

The $Ca_v3.3$ calcium channel is the major sleep spindle pacemaker in thalamus

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Low-threshold (T-type) Ca^{2+} channels encoded by the Ca_v3 genes endow neurons with oscillatory properties that underlie slow waves characteristic of the non-rapid eye movement (NREM) sleep EEG. Three Ca_v3 channel subtypes are expressed in the thalamocortical (TC) system, but their respective roles for the sleep EEG are unclear. $Ca_v3.3$ protein is expressed abundantly in the nucleus reticularis thalami (nRt), an essential oscillatory burst generator. We report the characterization of a transgenic $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ mouse line and demonstrate that $Ca_v3.3$ channels are indispensable for nRt function and for sleep spindles, a hallmark of natural sleep. The absence of $Ca_v3.3$ channels prevented oscillatory bursting in the low-frequency (4–10 Hz) range in nRt cells but spared tonic discharge. In contrast, adjacent TC neurons expressing $Ca_v3.1$ channels retained low-threshold bursts. Nevertheless, the generation of synchronized thalamic network oscillations underlying sleep-spindle waves was weakened markedly because of the reduced inhibition of TC neurons via nRt cells. T currents in $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ mice were <30% compared with those in WT mice, and the remaining current, carried by $Ca_v3.2$ channels, generated dendritic $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ signals insufficient to provoke oscillatory bursting that arises from interplay with Ca^{2+} -dependent small conductance-type 2 K^+ channels. Finally, naturally sleeping $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ mice showed a selective reduction in the power density of the σ frequency band (10–12 Hz) at transitions from NREM to REM sleep, with other EEG waves remaining unaltered. Together, these data identify a central role for $Ca_v3.3$ channels in the rhythmogenic properties of the sleep-spindle generator and provide a molecular target to elucidate the roles of sleep spindles for brain function and development.

inhibition | ion channel | *Cacna1i* | *alpha1i* | synchrony

The Ca^{2+} channels encoded by the Ca_v3 genes activate near resting membrane potentials and generate low-threshold Ca^{2+} spikes leading to burst firing and low-frequency oscillatory discharge that are prominent in some thalamic, olivary, and cerebellar neurons (1). Among the low-threshold Ca^{2+} currents carried by Ca_v3 channels, those mediated by $Ca_v3.3$ channels are unique in that they display the slowest time course, the fastest recovery from inactivation, and often the most depolarized activation voltages (2, 3). Moreover, $Ca_v3.3$ mRNA is expressed predominantly in brain and shows highest regional specificity (3–5). To date, identification of specific physiological roles for $Ca_v3.3$ channels has been hampered for several reasons. First, these channels typically are coexpressed with $Ca_v3.1$ and/or $Ca_v3.2$ channels (4, 5), and specific pharmacological tools are not available (1). Second, $Ca_v3.3$ channels often are found in distal dendrites, limiting accessibility for electrophysiological characterization (6, 7). Finally, $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ mice have not been reported, whereas $Ca_v3.1^{-/-}$ and $Ca_v3.2$ knockdown mice have helped address the roles of $Ca_v3.1$ and $Ca_v3.2$ channels in sleep and pain, respectively (8–10).

In the thalamus, $Ca_v3.3$ mRNA and protein are abundant in GABAergic cells of the surrounding nucleus reticularis thalami (nRt), the principal source of inhibition to relay nuclei, whereas

excitatory thalamocortical (TC) neurons are not immunopositive for $Ca_v3.3$ (4, 5, 11). The slow decay and the depolarized activation range of low-threshold Ca^{2+} currents in the nRt (12) are thought to reflect the dominant mRNA expression of $Ca_v3.3$ over $Ca_v3.2$ channels (5, 7, 13). Vigorous bursting properties in nRt underlie its well-documented role in pacemaking sleep spindles (14) and its proposed involvement in attentional gating mechanisms (15). Therefore, the nRt is ideally suited to explore the cellular and circuit roles of $Ca_v3.3$ channels.

Here, we describe the $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ mouse and report that $Ca_v3.3$ channels are required for nRt cell bursting and for synchronized rhythmicity in intrathalamic circuits. $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ mice show selectively weakened spindle wave generation during spontaneous sleep. These results establish a specific role for $Ca_v3.3$ channels in a sleep EEG hallmark and, more generally, an animal model to provide insight into sleep's role for the brain.

