

# Layer 3 dynamically coordinates columnar activity according to spatial context

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Running Title: Dynamic coordination in V1

Keywords: Granger causality, local field potentials, primary visual cortex, size tuning, visual processing

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## 29 Abstract

30 Spatial integration is a fundamental, context-dependent neural operation that involves  
31 extensive neural circuits across cortical layers of V1. To better understand how spatial  
32 integration is dynamically coordinated across layers we recorded single- and multi-unit  
33 activity and local field potentials across V1 layers of awake mice, and used dynamic Bayesian  
34 model comparisons to identify when laminar activity and inter-laminar functional  
35 interactions showed surround suppression, the hallmark of spatial integration. We found  
36 that surround suppression is strongest in layer 3 (L3) and L4 activity, showing rapidly  
37 sharpening receptive fields and increasing suppression strength. Importantly, we also found  
38 that specific directed functional connections were strongest for intermediate stimulus sizes  
39 and suppressed for larger ones, particularly for the L3->L5 and L3->L1 connections. Taken  
40 together, the results shed light on the different functional roles of cortical layers in spatial  
41 integration and show how L3 dynamically coordinates activity across a cortical column  
42 depending on spatial context.

43 *150 of 150 words*

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## 46 Introduction

47 One of the fundamental computations carried out by the primary visual cortex (V1) is the  
48 integration of visual information across space. In V1, neurons have a spatially localized  
49 classical receptive field (RF), but their activity strongly depends on the spatial context of the  
50 stimulus. Responses typically become larger for stimuli of increasing size, but can be  
51 suppressed if the stimulus extends beyond the RF (Knierim & van Essen 1992; Allman et al.  
52 1985; Blakemore & Tobin 1972; DeAngelis et al. 1994; Gilbert & Wiesel 1990; Nelson & Frost  
53 1978). This phenomenon, known as surround suppression, is thought to be a key mechanism  
54 for reducing redundancies in the natural input, perceptual pop-out and segmentation of  
55 object boundaries (Schmid & Victor 2014; Coen-Cagli et al. 2012; Sachdev et al. 2012;  
56 Angelucci et al. 2017).

57 Surround suppression is a hallmark of spatial integration that has been described at all stages  
58 of the retino-geniculo-cortical pathway, with dedicated mechanisms likely working in  
59 parallel (Angelucci et al. 2017). Starting at the level of retinal output, suppressive influences  
60 mediated by inhibition from amacrine cells with large RFs (Werblin 1972) can normalize  
61 responses of retinal ganglion cells (Solomon et al. 2006; Nolt et al. 2007; Alitto & Usrey 2008;  
62 Alitto & Usrey 2015). Compared to the retinal ganglion cell output, the strength of surround  
63 suppression increases in the lateral geniculate nucleus (dLGN) of the thalamus (Hubel &  
64 Wiesel 1961; Nolt et al. 2007). Because direct retinal input to dLGN is excitatory, this  
65 augmentation of surround suppression might be mediated by inhibitory influences within  
66 dLGN or from the thalamic reticular nucleus (Fisher et al. 2017), as well as by feedback  
67 provided from area V1 (Murphy & Sillito 1987; Nolt et al. 2007; Sillito & Jones 2002; Olsen et  
68 al. 2012). At the level of V1, further qualitative and quantitative changes in surround  
69 suppression have been observed: in supragranular layers of cats and primates, but much less  
70 so in thalamo-recipient layer 4 (L4), surround modulation is sharply orientation tuned  
71 (Hashemi-Nezhad & Lyon 2012; Henry et al. 2013a; Shushruth et al. 2013); in mice, cats and  
72 primates, RF size is smallest and surround suppression is strongest in supragranular layers  
73 (Self et al. 2014; Nienborg et al. 2013; Jones et al. 2000; Shushruth et al. 2009; Vaiceliunaite  
74 et al. 2013).

75 The local microcircuits in V1 that support surround suppression have been most extensively  
76 studied in L2/3. There, optogenetic studies in mice have revealed that one of the key circuits  
77 for surround suppression consists of L2/3 somatostatin-positive (SOM+) inhibitory  
78 interneurons, which are preferentially recruited by cortical horizontal axons (Adesnik et al.  
79 2012). L2/3 SOM+ inhibitory interneurons have large RFs that effectively sum information  
80 across space while showing little surround suppression themselves. Furthermore, their  
81 inactivation results in decreased suppression of L2/3 principal cells (Adesnik et al. 2012).  
82 Consistent with a more general role in providing lateral inhibition, SOM+ neurons seem to

83 control frequency tuning in L2/3 of mouse auditory cortex by providing lateral inhibition  
84 (Kato et al. 2017).

85 Besides horizontal connections and local inhibitory interneurons relevant for surround  
86 suppression in L2/3, additional mechanisms and circuits might control V1 spatial  
87 integration, potentially with differential impact across V1 layers. Surround suppression has  
88 been observed in most layers of V1, with varying RF sizes and suppression strengths  
89 (Nienborg et al. 2013; Self et al. 2014; Shushruth et al. 2009; Jones et al. 2000). In macaque  
90 L4C, for instance, extraclassical RFs are smallest, surround suppression is weakest and  
91 untuned for orientation, and emerges with response onset, consistent with L4C's lack of long-  
92 range intracortical connections and driving input from the LGN (reviewed in Angelucci et al.  
93 2017). In addition, V1 receives extensive interareal feedback connections, which  
94 preferentially terminate in L1 and L5/6 (Coogan & Burkhalter 1990; Markov et al. 2013) on  
95 both excitatory and local inhibitory interneurons (Gonchar & Burkhalter 2003; Zhang et al.  
96 2014). These feedback connections can extend across multiples of the V1 RF diameter  
97 (Angelucci et al. 2002) and have been proposed to mediate suppressive influences from  
98 surround regions further away (Angelucci et al. 2002; Angelucci & Bressloff 2006). While  
99 each of these mechanisms and neural circuits likely contributes to surround suppression  
100 across several V1 layers, the coordination of suppression across V1 layers remains poorly  
101 understood.

102 To shed light on how activity across layers of a V1 column is differentially orchestrated  
103 during spatial integration, we characterized with high temporal resolution surround-  
104 suppressed activity within each layer, and surround-suppressed functional connectivity  
105 between layers. Directed functional connectivity analysis in the Granger-causality  
106 framework (Granger 1969; Seth et al. 2015) has previously provided informative models of  
107 how cortical layers or areas interact in sensory processing (Michalareas et al. 2016; Saalmann  
108 et al. 2012; Liang et al. 2017; van Kerkoerle et al. 2014). In awake mice, we recorded single-  
109 and multi-unit activity as well as local field potentials (LFPs) across all six layers, computed  
110 dynamic functional connectivity estimates (Milde et al. 2010; Baccalá & Sameshima 2001;  
111 Plomp, Quairiaux, Michel, et al. 2014) and used a novel Bayesian model comparison approach  
112 to identify at what latencies surround suppression was evident in laminar activity and in  
113 inter-laminar functional connectivity strengths. We found sustained surround suppression  
114 at L4 and L3, with a rapid sharpening of the tuning profile at early latencies after stimulus  
115 onset. L3 also showed persistent surround-suppressed inter-laminar connectivity that  
116 specifically influenced L1 and L5 at early latencies. L4, however, did not show such persistent  
117 surround-suppressed connections. Together, these results demonstrate a key role of L3 in  
118 orchestrating activity across layers of V1 in a size-dependent way.

## 119 **Methods**

### 120 **Experimental procedures**

121 All experiments were performed on awake, adult mice. The procedures complied with the  
122 European Communities Council Directive 2010/63/EC, the German Law for Protection of  
123 Animals, and were approved by local authorities following appropriate ethics review.

### 124 **Mice**

125 We used 7 adult mice (2 C57BL/6J and 5 mice with floxed NR1 receptors used as controls for  
126 a different study (see Korotkova et al. 2010 for details on the mouse line); 4 males, 3 females),  
127 which ranged in age from 2 - 7 months. We used recordings with at least two contacts both  
128 in L1 and L6 (26 experiments, from 13 penetrations), allowing bipolar derivation for L1 to  
129 L6 (see below).

### 130 **Surgical procedures**

131 Surgeries were performed as described previously (Erisken et al. 2014). Briefly, mice were  
132 anesthetized using 3% Isoflurane, which was maintained for the duration of the surgery at  
133 1.5-2%. Analgesics (Buprenorphine, 0.1 mg/kg, sc) was administered, and eyes were  
134 prevented from dehydration with an ointment (Bepanthen). The animal's temperature was  
135 kept at 37°C via a feedback-controlled heating pad (WPI). A custom-designed head post was  
136 attached to the anterior part of the skull using dental cement (Tetric EvoFlow, Ivoclar  
137 Vivadent), and two miniature screws were placed in the bone over the cerebellum, serving  
138 as reference and ground (#00-96X 158 1/16, Bilaney). Following the surgery, antibiotics  
139 (Baytril, 5mg/kg, sc) and long-lasting analgesics (Carprofen, 5mg/kg, sc) were administered  
140 for 3 consecutive days. After recovery, mice were placed on a Styrofoam ball and habituated  
141 to head-fixation for several days. The day before electrophysiological recordings, mice were  
142 again anesthetized (Isoflurane 2%), and a craniotomy (~1 mm<sup>2</sup>) was performed over V1 (3  
143 mm lateral from the midline suture, 1.1 mm anterior to the transverse sinus). The exposed  
144 brain was sealed with the silicon elastomer Kwik-Cast at the end of each recording session.  
145 Recording sessions always started at least one day after surgery.

### 146 **Visual stimuli**

147 Visual stimuli were created with custom software (Expo,  
148 <https://sites.google.com/a/nyu.edu/expo/home>), and presented on a gamma-corrected LCD  
149 monitor (Samsung 2233RZ; mean luminance 50 cd/m<sup>2</sup>) placed 25 cm from the animal's eyes.

