Enhanced Circadian Phase Resetting in R192Q $Ca_v2.1$ Calcium Channel Migraine Mice

Floor van Oosterhout, MS,[1] Stephan Michel, PhD,[1] Tom Deboer, PhD,[1] Thijs Houben, MS,[1] Rob C. G. van de Ven, PhD,[2] Henk Albus, PhD,[1] Joost Westerhout, MS,[1] Mariska J. Vansteensel, PhD,[1] Michel D. Ferrari, MD, PhD,[3] Arn M. J. M. van den Maagdenberg, PhD,[2,3] and Johanna H. Meijer, PhD[1]

Objective: Mammalian circadian rhythms are driven by the circadian pacemaker of the suprachiasmatic nucleus (SCN) and are synchronized to the external 24-hour light/dark cycle. After advance time zone transitions (eastbound jet lag), overt circadian rhythms require several days to adjust. The retarded adaptation may protect against acute imbalance of different brain systems. Abrupt circadian rhythm changes may trigger migraine attacks, possibly because migraineurs have an inadequate adaptation mechanism. The novel R192Q knock-in migraine mouse model carries mutated $Ca_v2.1$ calcium channels, causing increased presynaptic calcium influx and neurotransmitter release. We investigated whether these mice have an abnormal adjustment to phase advance shifts.

Methods: We examined phase resetting to 6-hour advance shifts of the light/dark cycle with behavioral and electroencephalographic recordings in R192Q and wild-type mice. We recorded excitatory postsynaptic currents in the SCN, and electrical impulse frequency in vitro and in vivo.

Results: R192Q mice showed a more than twofold enhanced adjustment of behavioral wheel-running activity and electroencephalographic patterns, as well as enhanced shifts of electrical activity of SCN neurons in vivo. No differences were found for in vitro recordings of the electrical impulse frequency in SCN slices.

Interpretation: R192Q migraine mice lack the physiological retardation in circadian adaptation to phase advance shifts. The opposite findings in vivo and in vitro exclude involvement of the retinal input pathway or the phase-shifting capacity of the SCN. Thus, the physiological inhibitory process appears to be mediated by $Ca_v2.1$ channel–dependent afferent signaling from extra-SCN brain areas to the SCN.

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Mammalian circadian rhythms in physiology and behavior are driven by a master pacemaker within the suprachiasmatic nucleus (SCN) of the anterior hypothalamus. Individual neurons of the SCN are intrinsically capable of generating a circadian rhythm.[1] To entrain to the environmental light/dark (LD) cycle, light information is conveyed from specialized retinal photoreceptors to the SCN through the retinohypothalamic tract,[2] which utilizes glutamate and pituitary adenylate cyclase-activating peptide as its major neurotransmitters.[3,4] After a shift of the LD cycle, as in time-zone transitions, overt circadian rhythms require several days to regain their phase relation with the new environmental cycle. In humans, this is associated with symptoms of "jet lag." Readjustment to an advanced light schedule (ie, eastbound flights) takes several days more than readjustment to a delayed schedule (ie, flying westbound).[5,6] The reason for this difference and the underlying mechanisms are unknown. Recent evidence suggests that brain pathways outside the SCN attenuate phase advances, but not delays, of the rat circadian system.[7] If the ability to adjust to phase advanced light schedules is dependent on signaling mechanisms within the central nervous system, we expect that animal models with alterations in synaptic signaling show different resetting kinetics.

In this study, we investigate resetting in a migraine mouse model. Migraine is a common brain disorder,

From the [1]Laboratory for Neurophysiology, Department of Molecular Cell Biology; [2]Department of Human Genetics; and [3]Department of Neurology, Leiden University Medical Center, Leiden, the Netherlands.

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Address correspondence to Prof. Meijer, Laboratory for Neurophysiology, Department of Molecular Cell Biology, Leiden University Medical Center, P.O. Box 9600, 2300 RC Leiden, the Netherlands. E-mail: j.h.meijer@lumc.nl

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characterized by disabling attacks of headache, autonomic dysregulation, and in one third of patients, neurological (aura) symptoms.[8] Attacks can be triggered by acute changes in sleep pattern, such as lack of sleep, sleeping in, and time zone transitions.[8–10] In a family with familial advanced sleep phase syndrome, all carriers of the causative casein kinase I δ clock gene mutation[11,12] also suffered from migraine with aura, suggesting common pathophysiological mechanisms.[13] There is abundant evidence that the migraine brain processes sensory stimuli differently than the brains of nonmigraineurs. Both hyperexcitatory responses to acute and lack of habituation to repeated visual, auditory, or cognitive stimuli have been reported (for review, see Ambrosini and colleagues[14]). Familial hemiplegic migraine type 1 (FHM1) is an autosomal dominant subtype of migraine in which attacks are associated with hemiparesis.[15] The headache and aura symptoms are otherwise identical to those of the common forms of migraine, and the majority of FHM patients also have normal, "nonhemiplegic" migraine attacks.[16,17]

We recently generated knock-in mice expressing the R192Q *CACNA1A* mutation that, in humans, causes FHM1.[18,19] The *CACNA1A* gene encodes the pore-forming α_{1A} subunit of voltage-gated $Ca_v2.1$ (P/Q-type) calcium channels.[18] These channels are predominantly localized at presynaptic nerve terminals throughout the brain,[19] including the SCN,[20–23] and play a key role in mediating neurotransmitter release.[24,25] R192Q mice show enhanced single-channel calcium influx, associated with increased spontaneous and triggered neurotransmitter release, and enhanced susceptibility for cortical spreading depression.[19,26] Cortical spreading depression is the likely underlying mechanism for migraine aura[27,28] and may trigger migraine headache pathways in animals[29] and possibly humans.[30]

Here, we examined the behavioral and electrophysiological responses of R192Q mice to 6-hour advance shifts to explore the hypothesis that $Ca_v2.1$ calcium channels are involved in the neuronal signaling process from afferent pathways onto the SCN, and thus may play an important role in retarded adjustment to advance phase shifts. Indeed, wheel-running activity rhythms of R192Q mice showed enhanced advancing responses, and recordings of electroencephalographic (EEG) parameters showed an enlarged shifting capacity of the sleep/wake cycle in mutated mice, suggesting atypical phase resetting of their circadian system. Recordings of excitatory postsynaptic currents (EPSCs) in the SCN and of electrical impulse frequency in vitro and in vivo support the hypothesis that the physiological inhibition of advance phase resetting is mediated via $Ca_v2.1$ channel–dependent afferent signaling from extra-SCN brain areas onto the SCN.

