

1 **Mesodiencephalic junction Gabaergic inputs are** 2 **processed separately from motor cortical inputs in the** 3 **basilar pons**

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11 **Abstract**

12 The basilar pontine nuclei (bPN) receive inputs from the entire neocortex and constitute the main source
13 of mossy fibers to the cerebellum. Despite their critical position in the cortico-cerebellar pathway, it
14 remains unclear if and how the bPN process inputs. An important unresolved question is whether the bPN
15 strictly receives excitatory inputs or also receives inhibitory inputs. In the present study, we identified the
16 mesodiencephalic junction as a prominent source of GABAergic afferents to the bPN. We combined
17 optogenetics and whole-cell patch clamp recordings and confirmed that the bPN indeed receives
18 monosynaptic GABA inputs from this region. Furthermore, we found no evidence that these inhibitory
19 inputs converge with motor cortex (M1) inputs at the single neuron level. We also found no evidence of
20 any connectivity between bPN neurons, suggesting the absence of a local circuit. Finally, rabies tracings
21 revealed that GABAergic MDJ neurons themselves receive prominent inputs from neocortical output
22 neurons. Our data indicates that inhibition from the MDJ, and excitation from the neocortex remain
23 separate streams of information through the bPN. It is therefore unlikely that inhibition in the bPN has a
24 gating function, but rather shapes an appropriate output of the bPN during behavior.

25

26 **Introduction**

27 Motor control relies on brain-wide networks. Motor cortex directs voluntary movements (Guo et
28 al. 2015) and the cerebellum coordinates movements (Manto et al. 2012). Reciprocal
29 connections between these structures are necessary for proper motor control. Indeed, the
30 cerebellum projects to motor cortex via the thalamus (Sawyer et al. 1994; Aumann 2002;
31 Gornati et al. 2018), while motor cortex projects to the cerebellum via the pontine nuclei
32 (Schwarz and Mock 2001; Kratochwil et al. 2017). This closed-loop connectivity enables forward
33 and inverse models for motor control (Wolpert et al. 1998; Shadmehr and Krakauer 2008).
34 Interestingly, other parts of neocortex and cerebellum are also connected (Kelly and Strick
35 2003; Henschke and Pakan 2020; Pisano et al. 2021), enabling similar computational
36 mechanisms for motor control and cognitive processes alike.

37 This places the pontine nuclei at the nexus of information transfer between neocortex and
38 cerebellum. Indeed, the mossy fiber afferents from the basilar pontine nuclei (bPN) to the

39 cerebellum is one of the largest fiber tracts in the brain. Additionally, the bPN also receives
40 inputs from numerous non-neocortical regions of the brain (Burne et al. 1981; Wiesendanger
41 and Wiesendanger 1982; Kosinski et al. 1986; Mihailoff et al. 1988, 1989). These non-cortical
42 and corticopontine afferents show a topographical organization with minimal regional overlap
43 within the bPN (Leergaard and Bjaalie 2007; Proville et al. 2014; Kratochwil et al. 2017).
44 Similarly, mossy fibers originating from the bPN project to specific zones in the cerebellum
45 (Päälysaho et al. 1991; Mihailoff 1993; Odeh et al. 2005; Huang et al. 2013; Kratochwil et al.
46 2017). Therefore, the bPN is often not considered to have an active role in integration of
47 information, but is often considered to be a relay for information destined for the cerebellum.

48 Still, synaptic plasticity of inputs to the bPN has been described, suggesting a potential way of
49 processing of inputs to bPN neurons (Möck et al. 1997), potentially shaping spiking activity in
50 the bPN (Schwarz et al. 1997; Möck et al. 2006; Guo et al. 2021). Additionally, various extrinsic
51 sources of inhibition to bPN neurons have been suggested (Border et al. 1986; Mihailoff and
52 Border 1990; Möck et al. 1999), but these sources of GABAergic inputs to the bPN have never
53 been physiologically confirmed or characterized, precluding conclusions about their function
54 and integration in the cerebro-cerebellar circuit.

55 Here we identify the mesodiencephalic junction (MDJ) as the main source of GABAergic
56 signaling to the bPN. This inhibition does not seem to interact with afferents from motor cortex,
57 even though their projections overlap in the bPN. In contrast to the strongly depressing motor
58 cortex inputs, GABAergic inputs from MDJ show remarkably little short-term depression.
59 Finally, using rabies-tracing we show that pontine-projecting MDJ neurons receive prominent
60 neocortical inputs, similar to bPN neurons themselves. These results suggest that the bPN
61 contains separate streams for processing information from neocortex directly, and sign-inverted
62 neocortical inputs.

63

64 **Materials & Methods**

65 **Animals**

66 Male and female wt C57BL/6J mice were used for acute slice experiments. Animals were housed
67 socially (max. four per cage) and had ad libitum access to chow and water. All experimental
68 procedures were approved by the Central Authority for Scientific Procedures on Animals and
69 local animal welfare body of the VU University and VU University Medical Center (Amsterdam,
70 Netherlands) and carried out in accordance with European and Dutch law.

