The reuniens nucleus of the thalamus facilitates hippocampo-cortical dialogue during sleep

Diellor Basha[1,2], Amirmohammad Azarmehri[3], Eliane Proulx [1,#], Sylvain Chauvette[2], Maryam Ghorbani[3], Igor Timofeev[1,2, *]

[1]Département de psychiatrie et de neurosciences, Université Laval, Québec, QC, G1V 0A6, Canada
[2]CERVO Centre de recherche, Université Laval, Québec, QC, G1E 1T2, Canada
[3]Department of Electrical Engineering, Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Mashhad, Iran

[#]Current address: CNS Diseases Research, Boehringer Ingelheim Pharma GmbH & Co. KG, Biberach an der Riß, Baden-Württemberg, Germany

*Lead contact and correspondence: igor.timofeev@fmed.ulaval.ca

Summary

Memory consolidation during sleep depends on the interregional coupling of slow waves, spindles, and sharp wave-ripples (SWRs), across the cortex, thalamus, and hippocampus. The reuniens nucleus of the thalamus, linking the medial prefrontal cortex (mPFC) and the hippocampus, may facilitate interregional coupling during sleep. To test this hypothesis we used intracellular, extracellular unit and local field potential recordings in anesthetized and head restrained non-anesthetized cats as well as computational modelling. Electrical stimulation of the reuniens evoked both antidromic and orthodromic intracellular mPFC responses, consistent with bidirectional functional connectivity between mPFC, reuniens and hippocampus in anesthetized state. The major finding obtained from behaving animals is that at least during NREM sleep hippocampo-reuniens-mPFC form a functional loop. SWRs facilitate the triggering of thalamic spindles, which later reach neocortex. In return, transition to mPFC

UP states increase the probability of hippocampal SWRs and later modulate spindle amplitude.

During REM sleep hippocampal theta activity provides periodic locking of reuniens neuronal

firing and strong crosscorrelation at LFP level, but the values of reuniens-mPFC crosscorrelation

was relatively low and theta power at mPFC was low. The neural mass model of this network

demonstrates that the strength of bidirectional hippocampo-thalamic connections determines

the coupling of oscillations, suggesting a mechanistic link between synaptic weights and the

propensity for interregional synchrony. Our results demonstrate the presence of functional

connectivity in hippocampo-thalamo-cortical network, but the efficacy of this connectivity is

modulated by behavioral state.

Impact Statement

The nucleus reuniens of the thalamus play a central role in synchronizing the mPFC-

hippocampal network during sleep and integrates converging activity from hippocampal and

mPFC oscillations.

Keywords

Nucleus reuniens, hippocampus, medial prefrontal cortex (mPFC), slow waves, sleep, spindles,

sharp wave-ripples (SWRs), interregional synchrony, neural mass model, phase amplitude

coupling

<ins>Introduction</ins>

Interactions between the hippocampus and the medial prefrontal cortex (mPFC) are essential

for cognition. During sleep, hippocampal and cortical activity is continually synchronized by

cardinal sleep oscillations such as slow waves (SWs, 0.1-4 Hz), thalamocortical spindles (10-15

Hz), and hippocampal sharp-wave ripples (SWRs, 100-300 Hz) (Isomura et al., 2006; Siapas and

Wilson, 1998). These rhythms have well-known roles in neuronal plasticity (Chauvette et al.,

2012; Diekelmann and Born, 2010) and in the consolidation of hippocampus-dependent

memories (Maingret et al., 2016). In particular, the hierarchical coupling of slow waves, spindles

and SWRs is thought to play a key role in memory consolidation (Diekelmann and Born, 2010).

Consistent with this hypothesis, the temporal coupling of hippocampal and mPFC sleep

oscillations results in a selective increase in the recall of hippocampus-dependent memory

(Latchoumane et al., 2017; Maingret et al., 2016).

At present, the pathways that coordinate the long-range coupling of slow waves, spindles and

SWRs across the prefronto-hippocampal network are not well characterized. Although the

hippocampus extends projections to several prefrontal areas(Cavada et al., 1983; Goldman-

Rakic et al., 1984; Irle and Markowitsch, 1982; Jay and Witter, 1991; Swanson, 1981), few

regions of the prefrontal cortex reciprocate(Rajasethupathy et al., 2015). With respect to

medial regions of the prefrontal cortex, no direct projections to the hippocampus have been

identified(Beckstead, 1979; Goldman-Rakic et al., 1984; Reep et al., 1987; Room et al., 1985;

Takagishi and Chiba, 1991).

The nucleus reuniens of the thalamus (reuniens) is bidirectionally connected to the

hippocampus and the mPFC (Herkenham, 1978; Vertes et al., 2007), making it an ideal hub for

coupling hippocampo-cortical interactions during sleep. Reuniens is part of the ventral group of

midline thalamic nuclei with widespread connections to cortical, thalamic, hypothalamic and

brainstem structures (Herkenham, 1978; McKenna and Vertes, 2004; Ohtake and Yamada,

1989; Robertson and Kaitz, 1981; Vertes et al., 2006). Consistent with its anatomical

connections to the hippocampus and the mPFC, reuniens plays a major role for memory

function(Ramanathan et al., 2018; Xu and Sudhof, 2013) and a growing body of evidence points

its critical role in processing hippocampus-dependent memory (Ramanathan and Maren, 2019;

Ramanathan et al., 2018). Although evidence for the functional significance of reuniens in

cognitive operations is strong, little is known about the nature of reuniens-prefrontal

interactions and their interplay with hippocampal events during sleep (Di Prisco and Vertes,

2006).

Considering the well-established link between sleep and memory consolidation (Diekelmann

and Born, 2010; Frankland and Bontempi, 2005; Timofeev and Chauvette, 2019), we

investigated the role of the reuniens in coupling hippocampo-cortical oscillations during non-

rapid eye movement (NREM) and REM sleep. Using in vivo intracellular recordings,

computational modelling, and spike/local field potential (LFP) recordings, we demonstrate that

reuniens is driven by hippocampal oscillations during sleep and that it elicits fast, consistent

synaptic responses in mPFC. Hippocampal and reuniens activity precedes the onset of mPFC

spindles, suggesting a hippocampo-thalamic trigger for spindle initiation. In turn, the phase of

mPFC slow waves determined the amplitude of reuniens spindles and of SWR timing, forming a

functional feedback loop through the reuniens.

Results

Reuniens elicits fast, consistent synaptic responses in the mPFC

We obtained intracellular recordings of mPFC neurons in vivo (n=49 neurons) during targeted,

electrical stimulation of the ventral hippocampus and reuniens from 16 anesthetized cats

(Figure 1A-D). Stimulation of the hippocampus and reuniens elicited synaptic responses in 55%

and 51% of recorded mPFC neurons, respectively. Hippocampal stimulation generated variable

responses in the same neurons, consisting of complex sequences of either two excitatory

postsynaptic potentials (EPSPs) followed by long-lasting hyperpolarization (Figure 1E, top, left),

a depolarization-hyperpolarization sequence (Figure 1E, middle, left), or no response (Figure 1E,

bottom, left). The polarity of early depolarizing responses elicited by hippocampal stimulation

was dependent on membrane potential, reversing with progressive depolarization of the

membrane at around -70 mV (Figure 1E, right), suggesting that the initial depolarization was an

inhibitory postsynaptic potential (IPSP).

Reuniens stimulation elicited consistent EPSPs followed by long-lasting hyperpolarization

(Figure 1C, bottom) at earlier latencies than hippocampal stimulation (6.05±3.6 ms for reuniens

and 9.95±4.6 ms and hippocampal stimulation, respectively, t-test, p<0.01, Figure 1G). EPSPs

elicited by reuniens stimulation had faster rising slopes compared to hippocampal stimulation

(0.56±0.27 V/s for reuniens and 1.9±0.9 V/s for hippocampal stimulation, t-test, p<0.01) but

were of lower amplitude (3.1±2.0 mV for reuniens and 8.4±4.1 mV for hippocampal stimulation,

t-test, p<0.01). We observed no significant difference in the duration of the late,

hyperpolarizing component in response to reuniens and hippocampal stimulations.

Reuniens stimulation elicited action potentials that were either orthodromic (85%), antidromic

(10%) or both (5%), evidenced by jitter in the latency of orthodromic action potentials and

consistent latency of antidromic action potentials (Figure 1F). Antidromic responses to reuniens

stimulation, confirmed by collision tests, were recorded in cells located 6050-6600 µm ventral

to the dorsal aspect of the cortical surface. The mean latency of antidromic spikes was 2.9±0.25

ms (mean ± SD).

To characterize the prefrontal topography of reuniens and hippocampal receptive fields, we

descended a 4-shank microelectrode array into the mPFC in 1 mm steps and recorded evoked

field potentials in response to reuniens and hippocampal stimulation (Figure 1H). Reuniens

stimulation evoked field postsynaptic potential in a wider prefrontal territory compared to

hippocampal stimulation which was restricted to the ventroposterior part of the mPFC. In some

locations of mPFC, early responses to reuniens stimulation (Figure 1 H, I) corresponded to

criteria of field potential antidromic responses(Chang, 1953). Areas in the prefrontal cortex that

responded to hippocampal stimulation overlapped with areas exhibiting antidromic responses

to reuniens stimulation (Figure 1 I, shadowed area). In the following experiments, we targeted

this region of the mPFC.

Reuniens and ventral hippocampal activity precede the onset of mPFC spindles

Sleep enhances communication in the hippocampo-cortical pathway by promoting interregional synchrony through highly rhythmic events such as slow waves and spindles. To investigate the role of the reuniens in mediating synchrony in the mPFC-hippocampal network, we performed LFP recordings of the mPFC and ventral hippocampus, as well as targeted spike/LFP recordings of the reuniens during natural sleep from 4 cats (Figure 2A, Figure 2 – figure supplement 1). Recordings were segmented into wake, NREM and REM epochs, based on mPFC delta power, mPFC signal amplitude, and nuchal muscle activity (Figure 2 B-D). During NREM sleep, LFP recordings and corresponding wavelet transforms of the signal suggested correlated activity among mPFC slow waves, spindles, hippocampal SWRs, and reuniens multi-unit activity (Figure 2E). We observed co-occurring reuniens and mPFC spindles (Figure 2F), characterized by significantly earlier onset of reuniens spindles relative to the onset of mPFC spindles (median = -0.083 s, n=49 sessions, Figure 2G).

NREM sleep analysis of reuniens single-unit activity relative to the phase of mPFC and reuniens spindle cycles revealed significant phase-locking of reuniens single-units to mPFC spindle cycles (n= 24/49 single-units, mean ± SD = -80.87 ± 41.64°, p = 2.942 x 10^{-7}, Rayleigh test, Figure 2H) and reuniens spindle cycles (n= 29/49 single-units, mean ± SD = -118.25 ± 47.72°, p = 1.047 x 10^{-6}, Rayleigh test Figure 2I). The mean phase preference of reuniens single-units was advanced for reuniens spindle cycles relative to mPFC spindle cycles. For pairs of co-occurring reuniens and mPFC spindles, spindle amplitudes were significantly correlated (r=0.54 using mPFC spindle as

reference, p = 3.22 x10^{-27}, Figure 2J, and r=0.47, p = 8.61 x10^{-25} when using Reuniens spindle as

reference, Figure 2K).

Lastly, we investigated during NREM sleep the change in hippocampal and reuniens signal

power during mPFC spindles relative to baseline, which demonstrated increased hippocampal

ripple power and increased reuniens spindle power preceding the onset of spindles in the mPFC

(Figure 2L, top). The histogram of SWR incidence in the same time window, referenced to the

onset of mPFC spindles, indicated increased SWR incidence prior to the onset of mPFC spindles

(Figure 2L, middle). Reuniens multi-unit activity increased prior to the onset of mPFC spindles

(Figure 2L, bottom).

158 mPFC slow waves - spindle phase amplitude coupling in the reuniens-
159 mPFC network

To examine the modulation of reuniens and hippocampal activity by mPFC slow waves, we

analyzed the relationship between the phase of mPFC slow waves with respect to spindles and

SWRs during NREM sleep. Figure 3A shows a representative example of a coupled slow wave-

spindle event from simultaneous recordings of the mPFC and reuniens. We analyzed the

average time-frequency representation of mPFC amplitudes locked to the peak of the mPFC

slow wave (Figure 3B), as well as the average time-frequency representations of reuniens

amplitudes, locked to the peak of the same mPFC slow waves (Figure 3C), which showed

significant modulation of spindle amplitudes by the phase of the mPFC slow wave.

The strength of slow wave-spindle coupling, estimated by the absolute value of the

synchronization index (SI) was higher for mPFC slow wave-reuniens spindle coupling compared

to mPFC slow wave-mPFC spindle coupling (median ± mean absolute deviation [MAD], SI

strength = 0.18 ± 0.09 and 0.24 ± 0.11 for mPFC and reuniens spindles, respectively, p = 2.126 x

10^{-17}, Wilcoxon signed rank test, Figure 3 D). A comparison of slow wave-spindle coupling

strength between mPFC-mPFC pairs and mPFC-reuniens pairs is shown in Figure 3E. The

amplitude of reuniens spindles increased at earlier phases of the mPFC slow wave compared to

the amplitude of mPFC spindles, which increased at later phases of the mPFC slow wave (Figure

3B,C,F). This finding suggests that mPFC can trigger reuniens spindles, but spindles recorded in

mPFC are not necessarily imposed by reuniens spindles.

Next, we examined the relative delays in the timing of mPFC and reuniens slow waves during

NREM sleep. Figure 3G shows a representative example of an overlapping mPFC and reuniens

slow wave, with circles indicating slow wave peaks. Single session data in Figure 3H

demonstrates the delay between reuniens and mPFC slow waves, showing significant lag in the

time of reuniens slow waves relative to mPFC slow waves (median ± MAD = 0.126 ± 0.043 s, p =

3.66 x 10^{-15}, n = 82, Wilcoxon signed rank test). The distribution of median delay times for all

recording sessions between each reuniens-mPFC slow wave pair are shown in Figure 3I.