Materials and Methods

R192Q Knock-in Mice

We used a knock-in mouse strain carrying the human FHM1 R192Q mutation (ie, an arginine-to-glutamine change at amino acid 192) in *Cacna1a,* the mouse ortholog of the human *CACNA1A* gene.[19] Male R192Q mice and littermates were genotyped after weaning as described previously.[19] Genotypes were confirmed at the end of each experiment. Adult mice were housed individually in cages equipped with a running wheel in a temperature-controlled room (22°C). Time of lights on is defined as "Zeitgeber time" (ZT) 0, and time of lights off as ZT 12. Food and water were available ad libitum. The presence of wheel-running activity was automatically recorded in 1-minute bins. All experiments were performed under the approval of the Animal Experiments Ethical Committee of the Leiden University Medical Center.

Wheel-Running Activity Rhythms

After entrainment to a 12/12 LD regimen for 4 weeks, advances or delays of the light cycle were achieved by starting the light time 6 hours earlier or by ending it 6 hours later, respectively.[7,31] In both protocols, animals were exposed to one additional shifted light cycle.[7,31] After exposure to the shifted light cycles, the animals were released into constant darkness (DD) for at least 14 days to determine the phase shift in the absence of possible masking effects of light. The magnitude of the steady-state behavioral phase shift was determined by manually fitting straight lines through the activity onsets before and after the shift of the LD cycle and extrapolating these lines to the first day after the shift. Transient days immediately after the shift were excluded from analysis. In addition, a day-to-day analysis was performed by measurement of activity onsets after the shift in DD relative to the unperturbed old phase predicted by the free-running period. The free-running period was determined for days 5 to 14 in DD using periodogram analysis.

Sleep/Wake Recordings

Techniques for EEG and electromyographic (EMG) recordings were as described previously.[32,33] Male R192Q mice and wild-type control mice (minimum age, 12 weeks; 20–30gm) were entrained to a 12/12-hour LD cycle. The animals were anesthetized by intraperitoneal injection (Ketamine Hydrochloride [Nimatek], 100mg/ml, 75mg/kg; medetomidine hydrochloride [Domitor], 0.5mg/ml, 0.5mg/kg). EEG electrodes were screwed through the skull on the dura over the right cortex and the cerebellum. For EMG recordings, two isolated wires with suture patches were inserted between the skin and the neck muscle tissue. The animals were connected to the recording system by a flexible cable and a swivel system, causing minimal interference with the animals' movements. After an 18-hour baseline recording, starting at lights on, the LD schedule was advanced by 6 hours as described earlier. The recordings were continued after release into DD. The EEG and EMG signals were amplified (approximately 2000×), band-pass filtered (0.5–30Hz, −40 DB/decade), and subjected to analog-to-digital conversion (sampling rate, 128Hz). Three vigilance states (waking, non–rapid eye movement sleep, and REM sleep) were determined visually

for every 4-second epoch from standardized EEG/EMG criteria for mice.[32,33] The onset of waking was defined as the onset of the first three 30-minute intervals with waking values above the 24-hour mean. Individual phase shifts were determined by comparing the onset of waking on the second day in DD with the unshifted baseline values. The second day in DD was used because LD cycles may have aftereffects on sleep on day 1 in DD in rats[34,35] and mice.[36]

Light Conditions

Wheel-running activity patterns of R192Q and wild-type mice were examined in the following light protocols: LD 12/12 hours for 3 weeks, constant darkness (DD) for 3 weeks, and constant light (LL) for 3 weeks (approximately 200 lux during lights on). Periodogram analyses with 5-minute resolution were performed over the last 10 days in each light condition. The phase angle of entrainment was determined by extrapolating the phase of the free-running rhythm after release into DD to the last day of the LD cycle.

Response to Brief Light Pulses

Partial-phase response curves to brief light pulses (15 min, 500 lux) were constructed for wild-type and R192Q mice. Because we were mainly interested in the generation of phase advances, we concentrated on the second part of the night and applied pulses at circadian time (CT) 19, 21, 23, 1, or 3 (CT 12 = activity onset) on the seventh day in DD. Steady-state phase shifts of wheel-running rhythms were determined as described earlier.