71 **Intracranial virus and tracer injections**

72 Microinjection needles were pulled from 3.5" borosilicate glass capillaries (Drummond SCI,
73 USA) on a Sutter P-87 puller (Sutter, CA) and backfilled with mineral oil before virus solution
74 was loaded. AAV9 viruses were purchased from Addgene (USA) syn.Chronos-GFP.WPRE.bGH
75 and syn.ChrimsonR-tdTomato.WPRE.bGH were injected at $4 \cdot 10^{12}$ vg/ml titer and $1.5 \cdot 10^{12}$ vg/ml
76 respectively. Retrograde AAV2 virus was purchased from University of Zurich vector core.
77 AAV2r-hSyn1-chI-iCre-WPRE-SV40 was injected at a titer of $7.9 \cdot 10^{12}$ vg/ml. Rabies virus
78 (Rabies-SAD-dG-tdTomato) and AAV helper virus (rAAVdj-hsyn1-dlox-TVA-2A-EGFP-2a-
79 oG(rev)-dlox-WPRE-bGhp(A)) were a generous gift from Klaus Conzelmann. All mice used for
80 optogenetic experiments received intracranial virus injections at postnatal 21. For all surgeries,
81 mice received Carprofen (5 mg/kg s.c.) and Buprenorphine (50 µg/kg s.c.) pre-operatively. A
82 second Carprofen injection (5 mg/kg s.c.) was administered twenty-four hours post-surgery.
83 Animals were kept under general anesthesia during surgery with Isoflurane (0.5% - 1%). Ear
84 bars were placed to secure the skull, a small amount of Lidocaine cream was applied before
85 placement. Local analgesia was applied by injecting a small volume of Lidocaine (2%)
86 underneath the scalp before incising the skin. The scalp was cut and folded open to expose the
87 skull, holes were drilled to access the injection sites, and virus was delivered via injection.
88 (relative to bregma(Paxinos and Watson 1998) (in mm), M1: AP 1.30; ML 1.08L; DV 1.20, MDJ:
89 AP -3.50; ML 0.50L; DV 3.00 Cerebellum: AP -6.2; ML 1.5R; DV 2.0 bPN: AP-4.0 ML 0.5L DV
90 5.5). For optogenetic experiments, total volume of 500 nl was injected per site in steps of 50
91 nl/min using a Nanoject II (Drummond SCI, USA) set to the 'slow' rate (23 nl/sec). The
92 microinjection needle was left in place for 5 minutes before and after injection. Mice were
93 sacrificed for acute slice experiments at least two weeks after viral injection to allow for
94 adequate expression. For tracing experiments, total volumes between 10 and 100nl were
95 injected per site and needles were left in place for 15 minutes before retraction. Retrobead
96 transport was assessed after 14 days. For rabies tracing animals were injected with AAV to
97 express cre, oG and TVA in one surgery. After 1 week rabies virus was injected, after which we
98 waited another week before animals were perfused with 4% formaldehyde solution in 0.1M
99 phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) for analysis.

100 **Acute slice preparation**

101 Acute slices were prepared for optogenetic experiments (sagittal orientation) and paired
102 recordings (sagittal or coronal). Before decapitation, mice first received a lethal pentobarbital
103 injection (120 mg/kg i.p.) and were perfused with ice cold N-Methyl- D -glucamine (NMDG)
104 solution containing (in mM): NMDG 93, KCl 2.5, NaH₂PO₄ 1.2, NaHCO₃ 30, HEPES 20, Glucose

105 25, sodium pyruvate 3, sodium ascorbate 5, MgSO₄ 10, CaCl₂ 0.5, adjusted to 315 mOsm ± 5 and
106 pH 7.3. After decapitation, the brain was removed from the skull and sliced in the same
107 oxygenated ice-cold NMDG solution. Brains were sliced using a ceramic blade (Campden
108 Instruments ltd., England) and slices (250 μm) were collected in an oxygen-perfused brain slice
109 chamber filled with a holding solution containing (in mM): NaCl 92, KCl 2.5, NaH₂PO₄ 1.2,
110 NaHCO₃ 30, HEPES 20, Glucose 25, sodium pyruvate 3, sodium ascorbate 5, MgSO₄ 10, CaCl₂
111 0.5, adjusted to 305 ± 5 mOsm. Slices were kept oxygenated at room temperature until the
112 moment of recording.

113

114 **Acute slice whole-cell recordings**

115 During all acute slice experiments, whole-cell recordings were acquired at a temperature of 33 ±
116 1 °C. Brain slices were placed in a bath continuously perfused with oxygenated ACSF containing
117 (in mM): NaCl 125, KCl 2.5, NaH₂PO₄ 1.25, NaHCO₃ 26, Glucose 25, MgCl₂ 1, CaCl₂ 1.3, adjusted
118 to 305 ± 5 mOsm. Borosilicate glass capillaries were pulled to produce patch-pipettes with a
119 resistance of 3 – 6 MΩ. For optogenetic experiments, patch-pipettes were filled with a cesium
120 methanesulfonate-based pipette solution containing (in mM): CsMethanesulfonate 115, TEA 25,
121 HEPES 10, EGTA 0.2, QX-314 Cl 5, NaCl 4, MgATP 2, Na₃GTP 0.4, Na₂Phosphocreatine 10. For
122 paired patch-clamp experiments, patch-pipettes were filled with a potassium gluconate-based
123 solution containing (in mM): KGluconate 135, KOH 31, NaCl 10, HEPES 10, EGTA 10, Na₂ATP
124 4, Na₃GTP 0.4. Both internal solutions were adjusted to pH 7.2 and 310 mOsm. Biocytin
125 (0.05%) was added to internal solution on the day of the experiment. Cells were loaded with
126 biocytin during whole-cell patch clamp recordings and resealed at the end of the experiment.
127 Slices were then transferred to paraformaldehyde (PFA, 4%) and fixed for at least 48 hours.

