TRPV3 channel activity helps cortical neurons stay active during fever.

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Abstract

Fever raises body temperature (T_b) from ~37 °C to beyond 38.4 °C to combat pathogens. While generally well tolerated below 40 °C, in rare cases fever can abnormally elevate neural activity and induce seizures in neurotypical children aged 2–5 years. This study investigates the mechanisms by which neuronal activity is maintained and stabilized during exposure to fever-range temperatures. Recordings of layer (L)4-evoked spiking in L2/3 pyramidal neurons (PNs) of mouse somatosensory cortex revealed four outcomes as temperature increased from 30°C to 36 °C and 39 °C (fever-range): neurons remained inactive, stayed active, ceased activity, or initiated activity. Roughly equal proportions of neurons ceased or initiated spiking, making the subset of "STAY" PNs, those that remain active across temperatures, crucial for maintaining stable cortical output. STAY PNs were more prevalent at younger postnatal ages. Their firing stability was supported by a distinct ion channel composition, including the thermosensitive channel TRPV3, which enables continued spiking by adjusting depolarization to meet spike threshold. Intracellular blockade of TRPV3, but not TRPV4, significantly reduced the proportion of STAY PNs and suppressed spiking at 39 °C. Moreover, in $Trpv3^{-/-}$ mice, temperature increases to 39 °C reduced both spiking and postsynaptic potential amplitude, and these mice exhibited a delayed seizure onset. Together, these findings suggest that TRPV3 contributes to the preservation of cortical activity during fever.

Keywords: development; TRPV3 channel; TRPV4 channel; fever; temperature; seizures; network stability.

Introduction

In most mammals, including humans, core body temperature (T_b) is tightly regulated between

36.1 and 37.8°C, with a daily fluctuation of 0.5°C (Campbell I, 2008). Fever or other thermal

challenges can impede heat dissipation to significantly increase T_b beyond 38°C (Wang et al.,

2014). Because global brain temperature and core body temperature are largely congruent,

large increases in temperature affect both regions (Wang et al., 2014). Increases in body

temperature up to 40 °C are generally well tolerated, but temperatures above 42 °C (within the

hyperthermia and heat stress range) become harmful, leading to protein denaturation and cell

death. The body and brain employ protective mechanisms, such as heat shock proteins, to cope

with heat stress. These proteins are rapidly induced or upregulated at noxious temperatures,

aiding in the refolding or degradation of damaged proteins once temperatures return to

physiological levels (Miller and Fort, 2018). However, the mechanisms that stabilize and

preserve neuronal firing at lower, fever-range temperatures are not well understood.

In rare cases, moderate-grade fevers (T_b = 38.1 to 39°C) cause seizures in children aged 6

months to 6 years, with the highest susceptibility between 2 and 5 years (Oakley et al., 2009,

Shinnar and O'Dell, 2004). A seizure is defined as a sudden, temporary burst of synchronized,

excessive neuronal firing in the brain. These febrile seizures (FS) are almost typically triggered

by the thermal component of fever, as infections or metabolic disorders are absent (Shinnar and

O'Dell, 2004). Additionally, FS can be induced solely by increased T_b due to ambient heat, such

as a warm bath, hot room, or overdressing. Beyond age five, FS rarely occur, suggesting that

developmental changes in brain physiology stabilize network excitability during this window of

susceptibility (Shinnar and O'Dell, 2004). Identifying the electrophysiological mechanisms

underlying this protective shift could provide insight into normal brain maturation and reveal

processes whose disruption may increase susceptibility to febrile seizures.

Rodents exhibit a similar age-dependent susceptibility to thermally induced seizures. The

second postnatal week is proposed as a developmental window of heightened seizure

susceptibility. During this period, fever-range temperatures (38.1 to 39°C), comparable to the

range at which FSs occur in children (Holtzman et al., 1981), do not typically induce seizures.

Instead, seizures arise only at higher thresholds (> 42.7 °C), consistent with hyperthermic rather

than febrile seizures. This raises the question: what physiological changes occur during the

second postnatal week that prevent seizures from being triggered at fever-range temperatures

(~ 39°C)?

For practical reasons, EEG recordings for the onset of FS in humans are limited. However, EEG

traces from rodents with thermally induced seizures show that ictal events often initiate in the

hippocampus and propagate to the cortex, with the later spread to the cortex being correlated to

the more severe behavioral stages of the seizure i.e. Racine stage > 4 (Dube et al., 2010;

Baram et al., 1997). Thus, the cortex represents a critical locus in the seizure phenotype and

likely contains mechanisms that may alter neural activity in response to temperature changes. In

this manuscript, rather than examining how fever provokes seizures, we focus on identifying the

electrophysiological adaptations during postnatal development that stabilize cortical activity at

39°C. Specifically, we compare two developmental stages flanking the proposed window of

hyperthermic seizure susceptibility (P12–14): an earlier stage (P7–8) and a later stage (P20–

23). This design also provides negative controls, allowing us to determine whether changes

observed in the P12–14 window are unique.

Early comparative studies correlating rat and human brain development using neuronal birth

dates, myelination patterns, and saltatory growth stages, suggest that 5–7-day-old rats

approximate full-term human newborns (Dobbing and Sands, 1973). More recent analyses

based on hippocampal and cortical maturation indicate that the second postnatal week (P10–

14) corresponds to human infancy (Baram et al., 1997; Bender et al., 2004). In contrast, the

third and fourth postnatal weeks align with the human juvenile stage (Baram et al., 1997). Here,

using wildtype mice across three postnatal developmental periods—postnatal day (P)7-8

(newborn), P12-14 (infancy), and P20-26 (juvenile)—we investigated the electrophysiological

properties, *ex vivo* and *in vivo*, that enable excitatory cortical pyramidal neurons (PNs) neurons

in mouse primary somatosensory (S1) cortex to remain active during temperature increases

from 30°C (standard in electrophysiology studies) to 36°C (physiological temperature), and then

to 39°C (fever-range).

Finally, to begin identifying molecular determinants that may mediate the electrophysiological

properties enabling firing stability in cortical PNs, we extended our studies to two members of

the thermosensitive, Ca^{2+}-permeable, nonselective cation channels of the transient receptor

potential vanilloid (TRPV) family: TRPV3 and TRPV4. These channels are activated within the

innocuous warm temperature range (TRPV3: 31–39 °C; TRPV4: 27–34 °C) (Su et al., 2023;

Shibasaki et al., 2007), unlike TRPV1 and TRPV2, which respond to noxious heat above 42 °C

and 52 °C, respectively (Kasho and Tominaga, 2022). TRPV3 and TRPV4 share low (~41%)

amino acid sequence identity (Smith et al., 2002) and are both expressed in the brain (Xu et al.,

2002; Caterina, 2007; Kanju et al., 2016; Chen et al., 2022). Given its activation within the 31–

39 °C range, we hypothesized that TRPV3 may specifically contribute to neuronal adaptations

occurring within fever range (Su et al., 2023; Shibasaki et al., 2007).

In summary, we aimed to elucidate adaptative neural mechanisms that allow cortical excitatory

PNs to maintain stable spiking despite substantial increases in brain temperature into the fever

range. Across three postnatal developmental ages, excitatory cortical PNs responded to

depolarizing stimuli during temperature increases from 30°C to 39°C, by remaining inactive,

continuing to spike, ceasing spiking, or initiating spiking. Nearly equal proportions of neurons

ceased or initiated activity, so overall firing stability was maintained largely by "STAY" neurons,

which remained active throughout temperature increases. We propose that STAY neurons likely

achieve this stability through unique ion channel compositions, including those from TRPV3,

which allows for higher depolarization levels through increased excitatory synaptic input relative

to inhibitory input.

Results

Body Temperature rises to fever levels during regular activity and exposure to higher

ambient temperatures.

Contrary to common belief, T_b is not fixed but varies with arousal state, motor activity, and

environmental temperature (Kiyatkin EA, 2019; Hankenson et al., 2018**;** Wang et al., 2014).

Using a sterile IPTT-300 implantable temperature transponder (Bio Medic Data Systems, LLC)

with a 0.025-second time constant and 0.1°C accuracy, T_b measurements were recorded every

five-minutes over six hours from 2–3-week-old wildtype mice in an open-field arena at room

temperature (**Figure 1A**). This analysis revealed a stable median temperature of 36.5°C with a

maximum and minimum fluctuation of 0.5°C (**Figure 1A**). However, within-subject analysis

showed brief T_b elevations into the fever range (shaded red bars) during increased activity like

cage climbing or digging (**Figure 1B-C**). Exposure to infrared light elevates ambient

temperatures and induces prolonged T_b elevations into the fever range, with an onset within

minutes and a duration of several hours (**Figure 1D**).

Spiking in P12-P14 cortical excitatory pyramidal neurons remains stable as temperature

enters the fever range.

To investigate how postnatal cortical neurons respond to fever-range temperature, we used

whole-cell current clamp electrophysiology to record natural spiking, evoked synaptically, as

brain slice temperature gradually rose from 30°C to 36°C to 39°C in PNs (**Figure 2A-B**). Acute

S1 cortex slices (350 μm thick) were prepared using standard methods (Antoine et al., 2019).

