Title: Spatiotemporal patterns of sleep spindle activity in human anterior thalamus and cortex

Authors:
Bernhard, Hannah [a,b]
Schaper, Frederic L. W. V. J. [c,e,h]
Janssen, Marcus L. F. [e,g]
Gommer, Erik D. [d,e,g]
Jansma, Bernadette M. [a,f]
Van Kranen-Mastenbroek, Vivianne [d,e,g]
Rouhl, Rob P. W. [c,d,e]
Weerd, Peter de [a,f]
Reithler, Joel * [a,f]
Roberts, Mark J. * [a,f]
DBS study group **

Affiliations:
a Department of Cognitive Neuroscience, Faculty of Psychology and Neuroscience, Maastricht
University, Maastricht, The Netherlands
b Centre for Integrative Neuroscience, Maastricht University, Maastricht, The Netherlands
c Department of Neurology, Maastricht University Medical Center, Maastricht, the Netherlands
d Academic Center for Epileptology Kempenhaeghe/MUMC+ Maastricht and Heeze, the
Netherlands
e School for Mental Health and Neuroscience, Maastricht University, Maastricht, the
Netherlands
f Maastricht Brain Imaging Center (M-BIC), Maastricht University, Maastricht, the Netherlands
g Department of Clinical Neurophysiology, Maastricht University Medical Center, Maastricht, the
Netherlands
h Center for Brain Circuit Therapeutics, Department of Neurology, Brigham and Women's
hospital, Harvard Medical School, Boston, United States.
30

* shared senior co-authorship

** DBS study group: Wagner, Louis G.; Colon, Albert J.; Hilkman, Danny M.W.; Vlooswijk, Marielle
C. G.; Nelissen, Jeske; Ackermans, Linda; Temel, Yasin

Correspondence: Hannah Bernhard (hannah.bernhard@maastrichtuniversity.nl); Department of
Cognitive Neuroscience, P.O. Box 616, 6200 MD Maastricht, The Netherlands

Abstract

Sleep spindles (8 - 16 Hz) are transient electrophysiological events during non-rapid eye

movement sleep. While sleep spindles are routinely observed in the cortex using scalp

electroencephalography (EEG), recordings of their thalamic counterparts have not been widely

studied in humans. Based on a few existing studies, it has been hypothesized that spindles occur

as largely local phenomena. We investigated intra-thalamic and thalamocortical spindle co-

occurrence, which may underlie thalamocortical communication. We obtained scalp EEG and

thalamic recordings from 7 patients that received bilateral deep brain stimulation (DBS) electrodes

to the anterior thalamus for the treatment of drug resistant focal epilepsy. Spindles were

categorized into subtypes based on their main frequency (i.e., slow (10±2 Hz) or fast (14±2 Hz))

and their level of thalamic involvement (spanning one channel, or spreading uni- or bilaterally

within the thalamus). For the first time, we contrasted observed spindle patterns with permuted

data to estimate random spindle co-occurrence. We found that multichannel spindle patterns

were systematically coordinated at the thalamic and thalamocortical level. Importantly, distinct

topographical patterns of thalamocortical spindle overlap were associated with slow and fast

subtypes of spindles. These observations provide further evidence for coordinated spindle activity

in thalamocortical networks.

Highlights:

• Sleep spindles were measured in human anterior thalamus and on the scalp

• Both fast and slow spindles occurred in the anterior thalamus

• > 25% of spindles spanned multiple channels in thalamus and cortex

• A novel statistical approach confirmed that spindle co-occurrences were not random

• Cortical spindle patterns depended on thalamic involvement and spindle frequency

Keywords: thalamus, sleep spindle, thalamocortical coupling, human, intracranial EEG

Introduction

Sleep spindles are transient (0.3 – 2 s) electrophysiological patterns (8 – 16 Hz) and a characteristic of non-rapid eye movement (NREM) sleep in humans and other mammals (Fernandez & Lüthi, 2020). Recent research suggests that spindles may be involved in coordinating information transfer in hippocampal and neocortical networks to support memory consolidation and learning (Andrillon & Kouider, 2020; Klinzing et al., 2019; Latchoumane et al., 2017; Ngo et al., 2020; Staresina et al., 2015). Spindles across the brain can occur in a number of ways. They could be locally restricted to specific (cortical) sites or they could spread from thalamus to cortex in a set manner. Both options would preclude spindles from flexibly coordinating information transfer. Alternatively, spindles might follow function-specific spatiotemporal patterns. To the best of our knowledge, the extent to which spindles systematically co-occur within thalamic and across thalamocortical networks is unknown. Here, we investigated in humans whether sleep spindle activity in anterior thalamus and cortex follows coordinated spatiotemporal patterns.

To date, only few studies on human thalamic spindles exist. The reasons for this are twofold. Most human spindle research has relied on scalp electroencephalography (EEG), whose limited spatial resolution does not permit inferences about thalamic spindles. Thalamic signals can only be recorded using invasive procedures, but invasive thalamic recordings are generally performed during awake brain surgery or under anesthesia (Schaper et al., 2019). Deep brain recordings acquired via externalized deep brain stimulation (DBS) leads (Schreiner, Kaufmann, et al., 2021; Szalárdy et al., 2021), provide a safe (Feldmann et al., 2021) opportunity to study thalamic spindles in clinical populations of patients with epilepsy. Several studies have performed recordings from the posterior thalamus and cortex. For example, Mak-McCully et al. showed that thalamic spindles can precede spindles in neocortex (Mak-McCully et al., 2017). Bastuji et al. reported a tendency of localized thalamic spindles to also have more localized cortical counterpart, while diffuse thalamic spindles were correspondingly more diffusely represented in the cortex (Bastuji et al., 2020). Based on these data, the authors have inferred coordinated spindle activity across networks. However, their analysis did not account for random temporal overlap of spindle activity. In addition, these studies did not differentiate between so called slow (8 – 12 Hz) and fast (12 – 16 Hz) spindles. This differentiation seems relevant, because different types of spindles might have

different functions. Fast spindles have been linked to memory processes (Ngo et al., 2013). The

functional role as well as the physiology of slow spindles is understudied, as the majority of studies

filtered in the spindle frequency range of 11 to 16 Hz (Bastuji et al., 2020; Mak-McCully et al.,

2017). Furthermore, due to clinical constraints, these studies focused on the unilateral posterior

thalamus. Consequently, the spindle behavior within the anterior thalamus and between anterior

thalamus and cortex remains unknown. A characterization of spindles in the anterior thalamus is

pertinent, because of its relation to memory function in animals (Aggleton et al., 2010; Frost et al.,

2021) and humans (Sweeney-Reed et al., 2014, 2017, 2021).

Here, we addressed these issues and took a statistical approach to measure patterns of slow and

fast spindle (co-)occurrence in the anterior thalamus and cortex by controlling for random spindle

co-occurrence using permutation testing. This approach allowed us to compare temporal spindle

coupling observed in the data with distributions of random spindle co-occurrence, thereby

informing whether spindles in thalamocortical loops occur in systematically coordinated patterns.

We recorded data in 7 individuals with epilepsy who underwent implantation of DBS quadripolar

electrodes targeting the anterior nucleus of the thalamus (ANT). The setup of bilateral thalamic

depth electrodes allowed us to assess co-occurrences of thalamic spindles within and across

hemispheres. Simultaneous 19-channel scalp EEG recordings made it possible to study

thalamocortical spindle co-occurrence globally across the cortex. We categorized spindles based

on their main frequency as slow (10±2 Hz) or fast (14±2 Hz) spindles, as well as their level of

thalamic involvement (spindles restricted to one channel, or spanning more than one channel

unilaterally or bilaterally). We found that both slow and fast thalamic and thalamocortical spindles

were more likely to co-occur across channels than expected by chance. Additionally, distinct

topographical patterns of spindle overlap were associated with the different spindle subtypes.

These observations provide support that slow and fast spindle activity are systematically

coordinated in thalamocortical circuits.

Materials & Methods

Study design

The participants included in this study were admitted to Maastricht University Medical Centre for the implantation of DBS as treatment for drug-resistant focal epilepsy. In- and exclusion criteria followed the FDA and CE mark of the SANTE trial and are described elsewhere (Fisher et al., 2010; Salanova et al., 2015; Schaper et al., 2020). Patients were monitored with EEG and intracranial registration of their DBS electrodes for 22 hours after DBS implantation, including one night of sleep. The study procedure (DBSSEPI study (Dutch Trial Register NL4440 (NTR4562))) was approved by the medical ethical committee of Maastricht University Medical Centre, the Netherlands (ID: METC 14-4-126), and was conducted in accordance with the declaration of Helsinki.

Participants

Seven individuals with drug-resistant focal epilepsy were included in this study (2 female; mean age 35 years; range 18 – 59 years). Six other individuals, who were part of the DBSSEPI study (Schaper et al., 2019, 2020) were excluded due to missing scalp electrodes and/or seizures during the night of recording.

P	Sex	Age	Treatment (medication, dosage)	MRI abnormalities	EEG electrodes
1	m	26	levetiracetam 2d1000mg, oxcarbazepine 2d450mg, lacosamide 1d50mg, clobazam 3d5mg	Normal	19 channel
2	m	23	phenytoin 2d150mg, lamotrigine 2d250mg, perampanel 1d10mg	Normal	19 channel
3	m	59	carbamazepine 200mg-400mg, clobazam 1d5mg, lacosamide 2d200mg	generalized atrophy	19 channel
4	f	19	carbamazepine 2d200mg, lamotrigine 250mg-200mg, perampanel 1d2mg, topiramate 2d75m	Normal	19 channel
5	m	51	lacosamide 2d150m	Normal	22 channel (incl. EOG)
6	f	49	phenytoin 125mg-112,5mg, carbamazepine 2d600mg	frontobasal scars	22 channel (incl. EOG)
7	m	18	brivaracetam 2d100mg, carbamazepine 2d200mg, clobazam 2d10mg, lamotrigine 2d200mg	Normal	22 channel (incl. EOG)

Table 1. Individual clinical and MRI data and EEG setup.

DBS surgery

As part of standard clinical practice, all participants had a pre-operative 3-T MRI (Philips,

Eindhoven, The Netherlands) or 1.5-T MRI (Philips, Eindhoven, The Netherlands) in case of an

implanted vagal nerve stimulator for stereotactic planning of the electrode trajectory. The

sequences used were a 3D T1 with gadolinium, axial T2 and a T1 inversion recovery.

DBS electrode implantation was performed by directly targeting the ANT on pre-operative MRI.

The most distal contacts were placed at the termination point of the mammillothalamic tract

(MTT) in the ANT, also called the ANT-MTT junction (Lehtimäki et al., 2019). DBS surgery was

performed under general anesthesia with remifentanil and propofol using a Leksell stereotactic

frame, under guidance of intraoperative microelectrode recording. Details of the DBS surgery and

lead placement are described elsewhere (Schaper et al., 2019, 2020).

DBS lead localization

DBS leads were localized in a common space (Montreal Neurological Institute (MNI) 1522009b

template (Fonov et al., 2011)) using Lead-DBS software (https://www.lead-dbs.org) with default

settings (Horn et al., 2019), in line with previous studies (Horn et al., 2017). In short, pre-operative

T1 / T2 MRI sequences and post-operative MRI / CT images (suppl. table 1) were linearly co-

registered using SPM (Friston et al., 1994), version 12. Co-registration was further refined using

the *brainshift correction* option (Schönecker et al., 2009) and images were normalized to MNI

space using the Advanced Normalization Tool (http://stnava.github.io/ANTs/; Avants et al., 2008).

DBS electrode trajectories and contacts were automatically pre-localized and manually refined

using Lead-DBS. DBS lead trajectories were visualized in MNI space in relation to a thalamic mask,

derived from the Thomas atlas (Su et al., 2019) and can be seen in figure 1.