Whole-Cell Recordings of Excitatory Postsynaptic Currents

Brain slice preparation and patch recording methods were similar to earlier studies.[37,38] Mice were killed by decapitation during the day (ZT 6), and brains dissected and placed in cold oxygenated artificial cerebrospinal fluid containing (in mM) NaCl 130, $NaHCO_3$ 26, KCl 3, $MgCl_2$ 5, NaH_2PO_4 1.25, $CaCl_2$ 1.0, glucose 10 (pH 7.2–7.4). After cutting slices (VT 1000S; Leica, Wetzlar, Germany) from areas of interest, transverse sections (350μm) were placed in artificial cerebrospinal fluid (25–27°C) for at least 1 hour (in this solution, $CaCl_2$ is increased to 2mM, $MgCl_2$ is decreased to 2mM). Slices are constantly oxygenated with 95% O_2-5% CO_2 (pH 7.2–7.4, osmolality 290–310mOsm). Slices were viewed with an upright compound microscope (Axioskop FS2A plus; Zeiss, Göttingen, Germany), using a water immersion lens (40X), differential interference contrast optics, and an infrared-sensitive video camera (Optronis, VX45, Kehl, Germany). This imaging technique allowed us to distinguish between dorsal and ventral SCN regions. For recordings of postsynaptic currents, patch electrodes were pulled on a two-stage puller (P10; Narashige, Tokyo, Japan). Electrode resistance in the bath was typically 3 to 6MΩ. The standard solution in the patch pipette for measurement of spontaneous postsynaptic currents contains (in mM) K-gluconate 112.5, Hepes 10, MgATP 5, NaCl 4, EGTA 1, $MgCl_2$ 1, $CaCl_2$ 0.5, GTP-Tris 1, leupeptin 0.1, and phosphocreatine 10. The pH was adjusted to 7.25 to 7.3 using potassium hydroxide, and the osmolality to 290 to 295mOsm using sucrose. Bicuculline (20μM) was added to the bath solution to block inhibitory $GABA_A$-mediated synaptic transmission. The glutamate receptor (alpha-amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazole propionic acid/kainate) antagonist 6-cyano-7-nitroquinoxaline-2,3-dione (CNQX; 20μM) was added to the bath to test the nature of the remaining excitatory events. Whole-cell recordings were obtained with a commercial patch amplifier (EPC-10; HEKA, Lambrecht, Germany) and monitored on-line with the data acquisition software PATCHMASTER (HEKA). After obtaining a GΩ-seal and obtaining whole-cell configuration, cell capacitance and access resistance were compensated, and recording was then initiated. Series and input resistance were monitored repeatedly by checking the response to small test pulses (10mV) from the holding potential (−80mV). Spontaneous postsynaptic currents were analyzed using the MiniAnalysis program (Synaptosoft, Decatur, GA, USA). The software was used to automatically detect the spontaneous EPSCs (sEPSCs) in 4-minute-long, gap-free recordings. Each event was manually checked to exclude artifacts. The mean frequency of the EPSCs was calculated for each neuron.

In Vitro Electrophysiology Experiments

After a 6-hour advance of the light cycle, multiunit activity rhythms of SCN neurons were recorded as described previously.[39] In brief, coronal hypothalamic slices (500μm) were prepared at the end of the light period of the second shifted light cycle (new ZT 12) for all experiments in both groups of animals. Preparation time in the control (unshifted) animals was also at the end of the light period (ZT 12). This preparation time was chosen to conform to protocols that Yamazaki and colleagues[31] and Vansteensel and coauthors[7] used. The slices were then kept submerged in a laminar flow recording chamber and were continuously perfused with oxygenated artificial cerebrospinal fluid (36°C, 95% O_2, 5% CO_2). Dorsal and ventral regions were mechanically separated by a horizontal cut, which prevents communication between these areas. As a result, the recorded rhythm reflects the endogenous phase of each subregion.[39] Extracellular electrical activity was recorded by two stationary platinum/iridium metal electrodes (75μm, insulated) placed in either subregion of the SCN. The signals were amplified with a low noise amplifier and were band-pass filtered. Action potentials were selected by spike triggers (signal-to-noise ratio > 2:1) and counted electronically every 10 seconds for at least 36 hours for both dorsal and ventral regions separately.

In Vivo Electrophysiology Experiments

Techniques for in vivo recording of SCN electrical activity have been previously described for the rat.[7,40] In brief, mice (minimum age, 12 weeks; 20–30gm) were entrained to a 12/12 LD cycle and anesthetized by intraperitoneal injection of a mixture of Nimatek (100mg/ml, 75mg/kg) and Domitor (0.5mg/ml, 0.5mg/kg). Tripolar stainless steel microelectrodes (Plastics One. Düsseldorf, Germany) were implanted, consisting of two twisted electrodes (polyimide insulated; bare electrode diameter, 0.125mm) for differential recording that were aimed at the SCN, and a third uncoated electrode that was placed in the cortex for a reference. The electrical signal was amplified, bandwidth filtered, and recorded by a data acquisition system. Spike triggers were set to detect

multiunit neuronal activity, and action potentials were counted in 10-second bins. After a minimum of four unambiguous peaks in LD, the LD schedule was advanced by 6 hours as described earlier. The recordings were continued for 3 days in DD after the shift. At the end of each experiment, the site of recording was verified by histology.

Analysis of In Vitro and In Vivo Electrophysiology Experiments

Electrical activity rhythms obtained in vitro and in vivo were smoothed.[41] Peak times were determined off-line and were used as a phase marker to establish the magnitude of the phase shift. Phase shifts of in vivo SCN neuronal activity rhythms were determined by comparing peak times on days 1 to 3 in DD with the averaged peak time before the shift. Ambiguous peaks were excluded from analysis. The averaged peak times of in vitro and in vivo recordings were tested using two-way analyses of variance (ANOVAs). A paired *t* test was used to compare peak times between ventral and dorsal SCN in vitro.

