Title: Mechanisms of synaptic zinc plasticity at mouse dorsal cochlear nucleus

glutamatergic synapses

Authors: Nathan W. Vogler[1] and Thanos Tzounopoulos[*1]

[1]Department of Otolaryngology and Pittsburgh Hearing Research Center, University of Pittsburgh,

Pittsburgh, PA 15261

* To whom correspondence may be addressed. Email: thanos@pitt.edu

In many excitatory synapses, synaptic zinc is co-released with glutamate to modulate

neurotransmission. Synaptic zinc modulates the responsiveness of auditory cortex to

sound, and synaptic zinc levels and signaling are modulated by sensory experience,

termed zinc plasticity. The mechanisms underlying zinc plasticity remain unknown. We

discovered that high- and low-frequency electrical stimulation of dorsal cochlear nucleus

synapses reduces and increases synaptic zinc signaling, respectively. This bidirectional

zinc plasticity is evidenced by changes in zinc inhibition of AMPA and NMDA receptor

activity. Increases and decreases in zinc signaling require activation of Group 1

metabotropic glutamate receptors (mGluRs). Activation of Group 1 mGluRs with a higher

agonist concentration increases presynaptic zinc levels and postsynaptic zinc signaling,

whereas activation with a lower concentration reduces zinc levels and signaling. Sound-

induced zinc plasticity also requires Group 1 mGluRs. Our results reveal the mechanisms

underlying synaptic zinc plasticity, elicited by either synaptic activity or sound experience.

Introduction

In many brain areas, including the neocortex, limbic structures, and the auditory brainstem, glutamatergic vesicles are loaded with zinc (Danscher & Stoltenberg, 2005; Frederickson et al., 2005). This pool of mobile, synaptic zinc is co-released with glutamate and is a major modulator of glutamatergic neurotransmission. Namely, synaptic zinc inhibits synaptic and extrasynaptic NMDA receptor (NMDAR) excitatory postsynaptic currents (EPSCs), and modulates AMPA receptor (AMPAR) EPSCs (Kalappa et al., 2015; 2017; Anderson et al., 2015; Vogt et al., 2000; Vergnano et al., 2014). Synaptic zinc inhibits AMPAR EPSCs at lower frequencies of synaptic activity, but enhances steady state AMPAR EPSCs during higher frequencies of activity by recruiting endocannabinoid signaling, reducing probability of release and enhancing synaptic facilitation (Kalappa et al., 2015; 2017; Perez-Rosello et al., 2013). In awake mice, synaptic zinc enhances the responsiveness (gain) of sound-evoked responses in auditory cortical principal neurons but reduces the gain of cortical interneurons (Anderson et al., 2017). Activity-dependent changes in gain are crucial for sensory processing, for they allow sensory systems to adapt to changing sensory environments and facilitate central recovery of sensory processing in response to peripheral damage (Atallah et al., 2012; Ohshiro et al., 2011; Dean et al., 2005; Watkins & Barbour, 2008; Rabinowitz et al., 2011; Natan et al., 2017; Chambers et al., 2016; Resnik et al., 2017).

Consistent with the role of synaptic zinc in gain modulation of sound-evoked responses, sensory experience bidirectionally modulates the levels of vesicular zinc and synaptic zinc signaling in several sensory brain areas (Nakashima & Dyck, 2009; Li et al., 2017; Kalappa et al., 2015; McAllister & Dyck, 2017). In the somatosensory cortex, whisker plucking increases zinc levels, whereas whisker stimulation reduces zinc levels (Brown & Dyck 2002; 2005). In the primary visual cortex, monocular deprivation increases vesicular zinc levels (Dyck et al., 2003). In the retina, optic nerve damage increases zinc levels, which in turn inhibit optic nerve regeneration and

promote cell death (Li et al., 2017). In the dorsal cochlear nucleus (DCN), an auditory brainstem

nucleus, exposure to loud sound reduces vesicular zinc levels and synaptic zinc signaling

(Kalappa et al., 2015). Yet, the cellular and molecular mechanisms underlying the experience-

dependent plasticity of synaptic zinc levels remain unknown. Elucidating these mechanisms is

crucial for understanding how the brain adapts during normal sensory processing, and why it fails

to properly adjust in sensory disorders associated with pathological central adaptation, such as in

tinnitus (Auerbach et al., 2014).

To determine the mechanisms of zinc plasticity, we used electrophysiology and fluorescent

imaging in the DCN, which contains parallel fibers (PFs) with high levels of synaptic zinc that are

modulated by sound experience (Frederickson et al., 1988; Rubio & Juiz, 1998; Kalappa et al.,

2015). We investigated these mechanisms *in vitro*, in response to electrical synaptic activation in

brain slices, as well as *in vivo*, in response to loud sound exposure. Our results demonstrate

bidirectional activity-dependent zinc plasticity, and reveal a novel mechanism of plasticity in

central synapses that involves mGluR activation.

Results

Bidirectional activity-dependent zinc plasticity requires Group 1 mGluRs

To investigate the mechanisms underlying zinc plasticity, we first determined whether we could

induce zinc plasticity in DCN PF synapses in mouse brain slices. In these synapses, application

of the fast, high-affinity extracellular zinc chelator ZX1 potentiates AMPAR and NMDAR EPSCs

via postsynaptic mechanisms (Anderson et al., 2015; Kalappa et al., 2015; 2017). Moreover, this

potentiation is dependent on ZnT3, the transporter that loads zinc into synaptic vesicles (Palmiter

et al., 1996; Cole et al., 1999), indicating that synaptic zinc inhibits AMPAR and NMDAR EPSCs.

We therefore used the ZX1 potentiation of AMPAR and NMDAR EPSCs, as well as imaging of

presynaptic zinc levels, as assays for monitoring zinc plasticity in the DCN.

Consistent with previous studies, we found that ZX1 potentiated postsynaptic PF AMPAR EPSCs

in DCN cartwheel cells (CWCs), a class of inhibitory interneurons (Fig. 1 A-B) (Kalappa et al.,

2015; 2017). To develop an *in vitro* model of zinc plasticity to study underlying mechanisms, we

tested whether we can induce zinc plasticity by using patterns of synaptic activation that induce

plasticity of glutamatergic signaling, such long-term potentiation and depression (LTP/LTD) in the

DCN PF synapses (Tzounopoulos et al., 2004; 2007; Fujino & Oertel, 2003). We started by

examining the effect of ZX1 on AMPAR EPSCs following high-frequency stimulation of PFs (HFS,

3 x 100 Hz for 1 sec, 10 sec inter-stimulus interval), which induces glutamatergic LTP (Fujino &

Oertel, 2003). After applying HFS and obtaining a new stable baseline, we renormalized AMPAR

EPSC amplitude to the new baseline, to quantify the amount ZX1 potentiation after HFS (Fig. 1

C). After HFS, ZX1 application did not potentiate AMPAR EPSCs (Fig. 1 C-D). The loss of ZX1

potentiation indicates a loss of zinc-mediated inhibition of AMPARs, suggesting that HFS caused

a reduction in synaptic zinc signaling, thereby inducing zinc plasticity.

After establishing that HFS reduced zinc signaling, we then used this stimulation paradigm as a

tool for studying the underlying mechanisms. NMDARs mediate the induction of LTP and LTD in

the DCN and most central synapses (Malenka & Nicoll, 1993; Tzounopoulos et al., 2004; 2007;

Fujino & Oertel, 2003). To test the role of NMDARs in the induction of zinc plasticity by HFS, we

blocked NMDARs with APV (NMDAR antagonist, 50 μM; Fig. 2 A). As evidenced by the lack of

ZX1 potentiation of AMPAR EPSCs after HFS, APV did not affect HFS-induced reductions in zinc

signaling (Fig. 2 A, C), suggesting that NMDARs are not required for the induction of zinc

plasticity.

Parallel fiber synapses in the DCN also exhibit glutamatergic plasticity that involves metabotropic

glutamate receptor (mGluR) signaling (Fujino & Oertel, 2003). Furthermore, Group 1 mGluRs are

expressed in CWCs and in the DCN molecular layer, which contains PF terminals (Wright et al.,

1996; Bilak & Morest, 1998). We therefore tested whether Group 1 mGluR signaling is necessary

for the induction of zinc plasticity. To test this hypothesis, we repeated the experiment shown in

2A, but now we blocked Group 1 mGluRs with MPEP (4 μM, mGluR5-selective antagonist) and

LY367385 (100 μM, mGluR1-selective antagonist) (Fig. 2 B). Under these conditions, HFS did

not affect ZX1 potentiation compared to control, no HFS, conditions (Fig. 2 B-C), suggesting that

Group 1 mGluR activation is necessary for the induction of zinc plasticity by HFS.

Glutamatergic plasticity is bidirectional: synapses undergo LTP or LTD in response to high- or

low-frequency stimulation, respectively (Malenka & Nicoll, 1993; Mulkey & Malenka, 1992; Fujino

& Oertel 2003). To determine whether zinc plasticity is bidirectional, we tested whether low-

frequency stimulation (LFS) increases zinc signaling (Fig. 3 A). Because the induction of zinc

plasticity depends on mGluR activation, we used conditions that favor mGluR activation such as

LFS (5 Hz, 3 min), blockade of NMDARs with APV, and high extracellular concentrations of

divalent ions (4 mM Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+}; Oliet et al., 1997). Compared to control (no LFS), LFS

increased the amount of ZX1 potentiation (Fig. 3 A, C). Note that control ZX1 potentiation in these

conditions (Fig. 3 C) was slightly less, albeit not significantly different (p=0.11, unpaired t test),

than previous control experiments performed in ACSF with 2.4/1.3 mM of extracellular Ca^{2+}/Mg^{2+}

(Fig. 1 D). This is likely due to reduced neuronal excitability (Oliet et al., 1997; Kalappa et al.,

2015). Together, these results suggest that LFS increased synaptic zinc signaling, thus

demonstrating that activity-dependent plasticity of zinc signaling is bidirectional: HFS reduces zinc

signaling, whereas LFS increases zinc signaling.

