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**Research Article: Methods/New Tools | Novel Tools and Methods**

## **In vivo two-photon imaging of dendritic spines in marmoset neocortex**

Two-photon imaging of spines in marmoset cortex

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56

57 **Abstract**

58 Two-photon microscopy in combination with a technique involving the artificial expression  
59 of fluorescent protein has enabled the direct observation of dendritic spines in living brains.  
60 However, the application of this method to primate brains has been hindered by the lack of  
61 appropriate labeling techniques for visualizing dendritic spines. Here, we developed an AAV-  
62 vector-based fluorescent protein expression system for visualizing dendritic spines *in vivo* in the  
63 marmoset neocortex. For the clear visualization of each spine, the expression of reporter  
64 fluorescent protein should be both sparse and strong. To fulfill these requirements, we amplified  
65 fluorescent signals using the transactivator (tTA)-TET responsive element (TRE) system and by  
66 titrating down the amount of Thy1S-promoter-driven tTA for sparse expression. By this method,  
67 we were able to visualize dendritic spines in the marmoset cortex by two-photon microscopy *in*  
68 *vivo* and analyze the turnover of spines in the prefrontal cortex. Our results demonstrated that  
69 short spines in the marmoset cortex tend to change more frequently than long spines. The  
70 comparison of *in vivo* samples with fixed samples showed that we did not detect all existing  
71 spines by our method. Although we found glial cell proliferation, the damage of tissues caused  
72 by window construction was relatively small judging from the comparison of spine length  
73 between samples with or without window construction. Our new labeling technique for two-  
74 photon imaging to visualize *in vivo* dendritic spines of the marmoset neocortex can be applicable  
75 to examining circuit reorganization and synaptic plasticity in primates.

76 **Significance Statement**

77 Investigation of non-human primate brains is important for the understanding of the human  
78 brain. However, because of technical difficulties, several important methods that have been used

79 in rodent studies are not available for primate studies. Two-photon imaging of dendritic spines  
80 has been used in rodent studies, which clarified the basis of neural circuit plasticity, but there has  
81 been no report of the application of this imaging method to primate brains. Therefore, in this  
82 study, we developed an AAV-vector-based fluorescent protein expression system for use in the  
83 studies of the marmoset neocortex. Our approach enabled the sparse yet strong expression of  
84 fluorescent protein in neurons. This labeling technique will be applicable to the research of  
85 circuit reorganization of primate brains.

## 86 **Introduction**

87 Direct observation of fine neuronal morphologies such as dendritic spines in living brains  
88 has been made possible with techniques involving the expression of fluorescent protein in  
89 neurons of living animals in combination with two-photon microscopy. Many researchers prefer  
90 to use transgenic mouse lines such as Thy1-GFP and Thy1-YFP mice for their imaging studies of  
91 dendritic spines, because of the stable and strong expression of fluorescent protein in a  
92 subpopulation of neurons in these lines (Feng et al., 2000; Grutzendler et al., 2002; Trachtenberg  
93 et al., 2002; Holtmaat et al., 2005; Zuo et al., 2005; Kim and Nabekura, 2011; Fu et al., 2012).  
94 The advancement of two-photon microscopy was also a key factor for the application of spine  
95 imaging techniques to living animals (Denk et al., 1990; Denk and Svoboda, 1997). The long-  
96 wavelength light used in two-photon microscopy penetrates a specimen with less scattering than  
97 the short-wavelength light used in other conventional microscopies such as confocal microscopy;  
98 thus, it is possible to observe signals from deep regions in a certain thick tissue.

99 Dendritic spine imaging by two-photon microscopy has almost been exclusively performed  
100 on rodent brains, and there have been only a few studies in which the brains of larger species

101 such as primates and carnivores have been examined. One major reason for the lack of studies of  
102 such animals with larger brains is that there has been no standard method for *in vivo* imaging in  
103 these species. Transgenic monkeys have been generated (Sasaki et al., 2009; Niu et al., 2010),  
104 but no primate model that strongly expresses fluorescent protein for observing signals *in vivo* has  
105 been established. Spine imaging of the primary visual cortex of ferrets using an expression  
106 system with a virus vector was reported (Yu et al., 2011). In the case of primates, one group  
107 studied the neuronal morphology in the primary visual cortex of macaque monkeys by *in vivo*  
108 imaging using virus expression systems (Stettler et al., 2006; Yamahachi et al., 2009), but their  
109 observation and analysis focused not on dendritic spines but on axonal structures. Using virus-  
110 vector based methods for the labeling of neurons to study their morphology is difficult because  
111 the high density of labeled neurons around the injection site makes the background signal  
112 intensity also high, thus making such methods unsuitable for the observation of the morphology  
113 of fine structures such as dendritic spines. Although dendritic spines in the primate cortex have  
114 been extensively analyzed in fixed samples by dye injection methods (Elston et al., 1999; Oga et  
115 al., 2013), there has been no report in which dendritic spines were imaged and analyzed *in vivo*  
116 in primate brains.