Results

Characterization of R192Q Mice

WHEEL-RUNNING RECORDINGS. Behavioral resetting characteristics in wild-type and R192Q mice were determined by analyses of wheel-running activity rhythms after exposure to either a 6-hour advance or delay of the 12/12 LD cycle, followed by DD. After a 6-hour advance of the 12/12 LD cycle, the steady-state wheel-running activity onset was shifted by 1.5 hours (±0.2) in wild-type mice ($p < 0.001$, n = 8, paired *t* test; Figs 1A, C). All R192Q mice responded with significantly larger advances ($p < 0.001$, independent *t* test), averaging 3.6 hours (±0.3) in steady-state ($p < 0.001$; n = 8; paired *t* test; see Figs 1A, C). Day-to-day analysis showed significant phase advances for both genotypes on days 2 to 9 after the shift of the LD cycle ($p < 0.05$, ANOVA with post hoc Dunnett's tests). Comparison of the results between R192Q and wild-type mice demonstrated that R192Q mice showed significantly larger phase advances than the wild-type mice every day after the shift ($p < 0.05$, two-way ANOVA, significant effect of genotype, with post hoc independent *t* tests; see Fig 1D). Free-running periods (τ) in DD were comparable in the two genotypes (wild-type: $\tau = 23.8 \pm 0.1$ hour; R192Q: $\tau = 23.9 \pm 0.1$ hour; $p > 0.1$, independent *t* test).

After a 6-hour delay of the LD cycle, both wild-type (n = 8) and R192Q (n = 8) mice displayed an equally large steady-state phase delay of their wheel-running rhythms ($p > 0.5$, independent *t* test): wild-type and R192Q rhythms were shifted by −4.3 (±0.2) and −4.4 hours (±0.1), respectively ($p < 0.001$, paired *t* tests; see Figs 1B, C). Day-to-day analysis of activity onsets demonstrated significant delays on days 1 to 9 after the shift ($p < 0.001$, ANOVA with post hoc Dunnett's tests), without genotypic differences ($p > 0.5$, two-way ANOVA; see Fig 1E).

SLEEP/WAKE RECORDINGS. Analysis of EEG and EMG patterns provided supportive evidence for enhanced resetting of behavioral parameters in R192Q mice. After a 6-hour advance of the 12/12 LD cycle, the onset of waking was phase advanced by 1.1 hours (±0.4) in wild-type mice (n = 4) and 2.5 hours (±0.1) in R192Q mice (n = 4; Fig 2). The circadian phase of waking onset in the R192Q mice deviated from unshifted control values ($p < 0.001$, paired *t* test), whereas wild-type mice did not shift significantly ($p > 0.05$, paired *t* test). R192Q mice responded with significantly larger advances than the control animals ($p < 0.05$, independent *t* test).

LIGHT CONDITIONS. The circadian phenotype of R192Q mice was examined under different experimental light regimens: 12/12 LD, DD, and LL (see Supplementary Figs 1A, B). Under 12/12 LD cycles, R192Q mice showed 87% of total wheel-running activity as compared with wild-type control mice and entrained normally to the light cycle. No phase jump was shown on release in DD (phase angle ψ: wild-type, 0.06 ± 0.03 hour; R192Q, 0.15 ± 0.03 hour). Under DD and LL, no differences were observed in period length between R192Q (n = 8) and wild-type (n = 8) mice ($p > 0.1$, two-way ANOVA; see Supplementary Figs 1A, B).

PHASE RESPONSE TO BRIEF LIGHT PULSES. Fifteen-minute saturating light pulses were given at CT 19, 21, 23, 1, and 3 to generate phase advances of the wheel-running activity rhythm (wild-type: $n \geq 5$; R192Q: $n \geq 7$; see Supplementary Fig 1C). Two-way ANOVA showed no significant differences between genotypes ($p > 0.6$), although there was a significant effect of genotype × time ($p < 0.05$), which is caused by a displacement of the phase response curve of about 0.5 to 1 hour along the *x*-axis. No differences in the maximal advancing response ($\Delta\phi_{max}$) of the wheel-running activity rhythms were observed between genotypes (wild-type $\Delta\phi_{max} = 0.5 \pm 0.1$ hour, n = 7; R192Q $\Delta\phi_{max} = 0.6 \pm 0.1$ hour, n = 12; $p > 0.3$, independent *t* test). Independent *t* tests performed on each circadian time point demonstrated no significant differences either ($p > 0.06$).

EXCITATORY POSTSYNAPTIC CURRENT RECORDINGS. To examine whether excitatory synaptic signaling is changed in the SCN of R192Q versus wild-type mice, we measured sEPSCs in SCN slices during the day (Fig 3). Whole-cell recordings were obtained from dorsal SCN neurons, which receive excitatory input.[37] Bicuculline was added to the bath to suppress inhibitory