150 To measure RFs, we mapped the ON and OFF subfields with a sparse noise stimulus. The  
151 stimulus consisted of white and black squares (4° diameter) briefly flashed for 150 ms on a

152 square grid (40° diameter). To measure size tuning we centered circular square-wave  
153 gratings (spatial frequency 0.02 cyc/deg) of 10 different diameters (3.9, 5.6, 7.8, 12.1, 15.5,  
154 21.8, 30.6, 43.1, 60.5 or 67.3° of visual angle) on online estimates of RF centers based on  
155 threshold crossings, and presented each stimulus in pseudo-random order for 750 ms,  
156 followed by a 500 ms ISI. We also included a blank screen condition, in which only the mean  
157 luminance gray screen was presented. Orientation of the gratings was chosen to match the  
158 average preferred orientation tuning based on threshold crossings. The number of trials for  
159 each stimulus size varied across animals (mean 208, range 50 - 500). For determining the  
160 L4/L5 border using current source density analysis, we presented a full-field, contrast-  
161 reversing checkerboard at 100% contrast, with a spatial frequency of 0.02 cyc/deg and a  
162 temporal frequency of 0.5 cyc/s.

### 163 **Extracellular recordings**

164 Extracellular recordings were performed in awake head-fixed mice placed on a Styrofoam  
165 ball. Recordings of neural activity were performed with a 32 channel linear silicon probe with  
166 25 µm inter-contact spacing (Neuronexus, A1x32-5mm-25-177-A32).

167 Extracellular signals were recorded at 30 kHz (Blackrock microsystems) and analyzed with  
168 the NDManager software suite (Hazan et al. 2006). For spike sorting, we divided the linear  
169 array into 5 “octrodes” (8 channels per group with 2 channels overlap). Using a robust spike  
170 detection threshold (Quiroga et al. 2004) set to 6 SDs of the background noise, we extracted  
171 spike-waveshapes from the high-pass filtered continuous signal. The first 3 principal  
172 components of each channel were used for automatic clustering with a Gaussian Mixture  
173 Model in KlustaKwik (Henze et al. 2000), and the resulting clusters were manually refined  
174 with Klusters (Hazan et al. 2006). Duplicate spike clusters, which can arise from separating  
175 the electrode channels in different groups for sorting, were defined as pairs of neurons, for  
176 which the cross-correlogram’s zero-bin was 3 times larger than the mean of non-zero bins,  
177 and one of the neurons in the pair was removed from the analysis.

178 For calculating the envelope of multi-unit activity (MUAe), we full-wave rectified the median-  
179 subtracted, high-pass filtered signals, before low-pass filtering (200 Hz) and down-sampling  
180 to 2000 Hz (Self et al. 2014; Supèr & Roelfsema 2005; van der Togt et al. 2005). To assure  
181 spatial alignment of RFs across cortical depth, we routinely assessed RF maps obtained by  
182 the sparse noise stimulus, for which we used average MUAe between 50 and 175 ms after  
183 stimulus onset (for an example, see Fig. 1b). For analysis of size tuning, MUAe was normalized  
184 to pre-stimulus values for each single trial and layer. Response onset (Figure 2) was  
185 quantified as the first latency after which the 95% CI across animals remained above 0 for at  
186 least 10 ms, for the largest presented grating.



187 The LFP was computed by downsampling the data to 1250 Hz, and high pass, forward-  
188 backward filtering at 1Hz (2<sup>nd</sup> order Butterworth). To map electrode contacts to cortical  
189 layers, we computed current source density (CSD) from the second spatial derivative of the  
190 LFP (Mitzdorf 1985) and assigned the base of L4 to the contact that was closest to the earliest  
191 CSD polarity inversion from sink to source. The remaining contacts were assigned putative  
192 layer labels based on the known relative thickness of V1 layers (Heumann et al. 1977), and  
193 an assumed total thickness of ~1 mm. We checked the L4-L5 boundary localization using CSD  
194 methods that do not assume constant activity in the horizontal direction (Pettersen et al.  
195 2006), and obtained identical depth estimates.

196 We then selected for further analysis the channel closest to the middle of each layer as the  
197 representative signal for that layer. To reduce volume conduction effects from neural and  
198 noise sources (e.g., muscles artifacts) we derived bipolar LFPs by subtracting signals from  
199 the two neighboring electrodes (Trongnetrpunya et al. 2015; Rohenkohl et al. 2018; Bastos  
200 et al. 2015). Power spectral density (PSD) was calculated with the S-transform on epochs of  
201 -500 to 500 ms around stimulus onset and rectified as relative increases with respect to pre-  
202 stimulus activity (Roberts et al. 2013).

### 203 **Time-varying directed connectivity**

204 Functional connectivity values were calculated from single trial bipolar LFP signals between  
205 -50 to 300 ms after stimulus onset. We chose bipolar LFPs (Bastos et al. 2015; Rohenkohl et  
206 al. 2018; Trongnetrpunya et al. 2015) because possible noise amplification in CSD  
207 calculations can negatively impact connectivity analysis (Trongnetrpunya et al. 2015). We  
208 used a time-varying implementation of the Partial Directed Coherence (PDC, Baccalá &  
209 Sameshima 2001), a multivariate, directed connectivity measure based on the notion of  
210 Granger causality, or the relative predictability of signals from one another (Granger 1969;  
211 Bressler & Seth 2011).

212 PDC was derived from a multivariate autoregressive model of the recorded signals, which is  
213 based on a fixed model order that reflects the maximum time lag of observations included in  
214 the model (Baccalá & Sameshima 2001). Optimal model orders were determined by  
215 minimizing Akaike's information criterion across epochs within animals for each stimulus  
216 size (Barnett & Seth 2014), and ranged between 13 and 15 (10-12 ms). This parametric  
217 approach avoids known pitfalls of some non-parametric approaches (Stokes & Purdon 2017).

218 To obtain time-varying multivariate autoregressive (tvMVAR) models we used a Kalman  
219 filter approach (Milde et al. 2010). The constants that determine adaptation speed during  
220 parameter estimation were fixed at 0.02, following previous work (Plomp, Quairiaux, Michel,  
221 et al. 2014; Plomp, Quairiaux, Kiss, et al. 2014; Astolfi et al. 2008). Within animals, tvMVAR  
222 parameter estimates were averaged across trials for the 11 conditions (Ghumare et al. 2015).

223 We orthogonalized the tvMVAR parameters to further guard against possible volume  
224 conduction effects (Omidvarnia et al. 2014; Hipp et al. 2011), and obtained PDC values using  
225 a row-wise normalization to optimize sensitivity to information outflows (Astolfi et al. 2007;  
226 Kuś et al. 2004):

$$227 \quad OPDC_{ij}(f, t) = \frac{|Real\{A_{ij}(f, t)\}|}{\sqrt{\sum_{m=1}^N A_{im}(f, t)A_{im}^*(f, t)}} \cdot \frac{|Imag\{A_{ij}(f, t)\}|}{\sqrt{\sum_{m=1}^N A_{im}(f, t)A_{im}^*(f, t)}} \quad (1)$$

228 where  $A$  is the frequency-transformed tvMVAR parameter matrix. We squared OPDC values  
229 to enhance accuracy and stability (Astolfi et al. 2006). Resulting PDC matrices were  
230 normalized (0-1) for each animal across conditions, time and frequencies (1-150 Hz) and  
231 multiplied by the normalized spectral power across conditions, time and frequencies,  
232 obtaining a weighted PDC (wPDC) estimator that has been shown to better reflect the  
233 underlying physiological processes (Plomp, Quairiaux, Michel, et al. 2014).

### 234 **Bayesian model comparison**

235 In V1, the suppressive influence from the extraclassical surround is generally considered a  
236 phenomenon accounted for by divisive normalization (Carandini & Heeger 2011). On a  
237 descriptive level, effects of surround suppression in spatial tuning can be captured by a Ratio  
238 of Gaussians (RoG) model (Cavanaugh et al. 2002a), where a center Gaussian with  
239 independent amplitude and width is normalized by a Gaussian representing the surround.  
240 Thus, responses are given by:

$$241 \quad R(x) = k_c L_c(x) / (1 + k_s L_s(x)); L(x) = (2/\sqrt{\pi} \int_0^x e^{-(y/w_c)^2} dy)^2; L_s(x) = (2/\sqrt{\pi} \int_0^x e^{-(y/w_s)^2} dy)^2 \quad (2)$$

242 where  $x$  is the stimulus diameter,  $k_c$  and  $k_s$  are the gains of center and surround,  $w_c$  and  $w_s$   
243 their respective spatial extents, and  $L_c$  and  $L_s$  are the summed squared activities of the center  
244 and surround mechanisms, respectively. Our use of the RoG model is not meant to reflect a  
245 particular biophysical implementation, but should only serve as a quantitative description of  
246 tuning; yet, it has been shown that the RoG model applied to V1 responses can outperform  
247 models assuming subtractive influences from the surround (Cavanaugh et al. 2002b). While  
248 RoG models can also capture non-suppressed responses, responses increasing monotonically  
249 for most of the tested stimulus sizes can be more parsimoniously explained by a simple linear  
250 null model with only two parameters:

$$251 \quad R(x) = a + b(x) \quad (3)$$

252 where  $a$  and  $b$  reflect intercept and slope respectively. In Bayesian statistics the evidence in  
253 favor of one model ( $M_1$ ; RoG model) over another ( $M_2$ ; linear null model) given the data is the  
254 ratio of their posterior probabilities, or Bayes factor (Raftery 1995; Rouder et al. 2009;  
255 Jeffreys 1998):



256 
$$B_{12} = \frac{\Pr(M_1 | data)}{\Pr(M_2 | data)} = \frac{\Pr(data | M_1)}{\Pr(data | M_2)} \times \frac{\Pr(M_1)}{\Pr(M_2)} \quad (4)$$

257 We assumed both models to be equally likely a priori, and set the summed prior probabilities  
258 to 1. Bayes factors were approximated using the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) values  
259 associated with  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  (Raftery 1995):

260 
$$B_{12} = \exp\left(-\frac{BIC_1 - BIC_2}{2}\right) \quad (5)$$

261 Model comparisons based on BIC values penalize for the number of parameters and here  
262 provide a conservative approach for detecting evidence in favour of the RoG model. The  
263 Bayes factor ( $B_{12}$ ) quantifies the relative amount of evidence in the data for each model.  $B_{12}$   
264  $> 3$  is generally considered positive evidence in favor of  $M_1$  (Kass & Raftery 1995; Raftery  
265 1995). We report  $B_{12}$  values on logarithmic scales.