128 **Optogenetic stimulation**

129 Optogenetic responses were evoked using a 4-channel LED system (DC4100 & LED4D114;
130 Thorlabs inc., USA). Cells were voltage clamped at -70 and 0mV and screened for responses
131 using full field 100 ms optical stimulation at all four wavelengths (405, 470, 505 & 590nm).
132 When responses (EPSCs or IPSCs) were observed, the light source was restricted to a small
133 beam (±100μm diameter) with high intensity (>100mW/mm²)(Jackman et al. 2014) to allow
134 reliable axonal stimulation of afferents. Optical stimulation was delivered in trains of twenty
135 pulses with a 10 second intertrain interval, and was alternated per sweep in a pseudorandom
136 order (20 – 100 – 50 – 10Hz). All input characterizations are based on afferents expressing
137 Chronos. A short negative voltage (50 ms, -10 mV) was injected at the start of each sweep to
138 monitor access resistance throughout the experiment. Voltage clamp recordings were acquired
139 at a 50.0 kHz sample rate with a 10 kHz low pass filter. Cells from optogenetic experiments were
140 analyzed on the following conditions: (1) optical stimulation at 470 or 590 nm evoked a
141 response at -70 mV or 0 mV holding potential; (2) at least nine sweeps per frequency were
142 collected. Responses following stimulation were defined as optogenetically evoked inputs if they
143 exceeded the threshold set at 2σ of the baseline. Responses that did not reach the computed
144 threshold were not considered in the analysis. Response amplitudes were computed on averaged
145 sweeps. The peak amplitude was detected within an eight-millisecond time window after each
146 light pulse. Then, the response was determined by calculating the average maximum amplitude

147 over a one-millisecond time window of the peak amplitude. Baseline was defined as the average
148 amplitude over a two-millisecond time window before optic stimulation.

149 **Paired recording**

150 Sagittal or coronal slices were prepared for paired recordings. Up to three neurons were
151 recorded at the same time, and potential connections between neurons were probed by evoking
152 spike trains successively in each neuron. Ten action potentials were evoked presynaptically
153 using current injections of 2nA at 50Hz, followed by a single current injection after 500 ms.
154 Cells were kept at or around resting membrane potential throughout recording to detect EPCs.
155 Current clamp recordings were acquired at a 50.0 kHz sample rate with a 10 kHz low pass filter.
156 We did not compensate for the liquid junction potential.

157 Cells from paired whole-cell patch clamp experiments were analyzed when: (1) stimulation
158 evoked action potentials (APs); (2) cells did not have a negative leak current exceeding 500 pA;
159 (3) recordings had a stable resting membrane potential; (4) at least fifteen sweeps were
160 collected. To detect connections, we looked for EPSCs in the average postsynaptic response in
161 the first 18ms after the AP to accommodate for mono- and disynaptic connections. Then, the
162 postsynaptic response was determined by calculating the average amplitude over a one-
163 millisecond time window of the peak amplitude.

164 **Pharmacology**

165 Gabazine (10 μ M) was bath-applied to inhibit post-synaptic GABA_A responses. AMPA receptors
166 were inhibited with 6,7-dinitroquinoxaline-2,3-dione (DNQX, 10 μ M). Glycine receptors were
167 inhibited by application of Strychnine (1 μ M). TTX (1 μ M) was applied to inhibit voltage-gated
168 sodium channels. Voltage-gated potassium channels were inhibited with 4-Aminopyridine (4-
169 AP, 100 μ M). All antagonists were bath-applied and perfused at least five minutes before the
170 start of a recording.

171 **Histology**

172 For neurons recorded in vitro, slices were first washed in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS, 0.1 M,
173 $3 \times 15'$) containing (in mM): NaCl 137, KCl 2.7, NaH₂PO₄ 12, KH₂PO₄ 1.8. Then, slices were
174 permeabilized in Triton-X (PBS-T, 0.5%; 2h). Following permeabilization, slices were again
175 washed in PBS ($3 \times 15'$) and stained with Streptavidin-Alexa 647 (1:500 in 0.5% PBS-T). Finally,
176 slices were washed in PBS ($4 \times 15'$) and embedded in Mowiol (2%) on glass microscope slides for
177 confocal imaging. Tracer-injected brains were washed in 0.1M PBS and embedded in 11% gelatin
178 for whole-brain sectioning. 50-100 μ m sections were made on a Leica VS1000 vibratome and
179 collected directly to glass slides (retrobead tracing, coronal slices), or in 3 jars per side (sagittal
180 slices, 6 jars total per brain). Staining for GAD was performed on one jar per side of the brain,
181 yielding 24-30 sections for analysis. Sections were washed $3 \times 5'$ in PBS with 0.025% Triton-X,
182 blocked for 30' (PBS+0.025%TX and 5% normal Donkey Serum), and subsequently incubated
183 with GAD67 antibody O/N (1:500 MAB5406, Merck-Millipore) in PBS. The next day sections
184 were washed $3 \times 5'$ in PBS, incubated for 2 hours with Alexa647 secondary (Goat anti mouse,
185 A21235, ThermoFisher), again washed $3 \times 5'$ in PBS and mounted on slides with mowiol (2%).
186 Cells recovered from in vitro recordings, and sections from rabies tracing experiments were
187 imaged on a confocal microscope (Nikon), retrobead tracing was visualized on a epifluorescence
188 microscope (Zeiss). Retrobead tracing was analyzed by first marking all labeled neurons via

189 cellcounter in matlab (<https://github.com/molgen.mpg.de/MPIBR/CellCounter>) and then aligning
190 sections while the wholebrain tool in R (Fürth et al. 2018). Sections between B+3.0 and B-5.6
191 were aligned to the Allen Brain Atlas.