Figure 1. DBS lead locations and anterior thalamic recording sites in a common atlas space. **A)** Bilateral

trajectories of implanted DBS leads for all participants (n=7) in transversal (left) and coronal (right) view. Note

that each lead contained four electrode contacts. **B)** Contact positions (blue dots) of all participants projected

onto a thalamic mask derived from the Thomas atlas (Su et al., 2019). MNI coordinates of each contact can be

found in supplementary table 1.

Data acquisition of electrophysiological recordings

Thalamic local field potentials (LFPs) were acquired using quadripolar externalized DBS leads

(model 3389, Medtronic, Dublin, Ireland). Scalp EEG was measured using a 19-channel setup, with

Ag/AgCl cup electrodes placed according to the standard 10-20 system. Data were recorded in

Brain RT version 3.3 at a sampling rate of 2048 Hz, using Braintronics BrainBox-1166-64.

Sleep scoring

Sleep scoring was performed in Brain RT version 3.3. For three out of seven participants, eye

movement activity was measured with electro-oculogram (EOG) electrodes placed on the outer

corners of the eyes, recording horizontal (HEOG) and vertical (VEOG) eye movements,

respectively. For sleep scoring, a bipolar montage was applied to HEOG and VEOG channels,

respectively. Four patients did not have EOG recordings. In this case, the frontal scalp EEG channels

(Fp1 and Fp2, as well as F7 and F8, respectively) were re-referenced to bipolar derivations to show

maximum eye movement activity for the polysomnographic scoring (i.e., Fp1 to F7, and Fp2 to F8),

enabling the identification of wake and phasic REM periods. Channels F3, C3, O1, were re-

referenced to the right mastoid, channels C4 and O2 to the left mastoid. Using a notch-filter at 50

Hz and a window size of 30s, a sleep scoring expert (H.B.) manually scored the data into sleep

stages according to the American Academy of Sleep Medicine (AASM) criteria (Berry et al., 2015).

Data Preprocessing

The Fieldtrip toolbox (Oostenveld, Fries, Maris, & Schoffelen, 2011; http://fieldtriptoolbox.org),

Sleeptrip toolbox (), MATLAB R2018a and 2021b (Mathworks Inc., Sherbom, MA) were used for

data analysis. Hypnograms and continuous data were exported from Brain RT to Matlab. A high

pass filter at 0.4 Hz (Butterworth, two-pass filter, 5th order) was applied to the continuous data,

before down-sampling to 512 Hz. Electrodes were checked manually and, in case of continuous

high noise levels, excluded. This was only the case for one electrode (A2) in one participant.

Scalp EEG activity was then re-referenced to the average of the mastoid electrodes (A1, A2), or to

the average of all scalp electrodes for the patient missing A2. For the thalamic electrodes, bipolar

derivations were computed between neighboring electrodes, resulting in 6 thalamic channels per

participant (3 per hemisphere). We chose bipolar derivations to obtain a more localized signal.

Where a certain thalamic nucleus is named in the supplementary material of this paper, one or

both of the electrodes in the bipolar derivation were localized within this nucleus. However, given

the length (1.5mm), diameter (1.27 mm) and spacing (0.55 mm) of electrode contacts, bipolar

derivations may not be located in one nucleus but span several.

Both thalamic LFP and scalp EEG data were subjected to a low pass filter at 100Hz (Butterworth,

two-pass, 5th order), and a line noise filter at 50 Hz to reduce electrical noise. Subsequently, the

continuous data were transformed into 30 s epochs and linked with the sleep hypnogram. Epochs

with manually identified artifacts (e.g., visibly noisy signal) or arousals were excluded, as well as

any epochs not pertaining to NREM sleep (N2 and N3, respectively).

Spindle detection

Automatized spindle detection was performed in Sleeptrip, based on a pipeline used in previous

literature (Weber et al., 2020). Spindles were detected in NREM sleep. To summarize, data from

NREM segments were subjected to a FIR filter with a peak-frequency of 10 ± 2 Hz for slow and 14

± 2 Hz for fast spindles, respectively. Next, the absolute value of the Hilbert transform of the

filtered signal was taken to detect the spindles. Segments in which the envelope surpassed the

threshold of the mean ± 1.5 SD were marked as putative spindles. If the threshold crossings fell

into the duration limits of 0.3 to 2 s, and a second threshold of 2.25 SD was passed at least once,

these segments were considered as spindles. Spindles were not merged if they closely followed

each other. Spindle detection was implemented separately for each channel and participant.

Spindle detection control analysis

To verify that detected time windows included true spindles and not false positives, e.g. due to

broadband frequency changes, we implemented a control analysis based on Ngo et al. (2020). This

control analysis was done separately for slow and fast spindles. For each channel, time-frequency

representations (TFRs) of each spindle were created using wavelets (5 cycles; 5 to 15 Hz for slow

spindles; 9 to 19 Hz for fast spindles; in 0.5 Hz steps, time window of ± 0.75 s in 2 ms steps). Per

event, frequencies were averaged between - 0.5 to + 0.5 s. Then, the *findpeaks* function was used

on the resulting spectrogram. A putative spindle was considered a true spindle when the peak

surpassed 0.2 prominence, and if the peak was between 8 to 12 Hz (for slow spindles) or 12 to 16

Hz (for fast spindles). All false positives were excluded from further analyses. For the number of

detected spindle events and those that passed the control analysis, see table 2.

Spindle characteristics

To quantify spindle parameters in the anterior thalamus, we computed several descriptive

measures per channel and per participant for slow and fast spindles separately, namely: Spindle

duration (difference of spindle offset and onset); spindle density (number of spindles per minute)

and spindle amplitude (maximum peak to trough potential difference). Putative differences of

spindle characteristics between fast and slow spindles were compared using paired t-tests per

channel, setting the two-tailed significance level at α = 0.05. In a separate step, we examined

whether channels in certain nuclei differed in spindle characteristics (supplementary material and

supplementary figure 2), but caution against their overinterpretation due to several factors: Our

definition of the exact nucleus can only be viewed as an approximation, the number of electrode

contacts differ between thalamic nuclei, and the age range of the sample may lead to variability

within a given nucleus.

To visualize the presence of slow and fast spindles in the thalamic LFP, we selected time-windows

of ±1 s around the midpoint of algorithmically detected slow and fast spindles. Next, the TFR of

each spindle was created using wavelets (5 cycles; 6 to 18 Hz, time window of ± 0.75 s in 1 ms

steps), and TFRs were averaged separately for time-windows marked as slow or fast by the

algorithm. To visualize the spatial layout of spindles in the scalp EEG, density values per scalp

electrode were averaged across participants, separately for the algorithmically detected slow and

fast spindles.

Thalamic and thalamocortical spindle co-occurrence

To evaluate whether spindles occurred in isolation or co-occurred across channels, we created

continuous spindle time-courses across all channels. That is, a channel x time point matrix

spanning the total duration of artifact-free NREM sleep was marked with absence or presence of

spindles (0 or 1, respectively). The continuous spindle time-courses of a participant's channels

were divided into separate spindle events as follows: First, each time point was summed across

channels. The resulting vector contained information on how many channels showed spindle

activity at a given time point. Time points with 0 values meant no spindle activity occurring in any

of the channels, and served to define boundaries between individual spindles. Time points with

values > 0 were categorised as a (co-)occurring spindle.

We refer to the different combinations of thalamic and thalamocortical channels participating in

a spindle event as spindle scenarios. Figure 2B schematizes these spindle scenarios at the thalamic

(T spindles, 2B.I), the thalamocortical (TC spindles, 2B.II) and the cortical (T_0C spindles, 2B.II) level.

At the thalamic level, spindles were further categorized into clusters spanning 1 to 6 channels (T_1

to T_6 spindles, according to the number of thalamic channels involved in each spindle event).

Spindle events occurring in >1 thalamic channel were further categorized as unilateral or bilateral,

depending on whether they occurred in one hemisphere (unilateral; fig. 2B.I & II, second column)

or in both (bilateral; fig. 2B.I & II third column). Because we recorded from 3 channels in each

thalamic hemisphere, spindle clusters T_4 or greater were bilateral by definition, while T_2 and T_3

could be either unilateral or bilateral clusters.

Given the difference in spindle numbers per scenario and participant, rates of each scenario are

reported as the percentages rather than as raw counts. The analysis was carried out separately for

thalamic and thalamocortical spindles. For thalamic spindles, we did not consider scalp EEG

activity, and report the spindle events per thalamic channel as a percentage of all thalamic spindle

events. For thalamocortical spindles, the information about spindle occurrence of all scalp EEG

channels were collapsed into one cortical channel (Fig. 2B.II). That is, whenever a spindle occurred

in one scalp EEG electrode, this was marked in the common scalp channel. Thalamocortical spindle

events are reported as a percentage of all spindle events occurring across thalamus and cortex.

We refer to thalamocortical spindles as T_xC, where X correspond to the number of thalamus

channels involved. In addition, we recorded how many scalp EEG spindle events did not have a

thalamic counterpart as a percentage of the total number of detected spindles across all channels

in a participant (T_0C; Fig. 2B.II, fourth column). All analyses were computed separately for slow and

fast spindles.

Figure 2. Overview of (pre-)processing steps to measure spindle (co-)occurrence in thalamic and scalp signals. **A)**
Sequence of pre-processing steps and spindle detection. **B)** Schematized overview of spindle scenarios, i.e.,
possible channel combinations involved in a thalamic (**B.I**) or thalamocortical (**B.II**) spindle event. Three thalamic
(2 right, 1 left) channels and the cortex time-course (all scalp EEG activity collapsed into one channel) are
schematized. Subscripts describe the number of thalamic channels participating in a given spindle, so that a T_1
spindle describes a spindle occurring in one thalamic channel. For more data examples for the spindle scenarios,
see supplementary figure 1. **C)** Analysis steps are visualized on a data segment from three thalamic (2 right, 1
left) channels and one cortical channel (Fz) of one participant. Shown are an example raw trace (**C.I**) and filtered
signal (**C.II**), in which only the detected spindles are shown and other data are masked. The grayscale columns
mark (co-)occurring spindle activity and categorization of the shown spindles according to the spindle scenarios
detailed in B). **C.III** depicts exemplar permutations of this data segment. Note that NREM time points were re-
shuffled in each thalamic channel keeping the number and duration of spindles constant. The observed and
permuted (co-)occurrences were then compared, as visualized in **C.IV**. Per spindle scenario, the number of co-
occurrences were counted in the observed (black line) and permuted data (permutation 1 and 1000 are
indicated in the histogram with the y-values at the lowest and highest bin-counts, respectively). To evaluate the
likelihood of the observed value stemming from the permuted distribution, we assessed the proportion of
permuted values that were more extreme than the observed value. In the analysis of thalamic and
thalamocortical spindle clusters, we report the difference between the observed value and the mean of the
permuted distribution. Note that the observed value and permuted distributions are shown as untransformed
data for visualization purposes, but that we report percentages to enable comparison across subjects.

Thalamocortical spindle co-occurrence maps

To evaluate putative topographical differences in thalamocortical spindle co-occurrence for the
thalamic spindle scenarios (T_1C, unilateral or bilateral $T_{>1}C$), we focused on the continuous spindle
time-courses across individual scalp EEG channels. To measure the co-occurrence of thalamic
spindles with cortical spindles, we considered each thalamus channel as seed and each cortical
channel as target channels. Only time points were included during which the seed and at least one
cortical channel showed spindle activity. The spindle activity overlap was then calculated as the
proportion of time points during which the target channel showed spindle activity at the same
time as the seed channel out of the total number of T_1C, unilateral or bilateral $T_{>1}C$ spindle time
points of a seed channel. That is, in order to have 100% overlap with T_1C spindles, the target
channel would need to show spindle activity at all the time points that the seed channel was

engaged in a spindle with no other thalamic channel showing simultaneous spindle activity.