Results

Generation of $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ Mice. Interruption of the $Ca_v3.3$ gene was achieved through homologous recombination in 129/Ola ES cells. The targeting construct deleted a 6.8-kb genomic region (National Center for Biotechnology Information m37 15:80,198, 299-80,205,160) encoding exons 11–21, replacing them with a β -galactosidase–neomycin cassette (Fig. 1A). The engineered allele deletes the coding sequence between the predicted IIS2 and IIS4 transmembrane regions, including the third predicted intracellular domain (3). Additionally, exons 10 and 22 are out of the translational reading frame; therefore, any truncated protein product will not be functional. $Ca_v3.3$ gene deletion was confirmed by RT-PCR experiments using RNA extracted from cerebellum, olfactory bulb, cortex, and thalamus (Fig. 1B). The deletion of the $Ca_v3.3$ gene did not affect transcription of the $Ca_v3.2$ gene in thalamus, as assessed by quantitative RT-PCR (Fig. 1C). For all experiments described below, mouse genotype was determined by PCR (Fig. 1D), and homozygous $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ and WT littermates were used.

nRt Oscillatory Burst Discharges Are Impaired in $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ Mice. Whole-cell current-clamp recordings were obtained from nRt cells in acute brain slices of 3- to 4-wk-old mice. The oscillatory bursting characteristic for nRt cells was elicited at the offset of brief membrane hyperpolarizations, whereas tonic discharges

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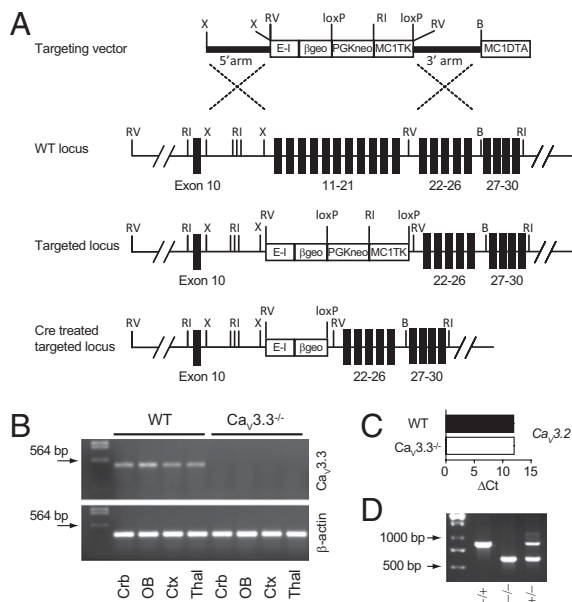


Fig. 1. Gene targeting of the $Ca_v3.3$ locus. (A) Restriction enzyme map of the targeting vector, the WT locus, and the predicted mutant $Ca_v3.3$ allele following homologous recombination and after Cre deletion of the selection cassette in the finalized allele used to create mice. Only restriction sites relevant to the targeting strategy are indicated. The exon/intron numbering is as described in Mouse Genome Information (Vertebrate Genome Annotation). The sizes of exons and introns are not to scale. Restriction enzymes: B, BamHI; RI, EcoRI; RV, EcoRV; X, XhoI. Cassettes: β geo, β -galactosidase-neomycin; E-1, EN2-SA-internal ribosomal entry site; MC1DTA, diphtheria toxin A fragment gene driven by an MC1 promoter; MC1TK, thymidine kinase gene; PGKneo, phosphoglycerol kinase-neomycin. (B) RT-PCR for $Ca_v3.3$ mRNA and β -actin from different brain areas, as indicated, in WT and $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ mice. Crb, cerebellum; Ctx, cortex; OB, olfactory bulb; Thal, thalamus. (C) RT-PCR of thalamic $Ca_v3.2$ expression indicated as mean cycle of threshold differences between $Ca_v3.2$ and GAPDH mRNA (WT, $n = 6$; $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$, $n = 6$). (D) PCR analysis of tail DNA to identify WT, heterozygous, and homozygous animals. PCR primers used are identified in *SI Materials and Methods*.

were generated upon depolarization from the resting membrane potential of -70 mV (16). In contrast, in nRt cells from $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ mice, repetitive burst discharges were absent, whereas tonic firing was unaltered (Fig. 2A and Table S1). Passive membrane properties did not differ between genotypes ($P > 0.05$ in all cases) (Fig. 2B1). Additionally, no difference was observed in inwardly rectifying currents ($P > 0.05$) (Fig. 2B2) (17).

