

Indirect coupling between $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels and ryanodine receptors to generate Ca^{2+} sparks in murine arterial smooth muscle cells

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In arterial vascular smooth muscle cells (VSMCs), Ca^{2+} sparks stimulate nearby Ca^{2+} -activated K^+ (BK) channels that hyperpolarize the membrane and close L-type Ca^{2+} channels. We tested the contribution of L-type $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels to Ca^{2+} spark regulation in tibial and cerebral artery VSMCs using VSMC-specific $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channel gene disruption in (SMAKO) mice and an approach based on Poisson statistical analysis of activation frequency and first latency of elementary events. $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channel gene inactivation reduced Ca^{2+} spark frequency and amplitude by $\sim 50\%$ and $\sim 80\%$, respectively. These effects were associated with lower global cytosolic Ca^{2+} levels and reduced sarcoplasmic reticulum (SR) Ca^{2+} load. Elevating cytosolic Ca^{2+} levels reversed the effects completely. The activation frequency and first latency of elementary events in both wild-type and SMAKO VSMCs weakly reflected the voltage dependency of L-type channels. This study provides evidence that local and tight coupling between the $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels and ryanodine receptors (RyRs) is not required to initiate Ca^{2+} sparks. Instead, $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels contribute to global cytosolic $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$, which in turn influences luminal SR calcium and thus Ca^{2+} sparks.

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Ca^{2+} sparks are optical images of elementary Ca^{2+} release from a single Ca^{2+} release unit (CRU) composed of a group of ryanodine receptors (RyRs) in the sarcoplasmic reticulum (SR) (Wang *et al.* 2004). In arterial vascular smooth muscle cells (VSMCs), membrane depolarizations produce moderate (100–300 nM) increases in the global $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ that produce contraction (Nelson *et al.* 1990). These contractions depend on Ca^{2+} ion influx through $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ Ca^{2+} channels (Moosmang *et al.* 2003). Ca^{2+} spark inhibition paradoxically produces vasoconstriction for two reasons (Nelson *et al.* 1995; Knot *et al.* 1998). First, a single spark is capable of producing a very high (10–100 μM) local ($\sim 1\%$ of the cell volume) increase in $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ (Perez *et al.* 1999, 2001) while increasing the global $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ by only < 2 nM (Nelson *et al.* 1995; Jaggar *et al.* 2000). Second, Ca^{2+} sparks occur in close proximity to the cell membrane, where every Ca^{2+} spark activates numerous BK channels (Perez *et al.* 1999; Brenner *et al.* 2000; Pluger *et al.* 2000; Sausbier *et al.* 2005). The resultant

‘spontaneous transient outward currents’ (STOCs) cause hyperpolarization of the cell membrane, thereby shutting off tonic Ca^{2+} entry through $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels. Therefore, the net result of the spark–STOC coupling is decreased global $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ and vasorelaxation (Nelson *et al.* 1995; Gollasch *et al.* 1998).

Arterial VSMCs do not exhibit action potentials *in vivo* to elevate global $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$. Instead, steady-state membrane VSMC depolarization increases voltage-dependent open probability of L-type channels, global $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$, and presumably SR $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$ (Jaggar *et al.* 2000). Ca^{2+} spark frequency at steady-state potentials is modulated by Ca^{2+} influx through L-type Ca^{2+} channels (Nelson *et al.* 1995; Jaggar *et al.* 1998; Remillard *et al.* 2002; Cheng & Jaggar, 2006). However, whether or not local Ca^{2+} influx regulates the probability of these rather ‘spontaneous’ sparks in arterial VSMCs is unresolved. An elevation in local Ca^{2+} from opening of L-type Ca^{2+} channels, elevated global $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$, or increased luminal SR $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$ could each contribute to the observed steady-state depolarization-induced increase in Ca^{2+} spark frequency and amplitude.

This paper has online supplemental material.

Recently, Santana *et al.* obtained images of brief Ca^{2+} fluxing through single L-type Ca^{2+} channels in arterial VSMCs (Navedo *et al.* 2005). Analogous to cardiomyocytes (Wang *et al.* 2001), these events were named 'Ca²⁺ sparklets'. The authors also detected single or small clusters of L-type channels in VSMCs that operate in a high activity mode, creating sites of nearly continual Ca^{2+} influx ('persistent Ca²⁺ sparklet sites') even at hyperpolarized membrane potentials of 70 mV (Navedo *et al.* 2005, 2006). Sparklets could directly activate RyR to generate Ca²⁺ sparks in VSMCs (Navedo *et al.* 2005). However, a rather loose coupling between Ca²⁺ entry and spark frequency has been deduced from urinary bladder experiments (Collier *et al.* 2000; Kotlikoff, 2003). In contrast to arterial VSMCs, bladder cells typically produce contraction by generating action potentials to induce calcium-induced calcium release through RyRs (Imaizumi *et al.* 1998). However, since arterial smooth muscle produces only small, steady-state membrane depolarizations of a few millivolts to produce sustained calcium influx to elevate global $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$, the coupling mechanism between $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ and RyRs in arterial smooth muscle is not clear.

Ca^{2+} can activate RyRs on the SR luminal side of the receptor (Ching *et al.* 2000). Recent evidence indicates that the frequency and amplitude of Ca²⁺ sparks depends steeply on the SR Ca²⁺ load in stomach muscle (ZhuGe *et al.* 1999). Experiments using phospholamban-deficient cerebral artery VSMCs supported this notion (Wellman *et al.* 2001). Spark-like Ca²⁺ release has been observed in aortic and cerebral VSMCs after chemical permeabilization of the cell membrane (Rueda & Valdivia, 2006) supporting the idea that spark initiation does not depend on a close L-type Ca²⁺ channel and RyR proximity. We tested the hypothesis that $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels contribute to global cytosolic calcium, which in turn influences luminal SR calcium and thus Ca²⁺ sparks in arterial VSMCs. We used VSMC-specific $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channel gene inactivation in mice (SMAKO) (Moosmang *et al.* 2003). We provide evidence that rapid, local and tight coupling between the $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels and RyRs is not required to initiate Ca²⁺ sparks. We found that cytosolic $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ itself contributes minimally to the acute triggering of physiologically relevant proportion of Ca²⁺ sparks. Instead the most efficacious Ca²⁺ spark trigger appears to be the luminal SR Ca²⁺, which is slowly loaded via Ca²⁺ influx through $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels.

Methods

All animal experimental protocols were approved by the local animal care committees (Regierung von Oberbayern, Munich, Germany and LaGetSi, Berlin, Germany). The generation of mice deficient in the smooth muscle $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ Ca²⁺ channel (SMAKO, smooth muscle $\alpha 1c$ -subunit Ca²⁺

channel knockout) has been described (Moosmang *et al.* 2003). Briefly, a conditional loxP-flanked allele (L2) of the $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ gene (i.e. exons 14 and 15) was generated by homologous recombination in R1 embryonic stem cells. In addition, mice carried a knock-in allele (SM-CreER T2 (ki)) (Kuhbandner *et al.* 2000), which expresses the tamoxifen-dependent Cre recombinase, CreER T2, from the endogenous SM22 α gene locus, which is selectively expressed in smooth muscle of adult mice. Thus, tamoxifen treatment of mice results in conversion of the loxP-flanked $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ allele (L2) into a $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ knockout allele (L1) specifically in SMC. Animals were kept under standard conditions with water and food *ad libitum*. At an age of 2–3 months, SMAKO mice ($\text{Ca}_v1.2$ L1/L2, SM-CreER T2 (ki)+/.) and corresponding control (CTR) mice ($\text{Ca}_v1.2$ +/L2, SM-CreER T2 (ki)+/.) were i.p. injected with tamoxifen (2 mg day⁻¹) for five consecutive days. After 3–4 weeks, mice were killed by cervical dislocation and the brain and tibial arteries were removed. Experiments were performed on the same day with arteries from litter-matched control and SMAKO mice.

Isolation of arterial VSMCs

SMCs from tibial and basilar arteries were isolated as described (Gollasch *et al.* 1998; Pluger *et al.* 2000). Briefly, the brain and tibial arteries were removed and quickly transferred to cold (4°C) oxygenated (95% O₂–5% CO₂) physiological salt solution (PSS) of the following composition (mM): 119 NaCl, 4.7 KCl, 25.0 NaHCO₃, 1.2 KH₂PO₄, 1.8 CaCl₂, 1.2 MgSO₄, 0.026 EDTA and 11.1 glucose. The arteries were cleaned, cut into pieces and placed in a Ca²⁺-free Hanks' solution (mM): 55 NaCl, 80 sodium glutamate, 5.6 KCl, 2 MgCl₂, 1 mg ml⁻¹ bovine serum albumin (BSA, Sigma), 10 glucose and 10 Hepes (pH 7.4 with NaOH) containing 1.0 mg ml⁻¹ papain (Sigma) and 1 mg ml⁻¹ DTT for 15 (cerebral arteries) to 45 min (tibial arteries) at 36°C. The segments were then placed in Hanks' solution containing 1 mg ml⁻¹ collagenase (Sigma, type F and H; ratio 30% and 70%) and 0.1 mM CaCl₂ for 6 min (cerebral arteries) to 10 min (tibial arteries) at 36°C. Following several washes in Ca²⁺-free Hanks' solution (containing 1 mg ml⁻¹ BSA), single cells were dispersed from artery segments by gentle trituration. Cells were then stored in the same solution at 4°C.

