Full title:

Comparative study between radiofrequency-induced and muscimol-induced inhibition of cul-
tured networks of cortical neuron

Short title:

Radiofrequency-induced vs. muscimol-induced inhibition

Authors:

Clément E. Lemercier[1,2], André Garenne[1], Florence Poulletier de Gannes[1], Corinne El
Khoueiry[1], Delia Arnaud-Cormos[3,4], Philippe Levêque[3], Isabelle Lagroye[1,5], Yann Percher-
ancier[1], Noëlle Lewis[1]

Affiliations :

1 Laboratoire de l'Intégration du Matériau au Système, CNRS UMR 5218, University of Bor-
deaux, Talence, France

2 Faculty of Medicine, Institute of Physiology, Department of Systems Neuroscience, Ruhr
University Bochum, Bochum, Germany

3 Univ. Limoges, CNRS, XLIM, UMR 7252, 87000 Limoges, France

4 Institut Universitaire de France (IUF), 75005 Paris, France

5 Paris "*Sciences et Lettres*" Research University, Paris, France

* Corresponding authors

E-mail: clement.lemercier@rub.de (CEL)

E-mail: noelle.lewis@u-bordeaux.fr (NL)

Abstract

Previous studies have shown that spontaneously active cultured networks of cortical neuron grown planar microelectrode arrays are sensitive to radiofrequency (RF) fields and exhibit an inhibitory response more pronounced as the exposure time and power increase. To better understand the mechanism behind the observed effects, we aimed at identifying similarities and differences between the inhibitory effect of RF fields (continuous wave, 1800 MHz) to the γ-aminobutyric acid type A ($GABA_A$) receptor agonist muscimol (MU). Inhibition of the network bursting activity in response to RF exposure became apparent at an SAR level of 28.6 W/kg and co-occurred with an elevation of the culture medium temperature of ~1 °C. Exposure to RF fields preferentially inhibits bursting over spiking activity and exerts fewer constraints on neural network bursting synchrony, differentiating it from a pharmacological inhibition with MU. Network rebound excitation, a phenomenon relying on the intrinsic properties of cortical neurons, was observed following the removal of tonic hyperpolarization after washout of MU but not in response to cessation of RF exposure. This implies that hyperpolarization is not the main driving force mediating the inhibitory effects of RF fields. At the level of single neurons, network inhibition induced by MU and RF fields occurred with reduced action potential (AP) half-width. As changes in AP waveform strongly influence efficacy of synaptic transmission, the narrowing effect on AP seen under RF exposure might contribute to reducing network bursting activity. By pointing only to a partial overlap between the inhibitory hallmarks of these two forms of inhibition, our data suggest that the inhibitory mechanisms of the action of RF fields differ from the ones mediated by the activation of $GABA_A$ receptors.

Introduction

Radiofrequencies are electromagnetic waves ranging from 300 kHz to 300 GHz widely used in modern telecommunication technology. The rapid and continuous increase of environmental man-made RF electromagnetic fields (EMF) has raised concerns about their potential risks on human health. In particular, a large body of research has investigated the possible effects of exposure to RF fields used by mobile phones (300-3000 MHz) on the human central nervous system (CNS) (for reviews see [1-3]). Although evidence exists pointing to an effect of RF fields on brain oscillations [4-7] (reviewed in [8]), evoked potentials [9-10] (but see [11]), and glucose metabolism [12], such changes have not been claimed as having any adverse health effects [13-14]. Interaction between RF fields and biological systems are best understood from a thermal perspective [15-16]. However, compelling evidence suggests that RF fields may also interact with biological systems by producing so-called non-thermal effects (for reviews see [17-19], although see [20-21] for critical reviews), but so far no mechanisms or molecular targets have been identified. Understanding the biological mechanism of non-thermal effects of RF fields on the CNS is not only critical in promoting safety but also holds the promise of useful insights for the development of future biomedical and biotechnological applications.

Early research on various neural preparations reported electrophysiological change in response to RF fields [22-26]. Since then, investigations most frequently indicate that RF fields cause neural activity to decrease [27-35] (but see [24, 36-38]), although the nature of the observed effects might depend on the frequency bands to which the neural preparation is exposed (for example see [28, 38]). In recent years, our laboratory has developed an experimental setup allowing exposing spontaneously active cultures of cortical neurons grown on a planar microelectrode array (MEA) to RF fields, and simultaneously recording the effects [39]. The results obtained with this system indicate that network bursting activity decreases when exposed to RF

fields [27] and that the inhibitory response is a function of exposure time and power [28]. Ex-

periments done with equivalent thermal heating suggested that the inhibitory effects of RF

fields may originate in part from non-thermal interaction with the nervous tissues. However,

the mechanism of action of RF fields on neural networks has remained elusive.

In the present study, we have aimed to contribute to the understanding of the mechanisms of

action behind the inhibitory effects of RF fields on cultured cortical neural networks by per-

forming a direct comparison with the inhibitory effects of the GABA$_A$ receptor agonist, musci-

mol (MU). The GABA$_A$ receptor is the major inhibitory neurotransmitter receptor responsible

for fast inhibition in the mammalian brain [40-41]. Signaling at this receptor is well understood,

thus making it a solid reference for comparative studies aiming to infer potential mechanisms

of action of particular drugs or treatments. Experiments have been carried out on a new MEA

device with improved stability during EMF exposure [42] wherein changes in spiking, bursting

activity and action potential (AP) waveform in response to RF fields or MU were analyzed and

compared. This comparative approach allowed us to identify similarities and differences be-

tween these two forms of inhibition and to employ them as a basis for unravelling a potential

mechanism of action of the inhibitory effect of RF fields on cultured neural networks.

Materials and methods

Animals

91 Primary cultures of neocortical neurons were prepared from embryos of gestating Sprague-

92 Dawley rats (Charles River Laboratories, L'Arbresle, France). Experiments involved six ges-

93 tating rats. All procedures were carried out in compliance with the European Community Coun-

94 cil Directive for the Care and Use of laboratory animals (2010/63/EU) and protocols were ap-

95 proved by the Bordeaux Ethics Committee for Animal Experimentation (CEEA - 050).

Preparation of primary neural culture

Preparation of primary neural cultures was carried out using the methods described in [27-28]. In brief, under anesthetics (5% isoflurane), gestating rats were euthanized by cervical dislocation, embryos (at embryonic day 18) were collected, and their cortices were dissected and treated with a papain-based dissociation system (Worthington Biochemical, Lakewood, CO, USA). Following mechanical dissociation and two steps of centrifugation (the second with an albumin-inhibitor solution), the pellet containing cortical cells (glial cells and neurons) was resuspended in a neurobasal culture medium (NBM) supplemented with 2% B-27, 1% Gluta-MAX, and 1% penicillin-streptomycin (Fisher Scientific, Illkirch, France). The recording chips of autoclaved MEAs (Multi Channel Systems MCS GmbH, Reutlingen, Germany) previously coated with polylysine and laminin (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Quentin-Fallavier, France) were plated with a drop of cellular suspension containing 10^5 cells. Cells were left to sediment and adhere on the MEA chip for up to 2 h and the MEA chambers were then filled with 1 mL of NBM. MEAs were kept in individual petri dishes at 37 °C in a humidified incubator with 5% CO_2 until mature neural network development. Culture mediums were half-exchanged every 48 h until taking recordings.

New MEA design and characteristics

In the present study, a modified version [42] of a 60-channel planar MEA introduced in [39] was used. This new design shared the main characteristic of such MEAs, namely the amplifier contact pads placed underneath the printed circuit board, but presented as main evolutions a reduced chip aperture to the limits of the recording zone and several ground planes in the multi-layered PCB. These evolutions allowed this device to be steadier in terms of Specific Absorption Rate (SAR) and temperature stability during EMF exposure. Indeed, extensive numerical and experimental dosimetry was carried out to assess SAR values and temperature variation on

this new MEA. Although it has been noted that SAR values varied slightly within the culture

medium with peak SAR values observed in the vicinity of the electrode tips , microscopic tem-

perature measurements at the electrodes and exposed neurons level did not show any evidence

of local temperature hot spots (see [42] for more details on the numerical and experimental

dosimetry of the device). In this modified MEA, SAR values normalized per 1 Watt of incident

power were estimated at 5.5 ± 2.3 W/kg.

Electrophysiology and exposure system

The experimental setup for simultaneous electrophysiological recordings and exposure to RF

fields or pharmacological agents comprised an MEA coupled to an open transverse electromag-

netic cell (TEM) [39, 42-43] and a perfusion system allowing continuous fresh medium ex-

change with minimal disturbance. RF signal (CW) at 1800 MHz was delivered to the open TEM

cell with a signal generator-amplifier (RFPA, Artigues-près-Bordeaux, France). To enable sim-

ultaneous recording and exposure to RF fields, MEAs were maintained "sandwiched" between

the TEM bottom plate and the preamplifier (MEA1060-Inv, MCS GmbH), as described in ear-

lier publications [27-28, 39, 42]. Once installed on the MEA amplifier, a perfusion holder

(MEA-MEM-PL5, ALA Scientific Instruments Inc., Farmingdale, NY, USA) was inserted into

the MEA chamber. Perfusion of fresh culture medium was controlled with a peristaltic pump

(REGLO ICC, Hugo Sachs Elektronik, March-Hugstetten, Germany) and the optimal perfusion

rate (causing minimal disturbance to neural cultures) was set at ~350 µL/min. In these condi-

tions, culture medium was fully exchanged in ~2:50 min. Prior to starting the experiment, cul-

tures were allowed to acclimatize to the continuous medium exchange for ~30 min. Recordings

were performed in a dry incubator at 37 °C with 5% CO_2. Preamplification gain was 1200 and

signals were acquired and digitized at 10 kHz/channel with an MCS-dedicated data acquisition

board (MC_Card, MCS GmbH). Signals were recorded and visualized with the MC Rack (MCS

GmbH) software. After 30 min of baseline recording, neural cultures were exposed for 15 min

either to a sham treatment (SH), a pure continuous carrier radiofrequency (RF) at 1800 MHz,

or to the GABA$_A$ receptor agonist muscimol (MU), (Tocris Bioscience, Bristol, UK). After

treatment, post-treatment activity was continuously monitored for 45 min. Data from cultures

aged between 17 and 27 days in vitro (DIV) were included in the present study (DIV, Median

= 20, Interquartile range, IQR = 4.5, n = 35, all experimental groups collapsed).

