

Single-pulse electrical stimulation methodology in freely moving rat

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1 Title: Single-pulse electrical stimulation methodology in freely moving rat 2 3 **Authors** 4 Eloïse Gronlier^{1-2*}, Estelle Vendramini², Julien Volle¹, Agata Wozniak-Kwasniewska¹, 5 Noelia Antón Santos², Véronique Coizet², Venceslas Duveau¹, Olivier David^{2,3} 6 7 8 ¹: SynapCell SAS – Saint-Ismier, France – contact: <u>egronlier@synapcell.fr</u> 9 ²: Univ. Grenoble Alpes, Inserm, GIN, Grenoble Institut des Neurosciences, Grenoble, 10 France 11 ³: Aix Marseille Univ, Inserm, INS, Institut de Neurosciences des Systèmes, Marseille, 12 France 13 14 *: corresponding author 15 16

17 Abstract

- 19 <u>*Background*</u>: Cortico-cortical evoked potentials (CCEP) are becoming popular to infer 20 brain connectivity and cortical excitability in implanted refractory epilepsy patients. Our
- 21 goal was to transfer this methodology to the freely moving rodent.
- <u>New method</u>: CCEP were recorded on freely moving Sprague-Dawley rats, from cortical
 and subcortical areas using depth electrodes. Electrical stimulation was applied using 1ms
 biphasic current pulse, cathodic first, at a frequency of 0.5 Hz, with intensities ranging
 from 0.2 to 0.8 mA. Data were then processed in a similar fashion to human clinical
 studies, which included epoch selection, artefact correction and smart averaging.
- *<u>Results</u>*: For a large range of tested intensities, we recorded CCEPs with very good signal
 to noise ratio and reproducibility between animals, without any behavioral modification.
 The CCEP were composed of different components according to recorded and stimulated
- 30 sites, similarly to human recordings.
- 31 <u>*Comparison with existing methods:*</u> We minimally adapted a clinically-motivated 32 methodology to a freely moving rodent model to achieve high translational relevance of 33 future preclinical studies.
- 34 <u>*Conclusions*</u>: Our results indicate that the CCEP methodology can be applied to freely 35 moving rodents and transferred to preclinical research. This will be of interest to address 36 various neuroscientific questions, in physiological and pathological conditions.
- 37
- Keywords: intracranial electroencephalography (iEEG), direct electrical stimulation
 (DES), rodent, cortico-cortical evoked potentials (CCEP), local field potential (LFP)

40 **1** Introduction

41 To investigate large neuronal networks, potentially impaired in psychiatric and 42 neurological conditions, an interesting approach is to use direct electrical stimulation 43 (DES), which is becoming popular in the field of epilepsy surgery. This method guantifies 44 the local field potential (LFP) responses to brief pulses of electrical current, so-called 45 single pulse electrical stimulation (SPES) (Keller et al., 2014; Matsumoto et al., 2004). Those responses, or cortico-cortical evoked potentials (CCEP) when averaged over 46 obtained 47 stimulations. can be using either depth electrodes 48 (stereoelectroencephalography, SEEG) extra-cerebral electrodes or 49 (electrocorticography, ECoG). We will only consider SEEG here.

50 DES combined with SEEG is a neurosurgical procedure commonly used to induce seizures and to investigate brain connectivity in drug-resistant epileptic patients implanted 51 with intracranial electrodes (Borchers et al., 2012; David et al., 2010; David et al., 2013; 52 53 Young et al., 2018). Though the CCEP approach is promising to make significant 54 advances in our understanding of large-scale networks (Trebaul et al., 2018), its use in 55 human is limited to patients with focal epilepsies, candidates to resective surgery, with 56 few possibilities to explore other configurations, in particular exploring the basal ganglia 57 (Enatsu et al., 2013; Kubota et al., 2013). CCEPs in human are composed of a guick and 58 early deflection (10-50 ms) which can be followed by a later slow component (50-250 ms) 59 (Keller et al., 2014; Matsumoto et al., 2004). The first component may correspond to a 60 local direct excitation whereas the second one may be linked with indirect mechanisms and multisynaptic pathways (Entz et al., 2014; Eytan et al., 2003; Kubota et al., 2013; 61 62 Matsumoto et al., 2004). Peak latencies can vary among implanted structures, stimulation parameters and recording techniques (Trebaul et al., 2018). One of the most important 63 64 points for cortical stimulation is the choice of optimum stimulation parameters, such as 65 intensity, frequency and pulse width (Prime et al., 2018).

