Sleep increases firing rate modulation during interictal epileptic activities in mesial structures

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Abstract Epileptic seizures and interictal epileptiform discharges (IEDs) are strongly influenced by sleep and circadian rhythms. However, human data on the effect of sleep on neuronal behavior during interictal activity have been lacking. We analyzed EEG data from epileptic patients implanted with macro and micro electrodes targeting mesial temporal structures. Sleep staging was performed on concomitantly recorded polysomnography and video-EEG. Automated IED detection identified thousands of IEDs per patient. Both the rate and amplitude of IEDs were increased with deeper stages of NREM sleep. Single unit activity (SUA) and multi-unit activity (MUA) increased their firing during the IED spike, and strongly decreased during the subsequent slow wave. These time-locked firing rate modulations were shown to increase during deeper stages of NREM sleep. Finally, during resting behaviour, neuronal firing rate, bursting rate and firing regularity were all shown to progressively decrease with deeper stages of NREM sleep.

Introduction

The relationship between sleep and epileptic seizures has been recognized since antiquity (*Temkin, 1994*). Early modern research recognized that epileptic activity occurs in circadian and ultradian cycles (*Gowers, 1881*; *Langdon-Down and Russell Brain, 1929*; *Griffiths and Fox, 1938*). Since the advent of electroencephalography (EEG) and polysomnography (PSG), it is now known that many types of epilepsy (focal and idiopathic generalized) have the highest seizure preponderance during light non-REM sleep (NREM), and the lowest during REM sleep (*Janz, 1962*; *Autret et al., 1997*; *Bazil and Walczak, 1997*; *Shouse et al., 2000*; *Herman et al., 2001*; *Jobst et al., 2001*; *Méndez and Radtke, 2001*; *Minecan et al., 2002*; *Malow, 2005*; *Rocamora et al., 2013*). In temporal epilepsy, focal seizures were also found to be more likely to evolve into bilateral tonic-clonic seizures during sleep than during wakefulness (*Jobst et al., 2001*; *Herman et al., 2001*; *Bazil and Walczak, 1997*). In addition, sleep deprivation is the most common trigger for spontaneous "breakthrough seizures" (*Frucht et al., 2000*; *Ferlisi and Shorvon, 2014*; *Wassenaar et al., 2014*; *Cobabe et al., 2015*; *Reddy et al., 2018*) and seizures in the epilepsy clinic (*Foldvary-Schaefer and Grigg-Damberger, 2006*; *Jain and Kothare, 2015*), regardless of the type of epilepsy or the epilepsy syndrome. Furthermore, sleep disorders such as sleep apneas, that strongly disturb the quality of sleep, likely worsen epilepsy (*Kataria and Vaughn, 2016*; *Derry and Duncan, 2013*).

Interictal epileptiform discharges (IEDs) are known to be strongly influenced by sleep and circadian rhythms as well. IEDs are brief non-symptomatic events observed in the EEG of patients predisposed to spontaneous seizures (*Staley and Dudek, 2006*). IEDs are fast (<$200\,\mathrm{ms}$) high-amplitude (>$50\,\mathrm{mV}$) EEG transients, defined as interictal spikes (*de Curtis and Avanzini, 2001*), habitually followed by a slow wave lasting several hundreds of milliseconds (*de Curtis and Avanzini, 2001*; *Staley and Dudek, 2006*). *Gibbs and Gibbs* (*1947*) were the first to demonstrate that the rate of IED occurrence increases with sleep, even if the waking EEG was normal. Using invasive EEG, *Penfield and Jasper* (*1954*) later reported an increase of IEDs when certain patients became drowsy or fell asleep. Since then, IEDs have been consistently found to occur more often during sleep (*Lieb et al., 1980*; *Ferrillo et al., 2000*; *Bagshaw et al., 2009*; *Goncharova et al., 2009*; *Karoly et al., 2016*; *Rossi et al., 1984*; *Sammaritano et al., 1991*; *Spencer et al., 2016*; *Lambert et al., 2018*; *Fouad et al., 2022*). Indeed, long-term recordings have found robust 24 hour periods, peaking between midnight and 5pm (*Anderson et al., 2015*; *Spencer et al., 2016*; *Baud et al., 2018*). Generally, deeper stages of non-REM (NREM) sleep seem to promote interictal activity, while lighter stages promote seizures (*Jobst et al., 2001*; *Minecan et al., 2002*), especially in temporal lobe epilepsy (*Lieb et al., 1980*; *Rossi et al., 1984*; *Sammaritano et al., 1991*). The average IED rate is lower in rapid eye movement (REM) sleep than in wakefulness, and higher in slow wave sleep (SWS) than in REM (*Ng and Pavlova, 2013*). Furthermore, IED rates are positively correlated with power in the delta ($1\,\mathrm{Hz}$ to $4\,\mathrm{Hz}$) frequency range (*Ferrillo et al., 2000*; *Malow et al., 1998*; *Fürbass et al., 2021*).

IEDs are understood to be generated by synchronous neuronal discharges, occurring during depolarization of the neuronal membrane (*McNamara, 1994*; *de Curtis and Avanzini, 2001*; *Ulbert et al., 2004*), consistent with paroxysmal depolarizing shifts (PDS) studied in animal models of epilepsy, in which a large depolarization phase is followed by a long hyperpolarization (*Matsumoto*

and Marsan, 1964; Prince, 1968). In humans, microelectrode recordings have shown that firing rates increase during the interictal spike, and are subsequently reduced (and often completely silenced) during the subsequent slow wave (Alvarado-Rojas et al., 2013; Keller et al., 2010; Ulbert et al., 2004; Fabó et al., 2008). The effect of sleep on seizures and IEDs are hypothesized to be due to enhanced brain synchronization during SWS, and decreased synchronization during REM (Nayak et al., 2018; Malow and Aldrich, 2000). Consistent with sleep-related changes in cortical excitability, neurons in the human hippocampus have been shown to have a higher propensity for bursting during NREM, with the lowest bursting rates during REM (Staba et al., 2002b). Although these findings provide a pathophysiological model on the level of single unit and population activity, no studies have yet demonstrated an effect of sleep on neuronal firing behavior during IEDs in human data. However, previous findings have suggested higher baseline firing rates and bursting propensity during NREM sleep, and a reduction during REM (Timofeev et al., 2001; Staba et al., 2002b; Vyazovskiy et al., 2009).

Several studies have shown the clinical potential of basic morphological metrics of IEDs. Aanestad et al. (Aanestad and Brøgger, 2018; Aanestad et al., 2020) showed a statistically significant reduction in the amplitude of spikes and slow waves with age. In epilepsy, increased IED amplitudes during sleep and after awakening have been anecdotally reported in benign epilepsy with centrotemporal spikes (BECTS) (Beaumanoir et al., 1974; Blom and Heijbel, 1975; Dalla Bernardina et al., 1991; Clemens and Oláh, 1987). Hufnagel et al. (2000) later observed that the highest spike amplitude and shortest spike duration occurred within 2 cm from the site of seizure origin in 24 (75%) and 22 (69%) out of 32 patients, respectively. Malow et al. (1998) and Sammaritano et al. (1991) reported that during REM spikes were often of lower voltage than those recorded during wakefulness or NREM sleep. Malow et al. (1998) reported fluctuations in the sharpness and amplitude of IEDs during NREM, even within the same 30 seconds epoch. However, neither Sammaritano et al. (1991) nor Malow et al. (1998) provided quantification or statistical comparisons between sleep stages. Frost et al. (1991) reported a statistically significant increase in spike amplitudes in NREM versus REM sleep. Del Felice et al. (2015) reported a statistical increase in the amplitude of cortical and mesial temporal spikes during N2 versus wakefulness, but these findings were based on a very limited number of observations (an average of 39 spikes in N2, 21 spikes during wakefulness, none during SWS or REM). Recently, Fouad et al. (2022) investigated differences in spike morphology using a feature extraction method (Liu et al., 2013), reporting amplitude differences between brain regions and SOZ, but no statistically significant differences between sleep stages. A non-significant trend towards increased amplitudes in deeper stages of sleep could be observed, but only within median brain regions, and only from the SOZ. Together, while previous studies suggest that IED amplitudes are increased during deeper stages of sleep, consistent and statistically robust comparisons of IED amplitudes across all sleep stages have not yet been reported.

The current study investigated the influence of sleep on short and long-term dynamics of interictal activities, i.e. on time-locked neuronal activity during interictal events as well as on baseline activity without interictal events. For this purpose we analysed recordings from intracerebral electrodes containing both macro and micro contacts implanted in the hippocampal-amygdala

Figure 1. Power in the SWA and delta range, relative to the pre-sleep period, and separated per sleep stage. Lines show average power over patients per sleep stage, with shaded regions showing the standard error of the mean.

₁₀₇ complex of patients with focal epilepsy. An automatic template matching procedure was used

₁₀₈ to objectively identify IEDs in continuous long-term (2-3 weeks) recordings. Implanted micro elec-

₁₀₉ trodes allowed for the recording of neuronal action potentials during the full sleep and wake cycle.

₁₁₀ Polysomnography allowed detailed multilevel analyses during different stages of sleep.

₁₁₁ We expected deeper stages of NREM sleep to increase the rate of IEDs, as well as their ampli-

₁₁₂ tude, while increasing baseline firing rates and bursting propensity. During the IEDs, we expected

₁₁₃ to find increased neuronal firing rates during IED spikes, and decreased neuronal firing rates dur-

₁₁₄ ing subsequent slow waves. Importantly, we expected these firing rate modulations during IEDs to

₁₁₅ increase with deeper stages of NREM sleep compared to REM and wake. Finally, we explored the

₁₁₆ effect of sleep on the regularity of neuronal firing with CV2 (*Ponce-Alvarez et al., 2009*).

Results

Slow wave peak frequency increases with deeper stages of sleep

₁₁₉ For each patient, 72 hours of LFP data were epoched in 10-second non-overlapping intervals, and

₁₂₀ labeled according to the sleep stage, while excluding those that overlapped with IEDs or artefacts.

₁₂₁ Power in $0.1\,\text{Hz}$ to $5\,\text{Hz}$ was calculated in steps of $0.1\,\text{Hz}$, then averaged for each sleep stage, as

₁₂₂ well as over all sleep stages. Power at each frequency was then calculated relative to the pre-sleep

₁₂₃ period. Relative power showed a peak in the SWA frequency range ($0.1\,\text{Hz}$ to $2.5\,\text{Hz}$) which increased

₁₂₄ from $0.7\,\text{Hz}$ in S3, to $0.8\,\text{Hz}$ in S2, $0.9\,\text{Hz}$ in S1, and $1.2\,\text{Hz}$ in REM sleep (*Figure 1*).

₁₂₅ Mixed effects analyses verified that variance in both SWA and delta power were significantly

₁₂₆ explained by sleep stage (*Figure 4*C-F, *Table 9* & *Table 10*), with post-hoc comparisons confirming

₁₂₇ that SWA and delta power increased with depth of sleep ($Pre < REM < S1 < S2 < S3$).