Consequently, a 50% overlap with T_1C spindles would signify that only half of the target's spindle

activity temporally coincided with the seed's spindle activity, when this particular thalamic seed

channel showed a spindle that was not shared by any other thalamic channels. This analysis was

carried out for each of the six thalamic channels, and separately for slow and fast spindles.

Paired time-lag analysis of thalamocortical overlap

Thalamocortical overlap maps were calculated at a 0 time-lag, and thereby might not capture

time-delayed relationships between seed and target channels. To evaluate whether there were

any consistent non-zero time-lag relationships between seed and target channels across

participants, histograms for the time lag between the onset of seed and target spindles were

computed, sorted into bins of 0.05 s between ±0.75 s and averaged across seed, target channels

and participants. The resulting histograms contain the average distribution of lags between

thalamus and cortex, for which we tested the difference from 0 by means of a one-sample t-test.

Within-participant statistical analyses

Spindle co-occurrence across channels may happen by chance according to the number and

duration of spindles in a given channel pair. To test whether and to what extent observations of

thalamic or thalamocortical spindle co-occurrence were due to chance, we tested within-

participant statistical significance by permuting the data 1000 times. Figure 2C.III and IV visualizes

this procedure. The time points of artifact-free NREM sleep of each thalamic channel were

shuffled, keeping number and duration of spindles constant. Spindle co-occurrences in the

permuted data were quantified as in the observed data, by using 0-columns in the channel x time

matrix as bounds between spindle events (as shown in 2C.II). When permuting the data, $T_{>1}$

spindles may be broken up into many T_1 spindles, thus permuted data could contain a higher total

number of spindle events than the original data. In order to keep permuted and non-permuted

data comparable, we assessed the counts of spindle clusters as percentages of the sum of spindle

events in a given participant and permutation. For the analysis of slow and of fast thalamic spindle

clusters, we report the observed spindle events as the percentage of all respective spindle events

across all thalamic channels. We repeated this analysis for slow and fast thalamocortical spindles

separately, where we report the observed spindle events as the percentage of all respective

spindle events across thalamic and cortical channels.

For statistical testing, the permuted and non-permuted data were z-scored based on the mean

and standard deviation of the permuted data. The z-scored percentage of spindles in the non-

permuted data were tested two-sided against the z-scored permuted distribution of percentage

of spindles, with the p-value calculated as the proportion of permuted values that were more

extreme than the observed value. For a visualization of the comparison between observed and

permuted data, consider figure 2C.IV, which depicts exemplar permuted distributions and

observed values for each of the thalamic and thalamocortical spindle scenarios for one participant.

Lastly, the difference percentage of observed and mean permuted spindle clusters was computed.

Positive values thus indicate cases in which specific spindle scenarios occurred more frequently in

the observed than permuted data (e.g. 2C.IV, unilateral $T_{>1}C$ spindles), whereas negative values

reflect spindle scenarios that occurred less frequently in the observed than permuted data (e.g.,

2C.IV, T_1 spindles). Consequently, scenarios that are more likely in the observed than permuted

data suggest systematic temporal co-occurrence of spindle activity.

For mapping thalamocortical spindles, temporal spindle overlap was quantified based on the

continuous spindle time-courses. Hence, the permuted data were not separated into spindle

events, but quantified as the overlap of spindle time points of the target electrode with the seed

electrode. The overlap thus describes the percentage of time a channel pair engages in spindle

activity simultaneously. Only channels with p-value < 0.025 (indicating an observed value more

extreme on either side of the permuted distribution) were considered in further analyses.

Group level statistical analyses

Between-participant effects were tested by running repeated measures analysis of variance

(RMANOVA) on the difference in spindle percentage between observed and permuted values.

Where sphericity was violated, Greenhouse-Geisser corrected degrees of freedom are reported.

For significant main and interaction effects, post-hoc pairwise comparisons were computed and

adjusted for multiple comparisons using Bonferroni correction, and confidence intervals (Cis) at

95% are reported. The significance level was set at $\alpha = 0.05$.

For analysis of thalamic spindle clusters, a RMANOVA was computed with factors *cluster size* (1…6

channels involved) and *spindle type* (slow vs. fast). For testing thalamic uni- vs. bilateral

involvement, the RMANOVA factors were *cluster size* (2 vs. 3 channels involved), *hemispheric*

involvement (unilateral vs. bilateral) and *spindle type* (slow vs. fast). To assess the thalamocortical

spindle behavior, the following RMANOVA factors were defined: *thalamic involvement* (T_1,

unilateral or bilateral $T_{>1}$), *cortical involvement* (T vs. TC spindles) and *spindle type* (slow vs. fast).

EEG spindle events that did not have a thalamic counterpart were compared between slow and

fast spindles, using paired samples t-tests.

To investigate thalamocortical maps across participants, we computed the median difference of

observed from permuted thalamocortical overlap across thalamic seed channels, hemispheres

and participants, but separately per *spindle type* (slow vs. fast spindles), and *thalamic involvement*

(T_1C, unilateral or bilateral $T_{>1}$C). We only included datapoints that were significantly different

from permuted data at the within-participant level.

To qualitatively compare the topographies of different spindle types and thalamic classes, we

computed the center of gravity (CoG) per category. CoG quantifies the mean location of

thalamocortical overlap, as the average x- and y-position of all electrodes weighted by their values

of thalamocortical overlap. The x- and y-position are both relative to the central EEG electrode

(Cz) and indicate lateralization and placement on the anterior/posterior axis, respectively. Given

that thalamocortical maps were averaged across hemispheres, positive, zero and negative

lateralization values describe ipsilateral, midline and contralateral locations, respectively. Positive,

zero and negative y-values describe anterior, central and posterior locations, respectively. To test

the robustness of estimating the CoG based on the average maps, we used a bootstrapping

approach, in which we resampled the population of statistically significantly overlapping scalp EEG

channels (n = 42), with replacement 1000 times. For each iteration, a new CoG was computed per

condition (spindle type and thalamic involvement). Additionally, the difference between slow and

fast spindles for each thalamic class was calculated for x and y coordinates, respectively.

Statistical testing was carried out to evaluate whether the CoG was significantly lateralized and/or
shifted along the anterior/posterior axis for each of the thalamic classes and spindle types. For
this, we tested the difference of each of the 6 bootstrapped distributions from 0, both for the x-
and y-coordinates, by calculating the proportion of cases < 0 in each distribution. Next, we
evaluated whether the difference of lateralization and/or shift along the anterior/posterior axis
differed between slow and fast spindles, by calculating the proportion of cases < 0 in the
distribution of the difference.
414
415 *Data availability*
416 The data sets analyzed in the current study are not publicly available due to privacy concerns as
417 outlined in the consent form.
418

Results

To investigate thalamocortical spindle co-occurrence we analyzed data recorded from 7

participants during one night of sleep. On average, participants slept for 8.15 ± 1.55 hours (489 ±

93 minutes), of which 5.98 ± 1.46 hours (359 ± 87.33 min) were spent in NREM sleep (stages N2

and N3; see table 2 for participant-specific details of minutes spent in each sleep stage). We

algorithmically detected slow and fast spindles in a total of 42 bipolar thalamic channels (6 per

participant) and 133 scalp EEG electrodes (19 per participant). Note that because electrode

placement into the specific subnuclei varied inter-individually, we assessed spindles in the anterior

thalamus as a whole rather than its subnuclei. Accordingly, we generally refer to the anterior

thalamus as the broad region. In contrast, we refer to the specific subnucleus as the anterior

nucleus of the thalamus or ANT.

Table 2 reports the number of putative spindle events detected in the thalamic LFP and scalp EEG

per participant, and the number of spindle events after the spindle control analysis. Only spindle

events that passed the control analysis were included in all further analyses.

Participant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sleep stages							
wake	121.5	14.5	124	41	118	27.5	141.5
N1	118	25.5	164	35.5	38.5	54.5	221.5
N2	324.5	93.5	223.5	208	157	177.5	258
Artifact-free	315	79.5	181	200.5	141.5	155.5	248.5
N3	101.5	418.5	110	117.5	97.5	195.5	30.5
Artifact-free	101	376.5	91.5	115	90	183.5	30
REM	38.5	37	0	47.5	31	72.5	24.5
Spindle events							
Thalamus							
slow	23555	29316	18991	20339	17431	26645	18622
corrected	12656	8399	12588	12640	7587	18399	12243
fast	22779	28696	17148	18872	14220	20642	16697
corrected	12475	9937	2836	6130	2283	5271	5402
Cortex							
slow	81181	99071	63906	69564	46902	108052	64270
corrected	50359	17247	14969	27419	7908	83608	43461
fast	102576	103823	63155	76032	47722	79243	59343

	corrected	72181	32085	19625	26515	9744	12521	21622

Table 2. Overview of participants' sleep architecture and detected spindle events before and after control

analysis (corrected). Sleep staging data are reported in minutes, for spindle events the total number of events

are reported (pooled across thalamic or scalp EEG electrodes, respectively).

Slow spindles occur more frequently in anterior thalamus than fast spindles

We first investigated whether slow and fast spindles were present in the anterior thalamus and

scalp EEG. Both slow and fast spindles were present in all participants. Figure 3 A shows an

example of a slow followed by a fast spindle in one participant (for another example, see

supplementary figure 1 B). The average TFRs of all slow and fast spindles in the same channel are

shown in figure 3B. Note that the TFRs were computed across the slow and fast spindle band.

Consequently, if the distinction into slow and fast spindles were arbitrary, this should be seen by

an overlap in the TFR. Figure 3C depicts the average slow and fast spindle distributions in the scalp

EEG across all participants.

Figure 3. Slow and fast spindles in anterior thalamus and scalp EEG. **A)** Data of a slow (at 1.5 s) and fast (at 2.25

s) thalamic spindle, here represented in the raw trace (top panel), filtered trace (middle panel) and time-

frequency representation (TFR; bottom panel). Data are shown for right thalamic channel 2-3 of participant 3.

B) Averaged TFRs centered on time windows containing slow (left) and fast (right) spindles in one thalamic

channel. The represented channel is the same as in A. **C)** Density of slow (left) and fast (right) spindles in scalp

EEG averaged across all subjects.

Next, we assessed whether anterior thalamic spindles differed in their density, duration or

amplitude. Figure 4 shows the spindle density (A), duration (B) and amplitude (C) for slow and fast

spindles. Both data pooled across thalamic channel per participant (top row) are shown, as well as

the histograms of the differences (slow − fast spindles) at the channel level (bottom row). On

average, spindle density (fig. 4A) was higher ($t(41) = 5.52$; $p < 0.001$) for slow (6.34 ± 3.22

spindles/min) than fast spindles (3.01 ± 1.46 spindles/min). Spindle duration (fig. 4B; $t(41) = 1.45$;

$p = 0.15$) and spindle amplitude (fig. 4C; $t(41) = 1.97$; $p = 0.06$) did not differ between slow and

fast spindles.

We evaluated the same descriptive spindle measures when categorizing the data according to

their corresponding estimated thalamic nuclei (suppl. material and suppl. fig. 1) and did not find

any differences between thalamic nuclei.

Figure 4. Spindle characteristics in anterior thalamus. Electrodes pooled per participant are shown (p1 to 7, legend) for slow and fast spindles (top row) and histograms of the differences (slow-fast) per electrode (bottom row). A) Average spindle density (number of spindles per minute) was on average higher for slow than for fast spindles; B) Spindle duration and C) spindle amplitude (peak to trough difference) did not differ between slow and fast spindles. Asterisk marks paired t-test difference significant at $p < 0.05$ (uncorrected).

