

1 **TITLE**

2 An open-source control system for in vivo fluorescence measurements from deep-brain
3 structures

4

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11 **ARTICLE TYPE**

12 Research Paper

13

14 **ABSTRACT**

15 *Background.* Intracranial photometry through chronically implanted optical fibers is a widely
16 adopted technique for measuring signals from fluorescent probes in deep-brain structures. The
17 recent proliferation of bright, photo-stable, and specific genetically-encoded fluorescent
18 reporters for calcium and for other neuromodulators has greatly increased the utility and
19 popularity of this technique.

20 *New Method.* Here we describe an open-source, cost-effective, microcontroller-based solution
21 for controlling optical components in an intracranial photometry system and processing the
22 resulting signal.

23 *Results.* We show proof-of-principle that this system supports high quality intracranial
24 photometry recordings from dorsal striatum in freely moving mice. A single system supports
25 simultaneous fluorescence measurements in two independent color channels, but multiple
26 systems can be integrated together if additional fluorescence channels are required. This
27 system is designed to work in combination with either commercially available or custom-built
28 optical components. Parts can be purchased for less than one tenth the cost of commercially
29 available alternatives and complete assembly takes less than one day for an inexperienced
30 user.

31 *Comparison with Existing Method(s).* Currently available hardware draws on a variety of
32 commercial, custom-built, or hybrid elements for both optical and electronic components. Many
33 of these hardware systems are either specialized and inflexible, or over-engineered and
34 expensive.

35 *Conclusions.* This open-source system increases experimental flexibility while reducing cost
36 relative to current commercially available components. All software and firmware are open-
37 source and customizable, affording a degree of experimental flexibility that is not available in
38 current commercial systems.

39 INTRODUCTION

40 Intracranial volumetric imaging of population-level fluorescence signals through optical fibers
41 (photometry) has been possible for more than a decade (Adelsberger, Garaschuk et al. 2005).
42 Recently, however, the utility and popularity of this technique has increased dramatically,
43 through improvements in brightness and signal-to-noise of genetically-encoded fluorescence
44 indicators (Cui, Jun et al. 2013, Gunaydin, Grosenick et al. 2014, Lerner, Shilyansky et al. 2015,
45 Kim, Yang et al. 2016), most notably the GCaMP family of genetically-encoded calcium
46 indicators (Akerboom, Chen et al. 2012, Chen, Wardill et al. 2013). In addition, the growing
47 availability of specific genetically encoded fluorescent indicators for detection of
48 neuromodulators (Jing, Zhang et al. 2018, Patriarchi, Cho et al. 2018, Sun, Zeng et al. 2018),
49 voltage (Gong, Huang et al. 2015), and complementary cell signaling processes (Miesenbock,
50 De Angelis et al. 1998, Okumoto, Looger et al. 2005, Li and Tsien 2012, Gong, Wagner et al.
51 2014, San Martin, Ceballo et al. 2014, Marshall, Li et al. 2016) highlights the rapidly expanding
52 versatility of this technique. These advances have driven the development of commercially
53 available hardware capable of replacing custom-built systems and are lowering the barriers to
54 entry for new labs to adopt this technique. However, the electronics to control these
55 commercially available optical systems are either over-engineered (capable of acquiring many
56 more channels at much higher acquisition rates than required) or lack the flexibility to be
57 customized for all applications. Open-source solutions can address these shortcomings by
58 providing a complete, cost-effective system that can be customized as necessary by each user
59 for the needs of any specific experiment.

60 A typical photometry system consists of three components: (1) a short length of optical fiber
61 that is stereotaxically guided to the brain region of interest and then permanently cemented to
62 the skull, (2) a set of optical components to generate excitation light and detect fluorescence
63 emission, and (3) electronics to control light delivery and digitize the resulting fluorescence
64 signal (Figure 1). For the first component, the most widely used implants are essentially
65 identical to the fiber-ferrule assemblies used for light delivery in optogenetics experiments,
66 which have been established and iteratively improved by a large community for more than a
67 decade (Aravanis, Wang et al. 2007, Sparta, Stamatakis et al. 2011). For the second
68 component, recently-released optical elements that are specialized for this type of recording
69 offer excellent ease-of-use and signal-to-noise at a cost that is comparable to more
70 cumbersome first-generation setups (Gunaydin, Grosenick et al. 2014, Simone, Fuzesi et al.
71 2018). For the third component, a specialized set of electronics are required to control the
72 fluorescence excitation light and to process the resulting fluorescence emission signal. Here we
73 describe the design, construction, and implementation of a low-cost, open-source system for
74 control, recording, on-line visualization, and post-hoc analysis of *in vivo* photometry
75 experiments. This system is designed to operate together with commercially available optical
76 components (e.g. Doric Lenses, Thorlabs) as well as open-source (Delmans 2018, Simone,
77 Fuzesi et al. 2018) and hybrid systems (<https://sites.google.com/view/multifp/hardware>), and
78 has the ability to monitor synchronization signals to support integration of recordings with
79 additional stimulation or recording equipment. This design supports two independent color
80 channels and can be assembled by an inexperienced user in less than a day, for approximately
81 one tenth the cost of commercially available systems. Most importantly, as both physiological
82 and behavioral experiments become increasingly complex, the open-source architecture allows
83 unlimited range to expand, modify, customize and adapt the system to suit the requirements of
84 any specific experiment.