We next attempted to facilitate rhythmic bursting by imposing transient hyperpolarizations from more depolarized membrane potentials (Fig. 2C–F). Low-threshold Ca^{2+} spikes could be elicited in $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ nRt cells that were depolarized beyond -60 mV before transient hyperpolarization; however, the number of Ca^{2+} spikes was reduced markedly compared with WT cells (e.g., at -55 mV, 4.9 ± 0.6 in WT, $n = 8$, vs. 1.6 ± 0.2 in $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$, $n = 13$; $P < 0.01$) (Fig. 2D and E). Moreover, $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ cells typically generated a single low-threshold Ca^{2+} spike crowned with action potentials (APs), whereas APs were triggered for several Ca^{2+} spikes in WT cells (Fig. 2D). Finally, the number of APs generated by the first Ca^{2+} spike was diminished markedly (e.g., at -55 mV, 3.6 ± 0.5 in WT vs. 1.5 ± 0.4 in $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$; $P < 0.01$) (Fig. 2F). Indeed, in 7 of 13 cells, only a single or no AP could be elicited across the range of voltages tested, indicating that full-fledged burst discharge failed. The rebound depolarization observed in $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ cells was blocked by low Ni^{2+} concentrations (50 – 100 μ M in bath) (Fig. S1), indicating that a T-type conductance remained. Similar discharge deficits were found in 10-wk-old animals (Fig. S2).

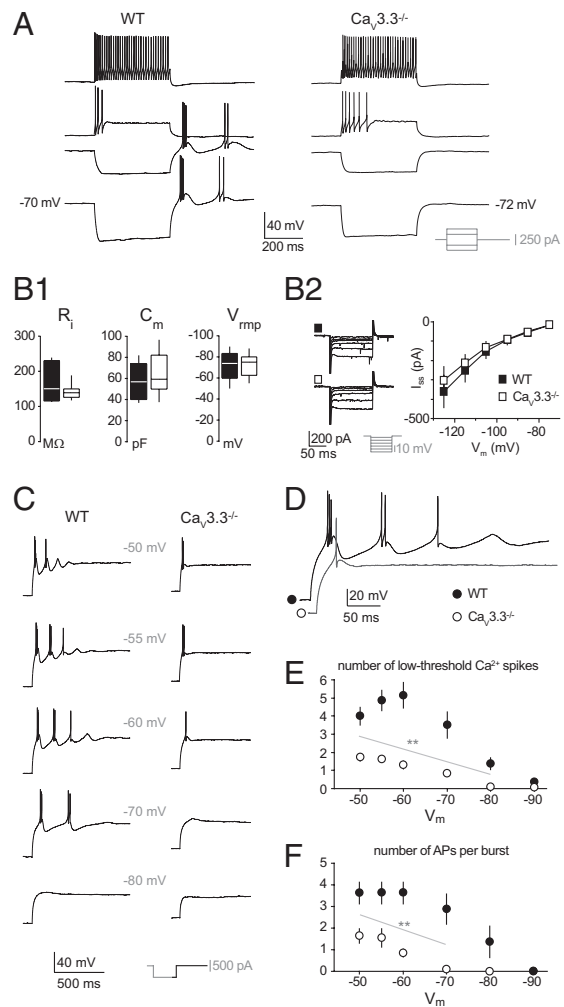


Fig. 2. $Ca_v3.3$ T-type Ca^{2+} channel deletion impairs rebound bursting in nRt cells. (A) Representative discharge patterns in nRt cells of a WT and a $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ mouse induced by step current injections from rest. (Inset) Protocol. (B1) Box-and-whisker plots of input resistance (R_i), membrane capacitance (C_m), and resting membrane potential (V_{rmp}) of nRt cells from WT mice ($n = 8$) and $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ mice ($n = 13$). For each box, the midline indicates the median, and top and bottom lines indicate 90th and 10th percentiles, respectively; whiskers span maximal to minimal values ($P > 0.05$ in all cases). (B2) (Left) Current responses to increasing hyperpolarizing voltage steps. (Inset) Protocol. (Right) Average values of steady-state current (I_{ss}) at voltages indicated (WT, $n = 7$; $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$, $n = 6$; $P > 0.05$). (C) Membrane voltage responses to -500 -pA-step current injections from different holding potentials, as indicated. (D) Expanded traces from C (-60 mV). (E and F) Number of low-threshold Ca^{2+} spikes (E) and number of APs (F) within the first burst differed across a wide range of membrane potentials (WT, $n = 8$; $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$, $n = 13$; $**P < 0.01$).