Lastly, we analyzed the phase-locking of ventral hippocampal SWRs to mPFC slow waves. Figure

3J shows a representative example of a coupled slow wave-SWR event. The distribution of slow

wave phases at the time of SWRs was non-uniform, indicating significant phase-locking of SWRs

to mPFC slow waves at a mean phase of 162.7± 29.37° (p = 5.02 x 10^{-6}, Rayleigh test, Figure

3K). We found no significant phase-locking of SWRs to spindle cycles in the majority of

recording sessions (n=3/51 with significant phase for mPFC spindle-SWR and n=10/51 sessions

with significant phase for reuniens spindle-SWR coupling, Figure 3 – figure supplement 1 and

Table 1).

Hippocampal oscillations modulate reuniens activity

Considering the comodulation of reuniens and hippocampal activity prior to mPFC spindles, we

asked whether hippocampal oscillations directly influence firing activity in the reuniens. A

representative example of LFP recordings of the ventral hippocampus, mPFC, and reuniens

during REM sleep is shown in Figure 4A. The wavelet spectrogram of the hippocampal trace

demonstrates prominent theta-band activity during REM with periodic locking of reuniens

multi-unit activity to hippocampal theta cycles (Figure 4B). Analysis of reuniens firing around

the peak of hippocampal theta cycles, shows significant phase-locking of reuniens single-unit

activity to the theta rhythm during REM (Figure 4C-F).

Power spectra of mPFC, reuniens, and hippocampal signals during REM are characterized by

prominent peaks in the theta range, with coherence between mPFC-hippocampus, reuniens-

hippocampus, and mPFC-reuniens recording pairs in the theta range during REM (Figure 4 G, H).

mPFC-reuniens recordings were further comodulated by a slow, irregular potential observed in

Figure 4A and in the broad low frequency peak (Figure 4H, bottom). Cross-correlations and

relative time lags of reuniens-hippocampus and mPFC-hippocampus recording pairs during REM

are illustrated in Figure 4I. mPFC signals lagged hippocampal signals by a longer delay than

reuniens signals lagged hippocampus (mean lag ± SD = 87.8 ± 55.5 ms and 109.1 ± 41.52 for

reuniens and mPFC, respectively, n=20 sessions, p=0.002, t-test ,Figure 4J, top) and peak cross-

correlation coefficients were significantly higher for reuniens-hippocampus recording pairs than

for reuniens-mPFC (mean peak value ± SD = 0.44 ± 0.13 and 0.22 ± 0.07 for reuniens and mPFC

respectively=20 sessions, t-test, $p<10^{-20}$, Figure 4J, bottom).

Next, we analyzed reuniens firing activity during SWRs in NREM. Figure 4K shows representative

LFP recordings of the hippocampus and reuniens multiunit activity during SWR events in NREM

sleep. In 20.4 % of reuniens single-units (10/49), firing rate increased significantly following the

onset of SWRs in the hippocampus, compared to shuffled events in the same period (Figure 4L,

150 ms post-SWR onset). Firing rates decreased significantly in 32.6% (16/49) of single-units

following SWR onset. The average thalamic LFP around the onset of the SWR was characterized

by a negative, 250 µV deflection coincident with increased reuniens firing.

Hippocampal-thalamocortical model

To explore the parameters that control interregional synchrony during NREM sleep, we

constructed a neural mass firing rate model consisting of two cortical networks (N 1 & 2),

representing mPFC layers 5 and 6, respectively, and two hippocampal (CA1-CA3) and three

thalamic networks (TRN, MD, and Reu, Figure 5A). Sharp waves and slow waves are

spontaneously generated in the isolated CA3 and cortical networks respectively as a result of

adaptation and excitatory-to-excitatory recurrent connections. SWRs are reproduced in the CA1

network during the active phase of the sharp wave due to recurrent connections between the

CA1 excitatory and inhibitory neurons with the firing rates sharply dependent on the

membrane potential in this firing rate model (Azimi et al., 2021). The oscillations in the range of

spindle frequency are spontaneously generated in the bursting, recurrently connected MD-TRN

network. The beginning and end of the spindles are controlled by cortical inputs in the

thalamocortical model with long-range bidirectional projections between cortical and thalamic

networks. In the full hippocampo-cortico-thalamic model, the CA1 is directly connected to the

cortical network while reuniens, which is bidirectionally connected to both CA1 and cortical

networks, mediates the cortical to CA1 influence. With large enough strength of multi-regional

projections, the model can spontaneously reproduce the experimentally observed coupling

between the slow waves, spindles, and SWRs (Figure 5B). We found that reuniens slow waves

occur significantly later than cortical slow waves (median ± MAD = 0.113 ± 0.019 s, $p < 10^{-20}$,

Wilcoxon signed rank test, Figure 5C). In contrast, thalamic spindles occur significantly earlier

than cortical spindles (median ± MAD = -0.102 ± 0.387 s, $p = 1.30 \times 10^{-7}$, Wilcoxon signed rank

test, Figure 5D).

Figure 5E shows the average of cortical slow wave trough-locked time-frequency

representations of the membrane potential of mPFC excitatory neurons and reuniens neurons.

The slow wave-spindle coupling angles are nonuniformly distributed for both cortical and

reuniens spindles indicating strong coupling with slow waves (mean ± SD = 148.7 ± 23.9°, p <

10^{-20} and 27.4 ± 20.4°, $p < 10^{-20}$, for mPFC and reuniens respectively, Rayleigh test). In

quantitative match to the experimental data, reuniens spindles occur mainly around the slow

wave peak (active phase) while cortical spindles mainly occur around the slow wave trough. The

slow wave-spindle coupling strength is also higher for reuniens than cortical spindles (median ±

MAD SI strength = 0.58 ± 0.11 and 0.66 ± 0.15 for mPFC and reuniens, respectively, p = 8.45×

10^{-9}, Wilcoxon signed rank test, Figure 5F). Slow waves in the thalamocortical network are also

accompanied by large negative deflections and a subsequent peak in CA1 network (Figure 5G).

Phase locking analysis revealed that, consistent with the experimental data, SWRs are phase-

locked to slow waves, occurring mainly before slow wave peaks (active phase, mean ± SD = -

24.97 ± 62.01°, $p < 10^{-20}$, Rayleigh test, Figure 5H). The bidirectional projections between

reuniens and CA1 coordinate the communication between these two networks so that the

membrane potential of the reuniens neurons increases after SWRs (Figure 5I). Reuniens

spindles were also preceded by an increase in the SWR rate (Figure 5J, the peak SWR rate

occurs 0.32 s before the spindle onset).

Bidirectional projections between the reuniens and CA1 control

multiregional interactions

To investigate how bidirectional projections between the reuniens and CA1 control

multiregional interactions in the model, we explored hippocampal-thalamocortical coupling

during sleep rhythms as a function of the strength of bidirectional projections between

reuniens and CA1. The correlation between reuniens and CA1 membrane potentials during

SWRs increased by increasing the strength of CA1 to reuniens projections (Figure 6A). In

addition, the SWR activity before spindle onset is an increasing function of bidirectional

projections between CA1 and reuniens (Figure 6B). Next, we studied the effect of the strength

of reuniens-CA1 bidirectional projections on CA1 activity during cortical slow waves. The peak-

to-trough magnitude of CA1 deflections around the cortical slow wave also increases by

increasing the reuniens-CA1 bidirectional projections (Figure 6C). The slow wave mean phase at

the time of SWR occurrence decreased by increasing the strength of the bidirectional

projections between reuniens and CA1 so that SWRs mostly occur before and after slow wave

peak for strong and weak projections, respectively (Figure 6D). These results suggest that for

strong reuniens-CA1 projection, the depolarizing input from reuniens during down-to-up

transition is large enough to induce the SWRs in CA1 before the slow wave peak. Further, slow

wave phases at the time of SWR occurrence are more nonuniformly distributed for stronger

CA1-reuniens projection, indicating stronger phase locking of SWRs to slow waves.

Discussion

This study examined the functional relationship between mPFC, reuniens, and hippocampal

activity in cats using electrophysiological and computational approaches. We found that

reuniens activity during natural sleep was strongly modulated by hippocampal oscillations, and

that reuniens-mPFC spindles were preceded by increased probability of hippocampal SWRs and

ripple power. Electrical stimulation of reuniens generated orthodromic and antidromic spiking

in mPFC neurons, indicating bidirectional thalamocortical circuitry between the mPFC and

reuniens. Slow waves in reuniens lagged prefrontal slow waves but spindles in reuniens led

prefrontal spindles, suggesting a bidirectional, oscillation-dependent dialogue between

reuniens and the mPFC. Spindle amplitude and SWR occurrence was modulated by the phase of

the prefrontal slow oscillation, consistent with the idea that prefrontal slow waves control the

timing of thalamic and hippocampal events. Overall, the study provides physiological

confirmation to the hypothesis that reuniens is a core mediator in hippocampo-cortical

dialogue.

Monosynaptic and polysynaptic hippocampal to mPFC connections.

Hippocampal influence on the activity of prefrontal neurons is a central mechanism in sleep-

dependent memory consolidation (Bontempi et al., 1999; Siapas et al., 2005; Wilson and

McNaughton, 1994). Previous research has shown that response latency in the hippocampo-

prefrontal pathway exhibits substantial variability (Degenetais et al., 2003), indicating the

involvement of both monosynaptic and polysynaptic mechanisms in prefrontal response to

hippocampal input. Our findings support this notion, as we observed inconsistent mPFC

responses to hippocampal stimulation, occurring later than those elicited by reuniens

stimulation. Notably, the same cell in mPFC could respond or not respond to hippocampal

stimuli (Figure 1 C, E) while LFP responses were less variable. This was possibly due to inhibitory

mechanisms such as shunting/feedforward inhibition or cholinergic, monoaminergic, or

thalamic gating mechanisms (Floresco and Grace, 2003; Gigg et al., 1994; Gioanni et al., 1999;

Mansvelder et al., 2009; Robbins, 2005; Williams and Goldman-Rakic, 1995).

Reuniens to mPFC pathway induces more reliable responses than

hippocampus to mPFC pathway.

While the functional impact of the hippocampo-prefrontal pathway has been extensively

studied, there are fewer studies on the effects of reuniens on the prefrontal cortex (Di Prisco

and Vertes, 2006). In our study, half of recorded prefrontal cells responded to reuniens

stimulation, with a mean response latency of 6 ms and with antidromic spikes with a latency of

approximately 3 ms, pointing to bidirectional functional connectivity between the two

structures. Similarly, electrical stimulation of the reuniens/rhomboid nucleus in rats (Di Prisco

and Vertes, 2006) elicits prominent evoked potentials in prefrontal cortices that have putatively

monosynaptic latencies of 4.5 ms. We found that mPFC responses to reuniens stimulation were

qualitatively different from responses elicited by hippocampal stimulation, with significant

differences in latency, amplitude, slope of EPSPs, and duration of hyperpolarization. Reuniens-

evoked responses occurred earlier and were more consistent than hippocampal-evoked

responses, suggesting higher response fidelity in the reuniens-prefrontal pathway than in the

hippocampo-cortical pathway. Both pyramidal cells and inhibitory neurons mediate the

hippocampo-prefrontal response, with the early component thought to be primarily mediated

by AMPA receptors (Degenetais et al., 2003; Jay et al., 1992) and the early hyperpolarization

was likely mediated by $GABA_A$ and the late component by either $GABA_B$ conductances

(Degenetais et al., 2003) or it was mediated by disfacilitation(Contreras et al., 1996; Fuentealba

et al., 2004). mPFC interneurons also respond to hippocampal stimulation, with a shorter

response latency than pyramidal cells, suggesting that the hippocampus can exert feedforward

inhibition in the medial prefrontal cortex (Tierney et al., 2004), which could explain the polarity

reversal of mPFC neurons response around -70 mV to hippocampal stimulation (Figure 1 E).

AMPA excitation and GABA inhibition may also mediate the primary depolarizing and secondary

hyperpolarizing responses to reuniens stimulation in medial prefrontal cells (Figure 1 C, F)

similar to previously demonstrated mediodorsal-prefrontal pathway (Gigg et al., 1992). Similar

to hippocampal afferents to the mPFC, the reuniens nucleus sends glutamatergic afferents to

the prefrontal cortex (Hur and Zaborszky, 2005; Pirot et al., 1995) enabling influence on the

prefrontal neuronal activity.

A potential role of Reuniens to synchronize mPFC and hippocampal activity

Reuniens is believed to play a critical role in connecting the prefrontal cortex and hippocampus due to its bidirectional connections with both structures (Di Prisco and Vertes, 2006). The prefrontal cortex and hippocampus are both essential for memory processing (Bontempi et al., 1999), and previous research indicates the reuniens may synchronize the activity of these two structures (Ferraris et al., 2018). Demonstrations that the nucleus reuniens exerts excitatory actions at the CA1 (Bertram and Zhang, 1999; Dolleman-Van der Weel et al., 1997) and also at the prefrontal cortex (Di Prisco and Vertes, 2006) (intracellularly confirmed and described in our study) provides supporting evidence for this claim that nucleus Reuniens might synchronize the activity of ventral hippocampus and mPFC. We also found that hippocampal stimulation evoked strong responses in cortical areas coincident with the recording site of antidromic responses to reuniens stimulation (Figure 1). These results support the idea that the reuniens nucleus, ventral hippocampus, and prefrontal cortex form a functional loop, with the prefrontal cortex acting as a mediator of the hippocampo-prefronto-thalamic relay.

In NREM sleep, the coupling of hippocampal SWRs to cortical slow waves and thalamocortical spindles is thought to be the main network mechanisms by which the brain promotes the consolidation of short-term memory into long-term storage (Frankland and Bontempi, 2005; Maingret et al., 2016). However, the mechanism that govern the emergence of this interregional synchrony remain unclear. We found that reuniens single-unit activity exhibited sporadic locking to ventral hippocampal theta cycles (during REM sleep) and was strongly

modulated by ventral hippocampal SWRs. These results are congruent with findings in MD

thalamic nucleus showing that although overall CA1 ripples suppress MD firing, at the onset of

spindles, the MD firing triggered by ripples was increased (Yang et al., 2019). The firing pause in

reuniens neurons during SWR and the presence of spike-bursts after SWR suggests that the

spike burst is a rebound from previous hyperpolarization (Jahnsen and Llinás, 1984). This

suggests that SWR drive some inhibitory cells that hyperpolarize at least MD and reuniens. If

hyperpolarization is strong enough, like during slow wave, it triggers rebound spike bursts.