Data analysis and metrics

Processing and analysis of multi-channel data were performed with the software package

SPYCODE [44] developed in MATLAB environment (The MathWorks, Inc., Natick, MA,

USA). After signal filtering (Butterworth high-pass filter with a cut-off frequency at 70 Hz),

spike detection was performed using the differential threshold precision timing spike detection

(PTSD) method described by [45] and spike trains were analyzed for burst detection using the

method described by [46]. Changes in neural networks activity in response to 15 min of SH,

RF or MU exposure were assessed at the level of the entire MEA by pooling data from all active

channels (i.e. showing both spiking and bursting activities). Burst detection was used to com-

pute the mean bursting rate (MBR), mean interburst interval (IBI), mean burst duration (BD),

mean intraburst spike rate (IBSR), and crossed analysis between burst periods and spike trains

allowed computing the mean spiking rate (MSR) for spikes occurring outside bursts. Effects of

RF and MU exposure were compared in respect to the SH group after data normalization re-

flecting the average fractional variation (R) of a metric (M) during the exposure phase (M $_{Expo-}$

$_{sure}$) relative to the baseline reference phase (M $_{Baseline}$).

$$R_M = M_{Exposure}/M_{Baseline} \qquad (1)$$

The level of synchronicity for descriptors of bursting activity across MEA channels was eval-

uated with the coefficient of variation (CV) defined as the ratio (expressed in %) of the average

channel standard deviation to the metric mean value (either IBI, BD or IBSR). The lower the

CV, the higher synchronization across MEA channels [47-48]. Inter-channel variation for MBR

and MSR relative to the overall average fractional variation (i.e. entire MEA) was used to de-

scribe the spatial variability of the effects associated with the treatment. This measure was eval-

uated by computing the normalized root mean square error (*Norm. RMSE*) as follow:

177
$$Norm.RMSE = \frac{\sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^{K}(Y - y_k)^2}}{K.Y} \qquad (2)$$

178 Where *'Y'* is the averaged normalized value of MBR or MSR over all MEA channels (*K*) and

179 *'y'* is the averaged normalized value of MBR or MSR at the level of the individual channel (*k*).

180 For example, a *Norm. RMSE* value equal to 0.5 indicates that the mean inter-channel variation

181 to the mean is of 50 %. Computation methods for the metrics described above are reported in

182 S1 Table.

AP sorting and waveform analysis

AP detection and sorting were performed with the Offline Sorter V3 (Plexon Inc., Dallas, TX,

USA) software over a period of 30 min including 15 min of baseline (pre-exposure phase im-

mediately prior to treatment) and 15 min when neural cultures are continuously exposed to the

treatment. To ensure reliable sorting between the two recording phases, pre-exposure and ex-

posure phases were merged into a single file with the MC_dataTool (MCS GmbH) software.

Detection threshold was set at five times the standard deviation of the channel noise level and

waveform sample-wide containing single event was set at 4 ms (40 sample, 0.8 ms before peak

and 3.2 ms after peak). Note that this method of detection differs from the one used in

SPYCODE. AP sorting was performed using the T-Dist E-M method (Outlier Threshold 1.5;

D.O.F. Mult. 8) and analyses were executed in batch mode. This method enabled detecting on

average 67, 991 ± 10,655 (Mean ± SEM) APs per MEA and to sort on average 40,135 ± 6,114

APs per MEA (S1A Fig, data over 15 min during pre-exposure phase from 15 cultures of the

RF group used here as representative). Unsorted APs were not analyzed. Hierarchical clustering

of the sorted APs indicated that MEA channels presented several sources of AP that were qual-

ified either as major (MAJ), auxiliary (AUX) or minor (MIN) contributors to the total number

of sorted spikes (S1A and S1B Figs). On average, MAJ, AUX and MIN AP clusters were re-

spectively observed in 85.3 ± 3.6, 28 ± 4.5, 12.3 ± 1.8 % of the MEA channels and enclosed

respectively on average 68 ± 4.4, 21.4 ± 2.5, 10.6 ± 3.3 % of the total amount of sorted APs

(S1A Fig). Comparison of the AP timestamps with the burst periods indicated for the MAJ AP

cluster that sorted APs inside bursts ($_{AP}$IB) were roughly twice as numerous (~1.9) as sorted

APs outside bursts ($_{AP}$OB) and that this proportion decreased to ~1.3 and ~1.1 respectively for

the AUX and MIN AP clusters (S1A Fig). As ~89% of the total amount of sorted APs were

enclosed in the MAJ and AUX AP clusters, only waveforms from these two clusters were ana-

lyzed. The following were measured from these waveforms - peak, anti-peak amplitude, full

width at half maximum (FWHM, through linear interpolation), maximum slope of the rising

edge and falling edge. Data from MAJ and AUX clusters were then averaged to reflect the

overall change in AP waveform in response to the various treatments. Metrics used to quantify

changes in AP waveforms are illustrated in S1C Fig and defined in S3 Table.

Statistics

Statistical analysis was performed using the R software [49] and the 'PMCMRplus' library [50].

Unless stated, data in the text and supporting information are reported as median and interquar-

tile ranges (IQR, .i.e. the differences between Q3 and Q1). To evaluate changes relative to the

baseline, raw values at baseline for the different metrics showed in Figs 2 and 5 are reported

respectively in tabulated form in S2 and S4 Tables. A Kruskal-Wallis test, followed by a

Conover's multiple comparison test, was used to compare differences between groups. A *p*-

value < 0.05 was considered statistically significant. Effect size (epsilon-squared, ε^2), when

reported, was calculated with the "rcompanion" [51] R package. Data were plotted with the

'ggplot2' [52] and 'ggpubr' [53] R packages. The compact letter representation method [54]

was used to denote statistical significance after pairwise comparisons with the R package

'multcompView' [55]. Pairwise comparisons sharing a common letter are not statistically dif-

ferent but, on the contrary, the ones not sharing any letter are statistically different.

Results

Dose response relationship between RF- and MU-induced inhibition

A photograph of the setup illustrating the different parts is shown in Fig 1A. Heating of the

culture medium in response to RF exposure at different SAR levels (range: ~4.8 to ~37.9 W/kg)

was measured with a fiber optic probe (Luxtron One, Lumasense Technologies, Milpitas, CA,

USA; ± uncertainty 0.1 °C) (Fig 1B) immersed in the culture medium under continuous medium

exchange (flow rate ~350 µL/min). After 15 min of exposure, heating peaks ranged from ~0.2

to ~1.5 °C respectively for minimum (~4.8 W/kg) and maximum (~37.9 W/kg) tested SAR

levels. As cultured networks of cortical neurons are sensitive to RF fields in a dose dependent

manner [28], the response relationship between MBR and exposure levels was re-evaluated for

the new MEA device used in the present study. With this new type of MEA, inhibition of burst-

ing activity became visible for exposure levels over ~25 W/kg and a reduction of ~50 % in

MBR was estimated at ~28.6 W/kg (Fig 1C). At this SAR level, reduction of bursting activity

after 15 min of exposure co-occurred with an elevation of the medium temperature of ~1 °C.

To compare the effects of RF exposure with those of the $GABA_A$ receptor agonist MU under

similar levels of inhibition, the relation between MBR and MU concentration was first evalu-

ated (Fig 1D). MU exerts a profound inhibitory action on the activity of cultured cortical net-

works and its half-maximal inhibitory concentration for the metric MBR ($IC_{50\text{-}MBR}$) was esti-

mated to be ~0.25 µM, a value in agreement with other studies on basic receptor and neural

culture pharmacology [47, 55-58].

Fig 1. Setup configuration and dose response profile of MBR against SAR level and MU concentration. (A) Photograph of the setup configuration used for simultaneous recording on MEA and exposure to RF fields and pharmacological agents. (1) Coaxial cable connecting an RF-generator/amplifier (located outside the incubator) to (2) an open transverse electromagnetic (TEM) cell. (3) TEM cell septum. (4) Perfusion holder inserted on top of the MEA chamber. (5) Perfusion microtubes for medium exchange. (6) MEA "sandwiched" between TEM bottom ground plate and amplifier ground plate. (7) Inverted MEA preamplifier connected to a MC_Card of a desktop computer. (8) 50 Ω Terminator. **(B)** Relative heating response of the culture medium over 15 min as a function of different SAR levels (W/kg). **(C)** Dose-response relationship between SAR and MBR; results from 21 recordings (18 cultures), 0 (W/kg): n = 21; 5.5: n = 2; 11: n = 3; 20.35: n = 2; 23.1: n = 3; 25.3: n = 3; 28.6: n = 5; 30.6: n = 3. **(D)** Dose-response relationship between MU concentration and MBR; results from 14 recordings (3 cultures), $1e^{-4}$ (µM): n = 2; 0.1: n = 3; 0.2: n = 1; 0.25: n = 2; 0.3: n = 1; 0.4: n = 1; 0.5: n = 2; 1: n = 2. (C-D) Normalized MBR, ratio of the exposure phase to baseline, data shown as Median ± SD. Fits computed with non-linear least squares method, Pearson's Goodness-of-Fit: $p < 0.05$.

