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Effects of noise-induced hearing loss on parvalbumin and perineuronal net expression in the mouse primary auditory cortex

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26 Abstract:

Noise induced hearing loss is associated with increased excitability in the central auditory system 27 but the cellular correlates of such changes remain to be characterized. Here we tested the 28 hypothesis that noise-induced hearing loss causes deterioration of perineuronal nets (PNNs) in 29 the auditory cortex of mice. PNNs are specialized extracellular matrix components that 30 commonly enwrap cortical parvalbumin (PV) containing GABAergic interneurons. Compared to 31 32 somatosensory and visual cortex, relatively less is known about PV/PNN expression patterns in 33 the primary auditory cortex (A1). Whether changes to cortical PNNs follow acoustic trauma remains unclear. The first aim of this study was to characterize PV/PNN expression in A1 of 34 35 adult mice. PNNs increase excitability of PV+ inhibitory neurons and confer protection to these neurons against oxidative stress. Decreased PV/PNN expression may therefore lead to a 36 reduction in cortical inhibition. The second aim of this study was to examine PV/PNN 37 38 expression in superficial (I-IV) and deep cortical layers (V-VI) following noise trauma. Exposing mice to loud noise caused an increase in hearing threshold that lasted at least 30 days. 39 PV and PNN expression in A1 was analyzed at 1, 10 and 30 days following the exposure. No 40 significant changes were observed in the density of PV+, PNN+, or PV/PNN co-localized cells 41 following hearing loss. However, a significant layer- and cell type-specific decrease in PNN 42 intensity was seen following hearing loss. Some changes were present even at 1 day following 43 noise exposure. Attenuation of PNN may contribute to changes in excitability in cortex following 44 noise trauma. The regulation of PNN may open up a temporal window for altered excitability in 45 the adult brain that is then stabilized at a new and potentially pathological level such as in 46 tinnitus. 47

- Keywords: hearing loss, auditory cortex, parvalbumin, extracellular matrix, perineuronal nets,
 interneurons, inhibition
- 51

52 **1. Introduction:**

Even relatively brief exposure to loud noise can cause hearing loss or threshold shifts. 53 54 Such noise-induced threshold shifts remain a common, but preventable, hearing disorder. Noise exposure may also lead to the development of tinnitus and hyperacusis (Roberts et al., 2010). 55 Several lines of evidence suggest that noise exposure increases excitability in the central auditory 56 system perhaps as a consequence of damage to cochlear hair cells and the resulting reduction in 57 afferent input. This compensatory increase in gain manifests across the auditory neuraxis and 58 occurs over multiple and overlapping temporal trajectories suggesting complex underlying 59 60 mechanisms (Syka et al., 1994; Syka and Rybalko, 2000; Yang et al., 2011, 2012; Pilati et al., 2012; Berger and Coomber, 2015; Luo et al., 2016; reviewed in Wang et al., 2011 and 61 Eggermont 2015). The cellular correlates of these changes in excitability are not well 62 characterized. 63

One prominent hypothesis for noise-induced increase in excitability in the primary 64 auditory cortex (A1) is reduced inhibition (Syka and Rybaldo, 2000; Yang et al., 2011; Llano et 65 al., 2012). While physiological studies have characterized synaptic inhibition and how inhibition 66 changes following noise exposure, the cellular substrates that are altered are only beginning to be 67 understood (Scholl and Wehr, 2008; Novak et al., 2016). Inhibitory interneurons in sensory 68 69 cortices can be classified based on co-expression of various markers and physiological response properties. Novak et al. (2016) showed that cortical somatostatin and parvalbumin-expressing 70 (PV+) interneurons show relatively fast and layer-specific changes in activity following noise 71

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trauma potentially leading to increased gain. Whether changes in responses of these cells are associated with circuit level or intrinsic factors remain unclear.

- The present study focused on perineuronal nets (PNN), a cellular structure commonly 74 found around GABAergic cells (reviewed in Takesian and Hensch, 2013). PNNs are specialized 75 extracellular matrix components that consist of chondroitin sulfate proteoglycans (CSPG). These 76 CSPGs are found throughout the extracellular matrix, but are highly dense around cortical PV+ 77 78 inhibitory interneurons (McRae et al., 2007). While PV/PNN expression has been well studied in 79 somatosensory and visual cortex of rodents, focus on A1 is relatively recent and sparse (Happel et al., 2014; Fader et al., 2016; Brewton et al., 2016; reviewed in Sonntag et al., 2015). PNNs are 80 81 involved with developmental and adult plasticity (Happel et al., 2014; Nakamura et al., 2009; Pizzorusso et al., 2002) and provide protection against oxidative stress for PV+ cells (Cabungcal 82 et al., 2013). These data suggest that changes in PNN expression following acoustic trauma may 83 84 contribute to cortical plasticity leading to increased excitability. A loss of PNNs may decrease excitability of PV+ interneurons and thus reduce inhibition in the cortical circuit (Balmer, 2016). 85 Therefore, the main aim of this study was to quantify cortical PNN expression following acoustic 86 trauma that induces persistent threshold shifts. We report here that noise exposure does not 87 change the density of PV+, PNN+ or PV/PNN co-localized cells. However, PNN intensity is 88 reduced in a cortical layer-and cell-type specific manner. The effect of trauma on PNN intensity 89 appears to be relatively more severe on PNN cells that do not express PV. Some changes are 90 seen even at the earliest examined time point (1 day post-exposure). These data suggest that 91 altered PNN properties may be at least one of the cellular mechanisms involved in enhanced 92 excitability of cortical neurons following acoustic trauma. 93
- 94

95 2. Material and methods

96 *2.1. Animals*

97 All animal procedures were approved by the University of California, Riverside Institution

98 Animal Use and Care Committee. Female CBA/CaJ mice at 4 weeks old were received from

99 Jackson Laboratory and housed at a 12:12 light/dark cycle. Standard lab chow and water were

100 given *ad libitum*. All animals were housed in the same room except for the noise exposure and

101 auditory brainstem response (ABR) measurements. Each of the four groups (control and 1, 10,

and 30 days post-exposure) consisted of n=5 mice.