266 For each timepoint in the MUAe activity, and for each time-frequency point in the  
267 connectivity analysis, we fitted amplitudes as a function of stimulus size with linear and RoG  
268 models (non-linear least squares, Port algorithm), enforcing  $w_c < w_s$  (Cavanaugh et al. 2002b).  
269 Model comparisons were done separately for each animal to avoid effects driven by single  
270 animals or outliers.

271 From the RoG models we obtained RF center size as the stimulus diameter eliciting peak  
272 amplitude (MUAe or connectivity strength); models with center sizes below  $3.9^\circ$  (smallest  
273 presented size) were not further analyzed. We quantified strength of suppression using the  
274 suppression index ( $SI$ ):

275 
$$SI = (A_{opt} - A_{supp}) / A_{opt} \quad (6)$$

276 where  $A$  is MUAe, spike rate or wPDC amplitude,  $A_{opt}$  is the model's peak amplitude and  $A_{supp}$   
277 is the amplitude at the largest presented size ( $67.3^\circ$ ) (DeAngelis et al. 1994; Self et al. 2014).

278 We identified data points with a suppressed tuning curve profile as those that showed both  
279 positive evidence in favor of the RoG model ( $B_{12} > 3$ , or equivalently  $\log B_{12} > 1$ ), and a non-  
280 zero suppression index ( $SI > 0$ ). This latter requirement ensured that responses with  
281 asymptotic or other non-linear monotonic increases were not further considered. For further  
282 analysis, we retained data points where at least 6/7 animals passed both criteria  
283 (conjunction analysis). When an animal failed a criterion, its results were not included for  
284 further summaries. Layers or functional connections with only one data point were not  
285 further analyzed (L6 MUAe at 288 ms; L2->L1 connection at 82 ms, 6Hz). All model  
286 comparisons and analyses were done in R ([www.r-project.org](http://www.r-project.org)). For graph visualization  
287 (Figure 6), the layout was determined using the Fruchterman-Reingold algorithm

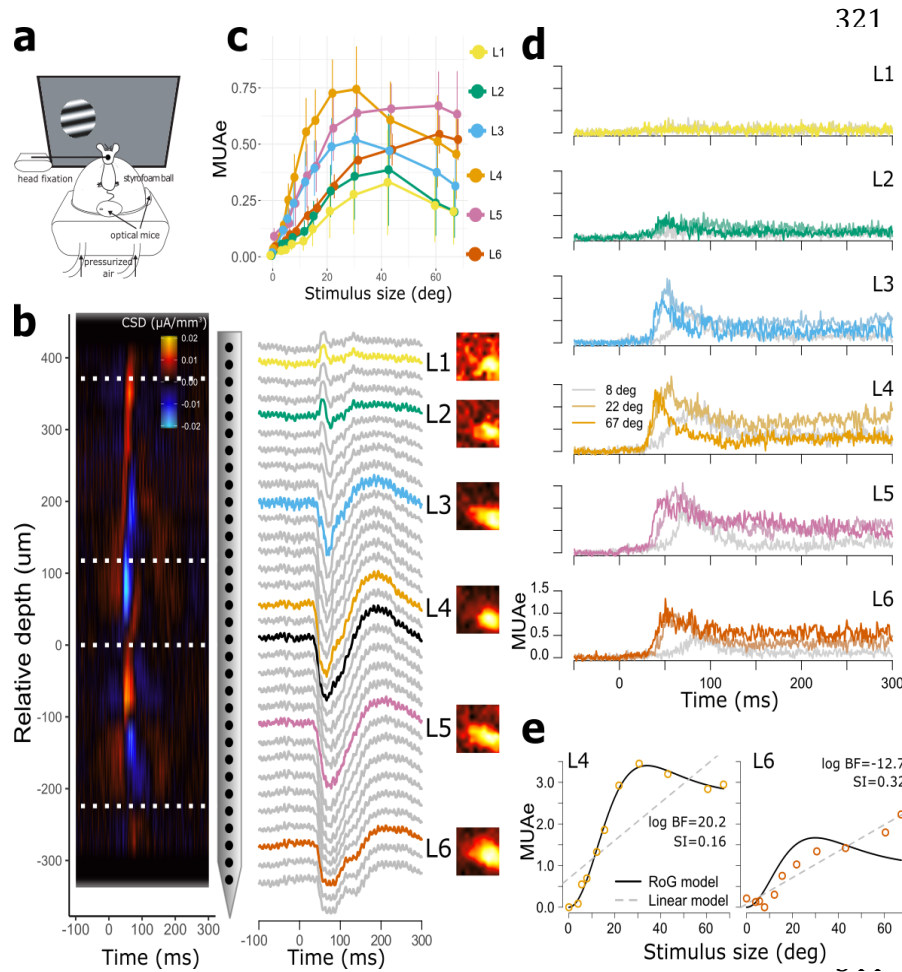
288 (Fruchterman & Reingold 1991), applied to a binary adjacency matrix, as implemented in the  
289 igraph library for R.

290 For the model comparison analysis of single-unit RF dynamics, we included sorted units from  
291 the central contact in the target layer and the two contacts immediately above and below (i.e.  
292 across 5 contacts, covering 125  $\mu\text{m}$  centered around the middle of L3 or L4, Figure 1b). We  
293 first fit RoG models to the spike rates between 0 and 300 ms after stimulus onset to identify  
294 units with  $R^2 > 0.5$ ,  $SI > 0$  and center size  $> 4^\circ$ . For these units we then dynamically fit RoG  
295 models in 50 ms bins sliding between 25 and 250 ms after stimulus onset (1 ms shift size).

## 296 Results

297 In awake, head-fixed mice (Figure 1a), we performed extracellular recordings across all  
298 layers of area V1 (Figure 1b). We assigned electrode contacts to layers based on CSD analysis  
299 (Mitzdorf 1985) (Figure 1b), and computed from the recorded signals the local field  
300 potentials (LFP) and the envelope of multi-unit activity (MUAe) (Supèr & Roelfsema 2005;  
301 van der Togt et al. 2005). MUAe responses reflect the number and amplitude of spikes close  
302 to the electrode, resembling thresholded multi-unit data and average single-unit activity (Self  
303 et al. 2014; Supèr & Roelfsema 2005). To assess spatial integration, we presented gratings of  
304 various diameters centered on the RFs of the recorded neurons. Similar to numerous studies  
305 before, we found that time-averaged multi-unit activity at the granular and supragranular  
306 layers varied systematically with grating diameter, typically peaking at intermediate sizes of  
307 around 20-30° of visual angle and showing surround suppression with larger diameters  
308 (Figure 1c). Beyond these time-averaged response patterns, we observed considerable  
309 variation in response latencies, amplitudes and time course of MUAe responses across layers  
310 depending on stimulus size (Figure 1d).

311 To get first insights into the dynamics of size tuning at each layer, we used Bayesian model  
312 comparisons to identify at what latencies MUAe activity showed more evidence in favor of a  
313 RoG model than a linear model (Figure 1e). The RoG models consist of two Gaussians with  
314 the same center location but different widths and amplitudes, and can well capture V1 size  
315 tuning curves (Cavanaugh et al. 2002b; Vaiceliunaite et al. 2013). In this model, preferred  
316 center size is given by the peak location of the fitted curve and suppression strength is the  
317 amplitude reduction for large stimuli relative to peak response (suppression index SI, Van  
318 den Bergh et al. 2010). By selecting RoG models with  $B_{12}$  values  $> 3$  and  $SI > 0$ , we identified  
319 layers and time points where MUAe amplitudes consistently reflected a surround-  
320 suppressed tuning curve (see Methods, Bayesian model comparison).



**Figure 1. Size tuning across V1 layers**

a) Recording setup. b) Left: CSD pattern evoked by a contrast-reversing checkerboard stimulus for an example penetration across V1 cortical depth reveals base of L4. Dashed lines indicate layer boundaries based on histology (Heumann et al. 1977).

Middle: corresponding LFP signal with labeling of putative cortical layers. Black: LFP responses at the contact closest to the base of L4; color: LFP responses from the middle of each layer, which were used for further analyses. Right: MUAe receptive field (RF) maps for the same penetration measured

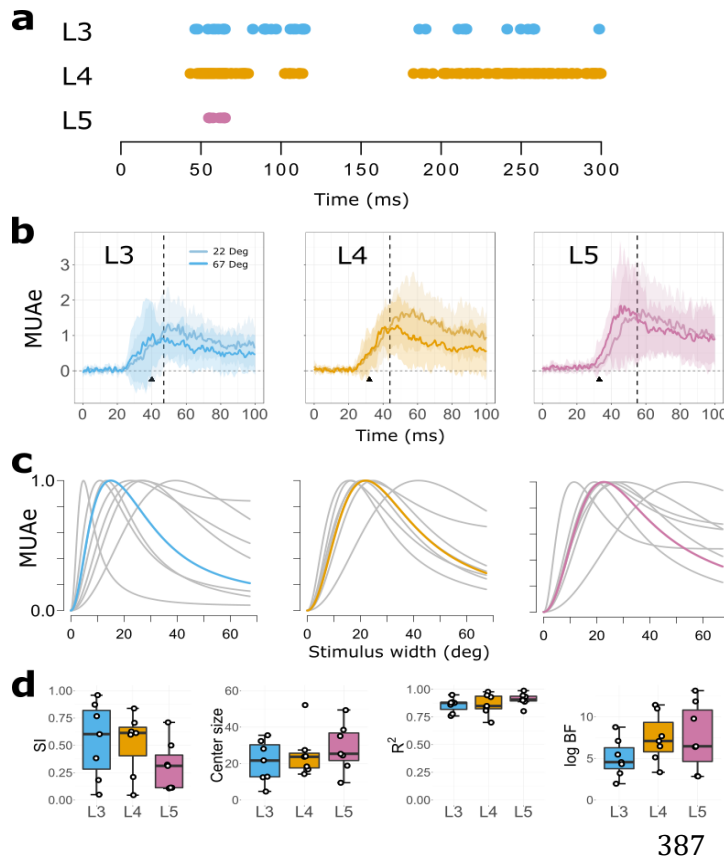
346 using a sparse noise stimulus, showing consistent RF locations across electrode depth. c) Median  
 347 MUAe across time as a function of stimulus diameter. Error bars denote standard errors across  
 348 animals ( $n = 7$  mice). d) Evoked grand-average MUAe for three grating diameters in L1 through L6.  
 349 e) Illustration of competing linear and RoG model fits to individual MUAe of L4 and L6 at 48 ms after  
 350 stimulus onset, with positive evidence in favor of the RoG model for L4 but not L6.