128 IED detection

Manual annotation of IEDs resulted in an average detection of 5667 IEDs per patient (2106 to 12912)
during the first 24 hours (*Table 4*). Automatic detection resulted in a similar average of 5618 IED
detections per patient (3054 to 12811) in the same 24 hours, showing an average hit-rate of 98.0%,
and an average false-alarm (false positive) rate of 6.5%. The total continuous recording time was on
average 314 hours, i.e., just over 13 days, in which the automatic procedure detected an average
of 50271 IEDs per patient (9224 to 113832, *Table 4*). In all patients, the six templates showed mor-
phologies consistent with spike-wave interictal discharges (*Gotman, 1980*; *Altafullah et al., 1986*;
de Curtis and Avanzini, 2001; *Fabó et al., 2008*), with only modest variations in the amplitude of
sharp peaks and slow waves (*Figure 2*).

138 Circadian distribution of interictal and ictal activity

IED rates showed a significant deviation from a uniform circadian distribution in all patients (*Fig-*
*ure 3*A & *Table 5*). Seven out of eight patients show a median phase between 01:00 and 03:30 at
night, and the remaining patient presented a median phase at 17:25.

Seizure occurrence showed a significant deviation from a uniform circadian distribution in four
of eight patients (*Figure 3*B & *Table 5*). In contrast to IED rates, the median phases of seizures were
distributed throughout the day/night cycle. Of those patients who's phase differed significantly
from a flat distribution, the medium phase was found at 17:43, 10:31, 18:26 & 01:59.

146 Increased IED rate with deeper stages of NREM sleep

147 IED rates increased significantly from wake to sleep (*Figure 4*A,B & *Table 7*), showing higher IED
148 rates with increasing depth of NREM sleep ($S3 > S2 > S1 > Wake$). REM and wake did not differ
149 significantly in IED rates.

150 Increased IED rate with increased slow wave activity and delta power

For each patient, LFP data were epoched in 10-second non-overlapping intervals for the whole , and
labeled according to the sleep stage, while excluding those that overlapped with IEDs or artefacts.
Power in $0.1\,\mathrm{Hz}$ to $5\,\mathrm{Hz}$ was calculated in steps of $0.1\,\mathrm{Hz}$, then averaged for each sleep stage, as
well as over all sleep stages. Power at each frequency was then calculated relative to the pre-sleep
period. Relative power showed a peak in the SWA frequency range ($0.1\,\mathrm{Hz}$ to $2.5\,\mathrm{Hz}$) which increased
from $0.7\,\mathrm{Hz}$ in S3, to $0.8\,\mathrm{Hz}$ in S2, $0.9\,\mathrm{Hz}$ in S1, and $1.2\,\mathrm{Hz}$ in REM sleep (*Figure 1*).

Variations in IED rate were significantly explained by power in slow wave activity ($0.1\,\mathrm{Hz}$ to $2.5\,\mathrm{Hz}$),
and delta ($2.5\,\mathrm{Hz}$ to $4\,\mathrm{Hz}$) (*Figure 5* & *Table 8*).

159 Increased IED amplitudes with deeper stages of NREM sleep

160 *Figure 6* shows the LFP of all detected IEDs, averaged per sleep stage, showing that the magnitude
161 of both the peak and the slow wave components increased with decreasing stages of NREM sleep,
162 in all but one patient (patient 7).

163   To statistically test the amplitude modulation of the spike and slow wave components of the
164 IEDs, the average amplitude during their respective intervals, as determined earlier (*Figure 2*),

Figure 2. Templates for automatic detection of IEDs and statistical time intervals. Each row represents the six templates of one patient (from top to bottom: Patient 1 to 8). Black lines show the template at the channel with the largest response over templates. Red overlays show the spike period $[< \frac{1}{2}min(V)]$, blue overlays the slow wave period $[> \frac{1}{2}max(V)]$. Note the clinical direction of the current (top = negative).

Figure 3. Polar representations of 24 hours circadian distributions of (**A**) interictal activity, (**B**) seizures. Significant mean angles of interictal density and seizure occurrence are shown by arrows. See *Table 5* for details

were entered into a mixed-effects analysis with patient and template as a random factor, and pre-sleep as the reference. Post-hoc comparisons allowed the evaluation of differences between sleep stages. The amplitudes of the IED spikes were increased in SWS compared to pre-sleep, WASO and REM, and increased progressively with increased depth within SWS ($S3 > S2 > S1$, *Figure 7*A,B & *Table 12*). Slow wave amplitudes decrease further (i.e. increased the deflection) during SWS compared to WASO and REM sleep, but were not significantly different within SWS stages. (*Figure 7*C,D). When comparing the difference in peak and slow wave amplitudes ($V^{peak} - V^{SW}$), a clear gradual increase with decreasing arousal could be seen (*Figure 7*E,F), with post-hoc tests showing a gradual increase of spike-wave deflection with increasing depth of sleep ($S3 > S2 > S1$). Neither the spike, wave or difference, was different between pre-sleep and REM.

Firing rate modulation during IEDs increases deeper stages of NREM sleep

Over all patients and nights, 112 putative single units (SUA), and 131 multiunits (MUA) were extracted (*Table 11*). In all patients, individual peri-stimulus time histograms (PSTHs) showed increases in firingrates time-locked to the IED spike, as well as more gradual and sustained decreases during the subsequent slow wave period (*Figure 23-Figure 32*). Some units only responded with an increase during the spike, while some responded with only a decrease during the slow wave. Many units showed both, however, and the average response showed a strong modulation consistent with the LFP (*Figure 8*). Together, the majority of units were shown to be responsive to IEDs, i.e. showed significant changes in firing rates during IEDs versus baseline (SUA: 75.9%, MUA: 65.6%, *Table 11*).

To statistically test the effect of sleep stages on firing rate modulation during IEDs, the average firing rates of each unit during the spike or slow wave periods (*Figure 8*) were entered into a mixed model. Firing rates during IED spikes increased significantly during NREM sleep (*Figure 9*A&B, *Table 13*) compared to the period before and after sleep. Firing rates during IED spikes were also

Figure 4. Summary statistics of IED rate, slow wave activity (SWA) and delta power per sleep stage, with box plots overlaid by values representing averages per patient (colored) and night. **A** and **B** show the rate of IEDs relative to the Pre-sleep period, and the fixed effects estimations, respectively. See *Table 7* for statistical tests. **C** and **D** show the power in the SWA band (0.1 Hz to 2.5 Hz) relative to the pre-sleep period, and the fixed effects estimations, respectively. See *Table 9* for statistical tests. **E** and **F** show the power in the delta band (2.5 Hz to 4 Hz) relative to the pre-sleep period, and the fixed effects estimations, respectively. See *Table 10* for statistical tests.

Figure 5. IED rates increase with increasing (**A**) slow wave activity (0.1 Hz to 2.5 Hz), and (**B**) delta (2.5 Hz to 4 Hz) power. For visualization, power was log-transformed, and both IED rates and power were binned. The size of the dots are proportional to the total number of observations in each bin. See *Table 8* for statistical test.

Figure 6. Average IED LFP for each patient (panel) and sleep stage (color).

slightly increased during wake periods sleep onset (WASO). No differences were found between NREM and REM sleep, nor between REM and wake periods. During the subsequent slow wave, NREM (as well as WASO) also significantly decreased firing rates further, compared to waking periods (*Figure 9*C & D). REM was not found to affect firing rates during either the peak or slow wave. Finally, the normalized difference in firing rates between peak and slow waves (*Figure 9*E&F) summarized the effect of NREM sleep on firing rate modulation during IEDs. During NREM sleep, as well as during WASO, the firing rate difference between peak and slow wave were increased. None of comparisons showed differences between S1, S2 and S3, and in all comparisons REM sleep did not differ significantly from waking periods.

Unit resting behavior changes with deeper stages of NREM sleep

Resting baseline activity of units, i.e. during periods in which no IEDs occurred, was investigated by epoching the first 72 hours in 10-second non-overlapping intervals. These epochs were labeled according to the stage of sleep in which they occurred, and excluded if they overlapped with IEDs or artefacts.

Mixed models showed that SUA and MUA firing rates, as well as bursting rates decreased significantly with increasing depth of sleep, with post-hoc tests verifying a progressive increase ($pre > REM > S1 > S2 > S3$, *Figure 10*A-F & *Table 14*). CV2 also increased significantly, in an almost linear fashion until a large increase during S3 ($S3 >> S2 > S1 > Wake > REM$), indicating decreasing regularity of action potential firing with decreasing depth of sleep **(*Figure 11*A & B)**. Finally, the amplitudes of the action potential increased significantly during all stages of sleep compared to both the pre and post period (*Figure 11*C & D), in which post-hoc comparisons showed a progressive increase wioth $S3 > S2 > S1$.

Figure 7. Summary statistics of IED amplitude per sleep stage, with box plots overlaid by values representing averages per night, per patient (colored). **A** & **B** shows the average amplitude during the IED spike relative to those during the pre-sleep period, and the fixed effects estimations of the comparisons, respectively. **C** & **D** shows the average amplitude during the IED slow wave relative to those during the pre-sleep period, and the fixed effects estimations of the comparisons, respectively. **E** & **F** show the total deflection of the spike and wave ($V^{peak} - V^{SW}$) relative to the pre-sleep period, and the fixed effects estimations, respectively. See *Table 12* for a summary of statistics.

Figure 8. Peri-stimulus time histograms (PSTH) of all responsive units, templates and sleep stages, separately for each patient, including the average LFP showing the consistency between the PSTH and the LFP. For each patient, template and unit, firing rates were standardized by dividing the PSTH by the mean firing rate during baseline (indicated in the first panel). Red and blue overlays indicate intervals for statistical tests of the sharp wave and slow wave, based on the width at half-prominence (*Figure 9* & *Table 13*).

Discussion

Rate of interictal activities in mesial structures are under circadian influence

All eight patients showed a circadian distribution of IED rates, with seven peaking between 01:00 and 03:30 at night, consistent with previous reports (11:00-05:00 in *Anderson et al.* (*2015*), 02:21-04:12 in *Spencer et al.* (*2016*) and one of the clusters at 04:00, 02:00, and 06:00 in *Baud et al.* (*2018*)). While our population was heterogeneous with regard to the seizure onset zone (SOZ), including prefrontal, temporal, multifocal, and amydalo-hippocampal regions, all showed IEDs in mesial structures. Only one patient, with a SOZ in the left parietal region, did not show a nightly peak in IED rates from mesial structures. Although the sample size of our study prevent conclusions on the effect of the SOZ, previous studies have shown that the seizure onset zone (SOZ) and anatomical location do not effect circadian influences on interictal activity (*Lieb et al., 1980*; *Rossi et al., 1984*; *Sammaritano et al., 1991*; *Malow, 2005*; *Foldvary-Schaefer and Grigg-Damberger, 2006*; *Hofstra and de Weerd, 2009*; *Derry and Duncan, 2013*; *Daley and DeWolfe, 2018*; *Khan et al., 2018*), but see *Lambert et al.* (*2018*).

