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Characterizing cortex-wide dynamics with wide-field calcium imaging

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28 **Abstract**

29 The brain functions through coordinated activity among distributed regions. Wide-field calcium imaging,
30 combined with improved genetically-encoded calcium indicators, allows sufficient signal-to-noise ratio
31 and spatiotemporal resolution to afford a unique opportunity to capture cortex-wide dynamics on a
32 moment-by-moment basis in behaving animals. Recent applications of this approach have been
33 uncovering cortical dynamics at unprecedented scales during various cognitive processes, ranging from
34 relatively simple sensorimotor integration to more complex decision-making tasks. In this review, we will
35 highlight recent scientific advances enabled by wide-field calcium imaging in behaving mice. We then
36 summarize several technical considerations and future opportunities for wide-field imaging to uncover
37 large-scale circuit dynamics.

38 **Introduction**

39 The brain is a modular structure in which communication across multiple regions functions to drive
40 behavior and cognition. The emergent properties of such macroscopic interactions cannot be deduced
41 simply by characterizing individual brain regions separately. Therefore, to better understand how the
42 brain functions as a whole, it is critical to record from multiple brain regions simultaneously. Wide-field
43 functional imaging is well-suited for this purpose. In systems neuroscience, wide-field calcium imaging
44 has been used to record activity across broad brain areas simultaneously through one-photon excitation
45 (Cardin et al., 2020). Although this technique normally does not resolve single cells, it enables
46 simultaneous capturing of neural dynamics across brain areas with a sufficient spatial and temporal
47 resolution to resolve behaviorally relevant information (see Table 1 for comparisons of various large-
48 scale imaging modalities). This review will mainly focus on macroscale wide-field calcium imaging
49 applied to most of the dorsal cortex in mice. Similar approaches are also called ‘mesoscale’ and
50 ‘mesoscopic’, often emphasizing the spatial resolution that can resolve subregions within individual brain
51 areas but does not achieve single-cell resolution.

52 Wide-field functional imaging has traditionally been achieved by measuring the ‘intrinsic signal’ or using
53 fluorescent voltage-sensitive dyes. Intrinsic signals are changes in optical reflectance caused by changes
54 in blood volume and oxygenation which correlate with local neural activity (Berwick et al., 2005; Ma et
55 al., 2016b; Mateo et al., 2017). Unlike intrinsic signals, voltage-sensitive dyes serve as direct indicators of
56 neural activity by responding to membrane potential changes; furthermore, they provide a higher temporal
57 resolution owing to their faster kinetics (Orbach et al., 1985; Grinvald and Hildesheim, 2004). Although
58 both approaches have been used to characterize large-scale functional properties of cortex (Blasdel and
59 Salama, 1986; Grinvald et al., 1986; Frostig et al., 1990; Bonhoeffer and Grinvald, 1991; Prechtl et al.,
60 1997; Mohajerani et al., 2010), their ability to capture cortical dynamics is limited due to relatively low
61 signal-to-noise ratio (SNR). Therefore, extracting activity patterns often relies on averaging over repeated
62 measurements, ignoring the variability in moment-by-moment interactions between cortical regions.

63 In recent years, the application of wide-field imaging in systems neuroscience has been revolutionized
64 with the improvement of genetically-encoded fluorescent indicators. These engineered proteins change
65 the fluorescence intensity in response to a variety of neuronal events, including transmembrane voltage,
66 intracellular calcium concentration, vesicle release, and changes in neurotransmitter concentration (Lin
67 and Schnitzer, 2016; Sabatini and Tian, 2020). Among these protein sensors, genetically-encoded calcium
68 indicators, especially the GCaMP family (Tian et al., 2009; Akerboom et al., 2012; Chen et al., 2013; Sun
69 et al., 2013; Yang et al., 2018b; Dana et al., 2019), have become a standard choice to visualize neural
70 activity in both one-photon and multi-photon imaging. GCaMP fluorescence is sensitive to changes in
71 intracellular calcium dynamics that are dominated by action potentials and thus reports neuronal spiking
72 activity with high SNR. Genetic encoding of GCaMP also enables stable expression over time for
73 longitudinal recordings. These advantages of GCaMP allow wide-field calcium imaging to overcome the
74 difficulties often encountered with intrinsic signal imaging and voltage-sensitive dye imaging, making it
75 an attractive approach to characterize large-scale cortical dynamics in behaving animals.