85

86 RESULTS

87 A key challenge in the design and implementation of an intracranial photometry
88 fluorescence recording system is establishing the extent to which the measurement reflects the
89 true fluorescence signal in the brain. Two distinct approaches have been established to address
90 this problem. The first approach splits the fluorescence signal into multiple different channels
91 based on wavelength and relies on spectral unmixing to isolate the true fluorescence signal in
92 one expected channel from non-specific background fluctuations that are expected to spread
93 across multiple wavelengths (Cui, Jun et al. 2013, Cui, Jun et al. 2014, Meng, Zhou et al. 2018).
94 An alternative approach, which avoids the requirement for complex time-correlated single-
95 photon counting (TCSPC), is to rapidly oscillate the excitation light and use post-hoc processing
96 to isolate the specified component of the fluorescence signal (Gunaydin, Grosenick et al. 2014).
97 In this second approach, it is the temporal characteristics of the fluorescent signal (frequency
98 and phase of the amplitude oscillation) rather than the wavelength that are used to isolate the
99 fluorescence emission signal from background light. Both methods are effective for removing
100 background light and noise sources from the fluorescence signal, or for isolating distinct color
101 channels from one another within the same preparation. The system described here employs
102 the second approach, oscillating the fluorescence excitation light independently for two separate
103 color channels. Notably, neither approach is completely immune to noise sources or
104 experimental confounds, especially those caused by movement of the animal or flexing of the
105 fiber-optic cable. To identify and exclude those sources of noise, it is important to record from a
106 stable, non-fluctuating fluorescence source such as EGFP or tdTomato. These control
107 recordings can be performed in a separate control cohort of animals, or alongside the primary
108 recordings using a second color channel as described below.

109 The electronics required to operate a photometry system require little more than a sine-wave
110 generator and a low-cost digitizer. However, it is useful in the day-to-day execution of
111 experiments to have a dynamic, on-line estimate of the fluorescence signal amplitude. Here, we
112 describe a newly developed, open-source system that supports all these features. This system
113 is based on commercially available microcontrollers and electronic components, freely-available
114 open-source firmware (for the MBED microcontroller) and post-hoc analysis software (Matlab
115 script). It can be assembled in less than a day by an inexperienced user for a total cost of \$500-
116 \$1,000; about one tenth the cost of current commercially available systems.

117 The core of this system is an MBED Cortex LPC1768 programmable microcontroller (Figure
118 2A). This microcontroller generates two continuously oscillating sine wave outputs to drive
119 excitation light for two independent fluorescence channels (LED). The amplitude (0-3.3 V) and
120 frequency (0-500 Hz) of each oscillation is controlled through four user-defined command
121 voltages (variable resistors). Digital displays provide a readout of each oscillation frequency so
122 that harmonic interference between fluorescence excitation and oscillating signals in the
123 environment (e.g. 60 Hz room lights, or optogenetic stimulation pulse trains) can be avoided.
124 Two switches pause the LED oscillations for each channel. This allows excitation light power to
125 be measured accurately during the setup of an experiment and permits the user to perform
126 experiments with steady rather than oscillating excitation light if desired. A “recording” switch
127 suspends all user input to ensure stable conditions during recording or execution of an
128 experiment, even if the user bumps a knob. The microcontroller also monitors the oscillating
129 fluorescence signal from each channel and calculates a Fast-Fourier Transform (FFT) from

130 each channel to determine the signal power at the frequency of the excitation LED oscillation.
131 This provides a continuously updated estimate of this fluorescence signal for each channel. On-
132 line estimates of the fluorescence signal are calculated by the microcontroller approximately
133 once every ~80 ms, using a ~100 ms sliding window. The time delay caused by the filter lag and
134 the microcontroller processing steps introduce a total lag of ~250 ms for the estimated signal
135 relative to the “true” fluorescence calculated post-hoc using a zero-lag filter. This delay is
136 relatively small compared to the time course of most bulk fluorescent transients recorded *in vivo*
137 (Cui, Jun et al. 2013, Gunaydin, Grosenick et al. 2014, Lerner, Shilyansky et al. 2015, Sun,
138 Zeng et al. 2018), but is important to correct with appropriate post-hoc processing in cases
139 where fine timescale alignment of fluorescent transients to behavior or to complementary
140 physiological signals is required.

141 Simultaneous execution of these operations on a single microcontroller is made possible by
142 the multi-threaded structure supported on the MBED cortex LPC1768 (Figure 2B). Briefly, three
143 continuously repeating loops run in parallel. The first loop updates the frequency displays. The
144 second loop calculates the amplitude of the oscillating fluorescent signal. The third loop controls
145 the sine wave generation for the oscillating excitation LEDs.

146 All essential signals are recorded and digitized at ~5 kHz with a commercially available
147 digitizer (National Instruments USB-6009) and freely available software (WinEDR,
148 http://spider.science.strath.ac.uk/sipbs/software_ses.htm), including the excitation LED driver
149 signals, the raw fluorescent emission signal, and the on-line estimates of the fluorescent
150 signals. Simultaneous digitization of additional synchronization inputs allows the fluorescence
151 signal to be aligned precisely to other physiological manipulations or behavior. The entire
152 system, including digitizer, is contained in a compact box and can be readily moved from one
153 experimental setup to another as needed (Figure 2C).

154 Assembly of this system is rapid and straightforward, requiring less than a day for a naïve
155 user with modest soldering experience. Briefly, the microcontroller, BNC connectors, switches,
156 variable resistors, resistors, capacitors, and connectors are soldered into the custom-designed
157 printed circuit board. The MBED microcontroller is then connected to a computer via USB (it
158 appears as a USB “thumb drive”) and the firmware is and copied onto the microcontroller. The
159 driver for the digitizer card is installed on the computer as well as the acquisition software
160 (WinEDR, link above). The digitizer is plugged into the printed circuit board and connected to
161 the computer by USB. The control system is then placed into its enclosure. Two BNC cables
162 connect the control system to the LED drivers, and a further two BNC cables connect the
163 photodiodes to the control system. A USB cable connects the digitizer to the acquisition
164 computer, and a 5V power supply provides power. A complete list of parts, pre-compiled
165 firmware, source-code, and all materials as well as a more detailed description of the assembly
166 process is available here <https://hackaday.io/project/160397>.