In contrast to the drastic reduction of bursting in nRt cells, T channel-mediated burst discharge was preserved in TC cells principally expressing $Ca_v3.1$ channels, and low-threshold Ca^{2+} spikes were crowned by a comparable number of APs (Fig. 3A–C).

Inhibitory synaptic output from bursting nRt cells is important for rebound burst generation in connected TC cells. To test whether the absence of $Ca_v3.3$ channels affected nRt-mediated inhibition of TC cells, we recorded synaptic responses in voltage-clamped TC cells evoked by stimulating excitatory afferents onto nRt cells (6). In WT mice, synaptic responses typically appeared as multiplexed events with an interpeak interval of 4.2 ± 0.5 ms (in six of seven cells) that is characteristic for the high-frequency

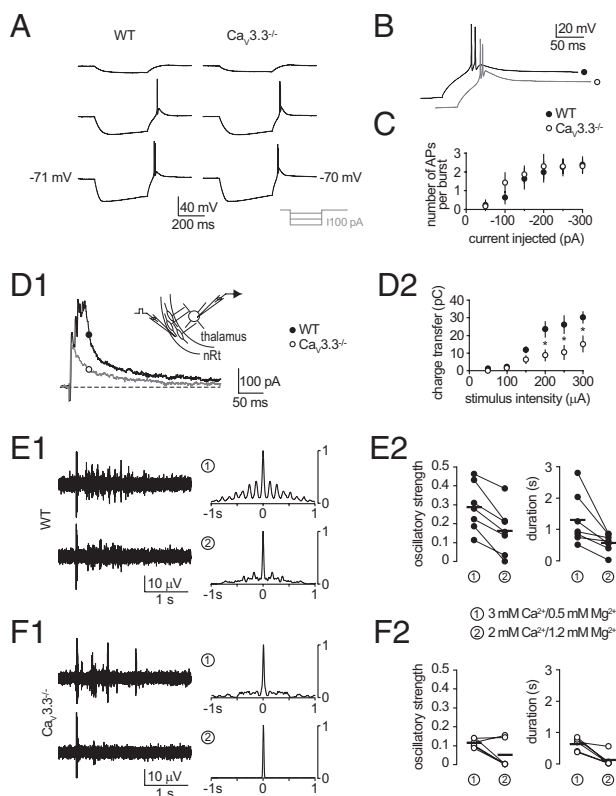


Fig. 3. $Ca_v3.3$ deletion does not affect rebound discharge in TC cells but reduces intrathalamic synchronized network activity. (A) Representative traces of rebound discharge in TC cells. (Inset) Protocol. (B) Expanded overlay of traces shown in A (-250 -pA steps). (C) The number of APs within the burst did not differ across the whole range of current injections tested (WT, $n = 8$; $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$, $n = 7$; $P > 0.05$). (D1) Synaptic responses evoked in TC cells by electrical stimulation in nRt. (Inset) Recording configuration. (D2) Synaptic responses in TC cells show a larger charge transfer in WT cells at the stimulus intensities at which responses could be evoked reliably (WT, $n = 7$; $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$, $n = 6$; $P < 0.05$). (E1) Representative multiunit discharges in nRt from WT mice. Circled numbers indicate Ca^{2+}/Mg^{2+} in ACSF. Traces are aligned to stimulus artifacts. (E2) Oscillatory strength and duration of spindles were calculated from autocorrelograms as ratio of second to first peak and as time between 100% and 5% of the maximum, respectively. Values from single experiments (circles) and average values (horizontal bars) are displayed for the two ionic conditions ($n = 7$). (F1 and F2) As in E1 and E2 for $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$. In four of six cases, change in Ca^{2+}/Mg^{2+} completely abolished oscillations.

bursts of nRt cells (Fig. 3D1). In contrast, in $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ mice, multiple peaks appeared rarely (in two of six cells). As a result, the inhibitory driving force onto TC cells was significantly smaller in $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ mice, as determined from the integral of synaptic currents evoked by increasing stimulus intensities (e.g., with 250 - μ A stimulus intensity: 26 ± 5 pC in WT mice vs. 10 ± 4 pC in $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ mice; $P < 0.05$) (Fig. 3D2).

