Cerebellar Activation Bidirectionally Regulates Nucleus Accumbens Core and Medial Shell

Alexa F. D'Ambra[1], Ksenia Vlasov[1a], Se Jung Jung[1a], Swetha Ganesan[1#], Evan G. Antzoulatos[1,2b], Diasynou Fioravante[1,2b*]

[1]Center for Neuroscience, [2]Department of Neurobiology, Physiology and Behavior, University of California Davis, Davis CA 95616, United States

[a]These authors share equal authorship

[b]These authors share senior authorship

[#]Current address: Gillings School of Global Public Health, University of North Carolina

*Correspondence should be addressed to:

Diasynou Fioravante, PhD

E-mail: dfioravante@ucdavis.edu

Abstract

Although the cerebellum is now recognized as part of a long-range brain network that serves limbic functions and motivated behavior, knowledge of cerebello-limbic connectivity is limited, and nothing is known about how the cerebellum connects functionally to the nucleus accumbens (NAc). Here, we report that stimulation of cerebellar nuclei in mice of both sexes modulates spiking activity in both NAc core and medial shell with fast excitation and slower, less synchronized inhibition. Fast responses would be well poised to support rapid communication of information critical to the control of motivated behavior, whereas slower responses may be suggestive of a regulatory function, such as gain control. Tracing experiments to chart cerebellar nuclei-NAc pathways identified disynaptic pathways that recruit the ventral tegmental area (VTA) and intralaminar thalamus (Centromedial and Parafascicular nuclei) as intermediary nodes. Optogenetic activation of cerebellar axons in each of these nodes was sufficient to evoke responses in both NAc core and medial shell, albeit with distinct, node-dependent properties. These pathways and the functional connectivity they support could underlie the role of the cerebellum in motivated behavior.

Keywords

Introduction

The cerebellum (CB) exploits the modular organization of its circuitry to integrate information and perform complex computations. Most cerebellar research sheds light on this complexity in the context of updating and predicting motor movements (Ito, 2006). However, accumulating evidence supports cerebellar involvement in high-order non-motor functions as well (Buckner, 2013; Sokolov et al., 2017; Liang and Carlson, 2019; Hull, 2020). In humans, the CB is consistently activated during decision making, particularly during risk- or reward-based tasks (Ernst, 2002; Guo et al., 2013), and during aversive experiences and emotional learning (Moulton et al., 2014; Ernst et al., 2019). Further support for non-motor roles of the CB stems from clinical translational studies, which have linked CB dysfunction with neurodevelopmental disorders, posttraumatic stress disorder, generalized anxiety disorder, addiction, and cognitive and emotional disturbances known as cerebellar cognitive affective syndrome (Roy et al., 2013; Volkow et al., 2013; Moulton et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2014; D'Mello and Stoodley, 2015; Miquel et al., 2016; Lanius et al., 2017; Rabellino et al., 2018; Sathyanesan et al., 2019; Schmahmann, 2019). These findings are further corroborated by evidence from animal studies, which solidify a role for the CB in the processing of valence, aversion, reward, reward anticipation and omission (Wagner et al., 2017; Carta et al., 2019; Heffley and Hull, 2019; Kostadinov et al., 2019; Ma et al., 2020; Shuster et al., 2021); emotional learning and aggression (Supple et al., 1987; Sacchetti et al., 2002; Lorivel et al., 2014; Strata, 2015; Otsuka et al., 2016; Adamaszek et al., 2017; Frontera et al., 2020; Jackman et al., 2020); and motivation (Caston et al., 1998; Bauer et al., 2011; Peterson et al., 2012; Baek et al., 2022).

The ability of the CB to derive a complex repertoire of non-motor functions from its relatively invariant cellular organization is largely attributed to its diverse outputs (Reeber et al., 2013; Xiao and Scheiffele, 2018; Fujita et al., 2020; Judd et al., 2021). In addition to the heavily emphasized non-motor cerebellar influences on cortical regions (Ito, 2008; Mittleman et al., 2008; Strick et al., 2009; Watson et al., 2014; Gao et al., 2018; Brady et al., 2019; Kelly et al., 2020), functional and/or anatomical cerebellar connections with subcortical structures that are critical for cognition and emotion have also been documented (Snider and Maiti, 1976; Heath et al., 1978; Dietrichs and Haines, 1989; Rochefort et al., 2011; Fujita et al., 2020; Zeidler et al., 2020; Jung et al., 2022). Here, we focused on the nucleus accumbens (NAc), a

key limbic structure that shares reward, motivation and affective functionality with the CB

(Floresco, 2015; Klawonn and Malenka, 2018). The core and medial shell (NAc_{Core}, NAc_{Med})

subregions of NAc exhibit distinct input-output organization, anatomy, and function

(Groenewegen et al., 1999; Zahm, 1999; Corbit and Balleine, 2011; Ito and Hayen, 2011;

Badrinarayan et al., 2012; Li et al., 2018), with roles in social behavior and reward learning that

are often opposing (Floresco et al., 2018; Shan et al., 2022). Thus, the investigation of CB

connections to NAc subregions could offer insights into the complexities of CB limbic

functionality. Stimulation of CB cortex or deep cerebellar nuclei (DCN) modulates levels of NAc

dopamine -- an important, but not exclusive, regulator of NAc functions (Dempesy et al., 1983;

Albert et al., 1985; Holtzman-Assif et al., 2010; Luo et al., 2018; Holloway et al., 2019; Root et

al., 2020; Zell et al., 2020; Low et al., 2021). However, how the CB connects to NAc

functionally is unknown.

Here we used in vivo electrophysiology in anesthetized mice to examine the effects of

DCN stimulation on spiking activity in the NAc. We provide the first evidence, to our

knowledge, of an electrophysiological connection between CB and NAc, which shows NAc

subregion-dependent specificity. Using viral tracing approaches, we offer insights on an

anatomical blueprint of disynaptic CB-NAc connectivity, which includes nodal neurons in VTA

and limbic thalamus (Centromedial nucleus, CM; and Parafascicular nucleus, PF). Through

optogenetic stimulation of DCN projections to each of these nodes, we uncover circuit-

dependent connectivity features that are NAc subregion-specific. These findings offer

foundational insights into the contribution of the CB to limbic functions such as motivation,

reward learning, and affective processing.

Results

DCN microstimulation bidirectionally modulates NAc spiking activity

To examine functional connectivity between CB and NAc, we recorded ongoing spiking

activity from 546 putative single units (N = 42 mice) in NAc *in vivo* while electrically

microstimulating the DCN (Fig. 1A). We primarily targeted the lateral DCN, activation of which

has been shown to modulate levels of dopamine in NAc (Holloway et al., 2019; Low et al.,

2021). In a subset of experiments, post-hoc analysis localized the bipolar stimulating electrode

in the interposed DCN, and these data were included in our analyses. Stimulation of DCN with

five 100-µA current pulses at 200 Hz (total stimulus duration: 25 ms) evoked bidirectional

modulation of NAc spiking activity (Fig. 1B). Across all recorded units, average spiking initially

increased to 12.8 ± 0.4 spikes/s from a pre-stimulus baseline of 10.4 ± 0.5 spikes/s, followed

by a modest, slow-recovering decrease to 9.8 ± 0.3 spikes/s. Because of jitter in response

latency across neurons, the average spiking rate is an underrepresentation of the true

magnitude of modulation, which is more accurately reflected in the average maximum activity.

In response to stimulation, average maximum activity increased to 20 ± 0.6 spikes/s for all

recorded single-units (t-test for paired samples: t_{1017} = -33; p < 0.001), followed by a decrease

to an average minimum of 4 ± 0.3 spikes/s (t_{1017} = 35.7; p < 0.001) (n = 1018 units x

stimulation sites). Further analysis identified three distinct response-types: excitatory (defined

as firing rate increase >3σ above the baseline) (Fig. 1C), inhibitory (defined as firing rate

decrease >1σ below the baseline for 3 consecutive time bins) (Fig. 1D), and mixed (both

excitatory and inhibitory) (Fig. 1E).

Figure 1. Cerebellar stimulation effectively elicits excitatory and inhibitory responses in nucleus accumbens. A, Schematic diagram of recording setup. Stimulation protocol consisted of 10 trials (inter-trial interval: 15 s) of five 100-µA, 0.5-ms pulses at 200 Hz. NAc: nucleus accumbens; CB: cerebellum. **B,** Average spiking activity (spikes/s) across all recorded units (N = 42 mice). Inset shows zoom-in of first two seconds after stimulation. **C,D,E,** Examples of excitatory (**C**), inhibitory (**D**), and mixed (**E**) modulation in the NAc. *Top,* Peri-stimulus time histogram (PSTH) (10-ms bins) of the average firing rate across 10 trials. *Bottom,* Baseline-normalized firing rate (z-score) across time. *Inset,* Example average waveform of putative single unit. Scale bars: 1 ms, 10 µV. Shaded area marks response window. **F,** Distribution of response types elicited in NAc by DCN stimulation. *Blue*: Excitatory (E), *Red*: inhibitory (I), *Purple:* mixed, *Gray*: non-responders (NR). Number of recorded units per response-type (*white*) and corresponding percentages are shown.