Characterization of spindles in the anterior thalamus

In a next step, we investigated whether slow and fast spindles co-occurred across channels in the thalamus (without considering the cortical EEG channels). We refer to the number of thalamic channels involved in a spindle as a channel cluster. Figure 5A depicts the channel cluster size of

spindle events as a proportion of all thalamic spindles, separately for slow (upper panel) and fast

(lower panel) spindles. To control for random spindle co-occurrence, we next ran permutations of

the spindle time courses, with number and duration of spindles at each channel kept constant.

These permuted data allowed us to estimate how often spindles occurred in isolation or co-

occurred by chance. We compared these observed distributions of spindle clusters with the

permuted distributions. Figure 5B shows the population difference between observed and

permuted data for all 6 channel clusters for slow and fast spindles, respectively. Since the spindle

cluster sizes are expressed in percentages, the likelihoods of T_1 and $T_{>1}$ clusters are interdependent

and should be interpreted accordingly. T_1 spindles, which were the most dominant type in the

observed data (cf. fig. 5A), were less likely to occur in the observed compared to the permuted

data. In contrast, spindle co-occurrences ($T_{>1}$) occurred more often than expected by chance ($F_{1.29,}$

$_{7.71}$ = 119.41; p < 0.001 in RMANOVA; mean differences of observed − chance values between

spindle cluster of T_1 spindles vs. $T_{2...6}$ channels range from -26.65 to -35.13 %; p ≤ 0.001). This

suggests that thalamic spindles co-occur more often than would be assumed based on permuted

distributions. Slow and fast spindles did not co-occur differently in the anterior thalamus ($F_{1,6}$ =

0.18; p = 0.69).

It is noteworthy that some spindle events spanned more than three channels, pointing to the

bilateral involvement of the thalamus in these spindle events (since our setup included three

channels in each thalamic hemisphere). We subdivided the observed T_2 and T_3 clusters to

investigate whether spindle clusters of two or three channels involved one or both hemispheres

of the thalamus. Figure 5C depicts the difference in proportion of unilateral and bilateral T_2 and T_3

spindles between observed and permuted data, for slow and fast spindles, respectively.

T2 and T3 spindles showed distinct unilateral and bilateral involvement ($F_{1,6}$ = 128.17; p < 0.001 in

RMANOVA). We observed that unilateral T_2 spindles occurred more often than by chance (15.58

%; 95 % CI, 11.99 to 19.18), while bilateral T_2 spindles occurred less often than by chance (-5.68

%; 95 % CI, -7.46 to -3.89). This can also be seen in figure 5C when looking at the T_2 data. This

difference between unilateral and bilateral spindles was absent for T_3 spindles: in this situation,

both unilateral (3.36 %; 95 % CI, 1.95 to 4.77) and bilateral spindles (4.81 %; 95 % CI, 3.32 to 6.31)

occurred equally more often than by chance (cf. fig. 5C, both unilateral and bilateral T_3 bars are

positive). We also observed a difference in the amount of slow and fast spindles spanning 2 or 3

channels in the thalamus ($F_{1,6}$ = 7.88; p = 0.03 in RMANOVA). There were more fast T_2 spindles

(6.66 %; 95% CI, 4.21 to 9.12) than slow T_2 spindles (3.24 %; 95% CI, 0.14 to 6.34), but equally

many slow (4.44 %; 95% CI, 3.70 to 5.18) and fast T_3 spindles (3.74 %; 95% CI, 2.56 to 4.93).

To conclude, these analyses indicated that compared to the permuted data, T_2 spindles tended to

be unilateral, whereas T_3 spindles were equally likely unilateral or bilateral. Overall, it seems that

thalamic spindle events did not only co-occur across channels, but were temporally coordinated

within and across thalamic hemispheres.

Figure 5. Observed thalamic spindles and the number of thalamic channels they spanned (channel clusters $T_1...T_6$) for slow (top) and fast (bottom) spindles. **A)** Observed percentages for each channel cluster out of the total number of slow or fast thalamic spindles, respectively. **B)** Difference of observed percentages from permuted data for thalamic spindle co-occurrences. Positive values demarcate when observed data are more likely to occur than by chance, negative values less likely than by chance. **C)** T_2 and T_3 spindles further subdivided into unilateral and bilateral slow and fast thalamic spindles. The difference of observed and permuted data is shown. Bars depict the group average, dots the individual participant data. Individual datapoints are systematically offset so that horizontal order corresponds to participants 1 to 7. Filled in dots are significantly different from permuted data at the within-participant level at $p < 0.05$ (two-sided), open dots depict data points failing to meet significance at the within-participant level. The asterisks mark differences significant at $p < 0.05$ in the RMANOVA (corrected for multiple comparisons), brackets stand for differences between means, forking out brackets for differences between individual bars.

Multi- (but not single-) channel thalamic spindles show above-chance cortical counterparts

Next, we investigated whether observed thalamic spindle activity was systematically related to cortical spindle activity. For this analysis, spindles were subdivided according to the extent of thalamic involvement into T_1, unilateral $T_{>1}$ or bilateral $T_{>1}$ spindles. We then categorized whether these spindles occurred solely in the thalamus (T spindles) or also had a cortical counterpart (TC spindles). We compared the occurrences of each spindle scenario to the total number of recorded spindles, rather than the total number of thalamic spindles, which was the case in the analysis up until now. Figure 6 shows the observed spindle percentages (A), and the difference between observed and permuted data (B), both for slow and fast spindles in the top and bottom row, respectively.

T and TC spindles were more or less likely than in the permuted data, depending on whether they occurred in one channel or were unilateral or bilateral ($F_{1.04,6.24} = 24.74$; $p = 0.002$ in RMANOVA). While most observed slow and fast spindles involving the thalamus were T_1 or T_1C spindles (fig. 6A, most leftward bars), these types of spindles were less likely than expected by chance (cf. 6B, most leftward bars have negative values). Unilateral $T_{>1}$ (3.87 %; 95 % CI, 1.70 to 6.05) and $T_{>1}C$ (5.12 %; 95 % CI, 3.73 to 6.51) spindles were more likely to occur than expected by chance. In contrast, bilateral $T_{>1}$ spindles occurred less often than predicted (-2.0 %; 95 % CI, -2.80 to -1.20),

whereas bilateral $T_{>1}C$ spindles occurred more often than predicted (2.96 %; 95 % CI, 1.30 to 4.67).

These observations did not differ between slow and fast spindles ($F_{1.03,6.18}$ = 0.62; p = 0.46 in

RMANOVA).

Except for bilateral $T_{>1}$ spindles without a cortical counterpart, spindles spanning more than one

thalamic channel were more likely to occur than expected by chance. These multichannel spindles

were also more likely to co-occur with cortical spindles. This can be seen in figure 6B, when looking

at the unilateral and bilateral spindles (middle left and middle right bars). These results suggest

that spindles at the thalamic (except for bilateral $T_{>1}$ spindles) and thalamocortical level tend to

co-occur across multiple channels systematically, indicating coordinated spindle activity.

We separately confirmed the absence of a systematic temporal offset between thalamic and

cortical spindles (supplementary material & suppl. fig. 3). A temporal shift would bias analyses of

spatiotemporal spindle overlap toward channel pairs with a smaller temporal offset, but this was

not the case.

Not all cortical spindles have an anterior thalamic counterpart

The data in the present study were recorded from a subsection of the thalamus and may have only

captured a subsample of spindles occurring in the thalamus. Because cortical spindles are thought

to depend on thalamic spindles and, more specifically, the projections of the different thalamic

nuclei to distinct cortical networks, our data may also contain cortical spindles that did not have a

thalamic counterpart (T_0C spindles). To test this, we counted the occurrences of cortical-only

spindles out of all recorded spindles, and compared them to permuted data. The most rightward

bar in each panel of figure 6 shows the percentage of these T_0C spindles. Indeed, in the observed

data (fig. 6A), around half of observed cortical EEG spindles did not have a thalamic counterpart

(slow: 41.46 ± 4.12 %; fast: 53.0 ± 9.04 %). This observation was higher than expected by chance

(slow: 14.38 ± 4.60 %; fast: 8.88 ± 3.74 %), but did not differ between slow and fast spindles (t(6)

= 1.87; p = 0.11). It may be that these T_0C spindles had counterparts in thalamic subparts not

sampled in our setup, such as more posterior nuclei.

Figure 6. Observed spindles in thalamus and cortex, subdivided according to the level of involvement in the

thalamus (T_1 spindles or $T_{>1}$ spindles, unilateral and bilateral), and whether they were accompanied by a cortical

spindle (TC spindle, light grey) or not (T spindle, white). Cortical spindles without thalamic counterparts are also

shown (T_0C spindles, dark grey). **A)** Observation of each scenario as a percentage of the total number of slow

(top) and fast (bottom) spindles. **B)** Difference of observed from permuted percentages for slow (top) and fast

(bottom) spindles. Bars depict the group average, dots the individual participant data. Individual datapoints are

systematically offset so that horizontal order corresponds to participants 1 to 7. Filled in dots are significantly

different from permuted data at the within-participant level at $p < 0.05$ (two-sided), open dots depict data points

failing to meet significance at the within-participant level. The asterisks mark differences significant at $p < 0.05$

in the RMANOVA (corrected for multiple comparisons), brackets stand for differences between means, forking

out brackets for differences between individual bars. Note that there was no difference between slow and fast
spindles.

Patterns of thalamocortical spindle overlap depend on level of thalamic involvement and spindle
subtypes

Lastly, we investigated cortical topographies of spindles dependent on the type of thalamic spindle
and thalamic channel involvement. If coordinated thalamocortical spindle activity were to support
targeted engagement of thalamocortical networks, different cortical spindle topographies should
be observed based on different thalamic spindle properties. To compare differences in topography
for thalamocortical spindles, depending on the spindle type (slow vs. fast) and the level of thalamic
involvement (T_1C, unilateral $T_{>1}C$ or bilateral $T_{>1}C$ spindles), we computed the thalamocortical
overlap between all thalamic and cortical channel pairs across participants. The overlap quantifies
the percentage of data points during which two channels (here, a seed channel in the thalamus
and a target cortical channel) show simultaneous spindle activity. Since we verified that
thalamocortical spindle onset occurred predominantly simultaneously (suppl. fig. 3), this analysis
was carried out at 0-lag.

Figure 7 shows the median group difference of observed from permuted data for each category.
The median group data were calculated based on the individual data that differed significantly
from chance levels. The resulting topographies do not depict overlap in the left- and right
hemisphere, but rather contra- or ipsilateral to the thalamic source, respectively, because data
were averaged across participants, thalamus channels and hemispheres. Visual inspection
suggests that thalamocortical overlap for slow spindles had a frontal topography (fig. 7 A-C), and
fast spindles had a more central topography (fig. 7 D-F). Furthermore, the topographies seem to
progress from lateralized to more widespread as more thalamic channels were involved in a
thalamocortical spindle, which can be seen when comparing T_1C (fig. 7 A & D) to unilateral (fig. 7
B&E) and bilateral (fig. 7 C&F) $T_{>1}C$ spindles, respectively.

To summarize these different topographies, we computed the Center of Gravity (CoG), which
provides the spatial average weighted by the value of overlap at each cortical position. The CoG is
marked with a cross in each panel of figure 7. Note, that the CoG does not necessarily exactly

match the location suggested by the color scheme, given the different ways of calculating CoG and

interpolating the colored surface.