Considering the strong influence of reuniens on prefrontal targets, the hippocampal modulation

of reuniens activity points to a thalamic pathway for the coupling of sleep rhythms. Although

the minimal requirement to generate spindles is the reticular thalamic nucleus (TRN) (Bazhenov

et al., 1999; Steriade et al., 1987) , our finding of increased SWR probability and ripple power

prior to the onset of thalamocortical spindles suggest that hippocampal drive through reuniens

may initiate the thalamocortical cascade of events that leads to spindles.

Does Reuniens generate spindles?

In first-order nuclei of the thalamus, cortical firing can trigger spindles by exciting

hyperpolarized neurons of the TRN, eliciting high-frequency spike bursts(Contreras and

Steriade, 1996). In turn, TRN bursts can drive IPSPs in thalamocortical neurons, eliciting

rebound low-threshold calcium spikes (Bazhenov et al., 1999) and developing the spindle

primarily through recurrent inhibitory-excitatory interactions between the TRN and

thalamocortical neurons(Contreras and Steriade, 1996). Cortical firing also contributes to

spindle synchronization and the maintenance of the spindle through its influence on the TRN

(Bonjean et al., 2011). Thus, cortical activation after the down state can initiate thalamocortical

spindling and lock the timing of spindles to the phase of the slow oscillation. However, less is

known about spindle generation in higher-order thalamic nuclei, especially in thalamic nuclei

with limbic circuitry such as reuniens. The circuitry is in place for spindle generation in the

reuniens nucleus: The reuniens in connected bidirectionally with the prefrontal

cortex(Herkenham, 1978; Vertes et al., 2007); layer 6 of the infralimbic cortex projects to the

anteromedial TRN (Cornwall et al., 1990), a region that projects to the reuniens nucleus (Çavdar

et al., 2008; Kolmac and Mitrofanis, 1997). Our results revealed that reuniens neuronal firing is

modulated by spindles, whether spindles were recorded by LFP electrodes located in the mPFC

cortex or in the reuniens nucleus (Figure 2). While reuniens nucleus neurons can generate low-

threshold calcium spike, they do not display hyperpolarization-activated current(Walsh et al.,

2017), likely limiting their ability to generate and maintain spindles. Of note, without MD in our

computational model, no spindles were generated (data not shown). In general, although first

order thalamocortical cells display inhibitory, spindle-like activities during cortical active state,

higher order thalamocortical cells show persistent depolarizing states, excluding their

possibility to generate spindle-related rebound spike bursts(Groh et al., 2014; Sheroziya and

Timofeev, 2014). The bidirectional connections of the reuniens to neocortical and archicortical

structures make it difficult to discern the possible triggering event that initiates the spindle in

this nucleus. We found that hippocampal SWRs trigger thalamic rebound burst firing and

precede the onset of reuniens and mPFC spindles, which points to SWRs as one of candidate

events for spindle initiation. In this regard, the strong excitatory drive emerging form the

hippocampus during SWRs may represent an ontogenetically different mechanism for the

initiation of spindles in the limbic circuitry. However, the generation and maintenance of

spindle cycles depend on burst firing from inhibitory structures such as the TRN. To date, it is

not yet clear whether the hippocampus influences inhibitory thalamic structures such as the

TRN or the zona incerta, although projections from subiculum to the rostral TRN were

previously described(Cavdar et al., 2008). We propose that hippocampal SWRs can initiate a

cascade of thalamocortical events, beginning with the excitation of reuniens, which in turn

excites the mPFC. This mPFC excitation leads to spindle activity generated through cortico-

thalamic feedback from the mPFC to other thalamic nuclei, such as the MD nucleus.

Our computational model recaptures our experimental findings.

Our computational model demonstrates the presence of cross-regional interactions

between the prefrontal cortex and its thalamic partners. The model confirmed that thalamic

slow waves occur significantly later than cortical slow waves, whereas thalamic spindles occur

significantly earlier than cortical spindles, recapturing our experimental findings and pointing to

the cortical origin of slow-wave activity and thalamic origin of spindles. The model predicts that,

while CA1 to reuniens connection strength plays a critical role in the modulation of reuniens

activity by SWRs, bidirectional connections between reuniens and CA1 are critical for SWR-

dependent triggering of spindles. Similarly, bidirectional reuniens and CA1 connections are

important for transmitting cortical slow wave activity to the CA1 region. With strong

bidirectional connections, the SWR occurred primarily before the slow wave active phase peak

and with weak connections, the SWR tended to occur after this peak. Given our experimental

findings (Figure 3, J-K) the model suggests that the effectiveness of bidirectional connections

between reuniens and CA1 is particularly strong during NREM in cat.

Conclusion. Overall, in addition to well-known anatomical connectivity in CA1,

reuniens, mPFC network, our results demonstrate the presence of functional connectivity in

this network. However, the efficacy of this functional connectivity is modulated by behavioral

state. Such flexibility can be explained by neuromodulation of intrinsic neuronal currents,

synaptic strength and synaptic dynamic (Nadim and Bucher, 2014)

Materials and Methods

Experimental model and subject details

Experiments were carried out in accordance with the guidelines of the Canadian Council on

Animal Care and were approved by the Committee for Animal Care of Université Laval and are

consistent with ARRIVE guidelines. In 20 adult cats (16 anesthetized [acute, results in figure 1]

during recording sessions and 4 chronically implanted, not anesthetized [chronic, results in

figures 2, 3, 4] during recording sessions), aged 1-1.5 years, electrophysiological recordings

were obtained from the mPFC, midline thalamus, hippocampus and/or various cortical areas

including somatosensory, motor, auditory, associative, and visual cortex. Prefrontal intracellular

recordings (n=15) and LFP-array recordings (n=9) were obtained from anesthetized animals and

spike/local field potential (n=4) recordings were obtained from non-anesthetized animals

during sleep and wake cycles.

Surgeries

Anesthetized Animals

For acute intracellular recordings, cats were anesthetized with a mixture of ketamine and

xylazine (10-15 and 2-3 mg/kg i.m., respectively) and maintained in anesthetic state during the

experiment by supplemental doses of ketamine (5 mg/kg). Body temperature was maintained

at 37°C via a feedback-controlled heating pad and the heart rate was continuously monitored

(90-110 bpm). All pressure points and incision sites were infiltrated with lidocaine (0.5%).

Animals were paralyzed with gallamine triethiodide and artificially ventilated to an end-tidal

CO_2 concentration of 3.5-3.8%. Recording stability was maintained by cannulation of the

cisterna magna, bilateral pneumothorax, hip suspension, and by sealing craniotomies with agar

solution (4% in 0.9% saline).

Non-anesthetized animals

For chronic spike/LFP recordings, cats were implanted with indwelling electrodes and a head-

restraint system according to surgical procedures described previously in Timofeev et al. (2001)

and Chauvette et al. (2011). Briefly, cats were pre-anesthetized with an intramuscular injection

of ketamine (3 mg/kg), buprenorphine (0.02 mg/kg), and dexmedetomidine (5 µg/kg). The

incision site was shaved, and the cats were intubated for gaseous anesthesia. Lidocaine (0.5%)

and bupivacaine (0.25%) was injected at the site of the incision and in all pressure points where

the head contacted the stereotaxic frame. Four stainless-steel electrodes were implanted under

stereotaxic guidance in the mPFC (*from the interaural line: AP 23 to 24 mm, ML 1 mm, DV 5*

mm, $\vartheta=10°$) according to the Reinoso-Suarez stereotaxic atlas of the cat brain (Reinoso-Suárez,

1961). Additionally, single stainless-steel electrodes were implanted in deep cortical layers (1.2

mm from cortical surface) in the ipsi- or contralateral hemisphere in the marginal gyrus [visual

cortex (areas 17 and 18)], suprasylvian gyrus [associative cortex (areas 5, 7, and 21)],

ectosylvian gyrus [auditory cortex (areas 22 and 50)], postcruciate gyrus [somatosensory cortex

(area 3)], precruciate gyrus [motor cortex (areas 4 and 6)]. Tetrodes, constructed out of four

twisted microwires (platinum-iridium, 12.5 μm, gold-plated to ~200 kΩ), were implanted into

the midline thalamus (*from the interaural line: AP 11.5, ML 0.5, DV 1.5, $\vartheta=10°$*) and into the CA1

region of the hippocampus (*from the interaural line: AP 7, ML 10.5, DV -3.5, $\vartheta=10°$*).

For electro-oculography (EOG), a silver electrode was implanted through the orbital bone and

for electromyography (EMG), two teflon-insulated stainless-steel electrodes were implanted

into the neck muscle. All recordings were referenced to a silver electrode fixed to the skull

above the cerebellum. To allow for subsequent head-restrained recordings, head-fixation

holders were also attached and encased into the dental cement. Throughout the surgery, the

body temperature was maintained at 37°C using a water-circulating thermo-regulated blanket.

Heartbeat, oxygen saturation and blood pressure were continuously monitored using a pulse

oximeter (Rad-8; MatVet), and the level of anesthesia was adjusted to maintain a heartbeat at

130-150 per minute. Lactate Ringer's solution was given intravenously (5 ml/ kg/h, i.v.) during

the surgery. After the surgery, cats received meloxicam (0.05 mg/kg) once a day for 3 days.

Electrophysiological recordings

Acute recordings in anesthetized animals

Intracellular recordings of the mPFC were obtained in vivo using glass micropipettes pulled on a

vertical puller (Narishige PP-830, Tokyo, Japan) from borosilicate capillary tubes (WPI; P-97,

Sutter Instrument) and filled with 3 M potassium acetate (DC resistances of 30- 60 MΩ). The

prefrontal region around the cruciate gyrus was targeted according to the stereotaxic cat atlas

of Reinoso-Suárez (1961) (*from the interaural line: AP 23 to 24 mm, ML 1 mm, DV 5-14.5 mm*).

The micropipette was advanced dorsoventrally until a cell was penetrated, confirmed *in situ* by

electrophysiological observations and classification. A high-impedance amplifier (Neurodata IR-

283 amplifiers; Cygnus Technology) with active bridge circuitry was used to record the

membrane potential (sampled at 20 kHz) and to inject current into neurons.

Stimuli (0.2 ms, 0.3-1.5 mA) were delivered in single pulses at 1 Hz through bipolar (coaxial)

electrodes implanted in the ventral midline thalamus (*from the interaural line: AP 12, ML 0.0,*

DV 1.0) and hippocampus (*from the interaural line: AP 7.2, ML 10.5, DV -4.5*). Bandpassed (0.1

Hz-10 kHz) field potentials were recorded through the same bipolar electrodes at 20 kHz

sampling.

To study the topography of prefrontal responses to thalamic and/or hippocampal stimulation,

an array of 4 tungsten microelectrodes (9-12 MΩ, 1 mm apart in the antero-posterior axis) was

positioned in the mPFC in 9 animals (ML 1.0, AP 26-23). The array was positioned close to the

midline in the pericruciate gyrus sigmoidus and advanced ventrally in 1 mm steps. At each step,

thalamic or hippocampal stimuli (0.2 ms, 0.3-1.5 mA) were delivered at 1 Hz or in 5-pulse trains

every 2 seconds at 5Hz, 10Hz, 20 Hz and 100 Hz through bipolar (coaxial) electrodes implanted

in the ventral midline thalamus (*from the interaural line: AP 12, ML 0.0, DV 1.0*) and

hippocampal formation (*from the interaural line: AP 7.2, ML 10.5, DV -4.5*). Antidromic events

were detected according to methods described previously in Lipski (1981).

To label stimulation sites, electrolytic lesions were made through thalamic and hippocampal

electrodes via 0.75 mA, 1 s current pulses, delivered every 3 s for 5 minutes.

Chronic recordings in non-anesthetized animals

For non-anesthetized cats, a post-operative recovery time of 1 week was maintained prior to

the first recording session. Cats were trained over 2-3 days to remain in head-restrained

position for 2– 4 h and cycle through periods of quiet wakefulness, NREM, and REM sleep.

Recordings were obtained over two weeks following the post-operative recovery period. All

recordings were conducted within a Faraday chamber using AM 3000 amplifiers (A-M Systems),

bandpassed 0.1 Hz to 10 kHz with a 1k gain. All signals were sampled at 20 kHz and digitized

with PowerLab (ADInstruments - Data Acquisition Systems for Life Science, RRID:SCR_001620).

Histology

Location of all electrodes was verified on histological sections from each animal. At the

conclusion of experiments, animals were deeply anesthetized and perfused intracardially with

4°C saline (0.9%) followed by 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) in 0.1 M phosphate buffer in saline

(PBS). Brains were extracted and cryoprotected by immersion in several sucrose-PFA solutions

of increasing sucrose concentration (10, 20 and 30% sucrose in PFA over 1 week). Brains were

then sectioned in a freezing microtome (80 or 100 μm thickness), mounted on gelatinized glass

slides, dried, and subsequently labelled with DAPI (300 nM, Invitrogen D3571) or stained with

cresyl violet by standard Nissl-staining procedures. The coverslipped sections were visualized in

brightfield (Nissl) or fluorescence (DAPI) microscopy and sections with electrode tracks were

photographed in 10 and 20 x magnification.

Analysis

Signals were analyzed using Igor Pro 4.0 (Wavemetrics, Inc.), built-in and custom routines in

Spike2 (Cambridge Electronic Design, Ltd.) and custom-written and open-source code in

MATLAB (Mathworks Inc.)

Intracellular data analysis

Stimuli were detected manually, and minimal binomial smoothing was performed to diminish

noise on occasion. The latency of orthodromic responses was calculated as the time when the

response reached 10% of the maximal amplitude of the sigmoidal fit of the rise of the EPSP. The

amplitude of the EPSP was calculated as the maximum of this sigmoidal fit, and the slope of the

EPSP calculated as the maximum of the differentiation of this fit. A horizontal line was drawn

across the response from the base of the early EPSP and the interception of this line by the

hyperpolarizing potential was used to calculate the duration of this latter component.

Responses to sweeps of five pulse stimulation trains were averaged with an IgorPro algorithm

(n=30 per stimulation protocol). The EPSP response magnitude elicited by the stimulation of the

reuniens nucleus was computed by computing the area below the curve. Average response

areas evoked by pulses 2 through 5 of the train were subsequently normalized by dividing by

the response evoked by the first pulse.