Of the 546 recorded NAc neurons, 66% responded to DCN stimulation, with most (47%)

displaying an excitatory response (Fig. 1F). An inhibitory response was elicited in 11% of

neurons, whereas a smaller fraction (8%) displayed mixed responses. The average excitatory

response amplitude was 349 ± 15% of baseline, and the average inhibitory response

amplitude was 30 ± 2% of baseline.

Effects of DCN microstimulation on NAc core and medial shell spiking activity

The NAc is divided into two distinct subregions: a core subregion (NAc_{Core}) surrounded by

an outer subregion, the medial aspect of which is known as the medial shell (NAc_{Med}). Each of

these subregions has unique microanatomical, functional and connectivity features (Floresco,

2015; Salgado and Kaplitt, 2015). We aimed to examine whether the difference in proportions

(i.e., prevalence) between DCN-evoked excitatory and inhibitory responses in NAc stemmed

from regional differences (core vs. medial shell) at NAc recording sites. Our axial multi-

electrode array approach enabled recordings from multiple NAc sites in both NAc_{Core} and

NAc_{Med} (Fig. 2A). Out of 169 neurons we recorded in NAc_{Core}, more than half (53%) responded

with excitatory modulation to 100-µA stimulation of at least one site in DCN, while 8%

responded with inhibitory modulation, and another 8% with mixed modulation (Fig. 2B *left*).

Similarly, out of 377 neurons we recorded in NAc_{Med}, 44% responded to DCN stimulation with

excitation, 12% with inhibition, and 8% with mixed modulation of spiking activity. The frequency

distributions of these response-types in NAc_{Core} and NAc_{Med} were not significantly different

($\chi^2_{(3)}$ = 4.7, p = 0.19).

We then examined whether the amplitude of excitatory and/or inhibitory responses varied

between NAc_{Core} and NAc_{Med} (Figs. 2C-D). For this analysis, the excitatory and inhibitory

components of mixed responses were considered together with the excitatory and inhibitory

response types, respectively. In both NAc_{Core} and NAc_{Med}, DCN stimulation elicited significant

excitatory modulation of firing rate (mean ± sem, spikes/s in NAc_{Core}: baseline: 12.2 ± 1.1, peak

excitatory response: 52.2 ± 2.5, paired t_{162} = -24.2, p < 0.0001; in NAc_{Med}: baseline: 7.9 ± 0.6,

peak excitatory response: 42.2 ± 1.5, paired t_{267} = -32.4, p < 0.0001), which did not differ

between subregions (% baseline: NAc_{Core}: 856.2 ± 79.2, NAc_{Med}: 978.8 ± 62.5, t_{429}= -1.2, p =

0.23). Similarly, both NAc_{Core} and NAc_{Med} showed significant inhibitory modulation (mean ±

sem, spikes/s in NAc_{Core}: baseline: 24.3 ± 3.9, peak inhibitory response: 4.0 ± 2.3, paired t_{42} =

9.7, p < .0001; in NAc$_{Med}$: baseline: 22.1 ± 1.6, peak inhibitory response: 1.3 ± 0.4, paired t$_{92}$ =

15.5, p < 0.0001), which did not differ between subregions (% baseline: NAc$_{Core}$: 4.3 ± 2.1,

NAc$_{Med}$: 2.6 ± 0.8, t$_{134}$ = 0.9, p = 0.36)(p-values corrected for multiple comparisons). These

results suggest that cerebellar signals are equally likely to reach NAc$_{Core}$ and NAc$_{Med}$. Upon

further inspection, we found that irrespective of subregion, the baseline firing rate of excitatory

responses was significantly lower than the baseline of inhibitory responses (F(1,563) = 88, p <

0.001). Differences in baseline between excitatory and inhibitory responses could arise from

potentially different NAc cellular properties, although the fact that neurons with elevated firing

rates are more likely to satisfy our criterion for inhibitory responses should also be considered.

Figure 2. Nucleus accumbens responses to cerebellar stimulation. A, Recording sites in nucleus accumbens core (NAc$_{Core}$) and medial shell (NAc$_{Med}$). Numbers indicate distance (in mm) from bregma. **B,** Distribution of response types elicited by 30-, 100-, or 300-µA DCN stimulation. N$_{30}$ = 14 mice, N$_{100}$ = 42 mice, N$_{300}$ = 40 mice. Outer ring (M): NAc$_{Med}$; inner ring (C): NAc$_{Core}$. *Blue:* excitatory (E), *Red*: inhibitory (I), *Purple:* mixed, *Gray:* non-responders (NR). **C,** Comparison between average baseline (Bsln) and peak firing rate (Resp) elicited by 100-µA DCN stimulation for excitatory responses in NAc$_{Core}$ (**C1**) and NAc$_{Med}$ (**C2**). Group averages (± SEM) are overlaid onto lines representing single units. **D1,2,** Same as C but for inhibitory responses.

Differential and non-linear dependence of NAc responses on DCN stimulation

intensity

To further probe the functional connectivity between DCN and NAc, we assessed the

effectiveness of DCN microstimulation at two more intensities, 30 µA and 300 µA, in addition to

100 µA (Fig. 2B; *middle* and *right*). In NAc$_{Core,}$ the proportion of excitatory responses changed

from 42% (with 30 µA stimulation) to 53% (with 100 µA), to 57% (with 300 µA); the proportion

of inhibitory responses changed from 7% (30 µA) to 8% (100 µA) to 10% (300 µA); and finally,

the proportion of mixed responses changed from 18% (30 µA) to 8% (100 µA) to 8% (300 µA).

Contingency table analysis did not find a significant effect of stimulation intensity on the

frequency distribution of response-types in NAc_{Core} ($\chi^2_{(6)}$ = 9.4; p = 0.15). In NAc_{Med}, the

proportion of excitatory responses changed from 38% (30 µA) to 44% (100 µA) to 45% (300

µA); the proportion of inhibitory responses changed from 6% (30 µA) to 12% (100 µA) to 7%

(300 µA); and the proportion of mixed responses changed from 13% to 8% to 14%. The effect

of stimulation intensity on the frequency distribution of response-types in NAc_{Med} was

statistically significant ($\chi^2_{(6)}$ = 13.6; p < 0.05), suggesting that the NAc subregions displayed

differential sensitivity to the intensity of DCN microstimulation. For both NAc subregions, the

prevalence of the different response-types did not change proportionally to the ~3-fold change

in stimulation intensity, which suggests non-linear dependence to stimulation intensity.

The bidirectional NAc modulation is not a reflection of topographical DCN organization

In our experiments we used bipolar stimulation electrodes to contain the spread of

electrical current at DCN stimulation sites. To confirm that the stimulation was indeed

localized, we examined the likelihood of NAc neurons that responded to stimulation of

individual DCN sites to also respond to adjacent stimulation sites along anatomical axes in the

same experiment (Fig. 3A1-2). We found that the probability of a NAc_{Core} neuron that

responded to stimulation of a DCN site to also respond to stimulation of a site ~100 µm away

dropped by 66%. In NAc_{Med}, this probability dropped by 33%. The subregion-dependent

difference in the likelihood of adjacent DCN sites to evoke a response in the same neuron

most likely reflects differences in the architecture of the neural circuits. Regardless of the

difference between NAc subregions, the probability decrease is consistent with localized

stimulation.

Given that DCN stimulation appeared spatially restricted, could the observed differences

in NAc response-types arise from regional differences within DCN? To address this question,

we examined whether there was topographical clustering of DCN sites with respect to their

effectiveness to evoke significant excitatory or inhibitory responses in NAc_{Core} and/or NAc_{Med}.

We did not find indications of such clustering (Fig. 3B1-3, C1-3), which argues against

topographical organization of lateral/interposed DCN with respect to NAc response types.

Using a similar approach, we examined whether there was topographical clustering of sites with excitatory and/or inhibitory responses within NAc subregions, but we did not find evidence for any such organization either (not shown).

Figure 3. The distribution of response-types in nucleus accumbens subregions is not due to topographical specialization within deep cerebellar nuclei. A, The lateral (lat) or interposed (int) DCN (**A1**) was electrically stimulated. M: medial n. **A2,** Demarcation of anatomical planes: ML: medio-lateral; DV: dorsoventral; AP: antero-posterior. **B,C,** Stereotactic coordinates of DCN stimulation sites in ML-DV (B1,C1), ML-AP (B2,C2), and AP-DV (B3,C3) planes. Colored dots denote sites that evoked excitatory (excit.: *blue*), inhibitory (inh.: *red*), mixed (*purple*) or no responses (NR: *gray*) in NAc$_{Core}$ (B1-3) and NAc$_{Med}$ (C1-3).