167 To test this system, we injected adeno-associated virus to express the genetically-encoded
168 calcium indicator GCaMP6m in a Cre-dependent manner (AAV-Flex-GCaMP6m) into the dorso-
169 medial striatum of an A2a-Cre BAC transgenic mouse. This drives expression of the calcium
170 indicator selectively in striatal medium spiny neurons (MSNs) belonging to the indirect pathway
171 (Cui, Jun et al. 2013). We implanted a short length of optical fiber (400 μm diameter)
172 approximately 100 μm above the center of the virus infection zone and cemented the implant to
173 the mouse skull. Fluorescence excitation light was generated by a pair of LEDs (Doric lenses)
174 and routed through a specialized “Fluorescence mini cube” (Doric Lenses) containing pre-

175 aligned lenses, fiber couplers, and dichroic mirrors to split excitation and emission channels
176 based on wavelength. Emission light was collected separately for each fluorescence channel
177 with a pair of Newport 2151 Femtowatt detectors.

178 One standard experimental configuration requiring a two-color photometry system uses a
179 green channel to track a fluorescent sensor (e.g. GCaMP) and a red channel to simultaneously
180 track a static control indicator (e.g. tdTomato). In the specific case of GCaMP indicators,
181 however, an elegantly simple alternative control is possible. Excitation of GCaMP at the
182 standard wavelength for green fluorescence (465 nm) produces a robust calcium-dependent
183 signal; in contrast, blue-shifted excitation light (405 nm) drives a calcium-independent (isosbestic)
184 fluorescence from the same indicator. This second isosbestic wavelength provides a calcium-
185 independent signal to control for preparation stability.

186 We therefore delivered excitation light at two separate wavelengths: 405 nm to drive
187 isosbestic fluorescence (Figure 3, left column), and 465 nm to drive a calcium-dependent
188 fluorescent signal (Figure 3, right column). To ensure adequate separation of the two
189 fluorescent signals, the intensity of light at each wavelength was independently modulated at
190 different frequencies. Importantly, each oscillation frequency must be rapid relative to the
191 timescale of the signal fluctuations to be detected, but slower than the detection speed of the
192 photodiode and digitizer. In our hands, oscillation frequencies in the range of 100-400 Hz meet
193 these criteria. To avoid generating harmonic interference, each frequency must not be a multiple
194 (or near multiple) of the other frequency, or of any oscillating signal in the environment, such as
195 room lights (60 Hz) or optogenetic stimulation pulse trains. Based on these criteria and empirical
196 testing, we selected 217 Hz as the oscillation frequency for the 465 nm calcium-dependent
197 fluorescence channel, and 319 Hz as the frequency for the 405 nm isosbestic signal.

198 In our validation recording, the fluorescence emission from the isosbestic channel (405 nm
199 excitation light) appeared as an oscillation that was phase-locked to the LED driver signal
200 (Figure 3A,C,E). The fluorescence emission signal from the calcium-sensitive channel (465 nm
201 excitation light) exhibited a more complex structure (Figure 3B,D,F), consistent with this signal
202 arising from a summation of the isosbestic and calcium-sensitive fluorescence signals. The
203 cross-talk between these two channels was readily isolated by using a Fast-Fourier Transform
204 (FFT) to calculate the local power spectrum of the signal across a sliding time window. The
205 single peak in the power spectrum for the isosbestic signal confirmed the specificity of this
206 fluorescence measurement (Figure 3G). In contrast, the power spectrum from the calcium-
207 sensitive fluorescence channel contained two fully separated peaks corresponding to the
208 calcium-sensitive fluorescence (green arrow) and the cross-talk from the isosbestic
209 fluorescence signal (blue arrow) (Figure 3H).

210 The amplitude of the calcium-sensitive fluorescence signal was calculated by measuring
211 peak of the power spectrum at the frequency dictated by the oscillation of the calcium-sensitive
212 fluorescence excitation light (green arrow). By repeating this calculation over a sliding time
213 window, the fluorescence signal for each channel was calculated as a function of time,
214 independent of the other fluorescence channel or background light contamination. As expected,
215 the fluorescence signal from the isosbestic channel was stable over time (Figure 3I), while the
216 calcium-sensitive fluorescence channel showed robust fluctuations (Figure 3J). The size, shape
217 and time-course of these fluctuations was consistent with previously reported calcium transients
218 in similar preparations (Cui, Jun et al. 2013, Meng, Zhou et al. 2018). In some cases, such as
219 when significant fluctuations are detected in the control fluorescence channel, it may be

220 desirable to normalize the calcium-dependent fluorescence by the instantaneous control signal
221 amplitude to correct for this noise in the primary signal. When the control signal is stable,
222 however, it often makes sense to skip this normalization, because dividing one experimentally
223 measured signal by another will increase the noise in the final signal.

224 To align calcium fluorescence signals to behavior, we recorded fluorescence continuously
225 for 10 min (Figure 4A,B) while monitoring animal locomotion using an overhead camera (Figure
226 4C). Synchronization pulses generated by the behavioral monitoring system (Ethovision 10,
227 Noldus Inc) were digitized by the photometry recording system together with the fluorescence
228 measurements (see methods). Consistent with previous reports (Cui, Jun et al. 2013, Meng,
229 Zhou et al. 2018), turns or orienting movements towards the direction contralateral to the
230 recording site in dorsomedial striatum were correlated with peaks in the fluorescent signal on
231 the calcium-dependent channel (Figure 4D). In contrast, turns or orienting movements towards
232 the ipsilateral side were associated with troughs, or the absence of peaks, in the fluorescence
233 signal (Figure 4E). No peaks or behaviorally-aligned changes were detected in the isosbestic
234 control signal, consistent with the transients in the calcium-dependent channel representing
235 well-isolated calcium signals with minimal contamination from movement artifacts or
236 environmental light sources.

237

238 **CONCLUDING REMARKS**

239 Photometry is an increasingly important tool with a growing variety of applications in
240 neuroscience. Optical components are readily available for commercial, open-source, and
241 hybrid systems. The electronics that control these optics, however, are either over-engineered
242 and expensive or lack the flexibility and accessibility to be tailored to specific experimental
243 applications. Here we present a cost-effective, open-source system for controlling the optical
244 components in a two-color photometry system, digitizing the resulting signals, and performing
245 post-hoc analysis.

