Disinhibition mediated by reciprocal hypothalamic and raphé GABAergic projections

promotes wakefulness

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ABSTRACT

The lateral hypothalamus (LH), together with multiple neuromodulatory systems of the brain,

such as the dorsal raphé nucleus (DR), is implicated in arousal, yet interactions between these

systems are just beginning to be explored. Using a combination of viral tracing, circuit mapping,

electrophysiological recordings from identified neurons and combinatorial optogenetics, we

show that GABAergic neurons in the LH selectively inhibit GABAergic neurons in the DR

resulting in disinhibition of a substantial fraction of its neurons that ultimately promotes arousal.

These DR GABAergic neurons are wake active and project to multiple brain areas involved in

the control of arousal including the LH, where their specific activation potently influences local

network activity leading to arousal from sleep. Our results show how mutual inhibitory

projections between the LH and the DR promote wakefulness through disinhibitory

mechanisms and suggest a complex arousal control by intimate interactions between long-range

connections and local circuit dynamics.

Introduction

State-dependent neuronal activity across sleep-wake states, as revealed by cortical EEG, is determined by the activity of thalamo-cortical networks, the septo-hippocampal formation and neuromodulatory systems (Saper et al., 2010; Weber and Dan, 2016). Brain states are greatly influenced by the diffuse neuromodulatory systems located in the brainstem (Constantinople and Bruno, 2011; Eggermann et al., 2014; Reimer et al., 2016), the basal forebrain (Jones, 2020) and the lateral hypothalamus (LH) (Bonnavion et al., 2016; Herrera et al., 2016). The LH encompasses distinct cell populations implicated in the modulation of arousal (Saper et al., 2001) and control of energy intake (Bernardis and Bellinger, 1996). Hypocretins/orexins and MCH neurons of the LH control wakefulness (Adamantidis et al., 2007; Carter et al., 2009) and REM sleep (Jego et al., 2013; Konadhode et al., 2013; Tsunematsu et al., 2014), respectively, through direct modulation of noradrenergic or histaminergic systems (Carter et al., 2010; Jego et al., 2013).Yet, whether and how the LH can also impact on the activity of other brainstem neuromodulatory circuits remains unclear. Of these, the dorsal raphé (DR) serotonergic system is an appealing candidate for influencing brain states based on various internal functions since it rapidly (~1 s) influences sensory (Kapoor et al., 2016; Lottem et al., 2016), motor (Liu et al., 2014; Correia et al., 2017; Seo et al., 2019) and cognitive (Miyazaki et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2014; Cohen et al., 2015; Fonseca et al., 2015) functions. Importantly, the DR and its major neuromodulator serotonin (5-hydroxytryptamine, 5-HT) has been involved in the regulation of various (patho)physiological functions including depression (Lowry et al., 2008).

Controversies about the role of the 5-HT system in sleep-wake states have remained throughout the years (Oikonomou et al., 2019). Electrophysiological studies showed that putative 5-HT neurons in the DR are highly active during wakefulness, decrease firing during non-rapid eye movement (NREM) sleep, and cease firing during REM sleep (McGinty and Harper, 1976;

Trulson and Jacobs, 1979; Sakai, 2011), although heterogeneity of firing amongst DR neurons

has been reported (Urbain et al., 2006). Consistent with these recordings, brain 5-HT levels are

highest during wake, lower during NREM sleep, and lowest during REM (Portas et al., 2000).

Furthermore, pharmacological studies provided evidence for a wake-promoting function of 5-

HT (Monti, 2011). Blockade of 5-HT2 receptors promotes sleep in humans (Idzikowski et al.,

1986) and rats (Dugovic and Wauquier, 1987), but increases wakefulness in cats (Sommerfelt

and Ursin, 1993). By contrast, 5-HT was originally identified as a sleep-promoting

neuromodulator since depletion of serotonin (Torda, 1967; Koella, 1968; Mouret et al., 1968),

ablation (Jouvet, 1968, 1972) or cooling (Cespuglio et al., 1976) of the raphe area produced

transient insomnia. The sleep-promoting effect of 5-HT was partly confirmed in experimental

studies where 5-HT1AR agonists decreased wakefulness when administered locally, but

increased wakefulness when administered systemically (Fiske, 2008) and 5-HT2A KO mice

showed reduced sleep, although systemic treatment with a 5-HT2A receptor antagonist

increases sleep (Popa et al., 2005).

Interestingly, optogenetic stimulation of DR 5-HT neurons either promotes arousal and

decreases sleep (Ito et al., 2013) or induces sleep (Oikonomou et al., 2019) depending on the

pattern of stimulation. Accordingly, optogenetic inhibition of 5-HT DR neurons using ePet-cre

mice blocked arousal in response to high levels of CO_2 (Smith et al., 2018). Yet, embryonic

ablation of TPH2 does not alter total sleep levels in mice (Solarewicz et al., 2015), while genetic

ablation of TPH2 in the raphe nuclei (groups B5–B9) or Pet -positive neurons (using ePet-cre

mice) of adult mice caused hyperactivity and eliminate siestas (Whitney et al., 2016) and a

reduction only in REM sleep (Iwasaki et al., 2018), respectively.

These contrasting findings likely result from the heterogenous cell types present in the dorsal

and median raphe nuclei, their diffuse pattern of axon projections, their heterogeneous firing

patterns across the sleep-wake cycle, and the multiple serotonin receptors expressed in the

central nervous system (Pytliak et al., 2011; Sakai, 2011). Indeed, the largest fraction of DR

neurons are non-serotonergic (Descarries et al., 1982), express the VGAT marker (Allers and

Sharp, 2003) and project to various forebrain targets including the LH (Bang and Commons,

2012).

Using a combination of combinatorial optogenetics, *in vivo* and *in vitro* electrophysiological

recordings from identified neurons, we show that GABAergic neurons in the LH selectively

inhibit DR GABAergic neurons resulting in disinhibition of a substantial part of DR neurons

that ultimately promotes wakefulness. We found that DR GABA neurons are highly active

during wakefulness compared to NREM and REM sleep, project to multiple brain areas

involved in the control of arousal including the LH, where their specific activation potently

influences local network activity leading to wakefulness. These results highlight the importance

of rapid hypothalamic control of a major neuromodulatory system and emphasize the

importance of long range subcortical inputs in controlling neuromodulatory systems affecting

brain states.