117 In this report, we present a method of *in vivo* imaging of dendritic spines in the marmoset  
118 neocortex. The marmoset was chosen as a model animal in our study because the flat surface of a  
119 marmoset brain is advantageous for studying the entire cortical region. We had to overcome  
120 mainly two technical problems in the *in vivo* visualization of dendritic spines in the marmoset  
121 neocortex. We needed a stronger expression of fluorescent protein because the marmoset brain is  
122 more opaque than the brains of smaller animals such as mice. In addition, we needed neurons to  
123 be sparsely labeled, because the dense expression obtained by the virus vector method usually



124 causes a high background signal intensity. We, therefore, used an AAV expression system for  
125 the sparse and strong expression of the fluorescent protein in cortical neurons of marmosets, and  
126 by two-photon microscopy we were able to observe more clearly dendritic spines labeled by  
127 fluorescent proteins.

## 128 **Materials and Methods**

### 129 **Animals**

130 We used six marmosets (all males; body weight, 310–420 g; age, 13–22 months): five  
131 animals for *in vivo* imaging and one animal for dye injection. All the protocols used in this study  
132 were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of National Institutes of  
133 Natural Sciences, Japan. The experiment was also conducted in accordance with the animal care  
134 guidelines of the U.S. National Institutes of Health.

### 135 **Plasmid construction and AAV preparation**

136 The constructs used in this study are schematically shown in Figure 1A. The Thy1S  
137 promoter was cloned from pThy1S-GFP for the sparse labeling of cortical neurons as previously  
138 reported (Ako et al., 2011). Owing to capacity limitations of the AAV vector, we truncated  
139 approximately 1.3 kb of the 5' region of the Thy1S promoter, which is reported to be non-  
140 essential for the activity of the promoter (Vidal et al., 1990; Caroni, 1997). The plasmid  
141 AAV:Thy1S-tTA was constructed by subcloning the DNA fragments containing the truncated  
142 Thy1S promoter and tTA in pAAV-MCS (Agilent Technologies). The plasmid AAV:TRE-  
143 hrGFP was constructed by replacing the tRFP sequence of AAV:TRE-tRFP (Watakabe et al.,  
144 2014) with hrGFP.

145 AAV vectors used in this study have capsids of serotype 1. They were produced in HEK  
146 293 cells using a helper-virus-free system and purified twice by CsCl<sub>2</sub> density gradient  
147 centrifugation and titrated by Q-PCR as described previously (Konishi et al., 2008). The final  
148 preparations obtained were dialyzed against PBS and diluted as described in the results section.  
149 To prevent adhesion of the AAV vector to glass micropipettes, Pluronic-F68 (Sigma-Aldrich)  
150 was added to the vector stock at 0.001%.

### 151 **Virus injection**

152 The marmosets were treated by intramuscular injections of ketamine (20 mg/kg; Daiichi  
153 Sankyo) and xylazine (1 mg/kg; Bayer Health Care). Under deep anesthesia induced and  
154 maintained by isoflurane (1–2%) inhalation (Abbott Laboratories), the head of the animal was  
155 fixed to a stereotaxic apparatus. Pulse rate, SpO<sub>2</sub>, and rectal temperature were continuously  
156 monitored. A small hole was formed in the skull using a dental drill. To inject the viruses into the  
157 cortex, the dura was punctured using the tip of a 27 G needle, through which a glass pipette was  
158 slowly inserted to a depth of 500 μm from the cortical surface. Approximately 0.5 μl of a viral  
159 solution was injected at a rate of 0.1 μl/min. For the imaging of the prefrontal cortex, our  
160 injections were targeted at AP +18.5 mm, 2 mm to the right from the midline. Following the  
161 viral injection, the hole was filled with Spongel, an absorbable gelatin sponge (Astellas Pharma  
162 Inc.), and the scalp was sutured. Then the animal was returned to a cage and remained there until  
163 the imaging sessions started. To prevent infection, ampicillin (40 mg/kg; Meiji Seika Pharma)  
164 was administered intramuscularly. Carprofen (5 mg/kg; Pfizer) was administered intramuscularly  
165 as an analgesic and an anti-inflammatory agent. Ampicillin and carprofen were administered  
166 immediately after surgery and 2 subsequent days. We waited until an adequate level of gene

167 expression was obtained, which took at least 2 weeks.

