

# Retigabine holds $K_V7$ channels open and stabilizes the resting potential

Aaron Corbin-Leftwich, Sayeed M. Mossadeq, Junghoon Ha, Iwona Ruchala, Audrey Han Ngoc Le, and Carlos A. Villalba-Galea

Department of Physiology and Biophysics, Virginia Commonwealth University, School of Medicine, Richmond, VA 23298

The anticonvulsant Retigabine is a  $K_V7$  channel agonist used to treat hyperexcitability disorders in humans. Retigabine shifts the voltage dependence for activation of the heteromeric  $K_V7.2/K_V7.3$  channel to more negative potentials, thus facilitating activation. Although the molecular mechanism underlying Retigabine's action remains unknown, previous studies have identified the pore region of  $K_V7$  channels as the drug's target. This suggested that the Retigabine-induced shift in voltage dependence likely derives from the stabilization of the pore domain in an open (conducting) conformation. Testing this idea, we show that the heteromeric  $K_V7.2/K_V7.3$  channel has at least two open states, which we named  $O_1$  and  $O_2$ , with  $O_2$  being more stable. The  $O_1$  state was reached after short membrane depolarizations, whereas  $O_2$  was reached after prolonged depolarization or during steady state at the typical neuronal resting potentials. We also found that activation and deactivation seem to follow distinct pathways, suggesting that the  $K_V7.2/K_V7.3$  channel activity displays hysteresis. As for the action of Retigabine, we discovered that this agonist discriminates between open states, preferentially acting on the  $O_2$  state and further stabilizing it. Based on these findings, we proposed a novel mechanism for the therapeutic effect of Retigabine whereby this drug reduces excitability by enhancing the resting potential open state stability of  $K_V7.2/K_V7.3$  channels. To address this hypothesis, we used a model for action potential (AP) in *Xenopus laevis* oocytes and found that the resting membrane potential became more negative as a function of Retigabine concentration, whereas the threshold potential for AP firing remained unaltered.

## INTRODUCTION

The heteromeric  $K_V7.2/K_V7.3$  channel is the assembly of  $K_V7$  channels most commonly found in the central nervous system (Jentsch, 2000; Cooper, 2012). The activity of this heteromeric channel gives rise to the  $K^+$  current that is suppressed by muscarinic signaling and is known as the M current (Wang et al., 1998; Jentsch, 2000). M currents are critical in controlling excitability in central nervous system neurons (Brown and Adams, 1980; Wang et al., 1998; Jentsch, 2000; Cooper, 2012; Linley et al., 2012; Soh et al., 2014; Mastrangelo, 2015; Miceli et al., 2015a). Indeed, mutations that detrimentally affect the function of neuronal  $K_V7$  channels cause hyperexcitability syndromes such as benign familial neonatal seizures (Charlier et al., 1998; Singh et al., 1998), early onset epileptic encephalopathy (Abidi et al., 2015), and peripheral nerve hyperexcitability (Dedek et al., 2001; Wuttke et al., 2007). Yet, the molecular basis for the role of  $K_V7$  channels in the development of these disorders remains unclear.

Epilepsy is a family of encephalopathies characterized by abnormal synchronous and rhythmic neuronal activity in the brain that results in seizures. According to the

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), ~1% of children aged 0–17 yr and 1.8% of adults aged 18 yr or older have had a diagnosis of epilepsy or seizure disorder in 2013. This accounts for over five million people in the United States, with an estimate of 56% of these identified cases being active epileptic patients according to CDC estimates. Epileptic disorders are life changing because they can cause learning disabilities and abnormal development in children. Epileptic events can also be life threatening because tonic-clonic (convulsive) seizures can cause out-of-control muscular contractions resulting in injuries.