Anatomical blueprint of DCN-NAc connectivity

There are no direct, monosynaptic connections between DCN and NAc (Allen Brain Atlas, and our own observations); we therefore hypothesized the existence of at least disynaptic anatomical pathways between the two areas. To test this hypothesis, we adopted a 2-pronged approach. First, we combined injection of a retrograde tracer (cholera toxin subunit

B (ctb) -640 or -568) in NAc with injection of an anterograde viral tracer (AAV9-CAG-GFP) in

DCN to identify areas of overlap (nodes) in a putative disynaptic CB-NAc circuit (Fig. 4A,B) (N

= 6 mice). Histological processing and high-resolution confocal imaging of brain sections

revealed two regions of overlap between ctb-filled neurons that project to NAc and GFP-

labelled DCN axonal projections: the VTA and limbic thalamus (Fig. 4C,D). In VTA, most areas

of overlap localized medially and caudally and involved both TH+ (dopaminergic) neurons (Fig.

4C) and TH- neurons. In the thalamus, we found areas of overlap in centromedial (CM) and

parafascicular (PF) intralaminar nuclei (Fig. 4D). We found overlap in these same regions also

when DCN injections were restricted to the lateral cerebellar nucleus only (Fig. 4E,F). These

results are consistent with the existence of a disynaptic DCN-NAc anatomical circuit and point

to VTA, and CM and PF thalamic nuclei, as putative circuit nodes.

Figure 4. **Co-localization of nucleus accumbens-projecting neurons with cerebellar projections in VTA and intralaminar thalamus**. **A**, Schematic diagrams of stereotactic injections in DCN and NAc. **B1**, Expression of GFP at DCN injection sites. **B2**, Ctb-Alexa 568 injection site in NAc. **C**, Overlap of ctb-labeled NAc projectors and DCN axons in VTA. **C1**, VTA identification through TH immunostaining. **C2**, TH+ neuron. **C3**, Retrograde ctb-Alexa 568 labelling in NAc-projecting cell. **C4**, GFP-expressing DCN axons. **C5**, C2-C4 merged. **D**, Overlap of ctb retrograde label (red) in NAc projectors (blue; NeuN) and GFP-expressing DCN axons (green) in intralaminar thalamic nuclei. **D1**-**D2**, Overlap in parafascicular (PF) n. **D3**-**D4**, Overlap in centromedial (CM) n. Yellow boxes in C1,D1,D3 denote zoom-in areas depicted in C2-C5, D2 and D4, respectively. **E**-**F**, Airyscan confocal images from experiments similar to **A** but with only lateral DCN injected with AAV-GFP. **E1**, Ctb-labeled (red) NAc-projecting cell in the VTA. **E2,** TH+ cell (blue) with overlapping GFP-labeled axonal projection (green) from lateral DCN. **E3,** E1-2 merged. **F1**, GFP-labeled axon from lateral DCN (green) overlaps with ctb-labeled (red) NAc-projecting cell (blue: NeuN) in the PF n. **F2,** Same as in F1 but for neuron in the CM n. Scale bars: B1-2,C1,D1: 200 μm; C2-C5,D2,D4,E1-3,F1,F2: 5 μm; D3: 100 μm. N = 6 mice. Numbers denote distance from bregma.

To confirm these observations through an independent approach, we performed AAV1-

mediated anterograde transsynaptic tracing experiments (Zingg et al., 2017) via stereotactic

injections of AAV1-Cre in DCN and AAV-FLEX-tdTomato in VTA or limbic thalamus (Fig.

5A,B) (N = 4 mice). This approach relies on the transsynaptic transfer of Cre to postsynaptic

neurons, which, once infected with a floxed fluorophore, become fluorescently labeled. With

this method, we confirmed the existence of neurons receiving CB input in VTA (Fig. 5C1,C2)

and CM, PF intralaminar thalamus (Fig. 5D1,D2). Importantly, we were able to localize their

labeled axonal projections in NAc, in both NAc_{Core} and NAc_{Med} (Fig. 5C3,D3). We observed

similar patterns of cell labeling and projections to the NAc_{Core} and NAc_{Med} when AAV1-Cre

was injected in lateral DCN only (Fig. 5E,F) (N = 3 mice). These findings chart a blueprint of

disynaptic DCN-NAc connectivity and could provide an anatomical foundation for our newly

discovered DCN-NAc functional connection.

Photostimulation of DCN axonal projections in nodes supports the existence of

disynaptic circuits between cerebellum and NAc

Our combined electrophysiological and neuroanatomical data point to the existence of

neural circuits connecting the CB to the NAc_{Core} and NAc_{Med}, with putative nodal regions in

VTA and/or intralaminar thalamus. We sought to determine whether these anatomically

defined nodes are also functional nodes serving CB-NAc connectivity. To this end, we

performed additional electrophysiological experiments combined with optogenetic stimulation

of DCN projections in the putative nodes (Figs. 6,7). We expressed channelrhodopsin (ChR2)

in DCN projection neurons through viral injection (Figs. 6A,6B) and recorded responses in

NAc_{Core} and NAc_{Med} following photostimulation of DCN axons (10 pulses at 20 Hz, 10 mW at

fiber tip) in VTA (Fig. 6C1,C2), CM (Fig. 6D1,D2), or PF (Fig. 6E1,E2). All DCN nuclei were

injected in order to maximize ChR2 expression and the chances of successful stimulation of

projections.

As with electrical microstimulation of DCN sites, targeted photostimulation of ChR2-

expressing DCN axons in each of the three putative nodes modulated spiking activity in both

NAc_Core and NAc_Med (example units in Fig. 6C2,D2,E2; group averages in Fig. 7A1,B1,C1),

establishing the VTA, CM and PF as functional nodes of the CB-NAc circuitry. Figure 7 shows

Figure 5. **Disynaptic cerebellum - nucleus accumbens connectivity is confirmed via anterograde transsynaptic viral tracing**. **A**, Schematic diagram of AAV1-mediated transsynaptic labeling approach. **B**, Schematic diagrams of stereotactic injections of floxed fluorophore in VTA and thalamic nodes. **C1**, The VTA is visualized via TH immunostaining (green). Yellow box denotes zoom-in area depicted in C2. Rn: red nucleus; ml: medial lemniscus. **C2**, Neurons that receive DCN input are labeled with tdTomato (red; white arrowheads). Green: TH+ neurons (white arrows). Yellow arrowhead: TH+, tdTomato+ neuron. **C3**, Projections of CB-VTA neurons in NAc_Core and NAc_Med. **D1**, Neurons that receive DCN input in thalamus are labeled with tdTomato (red). Blue: NeuN. CM: centromedial n.; PC: paracentral n.; CL: centrolateral n.; VL: ventrolateral n. **D2**, Same as D1, but for parafascicular n. (PF). fr: fasciculus retroflexus. **D3**, Projections of CB-thalamic neurons in NAc_Core and NAc_Med. **E-F**, Fluorescence images from experiments similar to A-B but with only lateral DCN injected with AAV1-Cre. **E**, NAc projections of VTA neurons receiving input from lateral DCN. **F**, Same as in E but for thalamic neurons. Scale bars below images: C1: 200 μm; C2: 100 μm; C3,D1-3,E,F: 500 μm. N = 7 mice. Numbers denote distance from bregma.

the normalized group average excitatory responses of NAc$_{Core}$ and NAc$_{Med}$ neurons elicited by

photostimulation in VTA (Fig. 7A1), CM (Fig. 7B1), and PF (Fig. 7C1). Because of jitter, the

group average response underestimates the true magnitude of modulation, as discussed

previously for electrical responses. Therefore, to further evaluate the connectivity strength in

the three CB-NAc circuits, we computed the average peak amplitude of light-evoked excitatory

responses in NAc subregions and asked whether it varied across nodes or between NAc

subregions. In NAc$_{Core}$, neurons displayed an average peak excitatory response to

photostimulation in VTA of 43 ± 8 spikes/s; in CM: 44 ± 5 spikes/s; in PF: 36 ± 4 spikes/s. In

NAc$_{Med}$, the average peak excitatory response to photostimulation in VTA was 39 ± 6 spikes/s;

in CM: 34 ± 3 spikes/s; and in PF: 41 ± 6 spikes/s. There was no statistically significant effect

of NAc subregion, or of node, on peak responses (NAc subregion: $F(1,120) = 0.4$; $p = 0.5$;

node: $F(2,120) = 0.1$; $p = 0.9$), and no significant interaction ($F(2,120) = 0.9$; $p = 0.4$). These

NAc responses were specific to ChR2 expression, as no-opsin (EGFP-alone) controls did not

show an effect of photostimulation on peak firing rate, even at 15 mW (response window vs.

baseline: NAc$_{Core}$: $t_4 = 0.53$, $p = 0.62$; NAc$_{Med}$: $t_{35} = -1.41$, $p = 0.17$) (Fig. 7D).