Ca²⁺ sparks

VSMCs were seeded onto glass coverslips and incubated with the Ca²⁺ indicator fluo-3-AM (5 μM) and pluronic acid (0.005%; w/v) for 30 min at room temperature in Ca²⁺-free Hanks' solution (Lohn *et al.* 2000; Pluger *et al.* 2000; Lohn *et al.* 2001a). After loading of the cells with fluo-3, the cells were washed with a Hepes-buffered

physiological saline solution (Hepes-PSS) for 30–40 min at room temperature. The Hepes-PSS had the following composition (mM): 135 NaCl, 5.4 KCl, 1.8 CaCl₂, 1 MgCl₂, 10 Hepes and 10 glucose (pH 7.4 with NaOH). Single SMCs were imaged using a Bio-Rad (Munich, Germany) laser scanning confocal microscope attached to a Nikon Diaphot microscope (Furstenau *et al.* 2000; Lohn *et al.* 2001a). Images were obtained by illumination with a krypton–argon laser at 488 nm, and recording all emitted light above 500 nm. Ca²⁺ sparks were measured in Hepes-PSS. Cells were scanned in the ‘line scan’ mode for 10 s. Ca²⁺ spark analysis was performed off-line using custom software written in C++ by K. Essin. Ca²⁺ sparks were defined as local fractional fluorescence increases greater than 1.2. The site of a Ca²⁺ spark was determined as the centre of the spark at the time of its initiation. Ca²⁺ spark width was determined at 50% maximal amplitude; decay was measured from peak to half-maximal amplitude. The frequency was estimated as the number of detected sparks divided by the total scan time. The amplitudes were expressed as fractional fluorescence increase (F/F_0) or in absolute values relative to the global resting cytosolic [Ca²⁺]_i using the following equation: (Cheng *et al.* 1993; Jaggar *et al.* 1998; Herrera *et al.* 2001)

$$\Delta[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{spark}} = KR/(K/[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i + 1 - R) - [\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i \quad (1)$$

where R is the fractional fluorescence increase (F/F_0), $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ is the free resting cytosolic Ca²⁺ concentration, and K is the apparent affinity of fluo-3 for Ca²⁺ (400 nM) (Cheng *et al.* 1993). $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ was measured directly using Fura-2 in separate experiments (see below).

In the experiments to determine the first latency to occurrence of a Ca²⁺ spark after membrane depolarization, fast two-dimensional confocal microscopy was used in VSMCs clamped by the perforated whole-cell patch technique (see below). Cells were loaded with fluo-4-AM (5 μM) and pluronic acid (0.005%; w/v) for 30 min at room temperature in Ca²⁺-free solution (mM: 10 Hepes, 55 NaCl, 5.6 KCl, 80 sodium glutamate, 2 MgCl₂, and 10 D-glucose; pH to 7.4 with NaOH) and washed for 30 min with Ca²⁺-containing solution (for external solution for STOC recording, see below). Cells were clamped at −40 mV and depolarized according to the protocol presented in the online Supplemental Fig. 2, similar to that in Lopez-Lopez *et al.* (1995). Synchronicity of the command voltage onset and fluorescence measurement was achieved by means of light-emitting diode placed near the recording chamber and switched on and off from a D/A output of CED 1401 interface before and after the acquisition protocol. Images were taken at 25–50 frames s^{−1} on a PerkinElmer, Nipkow disc-based UltraView LCI confocal scanner linked to a fast digital camera. The confocal system was mounted in an inverted Diaphot microscope with a ×40 oil-immersion objective (NA 1.3; Nikon). Fluo-4 was excited by the

488 nm line of an argon ion laser and emitted fluorescence was collected at wavelengths > 515 nm. Image analysis was done using PerkinElmer's ImagingSuite 5.2 software. Average fluorescence intensity outside of the cell was subtracted from the mean fluorescence intensities to correct for background fluorescence. After background correction, fluorescence *versus* time traces were further analysed in Origin 6.1 (OriginLab Corp., Northampton, MA, USA) and represent the averaged fluorescence from a region of interest (ROI) centred on the spark generating area. This ROI size was determined empirically to be the best compromise between temporal and spatial precision of Ca²⁺ sparks and the signal to noise ratio. Ca²⁺ spark amplitude was expressed as relative fluorescence increase F/F_0 , where F is the peak fluorescence and F_0 is the baseline fluorescence in the ROI before Ca²⁺ spark appearance. The latency of occurrence of Ca²⁺ sparks was measured as the time elapsed from the onset of the pulse depolarization to the moment when Ca²⁺ spark amplitude reached 5–10% of its maximum.

K⁺ current recordings

K⁺ currents were measured by the conventional whole-cell or perforated whole-cell patch technique (Gollasch *et al.* 1996; Lohn *et al.* 2001a). In perforated patch recordings, whole cell access was achieved by amphotericin B within 10 min of seal formation at room temperature (20–24°C). Amphotericin B (Sigma) was dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) and diluted into the pipette solution to 200 μg ml^{−1}. Patch pipettes (resistance, 3–5 MΩ) were filled with a solution containing (mM): 110 potassium aspartate, 30 KCl, 10 NaCl, 1 MgCl₂, 10 Hepes and 0.05 EGTA (pH 7.2). The external solution contained (mM): 134 NaCl, 6 KCl, 1 MgCl₂, 2 CaCl₂, 10 glucose and 10 Hepes (pH 7.4).

To clamp the global [Ca²⁺]_i at different levels, STOCs were recorded in the conventional whole-cell mode using the following pipette solutions (mM): 80 potassium aspartate, 50 KCl, 10 NaCl, 1 MgCl₂, 3 MgATP, 10 Hepes, 10 EGTA and different [CaCl₂]_i (pH 7.2). [CaCl₂]_i were 0.01, 4 and 8 mM and equalled 0.18, 120 and 1000 nM free cytosolic [Ca²⁺]. The free cytosolic [Ca²⁺] was calculated by the ‘Cabuf’ program written by Prof G. Droogmans (available at [ftp.cc.kuleuven.ac.be/pub/droogmans/cabuf.zip](ftp://cc.kuleuven.ac.be/pub/droogmans/cabuf.zip)) and based on the stability constants given by Fabiato & Fabiato (1979). To set the free [Ca²⁺]_i at ~100 nM and the free [EGTA]_i at different levels, STOCs were recorded in the conventional whole-cell mode using the following pipette solutions (mM): (a) 80 potassium aspartate, 45 KCl, 10 NaCl, 1 MgCl₂, 3 MgATP, 10 Hepes, 17 EGTA and 7 CaCl₂ (pH 7.2 with KOH) – (~10 mM free [EGTA]_i, ~100 nM free [Ca²⁺]_i); or (b) 80 potassium aspartate, 45 KCl, 10 NaCl, 1 MgCl₂, 3 MgATP, 30 glucose,

10 Hepes, 1.7 EGTA and 0.7 CaCl_2 (pH 7.2 with KOH) – (~ 1 mM free $[\text{EGTA}]_i$, ~ 100 nM free $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$); or (c) 80 potassium aspartate, 45 KCl, 10 NaCl, 1 MgCl_2 , 3 MgATP, 30 glucose, 10 Hepes, 0.17 EGTA and 0.07 CaCl_2 (pH 7.2 with KOH) – (~ 0.1 mM free $[\text{EGTA}]_i$, ~ 100 nM free $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$). When indicated, $20 \mu\text{M}$ Fluo4-AM was added into the pipette solutions to monitor caffeine-induced Ca^{2+} release. Whole cell currents were recorded 5–7 min after disruption of the membrane.

Whole cell currents were recorded using an EPC 7 amplifier (List, Darmstadt, Germany), digitized at 5 kHz, using a CED 1401 series interface (Cambridge Electronic Design Ltd, Cambridge, UK), and CED patch and voltage clamp software version 6.08 or an EPC9 amplifier under control of Pulse software (HEKA Elektronik, Lambrecht, Germany). STOC latency to occurrence upon membrane depolarization was measured using the pulse protocol shown in the online Supplemental Fig. 2, similar to that in Lopez-Lopez *et al.* (1995). The latency of occurrence (or waiting time) of STOCs was measured as the time elapsed from the onset of the pulse depolarization to the peak of STOC minus 15 ms (average time to peak). STOC analysis was performed off-line using custom software written in C++ by K. Essin or Origin 6.1.