103

104 2.2. Noise-Induced Hearing Loss Paradigm

Noise exposure was done in a sound-attenuating booth (Gretch-Ken, OR). Mice were placed in a
standard cage and were able to freely move during the duration of the exposure to noise. A
Fostex 96TX speaker was placed facing down on top of the cage's lid. The sound stimulus used
was a 102-104 dB SPL, narrowband noise (6-12 kHz) for 8 hours. No food or water was
provided during the duration of the exposure to noise. The control mice spent the same amount
of time in the sound-attenuating booth, but did not receive noise exposure.

111

112 2.3. Auditory Brainstem Response (ABR)

Animals were anesthetized with isoflurane inhalation for the duration of the ABR procedure at a concentration of 0.5-0.75% in air. Three platinum coated electrodes were placed under the dermis of the head: the recording electrode was on the vertex, the ground electrode was in the left cheek and the reference electrode was in the right cheek. The sound stimuli were delivered via a free field speaker (MR1 Multi-Field Magnetic Speakers, Tucker-Davis Technologies) that

was placed 10 cm away from the left ear at 45 degrees. Clicks of alternating ± 1.4 volts (duration 118 0.1 ms) were generated and delivered using RZ6 hardware (Tucker-Davis Technologies, FL). 119 Intensity of the clicks ranged from 10-90 dB in 10 dB steps. The goal of the ABR measurement 120 was to determine if threshold shifts occurred following noise exposure and to ensure that such 121 shifts lasted at least 30 days. The goal was not to identify precise frequency-specific hearing 122 levels over the course of the experiments. Therefore, clicks with a sound level resolution of 10 123 dB steps were used for threshold measures. The ABRs were filtered and amplified (Grass 124 Technologies) and averaged (BioSigRZ, Tucker-Davis Technologies) before analysis. The ABR 125 measurements were made on all mice before exposure to noise and after the noise exposure at 1 126 day, 10 days and 30 days post-exposure (PE). ABRs from control mice were also measured at 127 the same four time points referenced to when they were placed in the sound booth without noise 128 129 exposure.

130

131 2.4. Immunohistochemistry and Image Analysis

Mice were overdosed with sodium pentobarbital (i.p. 125 mg/kg) and perfused transcardially 132 with cold solutions of 0.1 M phosphate buffered saline (PBS) (pH = 7.4) followed by 4% 133 paraformaldehyde (PFA) (pH=7.4). Mice were perfused for each time point (1, 10, and 30 days) 134 135 post-exposure (PE) to noise. The control mice were perfused along with the 30-day PE mice. 136 The brains were extracted from the skull and post-fixed at 20°C in 4% PFA for 2 hours before storage in 0.1 M PBS with sodium azide. Brain tissues were sunk in 30% sucrose for 24-48 hours 137 and coronal sections of 40 µm thickness were cut with a cryostat (CM 1860, Leica Biosystems). 138 Three to six sections containing A1 were stained and analyzed per mouse. The distance between 139 140 the sections was between 40-480 μ m. It is possible that there is differential penetration of PV

141	and WFA antibody in the 40 μ m thick sections. However, because our main aim was to
142	determine how noise exposure alters PV/PNN expression, the comparison across experimental
143	groups is unlikely to be influenced by differential antibody penetration. All
144	immunohistochemistry was done on a shaker at room temperature unless stated otherwise. Free
145	floating sections were washed at room temperature with 0.1M PBS 2x for 15 minutes then
146	quenched with 50mM of NH_4Cl for 15 minutes and then washed with 0.1M PBS 3x for 10
147	minutes. Next, the sections were permeablized with 0.1% triton-x for 10 minutes. Sections
148	incubated in blocking solution consisting of 5% normal goat serum (NGS) and 1% bovine serum
149	albumin (BSA; Fisher BioReagents Bovine Serum Albumin, Fraction V, Cold-ethanol
150	Precipitated; BP1605-100) in 0.1M PBS for 1 hour. The sections were then incubated overnight
151	at 20° C in 1% NGS, 0.5% BSA 0.1% Tween-20, 1:500 agglutinin Wisteria floribunda
152	(fluorescein conjugated, FL-1351, Vector Laboratories) and 1:5000 rabbit anti-parvalbumin (PV-
153	25, Swant). Sections were washed with 0.5% Tween-20 3x for 10 minutes and incubated in
154	secondary antibody solution consisted of 1:500 donkey anti-rabbit 647 (A-31573, Life
155	Technologies) in 0.1M PBS. The sections were then washed with 0.5% Tween-20 2x for 10
156	minutes and with 0.1M PBS for 10 minutes, mounted on a glass slide and allowed to air dry. The
157	slides were cover-slipped with the mounting medium, Vectashield containing DAPI (Vector
158	Laboratories), and the edges of the coverslip were sealed (Cytoseal 60, Richard-Allan Scientific).
159	The location of A1 was identified as previously described by Martin del Campo, et al.,
160	(2012). In this previous study, electrophysiological mapping was used to identify tonotopy in
161	both A1 and anterior auditory field (AAF). The boundary between A1 and AAF was identified
162	using the reversal of tonotopy (Trujillo et al., 2011) and was marked with a dye. Coronal
163	sections with the identified boundary were compared with sections in Paxinos mouse brain atlas.