76 Several studies have conducted one-photon calcium imaging with GCaMP at a mesoscale level with the
77 field of view covering several adjacent cortical regions in adult animals (Vanni and Murphy, 2014;
78 Niethard et al., 2016; Wechselblatt et al., 2016; Chen et al., 2017; Zhuang et al., 2017). This approach has
79 also been used to investigate the developing circuits in both cortex and subcortical regions (Ackman et al.,
80 2012; Burbridge et al., 2014; Gribizis et al., 2019). Meanwhile, a growing list of studies use wide-field
81 calcium imaging to characterize cortical activity at a macroscopic level with a field of view encompassing
82 most of the mouse dorsal cortex (Fig. 1). Such studies have deepened our understanding of cortex-wide
83 dynamics in various cognitive processes, ranging from relatively simple sensorimotor integration to more
84 complex decision-making tasks (Allen et al., 2017; Makino et al., 2017; Gilad et al., 2018; Musall et al.,
85 2019; Pinto et al., 2019; Shimaoka et al., 2019; Gilad and Helmchen, 2020; Salkoff et al., 2020). In this
86 review, we first focus on recent studies performing wide-field calcium imaging in behaving mice. Using
87 these example studies, we highlight the versatility of wide-field calcium imaging for revealing novel
88 insights into various questions. We then discuss several technical considerations for wide-field calcium
89 imaging. Finally, we discuss future opportunities for the development and application of wide-field
90 imaging to uncover large-scale circuit dynamics.

91 **Propagation of cortical activity in sensorimotor integration**

92 Generating appropriate actions requires integrating sensory information from the environment, and such
93 sensorimotor processing often recruits distributed brain regions to achieve precise sensory perception,
94 action selection, and movement execution. The spatiotemporal dynamics of large-scale cortical activity
95 during sensorimotor transformation have been studied extensively in the rodent whisker system (Ferezou
96 et al., 2007; Matyas et al., 2010; Sreenivasan et al., 2016; Kyriakatos et al., 2017; Gilad et al., 2018). A
97 series of studies using wide-field voltage-sensitive dye imaging has revealed that a single whisker
98 deflection evokes a highly distributed cortical sensory response, starting in barrel cortex and then
99 propagating to primary motor cortex, to drive whisker movements (Ferezou et al., 2007; Matyas et al.,
100 2010; Kyriakatos et al., 2017). The spread of the sensory response is attenuated during active whisking,

101 when the animal's ability to detect weak stimuli is impaired, suggesting that the distributed sensory
102 response is dynamically modulated by ongoing behavior (Ferezou et al., 2007; Kyriakatos et al., 2017).
103 With wide-field calcium imaging, Gilad and colleagues further investigated the macroscopic cortical
104 dynamics under different behavior strategies in a whisker-based texture discrimination task with delayed
105 actions to report the choice (lick or no lick). During the delay period between the texture sensation and
106 the chosen action, the activation of different cortical regions, especially the secondary motor cortex (M2)
107 and a posterior cortical region area P, was contingent on the behavioral strategies animals deployed to
108 solve the task. When mice took an active strategy—engaging their body towards the approaching
109 texture—M2 showed sustained activity during the delay period, holding information about the future
110 action. In contrast, in mice using a passive strategy in which they quietly awaited the texture touch, area P
111 displayed enhanced activity during the delay period, holding information about the stimulus identity.
112 Furthermore, optogenetic inactivation of M2 and area P during the delay period led to impairment in
113 behavioral performance during active and passive strategies, respectively. These results support the model
114 that cortical activity can be dynamically routed to different regions to hold the task-relevant information
115 before converging to similar chosen actions (Gilad et al., 2018). It is worth noting that the unbiased
116 observation with wide-field calcium imaging revealed a novel role of area P in texture discrimination.
117 Area P has been mainly implicated in visual processing in previous literature (Garrett et al., 2014; Zhuang
118 et al., 2017), and its function in tactile texture discrimination suggests that it may be generally involved in
119 processing information related to object identity (Gilad et al., 2018). With wide-field imaging, these
120 studies provide the first glimpse of the macroscopic activity pattern during sensorimotor integration and
121 demonstrate its fundamental flexibility even in simple sensorimotor processing.

122 **Distributed encoding of different types of information in cortex**

123 The distributed activation of many brain areas has been observed in various sensorimotor tasks (Goard et
124 al., 2016; Allen et al., 2017; Kyriakatos et al., 2017; Makino et al., 2017; Gilad et al., 2018; Shimaoka et
125 al., 2019; Steinmetz et al., 2019; Hattori et al., 2019; Musall et al., 2019; Pinto et al., 2019; Gilad and

126 Helmchen, 2020; Salkoff et al., 2020), however, systematic optogenetic inactivation generally localizes
127 behavioral effects to only a few regions (Guo et al., 2014; Goard et al., 2016; Allen et al., 2017; Pinto et
128 al., 2019; Zatzka-haas et al., 2020). Therefore, it is important to resolve the information represented in each
129 cortical region and its relevance to the ongoing behavior. Compared to wide-field imaging using intrinsic
130 signals or voltage-sensitive dyes, the higher SNR of wide-field calcium imaging enables a detailed
131 examination of information encoded in cortical activity using regression and decoding analyses on a trial-
132 by-trial or moment-by-moment basis, without averaging out the behaviorally relevant variability (Allen et
133 al., 2017; Gilad et al., 2018; Musall et al., 2019; Pinto et al., 2019; Salkoff et al., 2020; Zatzka-haas et al.,
134 2020). By monitoring a variety of behavioral information and task events encoded in cortex-wide activity,
135 researchers are able to systematically relate behavioral processes to neural activity (Musall et al., 2019;
136 Shimaoka et al., 2019; Salkoff et al., 2020; Zatzka-haas et al., 2020).