Recording of global intracellular $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$

Intracellular $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ was monitored at $\sim 35^\circ\text{C}$ as described (Gollasch *et al.* 1991). Briefly, isolated tibial myocytes were loaded with $3 \mu\text{M}$ Fura-2-AM for 30 min in buffer solution (mM: 137 NaCl, 5.4 KCl, 1.8 CaCl_2 , 1 MgCl_2 , 10 Hepes and 5.6 glucose). In some experiments, cells were incubated with EGTA-AM at different concentrations (10 min) after the Fura-2-AM loading. $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ was continuously recorded as fluorescence intensity (at 510 nm) at alternating 350 (F_{350}) and 380 nm (F_{380}) excitation wavelengths and their respective ratio (F_{350}/F_{380}) by using TILL vision devices (www.till-photonics.de). $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$ was calculated using the following equation:

$$[\text{Ca}^{2+}] = K_d \beta (R - R_{\min}) / (R_{\max} - R), \quad (2)$$

with $R_{\min}$ and $R_{\max}$ measured from ionomycin treated cells, and $K_d \beta$ determined (Moosmang *et al.* 2003). The pooled mean values for $R_{\max}$, $R_{\min}$ and $K_d \beta$ were 8.97, 1.68 and 307 nM, respectively. Stimulation was performed by local application of caffeine (10 mM) via a syringe device. The resting global cytosolic $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ was used for estimation of Ca^{2+} spark amplitudes.

Materials

Fluo-3-AM, Fluo-4-AM, EGTA-AM and Fura-2-AM were purchased from Molecular Probes (Eugene, OR, USA). Stock solutions (0.25 mM) of fluo-3-AM were made using DMSO as the solvent. Ryanodine was obtained from

Calbiochem (Bad Soden, Germany). All salts and other drugs were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (Deisenhofen, Germany) or Merck (Darmstadt, Germany). High external potassium solutions were made by iso-osmotic substitution of NaCl with KCl in the PSS.

All values are given as means $\pm$ s.e.m. Data were compared with Student's *t* test ($P < 0.05$). The term '*n*' represents the cell number tested.

Results

Elementary SR release in SMAKO cells

Figure 1A shows confocal line-scan images of representative tibial artery VSMC isolated from control and SMAKO mice. Ca^{2+} sparks were observed only in close proximity to the cell surface in both control and SMAKO cells. Ca^{2+} sparks in control cells had an estimated mean amplitude of 418 ± 26 nM, a mean rise time of 22.4 ± 1.3 ms, a decay half-life of 51.6 ± 4.4 ms, and a width at half-maximal amplitude of $3.3 \pm 0.1 \mu\text{m}$. The frequency of Ca^{2+} sparks was 1.1 ± 0.1 Hz ($n = 162$; Fig. 1B). In contrast, Ca^{2+} spark frequency and amplitude were reduced by $\sim 50\%$ and $\sim 80\%$ in SMAKO cells, compared to control cells. The Ca^{2+} spark frequency and estimated spark amplitude were 0.6 ± 0.1 Hz and 55 ± 7 nM in SMAKO cells ($n = 79$ cells) (Fig. 1B). However, the rise time, decay and width of Ca^{2+} sparks were not different in SMAKO cells. The mean rise time, decay and width were 20.8 ± 1.8 ms, 48.7 ± 5.9 ms and $3.2 \pm 0.2 \mu\text{m}$, respectively ($n = 40$ cells). Similar effects were observed in cerebral artery VSMCs (online Supplemental Fig. 1). Since SMAKO cells lack functional L-type $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ Ca^{2+} channels (Moosmang *et al.* 2003), the data indicate that $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels play an important role in the generation of VSMC Ca^{2+} sparks.

Simultaneous optical whole cell and electrical measurements indicate that virtually all Ca^{2+} sparks cause STOCs in arterial myocytes (Perez *et al.* 1999). We recorded STOCs to monitor elementary SR Ca^{2+} release events in VSMC from both wild-type and SMAKO mice. At steady-state membrane potentials of -40 mV, STOCs had a frequency of 2.6 ± 0.4 Hz, a mean amplitude of 28 ± 6 pA, a rise time of 14.8 ± 0.9 ms, and a decay time of 26.1 ± 2.5 ms in control cells ($n = 12$ cells) (Fig. 2). This membrane potential is similar to that of VSMC in intact pressurized arteries (Nelson *et al.* 1990). In contrast, the frequency and amplitude of STOCs at -40 mV were reduced by $\sim 50\%$ in SMAKO cells, compared to control cells (Fig. 2). However, we detected no difference in the rise and decay times in SMAKO cells (Fig. 2B). In SMAKO cells, STOCs had a frequency of 0.9 ± 0.4 Hz, a mean amplitude of 13 ± 2 pA, a rise time of 12.8 ± 1.3 and a decay time of 19.6 ± 2.4 ($n = 12$ cells) (Fig. 2B). At -20 mV and 0 mV, which represent voltages

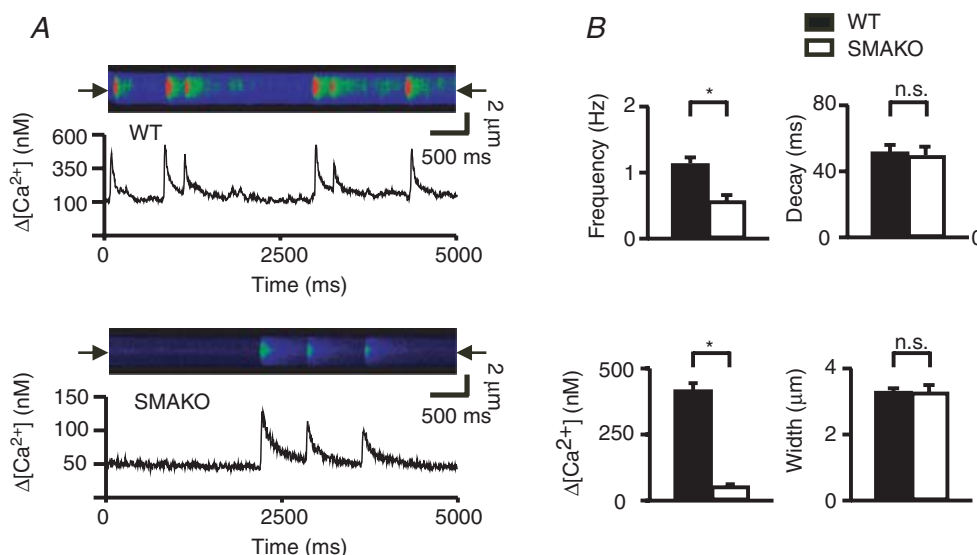


Figure 1. Ca²⁺ sparks in control and SMAKO tibial VSMC

A, upper panel, confocal line-scan image of fluo-3-loaded wild-type (WT) cell with the time course of Ca²⁺ sparks indicated below. The fluorescence time course of the Ca²⁺ sparks was determined over the line indicated by the two arrows. Each line-scan image is a plot of fluorescence along a scanned line (ordinate) versus time (abscissa). The line-scan image duration was 5 s, and each line was 4 ms. Lower panel, confocal line-scan image of a fluo-3-loaded SMAKO cell. Amplitudes of Ca²⁺ sparks are expressed as absolute values (Δ[Ca²⁺]_i) relative to the global resting cytosolic [Ca²⁺]_i at F₀ using eqn (1). B, comparison of spatial-temporal characteristics of Ca²⁺ sparks in WT and SMAKO cells.

at which arterial Ca_v1.2 channels exhibit maximal steady-state currents and partial voltage-dependent inactivation, genetic inactivation of Ca_v1.2 channels resulted in reduced frequencies and amplitudes of STOCs

(Fig. 2B). However, the rise and decay times of STOCs were not affected by inactivation of the Ca_v1.2 channel gene. Similar effects were observed in cerebral VSMCs (Supplemental Fig. 1). These results suggest that Ca_v1.2