Electrical brain stimulation has been used for decades in freely-moving rodent models 66 67 under various conditions. For example, by applying paired-pulse stimuli in a rat model of 68 temporal lobe epilepsy, it was shown that LFP responses to stimulation were a good 69 approach to assess excitatory and inhibitory processes involved during epileptogenesis 70 (Queiroz et al., 2009). The paired-pulse stimulation paradigm has also been used in many 71 studies assessing neurotransmitter functions, including in vivo (e.g. (Cao and Stan Leung, 72 1992)). The SPES approach has been less used in vivo. In the 1980s, the group of 73 Klingberg studied cortical responses to subcortical stimulation. They recorded frontal 74 evoked potentials in freely moving rats after electrical stimulation of locus coeruleus and 75 showed the modulation of evoked responses under various pharmacological challenges 76 (Heller and Klingberg, 1989). They also studied somatosensory evoked responses after

77 stimulation of the trigeminal nuclei in freely moving rats and showed behavior-dependent 78 changes of evoked responses (Rehnig et al., 1987). Those behavior-dependent changes 79 were also reported in recorded responses in CA1 (Zosimovskii et al., 2008). In this study, 80 they stated that stimulation of Schaffer collaterals with single pulse current impulses could 81 evoke polysynaptic responses in hippocampal CA1 in freely moving rats. They also 82 observed delay variations in recorded responses of CA1 between awake and sleep states. 83 In another study, long-term synaptic depression and depotentiation were examined by 84 recording LFP evoked in sensorimotor cortex by stimulation of the white matter in freely 85 moving rats (Froc et al., 2000). They observed amplitude variations of evoked responses 86 after the delivery of a single low-frequency train (1Hz, 15min). More recently, Magill and 87 colleagues recorded in the subthalamic nucleus unit responses evoked by cortical 88 stimulation on anesthetized rats and showed that the shape of the subthalamic responses 89 was different according to the stimulated cortical area (Magill et al., 2004).

90 Despite the long history of electrical stimulation in experimental neuroscience, there is 91 finally very few preclinical reports using similar stimulation and recording protocols to the 92 ones used nowadays in epilepsy surgery for assessing functional connectivity using 93 SPES. We thus wanted here to translate the CCEP methodology for preclinical studies in 94 the freely moving rodent, by developing an experimental platform allowing to record 95 evoked responses to SPES in conditions very closed to those encountered in human 96 beings. Such a platform would help for drug development and find efficient ways for 97 screening new drugs in animal models in vivo before their application to clinical trials. The 98 present report summarizes the main steps to record successfully CCEPs in freely moving 99 rodent. To demonstrate the feasibility of this approach, we chose to study the connectivity 100 between the somatosensory cortex and the dorso-lateral part of the striatum because both 101 structures are directly connected. The corticostriatal pathway is known to integrate 102 information coming from the cortex (Pidoux et al., 2011). In addition to the direct 103 projections from the cortex toward the striatum, the latter has reciprocal feedback 104 projections going back to the cortex particularly through the subthalamic nucleus, globus 105 pallidus and thalamus (Alloway et al., 1998; Hintiryan et al., 2016). We should thus be 106 able to record both cortico-striatal and striato-cortical CCEPs. Those responses should 107 be similar to the ones observed in previous studies on anesthetized rats and humans, in 108 terms of CCEP definition with the possibility to clearly identify the two first components.

109 2 Materials and methods

110 2.1 Animals

111 Twenty experimentally naive adult male Sprague-Dawley rats (Charles River) initially 112 weighing 170-200g were used. They were housed under a normal dark-light cycle (lights 113 off at 7pm), with constant dimmed light. Experimental procedures were performed during

the light phase of the daily cycle. Animals had free access to food and water, except during recording sessions and when their weight became higher than a threshold of 400g, they were put under dietary restriction (only 15g a day of dry food). They were maintained following the guidelines set for the care and use of laboratory animals by the European Union (directive 2010/63/EU), with controlled temperature and humidity conditions. The protocol used to complete this study was reviewed and approved by the Ethical Committee

120 of Grenoble Institute of Neurosciences (University Grenoble Alpes).

121 2.2 Electrode configuration

122 Electrode configuration is important to be considered to achieve appropriate current 123 distribution between the anode and cathode, while recording brain responses with good 124 signal to noise ratio. Inappropriate geometry and cabling can generate local current 125 density inhomogeneities, which can lead to either poor neuronal responses or to tissue 126 damages (Campbell and Wu, 2018; Merrill et al., 2005). In practice, to speed up the 127 process of electrode implantation while maximizing the reproducibility of electrode 128 positioning, electrodes were prepared before surgery on a pedestal. We used four 129 stainless steel polyimide-coated electrodes (0.2 mm diameter, 10 mm length, stranded, 130 Plastics One, E363/2/SPC) and one pedestal (Plastics One, MS363) per animal (see 131 Figure 1.A). Then we bent and cut electrodes at specific length to target the desired brain 132 areas (see Figure 1.B). At this step, it is important to check the coating integrity with a 133 microscope (e.g. see Figure 1.C with a damaged coating at the top and a preserved one 134 at the bottom). Electrodes with damaged coating were replaced. Finally, electrodes were 135 glued to the pedestal using dental cement (see Figure 1.D). Electrode impedances were 136 measured to verify balanced values across all electrode sites. Because of space 137 constraints, we were limited to a number of 6 electrodes, including two electrodes for the 138 reference and ground.