137 Task-relevant information, such as sensory stimuli and choice, is represented in distributed but specific
138 sets of cortical regions, generating distinct cortical activity patterns during task performance (Gilad et al.,
139 2018; Musall et al., 2019; Pinto et al., 2019; Salkoff et al., 2020; Zatzka-haas et al., 2020). Furthermore,
140 the cortical activity pattern is modulated by task demands. Tasks with complex cognitive demands evoked
141 activity profiles that were more different across cortical regions and engaged more spatially distributed
142 information processing in the cortex (Pinto et al., 2019). For example, the encoding of sensory and choice
143 information was more distributed in evidence-accumulation or memory-guided tasks than simple
144 perceptual decision-making tasks (Pinto et al., 2019; Salkoff et al., 2020; Zatzka-haas et al., 2020). The
145 widespread cortical involvement in more demanding tasks was further confirmed with optogenetic
146 inactivation (Pinto et al., 2019). These results suggest that the representation of task-relevant information
147 in the large-scale cortical network is dynamically modulated by the cognitive processes required in
148 different tasks, and more complex cognitive processes engage more spatially distributed computations
149 across the cortex.

150 In contrast to task-relevant information, movement is represented in widespread areas of the dorsal cortex
151 regardless of the task complexity (Musall et al., 2019; Shimaoka et al., 2019; Salkoff et al., 2020; Zatzka-
152 haas et al., 2020) and learning stage (Musall et al., 2019). The widespread dominance of movement-
153 related information in cortex has also been observed in spontaneous activity recorded with two-photon
154 calcium imaging and in electrophysiological data collected from multiple brain regions during task
155 performance (Steinmetz et al., 2019; Stringer et al., 2019). The prevalent encoding of movement can
156 precede movement onset, arising in the primary motor cortex and expanding to the rest of cortical regions
157 before movement (Zatzka-haas et al., 2020), suggesting an origin from efference copy of the motor
158 command rather than sensory feedback generated by the movement. Further investigation revealed that
159 uninstructed movements, which were not required for the task but spontaneously made by the animals,
160 better explained the trial-by-trial variability in cortex-wide activity than instructed movements and task
161 events. Meanwhile, uninstructed movements could also become correlated with instructed movements
162 and stereotypically occurred around task events, affecting the trial-averaged neural activity (Musall et al.,
163 2019). Although the function of such prevalent encoding of movements, if any, needs further
164 investigation, the profound impact of movements on neural activity has raised the importance of careful
165 behavioral monitoring in the interpretation of neural activity, especially for choices associated with
166 asymmetric motor outputs (e.g., Go/NoGo tasks).

167 **Learning-related dynamics in macroscopic cortical activity**

168 Learning-induced plasticity has been under intense scrutiny with electrophysiological recordings and two-
169 photon calcium imaging (Costa et al., 2004; Peters et al., 2014; Makino and Komiyama, 2015; Grewe et
170 al., 2017). Most of these investigations have focused on the plasticity of local circuits in only one or a few
171 brain regions, omitting one important piece of the puzzle: the interaction across many brain regions
172 during learning. Taking advantage of the stable expression of genetically-encoded calcium indicators over
173 time, several recent studies have performed longitudinal wide-field calcium imaging to investigate
174 learning-related macroscopic dynamics. (Makino et al., 2017; Musall et al., 2019; Gilad and Helmchen,

175 2020). Makino and colleagues systematically characterized the reconfiguration of cortex-wide activity
176 during motor learning. Consistent with what we have discussed in previous sections, motor learning
177 evoked distributed activation of most of the cortex, forming a macroscopic sequential activity. With
178 learning, this macroscopic sequence of activity during movement execution became more temporally
179 compressed and reproducible from trial to trial, suggesting that more efficient and reliable signal
180 transmission across cortical regions evolves as a function of learning. At the same time, learning rerouted
181 the cortical activity flow. With learning, a novel activity stream originated from M2 and flowed to the rest
182 of the cortex, and the activity of M2 became predictive of the activity of other cortical regions on a
183 moment-by-moment basis. The novel function acquired by M2 during learning was further confirmed
184 with perturbation experiments. Bilateral M2 inactivation with muscimol in expert animals reversed both
185 the cortical dynamics and behavioral performance towards the naive stage of learning, suggesting an
186 indispensable role of M2 in coordinating cortex-wide dynamics for learned behavior (Makino et al., 2017).