We next tested whether Group 1 mGluR activation is necessary for the increased zinc signaling

by LFS. Whereas LFS alone increased ZX1 potentiation compared to control, LFS in the presence

of MPEP and LY367385 did not increase ZX1 potentiation (Fig. 3 B-C). This indicates that Group

1 mGluR activation is necessary for the induction of zinc plasticity by LFS. Together, these results

reveal that activation of Group 1 mGluR signaling is necessary for the induction of bidirectional

zinc plasticity by HFS or LFS.

Group 1 mGluR activation is sufficient to induce bidirectional zinc plasticity

Is activation of Group 1 mGluRs sufficient to induce zinc plasticity? Because Group 1 mGluRs are

required for both increases and decreases in zinc signaling by different stimulation paradigms,

we hypothesized that the direction of plasticity depends on differential activation of mGluRs during

the induction protocols. To test this, we applied high or low concentrations of DHPG (Group 1

mGluR agonist, 50 μM or 5 μM). Consistent with previous studies, application of 50 μM DHPG

caused LTD (Fig. 4 A; Huber et al., 2001; Wisniewski & Car, 2002; Snyder et al. 2001). After

applying 50 μM DHPG, obtaining a new stable baseline, and then applying ZX1, we observed that

the ZX1 potentiation of EPSCs was significantly increased compared to control (Fig. 4 A, C-D).

This result indicates that a high concentration of DHPG increases zinc signaling: Group 1 mGluR

activation is sufficient to induce zinc plasticity.

Because increases and decreases in zinc signaling induced by L/HFS depend on Group 1 mGluR

activation (Fig. 2 and 3), we next tested whether application of a lower concentration of DHPG

reduces zinc signaling. After applying 5 μM DHPG and obtaining a new stable baseline, ZX1 did

not potentiate EPSCs (Fig. 4 B-D). This result indicates that activation of Group 1 mGluRs with a

lower concentration of DHPG reduces zinc signaling. Together, these results demonstrate that

Group 1 mGluR activation is sufficient to induce bidirectional zinc plasticity. Furthermore, the

direction of zinc plasticity depends on the concentration of DHPG: 50 μM DHPG increases zinc

signaling, whereas 5 μM DHPG reduces zinc signaling. These results are consistent with the

notion that bidirectional zinc plasticity depends on differential activation of Group 1 mGluRs by

either L/HFS or high/low concentrations of DHPG.

Group 1 mGluR activation bidirectionally modulates presynaptic zinc levels

We used activity-dependent changes in the amount of ZX1 potentiation of AMPAR EPSCs for

assessing changes in zinc signaling. However, ZX1 potentiation is determined by the postsynaptic

zinc-mediated inhibition of AMPAR EPSCs, as well as the amount of presynaptic zinc release

(Kalappa et al., 2015). Because previous studies have demonstrated activity-dependent

modulation of presynaptic zinc levels (Nakashima & Dyck, 2009; Kalappa et al., 2015), we

hypothesized that the plasticity of zinc signaling is due, at least in part, to the modulation of

presynaptic zinc levels. To quantify potential changes in presynaptic zinc levels, we used DA-ZP1

(0.5 μM), a fluorescent intracellular zinc sensor capable of tracking presynaptic zinc levels in PF

terminals (Kalappa et al., 2015; Zastrow et al., 2016). To induce zinc plasticity, we applied DHPG,

which, unlike synaptic stimulation, induces zinc plasticity in all terminals in the slice. We imaged

DA-ZP1 fluorescence (Fig. 5 A) in control slices and in slices treated with DHPG (50 μM or 5 μM).

Compared to the non-treated control slices, incubation of slices with 50 μM DHPG increased DA-

ZP1 fluorescence in the DCN molecular layer, indicating increased presynaptic zinc levels in PF

terminals (Fig. 5 B). In contrast, incubation of slices with 5 μM DHPG reduced DA-ZP1

fluorescence, indicating reduced zinc levels (Fig. 5 B). These results demonstrate that application

of different concentrations of DHPG causes bidirectional modulation of presynaptic zinc levels.

Furthermore, these results are consistent with our electrophysiological experiments: 50 μM DHPG

increases zinc levels and ZX1 potentiation of EPSCs, whereas 5 μM DHPG reduces zinc levels

and ZX1 potentiation of EPSCs. Although our results do not rule out potential postsynaptic

mechanisms of zinc plasticity, our results demonstrate that zinc plasticity involves modulation of

presynaptic zinc levels.

Zinc plasticity does not depend on AMPAR plasticity, and it affects zinc-mediated inhibition of NMDARs

Pharmacological or electrophysiological induction of zinc plasticity is consistent with modulation of presynaptic zinc levels, but postsynaptic modifications are also possible. Because PFs exhibit postsynaptic AMPAR LTP (Fujino & Oertel, 2003; Tzounopoulos et al., 2007; Zhao & Tzounopoulos, 2011), we therefore sought to determine whether ZX1 potentiation is correlated with the amount of AMPAR LTP. To test for this, we plotted the ZX1 potentiation versus the changes in AMPAR EPSC amplitude after HFS (Fig. 6 A). We found no correlation between AMPAR plasticity and ZX1 potentiation (Fig. 6 A). This result suggests that modulation of zinc signaling does not depend on the amount of AMPAR potentiation, and supports the notion that modification of postsynaptic AMPARs during LTP are likely not involved in zinc plasticity.

Our DA-ZP1 imaging results suggest that zinc plasticity involves modulation of presynaptic zinc signaling. Therefore, the induction of zinc plasticity should also affect postsynaptic NMDAR EPSCs, which are inhibited by zinc via direct high-affinity receptor binding (Paoletti et al., 1997; Vergnano et al., 2014). To test this hypothesis, we quantified the ZX1 potentiation of NMDAR EPSCs after inducing zinc plasticity with HFS. To monitor NMDAR EPSCs, we used a short train of presynaptic stimulation (5 pulses at 20 Hz) to activate extrasynaptic NMDARs, for NMDAR EPSCs recorded in somata of CWCs are mostly mediated by extrasynaptic NMDARs activated by glutamate spillover during this short train (Anderson et al., 2015). To avoid keeping CWCs at +40 mV for too long while recording NMDAR EPSCs, and to maintain the same induction protocol used in our previous experiments, we initially recorded AMPAR EPSCs at -70 mV, then applied HFS. Subsequently, we blocked AMPARs with DNQX (20 μM, AMPA/kainate receptor antagonist) and recorded at +40 mV to obtain a stable baseline of NMDAR EPSCs before applying ZX1 (Fig. 6 B). Consistent with our results on AMPAR EPSCs, after HFS, ZX1 no longer potentiated NMDAR EPSCs (Fig. 6 B, D), whereas ZX1 enhanced NMDARs EPSCs in interleaved control

experiments where HFS was not applied, also consistent with previous results from DCN CWCs

(Anderson et al., 2015). These results demonstrate that HFS-induced zinc plasticity reduces zinc-

mediated inhibition of NMDARs. To determine whether this modulation shares the same

mechanism with the zinc plasticity evidenced by changes in the ZX1 potentiation of AMPAR

EPSCs, we tested whether Group 1 mGluR signaling is required. Indeed, application of MPEP

and LY367385 blocked the observed zinc plasticity (Fig. 6 C-D), demonstrating that Group 1

mGluR signaling is required for HFS-induced plasticity of NMDAR zinc inhibition.

Finally, to control for potential non-specific effects of ZX1 on presynaptic zinc levels, perhaps

through redistribution of zinc levels in different cellular compartments, we tested the effect of ZX1

on DA-ZP1 fluorescence. Indeed, application of ZX1 10 min prior and during DA-ZP1 application

did not affect the fluorescence levels in the molecular layer of the DCN (Fig. 6 E). This result

indicates that ZX1 does not affect presynaptic zinc levels, and is consistent with the notion that

changes in the ZX1 potentiation of EPSCs after L/HFS detect activity-dependent changes in

presynaptic zinc levels and signaling.

Together, our results indicate that pharmacological or synaptic activation of Group 1 mGluRs

causes bidirectional synaptic zinc plasticity. Synaptic zinc plasticity modulates zinc inhibition of

NMDARs and AMPARs, suggesting that it is, at least in part, expressed by activity-dependent

changes of presynaptic zinc levels, regardless of the postsynaptic effector of zinc.