To investigate the effects of reduced nRt inhibitory drive on intrathalamic circuitry involved in sleep spindles (18), we examined synchronized multiunit discharges in nRt elicited via bipolar electrical stimulation of excitatory afferents in the adjacent internal capsule and perpetuated via reciprocal synaptic interactions with TC cells. To facilitate network activity, we first perfused slices with artificial CSF (ACSF) containing increased Ca^{2+} (3 mM) and decreased Mg^{2+} (0.5 mM). In WT mice, robust reverberating activity at 7–9 Hz lasting ~ 1.5 s was elicited (Fig. 3E). Similar activity was detected in slices from $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ mice, but with weaker oscillatory strength ($P < 0.05$) and shorter duration ($P = 0.07$) (Fig. 3E and F). Notably, after returning to normal divalent cation concentrations (2 mM $Ca^{2+}/1.2$ mM

Mg^{2+}), synchronized oscillations disappeared in $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ mice in most cases (four of six slices) but remained in WT slices (six of seven slices). Thus, the absence of $Ca_v3.3$ channels impairs the capability of the nRt–TC network to generate spindle-like discharge, but rhythmic discharge can be restored partially by increasing cellular excitability.

Dominant Contribution of $Ca_v3.3$ Channels to T Currents in nRt Neurons. Whole-cell T currents were elicited by increasingly depolarized voltage steps (1 s) from -100 mV using a fluoride-containing patch pipette solution (Fig. 4 and *SI Materials and Methods*). Compared with WT cells, T-current density in $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ nRt cells was reduced throughout the activation range (e.g., 78% reduction at -70 mV; $P < 0.01$, and 54% reduction at -50 mV; $P < 0.01$; $n = 10$ for WT and $n = 8$ for $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$) (Fig. 4A2). Moreover, the activation curve was shifted toward more depolarized potentials in $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ mice ($P < 0.01$) (Fig. 4A3). Strikingly, T currents from $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ cells had a 2.5-fold faster decay than WT cells (e.g., at -50 mV $\tau_{w, decay} = 96 \pm 10$ ms for WT vs. $\tau_{w, decay} = 38 \pm 6$ ms for $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$; $n = 10$ and 8, respectively; $P < 0.01$) (Fig. 4B). Similar alterations were found at near-physiological temperature (Fig. S3). Notably, recovery from steady-state inactivation was retarded in $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ cells (time constant of recovery: $\tau_{w, rec} = 1.5 \pm 0.3$ s for WT vs. $\tau_{w, rec} = 7.9 \pm 2.3$ s for $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$; $n = 10$ and 8, respectively; $P < 0.05$) (Fig. 4C).

Pharmacological properties of T currents in WT and $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ cells were compared for current block by Ni^{2+} , which differs between $Ca_v3.2$ and $Ca_v3.3$ channels (Fig. 4D) (19). In $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ cells, T currents were strongly reduced with 50 μ M Ni^{2+} (by $74 \pm 7\%$; $n = 6$; $P < 0.01$), but 200 μ M Ni^{2+} blocked T currents only partially in WT cells (by $40 \pm 5\%$; $n = 6$; $P < 0.01$), and a residual current remained even with 500 μ M Ni^{2+} (peak reduction: $60 \pm 4\%$; $n = 6$; $P < 0.01$). Similar blockade was found with an intracellular solution that preserves cellular discharge properties (Fig. S4). Additionally, low-threshold Ca^{2+} currents evoked in $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ cells were invariant against the R-type channel blocker SNX-482 (change by $-1.0 \pm 2.9\%$; $n = 4$, $P > 0.05$) (Fig. S4) at doses that reduce R currents in nRt slices (20). Around resting membrane potentials, low-threshold Ca^{2+} currents thus are carried dominantly by T channels in WT nRt cells and contain two components with different Ni^{2+} sensitivity (13).