187 The reorganization of cortex-wide activity is not unique to motor learning. Gilad and colleagues reported
188 a spatiotemporal refinement of cortex-wide activity flow in an associative learning task, where mice
189 learned to report different textures through licking. At the early stage of learning, task engagement
190 induced a general suppression in association cortices in the interval between the auditory cue signaling
191 the trial start and the whisker-texture touch (the ‘pre-period’). As learning proceeded, activation increased
192 in rostro-lateral cortex (part of the posterior parietal cortex) and the barrel cortex during the pre-period,
193 building up an anticipatory activity stream arising in rostro-lateral cortex and flowing to the barrel cortex
194 immediately. The specific enhancement of task-related cortical activation emerged in parallel with
195 improved task performance and could contribute to the improved discrimination between different
196 textures (Gilad and Helmchen, 2020). The cortex-wide dynamics observed in different learning tasks
197 demonstrate that the learning-induced plasticity is not only confined to individual cortical regions
198 separately, but also involves cortex-wide changes in the interaction between regions. Such reconfiguration
199 of the large-scale cortical network during learning often involves association cortices and eventually

200 produces more efficient processing of relevant information and more stable representations of learned
201 behaviors.

202 **Multimodal recordings with wide-field calcium imaging**

203 *Combining wide-field calcium imaging with complementary imaging modalities*

204 Although wide-field calcium imaging has revealed many novel features of macroscopic cortical dynamics,
205 its current applications are still restricted by two major factors: the lack of single-cell resolution and
206 limited recording depth in brain tissue. These limitations can be mitigated by combining wide-field
207 calcium imaging with other imaging modalities, such as two-photon calcium imaging and fMRI (Barson
208 et al., 2020; Lake et al., 2020). Barson and colleagues successfully performed simultaneous wide-field
209 and two-photon calcium imaging in awake mice. To avoid interference between the two imaging
210 modalities, the light path of two-photon calcium imaging was redirected through a microprism mounted
211 on the cortical surface. This multimodal setup is particularly advantageous for investigating the
212 relationships between individual neurons and the entire cortex. For example, Barson and colleagues found
213 that the activity of individual neurons in the same cortical region coincided with diverse cortex-wide
214 activity patterns, such that different neurons correlated with different cortex-wide activity patterns. The
215 activity of neighboring neurons can couple with distinct cortical activity patterns, which may arise from
216 different anatomical connectivity. Furthermore, the association between the activity of individual neurons
217 and cortex-wide activity can be modulated by behavioral states (Barson et al., 2020). These results
218 suggest diverse and dynamic associations between local and global neural networks, where information
219 can be dynamically routed depending on behavioral contexts and cognitive processes.

220 To complement the limited accessibility in the recording depth of wide-field calcium imaging, Lake and
221 colleagues combined wide-field calcium imaging and fMRI, which allows simultaneous recording of
222 large-scale cortical and subcortical activity. They found that calcium signals from excitatory neurons
223 partially explained the variance in fMRI BOLD signals. Since the fMRI BOLD signal is an indiscriminate

224 representation of integrated brain activity while wide-field calcium imaging can achieve cell-type
225 specificity, this multimodal recording setup could be instrumental in quantifying the contributions of
226 different cell types to the fMRI BOLD signal (Lake et al., 2020).

227 *Combining wide-field calcium imaging with electrophysiological recordings*

228 The relatively simple surgical preparation and imaging setup make wide-field calcium imaging a feasible
229 platform to be combined with electrophysiological recordings. To minimize obstruction of the field of
230 view in wide-field imaging, this combination can be achieved by either inserting a traditional probe (e.g.,
231 glass pipette or silicon probe) at an angle (Xiao et al., 2017; Clancy et al., 2019; Peters et al., 2021) or
232 using a flexible transparent probe (Liu et al., 2021). This multimodal recording setup has been effective in
233 investigating the relationships between cortical or subcortical single-neuron activity and large-scale
234 cortical activity (Xiao et al., 2017; Clancy et al., 2019), as well as the communication between the cortex
235 and subcortical regions (Liu et al., 2021; Peters et al., 2021). Consistent with observations from
236 simultaneous wide-field and two-photon calcium imaging (Barson et al., 2020), multimodal recordings
237 combining wide-field calcium imaging with electrophysiological recordings revealed that the cortex-wide
238 activity patterns associated with single cortical or subcortical neurons were variable from neuron to
239 neuron and modulated by behavior states (Xiao et al., 2017; Clancy et al., 2019).