246 *Post-hoc analysis is essential for proper interpretation of signals.*

247 This system uses a microcontroller-based FFT to provide an on-line “preview” of the signal
248 amplitude and structure, similar to those available on commercial systems. Importantly, this
249 “preview” analysis should not be treated as the final measurement of the fluorescence signal.
250 Analysis of the oscillating fluorescence signal requires processing over discrete time windows
251 that are long enough to contain multiple cycles of each oscillation (Figure 4). On-line analysis
252 can draw only on time points that have already occurred, using a time window that extends into
253 the immediate past. This results in a filter-lag that causes the processed signal to trail the true
254 signal by a duration of approximately half the length of the analysis time window (typically 50-
255 100 ms). In contrast, post-hoc filtering can use an analysis window that extends to both sides of
256 each time point and draws on zero-lag filtering methods that are not possible with on-line filters.
257 This eliminates filter lag as well as any potential computation or signal processing delays, and
258 ensures that the processed signal more accurately reflects the true fluorescence.

259 *Applications for two-color photometry*

260 Simultaneous measurement of two separate fluorescence channels offers multiple
261 experimental opportunities. In the specific case of GCaMP indicators, calcium-independent

262 control fluorescence levels can be measured from the calcium sensor itself by utilizing the
263 calcium-independent isosbestic point in the emission spectrum (Lerner, Shilyansky et al. 2015).
264 Alternatively, a static indicator in a second fluorescence channel (e.g. tdTomato in the red
265 channel) can provide a control signal to establish the extent to which fluctuations in the primary
266 fluorescence signal (e.g. GCaMP in the green channel) may arise from contamination by
267 environmental light sources, or movement artifacts from the animal, the implant, the optical
268 fiber, or the experimental apparatus. Perhaps most promisingly, however, recent improvements
269 in the latest generation of red-shifted calcium indicators (Zhao, Araki et al. 2011, Akerboom,
270 Carreras Calderon et al. 2013, Wu, Abdelfattah et al. 2014, Inoue, Takeuchi et al. 2015, Dana,
271 Mohar et al. 2016) complement the widely used GCaMP indicators, allowing dynamic
272 interactions between distinct, genetically-targeted neuronal populations to be studied in a single
273 preparation (Markowitz, Gillis et al. 2018).

274 *A growing toolbox of sensors is expanding applications for one- and two-color photometry.*

275 Although GCaMP and other calcium indicators remain the most widely used sensors in
276 photometry experiments (Cui, Jun et al. 2013, Gunaydin, Grosenick et al. 2014, Lerner,
277 Shilyansky et al. 2015, Kim, Yang et al. 2016, Meng, Zhou et al. 2018), emerging genetically-
278 encoded fluorescent sensors for intracellular chloride (Wimmer, Schmitt et al. 2015), voltage
279 (Gong, Huang et al. 2015), and neuromodulators including acetylcholine (Jing, Zhang et al.
280 2018), dopamine (Patriarchi, Cho et al. 2018, Sun, Zeng et al. 2018) and others are expanding
281 the versatility of this technique by permitting sensitive and specific detection of local
282 neuromodulators through fluorescence signals. The simultaneous development of these new
283 modulatory sensors alongside improved red-shifted calcium indicators (Zhao, Araki et al. 2011,
284 Li and Tsien 2012, Akerboom, Carreras Calderon et al. 2013, Wu, Abdelfattah et al. 2014,
285 Inoue, Takeuchi et al. 2015, Dana, Mohar et al. 2016, Meng, Zhou et al. 2018) suggests it will
286 now be possible to use two-color photometry to simultaneously measure modulatory signaling
287 and its impact on specific neuronal populations with a cellular, spatial and temporal precision
288 that was previously inaccessible in freely moving animals. The low-cost, open-source system
289 described here is designed to complement commercially available optical components to create
290 a flexible system capable of exploiting this new and emerging array of tools for a broad range of
291 neuroscience experiments. Notably, it is also possible to use the same indicator (e.g. GCaMP)
292 in two spatially distinct but nearby regions in the brain and use separate oscillation frequencies
293 of the excitation light in each location to limit fluorescence cross-talk between the two signals.
294 This approach is not possible with a spectral unmixing approach.

295 *Open-source design supports experimental flexibility.*

296 The system described here consists of hardware and firmware for control electronics and
297 processing of signals. We anticipate that these components will provide a valuable complement
298 to the recently published open-source tools that focus primarily on optical and opto-electronic
299 components for similar systems (Simone, Fuzesi et al. 2018). Furthermore, it should be
300 relatively straightforward to integrate both packages into a single open-source design. Although
301 the number of available input and output channels on the microcontroller and the digitizer limit
302 the number of fluorescence channels that can be controlled by a single system using this
303 design, there is no fundamental barrier to using two or more control boxes in parallel within a
304 single experiment if more independent channels of fluorescence recording are required. In this
305 case, the most straightforward solution may be to use two or more of the microcontroller boxes
306 with minimal modifications to each box, and to replace the digitizer with a single 12- or 16-