Figure 1: Electrodes' setup manufacturing. A. Take a pedestal and electrodes (four stainless steel depth electrodes here). B. Bend them and cut them at the desired lengths and angles to target brain areas you want. C. Check under a microscope the coating integrity. D. Finally, glue all electrodes to the pedestal.

143 **2.3 Surgical procedure**

144 Animals were allowed to acclimate to the facility for at least one week after their arrival. 145 Then, they were implanted using aseptic surgical procedures. Animals were first 146 anesthetized with isoflurane (2.5% induction, 2.5% maintain, 0.5 L/min O₂) with body 147 temperature maintained at 36°C. They received topical buprenorphine subcutaneously 148 just before the surgery for reducing pain (0.05 mg/kg). The head was shaved, and the rat 149 placed in a stereotaxic apparatus. Then the scalp was swabbed with betadine and a 150 central incision was made to expose the skull. Small holes were drilled in the skull at the 151 desired coordinates, and four electrodes were lowered bilaterally into the somatosensory 152 cortex and the striatum. For the somatosensory cortex, the coordinates used were: -2.92 153 mm antero-posterior, ±3 mm medio-lateral and -1.2 mm dorso-ventral, relative to bregma. 154 For the striatum, the coordinates used were: +0.24 mm antero-posterior, ±3.6 mm medio-155 lateral and -4.6 mm dorso-ventral, relative to bregma. Two skull screws were also added: 156 one over the prefrontal cortex (used as ground and reference electrode) and one over the 157 cerebellum (E363/96/1.6/SPC, Plastics One). The recording headstage was then secured 158 to the cranium with dental acrylic using two skull screws as anchors. Finally, animals were 159 housed individually and given at least one week to recover after surgery before beginning 160 any experimental procedures. During this period, the habituation process took place to 161 allow animals to become familiar with the recording environment.

162 At the end of experiments, animals were sacrificed, and brains collected for histological 163 evaluation. Animals were deeply anesthetized with isoflurane and an injection of 164 pentobarbital (Exagon, 1.5 mL/kg i.p.) was made. Under deep anesthesia, electrolytic 165 lesions were made: a 60 s anodic monophasic current of 100 µA was passed through all 166 electrodes. The animals were then terminally perfused transcardially with a 0.9% saline 167 solution. The brains were removed and stored at -80°C before sectioning. 40-micrometer 168 coronal sections were collected with a cryostat and mounted on slides, stained with Nissl 169 coloration and coverslipped. Analyses were conducted using a microscope (Nikon Eclipse 170 80i) to verify electrodes placement.

171 2.4 Recording and stimulation protocols

172 A protocol reproducing clinical routine conditions was designed to stimulate and record 173 from all possible anatomical configurations. Stimulation parameters were chosen based 174 on bibliographic analysis and previous experiments to induce asymptomatic 175 electrophysiological responses only. The objective here was to record high quality signals 176 with good reproducibility across animals to be able to compare evoked responses 177 between them. 178 Before undergoing any experimental manipulation, each animal was subjected to several 179 acclimation sessions where the subject was tethered to the recording system and allowed 180 to move freely in the recording chamber, which consisted of a Plexiglas chamber placed 181 within a sound-attenuating box. This shielded room (Faraday box) allowed to limit line 182 noise and any other external signal contamination. Electrical stimuli were generated with 183 an isolated stimulator (DLS100, World Precise Instruments, Sarasota, USA) triggered by 184 a DS8000 unit (World Precise Instruments, Sarasota, USA). All data were recorded using 185 a Micromed acquisition system (SD LTM 6400 Express EEG 64 channels, Treviso, Italy) 186 in which they were amplified, filtered and digitized (sampling rate: 1024 Hz, band-pass 187 filter: 0.008 - 150 Hz, 22-bit analog to digital converters). A unipolar (referential) montage 188 was used against a common reference placed on the prefrontal screw, which also served 189 as ground.