Wake, NREM and REM detection

Detection of wake, NREM and REM sleep was based on automated analysis of the mPFC and

EMG signals, followed by manual REM scoring using mPFC, EMG and EOG data. For automated

detection, the Spike2 script RatSleepAuto, based on rodent recordings (Costa-Miserachs et al.,

2003), was adapted to cat mPFC recordings. Briefly, the mPFC signal was downsampled to 100

Hz and bandpassed in the delta range (1-4 Hz). The mPFC, EMG and the delta-filtered mPFC

signals were then squared and the mean of each signal was calculated in 5 second bins. Each 5-

second bin was classified as NREM if the mPFC and delta signals exceed the mean + 1 standard

deviation (SD) of the signal and if the EMG fell below mean - 1 s.d. All bins other than NREM

were initially classified as wake. In the subsequent manual correction, "wake" bins with EMG

below mean – 1 s.d. and EOG above mean + 1 s.d. were classified as REM. In the final stage, the

5-second bins were combined into groups of 4 to create 20 second epochs of wake, REM or

NREM according to the majority of 5-second bins that comprised the 20 second epoch. Epochs

without a majority of either NREM, REM or wake were labelled as "Transition".

Slow wave, spindle and SWR detection

Slow wave, spindle and SWR detection was based on methodology described previously in

Alizadeh et al. (2022) and respectively in Zugaro et al. (2022), Klinzing et al. (2016) and

Levenstein et al. (2019). The detection protocol for all three events was restricted to periods of

NREM sleep.

The Freely Moving Animal (FMA) toolbox(Zugaro et al., 2022) was used for slow wave and

spindle detection. For slow waves, mPFC and reuniens LFP signals were bandpass filtered

between 0.5 to 4 Hz using a FIR filter with a filter order corresponding to 3 cycles of the low

frequency cut-off. Tentative slow wave events whose positive peaks were greater than 2.5

standard deviations of the signal and whose difference between positive and negative peaks

was greater than 4 standard deviations were detected. Slow waves were finally defined as

periods when consecutive positive-to-negative zero crossings of the signal filtered in 0.5-2 Hz

occurred between 0.5 and 2 seconds of each other.

For spindles, mPFC and reuniens LFP signals were bandpassed in the spindle frequency band (7-

15 Hz) using finite-impulse-response (FIR) filters from the EEGLAB toolbox (Delorme and

Makeig, 2004). The instantaneous amplitude of the filtered signal was then computed from its

Hilbert transform and the results were smoothed using a 300 ms Gaussian window. Potential

spindles were detected as periods when this signal crossed 3 standard deviations (SD) above its

mean for 0.5-3 s A threshold of 2.5 SD above the mean was set to detect spindle onset and

offset. Events that occurred within 0.5 seconds of each other were merged into a single event.

Events longer than 0.5 s and shorter than 3 s were defined as spindles. The largest peak in

spindle amplitude was defined as the time of the spindle event.

For SWRs, hippocampal LFP signals were bandpassed in the ripple frequency band (150-200 Hz,

FIR filter from the EEGLAB toolbox). The root mean square (RMS) of the filtered signal was then

computed and the results were smoothed using a 50 ms Gaussian windows. SWRs were defined

as periods when the smoothed RMS crossed 4 standard deviations above the median and

stayed crossed for at least 30 ms. The largest peak in SWR amplitude was defined as the time of

the SWR event.

Phase-amplitude coupling

Computations of phase-amplitude coupling (PAC) were based on methodology published

previously in Alizadeh et al.(Alizadeh et al., 2022), Dehnavi et al.(Dehnavi et al., 2021) and

Staresina et al.(Staresina et al., 2015) Time-frequency representations (TFRs) of every

spindle/slow wave event were obtained using the *mtmconvol* function in the FieldTrip

toolbox(Oostenveld et al., 2011). Spindle power around the slow wave was estimated using

sliding Hanning tapered windows (10 ms steps) with a variable length that included five cycles.

To compute coupling, TFRs were then normalized as percentage change from pre-event

baseline (-3.5 to -2.5 second before event) for all events. To calculate the modulation of spindle

power by slow wave phase, TFR bins around slow waves were averaged across the spindle

frequency range and then filtered in the slow wave frequency range. Phase values of this signal

were calculated from their Hilbert transform.

Synchronization index and coupling strength

We defined a synchronization index (SI) for each event:

$$SI = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^{m} e^{i[\theta_{slow\,wave}(j) - \theta_{spindle}(j)]}$$

where m is the number of time points, $\theta_{slow\,wave}(j)$ represents slow wave phase value at time *j*

and $\theta_{spindle}(j)$ represents phase values of spindle power fluctuations at time *j*. Preferred phase

was estimated in the interval -0.25 to 0.25s around slow wave peak. The strength of phase-

amplitude coupling was estimated from the absolute value of the SI with 1 representing the

most consistent phase shift between spindle amplitude and slow wave event. The phase of SI

represents the amount of phase shift between the spindle amplitude and slow wave event.

Spindle-SWR coupling was computed using a similar procedure. Briefly, the normalized TFRs in

the SWR frequency range around each spindle event (baseline defined from -2.5 to -1.5 second

before spindle event) were filtered in the spindle frequency range and the SI was defined as the

vector mean of unit vectors, each showing the phase difference between SWR amplitude and

slow wave event at different time points around the spindle peak.

Average wavelet transforms

Wavelet transforms of the LFP were calculated using the continuous one-dimensional wavelet

transform, estimated by Morse wavelets defined in the *cwt* function, available in the MATLAB

wavelet toolbox. Average wavelet transforms around spindle onsets (Figure 2L) were computed

using custom-written MATLAB code. First, 5-second LFP epochs, centered on spindle onsets

were extracted from the continuous recordings and downsampled to 250 Hz. A filter bank,

based on the known epoch length (5 s) and sampling frequency (250 Hz), was created with

voices per octave set to 20 and frequency limits set to 0.1 to 50 Hz. Using the filter bank,

wavelet transforms of each epoch around a spindle onset were calculated and stored in a 3-

dimensional array corresponding to time, frequency, and spindle event. To obtain the

magnitude of the signal, the absolute value of the wavelet transform was then computed. To

obtain the average wavelet transform of the LFP signals around the spindle event onsets, the

mean of the magnitude matrices along the third dimension (spindle events) was calculated.

Spike detection

For spike detection, reuniens LFP signals were bandpass filtered in the 300-8000 Hz range using

finite impulse response (FIR) filters from the EEGLAB toolbox. Epochs of ± 250 ms around times

when the signal crossed ± 16 SD were considered as artifacts and removed from the analysis.

Spikes were detected using UltraMegaSort2000 (Fee et al., 1996) with a negative threshold of -

4SD. During a shadow time of 0.75 ms after the threshold crossing, no new event was detected

to avoid multiple threshold crossings of one event. A window of 1.5 ms was considered around

each detected spike from 0.6 ms before the threshold crossing time to 0.9 ms after this time.

Spike sorting was based on a method described previously in Souza et al.(Souza et al., 2019).

We first extracted spike features for each channel. The features consisted of peak-to-trough

value, trough value and also an index which was set to one for the channel with maximum

trough amplitude and zero for the other channels. We used principal component analysis (PCA)

to combine 12 features (3 features times 4 channels) and selected the two first components.

Gaussian distributions were fitted to PCA components with gaussian mixture model (GMM)

algorithm. Each distribution was determined as a potential spike cluster. We further limited the

distribution by removing spikes with large Mahalanobis distance from the center of the

distribution. We removed, combined, and limited the distributions manually by visual

inspection of the plots showing PCA components versus each other and the plots showing the

features for different channel pairs (Figure 2 – figure supplement 1). For multi-unit analysis,

spikes were detected according to threshold crossing and template matching algorithms in

Spike2(CED, 2021). Briefly, fast signals (~1-3 ms) that exceeded the threshold were first

detected as putative spikes and timestamped. Thresholds were manually determined according

to the signal-to-noise ratio of spikes in each recording. Next, a temporary spike template was

formed according to the shape of the putative spike and a "template width" was estimated

(twice the mean difference between the template and the spike that created it). Each new spike

was then compared against the template and added to it if the spike's sample points fell within

the template width. The template was modified with the addition of each new spike up to a

maximum of eight spikes after which the template was checked against previous templates. If a

match was found, the temporary template was merged with the existing template. Otherwise, a

new confirmed template was generated.

Peri-event histograms

To analyze reuniens single-unit activity around the onset of SWRs, peri-event spike histograms

(PETHs) were calculated for a 1-second period around each event onset and the results were

smoothed with a 10 ms Gaussian window. For comparison, surrogate PETHs were obtained by

randomly shuffling SWR events detected within 1 second windows. This procedure was

repeated 100 times. True-even PETHs were z-score normalized to the firing rate of surrogate

PETHs. Single-units with activity greater than 2 SDs and smaller than -2 SDs in the 150 ms

window following SWR onset were considered activated and suppressed, respectively.

Phase-locking analysis

For phase-locking analysis, we calculated spindle phase at the time of single-unit spikes

occurring within ± 0.25 s around spindle peak (Figure 2H), slow wave phase at SWR time (Figure

3K) and theta phase at single-unit spike time occurring within ± 0.5 s around theta peak (Figure

4C). First, mPFC and reuniens LFPs were filtered in the frequency band of interest (spindle, slow

wave, or theta) and the phase of the filtered signal was extracted from its Hilbert transform.

These phase values were used to obtain phase histograms and calculate circular means.

Computational model

Our model represents a minimal neural mass model that describes the network architecture

required for generating three key oscillatory activities during NREM: the slow oscillation,

spindles, and SWRs. The hippocampal-thalamocortical model represents CA1-CA3 networks,

two cortical networks (CX, CX'), and three thalamic networks consisting of mediodorsal nucleus

of the thalamus (MD), thalamic reticular nucleus (TRN) and nucleus reuniens (REU). The details

of the CA1-CA3, MD-TRN and cortical networks were described previously (Azimi et al., 2021;

Ghorbani et al., 2012; Hashemi et al., 2019). In brief, in this neural mass firing rate model, each

of cortical and hippocampal networks consists of one identical group of excitatory and one

identical group of inhibitory neurons. V_k^m and N_k^m indicate the membrane potential and the

number of type k (either e, excitatory or i, inhibitory) neurons of network m, respectively. The

firing rates of hippocampal and cortical neurons as well as the REU neurons are sigmoid

functions of the membrane potential of the neurons with the sharpness and threshold of g_k^m,

V_k^{*m} respectively:

$$r(V_k^m) = r_0 + \frac{r_1}{1 + exp[-(V_k^m - V_k^{*m}) / g_k^m]} \ , \{m\} \in \{CA3, CA1, CX, CX', REU\} \quad (1)$$

where, r_1 = 70 Hz (r_0 = 0.1 Hz) is the maximal (minimum) firing rate. T-type calcium currents is

modeled only for MD and TRN neurons by defining a bursting variable, u_m so that these

neurons show burst mode in addition to the tonic mode:

$$r(V_k^m) = \frac{R_k^T}{1+exp[(V_k^m - V_k^T) / g_k^T]}(exp[L_k u_k]) + \frac{R_k^B}{1+exp[(V_k^m - V_k^B) / g_k^B]}(1 - exp[L_k u_k]), \ \{m\} \in \{MD, TRN\} \ (2)$$

Here g_k^T (g_k^B), R_k^T (R_k^B), and V_k^T (V_k^B) show the sharpness of the firing rate dependence on the

membrane potential , the maximum firing rate, and the threshold potential during tonic (burst)

mode. The sharpness of switch between the two modes is controlled by L_k (a positive

parameter).

The probability and the strength of connections from neuron k of network m to neuron j of

network n are shown by P_{kj}^{m-n} and J_{kj}^{m-n} respectively. m and n can be CA1, CA3, CX , MD , TRN or

REU. k and j can take e or i (representing excitatory and inhibitory neurons, respectively). For

the short-range connections since m and n are equal, only one of them is shown. E-E

connections of cortical and hippocampal excitatory neurons are subject to dendritic spike

frequency adaptation so that J_{ee}^{m}/J_{ee}^{n-m} is a sigmoid function of an adaptation variable, c^m with

sharpness and threshold of g_c and c^* respectively:

$$J_{ee}^{m}(c) = \frac{J0_{ee}^{m}}{1 + exp[c - c^*) / g_c]} \qquad (3)$$

Here $J0_{ee}^{m}$ is the maximal synaptic strength. The full model is described by 17 rate equations:

$$\frac{dV_e^{CA3}}{dt} = -\frac{V_e^{CA3}}{\tau_e} + N_e{}^{CA3} P_{ee}^{CA3} J_{ee}^{CA3}(c^{CA3}) r(V_i^{CA3}) - N_i{}^{CA3} P_{ie}^{CA3} J_{ie}^{CA3} r(V_i^{CA3}) \qquad (4)$$

$$\frac{dV_i^{CA3}}{dt} = -\frac{V_i^{CA3}}{\tau_I} + N_e{}^{CA3} P_{ei}^{CA3} J_{ei}^{CA3} r(V_e^{CA3}) - N_i{}^{CA3} P_{ii}^{CA3} J_{ii}^{CA3} r(V_i^{CA3}) \qquad (5)$$

$$\frac{dc^{CA3}}{dt} = -\frac{c^{CA3}}{\tau_c} + N_e{}^{CA3} P_{ee}^{CA3} \Delta c^{CA3} r(V_e^{CA3}) \qquad (6)$$

$$\frac{dV_e^{CA1}}{dt} = -\frac{V_e^{CA1}}{\tau_e} - N_i{}^{CA1} P_{ie}^{CA1} J_{ie}^{CA1} r(V_i^{CA1}) + N_e{}^{CA3} P_{ee}^{CA3-CA1} J_{ee}^{CA3-CA1}(c^{CA1}) r(V_e^{CA3})$$

$$+ N_e{}^{REU} P_{ee}^{REU-CA1} J_{ee}^{REU-CA1}(c^{CA1}) r(V_e^{REU}) \qquad (7)$$

$$\frac{dV_i^{CA1}}{dt} = -\frac{V_i^{CA1}}{\tau_I} + N_e{}^{CA1} P_{ei}^{CA1} J_{ei}^{CA1} r(V_e^{CA1}) + N_e{}^{CA3} P_{ei}^{CA3-CA1} J_{ei}^{CA3-CA1} r(V_e^{CA3}) -$$

$$N_i{}^{CA1} P_{ii}^{CA1} J_{ii}^{CA1} r(V_i^{CA1}) + N_e{}^{REU} P_{ei}^{REU-CA1} J_{ei}^{REU-CA1} r(V_e^{REU}) \qquad (8)$$

$$\frac{dc^{CA1}}{dt} = -\frac{c^{CA1}}{\tau_c} + N_e{}^{CA3} P_{ee}^{CA3-CA1} \Delta c^{CA1} r(V_e^{CA3}) + N_e{}^{REU} P_{ee}^{REU-CA1} \Delta c^{CA1} r(V_e^{REU}) \qquad (9)$$