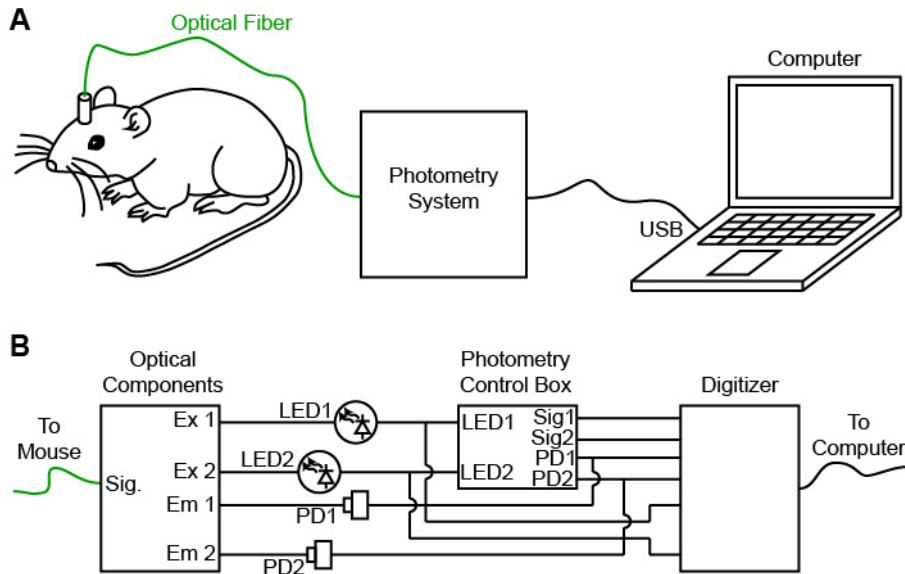
307 channel digitizer capable of simultaneously acquiring all necessary channels simultaneously.
308 The current design, with all channels accessible through BNC connectors on the front of each
309 box, should facilitate this expansion with minimal additional engineering.

310 The open-source design of this system allows for unlimited customization to suit specific
311 applications. For example, in long-duration recordings (e.g. over several days for circadian
312 rhythm, automated learning or extended behavior experiments) it may be desirable to include an
313 automated, electronic gating of fluorescent excitation light to minimize photobleaching and
314 phototoxicity. This change can be implemented in minutes by making a simple firmware change
315 to use the “Sync In” BNC connector to gate fluorescence excitation light. Additional changes are
316 possible through modification of the available microcontroller code. For example, a user might
317 implement a firmware system to detect peaks when the fluorescence signal exceeds a certain
318 threshold and have the microcontroller report those peaks with a TTL output for closed-loop
319 control of physiological or behavioral equipment within an experiment. We anticipate that this
320 type of experimental flexibility will be invaluable given the rapidly expanding popularity and
321 range of applications for photometry across neuroscience and other related fields.

322

323 FIGURES

Figure 1



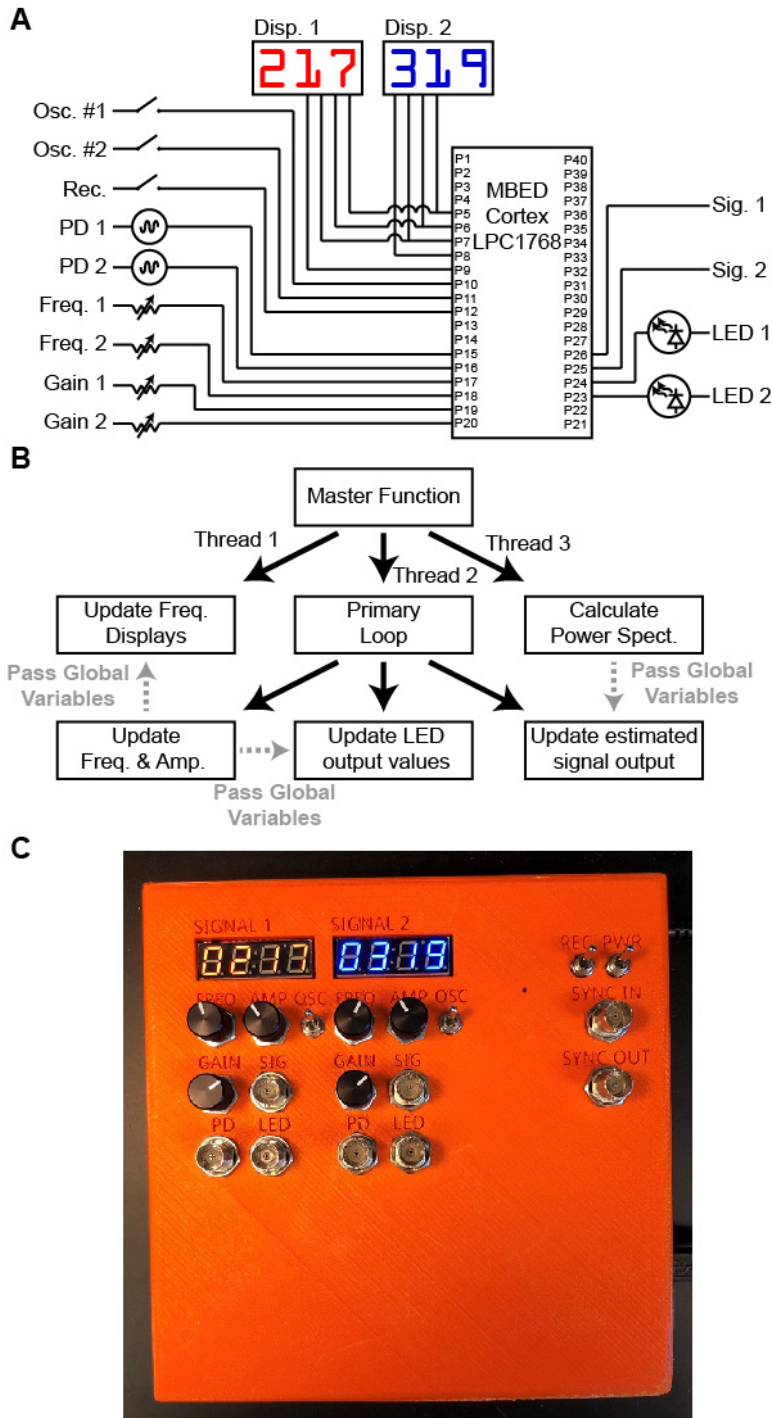
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325

326 **Figure 1. Design of a low-cost open-source photometry control system.** A, Schematic of
327 experimental design in which the photometry system delivers fluorescence excitation light,
328 measures fluorescence emission and passes a digitized signal to the computer. B, Individual
329 components of the photometry system include optical components (left, dichroic mirrors, fiber
330 couplers), photometry control box (center) and digitizer for recording (right).