PNs were visually identified via infrared DIC optics, and physiological verification for regular

spiking was done in current clamp. Neuronal activity in PNs was evoked by stimulating in the

barrel center of cortical layer (L) 4 using a bipolar electrode (0.2 ms pulses) at a specific

stimulation intensity i.e. 1.4X Eθ (**Figure 2A**). Eθ is defined as the minimal intensity evoking an

excitatory postsynaptic current (EPSC) during more than 3 of 5 consecutive sweeps with 10 s

inter-sweep interval. Eθ was determined in voltage clamp for each recorded cell, prior to

recording post-synaptic potentials (PSPs) and spiking in current clamp. L4- evoked PSPs and

spiking, were recorded from L2/3 PNs, with resting membrane potential (V_m) set just below

spike threshold (-50mV) to simulate in vivo conditions (Yamashita et al., 2013).

Recordings of synaptically-evoked activity in L2/3 wildtype cortical excitatory PNs from P12-14

mice showed significant effects of temperature elevations from 30°C to 39°C. These changes

resulted in an increased depolarization required to reach spike threshold (ST) (defined as the

minimal V_m that just elicits spiking) (**Figure 2B-C**). Consistent with previous findings,

measurements of input resistance (R_{in}) which reflect the extent to which membrane channels

are open, showed significant reductions across all recorded neurons with increasing

temperature (**Figure 2D**). Similar temperature-induced effects on R_{in} have been reported in L2/3

PNs in the rat visual cortex (Hardingham and Larkman, 1997) and in hippocampal CA1 and CA3

PNs from P13-P16 mice (Kim and Connors, 2012). The depolarized ST and reduced R_{in} in PNs

would likely decrease cell excitability and spiking. Indeed, the percentage of spiking cells

decreased during temperature elevations from 30°C to 39°C (**Figure 2E**). However, contrary to

expectations, average spiking remained remarkably stable (**Figure 2F-G**). We also examined

the temperature-induced effects on L2/3 PNs in the absence of excitatory and inhibitory synaptic

inputs. Intrinsic spiking was measured in the presence of synaptic blockers (100 µM APV, 10

µM NBQX, and 3 µM gabazine). PNs were held at -80 mV, followed by positive current injection

(500 ms) steps to determine rheobase (the minimum current injection needed to produce one

spike). At 39°C, rheobase was increased compared to 30°C (**Figure 2H**). Current was injected

up to 250 pA above rheobase at 30°C, 36°C, and 39°C, using a new brain slice for each

recording. Although rheobase was decreased at 39°C compared to 30°C, we found that the

mean number of spikes produced did not differ across current steps (**Figure 2I**).

Spiking in P7-8 cortical excitatory pyramidal neurons decreases as temperature enters

the fever range.

This stability in average spiking at 39°C, despite the loss of some previously active neurons,

suggests the presence of temperature-adaptive changes in PNs that help to maintain normal

circuit activity levels. These changes may either initiate firing in previously non-spiking neurons

or either maintain or elevate spiking levels in currently active cells. Interestingly, in P7–8 mice,

temperature elevations from 30 °C to 39 °C produced effects on ST and R_{in} similar to those

observed in P12–14 mice, with ST increasing and R_{in} decreasing (**Figure 3A–D**). However, in

P7-8 PNs, during temperature elevations from 36 to 39°C, ST did not increase, and R_{in}

decreased (**Figure 3C-D**). Additionally, the percentage of spiking PNs decreased during

temperature elevations from 30°C to 39°C (**Figure 3E**). In contrast to P12-14 PNs, the average

spiking levels in P7-8 PNs significantly decreased during these temperature elevations (**Figure**

3F-G). This suggests that temperature-adaptive changes, possibly involving R_{in} and ST, which

help maintain average spiking levels at fever temperatures despite the loss of some previously

active neurons, may be underdeveloped or absent at this earlier age.

Increased depolarization at higher spike thresholds helps maintain stable spiking activity in cortical pyramidal neurons during temperature elevations.

The temperature-induced increases in ST at P12-14, would make it harder for a cell to spike, as larger depolarization levels would be required to maintain spiking (**Figure 4A**). Therefore, we hypothesized that in cells with increased ST that remain spiking, a temperature-adaptive change might involve a proportional increase in depolarization. To determine if larger depolarizations were associated with higher (less negative) STs, we analyzed the relationship between peak postsynaptic potential (PSP), which indicates maximum depolarization, and ST (**Figure 4B**). Correlation analysis revealed a strong positive correlation between peak PSP and spike threshold at P12-14, which was absent at P7-8 and P20-23 (**Figure 4C**). This correlation was specific to these parameters, as it did not occur for comparisons involving input resistance, an intrinsic property which is affected by temperature changes (**Figure 4D-E**).

One mechanism that could promote enhanced depolarization is a reduction in the inhibitory PSP (IPSP) (**Figure 4F**). In addition to the early component of the PSP (the peak), where excitation is maximal, we also quantified the late component, where inhibition levels are greatest and thus largely represents the IPSP (Bhatia et al., 2019; Antoine et al., 2019) (**Figure 4B**). This analysis revealed that the late PSP (LPSP) was significantly reduced with temperature elevations from 30°C to 39°C (**Figure 4G**). Further analysis indicated that there was no correlation between the ST and LPSP at any age (P7-8: r=0.17, P=0.41, XY pairs=25; P12-14: r=0.24, P=0.31, XY pairs=19; P20-23: r=0.33, P=0.28, XY pairs=13 Pearson's test). However, a significant, moderate relationship occurred between the magnitude of the LPSP and the PSP threshold (**Figure 4H**). Thus, PNs with increased STs and larger PSPs were part of a circuit where synaptic inhibition was reduced across all or most PNs, regardless of whether STs were elevated. These results suggest that at P12-14, ST is sensitive to temperature increases and spiking is maintained by larger depolarization levels in these neurons.

Cortical excitatory neurons that remain active at febrile temperatures exhibit increased spiking rates.

At a later age (P24-P26), we applied external heat to elevate normal T_b (36°C) into the fever range and used *in vivo* high-density, extracellular electrophysiological recordings to capture single-unit activity in the S1 cortex of ketamine/xylazine anesthetized wildtype mice (**Figure 5A**). Unlike in vitro whole-cell patch-clamp recordings, extracellular recordings allow analysis only from cells that spike throughout the recording period during temperature elevations from 36°C (baseline) to fever-range. This is largely due to the inability of spike sorting algorithms to reliably track neurons that stop firing during the recording.

Color maps (with yellow and red indicating spiking activity) illustrate multiunit activity obtained in the left and right cortices during baseline temperature (left), warming to fever T_b (middle), and cooling back to 36°C (recovery upon heat removal) are shown in **Figure 5B**. **Figure 5C** presents example traces of spiking activity recorded from three cortical positions (marked by black, gray, and white asterisks on the right side of panels in figure **5B**). Following manual curation, single units (n = 633) were classified as putative inhibitory interneurons or excitatory pyramidal neurons (PNs) based on their spike waveform duration (Barthó et al., 2004; see Methods). The spike duration was calculated as the time difference between the trough and the subsequent waveform peak of the mean filtered (300 – 6000 Hz bandpassed) spike waveform. Durations of extracellularly recorded spikes showed a bimodal distribution (Hartigan's dip test; $p < 0.001$) characteristic of the neocortex with shorter durations corresponding to putative interneurons (narrow spikes) and longer durations to putative principal cells (wide spikes). Next, k-means clustering was used to separate the single units into these two groups, which resulted in 140 interneurons (spike duration < 0.6 ms) and 493 principal cells (spike duration > 0.6 ms), corresponding to a typical 22% - 78% (interneuron – principal) cell ratio. **Figure 5D** displays

representative single units isolated via spike sorting, with unit 3 representing a putative

interneuron.

Finally, the firing rates of neurons were computed separately during the three distinguished

periods (baseline, thermal fever (39°C) and recovery back to 36°C). To decrease the effect of

transient changes (e.g., tissue recovery during the baseline period or the short-term effect of

heating during the thermal fever period), for each 45-minute-long period, we used only the last

25-minutes to calculate the mean firing rates of neurons. The normalized average firing rate for

each animal (n= 5) was calculated for these putative inhibitory interneurons and excitatory PNs

across the recording session. We found that *in vivo*, putative excitatory PNs that remained

active increased their spike rates at fever temperatures (**Figure 5E**). The normalized firing rates

of five representative units are shown in **Figure 5F** during the baseline, warming (red shaded

area), and recovery periods. Additionally, we observed that putative inhibitory interneurons that

remained active also increased their spike rates at fever temperatures (**Figure 5E**).

Consistent with these *in vivo* findings, *ex vivo* recordings at a similar age (P20-23) showed that

11.1% of recorded excitatory PNs (n=27 cells) spiked at both 36°C and 39°C (Figure 5G).

However, similar to the *in vivo* condition, neurons that remained spiking at 36°C and 39°C

increased their spike/firing rate (**Figure 5H**). Along with the 11.1% of recorded excitatory PNs

that stayed spiking during temperature increases from 36°C to 39°C, roughly equal proportions

of neurons stopped spiking and started spiking (**Figure 5G**). Thus, neurons that maintain

spiking at fever temperatures play a crucial role in determining the overall activity levels of the

circuit. Additionally, we found that the proportion of PNs that remain spiking from 36°C to 39°C

is higher at earlier ages (P12-14) compared to later ages (P20-23) (**Figure 5I**).