### 351 Multi-unit activity in layers 3-5 is dynamically suppressed

352 Using the above outlined, stringent model comparison approach, we found that the major  
 353 time points where MUAe activity consistently reflected surround suppressed tuning curves  
 354 occurred in L3, L4, and L5 (Figure 2a). Surround suppression was first evident in L4,  
 355 emerging at 44 ms after stimulus onset (first data point with consistent evidence in favor of  
 356 suppression in 6/7 animals). L4 suppression onset came 12 ms after response onset at 32 ms  
 357 (first data point after which the 95% CI across animals exceeded baseline for at least 10 ms;  
 358 Figure 2b, middle). The observed short delay between stimulus-driven activity and surround  
 359 suppression onset is consistent with the hypothesis that even at the earliest latencies in L4

360 of mouse V1, surround suppression is not solely inherited from the dLGN, but is rapidly  
 361 shaped by intracortical circuits (Knierim & van Essen 1992; Smith et al. 2006). L4 MUAe  
 362 suppression continued until 114 ms after stimulus onset, and also showed a later, sustained  
 363 surround-suppressed response component, from 183 ms onward (Figure 2a). Across  
 364 timepoints, L4 MUAe peaked for stimulus diameters of 24° (range: 14 - 52°), with a median  
 365 SI of 0.61 (range: 0.04 - 0.84) (Figure 2c, d).

366



**Figure 2. Dynamics of multi-unit size tuning in L3, L4 and L5.**

**a)** Time points after stimulus onset where MUAe showed a surround-suppressed tuning curve profile in at least 6/7 animals. **b)** Mean MUAe across animals (n=7) relative to stimulus onset for 22° (light colors) and 67° gratings (dark colors), for L3 (right), L4 (middle) and L5 (right). The black vertical lines indicate onsets of surround suppression, response onset is indicated with a black triangle (see Methods). Shading reflects 95% CI across animals. **c)** Median tuning curves for stimulus size (colored), averaged across time points with significant suppression (see a); grey curves are fits from individual animals. **d)** Median surround suppression indices (SI), center sizes, R<sup>2</sup> and log B<sub>12</sub> values across time points.

388 In L3, MUAe onset (40 ms) occurred later than in L4, but the onset of suppression was similar  
 389 to that of L4 (47 ms; Figure 2b), and overall, surround suppression had a similar time course  
 390 and strength (Figure 2a, c, d). In particular, L3 MUAe showed surround suppression during  
 391 broadly two periods: an early period starting slightly after response onset from 47 to 115 ms,  
 392 and a later one between 187 and 300 ms (end of epoch; Figure 2a). Overall, L3 MUAe median  
 393 center size was 22° (range: 5 - 36°) with suppression strengths (SI) of 0.6 (0.05 - 0.96)  
 394 (Figure 2c, left), indicating considerable suppression of RF activity in L3 during surround  
 395 stimulation.

396 In L5, surround suppression started relatively late, at 55 ms after stimulus onset, or 22 ms  
397 after response onset (at 33 ms, Figure 2a, b), and suppression was more concentrated in time  
398 (55 - 65 ms) than in the more superficial layers. At these relatively few time points, however,  
399 consistent evidence for surround suppression was found in all mice. Here, L5 MUAe preferred  
400 stimulus diameters of 25° (range: 9 - 49°), and a median SI of 0.31 (0.11–0.71). Model  
401 comparison results and RoG model parameters for the surround suppressed MUAe per layer  
402 are summarized in Table 1.

403 None of the MUAe in L1 and L6 showed strong and consistent evidence for surround  
404 suppression at any single time-point. In L1, stimulus-evoked transient MUAe responses were  
405 small and showed only modest variations with stimulus size across time (Figure 1d). This is  
406 not surprising, given that L1 has relatively few neurons (Hestrin & Armstrong 1996; Gonchar  
407 et al. 2007), whose spiking activity is difficult to pick up with extracellular recordings. In L6,  
408 by contrast, stimulus-evoked MUAe was strong, but it increased monotonically with stimulus  
409 size without showing consistent suppression at any single time point (Figure 1c,d). The weak  
410 average SI in L5 and the relative lack of surround suppression in L6 are in line with previous  
411 studies, which reported broader spatial tuning for V1 infragranular layers in cats (Jones et al.  
412 2000), and mice (Self et al. 2014; Nienborg et al. 2013; Vaiceliunaite et al. 2013).

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420 **Table 1.** RoG model profiles for surround-suppressed MUAe activity per layer, median (min, max)  
421 across mice.

	SI	Center size	R <sup>2</sup>	log B <sub>12</sub>
L3	0.6 (0.05-0.96)	21.65 (4.74-35.53)	0.88 (0.76-0.95)	7 (3-13)
L4	0.61 (0.04-0.84)	23.68 (14.21-52.1)	0.85 (0.7-0.98)	10 (5-16)



L5 0.31 (0.11-0.71) 25.38 (9.47-49.4) 0.91 (0.8-0.99) 9 (4-19)

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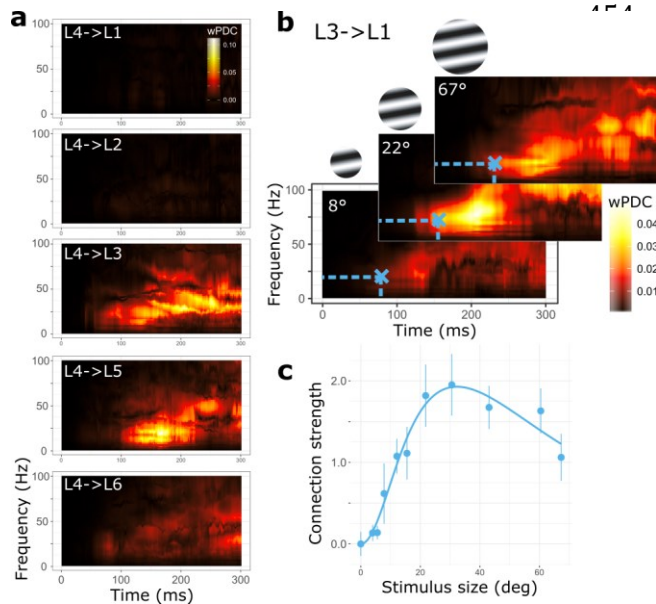
422

### 423 **Functional connectivity between layers shows size tuning**

424 Having observed strikingly different effects of surround suppression across cortical layers  
425 and in time, we next assessed how cortical layers dynamically orchestrate activity during  
426 spatial integration by analyzing inter-laminar functional connectivity. We calculated time-  
427 varying connectivity between all layers based on Partial Directed Coherence (PDC), a  
428 multivariate variant of Granger causality in the frequency domain (Baccalá & Sameshima  
429 2001; Bressler & Seth 2011; Plomp, Quairiaux, Michel, et al. 2014; Seth et al. 2015) (see also  
430 Methods, Time-varying directed connectivity). Granger causality is a statistical measure of  
431 time-lagged regularities between recorded signals (here LFPs with bipolar derivation),  
432 where increased connectivity means that the future activity of the target layer becomes  
433 better predictable from the activity at the source layer, i.e., that the source layer more  
434 strongly drives activity in the target layer. Since driving in this functional connectivity  
435 framework might or might not occur via direct anatomical connectivity, we decided to  
436 interpret our results in light of the simultaneously recorded spiking activity (MUAe) and the  
437 known structural connectivity, while also emphasizing alternative explanations and limits of  
438 the technique (see also Discussion). In the past, similar connectivity analyses have helped to  
439 better understand laminar interactions at rest and during sensory processing (Bollimunta et  
440 al. 2008; van Kerkoerle et al. 2014; Plomp, Quairiaux, Kiss, et al. 2014; Chen et al. 2017; Liang  
441 et al. 2017).

442 We first applied the analysis of PDC to our V1 laminar recordings, and asked how directed  
443 functional connectivity depended on spatial context. We reasoned that, in the same way that  
444 surround-suppressed activity reflects contextual influences on neuronal responsiveness,  
445 surround-suppressed connections would reflect how stimulus context parametrically varies  
446 the influence that a source layer has on future activity of its target layer. We illustrate this  
447 reasoning in Figure 3, using two example connections. Figure 3a shows directed connectivity  
448 strengths in response to a large-sized grating from L4 to each of the other layers (for other  
449 source layers, see Supplementary Figure 1). In line with known L4 projections, the main  
450 targets of L4 driving were L3 and L5 (Xu et al. 2016; Pluta et al. 2015; Thomson 2003; Harris  
451 & Shepherd 2015). Figure 3b shows connectivity strengths of the L3 -> L1 connection, for  
452 different stimulus sizes, and highlights that connection strength can depend on spatial  
453 context.