Seizure occurrence is under influence circadian influence

Several patients showed a circadian influence on the occurrence of seizures. However, peaks of seizure occurrence were spread out along the day/night cycle. Patient 1, 3, 4 & 7 showed a circadian peak in the early evening, late morning, early evening, and night, respectively. This did not seem to be associated with a particular SOZ, which were frontal, temporal, temporal and parietal, respectively. Patient 5, and possibly Patient 3, showed a bimodal distribution, with a peak in the morning and evening, and a multifocal and temporal SOZ, respectively. The number of seizures of Patient 2, 6 & 8 were not sufficient to identify any potential circadian pattern. These results are in line with previous literature, showing circadian peaks in seizure occurrence (*Anderson et al., 2015*;

Figure 9. Unit firing rates during the spike and slow wave periods of the interictal discharges. **A**, **C** & **E** show box plots overlaid by values representing averages per patient (colored) and unit. Pyramid shapes and dots represent SUA and MUA, respectively. For display purposes, values were normalized over all sleep stages. **B**, **D** & **F** show model estimates of fixed effects, including annotations for significant differences versus pre-sleep ($p < 0.05^{.}$, $p < 0.01^{*}$, $p < 0.001^{**}$, $p < 0.0001^{***}$). See *Table 13* for a summary of the statistics.

Figure 10. Summary statistics of average unit characteristics during rest, in different sleep stages. **A**, **C** & **E** show box plots overlaid by values representing averages per patient (colored) and unit. For display purposes, values were standardized as relative change versus pre-sleep according to $\frac{x-Pre}{x+Pre}$). **B**, **D** & **F** show model estimates of fixed effects, including annotations for significant differences versus pre-sleep ($p < 0.05\cdot$, $p < 0.01^*$, $p < 0.001^{**}$, $p < 0.0001^{***}$). Only SUA were included in the calculation of burst rates. See *Table 14* for a summary of statistics.

Figure 11. Summary statistics of average unit characteristics during rest, for different sleep stages. **A** & **C** show box plots overlaid by values representing averages per patient (colored) and unit. For display purposes, values were standardized as relative change versus pre-sleep: $\frac{x-Pre}{x+Pre}$). **B** & **D** show model estimates of fixed effects, including annotations for significant differences versus pre-sleep ($p < 0.05$·, $p < 0.01$*, $p < 0.001$**, $p < 0.0001$***). Only SUA were included. See *Table 14* for a summary of statistics.

Durazzo et al., 2008; *Karafin et al., 2010*; *Hofstra et al., 2009b*,a; *Pavlova et al., 2009*; *Badawy et al., 2009*) with frontal lobe seizures generally peaking very early in the morning, and mesial temporal lobe seizures showing a more bimodal distribution, with a primary peak in the late afternoon and a secondary peak in the morning (*Quigg, 2000*; *Quigg et al., 2000*; *Durazzo et al., 2008*; *Hofstra et al., 2009a*,b; *Pavlova et al., 2009*; *Nzwalo et al., 2016*; *Spencer et al., 2016*). The exact timing of the peaks are known to vary considerably between studies and patients, likely due to inconsistencies in protocols and analyses, as well as factors such as samples size, sample demographic, geographic location, seizure focus, and individual differences in circadian rhythms *Mirzoev et al.* (*2012*); *Hofstra and de Weerd* (*2009*); *Smyk and van Luijtelaar* (*2020*). Our results are consistent with varied circadian patterns in seizure occurrence, showing that temporal seizures display single and bimodal distributions throughout the day/night cycle, although the fact that our patient population had heterogeneous SOZ location might also have contributed to the variation in circadian distributions.

IED rate and amplitude are modulated by sleep stage

Consistent with previous studies, the IED rate increased progressively during NREM sleep ($S3 > S2 > S1 > Wake$) (*Lieb et al., 1980*; *Rossi et al., 1984*; *Sammaritano et al., 1991*; *Ferrillo et al., 2000*; *Bagshaw et al., 2009*; *Karoly et al., 2016*; *Spencer et al., 2016*; *Lambert et al., 2018*) and no differences in IED rates between REM and wake (*Sammaritano et al., 1991*), although the latter has been occasionally reported (*Ng and Pavlova, 2013*; *Rossi et al., 1984*). Consistent with previous reports (*Malow et al., 1998*; *Ferrillo et al., 2000*; *Fürbass et al., 2021*), we found that IED rates were positively correlated with power in the slow wave ($0.1\,\mathrm{Hz}$ to $2.5\,\mathrm{Hz}$) and delta ($1\,\mathrm{Hz}$ to $4\,\mathrm{Hz}$) frequency range.

The increase in IED rates during SWS and their suppression during REM sleep has been hypothesized to be due to increased brain synchronization during SWS and decreased synchronization during REM sleep (*Nayak et al., 2018*; *Malow and Aldrich, 2000*). In fact, the same networks of cortical neurons involved in synchronizing thalamically generated delta oscillations during SWS may serve as the preferential substrate for epileptiform spike-wave activity (*Steriade and Contreras, 1995*; *Steriade et al., 1998*; *Steriade, 2005*; *Halász, 2013*). Several studies reported an increase in the spatial distribution of IEDs during SWS and a decrease during REM sleep (*Sammaritano et al., 1991*; *Malow and Aldrich, 2000*; *Méndez and Radtke, 2001*; *Busek et al., 2010*; *Rocamora et al., 2013*; *Del Felice et al., 2015*; *Okanari et al., 2015*; *Scarlatelli-Lima et al., 2016*; *Janca et al., 2018*; *Nayak et al., 2018*; *Conrad et al., 2020*; *Kang et al., 2020*). However, differences in IED amplitudes were rarely reported and in none of the aforementioned studies. An increase in IED amplitudes could result in increases in electrical field spread, which could be misinterpreted as an increase in spike propagation. Furthermore, the extent of the reported changes in the spatial distribution has generally been small and not unequivocally found. For example, *Rocamora et al.* (*2013*) found that while interictal activity shifted from anterior to posterior and from mesial to lateral during sleep, the source of interictal activity remained localized within the amygdalo-hippocampal complex. *Asano et al.* (*2007*) found no effects of sleep on the spatial distribution, and *Conrad et al.* (*2020*) found spatial distribution not to be predictive of seizure occurrence. Finally, *Lambert et al.* (*2018*) found

an increase in co-occurrence of different interictal sources during SWS, but only for neocortical spikes, not mesial-temporal spikes. Together, the reported changes in the spatial distribution of IEDs are small and inconsistent, while robust studies of the effect of sleep on the amplitude of IEDs have been missing. The current study analyzed an unprecedented number of IEDs (3500 to 12811 per patient) from continuous data recorded over three day/night cycles and found clear evidence of an increase in IED amplitude during sleep. The LFP deflections of both the spike and slow wave were found to be gradually increased with deeper stages of sleep.

Interictal activity modulates firing rates of the majority of neurons

Early studies found that some neocortical neurons discharged in time with interictal spikes (*Ishijima et al., 1975*). These have been termed "positive" (*Ishijima, 1972*) or "involved" neurons (*Prince and Futamachi, 1970*), and were considered to reflect the intensity of epileptic activity. More recent studies have consistently found that a proportion of units increase their firing rate during the interictal spike, which is then reduced during the subsequent slow wave (*Wyler et al., 1982*; *Ulbert et al., 2004*; *Fabó et al., 2008*; *Keller et al., 2010*; *Alvarado-Rojas et al., 2013*).

Our results show a consistent pattern across all patients. Units increased their firing rate sharply during, or right before, the upward flank of the sharp LFP spike, then reduced their firing rates to below baseline, highly consistent with the shape of the LFP slow wave. Only one patient (Patient 7) did not show fast and strong firing rate modulation during the IED spike. However, in the rest of the patients, the majority of units showed significant changes in firing rates versus baseline (SUA: 75.9%, MUA: 65.5%). This high proportion of "involved" units is somewhat higher than the 49% found by *Wyler et al.* (*1982*), the 48% by *Keller et al.* (*2010*), and the 40% by *Alvarado-Rojas et al.* (*2013*). However, methods to determine whether a unit modulates its firing rate during IEDs depend on the sensitivity of the design and statistical methods. The early work by *Wyler et al.* (*1982*) was visually performed based on a relatively small number of IEDs, the number of which were not reported but indicated to be less than 50 in the representative figures. *Keller et al.* (*2010*) removed sleep periods in their analysis and reported a large variability in the number of manually annotated IEDs per patient (31–608). In the current study, IEDs were automatically detected on three days, resulting in 2106 to 12912 IEDs *per patient*. While it stands to reason that the increased number of data points increased the sensitivity, clinical differences could also explain the higher rate of responsive neurons. In *Wyler et al.* (*1982*) and *Alvarado-Rojas et al.* (*2013*) clinical information was not provided. In *Keller et al.* (*2010*), 269 out of 363 units were recorded from dysplasic cortex, of which 26 had a cryptogenic origin, and the remaining 73 units came from patients with various lesions. Furthermore, different recording methods were used to record LFP and spike data from diverse regions and with a large variation in the distance to the SOZ. Although our population also showed heterogeneous SOZs, recordings of LFP and spike data were all restricted to the hippocampal-amygala complex. The hippocampal formation has anatomical and physiological mechanisms that promote neuronal synchronization, making this region very prone to epileptic discharges. It should be noted that using a similarly sensitive statistical approach in a recent study on periventricular nodular heterotopia, all units were shown to respond to interictal events (*Frazzini et al., 2022*). Together, our findings are consistent with the paroxysmal depolarizing shift (PDS)

mechanism in which a large depolarization phase is followed by a long hyperpolarization found in animal (*Matsumoto and Marsan, 1964*; *Prince, 1968*), and consistent with *in vitro* studies on hippocampal slices from human patients with temporal lobe epilepsy (*Cohen et al., 2002*; *Wittner et al., 2009*; *Keller et al., 2010*).

Firing rates modulation increases with deeper stages of NREM sleep

While modulation of firing rates during IEDs has been established and replicated here, it is unknown whether this modulation is under the influence of sleep. Our results show for the first time that the firing rate during the sharp LFP peak is significantly increased during sleep compared to waking periods, while firing rates during the subsequent slow wave are significantly reduced.

The first part of the PDS depolarization phase is believed to be generated by intrinsic membrane conductances (*de Curtis et al., 1999*), and the later from feedback recurrent synaptic excitation mediated by AMPA and NMDA receptor subtypes, and glutamate receptor-coupled calcium conductances (*Traub et al., 1993*). The subsequent hyperpolarization represents GABA-mediated recurrent inhibition, as well as Ca2+-dependent outwards K+ currents. Our results suggest that sleep increases excitability and synchronization of neuronal populations, increasing both the probability of the occurrence of IEDs, as well the degree of de-facilitation by subsequent hyperpolarization.