240 A more systematic characterization of the functional mapping between cortex and subcortical regions was
241 recently achieved with the Neuropixel probe, which significantly boosted the sampling power of
242 electrophysiological recordings. By simultaneously recording in the cortex with wide-field calcium
243 imaging and in the striatum with Neuropixel probes, Peters and colleagues revealed a topographical
244 mapping between cortical and striatal activity. This functional mapping was consistent with the
245 anatomical corticostriatal projections and independent of the animal's behavior states, suggesting that
246 corticostriatal projections reliably propagate cortical activity to the associated striatal regions regardless
247 of the behavioral state (Peters et al., 2021).

248 Besides functional mapping, pairing wide-field calcium imaging with electrophysiological recordings can
249 capture real-time interactions between cortex and subcortical regions. Liu and colleagues characterized
250 the coordination between the cortex and the hippocampus during awake hippocampal sharp-wave ripples
251 using a newly developed flexible transparent probe (Neuro-FITM). They found that diverse patterns of
252 cortex-wide activity accompanied sharp-wave ripples. In contrast to the conventional view that cortical
253 activity is mainly triggered by hippocampal sharp-wave ripples, the cortical activation preceded
254 hippocampal sharp-wave ripples in a majority of cases. Furthermore, the ongoing cortical patterns could
255 be decoded from the spiking activity of hippocampal neuron populations, indicating a predictable
256 relationship between cortical and hippocampal activity patterns. These results support the model that the
257 hippocampus and the cortex interact during sharp-wave ripples in a selective and diverse manner at the
258 macroscale (Liu et al., 2021).

259 Combining wide-field calcium imaging and other recording modalities extends the application of wide-
260 field calcium imaging in at least two aspects. First, it bridges the gap between neural activity at different
261 spatial scales and helps study how local circuits relate to larger neural networks (Xiao et al., 2017; Clancy
262 et al., 2019; Barson et al., 2020). As typical two-photon calcium imaging and electrophysiological
263 recordings often focus on a single brain area, investigations of the relationship between individual
264 neurons and the larger brain network will contribute to a more comprehensive interpretation of local
265 neural dynamics. Second, it compensates for the limited accessibility in the recording depth of wide-field
266 calcium imaging and offers an attractive platform to investigate the dynamics of large-scale neural
267 networks spanning the cortex and subcortical regions during various cognitive processes (Lake et al.,
268 2020; Liu et al., 2021; Peters et al., 2021).

269 **Technical considerations of wide-field calcium imaging**

270 Although wide-field calcium imaging is a powerful tool for monitoring large-scale cortical dynamics and
271 the technique per se is relatively simple to set up using conventional wide-field microscopes, several
272 considerations should be kept in mind in the implementation of wide-field calcium imaging. First, wide-

273 field calcium signals are likely dominated by activity from superficial cortical layers due to the strong
274 scattering of both excitation and emission light in brain tissue. In one-photon excitation, the intensity of
275 excitation light (~480 nm) of GCaMP already drops to ~10% at a depth of 200 μm (Yizhar et al., 2011),
276 suggesting that most signals come from cortical layer 1 and layer 2/3. Second, as wide-field calcium
277 imaging does not possess single-cell resolution, the signal in each pixel is an integration of both somatic
278 and neuropil activity. The latter mainly consists of activity from the dense neuropils in layer 1, including
279 dendrites from local neurons whose somata reside in layers 2/3 and 5, as well as axons innervating these
280 layer 1 dendrites. Although the majority of wide-field calcium signals reflect local activity (Makino et al.,
281 2017), the contributions of long-range axonal projections are not negligible. Soma-targeting of GCaMP
282 would ensure a cleaner representation of local neural activity in future studies (Chen et al., 2020;
283 Shemesh et al., 2020).

284 In addition, the raw fluorescence signal of wide-field calcium images is contaminated by hemodynamic
285 changes. The excitation and emission wavelengths of GCaMP reside in the absorption spectrum of oxy-
286 and deoxyhemoglobin, so changes in blood oxygenation can contaminate measures of GCaMP
287 fluorescence signals. Currently, there are several methods available to correct hemodynamic
288 contamination. For example, using a secondary wavelength of light allows the estimation of reflectance
289 changes caused by hemodynamics, which can then be used for a regression-based subtraction of
290 hemodynamic signals (Ma et al., 2016a; Wekselblatt et al., 2016; Valley et al., 2020). Low-pass filtering
291 of wide-field signals has also been used to reduce hemodynamic contamination, as hemodynamic artifacts
292 are the strongest in the frequency range corresponding to the heartbeat (Vanni and Murphy, 2014; Xiao et
293 al., 2017). Another analytical correction for hemodynamic signals is to extract hemodynamic components
294 using principal component analysis followed by independent component analysis, and reconstructing the
295 corrected wide-field signals from the remaining components that reflect neural activity (Makino et al.,
296 2017). Alternatively or in addition, repeating the same experiments in animals expressing activity-
297 insensitive GFP can be used as a control to test whether the observed wide-field signals are mainly

298 attributable to neural activity instead of hemodynamic artifacts (Vanni and Murphy, 2014; Wekselblatt et
299 al., 2016).