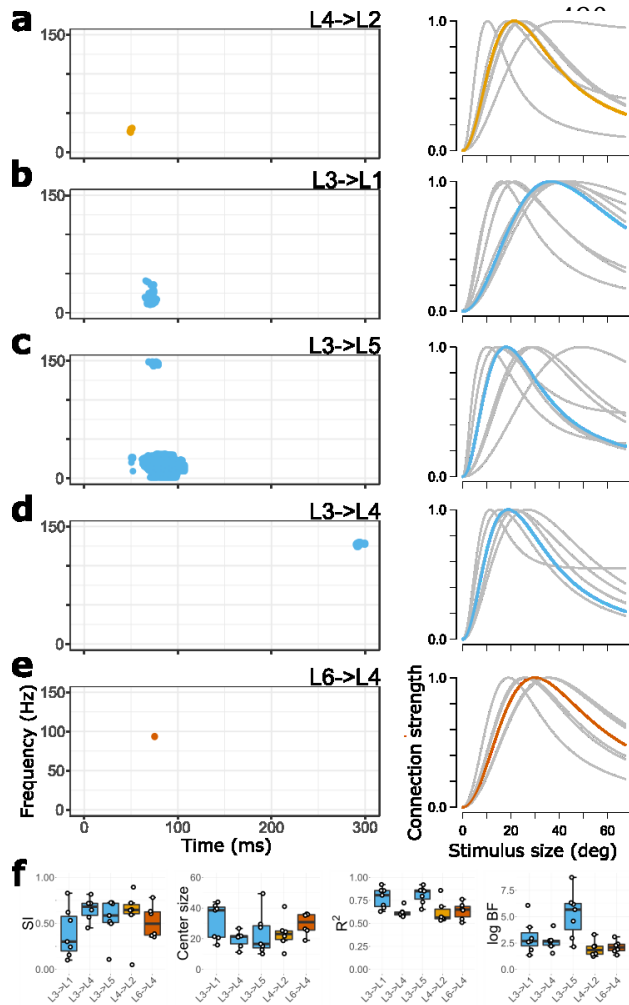
**Figure 3.**

Inter-laminar functional connectivity. **a)** Time-frequency plots of directed functional connectivity strengths (median across animals) from L4 to the other layers for a 67° grating. **b)** Median L3 to L1 connectivity strengths for three grating sizes, exhibiting a surround-suppressed tuning-curve at the indicated time-frequency point (blue cross). **c)** RoG model of the average connectivity strengths across animals as a function of stimulus size, for the time-frequency point indicated by the blue cross in b). Error bars denote s.e. around the mean, n=7.

468

469 Applying the same Bayesian model comparison approach as above to directed functional  
 470 connectivity strengths at each time (0-300 ms) and frequency point (1-150 Hz), we obtained  
 471 for each connection a time-frequency distribution of Bayes factors ( $B_{12}$ ). Using identical  
 472 thresholding and conjunction analysis (see Supplementary Figure 2 for all size-tuned  
 473 connections before conjunction analysis) as for MUAe, we identified five major inter-laminar  
 474 connections whose strength followed a surround-suppressed tuning curve and hence relayed  
 475 information about stimulus size and context.

476 The earliest surround-suppressed connection extended from L4 to L2 at latencies between  
 477 49 and 51 ms after stimulus onset, and operated in the beta band (Figure 4a). Across time  
 478 and frequency points the L4->L2 connection was strongest for stimuli of 23° (range across  
 479 animals: 10-41°) and strongly suppressed for larger stimuli (median SI = 0.65, range 0.05-  
 480 0.89). In general, functional connectivity from L4 to L2 is consistent with the known  
 481 ascending projections from L4 to L2/3 (Xu et al. 2016; Thomson 2003; Harris & Shepherd  
 482 2015; Pluta et al. 2017). The surround-suppressed L4->L2 connectivity coincided with the  
 483 onset of surround-suppressed MUAe at L4 (Figure 2a), consistent with the notion that size-  
 484 tuned multi-unit activity plays a role in the relay of size information to L2. Remarkably,-the  
 485 time point by time point MUAe analysis of L2, did not show consistent evidence for surround-  
 486 suppressed activity. This indicates that the L4->L2 driving does not immediately and  
 487 consistently result in size-tuned MUAe at L2. Instead, it suggests that L4 activity  
 488 parametrically drives postsynaptic potentials at L2 in a less time-locked manner,  
 489 contributing to the surround-suppressed activity obtained in time-averaged data (Figure 1c).



**Figure 4.**

Functional connections relaying information about stimulus size and surround context. **a-e)** Time-frequency points where functional connections (wPDC) for at least 6/7 animals showed positive evidence for surround-suppression. Plots on the right show the corresponding median size tuning curve (colored) and individual animal data (grey), averaged across the colored regions in (a-e). **f)** Box and whisker plot of suppression strength (SI), preferred size, R<sup>2</sup> and log B<sub>12</sub> values for each surround-suppressed connection. Color coding is for source layer, corresponding to Figure 1.

A second ascending connection with a surround-suppressed driving profile was the L3->L1 connection, which showed surround-suppressed connectivity in the beta and low gamma band between 65 and 78 ms (Figure 4b). For this connection median preferred size was 39° (16-44°) with a suppression strength of SI = 0.3 (0.1 - 0.83) (Figure 4d). As with the L4->L2 connection, the latencies of

514 surround-suppressed driving coincided with a period of surround-suppressed MUAe in the  
 515 source layer, and with an absence of evidence for time-resolved surround suppression in the  
 516 target layer (Figure 2d), suggesting that size-tuned activity at L3 relays size information to  
 517 L1 by driving postsynaptic potentials with low temporal precision. Target L1 is an important  
 518 recipient of thalamic and cortical feedback (D'Souza & Burkhalter 2017; Ji et al. 2015; Coogan  
 519 & Burkhalter 1993). L1 postsynaptic potentials, in turn, have modulatory influence  
 520 throughout the column because neurons in most layers have apical dendrites in L1, allowing  
 521 L1 to change spike likelihoods in deeper layers (Egger et al. 2015; Jiang et al. 2013; Larkum  
 522 et al. 1999). The L3->L1 driving was largest for stimuli inside the RF of the column, indicating  
 523 that the processing at L1 is modulated in a size and context-dependent way. Hence, the L3-  
 524 >L1 connection can potentially modulate how feedback arriving at L1 affects activity  
 525 throughout the column.

526 Besides these ascending size-tuned connections, size information was also relayed via  
527 descending functional connectivity from L3. Driving from L3->L5 showed a surround-  
528 suppressed profile across several frequency bands at latencies between 50 and 107 ms  
529 (Figure 4c). Functional connectivity was overall strongest for stimuli spanning 17° (range:  
530 10-50°), with a suppression strength of 0.59 (SI, range 0.11-0.73). L2/3 pyramidal cells  
531 constitute the main input to L5, and L3 contains apical dendrites from L5 pyramidal cells  
532 (Thomson & Bannister 2003; Xu et al. 2016). Functional synaptic coupling between L3 and  
533 L5 has been previously established using laminar population analysis (Einevoll et al. 2007).  
534 The size-tuned L3->L5 connection coincided with size-tuned MUAe at L3, in line with the idea  
535 that spiking activity in L3 drives postsynaptic potentials at L5 in a context-dependent  
536 manner. At the target layer L5, size-tuned MUAe coincided with this connection, indicating  
537 that the surround-suppressed L3->L5 connection may immediately contribute to surround-  
538 suppressed spiking activity at L5. L5 too is an important recipient of feedback connections  
539 (Coogan & Burkhalter 1990; Markov et al. 2013), suggesting the possibility that this L3  
540 driving modulates the influence of input from other areas on processing in this column.

541 At longer latencies, between 290 and 300 ms (end of epoch), the L3->L4 connection showed  
542 surround suppression in the high gamma band (Figure 4d), in line with known excitatory  
543 projections (Xu et al. 2016). The median center size of this connection was 21° (range: 11 -  
544 27°) with an SI of 0.68 (0.45-0.82). This timing corresponds to the second period of size-  
545 tuned MUAe in L4. While our results are thus consistent with the hypothesis that late L3->L4  
546 driving shapes L4 size-tuned activity, it is likely that other influences at these latencies also  
547 contribute to L4 surround suppression.

548 The relays of surround-suppressed size information from L3 to both L5 and L1, and later to  
549 L4, thus all occurred simultaneously with L3 surround-suppressed MUAe (Figure 2). The co-  
550 existence of surround-suppressed spiking activity and surround-suppressed driving from L3  
551 is consistent with the interpretation that surround-suppressed population activity at L3 has  
552 a major role in orchestrating activity across V1 layers in a context-dependent way.

553 Lastly, the ascending L6->L4 connection briefly showed surround-suppressed size tuning in  
554 the gamma band, with peak driving for stimuli of 31° (range: 19 - 36°) and median SI of 0.5  
555 (0.35- 0.78; Figure 4e). Occurring at 75 ms, considerably later than V1 response onset, this  
556 functional connection might be driven by fast feedback from higher-level areas to L6  
557 (Domenici et al. 1995; Nowak et al. 1997; Zhang et al. 2014). Simultaneously, size-tuned  
558 MUAe was seen at target layer L4, suggesting that L6 driving contributes to size-tuned  
559 activity at L4 at those latencies. The surround-suppressed L6->L4 connectivity might  
560 enhance the gain of visual input in L4 through intracortical circuits (Raizada & Grossberg  
561 2003). In our data, however, the mechanism of this driving remains unclear because L6 MUAe  
562 did not show surround suppression.

563 Taken together, we found that directed functional connectivity strengths from L3, L4 and L6  
 564 resemble surround-suppressed tuning curves that are typically observed for single-units.  
 565 These connections most strongly influenced target layers for stimuli covering the RF and  
 566 showed reduced driving for larger stimuli. L3 in particular, but also L4 and L6, thus effectively  
 567 relay information about stimulus size, and play an active role in coordinating laminar activity  
 568 patterns through parametric variations in connection strengths that depend on spatial  
 569 context.

570

571 **Table 2.** RoG model descriptors per connection, median (min, max) across animals

	SI	Center size	R <sup>2</sup>	Frequency	log B <sub>12</sub>
L3->L1	0.3 (0.1-0.83)	38.57 (15.9-43.98)	0.81 (0.63-0.92)	$\beta, \gamma$	4 (2-9)
L3->L4	0.68 (0.45- 0.82)	21.4 (11.17-26.73)	0.61 (0.57-0.72)	$\gamma$	4 (2-6)
L3->L5	0.59 (0.11- 0.73)	16.58 (10.15-49.4)	0.85 (0.65-0.92)	$\beta, \alpha, \theta, \gamma$	8 (3-13)
L4->L2	0.65 (0.05- 0.89)	23.09 (10.15-40.94)	0.56 (0.53-0.86)	$\beta$	3 (2-5)
L6->L4	0.5 (0.35- 0.78)	30.79 (18.95-36.2)	0.65 (0.51-0.76)	$\gamma$	3 (2-4)

## 572 Dynamic size tuning

573 Previous work has shown that spatial RF properties in V1 can undergo fast dynamics after  
 574 response onset, showing rapid decreases in preferred size and increases in suppression in  
 575 both cat and monkey (Briggs & Usrey 2011; Malone et al. 2007; Wörgötter et al. 1998). We  
 576 therefore investigated whether such coarse-to-fine tuning dynamics occurs in L3 and L4  
 577 MUAe of mouse V1 and whether the size-tuned functional connections from L3 follow this  
 578 dynamics as well.