Sound-dependent zinc plasticity requires Group 1 mGluRs *in vivo*

Our experiments described here, using *in vitro* brain slice electrophysiology and fluorescent

imaging in the DCN, point toward a mechanism of bidirectional plasticity of presynaptic zinc levels

mediated by Group 1 mGluR signaling. We therefore hypothesized that mGluR activation may

also be necessary for the sound-dependent zinc plasticity observed in the DCN (Kalappa et al.,

2015). To test this hypothesis, we examined DA-ZP1 fluorescence, and ZX1 potentiation of

EPSCs, in DCN slices from mice exposed to loud sound (116 dB, 4 hours). Consistent with

previous studies (Kalappa et al., 2015), slices from noise-exposed (N.E.) mice exhibited reduced

DA-ZP1 fluorescence in the molecular layer, indicating reduced presynaptic zinc levels, compared

to slices from control, sham-exposed, mice (Fig. 7 A). To test whether Group 1 mGluRs are

necessary for the sound-induced plasticity of zinc levels, we administered a systemic, blood brain

barrier-permeable Group 1 mGluR antagonist (AIDA, i.p., 2 mg/kg) twice: 30 min before and 1.5

hours after beginning the noise exposure. Slices from N.E. mice treated with AIDA did not show

changes in DA-ZP1 fluorescence (Fig. 7 A), suggesting that inhibition of Group 1 mGluR activity

blocked the sound-induced reduction of presynaptic zinc levels. Moreover, because N.E. mice

given vehicle (saline) treatment showed normal reductions in zinc levels, and AIDA treatment in

sham-exposed mice caused no change in zinc levels (Fig. 7 A), these results suggest that Group

1 mGluR activation is necessary for sound-induced changes of presynaptic zinc levels, but does

not affect baseline zinc levels.

To test whether Group 1 mGluRs are required for sound-induced reductions in synaptic zinc

signaling, we quantified the ZX1 potentiation of AMPAR EPSCs in DCN slices from N.E. mice and

N.E., AIDA-treated mice (Fig. 7 B-C). Consistent with previous studies (Kalappa et al., 2015), and

the reduction of presynaptic zinc levels after noise exposure (Fig 7 A), ZX1 potentiation was not

observed in slices from N.E. mice (Fig. 7 B-C). However, in slices from N.E., AIDA-treated mice,

ZX1 potentiation was observed (Fig. 7 B-C). Together, these results indicate that Group 1 mGluRs

are required for sound-induced plasticity of presynaptic zinc levels and zinc signaling.

Furthermore, although AIDA treatment blocked zinc plasticity in DCN PF synapses (Fig. 7 A-C),

it did not affect assays that are sensitive to presynaptic glutamate release probability, such as

paired-pulse ratio (PPR) and coefficient of variation (CV) analysis (Fig. 7 D). This indicates that

mGluR-dependent zinc plasticity specifically modulates presynaptic zinc levels and zinc signaling,

without affecting presynaptic glutamate signaling in PFs. Furthermore, AIDA treatment did not

affect sound-induced hearing loss in N.E. mice, quantified using Auditory Brainstem Responses

(ABRs) (Fig. 7 E). ABRs reflect the synchronous activity, arising from the auditory nerve (Wave

I), of auditory brainstem nuclei to the inferior colliculus (Waves II-V) in response to sound stimuli.

Elevated ABR thresholds indicate increased hearing thresholds. In N.E. mice, because no ABRs

were detected when recording from the exposed (ipsilateral) ear, we recorded ABRs from the

non-exposed (contralateral) ear (Fig. 7 E). Moreover, similar ABR thresholds may be

accompanied by differences in the suprathreshold response of Wave I, which could reflect

differential degeneration of the auditory nerve (Kujawa & Liberman, 2009). AIDA treatment did

not affect noise-induced changes in either ABR thresholds or Wave I amplitude (Fig. 7 F), thus

indicating that the effect of AIDA on blocking zinc plasticity is not due to differential noise-induced

hearing loss after AIDA treatment. Together, these results demonstrate that Group 1 mGluR

signaling is required for sound-dependent zinc plasticity *in vivo*.

Discussion

Our results show that zinc plasticity is an experience- and mGluR-dependent process that

bidirectionally modulates synaptic zinc levels and signaling in the DCN. Is this a general

mechanism that applies to all synaptic zinc-containing brain areas? Synaptic zinc is present

throughout the neocortex and other brain structures, such as the amygdala and the hippocampus

(McAllister & Dyck, 2017). Moreover, synaptic zinc is modulated by sensory activity throughout

the sensory cortex (McAllister & Dyck, 2017), shapes the gain of central sensory responses

(Anderson et al., 2017), and when upregulated by optic nerve injury, it inhibits retinal ganglion cell

survival and axon regeneration (Li et al., 2017). It is therefore likely, although not tested here, that

the reported zinc plasticity mechanism is a general mechanism that dynamically modulates

sensory processing for adaptation to different sensory environments and injury.

Whereas the exact synaptic, natural, and ethologically relevant stimuli that elicit zinc plasticity

remain unknown, here we developed an *in vitro* and *in vivo* model for studying bidirectional zinc

plasticity. This is a crucial step towards further elucidation of the detailed natural stimuli eliciting

zinc plasticity, as well as the precise cellular and molecular mechanisms underlying the induction

and expression of zinc plasticity. Moreover, our model will be useful for probing the behavioral

consequences of zinc plasticity and their underlying synaptic mechanisms, which remain

unknown.

Mechanisms of Group 1 mGluR-mediated zinc plasticity

Our results show that differential activation of Group 1 mGluRs, by either L/HFS or high/low

concentrations of DHPG, determines the induction and direction of zinc plasticity. Both LFS and

HFS induce mGluR-mediated glutamatergic plasticity in various central synapses. In the

hippocampus, LFS induces mGluR-LTD (Oliet et al., 1997; Huber et al., 2000), but when NMDARs

are blocked, mGluR-LTD is induced by HFS (Wu et al., 2001). In cerebellar climbing fibers, HFS

induces mGluR-LTD (Brasnjo & Otis, 2001; Dzubay & Otis, 2002), whereas in DCN PFs, mGluR

activation contributes to both HFS-induced LTP and LFS-induced LTD (Fujino & Oertel, 2003).

Our results show that prolonged LFS increases zinc signaling, similarly to Group 1 mGluR

activation with 50 μM DHPG; whereas, brief HFS reduces zinc signaling, similarly to activation

with 5 μM DHPG. This suggests that prolonged LFS activates Group 1 mGluR signaling differently

than brief HFS. Group 1 mGluRs, mGluR1 and mGluR5, are linked to the IP$_3$-Diacylglycerol (DAG)

signaling pathway, leading to intracellular rises in Ca^{2+} from intracellular stores (Abdul-Ghani et

al., 1996; Conn & Pin, 1997; Kim et al., 2008). We therefore propose, albeit not tested here, that

differential mGluR activation, by L/HFS, leads to subsequent release of different amounts or types

of intracellular Ca^{2+} signals. Different Ca^{2+} signals may in turn activate diverse signaling pathways

that ultimately lead to increased and decreased synaptic zinc levels. An analogue that comes to

mind is the mechanism via which differential activation of NMDARs, by various levels of synaptic

activity, leads to variable Ca^{2+} levels and signaling, ultimately determining the induction of both

LTP and LTD (Malenka & Bear, 2004).

In the DCN, cartwheel cells (CWCs) express Group 1 mGluRs, particularly mGluR1, suggesting

that the locus of induction of zinc plasticity is postsynaptic (Wright et al., 1996). Because zinc

plasticity involves modulation of presynaptic zinc levels, this would suggest the presence of a

retrograde signal from CWCs involved in the expression of zinc plasticity in PFs. Alternatively, the

presence of mGluR1 on axon terminals in the DCN molecular layer may support a presynaptic

locus of induction (Bilak & Morest, 1998). Because ZnT3 determines vesicular zinc levels

(Palmiter et al., 1996; Cole et al., 1999), modulation of ZnT3 expression or function may underlie

the expression of zinc plasticity. In the retina, optic nerve injury increases ZnT3 immunostaining,

supporting that increases in ZnT3 expression mediate increases in synaptic zinc levels (Li et al.,

2017). Yet, in the barrel cortex after whisker plucking, ZnT3 protein and mRNA levels remain

unchanged despite increases in vesicular zinc content (Liguz-Lecznar et al., 2005; Nakashima et

al., 2011). As such, changes in barrel cortex synaptic zinc levels are more consistent with a

modulation of ZnT3 function. In the context of ZnT3 modulation, it is interesting that the vesicular

glutamate transporter 1 (VGlut1) is co-targeted to synaptic vesicles with ZnT3, and increases

ZnT3 zinc transport (Salazar et al., 2005). Because VGlut1 is highly expressed in the DCN

molecular layer (Zhou et al., 2007), one hypothesis is that modulation of VGlut1 may modulate

ZnT3 function in PF terminals. However, noise-induced zinc plasticity does not affect presynaptic

glutamate dynamics (Fig. 7 D), suggesting that zinc and glutamate signaling can be independently

modulated. Therefore, a change in ZnT3 expression is a more likely candidate for mediating

decreased synaptic zinc levels after noise exposure in the DCN. While our results reveal a role

for Group 1 mGluRs and changes in presynaptic zinc levels for the induction and expression of

zinc plasticity, further support from additional experiments will be necessary to determine the

detailed induction and expression mechanisms.

Implications of zinc plasticity for LTP and LTD

Low frequency stimulation typically induces glutamatergic LTD (Mulkey & Malenka, 1992; Fujino

& Oertel, 2003), whereas HFS typically induces LTP (Malenka & Nicoll, 1993; Fujino & Oertel,

2003). Based on our findings, we propose that zinc plasticity by L/HFS may further enhance LTD

and LTP. Namely, LFS increases zinc signaling, thereby increasing NMDA/AMPAR inhibition,

which would further enhance the effects of glutamatergic LTD. HFS reduces zinc signaling,

thereby reducing NMDA/AMPAR inhibition, which would further enhance LTP. Overall, zinc

plasticity serves as a positive feedback mechanism to enhance the effects of LTP or LTD on

glutamatergic synaptic transmission.