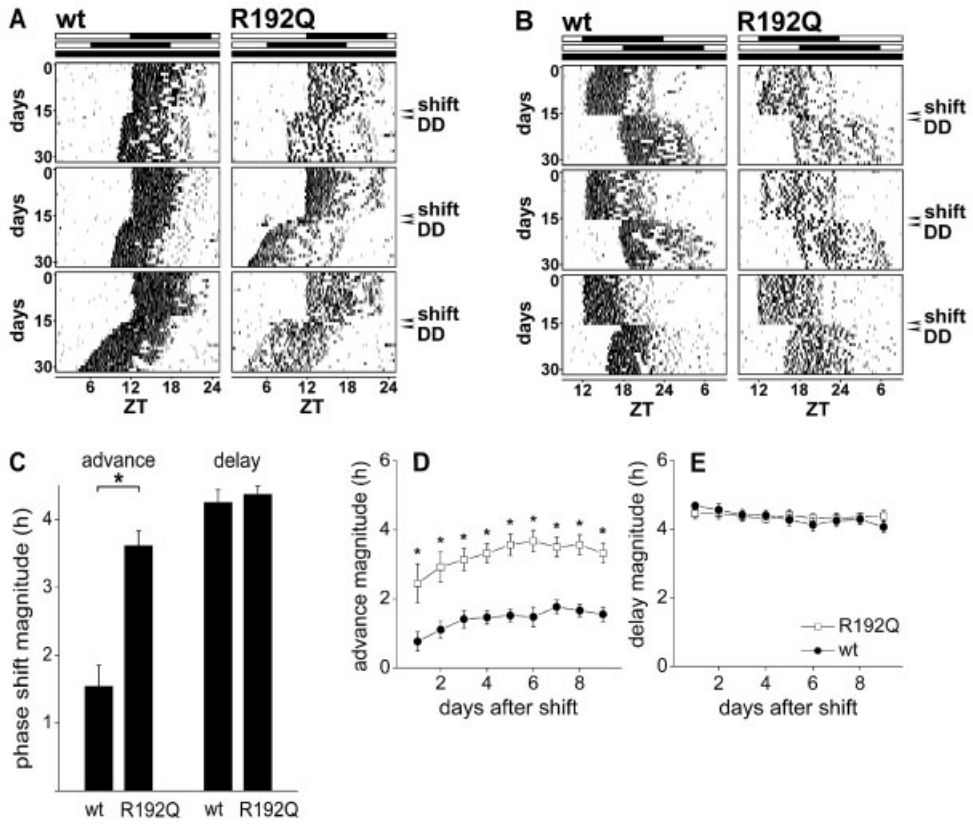

Fig 1. Steady-state and day-to-day phase shifts of wheel-running behavior in R192Q and wild-type (wt) mice after a 6-hour advance or delay of the light/dark (LD) cycle. (A) Wheel-running rhythms of three wild-type (left) and three R192Q (right) mice, exposed to a 6-hour advance of the LD 12/12 cycle (onset shift indicated by the first arrowhead*). After the advance of the light cycle, the animals were released into constant darkness (onset DD indicated by the* second arrowhead*). Above the records, the LD schedule before, during, and after the shift is indicated (*white *indicates lights on;* black *indicates lights off). The x-axis represents the Zeitgeber time (ZT) before the shift; the* y*-axis represents the subsequent days. (B) Wheel-running rhythms of three wild-type (left) and three R192Q (right) mice, exposed to a 6-hour delay of the LD 12/12 cycle (onset shift indicated by the* first arrowhead*). After the delay of the light cycle, the animals were released into constant darkness (onset DD indicated by the* second arrowhead*). The figure layout is similar to (A). (C) Average (± standard error of the mean [SEM]) steady-state phase-shift magnitude of wheel-running rhythms in wild-type and R192Q mice in response to the 6-hour phase advance (left bars) and 6-hour delay (right bars) of the LD schedule. The behavioral advances of R192Q mice were significantly larger than those of wild-type mice (*$p < 0.001$*, independent* t *test), whereas delays did not differ. (D, E) Day-to-day analysis of the phase-shift magnitude (± SEM) of the activity onset after the 6-hour phase advance (D) and delay (E) of the LD cycle in wild-type* (circles) *and R192Q mice* (squares)*. The x-axes show the days in DD after the shift; the* y*-axes indicate the phase shift magnitude in hours. The phase advances of wild-type mice differed significantly from those obtained in R192Q mice at days 1 to 9 after the shift (*$^*p < 0.05$*, two-way analysis of variance [ANOVA], significant effect of genotype, with post hoc independent* t *tests). After the 6-hour delay, the two genotypes showed phase shifts of similar magnitude (*$p > 0.5$*, two-way ANOVA).*

activity. In R192Q mice, the remaining sEPSCs were blocked by the AMPA/KA glutamate receptor (GluR) antagonist CNQX (20μM; 9/9 neurons), as previously demonstrated in wild-type mice.[37] Nearly a fivefold increase was observed in frequency of sEPSCs in R192Q mice, averaging 0.44 ± 0.11Hz in wild-type (n = 11) and 2.13 ± 0.57Hz in R192Q mice (n = 9).

In Vitro Electrophysiology

To examine whether phase shifting of wheel-running activity coincided with the phase-shifting response of the SCN itself, we recorded electrical activity rhythms in the SCN in vitro (Fig 4; see Supplementary Fig 2). Brain slices were prepared at the onset of DD. A horizontal cut separated dorsal and ventral regions from which recordings were performed simultaneously. Peaks of electrical activity rhythms in unshifted LD cycles occurred shortly before midday in both genotypes (see Supplementary Fig 2E). To determine phase shifts, we compared peak times of recordings from phase-advanced animals (wild-type: dorsal, n = 6; ventral, n = 4; R192Q: dorsal, n = 7; ventral, n = 6) with peak times of the unshifted controls (wild-type: dorsal, n = 7; ventral, n = 7; R192Q: dorsal, n = 5; ventral,