This provided the landmarks (primarily hippocampal shape) to identify A1 sections used in the
present study. One challenge is that the reversal of tonotopy from A1 to AAF is not sharp.
Therefore, it is possible that some of the sections analyzed include AAF. However, identical
landmarks were used across experimental groups and all analyses were done blind to the
experimental group.

Sections containing A1 were imaged using a confocal microscope (TCS SP5, Leica 169 170 Microsystems) at 20x. The number of PV and PNN cells from summed z-stacks were counted in A1 from a 400 µm wide area across layers I-VI. The area from the pia to 50% of the cortical 171 depth was defined as layers I-IV and from 50% depth to the white matter was defined as layer V-172 173 VI (Anderson et al., 2009). We were unable to differentiate layers more specifically because the layer boundary between layers III and IV or between V and VI cannot be distinguished with 174 accuracy using Nissl stains. Images of PV and PNN were encoded and an experimenter blinded 175 176 to the identity of the groups performed the cell counts. PNN cells were manually identified by discernible WFA staining that is circular with a hollow center. PV cells were manually identified 177 based on the shape and size of staining. There was very little background PV staining with this 178 protocol, facilitating identification of cells. Only cell bodies that were fully within the borders of 179 the counting window were included in the tally. 180

181

182 2.5. Data Analysis

183 Three aspects of PV/PNN expression were compared across the four groups (control, 1, 10 and 184 30 day post exposure): the density of PV/PNN expression, the overall PNN intensity across the 6 185 layers and the PNN intensity around cells. Cell counts and intensity measurements were 186 obtained with ImageJ software (NIH). The number of PV+, PNN+, and co-localized (PV/PNN)

cells were counted across all 6 cortical layers. The total area of the cortex was then used to
 calculate cell densities (cells/mm²) of each cell type.

Deterioration of PNN intensity following enzymatic PNN degradation can result in 189 reduced excitability of PV+ neurons (Balmer 2016). The effects of PNN deterioration may occur 190 even without a loss of PNN+ cell density (Enwright et al., 2016). Therefore, we quantified PNN 191 intensity following acoustic trauma. To determine the PNN intensity, a rectangle (width of 400 192 193 µm and depth extending from pia to bottom of layer VI) was first drawn on the image of the cortical section (e.g., Figure 2A, B). The average PNN intensity within the rectangle was 194 determined as the average of all pixel intensity value in the PNN color channel. The background 195 196 intensity was subtracted from each image for PNN intensity analysis. Background was defined as the average pixel intensity of a 40 x 40 µm area in layer 1 where there is very little PNN 197 198 (Brewton et al., 2016).

We also analyzed PNN intensity in the region around individual PNN cells. For this 199 cellular PNN intensity analysis, 30% of the PNNs in each imaged A1 section were randomly 200 (random number generator) selected. If 30% was less than 12 PNN cells, then a minimum of 12 201 cells was analyzed. A 40 µm (66 pixels) horizontal line was drawn across the middle of the PNN 202 surrounding each analyzed cell. The pixel intensity was plotted as a function of distance along 203 this line. This resulted in a bimodal peaked plot (e.g., Figure 7) with the two peaks corresponding 204 to the locations where the line intersected the most intense part of the PNN ring structure on both 205 sides of the cell. The area under the curve for each PNN analyzed was averaged within each 206 image. The specific statistical tests used are reported in the results section below. 207

208

210	
211	Results:
212	3.1. Noise Exposure Causes Persistent Threshold Shift
213	ABR measurement before and after noise exposure was used to quantify hearing
214	threshold shifts. ABR measurements were made in response to clicks of 0.1 ms duration with
215	intensities of 10-90 dB in 10 dB steps. The threshold was the lowest sound level at which at least
216	1 peak was discernible within 7 msec from sound onset. In the example series of ABR plots
217	from a control mouse (Figure 1A), the threshold was between 30-40 dB SPL. The noise-exposed
218	mouse (Figure 1B) had a hearing threshold >90 dB SPL (the highest level tested in this study).
219	The thresholds before noise exposure across all the mice in this study were in the 30-50 dB SPL
220	range, consistent with previous ABR measurements in the mouse (Zhou, 2006). Change in
221	threshold following noise exposure was quantified at 1 day (n=5 mice), 10 days (n=5 mice) and
222	30 days (n=5 mice) after exposure. The control mice (n=5) also had their ABRs measured at
223	each of the same time points. The thresholds, except for one mouse, were fairly constant in the
224	control mice across multiple days (Figure 1C). Even in the mouse that showed increased
225	variability across days, the threshold never exceeded 50 dB SPL. Noise exposure caused an
226	increase in threshold to >90 dB SPL at all three PE time points (Figure 1D-F) indicating that
227	hearing loss lasted at least 30 days PE in the noise exposed mice.
228	
229	
230	FIGURE 1 AROUND HERE.
231	
232	

233 3.2 Expression of PV and PNN in the Mouse A1

234	Parvalbumin and PNN expression in A1 was quantified in control and noise-exposed
235	mice. Figure 2A shows a photomicrograph of a coronal section through A1 from a control
236	mouse. The area within the white rectangle is reproduced in Figure 2B and shows the window
237	within which the various measurements were made in this image. Figure 2C, D, E show
238	example PV+, PNN+ and PV/PNN co-localized neuron, respectively (arrows in Figure 2B).
239	Qualitative observations indicate that PV and PNN staining was essentially absent in layer I
240	while layer II contains PV cells, but very little PNN. Consistent with Brewton et al., (2016),
241	PNN was concentrated in layers IV-VI of A1, particularly in layer IV in which a band of cellular
242	and neuropil staining was seen (Figure 2B). Figure 3 shows example photomicrographs obtained
243	from PE mouse cortex. Qualitatively the distribution of cell types in the PE mice was similar to
244	control A1.
245	Quantification of control and PE cell density data are shown in Figure 4. In control A1,
246	there were more PNN+ cells than PV+ cells (paired two-tail t-test, $t(df) = 5.925 \text{ p} < 0.0001$,
247	R^2 =0.5563). This was true in both superficial (I-IV) and deep (V-VI) layers. A strong
248	association between PV and PNN cells has been reported in several brain regions (Sonntag et al.,
249	2015). Therefore, the percentage of PV+ cells that was enwrapped by PNN was calculated in
250	A1. Approximately 46% (\pm 0.0215 s.e.) of PV+ cells also expressed PNN in control A1. There
251	was no difference in the percentage of PV/PNN co-localized cells between the deep and
252	superficial layers in control A1 (paired two-tail t-test, $t(df) = 0.31$, $p = 0.75$, $R^2 = 0.003$). These
253	data provide baseline quantification of PV/PNN expression in A1 in the control adult CBA/CaJ
254	mice.