190 Stimulation pattern was set to a 1 ms biphasic square pulse composed of a negative 191 phase followed by a positive one (pulse width of 0.5 ms/phase). Maximal pulse intensity 192 was set to 0.8 mA, which corresponds to a maximal charge per phase of 0.4 µC and a 193 maximal charge density of 1274 µC/cm²/phase given the electrode section. These 194 maximum figures were under values used in previous studies on patients (David et al., 195 2013) and rats (Magill et al., 2004), with 1800 µC/cm²/phase and 2293 µC/cm²/phase 196 respectively. Another important parameter is the frequency of stimulation. We chose to 197 apply a 0.5 Hz stimulation to reduce the probability of inducing any potentiation while being 198 able to record single responses at a fast rate. This inter-stimulus interval of 2 seconds 199 also allowed the signal to return to baseline between two stimulations.

The stimulation protocol spanned sequentially all electrodes, while recording on all other electrodes. The minus electrical connector was alternatively connected to the somatosensory cortex or to the striatum of one hemispheric side. The screw over the cerebellum was used as the positive terminal of the stimulation. Each animal underwent the following stimulation protocol:

- 205 15 minutes of acclimation to wait for calm and stability
 - 3 minutes of baseline while recording without any stimulation
- Different intensities of stimulation applied during 2 minutes at 0.5 Hz (60 stimulations in each train) starting from 200 μA up to 800 μA, by steps of 200 μA.

All animals underwent this stimulation protocol for each of its four structures (striatum right and left, somatosensory cortex right and left), in a randomized order. During the recording session, the vigilance level was controlled by maintaining the animal awake.

212 2.5 Data analysis

213 Signals were analyzed offline with scripts written in Matlab (2018, version 9.4.0 R2018a, 214 Natick, Massachusetts: The MathWorks Inc.). Most part of Matlab scripts came from the 215 open-source ImaGIN toolbox (https://f-tract.eu/software/imagin/). One script have been 216 specifically developed based on the exponential fit developed in (Conde et al., 2019).

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2.5.1 Stimulation detection and epoching

218 Electrical stimulation induces the presence of stimulation artefacts lasting few 219 milliseconds and composed of a sharp deflection (Trebaul et al., 2016). We used this 220 sharp deflection to detect automatically the time of each stimulation (David et al., 2013). 221 Then, signals were cropped around each stimulation (epoching): 400 ms pre-stimulus and 222 1100 ms post-stimulus, relative to time origin on the beginning of the stimulation artefact.

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2.5.2 Artefact correction

224 Each epoch was baseline-corrected from -400 to -3 ms. In each of these epochs, 225 stimulation artefacts were removed by interpolating the interval between -3 ms and +6 ms 226 using an autoregressive model (*fillgaps.m* Matlab function). The polarization of the 227 electrodes by the stimulation may result in a decay artefact affecting up to hundreds of milliseconds of signal. To correct this decay, we subtracted from each epoch the best fit 228 229 of a decreasing two-exponential decay function as used in (Conde et al., 2019). To do so, we used a parameterized model of the artefact: $Ae^{-Bt}+Ce^{-Dt}+E$, where time *t* was chosen 230 231 starting at the end of interpolation (+6 ms) and ending between 50 and 400 ms post-232 stimulation (step of 50 ms). For each time window, the parameters were optimized using 233 nonlinear regression (nlinfit.m Matlab function) and we computed the goodness of fit 234 defined as the sum of the square of the difference between the original signal and the 235 fitted values, normalized by the sum of the squared signal. Then, we selected the time-236 window for which this indicator was maximum and subtracted the corresponding fitted 237 model artefact from raw data.

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2.5.3 Trial selection

239 Bad trials were automatically detected and removed from further analyses with an analysis 240 which excluded trials showing a response energy 3 times higher than the median 241 response energy over the whole stimulation run (David et al., 2013). A semi-automated 242 motion artefact detector was developed to remove visually contaminated signal periods 243 which were mainly due to transient high motor activity of the animal. It pre-selected values 244 higher than 95% of the maximum of the z-scored signal envelop. Finally, exclusion was 245 validated or not by visual inspection.

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2.5.4 Average and DC offset correction

Responses were averaged together over trials and obtained CCEPs were baselinecorrected according to the [-400 -3] ms pre-stimulus time period.

249 **2.5.5 Signal quality and intensity selection**

250 Signal quality was assessed by computing the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) of the evoked 251 responses obtained for each stimulation intensity used. For each CCEP of each intensity 252 of stimulation, the SNR was defined by dividing the power of the signal during the evoked 253 response (between 0 and 150 ms) by the power of the signal during baseline (between -254 400 and -50 ms). Then, an arbitrary threshold on SNR (10 dB) was used to consider 255 CCEPs of sufficient amplitude. To complement this indicator of signal quality, we 256 computed the correlation index between each individual trial and the averaged CCEP, for 257 each intensity of stimulation. We also assessed signal stability by computing the 258 correlation of the averaged signal on the 15 first stimulations to the 15 last ones.