### 168 ***In vivo* imaging**

169 Before an imaging session, we constructed an imaging window on the head of the animal.  
170 The hole on the skull used for virus injection was expanded to a size of  $\sim 2 \times 3 \text{ mm}^2$  using a  
171 dental drill, and part of the dura above the injection site was deflected and resected  $\sim 1 \text{ mm}$  in  
172 diameter (Fig. 2A). A small coverglass of  $\sim 4 \times 4 \text{ mm}^2$  size was fixed with dental cement on top  
173 of the skull, and the space between the coverglass and the cortex was filled with an agarose gel  
174 (1.5% in ACSF; type III-A, Sigma-Aldrich) to minimize vibration. A custom-made metal plate  
175 with a hole of 11 mm inner diameter was glued to the skull (Figs. 2B and 2C). This plate was  
176 used to fix the head of the animal during the imaging sessions. The same antibiotic, analgesic,  
177 and anti-inflammatory agents as those used for the virus injections were administered  
178 immediately after window construction and 2 subsequent days. We started the imaging sessions  
179 from one to seven days after the imaging window construction (Fig. 2D).

180 *In vivo* two-photon imaging was performed using a FV1000MPE multiphoton laser  
181 scanning microscope (Olympus) and a water immersion objective lens (25 $\times$ ; NA, 1.05;  
182 Olympus). Two-photon excitation (920 nm) was provided by a mode-locked Ti:Sapphire laser  
183 (MaiTai Deep See, Spectra-Physics). Fluorescence was detected using a multi-alkali  
184 photomultiplier tube (PMT) without any filter in front of the PMT. The regions with  
185 fluorescently labeled dendrites were identified without digital zoom ( $508 \times 508 \mu\text{m}^2$  field of  
186 view). Then we used 8 $\times$  digital zoom to acquire images of magnified sites including dendritic  
187 spines at a resolution of  $0.124 \times 0.124 \times 0.2 \mu\text{m}^3$  ( $63 \times 63 \mu\text{m}^2$  field of view). These sites were  
188 identified the following day and the images obtained on two consecutive days were analyzed.

189 Imaged sites were scattered around  $508 \times 508 \mu\text{m}^2$  region and presumed to contain dendrites  
190 originating from different neurons. During imaging sessions, the marmosets were anesthetized  
191 with isoflurane (1–2%). Pulse rate,  $\text{SpO}_2$ , and rectal temperature were continuously monitored.

## 192 **Dye injection**

193 A marmoset was sedated with ketamine hydrochloride (25 mg/kg i.m.; Daiichi Sankyo) and  
194 overdosed with sodium pentobarbital (75 mg/kg i.p.; Dainippon Sumitomo Pharma). The animal  
195 was perfused intracardially with 0.1 M potassium phosphate-buffered saline (pH 7.2), followed  
196 by 4% paraformaldehyde (Merck) in 0.1 M phosphate buffer (PB). A block of tissue was excised  
197 from the PFC. Coronal slices of 250  $\mu\text{m}$  thickness were prepared from the block. Slices were  
198 incubated in 4,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI; Sigma-Aldrich) solution to visualize the cell  
199 bodies. Pyramidal cells were individually injected with 10 mM Alexa 568 (Alexa Fluor 568  
200 Hydrazide in 200 mM KCl, A-10441, Thermo Fisher Scientific) under visual guidance with a  
201 triple-band fluorescence filter (Semrock). The dye-injected neurons were imaged using a Leica  
202 SP-8 confocal laser scanning microscope and a water immersion lens (63 $\times$ ; NA, 1.2; Leica) at a  
203 resolution of  $0.045 \times 0.045 \times 0.336 \mu\text{m}^3$ .