RESULTS

LH GABAergic projections to the DR promote wakefulness

A subpopulation of LH VGAT (vesicular GABA and glycine transporter) neurons causally promotes arousal from NREM sleep (Herrera et al., 2016; Venner et al., 2016). Here, we tested the role of LH VGAT projections to the DR in the control of sleep-wake behaviour. To deliver opsins to LH VGAT neurons, Vgat-Cre mice were stereotactically injected with AAV2-EF1a-DIO-eYFP (control) or AAV2-EF1a-DIO-hChR2(H134R)-eYFP) (ChR2-EYFP) in the LH for *in vivo* optogenetic activation experiments (see methods; Fig. 1A and B). Mice were then implanted with EEG/EMG electrodes for the recording and quantification of sleep-wake states together with an optic fibre above the DR (see methods; Fig. 1C and D). State-specific optogenetic activation of LH VGAT fibres in the DR was triggered manually after at least 10 seconds in stable NREM or REM sleep. Blue light (473 nm) was delivered to the DR at 5Hz or 20Hz (5ms pulses) in both control (eYFP) and ChR2-expressing animals continuously until a state transition occurred (Fig. 1E). Interestingly, optogenetic activation of LH VGAT projections to the DR during NREM sleep led to a rapid arousal at both 5 and 20 Hz within < 7s (Fig. 1F, $P < 0.0001$, three-way ANOVA), whereas optical activation of these fibres failed to significantly change REM sleep duration (Fig. 1G). These results extend previous mechanisms for LH VGAT induced arousal to DR neurons in the brainstem.

Figure 1. Stimulation of LH GABAergic fibers in the DR promotes wakefulness. (A)
Schematics of the experimental design: AAV-DIO-ChR2-eYFP or AAV-DIO-eYFP was
injected in the LH of Vgat-cre mice. Following 4 weeks of expression LH GABAergic fibers
were photostimulated in the DR with simultaneous polysomnographic recordings for sleep
stage scoring. (B) Example ChR2-eYFP expression in the LH. Fluorescent image overlaid on
the stereotaxic atlas (Paxinos, AP: 4.45). (C) Location of the optical fiber in the DR used for
photostimulation. Merged fluorescent image showing LH GABAergic fibers expressing ChR2-
eYFP (green) and TPH immunhistochemistry (red) to indicate the location of TPH synthetizing
serotonergic neurons within the DR. (D) location of all implanted optical fibers in 11 mice.
Green lines: Vgat::ChR2-expressing mice (n=6), gray lines: eYFP controls (n=5), Aq:
aqueduct). (E) (Top) Schematic experimental timeline for sleep-stage specific
photostimulation. (Bottom) Representative EEG/EMG traces illustrate behavioural response to
optogenetic stimulation. Note the rapid EEG desynchronization and EMG activation upon
photostimulation indicating a NREM-to-Wake transition. (F) Latency of NREM to wake
transition caused by the photostimulation of LH GABAergic axons in the DR. (G) Latency of

REM to wake transition caused by the photostimulation of LH GABAergic axons in the DR. *

P < 0.05.

LH to DR GABAergic projections can rapidly suppress the activity of DR GABAergic

neurons

To test the functional role of GABAergic LH to DR projections, we recorded extracellular

single unit activity from morphologically and neurochemically identified neurons in the DR of

anesthetized Vgat-cre mice transduced with AAV-flex-ChR2 in the LH while photo-stimulating

ChR2 expressing LH axons in the DR (5 light pulses of 10 ms at 20 Hz, 5 mW; Fig. 2A).

When comparing the activity of DR neurons upon LH GABAergic axonal photo-stimulation,

we found a rapid suppression (peak suppression: 42.37±5.94%, Fig 2B) of neuronal activity

(baseline firing: 7.72±6.43 Hz, baseline firing rate after photostimulation: 5.37±6.77 Hz, n=25,

p < 0.001, Wilcoxon's signed rank test, Fig 2D and E). We identified the morphology of 8

neurons and the neurochemical identity of 3 of these neurons (38%) was confirmed to be

GABAergic based on positive immunohistochemical reaction to Vgat (Fig 2C). These results

show that LH GABAergic neurons exert a potent inhibitory action onto identified and putative

DR GABAergic neurons.

We next explored the effect of stimulating LH GABAergic fibers in the DR in awake, head-

restrained animals while recording the activity of multiple single units in the DR (see Methods).

Comparison of the activity of DR neurons recorded in the presence and absence of LH

GABAergic axonal photostimulation (5 light flashes of 10 ms at 20 Hz, 5 mW) further

confirmed the strong inhibitory effect onto a subset of DR neurons (2/12, 17%), while the

activity of the remaining neurons was increased (10/12, 83%). The overall activity of DR

neurons was slowly (~200 ms), but persistently (~1 sec) increased (baseline firing: 7.67±6.87

   Hz, baseline firing after photostimulation: 10.98±8.920 Hz, n=12, *p* < 0.001, Wilcoxon's signed

rank test, Fig 2F and G).

Figure 2. LH GABAergic projections control the activity of DR neurons. (A) Schematics

of the experimental design: AAV-Flex-ChR2 injection in the LH of VGAT mice leads to

prominent ChR2 expression in DR projecting axons. 4 weeks after the infection local axons of

LH GABAergic neurons are photostimulated in the DR with simultaneous single unit

juxtacellular recoding/labeling. (B) Example of spontaneous activity of a DR GABAergic

neuron and its response to local photostimulation of LH GABAergic axons. (Top) Single-trial

raw data aligned on photostimulation onset (blue horizontal bar, 5 mW, 10 ms pulses at 50 Hz).