Zinc inhibits NMDARs and thus modulates the induction of NMDAR-dependent LTP and LTD in

the hippocampus (Izumi et al., 2006; Takeda et al., 2009; Vergnano et al., 2014). As such, zinc

plasticity may also contribute to 'metaplasticity', the modulation of subsequent LTP and LTD

(Abraham & Tate, 1997). Based on our findings, HFS-dependent reductions in zinc signaling will

promote subsequent NMDAR-dependent LTP and decrease subsequent NMDAR-dependent

LTD. Conversely, increases in zinc signaling after LFS would inhibit subsequent NMDAR-LTP

and enhance NMDAR-LTD. Together, zinc plasticity acts a positive feedback signal in NMDAR-

dependent synaptic plasticity and metaplasticity.

In synapses expressing mGluR-dependent LTD (Oliet et al., 1997), zinc plasticity is also expected

to act as a positive feedback signal, for LFS is expected to enhance zinc levels and further

suppress glutamatergic transmission. However, in synapses expressing NMDAR-independent

LTP, such as in hippocampal mossy fiber-CA3 synapses, zinc plasticity is not expected to act as

a positive feedback. Zinc contributes to mossy fiber presynaptic LTP in response to HFS (Pan et

al., 2011), and therefore if HFS reduces zinc levels in mossy fiber synapses, zinc plasticity will

act as negative feedback signal for subsequent LTP induction. Taken together, we propose that

the role of zinc plasticity in LTP and LTD depends on the specific mechanisms underlying LTP

and LTD, but zinc plasticity mostly acts as a positive feedback signal, especially for the most

abundant forms of LTP and LTD in the brain, which depend on NMDAR activation.

Clinical and translational implications of zinc plasticity

In the context of zinc plasticity as a positive feedback signal for NMDAR-dependent plasticity, it

is interesting that exposure to loud sound -- known to induce tinnitus -- decreases synaptic zinc

levels in the DCN. Such decreases could potentially lead to runaway excitation due to enhanced

LTP and decreased LTD, and thus to pathological DCN hyperactivity associated with tinnitus

(Tzounopoulos, 2008). Noise-induced pathological hyperexcitability through LTP/LTD-like

mechanisms in the DCN PF synapses has been hypothesized and recently implicated in tinnitus

treatment (Tzounopoulos, 2008; Marks et al., 2018), therefore suggesting that noise-induced

reductions in synaptic zinc might contribute to tinnitus.

In addition to a potential involvement of zinc signaling in tinnitus, pathological neuronal zinc

signaling is associated with numerous other neurological disorders, such as schizophrenia,

Alzheimer's disease, and autism. Variants in the ZnT3 gene are associated with schizophrenia

(Perez-Becerril et al., 2016); Alzheimer's patients display reduced levels of ZnT3 expression

(Olesen et al., 2016); ZnT3KO mice exhibit cognitive deficits similar to Alzheimer's and autism-

like phenotypes (Adlard et al., 2010; Yoo et al., 2016); and a zinc ionophore rescues behavioral

phenotypes in mouse models of autism (Lee et al., 2015). Therefore, there is converging evidence

that pathological zinc signaling may play a significant role in the cognitive deficits observed in

these neurological disorders. As such, understanding the cellular mechanisms that govern the

plasticity of zinc levels is a crucial first step in determining the molecular pathways that, when

disrupted, may lead to pathological zinc levels. Furthermore, elucidating these mechanisms, such

as the role of Group 1 mGluR signaling identified here, may lead to novel targets and approaches

for treating pathological zinc signaling in disease states.

Materials and Methods

Animals

Male or female ICR mice (Envigo) were used in this study, aged between postnatal day 17 (P17)

to P28. All animal procedures were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee

of the University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA.

Brain slice preparation for electrophysiology and fluorescent imaging

Mice were deeply anesthetized with isoflurane (3% in O_2), then immediately decapitated and their

brains were removed. Brain slices were prepared in artificial cerebrospinal fluid (ACSF, 34°C)

containing the following (in mM): 130 NaCl, 3 KCl, 1.2 $CaCl_2 \cdot 2H_2O$, 1.3 $MgCl_2 \cdot 6H_2O$, 20 $NaHCO_3$,

3 HEPES, and 10 D-Glucose, saturated with 95% O_2/5% CO_2 (vol/vol), pH = 7.25-7.35, ~300

mOsm. Using a Vibratome (VT1200S; Leica), coronal brain slices (210 μm thickness) containing

the left dorsal cochlear nucleus (DCN) were cut, then placed in a chamber containing warm (34°C)

ACSF, and incubated for 60 min at 34°C, then room temperature (no longer than 3 hours) before

beginning electrophysiology or imaging experiments. Incubating ACSF was the same as cutting

ACSF, except it was stirred with Chelex 100 resin (Bio-Rad) for 1 hour to remove contaminating

zinc, then filtered using Nalgene rapid flow filters lined with polyethersulfone (0.2 μm pore size).

After filtering, high purity $CaCl_2 \cdot 2H_2O$ and $MgCl_2 \cdot 6H_2O$ (99.995%; Sigma Aldrich) were added. All

plastic and glassware used for these experiments were washed with 5% nitric acid.

Electrophysiology

Whole-cell recordings. DCN slices were transferred to the recording chamber and perfused with ACSF (1-2 mL/min), maintained at ~34°C using an inline heating system (Warner Instruments). Recording ACSF was the same as incubating ACSF (see above), except it contained 2.4 mM $CaCl_2 \cdot 2H_2O$. Whole-cell recordings from cartwheel cells were performed using glass micropipettes (3-6 MΩ; Sutter Instruments). Cartwheel cells were identified by the presence of complex spikes in cell-attached configuration before break-in or in response to current injections in current-clamp mode after break-in (Zhang & Oertel, 1993; Manis et al., 1994; Tzounopoulos et al., 2004). Recording pipettes were filled with a potassium-based internal solution (except for Fig. 6, see below) containing the following (in mM): 113 K-gluconate, 4.5 $MgCl_2 \cdot 6H_2O$, 14 Tris-phosphocreatine, 9 HEPES, 0.1 EGTA, 4 Na_2ATP, 0.3 Tris-GTP, and 10 sucrose (pH = 7.25, 295 mOsm). For experiments shown in Fig. 6 B-D measuring NMDAR EPSCs, recordings were performed using a cesium-based internal solution containing the following (in mM): 128 $Cs(CH_3O_3S)$, 10 HEPES, 4 $MgCl_2 \cdot 6H_2O$, 4 Na_2ATP, 0.3 Tris-GTP, 10 Tris-phosphocreatine, 1 EGTA, 1 QX-314, and 3 Na-ascorbate (pH = 7.25, 300 mOsm). Recordings were performed using ephus (Suter et al., 2010) and a MultiClamp 700B amplifier (Axon Instruments). Data were sampled at 10 kHz and low-pass-filtered at 4 kHz. Series resistance (R_s) and input resistance (R_m) were monitored during the recording period by delivering -5 mV voltage steps for 50 ms. R_s was calculated by dividing the -5 mV voltage step by the peak current generated immediately after the voltage step. R_m was calculated by dividing the -5 mV voltage step by the difference between the baseline and steady-state hyperpolarized current, then subtracting R_s. Data were excluded if R_s or R_m changed by more than 20% from the baseline period. EPSCs were evoked using an Isoflex stimulator (A.M.P.I., 0.1 ms pulses) through a glass ACSF-containing theta electrode to stimulate the zinc-rich parallel fibers. All EPSCs were recorded in the presence of SR95531 (20 μM, $GABA_AR$ antagonist) and strychnine (1 μM, GlyR antagonist). AMPAR EPSCs were recorded in voltage-clamp mode at -70 mV. For paired-pulse experiments, the inter-stimulus

interval was 50 ms. NMDAR EPSCs were evoked by a 5-pulse stimulus train (20 Hz) (Anderson

et al., 2015), recorded in voltage clamp mode at +40 mV, and in the presence of DNQX (20 μM,

AMPA/kainate receptor antagonist). All drugs were always bath applied.

Induction of plasticity. High-frequency stimulation (HFS) consisted of 3 trains of 100 Hz pulses for

1 sec, with 10 sec between trains. For the experiments shown in Fig. 1 C, a subset of cells (n=5)

were depolarized to -10 mV during each HFS train, while the other subset (n=6) were held at -70

mV during HFS. Because we observed no difference in the zinc plasticity (EPSC % baseline after

ZX1) between these subsets (depolarized = 102.7±5.4%, non-depolarized = 108.8±8.6%, *p* =

0.58, unpaired *t* test), they were grouped together for subsequent analysis. For all other

experiments, cells were voltage-clamped at -70 mV during HFS. For experiments measuring

NMDAR EPSCs after HFS (Fig. 6 B-D), DNQX (20 μM) was added after HFS, then cells were

voltage-clamped at +40 mV to record NMDAR EPSCs. Low-frequency stimulation (LFS)

consisted of 5 Hz pulses for 3 min. During LFS, cells were held at -80 mV in current-clamp mode.

To isolate mGluR-mediated plasticity, all LFS experiments were performed in the presence of

APV (50 μM, NMDAR antagonist), and with external ACSF containing 4 mM $CaCl_2 \cdot 2H_2O$ and 4

mM $MgCl_2 \cdot 6H_2O$ (Oliet et al., 1997). For normalized EPSCs (% baseline), EPSC amplitudes were

normalized to the average EPSC amplitude during the 5 min baseline period before L/HFS,

DHPG, or ZX1 application. To quantify ZX1 potentiation after L/HFS or DHPG application, EPSC

amplitudes were renormalized to the average EPSC amplitude of the new baseline period 5 min

before ZX1 application. ZX1 potentiation (shown in bar graphs) was quantified as the percent

increase in the average EPSC amplitude during the last 5 min of ZX1 application compared to the

5 min baseline period before ZX1 application.