Elimination of Burst-Mediated Dendritic Ca^{2+} Signaling in $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ Neurons. $Ca_v3.3$ channels have been implicated previously in intracellular $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ dynamics important for cellular rhythmicity (16, 21). We performed fluorescent imaging in cells infused with the Ca^{2+} -sensitive dye bis-fura-2 (1 mM) and focused on transients in dye-bound intracellular Ca^{2+} concentrations ($\Delta[Ca^{2+}]_i$) in nRt dendrites, which are essential for oscillatory bursting (16). Fluorescent signals were collected from portions of dendritic arbors up to ~ 200 μ m from the cell body (Fig. 5A and B). In cells from WT mice, repetitive burst firing induced by brief hyperpolarizing steps evoked large $\Delta[Ca^{2+}]_i$ (Fig. 5A). In contrast, in cells from $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ mice, rebound firing, even when facilitated by prior membrane depolarization, produced only a minor $\Delta[Ca^{2+}]_i$, with peak amplitudes of $\Delta[Ca^{2+}]_i$ reduced by $\sim 80\%$ compared with WT (Fig. 5B). Tonic firing elicited by depolarizing steps evoked comparable $\Delta[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in both genotypes, indicating intact function of high-voltage-activated (HVA) Ca^{2+} channels.

Coupling between T channels and Ca^{2+} -dependent small conductance-type 2 K^+ (SK2) channels in nRt dendrites underlies oscillatory discharge of nRt cells (16). We used the SK channel blocker apamin to assess whether the absence of $Ca_v3.3$ channels disrupted this coupling, which manifests as a biphasic current containing inward T- and outward SK2-current components (Fig. 5C) (16). Apamin-sensitive SK currents, obtained via digital subtraction of whole-cell currents in apamin from those in control

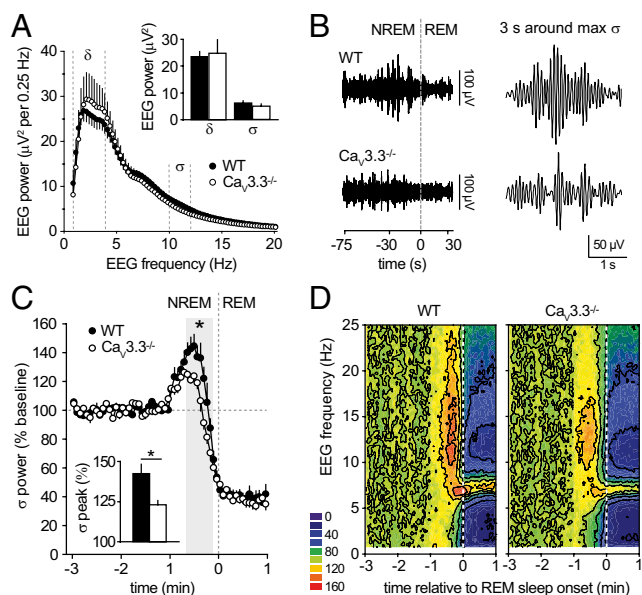


Fig. 6. Selective reduction in EEG σ power in naturally sleeping $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ mice. (A) Spectral analysis of the absolute EEG power between 0.75 and 20 Hz for NREM sleep. Dotted lines delineate δ (0.75–4 Hz) and σ (10–12 Hz) bands. (Inset) Mean absolute δ and σ power. (B) (Left) Example of traces of band pass-filtered (10–12 Hz) EEG recordings illustrating the surge of spindle power at NREM-to-REM sleep transitions. (Right) Zoom-in on the maximal σ activity before the transition. (C) Time course of mean EEG activity in the σ frequency band at NREM-to-REM sleep transitions. Data were normalized to the average σ power in the time window -3 to -1 min. Gray box indicates data points with significant difference ($*P < 0.05$) between groups. (Inset) Peak values of σ power at the surge before REM sleep onset. (D) Color-coded heat map of percent EEG power between 0.75–25 Hz (0.25-Hz bins) during the NREM-to-REM sleep transition. Contour lines connect levels of similar relative power in nine color-coded 20% increments. White dashed lines at time 0 indicate NREM/REM sleep border.