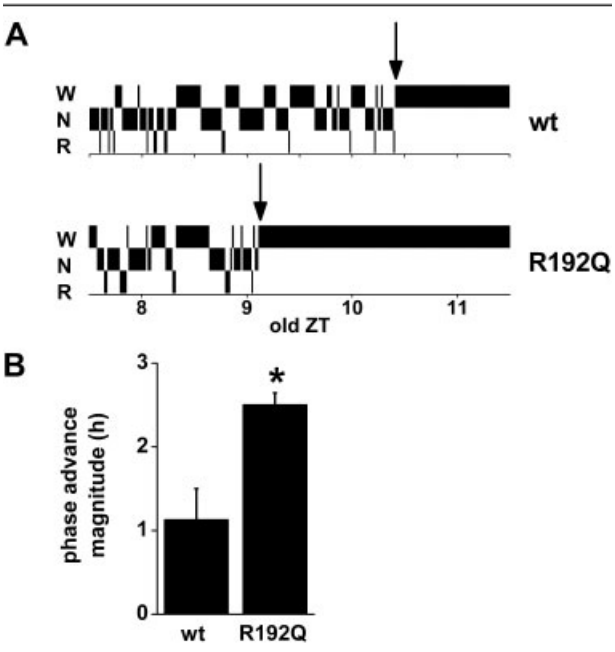

Fig 2. Sleep/wake patterns in wild-type (wt) and R192Q mice after exposure to a 6-hour advance of the light/dark (LD) cycle. (A) A representative 12-hour record of vigilance states (W = waking, N = non–rapid eye movement [NREM] sleep, R = REM sleep) obtained during the second day in constant darkness after the 6-hour advance of the LD cycle from one wild-type mouse (top) *and one R192Q mouse* (bottom). Arrows *indicate the onset of waking, which was defined as the onset of the first three 30-minute intervals with waking values greater than the 24-hour mean. Each data point is the mean of fifteen 4-second epochs (1 minutes). The x-axis indicates old Zeitgeber time (ZT before the shift) in hours. (B) Average (± standard error of the mean) phase-shift magnitude of the onset of waking determined after the 6-hour advance of the LD cycle (*p < 0.05, independent t test).*

n = 4). Considerable advances were found in the electrical activity rhythms of ventral and dorsal SCN of both genotypes ($p < 0.001$, two-way ANOVA with post hoc independent *t* tests; see Fig 4E). The ventral SCN was shifted by 5.4 hours (±0.5) in wild-type and 3.8 hours (±1.0) in R192Q mice. The dorsal SCN was shifted by 4.7 hours (±0.9) in wild-type and 3.5 hours (±1.2) in R192Q mice. Notably, rhythms of R192Q mouse SCN were not shifted to a larger extent than wild-type SCN ($p > 0.2$, two-way ANOVA). No significant differences were found between ventral and dorsal recordings in either genotype ($p > 0.05$; paired *t* tests; for details, see Supplementary Fig 2E).

In Vivo Electrophysiology

To assess whether the magnitude of phase advances of the SCN was affected by extra-SCN areas, we successfully recorded electrical activity rhythms of the SCN in vivo in four wild-type and four R192Q mice (Fig 5). Average SCN peak times before the shift were ZT 6.3 hours (±0.6) in wild-type mice and ZT 6.9 hours (±1.2) in R192Q mice. SCN rhythms of R192Q mice showed substantial advances on days 1 to 3 after the shift of the LD schedule, whereas smaller shifts were observed in wild-type SCN (see Fig 5B). This difference in phase-shift magnitude between genotypes was significant ($p < 0.05$, two-way ANOVA, significant effect of genotype, with post hoc independent *t* tests; see Fig 5B).

Discussion

In this study, we examined three main questions: (1) whether wild-type *mice* show retarded adjustment to 6-hour advance, but not to 6-hour delay phase shifts, similar to what has been observed in *rat*; (2) whether the physiological attenuation of circadian adaptation to advance shifting is mediated through $Ca_v2.1$ calcium channels, and whether they exert this action primarily within or outside the SCN; and (3) whether R192Q mutated $Ca_v2.1$ calcium channel mice, as an animal model for migraine, show enhanced phase resetting to 6-hour advance shifts to better understand the trigger-

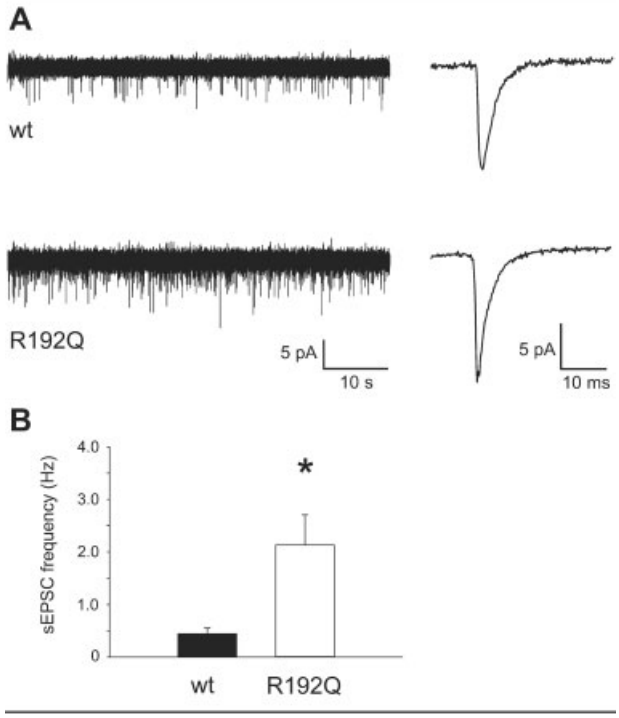

Fig 3. Recordings of spontaneous excitatory postsynaptic currents (sEPSCs) in dorsal suprachiasmatic nucleus (SCN) neurons. (A) Examples of spontaneous postsynaptic currents recorded in the day in hypothalamic slices from wild-type and R192Q mice. Note the increased frequency in the left panels. The right plots show averaged sEPSCs for wild-type (n = *64) and R192Q* (n = *184) mice. (B) The mean frequency of sEPSCs in dorsal SCN cells from R192Q mice* (n = *9) is significantly enhanced compared with neurons from wild-type mice* (n = *11;* *p < *0.01).*

ing mechanism of migraine attacks by circadian rhythm changes.