Vesicular zinc imaging with DA-ZP1

After preparation and incubation of DCN slices (described above), slices were transferred to the imaging chamber and perfused with recirculating ACSF (2-3 mL/min) maintained at ~34°C. Imaging of presynaptic vesicular zinc levels in DCN parallel fibers was performed using DA-ZP1, a high-affinity, membrane permeable fluorescent zinc sensor (Zastrow et al., 2016). DA-ZP1 (0.5 μM) was added to the ACSF, and allowed to incubate for at least 5-10 min before imaging. In order to quantify the effects of DHPG (Fig. 5) or noise exposure (Fig. 7A) compared to controls, pairs of treated and control slices were always imaged simultaneously in the same imaging chamber. Images were acquired using an upright microscope (Olympus BX5) with epifluorescence optics through a 20x water immersion objective. Green fluorescent signals were isolated using a Pinkel filter set (Semrock LF488/543/625-3X-A-000) in response to excitation by an ephus-driven blue LED (M470L2; Thorlabs), and images were acquired using a CCD camera (Retiga 2000R, QImaging). Images consisted of 20 frames captured at 0.2 Hz, which were then averaged together and analyzed using custom routines in MATLAB (Mathworks). In order to quantify zinc-sensitive fluorescence in the DCN molecular layer, a region of interest (ROI) within each slice was selected containing the zinc-rich molecular layer or the zinc-lacking deep layer (Zastrow et al., 2016; Kalappa et al., 2015). Fluorescence intensity was averaged within each ROI, and the zinc-sensitive fluorescence for each slice was calculated by subtracting the deep layer fluorescence from the molecular layer fluorescence. Zinc-sensitive fluorescence in treated slices (DHPG in Fig. 5B or noise exposure in Fig. 7A) was normalized to the simultaneously imaged control, non-treated, slice. For DHPG experiments (Fig. 5), DHPG (5 μM or 50 μM) was added to ACSF in the incubating chamber at least 20 min before initiating imaging. For experiments testing potential effects of ZX1 on DA-ZP1 fluorescence (Fig. 6E), imaging of ZX1-treated or control slices was performed in the presence or absence, respectively, of ZX1 (100 μM) in the external ACSF. For ZX1-treated slices, ZX1 was added to the ACSF 10 min before adding

DA-ZP1, then fluorescent images were acquired 10 min after DA-ZP1 application (20 min after

ZX1 application).

Noise exposure

Noise exposure was performed based on previously published methods (Kalappa et al., 2015).

Sham- or noise-exposed mice were anesthetized using 3% isoflurane during induction and 1-

1.5% during maintenance. Noise-exposed mice were exposed for 4 hours to narrow bandpass

noise at 116 dB sound pressure level (SPL), centered at 16 kHz with a 1.6 kHz bandwidth. Noise

was presented unilaterally (left ear) through a pipette tip inserted into the left ear canal, with the

other end attached to a calibrated speaker (CF-1; Tucker Davis Technologies). Sham-exposed

mice underwent an identical procedure except without any noise exposure. For mice given

intraperitoneal injections of AIDA (2 mg/kg) or vehicle (saline, 0.9% NaCl), one injection was given

30 min prior to exposure, and a second injection was given 2 hours later. After noise- or sham-

exposure, ABRs were collected and mice recovered from anesthesia, then DCN slices were

prepared (within 30 min after exposure).

ABRs

Auditory Brainstem Responses (ABRs) were measured based on previously published methods

(Kalappa et al., 2015). ABRs were recorded immediately after noise- or sham-exposure. During

ABR measurements, mice were anesthetized using 3% isoflurane during induction and 1-1.5%

during maintenance. Mice were placed in a sound attenuating chamber and temperature was

maintained at ~37°C using a heating pad. A subdermal electrode was placed at the vertex, the

ground electrode placed ventral to the right pinna, and the reference electrode placed ventral to

the left pinna (sham- or noise-exposed ear). For ABR measurements from contralateral ears of

noise-exposed mice, the reference electrode was placed ventral to the right pinna (contralateral

ear) and the ground electrode placed ventral to the left pinna. ABRs were detected in response

to 1 ms click sound stimuli, presented through a pipette tip inserted into the ear canal, with the

other end attached to the speaker (CF-1; Tucker Davis Technologies). ABRs were recorded in

response to clicks presented in 10 dB steps, ranging from 0-80 dB SPL. 1 ms clicks were

presented at a rate of 18.56/sec using System 3 software package from Tucker Davis

Technologies, and ABRs were averaged 512 times and filtered using a 300-3,000 Hz bandpass

filter. ABR threshold was defined as the lowest stimulus intensity which generated a reliable Wave

1 in the response waveform. Wave 1 amplitude was measured as the peak-to-trough amplitude

of the first wave in the ABR waveform (latency ~2 ms), in response to 80 dB SPL clicks.

Drugs

All chemicals used for ACSF and internal solutions were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. The

following drugs were purchased from HelloBio: SR95531 hydrobromide, DL-AP5, DNQX

disodium salt, MPEP hydrochloride, LY367385, and (S)-3,5-Dihydroxyphenylglycine (DHPG).

Strychnine hydrochloride was purchased from Abcam. (S)-α-Methyl-4-carboxyphenylglycine

(MCPG) and (RS)-1-Aminoindan-1,5-dicarboxylic acid (AIDA) were purchased from Tocris. ZX1

was purchased from STREM Chemicals.

Data analysis

All data analysis was performed using Matlab (Mathworks), Excel (Microsoft), or Prism 7

(GraphPad). For statistical comparisons, we used one-sample t tests or unpaired t tests (between

groups) if the data passed the Shapiro-Wilk normality test. Welch's correction was used if

variances were significantly different (F test). For non-normally distributed data, we used Wilcoxon

signed rank tests or Mann-Whitney tests (between groups). Significance levels are defined as p

< 0.05. Group data are presented as mean ± SEM.

Acknowledgements

We thank Drs. Stephen Lippard and Jacob Goldberg from Massachusetts Institute of Technology

for generously providing DA-ZP1.

Funding

National Institute on Deafness and Other Communication Disorders: R01-DC007905 (T.T.); F31-

DC015924 (N.W.V.).

Author Contributions

N.W.V. performed experiments and analyzed data. N.W.V. and T.T. designed experiments and

wrote the paper.

Ethics

All methods for animal handling, anesthesia, and sacrifice were approved by the Institutional

Animal Care and Use Committee of the University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA. The approved

IACUC protocol numbers used for this study were: 14125118, 14094011, 17071036, and

17127808.

Competing Interests

The authors declare that no competing interests exist.

References

Abdul-Ghani MA, Valiante TA, Carlen PL, Pennefather PS. (1996). Metabotropic glutamate

receptors coupled to IP3 production mediate inhibition of IAHP in rat dentate granule

neurons. *J Neurophysiol*. Oct;76(4):2691-700. PMID: 8899638

Abraham WC, Tate WP. Metaplasticity: a new vista across the field of synaptic plasticity. *Prog*

Neurobiol. Jul;52(4):303-23. PMID: 9247968

Adlard PA, Parncutt JM, Finkelstein DI, Bush AI. (2010). Cognitive loss in zinc transporter-3

knock-out mice: a phenocopy for the synaptic and memory deficits of Alzheimer's disease? *J*

Neurosci. Feb 3;30(5):1631-6. PMID: 20130173

Anderson CT, Radford RJ, Zastrow ML, Zhang DY, Apfel UP, Lippard SJ, Tzounopoulos T.

(2015). *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. May 19;112(20):E2705-14. PMID: 25947151

Anderson CT, Kumar M, Xiong S, Tzounopoulos T. (2017). Cell-specific gain modulation by

synaptically released zinc in cortical circuits of audition. *Elife*. Sep 9;6. pii: e29893. PMID:

28887876

Atallah BV, Bruns W, Carandini M, Scanziani M. (2012). Parvalbumin-expressing interneurons

linearly transform cortical responses to visual stimuli. *Neuron*. 2012 Jan 12;73(1):159-70.

PMID: 22243754

Auerbach BD, Rodrigues PV, Salvi RJ. (2014). Central gain control in tinnitus and hyperacusis.

Front Neurol. Oct 24;5:206. PMID: 25386157

Bilak SR, Morest DK. (1998). Differential expression of the metabotropic glutamate receptor

mGluR1alpha by neurons and axons in the cochlear nucleus: in situ hybridization and

immunohistochemistry. *Synapse*. Apr;28(4):251-70. PMID: 9517834

Brasnjo G, Otis TS. (2001). Neuronal glutamate transporters control activation of postsynaptic

metabotropic glutamate receptors and influence cerebellar long-term depression. *Neuron*.

Aug 30;31(4):607-16. PMID: 11545719

Brown CE, Dyck RH. (2002). Rapid, experience-dependent changes in levels of synaptic zinc in

primary somatosensory cortex of the adult mouse. *J Neurosci*. Apr 1;22(7):2617-25. PMID:

11923427

Brown CE, Dyck RH. (2005). Modulation of synaptic zinc in barrel cortex by whisker stimulation.

Neuroscience. 134(2):355-9. PMID: 16019150

Chambers AR, Resnik J, Yuan Y, Whitton JP, Edge AS, Liberman MC, Polley DB. (2016).