Figure 6. Photostimulation of cerebellar projections in VTA and thalamus elicits responses in nucleus accumbens. A, Schematic diagram of optophysiological approach. *NAc:* nucleus accumbens, *CB:* cerebellum. **B,** Example ChR2-EYFP expression in DCN. lat: lateral n.; ip: interposed n; m: medial n. **C,D,E**, Histology and NAc responses to optogenetic stimulation of VTA (**C1,2**), CM (**D1,2**), and PF (**E1,2**). **C1,D1,E1**: Representative images of optic fiber placement. ml: medial lemniscus; fr: fasciculus retroflexus. **C2,D2,E2**: Example single units. *Left*: Average spike waveform. Scale bars: 1 ms, 10 μV. *Top*: PSTH (10-ms bins) of firing rate (spikes/s). B*ottom*: Baseline-normalized firing rate (z-score) across time. Blue lines denote photostimulation; Shaded area marks response window. Numbers below or next to images indicate distance from bregma (in mm).

Figure 7. Node-dependent differences in nucleus accumbens responses to photostimulation of cerebellar projections. A1,**B1**,**C1**, Average normalized activity (z-score) in NAc$_{Core}$ (*top*) and NAc$_{Med}$ (*bottom*) as a function of time, for cerebellar fiber photostimulation (blue lines) in VTA (**A1**), CM (**B1**) and PF (**C1**). **A2**,**B2**,**C2**, Distribution of response-types in NAc$_{Core}$ (C: inner ring) and NAc$_{Med}$ (M: outer ring) upon photostimulation of cerebellar projections in VTA (**A2**), CM (**B2**), and PF (**C2**). *Blue:* excitatory (E), *Red*: inhibitory (I), *Purple:* mixed, *Gray:* non-responders (NR). **D**, Average normalized activity (z-score) in NAc$_{Core}$ (*top*) and NAc$_{Med}$ (*bottom*) as a function of time, for no-opsin controls. **E**, Cumulative histogram of NAc response onset latencies upon cerebellar fiber photostimulation in VTA, CM and PF. Inset: 0-25 ms zoom-in. **F**,**G**,**H**, Violin plots of onset latencies of excitatory responses in NAc$_{Core}$ (Core) and NAc$_{Med}$ (Med), upon cerebellar fiber photostimulation in VTA (**F**), CM (**G**) and PF (**H**). Black lines: Median; White lines: interquartile range (Q1-Q3). VTA: N = 4 mice, n$_{NAcCORE}$ = 22 units, n$_{NAcMED}$ = 42 units; CM: N = 4 mice, n$_{NAcCORE}$ = 56 units, n$_{NAcMED}$ = 26 units; PF: N = 3 mice, n$_{NAcCORE}$ = 40 units, n$_{NAcMED}$ = 20 units. D, no-opsin controls: N = 4 mice, n$_{NAcCORE}$ = 5 units, n$_{NAcMED}$ = 36 units.

252  Light-evoked responses were excitatory in their majority, with frequency distribution that

253  varied between NAc$_{Core}$ and NAc$_{Med}$ in a node-dependent manner: photostimulation of DCN

254  projections in VTA evoked more excitatory responses in NAc$_{Core}$ than in NAc$_{Med}$ (excitatory

255  responses in NAc$_{Core}$: 86%, in NAc$_{Med}$: 38%; $\chi^2_{(1)}$ = 13.6; p < 0.001) (Fig. 7A2), whereas no

such differences were observed upon photostimulation in CM (NAc$_{Core}$: 77%, NAc$_{Med}$, 72%;

$\chi^2_{(1)}$ = 0.20; p = 0.44) (Fig. 7B2) or PF (excitatory responses in NAc$_{Core}$: 65%, in NAc$_{Med}$: 85%;

$\chi^2_{(1)}$ = 2.63; p = 0.11) (Fig. 7C2) (p-values corrected for multiple comparisons). Excitatory

responses were also readily elicited in NAc$_{Core}$ and NAc$_{Med}$ with as little as 1 or 5 mW

photostimulation (Table 1). Even at the lowest intensity (1 mW), a single pulse was sufficient to

elicit a response (percent responses elicited by first pulse in VTA: NAc$_{Core}$: 54%, NAc$_{Med}$, 58%;

in CM: NAc$_{Core}$: 72%, NAc$_{Med}$, 57%; in PF: NAc$_{Core}$: 67%, NAc$_{Med}$: 58%) (Table 2), pointing to

high-fidelity connectivity that does not strictly require activity-dependent synaptic enhancement

to propagate information to NAc. The proportion of responses elicited by the first light pulse

tended to increase with photostimulation intensity more than expected by chance alone in VTA

(permutation test: p < 0.001, n = 41, N = 4) and CM (p < 0.01, n = 52, N = 4), but not in PF (p =

0.08, n = 45, N = 3) (p-values corrected for multiple comparisons). This finding could

potentially suggest convergent connectivity within the CB-VTA-NAc and CB-CM-NAc circuits.

Photostimulation Intensity		Percent (%) responses					
		VTA		CM		PF	
		NAc $_{Core}$	NAc $_{Med}$	NAc $_{Core}$	NAc $_{Med}$	NAc $_{Core}$	NAc $_{Med}$
1 mW	Exc.	59	37	54	41	43	60
	Inh.	5	17	3	6	3	5
	Mixed	0	10	3	0	3	0
	No Res.	36	37	41	53	53	35
	n =	22	41	39	17	40	20
5 mW	Exc.	82	45	54	58	58	75
	Inh.	0	7	13	4	3	0
	Mixed	5	5	5	8	0	15
	No Res.	14	43	29	31	40	10
	n =	22	42	56	26	40	20
10 mW	Exc.	86	38	77	72	65	85
	Inh.	0	2	5	0	0	0
	Mixed	5	12	5	4	3	0
	No Res.	9	48	13	24	33	15
	n =	22	42	39	25	40	20

Table 1. Percent responses in NAc$_{Core}$ and NAc$_{Med}$ elicited by photostimulation of cerebellar axons in VTA, CM and PF at different intensities.

In contrast to excitatory responses, inhibitory responses were scarce in photostimulation

experiments (Fig. 7A2, B2, C2). This finding appeared to be stimulation regime-dependent,

because lowering the photostimulation intensity increased the prevalence of inhibitory

responses in NAc more than expected by chance alone (permutation test, 1 vs. 5 vs. 10 mW:

VTA: $p < 0.01$, $n = 64$, $N = 4$; CM: $p < 0.05$, $n = 82$, $N = 4$; PF: $p < 0.05$, $n = 60$, $N = 3$; p-values

corrected for multiple comparisons) (Table 1). Finally, we asked whether each NAc subregion

was differentially responsive to photostimulation in each of the nodes. We found no differential

effect of 10 mW-photostimulation among the three nodes on the distribution of response-types

in either NAc_{Core} ($\chi^2_{(2)} = 5.4$; $p = 0.07$) or NAc_{Med} ($\chi^2_{(2)} = 4.9$; $p = 0.09$).

		Proportion of responses elicited by 1st light pulse	
	Photostimulation Intensity	NAc_{Core}	NAc_{Med}
VTA	1 mW	7/13 (54%)	11/19 (58%)
	5 mW	16/19 (84%)	14/21 (67%)
	10 mW	18/20 (90%)	19/21 (90%)
CM	1 mW	16/22 (72%)	4/7 (57%)
	5 mW	27/33 (82%)	14/17 (82%)
	10 mW	26/32 (81%)	16/19 (84%)
PF	1 mW	12/18 (67%)	7/12 (58%)
	5 mW	15/23 (65%)	16/18 (89%)
	10 mW	14/27 (52%)	14/17 (82%)

Table 2. Proportion of excitatory responses in NAc_{Core} and NAc_{Med} elicited by the first light pulse, at different photostimulation intensities.

Temporal aspects of light-evoked responses

We wondered whether temporal aspects of CB-NAc communication differed between

excitatory and inhibitory responses. This question cannot be addressed accurately in electrical

stimulation experiments because of electrical artifacts, which can place a lower bound on the

onset latency of detected responses, but can be readily addressed in optogenetic experiments.

Analysis of onset latency of responses elicited by 10 mW CB axonal photostimulation indicated

that, overall, excitatory responses had significantly shorter onset latencies than inhibitory ones

(mean ± sem: excit.: 45.4 ± 5.0 ms, inh.: 256.7 ± 46.2 ms, $t_{147} = -10.0$, $p < 0.001$; $N = 10$, $n_{exc.} =$

136, $n_{inh.} = 13$). To dissect node-specific effects, we computed the cumulative distributions of

onset latencies for excitatory responses elicited by photostimulation in VTA, CM and PF (Fig.