For statistical analysis, we split the CoG into its x- and y-position allowing for quantifying the

thalamocortical overlap's lateralization and shift along the anterior/posterior (a/p) axis relative to

a central scalp EEG topography (Cz). We used bootstrapping to statistically evaluate the

differences in CoG between conditions. Figure 8 shows the bootstrapped CoG data for

lateralization (fig. 8 A-D) and a/p-shift (fig. 8 E-H), split into the different conditions of thalamic

involvement and spindle type (slow spindles in blue, fast spindles in orange).

Lateralization of spindles (fig. 8 A-C) was significantly different from 0 for slow T_1C (0.055 ± 0.025;

p = 0.001), slow unilateral $T_{>1}C$ (0.046 ± 0.02; p = 0.004), and fast T_1C (0.045 ± 0.012; p = 0) spindles,

indicating that the average thalamocortical overlap for these conditions tended to be focused

ipsilateral to the thalamic spindles. Slow bilateral $T_{>1}C$ (0.008 ± 0.013; p = 0.224), as well as fast

unilateral $T_{>1}C$ (0.055 ± 0.034; p = 0.095) and fast bilateral $T_{>1}C$ (0.01 ± 0.013; p = 0.19) spindles

were not significantly lateralized. A/p-shift was significantly different from 0 for slow T_1C (0.137 ±

0.029; p = 0), slow unilateral $T_{>1}C$ (0.075 ± 0.024; p = 0), and slow bilateral $T_{>1}C$ (0.108 ± 0.022; p

= 0) spindles. Thus, the average CoG of thalamocortical spindle overlap of slow spindles was shifted

anteriorly while fast T_1C (0.018 ± 0.015; p = 0.102), fast unilateral $T_{>1}C$ (0.018 ± 0.028; p = 0.198)

and fast bilateral $T_{>1}C$ spindles (0.004 ± 0.03; p = 0.471) were not shifted along the a/p axis.

When comparing slow and fast spindles, T_1C slow spindles were significantly more anterior than

T_1C fast spindles (0.12 ± 0.033; p = 0) but equally lateralized (0.009 ± 0.028; p = 0.355). Slow and

fast unilateral $T_{>1}C$ spindles did not differ in terms of lateralization (-0.009 ± 0.039; p = 0.585) or

shift on the anterior/posterior axis (0.056 ± 0.037; p = 0.076). Slow bilateral $T_{>1}C$ spindles were

significantly more anterior than fast bilateral $T_{>1}C$ spindles (0.106 ± 0.039; p = 0.008), but did not

differ in their lateralization (-0.002 ± 0.018; p = 0.556).

These results point towards differences in thalamocortical overlap depending on the spindle type

(slow vs. fast) and level of thalamic involvement. As such, we observed that slow spindles tended

to co-occur with cortical slow spindles in frontal scalp EEG sites. Co-occurrence of thalamic and

cortical fast spindles was distributed more widely across the cortex, which was reflected by a more

centralized average of thalamocortical overlap. Additionally, the level of involvement of the

thalamus in spindles was related to the cortical lateralization of thalamocortical overlap: During

T_1C spindles and slow unilateral $T_{>1}C$ spindles, cortical electrodes ipsilateral to the thalamus

channel(s) tended to engage in spindles together, whereas bilateral $T_{>1}C$ spindles showed a higher

overlap with bilateral cortical electrodes.

Figure 7. Thalamocortical spindle topographies. The difference of observed and permuted temporal overlap is

shown as the group median. Accordingly, positive values describe a higher than by chance overlap, negative

values a lower than by chance overlap. Data are averaged across thalamic channels, participants and

hemispheres, such that values on the left within each topoplot describe the intensity of overlap contralateral

and values on the right ipsilateral to the thalamus seed. The Center of Gravity is marked with a cross in each

topoplot. Data are subdivided into spindle type and thalamic involvement: **A)** slow T_1C spindles; **B)** slow unilateral

$T_{>1}C$ spindles; **C)** slow bilateral $T_{>1}C$ spindles; **D)** fast T_1C spindles; **E)** fast unilateral $T_{>1}C$ spindles; **F)** fast bilateral

$T_{>1}C$ spindles.

Figure 8. Center of Gravity of thalamocortical overlap, split into its x- and y-position, which describe lateralization and shift along the anterior/posterior (a/p) axis relative to electrode position Cz, respectively. Top row depicts the lateralization for A) T_1C spindles; B) unilateral $T_{>1}C$ spindles; C) bilateral $T_{>1}C$ spindles; D) median values and standard deviations of the distributions in A-C. Bottom row depicts a/p shift for E) T_1C spindles; F) unilateral $T_{>1}C$ spindles; G) bilateral $T_{>1}C$ spindles; H) median values and standard deviations of the distributions in E-G. Colored asterisks mark the distributions that differ from 0 at $p < 0.05$. Black asterisks and brackets mark distributions that differ from each other at $p < 0.05$.

Discussion

In the current study, we investigated the spatiotemporal coordination of spindles in the human

anterior thalamus and cortex. Both slow and fast spindles were detected in the anterior thalamus,

with a higher density of slow spindles. We categorized spindles based on their main frequency

(slow vs. fast spindles) and level of thalamic involvement (spindles spanning one channel vs.

multiple channels unilaterally vs. bilaterally) and compared observed patterns of spindle co-

occurrence with permuted data. Figure 9 graphically summarizes predominant scenarios of

thalamic and thalamocortical spindle (co-)occurrence we found in the permuted (A) and observed

(B) data. We found that simultaneous multichannel spindle activity within thalamic and

thalamocortical circuits occurred more often than expected by chance (fig. 9B). This points to

spindle activity as a coordinated phenomenon across brain sites. Interestingly, multichannel

spindles did not only co-occur unilaterally (fig. 9B.4&7), but also bilaterally within the thalamus

(fig. 5; fig. 9B.5&6). When contrasting the different spindle subtypes based on their main

frequency and the level of thalamic involvement, we observed similar rates of co-occurrence, but

differences in the spatial pattern of cortical overlap (fig. 7). Overall, these results point to

coordinated and differential patterns of sleep spindle co-occurrence in thalamocortical circuits.

Figure 9. Graphical summary of thalamic and thalamocortical spindle (co-)occurrence, depicting spindle

scenarios (numbered; cf. fig. 2 B) that appeared more often in the A) permuted or B) observed data. Bilateral

thalamus and scalp are depicted schematically. Individual channels are indicated by circles, simultaneous spindle

activity is indicated by connecting lines. **A)** In the permuted data, locally restricted spindles predominated.
Thalamic spindles were predominantly T_1 spindles (1) or bilateral T_2 spindles (2), and thalamocortical spindles
mostly T_1C spindles (3). **B)** In the observed data, the most common spindle scenarios included two or more
channels, indicating coordinated spindle activity. At the thalamic level, unilateral $T_{>1}$ spindles (4) predominated,
as well as bilateral $T_{>2}$ spindles (5; here illustrated by a T_3 spindle). Thalamocortical spindles were predominantly
bilateral $T_{>1}C$ (6) or unilateral $T_{>1}C$ spindles (7). There were also more cortical spindles without a thalamic
counterpart (T_0C spindles; 8) than expected by chance.

There are alternative scenarios to coordinated and differentiated spindle activity across brain
areas: For instance, spindles could be restricted to specific sites, which would preclude them from
timing communication between brain areas during NREM sleep. Previous iEEG studies reported
spindles as predominantly local in the cortex (Andrillon et al., 2011; Frauscher et al., 2015; Peter-
Derex et al., 2012) and with low synchrony between cortical spindles and those in deeper brain
structures like insula and hippocampus (Frauscher et al., 2015). These reports gave rise to the idea
of sleep spindles as a local phenomenon. Although we observed many occurrences of spindles
restricted to one channel, we also saw that spindles often spanned multiple channels, both at the
thalamic (~50 % of spindles) and the thalamocortical level (~35% of all spindles engaged at least
one thalamic and one cortical channel). Most of these multi-channel spindle scenarios occurred
more often than predicted by chance, suggesting that spindle activity in thalamocortical networks
is indeed coordinated rather than always being locally restricted. While we cannot exclude the
possibility that some multichannel spindles in our data reflect volume conduction from a single
source, volume conduction clearly cannot explain many of the patterns we observed, among
which bilateral spindles picked up by electrodes in opposite hemispheres (cf. suppl.fig. 1C), or
spindle onset and duration differences between neighbouring channels (cf. fig. 1C.I and II).
Moreover, the proportion of multi-channel thalamic and thalamocortical spindles observed here,
may be an underestimation as the exact thalamic recording sites differed between individuals, and
consequently only sample a subsection of the thalamus. Events categorized here as T_1, T_1C or T_0C
spindles may have engaged thalamic regions not sampled in our setup. Our findings thus indicate

that many spindles are not local, and do not co-occur merely by chance, but are coordinated over

wide areas of the thalamocortical network.

Although pathological brains differ from healthy ones, treatment with benzodiazepines and

anticonvulsant drugs may influence the sleep architecture (for a comprehensive review see Jain &

Glauser, 2014) and spindles (Leong et al., 2022; Plante et al., 2015) and the wide age range in our

sample may bias spindle-related characteristics (Muehlroth & Werkle-Bergner, 2020), clinical

populations are presently the only opportunity to directly measure time-resolved recordings of

the human thalamus. Previous studies have reported thalamocortical spindles in medial/anterior

thalamus and cortex (Schreiner, Kaufmann, et al., 2021; Szalárdy et al., 2021) as well as posterior

thalamus and cortex (Bastuji et al., 2020; Mak-McCully et al., 2017), albeit only one of these studies

investigated thalamic and thalamocortical spindle co-occurrence in a more systematic fashion

(Bastuji et al., 2020). In that study, around half of all thalamic spindles occurred in one channel

and the remaining half spread across two or more channels. These reports were limited to the

posterior thalamus due to clinical demands, were not contrasted with chance spindle co-

occurrence and only investigated fast spindles. Our data now add information on the anterior

thalamus.

In contrast to previous literature, which focused on fast spindles, we systematically investigated

thalamic and thalamocortical spindle co-occurrence separately for slow and fast spindles. In our

data, both spindle types were coordinated in a largely similar fashion, although some differences

were also found. Slow and fast spindles were more likely to span multiple channels in the observed

than permuted data, both unilaterally and bilaterally, and co-occurred between thalamus and

neocortex. Our time lag analysis revealed simultaneous activation of thalamic and cortical

spindles. The lack of temporal sequence in our data does not provide information on causal

relations of spindle activity across regions. However, our findings provide evidence that both slow

and fast spindles are present in the (anterior) thalamus, and that both engage in a coordinated

fashion with the neocortex. It is thus not likely that slow spindles are specific to cortico-cortico

interactions, as suggested previously (Mölle et al., 2011). Interestingly, slow and fast

thalamocortical spindles did show different topographical patterns of thalamocortical overlap:

slow thalamic spindles showed higher overlap with frontal scalp EEG electrodes, whereas fast

thalamic spindles showed higher overlap with centro-posterior scalp EEG electrodes. These

topographies of overlap are reminiscent of sites of slow and fast spindle activity observed in

previous (i)EEG studies (Andrillon et al., 2011; Mölle et al., 2011; Peter-Derex et al., 2012). Note,

however, that the different patterns we uncovered cannot be merely explained by the higher

density of slow spindles in frontal EEG channels (cf. fig. 3C). We used permutation testing to

control for the bias of higher spindle density/duration on spurious spindle overlap. Thus, although

the frequency-based spindle dichotomy has been criticized as overly simplified (Gonzalez et al.,

2021), our results suggest that thalamic spindles engage different cortical networks, depending

on their main frequency.