$\quad \frac{dV_e^{CX}}{dt} = -\frac{V_e^{CX}}{\tau_e} + N_e^{CX}P_{ee}^{CX}J_{ee}^{CX}(c^{CX})r(V_e^{CX}) - N_i^{CX}P_{ie}^{CX}J_{ie}^{CX}r(V_i^{CX}) + N_e^{'CX}P_{ee}^{CX2-CX1}J_{ee}^{CX2-CX1}(c^{CX})r(V_e^{'CX}) +$

$\quad N_e^{REU}P_{ee}^{REU-CX}J_{ee}^{REU-CX}(c^{CX})r(V_e^{REU}) + N_e^{CA1}P_{ee}^{CA1-CX}J_{ee}^{CA1-CX}(c^{CX})r(V_e^{CA1})$ $\qquad$ (10)

$\quad \frac{dc^{CX}}{dt} = -\frac{c^{CX}}{\tau_c} + N_e^{CX}P_{ee}^{CX}\Delta c^{CX}r(V_e^{CX}) + N_e^{'CX}P_{ee}^{CX2-CX1}\Delta c^{CX}r(V_e^{'CX}) + N_e^{REU}P_{ee}^{REU-CX}\Delta c^{CX}r(V_e^{REU})$

$\quad + N_e^{CA1}P_{ee}^{CA1-CX}\Delta c^{CX}r(V_e^{CA1})$ $\quad$ (11)

$\quad \frac{dV_i^{CX}}{dt} = -\frac{V_i^{CX}}{\tau_I} - N_i^{CX}P_{ii}^{CX}J_{ii}^{CX}r(V_i^{CX}) + N_e^{CX}P_{ei}^{CX}J_{ei}^{CX}r(V_e^{CX}) + N_e^{'CX}P_{ei}^{CX2-CX1}J_{ei}^{CX2-CX1}r(V_e^{'CX}) +$

$\quad N_e^{REU}P_{ei}^{REU-CX}J_{ei}^{REU-CX}r(V_e^{REU}) + N_e^{CA1}P_{ei}^{CA1-CX}J_{ei}^{CA1-CX}r(V_e^{CA1})$ $\quad$ (12)

$\quad \frac{dV_e^{'CX}}{dt} = -\frac{V_e^{'CX}}{\tau_e} - N_I^{'CX}P_{ie}^{'CX}J_{ie}^{'CX}r(V_I^{'CX}) + N_e^{'CX}P_{ee}^{'CX}J_{ee}^{'CX}(c^{'CX})r(V_e^{'CX}) + N_e^{CX}P_{ee}^{CX1-CX2}J_{ee}^{CX1-CX2}(c^{'CX})r(V_e^{CX}) +$

$\quad N_e^{MD}P_{ee}^{'MD-CX}J_{ee}^{'MD-CX}(c^{'CX})r(V_e^{MD})$ $\quad$ (13)

$\quad \frac{dc^{'CX}}{dt} = -\frac{c^{'CX}}{\tau_c} + N_e^{'CX}P_{ee}^{'CX}\Delta c^{'CX}r(V_e^{'CX}) + N_e^{CX}P_{ee}^{CX1-CX2}\Delta c^{'CX}r(V_e^{CX}) + N_e^{MD}P_{ee}^{'MD-CX}\Delta c^{'CX}r(V_e^{MD})$

$\quad$ (14)

$\quad \frac{dV_I^{'CX}}{dt} = -\frac{V_I^{'CX}}{\tau_I} + N_e^{'CX}P_{ei}^{'CX}J_{ei}^{'CX}r(V_e^{'CX}) - N_I^{'CX}P_{ii}^{'CX}J_{ii}^{'CX}r(V_I^{'CX}) + N_e^{CX}P_{ei}^{CX1-CX2}J_{ei}^{CX1-CX2}r(V_e^{CX}) +$

$\quad N_e^{MD}P_{ei}^{'MD-CX}J_{ei}^{'MD-CX}r(V_e^{MD})$ $\quad$ (15)

$\quad \frac{dV_e^{MD}}{dt} = -\frac{V_e^{MD}}{\tau_{MD}} - \frac{f_e^{max}}{1 + exp[\frac{(u_e + f_e^{th})}{q_e}]} - N_i^{TRN}P_{ie}^{TRN-MD}J_{ie}^{TRN-MD}r(V_i^{TRN}) + N_e^{'CX}P_{ee}^{'CX-MD}J_{ee}^{'CX-MD}r(V_e^{'CX})$

$\quad$ (16)

$\quad \frac{du_e}{dt} = [\frac{1}{\tau_e^u}(b_e - u_e)]$ $\quad$ if $\quad V_e^{MD} > -0.1$ mV $\qquad$ then $\quad b_e = 0$ $\quad$ otherwise $\quad b_e = -200$ mA $\qquad$ (17)

$\frac{dV_i^{TRN}}{dt} = -\frac{V_i^{TRN}}{\tau_{TRN}} - \frac{f_i^{max}}{1 + exp[\frac{(u_I + f_j^{th})}{q_i}]} - N_i^{TRN}P_{ii}^{TRN}J_{ii}^{TRN}r(V_i^{TRN}) + N_e^{MD}P_{ei}^{MD\text{-}TRN}J_{ei}^{MD\text{-}TRN}r(V_e^{MD}) +$

$N_e^{'CX}P_{ei}^{'CX\text{-}TRN}J_{ei}^{'CX\text{-}TRN}r(V_e^{'CX})$ (18)

$\frac{du_i}{dt} = [\frac{1}{\tau_j^u}(b_I - u_i)]$ if $V_i^{TRN} > 0$ mV   then $b_I = 0$ otherwise $b_i = -200$ mA   (19)

$\frac{dV_e^{REU}}{dt} = -\frac{V_e^{REU}}{\tau_{REU}} - N_i^{TRN}P_{ie}^{TRN\text{-}REU}J_{ie}^{TRN\text{-}REU}r(V_i^{TRN}) + N_e^{CX}P_{ee}^{CX\text{-}REU}J_{ee}^{CX\text{-}REU}r(V_e^{CX}) + N_e^{CA1}P_{ee}^{CA1\text{-}REU}$

$J_{ee}^{CA1\text{-}REU}r(V_e^{CA1})$ (20)

The nonlinear equations of the model were solved using the fourth-order Runge–Kutta method

with a time step of 1 ms by MATLAB R2017b software.

Quantification and statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed using the MATLAB Statistics and Machine Learning Toolbox

(Mathworks Inc., Natick, MA, USA). Phase analysis was performed using the circular statistics

tool box developed by Berens (2009). The Rayleigh test was performed to determine the

uniformity in the phase preference of events. The Watson-Williams test was used to test the

inequality of phases. Polar plots showing phases, and mean phases were plotted using MATLAB.

Intracellular data was analyzed using JMP 5.01 software. Normality was assessed by normal

quantile plots and by the Shapiro-Wilk test. Homogeneity of variance was assessed by Levene's

test. Confidence intervals were set at 95% (p<0.05). ANOVA was used when data was normally

distributed and variance homogeneous, Welch ANOVA when variance was non-homogeneous.

To determine group differences in normally distributed data, Tukey's range test was used.

Otherwise, differences were assessed by non-parametric testing (van der Waerden test).

Standard deviations are reported as SD and the mean absolute deviation is reported as MAD.

Data and code availability

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be

fulfilled by the Lead Contact, Igor Timofeev (igor.timofeev@fmed.ulaval.ca). Original

electrophysiological recordings have been deposited at Mendeley Data and are publicly

available as of the date of publication.

The following data sets were generated

Basha, Diellor; Timofeev, Igor (2022), "Natural sleep electrophysiology: mPFC, thalamus,

hippocampus", Mendeley Data, V2, doi: 10.17632/4x27jjp9mv.2(Basha and Timofeev, 2022). In

the public domain at Mendeley Data, https://data.mendeley.com/datasets/4x27jjp9mv/2.

MATLAB code generated for this study is available at

https://github.com/DiellorBasha/MATLAB_for_Electrophysiology and

https://github.com/azarmehri/brain-network-interactions.

Tetrodes and stainless-steel electrodes manufactured in-house for this study are available from

the lead contact with a completed materials transfer agreement. This study did not generate

new unique reagents. Any additional information required to reanalyze the data reported in

this paper is available from the lead contact upon request.

 Key Resources Table

Key Resources Table				
Reagent type (species) or resource	**Designation**	**Source or reference**	**Identifiers**	**Additional information**
strain, cat (males and females)	Cat	Marshall BioResources	Marshall Cat, domestic short-hair	
software, algorithm	MATLAB	This paper	https://github.com/DiellorBasha/MATLAB_for_Electrophysiology	
software, algorithm	MATLAB	This paper	https://github.com/azarmehri/brain-network-interactions	
software, algorithm	Spike2 9.14	Cambridge Electronic Design	N/A	

software, algorithm	FieldTrip	Oostenveld et al., 2011	N/A	
software, algorithm	CircStat	Berens, P. 2009	N/A	
software, algorithm	UltraMegaSort2000 (ums2k)	Neurophysics Lab, UCSD	https://neurophysics.ucsd.edu/software.php	
software, algorithm	Freely Moving Animal (FMA) Toolbox		https://fmatoolbox.sourceforge.net/	
software, algorithm	LabChart 8	ADI Instruments	N/A	
software, algorithm	IgorPro 7	Wavemetrics	N/A	
software, algorithm	Canvas 11	ACDSee	N/A	
chemical compound, drug	DAPI	Invitrogen	D3571	
other, equipment	AM 3000 amplifiers	A-M systems	N/A	
other, equipment	PowerLab 35 Series Data Acquisition	ADI instruments	N/A	
other, equipment	Neurodata IR-283 amplifiers	Cygnus Technology	N/A	
other, equipment	Tetrodes	Custom, This paper	N/A	

References

Alizadeh, Z., Azimi, A., and Ghorbani, M. (2022). Enhancement of hippocampal-thalamocortical
temporal coordination during slow-frequency long-duration anterior thalamic spindles. J
Neurosci.
Azimi, A., Alizadeh, Z., and Ghorbani, M. (2021). The essential role of hippocampo-cortical
connections in temporal coordination of spindles and ripples. Neuroimage *243*, 118485.
Basha, D., and Timofeev, I. (2022). Natural sleep electrophysiology: mPFC, thalamus,
hippocampus (Mendeley Data).
Bazhenov, M., Timofeev, I., Steriade, M., and Sejnowski, T.J. (1999). Self-sustained rhythmic
activity in the thalamic reticular nucleus mediated by depolarizing GABAA receptor potentials.
Nat Neurosci *2*, 168-174.
Beckstead, R.M. (1979). An autoradiographic examination of corticocortical and subcortical
projections of the mediodorsal-projection (prefrontal) cortex in the rat. J Comp Neurol *184*, 43-
62.
Berens, P. (2009). CircStat: A Matlab Toolbox for Circular Statistics. Journal of Statistical
Software *31*.
Bertram, E.H., and Zhang, D.X. (1999). Thalamic excitation of hippocampal CA1 neurons: a
comparison with the effects of CA3 stimulation. Neuroscience *92*, 15-26.
Bonjean, M., Baker, T., Lemieux, M., Timofeev, I., Sejnowski, T., and Bazhenov, M. (2011).
Corticothalamic feedback controls sleep spindle duration in vivo. J Neurosci *31*, 9124-9134.
Bontempi, B., Laurent-Demir, C., Destrade, C., and Jaffard, R. (1999). Time-dependent
reorganization of brain circuitry underlying long-term memory storage. Nature *400*, 671-675.
Cavada, C., Llamas, A., and Reinoso-Suárez, F. (1983). Allocortical afferent connections of the
prefrontal cortex in the cat. Brain research *260*, 117-120.
Cavdar, S., Onat, F.Y., Cakmak, Y.O., Yananli, H.R., Gulcebi, M., and Aker, R. (2008). The
pathways connecting the hippocampal formation, the thalamic reuniens nucleus and the
thalamic reticular nucleus in the rat. Journal of anatomy *212*, 249-256.
Çavdar, S., Onat, F.Y., Çakmak, Y.Ö., Yananli, H.R., Gülçebi, M., and Aker, R. (2008). The
pathways connecting the hippocampal formation, the thalamic reuniens nucleus and the
thalamic reticular nucleus in the rat. Journal of anatomy *212*, 249-256.
CED (2021). Spike2 Version 10 fo Windows: Spike Sorting (Cambridge, England: Cambridge
Electronic Design).
Chang, H.T. (1953). Cortical response to activity of callosal neurons. J Neurophysiol *16*, 117-131.
Chauvette, S., Crochet, S., Volgushev, M., and Timofeev, I. (2011). Properties of Slow Oscillation
during Slow-Wave Sleep and Anesthesia in Cats. The Journal of Neuroscience *31*, 14998-15008.
Chauvette, S., Seigneur, J., and Timofeev, I. (2012). Sleep oscillations in the thalamocortical
system induce long-term neuronal plasticity. Neuron *75*, 1105-1113.
Contreras, D., and Steriade, M. (1996). Spindle oscillation in cats: the role of corticothalamic
feedback in a thalamically generated rhythm. J Physiol *490 (Pt 1)*, 159-179.
Contreras, D., Timofeev, I., and Steriade, M. (1996). Mechanisms of long-lasting
hyperpolarizations underlying slow sleep oscillations in cat corticothalamic networks. J Physiol
494 (Pt 1), 251-264.