283 **Excitatory pyramidal neurons that remain spiking with temperature elevations into fever**

284 **range exhibit unique intrinsic properties.**

285 As neurons that remain spiking with temperature elevations may be crucial in setting overall

286 cortical circuit activity levels, we sought to uncover additional information about the intrinsic

287 characteristics of cortical PNs at P12-14 that facilitate their activity at 36°C to 39°C. We refer to

288 neurons that retained spiking at all three temperatures (30°C, 36°C, and 39°C) as STAY

289 neurons, while those cells that stopped spiking upon temperature transitions from 30°C to 36°C

290 or 36°C to 39°C are denoted as STOP neurons. Firstly, in STOP and STAY neurons, ST

291 increased during temperature elevations from 30°C to 39°C (**Figure 6A**). However, in STOP

292 PNs, the increases in ST were greater than in those neurons that continued spiking (**Figure**

293 **6A**). The ST of neurons that continued spiking at 39°C was similar in magnitude to that of

294 neurons that stopped spiking at 36°C.

295

296 There was an interaction of temperature and whether the PNs were STOP or STAY cells in the

297 PSP (P=0.048, two-way ANOVA, mixed-effects model), with a trend toward larger PSPs in the

298 STAY PNs (**Figure 6B**). STAY cells showed a strong positive correlation between PSP and ST

299 (**Figure 6C-D**). At 30°C, STAY neurons had larger LPSPs (**Figure 6E**). However, inhibition

300 levels in these PNs were unique in that inhibition levels significantly decreased with temperature

301 elevations (**Figure 6E**). Moreover, we found a significant moderate inverse correlation between

302 ST and LPSP in the STAY cells that remain spiking at 39°C (r=-0.57, P=0.046, XY pairs=13,

303 Spearman). Thus, in PNs that stay spiking, the excitation and inhibition levels are matched to

304 facilitate greater depolarization and maintain spiking activity. Temperature-induced alterations in

305 spike height and spike afterhyperpolarization (AHP) were not different between STAY and

306 STOP cells, while R_{in} was largely insensitive to temperature changes in STAY PNs but not in

307 STOP PNs (**Figure 6F-H**).

308

Temperature elevations in the fever range increase TRPV3 currents in cortical pyramidal neurons.

Next, we sought to identify molecular determinants that might underlie the properties of STAY cells. We focused on the transient receptor potential vanilloid 1-4 (TRPV1-4) channels, a family of thermosensitive, Ca^{2+}-permeable, nonselective cation channels. Of these, only TRPV3 and TRPV4 are activated within the innocuous warm temperature range (31-39°C), whereas TRPV1 and TRPV2 respond to noxious heat above 42°C and 52°C, respectively (Kasho and Tominaga, 2022). TRPV3, in particular, has a reported temperature threshold for activation between 31–39°C, with Smith et al., 2002 noting activation at 39°C.

We examined TRPV3 protein expression by immunohistochemical staining at P7, P14, and P21 (**Figure 7A-B**). Staining specificity was confirmed at all ages by co-incubating the TRPV3 antibody with a TRPV3 blocking peptide, with an example shown for a P7 brain section (**Figure 7A**, right panel). TRPV3 expression was detected in S1 cortex at all ages, with strong expression in L2/3 at P14 but not at P7 or P21 (**Figure 7A**). Outside S1 cortex, TRPV3 was also present in the hippocampus, thalamus, and striatum (**Figure 7A-B**). Co- immunostaining for TRPV4 revealed several brain regions where TRPV4 (red color) and TRPV3 (green color) were non-overlapping (**Figure 7B, top-left panel**). In the S1 cortex at P14, TRPV3 was detected in L4 barrels and showed a patchy distribution in L2/3, with some patches displaying more intense staining (**Figure 7B, bottom-right panel**). This pattern was not observed for TRPV4 (**Figure 7B, bottom-left panel**).

Using whole-cell voltage clamp, we recorded TRPV3 currents at different voltages in cortical excitatory PNs with bath application of camphor (5 mM), a TRPV3 agonist (Moqrich et al., 2005) (**Figure 8A**). We observed a significant increase in TRPV3 currents at 39°C (**Figure 8B-C**, two-way repeated measures ANOVA, with Fisher's LCD test). We also measured the net TRPV3

currents by comparing TRPV3 current densities recorded in the absence and presence of

forsythoside B, a natural TRPV3 inhibitor found in the plant *Lamiophlomis rotate* with an IC 50 of

6.7 μmol/L and no obvious inhibitory effects on the other TRPV channels like TRPV1 or 4

(Zhang et al., 2019). Consistent with Smith et al., 2002, who noted TRPV3 activation at 39°C,

we also observed a net positive TRPV3 current at 39°C (**Figure 8D-G**).

Inhibiting TRPV3, but not TRPV4 channels, significantly reduced the population of STAY

pyramidal neurons and spiking levels at fever temperature.

To investigate the potential role of TRPV3 and TRPV4 in regulating STAY PN phenotype in the

S1 cortex during temperature increases from 30-39°C, we applied the following blockers:

forsythoside B (50μM) or RN1734 (10μM, TRPV4 blocker) intracellularly in our recordings of L4-

evoked spiking at 1.4X Eθ in L2/3 PNs (**Figure 9A**). RN1734 is a highly selective antagonist for

TRPV4 with an IC 50 of 5.9 μmol/L and minimal to negligible affinity for the other TRPV

channels (Vincent et al., 2009). These blockers phenocopy electrophysiological effects

observed in *Trpv4 $^{-/-}$ KO* and *Trpv3 $^{-/-}$ KO* mice (Chen et al., 2022). For instance, *Trpv3 $^{-/-}$ KO*

mice exhibit a hyperpolarizing effect on the resting membrane potential (RMP) in striatal MSNs

and L2 stellate neurons in the entorhinal cortex (Chen et al., 2022). This hyperpolarization

reflects reduced TRPV3 activity, which normally promotes cation influx (Shibasaki et al., 2007;

Chen et al., 2022). Although increases in temperature alone can depolarize the RMP, consistent

with prior reports in *Trpv3 $^{-/-}$* mice, our recordings of L4-evoked spiking in L2/3 PNs of S1 cortex

showed a similar trend toward RMP hyperpolarization with intracellular TRPV3 block via

forsythoside at 30 °C and 36 °C, and a significant enhancement at 39°C. Specifically, in the

absence of block (n = 13 cells) versus with TRPV3 blocker (n = 15 cells), the RMP values were:

30 °C: −75.1 ± 1.1 vs. −77.1 ± 1.0 mV (P = 0.273); 36 °C: −73.5 ± 1.2 vs. −76.3 ± 1.1 mV (P =

0.273); 39 °C: −71.3 ± 1.0 vs. −74.4 ± 1.1 mV (P = 0.048); two-way repeated-measures ANOVA

with Fisher's LSD test.

Furthermore, we found that intracellular blockade of TRPV3 caused a significant reduction in the

percentage of STAY neurons (No block: 27% (37 recorded cells), TRPV3 block: 8% (n=26

recorded cells), TRPV4 block: 17% (n=24 recorded cells), two-tailed binomial test) (**Figure 9B**).

Consistent with the STAY cells being largely responsible for maintaining stable average spiking

during temperature elevations, spiking was reduced in PNs with intracellular TRPV3 blockade

during the temperature transitions from 30°C to 39°C **(Figure 9C)**. TRPV3 block did not occlude

the increases in the depolarization required to reach ST (TRPV3 blocker: 30°C: 7.15 ± 0.57,

36°C: 8.39 ± 0.26, 39°C: 10.0 ± 0.94, 30°C vs 39°C: P=0.007, One- way repeated measures

ANOVA, mixed-effects model with Tukey's test). However, it did abolish the temperature

induced increases in the PSP (TRPV3 blocker: 30°C: 2.37 ± 0.36, 36°C: 2.45 ± 0.38, 39°C: 2.22

± 0.25; No blocker: 30°C: 2.47 ± 0.32, 36°C: 2.90 ± 0.32, 39°C: 3.32 ± 0.52 , 30 vs 39°C:

P=0.030, One-way repeated measures ANOVA, mixed-effects model with Dunnett's test).

Consistently, TRPV3 block abolished the positive correlation between ST and PSP (No block:

XY pairs=27, TRPV3 blocker: XY pairs=18, Pearson's test) (**Figure 9D**).

Furthermore, in keeping with the correlation between the magnitude of the LPSP and the PSP

threshold, we found that TRPV3 blockade also prevented the temperature induced decreases in

the LPSP (**Figure 9E**). Moreover, these reductions in spiking with TRPV3 blockade were not

dependent on temperature-induced decreases in R_{in}, as changes to PNs were similar in the

TRPV3 block and no-block conditions (**Figure 9F**). Altogether, these results suggest that

TRPV3 expression or its functional effects—such as mediating Ca^{2+} or other cation (Na^+, K^+)

influx to promote increased depolarization with spike threshold increases—may define the

subset of STAY neurons. Given this role, the loss of TRPV3 is expected to promote

temperature-induced hypoactivity in cortical circuits rather than exacerbate seizure activity.

TRPV3 knockout mice exhibit reduced spiking activity at febrile temperatures and

delayed seizure onset.

Recordings of L4-evoked PSPs and spiking in L2/3 cortical PNs from wildtype (WT) and

homozygous *Trpv3* knockout (*Trpv3$^{-/-}$*) (Moussaieff A et al., 2008) mice revealed similar degrees

of temperature sensitivity in ST and R_{in}. Febrile temperatures increased ST and decreased R_{in}

(**Figure 10A-C**). Consistent with findings that TRPV3 blockade using 50μM forsythoside B

reduces spiking in cortical L2/3 PNs, we observed significantly reduced spiking in *Trpv3$^{-/-}$* mice

as well (**Figure 10D**). Analysis of postsynaptic potentials in these neurons, showed that, in WT

mice, PSP amplitude increased with temperature elevation into the febrile range, whereas this

temperature-dependent depolarization was absent in *Trpv3$^{-/-}$* mice (**Figure 10E**). This reduction

in spiking is consistent with the idea that, during increases in STs, concurrent increases in PSP

amplitude help sustain neuronal spiking. These findings support the conclusion that TRPV3

contributes to enhanced depolarization and excitability at febrile temperatures.