Middle, Raster plot in which each tic is a single-unit spike and each row represents a single

trial. Red line: photostimulation onset. (Bottom) PSTH of the unit shown above. (C) Fluorescent

pictures showing the neuron recorded in (B) filled with Neurobiotin using the juxtacellular

filling technique (see Methods). Left: streptavidin, middle: VGAT immunostaining, right:

merged picture. (D) Modulation index of all recorded neurons under anaesthesia. (E) Grand

average PSTH of all neurons recorded neurons under anaesthesia. (F) Modulation index of all

recorded neurons in awake animals (inh: inhibited, n.s.: not signifficant, exc: excited). (G)

Grand average PSTH of all neurons recorded neurons under anaesthesia. (H) Schematics of the

experimental design: AAV-ChR2-Venus injection in the LH of WT mice leads to prominent

ChR2 expression in DR projecting axons. After 4 weeks after the infection local axons of LH

GABAergic neurons are photostimulated in the DR with simultaneous whole-cell patch clamp

recordings in identified DR neurons. (I) (Top, left) Fluorescent images (Streptavidin, GABA

immunostaining, merged) of a DR GABAergic neuron responding to LH axonal

photostimulation. (Top, right) Membrane potential responses to hyperpolarizing and

depolarizing current steps shows fast action potential output with moderate frequency

adaptation. (Bottom, right) The photostimulation of LH axons leads to monosynaptic IPSPs that

are resistant to iGluR blockade (NBQX), but blocked by SR-95531 (GBZ, gabazine). (Bottom,

left) Distribution of PSP amplitudes in all the neurons recorded (n). Filled circles indicate

identified GABA (green) or 5-HT (red) neurons, open circles putative GABAergic (green) or

5-HT (red) neurons, unid: unidentified neurons.

DR neurons receive monosynaptic inputs from LH GABAergic cells

In order to determine the downstream circuitries mediating this rapid arousal response, we

mapped LH GABA efferents utilizing ChR2-assisted circuit mapping after stereotactic injection

of AAV-ChR2-td-tomato into the LH of VGAT-cre mice. We previously found that

LH$_{GABA}$ neurons send long-range projections to various brainstem nuclei, including the DR

(Herrera et al., 2016).

Next, we used optogenetics to functionally characterize this LH-DR circuit. We found that

photostimulation of AAV-syn-ChR2-Venus (Petreanu et al 2009) expressing LH terminals in

the DR evoked inhibitory postsynaptic potentials (IPSPs, -7.9±1.03 mV peak amplitude with a

10,91±2,41 ms decay time) in 8 DR cells (20%) recorded (Fig. 2I), while EPSPs of 7.58±0.9

mV peak amplitude with a 11,07±2,46 ms decay time were recorded in 10 (15%) DR cells (Fig.

2I). No detectable PSPs could be recorded in the remaining population, n=34, 65%). The IPSPs

could be abolished by SR95531 (i.e. gabazine, n= 5 out of 5 cells, 100%, Fig 2I) but not NBQX

(n=0/5, 0%, Fig 2I), suggesting that these are monosynaptic pathways implicating GABAa

receptors. Note that this result was further confirmed by the recording of similar IPSPs upon

photostimulation of LH axon terminals in the presence of TTX and 4-AP (mean IPSP

amplitude: control: 4.7±0.9 mV, TTX/TEA: 3.15±0.8 mV, n=5 neurons, data not shown). When

neurons were held at membrane potentials close to action potential initiation threshold,

photostimulation of LH axons also led to a prominent suppression of firing (12.66±6.65 Hz vs.

0 Hz, MI -1.0, n=3 neurons) due to the presence of large amplitude IPSPs (Fig 2I). This

suppression of firing was fully abolished when IPSPs were blocked by gabazine (n=3/3, Fig 2I).

The EPSPs were completely blocked by the AMPA/KA receptor blocker NBQX (n=5 out of 5 cells, Suppl Fig 2), but persisted in the presence of TTX and 4-AP (mean EPSP amplitude: control: 5.68±0.49 mV, TTX/4-AP: 2.88±0.42 mV, n=5 neurons, data not shown). When scrutinizing the neurochemical identity of the neurons recorded following either post-hoc immunohistochemistry (against GABA or 5-HT) or when recording fluorescent GABAergic neurons in G42 mice (JAX stock #007677) (Chattopadhyaya et al., 2004) we found that the PSPs were EPSPs in all serotonergic neurons, but IPSPs in most GABAergic neurons. These results show that the LH to DR projections are functional, can be either inhibitory or excitatory, and show cell-type specific preferences within the GABAergic and serotoninergic neuronal populations of the DR.

The activity of identified DR GABA neurons is brain state dependent

To target GABAergic neurons in the DR, we made use of the intersectional virus approach (Fenno et al., 2014), in which Pet1^{Flpe} - Vgat^{Cre} double transgenic mice (Jensen et al., 2008; Vong et al., 2011) were injected with an adeno-associated virus (AAVdjd) that was both Cre- and Flp-dependent (see methods; Fig. 4A). We used this approach to exclude the possibility that GABAergic markers (Vgat) are co-expressed with serotonergic neurons(Huang et al., 2019; Ren et al., 2019; Okaty et al., 2020) by targeting distinct subpopulations of the DR with ChR2-eYFP that were either Pet1-OFF/Vgat-ON or Pet1-ON/Vgat-ON. The Pet1-OFF/Vgat-ON GFP-positive neurons co-localized with Vgat neurons that were co-transfected with a Cre-dependent mCherry virus (Fig. 3B).

