Representative images of CTB and WGA labeled afferent termini in (**B**) Ten3$^{\Delta DH}$ cKOs (insets showing WGA near lateral edge of DH in cKOs) and (**E**) Lphn2$^{\Delta DRG}$ cKOs compared to controls. Stippled lines outline the DH. **C,F**, Quantification of the distribution of CTB and WGA signal across the ML axis of the DH in cKOs and control littermates in (**C**) Ten3$^{\Delta DH}$ cKOs (n = 4 controls, 4 cKOs) and (**F**) Lphn2$^{\Delta DRG}$ cKOs (n = 4 controls, 3 cKOs). All data shown as mean ± SEM. Two-way mixed ANOVA was performed and genotype x bin interaction terms are reported. ***P ≤ 0.001; **P ≤ 0.01; *P ≤ 0.05. Scale bars = 100 μm.

Figure 3. Altered somatotopy of proximal sensory afferents in the DH of Ten3 and Lphn2

cKOs. A, **D**, and **G**, Schematic of lost and preserved interactions in (**A**) Ten3$^{\Delta DH}$ cKOs, (**D**)

Lphn2$^{\Delta DH}$ cKOs, and (**g**) Ten3$^{\Delta DRG}$ cKOs (top) and the observed shift in the ST distribution of

afferent termini in the DH of cKOs (bottom, filled lines) compared to controls (bottom, dotted

lines). **B**, **E**, and **H**, Representative images of CTB and WGA labeled afferents in (**B**) Ten3$^{\Delta DH}$

cKOs (insets show more medially located CTB/WGA in cKOs), (**E**) Lphn2$^{\Delta DH}$ cKOs, and (**H**)

Ten3$^{\Delta DRG}$ cKOs compared to controls. Stippled lines outline the DH. **C**, **F**, and **I**, Quantification

of the distribution of CTB and WGA signal across the ML axis of the DH in cKOs and control

littermates in (**C**) Ten3$^{\Delta DH}$ cKOs, (**F**) Lphn2$^{\Delta DH}$ cKOs, and (**I**) Ten3$^{\Delta DRG}$ cKOs (n = 4 controls

and 4 cKOs for all). All data shown as mean ± SEM. Two-way mixed ANOVA was performed

754   and genotype x bin interaction terms are reported. ***$P \leq 0.001$; **$P \leq 0.01$; *$P \leq 0.05$. Scale

755   bars = 100 μm.

Figure 4. Computational modelling of DH somatotopic map formation. A, Simplified

schematic of model parameters and of the ABC-SMC procedure. **B**, Correct distal → medial and

proximal → lateral mapping from one representative simulation under wild-type conditions.

Simulated ML density of terminal zones in the DH from 10 DRG axons selected across the PD

axis. **C**, Observed and simulated tracer injections for controls and cKOs across all

genotype/injection site combinations examined. Average distributions of each condition are

shown. Simulated distribution taken from the average of 10 independent simulations.

Figure 5. Altered distribution of c-Fos expression in the DH and behavioural responses induced by a noxious stimulus in Ten3^{ΔDH} cKOs. A, Representative images of c-Fos distribution in the DH induced by formalin injection to the hindpaw of Ten3$^{\Delta DH}$ cKOs and contols. **B-D**, Quantification of c-Fos-expressing cells in Ten3$^{\Delta DH}$ cKO mice and control littermates (n = 5 controls and 5 cKOs). (**B**) Distribution of c-Fos positive cells across the ML axis of the DH. Two-way mixed ANOVA test was performed, and genotype x bin interaction term is reported along with Benjamini-Yekutieli corrected post-hoc p-values for individual bin comparisons. (**C**) 2D kernel density plots showing their distribution of Fos positive cells in the DH. Hotelling T^2 p-value 0.03. (**D**) Average ML position of c-Fos-expressing cells compared with Welch's t-test. **E**, Quantification of nocifensive licking behaviour in response to formalin injection to the hindpaw near the digits, depicted as a percent of total linking time per limb region (n = 8 controls and 10 cKOs). Two-way mixed ANOVA was performed and genotype x location interaction term is reported. Post-hoc Mann-Whitney tests were performed for each limb location. All data shown as mean ± SEM. ***P ≤ 0.001; **P ≤ 0.01; *P ≤ 0.05. Scale bars = 100 μm.