FIGURE 2 AROUND HERE.

257

258	Persistent threshold shift does not alter the density of PV+ and PNN+ cells in A1 after
259	noise induced hearing loss. There were no significant differences between groups in layers I-VI
260	for PV+ (1-way ANOVA, F(3,119) = 1.06, p=0.37), PNN+ (1-way ANOVA, F(3,119) = 2.57, p
261	= 0.08) or PV/PNN co-localized (1-way ANOVA $F(3,119) = 0.59$, p = 0.63) cell densities.
262	There were no differences in the density of PV+ cells in either layers I-IV or V-VI (1-way
263	ANOVA, F(3,119) = 0.89, p = 0.45, F(3,119) = 0.87, p = 0.46, respectively). There were no
264	significant differences in PNN+ cell density in layers I-IV (1-way ANOVA,
265	F(3,119)=1.178,p=0.3211). A trend was seen for PNN+ cell density to be reduced in layers V-
266	VI following noise exposure (1-way ANOVA, F(3,119)=2.696, p=0.05). The decrease in PNN+
267	cells density in layers I-VI (p=0.08), and specifically in layers V-VI (p=0.05) approach statistical
268	significance. However, we interpret these data conservatively as no significant difference with
269	the acknowledgement that a moderate risk for type II error may be present in this interpretation.
270	There were no significant differences in PV/PNN co-localized cell density in layers I-IV or V-VI
271	(1-way ANOVA, F(3,119)=0.5178, p=0.6708, F(3,119)=0.5796, p=0.6295, respectively). There
272	was also no significant differences in the percentage of PV+ cells that co-expressed PNN
273	between the different groups (1-way ANOVA, F(3,119)=2.063, p=0.1088).
274	
275	FIGURE 3 AROUND HERE.

- X.
- 276 FIGURE 4 AROUND HERE.

278	Previous studies suggest that a decline in PNN intensity may reflect changes in PNN
279	organization. This change in PNN intensity may occur independent of changes in PNN+ cell
280	density (Carulli et al., 2010; Balmer 2016; Enwright et al., 2016). Therefore, we compared A1
281	PNN intensity between control and PE mice. Example photomicrographs of PNN are shown in
282	Figure 5. First, the average pixel intensity across the entire rectangle (400 μ m wide, pia to
283	bottom of layer VI depth) was determined. A significant decrease in the average pixel intensity
284	of PNN across A1 was seen following acoustic trauma (2-way ANOVA, main effect of Layer
285	F(1,226)=10.18,p=0.0016, main effect of Group F(3,226)=9.9338, p<0.0001, interaction of
286	Group x Layers $F(3,226)=2.168$, p= 0.0927). When considering all 6 layers together, a
287	significant decrease in PNN pixel intensity was observed at 1 and 10 day PE (1-way ANOVA,
288	F(3,230)=8.835, p<0.0001,R ² =0.1033 with Bonferroni post-hoc Control vs 1 Day PE p<0.001,
289	Control vs 10 Day PE p<0.001, 10 Days PE vs. 30 Days PE, p<0.05; other pairs, p>0.05) (Figure
290	6A). This indicates a decrease in PNN intensity even at 1 day PE. Interestingly, at day 30 PE,
291	the intensity was similar to control levels suggesting a recovery. Layer-specific analysis shows
292	that layer I-IV shows a decline in PNN intensity at each PE time point with no recovery (1-way
293	ANOVA, p=0.0001, Bonferroni tests: Control vs. 1 Day PE, p<0.001; Control vs. 10 Days PE,
294	p<0.01; Control vs. 30 Days PE; p<0.05, other pairs, p>0.05)). Layer V-VI shows a declining in
295	PNN intensity only at 10 day PE with recovery at 30 day PE (1-way ANOVA, $F(3,113) = 4.623$,
296	p = 0.004, Bonferroni tests: Control vs. 10 Days PE, p < 0.05; 10 Days PE vs. 30 Days PE; p <
297	0.05, other pairs, $p > 0.05$). Thus, the return of PNN intensity to control levels may be carried by
298	changes in the deeper layers. Together these data indicate a relatively rapid and layer-specific
299	decrease in PNN intensity in A1 following noise induced hearing loss.