RF and MU differentially impacted network activity patterns

The inhibitory effects of RF fields and MU were then compared with respect to an SH group after data normalization (see materials and methods). Definitions of the metrics used to describe changes in network activity in Fig 2 are reported in S1 Table. To assess the magnitude of the reported normalized effects with respect to the raw data, raw data at baseline relative to Fig 2 are tabulated in S2 Table.

Fig 2. Comparison between RF and MU-induced inhibition of cultured cortical network. (A) Average effect of 15 min of exposure to RF and MU on MBR and MSR (spike outside burst periods). Boxplots with dashed box denote MSR data. (#) is indicative of $p = 0.0535$ against RF-MBR and RF-MSR. **(Ba)** Average effect of 15 min of exposure to RF and MU on mean inter-burst interval (IBI), **(Ca)** mean burst duration (BD), **(Da)** mean inter-burst spike rate (IBSR). (Bb, Cb and Db) Coefficients of variation (CV) respectively for IBI, BD and IBSR. Normalized data, ratio of the exposure phase to baseline. SH: n = 12; RF: n = 15; MU: n = 8. (A-Db). Lower case letters indicate significant differences between groups.

Exposure to RF fields (SAR of 28.6 W/kg) or MU (0.25 µM) both reduced MBR (RF: ~35% reduction, SH/RF, $p < 0.001$; MU: ~57% reduction, SH/MU, $p < 0.001$) and MSR (RF: ~14%

reduction, SH/RF, $p < 0.001$; MU: ~58% reduction, SH/MU, $p < 0.001$). Inhibitory effects of

MU on bursting and spiking activities were on average stronger than for RF exposure (RF-

$_{MBR}$/MU$_{-MBR}$, $p = 0.0412$; RF$_{-MSR}$/MU$_{-MSR}$, $p < 0.001$ - Fig 2A). In comparison to MU, RF fields

showed a tendency to preferentially inhibit bursting over spiking activity whereas MU reduced

equivalently both types of activity (RF$_{-MBR}$/RF$_{-MSR}$, $p = 0.0543$, $\epsilon^2_{RF-MBR} = 0.387$, $\epsilon^2_{RF-MSR} =$

0.267; MU$_{-MBR}$/ MU$_{-MSR}$, $p = 0.9057$, $\epsilon^2_{MU-MBR} = 0.692$, $\epsilon^2_{MU-MSR} = 0.607$).

Inhibition of neural network activity was evaluated in the spatial domain by quantifying the

inter-channel variability of MBR and MSR variations across all channels of the MEA layout by

computing the normalized root mean square error (Norm. RMSE, see materials and methods).

Intrinsic variations of this measurement observed in response to SH exposure indicated on av-

erage that the level of spatial variability for MBR was slightly lower than for MSR (SH$_{-MBR}$ =

0.22 (0.14); SH$_{-MSR}$ = 0.37 (0.30); $p = 0.0327$). RF- and MU-induced inhibition were both as-

sociated with a comparable level of spatial variation of bursting activity across the MEA chan-

nels (RF = 0.20 (0.22); MU = 0.28 (0.12); $p = 0.3059$). The degree of spatial variability in MBR

was not different from the intrinsic spatial variability observed in response to SH exposure (p

= 0.3024). In the same way as for the data for MBR, the data for MSR indicated that RF- and

MU-induced inhibition caused spiking activity to vary equivalently in space (RF = 0.54 (0.16);

MU = 0.65 (0.21); $p = 0.1848$) but spatial fluctuations of MSR were higher than for the intrinsic

variation observed with SH exposure ($p = 0.0037$, pooled MSR data across RF and MU); alt-

hough as in SH exposure, spatial variations of MBR were lower than for MSR ($p < 0.001$).

Collectively these data indicate that RF-induced inhibition occurred within the MEA space as

diffusely as the pharmacological inhibition induced by MU.

Comparison between RF- and MU-induced inhibitions was pursued with descriptors of bursting

activity such as IBI, BD and IBSR and their respective indicators of synchronization across

MEA channels with the coefficient of variation (CV, see materials and methods and metrics

definition in S1 Table). In response to RF and MU, bursting activity becomes increasingly

sparse, as seen by increased IBI (SH/RF, $p = 0.0020$, SH/MU, $p < 0.001$; RF/MU, $p = 0.4528$ -

Fig 2Ba). Compared to RF exposure, the inhibitory action of MU was accompanied by a desyn-

chronization of bursting activity across MEA channels as seen by an increased CV IBI (SH/RF,

$p = 0.2318$; SH/MU, $p < 0.001$; RF/MU , $p = 0.0098$ - Fig 2Bb). RF and MU both decreased

BD (SH/RF, $p < 0.001$; SH/MU, $p < 0.001$; RF/MU, $p = 0.0178$ - Fig 2Ca) and desynchronized

BD across MEA channels (CV BD: SH/RF, $p = 0.0035$, SH/MU, $p < 0.001$ - Fig 2Cb) but this

effect was of a higher magnitude for MU (RF/MU, $p = 0.0128$). MU, but not RF exposure,

increased IBSR (SH/RF, $p = 0.2919$; SH/MU, $p = 0.0069$; RF/MU, $p = 0.0476$ - Fig 2Da).

However, both treatments desynchronized IBSR across MEA's channels (CV IBSR: SH/RF, p

$= 0.0062$; SH/MU, $p = 0.0042$; RF/MU, $p = 0.5388$ - Fig 2Db).

Differential effect of RF and MU on neural networks temporal activity pattern

Analysis and comparison of the two forms of inhibition were pursued in the temporal domain

by measuring bursting rate (BR) and spiking rate (SR) over time (Fig 3). In response to RF or

MU, BR dramatically decreased by about half of the baseline level within the first minute fol-

lowing exposure (Fig 3A). Similarly to BR, SR reduced within the first minute following ex-

posure onset but, in contrast to MU, the latter appeared on average to be less affected by RF

fields (Fig 3B). Quantification of the rate of BR inhibition during the initial phase of exposure

(initial inhibitory rate, see metrics definition in S1 Table) indicated that RF fields and MU both

impacted BR with an equivalent initial potency (SH/RF, $p < 0.001$; SH/MU, $p = 0.0035$;

RF/MU, $p = 0.9243$ - Fig 3C). The initial inhibitory rate for SR in response to RF exposure

showed a greater level of variability than for BR and was no different from SH (SH/RF, $p =$

0.1741 - Fig 3C). On the other hand, MU inhibited BR and SR with an equivalent initial potency

(SH-$_{SR}$/MU-$_{SR}$, $p < 0.001$; MU-$_{BR}$/MU-$_{SR}$, $p = 0.6850$ - Fig 3C). Following the initial action of

the treatments, BR and SR showed a tendency for a slight regain of activity, although this effect

was more marked for MU. In response to washout of MU, a dramatic short-lasting regain of

activity of about 1 min was observed. This phenomenon qualified as a postinhibitory rebound

(PIR, see metrics definition in S1 Table) was, on average, visible both for BR and SR (Figs 3A

and 3B) but only significantly detected for bursting activity (SH-$_{PIR-BR}$/ MU-$_{PIR-BR}$, $p = 0.0128$;

SH-$_{PIR-SR}$ / MU-$_{PIR-SR}$, $p = 0.0549$ - Fig 3D). Interestingly, PIR was not observed in response to

RF exposure cessation (SH-$_{PIR-BR}$ / RF-$_{PIR-BR}$, $p = 0.8420$; SH-$_{PIR-SR}$ / RF-$_{PIR-SR}$, $p = 0.9821$ - Fig

3D). Successive recording phases indicated that neuronal network activity fully recovered from

treatment and temporally evolved similarly to SH.

Fig 3. Temporal dynamic of RF and MU-induced inhibition on bursting and spiking rates. (A-B) Normalized temporal time course of bursting rate (BR, left) and spiking rate (SR, right) over 90 min for SH (top), RF (middle) and MU (bottom) groups (1 min bin-size, data show as Mean ± SEM). The exposure phase is symbolized by a gray shadowed area. **(C)** Initial inhibitory rate in response to RF and MU exposure. **(D)** Quantification of the postinhibitory rebound in response to treatment cessation. Boxplots with dashed box denote SR data. SH, n = 12; RF, n = 15; MU, n = 8. (C-D). Lower case letters indicate significant differences between groups.

Similarities and differences in the temporal domain between the two treatments are once again

exemplified in Figs 4A and 4B with data from two representative cultures exposed either to RF

fields or MU. In these examples, the MU experiment is initially marked by an abrupt shutdown

of neural activity, lasting a few minutes, followed by a slight and gradual return of activity.

Following washout of MU, network BR undergoes a short period of rebound excitation which

then re-stabilizes (note the absence of rebound excitation for SR). On the contrary, the RF ex-

posure experiment did not display such dynamics but was rather associated with a strict slow-

down of network activity with bursts peaking less frequently above the normalization line.