192 All display items show mean \pm SEM unless noted otherwise.

193 Results

194 To anatomically reveal cortico-cerebellar pathways that run via pontine nuclei, we first injected
195 retrobeads into the cerebellum in p21 mice (**Figure 1**). Injections were done in the white matter
196 of paravermal lobule 5 (**Figure 1A**, N=2) and retrograde labeling was photographed after 14
197 days. As expected, retrograde labeling from the cerebellum could be observed in the inferior
198 olivary nucleus, external cuneate nucleus, lateral reticular nucleus and basilar pontine nucleus
199 (**Figure 1B**), but labeling was completely absent from cerebral cortex (**Figure 1B**). To
200 investigate inputs to the basilar pontine nuclei, we injected retrobeads into the basilar pontine
201 nuclei of p21 mice (**Figure 1C**, N=2). Injections were confined to the basilar pons, with minimal
202 invasion of overlying structures (**Supplementary Figure 1**). We observed predominantly
203 inputs from the ipsilateral side of the brain (**Figure 1G**), with almost all labeling (90% of
204 retrogradely labeled neurons) in deep layers (**Figure 1F**) throughout the neocortex (**Figure**
205 **1E**). Of other areas providing afferents to the bPN midbrain was most prominent (5%, with the
206 mesodiencephalic junction, MDJ, being particularly prominent with 3% of brain-wide retrobead
207 signal, **Figure 1H**), followed by thalamus and hypothalamus (3%), **Figure 1E**).

208 To characterize short-term plasticity of cortico-pontine synapses, we injected AAV to drive
209 expression of Chronos-GFP in the M1 region to enable visualization and stimulation of M1-
210 specific afferents in the bPN. Whole cell recordings from bPN neurons were made in sagittal
211 slices, in which axons from M1 were stimulated with short pulses of blue light focused in a small
212 spot (100 μm diameter) $>500\mu\text{m}$ away from the soma of the recorded neuron (**Figure**
213 **2A,B**)(Jackman et al. 2014). All inputs evoked from motor cortex had a short delay to onset (2.4
214 ± 0.06 ms), a fast rising phase and decay (10-90%: 1.0 ± 0.22 ms and 90-10%: 20 ± 12 ms,
215 respectively), and were reduced to $4.4 \pm 0.8\%$ of the original response by the AMPA and kainate
216 receptor antagonist DNQX (10 μM ; ACSF: 20 ± 5 pA; DNQX: 1.0 ± 0.3 pA; $p < 0.001$; $n = 4$
217 neurons; **Figure 2C**), confirming that neocortical inputs to bPN are glutamatergic. During train
218 stimulation we observed prominent short-term synaptic depression of M1 inputs across all
219 frequencies, with more pronounced depression at higher frequencies and later in the stimulus
220 train (**Figure 2E**, $n=4$ cells in $n=4$ animals). To check for possible opsin-specific influences on
221 midbrain inputs, we repeated these experiments with ChrimsonR instead of Chronos expressed
222 in M1. In these experiment we noticed that at higher stimulation frequencies Chrimson-evoked
223 responses were more depressed after a train of stimuli (**Supplementary figure 2**). Since this
224 is likely due to incomplete recovery of the channelrhodopsin variant (Klapoetke et al. 2014), we
225 continued our characterization of short-term plasticity of cortico-pontine synapses using
226 Chronos. In animals in which Chronos was expressed in motor cortex, synaptic responses
227 recorded in the bPN were attenuated at 50 and 100Hz after a 20-pulse train stimulus to $0.7 \pm$
228 0% and $0 \pm 0\%$ of initial amplitude respectively (steady-state, average of last five responses).
229 After train stimuli at 10 and 20Hz, responses were attenuated to $41 \pm 3\%$ and $22 \pm 2\%$
230 respectively. To confirm that neocortex makes monosynaptic connections to the bPN, we
231 applied the voltage-gated sodium channel blocker tetrodotoxin (TTX) to block AP-generated
232 neurotransmitter release, followed by the combined application of TTX and 4-aminopyridine (4-
233 AP). As expected, optogenetically-evoked responses were virtually absent in the presence of TTX
234 (reduced to $2.2 \pm .2\%$ of the original response; ACSF: 50 ± 18 pA; TTX: 1.0 ± 0.7 pA; $n=3$;
235 $p < 0.001$. Subsequent addition of 4-AP, which blocks voltage-gated potassium channels and
236 prolongs optogenetically-evoked depolarization, recovered the synaptic responses ($130 \pm 56\%$ of

237 amplitude in ACSF; TTX + 4-AP: 50 ± 28 pA, $n=3$; $p=0.66$ vs ACSF; **Figure 2D**). These results
238 show that motor cortex provides prominent, but strongly depressing monosynaptic
239 glutamatergic inputs to bPN neurons.

240 Our retrograde tracing experiments (**Figure 1**) have shown that in addition to several
241 neocortical regions, several subcortical brain regions provide inputs to the bPN. These
242 subcortical brain regions might provide non-glutamatergic inputs, as has been suggested before
243 (Border et al. 1986; Mihailoff et al. 1988, 1989; Mihailoff 1995). Furthermore, several studies
244 have consistently reported the presence of GABAergic boutons in the bPN, suggesting a possible
245 role of inhibitory signaling (Mihailoff and Border 1990). However, the exact source and
246 potential role of these inputs has not been elucidated, nor electrophysiologically isolated and
247 characterized. To investigate this in the bPN, we stained sections of mouse brain using an
248 antibody against the enzyme Glutamate decarboxylate 67 (GAD67), which is present in somata
249 and synapses of GABAergic neurons. In these animals we never observed GAD67+ somata, but
250 we did observe prominent and numerous GAD67+ boutons (**Supplementary Figure 3A,B**; N
251 = 6 mice). Similarly, in GAD-GFP mice (Chattopadhyaya et al. 2004), we never observed GFP+
252 somata, but we observed putative axons stained for GFP in the bPN (**Supplementary Figure**
253 **3C**; $N = 4$ mice). This indicates that there is a prominent extranuclear source of GABA to the
254 bPN. Closer investigation of the afferent areas in midbrain revealed that the majority of inputs
255 from midbrain arose from the mesodiencephalic junction (MDJ) (3% of all projections to the
256 bPNm, figure 1H), an area intimately involved with the cerebellar circuit (Ruigrok 2004). Even
257 though glutamatergic neurons of the MDJ project to the inferior olive (de Zeeuw et al. 1989;
258 Ruigrok and Voogd 1995), these neurons are positioned intermixed with neurons that contain
259 other neurotransmitters (De Zeeuw and Ruigrok 1994).