300 The temporal resolution of wide-field calcium signals is limited by the relatively slow kinetics of existing
301 calcium indicators. For example, GCaMP6f failed to track synchronous population activity beyond 40 Hz
302 (Li et al., 2019). Deconvolution of wide-field calcium signals can improve the temporal resolution. The
303 heterogeneous spiking activity of many neurons contributing to wide-field calcium signals makes it
304 difficult to generate a general deconvolution algorithm, but attempts are being made to provide the ground
305 truth by simultaneous electrophysiological recordings in the cortex during wide-field calcium imaging
306 (Stern et al., 2020; Peters et al., 2021).

307 Another issue of consideration arises from parcellation methods used to define cortical regions, as
308 different methods can generate very different results (Barson et al., 2020; Lake et al., 2020). The most
309 common method is to segment the cortex based on an anatomical reference atlas (Wang et al., 2020). The
310 advantage of this approach is the consistency across different studies and research groups, making it
311 convenient to compare results from different studies. However, anatomical reference atlases inevitably
312 ignore individual variations in anatomical structures. Such static atlases also fail to track the dynamic
313 organization of functional cortical modules in different sensory and cognitive processes, which may mask
314 real activity features due to imprecise parcellation (Barson et al., 2020; Saxena et al., 2020). An
315 alternative approach is to define cortical regions based on activity and generate a unique atlas for
316 individual animals. Related methods include grouping pixels using clustering analyses (Barson et al.,
317 2020; Lake et al., 2020) and extracting functional modules using non-negative matrix factorization
318 (Saxena et al., 2020) or independent component analysis (Makino et al., 2017). Compared to anatomical
319 atlases, atlases derived from neural activity can more faithfully represent functional organization of the
320 cortex in individual animals. They may also be able to detect neural dynamics localized to regions that do
321 not correspond to standard areas in anatomical atlases. However, functional modules often vary across
322 individual animals and different studies (Makino et al., 2017; Barson et al., 2020; Lake et al., 2020).

323 Different research groups also use different terminologies to refer to regions in their functional atlases.
324 All these factors make it difficult to compare and interpret results across studies. An open platform that
325 allows researchers to register their functional atlases to a common anatomical framework based on
326 coordinates or certain landmarks (e.g., surface blood vessels) would help comparisons across studies.
327 Finally, as is common in neural recording experiments, caution is warranted in interpreting cortex-wide
328 activity patterns. Functional connectivity and information flows revealed in recent studies using wide-
329 field calcium imaging were extracted by correlational analyses. In these analyses, whether and how
330 cortical regions are connected and influence each other is unclear. Furthermore, cortical regions
331 exhibiting task-related activity may not actually contribute to task performance (Goard et al., 2016; Allen
332 et al., 2017; Pinto et al., 2019; Zatzka-haas et al., 2020). Combining wide-field calcium imaging with
333 activity manipulations (Allen et al., 2017; Makino et al., 2017) and anatomical tracing (Oh et al., 2014)
334 will provide additional insights into causal relationships between cortical regions and their roles in
335 behavior.

336 **Perspectives**

337 The recent improvements to genetically-encoded calcium sensors have resurrected broader interests in
338 using wide-field imaging to investigate large-scale cortical dynamics in behaving animals. As we have
339 discussed above, with wide-field calcium imaging, significant progress has been made to uncover the
340 macroscopic properties of cortical dynamics in various cognitive processes. In the future, we see
341 transformative opportunities for the application of wide-field imaging in the following directions.

342 *Characterizing cell-type-specific functions with genetically restricted expression of indicators*

343 The majority of existing studies using wide-field calcium imaging focused on the dynamics of pan-
344 cortical excitatory neurons, but cortical circuits consist of different neuronal types and each carries out
345 distinct functions. For example, cortical excitatory neurons can be further defined by their transcriptomics
346 and anatomical connections, and distinct subpopulations route different information from a specific set of

347 inputs to outputs (Economo et al., 2018; Tasic et al., 2018; Harris et al., 2019). The recent expansion of
348 transgenic mouse lines to target specific subpopulations of excitatory, inhibitory, and modulatory neurons
349 allows genetic targeting of these distinct subpopulations (Madisen et al., 2015; Daigle et al., 2018). By
350 restricting the expression of activity indicators, the monitoring of cell-type-specific macroscopic
351 dynamics will dissect the role of different neuronal types and help researchers understand how different
352 components cooperate in cortical circuits at the macroscale. It will also provide valuable datasets for the
353 development of large-scale computational models with cell-type resolution.