The topographical patterns of thalamocortical spindle overlap were not only related to the main

frequency of a given spindle, but also to the level of involvement of the thalamus. Andrillon and

colleagues (2011) reported that spindles occasionally span multiple channels across the cortex. In

this scenario, spindles travel along the cortical posterior-to-anterior axis (Andrillon et al., 2011;

Muller et al., 2016). In the present study, we observed that multi-channel thalamic spindles were

related to an increase in the number of cortical channels showing high thalamocortical spindle

overlap. Consequently, the different cortical spindle scenarios (localized vs. global cortical events)

reported in previous (i)EEG studies could be related to differential involvement of the thalamus in

these spindles. Accordingly, multichannel cortical spindles could arise as a consequence of

multichannel thalamic spindles. That is, when a spindle travels through the thalamus, this may be

reflected as a cortical traveling spindle mediated by thalamocortical projections with the engaged

thalamic sites. In fact, the patterns of thalamocortical spindle co-occurrence in our data (cf. fig. 7)

suggest that this might be the case. For instance, the thalamocortical overlap of fast spindle events

differed between spindles occurring in one thalamic channel and those spanning bilateral thalamic

channels: In the former case, the thalamocortical overlap was spatially restricted to centro-

posterior cortical sites ipsilateral to the thalamic site (cf. fig. 7 & 8), whereas in the latter case, the

overlap was more widespread across the cortex bilaterally. Interestingly, cross-hemispheric co-

occurrence of cortical spindles is preserved in callosotomized patients, suggesting that cortical

spindle spread may depend on thalamocortical instead of cortico-cortico connections (Bernardi et

al., 2021). The results of the present study add to the currently limited literature on

interhemispheric spindle co-occurrence by showing that cortical spread of spindle activity is

related to the level of involvement of the thalamus. More broadly, the involvement of different

thalamic sites in a spindle may engage different cortical networks.

Spindles may facilitate network communication during memory consolidation

Memory consolidation requires reactivation in hippocampo-cortical circuits to trigger structural

changes (Josselyn et al., 2015). This reactivation must be specific to the neuronal populations

involved in encoding the memory, and thus requires coordinated activity across (sub)cortical

networks. Hippocampal ripples (80 – 140 Hz), which have been linked to memory reactivation

(Zhang, Fell, & Axmacher, 2018), co-occur with spindles in the hippocampus and cortex (Ngo et

al., 2020; Staresina et al., 2015), the anterior thalamus (Szalárdy et al., 2021) and in the anterior

thalamus and hippocampus (Sarasso et al., 2014). Spindles are hypothesized to align windows of

excitability in hippocampo-cortical circuits, and thereby coordinate the information transfer

necessary for long term memory consolidation (Klinzing et al., 2019).

The thalamus is richly connected with cortical and subcortical structures (Cappe, Morel, Barone,

& Rouiller, 2009; Jankowski et al., 2013; Zhang, Snyder, Shimony, Fox, & Raichle, 2010) and has

been proposed as a connector hub between distinct cortical networks (Kawabata et al., 2021).

Recent research hints at an active role of the thalamus in memory consolidation during sleep

(Klinzing et al., 2019). According to this view, thalamus functions as a switchboard to enhance

processing within and between specific cortical networks as required by task demands (Nakajima

& Halassa, 2017; Schmitt et al., 2017). Those same mechanisms seem to be engaged during spindle

generation in rodent NREM sleep (Chen et al., 2016; Halassa et al., 2014). Regarding memory

reactivation, spindles in the thalamus (within or across thalamic nuclei) could selectively engage

(sub)cortical sites through its rich projections. This could lead to carefully timed communication

between the hippocampus and the cortical network(s) implicated in a specific memory and

thereby enable reactivation of memory traces crucial for memory consolidation.

Previous studies have reported the importance of temporally (Latchoumane et al., 2017;

Schreiner, Petzka, et al., 2021) and spatially (Petzka et al., 2022) organized cortical spindles during

memory consolidation processes. Although our study did not include a memory task, here we add

to this literature by showing that thalamocortical spindle activity is temporally coordinated and

spatially specific. Further research using memory tasks needs to be conducted to directly study

how the thalamocortical processes reported here may support memory consolidation.

Conclusion

The present study investigated (co-)occurrence of sleep spindles in the anterior thalamus and

neocortex. Up to half of the recorded spindles co-occurred across multiple channels, both at the

thalamic and thalamocortical level. Although spindles were more likely to engage the thalamus

unilaterally, we also observed simultaneous bilateral thalamic spindles. Slow and fast spindles

were observed in the anterior thalamus. Both slow and fast, as well as single channel and

multichannel thalamic spindles were associated with distinct topographical patterns of spindle co-

occurrence in the cortex. As such, slow thalamocortical spindles generally co-occurred with more

frontal scalp EEG channels, while fast thalamocortical spindles showed a wider cortical overlap,

averaging highest at central scalp EEG sites. Single channel and unilateral thalamic spindles had

more lateralized cortical co-occurrence patterns than bilateral thalamic spindles. These diverse

patterns of thalamocortical spindle co-occurrence could be involved in selective engagement of

thalamocortical networks during memory consolidation and other cognitive processes.

Acknowledgements: The authors would like to thank all patients and their families for the
cooperation in this study. In addition, the authors would like to thank Julio Rodriguez Larios for
providing helpful feedback, and the editors and reviewers who have dedicated their time to
provide comments and questions which greatly improved this manuscript.

Competing Interests: The authors declare no competing interest.

Funding: This research was funded by an internal grant from the Centre for Integrative
Neuroscience at Maastricht University.

Author Contributions

Hannah Bernhard: Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis, Methodology, Project
administration, Resources, Software, Validation, Visualization, Writing – original draft, Writing –
review & editing. **Fred Schaper:** Data curation, Investigation, Project administration, Resources,
Visualization, Writing – review & editing. **Marcus Janssen:** Investigation, Resources, Writing –
review & editing. **Erik Gommer:** Data curation, Investigation, Project administration, Resources,
Writing – review & editing. **Bernadette Jansma:** Funding acquisition, Supervision, Writing – review
& editing. **Vivianne Van Kranen-Mastenbroek:** Funding acquisition, Investigation, Resources,
Supervision, Writing – review & editing. **Rob Rouhl:** Funding Acquisition, Investigation, Project
administration, Resources, Supervision, Writing – review & editing. **Peter de Weerd:**
Conceptualization, Funding acquisition, Methodology, Resources, Supervision, Writing – original
draft, Writing – review & editing. **Joel Reithler:** Conceptualization, Formal analysis, Methodology,
Resources, Supervision, Validation, Visualization, Writing – original draft, Writing – review &
editing. **Mark Roberts:** Conceptualization, Formal analysis, Funding acquisition, Methodology,
Resources, Software, Supervision, Validation, Visualization, Writing – original draft, Writing –
review & editing. **Louis Wagner:** Investigation, Resources. **Albert Colon:** Investigation, Resources.
Danny Hilkman: Investigation, Resources. **Marielle Vlooswijk:** Investigation, Resources. **Jeske
Nelissen:** Investigation, Resources. **Linda Ackermans:** Investigation, Resources. **Yasin Temel:**
Investigation, Resources.

References

Aggleton, J. P., O'Mara, S. M., Vann, S. D., Wright, N. F., Tsanov, M., & Erichsen, J. T. (2010).

Hippocampal-anterior thalamic pathways for memory: uncovering a network of direct and

indirect actions. *European Journal of Neuroscience*, *31*(12), 2292–2307.

https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1460-9568.2010.07251.x

Andrillon, T., & Kouider, S. (2020). The vigilant sleeper: neural mechanisms of sensory

(de)coupling during sleep. In *Current Opinion in Physiology* (Vol. 15, pp. 47–59). Elsevier Ltd.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cophys.2019.12.002

Andrillon, T., Nir, Y., Staba, R. J., Ferrarelli, F., Cirelli, C., Tononi, G., & Fried, I. (2011). Sleep

spindles in humans: Insights from intracranial EEG and unit recordings. *Journal of

Neuroscience*, *31*(49), 17821–17834. https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.2604-11.2011

Avants, B. B., Epstein, C. L., Grossman, M., & Gee, J. C. (2008). Symmetric diffeomorphic image

registration with cross-correlation: Evaluating automated labeling of elderly and

neurodegenerative brain. *Medical Image Analysis*, *12*, 26–41.

https://doi.org/10.1016/J.MEDIA.2007.06.004

Bastuji, H., Lamouroux, P., Villalba, M., Magnin, M., & Garcia-Larrea, L. (2020). Local sleep

spindles in the human thalamus. *The Journal of Physiology*, JP279045.

https://doi.org/10.1113/JP279045

Bernardi, G., Avvenuti, G., Cataldi, J., Lattanzi, S., Ricciardi, E., Polonara, G., Silvestrini, M., Siclari,

F., Fabri, M., & Bellesi, M. (2021). Role of corpus callosum in sleep spindle synchronization

and coupling with slow waves. *Brain Communications*, *3*(2), 1–14.

https://doi.org/10.1093/braincomms/fcab108

Berry, R. B., Brooks, R., Gamaldo, C. E., Harding, S. M., Lloyd, R. M., & Marcus, C. L. (2015).

American Academy of Sleep Medicine. The AASM Manual for the Scoring of Sleep and

Associated Events : Rules, Terminology, and Technical Specifications, Version 2.2. *American

Academy of Sleep*.

Cappe, C., Morel, A., Barone, P., & Rouiller, E. M. (2009). The Thalamocortical Projection Systems

in Primate: An Anatomical Support for Multisensory and Sensorimotor Interplay. *Cerebral*

Cortex, *19*(9), 2025–2037. https://doi.org/10.1093/cercor/bhn228

Chen, Z., Wimmer, R. D., Wilson, M. A., & Halassa, M. M. (2016). Thalamic Circuit Mechanisms

Link Sensory Processing in Sleep and Attention. *Frontiers in Neural Circuits*, *9*, 83.

https://doi.org/10.3389/fncir.2015.00083

Feldmann, L. K., Neumann, W. J., Faust, K., Schneider, G. H., & Kühn, A. A. (2021). Risk of

Infection after Deep Brain Stimulation Surgery with Externalization and Local-Field Potential

Recordings: Twelve-Year Experience from a Single Institution. *Stereotactic and Functional*

Neurosurgery, *99*(6), 512–520. https://doi.org/10.1159/000516150

Fernandez, L. M. J., & Lüthi, A. (2020). Sleep spindles: Mechanisms and functions. *Physiological*

Reviews, *100*(2), 805–868.

https://doi.org/10.1152/PHYSREV.00042.2018/ASSET/IMAGES/LARGE/Z9J0022029380013.J

PEG

Fisher, R., Salanova, V., Witt, T., Worth, R., Henry, T., Gross, R., Oommen, K., Osorio, I., Nazzaro,

J., Labar, D., Kaplitt, M., Sperling, M., Sandok, E., Neal, J., Handforth, A., Stern, J., DeSalles,

A., Chung, S., Shetter, A., … Young, C. (2010). Electrical stimulation of the anterior nucleus

of thalamus for treatment of refractory epilepsy. *Epilepsia*, *51*(5), 899–908.

https://doi.org/10.1111/J.1528-1167.2010.02536.X

Fonov, V., Evans, A. C., Botteron, K., Almli, C. R., McKinstry, R. C., Collins, D. L., & Brain

Development Cooperative Group. (2011). Unbiased Average Age-Appropriate Atlases for

Pediatric Studies. *NeuroImage*, *54*, 313.

https://doi.org/10.1016/J.NEUROIMAGE.2010.07.033

Frauscher, B., von Ellenrieder, N., Dubeau, F., & Gotman, J. (2015). Scalp spindles are associated

with widespread intracranial activity with unexpectedly low synchrony. *NeuroImage*, *105*,

1–12. https://doi.org/10.1016/J.NEUROIMAGE.2014.10.048

Friston, K. J., Holmes, A. P., Worsley, K. J., Poline, J. -P, Frith, C. D., & Frackowiak, R. S. J. (1994).