## 204 **Immunohistochemical analysis**

205 Marmosets were sedated with ketamine hydrochloride (25 mg/kg i.m.; Daiichi Sankyo) and  
206 overdosed with sodium pentobarbital (75 mg/kg i.p.; Dainippon Sumitomo Pharma). The animals  
207 were perfused transcardially with 0.9% NaCl and then fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde in 0.1 M  
208 phosphate buffer (pH 7.4). Brain samples were cryoprotected with 30% sucrose/0.1 M phosphate  
209 buffer (pH 7.0) and sectioned at thicknesses of 40–50  $\mu\text{m}$  using a cryostat. For

210 immunofluorescence analysis, the sections were treated with 80% methanol/20% dimethyl  
211 sulfoxide solution (Dent's solution) for more than 30 min, blocked with 10% fetal bovine serum,  
212 2% bovine serum albumin, and 0.5% Triton X100 in TBS, pH 7.4, and then incubated overnight  
213 with a primary antibody to hrGFP (1:4000; Vitality hrGFP rabbit polyclonal antibody; Agilent  
214 Technologies Cat # 240141) at 4° C. After incubation with a Cy2-conjugated secondary antibody  
215 (anti-rabbit Cy2, 1:1000; Jackson ImmunoResearch), the sections were counterstained with  
216 Hoechst 33342 (1:2000; Molecular Probes). For immunostaining with anti-GFAP and Iba1  
217 antibodies, rabbit polyclonal antibodies from Abcam (#AB7260) and Wako (#019-19741) were  
218 used, respectively, as the primary antibodies, followed by staining with Cy3-conjugated anti-  
219 rabbit IgG (1:1000; Jackson ImmunoResearch).

#### 220 **Image analysis**

221 We used imageJ (US National Institutes of Health), NeuroLucida (MBF Bioscience), and  
222 custom-made software written on MATLAB (R2009a, MathWorks) for our image analysis.  
223 Images were processed with a median filter (2.0 pixel radius) to reduce noise. Dendrites and  
224 spines were traced and marked manually in a three-dimensional space. The loss or gain rate of  
225 dendritic spines was calculated as the percentage of spines that appeared or disappeared on day 1,  
226 relative to the total number of spines on day 0. The length of spines was measured from the tip of  
227 the spine to the interface with the dendritic stalk (Ji et al., 2010).

#### 228 **Statistical analysis**

229 All statistical analyses were performed using R (R Development Core Team, 2012). We  
230 used the Wilcoxon rank sum test to compare between groups, and we corrected for multiple

231 comparisons when required. Differences were considered to be significant when  $p < 0.05$ .  
232 Measurements are reported as mean and SD. The values of statistical power were calculated  
233 using G\*Power (<http://www.gpower.hhu.de/en.html>) and presented in Table 1. Experimental  
234 animals were randomly assigned to *in vivo* or *ex vivo* conditions.

## 235 **Results**

### 236 **Sparse and strong expression system for spine visualization**

237 To observe the dendritic spines of neurons in the marmoset cortex *in vivo*, there are two  
238 requirements: strong and sparse expression of fluorescent protein. The scattering of light in  
239 living tissues prevents weak signals from being captured by the detector, particularly in the  
240 marmoset brain, which is more opaque than the mouse brain; thus, a strong expression is  
241 required. Moreover, to observe fine structures such as spines, the expression of fluorescent  
242 protein should be sufficiently strong to adequately label these fine structures. Sparse expression  
243 is also required to reduce the intensity of background signals. Even when the expression level of  
244 fluorescent protein in each neuron is sufficiently strong, a dense expression of fluorescent protein  
245 in neighboring neuronal structures such as dendrites and axons makes the intensity of  
246 background signals high, thus preventing the clear observation of dendritic spines.

247 Our strategy to achieve the requirements described above was to combine the transactivator  
248 (tTA)-TET responsive element (TRE) system and Thy1S promoter (Ako et al., 2011) using two  
249 virus vectors. We constructed two AAV vectors: one had the tTA component under the control  
250 of the Thy1S promoter (AAV:Thy1S-tTA) and the other had hrGFP under the control of TRE  
251 (AAV:TRE-hrGFP). Figure 1A shows a schematic drawing of our virus constructs. Ako et al.  
252 (2011) developed the Thy1S promoter to sparsely label the fine structures of neurons in the

253 mouse neocortex. When expressed by electroporation in the mouse neocortex, the Thy1S  
254 promoter drives the gene expression only in a small number of pyramidal neurons in layers 2/3  
255 and 5. In our expression system, the tTA-TRE system was driven only in Thy1S-positive cells.  
256 Hioki et al. (2009) showed that the tTA-TRE system is effective in amplifying transgene  
257 expression. The tTA-TRE system has two components, one is tTA and the other is TRE. When  
258 tTA binds to the TRE component, the transcription of hrGFP that is under the control of the TRE  
259 component is strongly activated.