Cornwall, J., Cooper, J.D., and Phillipson, O.T. (1990). Projections to the rostral reticular
thalamic nucleus in the rat. Experimental Brain Research *80*, 157-171.
Costa-Miserachs, D., Portell-Cortés, I., Torras-Garcia, M., and Morgado-Bernal, I. (2003).
Automated sleep staging in rat with a standard spreadsheet. Journal of neuroscience methods
130, 93-101.
Degenetais, E., Thierry, A.M., Glowinski, J., and Gioanni, Y. (2003). Synaptic influence of
hippocampus on pyramidal cells of the rat prefrontal cortex: an in vivo intracellular recording
study. Cereb Cortex *13*, 782-792.
Dehnavi, F., Koo-Poeggel, P.C., Ghorbani, M., and Marshall, L. (2021). Spontaneous slow
oscillation-slow spindle features predict induced overnight memory retention. Sleep *44*.
Delorme, A., and Makeig, S. (2004). EEGLAB: an open source toolbox for analysis of single-trial
EEG dynamics including independent component analysis. Journal of neuroscience methods
134, 9-21.
Di Prisco, G.V., and Vertes, R.P. (2006). Excitatory actions of the ventral midline thalamus
(rhomboid/reuniens) on the medial prefrontal cortex in the rat. Synapse *60*, 45-55.
Diekelmann, S., and Born, J. (2010). The memory function of sleep. Nature reviews
Neuroscience *11*, 114-126.
Dolleman-Van der Weel, M.J., Lopes da Silva, F.H., and Witter, M.P. (1997). Nucleus reuniens
thalami modulates activity in hippocampal field CA1 through excitatory and inhibitory
mechanisms. J Neurosci *17*, 5640-5650.
Fee, M.S., Mitra, P.P., and Kleinfeld, D. (1996). Automatic sorting of multiple unit neuronal
signals in the presence of anisotropic and non-Gaussian variability. J Neurosci Methods *69*, 175-
188.
Ferraris, M., Ghestem, A., Vicente, A.F., Nallet-Khosrofian, L., Bernard, C., and Quilichini, P.P.
(2018). The Nucleus Reuniens Controls Long-Range Hippocampo-Prefrontal Gamma
Synchronization during Slow Oscillations. The Journal of neuroscience : the official journal of
the Society for Neuroscience *38*, 3026.
Floresco, S.B., and Grace, A.A. (2003). Gating of hippocampal-evoked activity in prefrontal
cortical neurons by inputs from the mediodorsal thalamus and ventral tegmental area. J
Neurosci *23*, 3930-3943.
Frankland, P.W., and Bontempi, B. (2005). The organization of recent and remote memories.
Nature Reviews Neuroscience *6*, 119.
Fuentealba, P., Crochet, S., Timofeev, I., and Steriade, M. (2004). Synaptic interactions between
thalamic and cortical inputs onto cortical neurons in vivo. J Neurophysiol *91*, 1990-1998.
Ghorbani, M., Mehta, M., Bruinsma, R., and Levine, A.J. (2012). Nonlinear-dynamics theory of
up-down transitions in neocortical neural networks. Phys Rev E Stat Nonlin Soft Matter Phys *85*,
021908.
Gigg, J., Tan, A.M., and Finch, D.M. (1992). Glutamatergic excitatory responses of anterior
cingulate neurons to stimulation of the mediodorsal thalamus and their regulation by GABA: an
in vivo iontophoretic study. Cerebral cortex (New York, NY : 1991) *2*, 477-484.
Gigg, J., Tan, A.M., and Finch, D.M. (1994). Glutamatergic hippocampal formation projections to
prefrontal cortex in the rat are regulated by GABAergic inhibition and show convergence with
glutamatergic projections from the limbic thalamus. Hippocampus *4*, 189-198.

Gioanni, Y., Rougeot, C., Clarke, P.B., Lepouse, C., Thierry, A.M., and Vidal, C. (1999). Nicotinic
receptors in the rat prefrontal cortex: increase in glutamate release and facilitation of
mediodorsal thalamo-cortical transmission. The European journal of neuroscience *11*, 18-30.
Goldman-Rakic, P.S., Selemon, L.D., and Schwartz, M.L. (1984). Dual pathways connecting the
dorsolateral prefrontal cortex with the hippocampal formation and parahippocampal cortex in
the rhesus monkey. Neuroscience *12*, 719-743.
Groh, A., Bokor, H., Mease, R.A., Plattner, V.M., Hangya, B., Stroh, A., Deschenes, M., and
Acsády, L. (2014). Convergence of Cortical and Sensory Driver Inputs on Single Thalamocortical
Cells. Cerebral Cortex *24*, 3167-3179.
Hashemi, N.S., Dehnavi, F., Moghimi, S., and Ghorbani, M. (2019). Slow spindles are associated
with cortical high frequency activity. Neuroimage *189*, 71-84.
Herkenham, M. (1978). The connections of the nucleus reuniens thalami: evidence for a direct
thalamo-hippocampal pathway in the rat. J Comp Neurol *177*, 589-610.
Hur, E.E., and Zaborszky, L. (2005). Vglut2 afferents to the medial prefrontal and primary
somatosensory cortices: a combined retrograde tracing in situ hybridization study [corrected]. J
Comp Neurol *483*, 351-373.
Irle, E., and Markowitsch, H.J. (1982). Widespread cortical projections of the hippocampal
formation in the cat. Neuroscience *7*, 2637-2647.
Isomura, Y., Sirota, A., Özen, S., Montgomery, S., Mizuseki, K., Henze, D.A., and Buzsáki, G.
(2006). Integration and Segregation of Activity in Entorhinal-Hippocampal Subregions by
Neocortical Slow Oscillations. Neuron *52*, 871-882.
Jahnsen, H., and Llinás, R. (1984). Electrophysiological properties of guinea-pig thalamic
neurones: an *in vitro* study. J Physiol *349*, 205-226.
Jay, T.M., Thierry, A.M., Wiklund, L., and Glowinski, J. (1992). Excitatory Amino Acid Pathway
from the Hippocampus to the Prefrontal Cortex. Contribution of AMPA Receptors in
Hippocampo-prefrontal Cortex Transmission. Eur J Neurosci *4*, 1285-1295.
Jay, T.M., and Witter, M.P. (1991). Distribution of hippocampal CA1 and subicular efferents in
the prefrontal cortex of the rat studied by means of anterograde transport of Phaseolus
vulgaris-leucoagglutinin. J Comp Neurol *313*, 574-586.
Klinzing, J.G., Mölle, M., Weber, F., Supp, G., Hipp, J.F., Engel, A.K., and Born, J. (2016). Spindle
activity phase-locked to sleep slow oscillations. Neuroimage *134*, 607-616.
Kolmac, C.I., and Mitrofanis, J. (1997). Organisation of the reticular thalamic projection to the
intralaminar and midline nuclei in rats. Journal of Comparative Neurology *377*, 165-178.
Latchoumane, C.-F.V., Ngo, H.-V.V., Born, J., and Shin, H.-S. (2017). Thalamic Spindles Promote
Memory Formation during Sleep through Triple Phase-Locking of Cortical, Thalamic, and
Hippocampal Rhythms. Neuron *95*, 424-435.e426.
Levenstein, D., Buzsáki, G., and Rinzel, J. (2019). NREM sleep in the rodent neocortex and
hippocampus reflects excitable dynamics. Nature communications *10*, 2478.
Lipski, J. (1981). Antidromic activation of neurones as an analytic tool in the study of the central
nervous system. J Neurosci Methods *4*, 1-32.
Maingret, N., Girardeau, G., Todorova, R., Goutierre, M., and Zugaro, M. (2016). Hippocampo-
cortical coupling mediates memory consolidation during sleep. Nature Neuroscience *19*.
Mansvelder, H.D., Mertz, M., and Role, L.W. (2009). Nicotinic modulation of synaptic
transmission and plasticity in cortico-limbic circuits. Semin Cell Dev Biol *20*, 432-440.

McKenna, J.T., and Vertes, R.P. (2004). Afferent projections to nucleus reuniens of the
thalamus. J Comp Neurol *480*, 115-142.
Nadim, F., and Bucher, D. (2014). Neuromodulation of neurons and synapses. Current Opinion
in Neurobiology *29*, 48-56.
Ohtake, T., and Yamada, H. (1989). Efferent connections of the nucleus reuniens and the
rhomboid nucleus in the rat: an anterograde PHA-L tracing study. Neurosci Res *6*, 556-568.
Oostenveld, R., Fries, P., Maris, E., and Schoffelen, J.M. (2011). FieldTrip: Open source software
for advanced analysis of MEG, EEG, and invasive electrophysiological data. Comput Intell
Neurosci *2011*, 156869.
Pirot, S., Glowinski, J., and Thierry, A.M. (1995). Excitatory responses evoked in prefrontal
cortex by mediodorsal thalamic nucleus stimulation: influence of anaesthesia. Eur J Pharmacol
285, 45-54.
Rajasethupathy, P., Sankaran, S., Marshel, J.H., Kim, C.K., Ferenczi, E., Lee, S.Y., Berndt, A.,
Ramakrishnan, C., Jaffe, A., Lo, M., *et al.* (2015). Projections from neocortex mediate top-down
control of memory retrieval. Nature *526*, 653-659.
Ramanathan, K.R., and Maren, S. (2019). Nucleus reuniens mediates the extinction of
contextual fear conditioning. Behav Brain Res *374*, 112114.
Ramanathan, K.R., Ressler, R.L., Jin, J., and Maren, S. (2018). Nucleus Reuniens Is Required for
Encoding and Retrieving Precise, Hippocampal-Dependent Contextual Fear Memories in Rats. J
Neurosci *38*, 9925-9933.
Reep, R.L., Corwin, J.V., Hashimoto, A., and Watson, R.T. (1987). Efferent connections of the
rostral portion of medial agranular cortex in rats. Brain Res Bull *19*, 203-221.
Reinoso-Suárez, F. (1961). Topographischer Hirnatlas der Katze für experimental-physiologische
Untersuchungen (Darmstadt: Merck).
Robbins, T.W. (2005). Chemistry of the mind: neurochemical modulation of prefrontal cortical
function. J Comp Neurol *493*, 140-146.
Robertson, R.T., and Kaitz, S.S. (1981). Thalamic connections with limbic cortex. I.
Thalamocortical projections. J Comp Neurol *195*, 501-525.
Room, P., Russchen, F.T., Groenewegen, H.J., and Lohman, A.H. (1985). Efferent connections of
the prelimbic (area 32) and the infralimbic (area 25) cortices: an anterograde tracing study in
the cat. J Comp Neurol *242*, 40-55.
Sheroziya, M., and Timofeev, I. (2014). Global intracellular slow-wave dynamics of the
thalamocortical system. J Neurosci *34*, 8875-8893.
Siapas, A.G., Lubenov, E.V., and Wilson, M.A. (2005). Prefrontal Phase Locking to Hippocampal
Theta Oscillations. Neuron *46*, 141-151.
Siapas, A.G., and Wilson, M.A. (1998). Coordinated interactions between hippocampal ripples
and cortical spindles during slow-wave sleep. Neuron *21*, 1123-1128.
Souza, B.C., Lopes-Dos-Santos, V., Bacelo, J., and Tort, A.B.L. (2019). Spike sorting with Gaussian
mixture models. Sci Rep *9*, 3627.
Staresina, B.P., Bergmann, T.O., Bonnefond, M., van der Meij, R., Jensen, O., Deuker, L., Elger,
C.E., Axmacher, N., and Fell, J. (2015). Hierarchical nesting of slow oscillations, spindles and
ripples in the human hippocampus during sleep. Nat Neurosci *18*, 1679-1686.
Steriade, M., Domich, L., Oakson, G., and Deschenes, M. (1987). The deafferented reticular
thalamic nucleus generates spindle rhythmicity. J Neurophysiol *57*, 260-273.

Swanson, L.W. (1981). A direct projection from Ammon's horn to prefrontal cortex in the rat.
Brain Res *217*, 150-154.
Takagishi, M., and Chiba, T. (1991). Efferent projections of the infralimbic (area 25) region of
the medial prefrontal cortex in the rat: an anterograde tracer PHA-L study. Brain research *566*,
26-39.
Tierney, P.L., Dégenètais, E., Thierry, A.M., Glowinski, J., and Gioanni, Y. (2004). Influence of the
hippocampus on interneurons of the rat prefrontal cortex. The European journal of
neuroscience *20*, 514-524.
Timofeev, I., and Chauvette, S. (2019). Chapter 29 - Sleep-Wake and Cortical Synaptic Plasticity.
In Handbook of Behavioral Neuroscience, H.C. Dringenberg, ed. (Elsevier), pp. 443-454.
Timofeev, I., Grenier, F., and Steriade, M. (2001). Disfacilitation and active inhibition in the
neocortex during the natural sleep-wake cycle: an intracellular study. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A
98, 1924-1929.
Vertes, R.P., Hoover, W.B., Do Valle, A.C., Sherman, A., and Rodriguez, J.J. (2006). Efferent
projections of reuniens and rhomboid nuclei of the thalamus in the rat. The Journal of
Comparative Neurology *499*, 768-796.
Vertes, R.P., Hoover, W.B., Szigeti-Buck, K., and Leranth, C. (2007). Nucleus reuniens of the
midline thalamus: link between the medial prefrontal cortex and the hippocampus. Brain Res
Bull *71*, 601-609.
Walsh, D.A., Brown, J.T., and Randall, A.D. (2017). In vitro characterization of cell-level
neurophysiological diversity in the rostral nucleus reuniens of adult mice. The Journal of
Physiology *595*, 3549-3572.
Williams, G.V., and Goldman-Rakic, P.S. (1995). Modulation of memory fields by dopamine D1
receptors in prefrontal cortex. Nature *376*, 572-575.
Wilson, M.A., and McNaughton, B.L. (1994). Reactivation of hippocampal ensemble memories
during sleep. Science *265*, 676-679.
Xu, W., and Sudhof, T.C. (2013). A neural circuit for memory specificity and generalization.
Science *339*, 1290-1295.
Yang, M., Logothetis, N.K., and Eschenko, O. (2019). Occurrence of Hippocampal Ripples is
Associated with Activity Suppression in the Mediodorsal Thalamic Nucleus. The Journal of
Neuroscience *39*, 434.
Zugaro, M., Todorova, R., Girardeau, G., Cei, A., and El Kanbi, K. (2022). FMAToolbox.

Figures

Figure 1 Differential synaptic responses of mPFC neurons to ventral hippocampal and

reuniens stimulation

A. Schematic of experimental setup: intracellular recordings of the mPFC were

972   obtained in vivo during targeted stimulation of the ventral hippocampus and

973   reuniens (top). Representative segment of intracellular recordings of the mPFC and

974   proximal prefrontal LFP recorded in vivo during anesthesia (bottom).