Central Gain Restores Auditory Processing following Near-Complete Cochlear Denervation.

Neuron. Feb 17;89(4):867-79. PMID: 26833137

Cole TB, Wenzel HJ, Kafer KE, Schwartzkroin PA, Palmiter RD. (1999). Elimination of zinc from

synaptic vesicles in the intact mouse brain by disruption of the ZnT3 gene. *Proc Natl Acad*

Sci U S A. Feb 16;96(4):1716-21. PMID: 9990090

Conn PJ, Pin JP. (1997). Pharmacology and functions of metabotropic glutamate receptors.

Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol. 37:205-37. PMID: 9131252

Danscher G, Stoltenberg M. (2005). Zinc-specific autometallographic in vivo selenium methods:

tracing of zinc-enriched (ZEN) terminals, ZEN pathways, and pools of zinc ions in a

multitude of other ZEN cells. *J Histochem Cytochem*. Feb;53(2):141-53. PMID: 15684327

Dean I, Harper NS, McAlpine D. (2005). Neural population coding of sound level adapts to

stimulus statistics. *Nat Neurosci*. Dec;8(12):1684-9. PMID: 16286934

Dyck RH, Chaudhuri A, Cynader MS. (2003). Experience-dependent regulation of the zincergic

innervation of visual cortex in adult monkeys. *Cereb Cortex*. Oct;13(10):1094-109. PMID:

12967926

Dzubay JA, Otis TS. Climbing fiber activation of metabotropic glutamate receptors on cerebellar

purkinje neurons. *Neuron*. Dec 19;36(6):1159-67. PMID: 12495629

Frederickson CJ, Howell GA, Haigh MD, Danscher G. (1988). Zinc-containing fiber systems in

the cochlear nuclei of the rat and mouse. *Hear Res*. Nov;36(2-3):203-11. PMID: 3209493

Frederickson CJ, Koh JY, Bush AI. (2005). The neurobiology of zinc in health and disease. *Nat*

Rev Neurosci. Jun;6(6):449-62. PMID: 15891778

Fujino K, Oertel D. (2003). Bidirectional synaptic plasticity in the cerebellum-like mammalian

dorsal cochlear nucleus. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. Jan 7;100(1):265-70. PMID: 12486245

Huber KM, Kayser MS, Bear MF. (2000). Role for rapid dendritic protein synthesis in

hippocampal mGluR-dependent long-term depression. *Science*. May 19;288(5469):1254-7.

PMID: 10818003

Huber KM, Roder JC, Bear MF. (2001). Chemical induction of mGluR5- and protein synthesis--

dependent long-term depression in hippocampal area CA1. J Neurophysiol. Jul;86(1):321-5.

PMID: 11431513

Izumi Y, Auberson YP, Zorumski CF. (2006). Zinc modulates bidirectional hippocampal plasticity

by effects on NMDA receptors. *J Neurosci*. Jul 5;26(27):7181-8. PMID: 16822975

Kalappa BI, Anderson CT, Goldberg JM, Lippard SJ, Tzounopoulos T. (2015). AMPA receptor

inhibition by synaptically released zinc. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. Dec 22;112(51):15749-

54. PMID: 26647187

Kalappa BI, Tzounopoulos T. (2017). Context-Dependent Modulation of Excitatory Synaptic

Strength by Synaptically Released Zinc. *eNeuro*. 2017 Mar 3;4(1). PMID: 28275718

Kim CH, Lee J, Lee JY, Roche KW. (2008). Metabotropic glutamate receptors: phosphorylation

and receptor signaling. *J Neurosci Res*. Jan;86(1):1-10. PMID: 17663464

Kujawa SG, Liberman MC. (2009). Adding insult to injury: cochlear nerve degeneration after

"temporary" noise-induced hearing loss. *J Neurosci*. Nov 11;29(45):14077-85. PMID:

19906956

Lee EJ, Lee H, Huang TN, Chung C, Shin W, Kim K, Koh JY, Hsueh YP, Kim E. (2015). Trans-

synaptic zinc mobilization improves social interaction in two mouse models of autism

through NMDAR activation. *Nat Commun*. May 18;6:7168. PMID: 25981743

Li Y, Anardeggen L, Yuki K, Omura K, Yin Y, Gilbert HY, Erdogan B, Asdourian MS, Shrock C,

de Lima S, Apfel UP, Zhuo Y, Hershfinkel M, Lippard SJ, Rosenberg PA, Benowitz L.

(2017). Mobile zinc increases rapidly in the retina after optic nerve injury and regulates

ganglion cell survival and optic nerve regeneration. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. Jan

10;114(2):E209-E218. PMID: 28049831

Liguz-Lecznar M, Nowicka D, Czupryn A, Skangiel-Kramska J. (2005). Dissociation of synaptic

zinc level and zinc transporter 3 expression during postnatal development and after sensory

deprivation in the barrel cortex of mice. *Brain Res Bull*. Jul 30;66(2):106-13. PMID:

15982526

Malenka RC, Nicoll RA. (1993). NMDA-receptor-dependent synaptic plasticity: multiple forms

and mechanisms. *Trends Neurosci*. Dec;16(12):521-7. PMID: 7509523

Malenka RC, Bear MF. (2004). LTP and LTD: an embarrassment of riches. *Neuron*. Sep

30;44(1):5-21. PMID: 15450156

Manis PB, Spirou GA, Wright DD, Paydar S, Ryugo DK. (1994). Physiology and morphology of

complex spiking neurons in the guinea pig dorsal cochlear nucleus. *J Comp Neurol*. Oct

8;348(2):261-76. PMID: 7814691

Marks KL, Martel DT, Wu C, Basura GJ, Roberts LE, Schvartz-Leyzac KC, Shore SE. (2018).

Auditory-somatosensory bimodal stimulation desynchronizes brain circuitry to reduce

tinnitus in guinea pigs and humans. *Sci Transl Med*. Jan 3;10(422). PMID: 29298868

McAllister BB, Dyck RH. (2017). Zinc transporter 3 (ZnT3) and vesicular zinc in central nervous

system function. *Neurosci Biobehav Rev*. Sep;80:329-350. PMID: 28624432

Mulkey RM, Malenka RC. (1992). Mechanisms underlying induction of homosynaptic long-term

depression in area CA1 of the hippocampus. *Neuron*. Nov;9(5):967-75. PMID: 1419003

Nakashima AS, Dyck RH. (2009). Zinc and cortical plasticity. *Brain Res Rev*. Mar;59(2):347-73.

PMID: 19026685

Nakashima AS, Butt RH, Dyck RH. (2011). Alterations in protein and gene expression within the

barrel cortices of ZnT3 knockout mice: experience-independent and dependent changes.

Neurochem Int. Nov;59(6):860-70. PMID: 21871936

Natan RG, Carruthers IM, Mwilambwe-Tshilobo L, Geffen MN. (2017). Gain Control in the

Auditory Cortex Evoked by Changing Temporal Correlation of Sounds. *Cereb Cortex*. Mar

1;27(3):2385-2402. PMID: 27095823

Ohshiro T, Angelaki DE, DeAngelis GC. (2011). A normalization model of multisensory

integration. *Nat Neurosci*. Jun;14(6):775-82. PMID: 21552274

Olesen RH, Hyde TM, Kleinman JE, Smidt K, Rungby J, Larsen A. (2016). Obesity and age-

related alterations in the gene expression of zinc-transporter proteins in the human brain.

Transl Psychiatry. Jun 14;6(6):e838. PMID: 27300264

Oliet SH, Malenka RC, Nicoll RA. (1997). Two distinct forms of long-term depression coexist in

CA1 hippocampal pyramidal cells. *Neuron*. Jun;18(6):969-82. PMID: 9208864

Palmiter RD, Cole TB, Quaife CJ, Findley SD. (1996). ZnT-3, a putative transporter of zinc into

synaptic vesicles. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. Dec 10;93(25):14934-9. PMID: 8962159

Pan E, Zhang XA, Huang Z, Krezel A, Zhao M, Tinberg CE, Lippard SJ, McNamara JO. (2011).

Vesicular zinc promotes presynaptic and inhibits postsynaptic long-term potentiation of

mossy fiber-CA3 synapse. *Neuron*. Sep 22;71(6):1116-26. PMID: 21943607

Paoletti P, Ascher P, Neyton J. (1997). High-affinity zinc inhibition of NMDA NR1-NR2A

receptors. *J Neurosci*. Aug 1;17(15):5711-25. PMID: 9221770

Perez-Becerril C, Morris AG, Mortimer A, McKenna PJ, de Belleroche J. (2016). Common

variants in the chromosome 2p23 region containing the SLC30A3 (ZnT3) gene are

associated with schizophrenia in female but not male individuals in a large collection of

European samples. *Psychiatry Res*. Dec 30;246:335-340. PMID: 27750116

Perez-Rosello T, Anderson CT, Schopfer FJ, Zhao Y, Gilad D, Salvatore SR, Freeman BA,

Hershfinkel M, Aizenman E, Tzounopoulos T. (2013). Synaptic Zn2+ inhibits

neurotransmitter release by promoting endocannabinoid synthesis. *J Neurosci*. May

29;33(22):9259-72. PMID: 23719795

Rabinowitz NC, Willmore BD, Schnupp JW, King AJ. (2011). Contrast gain control in auditory

cortex. *Neuron*. Jun 23;70(6):1178-91. PMID: 21689603

Resnik J, Polley DB. (2017). Fast-spiking GABA circuit dynamics in the auditory cortex predict

recovery of sensory processing following peripheral nerve damage. *Elife*. Mar 21;6. pii:

e21452. PMID: 28323619

Rubio ME, Juiz JM. (1998). Chemical anatomy of excitatory endings in the dorsal cochlear

nucleus of the rat: differential synaptic distribution of aspartate aminotransferase, glutamate,

and vesicular zinc. *J Comp Neurol*. Sep 28;399(3):341-58. PMID: 9733082

Salazar G, Craige B, Love R, Kalman D, Faundez V. (2005). Vglut1 and ZnT3 co-targeting

mechanisms regulate vesicular zinc stores in PC12 cells. J Cell Sci. May 1;118(Pt 9):1911-

21. PMID: 15860731

Snyder EM, Philpot BD, Huber KM, Dong X, Fallon JR, Bear MF. (2001). Internalization of

ionotropic glutamate receptors in response to mGluR activation. *Nat Neurosci*.