260 We injected a mixture of these virus vectors into the marmoset neocortex and first examined  
261 the expression in fixed brain samples (Fig. 1B). We were interested in the density of hrGFP-  
262 positive neurons and the visibility of each dendrite. In our preliminary mouse experiment, we  
263 found that maintaining the concentration of AAV:TRE-hrGFP at  $4.6 \times 10^{12}$  vector genomes  
264 (vg)/ml and reducing the concentration of AAV:Thy1PS-tTA to approximately 1/500 of the TRE  
265 vector ( $8.8 \times 10^9$  vg/ml) leads to the sparse but strong expression of the fluorescent protein (data  
266 not shown). On the basis of this finding, we tested various concentrations of AAV:Thy1S-tTA  
267 relative to that of AAV:TRE-hrGFP in marmosets. At an AAV:Thy1S-tTA to AAV:TRE-hrGFP  
268 concentration ratio of 1:200, the number of hrGFP-positive neurons was relatively high (Fig. 1B,  
269 left). At a concentration ratio of 1:2000, the number of hrGFP-positive neurons was too small  
270 (Fig. 1B, right). An AAV:Thy1S-tTA to AAV:TRE-hrGFP concentration ratio of 1:500 yielded  
271 the most desirable signals in terms of intensity and density (Fig. 1B, middle).

272 We emphasize the importance of amplifying the expression level of hrGFP using the tTA-  
273 TRE system. Simply reducing the titer of the virus leads to a low expression level, thus making it  
274 difficult to observe spines *in vivo*. The combination of titration and amplification was required  
275 for the clear visualization of dendritic spines in the marmoset neocortex.

276 ***In vivo* visualization of dendritic spines in neocortex**

277 To test the feasibility of our viral expression system *in vivo*, we injected the virus into the  
278 marmoset neocortex. After two weeks of expression period, we acquired images from living  
279 animals under anesthesia induced by isoflurane. Figure 3 shows *in vivo* captured images. We  
280 were able to visualize each dendritic spine using our virus constructs (Figs. 3C–E). We observed  
281 the dendritic spines of apical dendrites located in layer 1. We were also able to observe the cell  
282 bodies located at a depth of approximately 300  $\mu\text{m}$  from the pia (Fig. 3F at 220  $\mu\text{m}$  and Fig. 3G  
283 at 330  $\mu\text{m}$ ).

284 We then acquired images repeatedly from the same region over time. Figure 4 shows time-  
285 lapse images of the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex, presumably area 8B or 9. The images of the  
286 same region of the dendrites were taken over time at 24 hour intervals. During these imaging  
287 sessions, the clarity of the imaging window was maintained. Because our samples contained a  
288 relatively small number of hrGFP-positive neurons per injected site, we were able to easily  
289 identify the same dendrite that we observed in the previous imaging session. The overall shapes  
290 of dendrites did not change over this imaging period (Fig. 4A, top and bottom). We marked each  
291 spine on the two images (Day 0 and Day 1) by comparing these images side by side, and  
292 identified the spines that were “gained” or “lost” during this time interval (Fig. 4B and C). In our  
293 experiments, we analyzed 779 spines (12 sites, 34 dendrites, 3 animals, total dendrite length of  
294 2238  $\mu\text{m}$ ); of these spines, 51 were gained (mean across sites, 6.4%; SD, 4.2) and 49 were lost  
295 (mean across sites; 5.6%, SD, 3.6) (Fig. 4D). The loss or gain rate at 1 day interval observed in  
296 this study was similar to those in previous studies of layer 5 neurons of the somatosensory cortex  
297 of transgenic mice ( $\sim$ 12% in 3 days for both loss and gain; Kim and Nabekura, 2011) and layer  
298 2/3 neurons of ferret V1 by the virus vector method ( $\sim$ 4% in 1 day for both loss and gain; Yu et



299 al., 2011). We measured spine length by manual tracing using Neurolucida software, and  
300 examined the difference between the distribution of the spines that persisted and that of the  
301 spines that changed (gained and lost) over the period of imaging. We observed the tendency that  
302 the changed spines were shorter than those that persisted (Wilcoxon rank sum test, changed vs  
303 persisted,  $p = 0.0009^a$ ), which means that shorter spines tend to be gained or lost (Fig. 4E).

304 One of the concerns raised in the two-photon imaging of dendritic spines in mice studies  
305 was the activation of glial cells under invasive procedures. Because our methods in the marmoset  
306 neocortex include invasive procedures of virus injection and dura opening, we checked the  
307 activation of glial cells in our sample of the prefrontal cortex that was used for the *in vivo*  
308 imaging study. We observed the activation of both astrocytes (GFAP, Figs. 5A–C) and  
309 microglia (Iba1, Figs. 5D–F) around the injection site. This observation indicated that  
310 experimenters should carefully choose the experimental paradigm when applying the method  
311 presented in this paper (see Discussion).