975   B. Electrolytic lesions at stimulation sites in the ventral hippocampus (top) and midline

976   thalamus (bottom) in Nissl-stained coronal sections.

977   C. mPFC synaptic responses to ventral hippocampal stimulation (top) and reuniens

978   stimulation (bottom), recorded from same neuron, 5.2 mm ventral from the cortical

979   surface. Note, variable, complex responses to hippocampal stimulation (top) and

980   rapid, consistent responses to reuniens stimulation (bottom).

981   D. Location of recorded cells, estimated according to the dorsoventral position of the

982   recording pipette with respect to the cortical surface.

983   E. Heterogeneous postsynaptic potential responses of a single mPFC neuron to

984   consecutive ventral hippocampal stimulation (left): early double depolarizing

985   response (top), early single response (middle), and no response (bottom). Reversal

986   of early response with progressive depolarization (right), indicates involvement of

987            $GABA_A$-mediated inhibition (n=5 pulses at each voltage).

988   F. Intracellular responses to single pulse stimulation of the reuniens nucleus were

989   orthodromic (left, n=17 neurons), antidromic (middle, n=2 neurons) or both

990   orthodromic and antidromic (right, n=1 neuron), consistent with bidirectional

connectivity between the reuniens and the mPFC. Jitter in response latency

characterized orthodromic spikes (bottom, left), compared to the consistent timing

of antidromic spikes (bottom, middle) that were further confirmed with collision

tests (not shown).

G. Population data (n=49 neurons from 15 acute animals, mean ± SD), depicting the

response properties of mPFC neurons to ventral hippocampal and reuniens

stimulation: response latency (6.05±3.6 ms and 9.95±4.6 ms for reuniens and

hippocampal stimulation, respectively, t-test, p<0.01), response amplitude (3.1±2.0

mV and 8.4±4.1 mV for reuniens and hippocampal stimulation, respectively, t-test,

p<0.01), slope of the early postsynaptic potential (0.56±0.27 V/s and 1.9±0.9 V/s for

reuniens and hippocampal stimulation, respectively, t-test, p<0.01) and duration of

the late, hyperpolarizing component (254±108 ms and 278±94 ms for reuniens and

hippocampal stimulation, respectively, p=0.2, t-test).

H. Schematic of experimental setup illustrating targeted stimulation of the ventral

hippocampus and reuniens and field responses recorded from the mPFC at 1 mm

intervals along the medial wall of the pericruciate gyrus, prefrontal cortex (top).

Evidence for antidromic field responses elicited by reuniens stimulation: short-

latency, depth-negative events (bottom, left) compared to orthodromic responses

lacking this event (bottom, right).

I. Topography of mPFC responses to hippocampal and reuniens stimulation.

Stimulation of the reuniens evoked field responses in a wider prefrontal territory

than ventral hippocampal stimulation. Traces show the average mPFC field response

to 10 pulses (0.2 ms, 0.3-1.5 mA at 1 Hz). Regions where ventral hippocampal

stimulation elicited responses overlapped with regions where reuniens stimulation

elicited antidromic responses (grey shading, stars indicate traces expanded in Figure

1H, bottom). Ch1 was the most anterior electrode and was inserted at AP26.

Channels were 1 mm apart in the antero-posterior axis.

Data are presented as mean ± SD; *p < 0.05, **p <0.01, ***p<0.001 (paired t-tests). *Reu -*

reuniens, RH – rhomboid, CE – central, pars medialis, fht – hypothalamic-tegmental fasciculus

1020

1021

    Figure 2 Reuniens activity and ventral hippocampal SWRs precede the onset of mPFC spindles

1023

A. Schematic of experimental setup illustrating LFP recordings of the ventral hippocampus

and mPFC and targeted spike/LFP recordings of the reuniens during natural sleep.

B. A segment of LFP recordings of the mPFC, reuniens and ventral hippocampus during

wake, NREM and REM states. For simplicity, we have chosen a segment with wake

followed by unusually short NREM, followed by REM. Sleep/wake states were detected

according to mPFC delta (1-4 Hz) power, mPFC signal amplitude and nuchal muscle

activity (EMG).

C. The average power spectrum of LFP recordings in detected states, showing high gamma

power in the mPFC during wake, high delta, and spindle power in the mPFC during

NREM and high theta power in the ventral hippocampus during REM (n=52 recording

sessions from 4 animals).

D. Muscle activity in detected wake, NREM and REM states. The red line in boxplot

indicates the median, box limits represent the first and third quartile and whiskers

indicate data range. ***p<0.001; *post-hoc* Tukey test after one-way ANOVA, n=52

recording sessions (4 chronic animals).

E. Representative segment of LFP recordings during NREM with corresponding wavelet

transforms of the signal, showing the correlated activity of mPFC slow waves, spindles,

ventral hippocampal SWRs (top and bottom) and reuniens multi-unit activity (middle).

The frequency axes for wavelet transforms are plotted in logarithmic scale.

F. Representative example of overlapping reuniens and mPFC spindles. Blue lines indicate

automatically detected spindles in reuniens and mPFC LFPs.

G. The relative onset of reuniens spindles with respect to the onset of mPFC spindles in 100

ms bins (top). The black arrow indicates the median delay time (median ± mean

absolute deviation [MAD] = -0.147±0.556s, Wilcoxon signed rank test, p = 6.13 x 10^{-15},

n=346). The distribution of median delay times between each reuniens-mPFC spindle

pair for each recording in 20 ms bins (bottom, median = -0.083 s, n=49 sessions).

H. Reuniens single-unit activity relative to the phase of mPFC spindle cycles, aligned to

mPFC spindle peaks. The average prefrontal LFP during spindles, filtered in the spindle

frequency range (top left). Spike raster and the associated peri-event histogram of a

representative reuniens single-unit during the above mPFC spindle (bottom left, 10 ms

bins). Phase-locking of the same reuniens single-unit to mPFC spindle cycles (top right,

n=351 phases, p = 9.120 x 10^{-29}, Rayleigh test) and the mean phase preference of all

significantly modulated reuniens single-units (bottom right, n= 24/49 single-units from 4

chronic animals, mean ± SD = -80.87 ± 41.64°, p = 2.942 x 10^{-7}, Rayleigh test).

I. Reuniens single-unit activity relative to the phase of reuniens spindle cycles. Same

analysis as in H but referenced to reuniens spindles in one session (n=451 phases, p =

8.048 x 10^{-18}, Rayleigh test) and population data (n= 29/49 single-units from 4 chronic

animals, mean ± SD = -118.25 ± 47.72°, p = 1.047 x 10^{-6}, Rayleigh test). Polar histograms

indicate the normalized count of LFP phases at spike time. The black line indicates the

mean phase angle of the associated histogram. Spikes occurred at earlier phases

referenced to reuniens spindles compared to mPFC spindles (p = 0.010, Watson-

Williams test).

J. The amplitude of spindles detected in the mPFC versus the amplitude of the nearest

reuniens spindle in one recording session (top, n=343 spindles, r=0.54, p = 3.22 x10^{-27},

Pearson correlation) and the value of coefficients (r) in mPFC-reuniens amplitude

correlations for all sessions (bottom, n=48 sessions with at least 50 spindles).

K. The amplitude of spindles detected in the reuniens versus the amplitude of the nearest

mPFC spindle in one recording session (top, n=428 spindles, r=0.47, p = 8.61 x10^{-25},

Pearson correlation) and the value of coefficients (r) for reuniens-mPFC amplitude

correlations for all sessions (n= 48 sessions with at least 50 spindles).

L. The average change in LFP power during mPFC spindles (n=3162) relative to baseline,

referenced to spindle onset, showing increased ventral hippocampal ripple power, and

increased reuniens spindle power prior to the onset of spindles in the mPFC (top).

Histogram of SWR rate in the same time window, referenced to the onset of the same

mPFC spindles as above (middle). Compared to shuffled data, SWR rate was significantly

higher in the 250 ms window prior to the onset of mPFC spindles (t-test, p<0.05). Raster

of reuniens multi-unit activity for a single recording session (n=86 spindles) and the

population peri-event histogram (n=3162 spindles), referenced to the onset of mPFC

spindles. Grey in histograms represents standard error.

See also Figure 2 -figure supplement 1 for unit detection.

1084

1085

Figure 3 Slow wave-spindle and slow wave-SWR coupling in the mPFC-reuniens-hippocampal

network

A. A single trial of a slow wave-spindle event, showing raw and filtered for spindle LFP

traces of the mPFC (top) and reuniens (bottom).

B. Phase-amplitude coupling of mPFC spindles and mPFC slow waves, shown as the

average time-frequency representation of mPFC amplitudes in the spindle frequency

range, locked to the peak of the mPFC slow wave (percentage change from pre-event

baseline, n = 626 slow waves).

C. Phase-amplitude coupling of reuniens spindles and mPFC slow waves, shown as the

average time-frequency representations of reuniens amplitudes, locked to the peak of

the same mPFC slow waves as in B (percentage change from pre-event baseline, n = 626

slow waves). Black curves in B and C show the average of the mPFC LFP, filtered in the

slow wave frequency range (0.5-2Hz).

D. Histogram of slow wave–spindle coupling strengths for mPFC slow waves-mPFC spindles

(blue) and mPFC slow wave-reuniens spindles (green). Vertical lines indicate the median

of the distributions (median ± MAD, SI strength = 0.18 ± 0.09 and 0.24 ± 0.11 for mPFC

and reuniens spindles, respectively, p = 2.126 x 10^{-17}, Wilcoxon signed rank test).

E. Slow wave-spindle coupling strength of mPFC-mPFC pairs versus mPFC-reuniens pairs (n

= 49 sessions, p = 3.39 x 10^{-2}, Wilcoxon signed rank test). Each circle represents one

session.

F. Population data showing the relative preference of spindles to the phase of the mPFC

slow wave, shown as a histogram of SI angle means for mPFC slow wave- mPFC spindle

coupling and mPFC slow wave-reuniens spindle coupling (mean ± SD = 27.92 ± 37.59°, p

= 4.661 x 10^{-9}, n=26 and mean ± SD = -108.48 ± 21.17°, p = 1.278 x 10^{-20}, n = 36, for

mPFC and reuniens respectively, Rayleigh test).

G. A single trial of an overlapping slow waves, showing raw and filtered LFP traces of the

mPFC (top) and reuniens (bottom). Circles indicate slow wave peaks.

H. Single session data, showing the distribution of delays between reuniens and mPFC slow

waves (vertical dashed line). Reuniens slow waves lagged mPFC slow waves (median ±

MAD = 0.126 ± 0.043 s, p = 3.66 x 10^{-15}, n = 82, Wilcoxon signed rank test).

I. Population data of median delay times between each reuniens-mPFC slow wave pair

(n=49 sessions, median of the distribution = 0.136 s).

J. Single-trial of raw mPFC and raw and filtered for ripples ventral hippocampal LFPs

during one overlapping slow wave-SWR event. Inset shows an expanded view of the

detected SWR.

K. Circular histogram of mPFC slow wave phases at the time of SWRs (mean phase ± SD =

162.7 ± 29.37°, p = 5.02 x 10^{-6}, Rayleigh test).

*p < 0.05, **p <0.01, ***p<0.001.

See also Figure 3 – figure supplement 1 for spindle-SWR coupling.

1126

1127

1128

1129   **Figure 4 Ventral hippocampal theta oscillations and SWRs modulate reuniens activity**

1130

1131   A. Representative example of LFP recordings of the ventral hippocampus, mPFC and

1132   reuniens during REM sleep (top three traces) and the bandpassed (300-8000 Hz) trace of

1133   the reuniens signal showing multiunit activity. Wavelet spectrogram of the hippocampal

1134   trace, showing prominent theta-band activity during REM. The frequency axis is

1135   logarithmic.

1136  B. Expanded view of the recording epoch in the dotted-line box in panel A (left), further

1137    expanded in time (right), showing occasional locking of reuniens multi-unit activity to

1138    ventral hippocampal theta cycles.

1139  C. Peri-event histogram of a representative reuniens single-unit, referenced to the peak of

1140    ventral hippocampal theta cycles (top). The raster is ordered according to the peak-to-

1141    peak latency, with short periods at the bottom and long periods at the top. Dark black

1142    dots indicate the timing of the next peak in the trial. The light blue trace is the average

1143    waveform of the hippocampal LFP.

1144  D. Circular histogram of theta phase at the time of reuniens spikes, showing significant

1145    phase-locking of a reuniens single-unit activity to ventral hippocampal theta cycles

1146    (same single-unit as in C, n = 5207 spikes, $p<10^{-20}$, Rayleigh test).

1147  E. Population data, showing peri-event histograms referenced to the peak of ventral

1148    hippocampal theta cycles as in B (n=36 single units). Units above the white line were

1149    significantly modulated by hippocampal theta cycles.

1150  F. Population data, showing the circular distribution of reuniens firing relative to theta

1151    cycles for all modulated single units (n = 21/36 single-units, mean ± SD = -124.5 ± 59.8 °,

1152    p = 0.011, Rayleigh test).

G. Single session data, showing power spectra of mPFC, reuniens and ventral hippocampal

signals during REM with prominent peaks in the theta range.

H. Single session data, showing signal coherence between mPFC-hippocampus, reuniens-

hippocampus and mPFC-reuniens recording pairs during REM.

I. Single session data, showing cross-correlations and relative time lags of reuniens-

hippocampus and mPFC-hippocampus recording pairs during REM.

J. mPFC signals lagged ventral hippocampal theta signal by longer delay than reuniens

signals lagged hippocampus (top, mean lag ± SD = 87.8 ± 55.5 ms and 109.1 ± 41.52 for

reuniens and mPFC, respectively, n=20 sessions, p=0.002, t-test). Peak cross-correlation

coefficients were significantly higher for reuniens-Hippocampus recording pairs than for

reuniens-mPFC (bottom, mean peak value ± SD = 0.44 ± 0.13 and 0.22 ± 0.07 for

reuniens and mPFC respectively=20 sessions, t-test, $p<10^{-20}$).

K. Representative LFP recordings of the ventral hippocampus and of reuniens multiunit

activity during NREM sleep. Light blue traces show the bandpass filtered hippocampal

recording in the ripple band (150-200 Hz). Light green shows multiunit activity in

reuniens during SWR. Expanded view of a single SWR from the recording epoch in the

dotted-line box and multiunit activity in reuniens.