Nov;4(11):1079-85. PMID: 11687813

Suter BA, O'Connor T, Iyer V, Petreanu LT, Hooks BM, Kiritani T, Svoboda K, Shepherd GM.

(2010). Ephus: multipurpose data acquisition software for neuroscience experiments. *Front*

Neural Circuits. Aug 26;4:100. PMID: 21960959

Takeda A, Fuke S, Ando M, Oku N. (2009). Positive modulation of long-term potentiation at

hippocampal CA1 synapses by low micromolar concentrations of zinc. *Neuroscience*. Jan

23;158(2):585-91. PMID: 18984033

Tzounopoulos T. (2008). Mechanisms of synaptic plasticity in the dorsal cochlear nucleus:

plasticity-induced changes that could underlie tinnitus. *Am J Audiol*. Dec;17(2):S170-5.

PMID: 18978197

Tzounopoulos T, Kim Y, Oertel D, Trussell LO. (2004). Cell-specific, spike timing-dependent

plasticities in the dorsal cochlear nucleus. *Nat Neurosci*. Jul;7(7):719-25. PMID: 15208632

Tzounopoulos T, Rubio ME, Keen JE, Trussell LO. (2007). Coactivation of pre- and

postsynaptic signaling mechanisms determines cell-specific spike-timing-dependent

plasticity. *Neuron*. Apr 19;54(2):291-301. PMID: 17442249

Vergnano AM, Rebola N, Savtchenko LP, Pinheiro PS, Casado M, Kieffer BL, Rusakov DA,

Mulle C, Paoletti P. (2014). Zinc dynamics and action at excitatory synapses. *Neuron*. Jun

4;82(5):1101-14. PMID: 24908489

Vogt K, Mellor J, Tong G, Nicoll R. (2000). The actions of synaptically released zinc at

hippocampal mossy fiber synapses. *Neuron*. 2000 Apr;26(1):187-96. PMID: 10798403

Watkins PV, Barbour DL. (2008). Specialized neuronal adaptation for preserving input

sensitivity. *Nat Neurosci*. Nov;11(11):1259-61. PMID: 18820690

Wiśniewski K, Car H. (2002). (S)-3,5-DHPG: a review. CNS Drug Rev. Spring;8(1):101-16.

PMID: 12070529

Wright DD, Blackstone CD, Huganir RL, Ryugo DK. (1996). Immunocytochemical localization of

the mGluR1 alpha metabotropic glutamate receptor in the dorsal cochlear nucleus. *J Comp

Neurol*. Jan 22;364(4):729-45. PMID: 8821458

Wu J, Rush A, Rowan MJ, Anwyl R. (2001). NMDA receptor- and metabotropic glutamate

receptor-dependent synaptic plasticity induced by high frequency stimulation in the rat

dentate gyrus in vitro. *J Physiol.* Jun 15;533(Pt 3):745-55. PMID: 11410631

Yoo MH, Kim TY, Yoon YH, Koh JY. (2016). Autism phenotypes in ZnT3 null mice: Involvement

of zinc dyshomeostasis, MMP-9 activation and BDNF upregulation. *Sci Rep*. Jun

29;6:28548. PMID: 27352957

Zastrow ML, Radford RJ, Chyan W, Anderson CT, Zhang DY, Loas A, Tzounopoulos T, Lippard

SJ. (2016). Reaction-Based Probes for Imaging Mobile Zinc in Live Cells and Tissues. *ACS*

Sens. 2016 Jan 22;1(1):32-39. PMID: 26878065

Zhang S, Oertel D. (1993). Cartwheel and superficial stellate cells of the dorsal cochlear

nucleus of mice: intracellular recordings in slices. *J Neurophysiol*. May;69(5):1384-97. PMID:

8389821

Zhao Y, Tzounopoulos T. (2011). Physiological activation of cholinergic inputs controls

associative synaptic plasticity via modulation of endocannabinoid signaling. *J Neurosci*. Mar

2;31(9):3158-68. PMID: 21368027

Zhou J, Nannapaneni N, Shore S. (2007). Vessicular glutamate transporters 1 and 2 are

differentially associated with auditory nerve and spinal trigeminal inputs to the cochlear

nucleus. *J Comp Neurol*. Feb 1;500(4):777-87. PMID: 17154258

Figure Legends

Figure 1. High-frequency stimulation (HFS) reduces synaptic zinc signaling in DCN parallel

fibers. (A) Schematic of experimental setup illustrating stimulation of zinc-rich glutamatergic DCN

parallel fibers (PFs) and whole-cell recording of a postsynaptic cartwheel cell (CWC). **(B)** *Left:*

Time course of AMPAR EPSC amplitude before and after ZX1 application, normalized to baseline

before ZX1 application (100 μM). *Right:* Example AMPAR EPSCs before and after ZX1

application, showing ZX1 potentiation **(C)** *Left:* Time course of AMPAR EPSC amplitude before

and after HFS, and before and after subsequent ZX1 application (blue). After obtaining a stable

baseline, HFS was delivered (3 x 100 Hz for 1 sec, 10 sec ISI). To examine ZX1 potentiation after

HFS, after obtaining a stable baseline after HFS, AMPAR EPSC amplitude was renormalized to

the new baseline before ZX1 application. The renormalization is indicated by a gap and restart of

timing in the x-axis. For comparison, red line shows normalized time course of AMPAR EPSC

amplitude before and after ZX1 application in controls replotted from **B**. *Right:* Example AMPAR

EPSCs showing no ZX1 potentiation after HFS. **(D)** Average ZX1 potentiation (% increase from

baseline) during the last 5 min of ZX1 application. 'Control': 34.47 ± 5.7%, n=10, *p=0.0002, one-

sample t test vs. 0%. 'HFS': 6.0 ± 5.15%, n=11, n.s. p=0.27, one-sample t test vs. 0%. 'Control'

vs. 'HFS': *p=0.002, unpaired t test. The change in ZX1 potentiation is termed zinc plasticity.

Values represent mean ± SEM. Star (*) indicates p<0.05.

Figure 2. Group 1 mGluR activation is required for HFS-induced zinc plasticity. (A) Time

course of AMPAR EPSC amplitude before and after HFS in the presence of APV (50 μM), and

before and after subsequent ZX1 application. **(B)** Same time course as in **A** but in the presence

of LY367385 (100 μM), MPEP (4 μM), and APV (50 μM). For **(A-B)**, to examine ZX1 potentiation

after HFS, similar approach and renormalization as in **1C** was performed. Red line shows the time

course of AMPAR EPSC amplitude before and after ZX1 application in controls replotted from

1B. Example traces show AMPAR EPSCs before and after ZX1. **(C)** Average ZX1 potentiation

(% increase from baseline) during the last 5 min of ZX1 application, shown with control data from

1B. 'HFS + APV': 4.28 ± 6.08%, n=9, n.s. p=0.502, one-sample t test vs. 0%. 'HFS + LY367385,

MPEP, APV': 36.07 ± 9.05%, n=5, *p=0.016, one-sample t test vs. 0%. 'Control' vs. 'HFS + APV':

*p=0.002, unpaired t test. 'HFS + APV' vs. 'HFS + LY367385, MPEP, APV': *p=0.011, unpaired t

test. Values represent mean ± SEM. Star (*) indicates p<0.05.

Figure 3. Low frequency stimulation (LFS) increases synaptic zinc signaling in DCN PFs,

and requires Group 1 mGluRs. (A) Time course of AMPAR EPSC amplitude before and after

LFS (5 Hz, 3 min), and before and after subsequent ZX1 application (cyan); and similar time

course in interleaved control experiments (without LFS, red). **(B)** Same time course as in **A** but in

the presence of LY367385 (100 μM) and MPEP (4 μM) (green). Red line shows similar time

course in controls replotted from **A**. For **(A-B)**, to isolate mGluR-dependent plasticity, all

experiments were performed in the presence of APV (50 μM), and with ACSF containing 4 mM

Ca^{2+} and 4 mM Mg^{2+}. To examine ZX1 potentiation after LFS, similar approach and

renormalization as in **1C** was performed. Example traces show AMPAR EPSCs before and after

ZX1. **(C)** Average ZX1 potentiation (% increase from baseline) during the last 5 min of ZX1

application. 'Control': 19.65 ± 4.3%, n=5, *p=0.01, one-sample t test vs. 0%. 'LFS': 57.86 ± 12.4%,

n=6, *p=0.005, one-sample t test vs. 0%. 'LFS + LY367385, MPEP': 22.18 ± 8.3%, n=6, *p=0.04,

one-sample t test vs. 0%. 'Control' vs. 'LFS': *p=0.026, unpaired t test with Welch's correction.