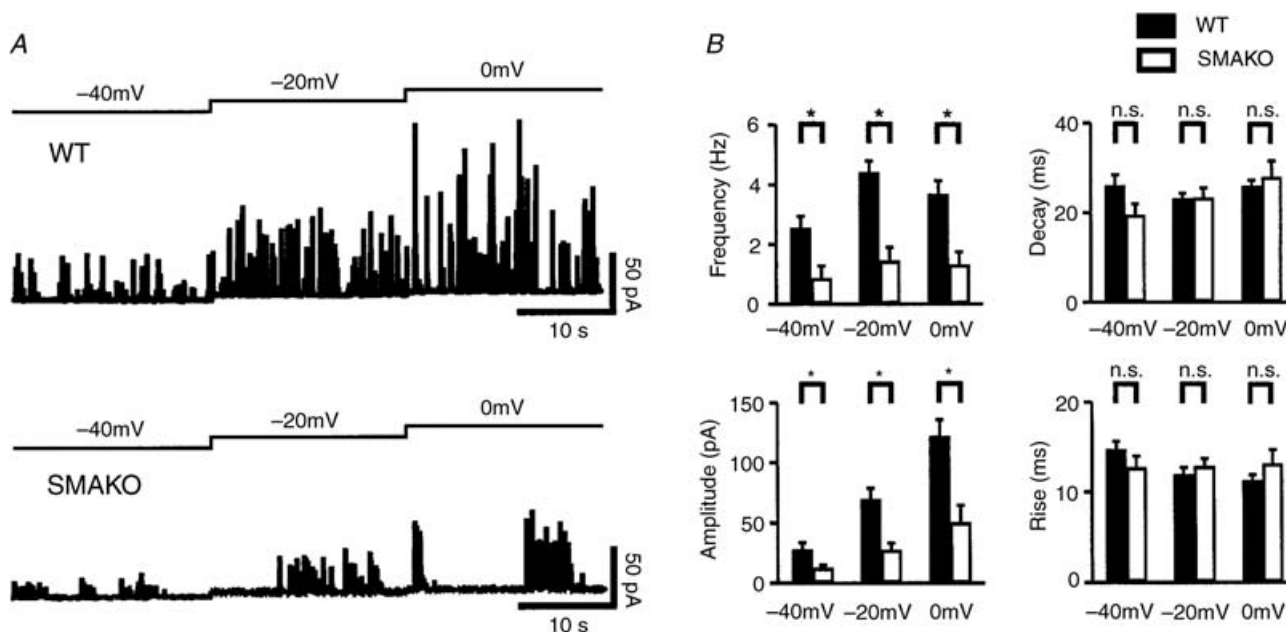


Figure 2. STOCs caused by Ca²⁺ sparks

A, STOCs in representative cells isolated from tibial arteries from control (upper panels, WT) and SMAKO mice (lower panels). The holding potential was stepwise increased in 20 mV increments from -40 mV to 0 mV. B, comparison of STOCs characteristics. The holding potential was -40 mV, -20 mV or 0 mV, **P* < 0.05; n.s., not significant.

channels are involved in the activation of RyR to generate Ca^{2+} sparks. The reduced STOC amplitude in SMAKO cells is consistent with reduced Ca^{2+} spark amplitude, which results in lower subsarcolemmal activator $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$ ($< 10\text{--}100\ \mu\text{M}$) to activate BK channels.

Effects of dihydropyridines on Ca^{2+} -sparks

Dihydropyridines modulate the open probability of L-type Ca^{2+} channels (Catterall & Striessnig, 1992; Hofmann *et al.* 1999) and therefore should affect spark frequency in wild-type VSMCs. The effects of the dihydropyridines on Ca^{2+} sparks were studied between 1 and 15 min, between 15 and 30 min, and between 30 and 90 min after application of the drugs (Fig. 3A and C). Nimodipine ($1\ \mu\text{M}$) did not affect Ca^{2+} sparks ($n = 145$), compared to control cells ($n = 115$) in the absence of the drug, when sparks were determined 1–15 min after application of nimodipine. However, nimodipine reduced the Ca^{2+} sparks frequency 15 and 90 min after application (Fig. 3C). As expected, the $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channel activator BayK 8644 ($1\ \mu\text{M}$) increased the frequency of Ca^{2+} sparks 60–90 min after application. BayK 8644 and nimodipine did not affect the decay and width of Ca^{2+} sparks (not shown).

A characteristic of the dihydropyridine block is its voltage dependence (Catterall & Striessnig, 1992; Hofmann *et al.* 1999). Consistent with this characteristic, nimodipine ($1\ \mu\text{M}$, 30–90 min) reduced the frequency of Ca^{2+} sparks in control cells depolarized by 30 mM KCl (Fig. 3A). In contrast, BayK 8644 ($1\ \mu\text{M}$, 30–90 min), nimodipine ($1\ \mu\text{M}$, 30–90 min) and 30 mM KCl had no effect on the Ca^{2+} spark frequency in SMAKO cells (Fig. 3B). Furthermore, nimodipine ($1\ \mu\text{M}$) did not affect the Ca^{2+} spark frequency in SMAKO cells incubated in 30 mM KCl-containing bath solution (Fig. 3B). These data are consistent with the above results that functional L-type $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels modulate Ca^{2+} sparks.

We next measured STOCs in the absence and presence of dihydropyridines and Cd^{2+} . The effects were analysed between 1 and 15 min after drug application. Figure 4 shows that BayK 8644 ($1\ \mu\text{M}$), nimodipine ($1\ \mu\text{M}$) or nimodipine ($1\ \mu\text{M}$) plus the inorganic L-type $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channel blocker Cd^{2+} ($100\ \mu\text{M}$) did not affect STOCs in both control cells and SMAKO tibial artery VSMCs. Similar results were observed in cerebral VSMCs (not shown). However, STOCs were inhibited in control cells by $\sim 50\%$ after 30–90 min application of $1\ \mu\text{M}$ nimodipine (not shown).

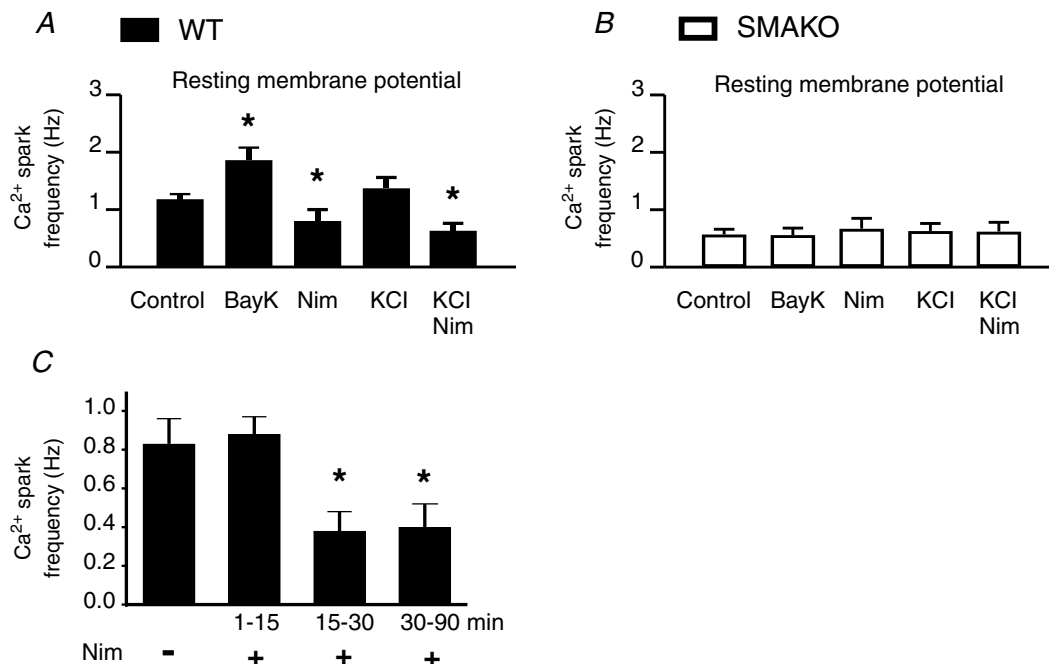


Figure 3. Effects of L-type Ca^{2+} channel modulators on Ca^{2+} spark frequency in control (WT, A) and SMAKO (B) cells isolated from tibial arteries

Ca^{2+} sparks were recorded in the absence (Control) and presence of $1\ \mu\text{M}$ BayK 8644 (BayK), $1\ \mu\text{M}$ nimodipine (Nim), 30 mM KCl (KCl), and 30 mM KCl plus $1\ \mu\text{M}$ nimodipine (KCl Nim); $n \geq 40$ cells for each group. Cells were preincubated with the compounds for 30–90 min. C, summary of Ca^{2+} spark frequency. WT cells from tibial arteries were preincubated with $1\ \mu\text{M}$ nimodipine for 1–15 min, 15–30 min and 30–90 min before the recording. $n \geq 40$ for each group, * $P < 0.05$.