To investigate whether the activity of GABA neurons in the DR is modulated across sleep-wake

states, we performed opto-tag unit recording of putative DR Pet1-OFF/Vgat-ON neurons while

simultaneously conducting EEG and EMG recordings in freely moving Pet1^{Flpe}-Vgat^{Cre} mice

(see methods; Fig. 3C). These neurons were identified by their immediate increase in spiking

in response to short blue light pulses (10 times 5ms pulses, every 30 seconds) delivered to the

DR via an optic fiber. A total of 9 optogenetically identified Pet1-OFF/Vgat-ON neurons (9 out

of 66 cells from 4 animals; Fig. 3D and E) were recorded during wakefulness (Fig. 4F). The

activity of Pet1-OFF/Vgat-ON neurons was modulated across sleep-wake states (Fig. 3F-H,

NREM vs Wake/REM: $P < 0.05$, Friedman non-parametric test). Indeed, their firing activity

increased significantly upon arousal as compared to the 5 seconds before the transition occurred

(, i.e., when the muscle tone was still low; Fig. 3F,G and I; NREM-to-wake $P < 0.01$; REM-to-

wake $P < 0.05$, paired t-tests). In turn, the firing activity decreased when the mice were at the

onset of NREM sleep (Wake-to-NREM $P < 0.01$, , paired t-test), while on the other hand, the

transition from NREM to REM sleep was not marked by a substantial change in firing activity

(Fig 3I).

Figure 3. The activity of optogenetically identified DR GABA neurons are modulated across the sleep-wake cycle. (A) Schematics of intersectional viral strategy: ChR2-Con/off-eYFP was targeted to DR neurons in Pet1^{Flpe}-Vgat^{Cre} double transgenic mice. (B) ChR2 expression is restricted to DR GABA (Vgat-mCherry expressing) neurons. (C) Schematics of the experimental design: simultaneous DR Pet1-OFF/Vgat-ON neuron and and EEG recordings in behaving mice. (D) Example recording of a DRN Pet1-OFF/Vgat-ON neuron throughout various sleep/wake states. (Top) raw trace voltage recording shows clear action potential firing upon photostimulation (blue ticks). (Bottom) Hypnogram and spike ticks of the neuron showed above (W: wake, R: REM, N: NREM). (E) Averaged spike waveforms of optogenetically identified DRN Pet1-OFF/Vgat-ON neurons (n = 9 neurons from n = 4 mice). DRN Pet1-OFF/Vgat-ON neurons were identified by their immediate firing in response to pulses of blue light generated by a 453 nm laser (10 pulses of 5ms every 30 sec). (F,G) Raster plot of a DRN Pet1-OFF/Vgat-ON neuron during NREM-to-wake transitions (F) and REM-to-

wake transitions (G) with spike ticks of the neuron (Top) and PSTH of the neuron across all transitions (Bottom) (H) Firing rates of the 9 DRN Pet1-OFF/Vgat-ON neurons across wakefulness, NREM and REM sleep. (I) PSTH (Mean + SEM) of DRN Pet1-OFF/Vgat-ON neurons during the different sleep state transitions.

Wake promoting effect of DR GABA neurons

Next, we investigated whether Pet1-OFF/Vgat-ON neurons in the DR were causally involved in arousal control. For this, we optogenetically activated DR Pet1-OFF/Vgat-ON neurons during NREM sleep (see methods; Fig. 4C). Consistent with our correlative data, we found that photostimulation of DR Pet1-OFF/Vgat-ON neurons induced a rapid arousal from NREM sleep when light pulses were delivered at 20Hz as compared to controls (P < 0.0001, Three-way ANOVA; Pet1-OFF/Vgat-ON vs Ctrl: P < 0.0001, Dunnett's multiple comparison's post-hoc test), whereas 5Hz stimulation frequency did not decrease the latency to wakefulness transitions (n = 6 animals per group; Fig 4C). The probability of REM sleep onset decreased upon optogenetic activation of Pet1-OFF/Vgat-ON neurons during NREM sleep (Fig. 4E), suggesting an implication in REM sleep onset. However, both 5 and 20Hz stimulation frequencies during REM sleep led to an immediate arousal from REM sleep in Pet1-OFF/Vgat-ON mice (Fig. 4D, P < 0.0001, three-way ANOVA; Pet1-OFF/Vgat-ON vs Ctrl: P < 0.0001, at both 5 and 20 Hz, Dunnett's multiple comparison's post-hoc test). As expected, optogenetic activation of Pet1-ON/Vgat-ON neurons (n = 6 animals) did not alter sleep-wake behavior as compared to controls (n = 6 animals; Fig 4D, E).

Figure 4. Stimulation of DRN GABAergic neurons promotes wakefulness. (A) Schematic of the experimental strategy: various intersectional viral constructs carrying the coding sequence of either eYFP (control) or ChR2 are injected in the DRN of Pet1^{Flpe} - Vgat^{Cre} double transgenic mice. The DRN is photostimulated 4 weeks post-infection. (B) Location of the fiberoptic canulae in all the animals used: left, gray lines: control, middle, green lines: Pet1-OFF/Vgat-ON, right, blue lines: Pet1-ON/Vgat-ON. (C) Latency of NREM to wake transition caused by the photostimulation of the DRN. (D) Latency of REM to wake transition caused by the photostimulation of the DRN. (E) State transition probabilities at 5 versus 20 Hz photostimulation for all three viral constructs. * $P < 0.05$.

DR GABA neurons promote Wake through disinhibition in LH

To identify potential sleep-wake centers that may mediate the arousal promotion of DR

GABAergic neurons, we performed a ChR2-assisted functional circuit mapping. Animals were

prepared as described above. We found that DR Pet1-OFF/Vgat-ON strongly innervated major

sleep-wake centers, such as the LH, the locus coeruleus (LC), the ventral tegmental area (VTA)

and the centromedial thalamic nucleus (CMT) (Fig. 5A and B). To further understand the

reciprocal connection between the DR and the LH, we performed optogenetic state-specific

stimulations of Pet1-OFF/Vgat-ON projecting fibers in the LH. We found that optogenetic

stimulation (20Hz) of DR Pet1-OFF/Vgat-ON projections to the LH reproduced the arousal-

inducing effect that was observed during somatic optogenetic activation (Fig. 5C, D, NREM

sleep: P < 0.0001, three-way ANOVA; Ctrl. versus LH stimulation: P < 0.001, Dunnett's

multiple comparisons post-hoc test; REM sleep: P < 0.0001, three-way ANOVA; Ctrl. versus

LH stimulation: P < 0.001, Dunnett's multiple comparisons post-hoc test). Interestingly,

optogentic activation of Pet1-OFF/Vgat-ON projections in the LC area, a predominant wake-

promoting center, resulted in a similar effect (Ctrl. versus LC stimulation: NREM sleep: P<

0.0001; REM sleep: P < 0.001, Dunnett's multiple comparisons post-hoc test), while

optogenetic stimulation of Pet1-OFF/Vgat-ON projections in the CMT led to an arousal only

from NREM sleep, but not from REM sleep (Ctrl. versus CMT stimulation: NREM sleep: P<

0.001; REM sleep: n.s., Dunnett's multiple comparisons post-hoc test), in line with a previous

study highlighting a role of the CMT in NREM sleep regulation (Gent et al., 2018) (Fig. 5 C,

D).