Fig 4. Representative recordings showing the temporal time course of RF- and MU-induced inhibition of neural networks. (A-B) Data from 10-selected electrodes of 2 independent cultures either exposed to RF (left) or MU (right) showing spiking (SR) and bursting rate (BR) along three recording segments of 15 min during pre-exposure (top), exposure (middle), and post-exposure recording phases (bottom). Neural activity is shown as spike raster plot capped in blue for markers of burst detection. Below each raster plot is the corresponding normalized BR (blue) and SR (green) computed overtime along non-overlapping sliding windows of 10 sec, dashed lines representing the normalization level.

RF and MU produce similar AP waveform alteration

The inhibitory effects of RF fields and MU were next analyzed and compared at the level of single-unit activity by evaluating changes in AP waveforms (Fig 5). Definitions of the metrics used to describe changes in AP waveform are illustrated in S1C Fig and defined in S3 Table. To assess the magnitude of the reported normalized effects in respect to the raw data, raw data at baseline relative to Fig 5 are tabulated in S4 Table. After hierarchical clustering of spike events, data from the two main AP clusters were analyzed in a pooled manner (see materials and methods section and S1 Fig for more details on AP detection, sorting, cluster repartition and waveform analysis).

Fig 5. Change in AP waveform in response to RF and MU exposure. (A) Representative average AP traces from a single unit (left) and associated phase plot (right) before and during exposure to RF (top) and MU (bottom). Scale: (y): 15 µV; (x): 500 µs. **(B-F)** Boxplots showing variation in AP peak (B) and anti-peak amplitude (C) half-width (D) maximal rising (E) and falling edge (F). Normalized data, ratio of the exposure phase to baseline. SH, n = 12; RF, n = 15; MU, n = 8. (B-F). Lower case letters indicate significant differences between groups.

The average effects on AP waveform in response to RF fields and MU are shown from two

representative single units and their respective phase plots in Fig 5A. Analysis of AP waveforms

showed that, in respect to SH, RF and MU exposure neither impacted the AP peak amplitude

($p = 0.3511$ - Fig 5B) nor the anti-peak amplitude ($p = 0.2859$ - Fig 5C), but that both treatments

narrowed the AP half-width (SH/RF, $p < 0.001$; SH/MU, $p = 0.0018$; RF/MU, $p = 0.6065$ - Fig

5D). This narrowing effect occurred symmetrically with both depolarization and repolarization

phases occurring at a faster rate (slope of the rising edge: SH/RF, $p < 0.001$; SH/MU, $p =$

0.0038; RF/MU, $p = 0.3547$ - Fig 5E; slope of the falling edge: SH/RF, $p = 0.0374$; SH/MU, p

$= 0.0224$; RF/MU, $p = 0.5659$ - Fig 5F). As confirmation, phase plots generally show steeper

slopes along the AP cycle, albeit of small amplitude. Analysis of the size effect indicated a

stronger effect on the rising than on the falling edge of the AP (RF: $\varepsilon^2_{rising} = 0.475$; $\varepsilon^2_{falling} =$

0.194; MU: $\varepsilon^2_{rising} = 0.384$; $\varepsilon^2_{falling} = 0.180$) suggesting that narrowing of the AP half-width in

response to RF and MU exposure occurred primarily through a mechanism that increases the

depolarization slope.

Discussion

In the present study, exposure to RF fields were performed at an SAR level of 28.6 W/kg, a

value ~1.4 times lower than levels used in [27-28]. Indeed, a recent re-evaluation of the dosim-

etry [42] indicated estimated SAR values per Watt of incident power of 5.5 ± 2.3 W/kg and

40.3 ± 5.3 W/kg respectively for the present and earlier MEA versions [27-28]. This re-evalu-

ation was made possible thanks to the continuous progress in experimental and numerical do-

simetry and better assessment of influencing environmental factors [42]. The SAR level of 28.6

W/kg is however higher than local basic safety restrictions fixed at 2.0 W/kg [13]. Therefore

this study is rather limited regarding the potential adverse effects of man-made environmental

RF fields on human health. RF exposure for 15 min at an SAR level of 28.6 W/kg decreased

reversibly bursting activity of ~35 % and co-occurred with an elevation of the culture medium

temperature of ~1 °C. The activity rate of neural culture is influenced by temperature with hypo-

and hyperthermia being respectively associated with lower and heightened neural activity [28,

36, 59-60] but see [61]. In line with data reported in these studies, previous experiments from

our lab showed that heating of the culture medium by ~1 °C slightly increased bursting activity

[28] thus suggesting that the observed effect of RF fields might have, in part, non-thermal ori-

gins.

We have previously reported that exposure to RF fields decreases the bursting activity of cul-

tured networks of cortical neurons [27] and that this inhibitory effect increases as exposure time

and SAR levels increase [28]. In the present study, investigations of the inhibitory effects of RF

fields were pursued by performing a direct comparison with the effects of the $GABA_A$ receptor

agonist MU. Our results showed that in contrast to MU, RF exposure preferentially inhibits

bursting over spiking activity. Although spiking activity was reduced by RF exposure, inhibi-

tion was more variable and weaker than for bursting activity. Other studies with cultured net-

works of cortical neurons also reported that MU equivalently inhibits spiking and bursting ac-

tivity [47, 57]. GABAergic inhibition in the brain can be classified as either phasic or tonic

[62]. The first depends on fast activation of synaptic $GABA_A$ receptors from synaptically re-

leased GABA, whereas the second depends on sustained activation of peri- and extrasynaptic

$GABA_A$ receptors by ambient GABA. In our experiments, continuous application of MU in the

culture medium activates both synaptic and peri-extrasynaptic $GABA_A$ receptors, which ulti-

mately leads to a tonic neural hyperpolarization. Neuronal excitability is in essence equivalently

reduced throughout the network subcomponents and an equivalent reduction in activity patterns

based on regular spiking, intrinsically bursting neurons as well on network collective bursting

behavior is observed. As RF exposure differentially impacted spiking and bursting activity, one

may argue that cell hyperpolarization is not the main force driving the inhibitory effects of RF

on neural networks. Studies on the effect of RF exposure on the membrane potential of excitable

cells (cardiomyocytes and neurons) has led to conflicting results, with some showing no effect

[23, 26, 63-64], others showing hyperpolarization [31], and sometimes both, depending on the

region studied after acute exposure of the whole animal [34]. Detailed electrophysiological in-

vestigations in our experimental conditions are needed to shed light on this point.

At the cellular level, cortical neurons can generate bursts based on intrinsic properties such as

hyperpolarization-activated current (I_h), subthreshold membrane oscillations and T-type cal-

cium current, above which high frequency action potentials fire for a brief period [65-67]. At a

network level, bursts can be generated intermittently in a collective manner as an emergent

property [68-69] relying on the development of an excitatory-inhibitory oscillating network

[70-71]. On that note, possible hypotheses could be that reduced bursting activity in response

to RF exposure is due to a predominant action on intrinsically bursting neurons over regular

spiking neurons or, alternatively, that the effect of RF manifests itself on a larger scale by re-

ducing network collective bursting behavior. Interestingly, some authors have suggested that

the extremely low-frequency EMFs (high-intensity power frequency, 50 Hz) enhance the ac-

tivity of cultured networks of cortical neurons by modulating the activity of pacemaker-like

interneurons [38]. To our knowledge, this research avenue has not yet been further investigated

by other laboratories. Nevertheless, our experiments focused on mature neocortical cultures

where network bursts substantially contribute to the overall burst count (~60 to ~80% of the

total number of bursts) and no discrimination in our analysis was considered between isolated

bursts and network bursts. Therefore, the observed inhibition of bursting activity in response to

RF exposure mostly originates from a reduction of network collective bursting behavior. RF

exposure at different levels of culture maturity (i.e. irregular and slightly synchronized bursting

vs. regular and highly synchronized bursting) is of interest to determine whether neural network

topology is a factor determining the sensitivity to RF fields. Moreover, detailed analysis with

improved detection algorithms could help to better differentiate between the effect of RF expo-

sure on the different network subcomponents and related activity patterns.

Descriptors of neural networks bursting activity were similarly impacted by RF and MU expo-

sure. In the two forms of inhibition, decreased MBR was accompanied by increased IBI and

decreased BD, but data suggested that only inhibition induced by MU was accompanied by

increased IBSR. However, the reported effect of MU on IBSR seems to contradict the results

of a recent thorough study done under similar experimental conditions [47], thus making it

difficult to evaluate the pertinence of this observation in comparison to RF exposure. At neural

networks level, a shift in the balance between excitation and inhibition strongly contributes to

control burst phase, termination and intraburst spiking rate [47-48, 72-73]. Both Inhibition and

disinhibition cause a shortening of the BD . The former occurs with reduced IBSR whereas the

second occurs with increased IBSR. Indicators of network bursting synchronization were dif-

ferently impacted by RF and MU exposure. During the two forms of inhibition BD and IBSR

synchronization decreased over the network but only MU shifted network bursting behavior

from regular and synchronized to more irregular and less synchronized. This observation sug-

gests that the effects of RF exposure exert fewer constraints on network functioning than those

mediated by the activation of the $GABA_A$ receptor. The desynchronizing effect of MU on net-

work bursting behavior can most likely be attributed to its hyperpolarizing action. Indeed, it has

been shown that inverting the polarity of the GABA action, i.e. depolarizing toward hyperpo-

larizing, can evoke desynchronized premature-like network activity in young, moderately syn-

chronized, cultures [48].