579 We first investigated center size and SI dynamics for size-tuned MUAe in L4 and L3 relative  
 580 to stimulus onset (Figure 5a). Both L4 and L3 MUAe showed an initial phase with rapidly  
 581 decreasing center sizes and increasing SIs, followed by a phase with stable RF properties. A  
 582 similar two-stage dynamics has previously been shown in cat LGN (Einevoll et al. 2011;  
 583 Ruksenas et al. 2007). To better quantify the observed dynamics and test whether it held  
 584 across mice, we investigated whether center sizes negatively correlated with SI in the initial

585 phase, using linear mixed effects models with owing variable intercepts and slope across  
586 mice. This revealed a consistent inverse relationship between RF center size and SI for L4  
587 MUAe (slope -0.014;  $F(1,371)=17.36$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) and L3 MUAe (slope -0.012;  $F(1,131)=10.04$ ,  
588  $p=0.002$ ). These results demonstrate that a rapid sharpening of tuning-curve profiles in the  
589 first 150 ms occurs reliably across mice.

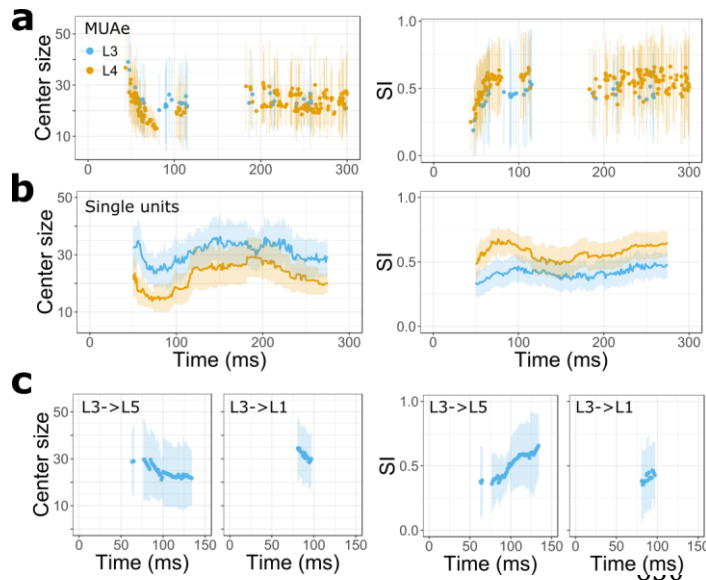
590 We found similar coarse-to-fine tuning when we investigated RF dynamics of single-units  
591 (see Methods, Extracellular recordings). We identified single neurons in L3 and L4 that  
592 showed surround suppression (L3,  $n=35$ ; L4,  $n=29$ ) and used a moving window approach to  
593 determine their RF dynamics, obtaining good RoG model fits (Supplementary Figure 3).  
594 Inspecting RF center size and suppression strength dynamically in 50 ms moving windows,  
595 we found a sharpening of receptive fields between 50 and 100 ms after stimulus onset, with  
596 simultaneously decreasing center sizes and increasing suppression strength (Figure 5b). This  
597 RF sharpening observed in single-units provides a physiological basis for the sharpening  
598 seen in MUAe and functional connections, lending support to the notion that surround-  
599 suppressed MUAe and functional connections qualitatively reflect the underlying activity of  
600 single-units.

601 We finally inspected whether similar dynamics existed for the L3->L5 and L3->L1  
602 connections, which are the most sustained of the surround-suppressed connections (Figure  
603 4). We found that these connections showed similar tuning dynamics as observed in MUAe  
604 and single-units, with decreasing center size and increasing SI between 50 and 150 ms after  
605 stimulus onset (Figure 5c). Like for MUAe, center sizes negatively correlated with SI across  
606 animals for the L3->L5 (-0.03;  $F(1,397)=13.14$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) and L3->L1 connection (-0.02;  $F(1,$   
607  $103)=47.06$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). This sharper tuning of functional connections proceeded in parallel  
608 with sharper tuning of MUAe activity in L3, suggesting that relays of size information to L5  
609 and L1 qualitatively follow the coarse to fine dynamics observed in L3 MUAe.

610 It is remarkable that MUAe, single-units and functional connections showed similar coarse-  
611 to-fine dynamics of tuning parameters, particularly because functional connections were  
612 derived from low frequency LFP signals that reflect a complex mixture of cellular and  
613 postsynaptic currents (Buzsáki et al. 2012; Einevoll et al. 2013). A parsimonious  
614 interpretation of these converging findings is that there is a common local source for this  
615 sharpening in single-unit activity.

616





**Figure 5.**

Dynamic sharpening of V1 RFs. a) Average center sizes (left) and SI (right) for size-tuned L4 and L3 MUAe. Lines reflect 95% confidence intervals across mice. b) Center sizes and SI across single-units in L3 (n=35) and L4 (n=29). Fits were performed for trial-averaged spike rates (bin size of 1ms) using a 50 ms sliding window. Error bars reflect 95% confidence intervals across neurons. c) Average SI and center sizes for functional connectivity from L3. Error bars reflect 95% confidence intervals.

631

## 632 Discussion

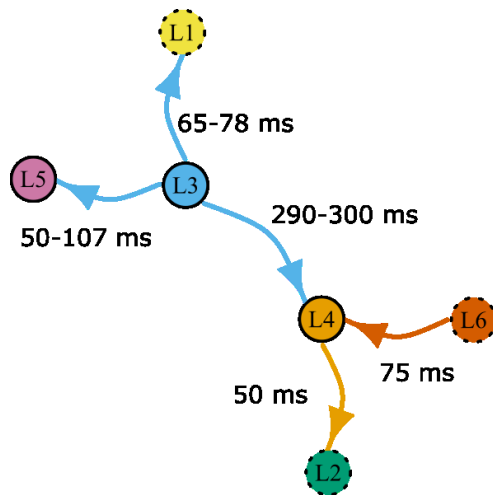
633 We here provide a dynamic view on how spatial integration evolves across cortical layers of  
634 mouse V1 based on a Bayesian model comparison approach applied to laminar multi-unit  
635 activity and inter-laminar functional connectivity strengths. Our analyses reveal that  
636 information about stimulus size and context evolves across time and is dynamically  
637 communicated between cortical layers through a network of size-tuned functional  
638 connections (summarized in Figure 6). These connections, from L3, L4 and L6, parametrically  
639 vary with spatial context, driving activity in target layers L1, L2, L4 and L5 most strongly for  
640 intermediate stimulus sizes while showing reduced influence for larger ones. Amongst these  
641 functional connections, L3 occupies a central role, exhibiting surround suppression in its  
642 single- and multi-unit activity, as well as in its impact on other layers. These findings shed  
643 new light on how laminar activity is coordinated across a cortical column and on the different  
644 functional roles of cortical layers in spatial integration.

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647





**Figure 6. Summary of size-tuned functional connections obtained across time and frequencies.**

Each layer is considered a network node, and nodes are plotted closer together when a connection between them exhibits size tuning. Solid circles indicate layers at which surround-suppressed driving co-occurred with surround suppressed multi-unit activity in the source layer.

In line with previous anatomical and circuit-level results, our functional connectivity analyses reveal a major role for L3 in dynamically orchestrating spatial

659 integration across cortical layers. In visual cortex of many mammalian species, L3 is well  
660 known for its prominent horizontal connectivity (Gilbert & Wiesel 1983; Rockland & Lund  
661 1982), where neurons can extend their axons within the layer beyond their own RF. Being  
662 preferentially connected according to similarity in orientation preference (Ko et al. 2011;  
663 Bosking et al. 1997) makes these pyramidal cells optimally suited to mediate the well-known  
664 orientation dependency of surround modulations (Self et al. 2014; Nelson & Frost 1978). In  
665 addition, the preferential recruitment of SOM+ inhibitory interneurons by L2/3 pyramidal  
666 cells is a circuit motif in accordance with their prominent role in L2/3 surround suppression  
667 (Adesnik et al. 2012) or lateral inhibition (Pluta et al. 2017). Our finding of consistent and  
668 relatively strong surround suppression for considerable durations in L3 multi-unit and  
669 single-unit activity, are in line with this notion of a prominent role of L2/3 in shaping spatial  
670 integration.

671 In addition to exhibiting surround suppressed activity, our functional connectivity analyses  
672 also revealed that L3 coordinates activity in the column by modulating activity in L5, L1 and  
673 L4 according to spatial context. The predominant frequencies of L3 driving were in the beta  
674 and lower gamma band. Gamma band activity has been associated with feedforward streams  
675 at L3 (Bastos et al. 2015; Markov et al. 2013), speaking in favor of a feedforward  
676 interpretation. The L3->L5 connection also showed driving in lower bands, at longer  
677 latencies, that may play a role in feedback from downstream areas (von Stein & Sarnthein  
678 2000). Generally, amongst the size-tuned connections from L3, the L3->L5 driving was most  
679 prominent, and could contribute to establishing surround-suppressed activity in L5, which  
680 occurred there at slightly longer latencies, and was notably briefer and weaker. Such a dual  
681 role of L3 in providing horizontal competition within L3, while driving a less suppressed  
682 signal in L5 is reminiscent of results in somatosensory cortex, where a layer specific  
683 excitation-inhibition ratio creates lateral suppression in L3 and feedforward facilitation in L5  
684 (Adesnik & Scanziani 2010).