We next examined the effects of reduced *Trpv3* expression on hyperthermia-induced seizures in

WT(*Trpv3$^{+/+}$*), heterozygous (*Trpv3$^{+/-}$*), and homozygous knockout (*Trpv3$^{-/-}$*) P12 pups. As

described in **figure1D**, mice were exposed to infrared light to raise their core T_b into the range of

hyperthermia (>40°C; **Figure 10F**). To enable wireless, non-invasive T_b recordings, all mice

were implanted with temperature transponders. Baseline T_b measurements prior to infrared

exposure revealed no significant differences across genotypes (*Trpv3$^{+/+}$* : 33.7 ± 0.44°C, *Trpv3$^{+/-}$*

: 33.7 ± 0.33°C, *Trpv3$^{-/-}$* : 32.8 ± 0.10°C; One-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison

test, $F_{(2,11)}$ = 2.41, P = 0.136)). As T_b increased during infrared exposure, P12 mice typically

transitioned from rest to active walking and exploratory behavior. The T_b at which mice became

ambulatory did not significantly differ across genotypes ($Trpv3^{+/+}$: 37.5 ± 0.55°C, $Trpv3^{+/-}$: 36.3

± 0.43°C, $Trpv3^{-/-}$: 36.6 ± 0.34°C; One-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test,

$F_{(2,11)} = 1.34$, P = 0.301).

As T_b reached 41–42°C, mice exhibited loss of postural control (LPC), defined as collapse and

failure to maintain upright posture. LPC is a key behavioral marker of cortical and motor circuit

dysfunction. The T_b at which LPC occurred was significantly lower in $Trpv3^{-/-}$ mice compared to

wildtype controls (**Figure 10G**). LPC was followed by the rapid onset of generalized seizures.

While the T_b at seizure onset was not significantly different among genotypes (**Figure 10H**), the

time to seizure onset was significantly prolonged in both $Trpv3^{+/-}$ and $Trpv3^{-/-}$ mice. Specifically,

$Trpv3^{+/-}$ mice exhibited a 49.4% increase, and $Trpv3^{-/-}$ mice a 91% increase in latency to seizure

compared to WT mice (**Figure 10I**). Importantly, the rate of T_b increase leading to seizure did

not differ across genotypes ($Trpv3^{+/+}$: 0.011 ± 0.003°C/s, $Trpv3^{+/-}$: 0.013 ± 0.002°C/s, $Trpv3^{-/-}$:

0.012 ± 0.001°C/s; One-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test, $F_{(2,11)} = 0.1055$, P

= 0.9008), suggesting the delayed seizure onset was not due to slower heating. Together, these

findings indicate that reduced TRPV3 function increases resistance to seizure initiation and/or

propagation under febrile conditions, likely by decreasing neuronal excitability.

Discussion

In this study, we aimed to elucidate adaptive neural mechanisms that enable excitatory PNs to

remain active despite substantial increases in brain temperature into the fever range. Our

electrophysiological assessments across three postnatal ages, P7-8, P12-14 and P20-23

showed that excitatory PNs responded to temperature increases from 30°C to 39°C by either

remaining inactive, staying active, ceasing activity, or initiating activity. Roughly equal portions

of neurons ceased or initiated activity, so firing stability was largely maintained by those that

remained active, i.e., STAY neurons. The overall proportion of PNs that remain spiking from

36°C to 39°C was higher at P12-14 compared to P20-23. This increased proportion at earlier

ages could potentially reflect the increased risk for febrile seizure occurrence at earlier postnatal

ages.

STAY neurons likely possess a unique composition of ion channels that enable them to exhibit

temperature sensitivity in spike threshold but not in input resistance, and adjust their

depolarization levels to match the ST value. Our initial characterization focused on *Trpv3* and

Trpv4, two members of a family of thermosensitive transient receptor potential vanilloid

channels that are expressed in the brain and activated between 30-39°C, the temperature range

of our study. Intracellular blockade of TRPV3, but not TRPV4, significantly decreased the

population of STAY PNs and prevented stability in spiking activity during temperature increases

into fever range.

TRPV3 is highly expressed in various tissues, including epithelial cells of the skin and

oropharynx, the tongue, testis, dorsal root ganglion, trigeminal ganglion, spinal cord and brain

(Moussaieff A et al., 2008 and Xu et al., 2002). It plays a crucial role in skin and hair generation

as well as in the perception of pain and warmth on the skin. However, its role in the central

nervous system remains to be further elucidated. In the brain, TRPV3 is expressed in several

neuronal types, including cortical and striatal neurons (Xu et al., 2002; Chen et al., 2022).

TRPV3 has a reported temperature threshold for activation between 31–39°C, with Smith et al.,

2002 noting activation at 39°C. Consistent with this, we observed the strongest physiological

effects in cortical PNs at 39°C. At this temperature, intracellular blockade of TRPV3 reduced

average spiking levels and temperature-induced increases in the PSP. Additionally, a potential

early postnatal temperature-dependent activity mechanism in PNs, where levels of excitatory

and inhibitory input are adjusted to match the cell's ST, was abolished with TRPV3 blockade.

Altogether, these results suggest that TRPV3 blockade reduces net activity in sensory cortical

circuits by decreasing activity in STAY cells.

Although, TRPV3 channels are cation-nonselective, they exhibit high permeability to Ca^{2+} (

$Ca^{2+}>Na^+ \approx K^+ \approx Cs^+$) with permeability ratios (relative to Na^+) of 12.1, 0.9, 0.9, 0.9 (Xu et al.,

2002). Opening of TRPV3 channels activates a nonselective cationic conductance and elevates

membrane depolarization, which can increase the likelihood of generating action potentials.

Indeed, our observations of a loss of the temperature-induced increases in the PSP with TRPV3

blockade are consistent with a reduction in membrane depolarization. In S1 cortical circuits at

P12-14, STAY PNs appear to rely on a temperature-dependent activity mechanism, where

depolarization levels (mediated by higher excitatory input and lower inhibitory input) are scaled

to match the cell's ST. Thus, an inability to increase PSPs with temperature elevations prevents

PNs from reaching ST, so they cease spiking. See summary figure 11.

Previous research in *Trpv3* $^{-/-}$ KO mice revealed a similar phenotype of reduced activity with

diminished TRPV3 function (Chen et al., 2022). Whole-cell current-clamp recordings from

striatal MSNs and L2 stellate neurons in the entorhinal cortex at 36.5-37.5°C showed that

Trpv3$^{-/-}$ cells exhibited reduced intrinsic excitability, as evidenced by fewer spikes in response to

400-ms current steps, a hyperpolarized RMP, and a decrease in mEPSC frequency (Chen et al.,

2022). These electrophysiological effects were also replicated using pharmacological inhibition

of TRPV3 with 50 μmol/L forsythoside B (Chen et al., 2022). Additionally, consistent with the

idea that ischemic injury upregulates TRPV3 expression, leading to intracellular Ca^{2+} overload

and progressive cell death, inhibition of TRPV3, rather than N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA)

receptors, protected against progressive cell death after stroke (Chen et al., 2022).

As STAY PNs and neurons that initiate spiking at fever temperature ("START" cells) are active

at fever temperature, future research will focus on the molecular characterization of these cells

in the cortex and elsewhere in the brain at P12-14 and other ages. Interestingly, neurons that

initiate spiking at fever temperature are more prevalent at P20-23 than at the earlier ages

examined. TRPV4 block caused a subset of PNs to initiate spiking at 39°C, suggesting that low

TRPV4 expression could define the population of START cortical PNs, at least at P12-14.

Molecular characterization of STAY and START cell types may provide additional insights into

their function within normal brain circuits. In response to specific experiences, selective subsets

of neurons, known as "engrams," may become active to encode specific memories or

behavioral responses (Lee et al., 2021). Alternatively, neurons that become active could initiate

responses to specific stimuli, such as an increase in brain temperature. In this latter scenario,

these neurons may be part of the brain's homeostatic response to temperature increases, while

STAY neurons may play a critical role in facilitating ongoing (cognitive) functions during a fever.

Future research into the molecular characterization of these cell types could offer opportunities

to target and modulate their activity in a brain region-specific manner, potentially advancing

treatments for fever-associated seizures or epilepsies, such as Dravet Syndrome (a genetic

epilepsy typically initiating in early infancy) and febrile infection-related epilepsy syndrome

(FIRES).

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Materials and Methods

Animals

All experimental procedures were performed in accordance with the National Institutes of Health

guidelines for care and use of laboratory animals and the EC Council Directive of September

22, 2010 (2010/63/EU). All experiments were approved by the Animal Care and Use Committee

of the National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism (NIAAA) (Protocol # LIN-MA-1) and

the Animal Care Committee of the HUN-REN Research Centre for Natural Sciences (RCNS)

and by the National Food Chain Safety Office of Hungary (license number: PE/EA/1004-

5/2021). Mice were housed under standard conditions with ad libitum access to food and water,

under a 12-h light/dark cycle. The following mouse strains were obtained from The Jackson

Laboratory (JAX):C57BL/6J (JAX 000664), FVB/N mice (JAX 004828), and Trpv3 **(**JAX 010773)

(Moussaieff A et al., 2008; Moqrich et al., 2005). The day of birth was denoted as postnatal day

(P)1. Both male and female mice were used for body temperature (T_b) recordings and

electrophysiological experiments.