To further delineate the mechanism by which DR Pet1-OFF/Vgat-ON neurons induce arousal

via the LH, we performed single unit recordings in the LH while simultaneously recording

EEG/EMG and conducting optical stimulations of ChR2-expressing Pet1-OFF/Vgat-ON

neurons using a similar preparation as described above (see methods; Fig. 5E). First, we

clustered all the cells that we recorded in the LH according to their sleep-wake discharge

profiles; recorded cells separated into 2 clusters, with one cluster showing maximal activity

during wakefulness (55% of cells from 2 animals; Fig. 5F, G), while the second cluster showed

maximal activity during both REM sleep and wakefulness (45% of cells from 2 animals; Fig.

55F, G). Cells from both clusters were less active during NREM sleep (Fig. 5F). Interestingly,

during optogenetic stimulation of DR Pet1-OFF/Vgat-ON neurons, cells from Cluster 1 barely

changed their firing rate, whereas half of the cells from the second cluster significantly

modulated their firing activity in response to DR Pet1-OFF/Vgat-ON neuronal activation (Fig.

5G). In particular, a major part of responsive cells from Cluster 2 was disinhibited by the

optogenetic activation of DR Pet1-OFF/Vgat ON neurons, while a few cells were inhibited (Fig.

5G and H, P < 0.05, three-way ANOVA). These results show that the activation of DR GABA

neurons disinhibits the majority of LH neurons and promotes wakefulness.

Figure 5. DRN GABA neurons promote arousal through disinhibition in the LH. (A) (Top

left) Schematics of the experimental design: ChR2 is expressed in DRN GABAergic neurons

following a viral injection in Pet1-Flpe x Vgat-Cre mice. Axonal projections of DRN GABAergic neurons express ChR2 in various DRN target areas including the LH (top right), centromedial thalamus (CMT, bottom left) and locus coeruleus (LC, bottom right). (B) Normalized intensity of the fluorescent eYFP signal in various projection areas of the DRN (PFC: prefrontal cortex, NAc: nucleus accumbens, HDB: horizontal diagonal band of Brocca, MS: medial septum, LHb: lateral habenula, RTN: thalamic reticular nucleus, CeA: central amygdala, CA1: hippocampus CA1 region, SNc: substantia nigra pars compacta). (C) Latency of NREM to wake transition caused by photostimulation of DRN GABA projections in the LH, CMT and LC. (D) Latency of REM to wake transition caused by photostimulation of DRN GABA projection targets (LH, CMT, LC). (E) Schematic of the experimental design: ChR2 expressing Pet1-OFF/Vgat-ON neurons are photostimulated in the DRN while single units are recorded in the LH of freely moving mice. (F) Activity of all recorded LH neurons during various sleep-wake stages differentiates two clusters of neurons: Cluster 1 containing wake active neurons while Cluster 2 neurons do not show significant firing rate increases during the awake state. (G) Venn diagram of all Cluster 1 and 2 LH neurons constructed on the basis of their response to the photostimulation of DRN GABAergic neurons. (H) Effect of DRN GABAergic photostimulation on the state-dependent firing of inhibited (left) and disinhibited (right) neurons. For details see main text. * $P < 0.05$.

Discussion

In this study, we show that activation of LH GABAergic axons in the DR promotes wakefulness through a local release of GABA that rapidly and strongly suppresses activity of identified DR GABA neurons but disinhibits other non-GABAergic DR neurons. In addition, we found that the activity of DR GABA neurons is state dependent, while activation of DR GABA neurons disinhibits the majority of LH neurons to promote wakefulness. This wake promoting effect of

optogenetic activation of the LH GABA-DR GABA circuit promotes rapid wakefulness selectively during NREM sleep, consistent with their activity profile across sleep-wake states (Hassani et al., 2010; Herrera et al., 2016). These findings identify a LH GABA -DR GABA feedback loop that is essential for rapid alteration of global brain states and facilitation of wakefulness.

Using antero-and retrograde viral tracing and *in vitro* ChR$_2$ assisted circuit mapping we show that a subset of LH GABA neurons establishes monosynaptic connections to DR neurons. Functional analysis of this mapping revealed that LH GABA neurons exert a strong GABA$_A$-mediated inhibitory action on DR GABAergic neurons leading to rapid NREM sleep-to-Wake transitions. The precise neurochemical identity of this subset of DR-projecting LH GABA neurons remains to be established in light of the numerous sub-populations amongst inhibitory neurons of the LH (Mickelsen et al., 2017).

Local GABA release evoked by optogenetic activation of LH GABA axons in the DR promotes wakefulness by rapidly and strongly suppressing the activity of DR GABA neurons. This occurs through a direct synaptic inhibition of DR GABA neurons mediated by GABA$_A$ receptors and leads to a prominent suppression of firing in DR GABA neurons *in vivo*. Consistent with these *in vivo* recordings we show that the activity of identified DR GABA cells is strongly modulated across NREM sleep-to-wake transitions and optogenetic activation of the LH GABA-DR circuit promotes rapid wakefulness selectively during NREM sleep, but not during REM sleep. This result is in line with previous studies reporting sleep/wake transitions upon optogenetic activation of LH GABA fibers in the medial septum, locus coeruleus and reticular thalamic nucleus (Herrera et al., 2016; Venner et al., 2016). Our results demonstrate that LH

GABA neurons directly inhibit DR GABA neurons that probably lead to a disinhibition of

various DR neurons. The exact targets of this disinhibition awaits further investigation and are

hard to predict given the extreme neurochemical and physiological diversity of the raphe nuclei

(Domonkos et al., 2016; Szonyi et al., 2016; Sos et al., 2017). A phasic increase in 5-HT neuron

activity can rapidly and prominently affect cortical activity (Lottem et al., 2016) and thus may

lead to brain state changes. However, recently the selective tonic activation of DR 5-HT neurons

has been shown to promote sleep, while burst stimulation induces wakefulness (Oikonomou et

al., 2019). In light of the present results, it is possible that the phasic activity changes of DR

neurons and their consequences at the cortical level at least partly originate from the LH GABA

neuron activation during sleep to wake transitions.