Epilepsy has a large genetic component (Cooper, 2012; Mastrangelo, 2015). However, some epileptic disorders, such as benign familial neonatal seizures, are monogenic with causative mutations in the *KCNQ2* or *KCNQ3* genes alone (Charlier et al., 1998; Singh et al., 1998; Wang et al., 1998; Wuttke et al., 2007; Miceli et al., 2011, 2015a,b; Cooper, 2012; Abidi et al., 2015). In these cases, electrical hyperexcitability in neurons is caused by ill-performing M currents (Brown and Passmore, 2009; Maljevic et al., 2010; Cooper, 2012). To compensate for this deficiency, pharmacotherapeutic approaches

Correspondence to Carlos A. Villalba-Galea:  
Carlos.VillalbaGalea@vcuhealth.org

Abbreviations used in this paper: AP, action potential; HP, holding potential; VSD, voltage-sensing domain.

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have been focused on using drugs that boost the activity of  $K_v7$  channels (Maljevic et al., 2010). Examples of  $K_v7$  agonists are Retigabine (Main et al., 2000; Rundfeldt and Netzer, 2000b), Pyrithione Zinc (Xiong et al., 2007; Linley et al., 2012), ICA-27243 (Wickenden et al., 2008), and Diclofenac (Peretz et al., 2005). Retigabine is a first-in-class anticonvulsant that is currently used in the United States to treat epileptic disorders in adults (Orhan et al., 2012). This drug increases activity in  $K_v7$  channels, except for  $K_v7.1$  (Wickenden et al., 2000, 2008; Peretz et al., 2005; Wuttke et al., 2005; Gunthorpe et al., 2012). This latter property makes Retigabine an attractive drug for the treatment of neurological disorders, as no effect on cardiac activity is expected.

Detailed understanding of both the physiological behavior and the molecular basis for the activity of neuronal  $K_v7$  channels is needed for further refinement of the available pharmacotherapy for  $K_v7$ -related encephalopathies, as well as for the design of new ones. In addressing this need, we have discovered that the deactivation kinetics of the heterotetrameric  $K_v7.2/K_v7.3$  channel slows down as a function of activity. The changes in the deactivation kinetics occurred in at least two stages, revealing the existence of two open states, with the second open state being more stable than the initial one. Further, we found that Retigabine's action is state dependent, preferentially targeting channels in the more stable open state. Furthermore, we found that channels that are opened at the typical neuronal resting potential also displayed two modes of activity with distinct deactivation kinetics and sensitivity to Retigabine. These combined observations led us to propose that, although Retigabine can change the voltage dependence of activation for  $K_v7$  channels, the stabilization of the channels that are already opened at neuronal resting potential levels is the clinically relevant effect of this anticonvulsant.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Electrophysiology

Defolliculated *Xenopus laevis* oocytes were injected with in vitro-transcribed cRNA encoding for the human  $K_v7.2$  and  $K_v7.3$  channels in the vector pTLN. The  $K_v7$  constructs were provided by T. Jentsch (Leibniz-Institut für Molekulare Pharmakologie, Berlin, Germany). These constructs were linearized with MluI and HpaI, respectively (New England Biolabs, Inc.). The linearized DNA was transcribed using SP6 RNA polymerase (mMessage mMachine; Ambion). Potassium currents were recorded using the *Xenopus* oocyte cut-open voltage-clamp technique using an amplifier (CA-1A; Dagan Corporation). The external recording solution contained (in mM) 12 KOH, 88 *N*-methyl-D-glucamine, 100 methanesulfonic acid, 10 HEPES, and 2  $Ca(OH)_2$ . The intracellular solution contained (in mM) 100 KOH, 100 methanesulfonic acid, 10 HEPES, and 2 EGTA. Both solutions were titrated to pH 7.4 with methanesulfonic acid. Retigabine (Alomone Labs) was dissolved at 50 mM in DMSO. The external solution used for control and washouts was added with 0.002–0.02% (vol/vol) of DMSO to account for the potential effect of the solvent on the activity of the channels.

Sharp glass electrodes (resistance = 0.2–1 M $\Omega$ ) were filled with a solution containing (in mM) 1,000 KCl, 10 HEPES, and 10 EGTA, pH 7.4 (KOH).

Electrophysiological data were filtered at 100 kHz, oversampled at 250 kHz to 2 MHz, and stored for off-line analysis at 5–25 kHz. For these recordings, a custom LabVIEW-based package was used to control a multifunction data acquisition board (USB-6221 or USB-6251; National Instruments) for voltage command and electrical signal acquisition. Data were analyzed using a custom Java-based software and Origin2015 (OriginLab).