Body Temperature Measurements

All mice used for body temperature (T_b) recordings were implanted with sterile IPTT-300

Implantable Programmable Temperature transponders (Bio Medic Data Systems, LLC) at 2

weeks of age. The injection site was pre-cleaned with a betadine solution, and the sterile

transponders were injected subcutaneously using a pre-loaded 12-gauge syringe into animals

anesthetized with 4-5% isoflurane. The injection site was on the left side, approximately 11 mm

from the base of the hip, with the animal in the prone position. Post-implantation, the mice were

able to move, eat, and drink autonomously, with no adverse phenotypes noted. T_b recording

commenced at least 5 days after injection. Prior to recording, mice were brought into the

procedure room and allowed to habituate for 1 hour. T_b was recorded every 5 minutes for 6

hours using an IPTT-300 Implantable Programmable Temperature reader (DAS-8027) in a 37L

x 16W x 13H cm cage. T_b was recorded in the presence (**Figure 1D**) or absence (**Figure 1A-C**)

of infrared light. Infrared light exposure was provided via a 250-W temperature-controlled

infrared lamp (catalog #50320, Stoelting), set to 32.5-33.5 °C. The lamp was positioned ~15 cm

above the cage, and the ambient temperature was monitored every 5 minutes (**Figure 1D**).

Slice Preparation

Using standard methods, acute primary somatosensory cortex (S1) slices (350 µm thick) from

P7-8, P12-14, or P20-23 mice were cut in the "across-row" plane, oriented 35° toward coronal

from midsagittal (Antoine et al., 2019). The cutting solution contained (in mM): 85 NaCl, 75

sucrose, 25 D- (+)-glucose, 4 $MgSO_4$, 2.5 KCl, 1.25 NaH_2PO_4, 0.5 ascorbic acid, 25 $NaHCO_3$,

0.5 $CaCl_2$. Once cut, slices were transferred to a submerged-style holding chamber containing

standard Ringer's solution (in mM: 119 NaCl, 2.5 KCl, 1.3 $MgSO_4$, 1 NaH_2PO_4, 26.2 $NaHCO_3$,

11 D-(+)-glucose and 2.5 $CaCl_2$) and then incubated at 32°C for 30 minutes. Both solutions

were at neural pH (i.e., 7.3), 300 mOsm, and saturated with 95% O_2 and 5% CO_2. Slices were

kept at room temperature for at least 30 minutes before being transferred to a submerged

recording chamber.

In Vitro Physiology

Whole-cell current-clamp recordings were made from pyramidal neurons (PNs) visually

identified via infrared DIC optics. Physiological verification for regular spiking was done in

current clamp. Recordings were made using 3-6 MΩ micropipettes containing (in mM):116 K

gluconate, 20 HEPES, 6 KCl, 2 NaCl, 0.5 EGTA, 4MgATP, 0.3 NaGTP, 10 Na phosphocreatine,

with a Multiclamp 700B amplifier (Molecular Devices, Sunnyvale, CA). Where applicable,

forsythoside B (50 µM, TRPV3 blocker, Millipore Sigma Cat #: PHL83313) or RN1734 (10 µM,

TRPV4 blocker, Tocris Bioscience Cat #: 3746/25) was added to the internal solution. Camphor

(MedChem, Cat. No: HY-N0808) was added to the bath solution for experiments in **figure 8**.

Signals were filtered (2-6 kHz) and digitized (10-20 kHz). Perfusate temperature for all in vitro

experiments was regulated by a PC-connected Peltier heater (SM-4600, Scientifica, UK) and

temperature controller (Linlab2, Scientifica, UK), with a high-accuracy, low-noise temperature

control system, containing both a built-in temperature sensor and bath sensor for accurate

feedback. ACSF flow rates of ~3 ml/min were used to facilitate efficient heating/cooling.

To determine the effect of temperature on an activated cortical network, layer 4-evoked spiking

was quantified during perfusate temperature increases from 30°C to 36°C, and then to fever

range (~39°C) while recording membrane potential. The slicing plane facilitated clear

identification of whisker barrel columns, and neuronal activity was evoked by stimulating the

barrel center using a bipolar electrode (0.2 ms pulses) at a stimulation of 1.4 Eθ. Eθ is defined

as the minimal intensity that evoked a consistent excitatory postsynaptic current (EPSC) during

more than 3 of 5 consecutive sweeps with 10 s ISI (Antoine et al., 2019). Eθ was determined in

voltage clamp for each recorded cell prior to recording PSPs and spiking in current clamp. A

new brain slice was used for each recording. L4- evoked feedforward post synaptic potentials

(PSPs) and spiking were recorded in single L2/3 PNs from a pre-stimulus baseline membrane

potential (V_m) of -50 mV. This V_m, just below spike threshold, was selected to mimic *in vivo*

conditions, as PNs *in vivo* can reside within this V_m range during whisker exploration of objects

or surfaces (Yamashita et al., 2013). Evoked spikes were analyzed over a 150-ms interval,

starting 2-3 ms post-stimulus, for 11 sweeps at 10 s inter-sweep interval (ISI). Spike threshold

was defined as the membrane potential (V_m) at which the second derivative of V_m was >5 SDs

above the pre-stimulus period. Intrinsic spiking excitability was measured in the presence of

glutamate and GABA-A receptor blockers (in µM: 100 APV, 10 NBQX, 3 gabazine). F-I curves

were obtained from PNs held at –80 mV by applying incremental current injections relative to

this V_m.

Animal Surgery and *In vivo* Electrophysiological Recordings

In vivo experiments were done under general anesthesia where five mice (age, P24-26; body

weight, 7-10 g; both genders) received an intraperitoneal injection of ketamine (100 mg/kg) and

xylazine (10 mg/kg). Regular doses of the ketamine/xylazine cocktail were given intramuscularly

to maintain the depth of anesthesia during the experimental sessions. Up until the thermal fever

protocol started, the T_b of the animals was kept at 36°C using a homeothermic heating pad

connected to a temperature controller (Supertech, Pécs, Hungary). To measure the internal

body temperature, a Type T thermocouple microprobe (MT-29/5; Physitemp Instruments,

Clifton, NJ, USA) was placed in the rectum of the animal. The microprobe has a shaft diameter

of 330 µm, a time constant of 0.025 second and 0.1°C accuracy.

To perform high-density extracellular electrophysiological recordings, mice were placed in a

stereotaxic frame (David Kopf Instruments, Tujunga, CA, USA), then two circular craniotomies

(~1.5 mm in diameter) were made with a dental drill above the left and right barrel cortices. The

craniotomies were centered at the following stereotaxic coordinates: anterior-posterior (AP):

−1.0 mm; medial-lateral (ML): 3.5 mm (with respect to the bregma; Paxinos and Franklin 2001).

Two commercially available Neuropixels 1.0 silicon probes (imec, Leuven, Belgium; Jun et al.,

2017) mounted on two motorized stereotaxic micromanipulators (Neurostar, Tubingen,

Germany) were implanted into the brain, one into the left and the other into the right barrel

cortex, to a depth of 1.5 mm. An insertion speed of 2 µm/s was used to decrease the

mechanical trauma caused by the probe insertion (Fiáth et al. 2019).

In order for the probe tracks to be perpendicular to cortical layers, the probes were inserted at

an angle of 20 degrees from vertical. The dura mater in the craniotomy was left intact, except

when it was too thick and thus the silicon probe could not pierce through this layer (which was

indicated by significant probe buckling; n = 3 insertions). In these cases a 36 gauge, slightly

bent needle was used to carefully cut the dura above the targeted cortical area. After the probe

reached its final insertion depth, to allow the brain tissue to settle, we waited at least 10 minutes

before electrophysiological recording was started. Spiking activity of cortical neurons (action

potential band, 300–10.000 Hz) was recorded on 384 channels (768 channels in total for the

two probes), with a sampling rate of 30 kHz/channel and with a gain of 500 (yielding a resolution

of 2.34 µV per bit). Data were acquired using the SpikeGLX open-source software

(http://billkarsh.github.io/SpikeGLX/). A common stainless steel wire inserted into the neck

muscle of the animal served as the external reference and ground electrode. To avoid the

dehydration of the cortex, the skull and the craniotomy was kept moist during the whole

experiment using body temperature, sterile physiological saline solution and Gelaspon. Before

starting the experimental protocol, manual whisker stimulation (by repetitively touching the

whiskers of the animal with a cotton swab) was used to verify the recording position. In all cases

(n = 10 probe insertions), we detected strong whisker-evoked neuronal activity.

Thermal Fever Protocol during Electrophysiological Recordings

First, we recorded cortical activity for 45 minutes at ~36°C body temperature ("baseline "

period), then the body temperature of the animal was elevated with the aid of the heating pad

and a power bank with warming capability which was placed next to the mouse. The body

temperature was increased from 36°C to 39°C in about 5 minutes (~0.01°C/s). The elevated

body temperature was maintained for 45 minutes ("thermal fever " period). Next, we turned off

the heating until the T_b reached physiological temperatures (36°C; ~5 min; ~0.01°C/s). Cortical

activity was recorded for another 45 minutes at 36°C body temperature ("recovery " period).