331

Figure 2



332

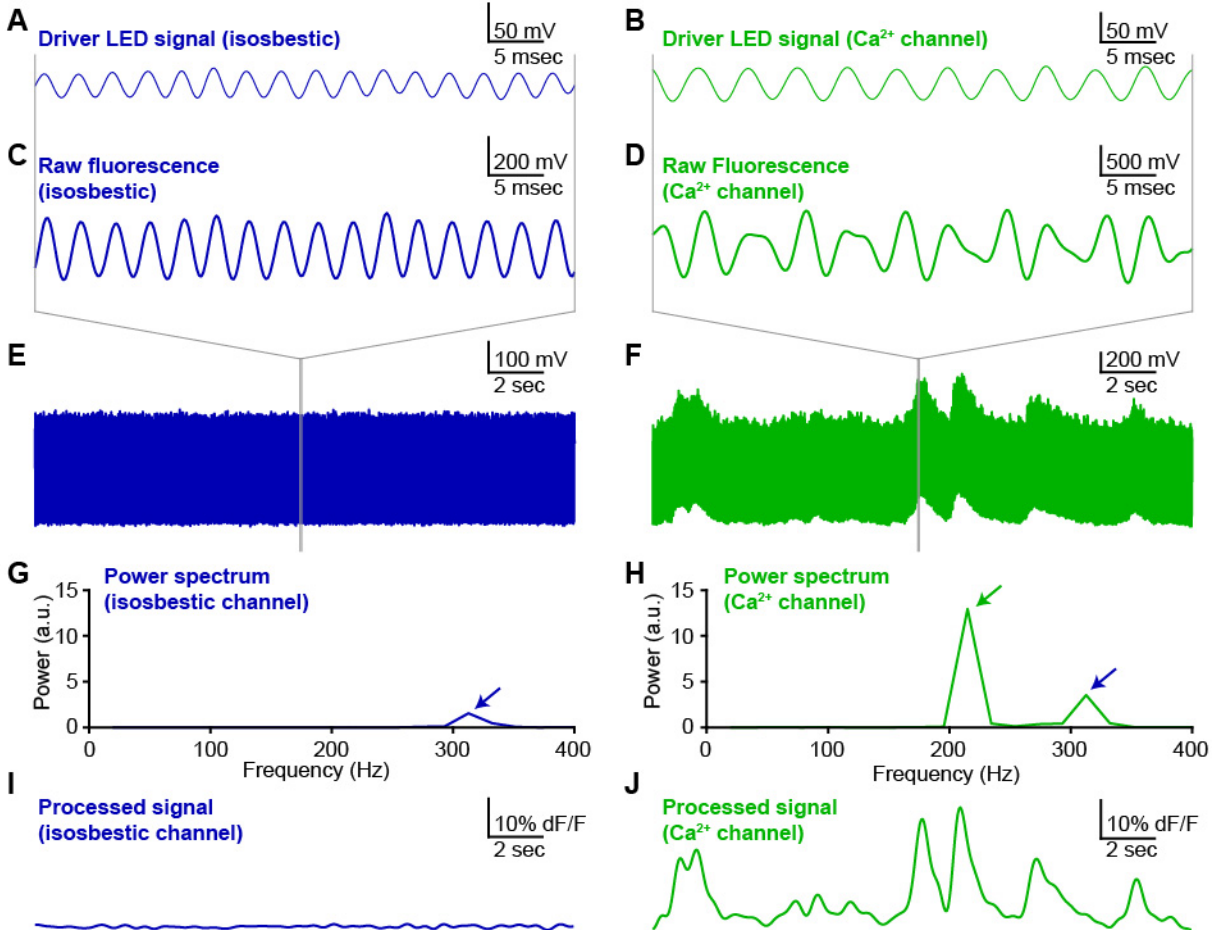
333

334 **Figure 2. Microcontroller firmware for LED control and on-line readout of fluorescence**

335 **signal.** A, Connectivity of MBED Cortex LPC1768 microcontroller. B, Schematic of

336 microcontroller firmware. C, Constructed photometry control box.

Figure 3



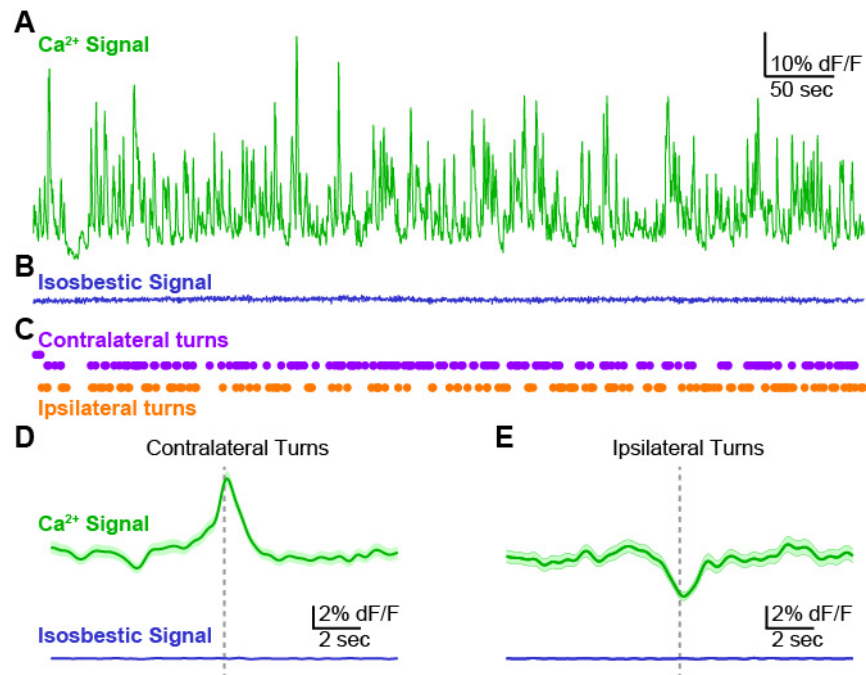
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338