260 To confirm that the MDJ is the source of GABAergic inhibition to the bPN, we injected AAV to
261 express Chronos-GFP in this region. In acute slices we performed whole cell recordings in the
262 bPN in the area that receives afferents from motor cortex. In these experiments we observed
263 prominent outward currents in neurons held at 0 mV, with a short rise, and long decay ($2.1 \pm$
264 0.36 ms and 140 ± 46 ms, respectively) when stimulating with light (**Figure 2F**). These inputs
265 were reduced to $9 \pm 19\%$ in the presence of the GABA receptor antagonist Gabazine (ACSF: 20
266 $\text{pA} \pm 11$ pA; Gabazine: 0.5 ± 0.41 pA; $n = 10$ neurons; $p < 0.001$; **Figure 2H**). But, we did not
267 observe a change in holding current (ACSF: 140 ± 28 pA vs Gabazine: 160 ± 33 pA, $n=10$
268 neurons, $p=0.27$), indicating that the inhibition from MDJ and in bPN neurons is
269 predominantly phasic.

270 In contrast to glutamatergic synaptic inputs from neocortex, GABAergic synaptic input from
271 MDJ neurons showed remarkably little short-term synaptic plasticity with intervals >20 ms,
272 even after a stimulation-train of 20 pulses we observed $108 \pm 5\%$ and $105 \pm 7\%$ of the initial
273 amplitude for 10Hz and 20Hz stimulation trains respectively (**Figure 2J**). Only at frequencies
274 ≥ 50 Hz and towards the end of a train of pulses was the amplitude of responses depressed (to 55
275 $\pm 7\%$ and $14 \pm 7\%$ for 50 and 100Hz stimulus trains, respectively). Similar to responses evoked
276 from M1 afferents, MDJ afferents showed enhanced short-term synaptic depression when we
277 evoked responses from efferents that expressed the channelrhodopsin variant Chrimson
278 (**Supplementary Figure 2**). To confirm that inputs from the MDJ are monosynaptic, we
279 applied TTX followed by the combined application of TTX and 4-AP. Inputs from the MDJ are

280 completely blocked upon TTX application ($5 \pm 3.9\%$ of the response in ACSF; ACSF: 23 ± 8 pA
281 vs TTX: 1.5 ± 0.61 pA; $p < 0.001$, $n = 5$ neurons) and subsequently rescued in presence of 4-AP
282 (to $400 \pm 760\%$ of ACSF response; TTX +4-AP: 50 ± 23 pA; $p = 0.37$, $n = 5$ neurons **Figure 2I**).

283 Our results thus far indicate the neurons in the bPN receive depressing excitatory input from
284 neocortex and inhibitory input from the MDJ that undergoes very little short-term plasticity.
285 These inputs could interact in several ways in the cerebro-cerebellar circuitry. First we
286 investigated whether single neurons in the bPN receive inputs from both motor cortex and from
287 MDJ. We therefore analyzed full field optical stimulation data of all neurons that received inputs
288 from either M1 or MDJ (See methods). Neurons were clamped at -70 mV and subsequently at 0
289 mV to enable detection of both EPSCs and IPSCs, respectively, in the same neurons (**Figure**
290 **3A-C**). Out of 53 recorded bPN neurons that responded to optogenetic stimulation, 62.26% (33
291 out of 53) of neurons only received inputs from MDJ and 37.73% (20 out of 53) only received
292 inputs from M1 **Figure 3D**). No neurons that responded to optic stimulation received inputs
293 from both M1 and MDJ, suggesting that these afferents make synapses onto different neuron
294 classes within the bPN. To test this, we compared several passive electrical properties between
295 the two groups. However, we found no statistically significant differences in membrane
296 resistance (M1: 320 ± 49 M Ω ; midbrain: 220 ± 25 M Ω ; $p = 0.08$; $n = 52$ neurons), membrane
297 capacitance (M1: 100 ± 15 pF; MDJ: 108 ± 8.2 ; $p = 0.86$; $n = 52$ neurons) and membrane decay
298 time constant (M1: 1.18 ± 0.08 ms; MDJ: 1.2 ± 0.10 ms; $p = 0.96$; $n = 52$ neurons) between these
299 two groups, indicating that these neurons receive different inputs but do not represent separate
300 classes of neurons (**Supplementary Figure 4**). Thus, our results show that convergence of
301 inputs from M1 and MDJ in the bPN is at best remarkably rare. This overall segregation of
302 excitatory and inhibitory streams suggests that it is unlikely that MDJ inputs modulate
303 incoming motor inputs to bPN neurons.