301 FIGURE 5 AROUND HERE.

302 FIGURE 6 AROUND HERE.

303

While the above analysis provides information about PNNs across the entire depth of A1, 304 studies of epileptogenesis and songbird brain development (Dityatev et al., 2007; Balmer et al., 305 2009) have suggested the integrity of PNN around the cell may provide additional markers of 306 changes to PNN with functional consequences. Therefore, we analyzed PNN intensity in the 307 region around individual cells. Figure 7 shows examples of how such measurements were made. 308 A 40 µm line was centered on the PNN and the pixel intensity along this line was measured. The 309 310 two peaks correspond to the regions of maximum cellular PNN intensity. The area under the curve was measured for 30% of randomly selected PNN+ cells, averaged across cells and 311 312 compared across treatment conditions. The PNN intensity around cells in layers I-VI declined significantly following noise 313 induced hearing loss (Figure 8A). The decline was significant at 10 and 30 days PE exposure (1-314 way ANOVA F(3,400)=8.753, p<0.0001, R²=0.0616, Bonferroni post-hoc: Control vs 10 Days 315 PE, P<0.001, Control vs 30 Days PE P<0.05). Layer specific analysis indicates that there was a 316 decline in layers I-IV that was significant at all PE days (1-way ANOVA 317 F(3,204)=6.402, p=0.0004, R²=0.08605 with Bonferroni post-hoc: Control vs 1 Day PE P<0.05, 318 Control vs 10 Days PE P<0.01, Control vs 30 Days PE P<0.001) (Figure 8B). For layers V-VI 319 cells, PNN intensity showed a significant decline only at 30 days PE (1-way ANOVA 320 F(3.192)=3.778, p=0.001, R²=0.078 with Bonferroni post-hoc: Control vs 30 Days PE p<0.05, 321 all other pairs p>0.05) (Figure 8B, C). There was no significant interaction between groups and 322 layers (two-way ANOVA F(3,396)=2.18, p=0.09). 323

324

325 FIGURE 7 AROUND HERE.

326 FIGURE 8 AROUND HERE.

327

328	The cellular analysis method also allows examination of whether PNN intensity changes
329	are cell-type specific. Here we examined if PV/PNN co-localized cells were more or less
330	susceptible to noise exposure compared to PNN+ cells that did not have PV (Figure 8C). For the
331	PV/PNN co-localized cells, a significant effect of noise exposure was observed only at 30 day
332	PE (1-way ANOVA F(3,191)=3.778, p=0.0115, R ² =0.05601 with Bonferroni post-hoc: Control
333	vs 30 Days PE, p <0.05, all others p>0.05), whereas the PNN cells without PV showed
334	significantly attenuated intensity at both 10 and 30 days PE (1-way ANOVA F(3,205)=5.930,
335	p=0.0007,R ² =0.0799 with Bonferroni post-hoc: Control vs 1 Day PE, P>0.05, Control vs 10
336	Days PE, P<0.01, Control vs 30 Days PE, p<0.01). There was no significant interaction between
337	group and cell type (2-way ANOVA interaction of Group x Cell Type F(3,396)=0.59, p=0.62).
338	

339 *3.3. Additional Analyses*

The previous analyses used individual sections as independent samples because the sections likely covered different isofrequency contours in A1. A second analysis was performed by averaging data from all sections from each mouse and using the animal number as sample size. Although this analysis is underpowered (n=5 mice per group), the interpretation that PNN intensity declines after noise exposure was supported. One-way ANOVA showed a significant decline in overall PNN intensity across layers I-VI (Figure 6A) following noise exposure (F (3,16) = 3.3, P<0.05) with post-hoc comparison showing a significant difference between control

347	and 10 Days PE (P<0.05). Layer-specific analyses reveals superficial layers to be more impacted
348	than deep layers. In layer I-IV, overall PNN intensity (Figure 6B) declined following noise
349	exposure (one-way ANOVA, $F(3,16) = 3.24$, P<0.05) with post-hoc comparison showing all
350	three noise exposure groups significantly different than control. In layer V-VI, however, there
351	was no difference (one-way ANOVA, F(3,16)=1.63, P>0.5). When cellular PNN intensities
352	were considered (Figure 8), there was a trend when all six layers were considered (one-way
353	ANOVA, F(3,16=2.6, P=0.08)). Cellular PNN intensity showed a strong trend towards exposure-
354	related decline in both layers I-IV (one-way ANOVA, F(3,16)=2.87, P=0.06) and V-VI (one-way
355	ANOVA, F(3,16)=2.97, P=0.06) with the control mice different than 10 and 30 days post
356	exposure mice (P<0.05). Taken together, these data show that PNN intensity in auditory cortex
357	declines following noise exposure.

358

359 **3. Discussion:**

This study quantified the distribution of PV/PNN staining in primary auditory cortex of 360 adult CBA strain mice, a commonly used strain to study auditory processing. We quantified the 361 effects of persistent hearing threshold shifts on the expression of PV/PNN in A1. Consistent 362 with previous studies of the auditory cortex (Brewton et al., 2016; Happel et al., 2014), 363 approximately 45% of PV+ neurons in A1 are wrapped by PNNs. We tested the hypothesis that 364 noise induced hearing loss will cause a deterioration of PNN. We show that the density of 365 PV/PNN expressing cells does not change up to at least 30 days PE, but the intensity of PNN 366 staining across the cortical depth and in regions around individual cells shows a relatively rapid 367 decline following acoustic trauma. These data have implications for involvement of cell-type 368 369 specific changes in A1 following acoustic trauma that may lead to increased gain.

370

371 4.1. PV/PNN Expression in the Primary Auditory Cortex

372	Although the expression of PNN and its association with specific cell types have been
373	well characterized in rodent visual and somatosensory cortex (Pizzorusso et al., 2002; McRae et
374	al., 2007; Takesian and Hensch, 2013; Liu et al., 2013) and subcortical auditory areas (Beebe et
375	al., 2016), the expression pattern in A1 has only recently been studied (Happel et al., 2014;
376	Brewton et al., 2016, reviewed in Sontagg et al., 2015). There is a higher density of PNN cells in
377	layers IV-VI with a band like appearance of cellular and neuropil staining in layer IV. These
378	data are consistent with observations made in rodent primary sensory cortices including A1
379	(Brückner et al., 1994; Happel et al., 2014; Fader et al., 2016; Brewton et al., 2016). The density
380	of PNN reported here is larger than that reported by Fader et al., (2016) and Brewton et al.,
381	(2016), but is similar to that reported by Happel et al., (2014). These differences may arise due
382	to strain differences and/or thresholds used for counting PNN. The density of PV+ cells is
383	similar to previous reports of mouse A1 (Martin del Campo et al., 2012). The relatively strong
384	association of PV and PNN (~45% of PV+ cells express PNN) in A1 is consistent with
385	observations made in other brain regions (Kosaka and Heizmann, 1989; Celio et al., 1993;
386	Pantazopoulos et al., 2006; Liu et al., 2013; Yamada et al., 2014). The observation that a
387	significant percent of PV+ cells were not covered by PNN and that PNN covered many cells that
388	did not express PV indicate the need for future studies of A1 to identify the distribution of
389	various cells types with PNN.