We first confirmed a similar pattern for phase resetting in wild-type mice as has been previously demonstrated by our group in the rat circadian system[7]: wild-type mice showed a limited capacity to respond to 6-hour advances of the LD cycle (ie, phase advances of only 1.5 hours), whereas much less inertia was found after 6-hour delays (approximately 4-hour shifts). To address the two other questions, we used R192Q knock-in mice that carry a missense mutation in the α_{1A} subunit of voltage-gated $Ca_v2.1$ calcium channels,

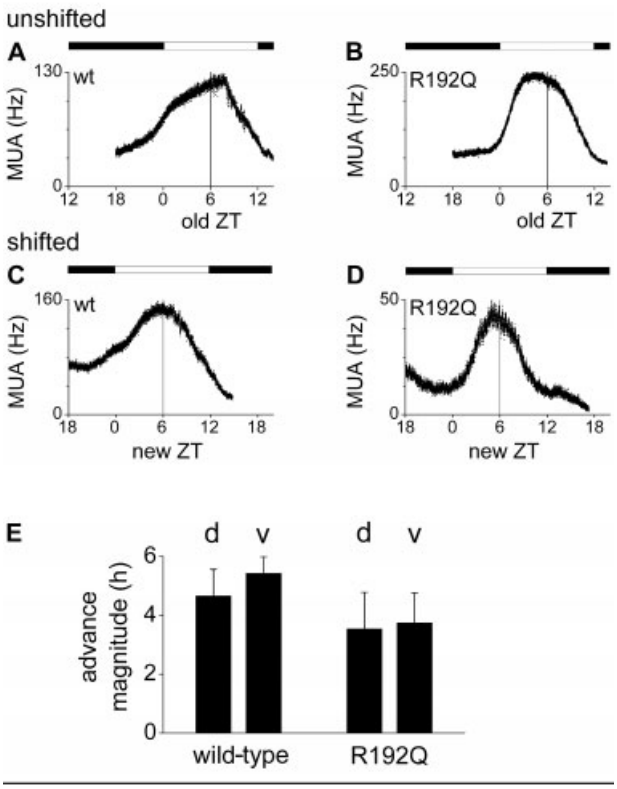

*Fig 4. In vitro electrical activity recordings of the suprachiasmatic nucleus (SCN) in wild-type and R192Q mice after exposure to a 6-hour phase advance of the light/dark (LD) cycle. (A, B) Examples of multiunit activity recordings of the dorsal SCN from wild-type (A) and R192Q (B) animals that were not exposed to a shift. For ventral SCN, see Supplementary Figure 2. (C, D) Examples of multiunit activity recordings of the dorsal SCN from wild-type (C) and R192Q (D) animals that were exposed to a 6-hour phase advance of the LD cycle. The LD cycle before slice preparation is indicated above the records; the shifted LD schedule is represented by the bar in the lower panel (*white *indicates lights on;* black *indicates lights off). "Old ZT" (A, B) and "new ZT" (C,D) is shown on the* x*-axis and Zeitgeber time (ZT) 6 is indicated by a* vertical line. *(E) Averaged (± standard error of the mean) phase-shift magnitudes of in vitro electrical activity rhythms in wild-type and R192Q mice in response to the 6-hour phase advance, specified for dorsal* (d) *and ventral* (v) *SCN.*

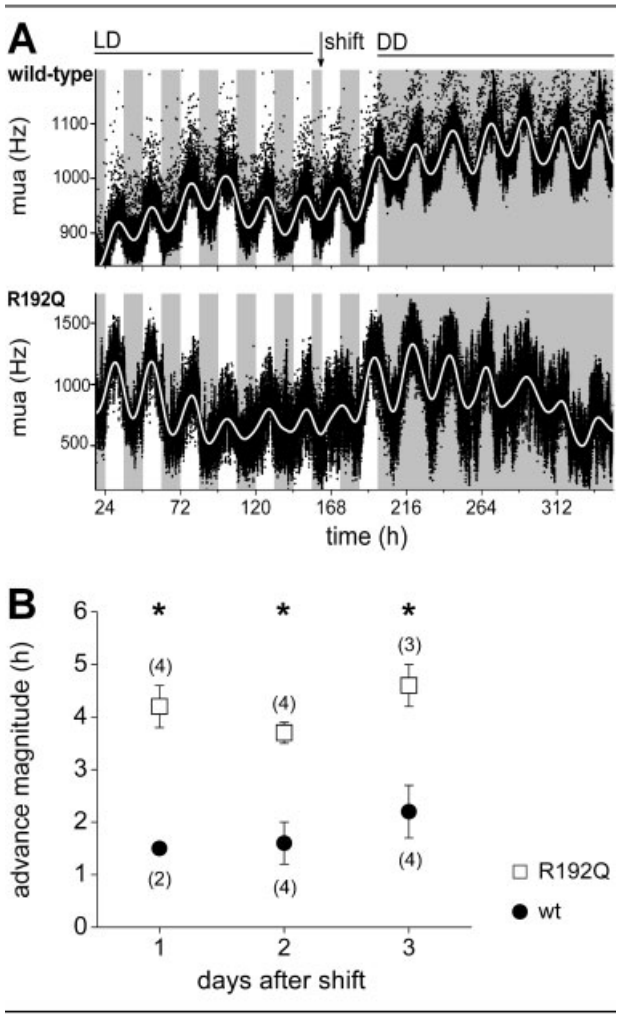

Fig 5. In vivo electrical activity recordings of the suprachiasmatic nucleus (SCN) in wild-type and R192Q mice after exposure to a 6-hour phase advance of the light/dark (LD) cycle. (A) Examples of multiunit activity recordings from one wild-type and one R192Q animal that were exposed to a 6-hour advance of the LD cycle. The shaded *background indicates the times of lights off. Data were smoothed (indicated by the* white lines*) to determine peak times. The* x*-axis indicates time in hours; the* y*-axis shows the multiunit activity. (B) Averaged (± standard error of the mean) phase-shift magnitudes of wild-type and R192Q mice SCN on days 1 to 3 in constant darkness (DD). Electrical activity rhythms in SCN of R192Q mice showed significantly larger phase shifts as compared with wild-type mice (*$p < 0.05$*, two-way analysis of variance, significant effect of genotype, with post hoc independent* t *tests). For each day, the number of animals that contributes to the mean is indicated between brackets. The* x*-axis indicates days in DD after the phase advance of the LD cycle; the* y*-axis represents the phase-shift magnitude.*

which serve a key function in neurotransmitter release[24,25] and may contribute to circadian clock function.[21–23,42–44]