Neuronal baseline activity is modulated by sleep stages

Neuronal baseline activity, i.e. resting behaviour in the absence of IEDs, was investigated by means of firing rates, burst rates and CV2. These were calculated from a large number of non-overlapping 10-second time windows in 72 hours, allowing robust estimations of conditional means within patients. By using mixed models, we dealt with both between-subject and within-subject variance. Firing rates, burst rates and CV2 were all shown to be lower under increasing depth of sleep, and especially pronounced during SWS. A reduction in the firing rate during SWS is consistent with the periodic suppression of neuronal firing due to SWA during NREM sleep, as shown in animal *in vivo* intracellular recordings (*Timofeev et al., 2001*; *Vyazovskiy et al., 2009*). Although measures of regularity were not reported in these studies, decreased regularity with decreased depth of sleep could be explained by such "clumping together" (*Timofeev et al., 2001*) of action potentials.

These studies, as well as our own findings, are in partial disagreement with *Staba et al.* (*2002b*), who reported a reduced firing rate in REM versus wake and SWS, a higher propensity for bursting during SWS versus wake and NREM, and increased variability (CV2) in SWS versus wake. However, these analyses were performed on only 23 neurons and, as the authors themselves noted, potential influences from interictal discharges were not considered. Another study of the same lab included a larger number of isolated neurons (72), and reported higher burst rates in MTL regions, but only during sleep (SWS and REM), and lacking consistent difference in firing rates between sleep stages or between epileptic versus non-epileptic regions (*Staba et al., 2002a*).

Although early human studies found indications of bursting in epileptic regions (*Calvin et al., 1968*; *Wyler et al., 1973*), others found no differences in firing patterns such as bursting between neurons in the epileptic focus or surrounding area (*Ishijima et al., 1975*). In fact, while some studies continued to associate bursting behavior with epilepsy in both animal (*Connors, 1984*) and human

in vitro studies (*Prince and Wong, 1981*; *Hofer et al., 2022*), microelectrode recordings in epileptic patients have so far returned contradictory results, showing both increased (*Staba et al., 2002a*; *Gast et al., 2016*) and decreased (*Colder et al., 1996*) bursting in the SOZ of MTL patients.

Automatic detection of IEDs

The current study exploited the possibility of analyzing a very large number of IEDs by using automatic detection of IEDs. Many algorithms have been proposed for IED detection over the last decades (*Wilson and Emerson, 2002*; *Halford, 2009*; *Halford et al., 2013*; *da Silva Lourenço et al., 2021*), with recent implementations showing good, or better, performance than human experts (*Brown et al., 2007*; *Nonclercq et al., 2012*; *Scheuer et al., 2017*; *Reus et al., 2022*). Recent examples include the use of adaptive morphological filters (*Krishnan et al., 2014*), signal envelope distribution modeling (*Janca et al., 2015*; *Peter-Derex et al., 2020*), convolutional neural networks (CNN) and deep learning (*Lourenço et al., 2020*; *Constantino et al., 2021*; *Fukumori et al., 2019*; *Tjepkema-Cloostermans et al., 2018*; *Fürbass et al., 2020*; *Antoniades et al., 2017*), long short-term memory (LSTM) neural networks (*Medvedev et al., 2019*) and generative adversarial networks (GANs) (*Geng et al., 2021*; *Tanaka and Aranha, 2019*). Two-step methods have been proposed to reduce the need to manually optimize parameters per different datasets (*Liu et al., 2013*; *Bagheri et al., 2019*). Furthermore, machine learning models need to be trained on large standardized datasets of annotated data to deal with the challenge of generalizing models over different patients. Such datasets currently do not exist, but are necessary to objectively compare the performance of the available machine learning approaches (*Wilson and Emerson, 2002*; *Halford et al., 2013*; *da Silva Lourenço et al., 2021*). Furthermore, the inherent unbalanced nature of interictal data, i.e. the small ratio of positive events within large periods of background activity, has only recently been addressed (*Wang et al., 2023*).

The use of LFP templates provide a more robust and transparent alternative, and have been shown to outperform any classifier trained on morphological features (*Horak et al., 2015*). Template matching approaches have also been shown to perform very well even with high noise situations such as recordings taken from within an fMRI scanner (*Hao et al., 2018*). Some studies have used templates derived from databases (*Lodder and van Putten, 2014*), used patient-specific annotations (*Quon et al., 2022*), or performed clustering of patient-specific IEDs for rapid visual inspection and validation *Fürbass et al.* (*2020*). In the current study, we chose to employ template matching based on patient-specific IED templates, extracted from visual annotations of 24 hours. The approach showed to be highly effective, while remaining relatively straightforward. Importantly, the templates can be visually evaluated, in contrast to "black-box" approaches using machine learning. By expanding the IEDs into six templates per patient, potential variations in the morphology of IEDs were taken into account as well.

Conclusion

The current study evaluated for the first time the influence of sleep stages on neuronal firing during interictal activity, by means of *in vivo* recordings from hippocampal structures in epileptic patients. This was done with an unprecedented large dataset of continuous recordings of several nights, and

thousands of IEDs per patient. The IED rate as well as amplitude were found to be increased with deeper stages of NREM sleep. Neuronal firing rates were found to increase during the IED spike, and decreased during the slow wave. Importantly, these firing rate modulations during IEDs were increased with deeper stages of NREM (SWS) sleep, versus REM and wake. Finally, during resting default behaviour, the neuronal firing rate, bursting rate and firing regularity were all shown to progressively decrease with deeper stages of NREM sleep. Together, this study provides the first evidence from human *in vivo* recordings, showing that sleep increases neuronal synchronization and subsequent de-facilitation during interictal epileptiform activity.

Methods and Materials

Patients

Eight drug-resistant focal epilepsy patients were selected from our database (*Lehongre et al., 2022*), with the following criteria: 1) Implantation of macroelectrodes targeting the mesial temporal structures, 2) microelectrode recordings with visible MUA, and 3) polysomnography recordings during the first three nights. See *Table 1* for clinical details.

SEEG recording

Patients were implanted with intracerebral depth electrodes (Ad-Tech®, Oak Creek, Wisconsin, USA), consisting of 4 to 8 platinum macroelectrode contacts, $2.41\,mm$ long (Ø=$1.1\,mm$). Each patient was also implanted with one to three Behnke-Fried type macro-micro electrodes (Ø=$1.3\,mm$) that included eight additional microelectrodes and a reference wire of $\approx 2\,mm$ long (Ø=$40\,\mu m$), extending from the tip of the electrode shaft and capable of recording non-overlapping cell populations (*Fried et al., 1999*). Trajectories, anatomical targets, number, type and the number of contacts were all determined according to the clinical practice and the epilepsy features of the patients. Implantation was performed in the Department of Neurosurgery of the Pitié-Salpêtrière Hospital using a Leksell Model G stereotactic system (Elekta, Inc., Norcross, GA) or using a robotic assistant device (ROSA® Brain, Medtech, France). For more details and evaluation of the implantation procedures, see *Mathon et al.* (*2015*) and *Lehongre et al.* (*2022*).

The locations of the anatomical electrodes after implantation were determined by VF (*Table 2*), based on pre-implantation $3\,T$ 3D-MRI, post-implantation $1.5\,T$ 3D-MRI and post-implantation CT scan, combined using the EpiLoc plugin (*Pérez-García et al., 2015*) for 3D-Slicer (*Fedorov et al., 2012*), developed by the STIM engineering facility at the Paris Brain Institute. Spatial locations of the electrodes were automatically computed in native space using the EpiLoc plugin, and visualized (*Figure 12*) using BrainNet Viewer (*Xia et al., 2013*), after transformation from to MNI-space (*Table 3*) using the Freesurfer image analysis suite integrated in Epiloc.

All patients gave their written informed consent (project C11-16 conducted by INSERM and approved by the local ethics committee, CPP Paris VI).

Polysomnography

During long-term video-EEG monitoring, video-EEG and polysomnography (PSG) were simultaneously recorded for the first three nights post-implantation. When the first night was too disturbed,

Figure 12. Locations of each analysed electrode contact, transformed to MNI space. See *Table 3* for MNI coordinates

an extra night was scored and the first night was not analyzed. PSG included three EEG channels (Fp2, C4 & O2, or Fp1, C3 & O1, referenced to linked mastoids M1 or M2, respectively), right and left electro-oculography (EOG) channels, chin electromyography (EMG) and electrocardiography (ECG). Sleep scoring using PSG recording was performed by VH-NM, according to the American Academy of Sleep Medicine (AASM) 2017 criteria (*Berry et al., 2017*). Before sleep onset, and after the final awakening, a continuous period of two hours was labelled *pre-sleep* (or *pre*) and *post-sleep* (or *post*), respectively.

Sleep quality was varied among patients and nights (*Table 6*). However, all patients had a sufficient amount of sleep per night (average = 8 hrs., range = 6.5-11.9 hrs.). Light sleep (S1) somewhat increased above normal (15% vs. <5%), while deep sleep (average S3 = 20%) and REM (average = 19%) were normal (*Dauvilliers and Billiard, 2005*). Hypnograms show a frequent sleep fragmentation (*Figure 14*), which might be explained by multiple factors, including the post-surgery and hospitalized condition.

Analysis

Analyses were performed with a combination of FieldTrip functions (*Oostenveld et al., 2011*), custom MATLAB scripts (Version 2020b, The Mathworks Inc., Natick, Massachusetts). All analysis scripts are available here.

Artefact detection

In the first three days (72 hours) of continuous recording, periods with movement artefacts or instrumentation noise in macro- or microelectrode recordings were manually annotated using software developed in-house (MUSE) for synchronous visualization of macro- and microelectrode signals (*Lehongre et al., 2022*). Data from one night (second) of a patient (patient 3) was replaced by a fourth night, due to excessive artefacts, and the polysomnography was then performed on that night as well.

IED detection

For each patient, IEDs were manually annotated for the first 24 hours, according to standard guidelines (*Hirsch et al., 2013*, *2021*) using in-house developed software (MUSE) (*Lehongre et al., 2022*). IEDs were subsequently automatically detected for the full duration of the recording during (2-3 weeks) based on the following procedure (*Figure 13*):

1. The time-courses (trials) of the five deepest contacts were extracted ($-500\,\mathrm{ms}$ to $1000\,\mathrm{ms}$) at the original sample rate of $4\,\mathrm{kHz}$ according to manual annotations.
2. Trials were temporally aligned (c.f. *Frazzini et al.* (*2022*)) based on the cross-correlation between each trial and the average of all trials. This procedure was performed iteratively by calculating a new average after all trials were shifted to their peak cross-correlation lag, until either the cross-correlation did not improve or a maximum of 10 iterations was reached. To calculate the cross-correlation lag over channels simultaneously, signals from the five electrode contacts were concatenated over time.
3. Once aligned, the trials were clustered in six k-mediods clusters using the MATLAB *kmedoids* function (The Mathworks Inc., Natick, Massachusetts).
4. If a cluster contained less than 2.5% of the total number of trials in that patient, these trials were automatically removed from the clustering procedure and the k-mediods clustering was repeated.
5. Each cluster was aligned to the LFP average of the cluster, similar to (2), then re-averaged, resulting in a patient-specific Channel $\times$ Time IED template.
6. Normalized cross-correlation was calculated between each template and the original data using the MATLAB *normxcorr2* function (The Mathworks Inc., Natick, Massachusetts).
7. Patient-specific correlation thresholds were visually determined based on the distribution of correlation values over time. IEDs were then detected when the peaks in the correlation values exceeded the threshold, using the MATLAB *findpeaks* function (The Mathworks Inc., Natick, Massachusetts)
8. IED detections that overlapped within a $\pm 50\,\mathrm{ms}$ period were assigned to the template with the highest normalized cross-correlation value.