$143 \pm 7\%$ vs. $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$, $120 \pm 4\%$; $P < 0.05$) (Fig. 6 B and C), but absolute σ power baseline values did not differ (WT, $6.1 \pm 0.9 \mu V^2$ vs. $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$, $4.8 \pm 0.8 \mu V^2$, $P > 0.05$). The decrement of δ power at the transition was unaffected ($P > 0.05$) (Fig. 6D), and absolute δ power baseline values were similar (WT, $24.6 \pm 2.0 \mu V^2$ vs. $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$, $25.4 \pm 5.2 \mu V^2$, $P > 0.05$). Deficits in nRt bursting thus manifest specifically at the level of a single sleep EEG frequency band.

Discussion

The present results demonstrate an obligatory role for $Ca_v3.3$ channels in burst discharge of cells in the nRt, a long-established pacemaker element in the genesis of the EEG characteristics for slow-wave sleep. We also identify $Ca_v3.3$ channels as the Ca^{2+} source necessary for dendritic Ca^{2+} transients and for the coupling to SK2 channels that underlies the oscillatory bursting of nRt cells. Finally, $Ca_v3.3$ channels are essential for spindle generation during natural sleep, with other frequency bands remaining untouched. Together, the $Ca_v3.3$ channel represents a specific molecular link between a special type of neuronal discharge and an EEG hallmark of sleep.

The unique kinetic properties of $Ca_v3.3$ -mediated currents (2, 3) made these channels candidates to underlie the strong burst discharge properties of nRt cells (24). Several of our findings now show directly that $Ca_v3.3$ channels in nRt mediate native current characteristics. First, the absence of $Ca_v3.3$ channels accelerated the decay of the remaining current, indicating that the characteristic slow decay of whole-cell T currents in nRt is dependent on $Ca_v3.3$ channels. Also, in $Ca_v3.2^{-/-}$ nRt cells

recorded with similar intracellular recording solutions (13), decay kinetics were comparable to the ones we obtained in WT cells. Second, recovery from inactivation of the T current was slowed in the absence of $Ca_v3.3$ channels, consistent with the rapid recovery of cloned $Ca_v3.3$ channels (2). Finally, Ni^{2+} sensitivity was low in the WT cells but increased dramatically in the absence of $Ca_v3.3$ channels, suggesting that a weakly Ni^{2+} -sensitive Ca^{2+} current dominates in WT, whereas a highly Ni^{2+} -sensitive Ca^{2+} current remained in the $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ nRt cells. This pharmacological profile points to a T-current component carried by $Ca_v3.2$ channels, consistent with previous observations in $Ca_v3.2^{-/-}$ mice (13). We found that $Ca_v3.3$ currents were largely responsible for cellular bursting, for dendritic Ca^{2+} signals, and for the coupling to SK2 channels, consistent with their predominant dendritic expression (11). However, network activity could be sustained in $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ nRt cells, and whether $Ca_v3.2$ channel activity in nRt contributes to and plays a role in the regulation of natural sleep is not yet known.

Since Morison and Bassett's original observation that spindle oscillations in thalamus resist decortication (25), decades of research have established the recurrent thalamic circuits as their site of origin (14). In contrast, how thalamic oscillators shape the two other major NREM sleep frequency bands, the slow rhythm (<1 Hz) and the δ waves (0.5–4 Hz), remains unknown, although nRt bursting has been implicated (14, 26). In particular, δ waves are suppressed in mice lacking either SK2- or $K_v3.1/3.3$ -type K^+ channels, both of which are important for rhythmic bursting in nRt (16, 27). The present results help clarify the intertwined roles of cortical and thalamic oscillators in the sleep EEG. First, they establish a specific role for nRt bursting as the core mechanism for spindle waves, thus providing a genetic basis for the widely acknowledged unique standing of nRt in this characteristic sleep rhythm. The presence of $Ca_v3.3$ protein close to asymmetric synapses (11) also underscores the fact that corticothalamic excitatory input can trigger local nRt bursting (6) and recruit thalamus into large-scale brain oscillations (14). Second, they demonstrate a minor role, if any, for nRt bursting in low-frequency (<4 Hz) EEG waves of natural sleep, suggesting a major cortical contribution to these rhythms. This result is consistent with the established cortical origin of slow rhythms (14) but remains intriguing in the case of δ waves, for which nRt acts as an intrathalamic synchronizing element (14). Monitoring intrathalamic and cortical activity during deep sleep will be required to resolve the relation between thalamic and cortical contributions to δ waves. It also must be considered that $Ca_v3.2$ and $Ca_v3.3$ channels are both expressed in cortex (4, 11), and the absence of $Ca_v3.3$ channels from birth might alter cortical network activity chronically. This alteration, in turn, can promote low-frequency burst discharge in pyramidal neurons, perhaps by up-regulation of $Ca_v3.2$ expression (28). Moreover, marked adaptive plasticity occurs in nRt in response to cortical injury (17), leading to augmented excitatory input in uninjured corticothalamic fibers. The current results show that thalamic cellular properties, in particular $Ca_v3.2$ channels in nRt, are largely spared from compensatory alterations when $Ca_v3.3$ is removed, but compensations at synaptic and circuit levels remain to be explored.