### 312 **Comparison between *in vivo* and fixed samples**

313 To evaluate our *in vivo* two-photon microscope images of dendritic spines in the marmoset  
314 neocortex, we compared them with those of fixed samples. We wanted to determine whether we  
315 observed all existing spines or only a subpopulation of these spines. To clarify this point, we  
316 used the method which was employed to identify the morphological differences of basal  
317 dendrites of pyramidal neurons in different cortical areas from various species including  
318 marmosets and macaques (Elston et al., 1999; Oga et al., 2013). We injected the dye Alexa 568  
319 into the neurons in the coronal sections of the marmoset prefrontal cortex, corresponding to the  
320 region we imaged under *in vivo* condition, and observed the spines of apical dendrites of these

321 dye-injected neurons under a confocal microscope (Fig. 6A; one animal, 15 sites, 22 dendrites,  
322 1219 spines, total dendrite length of 1125  $\mu\text{m}$ ). Our injection well labeled dendritic spines in the  
323 distal region of apical dendrites. We quantified the density and shape of spines in our fixed  
324 samples by manual tracing using NeuroLucida software, and we compared the results with our *in*  
325 *vivo* data. The density of spines under our *in vivo* condition (mean, 0.36 spines/ $\mu\text{m}$ ; SD, 0.14)  
326 was significantly lower than that in dye-stained samples (mean, 1.12 spines/ $\mu\text{m}$ ; SD, 0.21)  
327 (Wilcoxon rank sum test with Holm correction,  $p = 0.00038^b$ ; Fig. 6B). The spines observed by  
328 *in vivo* two-photon imaging were shorter than those in dye-stained fixed tissues (Wilcoxon rank  
329 sum test with Holm correction,  $p = 7.6 \times 10^{-12}^c$ ; Fig. 6C). This comparison of results between *in*  
330 *vivo* two-photon imaging and dye staining of fixed samples indicated that the observation of  
331 dendritic spines by the *in vivo* imaging system still has certain limitations.

332       As for the causes of these limitations, there are two possibilities. The most likely possibility  
333 is that because of inefficient visualization, we underestimated the number of spines in *in vivo*  
334 imaging. The second possibility is that the damage caused by AAV injection decreased the  
335 number of spines. To determine which of these two possibilities is true, we  
336 immunohistochemically stained our samples used *in vivo* imaging with the antibody to hrGFP  
337 (IHC samples), and then observed these fixed samples by confocal microscopy (two animals, 15  
338 sites, 20 dendrites, 839 spines, total dendrite length of 951  $\mu\text{m}$ ). Although one may consider the  
339 comparison between the observation *in vivo* and the same dendritic segments identified in fixed  
340 condition, it was practically difficult for us to identify the same dendritic segments in the more  
341 crowded fixed samples because immunohistochemical staining amplified the signals even in  
342 dendrites that express hrGFP weakly. Thus, here we compared the observation *in vivo* with the  
343 dendritic segments at the matching regions from the same samples. The spine density of IHC

344 samples was much higher than that of samples in *in vivo* imaging (Wilcoxon rank sum test with  
345 Holm correction,  $p = 0.00038^d$ ; Fig. 6B), suggesting that we were not able to detect weaker  
346 signals under *in vivo* two-photon imaging. However, the spine density of IHC samples was lower  
347 than that of dye-stained fixed samples (Wilcoxon rank sum test with Holm correction,  $p =$   
348  $0.0028^e$ ), which also suggests that there may have been some losses of spines owing to tissue  
349 damage, as mentioned above. However, the distribution of spine length of IHC samples largely  
350 overlapped with that of dye-stained fixed samples but not with that of *in vivo* samples (Fig. 6C).  
351 This indicates that the window construction only mildly affected dendritic spines (Wilcoxon rank  
352 sum test with Holm correction; IHC vs Dye,  $p = 0.64^f$ ; IHC vs *in vivo*,  $p = 2.2 \times 10^{-10}^g$ ).

### 353 **Discussion**

354 In this study, we established a method of visualizing dendritic spines in the marmoset cortex  
355 by *in vivo* two-photon imaging using a virus expression system. To the best of our knowledge,  
356 this is the first demonstration of two-photon imaging of dendritic spines in the neocortex of a  
357 living primate.