### Oversampling

Oversampling is the process of sampling a signal at a frequency much higher than the natural frequency of the system. Electrophysiological data are typically acquired at frequencies in the kilohertz range. For our study, the acquisition frequency ( $f_a$ ) for currents or potential traces was 250 kHz to 2 MHz, after analogue filtering at 100 kHz. The sampling frequency for traces was 5–25 kHz. To decrease high frequency noise, sampled points were calculated by averaging segments of  $f_a/f_s$  points from the acquired data. The following example illustrates the process. When acquiring data at 1 MHz, we meant to obtain one acquired point every 1  $\mu$ s; when sampling data at 10 kHz, we stored one data point every 100  $\mu$ s. To sample at 10 kHz, we averaged 100-point segments from the original trace that was acquired at 1 MHz.

### "Loose" two-electrode voltage-clamp technique

APs were recorded using a modified two-electrode voltage-clamp technique based on the implementation by Shapiro et al. (2012). In brief, the command voltage was set to the resting membrane potential of the oocytes, and the feedback gain was decreased to prevent voltage-clamping. In addition, a 50-M $\Omega$  resistor in parallel with a 10-M $\Omega$  in series with a diode was placed between the current-injecting microelectrode and the headstage. With the diode anode placed on the headstage side, this arrangement allowed us to inject current to depolarize the membrane and trigger APs, but not to repolarize it.

### Exponential fits and weighted average time constant

As described in previous studies (Lacroix et al., 2011; Labro et al., 2012; Priest et al., 2013; Villalba-Galea, 2014), deactivating currents were fitted to a two-exponential function defined as follows:

$$I_{DEACT}(t) = A_1 e^{-t/\tau_1} + A_2 e^{-t/\tau_2},$$

where  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  are the current amplitude associated with each component and  $\tau_1$  and  $\tau_2$  are the corresponding time constants. The deactivation time constant ( $\tau_{DEACT}$ ) was calculated as

$$\tau_{DEACT} = \frac{A_1 \tau_1 + A_2 \tau_2}{A_1 + A_2}.$$

Fittings were done using Origin2015.

### $I_{TAIL}$ -V plots fit to Boltzmann equations

To quantify the apparent voltage dependence for activation,  $I_{TAIL}$ -V plots were fitted to a two-Boltzmann equation defined as

$$I_{TAIL}(V) = \frac{A_1}{1 + e^{-z_1(V-V_1)/kT}} + \frac{A_2}{1 + e^{-z_2(V-V_2)/kT}},$$

where  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  are the amplitude associated with each of the components,  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  are the half-activation potential for each component,  $z_1$  and  $z_2$  are the corresponding associated sensing charges,  $k$  is the Boltzmann constant, and  $T$  is absolute temperature.

The weighted average half-maximum potential (weighted  $V_{1/2}$ ) was calculated using the following equation:

$$\text{weighted } V_{1/2} = \frac{A_1 V_1 + A_2 V_2}{A_1 + A_2}.$$

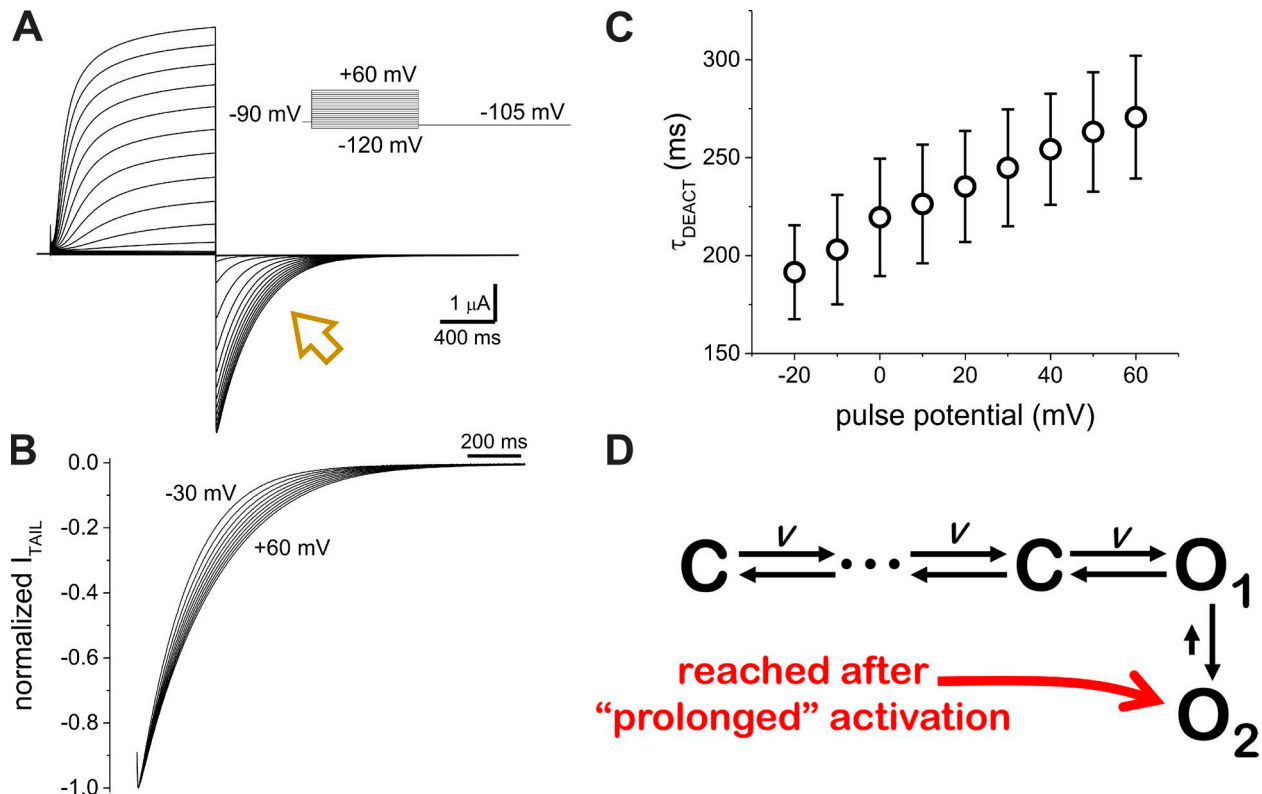
Fittings were done using Origin2015.

## RESULTS

**Stabilization of the open state of the  $K_V7.2/K_V7.3$  channel**  
 $K^+$  currents were recorded from *Xenopus* oocytes co-injected with cRNA encoding for human  $K_V7.2$  and  $K_V7.3$  (Fig. 1 A). The activity of the expressed channels was assessed by applying test pulses ranging from  $-120$  to  $+60$  mV from a holding potential (HP) of  $-90$  mV;  $K^+$  current amplitude readily increased when applying pulses of  $-50$  mV and above. After activation,  $K^+$  currents were deactivated by applying a pulse to  $-105$  mV (Fig. 1 A, arrow). Using this protocol, we recorded  $K^+$  currents that displayed the typical behavior voltage dependence and time-lagged activation of heteromeric  $K_V7.2/K_V7.3$  channels (Fig. 1). Focusing our attention on the closing

of the channels (Fig. 1 A, arrow), we noticed that the deactivation rate of the  $K^+$  current decreased as the magnitude of the test pulse increased. This feature was made evident when normalizing the  $K^+$  current traces, as we observed that the deactivation was slower when occurring from a stronger activating stimulus (Fig. 1 B). As previously reported in other studies (Lacroix et al., 2011; Labro et al., 2012; Priest et al., 2013; Villalba-Galea, 2014), we quantified the deactivation time constant ( $\tau_{\text{DEACT}}$ ) of the  $K^+$  current by calculating the weighted average time constant from the fitting of a two-exponential function to the deactivating current. The  $\tau_{\text{DEACT}}$  versus test pulse potential ( $\tau_{\text{DEACT}}-V_{\text{TEST}}$ ) plot (Fig. 1 C) showed an apparent linear dependence of  $1.0 \pm 0.2$  ms ( $n = 8$ ) in the deactivation time constant per unit of millivolt imposed during the activation, indicating that the stability of the activated channel increases as a function of the channel activation.