354 *Macroscopic dynamics of various neurotransmitters*

355 The nervous system uses a large variety of neurotransmitters and modulators, each of which has unique
356 functions. There has been a recent expansion of toolkits with genetically-encoded indicators of various
357 neurotransmitters (Lin and Schnitzer, 2016; Leopold et al., 2019; Dong et al., 2020; Jing et al., 2020;
358 Ravotto et al., 2020; Sabatini and Tian, 2020; Sun et al., 2020; Wan et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2020). Wide-
359 field imaging of indicators of specific neurotransmitters/modulators will allow direct tracking of how
360 different molecular signaling is orchestrated at the macroscale. Several pioneering studies have started
361 characterizing cortex-wide patterns of specific neurotransmitters/modulators in spontaneous brain activity
362 (Xie et al., 2016; Lohani et al., 2020). Of particular interest in the future is how different neuromodulatory
363 systems function at the macroscale, because they often project broadly to the cortex and have widespread
364 impacts on behavior and cognition (Avery and Krichmar, 2017).

365 *Expanding toolkits of novel genetically-encoded indicators and miniaturized imaging devices*

366 Genetically-encoded indicators with enhanced brightness, sensitivity, stability, and faster kinetics will be
367 fundamental to improving the SNR and temporal resolution of wide-field imaging in future studies. Some
368 recently developed indicators for specific neurotransmitters hold promise for applications in *in vivo* wide-
369 field imaging (Feng et al., 2019; Jing et al., 2020; Lohani et al., 2020; Sun et al., 2020). Improvements in
370 voltage indicators could enable future wide-field voltage imaging to capture macroscopic dynamics at

371 millisecond resolution with cell-type specificity and longitudinal monitoring (Knöpfel and Song, 2019;
372 Piatkevich et al., 2019; Pal and Tian, 2020). Furthermore, indicators targeting specific subcellular
373 compartments (e.g., soma, axon) will help further determine the relative contributions of different sources
374 in wide-field signals (Broussard et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2020; Shemesh et al., 2020). Meanwhile,
375 broadening the color spectrum of genetically-encoded indicators could enable simultaneous imaging of
376 different circuit components and investigations of their interactions (Inoue et al., 2019; Montagni et al.,
377 2019). In addition, virtually all studies with wide-field imaging so far have been performed in head-fixed
378 animals. Miniaturized devices for wide-field imaging in freely-moving animals would uncover large-scale
379 neural dynamics in more naturalistic behavioral contexts (Scott et al., 2018; Adams et al., 2020; Rynes et
380 al., 2020).

381 *Activity manipulations with simultaneous wide-field imaging*

382 Little is known about how large-scale cortical networks are influenced by individual brain regions and
383 how they might be able to compensate for loss of individual regions. Such interactions between local and
384 global networks can be probed by combining manipulations on certain brain regions or neuronal
385 populations with simultaneous wide-field imaging of the cortex. This approach can dissect the functions
386 of individual circuit components and their different contributions in various cognitive processes or at
387 different developmental stages. For example, bilateral M2 inactivation with muscimol combined with
388 simultaneous wide-field calcium imaging uncovered an indispensable role for M2 in orchestrating cortex-
389 wide dynamics acquired with learning (Makino et al., 2017). Manipulating activity in specific areas will
390 also help reveal how large-scale cortical circuits adapt to insults and neurological disorders. Here a
391 careful comparison between acute (e.g., optogenetics, pharmacogenetics, and pharmacology) and chronic
392 (e.g., lesion) manipulation methods would be critical.

393 *Analysis methods*

394 The rich dataset obtained by wide-field imaging brings both challenges and unprecedented opportunities
395 to gain insights into large-scale cortical dynamics. Sophisticated data-science tools, including
396 dimensionality reduction techniques, will help extract latent and novel patterns from such high
397 dimensional measurements of neural activity and facilitate data-driven discoveries (Williamson et al.,
398 2019). Meanwhile, other analysis tools and computational approaches created for other large-scale
399 recording techniques, such as fMRI and ECoG recordings, can be transferred to wide-field imaging for
400 analyzing network properties (Bressler and Menon, 2010; Rubinov and Sporns, 2010; Pourahmadi and
401 Noorbaloochi, 2016; Cohen et al., 2017). We predict an exponential growth in collaborations between
402 experimental neuroscientists and data scientists to interpret these and other high-dimensional data. For
403 example, creating data-guided circuit models that operate similarly to biological neural networks would
404 provide insights for understanding large-scale cortical networks and in turn guide future experiments
405 (Chaudhuri et al., 2015; Brunton and Beyeler, 2019; Mejias and Wang, 2019).