Continuous recordings with a total duration of 145 minutes were obtained for each mouse.

Spike Sorting and Data Analysis

To extract cortical single-unit activity, spike sorting was performed with Kilosort2

(https://github.com/MouseLand/Kilosort; Pachitariu et al., 2016a, 2016b) using the default

parameter set (available in the StandardConfig.m file). Channels containing activity acquired by

recording sites located outside the cortex were removed before spike sorting (usually ~130

channels/probe recorded from the barrel cortex). The list of single unit clusters generated by

Kilosort2 was visually inspected to remove units considered as noise (e.g., units with abnormal

spike waveform shapes) or multi-unit activity (e.g., clusters with a contaminated refractory

period). Manual curation of the Kilosort2 results was done with the Phy Python library, which

provides a graphical user interface for interactive visualization of high-density data and supply

operations for merging, splitting and marking of clusters (https://github.com/cortex-lab/phy;

Rossant et al., 2016). In this dataset, we aimed to keep only those single units which had at

least 900 spikes (>~0.1 Hz firing rate), a clear refractory period, a consistent waveform shape

and whose spikes were present throughout the 145-minute-long recording.

Following manual curation, based on their spike waveform duration, the selected single units (n

= 633) were separated into putative inhibitory interneurons and excitatory principal cells (Barthó

et al., 2004). The spike duration was calculated as the time difference between the trough and

the subsequent waveform peak of the mean filtered (300 – 6000 Hz bandpassed) spike

waveform. Durations of extracellularly recorded spikes showed a bimodal distribution

(Hartigan's dip test; $p < 0.001$) characteristic of the neocortex with shorter durations

corresponding to putative interneurons (narrow spikes) and longer durations to putative principal

cells (wide spikes). Next, k-means clustering was used to separate the single units into these

two groups, which resulted in 140 interneurons (spike duration < 0.6 ms) and 493 principal cells

(spike duration > 0.6 ms), corresponding to a typical 22% - 78% (interneuron – principal) cell

ratio. Finally, the firing rates of neurons were computed separately during the three

distinguished periods (baseline, thermal fever and recovery). To decrease the effect of transient

changes (e.g., tissue recovery during the baseline period or the short-term effect of heating

during the thermal fever period), for each 45-minute-long period, we used only the last 25-

minutes to calculate the mean firing rates of neurons.

Immunofluorescence staining
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Mice were anesthetized and transcardially perfused using standard methods. Brains were post-

fixed overnight in 4% PFA at 4 °C with shaking, rinsed in 1X PBS, and cryoprotected in 30%

sucrose. They were embedded in optimal cutting temperature (OCT) compound, frozen on dry

ice, and stored at –80 °C until sectioning. Tissue was cut at 30 μm on a cryostat, mounted onto

slides. Sections were permeabilized in 0.3% Triton X-100 (in 1X PBS) for 10 min at room

temperature. Endogenous peroxidase activity was quenched by incubation in 3% H_2O_2 (in 1X

PBS) at room temperature. Slides were blocked in 10% normal goat serum for 1 h at room

temperature, then incubated overnight at 4 °C with anti-TRPV3-Biotin antibody (#ACC-033-B),

TRPV3 blocking peptide (#BLP-CC033), and/or anti-TRPV4 antibody(#ACC-034) (Alomone

Labs, Israel). For antibody–peptide controls, the anti-TRPV3-Biotin antibody was pre-incubated

with its blocking peptide at a 1:2.5 ratio, using 1 mg/ml of each. The following day, sections

were incubated for 1 h at room temperature with fluorescently labeled secondary antibodies

(streptavidin-conjugated or unconjugated). Nuclei were counterstained with DAPI Fluoromount-

G (Electron Microscopy Sciences, USA). Finally, sections were mounted onto slides, cover-

slipped, and stored at 4 °C until imaging. Images were acquired using a Keyence BZ-X810

microscope (BZ-X800 Viewer, Version 1.1.1.8) with BZ-X filter sets: DAPI (Ex 360/40 nm; OP-

87762), GFP (Ex 470/40 nm; OP-87763), and TRITC (Ex 545/25 nm; OP-87764).

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Statistics

Statistical analyses were conducted using Prism 9.0 (GraphPad). For experiments, at least 3

mice from a minimum of 2 separate litters were used, with littermates typically included across

the age groups P7-8, P12-14, and P20-23. Non-Gaussian data were either log-transformed for

parametric testing or subjected to nonparametric tests, as specified in the results and figure

legends. Significance was consistently reported at $\alpha = 0.05$. Details on the statistical tests used

are provided in the figure captions.

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708 **References**
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823 **Figures and Figure Legends**

Figure 1: Body Temperature rises to fever levels during regular activity and upon exposure to higher ambient temperatures.

A. Left: Setup for recording mouse body temperature (T_b) at room temperature using an implanted transponder for non-invasive measurement. Right: Average T_b readings over 6 hours at 5-minute intervals for 10 mice. T_b typically hovers around 36.5°C during the day.

B. T_b may briefly elevate into fever range (shaded red bars) during regular daily activity. Median with upper and lower limits indicated.

C. T_b readings over 6 hours, at 5-minute intervals for animal 3 in Figure 1B. Shaded red dots indicate time points when T_b enters the fever range.

D. Left: Setup for T_b recordings during infrared light exposure. Right: T_b elevates into the fever range (>38°C) for extended durations, lasting minutes to hours. Average T_b readings over 6 hours at 5-minute intervals for 10 mice.

Figure 2: Spiking in P12-14 cortical excitatory pyramidal neurons remains stable as temperature enters the fever range.

A. Setup for recording L4-evoked postsynaptic potential and spiking in a cortical excitatory pyramidal neuron (PN) at just-subthreshold V_m at 30°C, 36°C and 39°C in mouse primary somatosensory (S1) cortex.

B. Example traces of L4-evoked spikes in L2/3 PN during consecutive recordings at 30°C (black), 36°C (gray), and 39°C (red).

C. Depolarization required to reach spike threshold (ST) in L2/3 PNs during temperature elevations from 30°C to 39°C.

D. Same as (C) for input resistance (R_{in}).

E. Same as (C) for the percentage of spiking L2/3 PNs.

F. Same as in (C) for the spiking distribution.

G. Same as in (C) for the number of spikes.

H. Rheobase in L2/3 PNs during temperature elevations from 30°C to 39°C. 8 PNs recorded from 3 animals.

I. Quantification of evoked spiking for F-I curves in L2/3 PNs during temperature elevations from 30°C to 39°C. Each recorded cell was exposed to the full temperature range (30 to 39°C). 8 PNs recorded from 3 animals.

In **C**, **D** and **G**, each data point represents an individual cell. In C-F, 37 PNs recorded from 14 animals, with each cell exposed to temperature elevations from 30°C to 39°C. Data in **C**, **D**, and **G** are shown as mean ± SEM. Statistical significance was assessed as follows: **C**, **D**, **G** :one-way repeated-measures ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc test (α = 0.05); E – two-tailed binomial

test; F – Kolmogorov–Smirnov (K–S) test, **H**: two-way repeated-measures ANOVA with Tukey's

post-hoc test(α = 0.05).

Figure 3: Spiking in P7-8 cortical excitatory pyramidal neurons decreases as temperature

enters the fever range.

A. Setup for recording L4-evoked postsynaptic potential and spiking in an excitatory pyramidal

neuron (PN) at just-subthreshold V_m at 30°C, 36°C and 39°C in mouse primary somatosensory

(S1) cortex.

B. Example traces of L4-evoked spikes in L2/3 PN during consecutive recordings at 30°C

(black), 36°C (gray), and 39°C (red).

C. Depolarization required to reach spike threshold (ST) in L2/3 PNs during temperature

elevations from 30°C to 39°C.

D. Same as (C) for input resistance (R_{in}).

E. Same as (C) for the percentage of spiking L2/3 PNs.

F. Same as in (C) for the spiking distribution.

G. Same as in (C) for the number of spikes.

In **C**, **D** and **G**, each data point represents an individual cell. In C-G, 19 PNs recorded from 5

animals, with each cell exposed to temperature elevations from 30°C to 39°C. Data in **C**, **D**, and

G are shown as mean ± SEM. Statistical significance was assessed as follows: **C**, **D**, **G** :one-

way repeated-measures ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc test (α = 0.05); E – two-tailed binomial

test; F – Kolmogorov–Smirnov test.

Figure 4: Increased depolarization at higher spike thresholds helps maintain stable

spiking activity in cortical pyramidal neurons during temperature elevations.

A. Illustration demonstrating how temperature-induced changes in spike threshold make spiking

more challenging for a neuron, requiring larger levels of depolarization to sustain spiking.

B. Example traces of L4-evoked postsynaptic potentials (PSPs) in L2/3 PN during consecutive

recordings at 30°C (black), 36°C (gray), and 39°C (red).

C. Correlation of PSP peak versus spike threshold (ST). r = Pearson correlation coefficient with

Deming linear regression.

D. Correlation of input resistance versus ST. r = Pearson correlation coefficient with

simple linear regression.