Upon recovery from the inhibitory effects of MU but not from those of RF exposure, networks

showed a dramatic regain in bursting activity that persisted recurrently in a synchronous manner

for ~1 min. This phenomenon relies most likely on the intrinsic property of cortical neurons'

so-called postinhibitory rebound and refers to the ability of a neuron to generate rebound exci-

tation upon termination of an inhibitory signal [74-75]. Postinhibitory rebound is involved in a

variety of basic brain processes such as rhythmic recurrent activity [76] and short-term plastic-

ity [77]. This phenomenon relies on several mechanisms occurring in response to hyperpolari-

zation such as activation of hyperpolarization-activated cyclic nucleotide-gated (HCN) chan-

nels and deinactivation of low voltage-activated T-type calcium channels and persistent sodium

channels [78-81]. In our conditions, postinhibitory rebound occurred in response to washout of

MU and consecutive removal of tonic hyperpolarization. The absence of postinhibitory rebound

in response to RF exposure cessation might furthermore imply that RF fields exert their inhib-

itory effects without hyperpolarizing neurons. Reduced bursting activity combined with the

lack of postinhibitory rebound might suggest that RF fields potentially interfere with the func-

tioning of ion channels involved in these modalities such as of HCN, T-type calcium channels

and persistent sodium channels. Interestingly, it has been reported that exposure to extremely

low-frequency-EMF (50 Hz, 0.2 mT, 1 hour) inhibited T-type calcium channels in mouse cor-

tical neurons [82]. However, no comparison with other types of currents was made, making it

difficult to assess the relevance of this observation in the present study (see [83-84] for reviews

on EMF and calcium). Nevertheless, the rapid onset of the effects of RF fields and their revers-

ibility are in favor of a mechanism interacting with fast operating targets at the membrane level

such as ion channels. For a detailed review on EMF with cell membranes, organelles and bio-

molecules see [19]. Thorough investigations with co-exposure of RF fields and pharmacologi-

cal agents will enable directly testing potential interactions with ion channels.

Analysis of AP waveform showed that RF- and MU-induced inhibition co-occurred with a

slight symmetrical narrowing effect of the AP half-width. Although other studies have reported

on the narrowing effect of RF exposure on AP waveform [29, 31, 34] (but see [26, 30]), the

mechanism of action through which RF fields alter the AP waveform remains to be established.

Changes in the AP half-width exert direct influences on the efficacy of synaptic transmission

[85-88] and might contribute to the inhibitory effect of RF exposure on network bursting activ-

ity. Commonalities in the changes in AP waveforms in response to RF and MU exposure sug-

gest a potential overlapping mechanism between these two modalities. A possible point of con-

vergence could be a similar effect on the membrane resistance. Indeed, a decrease in membrane

resistance in response to MU [89-90] has also been observed in response to RF fields [22-23]

but see [25-26, 91] and millimeter waves (MMWs, 30-300 GHz) [29]. The AP shape strongly

relates to membrane resistance, with decreased and increased resistance being respectively as-

sociated with narrower and broader AP [92-93]. Membrane resistance and AP waveform are

also very sensitive to changes in temperature with increased and decreased temperature leading

respectively to lower/narrower and higher/broader membrane resistance and AP [92-95]. There-

fore, it cannot be excluded that the observed effect on AP waveform has a thermal origin [31].

Recently, it has been reported that mid-infrared radiations also shorten AP by accelerating its

repolarization, through an increase in voltage-gated potassium currents [95]. Mechanisms of

RF field effects might differ from mid-infrared radiation as they manifest predominantly by a

steeper depolarization phase. Detailed electrophysiological experiments combined with accu-

rate temperature control or bulk heating are required to elucidate the mechanism of RF fields

on AP waveform. Moreover, the hypothesis that decreased AP half-width contributes to de-

creased network bursting behavior should be investigated in silico with neural simulation.

Acknowledgments

484   The authors thank Stephano Buccelli for his contribution in implementing new scripts in the

485   software package SPYCODE and Prof. Dr. Patrik Krieger for sharing tools for spike sorting.

Author Contributions

Conceptualization: André Garenne, Isabelle Lagroye, Noëlle Lewis.

Data Curation: Clément E. Lemercier.

Formal Analysis: Clément E. Lemercier.

Funding Acquisition: André Garenne, Delia Arnaud-Cormos, Philippe Levêque, Isabelle Lagroye, Noëlle Lewis.

Investigation : Clément E. Lemercier.

Methodology: Clément E. Lemercier, André Garenne, Florence Poulletier de Gannes, Corinne El Khoueiry, Delia Arnaud-Cormos, Philippe Levêque, Isabelle Lagroye, Yann Percherancier, Noëlle Lewis.

Project Administration: Noëlle Lewis.

Resources: Noëlle Lewis.

Supervision: André Garenne, Noëlle Lewis.

Visualization: Clément E. Lemercier.

Writing – Original Draft Preparation: Clément E. Lemercier

Writing – Review & Editing: Clément E. Lemercier, André Garenne, Florence Poulletier de Gannes, Corinne El Khoueiry, Delia Arnaud-Cormos, Philippe Levêque, Isabelle Lagroye, Yann Percherancier, Noëlle Lewis.

Data Availability Statement

All relevant data are within the manuscript and its Supporting Information files.

Funding

This work was supported by the French National Research Program for Environmental and Occupational Health of ANSES under Grant 2015/2 RF/19, by the European Union's Horizon 2020 Research and Innovation Program under Grant 737164 and by the Region Nouvelle-Aquitaine under Grant AAPR2020A-2019-8152210. The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

Competing interests

517 The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

References

1. van Rongen E, Croft R, Juutilainen J, Lagroye I, Miyakoshi J, Saunders R, et al. Effects of
Radiofrequency Electromagnetic Fields on the Human Nervous System. Journal of Toxi-
cology and Environmental Health, Part B. 2009;12: 572–597.
https://doi.org/10.1080/10937400903458940 PMID: 20183535

2. Hossmann K-A, Hermann DM. Effects of electromagnetic radiation of mobile phones on
the central nervous system. Bioelectromagnetics. 2003;24: 49–62.
https://doi.org/10.1002/bem.10068 PMID: 12483665

3. Kim JH, Lee J-K, Kim H-G, Kim K-B, Kim HR. Possible Effects of Radiofrequency Elec-
tromagnetic Field Exposure on Central Nerve System. Biomolecules & Therapeutics.
2019;27: 265–275. https://doi.org/10.4062/biomolther.2018.152 PMID: 30481957

4. Croft RJ, Hamblin DL, Spong J, Wood AW, McKenzie RJ, Stough C. The effect of mobile
phone electromagnetic fields on the alpha rhythm of human electroencephalogram. Bioe-
lectromagnetics. 2008;29: 1–10. https://doi.org/10.1002/bem.20352 PMID: 17786925

5. Croft RJ, Leung S, McKenzie RJ, Loughran SP, Iskra S, Hamblin DL, Cooper NR. Effects
of 2G and 3G mobile phones on human alpha rhythms: Resting EEG in adolescents, young
adults, and the elderly. Bioelectromagnetics. 2010 Sep;31(6):434-44.
https://doi.org/10.1002/bem.20583 PMID: 20564174

6. Schmid MR, Loughran SP, Regel SJ, Murbach M, Bratic Grunauer A, Rusterholz T, et al.
Sleep EEG alterations: effects of different pulse-modulated radio frequency electromag-
netic fields: Different pulse-modulated RF EMF and sleep EEG. Journal of Sleep Research.
2012;21: 50–58. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2869.2011.00918.x PMID: 21489004

7. Wallace J, Yahia-Cherif L, Gitton C, Hugueville L, Lemaréchal JD, Selmaoui B. Modula-
tion of magnetoencephalography alpha band activity by radiofrequency electromagnetic
field depicted in sensor and source space. Sci Rep. déc 2021;11(1):23403.
https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-021-02560-0 PMID: 34862418

8. Wallace J, Selmaoui B. Effect of mobile phone radiofrequency signal on the alpha rhythm
of human waking EEG: A review. Environ Res. 2019 Aug;175:274-286.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envres.2019.05.016 PMID: 31146099

9. Eulitz C, Ullsperger P, Freude G, Elbert T. Mobile phones modulate response patterns of human brain activity. NeuroReport. 1998;9: 3229–3232. https://doi.org/10.1097/00001756-199810050-00018 PMID: 9831456

10. Ferreri F, Curcio G, Pasqualetti P, De Gennaro L, Fini R, Rossini PM. Mobile phone emissions and human brain excitability. Ann Neurol. 2006;60: 188–196. https://doi.org/10.1002/ana.20906 PMID: 16802289

11. Kleinlogel H, Dierks Th, Koenig Th, Lehmann H, Minder A, Berz R. Effects of weak mobile phone-Electromagnetic fields (GSM, UMTS) on event related potentials and cognitive functions. Bioelectromagnetics. 2008;29: 488–497. https://doi.org/10.1002/bem.20418 PMID: 18421712

12. Volkow ND, Tomasi D, Wang GJ, Vaska P, Fowler JS, Telang F, Alexoff D, Logan J, Wong C. Effects of cell phone radiofrequency signal exposure on brain glucose metabolism. JAMA. 2011 Feb 23;305(8):808-13. https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2011.186 PMID: 21343580

13. ICNIRP (International Commission on Non-Ionizing Radiation Protection). Guidelines for Limiting Exposure to Electromagnetic Fields (100 kHz to 300 GHz). Health Phys. 2020 May;118(5):483-524. https://doi.org/10.1097/HP.0000000000001210 PMID: 32167495

14. SCENIHR (Scientific Committee on Emerging and Newly Identified Health Risks). Potential health effects of exposure to electromagnetic fields (EMF). European Commission 2015: 1–288, 2015. https://doi.org/10.2772/75635

15. Foster KR, Glaser R. Thermal mechanisms of interaction of radiofrequency energy with biological systems with relevance to exposure guidelines. Health Physics. 2007;92: 609–620. https://doi.org/10.1097/01.HP.0000262572.64418.38 PMID: 17495663

16. Greenebaum B, Barnes F. Handbook of Biological Effects of Electromagnetic Fields, Vol. 1. Biological and Medical Aspects of Electromagnetic Fields 4th edn. (CRC Press, Boca Raton, 2019).