685 Remarkably, L5 surround-suppressed activity itself did not parametrically drive activity in  
686 other layers, even though L5 is known to play an important role in propagating activity across  
687 the column (Sakata & Harris 2009; Plomp et al. 2017) and sustaining L2/3 activity, including  
688 its horizontal spread (Wester & Contreras 2012). One would therefore hypothesize that L5,  
689 an output layer with cortico-cortical projections (Gilbert & Wiesel 1979; Harris & Shepherd  
690 2015) and direct projections to subcortical regions (e.g. SC) and the contralateral hemisphere  
691 (Swadlow 1983; Kasper et al. 1994), has little role in providing size- and context-related  
692 information across the cortical column during spatial integration. Similarly, our results  
693 suggest that L4 plays a minor role in orchestrating activity in the column in a context-  
694 sensitive manner. L4 is a crucial relay of afferent activity to other layers, but with the  
695 exception of a brief functional connection to L2, L4 connections did not parametrically reflect  
696 stimulus context, even though L4 activity showed sustained periods of strong surround-  
697 suppression.

698 The parametric relay of size- and context information from L3 to L1 might help determine  
699 how feedback affects ongoing activity in the column. A preserved feature across mammals is  
700 that L1 contains relatively few cell bodies, local and lateral connections, but instead receives  
701 dense feedback projections (Thomson & Bannister 2003; Binzegger et al. 2004; D'Souza &  
702 Burkhalter 2017) and thalamic input (Harris & Shepherd 2015; Rockland 2017). L1 feedback  
703 is thought to be particularly important for far surround modulation (Angelucci & Bressloff  
704 2006; Angelucci et al. 2017). L1 can modulate activity in supra- and infragranular layers  
705 through the apical dendrites of pyramidal cells (Egger et al. 2015; Jiang et al. 2013; Larkum  
706 2013) and likely contributes to feedback-related enhancements of perceptual thresholds and  
707 discrimination performance (Takahashi et al. 2016; Zhang et al. 2014). Specifically, spatially  
708 specific top-down modulation via feedback to L1 might contribute to integration of  
709 information from outside the RF, such as occurring during contour integration and figure  
710 ground segregation (Self et al. 2013; Chen et al. 2017; Liang et al. 2017), and may also help  
711 support perceptual pop-out and segmentation of object boundaries (Angelucci et al. 2017;  
712 Coen-Cagli et al. 2012). We note, however, that in the absence of known L3->L1 excitatory  
713 projections, the observed functional connection could also be an indirect one, or result from  
714 a common top-down mechanism that manifests itself slightly earlier in L3 than L1. These  
715 hypotheses provide interesting directions for future investigations.

716 Our results are based on directed functional connectivity analysis within the Granger  
717 causality framework (Bressler & Seth 2011; Baccalá & Sameshima 2001; Granger 1969). The  
718 multivariate measure of Granger causality used here has a statistical interpretation of  
719 increased predictability between recorded signals that does justice to the directedness of  
720 neural interactions and accounts for their dynamics, but an interpretation in terms of neural  
721 circuits is not immediately warranted (Chen et al. 2017; Seth et al. 2015). While structural

722 and functional connectivity are often closely related, the presence of a functional connection  
723 only indicates that activities systematically covary in time. Likewise, the presence of a  
724 structural connection only implies the potential for interaction (Battaglia et al. 2014), whose  
725 magnitude will depend on synaptic strength and other circuit-level forms of gating (Wang &  
726 Yang 2018). Although functional connectivity does not necessarily equal circuit connectivity,  
727 applying the Granger causality framework to the analysis of LFPs has previously helped  
728 understand the role of thalamocortical interactions in visual attention (Saalmann et al. 2012),  
729 interactions between cortical layers at rest and during stimulation (Bollimunta et al. 2008;  
730 Brovelli et al. 2004; Plomp, Quairiaux, Kiss, et al. 2014; Chen et al. 2017; Liang et al. 2017), as  
731 well as frequency- specific feedforward and feedback interactions between visual areas that  
732 are in excellent agreement with known anatomy (Bastos et al. 2015; van Kerkoerle et al.  
733 2014; Michalareas et al. 2016). One possible limitation is that connectivity analyses based on  
734 LFP signals contain non-local signals through volume conduction: potentials measured at one  
735 place also reflect activity at more distant locations (Kajikawa & Schroeder 2011; Buzsáki et  
736 al. 2012). Although we addressed this by using bipolar signals and an orthogonalized  
737 derivation of connectivity strengths (Trongnetrpunya et al. 2015; Omidvarnia et al. 2014),  
738 bipolar LFPs still can reflect both local spiking activity and post-synaptic potential variations  
739 that may result from projections in the area. In our data, however, the fact that the most  
740 important surround-suppressed connections co-occurred with surround-suppressed multi-  
741 unit activity gives credence to the interpretation that the firing of excitatory populations  
742 gives rise to directed functional interactions with a size-tuned profile. This was further  
743 corroborated by the similar dynamics of RF sharpening observed in functional connections  
744 as well as multi- and single-unit activity. Taken together our results provide a useful dynamic  
745 model of the interdependencies between activity measured at each layer of V1 and of how  
746 spatial context changes these relations.

747 In line with previous findings of receptive field dynamics in monkey and cat (Briggs & Usrey  
748 2011; Malone et al. 2007; Wörgötter et al. 1998; Ruksenas et al. 2007), we show that in mouse  
749 V1 too the spatial receptive fields evolved from broad to sharp spatial tuning within the first  
750 150 ms after stimulation. This dynamic sharpening was not only observed in L3 and L4 MUAe,  
751 but also in single-unit spike rates and functional connection strengths from L3 (Figure 5).  
752 The RF sharpening of activity in L3 seems to be independent of activity elsewhere in the  
753 column, because during this dynamic sharpening, size-specific connections did not target this  
754 layer. Hence, the RF sharpening might be related to known mechanisms within L3, such as  
755 surround suppression arising in supragranular layers through the inhibition of excitatory  
756 cells, via horizontal connections (Adesnik et al. 2012; Ozeki et al. 2009). What could be the  
757 role of such coarse-to-fine visual processing? The size of RFs is known to be contrast-  
758 dependent, such that the observed shrinkage over time suggests that the local processing in  
759 L3 and L4 might perform an enhancement of effective contrast, sharpening the

760 representation of visual space. In line with this, the latencies match those of boundary  
761 detection processes, as observed in macaque V1 (Poort et al. 2016).

762 The fact that surround suppression is not restricted to V1 but present already at earlier  
763 processing stages raises the important question to which degree cortical surround  
764 suppression is inherited from dLGN or the retina. Neurons in mouse retina (Stone & Pinto  
765 1993) and dLGN (Piscopo et al. 2013; Erisken et al. 2014), similarly to those in other  
766 mammals (Alitto & Usrey 2008; Jones et al. 2000; Solomon et al. 2002), have extraclassical  
767 suppressive surrounds, and geniculo-cortical afferents to V1 terminate not only in L4 but also  
768 target supragranular layers (Antonini et al. 1999; Cruz-Martín et al. 2014). Furthermore,  
769 orientation-specific surround modulations of L4 of mouse V1 do not seem to depend on  
770 activity in supragranular layers (Self et al. 2014). Together, this leaves open the possibility  
771 that - in addition to the prominent role of L3 found here - surround suppression in mouse V1  
772 might also heavily depend on subcortical sources.

773 In the past, a number of studies have compared latencies of response onset with those of  
774 suppression onset to differentiate between inheritance and local mechanisms in surround  
775 suppression (Alitto & Usrey 2008). In our data, we observed delays of suppression relative  
776 to response onset of about 10 ms in L4 and L3. Similar delays, albeit of overall larger  
777 magnitude, between response onsets and suppression onsets have been previously reported  
778 in V1 of the anesthetized mouse (Self et al. 2014), and in macaque V1 for uniform patterns  
779 (Knierim & van Essen 1992; Smith et al. 2006). Other studies, however, have found  
780 approximately instantaneous onsets of suppression at response onset (Müller et al. 2003). In  
781 the meantime, it has become clear that the temporal evolution of surround modulation  
782 depends systematically on the strength of surround stimulation (Henry et al. 2013b). Since  
783 most of our main results rely on activity of local populations, which in rodents lack a large-  
784 scale organization according to preferred orientation (Ohki et al. 2005), our stimulus, at least  
785 on average, might indeed provide suboptimal drive to the extraclassical orientation-tuned  
786 surround mechanisms in V1. Together, the latency analysis and the prominent role of L3 in  
787 surround suppression observed here, therefore lend support to the interpretation that  
788 cortical mechanisms dynamically shape V1 spatial integration. We must note, however, that  
789 this evidence is not conclusive, because a delayed onset of suppression in V1 could, in  
790 principle, also be attributed to slowly developing signals inherited from dLGN or even the  
791 retina. Future studies performing a dynamic analysis of simultaneously recorded LGN and V1  
792 activity and comparing the time course of surround suppression are clearly needed to  
793 unequivocally distinguish between these possibilities.

794 Probing MUAe activity time point by time point in the dynamic model comparison analysis,  
795 we did not find consistent evidence for surround-suppressed activity in L2 or L1. We  
796 attribute this lack of surround suppression to the stringent criteria of our dynamic analysis,

797 which required that 6/7 animals show both positive evidence in favor of the RoG model and  
798 positive SI index at a single time point after stimulus onset. This is a conservative approach  
799 to identify which layers consistently exhibit size-tuning across animals that may exclude  
800 points that show more between-animal variability in time. Indeed, time-averaged MUAe in  
801 L1 and L2 did show a surround-suppressed activity profile (Figure 1c), consistent with  
802 previous mouse V1 studies (Nienborg et al. 2013; Self et al. 2014; Vaiceliunaite et al. 2013).  
803 Together, this discrepancy between the dynamic and time-averaged analysis shows that  
804 surround-suppressed activity in L2 and L1 is less consistently time-locked to stimulus onset  
805 than the suppression we dynamically observed in L3, L4 and L5. This in turn suggests that L1  
806 and L2 serve less time-critical functions in spatial processing.