339 **Figure 3. Oscillating excitation light minimizes background fluorescence and channel**
340 **cross-talk.** Exemplar photometry recording and analysis from dorsomedial striatum of A2A-cre
341 mouse expressing GCaMP6m in medium spiny neurons (MSNs) of the indirect pathway. A,B,
342 Oscillating driver signals for isosbestic channel (Panel A, 405 nm; oscillating at 319 Hz) and
343 calcium-sensitive channel (Panel B, 465 nm; oscillating at 217 Hz). C,D, Fluorescence signal
344 from isosbestic channel (Panel C) and calcium-sensitive channel (Panel D) at expanded time
345 scale to show phase-locked oscillations in fluorescence emission relative to each LED driver
346 signal (panels A,B above). E,F, Fluorescence measurements for each channel at long time
347 scale to show stability of isosbestic channel (Panel E) relative to calcium-sensitive fluctuations
348 in fluorescence (Panel F). G,H, Power spectra calculated from a discrete 50 ms window of each
349 fluorescence emission signal. Blue arrows indicate the peak corresponding to the isosbestic
350 channel (405 nm excitation light; oscillation at 319 Hz). Green arrow indicates peak
351 corresponding to calcium-dependent channel (465 nm excitation light; oscillation at 217 Hz). I,J,
352 Fluorescence signal for each channel calculated by post-hoc processing over a sliding window
353 (see methods).

354

Figure 4



355

356

357 **Figure 4. Validation of photometry system by detection of behaviorally aligned calcium**
358 **signals.** A, Exemplar recording (10 min) from dorsomedial striatum of an A2A-cre mouse
359 expressing GCaMP6m in MSNs of the indirect pathway. Calcium-dependent channel. B, Signal
360 from the control, isosbestic channel recorded simultaneously with the calcium-dependent signal
361 in Panel A. C, Contralateral and ipsilateral turns detected by automated video tracking of mouse
362 behavior during the photometry recording session. D,E, Average fluorescence signal aligned to
363 contralateral (Panel D) and ipsilateral (Panel E) turn events. Signal from calcium-dependent
364 (top, green) and isosbestic control channel (bottom, blue). Average signal (dark line) plotted
365 together with standard error (shaded)

366

367

368 **SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION**

369 **Table S1. Parts List**

370

Parts List				
Component	Quantity	Vendor	Part #	Price
NI-DAQ Digitizer	1	National Instruments	USB-6009	\$398.00
Custom PCB	1	SEED Studios		\$3.07
MBED Microcontroller	1	Digikey	568-4916-ND	\$52.06
7-segment display (blue)	1	Digikey	1568-1346-ND	\$12.95
7-segment display (red)	1	Digikey	1568-1533-ND	\$12.95
Toggle switch	4	Digikey	M2012SS1W15-ND	\$4.51
Potentiometer (10 kOhm)	6	Digikey	A105799-ND	\$6.23
Knob	6	Digikey	226-4092-ND	\$6.44
BNC Connector	8	Digikey	A32265-ND	\$3.80
BNC Nut	8	Digikey	A1128-ND	\$0.33
Combi-Con Connector	1	Digikey	277-6221-ND	\$17.34
Power connector	1	Digikey	CP-002B-ND	\$0.61
Board spacer	1	Digikey	A108560-ND	\$9.39
Resistors (5.1 kOhm)	6	Digikey	5.1KQBK-ND	\$0.10
Capacitors (100 nF)	4	Digikey	BC2665CT-ND	\$0.23
Operational Amplifier	1	Digikey	296-9542-5-ND	\$0.40
5V linear power supply	1	Jameco	168605	\$10.95
Plastic tapping screws	11	McMaster-Carr	94629A560	\$0.54
3D printed enclosure	1	-	-	-
Total				\$652.28

371

372

373 **METHODS**

374 *Design and construction of custom-built hardware*

375 The hardware was initially assembled using a prototyping board, short lengths of hook-up
376 wire and direct soldering of individual components. This stage was essential to identify,
377 troubleshoot and correct design flaws. For example, in the first iteration the pulse-width
378 modulated outputs from the MBED microcontroller were connected directly to the analog inputs
379 on the digitizer. This resulted in aliasing artifacts that were eliminated by introducing an RC filter
380 and a voltage follower amplifier on each channel in the final design. Once the design was
381 finalized and validated, a printed circuit board (PCB) was designed and independently tested.

382 *Microcontroller firmware design*

383 The microcontroller firmware was written using the ARM MBED online compiler
384 (<http://os.mbed.com/compiler>). The RTOS library (<http://os.mbed.com/handbook/RTOS>) was
385 imported to support multi-threaded operation. The FFT function was adapted from standard C++
386 implementations of Fast Fourier Transforms (e.g. <http://www.drdoobs.com/cpp>). All other
387 functions were written specifically for this application. A pre-compiled binary file is available for

388 download that can simply be copied to the MBED microcontroller by “drag-and-drop” over a
389 USB connection from any modern PC. The code is available here
390 <https://hackaday.io/project/160397> for users who wish to customize, modify or improve any
391 aspect.

392 *Animals*

393 1 adult transgenic mouse on a C57BL/6 background aged 3 months was used in the proof-
394 of-principle open-field recording experiment.

395 *Stereotactic surgery*

396 All procedures were in accordance with protocols approved by the UCSF Institutional Animal
397 Care and Use Committee. The mouse was maintained on a 12/12 light/dark cycle and fed *ad*
398 *libitum*. Experiments were carried out during the dark cycle. The surgery was carried out in
399 aseptic conditions while the mouse was anaesthetized with isoflurane (5% for induction, 0.5-
400 1.5% afterward) in a manual stereotactic frame (Kopf). Buprenorphine HCl (0.1 mg kg⁻¹,
401 intraperitoneal injection) and Ketoprofen (5 mg kg⁻¹, subcutaneous injection) were used for
402 postoperative analgesia. The mouse was allowed to recover for ~3 weeks before recording.