17. Belpomme D, Hardell L, Belyaev I, Burgio E, Carpenter DO. Thermal and non-thermal health effects of low intensity non-ionizing radiation: An international perspective. Environmental Pollution. 2018;242: 643–658. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2018.07.019 PMID: 30025338

18. Hinrikus H, Bachmann M, Lass J. Understanding physical mechanism of low-level microwave radiation effect. International Journal of Radiation Biology. 2018;94: 877–882. https://doi.org/10.1080/09553002.2018.1478158 PMID: 29775391

19. Romanenko S, Begley R, Harvey AR, Hool L, Wallace VP. The interaction between electromagnetic fields at megahertz, gigahertz and terahertz frequencies with cells, tissues and organisms: risks and potential. J R Soc Interface. 2017;14: 20170585. https://doi.org/10.1098/rsif.2017.0585 PMID: 29212756

20. Apollonio F, Liberti M, Paffi A, Merla C, Marracino P, Denzi A, et al. Feasibility for Microwaves Energy to Affect Biological Systems Via Nonthermal Mechanisms: A Systematic Approach. IEEE Trans Microwave Theory Techn. 2013;61: 2031–2045. https://doi.org/10.1109/TMTT.2013.2250298

21. Foster KR. Thermal and nonthermal mechanisms of interaction of radio-frequency energy with biological systems. IEEE Trans Plasma Sci. 2000;28: 15–23. https://doi.org/10.1109/27.842819

22. Arber SL. The Effect of Microwave Radiation on Passive Membrane Properties of Snail Neurons. Journal of Microwave Power. 1981;16: 15–20. https://doi.org/10.1080/16070658.1981.11689217 PMID: 6787208

23. Arber SL, Lin JC. Microwave-induced changes in nerve cells: Effects of modulation and temperature. Bioelectromagnetics. 1985;6: 257–270. https://doi.org/10.1002/bem.2250060306 PMID: 3836669

24. Bolshakov MA, Alekseev SI. Bursting responses of Lymnea neurons to microwave radiation. Bioelectromagnetics. 1992;13: 119–129. https://doi.org/10.1002/bem.2250130206 PMID: 1590812

25. Ginsburg KS, Lin JC, O'Neill WD. Microwave effects on input resistance and action potential firing of snail neurons. IEEE Trans Biomed Eng. 1992;39: 1011–1021. https://doi.org/10.1109/10.161333 PMID: 1280617

26. Wachtel H, Seaman R, Joines W. Effects of low-intensity microwaves on isolated neurons. Ann NY Acad Sci. 1975;247: 46–62. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1749-6632.1975.tb35982.x PMID: 1054247

27. Moretti D, Garenne A, Haro E, Poulletier de Gannes F, Lagroye I, Lévêque P, et al. In-vitro exposure of neuronal networks to the GSM-1800 signal: GSM-1800 Exposure of Neuronal Networks. Bioelectromagnetics. 2013;34: 571–578. https://doi.org/10.1002/bem.21805 PMID: 23913345

28. El Khoueiry C, Moretti D, Renom R, Camera F, Orlacchio R, Garenne A, et al. Decreased spontaneous electrical activity in neuronal networks exposed to radiofrequency 1,800 MHz signals. Journal of Neurophysiology. 2018;120: 2719–2729. https://doi.org/10.1152/jn.00589.2017 PMID: 30133383

29. Pikov V, Arakaki X, Harrington M, Fraser SE, Siegel PH. Modulation of neuronal activity and plasma membrane properties with low-power millimeter waves in organotypic cortical slices. J Neural Eng. 2010;7: 045003. https://doi.org/10.1088/1741- 2560/7/4/045003 PMID: 20644247

30. Razavinasab M, Moazzami K, Shabani M. Maternal mobile phone exposure alters intrinsic electrophysiological properties of CA1 pyramidal neurons in rat offspring. Toxicol Ind Health. 2016;32: 968–979. https://doi.org/10.1177/0748233714525497 PMID: 24604340

31. Romanenko S, Siegel PH, Wagenaar DA, Pikov V. Effects of millimeter wave irradiation and equivalent thermal heating on the activity of individual neurons in the leech ganglion. Journal of Neurophysiology. 2014;112: 2423–2431. https://doi.org/10.1152/jn.00357.2014 PMID: 25122711

32. Saito A, Takahashi M, Jimbo Y, Nakasono S. Non-conductive and miniature fiber-optic imaging system for real-time detection of neuronal activity in time-varying electromagnetic fields. Biosensors and Bioelectronics. 2017;87: 786–793. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bios.2016.09.024 PMID: 27649336

33. Tattersall JEH, Scott IR, Wood SJ, Nettell JJ, Bevir MK, Wang Z, et al. Effects of low intensity radiofrequency electromagnetic fields on electrical activity in rat hippocampal slices. Brain Research. 2001;904: 43–53. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0006-8993(01)02434-9 PMID: 11516410

34. Wang K, Lu J-M, Xing Z-H, Zhao Q-R, Hu L-Q, Xue L, et al. Effect of 1.8 GHz radiofrequency electromagnetic radiation on novel object associative recognition memory in mice. Sci Rep. 2017;7: 44521. https://doi.org/10.1038/srep44521 PMID: 28303965

35. Xu S, Ning W, Xu Z, Zhou S, Chiang H, Luo J. Chronic exposure to GSM 1800-MHz microwaves reduces excitatory synaptic activity in cultured hippocampal neurons. Neuroscience Letters. 2006;398: 253–257. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neulet.2006.01.004 PMID: 16443327

36. Köhler T, Wölfel M, Ciba M, Bochtler U, Thielemann C. Terrestrial Trunked Radio (TETRA) exposure of neuronal in vitro networks. Environmental Research. 2018;162: 1–7. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envres.2017.12.007 PMID: 29272813

37. Oster S, Daus AW, Erbes C, Goldhammer M, Bochtler U, Thielemann C. Long-term electromagnetic exposure of developing neuronal networks: A flexible experimental setup: Exposure of Developing Neuronal Networks. Bioelectromagnetics. 2016;37: 264–278. https://doi.org/10.1002/bem.21974 PMID: 27070808

38. Saito A, Takahashi M, Makino K, Suzuki Y, Jimbo Y, Nakasono S. Response of Cultured Neuronal Network Activity After High-Intensity Power Frequency Magnetic Field Exposure. Front Physiol. 2018;9: 189. https://doi.org/10.3389/fphys.2018.00189 PMID: 29662453

39. Merla C, Ticaud N, Arnaud-Cormos D, Veyret B, Leveque P. Real-Time RF Exposure Setup Based on a Multiple Electrode Array (MEA) for Electrophysiological Recording of Neuronal Networks. IEEE Trans Microwave Theory Techn. 2011;59: 755–762. https://doi.org/10.1109/TMTT.2010.2100404

40. Olsen RW, Sieghart W. International Union of Pharmacology. LXX. Subtypes of γ-Aminobutyric Acid A Receptors: Classification on the Basis of Subunit Composition, Pharmacology, and Function. Update. Pharmacol Rev. 2008;60: 243–260. https://doi.org/10.1124/pr.108.00505 PMID: 18790874

41. Sallard E, Letourneur D, Legendre P. Electrophysiology of ionotropic GABA receptors. Cell Mol Life Sci. 2021;78: 5341–5370. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00018-021-03846-2 PMID: 34061215

42. Nefzi A, Orlacchio R, Carr L, Lemercier CE, Khoueiry CE, Lewis N, et al. Dosimetry of Microelectrodes Array Chips for Electrophysiological Studies Under Simultaneous Radio Frequency Exposures. IEEE Trans Microwave Theory Techn. 2022;70: 1871–1881. https://doi.org/10.1109/TMTT.2021.3136296

43. Soueid M, Kohler S, Carr L, Bardet SM, O'Connor RP, Leveque P, et al. Electromagnetic Analysis of an Aperture Modified TEM Cell Including an ITO Layer for Real-Time Observation of Biological Cells Exposed to Microwaves. PIER. 2014;149: 193–204. https://doi.org/10.2528/PIER14053108

44. Bologna LL, Pasquale V, Garofalo M, Gandolfo M, Baljon PL, Maccione A, et al. Investigating neuronal activity by SPYCODE multi-channel data analyzer. Neural Networks. 2010;23: 685–697. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neunet.2010.05.002 PMID: 20554151

45. Maccione A, Gandolfo M, Massobrio P, Novellino A, Martinoia S, Chiappalone M. A novel algorithm for precise identification of spikes in extracellularly recorded neuronal signals. Journal of Neuroscience Methods. 2009;177: 241–249. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jneumeth.2008.09.026 PMID: 18957306

46. Pasquale V, Martinoia S, Chiappalone M. A self-adapting approach for the detection of bursts and network bursts in neuronal cultures. J Comput Neurosci. 2010;29: 213–229. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10827-009-0175-1 PMID: 19669401

47. Bader BM, Steder A, Klein AB, Frølund B, Schroeder OHU, Jensen AA. Functional characterization of GABAA receptor-mediated modulation of cortical neuron network activity in microelectrode array recordings. Cymbalyuk G, editor. PLoS ONE. 2017;12: e0186147. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0186147 PMID: 29028808

48. Baltz T, de Lima AD, Voigt T. Contribution of GABAergic interneurons to the development of spontaneous activity patterns in cultured neocortical networks. Front Cell Neurosci. 2010 Jun 21;4:15. https://doi.org/10.3389/fncel.2010.00015 PMID: 20617185

49. R Core Team. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. Vienna, Austria: R Foundation for Statistical Computing, 2020. https://www.R-project.org/.