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2.5.6 Time-frequency decomposition and statistics

260 Time-frequency decomposition of CCEPs was performed using a Multitaper method 261 (Hanning window) with ft specest mtmconvol function of FieldTrip (Oostenveld et al., 262 2011). The sliding temporal window length was chosen as 100 ms and time resolution of 263 10 ms (1 Hz spectral resolution). This window spans first early components of the evoked 264 response, rendering it impossible to characterize frequency content over the first 10 ms. 265 However, any further reduction of this window length would lead to an undesirably poor 266 frequency resolution. Afterwards, time-frequency maps were normalized (Z-score) on pre-267 stimulation period between -400 and -50 ms.

268 The specific spectral signature of CCEP for each stimulated structure was identified at the 269 group level using a dedicated statistical analysis, which implemented a random-effect 270 group analysis in the framework of Statistical Parametric Mapping 12 (SPM) software 271 (www.ion.ucl.ac.uk/spm12). This two-level hierarchical model was previously described in 272 (Kiebel and Friston, 2004). Data normality was verified using Shapiro-Wilk test. The first 273 level (intra-individual) statistical analysis performed for each animal was a one-sample t-274 test across time-frequency maps of each trial at a given intensity of stimulation. This first 275 level analysis was used to provide appropriate summary statistics (effect size, or beta 276 maps in SPM terminology) at the individual level and for each structure, which were then 277 used as input for the second-level analysis assessing across animals' effects (group 278 analysis). This second step implemented a one-sample t-test to identify the reproducible 279 response for each region, and a two-sample t-test to identify differences between regions.

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2.5.7 Statistical analyses

Descriptive statistics were used for studying signal stability using correlation index. Across stimulation intensities' comparisons (on correlation and powers) were assessed using non-parametric Wilcoxon signed rank tests due to non-normal data distribution. Those statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism software (version 9.0.0 for Windows, GraphPad Software, San Diego, California USA, <u>www.graphpad.com</u>) with a significance level of alpha=0.05.

287 3 Results

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From the results of histological analyses (see Figure 2), only three electrodes amongst all recordings were discarded due to their position outside the anatomical target. One animal lost its pedestal during housing and was recorded for only one site of stimulation. Electrodes impedance measurements were around 30 k Ω on average (min: 20 k Ω ; max: 100 k Ω).



Figure 2: Histological pictures after electrolytic lesion and Nissl staining for validate electrodes localizations (in the somatosensory cortex on the left and in the dorso-lateral striatum on the right).

296 3.1 Methodology validation

Figure 3A shows an example of the output of the semi-automated detection of periods with large movement artefacts or line noise. The principle of the preprocessing approach for automated data selection was to discard such data from the downstream processing of CCEPs. On average, 64 trials were kept for further analyses for striatum stimulation and 66 trials for somatosensory stimulation (min. 61 / max. 71 for striatum, min. 58 / max. 94 for somatosensory cortex) for each amplitude of stimulation. This corresponded to 79% of recorded data.

The artefact correction method was globally efficient to remove the low frequency drift of the amplifier that could occur after the stimulation. It also allowed to remove the initial sharp deflection, but without recovering the neuronal signal during the interpolation period,
set to [-3; 6] ms (example of artefact correction shown in Figure 3B).





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313 Then, we selected the optimum intensity of stimulation for each animal. To do so, we 314 plotted dose-response curves corresponding to the signal to noise ratio (SNR) of the 315 amplitude of the evoked response compared to baseline, as a function of the intensity of stimulation. For example, Figure 4 shows the averaged dose-response curve, across 316 317 animals, of the response after stimulation in the somatosensory cortex (A) and in the 318 striatum (B). The SNR was rapidly above the selected threshold of 10 dB except for some 319 animals at the lowest intensity of 200 µA. When the striatum was stimulated, increasing 320 intensity above 400 µA did not increase the averaged SNR which reached a plateau. We 321 also computed, for each intensity of stimulation and each structure, the correlation 322 coefficient between each trial and the CCEP obtained by averaging all trials, which is a 323 good measure of the SNR at the single-trial level (see Figure 5). We obtained increasing 324 correlation coefficients with the intensity going from 64% up to 82% for the somatosensory 325 stimulation and from 77% up to 87% for the striatal one, with higher values for the striatum 326 than for the somatosensory cortex (Figure 5.A). To assess for changes in the response 327 shape, we computed the averaged CCEP over the first and last fifteen stimulations, 328 separately, and computed their cross-correlation as a measure of reproducibility. We 329 found good stability of signals at 400 µA stimulation compared to lower intensity with a 330 median correlation index of 90% versus 77% at 200 µA (Figure 5.B). At higher intensities, 331 the correlation index (CI) is significantly higher compared to 400µA (Wilcoxon test: 200µA 332 vs. 400µA, 400µA vs. 600µA and 600µA vs. 800µA: Cl_{median 200µA}=0.77 < Cl_{median 400µA}=0.90