Using wheel-running activity rhythms to characterize behavioral resetting capacity in response to phase shifts,

we found identical responses to 6-hour delay shifts in R192Q and wild-type mice (approximately 4 hours). In contrast, in response to 6-hour advance shifts, R192Q mice responded with considerably larger advances compared with wild-type mice (approximately 4 vs 1.5 hours). A difference in the phase advance was already apparent on the first day after the shift and was not associated with significant genotypic differences in free-running rhythms in DD or LL (see Supplementary Fig 1). In a small group of animals, we confirmed that the increased advancing response was not specific for wheel-running behavior but was also apparent in the sleep/wake cycle. EEG/EMG recordings showed that sleep/wake patterns were shifted by 2.5 hours in R192Q mice and by 1.1 hours in wild-type mice in the new LD cycle. This is comparable with the observed shifts in wheel-running activity on the same day (ie, day 2; see Fig 1D). These results indicate that an alteration in synaptic signaling through mutant $Ca_v2.1$ channels leads to a lack of the physiological inhibition of phase resetting in response to 6-hour advances of the LD cycle, and consequently to enhanced behavioral phase resetting.

To further characterize the attenuating mechanism responsible for the physiological retardation of adaptation to advance phase shifts, we measured spontaneous AMPA/KA receptor–mediated EPSCs from dorsal SCN neurons in hypothalamic slices. We found an almost fivefold increase in frequency in dorsal SCN neurons of R192Q mice, suggesting that these neurons express modified $Ca_V2.1$ channels and display upregulation of excitatory synaptic transmission. These data are in agreement with the previously reported increased calcium influx through mutated presynaptic $Ca_v2.1$ channels[19,26] and increased neurotransmitter release at the neuromuscular junction of R192Q mice.[19,45]

We also investigated whether the large-magnitude behavioral advances observed in R192Q mice were associated with different phase-shifting capacity of the SCN itself. To this end, we analyzed resetting in an acute slice preparation containing the SCN. Because different regions of the SCN are known to readjust at different rates in response to a shift of the light cycle,[39,46,47] we performed separate electrophysiological recordings from dorsal and ventral SCN regions. Peak times of electrical activity rhythms occurred shortly before the middle of the day in both wild-type and R192Q mice. After the advance of the LD cycle, the electrical activity rhythms from dorsal and ventral SCN in vitro were shifted by approximately 4 to 5 hours in both wild-type and R192Q mice. Peaks in the ventral SCN tended to precede the peaks in the dorsal SCN in wild-type animals (see Supplementary Fig 2E). These interregional differences were not apparent in R192Q mice. Although we cannot exclude small differences in functional organization within the SCN between the two genotypes, it is notable that the magnitude of the phase shift in the ventral and in the dorsal SCN was substantial in both wild-type and R192Q mice, and cannot explain the difference in behavioral resetting.

The similarity of shifts in wild-type and R192Q mice in vitro suggests that the phase-shifting capacity of the SCN itself, including the retinal input pathways, cannot account for the observed behavioral differences. This would agree with the evidence that glutamate-induced phase advances of the SCN predominantly involve L-type (Ca_v1) rather than P/Q-type ($Ca_v2.1$) calcium channels,[48] and with our finding that the phase response curve for 15-minute light pulses was similar in wild-type and R192Q animals (see Supplementary Fig 1). We propose, therefore, that the R192Q mutation has affected the interplay between extra-SCN brain areas and the SCN. We tested this hypothesis by recordings of neuronal discharge rhythms in the SCN of freely moving mice in both genotypes. Our results demonstrated that the electrical activity rhythm of the SCN in vivo, with functioning brain connections intact, exhibits significantly larger advancing shifts in R192Q mice than in wild-type animals. The data indicate that signaling pathways between extra-SCN areas and the SCN have a strong capacity to attenuate behavioral phase shifting, rely on $Ca_v2.1$ calcium channels, and have direct impact on the phase of the SCN. Although molecular mechanisms within the SCN have been shown to limit the phase-shifting capacity of the molecular core clock,[46,47,49] this finding identifies an additional level of organization that restricts phase shifting of the circadian system.

We may speculate about a number of putative mechanisms underlying the $Ca_v2.1$-mediated effects on phase resetting. $Ca_v2.1$ channels are common targets of G-protein–linked neuromodulation,[21,50–52] and the R192Q mutation may cause reduced susceptibility to G-protein inhibition of neurotransmitter release.[53] Alternatively, functional coupling to calcium-activated BK potassium channels, which is thought to affect spontaneous firing patterns[54–56] and was implicated in circadian clock function,[43,57,58] may have been altered. This identification of $Ca_v2.1$ channel function in phase resetting opens up the possibility to trace neuroanatomical pathways that retard adjustment to shifted light cycles, particularly when it involves advances.

We used R192Q mice also because they can be regarded as a good model for migraine pathophysiology,[17,19] and changes in sleep pattern and circadian rhythms are known to trigger migraine attacks.[9,10,13] Our findings provide animal experimental evidence that migraineurs may lack the physiological retardation of phase resetting in response to advance shifts, which could theoretically lead to acute imbalance of brain sys-

tems leading to attacks. This hypothesis needs to be tested in patients.

Taken together, we provide the first evidence that the physiological inertia in phase resetting is not a property of the pacemaker itself, but rather is mediated by $Ca_v2.1$ channel–dependent afferent signaling from extra-SCN brain areas to the clock. This finding is of potential importance for the development of new strategies to treat jet-lag–related disorders and to further unravel the mechanisms responsible for triggering migraine attacks.

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