50. Pohlert T (2020). PMCMRplus: Calculate Pairwise Multiple Comparisons of Mean Rank Sums Extended. R package version 1.4.4. https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=PMCMRplus

51. Mangiafico S. (2020). rcompanion: Functions to Support Extension Education Program Evaluation. R package version 2.3.25. https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=rcompanion

52. Wickham H (2016). ggplot2: Elegant Graphics for Data Analysis. Springer-Verlag New York. ISBN 978-3-319-24277-4, https://ggplot2.tidyverse.org

53. Kassambara A (2020). ggpubr: 'ggplot2' Based Publication Ready Plots. R package version
0.4.0. https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=ggpubr

54. Piepho H-P. An Algorithm for a Letter-Based Representation of All-Pairwise Comparisons.
Journal of Computational and Graphical Statistics. 2004;13: 456–466.
https://doi.org/10.1198/1061860043515

55. Graves S, Piepho H-P, and Selzer L with help from Dorai-Raj S (2019). multcompView:
Visualizations of Paired Comparisons. R package version 0.1-8. https://CRAN.R-pro-
ject.org/package=multcompView

56. Dunn SM, Thuynsma RP. Reconstitution of purified GABAA receptors: ligand binding and
chloride transporting properties. Biochemistry. 1994 Jan 25;33(3):755-63. https://doi.org/
10.1021/bi00169a017 PMID: 8292603

57. Novellino A, Scelfo B, Palosaari T, Price A, Sobanski T, Shafer TJ, et al. Development of
Micro-Electrode Array Based Tests for Neurotoxicity: Assessment of Interlaboratory Re-
producibility with Neuroactive Chemicals. Front Neuroeng. 2011;4.
https://doi.org/10.3389/fneng.2011.00004 PMID: 21562604

58. Rijal SO, Gross GW. Dissociation constants for GABAA receptor antagonists determined
with neuronal networks on microelectrode arrays. Journal of Neuroscience Methods.
2008;173: 183–192. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jneumeth.2008.05.025 PMID: 18590768

59. Rubinsky L, Raichman N, Baruchi I, Shein M, Lavee J, Frenk H, et al. Study of hypothermia
on cultured neuronal networks using multi-electrode arrays. Journal of Neuroscience Meth-
ods. 2007;160: 288–293. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jneumeth.2006.09.017 PMID: 17081617

60. Wang Y-Y, Qin J, Han Y, Cai J, Xing G-G. Hyperthermia induces epileptiform discharges
in cultured rat cortical neurons. Brain Research. 2011;1417: 87–102.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.brainres.2011.08.027 PMID: 21907327

61. Zwartsen A, Hondebrink L, de Lange DW, Westerink RHS. Hyperthermia exacerbates the
acute effects of psychoactive substances on neuronal activity measured using microelec-
trode arrays (MEAs) in rat primary cortical cultures in vitro. Toxicology and Applied Phar-
macology. 2020;397: 115015. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.taap.2020.115015 PMID:
32320794

62. Farrant M, Nusser Z. Variations on an inhibitory theme: phasic and tonic activation of
GABAA receptors. Nat Rev Neurosci. 2005;6: 215–229. https://doi.org/10.1038/nrn1625
PMID: 15738957

63. Linz KW, von Westphalen C, Streckert J, Hansen V, Meyer R. Membrane potential and
currents of isolated heart muscle cells exposed to pulsed radio frequency fields. Bioelectro-
magnetics. 1999 Dec;20(8):497-511.https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1521-
186X(199912)20:8<497::AID-BEM4>3.0.CO;2-5 PMID: 10559771

64. Marchionni I, Paffi A, Pellegrino M, Liberti M, Apollonio F, Abeti R, et al. Comparison
between low-level 50 Hz and 900 MHz electromagnetic stimulation on single channel ionic

currents and on firing frequency in dorsal root ganglion isolated neurons. Biochimica et Biophysica Acta (BBA) - Biomembranes. 2006;1758: 597–605. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbamem.2006.03.014 PMID: 16713990

65. Cain SM, Snutch TP. T-type calcium channels in burst-firing, network synchrony, and epilepsy. Biochimica et Biophysica Acta (BBA) - Biomembranes. 2013;1828: 1572–1578. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbamem.2012.07.028 PMID: 22885138

66. Perez-Reyes E. Molecular Physiology of Low-Voltage-Activated T-type Calcium Channels. Physiological Reviews. 2003;83: 117–161. https://doi.org/10.1152/physrev.00018.2002 PMID: 12506128

67. Wu N, Hsiao C-F, Chandler SH. Membrane Resonance and Subthreshold Membrane Oscillations in Mesencephalic V Neurons: Participants in Burst Generation. J Neurosci. 2001;21: 3729–3739. https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.21-11-03729.2001 PMID: 11356860

68. van Pelt J, Wolters PS, Corner MA, Rutten WLC, Ramakers GJA. Long-Term Characterization of Firing Dynamics of Spontaneous Bursts in Cultured Neural Networks. IEEE Trans Biomed Eng. 2004;51: 2051–2062. https://doi.org/10.1109/TBME.2004.827936 PMID: 15536907

69. Wagenaar D, Pine J, Potter S. An extremely rich repertoire of bursting patterns during the development of cortical cultures. BMC Neurosci. 2006;7: 11. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2202-7-11 PMID: 16464257

70. Fardet T, Ballandras M, Bottani S, Métens S, Monceau P. Understanding the Generation of Network Bursts by Adaptive Oscillatory Neurons. Front Neurosci. 2018;12: 41. https://doi.org/10.3389/fnins.2018.00041 PMID: 29467607

71. Teppola H, Aćimović J, Linne M-L. Unique Features of Network Bursts Emerge From the Complex Interplay of Excitatory and Inhibitory Receptors in Rat Neocortical Networks. Front Cell Neurosci. 2019;13: 377. https://doi.org/10.3389/fncel.2019.00377 PMID: 31555093

72. Arnold FJL, Hofmann F, Bengtson CP, Wittmann M, Vanhoutte P, Bading H. Microelectrode array recordings of cultured hippocampal networks reveal a simple model for transcription and protein synthesis-dependent plasticity: Transcription-dependent neuronal network plasticity. The Journal of Physiology. 2005;564: 3–19. https://doi.org/10.1113/jphysiol.2004.077446 PMID: 15618268

73. Gullo F, Mazzetti S, Maffezzoli A, Dossi E, Lecchi M, Amadeo A, Krajewski J, Wanke E. Orchestration of "presto" and "largo" synchrony in up-down activity of cortical networks. Front Neural Circuits. 2010 Apr 22;4:11. https://doi.org/10.3389/fncir.2010.00011 PMID: 20461235

74. de la Peña E, Geijo-Barrientos E. Laminar Localization, Morphology, and Physiological Properties of Pyramidal Neurons that Have the Low-Threshold Calcium Current in the

Guinea-Pig Medial Frontal Cortex. J Neurosci. 1996;16: 5301–5311. https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.16-17-05301.1996 PMID: 8757243

75. Kawaguchi Y. Groupings of nonpyramidal and pyramidal cells with specific physiological and morphological characteristics in rat frontal cortex. Journal of Neurophysiology. 1993;69: 416–431. https://doi.org/10.1152/jn.1993.69.2.416 PMID: 8459275

76. Sanchez-Vives MV, McCormick DA. Cellular and network mechanisms of rhythmic recurrent activity in neocortex. Nat Neurosci. 2000;3: 1027–1034. https://doi.org/10.1038/79848 PMID: 11017176

77. Winograd M, Destexhe A, Sanchez-Vives MV. Hyperpolarization-activated graded persistent activity in the prefrontal cortex. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences. 2008;105: 7298–7303. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0800360105 PMID: 18474856

78. Boehme R, Uebele VN, Renger JJ, Pedroarena C. Rebound excitation triggered by synaptic inhibition in cerebellar nuclear neurons is suppressed by selective T-type calcium channel block. Journal of Neurophysiology. 2011;106: 2653–2661. https://doi.org/10.1152/jn.00612.2011 PMID: 21849607

79. Ferrante M, Shay CF, Tsuno Y, William Chapman G, Hasselmo ME. Post-Inhibitory Rebound Spikes in Rat Medial Entorhinal Layer II/III Principal Cells: In Vivo, In Vitro, and Computational Modeling Characterization. Cereb Cortex. 2017 Mar 1;27(3):2111-2125. https://doi.org/10.1093/cercor/bhw058 PMID: 26965902

80. Kurowski P, Grzelka K, Szulczyk P. Ionic Mechanism Underlying Rebound Depolarization in Medial Prefrontal Cortex Pyramidal Neurons. Front Cell Neurosci. 2018;12: 93. https://doi.org/10.3389/fncel.2018.00093 PMID: 29740284

81. Wu N, Enomoto A, Tanaka S, Hsiao CF, Nykamp DQ, Izhikevich E, et al. Persistent Sodium Currents in Mesencephalic V Neurons Participate in Burst Generation and Control of Membrane Excitability. Journal of Neurophysiology. mai 2005;93(5):2710-22. https://doi.org/10.1152/jn.00636.2004 PMID: 15625100