The above automatic IED detection procedure effectively dealt with the within-subject variability of IED morphologies by using six clusters rather than a single template, as well as their spatial distribution by using normalized correlation over five contacts. Only a single patient-specific parameter (z-threshold) was needed. Importantly, this parameter was unbiased with regard to sleep stages.

The procedure was straightforward and allowed the visual inspection of templates. To test the performance of the automatic detection procedure, the hit and false alarm rates were determined using a tolerance of $\pm 50\,\text{ms}$ to allow for small differences in timing between manual and automatic detection.

Spike sorting

After selecting electrodes that visually showed multi-unit activity (MUA) activity, clusters of action-potentials were automatically detected and clustered using Spyking Circus (*Yger et al., 2018*). Data was first high-pass filtered as $300\,\text{Hz}$ using a 3rd order Butterworth filter, then temporally whitened. Action potentials were detected at a user-defined 6 to 9 median absolute deviation, depending on the signal-to-noise level of the recording. Action potentials that occurred during artefacted periods were ignored. A combination of density-based clustering and template matching algorithms was used to cluster the detected action potentials (*Yger et al., 2018*). Clusters that did not show a clear morphology of action potentials or that were not stable across the recording were discarded manually. Finally, the clusters were labeled as putative single-unit activity (SUA) when they reflected well-isolated activity, based on the inter-spike interval (ISI), the percentage of violations of the refractory period ($RPV = ISI < 1\,\text{ms}$), and action potential morphology. Otherwise, the clusters were labeled multiunit activity (MUA).

Time-locked analyses

For each IED, the average LFP amplitudes of the sharp spike and slow wave were extracted at latencies based on the patient average, i.e. independently from any analysis of sleep stages. LFPs were first baseline-corrected at $-0.15\,\text{s}$ to $-0.05\,\text{s}$. For the sharp (positive) peaks, the latency was defined as periods between $-0.15\,\text{s}$ to $0.15\,\text{s}$ at which the average LFP exceeded half of the maximum amplitude. For slow (negative) waves, the latency was defined as periods between $-0.15\,\text{s}$ to $0.05\,\text{s}$ at which the average LFP was less than half of the minimum amplitude.

Spike times were epoched and time-locked to time periods identical to the LFP. For each IED, peri-stimulus time histogram (PSTH) spike rates were calculated with a bin size of $10\,\text{ms}$. To control for multiple comparisons and non-normal distributions of firing-rates, non-parametric cluster-based permutation tests (*Maris and Oostenveld, 2007*) were used to determine time-periods where firing-rates changed significantly from baseline ($-0.3\,\text{s}$ to $0.1\,\text{s}$). A threshold of $p < 0.01$ (first-level t-test) was used to determine contiguous temporal clusters, after which a threshold of $p < 0.05$ (one-sided correction) determined whether the clusters could be explained by permutation (sum of t values, $n = 10.000$). Those clusters that significantly increased or decreased their firing rate time-locked to the IEDs were considered responsive. Clusters that showed spurious statistically significant results due to lack of data were manually changed to non-responsive. To increase the robustness of the PSTH spike rates during IEDs, templates were combined. Latencies for comparing the PSTH spike rates between sleep stages of the peak and slow wave were determined on the basis of the width at half-prominence of the average PSTH, i.e. independently from sleep stage. Pearson's correlations between LFP and PSTH of each unit were calculated after downsampling LFP to the PSTH time axis ($\frac{1}{10\,\text{ms}} = 100\,\text{Hz}$).

Figure 13. Visual depiction of the LFP and spike analysis workflow. See the Methods section for details.

Sliding window analyses

Analyses of continuous data were based on segmentation of the data into non-overlapping windows of 10 seconds for both LFP and spike data. The number of IEDs that occurred during these time periods was determined. If a window overlapped $> 50\%$ with a sleep stage, it was labeled with the corresponding sleep stage. Windows that overlapped with an artefacted period were removed from further analyses. Oscillatory power was calculated for every window using a Hanning tapered fast Fourier transform (FFT). The $10\,\mathrm{s}$ windows provided a frequency resolution of $\frac{1}{T} = 0.1\,\mathrm{Hz}$. Slow wave activity (SWA) (*Steriade et al., 1993*; *Massimini et al., 2003*) was defined as the mean power in the range of $0.1\,\mathrm{Hz}$ to $2.5\,\mathrm{Hz}$, including the $0.5\,\mathrm{Hz}$ to $2\,\mathrm{Hz}$ range as suggested by the guidelines of the American Academy of Sleep (*Iber and Medicine, 2007*). Delta activity was defined as the average power in the $2.5\,\mathrm{Hz}$ to $4\,\mathrm{Hz}$ range. For each window, the firing behavior of the unit was explored. Besides firing rate analyses, inter-spike variability was determined by means of CV2 (*Holt et al., 1996*; *Ponce-Alvarez et al., 2010*) and bursts were detected according to *Colder et al.* (*1996*); *Staba et al.* (*2002b*), using a cut-off inter-spike intervals <5 ms. Interspike intervals and firing rates were corrected for bursts by removing bursting action potentials beyond the first action potential in a burst.

Statistics

Statistical test were conducted with R (*R Core Team, 2013*, *2015*), version 4.1.2. Circular statistics were performed with the circular R package (*Agostinelli and Lund, 2017*). Statistical plots were created with the ggplot R package (*Wickham, 2016*). Models of the relationships between physiological measures were tested using mixed-effects linear models (*Bates et al., 2014*), using the lmer R package (*Kuznetsova et al., 2017*), with patient, template and night (LFP analyzes) or unit (spike analyzes) as random effects. Tukey's post hoc tests were performed using the emmeans R package (*Lenth, 2016*). The R scripts for all statistical analyzes and graphs can be found together with the analysis scripts here.

Data availability

All scripts are made available here. Anonymous electrophysiology data can be made available on reasonable request for research purposes, but cannot be publicly shared due to legal constraints.

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Tables

Table 1. Clinical summary

Patient	Sex	Age	Onset	Type	MRI	PET	SPECT	Medication	Implantation	SOZ	Surgery
1	F	18	10	FSLA, FTBS	Normal	Mesial prefrontal cortex (R)	No localization	LTG, OXC	Fronto-Temporal (R)	Mesial prefrontal cortex (R)	Yes
2	M	25	14	FSLA	Normal	Temporo-polar and temporo-mesial (L)	Amygdala, anterior insula, and frontal opercular cortex (L)	ESL, TPM, PER	Temporo-Fronto-Insular (L)	Amygdalo-hippocampal region (L)	Amygdalo-hippocampectomy (L)
3	F	34	25	FSWLA, FSLA, FTBS	Right SH (already resected at implantation)	Not available	Not available	VPA, CBZ, LTG	Bi-temporal	Bitemporal. Previously SH. Independent SOC in hippocampus (L)	No
4	F	47	24	FSWLA, FSLA, FTBS	Normal	Temporal pole (L)	Temporo basal and Lateral T1 (L)	ESL, LTG	Bi-temporal	Temporal (L)	No
5	F	30	14	FSLA, FTBS	Temporo posterior PNH (R), temporal SNH and PMG	No localization	Temporo-polar cortex (R), PNH and PMG	LTG, ZNG, LCS	Temporo-Insular (R)	Multifocal	No
6	F	27	11	FSWLA, FSLA, FTBS	Occipital poren-cephalic region (L)	Anterior hippocampus (L)	Temporal (L) and occipital	LCS, LTG	Temporo-Occipital (L)	Unknown	No
7	F	21	14	FSWLA, FSLA	Parietal gliotic lesion (L)	Parietal, temporal pole and temporo-lateral (L)	Temporal pole (L)	LCS, LTG	Parieto-Temporal (L)	Parietal (L)	No
8	F	38	35	FSLA	Normal	Temporomesial (R)	lateral temporal cortex (L)	LTC, VPA, CBZ	Temporal (R)	Amigdalo-hippocampal (R)	Amygdalo-hippocampectomy (R)

PET findings indicate regions of hypometabolism. SOZ are based on sEEG evaluation, but not yet validated post-surgery. AED: Antiepileptic drugs, CBZ: Carbamazepine, ESL: Eslicarabazepine, FBTCS: Focal to Bilateral Tonic-Clonic Seizures, FIAS: Focal Impaired Awareness Seizure, FSWLA: Focal seizures without loss of awareness, IEDs: Interictal Epileptiform discharges, LCS: Lacosamide, LTG: Lamotrigine, MRI: Indications from Magnetic Resonance Imaging, OXC: Oxicarbazepine, PER: Perampanel, PMG: Polymicrogyria, PNH: Periventricular Nodular Heterotopia, SNH: Subcortical Nodular Heterotopia, SOZ: Seizure Onset Zone, TPM: Topiramate VPA: Valproic Acid, ZNG: Zonisamide.

Table 2. Anatomical locations of macro and micro electrodes

Patient	Side	Region	Subregion	SOZ
Macro contacts				
1	R	Hippocampal formation	Head of the Hippocampus	No
2	L	Hippocampal formation	Head of the Hippocampus	Yes
	L	Hippocampal formation	Hippocampus/CA1	Yes
3	L	Hippocampal formation	Head of the Hippocampus	Yes
	L	Hippocampal formation	Entorhinal cortex	No
4	L	Hippocampal formation	Hippocampus	No
	L	Hippocampal formation	Hippocampus/CA3	No
5	R	Hippocampal formation	Subiculum	Yes
	R	Nodule	Nodule	Yes
6	L	Hippocampal formation	Entorhinal cortex	No
	L	Hippocampal formation	Parahippocampus	No
7	R	Hippocampal formation	Entorhinal cortex	Yes
	R	Hippocampal formation	Hippocampus/CA1	Yes
8	R	Hippocampal formation	Hippocampus/CA1	Yes
Micro electrodes				
1	R	Hippocampal formation	Entorhinal cortex	Yes
2	L	Hippocampal formation	Entorhinal cortex	Yes
3	R	Temporo-basal cortex	Parahippocampus	No
	L	Temporo-basal cortex	Parahippocampus	Yes
4	L	Temporo-anterior lobe	Amygdala	No
	L	Mesial temporal cortex	CA3-CA4	No
5	R	Periventricular nodule	Nodule	Yes
	R	Periventricular nodule	Nodule	Yes
	R	Hippocampal formation	Subiculum	No
6	L	Hippocampal formation	Parahippocampal gyrus	No
7	R	Temporo-anterior lobe	Amygdala	Yes
8	R	Hippocampal formation	CA1/WM	Yes
	R	Hippocampal formation	CA1	Yes

Table 3. Anatomical locations of micro electrodes

Patient	Electrode	Contact	X	Y	Z
1	HaT2	1	27.0	-12.2	-27.1
		2	30.3	-12.9	-25.9
		3	36.9	-13.4	-24.7
		4	42.6	-14.1	-22.6