333 < CI_{median 600µA}=0.91 < CI_{median 800µA}=0.93, p-value<0.001, N=213). As observed here, the 334 SNR of the evoked response and correlation index increase with stimulation intensity but 335 we had to fix a limit to avoid any behavioral effect. So we had a compromise between 336 selecting the lowest intensity producing good evoked responses while not inducing any 337 undesirable effect. From these tuning curves, we selected 400 µA intensity for further 338 experiments, as we evaluated the corresponding SNR of sufficient amplitude and already 339 good correlation index values. We also verified power stability between the beginning of 340 the recording (15-first stimulations) and the end (15-last) (using *bandpower.m* in Matlab) 341 but we obtained no significant difference (results not depicted here, Wilcoxon test, N=69, 342 p=0.14 at 200µA, p=0.26 at 400µA, p=0.29 at 600µA and p=0.30 at 800µA). These 343 analyses suggested little potentiation induced by repeated stimulations.



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Figure 4: Averaged signal to noise ratio curves for somatosensory cortex stimulation (on the left, Nmin = 37 / Nmax = 39 recordings) and for the striatum (on the right, Nmin = 37 / Nmax = 40 recordings) for each intensity of stimulation (error bars are standard error of the mean values).



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Figure 5: On the left (A), averaged correlation coefficient between individual trials and CCEP for each intensity of stimulation (for stimulation in the somatosensory cortex in red and in striatum in blue, with SEM superimposed) (Nmin = 2822 / Nmax = 3247 trials). On the right (B), boxplot of correlation coefficients between 15-first and 15-last evoked responses for each intensity of stimulation for all animals and all electrodes (N = 213 electrodes, with individual values superimposed).

354 3.2 Temporal and spectral analysis of CCEP

SPES of the striatum and the somatosensory cortex generated robust CCEPs quantifiable at the single-trial level, which were observed at both local (in contralateral structure) and remote cortical regions (in somatosensory cortex and striatum respectively). The interanimal variability of recorded evoked responses was very low, as indicated by small values of the standard error of the mean (SEM) (see Figure 6). The shape of CCEP was also preserved between left and right hemispheres.



Figure 6: Averaged evoked responses (Nmin = 17 and Nmax = 20 animals) and standard errors of the mean (SEM) for each stimulated structure (striatum at the top and somatosensory cortex at the bottom) and each recorded electrode.

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365 CCEPs obtained after a stimulation in the striatum showed more complex temporal 366 signatures, with longer oscillations up to 500 ms post-stimulation, than CCEPs obtained 367 after a stimulation in the somatosensory cortex for which the responses ended at 368 maximum 300 ms (Figure 6). Figure 6 also shows that stimulation in the striatum induced 369 responses of higher amplitudes than a stimulation in the somatosensory cortex. Those 370 differences are very well brought out by time-frequency analysis (Figure 7), with clearly 371 longer responses after a stimulation in the striatum than in the somatosensory cortex. On this figure, surrounded area means a significance level of p<=0.001. 372



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When comparing striatal and somatosensory responses, we obtained statistical maps that highlighted significant differences in the spectral content of CCEPs. Figure 8 shows the statistical results of the differences in the evoked responses between striatal and 385 somatosensory stimulation with significant values surrounded by a black line (p <= 0.001). 386 For example, Figure 8A shows the statistical difference between the evoked response 387 recorded in the left somatosensory cortex after stimulation in the right striatum compared 388 to the evoked response recorded in the same structure but after stimulation in the right 389 somatosensory cortex. Other panels show different stimulation-recording configurations. 390 First, one can identify that responses are of higher amplitudes after striatal stimulation 391 compared to somatosensory one, as the t-maps are dominated by positive (red) values. 392 Second, one can clearly see the presence of later components in striatal responses 393 (Figure 8B and 8D), that are less present in somatosensory responses (Figure 8A and 394 8C).



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Figure 8: Statistical comparison of evoked responses between somatosensory stimulation and striatum stimulation. A and B for stimulations in right hemisphere, and C and D in the left one. A and C are recorded in the contralateral somatosensory cortex, and B and D in the contralateral striatum. Surrounded areas are significant values with p<=0.001 (two-sample t-test, Nmin = 17 / Nmax = 20 animals).