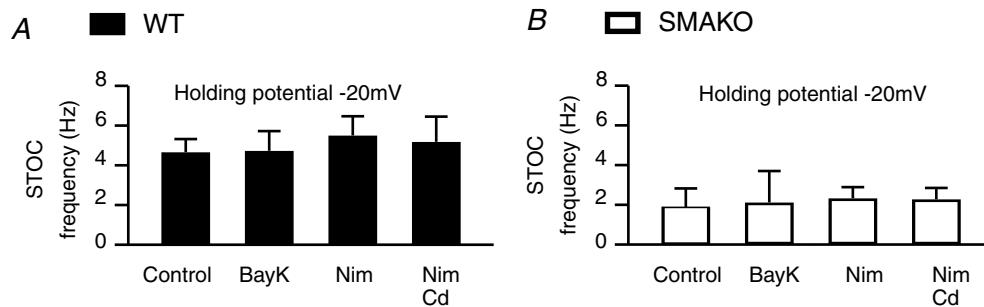


Figure 4. Effects of L-type Ca²⁺ channel modulators on STOC frequencies in wild type (A) and SMAKO (B) SMCs

Cells were preincubated for 1–15 min with the indicated compounds. STOCs were recorded at a holding potential of –20 mV. STOCs were recorded in the absence (Control) and presence of 1 μ M BayK 8644 (BayK), 1 μ M nimodipine (Nim), and 1 μ M nimodipine plus 300 μ M Cd²⁺ (Nim Cd). $n \geq 7$ cells for each group.

The above results clearly indicate that the effects of nimodipine were time dependent but resembled the results obtained with the SMAKO VSMCs (Fig. 3C). A simple interpretation of the time dependency might be that the reduced Ca²⁺ spark frequency at the 30–90 min time point was possibly caused by a reduced global [Ca²⁺]_i and subsequent SR Ca²⁺ load, since the dihydropyridines blocked the major Ca²⁺ influx pathway. This interpretation is in line with the finding that STOCs were not affected by nimodipine at early time points. From these results, we hypothesized further that rather than sensing the local elevation of [Ca²⁺]_i in the microdomain near the pore of the Ca_v1.2 channel, smooth muscle RyRs were not sensitive to the opening of individual Ca_v1.2 channels, but rather required a global rise in [Ca²⁺]_i. To test this hypothesis, we first sought to determine whether or not Ca²⁺ influx is required for initiation of Ca²⁺ sparks. Figure 5 shows that removal of external Ca²⁺ reduced the frequency of Ca²⁺ sparks by ~50% after 15 min in Ca²⁺-free solution, similar to the effects of Cd²⁺ and nimodipine (Bonev *et al.* 1997). In contrast, after 1–2 min in Ca²⁺-free solution the spark frequency was not changed (not shown). As a further test, we lowered the global cytosolic [Ca²⁺]_i using 2-aminoethoxydiphenyl borate (2-APB), which inhibits Ca²⁺ release into the cytosol *via* IP₃ receptors (Peppiatt *et al.* 2003; White & McGeown, 2003; Zima & Blatter, 2004), and blocks store-operated Ca²⁺ influx (Iwasaki *et al.* 2001; Peppiatt *et al.* 2003) through non-selective, Ca²⁺ permeable, cation TRPC channels (van Rossum *et al.* 2000; Clapham *et al.* 2001; Iwasaki *et al.* 2001) and SERCA (Bilmen *et al.* 2002). Figure 5 shows that 2-APB inhibited Ca²⁺ sparks and STOCs, with almost 100% inhibition at 50–100 μ M. The effects of 2-APB were observed in the presence and absence of external Ca²⁺. These observations show that initiation of Ca²⁺ spark release can be regulated by changes of the global [Ca²⁺]_i and the filling state of SR Ca²⁺ stores independent of the source of Ca²⁺ (influx or release).

RyR stores are exposed to lower global cytosolic [Ca²⁺]_i in SMAKO cells

Resting [Ca²⁺]_i was lower in SMAKO cells compared to control cells (~30 nM *versus* ~130 nM in SMAKO *versus* control cells) (Fig. 6B), suggesting that steady-state

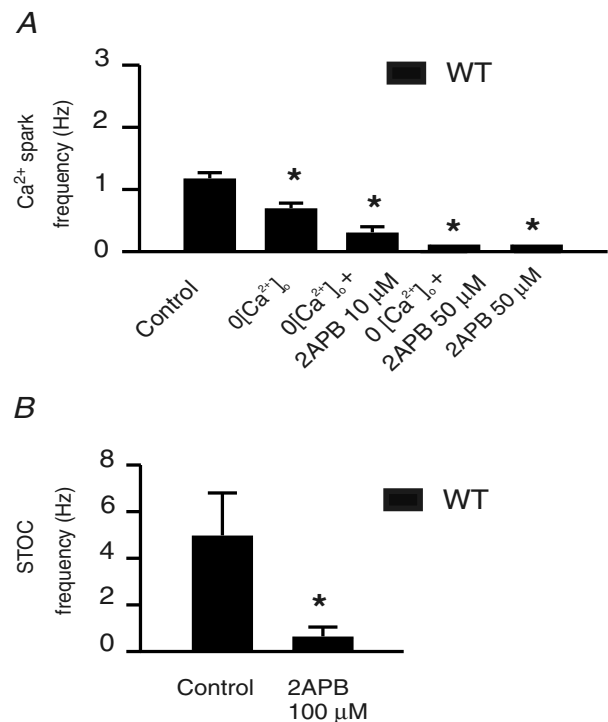


Figure 5. Effects of external Ca²⁺ and 2-aminoethoxydiphenyl borate (2-APB) on Ca²⁺ spark and STOC frequency of control (WT) cells isolated from tibial arteries

A, Ca²⁺ sparks were recorded in the presence of 1.8 mM external Ca²⁺ (Control) and in nominally Ca²⁺-free solution (0 [Ca²⁺]_o), 0 mM external Ca²⁺ plus 10 μ M 2-APB, 0 mM external Ca²⁺ plus 50 μ M 2-APB, and 50 μ M 2-APB; $n \geq 30$ cells per group. B, STOCs were recorded the absence (Control) and presence of 100 μ M 2-APB at a holding potential of –20 mV ($n = 5$, each). * $P < 0.05$.

$[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ is tightly controlled by Ca^{2+} influx through $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels. SR Ca^{2+} load can be analysed by the use of caffeine, which activates each of the RyRs. Caffeine (10 mM) evoked smaller Ca^{2+} transients in SMAKO cells, as compared to control cells (Fig. 6A and C), indicating that ryanodine-sensitive stores are depleted in SMAKO cells. We used a multipulse application protocol to further characterize the disrupted Ca^{2+} uptake into ryanodine-sensitive stores in SMAKO mice. Eight minutes after a conditioning caffeine pulse, subsequent applications of caffeine (10 mM) induced $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ transients only in control cells, but not in SMAKO VSMCs. Caffeine did not induce $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ elevations at earlier time points in both cell types. The poor recovery of the Ca^{2+} transient in SMAKO VSMCs again suggested that refilling of ryanodine-sensitive Ca^{2+} stores mainly depends on Ca^{2+} influx through $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels. The results support the interpretation that RyR stores are exposed to lower global cytosolic $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ in SMAKO VSMCs resulting in a reduced driving force for SR Ca^{2+} loading and a reduced SR Ca^{2+} content. Furthermore, the data indicate that $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels significantly contribute to Ca^{2+} store refilling after Ca^{2+} store depletion in VSMC.

The source leading to increased $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ and SR load is irrelevant for the induction of Ca^{2+} sparks

We next investigated whether or not RyRs are able to sense local Ca^{2+} entry by performing experiments in which

we clamped the global $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ at 0.18 nM, 120 nM and 1000 nM while maintaining high mobile intracellular Ca^{2+} buffer (10 mM EGTA). Figure 7A shows that STOCs were strongly controlled by the global cytosolic $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ with significantly higher frequencies of STOCs at increasing global $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$. Moreover, STOC frequencies were similar in SMAKO and control cells at identical $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ suggesting that the source leading to increased $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ is irrelevant for the induction of Ca^{2+} sparks.