		5	49.3	-15.1	-22.3
2	HmT2	1	-18.8	-31.7	-13.5
		2	-23.8	-32.3	-11.9
		3	-28.8	-32.8	-11.5
		4	-33.9	-33.2	-11.0
		5	-39.1	-33.8	-10.6
	HaT1	1	-20.6	-7.2	-30.3
		2	-23.4	-7.2	-27.7
		3	-28.2	-8.7	-24.6
		4	-34.0	-10.4	-21.4
3	Hm2g	1	-21.7	-30.9	-13.7
		2	-27.0	-32.8	-12.6
		3	-32.4	-35.2	-12.6
		4	-36.7	-37.5	-12.6
		5	-42.1	-39.9	-12.8
4	HmT2	1	-30.3	-25.4	-12.0
		2	-32.3	-27.2	-9.9
		3	-36.6	-31.8	-9.2
		4	-40.9	-36.1	-7.5
		5	-46.0	-41.4	-5.3
	HaT2	1	-20.3	-9.0	-26.3
		2	-23.5	-10.2	-25.6
		3	-28.9	-10.9	-23.5
		4	-35.3	-12.8	-21.0
		5	-42.0	-13.8	-20.0
5	HmT3	1	30.0	-22.2	-17.5
		2	33.4	-22.3	-18.0
		3	40.3	-21.4	-19.1
		4	47.3	-21.4	-19.6
		5	54.3	-21.6	-20.2
	HpNI	1	20.6	-32.7	-17.1
		2	25.3	-32.7	-15.5
		3	29.7	-32.5	-13.8
		4	35.1	-32.3	-11.3
		5	39.3	-32.0	-9.4
6	HaT2	1	-20.6	-10.5	-31.3
		2	-23.6	-10.5	-31.2
		3	-29.5	-10.6	-30.9
		4	-35.4	-10.5	-30.3
		5	-41.3	-10.3	-29.5

	HmT2		1	-26.9	-27.1	-21.5
			2	-29.8	-27.1	-21.3
			3	-35.6	-26.2	-22.4
			4	-41.6	-26.2	-22.9
			5	-47.5	-25.1	-22.2
7	HaTB		1	-18.7	-10.2	-25.9
			2	-20.9	-9.4	-26.2
			3	-27.5	-8.2	-27.6
			4	-32.9	-6.5	-28.0
			5	-39.8	-5.5	-29.6
8	HmT2		1	26.9	-20.4	-19.2
			2	29.9	-21.3	-18.5
			3	35.8	-23.1	-17.3
			4	40.8	-24.9	-15.6
	HaT2		1	29.1	-16.2	-23.0
			2	32.1	-15.7	-21.9
			3	38.0	-14.8	-21.9
			4	43.6	-13.4	-20.6

Table 4. Automatic IED detection performance

	Visual	Automatic detection				
Patient	24 hrs.	24 hrs.	Hit (%)	FA (%)	Total	Total hrs.
1	2106	3500	99.8	5.4	63345	453.5
2	3330	4618	99.3	6.9	9224	358.3
3	12912	12811	98.8	1.2	113832	305.6
4	3669	3664	97.9	11.0	43757	308.8
5	7086	4630	96.5	8.6	32782	237.2
6	3077	3054	98.9	3.8	29810	233.6
7	10439	3985	98.4	0.8	55465	305.6
8	2714	1965	94.1	14.3	53951	307.7
Mean	5667	4778	98.0	6.5	50271	313.8
Std.	4050	3359	1.9	4.7	30945	69.7

Table 5. Circular statistics of circadian epileptic activity

Patient	Interictal activity			Seizures		
	Time	Rayleigh	p	Time	Rayleigh	p
1	01:56	0.61	<.0001***	17:43	0.76	<.0001***
2	00:46	0.29	<.0001***	08:56	0.36	0.55
3	01:37	0.50	<.0001***	10:31	0.48	<.01*
4	02:23	0.26	<.0001***	18:26	0.94	<.001**
5	01:48	0.28	<.0001***	20:21	0.13	0.3
6	01:42	0.56	<.0001***	03:33	0.57	0.14
7	17:25	0.08	<.0001***	01:59	0.81	<.0001***
8	03:38	0.41	<.0001***	11:44	0.70	0.14

. $= p < 0.05$, $* = p < 0.01$, $** = p < 0.001$, $*** = p < 0.0001$

Table 6. Time spend in sleep stages.

Patient	Night	TST	% TST				WASO
			S3	S2	S1	REM	
1	1	11.9	13	44	21	22	1.6
	2	8.7	14	42	18	25	0.9
	3	7.5	22	42	17	19	3
2	1	8.5	26	52	7	15	2.3
	2	7.6	33	39	8	19	0.4
	3	8.1	24	52	8	16	0.4
3	1	9.2	13	45	26	16	1.7
	2	7.2	27	33	24	16	1.7
	3	7.2	28	33	27	12	1.5
4	1	7.5	23	38	26	13	1.7
	2	6.7	16	41	26	17	1.3
	3	6.5	22	27	19	31	0.9
5	1	9.6	9	67	9	15	1.3
	2	7.2	26	42	10	22	0.4
	3	7.2	15	46	9	30	0.2
6	1	7.5	15	43	25	17	1.2
	2	8.2	21	35	15	29	0.9
	3	8.9	18	38	18	26	1.3
7	1	6.9	31	41	14	14	0.4
	2	9.6	28	46	7	19	0.5
	3	10.3	35	37	8	20	0.9
8	1	7	16	54	10	19	0.4
	2	7.1	10	52	16	22	0.6
	3	6.8	15	50	20	15	3.7
Mean		8.0	20.8	43.3	16.2	19.5	1.2

TST = Total sleep time (hrs.), WASO = Wake after sleep onset (hrs.)

Table 7. Effect of sleep stage on IEDs rate

Predictor	Coef β	SE(β)	df	z	p
Sleep stages					
Intercept	0.26	0.23	7.03	1.12	0.3
S3	1.13	0.01	93176.95	79.21	<.0001***
S2	0.90	0.01	93176.88	70.85	<.0001***
S1	0.54	0.02	93176.31	35.04	<.0001***
WASO	0.10	0.02	93176.64	6.08	<.0001***
REM	0.00	0.01	93176.50	-0.31	0.76
Post	0.01	0.02	93176.92	0.43	0.67
Post-hoc comparisons					
Pre - S3	-1.13	0.01		-79.21	<.0001***
Pre - S2	-0.90	0.01		-70.85	<.0001***
Pre - S1	-0.54	0.02		-35.04	<.0001***
Pre - WASO	-0.10	0.02		-6.08	<.0001***
Pre - REM	0.00	0.01		0.31	1
Pre - Post	-0.01	0.02		-0.43	1
S3 - S2	0.23	0.01		21.19	<.0001***
S3 - S1	0.59	0.01		41.55	<.0001***
S3 - WASO	1.03	0.02		63.83	<.0001***
S3 - REM	1.14	0.01		85.89	<.0001***
S3 - Post	1.12	0.01		80.70	<.0001***
S2 - S1	0.36	0.01		28.35	<.0001***
S2 - WASO	0.79	0.01		54.16	<.0001***
S2 - REM	0.90	0.01		78.83	<.0001***
S2 - Post	0.89	0.01		72.45	<.0001***
S1 - WASO	0.43	0.02		25.56	<.0001***
S1 - REM	0.54	0.01		37.38	<.0001***
S1 - Post	0.53	0.02		35.00	<.0001***
WASO - REM	0.11	0.02		6.65	<.0001***
WASO - Post	0.10	0.02		5.78	<.0001***
REM - Post	-0.01	0.01		-0.77	0.99

. $= p < 0.05$, $*= p < 0.01$, $**= p < 0.001$, $***= p < 0.0001$

Table 8. Effect of Slow Wave activity (0.1-2.5Hz) and Delta power (2.5-4Hz) on rate of IEDs

	Coef β	SE(β)	df	z	p
Intercept	0.412	0.217	7	1.90	0.1
Slow Wave	0.000	0.000	93182	14.02	<.0001***
Delta	0.010	0.000	93184	101.95	<.0001***

. $= p < 0.05$, $*= p < 0.01$, $**= p < 0.001$, $***= p < 0.0001$

Table 9. Effect of sleep stage on Slow Wave (0.1-2.5Hz) power

Predictor	Coef β	SE(β)	df	z	p
Coefficients					
Intercept	29.03	25.16	7.11	1.15	0.29
S3	264.51	3.00	93179.16	88.30	<.0001***
S2	93.86	2.65	93178.96	35.37	<.0001***
S1	48.34	3.22	93177.11	15.00	<.0001***
WASO	18.02	3.59	93178.22	5.02	<.0001***
REM	14.50	3.05	93177.76	4.76	<.0001***
Post	5.69	3.20	93179.09	1.78	0.08
Post-hoc comparisons					
Pre - S3	-264.51	3.00		-88.30	<.0001***
Pre - S2	-93.86	2.65		-35.37	<.0001***
Pre - S1	-48.34	3.22		-15.00	<.0001***
Pre - WASO	-18.02	3.59		-5.02	<.0001***
Pre - REM	-14.50	3.05		-4.76	<.0001***
Pre - Post	-5.69	3.20		-1.78	0.56
S3 - S2	170.65	2.33		73.38	<.0001***
S3 - S1	216.17	2.99		72.20	<.0001***
S3 - WASO	246.49	3.38		73.03	<.0001***
S3 - REM	250.02	2.77		90.14	<.0001***
S3 - Post	258.82	2.92		88.53	<.0001***
S2 - S1	45.52	2.65		17.17	<.0001***
S2 - WASO	75.84	3.07		24.72	<.0001***
S2 - REM	79.36	2.40		33.11	<.0001***
S2 - Post	88.17	2.58		34.22	<.0001***
S1 - WASO	30.32	3.56		8.51	<.0001***
S1 - REM	33.85	3.04		11.12	<.0001***
S1 - Post	42.65	3.19		13.39	<.0001***
WASO - REM	3.52	3.42		1.03	0.95
WASO - Post	12.33	3.54		3.48	<.01*
REM - Post	8.81	2.99		2.95	<.05