### 358 **Merits of this method**

359 By virus injection, we can control gene expression and monitor the morphology of  
360 transduced neurons without affecting other parts of the brain. Even though transgenic marmoset  
361 lines in which a specific neuronal population expresses fluorescent protein may be available for  
362 *in vivo* imaging in the near future, virus expression systems have their own merits. One  
363 advantage is the shorter time required for their preparation. Generating transgenic primate lines  
364 requires a much longer time. Another merit is region-specific manipulation. The use of the

365 combination of transgenic animals and virus expression systems will be beneficial in future  
366 studies. For example, a specific cell type can be targeted by the transgenic insertion of an  
367 appropriate promoter, and the local expression of a gene may be induced by an appropriate virus  
368 expression system.

### 369 **Technical considerations**

370 Our method presented in this paper still has some limitations. First, there may have been  
371 tissue damage due to our procedures in our study. The dura of the marmoset brain is more  
372 opaque than that of the mouse brain, so we dissected the dura to observe dendritic spines *in vivo*  
373 by two-photon imaging. This procedure may be more invasive than that used in mice. In mice,  
374 some researchers argued that even removing the skull could perturb the underlying brain tissues  
375 and make dendritic spines more unstable (Xu et al., 2007). Indeed as shown in Figure 5, we  
376 observed the activation of glial cells around the injection site. Since a previous study in the  
377 primary visual cortex of the ferret (Yu et al., 2011) was conducted in a comparable condition like  
378 ours (using the Sindbis virus), and examined the activity dependent morphological plasticity of  
379 dendritic spines by comparing active and inactive ocular dominance column, likewise our  
380 methods presented in this paper may be applicable to studies which compare morphological  
381 plasticity in different conditions, such as the level of sensory input or the state of learning.  
382 Therefore, we believe that our method is an important technical improvement towards the  
383 understanding of function of the primate neocortex. However, we have to further improve our  
384 methods so that the tissue could be less damaged. One possible improvement is to construct an  
385 imaging window which permits the longer imaging period, and allows waiting for time until the  
386 activity of glial cells subsides. Another improvement could be developing procedures to acquire

387 images through the dura. In the process of developing the methods described in this paper, we  
388 are on the way to acquire images of axons through the intact dura of the marmoset cortex. In  
389 future studies, the improvement of the method for imaging dendritic spines through the dura will  
390 lead to a less invasive imaging.

391       Second limitation is in detecting weak signals as shown in Figure 6. Therefore, we need to  
392 amplify such signal, or to use a detector with high sensitivity.

### 393 **Importance of examining spines in brains of living primates**

394       The majority of imaging studies of spines were carried out on mice, because many  
395 molecular biological techniques are available for mice. Although experiments using mice are  
396 important, there are certain functions and structures that only primates have acquired during the  
397 course of their evolution. For example, the area specialization of the neocortex is far more  
398 evolved in primates than in rodents. In previous studies, the area-specific gene expression  
399 profiles in the primate neocortex were examined (Yamamori and Rockland, 2006; Yamamori,  
400 2011; Bernard et al., 2012). Genes selectively expressed in association areas (Komatsu et al.,  
401 2005; Takaji et al., 2009; Sasaki et al., 2010) and the primary visual cortex (Takahata et al.,  
402 2006; Watakabe et al., 2009) were reported. Importantly, area-selective expressions of these  
403 genes are not observed in rodents (Yamamori, 2011). In relation to the gene expression patterns  
404 in different cortical areas, previous studies have shown that the density of spines significantly  
405 differs among different areas of the primate neocortex (Elston et al., 1999, 2005; Elston and  
406 Rockland, 2002). There is a smaller difference in the density of spines among different cortical  
407 areas in mice than in primates (Ballesteros-Yáñez et al., 2006). In addition, previous studies by  
408 *in vivo* two-photon imaging of spines in mice showed that there is no significant difference in

409 morphological plasticity among different areas (Zuo et al., 2005). It is, therefore, of great interest  
410 to us to determine whether there is a difference in morphological plasticity among different areas  
411 in the primate brain, which we are going to investigate using the method described in this report.

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505 diverse regions of cerebral cortex. Neuron 46:181–189.

506

### 507 **Figure Legends**

#### 508 **Figure 1. Thy1S promoter drives sparse expression of hrGFP in marmoset cortex**

509 A, Schematic illustration of virus constructs. B, The expression of hrGFP at different  
510 concentrations of virus injection was imaged in fixed brain samples using two-photon  
511 microscopy. Left, low concentration; middle, medium concentration; right, high concentration.  
512 Note the difference in labeled cell density at different concentrations. Maximum intensity  
513 projections of 71, 71, and 51 slices for left, middle, and right panels, respectively at intervals of 5  
514  $\mu\text{m}$ . Scale bar, 100  $\mu\text{m}$ .