Figure S1. Further characterization of Ten3 and Lphn2 expression. A, *Ten3* and *Lphn2*

mRNA localisation in e14.5 DRG cross sections (left) and quantification of puncta counts and

fluorescence intensity (right, n = 4 embryos) showing no spatial bias for either across the DV or

ML axes. Insets show DRG neurons with high *Lphn2* ('), a mix of *Lphn2* and *Ten3* ("), and high

Ten3 mRNA levels ('''). **B**, Quantification of mRNA puncta in (A) for *Lphn2* in *Ten3*-low

compared to *Ten3*-high cells and or *Ten3* in *Lphn2*-low compared to *Lphn2*-high cells. High

mRNA level cells were defined as the top 90% and low mRNA cells were defined as the bottom

10% of cells expressing each respective mRNA after filtering out cells with low/no expression of

both. Counts per cell were averaged such that each point corresponds to one embryo (n = 4

embryos). **C**, Dual *Ten3* and *Lphn2* mRNA and TrkA, TrkB, and TrkC DRG neuron subtype

protein marker detection in e14.5 DRGs. **D**, Related to Figure 1B, quantification of fluorescence

intensity of immunostaining for Ten3 and Lphn2-mVenus fusion protein (detected with an anti-

GFP antibody) in the white matter adjacent to the DH of *Lphn2-mVenus* knock-in mice at e14.5

(n = 3 embryos). Shown as fluorescence intensity normalized per image (left) or as a proportion

of total fluorescence intensity at each ML position (right). **E**, *Ten3* and *Lphn2* mRNA detection

in the e16.5 ventrobasal (VB) thalamus aligning with the proximal to distal somatotopic

organization (dorsolateral to ventromedial VB). **F**, *TENM3* and *ADGRL2* (human orthologues of

Ten3 and *Lphn2*) mRNA detection in the human gestational week (GW) 20 DH. All data shown

as mean ± SEM. A paired t-test was performed in **c**. ***P ≤ 0.001; **P ≤ 0.01; *P ≤ 0.05. Scale

bars in **A** = 25 μm, in **B**, **E**, and **F** = 100 μm.

Figure S2. Ten3 and Lphn2 guide DRG axons *in vitro*. A, Schematic of DRG explant

experiments. **B**, Explants of e15.5 lumbar DRGs labelled with anti-βIII-tubulin antibody,

cultured on stripes of: FC (black), FC (red, left), Lphn2-lectin domain (Lphn2-Lec, red, middle),

or Lphn2 non-Teneurin-binding mutants (Lphn2-Lec^{LT}, red, right) proteins. Red stripes are also

marked by white arrowheads. **C**, Quantification of βIII-tubulin protein on red stripes as a

percentage of the total βIII-tubulin signal. While there is no preference for red or black stripes in

either FC/FC or FC/ Lphn2-Lec^{LT} controls, there are significantly fewer βIII-tubulin labelled

axons on the red Lphn2-Lec stripes. **D**, Explants of e15.5 lumbar DRGs labelled with anti-βIII-

tubulin antibody grown on stripes of: FC (black), FC (red, left), or Ten3 (red, right) proteins. Red

stripes are also marked by white arrowheads. **E**, Quantification of βIII-tubulin on red stripes as a

percentage of the total βIII-tubulin signal. While there is no preference for red or black stripes in

FC/FC controls, there are significantly fewer βIII-tubulin labelled axons on the red Ten3 stripes,

indicating that despite the presumed presence of both Ten3→Lphn2 repulsion and Ten3→Ten3

attraction, the net effect is repulsion. ***$P \le 0.001$; **$P \le 0.01$; *$P \le 0.05$. Scale bars = 200 μm.