392 The main aim of the study was to determine if acoustic trauma that produces long lasting increase in hearing threshold affected expression of PV/PNN in A1. The noise exposure method 393 used in this study effectively increased hearing thresholds from <50 dB SPL pre-exposure to >90 394 dB SPL post-exposure. This hearing loss lasted at least 30 days suggesting a relatively persistent 395 effect. The data did not support the hypothesis that this level of hearing loss will decrease the 396 density of PV, PNN and/or PV/PNN double-labeled cells in A1. However, a significant layer-397 398 and cell type-specific decrease in PNN intensity was seen in the noise-exposed groups. In superficial layers (I-IV), the decline was seen even at 1 day PE. In the deep layers, a recovery of 399 PNN intensity was observed between 10 and 30 days PE. PNN cells with PV showed a decline 400 401 in intensity only 30 days PE, whereas, PNN cells that did not express PV showed significant decline at 10 and 30 day PE. This suggests that PV may afford some degree of protection to 402 PNN expression. We interpret the changes in PNN intensity to be driven by hearing loss. This 403 404 interpretation has to be considered with the caveat that other areas in the cortex that are less likely to be affected by the noise trauma were not examined for PNN changes. 405 Considerable focus has been allocated to identifying the contributions of PNNs to 406 developmental and adult plasticity. Strong evidence suggests that PNNs provide stability to the 407 excitation-inhibition balance and adult plasticity can be promoted by breaking down PNNs 408 (Takesian and Hensch, 2013; Happel et al., 2014). However, surprisingly little is known about 409 the contribution of PNNs to the response properties of neurons they cover (Balmer, 2016). It is 410 clear that cortical PNNs surround mostly GABAergic neurons with preference for PV+ neurons. 411 This suggests that PNNs influence inhibition generated by fast spiking interneurons within 412

414 covered with PNN compared with those that are not remains unclear (Dityatev et al., 2007). A

cortical circuits. The differences between firing properties of cortical interneurons that are

recent study suggests that PNN increases excitability of fast-spiking, PV+ cortical cells (Balmer, 415 2016). Because cortical PV+ cells are mostly inhibitory, these data indicate that deterioration of 416 PNNs may increase network excitability. A few studies have suggested that PNNs may provide 417 protection against oxidative stress related cell death (Cabungcal et al., 2013) and also impact the 418 expression of PV in GABAergic cells. This is again mainly relevant for fast spiking interneurons. 419 Integrating available data from the literature, the present study makes the suggestion that 420 421 acoustic trauma causes an attenuation of PNN intensity that opens up the circuitry for changes in excitation-inhibition balance. Such acoustic experience dependent changes in PNN intensity 422 without a change in the density of PNN expressing cells have been previously reported in 423 424 songbird vocal learning circuits (Balmer et al., 2009). Mature PNNs contain several CSPGs in addition to hyaluronan, tenascin-C and high amounts of tenascin-R, hyaluronan synthase and link 425 proteins (Ctrl1). The reduction in PNN intensity may reflect changes in CSPG protein levels and 426 427 composition and/or hyaluronan synthase and/or link protein levels.

Changes in inhibition following noise exposure may be one of the steps in causing an 428 increase in gain and potentially, pathological activity (e.g., tinnitus). Evidence for such 429 pathology correlated with changes in PNN comes from studies of epileptogenesis (Dityatev et 430 al., 2010; McRae et al., 2012). Decline of PNN intensity in superficial layers even within 1 day 431 PE suggests that this may be one of the first steps of cortical structural change. The recovery of 432 PNN intensity to control levels at 30 day PE suggests the presence of a window following trauma 433 during which circuit plasticity may occur and be stabilized at a new homeostatically adjusted 434 level. However, future experiments that look at additional time points are needed to determine if 435 there is a sustained recovery. The events leading up to the decline in PNN intensity may include 436 changes to matrix metalloproteases (MMP) and cartilage link proteins (e.g., Ctrl1). MMP-9 is an 437

438	endopeptidase that cleaves extracellular matrix including PNN. MMP-9 levels are regulated by
439	activity and high MMP-9 levels lead to increased breakdown of PNN. This suggests the
440	hypothesis that MMP-9 levels increase within 1 day of noise exposure. This hypothesis remains
441	to be tested. Carulli et al. (2010) showed that mice lacking Ctrl1, a PNN component, show
442	attenuated PNNs including reduced intensity. The attenuated PNN promoted cortical plasticity
443	in adults. Thus future studies of A1 following acoustic trauma should analyze expression levels
444	of MMP-9 and Ctrl1 at specific time points after exposure.
445	
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450	
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574 Figure Legends:

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Figure 1. ABRs show that noise exposure caused considerable increase in hearing thresholds that 576 lasted at least 30 days. (A) Example waveforms from a control mouse and (B) after 30 days 577 following noise exposure. ABR thresholds were determined using sound level steps of 10 dB 578 SPL. The hearing threshold for the control mouse in (A) was therefore noted to be between 30-579 580 40 dB SPL. The noise-exposed mouse (B) did not show any ABR up to 90 dB SPL (the highest level tested). (C-F) The hearing threshold of each mouse at specified time points is shown. The 581 symbols within a sound level bin (ordinate) are jittered for visualization purposes. N=5 for each 582 583 group. (C) The thresholds in control mice remain at <50 dB SPL throughout the course of 30 days. (D, E, F) Post exposure, the thresholds increased to >90 dB SPL (the highest level tested), 584 indicating threshold shifts that lasted at least 30 days PE. 585

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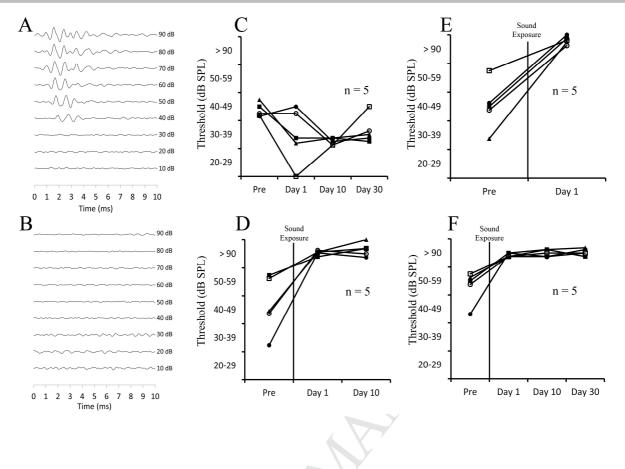
Figure 2. (A) Example photomicrograph of a coronal section through A1 stained for PV (red) 587 and PNN (green) in a control mouse. The white rectangle indicates the 400 µm wide window in 588 A1 within which PV, PNN and co-labeled cells were quantified from this image. This rectangle 589 is reproduced in (B) which shows that PV and PNN stained cells are present at a higher density 590 in layers IV-VI compared to layers I-III. The highest density of PNN staining was seen in layer 591 IV in which a banded pattern of cellular and neuropil staining was observed. Arrows point to 592 examples of different cell types that are then shown in C, D, E. (C) PV cell without PNN, (D) 593 PNN cell without PV, and (E) PV/PNN co-localized cell. 594

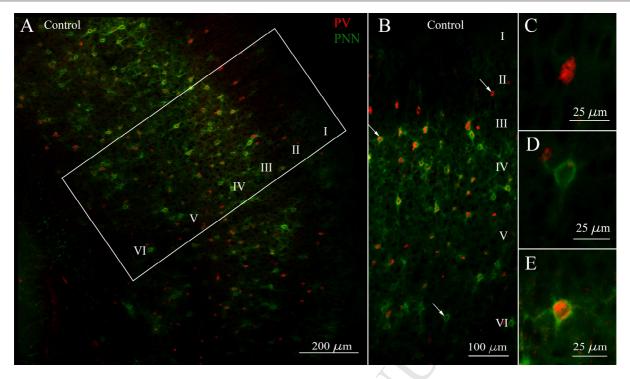
596	Figure 3. Photomicrographs of PV and PNN expression in the experimental groups. Arrows
597	indicate the cells shown at a higher magnification in the insets: (A) 1 day PE, (B) 10 days PE,
598	(C) 30 days PE. (A1, B1, C1) PV without PNN. (A2, B2, C2) PNN without PV and (A3, B3, C3)
599	PV/PNN co-localized cells.
600	
601	
602	Figure 4. PV+ and PNN+ cell density in (A) layers I-VI, (B) layers I-IV and (C) layers V-VI
603	before and 1, 10 and 30 day PE. There was no statistically significant difference in the density of
604	stained cells following noise exposure.
605	
606	Figure 5. Example photomicrographs from the control and experimental groups from which PNN
607	intensity was measured. Control (A) and 1 (B), 10 (C) and 30 (D) days after noise exposure.
608	
609	Figure 6. Decline in PNN intensity in A1 following noise exposure. (A) In all layers combined,
610	there is a decrease in PNN intensity at 1 day PE and 10 days PE and a return to control levels at
611	30 day PE. (B) There is a decrease in PNN intensity in layers I-IV at 1 day PE, 10 days PE and
612	30 days PE compared to controls (C) There is a significant decrease in PNN intensity in layers
613	V-VI at 10 days PE followed by a significant increase by 30 days PE.
614	
615	Figure 7. Examples to illustrate measurement of PNN intensity in the region around a cell. The
616	horizontal line centered on the PNN was 40 µm long. The bimodal graph shows the pixel
617	intensity along the horizontal line. The area under the curve can be used to measure PNN
618	intensity around cells. (A) Cell with a strong PNN label. (B) Cell with weak PNN staining.

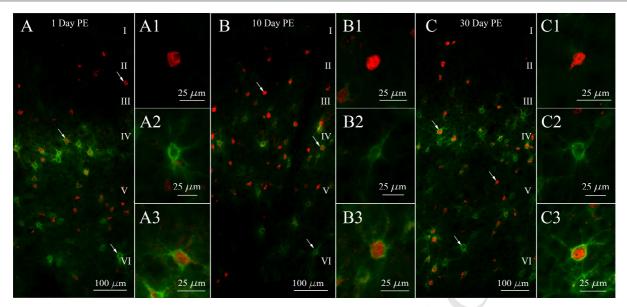
- 620 Figure 8: Noise exposure caused a decline in PNN intensity in the region around cells in A1. (A)
- 621 Average PNN intensity across all layers, (B) Average PNN intensity in layers I-IV (stripe bars)
- and layers V-VI (white bars) (*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001 for layers I-VI and p<0.05 for
- 623 layers V-VI). (C) PNN intensity in cells without PV (black bars) and with PV (gray bars)

624 (*p<0.05, **p<0.01 for non-colocalized PNNs, p<0.05 for co-localized PNNs).