In terms of stochastic discrete-state modeling of channel activity (Colquhoun and Hawkes, 1977), we discerned more than one  $\tau_{\text{DEACT}}$ , which points to the existence of more than one open state. Also, the sigmoidal time course of the  $K^+$  current activation indicates that this process



**Figure 1.**  $K^+$  deactivation rate decreases as a function of activation. (A)  $K^+$  currents recorded from *Xenopus* oocytes coexpressing human  $K_V7.2$  and  $K_V7.3$  channels using the cut-open voltage-clamp technique. Test pulses ranging from  $-120$  mV to  $+60$  mV were applied from an HP of  $-90$  mV. Deactivation of the current was driven at  $-105$  mV (arrow). (B) Normalized deactivating currents from activating pulses from  $-30$  to  $+60$  mV. Deactivation slowed down after higher activating potentials. (C) Deactivation time constant ( $\tau_{\text{DEACT}}$ ) versus test pulse potential ( $\tau_{\text{DEACT}}-V_{\text{PULSE}}$ ) plot. Error bars represent standard deviation. (D) Kinetics scheme describing alternative pathways for the deactivation of the heteromeric  $K_V7.2/K_V7.3$  channel. Voltage-dependent transitions are noted with  $V$ .

involves transitions through multiple closed states preceding channel opening. For this study, we assumed, therefore, that the activity of the heteromeric  $K_V7.2/K_V7.3$  can be described by a sequential model consisting of a series of closed states leading to two open states,  $O_1$  and  $O_2$  (Fig. 1 D). In this case, deactivation for the open state  $O_2$  will be slower, as this process will involve one additional transition.

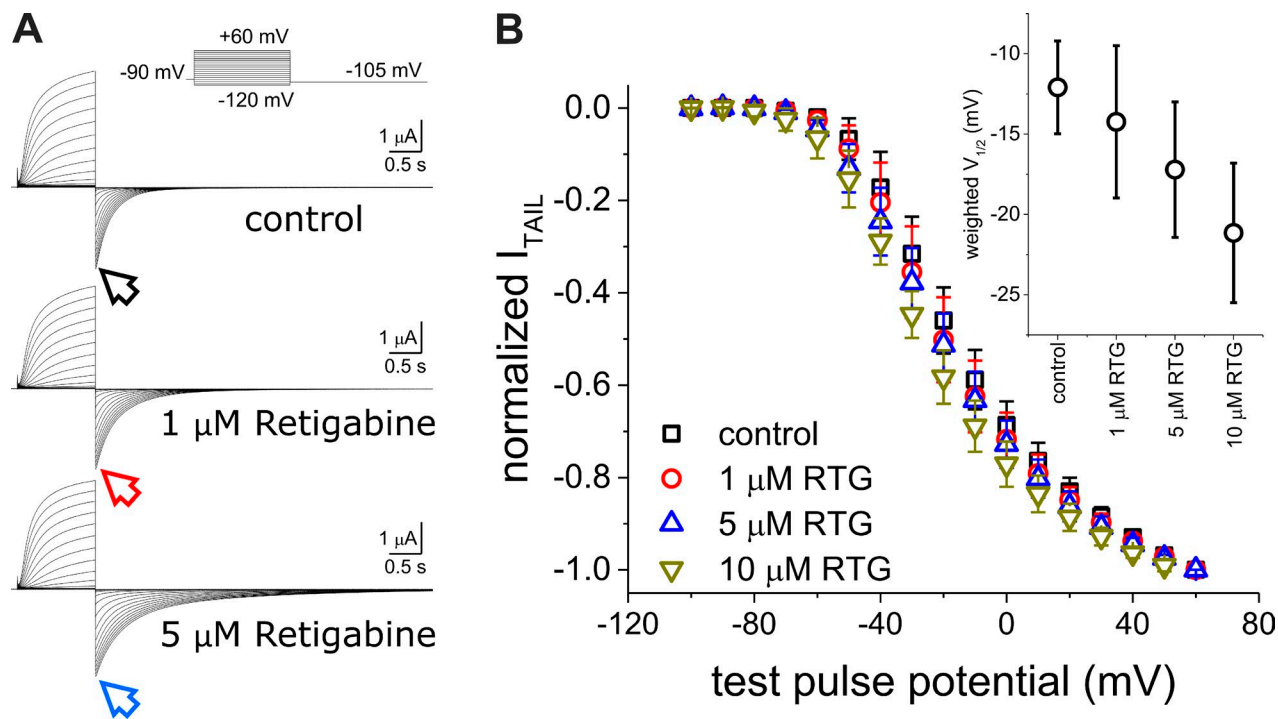
#### Effect of Retigabine on the deactivation of $K_V7.2/K_V7.3$