Sleep spindles contribute to brain plasticity both in adulthood and during development (29, 30). Spindle waves are implicated in sleep-dependent memory consolidation by coordinating information transfer from hippocampus to cortex (29). Moreover, mimicking spindle activity in cortical cells promotes associative synaptic plasticity (31). In the developing brain, local cortical spindles probably involving thalamus are the first indications of synchronized network activity (30). Further analysis of the $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ mouse undoubtedly will be essential in delineating the role of thalamically generated spindles in these diverse brain processes.

Materials and Methods

Generation of $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ Mice. Gene targeting was performed in E14.1 129O1a ES cells, replacing exons 11–21 of the $Ca_v3.3$ gene with the expression/selection cassette indicated in Fig. 1. For target construction, the 5' and 3' homology arms (~5.1 kb XhoI and ~4.5 kb EcoRV/BamHI restriction fragments, respectively) were cloned from a 129SVJ genomic BAC library and placed on either side of the expression/selection cassette shown in Fig. 1. Homologous recombination in G418-resistant ES cells at the 5' and 3' ends of the target locus was determined by Southern blot of EcoRV (WT 17 kb/mutant 10 kb) and EcoRI (WT 17 kb/mutant 8 kb) digested ES cell genomic DNA, respectively, using external probes. The PGK Neo MC1 tk selection cassette was removed by transient pCAG-Cre transfection of targeted cells followed by selection with gancyclovir (2 μ M). Targeted ES cell clones were injected into C57BL/6J-derived blastocysts. Male chimaeras were crossed with C57BL/6J females to produce N1F0 offspring, which were backcrossed into the C57BL/6J line for seven generations and further intercrossed to produce homozygous mutant mice ($Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$). Details of genotyping and RT-PCR are given in *SI Materials and Methods*.

Electrophysiology and Fluorescent Imaging. For whole-cell patch clamp recordings and fluorescent Ca^{2+} imaging in nRt cells, horizontal slices 300 μ m thick were prepared from 3- to 4-wk-old and 8- to 10-wk-old $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ mice and WT littermates, as previously described (16). For extracellular multiunit recordings, slices 400 μ m thick were prepared from 6- to 8-wk-old mice and maintained in an interface-style recording chamber at near-physiological temperature (30–32 $^{\circ}$ C). Details of electrophysiological recording conditions, fluorescence imaging, and data acquisition and analysis are given in *SI Materials and Methods*.

EEG/EMG Recordings. Female 8- to 9-wk-old $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ mice and WT littermates maintained under 12:12-h light/dark schedule (lights on at 8:00 AM)

were implanted with EEG and EMG electrodes according to standard procedures (16). $Ca_v3.3^{-/-}$ mice showed comparable locomotor activity across the 24-h light-dark cycle (Fig. S5). Under deep ketamine/xylazine anesthesia (i.p., 100 mg/kg and 10 mg/kg, respectively, at a volume of 8 μ L/g), six gold-plated miniature screws (1.1-mm diameter) were implanted into the skull. The two screws placed over the right frontal and right parietal cortex served as EEG electrodes. For EMG measurements, two semirigid gold wires were inserted into the neck muscles, and all electrodes were soldered to a connector. The construct was fixed to the skull using the four additional screws and sealed with dental cement. After 4–7 d of recovery from surgery, animals were tethered to the recording leads and a commutator (Dragonfly). Four or five additional days were allowed for habituation. Undisturbed sleep–wake behavior was recorded for 48 h. Further details of recording, scoring, and data analysis are given in *SI Materials and Methods*.

Statistical Analysis. Data are presented in all figures as mean \pm SEM. A paired or unpaired Student's *t* test was used as appropriate with significance accepted for $P < 0.05$.

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