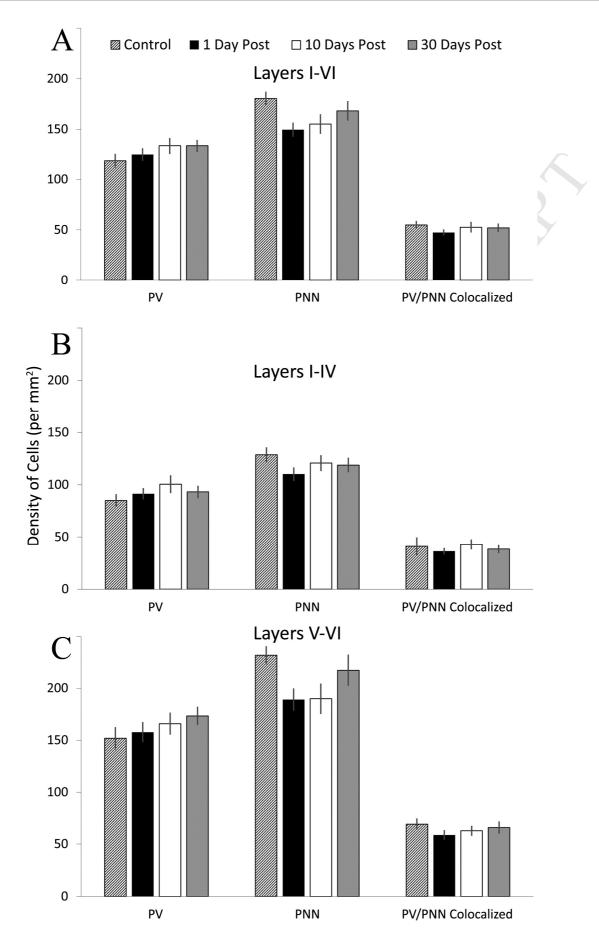
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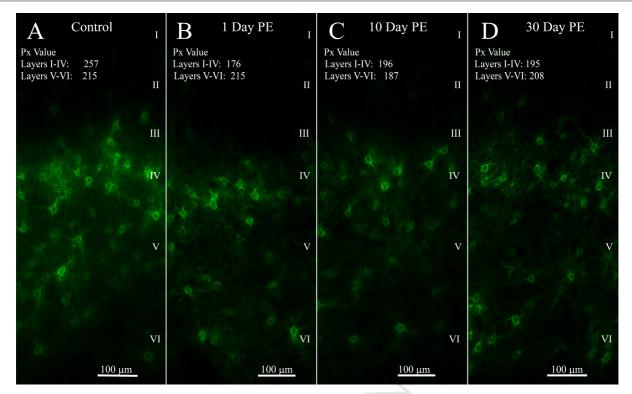


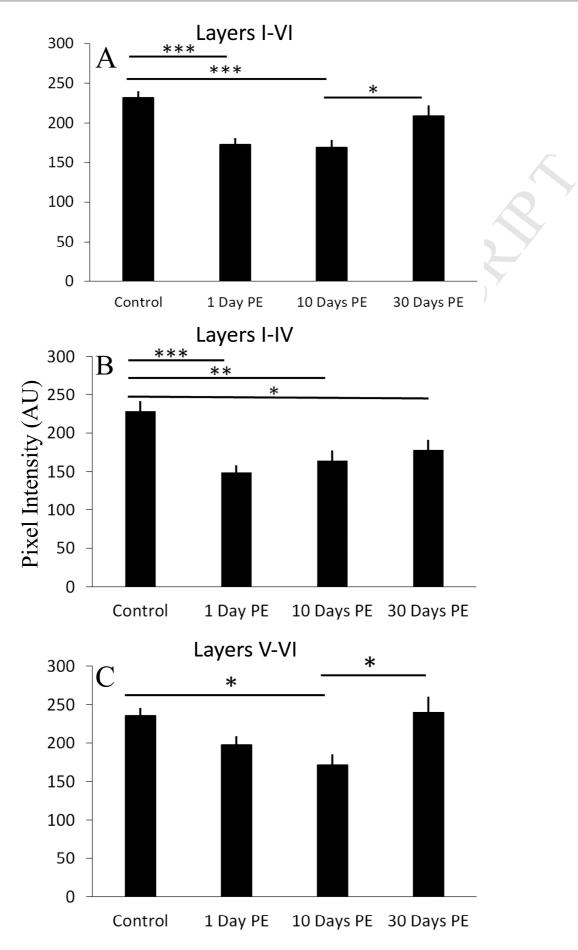


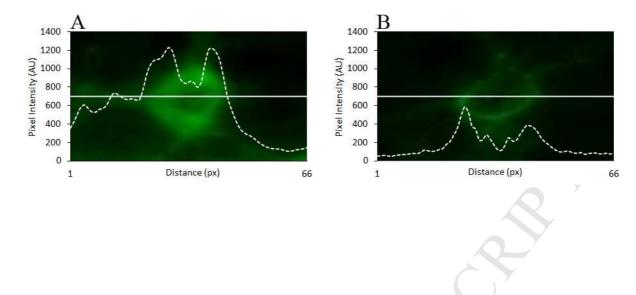


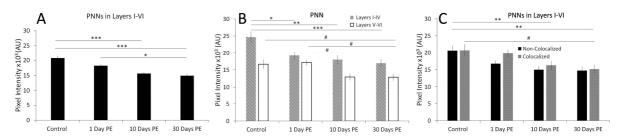
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Highlights:

Acoustic trauma causes deterioration of perineuronal nets in auditory cortex These changes show layer-specific trajectories following hearing loss induction Decline of perineuronal nets is seen even at 1 day following noise exposure Perineuronal net deterioration may cause increased excitability of auditory cortex

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