To sum up, the two sites of stimulation (somatosensory cortex or striatum) produced highlysignificant, reproducible and regionally-specific CCEP.

402 4 Discussion

We have demonstrated that the CCEP methodology can be adapted for preclinical studies
in freely moving animals. Strikingly, we observed reproducible recordings between
animals, and response features that significantly differ between brain regions, which

suggests a high potential for this approach to provide important new types of information
in various animal models and experimental conditions in future studies. Below, we discuss
the most important issues for a successful implementation of the methodology.

409 4.1 Stimulation parameters

410 We used a limited number of electrodes in this proof-of-concept study: only 6, including 411 reference and ground electrodes, meaning 4 electrodes available for stimulation and 412 recording. This is not sufficient for describing large network properties across brain 413 regions, which would require significant improvements of surgical procedures. However, 414 the CCEP methodology per se does not depend on the number of implanted electrodes 415 and one can expect to have similar results with more electrodes, but with better spatial 416 resolution. Using smaller electrodes though would require to recalibrate stimulation 417 parameters as the section of electrodes is an important parameter because it influences 418 directly the current density for a given applied current.

419 4.2 Electrode material

420 Even if most clinical studies use platinum based electrodes (Cogan, 2008; Merrill et al., 421 2005), stainless-steel polyimide coated electrodes meet several of the requirements of 422 the optimal device reviewed by Merrill and colleagues (Merrill et al., 2005). In addition to 423 their lower price, stainless-steel electrodes were shown to evoke less tissue response 424 than platinum (Dymond et al., 1970; Geddes and Roeder, 2003; Robinson and Johnson, 425 1961). Stainless steel and polyimide are biocompatible materials which are not toxic for 426 surrounding tissues (Babb and Kupfer, 1984; Stieglitz and Meyer, 1999). Moreover, the 427 mechanical strength of this material is high enough to go through the meninges and keep 428 its integrity for all the duration of experiments. Meantime it is also flexible enough to follow 429 small movements between tissues and the device (Rousche et al., 2001). Because we 430 used constant current stimulation and single pulses of large duration, we predict little 431 change to our main results in case of change of electrode material as the capacitive effect 432 of tissue electrode interface, which acts as a low pass filter, is minimal in SPES stimulation compared to high frequency stimulation. The geometry of the electrode is however 433 434 important as it directly sets the charge density in current stimulation, which is a critical 435 factor achieving neuronal excitability.

436 4.3 Data interpretation

This methodology allows to record stable evoked responses across time (Figure 6) and across subjects (Figure 7). To our knowledge, such inter-individual reproducibility is not easily demonstrated in human's studies, where CCEP morphology can vary across patients (Enatsu et al., 2013; Kubota et al., 2013). CCEP waveform heterogeneity is also encountered at the individual scale across recording sites (Keller et al., 2014) and its 442 variability may be highly dependent on patient's state (Kunieda et al., 2015). Cortical 443 evoked responses after deep structures stimulation have been recorded in previous 444 studies such as in the thalamus of patients with drug-resistant epilepsy (Rosenberg et al., 445 2009) or in the STN of Parkinsonian patients (Hartmann et al., 2018). To our knowledge, 446 it is however the first time that cortico-striatal and striato-cortical CCEP are documented. 447 Our results suggest the consideration of components significantly later than the classical 448 N1/N2 waves used in the standard CCEP taxonomy (Kunieda et al., 2015; Matsumoto et 449 al., 2004). The historical definition based on one early component N1 (around 10-30 ms) 450 and one late component N2 (around 80-250 ms) indeed does not encompass the 451 components we have observed up to 500 ms. Interestingly, a previous study using 452 subthalamic nucleus deep brain stimulation in rats also observed those late components 453 and showed that they had different biophysical origins (Kumaravelu et al., 2018). They showed that long-latency responses were coming from polysynaptic activation of layer 2/3 454 455 pyramidal neurons via the cortico-thalamic-cortical pathway (Kumaravelu et al., 2018). 456 These indirect mechanisms involving multisynaptic pathways of the cortico-subcortico-457 cortical loop have also been reported in clinical data (Eytan et al., 2003; Kubota et al., 458 2013). This functional connectivity implies the cortico-subcortico-cortical pathway from 459 which several neural groups participate in feed-forward (cortico-subcortical) and feed-460 back (subcortico-cortical) projections between those structures. One possible cause of 461 longer responses to the striatal stimulation is that more neuronal populations of the retro-462 control loop going from the striatum toward the cortex are stimulated and activated. 463 Further investigations are needed to identify specifically the components of these 464 networks.