406 **Conclusions**

407 Wide-field calcium imaging enables large-scale, unbiased observation of many cortical regions with a
408 sufficient spatiotemporal resolution to capture moment-by-moment features in macroscopic neural
409 dynamics. This technique has started to reveal how cortex-wide dynamics support various cognitive
410 processes, including sensorimotor integration, decision making, and learning. In addition, combining
411 wide-field calcium imaging with complementary recording modalities provides a novel platform to
412 examine the relationship between local and global neural networks and to characterize the interactions
413 between the cortex and subcortical regions. Although several technical considerations still exist, future
414 applications of wide-field imaging together with rapidly growing data science tools will advance our
415 understanding of how different cell types, neurotransmitters, and brain regions cooperate at the
416 macroscale to give rise to perception and behavior.

417 **Author contributions**

418 CR did a literature review and wrote the first draft, which was then edited by both authors.

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696 **Legends**

697 **Figure 1.** Wide-field calcium imaging of cortex-wide activity. **A**, Left, Imaging setup. Middle, a field of
698 view of wide-field calcium imaging in a mouse cortex expressing GCaMP6s in cortical excitatory neurons.
699 Right, cortical regions (based on the mouse brain atlas from the Allen Institute) simultaneously recorded
700 by wide-field calcium imaging. Green dashed box marks the area within the field of view. M2: secondary
701 motor cortex; M1: primary motor cortex; S1: primary somatosensory cortex; PPC: posterior parietal
702 cortex; S2: secondary somatosensory cortex; Aud.: auditory cortex; RSC: retrosplenial cortex; Vis.: visual
703 cortex. **B**, Example cortex-wide image frames and fluorescence traces of individual pixels in a behaving
704 mouse. Gray dashed lines indicate the time of image frames in fluorescence traces of example pixels.

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	Wide-field calcium imaging	Other wide-field functional imaging	Large-scale two-photon calcium imaging	3D volumetric two-photon calcium imaging	BOLD fMRI
Field of view	~10 × 10 mm ² to cover most of the dorsal cortex	~10 × 10 mm ² to cover most of the dorsal cortex	~5 × 5 mm ²	Varying across different designs and studies, typically ~0.16-1 mm ² × 100-600 μm axial range	Whole brain
Spatial resolution	~10-100 μm/pixel	~10-100 μm/pixel	Cellular or subcellular resolution	Cellular or subcellular resolution	~0.2-0.4 × 0.2-0.4 × 0.5-1.2 mm ³ /voxel in recent studies
Temporal resolution/sampling frequency	~30 Hz, actual temporal resolution may be lower (~50-100 ms) due to slow kinetics of some indicators	~30 Hz for intrinsic signal imaging, actual temporal resolution may be lower (~100 ms) due to slow kinetics of intrinsic signals; ~0.1-1 kHz for voltage-sensitive dye imaging	Varying across different designs and studies, ranging from 0.1 to 7.5 Hz to scan the whole field of view with cellular resolution	Varying across different designs and studies, usually ~10-50 Hz	~1s
Recording depth	Superficial layers, < ~200 μm	Superficial layers, < ~200 μm	Up to ~600 μm	Up to ~600 μm	Whole brain
Optics/camera/lens requirement	Custom-built or commercial fluorescence stereo microscopes and CCD or CMOS cameras	Custom-built or commercial fluorescence stereo microscopes and CCD or CMOS cameras	Custom-built or commercial two-photon microscopes with wide field of view and random-access scanning	Custom-built or commercial two-photon microscopes with multi-depth scanning, using, e.g., deformable mirror, spatial light modulator, Bessel optical module, and variable-focus lens	Commercial systems
Selected references	Makino et al., 2017; Musall et al., 2019; Pinto et al., 2019; Peters et al., 2021	Bauer et al., 2014; Kyriakatos et al., 2017; Kura et al., 2019; Karimi Abadchi et al., 2020	Sofroniew et al., 2016; Stirman et al., 2016; Ota et al., 2020; Yu et al., 2020	Ji et al., 2016; Nöbauer et al., 2017; Song et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2018a; Weisenburger et al., 2019; Lu et al., 2020	Schwalm et al., 2017; Schlegel et al., 2018; Jung et al., 2019; Lake et al., 2020

706 **Table 1.** Comparison of several large-scale imaging modalities in mice based on the parameters typically
707 used in recent studies. It should be noted that within each modality higher sampling frequency can be
708 achieved at the sacrifice of spatial resolution and vice versa. BOLD fMRI: blood-oxygen-level-dependent
709 functional magnetic resonance imaging.