7E). A relatively broad distribution of onset latencies was evident in all nodes, with half-rise

latencies of 11 ms for VTA, 20 ms for CM and 40 ms for PF. Further analysis indicated that the

probability of eliciting short-latency responses (≤ 10 ms), which are consistent with disynaptic

connectivity (Chen et al., 2014; Gao et al., 2018; Assous et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2021), was

greater for photostimulation in VTA compared to CM and/or PF (proportion of latencies ≤ 10

ms: VTA: 0.34, CM: 0.08, PF: 0.11; VTA vs CM: $\chi^2_{(1)}$ = 10.3, p < 0.01; VTA vs PF: $\chi^2_{(1)}$ = 6.4, p

< 0.01; CM vs PF: $\chi^2_{(1)}$ = 0.4, p = 0.54; p-values corrected for multiple comparisons) (Fig. 7E

inset). Similar analysis could not be applied to inhibitory responses because of their limited

prevalence (Fig. 7A2-C2 and Table 1). Finally, we examined NAc subregion-specific effects on

excitatory response latencies (Fig. 7F-H). A two-way ANOVA corroborated the significant main

effect of nodes (F(2,130) = 4.7; p < 0.05) but did not find significant main effect of NAc

subregion (F(1,130) = 1.7; p = 0.19), or significant interaction effect between node and NAc

subregion (F(2,130) = 1.7; p = 0.18).

Collectively, these results support and expand the conclusions of our neuroanatomical

and electrical microstimulation studies that signals originating in DCN can reach NAc through

pathways that involve the VTA and the intralaminar thalamus.

Discussion

In this study we examined the previously uncharted functional connectivity between the

cerebellum and nucleus accumbens using in vivo electrophysiology, neuroanatomy, and

optogenetics. We found that electrical microstimulation of DCN elicits responses in both

NAcCore and NACMed, manifested as excitatory and/or inhibitory modulations of neural firing

rate. Neuroanatomical studies identified three disynaptic pathways through which cerebellar

signals can reach the NAc. These pathways go through the VTA or the intralaminar thalamus

(centromedial or parafascicular nucleus). Optogenetic activation of DCN axons in each of

these intermediary nodes revealed that all three pathways can communicate cerebellar signals

to NAc, albeit with distinct node-dependent properties.

Bidirectional regulation of NAc through fast excitation and slow inhibition

Results from both electrical microstimulation and optogenetic experiments converged on

the conclusion that the cerebellum sends strong excitatory signals to NAc. The strength of

these excitatory signals did not show any NAc subregion-, or node-, dependence. However,

the relative frequency of NAc neurons that receive excitatory vs. inhibitory (or mixed) signals

varied, depending on the route that the DCN signals followed: the CB-VTA pathway was more
likely to communicate excitatory signals to neurons in NAc_{Core} than in NAc_{Med}, whereas the CB-
thalamic pathways did not show a clear preference for either NAc subregion.

Our neuroanatomical studies identified three disynaptic pathways for CB-NAc
communication through the VTA and intralaminar thalamus (CM, PF) nodes. Disynaptic
pathways that utilize fast classical neurotransmitters (e.g., glutamate) would be expected to
support rapid signal propagation and result in short-latency responses, whereas
neuromodulatory (e.g., dopaminergic) pathways would be expected to operate at longer time
scales (Chen et al., 2014; Gao et al., 2018; Assous et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2021; Yang et al.,
2021; Sippy and Tritsch, 2023). The shortest-latency responses we recorded upon
photostimulation of cerebellar axons in each of the intermediary nodes occurred within 10 ms,
a finding that is consistent with the monosynaptic connections known to exist between DCN
and VTA, and DCN and thalamus (Carta et al., 2019; Baek et al., 2022; Jung et al., 2022), and
which agrees with our newly identified structural connectivity. Particularly for responses elicited
by photostimulation in VTA, DCN axons are known to synapse onto both dopaminergic and
non-dopaminergic VTA neurons (Beier et al., 2019; Carta et al., 2019; Baek et al., 2022),
including vesicular glutamate transporter 2-positive (vGlut2+) VTA neurons, which project to
NAc (Beier et al., 2015) and which could, at least partly, mediate cerebellar signaling. Longer-
latency excitatory responses dominate CB-NAc communication through the intralaminar
thalamus and could arise from polysynaptic circuitry, in agreement with the diffuse patterning
of intralaminar projections (Jones and Leavitt, 1974; Van der Werf et al., 2002). Subthreshold
synaptic signaling that requires activity-dependent short-term facilitation in order to propagate
to NAc neurons could also account for longer latencies. Given that optogenetic stimulation of
CB axons with a single pulse could elicit NAc responses, short-term plasticity does not appear
to be strictly required for successful CB-NAc communication. However, it could account for the
excitatory NAc responses evoked through PF, which displayed more gradual buildup than
excitatory responses through the other nodes.

Inhibitory responses are also a key component of CB-NAc connectivity and may be
important for global gain control (Buzsáki et al., 2007). Inhibitory responses (and/or inhibitory
components of mixed responses) were seen upon stimulation in DCN, or in any of the nodes,
and occurred with longer latencies compared to excitatory responses. They also appeared to

depend on photostimulation intensity, with higher prevalence at lower photostimulation intensities. Multiple cellular mechanisms could underlie inhibitory responses and could involve dopamine release as well as non-dopaminergic signaling through the VTA (Brown et al., 2012; Beier et al., 2019; Carta et al., 2019; Baek et al., 2022) and/or CB-thalamic (CM, PF) projections to NAc, which are known to contact not only medium spiny neurons but also cholinergic inhibitory interneurons (Yamanaka et al., 2018). Polysynaptic pathways could also be involved, although their recruitment seems at odds with the inverse relationship between inhibitory response prevalence and photostimulation intensity. The nature of synaptic signaling and plasticity in CB-NAc circuits is an exciting route for further investigation.

Technical considerations

Our recordings were performed in ketamine-anesthetized mice. Although ketamine at anesthetic doses does not alter the number of spontaneously active striatal neurons (Kelland et al., 1991), it affects the pattern of spontaneous activity, promoting step-like membrane potential fluctuations between "up-" and "down-states" (Mahon, 2001). Such bursting behavior would contribute to "noisy" baseline activity; however, we would not expect it to distort our analyses because we have defined neural responses as changes in spiking rate from the preceding baseline. Moreover, by using electrical and/or optogenetic, rather than sensory, stimuli to probe connectivity, we have overcome any concerns stemming from the known inhibitory effect of ketamine on sensory-evoked activity in the cerebellum (Bengtsson and Jörntell, 2007).

In addition to anesthesia, the stimulation modality (electrical, optogenetic) warrants consideration. Electrical stimulation could potentially result in antidromic activation of DCN inputs, which could lead to recruitment of alternate polysynaptic pathways to NAc. This concern was mitigated by our optogenetic experiments, in which ChR2-expessing DCN axons were specifically activated in the nodes. Moreover, although electrical current propagates widely in the brain, the use of bipolar electrodes allowed us to restrict the spread of DCN stimulation to ~100 μm, as shown by the substantial drop in the probability to activate the same NAc neuron with DCN stimuli delivered 100 μm apart. Lastly, optogenetic stimulation of DCN axons in a node could induce back-propagating action potentials that could, in turn, elicit NAc responses through axonal collaterals. However, to the best of our knowledge, there is no

evidence for DCN collaterals that form synapses onto NAc-projecting neurons in both VTA and

intralaminar thalamic nuclei. Even if such collaterals existed, their activation would result in

unreliable responses with relatively long latencies, due to synaptic delays and the failure-prone

asymmetric nature of action potential conduction velocity (Grill et al., 2008; Mateus et al.,

2021).

Novelty of anatomical connections

Anatomical and functional connections between DCN and VTA, and DCN and

intralaminar nucleus nodes, have been described previously (Snider and Maiti, 1976; Hendry

et al., 1979; Phillipson, 1979; Watabe-Uchida et al., 2012; Gornati et al., 2018; Carta et al.,

2019; Jung et al., 2022). VTA and thalamic projections to NAc are also well established

(Beckstead et al., 1979; Su and Bentivoglio, 1990; Bentivoglio et al., 1991; Bassareo and Di

Chiara, 1999; Garris et al., 1999; Groenewegen et al., 1999; Van der Werf et al., 2002;

Ikemoto, 2007; Taylor et al., 2014). It might therefore be unsurprising that the DCN recruit

these nodes to communicate with NAc. However, the VTA and thalamus are exquisitely

complex areas with multiple output streams. For example, the VTA projects not only to NAc but

also to hippocampus, hypothalamus, lateral habenula, entorhinal cortex, etc. (Oades and

Halliday, 1987; Stamatakis et al., 2013; Beier et al., 2015). None of these downstream target

regions appears to be disynaptically connected to DCN through the VTA, which points to

specificity in circuit wiring. Our study is the first one, to our knowledge, to map DCN-NAc

circuits through VTA and thalamus. A recent study provided anatomical evidence for a medial

DCN-NAc circuit (Fujita et al., 2020). Here we extend these observations to lateral DCN and

also provide evidence for the centromedial and parafascicular nuclei as parts of the thalamic

node.

Ideas and Speculations

It is tempting to speculate on network-wide implications of the different CB-NAc

pathways. Fast excitatory signals would be well poised to support the rapid communication of

information critical to the control of motivated behavior, such as prediction or prediction-error

signals, which are well established in the cerebellum (Wagner et al., 2017; Heffley and Hull,

2019; Kostadinov et al., 2019; Larry et al., 2019). The fact that DCN signals can reach NAc_{Core}

and NAc$_{Med}$ through distinct anatomical (and possibly cellular) pathways leaves room for

distinct multiplexing with signals originating elsewhere.