304 Nonetheless, there is a distinct possibility that inputs from M1 and MDJ can interact in the MDJ
305 via a local network between bPN neurons. One study has suggested that short-range interactions
306 between neurons in the bPN are absent, but this dataset only comprised of 20 tested pairs and
307 only probed connections within a short range from each other (Möck, Schwarz, 2006). To
308 investigate this issue over a longer distance, we recorded from a total 125 pairs (i.e. 250
309 unidirectional connections) spaced up to $500\mu\text{m}$ apart, in slices cut in both the coronal ($n = 168$)
310 and sagittal ($n = 82$) orientation to avoid confounding effects of slice orientation (Shinoda et al.
311 1992) (**Figure 3E**). In these sampled pairs we never detected evidence of mono- or disynaptic
312 contacts between neurons. Therefore, it is unlikely that M1 and MDJ inputs interact at the level
313 of either single neurons or within a local circuit, but rather that M1 and MDJ inputs are
314 processed separately

315 We have thus far shown that bPN neurons receive GABAergic inputs from the MDJ and that at
316 the level of the bPN these inputs do not interact with inputs from M1. Furthermore, this
317 inhibition is predominantly mediated phasically rather than via a tonic current. Therefore, it is
318 unlikely that input from the MDJ induce a dampening or level-setting effect on neurons of the
319 bPN (Silver 2010). Another possible role for inhibition is the gating of information (Crowley et
320 al. 2009; Geborek et al. 2013). However, in that case one would expect that inputs interact at the
321 level of the bPN, which is not in line with our data. A final possibility is that input from the MDJ
322 represents a separate stream of information through the pons to the cerebellum. This possibility

323 could explain recent reports that distinct pontine neuron populations either increase or decrease
324 their firing rates during a voluntary reaching and grabbing task (Guo et al. 2021). If bPN-
325 projecting MDJ neurons are indeed recruited during movement, we expect that they receive
326 prominent inputs from the neocortex. We investigated this possibility by using monosynaptic
327 rabies tracing (Wickersham et al. 2006).

328 To map inputs to neurons in the MDJ that provide inputs to the bPN, we first checked whether
329 we could trace connections from neocortex, through bPN to cerebellum. Indeed, by injecting a
330 retrograde virus into cerebellum to express cre in bPN neurons, followed by viruses to express
331 TVA and rabies glycoprotein in bPN, we could visualize rabies-infected neurons in neocortex
332 after injections with rabies virus in bPN (**Supplementary Figure 5**). We then injected
333 retrograde AAV in the bPN to express Cre in all afferent areas to bPN. Subsequent injections
334 with AAVs to express TVA and optimized G protein were made into the MDJ, followed by
335 pseudotyped rabies virus one week later. In these experiments (**Figure 4A**, n=3 mice) we
336 observed starter neurons in the MDJ that were GAD-positive (**Figure 4B**). As expected, in the
337 bPN we could observe many axon terminals from starter neurons that contained labeling from
338 the rabies virus, and were GAD-positive (**Figure 4C**). This confirmed that MDJ GAD-positive
339 neurons indeed make contacts in the bPN. In the neocortex of these mice we could observe
340 labeling of deep neocortical pyramidal neurons (**Figure 4D**). These results show that neurons
341 in the MDJ that provide afferents to the bPN receive inputs from neocortex.

342

343

344 **Discussion**

345 We show that the bPN receives prominent inputs from neocortex and from MDJ. Using whole
346 cell recordings and optogenetic stimulation we show that inputs from neocortex are
347 glutamatergic and strongly depressing, while inputs from MDJ are GABAergic, but show
348 remarkably little short-term depression. Interestingly, M1 and MDJ inputs do not interact at the
349 single neuron level, nor via a network of synaptic connections in the bPN, and thus represent
350 separate streams of information through the bPN. Finally, using Rabies-virus tracing we show
351 that MDJ neurons that project to the bPN receive prominent input from neocortical output
352 neurons. Thus, our results show and characterize an unknown connection from neocortex to
353 bPN, which could provide sign-inversed inputs from neocortex to cerebellar granule cells.

354 **The source of inhibitory afferents to the bPN**

355 The source of inhibition to the bPN has been unclear for a long time. Several afferent nuclei such
356 as the zona incerta, anterior pretectal nucleus, cerebellar nuclei, prerubral area, the medullary
357 formation (Border et al. 1986) and even neurons in the bPN itself (Border and Mihailoff 1985,
358 1990; Brodal et al. 1988) have been suggested to provide GABAergic inputs. In functional
359 studies, inhibition of bPN neurons has been observed during behavior (Guo et al. 2021), and
360 inhibition in bPN neurons has been observed in vitro after stimulation of the cerebral peduncle
361 and the tegmentum (Möck et al. 1997). Indeed, in our present experiments, we observed
362 prominent GABAergic inputs from MDJ, a group of neurons located in the tegmentum that
363 receives prominent inputs from neocortex (De Zeeuw et al. 1998; Kubo et al. 2018).
364 Furthermore, we have found no evidence that local interneurons are present in the bPN, nor
365 that any neuron in the bPN makes local connections (see also Möck *et al.*, 2006). GABAergic
366 inhibition to bPN neurons therefore seems to be completely extrinsic. However, we can't exclude
367 that other sources than MDJ inputs may contribute to inhibition in the bPN

368 **bPN network architecture**

369 The bPN are considered to integrate incoming motor and sensory information from the
370 neocortex at the single cell level (Potter et al. 1978). Indeed, some neurons in the bPN respond
371 only to movement whereas others are responsive to multiple modalities such as movement and
372 cue (Guo et al. 2021), but this might also represent integration in neocortex. Although the
373 precise extent of convergent streams in the bPN remains an important unanswered question,
374 based on anatomical tracing data it is suggested that convergence of excitatory afferents from
375 different regions to single bPN neurons is likely (Mihailoff et al. 1988; Lee and Mihailoff 1990;
376 Schwarz and Thier 1999; Leergaard 2003; Leergaard and Bjaalie 2007) It is all the more striking
377 then that we did not find any convergence of excitatory cortical and inhibitory MDJ inputs in the
378 bPN. Although we cannot unequivocally rule out the presence synaptically connected bPN
379 neurons, we expect that such connections would be too sparse to hold a substantial functional
380 role.