Figure S3. Additional characterization of distal sensory afferent termini in the DH of Ten3

and Lphn2 cKOs. (**A**) Validation of cre driver lines used in this study showing cre-driven

tdTomato expression in the DH and DRG at E11.5 and E16.5 (**B**) A representative example

showing mapping of x and y axes to anatomically-relevant axes used in quantifications in this

study to account for DH curvature. (**C and H**) ML distribution of WGA (left) and CTB (right) in

(C) Ten3$^{\Delta DH}$ cKOs and (H) Lphn2$^{\Delta DRG}$ cKOs compared to littermate controls. (**D and I**) Average

Pearson correlation coefficient per animal between WGA and CTB signal across the ML axis of

the DH in (D) Ten3$^{\Delta DH}$ cKOs and (I) Lphn2$^{\Delta DRG}$ cKOs compared to littermate controls. (**E, F, J**

and **K**) SD distribution of CTB and WGA signal in controls (E and J) and cKOs (F and K)

showing separation along the SD axis of afferents labeled by the two tracers. (**G and L**) SD axis

distribution of WGA (left) and CTB (right) between cKOs and control littermates showing no

shift along this axis. All data shown as mean ± SEM. Ten3$^{\Delta DH}$, n = 4 controls and 4 cKOs;

Lphn2$^{\Delta DRG}$, n = 4 controls and 3 cKOs. Welch's t-test was performed in (D) and (I), in all others

two-way mixed ANOVA was performed and genotype x bin interaction term is reported. ***P ≤

0.001; **P ≤ 0.01; *P ≤ 0.05. Scale bars = 100 μm.

Figure S4 Additional characterization of proximal sensory afferents in the DH of Ten3 and Lphn2 cKOs. (A, F and **K)** ML distribution of WGA (left) and CTB (right) in (A) Ten3$^{\Delta DH}$ cKOs, (F) Lphn2$^{\Delta DH}$ cKOs, and (K) Ten3$^{\Delta DRG}$ cKOs compared to littermate controls. (**B, G** and **L)** Average Pearson correlation coefficient per animal between WGA and CTB signal across the ML axis of the DH in (B) Ten3$^{\Delta DH}$ cKOs, (G) Lphn2$^{\Delta DH}$ cKOs, and (L) Ten3$^{\Delta DRG}$ cKOs compared to littermate controls. (**C, D, H, I, M** and **N)** SD distribution of CTB and WGA signal in controls (C, H, and M) and cKOs (D, I, and N) showing separation along the SD axis of afferent termini labeled by the two tracers. (**E, J** and **O)** Distribution of WGA (left) and CTB (right) long the SD axis of cKOs and control littermates. All data shown as mean ± SEM. n = 4 controls and 4 cKOs for all analyses. Welch's t-test was performed in (B), (G) and (L), in all others two-way mixed ANOVA was performed and genotype x bin interaction term is reported. ***P ≤ 0.001; **P ≤ 0.01; *P ≤ 0.05.

Figure S5. Further evaluation of computational model performance. (**A**) PD origin of DRG

axons compared to the position of their ML terminal zones showing correct distal → medial and

proximal → lateral mapping from one representative simulation under wild-type conditions. (**B**,

C, and **D**) Simulated disruption of activity-dependent refinement from one representative

simulation under wild-type conditions. (B) PD origin of DRG axons compared to the position of

their ML terminal zones. (C) Simulated ML density of terminal zones in the DH from 10 DRG

axons selected across the PD axis. (D) Comparison of one terminal zone from the same axon

with/without disrupted activity-dependent refinement. (**E** and **F**) Simulated nerve cut experiment

from one representative simulation under wild-type conditions showing expansion of remaining

axons along the entire ML extent of the DH. (E) PD origin of DRG axons compared to the

position of their ML terminal zones. (F) Simulated ML density of terminal zones in the DH from