. $= p < 0.05$, $*= p < 0.01$, $**= p < 0.001$, $***= p < 0.0001$

Table 10. Effect of sleep stage on Delta (2.5-4 Hz) power

Predictor	Coef β	SE(β)	df	z	p
Coefficients					
Intercept	15.24	6.58	7.05	2.31	0.05
S3	54.64	0.55	93177.66	99.54	<.0001***
S2	29.96	0.49	93177.55	61.61	<.0001***
S1	16.54	0.59	93176.55	28.02	<.0001***
WASO	3.96	0.66	93177.13	6.02	<.0001***
REM	2.25	0.56	93176.89	4.03	<.0001***
Post	0.22	0.59	93177.62	0.38	0.71
Post-hoc comparisons					
Pre - S3	-54.64	0.55		-99.54	<.0001***
Pre - S2	-29.96	0.49		-61.61	<.0001***
Pre - S1	-16.54	0.59		-28.02	<.0001***
Pre - WASO	-3.96	0.66		-6.02	<.0001***
Pre - REM	-2.25	0.56		-4.03	<.01*
Pre - Post	-0.22	0.59		-0.38	1
S3 - S2	24.68	0.43		57.92	<.0001***
S3 - S1	38.09	0.55		69.44	<.0001***
S3 - WASO	50.68	0.62		81.95	<.0001***
S3 - REM	52.39	0.51		103.08	<.0001***
S3 - Post	54.42	0.54		101.58	<.0001***
S2 - S1	13.42	0.49		27.63	<.0001***
S2 - WASO	26.00	0.56		46.25	<.0001***
S2 - REM	27.71	0.44		63.09	<.0001***
S2 - Post	29.74	0.47		63.00	<.0001***
S1 - WASO	12.59	0.65		19.28	<.0001***
S1 - REM	14.30	0.56		25.62	<.0001***
S1 - Post	16.32	0.58		27.96	<.0001***
WASO - REM	1.71	0.63		2.73	0.09
WASO - Post	3.74	0.65		5.76	<.0001***
REM - Post	2.03	0.55		3.70	<.01*

. $= p < 0.05$, $*= p < 0.01$, $**= p < 0.001$, $***= p < 0.0001$

Table 11. Number of responsive or unresponsive putatively isolated single units (SUA) and multiunits (MUA)

	SUA		MUA	
Patient	Responsive	Unresponsive	Responsive	Unresponsive
1	47	4	36	3
2	8	0	2	0
3	1	5	5	19
4	2	0	15	0
5	4	10	6	13
6	5	1	10	0
7	0	6	3	6
8	18	1	9	4
Sum	85	27	86	45
Responsive (%)	75.9	24.1	65.6	34.4

Table 12. Effect of sleep stage on ERP peak amplitude

	Spike amplitude					Slow wave amplitude					Difference amplitude				
	Coef β	SE(β)	df	z	p	Coef β	SE(β)	df	z	p	Coef β	SE(β)	df	z	p
Sleep stages															
Intercept	425.78	108.40	7	3.93	<.01*	-260.53	97.66	7	-2.67	<.05·	-260.53	97.66	7	-2.67	<.05·
S3	84.05	2.98	78969	28.19	<.0001***	-29.52	4.24	78968	-6.96	<.0001***	-29.52	4.24	78968	-6.96	<.0001***
S2	63.59	2.83	78967	22.46	<.0001***	-35.60	4.03	78967	-8.85	<.0001***	-35.60	4.03	78967	-8.85	<.0001***
S1	49.95	3.18	78966	15.70	<.0001***	-29.32	4.53	78966	-6.48	<.0001***	-29.32	4.53	78966	-6.48	<.0001***
WASO	19.01	3.88	78965	4.91	<.0001***	-10.38	5.51	78966	-1.88	0.06	-10.38	5.51	78966	-1.88	0.06
Post	7.56	4.35	78970	1.74	0.08	5.74	6.18	78969	0.93	0.35	5.74	6.18	78969	0.93	0.35
REM	-61.68	4.33	78977	-14.24	<.0001***	87.42	6.16	78973	14.19	<.0001***	87.42	6.16	78973	14.19	<.0001***
Post-hoc comparisons															
Pre - S3	-84.05	2.98		-28.19	<.0001***	29.52	4.24		6.96	<.0001***	-113.58	5.45		-20.82	<.0001***
Pre - S2	-63.59	2.83		-22.46	<.0001***	35.60	4.03		8.85	<.0001***	-99.18	5.18		-19.15	<.0001***
Pre - S1	-49.95	3.18		-15.70	<.0001***	29.32	4.53		6.48	<.0001***	-79.26	5.82		-13.61	<.0001***
Pre - WASO	-19.01	3.88		-4.91	<.0001***	10.38	5.51		1.88	0.49	-29.38	7.09		-4.14	<.001**
Pre - REM	-7.56	4.35		-1.74	0.59	-5.74	6.18		-0.93	0.97	-1.78	7.95		-0.22	1
Pre - Post	61.68	4.33		14.24	<.0001***	-87.42	6.16		-14.19	<.0001***	149.09	7.92		18.81	<.0001***
S3 - S2	20.46	1.76		11.63	<.0001***	6.08	2.50		2.43	0.19	14.40	3.22		4.47	<.001**
S3 - S1	34.10	2.38		14.32	<.0001***	-0.21	3.39		-0.06	1	34.32	4.36		7.88	<.0001***
S3 - WASO	65.04	3.26		19.95	<.0001***	-19.14	4.63		-4.13	<.001**	84.19	5.96		14.12	<.0001***
S3 - REM	76.49	3.76		20.32	<.0001***	-35.26	5.35		-6.59	<.0001***	111.80	6.89		16.23	<.0001***
S3 - Post	145.73	3.80		38.33	<.0001***	-116.94	5.41		-21.63	<.0001***	262.67	6.95		37.77	<.0001***
S2 - S1	13.64	2.17		6.30	<.0001***	-6.29	3.08		-2.04	0.39	19.92	3.96		5.03	<.0001***
S2 - WASO	44.58	3.12		14.29	<.0001***	-25.22	4.44		-5.68	<.0001***	69.80	5.71		12.23	<.0001***
S2 - REM	56.03	3.66		15.32	<.0001***	-41.34	5.20		-7.95	<.0001***	97.40	6.69		14.55	<.0001***
S2 - Post	125.27	3.69		33.91	<.0001***	-123.02	5.25		-23.42	<.0001***	248.27	6.76		36.73	<.0001***
S1 - WASO	30.94	3.44		9.00	<.0001***	-18.93	4.89		-3.87	<.01*	49.87	6.29		7.93	<.0001***
S1 - REM	42.39	3.95		10.72	<.0001***	-35.05	5.62		-6.23	<.0001***	77.48	7.23		10.71	<.0001***
S1 - Post	111.63	4.01		27.85	<.0001***	-116.73	5.70		-20.48	<.0001***	228.35	7.33		31.15	<.0001***
WASO - REM	11.45	4.55		2.52	0.15	-16.12	6.46		-2.49	0.16	27.61	8.32		3.32	<.05·
WASO - Post	80.69	4.59		17.56	<.0001***	-97.80	6.53		-14.97	<.0001***	178.48	8.41		21.23	<.0001***
REM - Post	69.23	4.95		13.98	<.0001***	-81.68	7.04		-11.59	<.0001***	150.87	9.06		16.65	<.0001***

. = $p < 0.05$, ∗= $p < 0.01$, ∗∗= $p < 0.001$, ∗∗∗= $p < 0.0001$

Table 13. Effect of sleep stage on firing rates during IED

	Spike					Wave					Ratio				
	Coef β	SE(β)	df	z	p	Coef β	SE(β)	df	z	p	Coef β	SE(β)	df	z	p
Sleep stages															
Intercept	6.20	1.49	6	4.17	<.01*	11.05	3.08	7	3.59	<.01*	4.83	2.20	7	2.19	0.07
S3	-2.21	0.38	1237	-5.88	<.0001***	2.66	0.65	1237	4.12	<.0001***	4.87	0.58	1237	8.45	<.0001***
S2	-2.01	0.38	1237	-5.33	<.0001***	3.20	0.65	1237	4.95	<.0001***	5.20	0.58	1237	9.02	<.0001***
S1	-1.68	0.38	1237	-4.45	<.0001***	3.30	0.65	1237	5.11	<.0001***	4.98	0.58	1237	8.63	<.0001***
WASO	-2.03	0.38	1237	-5.38	<.0001***	1.34	0.65	1237	2.08	<.05·	3.37	0.58	1237	5.84	<.0001***
Post	-0.68	0.38	1237	-1.82	0.07	-0.19	0.65	1237	-0.29	0.77	0.50	0.58	1237	0.86	0.39
REM	-0.20	0.38	1237	-0.51	0.61	-1.28	0.65	1237	-1.97	<.05·	-1.09	0.58	1237	-1.87	0.06
Post-hoc comparisons															
Pre - S3	2.21	0.38		5.88	<.0001***	-2.66	0.65		-4.12	<.001**	-4.87	0.58		-8.45	<.0001***
Pre - S2	2.01	0.38		5.33	<.0001***	-3.20	0.65		-4.95	<.0001***	-5.20	0.58		-9.02	<.0001***
Pre - S1	1.68	0.38		4.45	<.001**	-3.30	0.65		-5.11	<.0001***	-4.98	0.58		-8.63	<.0001***
Pre - WASO	2.03	0.38		5.38	<.0001***	-1.34	0.65		-2.08	0.37	-3.37	0.58		-5.84	<.0001***
Pre - REM	0.68	0.38		1.82	0.54	0.19	0.65		0.29	1	-0.50	0.58		-0.86	0.98
Pre - Post	0.20	0.38		0.51	1	1.28	0.65		1.97	0.44	1.09	0.58		1.87	0.5
S3 - S2	-0.21	0.38		-0.55	1	-0.54	0.65		-0.83	0.98	-0.33	0.58		-0.57	1
S3 - S1	-0.54	0.38		-1.42	0.79	-0.64	0.65		-0.99	0.96	-0.11	0.58		-0.18	1
S3 - WASO	-0.19	0.38		-0.50	1	1.32	0.65		2.05	0.39	1.51	0.58		2.61	0.12
S3 - REM	-1.53	0.38		-4.06	<.01*	2.85	0.65		4.41	<.001**	4.38	0.58		7.59	<.0001***
S3 - Post	-2.02	0.38		-5.32	<.0001***	3.94	0.65		6.06	<.0001***	5.96	0.58		10.26	<.0001***
S2 - S1	-0.33	0.38		-0.87	0.98	-0.10	0.65		-0.16	1	0.22	0.58		0.39	1
S2 - WASO	0.02	0.38		0.05	1	1.86	0.65		2.88	0.06	1.84	0.58		3.18	<.05·
S2 - REM	-1.32	0.38		-3.51	<.01*	3.38	0.65		5.24	<.0001***	4.70	0.58		8.16	<.0001***
S2 - Post	-1.81	0.38		-4.77	<.0001***	4.48	0.65		6.89	<.0001***	6.29	0.58		10.83	<.0001***
S1 - WASO	0.35	0.38		0.93	0.97	1.96	0.65		3.04	<.05·	1.61	0.58		2.80	0.08
S1 - REM	-0.99	0.38		-2.64	0.12	3.49	0.65		5.40	<.0001***	4.48	0.58		7.77	<.0001***
S1 - Post	-1.48	0.38		-3.91	<.01*	4.58	0.65		7.05	<.0001***	6.07	0.58		10.44	<.0001***
WASO - REM	-1.34	0.38		-3.56	<.01*	1.53	0.65		2.36	0.21	2.87	0.58		4.97	<.0001***
WASO - Post	-1.83	0.38		-4.83	<.0001***	2.62	0.65		4.03	<.01*	4.45	0.58		7.67	<.0001***
REM - Post	-0.49	0.38		-1.29	0.86	1.09	0.65		1.68	0.63	1.58	0.58		2.73	0.09