381 **Difference in short-term plasticity between afferents**

382 We show that MDJ GABAergic and glutamatergic cortical inputs are markedly different in their
383 short-term plasticity. Cortical inputs show clear synaptic depression across all tested
384 frequencies, which is particularly strong at relatively high frequencies. Conversely, MDJ inputs
385 undergo little synaptic plasticity at all except for slight depression towards the end of a pulse
386 train at higher stimulation frequencies. These differences are important, since synaptic
387 depression or potentiation plays an important role in shaping the activity of neurons (Silver
388 2010). Layer 5 neurons provide the output from neocortex to bPN (Tervo et al. 2016), and
389 respond with changes in firing rate up to 50Hz during movement (Park et al. 2021; Guo et al.
390 2021). According to our electrophysiological data, signals from neocortex below 50Hz will
391 undergo limited short-term depression, and thus can be faithfully transmitted to bPN neurons.
392 Indeed, during reaching, bPN neurons show modulations of their firing rates in line with activity
393 in layer 5 of neocortex (Guo et al. 2021). Interestingly, GABAergic inputs from the MDJ undergo
394 very little short-term depression. It is important to note that our estimates of short-term
395 depression were obtained from optogenetic stimulations, which might induce artificial synaptic
396 depression (Jackman et al. 2014). Indeed, Chrimson, a slower variant of channelrhodopsin
397 showed more pronounced depression than Chronos, a fast variant (Klapoetke et al. 2014). Still,
398 for frequencies up to 20Hz, both Chrimson and Chronos-mediated stimulation yielded very
399 comparable results, indicating that depression in glutamatergic connections from neocortex
400 probably are not an artifact from optogenetic stimulation.

401 **Potential roles of inhibitions in the bPN (gating vs. gain setting vs. enrichment)**

402 It remains unclear by which mechanism inhibition in the bPN contributes to voluntary motor
403 control. Although our findings do not decisively point to one single mechanism, we are able to
404 rule out several hypotheses. Our rabies tracings suggest that GABAergic MDJ afferents to the
405 bPN could be recruited by cortical activation. This possibly explains why optogenetic
406 stimulation of the cortex either induces an increase or a decrease in the firing rate of bPN
407 neurons (Guo et al. 2021). Although complete optogenetic silencing of the bPN disturbs
408 movement (Wagner et al. 2019; Guo et al. 2021), our data show that inhibition from the MDJ
409 specifically avoids bPN neurons that receive inputs from motor cortex. Therefore, we consider it
410 unlikely that feedforward inhibition from the MDJ serves as a general gating mechanism
411 (Crowley et al. 2009; Geborek et al. 2013). Furthermore, the phasic nature of GABA signaling in
412 the bPN suggests a timing-dependent mechanism rather than continuous response gain
413 adjustment (Silver 2010). It is therefore likely that the MDJ provides the MDJ with a negative
414 signal based on neocortex input to MDJ. In this arrangement the bPN would transmit one
415 direct, positive signal based on direct corticopontine inputs, and one negative signal based on
416 cortico-MDJ-pontine inputs. This would greatly enrich the inputs that are provided to the input
417 layer of the cerebellar cortex, which would support cerebellar learning (Chabrol et al. 2015;
418 Cayco-Gajic et al. 2017; Straub et al. 2020).

419
420

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429 **Author Contributions**

430 L.W. designed the study. A.K. performed and analyzed electrophysiological experiments. L.W.
431 performed and analyzed anatomical experiments. All authors checked data analysis. A.K. and
432 L.W. wrote the manuscript. All authors critically revised the manuscript.

433

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595

596 **Figure legends**

597 **Figure 1: The basilar pontine nuclei are intermediate between the cerebral cortex**
598 **and the cerebellum.**

599 (A) Schematic representation of a retrobead injection in cerebellum. (B) Examples of retrobead-
600 labeled neurons in the inferior olivary nucleus (IO), lateral reticular nucleus (LRN), external
601 cuneate nucleus (eCU), basilar pontine nuclei (bPN), and the absence of labeled neurons in
602 primary sensory cortex (S1), and primary motor cortex (S1). Scale bar represents 50 μm . (C)
603 Schematic representation of a retrobead injection in the bPN. (D) Example retrograde labeling
604 after injections in bPN. Scale bar represents 500 μm . (E) Quantification of retrograde labeling in
605 cerebrum, diencephalon, midbrain, pons and other areas. Shown is the average and individual
606 data points. (F) Retrograde labeling in neocortex is predominantly found in deeper layers (layer
607 5 and 6a), consistent with the location of extratelencephalic projection neurons. (G) Retrograde
608 labeling can be predominantly found ipsilateral. (H) Of the prominent inputs from midbrain,
609 MDJ provides the most prominent input to bPN.