E. Same as D but for input resistance versus PSP.

F. Illustration showing how temperature-induced loss in inhibition (blue IPSP) could lead to
larger levels of depolarization. IPSPs typically bring the membrane potential away from the
spike threshold.
G. The late PSP peak in L2/3 PNs during temperature elevations from 30°C to 39°C.
Statistical significance was evaluated on log-transformed data using one-way repeated
measures ANOVA with Tukey's test, with significance at α=0.05.
H. Same as D but for PSP versus Late PSP Peak. r = Spearman correlation coefficient with
simple linear regression.
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Figure 5: Cortical excitatory neurons that remain active at febrile temperatures exhibit
increased spiking rates.
A. Setup for *in vivo* recording of spiking in mouse S1 cortex during temperature increases from
36°C to 39°C and cooling back to 36°C.
B. Color maps (with yellow and red indicating spiking activity) illustrate multiunit activity obtained
in the left and right cortices during baseline temperature (left), warming to fever T_b (middle), and
cooling back to 36°C (recovery upon heat removal).
C. Example traces of spiking activity recorded from three cortical positions (marked by black,
gray, and white asterisks on the right side of panels in figure 5B.
D. Mean spike waveforms (black), single spikes (gray) and autocorrelograms (bottom) of single
units isolated, with unit 3 representing a putative interneuron.
E. Normalized firing rates of putative excitatory PNs and interneurons obtained from recordings
in A.
F. The normalized firing rates of five representative units during the baseline, warming (red
shaded area), and recovery periods. Figure 5F presents the same data, with color coding
consistent with the units in Figure 5D.
G. Left: Setup for *ex vivo* recording of L4-evoked postsynaptic potentials and spiking in L2/3
cortical PN at just-subthreshold V_m at 30°C, 36°C and 39°C in mouse S1 cortex.
Right: Percent distribution for recorded PNs that never spiked, stopped spiking, stayed spiking,
or started spiking during temperature increases from 36°C to 39°C.
H. L2/3 PN spiking activity in neurons that stayed spiking (left), started spiking (middle), and
stopped spiking (right) upon temperature increases from 36°C to 39°C.
I. Activity distribution for *ex vivo* recorded neurons that never spiked, and those that stopped
spiking, stayed spiking, or started spiking upon temperature increases from 36°C to 39°C. P-
value = 0.01 indicates a significant increase in the fraction of neurons that stayed spiking during
temperature increases from 36°C to 39°C (solid red bar).

In **E** and **H**, each data point represents an individual animal and cell, respectively. Data were

collected from 5 animals in **B–F**, 11 animals in **G–H**, and 9–14 animals in **I**. Statistical

significance was assessed using one-way repeated-measures ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc

test (**E**), paired two-tailed t-test (**H**), and binomial test (**I**), with significance set at $\alpha = 0.05$.

Figure 6: Excitatory pyramidal neurons that remain spiking with temperature elevations

into fever range exhibit unique intrinsic properties.

Neurons that spiked at all temperatures (30°C, 36°C, and 39°C) are STAY PNs, while those that

stopped spiking at 36°C or 39°C are STOP neurons.

A. Depolarization required to reach spike threshold (ST) in STOP and STAY L2/3 PNs during

temperature elevations from 30°C to 39°C.

B. Same as (A) for L4-evoked postsynaptic potentials (PSPs)

C. Correlation of PSP peak versus ST in STAY L2/3 PNs at 30°C, 36°C, and 39°C. r = Pearson

correlation coefficient with Deming linear regression.

D. Same as (C) for STOP cells.

E. Same as (A) for the L4-evoked late PSP peak.

F. Same as (A) for spike height.

G. Same as (A) for spike afterhyperpolarization (AHP).

H. Same as (A) for input resistance.

Each data point in **A–H** represents an individual cell. Data were collected from 14 animals.

Mean ± SEM is shown in **A–B** and **E–H**. Statistical significance was assessed using one- or

two-way repeated-measures ANOVA with Tukey's or Sidak post-hoc test (**A–B**, **E–H**; $\alpha = 0.05$).

In **C–D**, correlations were evaluated using Pearson's r with Deming linear regression.

Figure 7. TRPV3 protein expression by immunohistochemistry at postnatal days 7, 14,

and 21.

A. TRPV3 immunostaining (green) in mouse primary somatosensory (S1) cortex, striatum,

thalamus, and hippocampus, with DAPI counterstain (blue).

Top row left: Postnatal day (P)7; bottom row left: P14; bottom row right: P21.

Top row right: Sections incubated with TRPV3 antibody plus TRPV3 blocking peptide in S1

cortex, striatum, thalamus, and hippocampus (green) with DAPI counterstain (blue). Remaining

TRPV3 staining is shown in green with DAPI in blue.

B. TRPV3 and TRPV4 immunostaining in S1 cortex, striatum, thalamus, and hippocampus at

P14.

Top row left: TRPV3 (green) and TRPV4 (brick red).

Top row right: TRPV3 (green) and TRPV4 (brick red) with DAPI counterstain (blue).

Bottom row left: TRPV4 immunostaining in S1BF (inset from top row left) at 10×.

Bottom row right: TRPV3 immunostaining in S1BF (inset from top row left) at 10×.

Figure 8: Temperature elevations in fever range increase TRPV3 currents in cortical pyramidal neurons.

A. Setup for recording whole-cell TRPV3 currents at 30°C (black), 36 °C (grey) and 39°C (red). in cortical excitatory pyramidal neurons (PNs) with bath application of camphor (5mM), a *TPRV3* agonist.

B. Current density-voltage (I-V) relationship of TRPV3 currents at 30°C (black), 36 °C (grey) and 39°C (red) in WT mice: 11 cells from 4 mice.

C. Scatter dot plots of the current density-voltage measurements.

D. Current density-voltage (I-V) relationship of TRPV3 currents at 30°C (black) in the presence of camphor (5mM), a TPRV3 agonist, or camphor (5mM) + TRPV3 blocker (Forsythoside B, 50 μM) (blue).

E. Same as (**D**) but for 36°C.

F. Same as (**D**) but for 39°C.

G. Current density-voltage (I-V) plot showing the net TRPV3 current (opener – (opener+ blocker) condition).

In B-F, statistical significance was assessed using a two-way repeated-measures ANOVA with Tukey's or Sidak post-hoc test (α = 0.05)

Figure 9: Inhibiting TRPV3, but not TRPV4 channels, significantly reduced the population of STAY pyramidal neurons and spiking levels at fever temperature.

A. Setup for recording L4-evoked postsynaptic potential and spiking in an excitatory cortical pyramidal neuron (PN) with an intracellular blocker of TRPV3 channels (Forsythoside B, 50 μM) (left) or TRPV4 channels (RN1734, 10 μM) (right) at just-subthreshold V_m at 30°C, 36°C, and 39°C in mouse S1 cortex.

B. Percentages of cell types obtained from experiment in A.

C. Evoked spikes in L2/3 cortical PNs during temperature elevations to 30°C, 36°C, and 39°C under three conditions: no blockers, TRPV3 blocker (Forsythoside B, 50 μM), or TRPV4 blocker (RN1734, 10 μM).

D. Correlation between PSP peak and spike threshold (ST). r = Pearson correlation coefficient with Deming linear regression.

E. Same as (C) for the L4-evoked late PSP peak.

F. Same as (C) for input resistance (R_{in}).

Each data point in **C–F** represents an individual cell. Data were collected from 26 cells in 7

animals for the TRPV3 blocker, 24 cells in 6 animals for the TRPV4 blocker, and 37 cells in 14

animals for the no-block condition. Mean ± SEM is shown in **C, E, and F**. Statistical significance

was assessed using one- or two-way repeated-measures ANOVA with Tukey's or Sidak post-

hoc test ($\alpha = 0.05$). In **D**, correlations were evaluated using Pearson's r with Deming linear

regression.

Figure 10: TRPV3 knockout mice exhibit reduced spiking activity at febrile temperatures

and delayed seizure onset.

A. Setup for recording L4-evoked postsynaptic potentials and spiking in excitatory cortical

pyramidal neurons (PNs) at just-subthreshold Vm at 30 °C, 36 °C, and 39 °C in mouse S1

cortex of wildtype ($Trpv3^{+/+}$) and Trpv3 knockout ($Trpv3^{-/-}$) mice.

B. Depolarization required to reach spike threshold (ST) in $Trpv3^{+/+}$ and $Trpv3^{-/-}$ mice at 30°C,

36°C, and 39°C.

C. Same as (B) but for input resistance (R_{in}).

D. Same as (B) but for number of spikes.

E. Same as (B) but for postsynaptic potential (PSP).

F. Setup for recording mouse body temperature (T_b) at room temperature and during fever-

range and higher, using an implanted transponder for non-invasive measurement, with

exposure to infrared light.

G. Time to loss of postural control (LPC), defined as collapse and failure to maintain upright

posture, in wildtype ($Trpv3^{+/+}$), heterozygous ($Trpv3^{+/-}$) and Trpv3 knockout ($Trpv3^{-/-}$) mice.

H. Same as in (G) but showing T_b at seizure onset.

I. Same as in (G) but for the time from LPC to seizure onset.

Each data point in **B–E** represents an individual cell (3 animals per genotype). Statistical

significance was assessed using two-way repeated-measures ANOVA with Tukey's or Sidak

post-hoc test ($\alpha = 0.05$). Each data point in **G–I** represents an individual animal. Statistical

significance was assessed using one-way repeated-measures ANOVA with Tukey's or Sidak

post-hoc test ($\alpha = 0.05$).

Figure 11. Summary model of how STAY neurons achieve firing stability through unique

ion channel compositions, including TRPV3.