The intimate association between the trigger $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ L-type channel and target RyR is not a prerequisite to generate Ca^{2+} sparks. The effective distance between a single L-type $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channel and RyR within the T-tubular membrane in cardiomyocytes has been estimated to be < 100 nm based on the finding that excess concentrations of intracellular mobile slow, high affinity Ca^{2+} buffers such as EGTA (10 mM) do not disrupt the release of Ca^{2+} sparks by L-type Ca^{2+} channel opening (Collier *et al.* 2000). To examine the spatial separation of $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels and RyRs in VSMCs, we sought to determine whether or not Ca^{2+} sparks disappear in the presence of high concentrations of the membrane-permeant EGTA-AM. As shown in Fig. 7B, Ca^{2+} sparks were completely inhibited by 3 mM EGTA-AM (EC_{50} 1 mM), whereas Ca^{2+} sparks were *not* affected in rat cardiomyocytes under similar conditions (EGTA, up to 17 mM) (Collier *et al.* 2000). Caffeine-induced Ca^{2+} release was also inhibited by EGTA-AM in a similar concentration range (Fig. 7C), which indicates that the

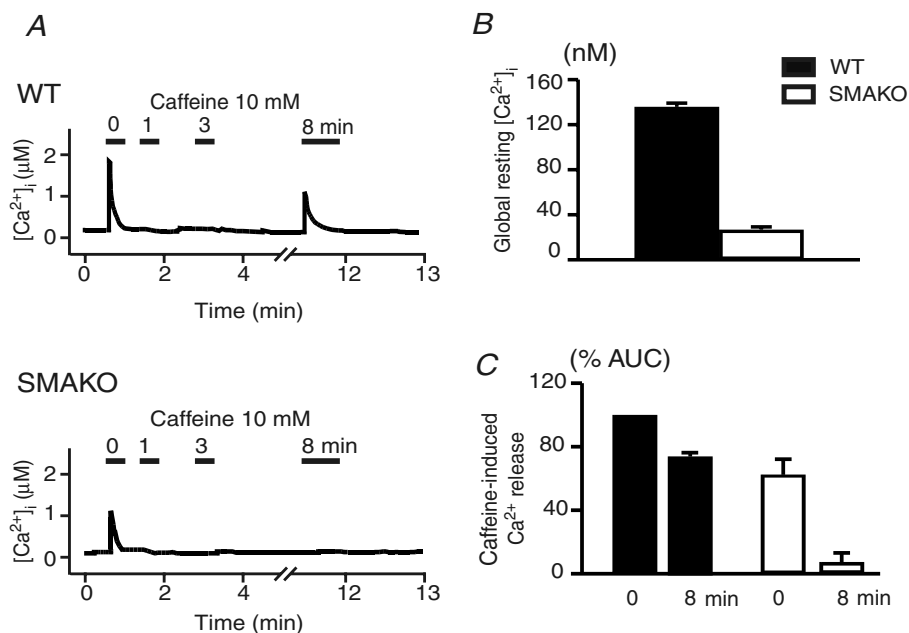


Figure 6. Effects of caffeine on $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ in control (WT) and SMAKO cells isolated from tibial arteries
 A, time course of caffeine's effect on $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$. Horizontal lines indicate the presence of caffeine (10 mM) in the bath solution. B, comparison of resting $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ in WT and SMAKO cells ($n = 70$, each). C, comparison of 10 mM caffeine-induced Ca^{2+} release in WT and SMAKO cells ($n = 74$ cells for each group). $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ increases induced by the first application of caffeine (0 min) and after a time interval of 8 min are compared. The Ca^{2+} responses are normalized to the effects (100% response) of 10 mM caffeine in WT cells at 0 min. AUC, areas under the curve.

effects of EGTA-AM may result from reduced global [Ca²⁺]_i and/or reduced SR Ca²⁺ content. To differentiate between these possibilities, we performed whole-cell recordings of STOCs and clamped the free cytosolic [Ca²⁺]_i at ~100 nM and the free [EGTA]_i at 0.1, 1 and 10 mM (see methods for solution compositions). Figure 8A shows that despite similar free [Ca²⁺]_i the frequency and amplitude of STOCs decreased with increasing concentrations of free [EGTA]_i. Free [EGTA]_i at 10 mM almost completely abolished STOCs at -40 mV. Figure 8B shows that these changes were associated with a reduced SR Ca²⁺ content, as indicated from reduced caffeine-induced Ca²⁺ release. Thus, in contrast to cardiomyocytes, [EGTA]_i at 10 mM inhibits the generation of VSMC Ca²⁺ sparks by depletion of ryanodine-sensitive SR Ca²⁺ stores.

Triggering of Ca²⁺ sparks is not controlled by rapid, direct cross-talk between Ca_v1.2 channels and RyRs. We next studied cross-signalling between L-type channels and RyRs using an approach based on Poisson statistical analysis of frequency of activation and first latency of elementary events (Lopez-Lopez *et al.* 1995; Klein *et al.* 1997; Cleemann *et al.* 1998; Collier *et al.* 1999). To satisfy the assumption underlying the Poisson distribution that

open events are rare, we monitored elementary Ca²⁺ release events in cells treated with an L-type channel blocker upon depolarization steps (Supplemental Fig. 2). Elementary Ca²⁺ release events were first recorded by direct confocal imaging of Ca²⁺ sparks in wild-type cells treated with 300 nM nimodipine. Figure 9A represents histograms of the latencies from the beginning of the depolarization to the time of occurrence of the first identified sparks – first-latency histograms. The amplitude of Ca²⁺ sparks was independent of voltage (Fig. 9B), which is similar to cardiac and skeletal muscle (Lopez-Lopez *et al.* 1995; Klein *et al.* 1997; Cleemann *et al.* 1998; Collier *et al.* 1999). However, unlike cardiac and skeletal muscle, the first-latency histograms only slightly depended on the depolarization level and peaked at a relatively positive potential, i.e. ~+20 mV (Fig. 9D) (Lopez-Lopez *et al.* 1995; Klein *et al.* 1997; Cleemann *et al.* 1998; Collier *et al.* 1999). Furthermore, average latencies between -30 mV and +50 mV occurred at ≥ 100 ms (Fig. 9C), which is not characteristic for L-type channels (Marks & Jones, 1992; Slesinger & Lansman, 1996) and Ca²⁺ sparks in cardiomyocytes (Lopez-Lopez *et al.* 1995; Klein *et al.* 1997; Cleemann *et al.* 1998; Collier *et al.*

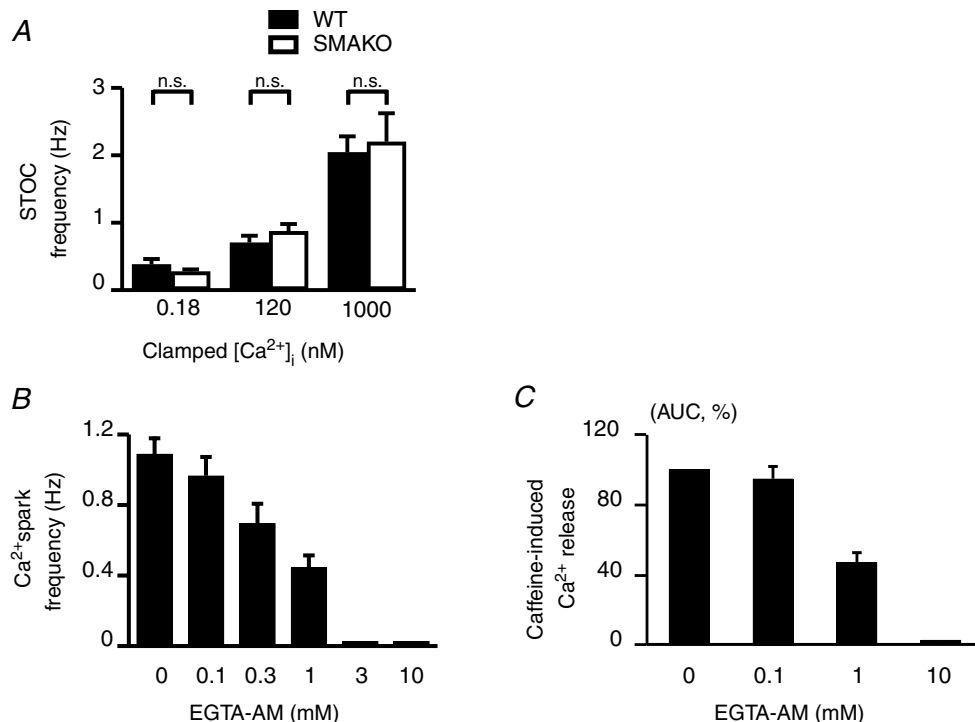


Figure 7. Effects of clamped [Ca²⁺]_i and EGTA-AM on Ca²⁺ spark, STOC frequency and caffeine-induced Ca²⁺ release in tibial VSMCs

A, STOCs were recorded in the whole-cell mode at -40 mV for 2 min. [Ca²⁺]_i was clamped to 0.18, 120 or 1000 nM in control (WT) and SMAKO cells ($n \geq 8$, each). B, effects of different concentrations of EGTA-AM on Ca²⁺ spark frequency in WT cells ($n \geq 30$, each). C, effects of different concentrations of EGTA-AM on caffeine-induced Ca²⁺ release in WT cells ($n \geq 10$, each). The Ca²⁺ responses were normalized to the effect of 10 mM caffeine (100% response) in control cells. AUC, area under the curve.