. = $p < 0.05$, ∗= $p < 0.01$, ∗∗= $p < 0.001$, ∗∗∗= $p < 0.0001$

Table 14. Effect of sleep stage on spontanious neuronal behaviour

	Firing Rate (SUA)					Firing Rate (MUA)					Bursts					Amplitude					CV2				
	Coef β	SE(β)	df	z	p	Coef β	SE(β)	df	z	p	Coef β	SE(β)	df	z	p	Coef β	SE(β)	df	z	p	Coef β	SE(β)	df	z	p
Sleep stages																									
Intercept	7.12	0.33	123	21.62	<.0001***	10.80	1.11	6	9.70	<.0001***	23.18	4.19	6	5.53	<.01*	67.65	11.55	8	5.86	<.001**	0.92	0.01	2	77.06	<.001**
S3	-3.85	0.07	28868	-54.95	<.0001***	-5.95	0.11	78794	-53.18	<.0001***	-16.91	0.26	107669	-64.55	<.0001***	0.46	0.05	107596	8.78	<.0001***	0.11	0.00	107596	87.57	<.0001***
S2	-3.07	0.06	28877	-55.06	<.0001***	-3.87	0.08	78811	-46.14	<.0001***	-12.13	0.20	107692	-61.12	<.0001***	0.29	0.04	107584	7.28	<.0001***	0.07	0.00	107611	75.09	<.0001***
S1	-2.77	0.06	28866	-43.48	<.0001***	-3.29	0.10	78799	-33.20	<.0001***	-9.95	0.23	107668	-42.69	<.0001***	0.21	0.05	107584	4.49	<.0001***	0.06	0.00	107595	49.32	<.0001***
WASO	-2.57	0.07	28880	-36.80	<.0001***	-2.59	0.10	78827	-25.89	<.0001***	-8.67	0.24	107704	-35.86	<.0001***	0.59	0.05	107585	12.23	<.0001***	0.04	0.00	107588	33.40	<.0001***
REM	-2.02	0.06	28873	-34.64	<.0001***	-2.64	0.08	78801	-31.05	<.0001***	-9.20	0.20	107680	-45.27	<.0001***	0.20	0.04	107584	4.93	<.0001***	0.03	0.00	107604	32.59	<.0001***
Post	-1.97	0.06	28875	-30.98	<.0001***	0.26	0.09	78824	2.82	<.01*	-5.82	0.22	107699	-26.61	<.0001***	-0.19	0.04	107584	-4.23	<.0001***	0.01	0.00	107618	12.42	<.0001***
Post-hoc comparisons																									
Pre - S3	3.85	0.07		54.95	<.0001***	5.95	0.11		53.18	<.0001***	16.91	0.26		64.55	<.0001***	-0.46	0.05		-8.78	<.0001***	-0.11	0.00		-87.57	<.0001***
Pre - S2	3.07	0.06		55.06	<.0001***	3.87	0.08		46.14	<.0001***	12.13	0.20		61.12	<.0001***	-0.29	0.04		-7.28	<.0001***	-0.07	0.00		-75.09	<.0001***
Pre - S1	2.77	0.06		43.48	<.0001***	3.29	0.10		33.20	<.0001***	9.95	0.23		42.69	<.0001***	-0.21	0.05		-4.49	<.001**	-0.06	0.00		-49.32	<.0001***
Pre - WASO	2.57	0.07		36.80	<.0001***	2.59	0.10		25.89	<.0001***	8.67	0.24		35.86	<.0001***	-0.59	0.05		-12.23	<.0001***	-0.04	0.00		-33.40	<.0001***
Pre - REM	2.02	0.06		34.64	<.0001***	2.64	0.08		31.05	<.0001***	9.20	0.20		45.27	<.0001***	-0.20	0.04		-4.93	<.0001***	-0.03	0.00		-32.59	<.0001***
Pre - Post	1.97	0.06		30.98	<.0001***	-0.26	0.09		-2.82	0.07	5.82	0.22		26.61	<.0001***	0.19	0.04		4.23	<.0001***	-0.01	0.00		-12.42	<.0001***
S3 - S2	-0.78	0.06		-13.80	<.0001***	-2.08	0.11		-19.36	<.0001***	-4.79	0.24		-19.73	<.0001***	0.17	0.05		3.53	<.01*	0.04	0.00		33.17	<.0001***
S3 - S1	-1.08	0.07		-16.48	<.0001***	-2.67	0.12		-21.84	<.0001***	-6.97	0.28		-25.15	<.0001***	0.25	0.06		4.53	<.001**	0.06	0.00		41.36	<.0001***
S3 - WASO	-1.28	0.07		-17.61	<.0001***	-3.36	0.12		-26.90	<.0001***	-8.25	0.29		-28.50	<.0001***	-0.13	0.06		-2.27	0.26	0.07	0.00		51.39	<.0001***
S3 - REM	-1.84	0.06		-30.89	<.0001***	-3.32	0.11		-30.05	<.0001***	-7.72	0.25		-30.77	<.0001***	0.26	0.05		5.18	<.0001***	0.08	0.00		65.09	<.0001***
S3 - Post	-1.88	0.07		-28.68	<.0001***	-6.21	0.12		-53.95	<.0001***	-11.10	0.27		-41.83	<.0001***	0.65	0.05		12.16	<.0001***	0.10	0.00		76.26	<.0001***
S2 - S1	-0.30	0.05		-5.93	<.0001***	-0.58	0.10		-5.97	<.0001***	-2.18	0.22		-9.96	<.0001***	0.08	0.04		1.82	0.53	0.02	0.00		15.58	<.0001***
S2 - WASO	-0.50	0.06		-8.45	<.0001***	-1.27	0.10		-12.68	<.0001***	-3.46	0.23		-14.81	<.0001***	-0.30	0.05		-6.47	<.0001***	0.03	0.00		29.21	<.0001***
S2 - REM	-1.06	0.04		-24.74	<.0001***	-1.23	0.08		-14.95	<.0001***	-2.93	0.19		-15.84	<.0001***	0.09	0.04		2.39	0.2	0.04	0.00		44.74	<.0001***
S2 - Post	-1.10	0.05		-22.00	<.0001***	-4.12	0.09		-46.57	<.0001***	-6.31	0.20		-31.02	<.0001***	0.47	0.04		11.65	<.0001***	0.06	0.00		59.91	<.0001***
S1 - WASO	-0.21	0.07		-3.06	<.05·	-0.69	0.11		-6.13	<.0001***	-1.28	0.26		-4.88	<.0001***	-0.38	0.05		-7.26	<.0001***	-0.02	0.00		13.00	<.0001***
S1 - REM	-0.76	0.05		-14.34	<.0001***	-0.65	0.10		-6.58	<.0001***	-0.75	0.22		-3.36	<.05·	0.01	0.04		0.19	1	0.02	0.00		21.73	<.0001***
S1 - Post	-0.80	0.06		-13.80	<.0001***	-3.54	0.10		-34.21	<.0001***	-4.13	0.24		-17.38	<.0001***	0.39	0.05		8.29	<.0001***	0.04	0.00		36.93	<.0001***
WASO - REM	-0.55	0.06		-8.90	<.0001***	0.04	0.10		0.42	1	0.53	0.24		2.22	0.28	0.39	0.05		8.18	<.0001***	0.01	0.00		6.08	<.0001***
WASO - Post	-0.60	0.07		-9.00	<.0001***	-2.85	0.11		-26.88	<.0001***	-2.85	0.25		-11.37	<.0001***	0.78	0.05		15.50	<.0001***	0.03	0.00		21.39	<.0001***
REM - Post	-0.04	0.05		-0.80	0.99	-2.89	0.09		-32.10	<.0001***	-3.38	0.21		-16.13	<.0001***	0.39	0.04		9.20	<.0001***	0.02	0.00		18.64	<.0001***

. = $p < 0.05$, ∗= $p < 0.01$, ∗∗= $p < 0.001$, ∗∗∗= $p < 0.0001$

Figure 14. All hypnograms, including 2 hours pre-sleep and post-sleep.

Figure 15. Electrode locations Patient 1. Analysed contacts in red.

Figure 16. Electrode locations Patient 2. Analysed contacts in red.

Figure 17. Electrode locations Patient 3. Analysed contacts in red.

Figure 18. Electrode locations Patient 4. Analysed contacts in red.

L R

Figure 19. Electrode locations Patient 5. Analysed contacts in red.

L R

Figure 20. Electrode locations Patient 6. Analysed contacts in red.

Figure 21. Electrode locations Patient 7. Analysed contacts in red.

Figure 22. Electrode locations Patient 8. Analysed contacts in red.

Figure 23. Patient 1 (1/3): PSTH of each unit. Top row shows time-locked LFP. Units are organized over nights (columns). The yellow color indicates significant increases and the blue color decreases compared with the average firing rate during baseline, indicated in the x-axis of bottom left plot.

Figure 24. Patient 1 (2/3): PSTH of each unit. Top row shows time-locked LFP. Units are organized over nights (columns). The yellow color indicates significant increases and the blue color decreases compared with the average firing rate during baseline, indicated in the x-axis of bottom left plot.

Figure 25. Patient 1 (3/3): PSTH of each unit. Top row shows time-locked LFP. Units are organized over nights (columns). The yellow color indicates significant increases and the blue color decreases compared with the average firing rate during baseline, indicated in the x-axis of bottom left plot.

Figure 26. Patient 2: PSTH of each unit. Top row shows time-locked LFP. Units are organized over nights (columns). The yellow color indicates significant increases and the blue color decreases compared with the average firing rate during baseline, indicated in the x-axis of bottom left plot.

Figure 27. Patient 3: PSTH of each unit. Top row shows time-locked LFP. Units are organized over nights (columns). The yellow color indicates significant increases and the blue color decreases compared with the average firing rate during baseline, indicated in the x-axis of bottom left plot.

Figure 28. Patient 4: PSTH of each unit. Top row shows time-locked LFP. Units are organized over nights (columns). The yellow color indicates significant increases and the blue color decreases compared with the average firing rate during baseline, indicated in the x-axis of bottom left plot.

Figure 29. Patient 5: PSTH of each unit. Top row shows time-locked LFP. Units are organized over nights (columns). The yellow color indicates significant increases and the blue color decreases compared with the average firing rate during baseline, indicated in the x-axis of bottom left plot.

Figure 30. Patient 6: PSTH of each unit. Top row shows time-locked LFP. Units are organized over nights (columns). The yellow color indicates significant increases and the blue color decreases compared with the average firing rate during baseline, indicated in the x-axis of bottom left plot.

Figure 31. Patient 7: PSTH of each unit. Top row shows time-locked LFP. Units are organized over nights (columns). The yellow color indicates significant increases and the blue color decreases compared with the average firing rate during baseline, indicated in the x-axis of bottom left plot.

Figure 32. Patient 8: PSTH of each unit. Top row shows time-locked LFP. Units are organized over nights (columns). The yellow color indicates significant increases and the blue color decreases compared with the average firing rate during baseline, indicated in the x-axis of bottom left plot.

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