Statistical parametric maps in functional imaging: A general linear approach. *Human Brain*

Mapping, *2*(4), 189–210. https://doi.org/10.1002/HBM.460020402

Frost, B. E., Martin, S. K., Cafalchio, M., Islam, M. N., Aggleton, J. P., & O'Mara, S. M. (2021).

Anterior Thalamic Inputs are Required for Subiculum Spatial Coding, with Associated

Consequences for Hippocampal Spatial Memory. *The Journal of Neuroscience*, JN-RM-2868-

20. https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.2868-20.2021

Gonzalez, C., Jiang, X., Gonzalez-Martinez, J., & Halgren, E. (2021). Human spindle variability.

BioRxiv, 2021.09.02.458632. https://doi.org/10.1101/2021.09.02.458632

Halassa, M. M., Chen, Z., Wimmer, R. D., Brunetti, P. M., Zhao, S., Zikopoulos, B., Wang, F.,

Brown, E. N., & Wilson, M. A. (2014). State-Dependent Architecture of Thalamic Reticular

Subnetworks. *Cell*, *158*(4), 808–821. https://doi.org/10.1016/J.CELL.2014.06.025

Horn, A., Li, N., Dembek, T. A., Kappel, A., Boulay, C., Ewert, S., Tietze, A., Husch, A., Perera, T.,

Neumann, W. J., Reisert, M., Si, H., Oostenveld, R., Rorden, C., Yeh, F. C., Fang, Q.,

Herrington, T. M., Vorwerk, J., & Kühn, A. A. (2019). Lead-DBS v2: Towards a comprehensive

pipeline for deep brain stimulation imaging. *NeuroImage*, *184*, 293–316.

https://doi.org/10.1016/J.NEUROIMAGE.2018.08.068

Horn, A., Reich, M., Vorwerk, J., Li, N., Wenzel, G., Fang, Q., Schmitz-Hübsch, T., Nickl, R., Kupsch,

A., Volkmann, J., Kühn, A. A., & Fox, M. D. (2017). Connectivity Predicts deep brain

stimulation outcome in Parkinson disease. *Annals of Neurology*, *82*, 67–78.

https://doi.org/10.1002/ANA.24974

Jain, S. V., & Glauser, T. A. (2014). Effects of epilepsy treatments on sleep architecture and

daytime sleepiness: An evidence-based review of objective sleep metrics. *Epilepsia*, *55*(1),

26–37. https://doi.org/10.1111/EPI.12478

Jankowski, M. M., Ronnqvist, K. C., Tsanov, M., Vann, S. D., Wright, N. F., Erichsen, J. T., Aggleton,

J. P., & O'Mara, S. M. (2013). The anterior thalamus provides a subcortical circuit supporting

memory and spatial navigation. *Frontiers in Systems Neuroscience*, *7*, 45.

https://doi.org/10.3389/fnsys.2013.00045

Josselyn, S. A., Köhler, S., & Frankland, P. W. (2015). Finding the engram. *Nature Reviews*

Neuroscience, *16*(9), 521–534. https://doi.org/10.1038/nrn4000

Kawabata, K., Bagarinao, E., Watanabe, H., Maesawa, S., Mori, D., Hara, K., Ohdake, R., Masuda,

M., Ogura, A., Kato, T., Koyama, S., Katsuno, M., Wakabayashi, T., Kuzuya, M., Hoshiyama,

M., Isoda, H., Naganawa, S., Ozaki, N., & Sobue, G. (2021). Bridging large-scale cortical

networks: Integrative and function-specific hubs in the thalamus. *IScience*, *24*(10), 103106.

https://doi.org/10.1016/J.ISCI.2021.103106

Klinzing, J. G., Niethard, N., & Born, J. (2019). Mechanisms of systems memory consolidation

during sleep. *Nature Neuroscience*, 1–13. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41593-019-0467-3

Latchoumane, C.-F. V., Ngo, H.-V. V., Born, J., & Shin, H.-S. (2017). Thalamic Spindles Promote

Memory Formation during Sleep through Triple Phase-Locking of Cortical, Thalamic, and

Hippocampal Rhythms. *Neuron*, *95*(2), 424-435.e6.

https://doi.org/10.1016/J.NEURON.2017.06.025

Lehtimäki, K., Coenen, V. A., Gonçalves Ferreira, A., Boon, P., Elger, C., Taylor, R. S., Ryvlin, P., Gil-

Nagel, A., Gielen, F., Brionne, T. C., Abouihia, A., & Beth, G. (2019). The Surgical Approach to

the Anterior Nucleus of Thalamus in Patients With Refractory Epilepsy: Experience from the

International Multicenter Registry (MORE). *Neurosurgery*, *84*(1), 141–150.

https://doi.org/10.1093/NEUROS/NYY023

Leong, C. W. Y., Leow, J. W. S., Grunstein, R. R., Naismith, S. L., Teh, J. Z., D'Rozario, A. L., & Saini,

B. (2022). A systematic scoping review of the effects of central nervous system active drugs

on sleep spindles and sleep-dependent memory consolidation. *Sleep Medicine Reviews*, *62*,

101605. https://doi.org/10.1016/J.SMRV.2022.101605

Mak-McCully, R. A., Rolland, M., Sargsyan, A., Gonzalez, C., Magnin, M., Chauvel, P., Rey, M.,

Bastuji, H., & Halgren, E. (2017). Coordination of cortical and thalamic activity during non-

REM sleep in humans. *Nature Communications*, *8*(1), 15499.

https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms15499

Mölle, M., Bergmann, T. O., Marshall, L., & Born, J. (2011). Fast and Slow Spindles during the

Sleep Slow Oscillation: Disparate Coalescence and Engagement in Memory Processing.

Sleep, *34*(10), 1411–1421. https://doi.org/10.5665/SLEEP.1290

Muehlroth, B. E., & Werkle-Bergner, M. (2020). Understanding the interplay of sleep and aging:

Methodological challenges. *Psychophysiology*, *57*(3), e13523.

https://doi.org/10.1111/psyp.13523

Muller, L., Piantoni, G., Koller, D., Cash, S. S., Halgren, E., & Sejnowski, T. J. (2016). Rotating

waves during human sleep spindles organize global patterns of activity that repeat precisely

through the night. *ELife*, *5*, 1–16. https://doi.org/10.7554/elife.17267

Nakajima, M., & Halassa, M. M. (2017). Thalamic control of functional cortical connectivity.

Current Opinion in Neurobiology, *44*, 127–131. https://doi.org/10.1016/J.CONB.2017.04.001

Ngo, H.-V., Fell, J., & Staresina, B. (2020). Sleep spindles mediate hippocampal-neocortical

coupling during long-duration ripples. *ELife*. https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.57011

Ngo, H.-V., Martinetz, T., Born, J., & Mölle, M. (2013). Auditory Closed-Loop Stimulation of the

Sleep Slow Oscillation Enhances Memory. *Neuron*, *78*(3), 545–553.

https://doi.org/10.1016/J.NEURON.2013.03.006

Oostenveld, R., Fries, P., Maris, E., & Schoffelen, J.-M. (2011). FieldTrip: Open Source Software

for Advanced Analysis of MEG, EEG, and Invasive Electrophysiological Data. *Computational

Intelligence and Neuroscience*, *2011*, 1–9. https://doi.org/10.1155/2011/156869

Peter-Derex, L., Comte, J. C., Mauguière, F., & Salin, P. A. (2012). Density and frequency caudo-

rostral gradients of sleep spindles recorded in the human cortex. *Sleep*, *35*(1), 69–79.

https://doi.org/10.5665/sleep.1588

Petzka, M., Chatburn, A., Charest, I., Balanos, G. M., & Staresina, B. P. (2022). Sleep spindles track

cortical learning patterns for memory consolidation. *Current Biology*, *32*(11), 2349-2356.e4.

https://doi.org/10.1016/J.CUB.2022.04.045

Plante, D. T., Goldstein, M. R., Cook, J. D., Smith, R., Riedner, B. A., Rumble, M. E., Jelenchick, L.,

Roth, A., Tononi, G., Benca, R. M., & Peterson, M. J. (2015). Effects of oral temazepam on

sleep spindles during non-rapid eye movement sleep: A high-density EEG investigation.

European Neuropsychopharmacology : The Journal of the European College of

Neuropsychopharmacology, *25*(10), 1600–1610.

https://doi.org/10.1016/J.EURONEURO.2015.06.005

Salanova, V., Witt, T., Worth, R., Henry, T. R., Gross, R. E., Nazzaro, J. M., Labar, D., Sperling, M.

R., Sharan, A., Sandok, E., Handforth, A., Stern, J. M., Chung, S., Henderson, J. M., French, J.,

Baltuch, G., Rosenfeld, W. E., Garcia, P., Barbaro, N. M., … Fisher, R. (2015). Long-term

efficacy and safety of thalamic stimulation for drug-resistant partial epilepsy. *Neurology*,

84(10), 1017. https://doi.org/10.1212/WNL.0000000000001334

Sarasso, S., Proserpio, P., Pigorini, A., Moroni, F., Ferrara, M., De Gennaro, L., De Carli, F., Lo

Russo, G., Massimini, M., & Nobili, L. (2014). Hippocampal sleep spindles preceding

neocortical sleep onset in humans. *NeuroImage*, *86*, 425–432.

https://doi.org/10.1016/J.NEUROIMAGE.2013.10.031

Schaper, F. L., Plantinga, B. R., Colon, A. J., Wagner, G. L., Boon, P., Blom, N., Gommer, E. D.,

Hoogland, G., Ackermans, L., Rouhl, R. P., & Temel, Y. (2020). Deep Brain Stimulation in

Epilepsy: A Role for Modulation of the Mammillothalamic Tract in Seizure Control?

Neurosurgery, *87*(3), 602–610. https://doi.org/10.1093/neuros/nyaa141

Schaper, F. L., Zhao, Y., Janssen, M. L., Wagner, G., Colon, A. J., Hilkman, D. M., Gommer, E.,

Vlooswijk, M. C., Hoogland, G., Ackermans, L., Bour, L. J., Van Wezel, R. J., Boon, P., Temel,

Y., Heida, T., Van Kranen-Mastenbroek, V. H., & Rouhl, R. P. (2019). Single-Cell Recordings to

Target the Anterior Nucleus of the Thalamus in Deep Brain Stimulation for Patients with

Refractory Epilepsy. *International Journal of Neural Systems*, *11*.

https://doi.org/10.1142/S0129065718500120

Schmitt, L. I., Wimmer, R. D., Nakajima, M., Happ, M., Mofakham, S., & Halassa, M. M. (2017).