1999). Thus, the results did not reflect the expected voltage dependency and kinetics of single L-type channels (Lopez-Lopez *et al.* 1995; Cleemann *et al.* 1998; Collier *et al.* 1999). The results were confirmed by electrical STOCs recordings and analysis of first-latency and all-latency histograms (see Results in online Supplemental material, and Supplemental Figs 4–7). The observation that the first-latency and all-latency histograms have different waveforms implies that the release waveform is not determined by the time course of first event activation, with relatively fewer re-openings, as is the case in skeletal and cardiac muscle (Lopez-Lopez *et al.* 1995; Klein *et al.* 1997; Cleemann *et al.* 1998; Collier *et al.* 1999; Shen *et al.* 2004).

Discussion

In cardiac and skeletal muscle, the intimate association between the trigger $\text{Ca}_v1.x$ L-type channel and target RyR

is a prerequisite to generate Ca^{2+} sparks from single CRU (Cheng *et al.* 1993; Cannell *et al.* 1995; Lopez-Lopez *et al.* 1995; Tsugorka *et al.* 1995; Klein *et al.* 1997; Wang *et al.* 2001). We studied the mechanism and contribution of $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels in Ca^{2+} spark generation in VSMC by inactivating the VSMC pore-forming $\alpha1$ subunit of the $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channel. Although the importance of the $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ Ca^{2+} channel for proper function of arterial VSMCs is beyond reasonable doubt, this study clearly demonstrates that the intimate association between the trigger $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ L-type channel and target RyR is not a prerequisite for the generation of Ca^{2+} sparks in VSMCs.

Rapid, local and tight coupling between the $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels and RyR is not required

Our data show that $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels do not directly control RyRs in the CRU *via* elevation of Ca^{2+} locally restricted

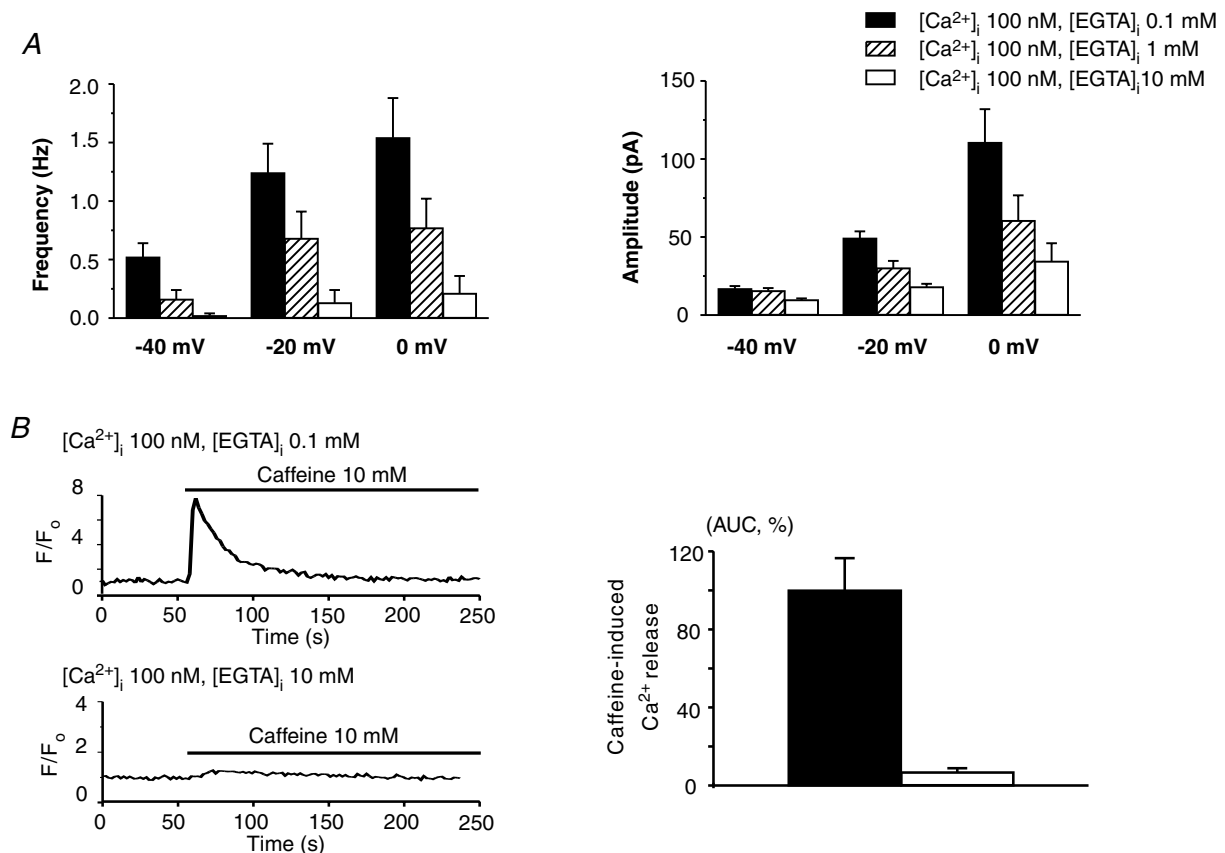


Figure 8. Effects of different $[\text{EGTA}]_i$ on STOC frequency and caffeine-induced Ca^{2+} release in tibial VSMCs

The free intracellular Ca^{2+} concentration $[\text{Ca}]$ was clamped at 100 nM. **A**, STOC frequency and amplitude recorded in the whole-cell mode at -40 , -20 and 0 mV for 2 min. Free $[\text{EGTA}]_i$ was set to 0.1, 1 or 10 mM (n cells ≥ 10 , each concentration); free $[\text{Ca}]$ was 100 nM. **B**, left, caffeine-induced Ca^{2+} release in cells loaded with free $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ at 100 nM and free EGTA at 0.1 mM (upper panel) and with free $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ at 100 nM and free EGTA at 10 mM (lower panel). The holding potential was -40 mV. Right, summary of the results. The Ca^{2+} responses were normalized to the effect of 10 mM caffeine (100% response). AUC, areas under the curve. ($n \geq 6$ cells, each.)

at the cytosolic site of the Ca_v1.2 channels in VSMCs. We reach this conclusion for several reasons. First, the effects of nimodipine resembled the results obtained with the SMAKO VSMCs but developed extremely slowly over many minutes. This observation is in contrast to the rapid inhibitory effects of this drug on L-type channels, which can be observed within seconds (Ruth *et al.* 1985; McCarthy & Cohen, 1989; Lohn *et al.* 2002). The failure of nimodipine to induce rapid (within seconds) inhibition of Ca²⁺ sparks indicates that many of the RyRs in the CRU are not directly controlled by high local [Ca²⁺]_i caused by the opening of adjacent Ca_v1.2 channels. Second, the robustness and latency analysis showed that the Ca²⁺ release events did not reflect the voltage dependency and kinetic properties of single L-type channels. In these experiments, we first analysed the histograms of these events using VSMC cells treated with an L-type channel blocker to satisfy Poisson distribution of Ca_v1.2 channel openings (Lopez-Lopez *et al.* 1995; Collier

et al. 1999). Unlike in cardiac muscle, the histograms of these events did not show steep bell-shaped curves characteristic for Ca²⁺ sparks triggered by an elevation in local cytosolic Ca²⁺ from single L-type Ca²⁺ channels (Lopez-Lopez *et al.* 1995; Cleemann *et al.* 1998; Collier *et al.* 1999). In addition, we also found that important features of the nimodipine-treated VSMC histograms, namely those cells with low Ca_v1.2 channel activity, did not differ from histograms of control cells (with high Ca_v1.2 channel activity) and from SMAKO cells (without Ca_v1.2 channels). Third, Ca²⁺ sparks were completely suppressed by excessive concentrations of a slow, high affinity cytosolic Ca²⁺ buffer (millimolar concentrations of EGTA), which suppresses global cytosolic [Ca²⁺] and causes a slow depletion of ryanodine-sensitive SR Ca²⁺ content in VSMCs, but which should not affect Ca²⁺ communication between Ca_v1.2 channels and RyR occurring on the nanometer scale (Stern, 1992; Collier *et al.* 2000). Finally, the substantially reduced frequency