A. In cortical L2/3 pyramidal neurons (PNs) with synaptically evoked spiking, gradual increases

in brain slice temperature from 30 °C to 36 °C to 39 °C result in four possible outcomes:

neurons remain inactive, continue spiking (STAY), stop spiking, or initiate spiking. To spike, PNs

must reach spike threshold (ST), defined as the minimal V_m that elicits an action potential, which

requires sufficient depolarization via the postsynaptic potential (PSP). STAY neurons

consistently reach ST and continue spiking. Neurons that stop spiking fall below the level of

depolarization required to reach ST, while neurons that initiate spiking achieve sufficient

depolarization to newly reach ST.

B. STAY neurons may contain unique ion channels, such as TRPV3. TRPV3 channels are

highly permeable to Ca^{2+} ions, and Ca^{2+} influx contributes to PN depolarization. The presence of

TRPV3 facilitates greater ion entry, enabling depolarization sufficient to reach ST and sustain

spiking, whereas its absence reduces depolarization to levels insufficient for spiking.

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Figure 1: **Body Temperature rises to fever levels during regular activity and upon exposure to higher ambient temperatures.**
A. Left: Setup for recording mouse body temperature(T_b) at room temperature using an implanted transponder for non-invasive measurement. Right: Average T_b readings over 6 hours at 5-minute intervals for 10 mice. T_b typically hovers around 36.5°C during the day.
B. T_b may briefly elevate into fever range (shaded red bars) during regular daily activity. Median with upper and lower limits indicated.
C. T_b readings over 6 hours, at 5-minute intervals for animal 3 in Figure 1B. Shaded red dots indicate time points when T_b enters the fever range.
D. Left: Setup for T_b recordings during infrared light exposure. Right: T_b elevates into the fever range (>38°C) for extended durations, lasting minutes to hours. Average T_b readings over 6 hours at 5-minute intervals for 10 mice.

Figure 2: **Spiking in P12-14 cortical excitatory pyramidal neurons remains stable as temperature enters the fever range.**
A. Setup for recording L4-evoked postsynaptic potential and spiking in a cortical excitatory pyramidal neuron (PN) at just-subthreshold V_m at 30°C, 36°C and 39°C in mouse primary somatosensory (S1) cortex.
B. Example traces of L4-evoked spikes in L2/3 PN during consecutive recordings at 30°C (black), 36°C (gray), and 39°C (red).
C. Depolarization required to reach spike threshold (ST) in L2/3 PNs during temperature elevations from 30°C to 39°C.
D. Same as (C) for input resistance (R_{in}).
E. Same as (C) for the percentage of spiking L2/3 PNs.
F. Same as in (C) for the spiking distribution.
G. Same as in (C) for the number of spikes.
H. Rheobase in L2/3 PNs during temperature elevations from 30°C to 39°C. 8 PNs recorded from 2 animals.
I. Quantification of evoked spiking for F-I curves in L2/3 PNs during temperature elevations from 30°C to 39°C. Each recorded cell was exposed to the full temperature range (30 to 39°C). 8 PNs recorded from 3 animals.
In C, D and G, each data point represents an individual cell. In C-F, 37 PNs recorded from 14 animals, with each cell exposed to temperature elevations from 30°C to 39°C. Data in C, D, and G are shown as mean ± SEM. Statistical significance was assessed as follows: C, D, G :one-way repeated-measures ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc test (α = 0.05); E – two-tailed binomial test; F – Kolmogorov–Smirnov (K–S) test, H: two-way repeated-measures ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc test(α = 0.05).

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B. Same as (A) for L4-evoked postsynaptic potentials (PSPs)
C. Correlation of PSP peak versus ST in STAY L2/3 PNs at 30°C, 36°C, and 39°C. r = Pearson correlation coefficient with Deming linear regression.
D. Same as (C) for STOP cells.
E. Same as (A) for the L4-evoked late PSP peak.
F. Same as (A) for spike height.
G. Same as (A) for spike afterhyperpolarization (AHP).
H. Same as (A) for input resistance (R_{in}).
Each data point in A–H represents an individual cell. Data were collected from 14 animals. Mean ± SEM is shown in A–B and E–H. Statistical significance was assessed using one- or two-way repeated-measures ANOVA with Tukey's or Sidak post-hoc test (A–B, E–H; α = 0.05). In C–D, correlations were evaluated using Pearson's r with Deming linear regression.

Figure 7. TRPV3 protein expression by immunohistochemistry at postnatal days 7, 14, and 21.
A. TRPV3 immunostaining (green) in mouse primary somatosensory (S1) cortex, striatum, thalamus, and hippocampus, with DAPI counterstain (blue).
Top row left: Postnatal day (P)7; bottom row left: P14; bottom row right: P21.
Top row right: Sections incubated with TRPV3 antibody plus TRPV3 blocking peptide in S1 cortex, striatum, thalamus, and hippocampus (green) with DAPI counterstain (blue). Remaining TRPV3 staining is shown in green with DAPI in blue.
B. TRPV3 and TRPV4 immunostaining in S1 cortex, striatum, thalamus, and hippocampus at P14.
Top row left: TRPV3 (green) and TRPV4 (brick red).
Top row right: TRPV3 (green) and TRPV4 (brick red) with DAPI counterstain (blue).
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B. Current density-voltage (I-V) relationship of TRPV3 currents at 30°C (black), 36 °C (grey) and 39°C (red) in WT mice: 11 cells from 4 mice.
C. Scatter dot plots of the current density-voltage measurements.
D. Current density-voltage (I-V) relationship of *TRPV3* currents at 30°C (black) in the presence of camphor (5mM), a TPRV3 agonist, or camphor (5mM) + T*RPV3* blocker (Forsythoside B, 50 µM) (blue).
E. Same as (D) but for 36°C.
F. Same as (D) but for 39°C.
G. Current density-voltage (I-V) plot showing the net *TRPV3* current (opener – (opener+ blocker) condition).
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B. Percentages of cell types obtained from experiment in A.
C. Evoked spikes in L2/3 cortical PNs during temperature elevations to 30°C, 36°C, and 39°C under three conditions: no blockers, TRPV3 blocker (Forsythoside B, 50 µM), or TRPV4 blocker (RN1734, 10 µM).
D. Correlation between PSP peak and spike threshold (ST). r = Pearson correlation coefficient with Deming linear regression.
E. Same as (C) for the L4-evoked late PSP peak.
F. Same as (C) for input resistance (R_{in}).
Each data point in C–F represents an individual cell. Data were collected from 26 cells in 7 animals for the TRPV3 blocker, 24 cells in 6 animals for the TRPV4 blocker, and 37 cells in 14 animals for the no-block condition. Mean ± SEM is shown in C, E, and F. Statistical significance was assessed using one- or two-way repeated-measures ANOVA with Tukey's or Sidak post-hoc test (α = 0.05). In D, correlations were evaluated using Pearson's r with Deming linear regression.

Figure 10: TRPV3 knockout mice exhibit reduced spiking activity at febrile temperatures and delayed seizure onset.

A. Setup for recording L4-evoked postsynaptic potentials and spiking in excitatory cortical pyramidal neurons (PNs) at just-subthreshold V_m at 30 °C, 36 °C, and 39 °C in mouse S1 cortex of wildtype (*Trpv3*^{+/+}) and Trpv3 knockout (*Trpv3*^{-/-}) mice.

B. Depolarization required to reach spike threshold (ST) in *Trpv3*^{+/+} and *Trpv3*^{-/-} mice at 30°C, 36°C, and 39°C.

C. Same as (B) but for input resistance (R_{in}).

D. Same as (B) but for number of spikes.

E. Same as (B) but for postsynaptic potential (PSP).

F. Setup for recording mouse body temperature (T_b) at room temperature and during fever-range and higher, using an implanted transponder for non-invasive measurement, with exposure to infrared light.

G. Time to loss of postural control (LPC), defined as collapse and failure to maintain upright posture, in wildtype (*Trpv3*^{+/+}), heterozygous (*Trpv3*^{+/-}) and Trpv3 knockout (*Trpv3*^{-/-}) mice.

H. Same as in (G) but showing T_b at seizure onset.

I. Same as in (G) but for the time from LPC to seizure onset.

Each data point in B–E represents an individual cell (3 animals per genotype). Statistical significance was assessed using two-way repeated-measures ANOVA with Tukey's or Sidak post-hoc test (α = 0.05). Each data point in G–I represents an individual animal. Statistical significance was assessed using one-way repeated-measures ANOVA with Tukey's or Sidak post-hoc test (α = 0.05).

A

How spiking activity changes during increases in temperature from 30°C to 36°C to 39°C.

B

Figure 11. Summary model of how STAY neurons achieve firing stability through unique ion channel compositions, including TRPV3.
A. In cortical L2/3 pyramidal neurons (PNs) with synaptically evoked spiking, gradual increases in brain slice temperature from 30 °C to 36 °C to 39 °C result in four possible outcomes: neurons remain inactive, continue spiking (STAY), stop spiking, or initiate spiking.
To spike, PNs must reach spike threshold (ST), defined as the minimal Vm that elicits an action potential, which requires sufficient depolarization via the postsynaptic potential (PSP). STAY neurons consistently reach ST and continue spiking. Neurons that stop spiking fall below the level of depolarization required to reach ST, while neurons that initiate spiking achieve sufficient depolarization to newly reach ST.
B. STAY neurons may contain unique ion channels, such as TRPV3. TRPV3 channels are highly permeable to Ca²⁺ ions, and Ca²⁺ influx contributes to PN depolarization. The presence of TRPV3 facilitates greater ion entry, enabling depolarization sufficient to reach ST and sustain spiking, whereas its absence reduces depolarization to levels insufficient for spiking.