Cerebellar signals that arrive to NAc$_{Core}$ through VTA could be behaviorally relevant for

reward learning through signaling of value, which has been correlated with dopamine release

in NAc$_{Core}$, but not in NAc$_{Med}$ (Mohebi et al., 2019). Alternatively (or additionally), the CB-VTA-

NAc$_{Core}$ pathway could be rewarding in itself, as stimulation of dopaminergic projections from

VTA to NAc$_{Core}$ are sufficient to establish self-stimulation (Han et al., 2017) and previous

studies have shown that the CB can signal reward (Wagner et al., 2017; Carta et al., 2019;

Medina, 2019). The CB-VTA-NAc$_{Core}$ pathway could also be involved in social cognition, given

that NAc$_{Core}$ activation promotes social dominance in mice and that cerebellar Purkinje neurons

are known to modulate social aggression in mice (Jackman et al., 2020). Finally, the CB-VTA-

NAc$_{Core}$ pathway could also be important for signaling salience, regardless of valence, to

promote learned responses to behaviorally relevant stimuli (Kutlu et al., 2021). The short

response latencies of the CB-VTA-NAc$_{Core}$ pathway could be key for temporally precise control

of behavioral states including attentional control (Flores-Dourojeanni et al., 2021), and could

gate incoming signals to NAc, including signals from PF (Akaike et al., 1981; Hara et al.,

1989).

The observed bias of CB-PF neurons to preferentially influence NAc$_{Med}$ over NAc$_{Core}$ could

support a role in behavioral flexibility. Indeed, both NAc$_{Med}$ and NAc$_{Core}$ neurons encode

rewarding and aversive stimuli via changes in neural firing rate, however, only neurons in

NAc$_{Med}$ adaptively shift population response type to track the motivational value of a stimulus

(Loriaux et al., 2011), suggesting that NAc$_{Med}$ can flexibly modulate encoding based on relative

stimulus valence and/or acquired salience (Aquili et al., 2014; West and Carelli, 2016). Given

that the PF is known to play a role in behavioral flexibility (Brown et al., 2010; Kato et al.,

2021), the CB-PF-NAc$_{Med}$ circuit may communicate teaching signals for updating past learning

and altering behavior adaptively.

Future investigations into the cellular basis of DCN-NAc communication as well as

potential circuit-specificity of behavioral contributions are clearly in order. Here, we have

broken new ground by providing the first evidence of rapid functional connectivity between CB

and NAc, through the midbrain and intralaminar thalamus.

Materials and Methods

In vivo electrophysiology

Mice

C57Bl/6J mice of both sexes were used in accordance with the National Institutes of Health guidelines and the policies of the University of California Davis Committee for Animal Care. Acute in vivo recordings were performed at postnatal days P43-P91. All animals were maintained on a light/dark cycle (light 7 am - 7 pm), and experiments were performed during the light cycle.

Surgery

Mice of both sexes (P35 - P49; N = 11) were used for optogenetic experiments. Animals were anesthetized with isoflurane (4% - 5% induction; 1.5% maintenance) and secured to a stereotactic frame (Kopf Insruments, Tujunga, CA). After exposing the top of the skull, the head was leveled and small craniotomies were drilled over the DCN. Channelrhodopsin-expressing adeno-associated virus (AAV2-hSyn-hChR2(H134R)-EYFP, UNC Vector Core, Chapel Hill, NC; 100 nl, 5.6x10^{12} gc/ml, 1:2 dilution) was injected into the three DCN using a Micro4 controller and UltraMicroPump 3 (VWR, Radnor, PA). Glass needles were made from 1-mm outer diameter glass pipettes (Wiretrol II, Drummond Scientific Company, Broomall, PA) pulled to a fine tip (20 - 50 µm tip diameter, 3 - 4 mm tip length) using a pipette puller (P-97, Sutter Instrument, Novato, CA). Injection needles were left in place for 5-10 min following injections to minimize diffusion. The following coordinates were used for targeting pipettes to each nucleus (relative to lambda): medial n.: -2.55 AP, +/-0.8 ML, -2.15 DV; interposed n.: -2.45 AP, +/-1.7 ML, -2.15 DV; lateral n.: -1.82 AP, +/- 2.37 ML, -2.17 DV. Following surgery and analgesia administration (0.1 mg/kg buprenorphine, 5 mg/kg meloxicam), mice were allowed to recover on a warm heating pad before being transferred back to the vivarium. Animals were given 4-5 weeks expression time before being used in in vivo recording experiments.

For electrophysiological recordings, anesthesia was initially induced by brief inhalation of 4-5% isoflurane followed by an intraperitoneal injection of anesthetic cocktail (100 mg/kg ketamine; 10 mg/kg xylazine; 1 mg/kg acepromazine) and was maintained with periodic

injections of the anesthetic cocktail (20-50 mg/kg), as needed. After confirmation of anesthesia

depth using a toe pinch response test, mice were placed in a stereotactic frame (Stoelting Co.,

Wood Dale, IL) on a heating pad. Breathing rate and toe pinch responses were monitored to

ensure maintenance of anesthesia. For electrical stimulation experiments (N = 42 mice of both

sexes), a small craniotomy and durectomy were performed over the DCN (lateral/interposed

n.: relative to lambda, in mm: -2.1 to -2.6 AP; +/-2.1 to +/-2.3 ML). For optogenetic

experiments, optic fibers were implanted over the CM (relative to bregma: -1.3 AP; -.85 ML; -

3.55 DV, 10° angle), PF (relative to bregma: -1.87 AP; -.95 ML; -2.95 DV, 12° angle), or VTA

(relative to bregma: -3.1 AP; -0.5 ML; -4.05 DV) ipsilaterally to recording site and secured with

temporary resin acrylic (Keystone Industries, Gibbstown, NJ). For recordings, craniotomy and

durectomy were made over NAc, targeting the medial shell and/or core (relative to bregma:

+1.7 to +1.54 AP; +/- 0.4 to +/-1.15 ML).

Electrical/Optical Stimulation

For electrical stimulation, a custom stereotrode (~200 μm distance between tips) was

lowered 1.95 - 2.45 mm below the brain surface (in DV axis) through the cerebellar craniotomy

to reach the DCN. Ten trials of bipolar constant-current electrical microstimulation were

delivered at each location at a 15-s inter-trial interval. Each stimulation trial consisted of a 200-

Hz burst of five 0.5-ms monophasic square-waveform pulses at 100 μA. In a subset of

experiments (N = 15 mice), the stimulation intensity was varied between 30, 100, and 300 μA

in interleaved blocks of 5 trials per intensity. When stimulation was repeated at different DCN

sites in the same experiment, an effort was made to move the stereotrode in a direction

perpendicular to the axis of the two poles, so that an at least partly distinct pool of cerebellar

neurons could be stimulated. For optical stimulation, 20-50 trials of ten 5-ms light pulses (473-

nm DPSS laser, Opto Engine LLC, Midvale, UT) were delivered at 20 Hz (inter-trial interval: 30

s or 1 min). Optical stimulation was primarily delivered at 10 mW intensity at fiber tip, but lower

intensities were also tested (1 and 5 mW).

Acquisition of Electrophysiological Data

Recordings were performed with a 12-channel (platinum; 0.2 - 2 MΩ impedance) axial

multi-electrode array (FHC Inc., Bowdoin, ME; 150 μm distance between channels), dipped in

fluorescein dextran (3000 MW) and lowered into the NAc at a depth of 3.75 - 5.25 mm below

the brain surface (DV axis). Electrode signals were fed to a digital headstage (RHD 2132, Intan

Technologies, Los Angeles, CA) for amplification (x20), filtering (0.7 - 7500 Hz) and digitization

(30 kS/s with 16-bit resolution), before transfer to an open-source acquisition system

(OpenEphys) for display and storage.

Histology for Verification of Electrode/Optic Fiber Placement

Positioning of electrodes and fibers was initially guided by atlas-based stereotactic

coordinates (Paxinos & Franklin) and, upon completion of experiments, histologically verified

through electrolytic lesions (for location of DCN microstimulation electrodes; single 10-s

cathodal pulse of 300 µA), fiber track inspection (for optic fiber) and fluorescence imaging (for

recording array; NAc fluorescein dye track). Coordinates for subsequent animals of the same

litter were further adjusted accordingly. At the end of experiments, electrodes were retracted

and animals were perfused with 4% (w/v) paraformaldehyde (PFA) in 0.1 M phosphate buffer

(PB). Brains were dissected and post-fixed in 4% PFA, sliced in phosphate buffered saline

(PBS) and inspected under a fluorescence stereoscope (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan; SZX2). NAc

slices containing the dye track from the recording array were identified under 488 nm light; CB

slices with electrolytically lesioned tissue, and thalamic and/or VTA slices with optic fiber tracts,

were identified under brightfield illumination. Slices of interest were subsequently stained with

DAPI (1:20,000, Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., Waltham, MA), mounted on slides, and imaged

using a VS120 Olympus slide scanner. Images were manually registered to the Paxinos and

Franklin Mouse Brain Atlas and the location of the recording electrode tip and optic fiber were

mapped. Only channels along the recording array that were determined to be within NAc_{Core}

and/or NAc_{Med} were included in analysis. Experiments with misplaced optic fibers, viral

expression outside the DCN region, or cerebellar electrolytic lesions localized outside the

lateral and/or interposed DCN, were excluded from analysis.