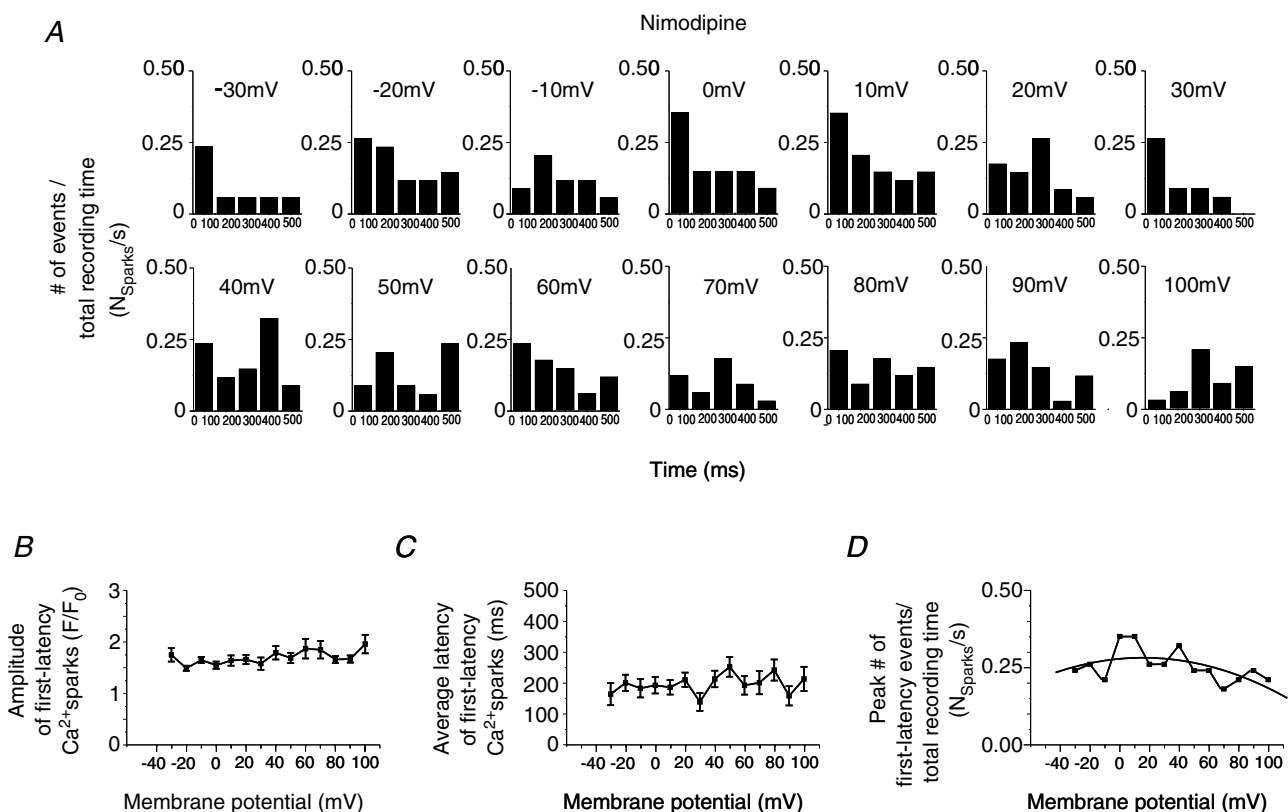


Figure 9. Analysis of first-latency events (Ca²⁺ sparks)

A, histograms of first-latency events from the start of the depolarization to the first identified Ca²⁺ spark. Plots show histograms of latencies to the onset of Ca²⁺ sparks elicited by 500 ms depolarizing pulses to the indicated membrane potentials (−30 mV, −20 mV, −10 mV, 0 mV, +10 mV, +20 mV, +30 mV, +40 mV, +50 mV, +60 mV, +70 mV, +80 mV, +90 mV and +100 mV) for wild-type tibial VSMCs (300 nM nimodipine; *n* = 15 cells of 5 mice). B, amplitude of first-latency Ca²⁺ sparks was plotted as a function of the depolarizing voltage. C, average latency of first-latency Ca²⁺ sparks was plotted as a function of the depolarizing voltage. D, first-latency histogram peak N_{sparks}/s was plotted as a function of depolarizing voltage. The continuous lines represent polynomial second order fits to the data. Curve fitting revealed maximal values of peak N_{sparks}/s at 18.8 mV.

and amplitude of Ca^{2+} sparks in SMAKO VSMCs were completely reversed by elevating cytosolic Ca^{2+} levels demonstrating that the source leading to increased global $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ is irrelevant for the induction of Ca^{2+} sparks. Taken together, these results strongly suggest that the intimate association between the trigger $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ L-type channel and target RyRs is not crucial for RyRs to generate Ca^{2+} sparks in VSMCs. Therefore, we suggest that the intermolecular mechanisms leading to elementary SR Ca^{2+} release differ substantially between arterial, cardiac and skeletal muscle (Lopez-Lopez *et al.* 1995; Klein *et al.* 1997; Grabner *et al.* 1999; Collier *et al.* 2000; Papadopoulos *et al.* 2004).

$\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels contribute to global cytosolic $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$, which in turn influences luminal SR calcium and thus Ca^{2+} sparks. Our study shows that the substantially reduced frequency and amplitude of Ca^{2+} sparks in SMAKO VSMCs is associated with lower global $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ levels and reduced SR Ca^{2+} load. The data indicate that the cytosolic $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ is mainly determined by Ca^{2+} influx through $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels. We provided direct evidence and observed that these effects are completely reversed by elevating cytosolic Ca^{2+} levels (Fig. 7A). Our results indicate that cytosolic $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ itself contributes minimally to the acute triggering of the physiologically relevant proportion of Ca^{2+} sparks. This conclusion is based on the following findings. First, RyRs *in situ* are relatively insensitive to global cytosolic Ca^{2+} levels (Jaggar *et al.* 2000). Second, the probability and latency histograms between SMAKO, nimodipine-treated and control cells were not different, despite the fact that the voltage steps used in these experiments induced relatively rapid increases in global $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ from ~ 100 nM to ~ 300 nM (within 500 ms to 1 s) in wild-type VSMCs, but not in VSMCs without functional L-type channels (Kamishima & McCarron, 1996; Kamishima *et al.* 2000; Lohn *et al.* 2001b). Similar data were obtained in wild-type tibial VSMCs, but not in SMAKO cells (K. Essin & M. Gollasch, unpublished observations). In agreement with these suggestions, rapid (for instance, caffeine or thapsigargin) or slow (phospholamban deficiency) modulation of SR Ca^{2+} load has profound direct effects on both amplitudes and frequency of Ca^{2+} sparks and STOCs, which follows the time course of depletion or uploading SR $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$ (Nelson *et al.* 1995; Bychkov *et al.* 1997; Lohn *et al.* 2001a; Wellman *et al.* 2001). Furthermore, increasing levels of cytosolic [EGTA] dramatically reduced both the frequency and amplitude of STOCs in VSMCs, despite $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ being clamped at similar levels, i.e. 100 nM (Fig. 8A). These effects were associated with SR Ca^{2+} depletion (Fig. 8B) and resembled the effects observed in SMAKO cells. The data indicate that, in VSMCs, the luminal SR Ca^{2+} represents a very important physiological Ca^{2+} signal for activating elementary Ca^{2+} release. The luminal SR Ca^{2+} is controlled by relatively slow Ca^{2+} uptake from the global cytosolic $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$. The advantage of the rigorous

SR Ca^{2+} defined regulation of Ca^{2+} sparks is uncoupling spark formation from rapid changes in global cytosolic $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ to enable a robust and stable function of the Ca^{2+} spark/STOC pathway to lower global $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ and vascular tone.

Steady-state Ca^{2+} -influx in SMAKO cells

In SMAKO cells, the global cytosolic $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ is only 16% of wild-type cells. In contrast, SR Ca^{2+} stores (Fig. 6) and Ca^{2+} spark frequency are reduced by only $\sim 50\%$ in SMAKO cells, which is similar to the effects of nimodipine in wild-type cells. Importantly, the acute removal of Ca^{2+} from the extracellular solution produced effects similar to nimodipine, namely a reduction in the Ca^{2+} spark frequency by $\sim 50\%$. The remaining Ca^{2+} sparks were completely blocked by 2-APB (Fig. 6). The blocking effects of the IP_3 receptor antagonist 2-APB on Ca^{2+} sparks have been previously reported in portal vein VSMCs. Crosstalk between IP_3 receptors and RyRs has been proposed (Gordienko & Bolton, 2002). Taking into consideration the ability of 2-APB to non-selectively inhibit cation channels, for example TRP related channels (Albert & Large, 2006; Owsianik *et al.* 2006), an alternative explanation could be that ion influx through non-selective cation channels may serve as additional important regulators of Ca^{2+} sparks in arterial VSMCs. Possibly, these channels can function as caveolemmal Ca^{2+} channels that may produce a subpopulation of Ca^{2+} sparks in caveolar microdomains (Lohn *et al.* 2000). Future studies would clarify the possible role of TRP channels in the regulation of Ca^{2+} sparks in VSMCs.

In conclusion, $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels are important regulatory proteins in the indirect control of Ca^{2+} sparks in arterial VSMCs. We found that $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channel genetic inactivation substantially lowers resting global $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$, which in turn reduces slowly luminal SR calcium and thus Ca^{2+} sparks. We found that rapid, local and tight coupling between the $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels and RyRs is not required to initiate Ca^{2+} sparks. The slow, indirect coupling between $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels and RyRs is in excellent agreement with the physiological function of Ca^{2+} sparks to serve as robust and stable negative feedback regulators for the global $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ and arterial tone.

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Supplemental material

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