#### 515 **Figure 2. Construction of imaging window**

516 A, Craniotomy and durotomy over the target region around the somatosensory cortex. The  
517 exposed target region of the marmoset cortex is shown. Scale bar, 500  $\mu\text{m}$ . B, Illustration of  
518 metal plate used in this study. C, Picture showing the metal plate for fixation, attached to the  
519 marmoset head. Scale bar, 10 mm. D, Experimental schedule.

#### 520 **Figure 3. Dendritic spines imaged by *in vivo* two-photon microscopy**

521 A, Maximum intensity projection of the images acquired *in vivo* two-photon imaging of  
522 marmoset cortex. B, Side view of three-dimensional reconstruction of the images of the same site  
523 shown in A. The depths of the areas shown in F and G are indicated by dashed lines. C, Image  
524 plane near pial surface. D, Magnified image of boxed area in C. E, Magnified image of boxed

525 area in D showing dendritic spines. *F*, Image plane at depth of 220  $\mu\text{m}$  showing soma and basal  
526 dendrites. *G*, Image plane at depth of 330  $\mu\text{m}$ . (Scale bars: A and B, 100  $\mu\text{m}$ ; C, 50  $\mu\text{m}$ ; D, 5  $\mu\text{m}$ ;  
527 E, 2  $\mu\text{m}$ ; F and G, 50  $\mu\text{m}$ .)

528 **Figure 4. Time-lapse imaging of spines in prefrontal cortex**

529 A, The same dendritic regions in the prefrontal cortex were imaged at 24 hour intervals. The top  
530 panel shows an image acquired on day 0 (7 days after craniotomy) and the bottom panel shows  
531 an image acquired on day 1. Scale bar, 5  $\mu\text{m}$ . *B*, The gained spines were identified by manual  
532 inspection of two images acquired at 24 hour intervals. A filled rectangle indicates the position  
533 of an example of a gained spine. Scale bar, 1  $\mu\text{m}$ . *C*, The same as B for lost spines. Filled  
534 triangles indicate the positions of lost spines. *D*, Box plots showing spine turnover rate. The open  
535 circles in box plots indicate mean values. Black dots indicate values for each site. The whiskers  
536 extend to the largest and smallest values within 1.5 times the interquartile range. *E*, Cumulative  
537 distributions of spine length in persisting, gained, and lost populations.

538 **Figure 5. Activation of glial cells**

539 A, Confocal image of a sample immunohistochemically stained with anti-GFAP antibody. Scale  
540 bar, 500  $\mu\text{m}$ . *B*, Magnified image of left boxed area in A, near injection site. *C*, Magnified image  
541 of right boxed area in A, distal region from injection site. Scale bar, 200  $\mu\text{m}$ . *D*, Confocal image  
542 of sample immunohistochemically stained with anti-Iba1 antibody. Scale bar, 500  $\mu\text{m}$ . *E*,  
543 Magnified image of left boxed area in C, near injection site. *F*, Magnified image of right boxed  
544 area in C, distal region from injection site. Scale bar, 200  $\mu\text{m}$ .

545 **Figure 6. Comparison of dendritic spines between *in vivo* and *ex vivo* observations**

546 A, Confocal images of *ex vivo* dye-injected samples. Scale bars: top, 100  $\mu\text{m}$ ; bottom, 5  $\mu\text{m}$ . B,  
 547 Box plots showing spine densities in *in vivo* and *ex vivo* populations. The open circles in box  
 548 plots indicate mean values. Black dots indicate values for each site. The whiskers extend to the  
 549 largest and smallest values within 1.5 times the interquartile range. C, Spine densities of *in vivo*,  
 550 dye-injected, and IHC samples. D, Cumulative distribution of spine length under *in vivo* and *ex*  
 551 *vivo* conditions.

552 **Table**

553 **Table 1. Statistical table**

	Data structure	Type of test	Power
a	Normality not assumed	Wilcoxon rank sum test	0.51
b	Normality not assumed	Wilcoxon rank sum test with Holm correction	1.00
c	Normality not assumed	Wilcoxon rank sum test with Holm correction	0.97
d	Normality not assumed	Wilcoxon rank sum test with Holm correction	1.00

e	Normality not assumed	Wilcoxon rank sum test with Holm correction	0.79
f	Normality not assumed	Wilcoxon rank sum test with Holm correction	0.51
g	Normality not assumed	Wilcoxon rank sum test with Holm correction	1.00

554