Quantification and Statistical Analysis

Electrophysiological data processing and quantification

Custom-written MATLAB scripts (Mathworks, Natick, MA) were used for data

processing and analysis. Filtering of spikes was achieved through a 4th-order Butterworth high-

pass filter (cutoff at 300 Hz). The filtered signal was thresholded at 3-3.5 standard deviations

below the average voltage. Spikes were subsequently sorted in putative single-unit clusters

with Plexon Offline Sorter (version 3.3.5, Plexon Inc., Dallas, TX) using principal component

analysis. All well-isolated neurons were included in the analyses. Firing rates were computed

from spike counts in consecutive 10-ms time bins (peri-stimulus time histogram; PSTH).

Spikes with time differences less than 7 ms from stimulus artifacts or 1 ms from the previous

spike were discarded.

Quantification of stimulation-induced modulation of NAc spiking activity followed recent

studies of cerebellar neurons (Chen et al., 2014; Washburn et al., 2022) and our own

evaluation of the dataset. Specifically, we averaged the PSTH across all trials of the same

intensity for any given pair of recording and stimulation sites and normalized to the average

pre-stimulus baseline (z-score). We defined an excitatory response as an increase in firing rate

that exceeded 3 standard deviations (σ) above the baseline within the first 500 ms after the

stimulus onset. An inhibitory response was defined as a decrease in firing rate of more than 1

σ below the baseline that persisted for a minimum of three time bins (i.e., 30 ms) and started

within the first 500 ms after stimulus onset. The 500-ms time window captured more than 90%

of responses (not shown). For single-unit responses that included both excitatory and inhibitory

components (mixed responses), we quantified each component individually for amplitude and

latency. For illustration purposes only, all firing rates were convolved with a Gaussian kernel (σ

= 16 ms). Response onset latency was defined as the first instance at which firing rate

changed from baseline as described above, using 1-ms time bins. For analyses of multi-unit

activity, see our BioRxiv preprint (D'Ambra et al., 2020).

Statistics

Statistical analyses were performed in Graphpad Prism 9.3.0 and Matlab. Comparisons

of the relative frequency distribution of response types were performed with Contingency Table

analyses (Chi-square tests). Comparisons of response latencies and firing rates were

performed with t-tests and ANOVA. For permutation tests, we randomly shuffled the data

between groups 1,000 times and estimated the probability to find a difference greater than or

equal to the observed difference by chance alone (Oden and Wedel, 1975; Antzoulatos and

Miller, 2011). To correct for multiple comparisons, we followed the Benjamini-Hochberg

method (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995) with False Discovery Rate (FDR) set at 10%.

Surgery for anatomical studies

For anatomical tracing, juvenile mice of both sexes were injected with AAVs and tracers

using the procedure described above for in vivo optophysiology. For co-localization

experiments: AAV9-CAG-GFP (2 x 10^{12} viral particles/ml, UNC viral core) was injected in DCN

(from bregma, in mm: medial n.: -2.55 AP, ± 0.75 ML, -2.1 DV, 50 nl; interposed n. : -2.5 AP, ±

1.55 ML, -2.1 DV, 50 nl; lateral n.: -2.2 AP, ± 2.3 ML, -2.12 DV, 50 nl; and -1.8, ± 2.35 ML, -

2.12 DV, 50 nl). Cholera toxin subunit B (ctb)- 640 or -568 (5 mg/ml, Biotium) was injected in

NAc medial shell and core (from bregma, in mm: 1.8 AP, ± 0.8 ML, -4.2 DV, 200 nl). For

anterograde transsynaptic tracing: AAV1-hSyn-Cre-WPRE-hGH (10^{13} gc/ml, Addgene; 1:10

dilution) was injected in DCN (coordinates as above). AAV5-CAG-FLEX-tdTomato (7.8 x 10^{12}

viral particles/ml, UNC viral core; 1:2 dilution) or AAV5-pCAG-FLEX-EGFP-WPRE (1.1 x 10^{13}

gc/ml, Addgene; 1:2 dilution) was injected in VTA (from bregma, in mm: 2.8 AP, ± 0.35 ML, -

4.2 DV, 100 nl; and -2.85 AP, ± 0.6 ML, -4.2 DV, 100 nl) or thalamus (from bregma, in mm: -

0.85 AP, ± 0.3 ML, -3.3 DV, 300 nl; and -1.2 AP, ± 0.5 ML, -3.5 DV, 300 nl; 1:5 dilution).

Following surgery, mice remained in the colony for 2-3 weeks to allow for recovery and

retrograde labeling/virus expression prior to euthanasia and tissue collection/processing.

Histology and fluorescence microscopy for anatomical studies

Two to three weeks following tracer/virus injections, mice were anesthetized with the

anesthetic cocktail and perfused transcardially with 4% (w/v) PFA in PB. Brains were post-

fixed in 4% PFA for 6 h and transferred to 30% sucrose in PBS for overnight incubation at 4°C.

Brains were coronally sectioned (60 µm) on a sliding microtome, stained with DAPI, mounted

to slides, coverslipped with Mowiol-based antifade solution and imaged. VTA sections were

immunostained for tyrosine hydroxylase (TH) prior to mounting, as follows: slices were first

incubated with blocking solution [10% normal goat serum (NGS) in PBS supplemented with

0.3% Triton-X100; PBST] for 1 h at room temperature, then with mouse anti-TH (clone LNC11,

Millipore Sigma, Burlington, MA; 1:1000) in blocking solution with 2% NGS overnight at 4°C.

Sections were washed with PBST (3 x 20 min) and incubated for 1 h at room temperature with

goat anti-mouse Alexa fluor 488 secondary antibody (1:1000), washed with PBS (3 x 20 min),

mounted, coverslipped and imaged. Epifluorescence image mosaics were acquired on an

Olympus VS120 slide scanner with a 10x air objective. High magnification confocal images

were taken sequentially with different laser lines and a 63x oil-immersion objective on a Zeiss

LSM800 microscope with Airyscan. Image brightness/contrast was adjusted using ImageJ

(NIH) for display purposes. Data from a total of N = 13 mice with successful injections, without

spill to neighboring regions, are presented.

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Competing interests

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or

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Figure legends

Figure 1. Cerebellar stimulation effectively elicits excitatory and inhibitory responses in

nucleus accumbens. A, Schematic diagram of recording setup. Stimulation protocol consisted of 10

trials (inter-trial interval: 15 s) of five 100-µA, 0.5-ms pulses at 200 Hz. NAc: nucleus accumbens; CB:

cerebellum. **B**, Average spiking activity (spikes/s) across all recorded units (N = 42 mice). Inset shows

zoom-in of first two seconds after stimulation. **C,D,E**, Examples of excitatory (**C**), inhibitory (**D**), and

mixed (**E**) modulation in the NAc. *Top,* Peri-stimulus time histogram (PSTH) (10-ms bins) of the

average firing rate across 10 trials. *Bottom,* Baseline-normalized firing rate (z-score) across time.

Inset, Example average waveform of putative single unit. Scale bars: 1 ms, 10 µV. Shaded area

marks response window. **F,** Distribution of response types elicited in NAc by DCN stimulation. *Blue*:

Excitatory (E), *Red*: inhibitory (I), *Purple:* mixed, *Gray*: non-responders (NR). Number of recorded

units per response-type (*white*) and corresponding percentages are shown.

Figure 2. Nucleus accumbens responses to cerebellar stimulation. A, Recording sites in nucleus

accumbens core (NAc$_{Core}$) and medial shell (NAc$_{Med}$). Numbers indicate distance (in mm) from

bregma. **B,** Distribution of response types elicited by 30-, 100-, or 300-µA DCN stimulation. N$_{30}$ = 14

mice, N$_{100}$ = 42 mice, N$_{300}$ = 40 mice. Outer ring (M): NAc$_{Med}$; inner ring (C): NAc$_{Core}$. *Blue:* excitatory

(E), *Red*: inhibitory (I), *Purple:* mixed, *Gray:* non-responders (NR). **C,** Comparison between average

baseline (Bsln) and peak firing rate (Resp) elicited by 100-µA DCN stimulation for excitatory

responses in NAc$_{Core}$ (**C1**) and MAc$_{Med}$ (**C2**). Group averages (± SEM) are overlaid onto lines

representing single units. **D1**,**2**, Same as C but for inhibitory responses.