DR GABA neuronal stimulation also promoted wakefulness, possibly by suppressing or

activating local sleep- or wake-promoting neurons in the LH, respectively. One may speculate

that GABA release from DR GABA synapses could suppress activity of sleep-promoting

neurons including REM-sleep promoting MCH neurons (Jego et al., 2013; Konadhode et al.,

2013; Tsunematsu et al., 2014), REM active LH VGAT neurons (Hassani et al., 2010; Oesch

et al., 2020), REM-active Lh6x GABA neurons from the ventral zona incerta (Liu et al., 2017).

In contrast, it could inhibit local inhibitory circuits that would result in the activation of the

wake-promoting hypocretins/orexins neurons (Adamantidis et al., 2007), or wake-active LH

VGAT neurons (Hassani et al., 2010; Herrera et al., 2016; Oesch et al., 2020). Whether and

how this dual modulatory activity operates during the sleep-wake cycle awaits further

investigation.

Taken together, a brain area involved in energy balance and arousal can affect the activity of

the DR, an area involved in the control of higher brain functions including reward, patience,

mood and sensory coding suggesting a potential route for interactions between metabolic states

and brain states.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

All experimental procedures were performed according to the European Communities Council Directives of 1986 (86/609/EEC) and 2003 (2003/65/CE) for animal research and were approved by the Ethics Committee of the University of Szeged and University of Bern. 80 mice were used in this study.

Surgical procedures, viral injections

Mice were anesthetized using 1-1.5% (v/v) Isoflurane, placed in a stereotaxic frame (Model 900, David Kopf Instruments, USA) on a heating pad (Supertech, Hungary). A small craniotomy (1 mm diameter) was made over the LH (AP: -0.94; ML: ±1.00; DV: -5.2 and -5.4 (mm) from Bregma). 50 nl of undiluted virus (AAV-synapsin-ChR2-Venus(Petreanu et al., 2009) in WT or GAD-GFP mice(Chattopadhyaya et al., 2004), AAV-flex-ChR2-RFP in VGAT-cre mice) was injected in each hemisphere using a nanoinjector (Nanoliter 2000, WPI) connected to a glass pipette (~20 um diameter). For the retrograde labeling of DR projecting LH neurons, Ai9 mice (i.e. td tomato reporter mouse line(Madisen et al., 2010)) were injected with PRV-cre (Oyibo et al., 2014) in the DR (AP: -4.75 , ML: 0, DV: -3.1 (mm) from Bregma; 31° AP angle). Mice received appropriate post operative care (analgesics: Rimadyl (15 mg/ml (0,1 ml volume) i.p.), anti inflammatory drug: Dexafort (2mg/kg), antibiotic: Gentamicin (5mg/kg).

In vitro electrophysiology

Mice were deeply anesthetized and perfused through the heart with ice cold cutting solution containing (in mM) 93 N-methyl-d-glucamine, 2.5 KCl, 1.2 NaH_2PO_4, 30 $NaHCO_3$, 20 HEPES, 25 glucose, 5 N-acetyl-l-cysteine, 5 Na-ascorbate, 3 Na-pyruvate, 10 $MgSO_4$, and 0.5 $CaCl_2$.

The same solution was used to cut coronal brainstem slices containing the DR at 4ºC and for

the initial storage of slices (32-34ºC for 12 minutes) following which the slices were stored in

a solution containing (in mM) 30 NaCl, 2.5 KCl, 1.2 NaH_2PO_4, 1.3 $NaHCO_3$, 20 HEPES, 25

glucose, 5 N-acetyl-l-cysteine, 5 Na-ascorbate, 3 Na-pyruvate, 3 $CaCl_2$, and 1.5 $MgSO_4$. For

recording, slices were submerged in a chamber perfused with a warmed (34°C) continuously

oxygenated (95% O_2, 5% CO_2) ACSF containing (in mM) 130 NaCl, 3.5 KCl, 1 KH_2PO_4, 24

$NaHCO_3$, 1.5 $MgSO_4$, 3 $CaCl_2$, and 10 glucose. DR neurons were visualized using standard

DIC optics and recorded in whole cell current clamp mode using an EPC9 amplifier (Heka

Elektronik). Patch pipettes (tip resistance, 4–5 MΩ) were filled with an internal solution

containing the following (in mM): 126 K-gluconate, 4 KCl, 4 ATP-Mg, 0.3 $GTP-Na_2$, 10

HEPES, 10 kreatin-phosphate, and 8 biocytin, pH 7.25; osmolarity, 275 mOsm. The liquid

junction potential (−13 mV) was corrected off-line. Access and series resistances were

constantly monitored, and data from neurons with a >20% change from the initial value were

discarded. DR GABAergic neuron somata in GAD-GFP mice were targeted under

epifluorescent illumination. Photostimulation was performed through the microscope objective

using a blue LED light source (0.5-0.8 mW/mm^2, Thorlabs).

In vivo electrophysiology

To record the activity of DR neurons mice were anesthetized using 1-1.5% (v/v) Isoflurane

(Forane), placed in a stereotaxic frame (Model 900, David Kopf Instruments, USA) on a heating

pad (Supertech, Hungary). A small craniotomy (1 mm diameter) was made over the DR ((AP:

-4.75, ML: 0.0, DV: -3.1 (mm) from Bregma) leaving the dura mater intact. Glass electrodes

(resistance: 10-25 MOhm) were filled with saline containing 1.5% Biocytin (Sigma, Hungary).