'LFS' vs. 'LFS + LY367385, MPEP': *p=0.038, unpaired t test. Values represent mean ± SEM.

Star (*) indicates p<0.05.

Figure 4. Group 1 mGluR activation is sufficient to induce bidirectional zinc plasticity. (A)

Time course of AMPAR EPSC amplitude before and after application of 50 μM DHPG, and before

and after subsequent ZX1 application. **(B)** Time course of AMPAR EPSC amplitude before and

after application of 5 μM DHPG, and before and after subsequent ZX1 application. For **(A-B)**,

after obtaining a stable baseline, DHPG was applied. To examine ZX1 potentiation after DHPG

application, after obtaining a stable baseline after DHPG, AMPAR EPSC amplitude was

renormalized to the new baseline before ZX1 application. The renormalization is indicated by a

gap and restart of timing in the x-axis. **(C)** Time course of AMPAR EPSC amplitude before and

after ZX1 application after 50 μM DHPG (cyan), after 5 μM DHPG (purple), and in control (red

line, replotted from **1B**). Example traces show AMPAR EPSCs before and after ZX1. **(D)** Average

ZX1 potentiation (% increase from baseline) during the last 5 min of ZX1 application, shown with

control data from **1B**. 'DHPG (50 μM)': 93.51 $\pm$ 10.92%, n=5, *p= 0.001, one-sample t test vs. 0%.

'DHPG (5 μM)': 0.44 $\pm$ 7.08%, n=5, n.s. p=0.95, one-sample t test vs. 0%. 'Control' vs. 'DHPG (50

μM)': *p=0.0001, unpaired t test. 'Control' vs. 'DHPG (5 μM)': *p=0.003, unpaired t test. Values

represent mean $\pm$ SEM. Star (*) indicates p<0.05.

Figure 5. Group 1 mGluR activation bidirectionally modulates presynaptic zinc levels in

DCN PFs. (A) *Left:* Schematic of DA-ZP1 imaging of presynaptic zinc levels, illustrating the

molecular and deep layers of the DCN in brain slices. *Right:* Example of DA-ZP1 presynaptic

zinc-mediated fluorescent signals in the molecular layer, in control, after 50 μM DHPG, and after

5 μM DHPG. **(B)** Average DA-ZP1 (0.5 μM) fluorescence in DCN slices incubated with 50 μM or

5 μM DHPG, normalized to simultaneously imaged control slices. 'DHPG (50 μM)': 153.9 $\pm$

13.42%, n=6, *p=0.01, one-sample t test vs. 100%. 'DHPG (5 μM)': 79.68 $\pm$ 6.66%, n=6, *p=0.028,

one-sample t test vs. 100%. Values represent mean $\pm$ SEM. Star (*) indicates p<0.05.

Figure 6. Zinc plasticity does not depend on AMPAR plasticity, and it affects zinc-mediated

inhibition of NMDARs. (A) Plot of AMPAR EPSC amplitude after ZX1 (% baseline before ZX1)

versus AMPAR EPSC amplitude changes after HFS (% baseline before HFS) for the experiments

included in Figs. **1C** and **2A-B**, showing no correlation between AMPAR plasticity and subsequent

potentiation by ZX1. Pearson r=0.1, n.s. p=0.63. Red line shows linear regression fit. **(B)** *Left:*

Time course of AMPAR EPSC amplitude before and after HFS, and NMDAR EPSC amplitude

before and after subsequent ZX1 application (blue); and similar time course in interleaved control

experiments (without HFS, red). *Right*: Example NMDAR EPSCs before and after ZX1

application. **(C)** Same time course as in **B** but in the presence of LY367385 (100 μM) and MPEP

(4 μM) (green). Red line shows similar time course in controls replotted from **B**. Example traces

show NMDAR EPSCs before and after ZX1. For **(B-C)**, after obtaining a stable baseline of

AMPAR EPSCs, HFS was delivered, then DNQX (20 μM) was applied. NMDAR EPSCs were

then recorded at +40 mV normalized to the baseline NMDAR EPSC amplitude before ZX1

application. The switch from AMPAR to NMDAR EPSC timecourse, and the renormalization of

EPSC amplitude are indicated by a gap and restart of timing in the x-axis. **(D)** Average ZX1

potentiation (% increase from baseline) during the last 5 min of ZX1 application. 'Control': 37.1 ±

3.1%, n=5, *p=0.0003, one-sample t test vs. 0%. 'HFS': 9.2 ± 5.2%, n=6, n.s. p=0.16, Wilcoxon

signed rank test vs. 0%. 'HFS + LY267385, MPEP': 42.6 ± 8.2%, n=5, *p=0.007, one-sample t

test vs. 0%. 'Control' vs 'HFS': *p=0.009, Mann Whitney test. 'HFS' vs 'HFS + LY367385, MPEP':

*p=0.03, Mann Whitney test. **(E)** *Left:* Example of DA-ZP1 presynaptic zinc-mediated fluorescent

signals in the DCN molecular layer, in control and ZX1-treated slices. For ZX1-treated slices, ZX1

(100 μM) was applied 10 min before DA-ZP1 and maintained throughout the experiments. *Right:*

Average DA-ZP1 (0.5 μM) fluorescence (arbitrary units) in control and ZX1-treated slices.

'Control': 27.16 ± 5.92, n=5. 'ZX1': 24.76 ± 5.78, n=5. 'Control' vs. 'ZX1': n.s. p=0.78, unpaired t

test. For **(D-E)**, values represent mean ± SEM. Star (*) indicates p<0.05.

Figure 7. Sound-dependent zinc plasticity requires Group 1 mGluRs. (A) *Left:* Example of

DA-ZP1 presynaptic zinc-mediated fluorescent signals in the DCN molecular layer, in slices from

sham-exposed mice (Control), noise-exposed mice (N.E.), N.E. AIDA-treated mice (N.E. + AIDA),

N.E. vehicle-treated mice (N.E. + veh.), and sham-exposed AIDA-treated mice (sham + AIDA).

Right: Average DA-ZP1 (0.5 μM) fluorescence for the same groups as on the *left*, normalized to

simultaneously imaged control slices from sham-exposed mice. 'N.E.': 41.12 ± 17.38%, n=6,

*p=0.019, one-sample t test vs. 100%. 'N.E. + AIDA': 126.3 ± 30.67%, n=6, n.s. p=0.844, Wilcoxon

signed rank test vs. 100%. 'N.E. + veh.': 47.75 ± 16.16%, n=5, *p=0.032, one-sample t test vs.

100%. 'Sham + AIDA': 96.33 ± 16.77%, n=6, n.s. p=0.836, one-sample t test vs. 100%. **(B)** Time

course of AMPAR EPSC amplitude before and after ZX1 application in slices from N.E. mice

(gray) and N.E. AIDA-treated mice (orange). Example traces show AMPAR EPSCs before and

after ZX1. **(C)** Average ZX1 potentiation (% increase from baseline) during the last 5 min of ZX1

application. 'N.E.': 11.7 ± 8.56%, n=5, n.s. p=0.24, one-sample t test vs. 0%. 'N.E. + AIDA': 43.8

± 8.05%, n=6, *p=0.003, one-sample t test vs. 0%. 'N.E.' vs 'N.E. + AIDA': *p=0.024, unpaired t

test. **(D)** *Left:* Average paired-pulse ratio (PPR, pulse 2 / pulse 1) of baseline AMPAR EPSCs in

slices from N.E. mice and N.E. AIDA-treated mice. 'N.E.': 1.896 ± 0.19, n=5. 'N.E. + AIDA: 2.056

± 0.12, n=6. 'N.E.' vs 'N.E. + AIDA': n.s. p=0.476, unpaired t test. Example traces show AMPAR

EPSCs in response to two pulses. *Right:* coefficient of variation (CV) analysis ($1/CV^2$) of baseline

AMPAR EPSCs (pulse 1) in slices from N.E. mice and N.E. AIDA-treated mice, normalized to

N.E. mice. 'N.E. + AIDA: 0.78 ± 0.22, n=6; n.s. p=0.44, Wilcoxon signed rank test vs. 1. **(E)**

Example Auditory Brainstem Responses (ABRs, 10-80 dB SPL sound stimuli) from sham-

exposed mice (recorded from sham-exposed, ipsilateral ear, black), N.E. mice (gray), and N.E.

AIDA-treated mice (orange). Because no ABRs were detected in the ipsilateral ears of N.E. mice,

ABRs were measured from ears contralateral to noise exposure. **(F)** *Left:* Average ABR

thresholds (dB SPL): 'Sham ipsi.': 43.75 ± 3.24, n=8. 'N.E. contra.': 68 ± 3.74, n=5. 'N.E. + AIDA

contra.': 65.71 ± 2.97, n=7. 'Sham ipsi.' vs 'N.E. contra.': *p=0.0006, unpaired t test. 'Sham ipsi.

vs "N.E. + AIDA contra.': *p=0.002, Mann Whitney test. *Right:* Average ABR Wave I amplitude

(μV): 'Sham ipsi.': 2.67 ± 0.31, n=8. 'N.E. contra.': 1.28 ± 0.15, n=5. 'N.E. + AIDA contra.': 1.25 ±

0.27, n=7. 'Sham ipsi.' vs 'N.E. contra.': *p=0.006, unpaired t test. 'Sham ipsi.' vs 'N.E. + AIDA

contra.': *p=0.006, Mann Whitney test. For **(A, C-D, F)**, values represent mean $\pm$ SEM. Star (*)

indicates $p<0.05$.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7