403 *Virus injection*

404 We injected 1 μ L of adeno-associated virus serotype 1 (AAV1) carrying the calcium indicator
405 GCaMP6m in a double-floxed inverted open reading frame under the control of the Synapsin
406 promoter (AAV1-hSyn-Flex-GCaMP6m). Virus was obtained from the University of
407 Pennsylvania Vector Core. The virus was injected bilaterally into dorsal striatum of an adult
408 mouse in a stereotactic surgery as described above, at coordinates +1.0 anteroposterior (AP),
409 +/-1.5 mediolateral (ML), and -2.5 dorsoventral (DV), measured from bregma on the skull
410 surface. Injections were performed using a glass injector pipette and a Micro-4 Injector system
411 (World Precision Instruments, Inc). The needle was held in place for 1 min before the start of
412 injection, injection speed was 100 nL min⁻¹, and the injection needle was raised 5 minutes after
413 completion of virus delivery.

414 *Optical fiber implants*

415 After virus injection (as described above), a pair of optical fibers (0.48 NA; 400 μ m diameter)
416 epoxied to stainless steel fiber optic ferrules (2.5 mm diameter) were implanted in the same
417 surgery. Fiber tip was placed approximately 100 μ m above the center of the virus infection zone,
418 at coordinates +1.0 AP, +/-1.5 ML, -2.4 DV from bregma. Dental adhesive (C&B Metabond,
419 Parkell) was used to fix the ferrule in place and coat the surface of the skull. Finally, the skull
420 surface and implant were coated with dental acrylic (Ortho-Jet, Lang Dental). After the cement
421 dried, the scalp was sutured shut.

422 *Open field behavior tracking*

423 Locomotion was tracked in a brightly lit open-field arena using an overhead camera and
424 post-hoc tracking software (Noldus, Inc). Videos of behavior were recorded from overhead and
425 side views. Rotations (continuous rotational movements over >90 degrees) were tracked using
426 automated detection of the nose and tail positions from post-hoc video analysis.
427 Synchronization TTL pulses were generated once per minute and digitized by the photometry
428 system alongside the fluorescence measurement to align fluorescence measurements to
429 behavioral events. These pulses were digitized together with the photometry signal, using the
430 “Sync In” input on the photometry system. These pulses were detected off-line with a post-hoc

431 analysis script and used to align the time-stamps from the photometry recording to the time-
432 stamps in the behavioral tracking software (Noldus Ethovision 10). The time of each rotation
433 was then converted to the equivalent time in the photometry recording.

434 *Fluorescence measurements in vivo*

435 Fluorescence excitation light was generated using two independently driven LEDs. The
436 driver signal for the violet LED (405 nm) was oscillated at 319 Hz to generate excitation light for
437 the isosbestic fluorescence channel. The driver signal for the blue LED (465 nm) was oscillated
438 at 217 Hz to generate excitation light for the calcium-dependent fluorescence channel. Both
439 fiber-coupled LEDs were purchased from Doric Lenses. The photometry control box described
440 in this publication was connected to the LED driver by a pair of BNC cables to deliver the driver
441 signal. The fluorescence mini cube (Doric Lenses) was connected to the intracranial implant on
442 the mouse's head through an optical fiber (400 μ m diameter) and a single channel optical
443 commutator (Doric Lenses). Fluorescence emission light was collected from the intracranial
444 implant through the same optical fiber and detected using a pair of Newport 2151 Femtowatt
445 photodetectors (Newport Inc) connected to the fluorescence mini-cube with optical fibers. The
446 Femtowatt detectors were connected to the photometry box "Photodiode" inputs by BNC
447 connectors for digitization and analysis of the fluorescence signal.

448 *Signal digitization and off-line analysis*

449 The signal from the two photodiodes was split and sent directly to the digitizer for recording
450 of the raw signal, and to the microcontroller for on-line estimation of the signal amplitude. All
451 signals, including estimated fluorescence (channels 1 and 2), LED driver (channels 3 and 4),
452 raw fluorescence (channels 5 and 6), and TTL synchronization pulses (channels 7 and 8) were
453 digitized continuously at 5 kHz throughout the duration of the experiment. Raw traces plotted in
454 Figure 3A-F were low-pass filtered at 400 Hz for clarity of presentation. In addition to generating
455 the oscillating sine wave driver signals for each fluorescence excitation LED, the microcontroller
456 performs an on-line calculation of the approximate signal amplitudes using a discrete window
457 Fast-Fourier Transform. This signal is valuable when optimizing experimental conditions and
458 assessing the progress of a recording in situ. For final results, however, we strongly recommend
459 off-line post-hoc analysis of the raw fluorescence signals. This allows for better temporal fidelity
460 by using sliding filter windows and removal of filter lags by zero-lag filtering (which is impossible
461 in any on-line filter). A Matlab script (available for download with the rest of the materials) will
462 accomplish this, reading in data directly from a WinEDR data file and processing the results to
463 pull out the signal with a zero-lag filter.

464

465 **Data Availability**

466 All data are available upon request. Full parts lists, assembly instructions, compiled
467 firmware, source code and analysis scripts are freely available here:

468 <https://hackaday.io/project/160397>

469

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476

477 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

478 S.F.O. designed the hardware, software and firmware, constructed the apparatus,
479 performed experiments, analyzed data and wrote the manuscript. A.C.K. designed experiments
480 and wrote the manuscript.

481

482 **COMPETING FINANCIAL INTERESTS**

483 The authors have no competing financial interests to disclose.

484

485 **KEYWORDS**

486 Optical fibers; biophotonics; fluorescence; photometry; microcontrollers; open-source; GCaMP;
487 basal ganglia

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