Figure 3. The distribution of response-types in nucleus accumbens subregions is not due to

topographical specialization within deep cerebellar nuclei. A, The lateral (lat) or interposed (int)

DCN (**A1**) was electrically stimulated. M: medial n. **A2,** Demarcation of anatomical planes: ML:

medio-lateral; DV: dorsoventral; AP: antero-posterior. **B,C,** Stereotactic coordinates of DCN

stimulation sites in ML-DV (B1,C1), ML-AP (B2,C2), and AP-DV (B3,C3) planes. Colored dots denote

sites that evoked excitatory (excit.: *blue*), inhibitory (inh.: *red*), mixed (*purple*) or no responses (NR:

gray) in NAc$_{Core}$ (B1-3) and NAc$_{Med}$ (C1-3).

Figure 4. **Co-localization of nucleus accumbens-projecting neurons with cerebellar projections**

in VTA and intralaminar thalamus. **A**, Schematic diagrams of stereotactic injections in DCN and

NAc. **B1**, Expression of GFP at DCN injection sites. **B2**, Ctb-Alexa 568 injection site in NAc. **C,**

Overlap of ctb-labeled NAc projectors and DCN axons in VTA. **C1**, VTA identification through TH immunostaining. **C2**, TH+ neuron. **C3**, Retrograde ctb-Alexa 568 labelling in NAc-projecting cell. **C4**, GFP-expressing DCN axons. **C5**, C2-C4 merged. **D**, Overlap of ctb retrograde label (red) in NAc projectors (blue; NeuN) and GFP-expressing DCN axons (green) in intralaminar thalamic nuclei. **D1**-**D2**, Overlap in parafascicular (PF) n. **D3**-**D4**, Overlap in centromedial (CM) n. Yellow boxes in C1,D1,D3 denote zoom-in areas depicted in C2-C5, D2 and D4, respectively. **E**-**F**, Airyscan confocal images from experiments similar to **A** but with only lateral DCN injected with AAV-GFP. **E1**, Ctb-labeled (red) NAc-projecting cell in the VTA. **E2,** TH+ cell (blue) with overlapping GFP-labeled axonal projection (green) from lateral DCN. **E3,** E1-2 merged. **F1**, GFP-labeled axon from lateral DCN (green) overlaps with ctb-labeled (red) NAc-projecting cell (blue: NeuN) in the PF n. **F2,** Same as in F1 but for neuron in the CM n. Scale bars: B1-2,C1,D1: 200 μm; C2-C5,D2,D4,E1-3,F1,F2: 5 μm; D3: 100 μm. N = 6 mice. Numbers denote distance from bregma.

Figure 5. **Disynaptic cerebellum - nucleus accumbens connectivity is confirmed via anterograde transsynaptic viral tracing**. **A**, Schematic diagram of AAV1-mediated transsynaptic labeling approach. **B**, Schematic diagrams of stereotactic injections of floxed fluorophore in VTA and thalamic nodes. **C1**, The VTA is visualized via TH immunostaining (green). Yellow box denotes zoom-in area depicted in C2. Rn: red nucleus; ml: medial lemniscus. **C2**, Neurons that receive DCN input are labeled with tdTomato (red; white arrowheads). Green: TH+ neurons (white arrows). Yellow arrowhead: TH+, tdTomato+ neuron. **C3**, Projections of CB-VTA neurons in NAc$_{Core}$ and NAc$_{Med}$. **D1**, Neurons that receive DCN input in thalamus are labeled with tdTomato (red). Blue: NeuN. CM: centromedial n.; PC: paracentral n.; CL: centrolateral n.; VL: ventrolateral n. **D2**, Same as D1, but for parafascicular n. (PF). fr: fasciculus retroflexus. **D3**, Projections of CB-thalamic neurons in NAc$_{Core}$ and NAc$_{Med}$. **E**-**F**, Fluorescence images from experiments similar to A-B but with only lateral DCN injected with AAV1-Cre. **E**, NAc projections of VTA neurons receiving input from lateral DCN. **F**, Same as in E but for thalamic neurons. Scale bars below images: C1: 200 μm; C2: 100 μm; C3,D1-3,E,F: 500 μm. N = 7 mice. Numbers denote distance from bregma.

Figure 6. Photostimulation of cerebellar projections in VTA and thalamus elicits responses in nucleus accumbens. A, Schematic diagram of optophysiological approach. *NAc:* nucleus accumbens, *CB:* cerebellum. **B,** Example ChR2-EYFP expression in DCN. lat: lateral n.; ip: interposed n; m: medial n. **C,D,E**, Histology and NAc responses to optogenetic stimulation of VTA (**C1,2**), CM (**D1,2**), and PF (**E1,2**). **C1**,**D1**,**E1**: Representative images of

optic fiber placement. ml: medial lemniscus; fr: fasciculus retroflexus. **C2**,**D2**,**E2**: Example

single units. *Left*: Average spike waveform. Scale bars: 1 ms, 10 µV. *Top*: PSTH (10-ms bins)

of firing rate (spikes/s). B*ottom*: Baseline-normalized firing rate (z-score) across time. Blue

lines denote photostimulation; Shaded area marks response window. Numbers below or next

to images indicate distance from bregma (in mm).

Figure 7. Node-dependent differences in nucleus accumbens responses to photostimulation

of cerebellar projections. A1,**B1**,**C1**, Average normalized activity (z-score) in NAc_{Core} (*top*) and

NAc_{Med} (*bottom*) as a function of time, for cerebellar fiber photostimulation (blue lines) in VTA (**A1**),

CM (**B1**) and PF (**C1**). **A2**,**B2**,**C2**, Distribution of response-types in NAc_{Core} (C: inner ring) and NAc_{Med}

(M: outer ring) upon photostimulation of cerebellar projections in VTA (**A2**), CM (**B2**), and PF (**C2**).

Blue: excitatory (E), *Red*: inhibitory (I), *Purple:* mixed, *Gray:* non-responders (NR). **D**, Average

normalized activity (z-score) in NAc_{Core} (*top*) and NAc_{Med} (*bottom*) as a function of time, for no-opsin

controls. **E**, Cumulative histogram of NAc response onset latencies upon cerebellar fiber

photostimulation in VTA, CM and PF. Inset: 0-25 ms zoom-in. **F**,**G**,**H**, Violin plots of onset latencies of

excitatory responses in NAc_{Core} (Core) and NAc_{Med} (Med), upon cerebellar fiber photostimulation in

VTA (**F**), CM (**G**) and PF (**H**). Black lines: Median; White lines: interquartile range (Q1-Q3). VTA: N =

4 mice, $n_{NAcCORE}$ = 22 units, n_{NAcMED} = 42 units; CM: N = 4 mice, $n_{NAcCORE}$ = 56 units, n_{NAcMED} = 26

units; PF: N = 3 mice, $n_{NAcCORE}$ = 40 units, n_{NAcMED} = 20 units. D, no-opsin controls: N = 4 mice,

$n_{NAcCORE}$ = 5 units, n_{NAcMED} = 36 units.

Table 1. Percent responses in NAc_{Core} and NAc_{Med} elicited by photostimulation of cerebellar axons in

VTA, CM and PF at different intensities.

Table 2. Proportion of excitatory responses in NAc_{Core} and NAc_{Med} elicited by the first light pulse, at

different photostimulation intensities.

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Figure 6
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TABLE 1.

Photostimulation Intensity		Percent (%) responses					
		VTA		**CM**		**PF**	
		NAc_{Core}	NAc_{Med}	NAc_{Core}	NAc_{Med}	NAc_{Core}	NAc_{Med}
1 mW	Exc.	59	37	54	41	43	60
	Inh.	5	17	3	6	3	5
	Mixed	0	10	3	0	3	0
	No Res.	36	37	41	53	53	35
	n =	22	41	39	17	40	20
5 mW	Exc.	82	45	54	58	58	75
	Inh.	0	7	13	4	3	0
	Mixed	5	5	5	8	0	15
	No Res.	14	43	29	31	40	10
	n =	22	42	56	26	40	20
10 mW	Exc.	86	38	77	72	65	85
	Inh.	0	2	5	0	0	0
	Mixed	5	12	5	4	3	0
	No Res.	9	48	13	24	33	15
	n =	22	42	39	25	40	20

TABLE 2.

	Photostimulation Intensity	Proportion of responses elicited by 1st light pulse	
		NAc_{Core}	NAc_{Med}
VTA	1 mW	7/13 (54%)	11/19 (58%)
	5 mW	16/19 (84%)	14/21 (67%)
	10 mW	18/20 (90%)	19/21 (90%)
CM	1 mW	16/22 (72%)	4/7 (57%)
	5 mW	27/33 (82%)	14/17 (82%)
	10 mW	26/32 (81%)	16/19 (84%)
PF	1 mW	12/18 (67%)	7/12 (58%)
	5 mW	15/23 (65%)	16/18 (89%)
	10 mW	14/27 (52%)	14/17 (82%)