807 During our recordings, mice were awake and placed on an air-cushioned ball which allowed  
808 them to either sit or run, but to maximize the number of trials our analysis was performed  
809 irrespective of behavioral state. It is known that locomotion alters spatial integration in  
810 mouse area V1 (Ayaz et al. 2013) and dLGN (Erisken et al. 2014), increasing the RF center  
811 size and reducing surround suppression. In our experiments, however, effects of locomotion  
812 are unlikely to induce systematic biases, because bouts of locomotion occur spontaneously  
813 across the 11 randomly interleaved stimulus conditions. Having established the basic  
814 laminar profile of surround suppression within our dynamic connectivity analysis  
815 framework, it will be interesting to investigate the influence of behavioral state on laminar  
816 relay of size and context information in future studies.

817 Our results are limited to the ascending and descending relays of size information within a  
818 V1 column. In the future, it will be important to extend our recording approach to multi-  
819 shank probes and determine the relative contributions of vertical and horizontal interactions  
820 in V1 during spatial integration (Constantinople & Bruno 2013; Kätzel et al. 2011; Narayanan  
821 et al. 2015). Our analysis approach would also benefit from being applied to conditions with  
822 layer-specific or interneuron specific perturbations of neural circuits. Such causal  
823 manipulations would strongly constrain the functional connectivity models and provide  
824 further guidance in the interpretation of the model results.

## 825 Funding

826 This work was supported by the Swiss National Science Foundation (PP00P1\_157420 to GP)  
827 and the German Research Council (DFG grant BU 1808/5-1 to LB).

## 828 Acknowledgements

829 We thank Mattia F. Pagnotta for implementing row-normalized OPDC.



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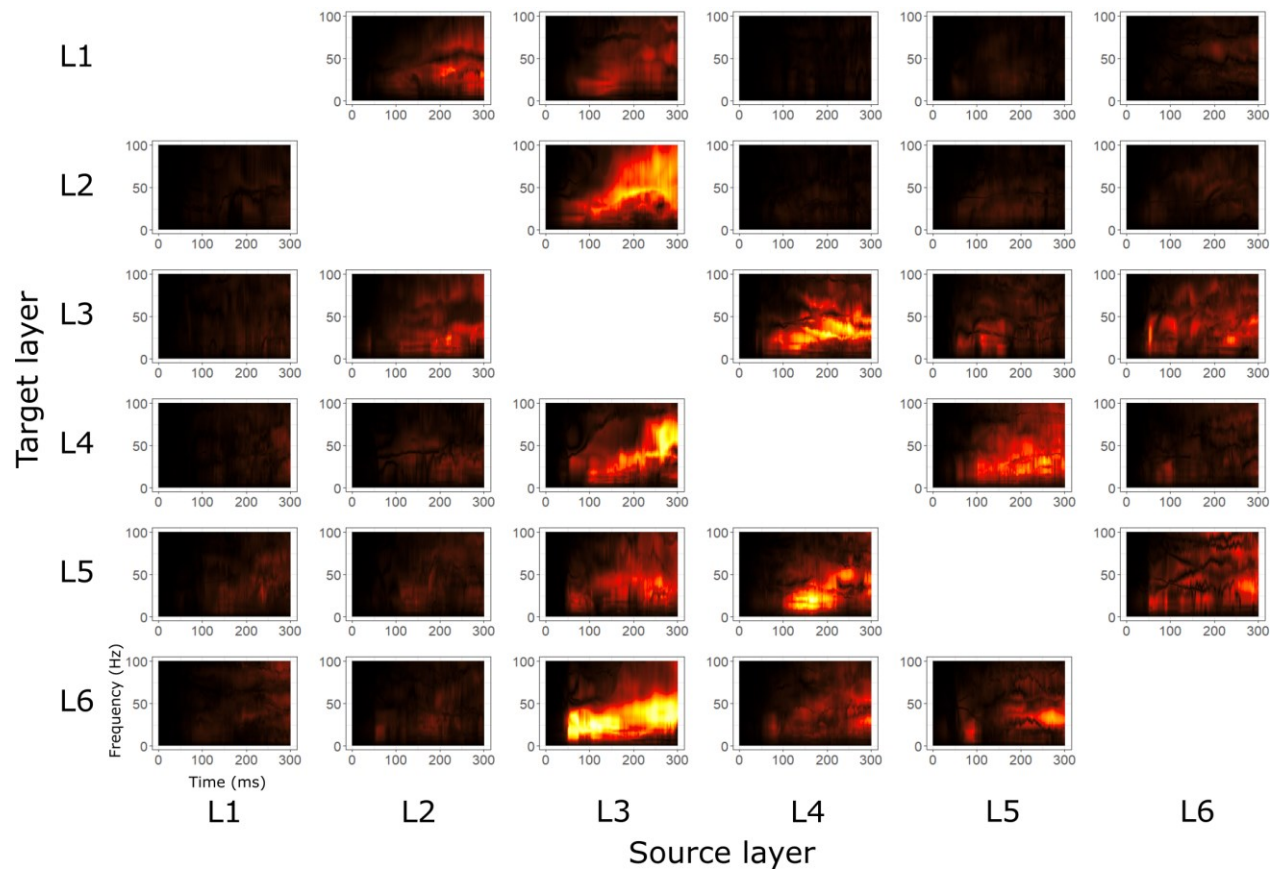
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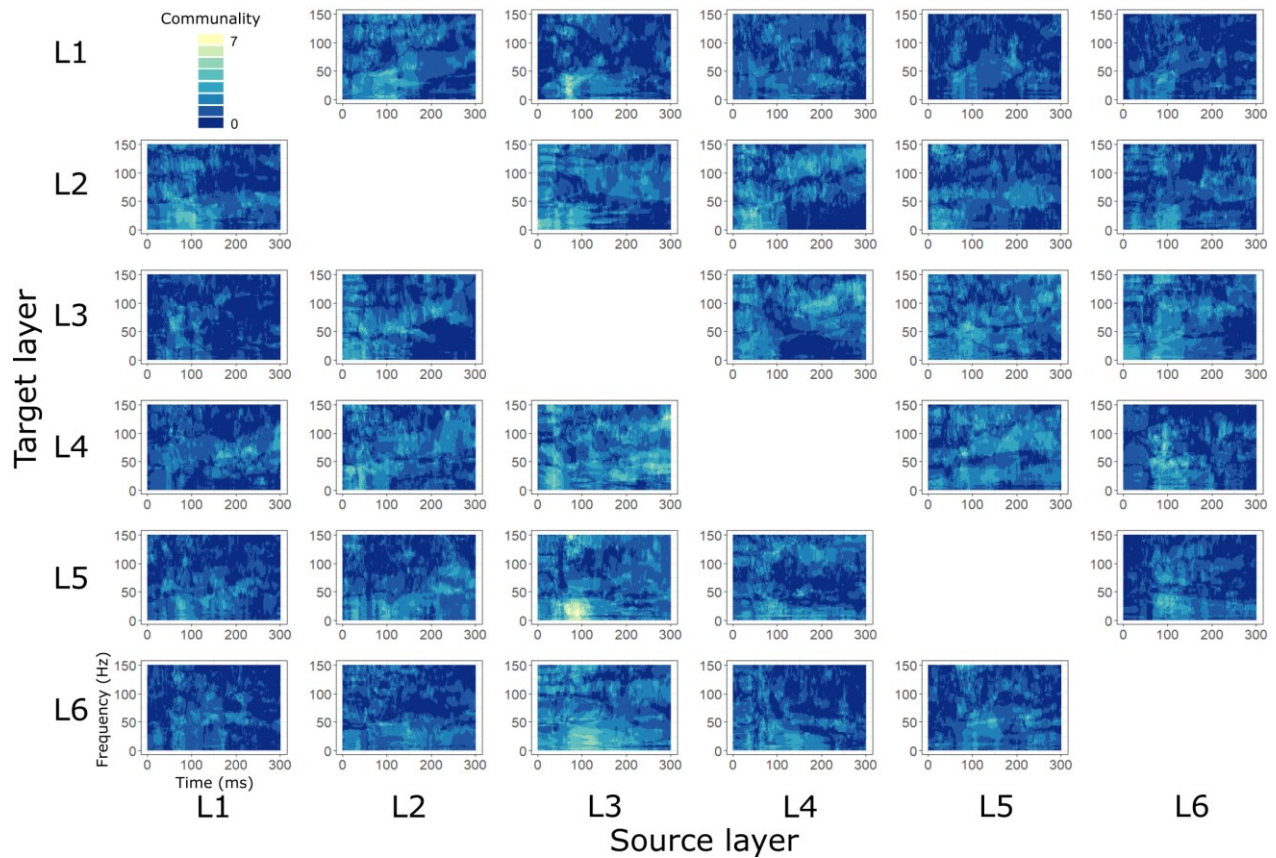
1190 **Supplementary material**

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1192 **Supplementary Figure 1.** Time-frequency plots of directed functional connectivity  
1193 strengths (median across animals) for each directed connection between all layers, in  
1194 response to a 67° grating.  
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1197 **Supplementary Figure 2**

1198 Time-frequency connectivity matrix showing the number of animals (0-7) passing both  
1199 criteria ( $B_{12} > 3$ ,  $SI > 0$ ), for the directed functional connection between all layers.

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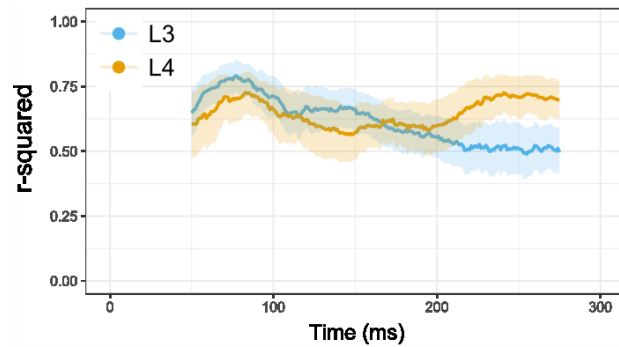
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1212 **Supplementary Figure 3.**

1213 Dynamic single-unit model fits. Average  $R^2$  and 95% confidence intervals for RoG model fits  
1214 of single-unit activity in the moving window analysis in L4 (n=29) and L3 (n=35).

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