465 5 Conclusion

466 We presented here a new methodological process for recording LFP simultaneously to 467 electrical intracerebral stimulations in rodents. With this setup, we recorded high quality 468 signals, demonstrating that this approach is potentially relevant for future preclinical 469 studies. Such recordings would indeed open the opportunity to infer brain connectivity in 470 various deep brain structures impossible to explore with concomitant cortical sampling in 471 patients. Furthermore, combining this methodology with pathological animal models 472 should enable the identification of impaired brain networks and/or mechanisms of action 473 of novel drug compounds.

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483 CRediT authorship contribution statement

484 Eloïse Gronlier: conceptualization, methodology, software, formal analysis, 485 investigation, data curation, writing - original draft, visualization; Estelle Vendramini: 486 investigation, formal analysis; Julien Volle: conceptualization, methodology, resources; 487 Agata Wozniak-Kwasniewska: software, formal analysis; Véronique Coizet: resources; 488 Noelia Antón Santos: software, investigation; Venceslas Duveau: conceptualization, 489 methodology, validation, resources, writing - review and editing, supervision, project 490 administration, funding acquisition; Olivier David: conceptualization, methodology, 491 software, validation, formal analysis, resources, writing - review and editing, supervision, 492 project administration, funding acquisition

493

494 Data accessibility

The datasets generated during and/or analyzed during the current study, or support with the code are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

497

498 **Declarations of interest**

499 EG, JV, AW and VD are employees of SynapCell. There is no other potential 500 conflict of interest to be disclosed.

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608 Figures and legends

609 Figure 1: Electrodes' setup manufacturing. A. Take a pedestal and electrodes (four 610 stainless steel depth electrodes here). B. Bend them and cut them at the desired lengths 611 and angles to target brain areas you want. C. Check under a microscope the coating 612 613 Figure 2: Histological pictures after electrolytic lesion and Nissl staining for validate 614 electrodes localizations (in the somatosensory cortex on the left and in the dorso-lateral 615 Figure 3: A. Example of semi-automated movement artefact period removal. The blue 616 617 excluded part of the signal seems to be due to brief movement of the animal. B. Example 618 of artefact correction using a short interpolation combined with a longer exponential fit 619 (blue before correction and red after). This correction allows to free from the return-to-620 zero time of the system and the sharp deflection of the stimulation artefact...... 11 621 Figure 4: Averaged signal to noise ratio curves for somatosensory cortex stimulation (on 622 the left, Nmin = 37 / Nmax = 39 recordings) and for the striatum (on the right, Nmin = 37 / 623 Nmax = 40 recordings) for each intensity of stimulation (error bars are standard error of 624 the mean values). 12 625 Figure 5: On the left (A), averaged correlation coefficient between individual trials and 626 CCEP for each intensity of stimulation (for stimulation in the somatosensory cortex in red 627 and in striatum in blue, with SEM superimposed) (Nmin = 2822 / Nmax = 3247 trials). On 628 the right (B), boxplot of correlation coefficients between 15-first and 15-last evoked responses for each intensity of stimulation for all animals and all electrodes (N = 213 629 630 631 Figure 6: Averaged evoked responses (Nmin = 17 and Nmax = 20 animals) and standard 632 errors of the mean (SEM) for each stimulated structure (striatum at the top and 633 634 Figure 7: Statistical analysis on time-frequency maps resulting from a first step of statistic 635 intra-animals consisting in a one-sample t-test across 2s-epochs of time-frequency maps 636 of each animal at the selected intensity of stimulation (number of 2s-epochs taken into 637 account: between 19 and 64 for the striatal stimulation and between 35 and 84 for the 638 somatosensory cortex stimulation, data normality verified with Shapiro-Wilk test). 639 Followed by a second step which is a two-sample t-test inter-animals allowing to identify 640 the specific pattern of response obtained for each structure stimulated, for stimulation in 641 striatum (A) and in somatosensory cortex (B). Surrounded areas are for a significance 642 level of p<=0.001. Group sizes are noted above each statistical map ranging from 17 to 643 644 Figure 8: Statistical comparison of evoked responses between somatosensory stimulation 645 and striatum stimulation. A and B for stimulations in right hemisphere, and C and D in the 646 left one. A and C are recorded in the contralateral somatosensory cortex, and B and D in 647 the contralateral striatum. Surrounded areas are significant values with p<=0.001 (twosample t-test, Nmin = 17 / Nmax = 20 animals)..... 16 648 649

650 Highlights

651	•	New methodology using single pulse electrical stimulation in freely moving rats
652	•	Responses to electrical stimulation were recorded in cortex and striatum

- Significant differences between cortical and subcortical responses
- Later components in striatal responses compared to cortical ones