82. Cui Y, Liu X, Yang T, Mei Y-A, Hu C. Exposure to extremely low-frequency electromagnetic fields inhibits T-type calcium channels via AA/LTE4 signaling pathway. Cell Calcium. 2014;55: 48–58. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ceca.2013.11.002 PMID: 24360572

83. Pall ML. Electromagnetic fields act via activation of voltage-gated calcium channels to produce beneficial or adverse effects. J Cell Mol Med. 2013;17: 958–965. https://doi.org/10.1111/jcmm.12088 PMID: 23802593

84. Wood A, Karipidis K. Radiofrequency Fields and Calcium Movements Into and Out of Cells. Radiat Res. 2021 Jan 1;195(1):101-113. https://doi.org/10.1667/RADE-20-00101.1 PMID: 33206197

85. Sabatini BL, Regehr WG. Control of Neurotransmitter Release by Presynaptic Waveform at the Granule Cell to Purkinje Cell Synapse. J Neurosci. 1997;17: 3425–3435. https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.17-10-03425.1997 PMID: 9133368

86. Qian J, Saggau P. Modulation of Transmitter Release by Action Potential Duration at the
Hippocampal CA3-CA1 Synapse. Journal of Neurophysiology. 1999;81: 288–298.
https://doi.org/10.1152/jn.1999.81.1.288 PMID: 9914289

87. Kress GJ, Mennerick S. Action potential initiation and propagation: Upstream influences
on neurotransmission. Neuroscience. 2009;158: 211–222. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuro-
science.2008.03.021 PMID: 18472347

88. Ramezani H, Akan OB. Impacts of Spike Shape Variations on Synaptic Communication.
IEEE Trans.on Nanobioscience. 2018;17: 260–271.
https://doi.org/10.1109/TNB.2018.2838056 PMID: 29994535

89. Du J, Bradley RM. Effects of GABA on acutely isolated neurons from the gustatory zone
of the rat nucleus of the solitary tract. Chem Senses. 1998 Dec;23(6):683-8.
https://doi.org/10.1093/chemse/23.6.683 PMID: 9915114

90. Baufreton J, Garret M, Dovero S, Dufy B, Bioulac B, Taupignon A. Activation of GABA
A Receptors in Subthalamic Neurons In Vitro: Properties of Native Receptors and Inhibi-
tion Mechanisms. Journal of Neurophysiology. 2001;86: 75–85.
https://doi.org/10.1152/jn.2001.86.1.75 PMID: 11431489

91. Field AS, Ginsburg K, Lin JC. The effect of pulsed microwaves on passive electrical prop-
erties and interspike intervals of snail neurons. Bioelectromagnetics. 1993;14: 503–520.
https://doi.org/10.1002/bem.2250140603 PMID: 8297395

92. Volgushev M, Vidyasagar TR, Chistiakova M, Yousef T, Eysel UT. Membrane properties
and spike generation in rat visual cortical cells during reversible cooling. The Journal of
Physiology. 2000;522: 59–76. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-7793.2000.0059m.x PMID:
10618152

93. Hedrick T, Waters J. Spiking patterns of neocortical L5 pyramidal neurons in vitro change
with temperature. Front Cell Neurosci. 2011 Jan 25;5:1.
https://doi.org/10.3389/fncel.2011.00001 PMID: 21286222

94. Goldin MA, Mindlin GB. Temperature manipulation of neuronal dynamics in a forebrain
motor control nucleus. Troyer TW, editor. PLoS Comput Biol. 2017;13: e1005699.
https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pcbi.1005699 PMID: 28829769

95. Liu X, Qiao Z, Chai Y, Zhu Z, Wu K, Ji W, et al. Nonthermal and reversible control of
neuronal signaling and behavior by midinfrared stimulation. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA.
2021;118: e2015685118. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2015685118 PMID: 33649213

848   # Supporting information

849   **S1 Table. Metrics definition: Analysis of neural network activity**

Analysis of neural network activity

Metrics

Day in vitro (DIV)	Age of the culture (in days) from preparation date (DIV_0) to recording date (DIV_n)
Active channel (k)	Number of channels showing both spiking and bursting activities
Mean spike rate (MSR)	Sum of channel mean spike rate (sec^{-1})
Mean burst rate (MBR)	Sum of channel mean burst rate (sec^{-1})
Network bursting rate (NtBR)	Rate of bursts occurring simultaneously in ≥ 20 channels (min^{-1})
% of spike outside bursts	Ratio of the number of spikes outside bursts to the total of number of spikes.
Mean Interburst interval (IBI)	Pooled mean of mean channel IBI (sec)
Mean Burst duration (BD)	Pooled mean of mean channel BD (msec)
Mean intraburst spike rate (IBSR)	Pooled mean of mean channel IBSR (n spike in burst / burst duration)*1000), Hz)
Coefficient of variation (CV)	Ratio (expressed in %) of the average channels standard deviation to the metric mean value (either IBI, BD or IBSR)
Initial inhibitory rate	Linear regression of 4 points over peri-exposure period, 2 min before exposure-onset and 2 min after exposure-onset
Postinhibitory rebound	Ratio between the maximal values (either MBR or MSR) retrieved in two consecutive non-overlapping windows of 4 min after exposure-offset

859
860 **S2 Table. Raw values at baseline of the various metrics used to describe neural networks activity across the various experimental groups.**

Metrics	SH	RF	MU
N culture	12	15	8
N culture per animal	2 (3)	4 (3.5)	3 (1.5)
Day In Vitro	18.5 (1.5)	20 (2)	23 (2.5) *(2)
Active k	49 (13)	54 (6)	54 (5)
MSR (sec^{-1})	15.6 (18.5)	23.4 (37.3)	52 (43.2) *(2)
MBR (sec^{-1})	2.5 (2.6)	3.5 (2)	11.3 (12.7) *(2)
NtBR (min-1)	3.9 (5.3)	3.3 (1.6)	16.9 (16.4) *(2)
% of spike outside bursts	28.3 (21.9)	25 (21.5)	16.9 (12.3)
IBI (sec)	40.3 (35.6)	23.9 (11.8)	6.8 (10.5) *(2)
CV IBI (%)	19.3 (13.7)	17.4 (8.8)	8.8 (7.7) ns
BD (ms)	89 (102.5) *(1)	217 (91.8)	200.6 (115.4)
CV BD (%)	7 (3.4)	5.2 (3)	4.2 (1.8) *(2)
IBSR (Hz)	160.3 (46.9)	131.4 (42)	122 (35.9)
CV IBSR (%)	6.8 (3.9)	5.1 (2.1)	4.2 (2.3)

Data expressed as Median (IQR). *(1) Indicates significant difference between SH-RF and SH-MU pairs ($p < 0.05$) and *(2) indicates significant difference between MU-SH and MU-RF pairs ($p < 0.05$), ns indicates no significant differences between groups. Pairwise comparison done with Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Conover's all-pairs posthoc test. SH, n = 12; RF, n = 15; MU, n = 8.

873 **S1 Fig. AP detection, sorting, cluster repartition and waveform analysis**

(**A**) From left to right: Mean AP detection for unsorted and sorted AP fraction (% of total detected APs); Relative fraction of sorted APs attributed to Major (MAJ), Auxiliary (AUX) and Minors (MIN) clusters; Mean AP count for sorted AP occurring either inside (AP IB) or outside (AP OB) bursts period. Data collected over 15 min during the pre-exposure phase from 15 cultures of the RF group used here as representative. (**B**) Example of sorted AP waveforms after principal component analysis and hierarchical classification, overlay of 125 waveforms per cluster with averaged waveform highlighted, data from one channel of a the same culture. Scale: (y): 40 µV; (x): 500 µs. (**C**) Illustration of the metrics used to quantify changes in AP waveforms. FWHM: full width at half maximum. As recorded extracellularly the AP waveform is inverted. Scale: (y): 10 µV; (x): 500 µs.

882 **S3 Table. Metrics definition: Analysis of AP waveform**

Analysis of spike waveform

Metrics

Peak amplitude (µV)	Maximal amplitude of the first peak (negative going)
Anti-peak amplitude (µV)	Maximal amplitude of the second peak (positive going)
Half-width (µs)	Full width at half maximum (FWHM) of the first peak computed with linear interpolation
Rising edge (µV/ 10^{-01} ms)	Maximal slope of the AP rising edge (negative going)
Falling edge (µV/ 10^{-01} ms)	Maximal slope of the AP falling edge (positive going)

884 **S4 Table. Average raw values at baseline of the various metrics used to quantify change**
885 **in AP waveform across the various experimental groups**

Metrics	SH	RF	MU
Channel per MEA (count)	53 (12)	54 (6.5)	53 (2.3)
Sorted AP (count)	23 266 (18 327)	31 713 (17 353)	139 499 (87 694) *
Peak amplitude (µV)	-27.3 (11.1)	-28.9 (6.2)	-29.1 (5.7)
Anti-peak amplitude (µV)	11.2 (7.8)	13.1 (6.5)	15.3 (2)
Half-width (µs)	224.6 (39.7)	247.9 (29.8)	253.5 (52.3)
Rising edge (µV/ 10^{-01} ms)	-12.8 (5.7)	-13.7 (3)	-13.9 (4.8)
Falling edge (µV/ 10^{-01} ms)	12.8 (7.3)	14.6 (3.8)	15.21 (6)

Data expressed as Median (IQR). * Indicates significant difference ($p < 0.05$) between MU-SH and MU-RF pairs. Pairwise comparison done with Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Conover's all-pairs posthoc test. SH, n = 12; RF, n = 15; MU, n = 8.

886