10 DRG axons selected across the PD axis.

Ten3 KO

Ten3^{ΔDH} cKO

Figure S6. Additional characterization of c-Fos expression and somatosensory behavioural responses in Ten3 mutants. (**A** and **B**) Related to Figure 5, quantification of c-Fos-expressing cells in the contralateral and ipsilateral DH relative to the side of the formalin injection in (A) controls and (B) cKOs. (**C** and **D**) Quantification of c-Fos-expressing cells in cKOs compared to littermate controls in the (C) contralateral and (D) ipsilateral DH relative to the site of formalin injection. (**E**) SD distribution of c-Fos-expressing cells in cKOs compared to littermate controls in the ipsilateral DH. (**F-H**) Quantification of nocifensive licking behavior in Ten3 global KOs compared to control littermates in response to formalin injection to the hindpaw near the digits. (F) The percent of total time spent licking per limb region. (G) Licking time in seconds per limb region. (H) Total licking time. (**I**) Latency to remove adhesive tape from the hindpaw in KOs and control littermates. (**J**) Number of attempts to remove adhesive tape from the hindpaw in KOs and littermate controls. (**L-N**) Same as in panels (F), and (H-J) respectively, except performed in Ten3$^{\Delta DH}$ cKOs and control littermates. All data shown as mean ± SEM. (A-E) n = 5 controls and 5 cKOs; (F-H) n = 9 controls and 15 cKOs, (L-N) n = 8 controls and 8 cKOs. Welch's t-test was performed in (A-D) and Mann-Whitney tests were performed in (H-J) and (K-N). In (F), (G) and (L) a two-way mixed ANOVA was performed, genotype x bin interaction term is reported, and post-hoc Mann-Whitney tests were performed for each limb location. ***$P \le 0.001$; **$P \le 0.01$; *$P \le 0.05$. Scale bars = 100 µm.

Parameter category	Parameter	Value	Value in Triplett et al. 2011[8]	Description
Activity-dependent refinement	γ	1.533263	0.05	Overall strength of activity-dependent refinement
	a_{act}	3 (matched to Triplett et al.)	3	How the effect of a correlated activity scales with distance (in the target)
	b_{act}	11 (matched to Triplett et al.)	11	How the effect of a correlated activity scales with distance (in the periphery)
Competition	A_{comp}	683.56697 27	500	Competition term (promotes more synapses)
	B_{comp}	0.410343	1	Competition term (limits #synapses per axon)
	D_{comp}	3.152244	1	Competition term (limits #synapses per dendrite)
Chemoaffinity	α_{chem}	81.40445 2	20	Overall strength of "chemoaffinity" (guidance cues)
	k_{tl}	0.522447	NA	Strength of teneurin $\rightarrow$ latrophilin repulsion
	k_{lt}	0.789563	NA	Strength of latrophilin$\rightarrow$ teneurin repulsion
	k_{tt}	0.226765	NA	Strength of teneurin $\rightarrow$ teneurin attraction
Genotype/ activity dependent refinement interaction terms	a_{t_DH}	2.991975	NA	Slope of curve describing how loss of Ten3 in the DH should affect activity dependent refinement in each cell
	b_{t_DH}	1.207797	NA	Shape of curve describing how loss of Ten3 in the DH should affect activity dependent refinement in each cell
	a_{t_DRG}	0.627226	NA	Slope of curve describing how loss of Ten3 in the DRG should affect activity dependent refinement in each cell

	b_{t_DRG}	1.532894	NA	Shape of curve describing how loss of Ten3 in the DRG should affect activity dependent refinement in each cell
	a_{l_DH}	1.505978	NA	Slope of curve describing how loss of Lphn2 in the DH should affect activity dependent refinement in each cell
	b_{l_DH}	1.250706	NA	Shape of curve describing how loss of Lphn2 in the DH should affect activity dependent refinement in each cell
	a_{l_DRG}	0.632682	NA	Slope of curve describing how loss of Lphn2 in the DRG should affect activity dependent refinement in each cell
	b_{l_DRG}	1.647495	NA	Shape of curve describing how loss of Lphn2 in the DRG should affect activity dependent refinement in each cell

881 **Table S1. List of computational model parameters.** List of parameter values derived from

882 PyABC along with their description and corresponding value in a retinocollicular model.