Thalamic amplification of cortical connectivity sustains attentional control. *Nature*,

545(7653), 219–223. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature22073

Schönecker, T., Kupsch, A., Kühn, A. A., Schneider, G. H., & Hoffmann, K. T. (2009). Automated

optimization of subcortical cerebral MR imaging-atlas coregistration for improved

postoperative electrode localization in deep brain stimulation. *American Journal of Neuroradiology*, *30*(10), 1914–1921. https://doi.org/10.3174/AJNR.A1741

Schreiner, T., Kaufmann, E., Noachtar, S., Mehrkens, J.-H., & Staudigl, T. (2021). The human thalamus orchestrates neocortical oscillations during NREM sleep. *BioRxiv*, 2021.12.11.471766. https://doi.org/10.1101/2021.12.11.471766

Schreiner, T., Petzka, M., Staudigl, T., & Staresina, B. P. (2021). Endogenous memory reactivation during sleep in humans is clocked by slow oscillation-spindle complexes. *Nature Communications*, *12*(1), 3112. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-021-23520-2

Staresina, B. P., Bergmann, T. O., Bonnefond, M., van der Meij, R., Jensen, O., Deuker, L., Elger, C. E., Axmacher, N., & Fell, J. (2015). Hierarchical nesting of slow oscillations, spindles and ripples in the human hippocampus during sleep. *Nature Neuroscience*, *18*(11), 1679–1686. https://doi.org/10.1038/nn.4119

Su, J. H., Thomas, F. T., Kasoff, W. S., Tourdias, T., Choi, E. Y., Rutt, B. K., & Saranathan, M. (2019). Thalamus Optimized Multi Atlas Segmentation (THOMAS): fast, fully automated segmentation of thalamic nuclei from structural MRI. *NeuroImage*, *194*, 272–282. https://doi.org/10.1016/J.NEUROIMAGE.2019.03.021

Sweeney-Reed, C. M., Buentjen, L., Voges, J., Schmitt, F. C., Zaehle, T., Kam, J. W. Y., Kaufmann, J., Heinze, H. J., Hinrichs, H., Knight, R. T., & Rugg, M. D. (2021). The role of the anterior nuclei of the thalamus in human memory processing. *Neuroscience & Biobehavioral Reviews*, *126*, 146–158. https://doi.org/10.1016/J.NEUBIOREV.2021.02.046

Sweeney-Reed, C. M., Zaehle, T., Voges, J., Schmitt, F. C., Buentjen, L., Borchardt, V., Walter, M., Hinrichs, H., Heinze, H.-J., Rugg, M. D., & Knight, R. T. (2017). Anterior Thalamic High Frequency Band Activity Is Coupled with Theta Oscillations at Rest. *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience*, *11*(July), 1–13. https://doi.org/10.3389/fnhum.2017.00358

Sweeney-Reed, C. M., Zaehle, T., Voges, J., Schmitt, F. C., Buentjen, L., Kopitzki, K., Esslinger, C., Hinrichs, H., Heinze, H. J., Knight, R. T., & Richardson-Klavehn, A. (2014). Corticothalamic

phase synchrony and cross-frequency coupling predict human memory formation. *ELife, 3*,

e05352. https://doi.org/10.7554/ELIFE.05352

Szalárdy, O., Simor, P., Ujma, P., Jordán, Z., Halász, L., Erőss, L., Fabó, D., & Bódizs, R. (2021).

Sleep spindles, ripples, and interictal epileptiform discharges in the human anterior and

mediodorsal thalamus. *BioRxiv*, 2021.08.12.456047.

https://doi.org/10.1101/2021.08.12.456047

Weber, F. D., Supp, G. G., Klinzing, J. G., Mölle, M., Engel, A. K., & Born, J. (2020). Coupling of

gamma band activity to sleep spindle oscillations – a combined EEG/MEG study.

NeuroImage, 117452. https://doi.org/10.1016/J.NEUROIMAGE.2020.117452

Zhang, D., Snyder, A. Z., Shimony, J. S., Fox, M. D., & Raichle, M. E. (2010). Noninvasive

Functional and Structural Connectivity Mapping of the Human Thalamocortical System.

Cerebral Cortex, 20(5), 1187–1194. https://doi.org/10.1093/cercor/bhp182

Zhang, H., Fell, J., & Axmacher, N. (2018). Electrophysiological mechanisms of human memory

consolidation. *Nature Communications, 9*(1), 4103. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-018-

06553-y

1052

1053 Supplementary material

1054

1055

B

1056

C

1057

1058

Supplementary figure 1. Representative data of thalamic spindles, shown in raw trace (left column) and time-

frequency representations (TFRs; right column) from three different participants. **A)** A fast spindle in right

thalamus (channel 2-3) at 1.5s is accompanied by a slow spindle in left thalamus (channel 3-4). This spindle is,

in consequence, bilateral. At 2.3s, a unilateral spindle in the left thalamus occurs (channels 2-3 and 3-4). **B)** A

slow bilateral spindle (channels right 2-3, left 1-2 and left 2-3) occurs at the beginning of the epoch. Though

the peak of these spindles occurs at different time points, the tails of the spindles overlap, qualifying them as

co-occurring spindles in our analysis. At 2s, we see a local fast spindle in channel left 2-3. **C)** A unilateral spindle

in the right thalamus (channels 2-3, 3-4) at 0.5s, followed by bilateral spindles at 1.5s and 2.3s in the right

(channels 2-3 and 3-4) and left (left 2-3, and partially left 3-4) thalamus.

P	ANT	VA	RT	Lam.med.	MD
1		7.51, -6.25, 7.88	6.00, -7.61, 6.73	4.49, -8.96, 5.58	
		9.02, -4.90, 9.03	-6.34, -6.83, 7.52	-4.75, -7.38, 6.08	
		-7.92, -6.28, 8.96			
		-9.51, -5.73, 10.40			
2		7.40, -8.25, 10.65		4.24, -9.40, 7.11	2.65, -9.97, 5.33
		-6.88, -8.53, 7.51		5.82, -8.82, 8.88	
		-8.82, -8.13, 8.77		-4.95, -8.94, 6.26	
		-10.75, -7.72, 10.02			
3		6.95, -7.92, 8.96	[1]	5.19, -8.41, 7.39 [1]	3.42, -8.90, 5.82
		8.72, -7.43, 10.52	-4.74, -7.37, 4.90		
		- 7.77, -7.02, 8.45	-6.25, -7.20, 6.67		
		-9.28, -6.85, 10.22			
4	4.35, -5.01, 11.70	[2]	7.39, -2.33, 12.36		
	5.87, -3.67, 12.03		8.90, -0.98, 12.68		
	-5.51, -6.84, 9.23		-7.95, -4.03, 10.73[2]		
	-6.73, -5.44, 9.98		-9.17, -2.63, 11.48		
5		7.15, -7.65, 9.18	5.23, -7.50, 8.37		
		9.08, -7.80, 9.99	-6.87, -8.39, 7.97		
		11.00, -7.96, 10.79			
		-8.50, -7.46, 8.69			
		-8.50, -7.46, 8.69			
		-11.76, -5.60, 10.14			
6	4.50, -5.26, 8.32	-7.33, -5.52, 8.35	7.44, -3.18, 11.08[3]		3.04, -6.29, 6,95
	5.97, -4.22, 9.70	-8.86, -4.53, 9.48	-5.80, -6.52, 7.23		-4.27, -7.51, 6.11
		[3]			

7	7.29, -8.30, 7.73	4	5.80, -9.08, 6.37[4]
	8.78, -7.53, 9.10	5	-6.47, -8.40, 7.34[5]
	10.27, -6.75, 10.46		
	-8.43, -7.82, 8.13		
	-10.39, -7.25, 8.92		
	-12.35, -6.67, 9.71		

Supplementary Table 1. Coordinates in MNI-space (with respective nuclei guided by the Mai atlas) of the locations of electrode centers for all participants. Abbreviations: ANT: anterior nucleus of the thalamus; VA: ventral anterior nucleus; RT: Reticular nucleus; Lam.Med.: Lamina medialis; MD: mediodorsal nucleus

Electrode locations at borders between nuclei are indicated by superscripts.

Spindle characteristics per nucleus

We evaluated descriptive spindle measures when categorizing the data into their corresponding thalamic nuclei, selecting the three most common nuclei in our data. Note, that there was considerable uncertainty associated with the anatomical labeling. Three separate generalized linear mixed-effects models were constructed with density, duration, or amplitude as dependent variable, spindle type (slow vs. fast), thalamic nucleus (VA, ANT, RT) and their interaction as fixed effects, and participant as random intercept. The two-tailed significance level was set at $\alpha = 0.05$. Mixed-effects models were computed using the Matlab function *fitglme*.

In the generalized linear model (GLM) analysis, there was a significant main effect of spindle type ($F_{1,60} = 60.45$; $p < 0.001$) on spindle density, but no main effect of nucleus ($F_{2,60} = 1.48$; $p = 0.24$) and no significant interaction of spindle type and nucleus ($F_{2,60} = 2.29$; $p = 0.11$) on spindle density. Post-hoc comparisons revealed that slow spindles (6.90 ± 2.88 sp/min) had significantly higher density ($t(60) = 7.78$; $p < 0.001$) than fast spindles (2.94 ± 1.52 sp/min). The intercept term was significant ($F_{1,60} = 243.01$; $p < 0.001$), pointing to inter-individual differences in spindle density. When modelling spindle duration with nucleus, spindle type and their interaction as mixed effects, and participant as random intercept, there was no significant effect of spindle type ($F_{1,60} = 4.01$, $p = 0.05$), nucleus ($F_{2,60} = 0.49$, $p = 0.62$), or their interaction ($F_{2,60} = 0.35$; $p = 0.71$), but a significant intercept ($F_{1,60} = 1033.5$, $p < 0.001$). When modeling spindle amplitude, there was a significant main effect of spindle type ($F_{1,60} = 6.80$; $p = 0.01$), but no significant main effect of nucleus ($F_{2,60} = $

1096   0.40, p = 0.67) and no interaction effect of spindle type and nucleus ($F_{2,60} = 1.63$; $p = 0.20$). Post-

1097   hoc comparisons revealed that slow spindles (9.96 ± 5.53 µV) had significantly higher amplitude

1098   ($t(60) = 2.61$; $p = 0.01$) than fast spindles (7.67 ± 5.85 µV) The intercept was significant ($F_{1,60} =$

1099   36.47, $p < 0.001$), suggesting inter-individual differences in both spindle duration and amplitude.

1100

1101   **Supplementary figure 2.** Average spindle characteristics per putative thalamic nucleus (see methods for

1102   limitations when estimating thalamic electrode locations). Values are shown for **A)** density; **B)** duration and **C)**

1103   amplitude. Asterisks mark significant results of spindle type at $p < 0.05$ in generalized linear mixed model. VA:

1104   ventral anterior nucleus of the thalamus; ANT: anterior nucleus of the thalamus; RT: Reticular nucleus of the

1105   thalamus.

1106

Simultaneous spindle onset in anterior thalamus and cortex

The previous analyses have shown that spindles tend to co-occur systematically. In order to

understand this co-occurrence better, we investigated potential shifts in onset of thalamic and

cortical spindles. Thalamic spindles might precede or follow cortical spindle activity. On the one

hand, this would allow inferences on a causal relation of spindles between the two regions, but on

the other hand this temporal shift would bias analyses of spatiotemporal spindle overlap toward

channel pairs with a smaller temporal offset. The temporal shift was investigated by means of lag

analysis. The lag was calculated as the time difference between spindle onsets in cortical relative

to thalamic channels. Consequently, spindles with an earlier onset in the thalamus are indicated

by a positive lag, and spindles with an earlier onset in cortical channels by a negative lag.

Supplementary figure 3 depicts the median thalamocortical lag across participants and channels,

for slow (A) and fast spindles (B), respectively. The distributions of thalamocortical lag for both

slow (0.001 s ± 0.043) and fast (0.004 s ± 0.075) spindles were centered around 0. A one-sample

t-test showed that both the slow (t(778) = 0.35; p = 0.72) and the fast (t(797) = 1.45; p = 0.15)

spindles did not differ significantly from 0. This implies that spindle onset in thalamus and cortex

was, on average, simultaneous.

1123

1124

1125 **Supplementary figure 3.** Histograms of thalamocortical lag of spindle onset across all thalamocortical channel

1126 pairs and participants. A positive lag indicates spindle onset in thalamus first, a negative lag in cortex first. **A)**

1127 slow spindles; **B)** fast spindles. Dashed line marks the median lag of cortical relative to thalamic spindle onset.