L. Peri-event analysis of reuniens spiking activity around SWRs in one recording session.

The time frequency representation shows the mean wavelet transform of 458 detected

SWRs, estimated by Morlet wavelets (top). Overlayed traces show the grand average

LFP in the ventral hippocampus (white) and reuniens (green), referenced to the onset of

the SWR. Raster of reuniens spikes (every 10th sweep) and associated peri-event spike

histogram, referenced to the onset of the SWR (bottom).

M. Proportion of reuniens single-units modulated by SWRs (10/49 activated, 16/49

suppressed).

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

1179

1180

1181   **Figure 5 Multiregional temporal interactions during NREM sleep events in a hippocampal-**

1182   **thalamocortical model**

1183

A. The model is composed of two cortical networks (N 1 & 2, representing mPFC layers 5

and 6 respectively), two hippocampal (CA1-CA3) networks and three thalamic nuclei.

The three thalamic networks represent the nucleus reuniens (Reu), mediodorsal

thalamic nucleus (MD) and thalamic reticular nucleus (TRN). The cortical and

hippocampal networks are composed of one group of identical excitatory (E) and one

group of identical inhibitory (I) neurons. Excitatory synaptic connections are shown by

arrows and inhibitory connections are indicated as lines ending in a dot.

B. From top to bottom: broadband and filtered (7-15 Hz, 0.5-2 Hz) traces of the membrane

potential of excitatory neurons of cortical network 1 (light blue) and 2 (dark blue) with

detected spindles (black horizontal lines) and slow waves (circles); broadband and

filtered (7-15 Hz, 0.5-2 Hz) traces of the membrane potential of reuniens neurons (blue-

green) with detected spindles and slow waves; broadband trace of the membrane

potential and firing rate of MD (light green) and reticular neurons (dark green);

broadband and filtered (150-200 Hz) traces of the membrane potential of excitatory

neurons of the CA1 network (light blue) with detected SWRs (stars).

C. Distribution of thalamic slow wave troughs (down states) locked to the cortical slow

wave trough (vertical dashed line at zero) occurring within ±0.5 s plotted in 20 ms bins in

the model. The arrow indicates the median of the distribution (n = 277, median ± MAD =

0.113 ± 0.019 s). Thalamic slow waves occur significantly later than cortical slow waves

($p < 10^{-20}$, Wilcoxon signed rank test).

D. Distribution of thalamic spindle onsets locked to the cortical spindle onset (vertical

dashed line at zero) occurring within ±2 s plotted in 100 ms bins for one session. The

arrow indicates the median of the distribution (n = 211, median ± MAD = -0.102 ± 0.387

s). Thalamic spindles occur significantly earlier than cortical spindles (p = 1.30×10^{-7},

Wilcoxon signed rank test).

E. Phase-amplitude coupling of slow waves and spindles, calculated from the average

time-frequency representation of amplitudes in the spindle frequency range, locked to

the trough of the mPFC slow wave. Left, average of cortical slow wave trough-locked

time-frequency representations (n =391) of the membrane potential of mPFC excitatory

neurons (top) and reuniens neurons (bottom). Black curves represent grand average

filtered membrane potential of cortical excitatory neurons in the slow wave frequency

range (0.5-2 Hz) aligned to the cortical slow wave trough (time 0). Right, circular

histogram of synchronization index (SI) angles of cortical (top) and reuniens (bottom)

spindles relative to the cortical slow waves. SI angles were nonuniformly distributed

(mean ± SD = 148.7 ± 23.9°, $p < 10^{-20}$ and mean ± SD = 27.4 ± 20.4°, $p < 10^{-20}$, for mPFC

and reuniens respectively, Rayleigh test, n=391 slow waves).

F. Histogram of the slow wave–spindle coupling strengths (the absolute value of the

synchronization index) for mPFC (blue) and reuniens (green) spindles. Vertical lines

show the median of the distribution (p = 8.45×10^{-9}, Wilcoxon signed rank test, median

± MAD SI strength = 0.58 ± 0.11 and 0.66 ± 0.15 for mPFC and reuniens, respectively).

G. Average filtered membrane potential of cortical, reuniens and CA1 excitatory neurons,

in the slow wave frequency range (0.5-2 Hz), aligned to the cortical slow wave trough

(time 0).

H. Distribution of slow wave phases at the time of the SWRs. Zero phase shows the peak

(up state) of slow waves (n = 714, mean ± SD = -24.97 ± 62.01°, $p < 10^{-20}$, Rayleigh test).

I. Average membrane potential of the mPFC, reuniens and CA1 excitatory neurons aligned

to the SWR peaks.

J. Average membrane potential of the mPFC (top) and reuniens (middle) neurons and

histogram of SWR incidence (bottom), aligned to the onset of cortical spindles.

*p < 0.05, **p <0.01, ***p<0.001.

1234

1235

 Figure 6 Bidirectional projections between the reuniens and CA1 control multiregional

interactions

A. Left, correlation between reuniens and CA1 membrane potentials during SWRs

(maximum value of the covariance between reuniens and CA1 membrane potentials ±

0.5 s around the SWR peak) versus the CA1-reuniens and reuniens-CA1 connection

strengths (and   show the factor multiplied to   and

representing the strength of the input from CA1 to reuniens and from

reuniens to excitatory neurons of CA1 respectively.   =   = 1

corresponds to the network shown in **Figure 5**). Right, average traces of the reuniens

and CA1 membrane potentials aligned to the SWR peaks for 3 different values of CA1-

reuniens connection strengths.

B. Left, SWR rate preceding the cortical spindle onset (peak-to-trough of the histogram of

SWR incidence in a window of -1 s before the spindle onset) versus the CA1-reuniens

and reuniens-CA1 connection strengths. Right, histogram of SWR incidence time-locked

to the onset of cortical spindles for 3 different values of CA1-reuniens projection

strengths.

C.	Left, peak-to-trough of the CA1 deflections around cortical slow wave trough (± 1 s)

versus the CA1-reuniens and reuniens-CA1 connection strengths. Right, average filtered

membrane potential of cortical, and CA1 excitatory neurons, in the slow wave frequency

range (0.5-2 Hz) aligned to the cortical slow wave trough (time 0) for 3 different values

of CA1-reuniens connection strengths.

D.	Left, mean slow wave phase at the time of SWRs versus the CA1-reuniens and reuniens-

CA1 connection strengths. Mean phases are shown only for bins with nonuniformly

distributed of phases (p < 0.05, Rayleigh test) and omitted for uniformly distributed

phase (white boxes). Right, histogram of slow wave phases at the time of SWRs for 3

different values of CA1-reuniens connection strengths, showing decreasing mean phase

with increasing CA1-reuniens connections strength (p = 4.28 x 10^{-8}, p = 7.53 x 10^{-15} and p

= 2.53 x 10^{-39} for $\alpha_{ee}^{CA1-Reu}$ = 0.2, 1.1 and 3.0, respectively).

1265

1266 **Figure 2 – figure supplement 1 Single-unit detection method from tetrode recordings**

1267

A. Illustrative example of reuniens LFPs with spiking activity, recorded by 4 closely-spaced

electrodes in tetrode configuration. Recordings show the bandpass (300-8000 Hz)

filtered traces of from 4 channels and detected spikes.

B. Average waveforms of detected spikes, sorted according to clustering of waveform

features extracted from the each of the 4 channels.

C. Example of feature clustering for the same recording session as above, showing the

principal components 1 versus principal component 2. Clusters were determined by a

Gaussian mixture model and further refined by removing spikes with large Mahalanobis

distance. Separated clusters indicate three classes of spike waveforms, presumed to

have been generated by three distinct neurons (purple, green and pink).

D. Cluster separation for trough values for the same session as above.

E.   Cluster separation for the peak-to-trough values for the same session as above.

1280

1281 **Figure 3 – figure supplement 1 Spindle-SWR phase locking**

1282

A. Assessment of SWR phase-locking to reuniens spindle cycles for sessions with significant

(top) and not significant (bottom) phase-locking. The TFR shows the average ventral

hippocampal LFP in the ripple band, as percent change from pre-event baseline,

referenced to the peak of the reuniens spindle (time 0) . Green curve shows grand

average of the reuniens LFP, filtered in the spindle frequency range (7-15 Hz).

B. Circular histogram of SI angles of SWR amplitude relative to reuniens spindle phase for

the same two sessions as in A, showing significant (p = 0.009, Rayleigh test) and not

significant phase-locking (p = 0.893, Rayleigh test)

C. Proportion of recording sessions with significant SWR-reuniens spindle coupling phase.

D. Population data of sessions with significant SWR-reuniens spindle coupling phase,

showing the phase histogram of SWR amplitude with respect to spindle cycles and the

mean phase preference (black line, n = 10).

E.   The same as D for SWR-mPFC spindle coupling (n = 3).

1296

1297   **Table 1 Spindle-SWR coupling, p-values per session.**

Recording Session	Recording Duration (s)	Sleep Duration (s)	**mPFC-hipp** p-val.	**Reu-hipp** p-val.
Amande_Day6S2	5888	1460	0.273	0.786
Amande_Day7S1	8210	720	0.726	0.718
Amande_Day7S2	3573	2180	0.74	0.204
Amande_Day8S1	8343	720	0.202	**0.022**
Amande_Day8S2	5734	1900	0.505	0.927
Amande_Day8S3	5693	1420	0.65	0.725
Amande_Day9S1	4543	660	**0.039**	0.875
Amande_Day9S2	4413	1560	0.757	0.866
Amande_Day9S3	4943	3640	0.964	0.066
Amande_Day10S1	3163	240	0.318	0.772
Amande_Day10S2	6488	4560	0.767	0.152
Amande_Day11S1	3033	440	0.068	0.429
Amande_Day11S2	9016	4710	0.594	**0.019**
Cocotte_Day4S1	6763	1900	0.155	0.034
Cocotte_Day4S2	4033	1000	0.081	0.505
Cocotte_Day5S1	6423	1720	0.975	0.427
Cocotte_Day6S1	6043	580	0.72	**0.013**
Cocotte_Day6S2	6033	1780	0.429	0.571

Cocotte_Day7S1	5965	2160	0.494	0.681
Cocotte_Day7S2	4190	1580	0.617	0.78
Cocotte_Day7S3	5495	2700	0.91	0.139
Cocotte_Day8S1	8389	5480	0.449	**6.36E-04**
Cocotte_Day8S2	6578	4700	0.476	**0.019**
Cocotte_Day8S3	2588	720	0.798	0.619
Cocotte_Day9S1	10073	6520	0.937	0.174
Cocotte_Day9S2	5289	2740	0.581	**0.046**
Cocotte_Day10S1	4583	480	0.142	0.957
Cocotte_Day10S2	5953	4100	0.358	0.624
Cocotte_Day10S3	6018	2280	0.667	0.386
Cocotte_Day11S1	14023	9680	0.055	0.104
Cocotte_Day12S1	9863	6840	0.646	0.928
Garfield_Day4S2	3428	940	0.187	0.234
Garfield_Day4S3	4753	1720	**0.003**	0.013
Garfield_Day5S1	8439	1920	0.737	0.345
Garfield_Day5S2	6464	2680	0.123	0.557
Garfield_Day6S1	8073	2080	0.396	0.781
Garfield_Day6S2	7073	4400	0.065	0.895
Garfield_Day7S1	8623	2700	0.619	0.494
Garfield_Day7S2	6664	4360	0.277	**0.002**
Garfield_Day8S1	4884	340	0.775	0.929
Garfield_Day8S2	5468	2520	0.556	0.237

Garfield_Day8S3	4438	3020	0.497	0.319
Garfield_Day9S1	4438	2980	0.3	0.248
Garfield_Day9S2	4568	1780	0.321	0.43
Garfield_Day9S3	6329	3680	**0.029**	**0.013**
Garfield_Day10S1	7068	840	0.719	0.409
Garfield_Day10S2	1089	120	0.459	0.135
Garfield_Day11S1	6684	1980	0.857	0.258
Garfield_Day12S1	5893	1520	0.538	0.971
Garfield_Day12S2	7503	3360	0.633	0.701
Garfield_Day13S1	3063	300	0.296	0.466

1298

1299   Bold indicates significant values.

1300

Article and author information

Author Details

Diellor Basha

Département de psychiatrie et de neurosciences, Université Laval, Québec, QC,Canada

CERVO Centre de recherche, Université Laval, Québec, QC, Canada

Contribution: Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Software, Visualization, Formal

Analysis, Data Curation, Writing - Original Draft

Competing interests: No competing interests declared.

Amirmohammad Azarmehri

Department of Electrical Engineering, Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Mashhad, Iran

Contribution: Methodology, Software, Visualization, Formal Analysis, Writing-Original Draft

Competing interests: No competing interests declared.

Eliane Proulx

Département de psychiatrie et de neurosciences, Université Laval, Québec, QC,Canada

Current address: CNS Diseases Research, Boehringer Ingelheim Pharma GmbH & Co. KG,

Biberach an der Riß, Baden-Württemberg, Germany

Contribution: Methodology, Investigation, Visualization, Formal Analysis, Data Curation,

Writing – Original Draft

Competing interests: No competing interests declared.

Sylvain Chauvette

CERVO Centre de recherche, Université Laval, Québec, QC, Canada

Contribution: Methodology, Investigation, Validation, Resources, Writing - Review & Editing

Competing interests: No competing interests declared.

Maryam Ghorbani

Department of Electrical Engineering, Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Mashhad, Iran

Contribution: Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Validation, Writing - Review &

Editing, Supervision, Project administration

Competing interests: No competing interests declared.

Igor Timofeev

Département de psychiatrie et de neurosciences, Université Laval, Québec, QC,Canada

CERVO Centre de recherche, Université Laval, Québec, QC, Canada

Contribution: Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Validation, Writing - Review &

Editing, Supervision, Project administration, Funding Acquisition.

Competing interests: No competing interests declared.

For correspondence: igor.timofeev@fmed.ulaval.ca

Centre de recherche CERVO, 2601 de la Canardiere Quebec, QC, Canada

Funding

1337   **Funding**

1338   National Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada (grant RGPIN-2018-06291)

1339   Igor Timofeev

1340   Canadian Institutes of Health Research (grants PTJ - 183862)

1341   Igor Timofeev

1342

1343   **Acknowledgements**

1344   We thank Serge Ftomov for technical assistance.

1345