610 **Figure 2: Optogenetic stimulation of neocortical and mesodiencephalic afferents**
611 **to the bPN.**

612 (A) Schematic overview of intracranial virus injection in M1. (B) Schematic overview of the
613 experimental patch-clamp approach (left), and post-hoc recovered and stained neuron (cyan)
614 showing GFP+ fibers from M1 (Yellow). (C) neocortical inputs can be effectively blocked with an
615 antagonist against the AMPA and kainate receptor. Example trace (left) and quantification
616 (right). (D) Neocortex makes monosynaptic contacts to bPN. Example trace (left) and
617 quantification (right). (E) Neocortical inputs are strongly depressing, especially at high
618 frequencies. (F) Schematic overview of intracranial virus injection in MDJ. (G) Schematic
619 overview of experimental approach (left) and a recovered neuron (cyan) with GFP+ fibers from
620 MDJ (Yellow) (H) MDJ inputs can be effectively blocked with an antagonist against the GABA_A
621 receptor. Example trace (left) and quantification (right). (I) MDJ makes monosynaptic contacts
622 to bPN. Example trace (left) and quantification (right). (J) MDJ inputs show very limited short-
623 term depression, even at higher frequencies.

624 **Figure 3: The bPN receives monosynaptic GABAergic inputs from midbrain**

625 (A) Schematic overview of intracranial virus injection configuration in midbrain (Chronos) and
626 M1 (Chrimson) (left), or inverse (right) (B) Single neurons either receive input from neocortex,
627 or from mesodiencephalic junction, but not from both. Shown are two example neurons
628 responsive to blue light, but not to yellow light. (D) Quantification of inputs from neocortex and
629 from mesodiencephalic junction. (E) Experimental setup whole-cell patch clamp recordings in
630 coronal (top) and sagittal (bottom) sections of bPN with example paired recordings of bPN
631 neurons in coronal slice (top) and sagittal slice (bottom). Presynaptic neurons are indicated in
632 black, postsynaptic neurons in grey. Right: Distances of probed connections measured between
633 pre-synaptic neuron (black square, middle) and post-synaptic neuron (purple). Teal markers
634 indicate reciprocal distances and are point-mirrored to purple markers. Dorsoventral and
635 lateromedial orientation as shown in (A). Far right: Soma-to-soma distance distribution of all

636 probed pairs for coronal (top) and sagittal (bottom) experiments. D: Dorsal; V: Ventral; L:
637 Lateral; M: Medial.

638 **Figure 4: Rabies tracing of inputs to mesodiencephalic junction neurons that**
639 **project to bPN**

640 (A) Schematic representation of virus injections. (B) GABAergic rabies tracing starter neurons in
641 mesodiencephalic junction were labeled with GFP from helper plasmids for rabies tracing.
642 GAD67 staining (Cyan), Helper plasmids (Yellow), Rabies virus (Red). (C) GAD+ terminals from
643 starter neurons can be observed in bPN. (D) Rabies tracing revealed prominent deep layer
644 labeling in neocortex. Scale bars are 50 μm .

645

646 **Supplementary figures**

647 **Supplementary figure 1: Injection locations for retrobead tracing from bPN.**

648 Two mice were injected with retrobeads in their bPN (top and bottom). Shown are the locations
649 where tracer was injected with the atlas superimposed.

650 **Supplementary figure 2: Optogenetic stimulation of ChrimsonR and Chronos
651 expressing MDJ and M1 afferents**

652 MDJ inputs (left) were stimulated via Chronos (blue) or Chrimson (Orange) in separate
653 experiments. When stimulating with Chrimson more pronounced synaptic depression can be
654 observed compared with Chronos. Especially at higher frequencies (>50Hz) and at the end of
655 the train (second column) this is more pronounced. M1 inputs (right) were stimulated in a
656 similar manner via Chronos and Chrimson, resulting in comparable results.

657 **Supplementary Figure 3: GAD staining and GAD-GFP mice show the absence of
658 GABAergic neurons, but the presence of GABAergic fibers In bPN**

659 (A) GAD67 staining of sections of mice show that there are no GABAergic neurons in the bPN of
660 mice. Compare bPN with areas with known prominent GABAergic neurons (IPR, IPC, MM).
661 RtTg: Reticulotegmental nucleus of the pons; IPC: Caudal subnucleus of the Interpeduncular
662 Nucleus; IPR: Rostral subnucleus of the Interpeduncular Nucleus; MM: Medial Mammillary
663 Nucleus. (B) Enlarged view of bPN showing prominent GABAergic fibers. (C) GAD-GFP mice
664 show that there is absence of GABAergic neurons in bPN, but GABAergic fibers can be
665 distinguished.

666 **Supplementary Figure 4: Electrophysiological characterization of passive
667 membrane properties of MDJ and M1-receiving bPN neurons**

668 Membrane resistance, membrane time-constant and capacitance show no systematic difference
669 between groups of MDJ and M1 input-receiving neurons. Horizontal lines represent single
670 neurons, box plot shows median, 25th and 75th percentile. Bars represent 10th and 90th percentile.

671 **Supplementary Figure 5: Rabies tracing of inputs to bPN.**

672 (A) Schematic representation of injection sites for AAV-Cre (grey), AAVs with TVA and
673 glycoprotein (yellow) and EnveA-Rabies (red). (B) After injection of rabies virus in bPN,
674 prominent labeling of deep layer pyramidal neurons was observed, scale bar 50 μ m. (C) In bPN
675 starter neurons (Yellow) could be found together with afferents to bPN (Red). GAD67 staining
676 (Cyan) indicates that some afferents, but none of the starter neurons were GABAergic. (D)
677 Enlargement of the area shown with a white box in (C) indicating overlap between GAD staining
678 and some afferents, but none of the starter neurons. Shown is a summed stack (left column)
679 through with orthogonal view (right column) at the location indicated with the black arrowheads
680 in the bottom stack. Scale bar 5 μ m. (E) In cerebellar cortex, clear mossy fibers from bPN starter
681 neurons could be found. Scale bar 50 μ m. (F) In MDJ neuron could be observed that were
682 positive for rabies virus, and positive for GAD67, indicating a GABAergic input from MDJ to
683 bPN.