The electrode was lowered in a 15º mediolateral angle to avoid the sagittal sinus. The activity

of DR neurons was monitored using a Multiclamp 700B amplifier (Molecular Devices)

operating in current clamp mode (filtered between 0.3 Hz and 3 kHz). At the end of some

recordings neurons were filled with Biocytin using 0.5-4 nA anodal current pulses of 500 ms

duration, 50% duty cycle for 2-10 minutes) as previously described (Pinault, 1996).

Viral targeting

For optogenetic activation of LH^{vgat} projections to the DR, one group of Vgat-IRES-Cre mice

(Vong et al., 2011) received AAV2-EF1a-DIO-hChR2(H134R)-eYFP, while the second group

received AAV2-EF1a-DIO-eYFP (control, both virus vectors were packaged at the Vector Core

of the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, titres between $3 \cdot 10^{12}$ to $5 \cdot 10^{12}$ cfu per ml).

For optogenetic activation of DR neurons, Vgat-IRES-Cre (Vong et al., 2011) x Pet1-Flpe

(Jensen et al., 2008) double transgenic mice received AAVdjd-EF1a-Foff/Con-

hChR2(H134R)-eYFP (Pet1-OFF/Vgat-ON), AAVdjd-EF1a-Fon/Con-hChR2(H134R)-eYFP

(Pet1-ON/Vgat-ON), or AAVdjd-EF1a-eYFP (eYFP controls). 0.6 ul of each virus was injected

bilaterally into the lateral hypothalamus (AP: -1.4 mm, ML: ±1 mm, DV: -5.4 mm from

Bregma) or into the dorsal raphe nucleus (AP: -4.45, ML: +1.2, DV: -2.9, at a 30° angle). The

virus suspension was infused with a micro-infusion pump (PHD Ultra, Harvard Apparatus)

through a 28 G stainless steel cannula (Plastic One) at a rate of 0.1 µl per minute.

Surgical procedures for sleep experiments

487 Surgical procedures for sleep-state-specific optogenetic experiments were performed as

488 described previously. Briefly, 8-10 week old male Vgat-IRES-Cre mice were chronically

489 implanted with an optical fibre (200 um, 0.39 NA Core Multimode Optical Fiber, FT200EMT,

490 TECS Clad, Thorlabs, inserted into zirconia ferrules, 1,25 mm OD; 230 µm ID, Precision Fiber

491 product) above the DR (AP -4.4, ML +1.2, DV -2.9 from Bregma), which were fixated to the

skull with C&B-Metabond (Parkell Inc.). Four stainless steel screw electrodes were inserted epidurally (two into both frontal cortices, two into parietal cortices) for the recording of EEG signals and wire loops were sewed to both neck muscles for EMG recordings. The EEG/EMG electrodes and optic fibre were secured to the skull with dental cement (Patterson dental). After surgical procedures mice were allowed to recover for two weeks.

Data acquisition.

Before the start of the experiment, the animals were habituated to a 3-m-long fibre optic patch cord with protective tubing (Thorlabs) that was connected to the chronically implanted optical fibre with a zirconia sleeve (Precision Fiber Products) and an EEG/EMG cable for one week. Subsequently, a 24-h baseline polysomnographic recording was obtained without any optogenetic manipulations. EEG and EMG signals were sampled with an AM systems 3500 amplifier at 512 Hz and digitized with a national instruments USB X DAQ device. EEG and EMG data were recorded with the SleepScore software (View Point). All experiments took place between 10 - 2 PM (Zeitgeber time 3-7).

For unit recordings in freely moving animals, mice were habituated to optical patch cords and an electrode board head stage (RHD2132, Intan Technologies) for at least 4 days. Subsequently a 24-h baseline polysomnographic recording was obtained without optogenetic manipulations to ensure that the animals recovered a normal sleep-wake cycle. Tetrode signals were acquired at 20 kHz with an open-source acquisition software (Open Ephys) via a digitizing head stage (RHD2132) and a multi-channel DAQ board (Open Ephys, Intan Technologies). Opto-tagging was performed by applying short blue light pulses to the DR (10 times 5ms pulses, every 30 seconds). Light-responsive cells were identified based on their spiking activity within 3 ms of the application of blue light.

EEG and EMG recordings

Sleep-wake stages were scored based on EEG/EMG signal characteristics as described previously (Jego *et al.*, 2013). Briefly, wakefulness was scored when low-amplitude desynchronized EEG activity was accompanied by high, tonic muscle activity with phasic bursts in the EMG. NREM sleep was defined by the presence of synchronized, high amplitude oscillations in the delta frequency band (0.5 – 4 Hz) and low EMG tone. REM sleep was scored when the EEG showed pronounced theta oscillations with an almost complete absence of EMG tone except for short twitches. The 24 h baseline recordings were scored in epochs of 5 s, while state-specific optogenetic stimulation recordings were scored at an epoch duration of 1 s.

Optogenetic activation during polysomnographic recordings

For *in vivo* optogenetic stimulation experiments, the patch cord was connected to a 473nm DPSS laser (Laserglow Technologies) via a FC/PC connector (250 um, 30126G2-250, Thorlabs). The laser output was set to a power output of 10 mW from the tip of the optic fibre. Trains of 5 ms pulses at 5 or 20Hz were applied to LH$_{VGAT}$ fibres or DR Pet1-OFF/Vgat-ON neurons and fibres using a Master-9 pulse generator (A.M.P. Instruments). State-specific optical activation was performed based on visual inspection of online EEG and EMG signal parameters. For NREM and REM sleep-specific optogenetic activation, pulse trains were applied through the patch cord and optic fibre when the animal spent at least 10 seconds in NREM or REM sleep. The optogenetic stimulation was performed throughout the NREM or REM episode until the mouse transitioned to another state. Afterwards, the animal was left undisturbed to cycle between NREM sleep, REM sleep and wakefulness for 2-3 cycles before

the next NREM or REM sleep episode was optically stimulated. A total of 9 NREM and REM

sleep episodes per animal were optogenetically stimulated for each frequency (5 and 20 Hz).

Immunohistochemistry following sleep studies

At the end of the experiments, the mice were deeply anesthetized with an intraperitoneal

injection of pentobarbital (250 mg/kg, Streuli Pharma) and transcardially perfused with 5 ml

cold saline (0.9 % NaCl) followed by 20 ml 4% formaldehyde (Grogg Chemie). Subsequently,

the brains were removed and stored in formaldehyde over night at 4 °C for post-fixation. The

next day, the brains were transferred into phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) containing 30 %

sucrose before freezing. The brains were cut into 30 μm sections with a cryostat (Hyrax C 25,

Zeiss) and collected in PBS with 0.1 % Triton A-100 (Sigma-Aldrich), PBST.

For immunostaining, the sections were first incubated for 1 h at room temperature in a blocking

solution containing 4 % bovine serum albumin (Sigma-Aldrich) in PBS-T. Then the tissue was

incubated with anti-GFP (1:5000, A0262, Life technologies) and anti-Tph2 (1:400, ABN60,

Merck) for 24 h. Afterwards, the sections were washed for 5 x 5 minutes in PBS-T and then

incubated with DyLight 488 and AlexaFluor 555 secondary antibody (1:500 dilution, A96947

for eYFP, Life technologies; 1:500, A21428 for Tph2; Life technologies) at room temperature

for 1 h. The sections were washed 2 x 10 minutes in PBS-T and 2-10 minutes in PBS and then

mounted on glass slides. Cover slips were fixed on the slides with Fluoromount (F4680, Sigma-

Aldrich). Photomicrographs were taken using an Olympus BX 51 epifluorescence microscope.

For display, the image brightness and contrast was moderately adjusted in Adobe Photoshop

CC.

Immunohistochemistry following *in vitro* recordings

Following *in vivo* electrophysiological recordings, slices were immersed in 4%

paraformaldehyde (PFA) in 0.1 M phosphate buffer (PB; pH = 7.4) at 4 °C for at least 12 h.

After several washes with 0.1 M PB, slices were embedded in 10% gelatin, and further

sectioned into slices of 50-70 μm thickness in the cold PB using a vibratome VT1000S (Leica

Microsystems). Coronal sections were subjected to freeze-thaw over liquid nitrogen after

cryoprotecting in 10% and 20% sucrose. The recorded cells were first visualized with

incubation in Cy3-conjugated streptavidin (Jackson ImmunoResearch) for 2 h, diluted at 1:500

in tris buffer saline (TBS, SigmaAldrich). After examination by epifluorescence microscopy

(Olympus BX60), the sections containing the soma of the labeled neurons were incubated in

10% normal horse serumin (NHS) in TBS to block non specific antibody-binding sites. Free-

floating sections were incubated in primary antibodies dissolved in TBS containing 0,1%

Trinon X-100 ((TBS-Tx); Sigma Aldrich) for overnight at room temperature ((RT); 22 °C). The

following primary antibodies were used: anti-5HT-Rb (1:1000, Jackson ImmunoResearch);

anti-GABA-Rb (1:1000, Jackson ImmunoResearch). After several washes in TBS, the

immunoreactions were visualized with Dylight649-DARb (1:400, Jackson ImmunoResearch)

secondary antibodies. Finally, the sections were mounted in Vectashield mounting medium

(VectorLaboratories). Images were taken by confocal microscope (Olympus FV1000).

Immunohistochemistry following *in vivo* single unit recordings

After experiments the animal was quickly perfused through the heart with 50 ml of PBS

followed by 50 ml 4% PFA in 0.1 M PB. Following perfusion, brains were postfixed overnight

and stored in 0.1 M PB with 0.05% sodium azide at 4°C as a preservative. Tissue was sectioned

in PB at 50–70 μm on a Leica vibratome (Leica VT 1000S). Coronal sections were

permeabilized in 0.3 % TBS-Tx. The sections were incubated in Cy3 or Alexa488 conjugated

streptavidin (1:500; Jackson ImmunoResearch) for 2 h at RT in TBS. Images were taken by

confocal microscope (Olympus FV1000).

Permutation test for significant modulation of unit spiking during photostimulation

The firing rate change of single units upon photostimulation was assessed by subtracting the

average spike rate during the 10 seconds preceding the stimulation from the average spike rate

during optogenetic activation. To test for significant modulation, 9999 stimulation onsets were

randomly drawn from each single unit's activity time series and the firing rate change across

these random onsets was calculated. If the actual firing rate difference was larger than 95% or

smaller than 5% of the randomly calculated ones, the firing of the neuron was significantly

modulated during this photostimulation. Inhibited or disinhibited neurons showed a significant

decrease or increase, respectively, of their firing rate during more than 50% of all

photostimulations. Neurons whose firing rate was significantly modulated during less than 50%

of all optogenetic stimulations are reported as unresponsive.

Data analysis

Data analysis was performed using Spike2: (Cambridge Electronic Design, England),

OriginPro 8.5 (MicroCal, USA), IgorPro (WaveMetrics, USA), Matlab (MathWorks, USA) and

Prism (GraphPad, USA) software. The data were tested for normality with the Shapiro-Wilk

and the Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests and accordingly analysed using parametric or non-

parametric methods. We used three-way ANOVA to test for frequency (5 versus 20 Hz, within-

group comparisons) and opsin (eYFP controls versus ChR2-expressing mice, between-groups

comparisons) effects in the latencies to transition to another state from NREM or REM sleep

of state-specific optogenetic activation experiments. PSPs evoked by photostimulation were

detected in Vm recordings using a threshold of 2xSD in a $\pm$ 50 ms time window following

photostimulation. Action potentials in extracellular recordings were detected in Spike2 using a

straight forward level threshold. Firing rate histograms were computed for each

photostimulation trial of each neuron. The control period was defined as 0.5 seconds before

photostimulation. All data are displayed as averages +/- s.e.m.

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