As before, we recorded  $K^+$  currents from oocytes co-injected with  $K_V7.2$  and  $K_V7.3$  from an HP of  $-90$  mV. We applied 1.2-s pulses from  $-100$  to  $+60$  mV followed by a pulse to  $-105$  mV to activate and deactivate the channels, respectively (Fig. 2 A). To assess the effect of Retigabine on the activation of  $K_V7.2/K_V7.3$  channels, we plotted the normalized amplitude of the deactivating current ( $I_{TAIL}$ ) as a function of the activating potential ( $V_{PULSE}$ ). The normalized  $I_{TAIL}-V_{PULSE}$  plots showed a modest shift toward negative potential in the voltage dependence of channel activation as a function of the concentration of Retigabine (Fig. 2 B). In spite of this shift, Retigabine seems not to greatly affect activation kinetics (Fig. 2 A). In contrast, we observed that deactivation of the  $K^+$  current was unambiguously slower in the presence

of the drug (Fig. 2 A, arrows), indicating that Retigabine was preferentially acting on open channels. Because  $K_V7.2/K_V7.3$  possess at least two open states, we proceeded to investigate whether Retigabine was able to discriminate between them.

#### Retigabine preferentially binds to the open state $O_2$

The activation of the  $K_V7.2/K_V7.3$  channels can be increased by applying pulses of higher voltages, longer duration, or both. Thus, to further explore how deactivation is affected by Retigabine, we studied how  $\tau_{DEACT}$  changes as a function of the duration of the depolarization ( $\tau_{DEACT}-t_{PULSE}$  plot). To do so, we recorded the deactivation of  $K^+$  current after activation by 40-mV pulses of variable duration (Fig. 3 A) and analyzed how  $\tau_{DEACT}$  changed as a function of the duration of the activating pulse ( $t_{PULSE}$ ). We observed that deactivation became slower as the activating pulse duration increased (Fig. 3 C, black squares). We also noticed that  $\tau_{DEACT}$  did not change for activating pulses shorter than 100 ms (Fig. 3 D, black squares), indicating that the stability of the conducting channel increased as a function of activation by depolarization lasting  $>100$  ms. In terms of our initial model (Fig. 1 D), these observations indicated that



**Figure 2.** Effect of Retigabine on the activity of the heteromeric  $K_V7.2/K_V7.3$  channel. (A)  $K^+$  currents recorded in the absence or presence of 1–5  $\mu$ M Retigabine using the same protocol shown in Fig. 1. (B) Average normalized  $K^+$  current amplitude measured at the beginning of the deactivating currents ( $I_{TAIL}$ ; arrows in A). Normalized  $I_{TAIL}$  versus test pulse potential ( $I_{TAIL}-V_{PULSE}$ ) plots incrementally shift toward negative potentials as the concentration of Retigabine (RTG) was increased. Individual  $I_{TAIL}-V_{PULSE}$  plots were fitted to a double Boltzmann distribution, and the weighted average half-maximum potential (weighted  $V_{1/2}$ ) was plotted as a function of the concentration of Retigabine (inset). Although the weighted  $V_{1/2}$  values were not statistically different, this parameter changed to more negative potentials as a function of the concentration of Retigabine in all our recordings. Error bars represent standard deviation.  $n = 5-8$ .

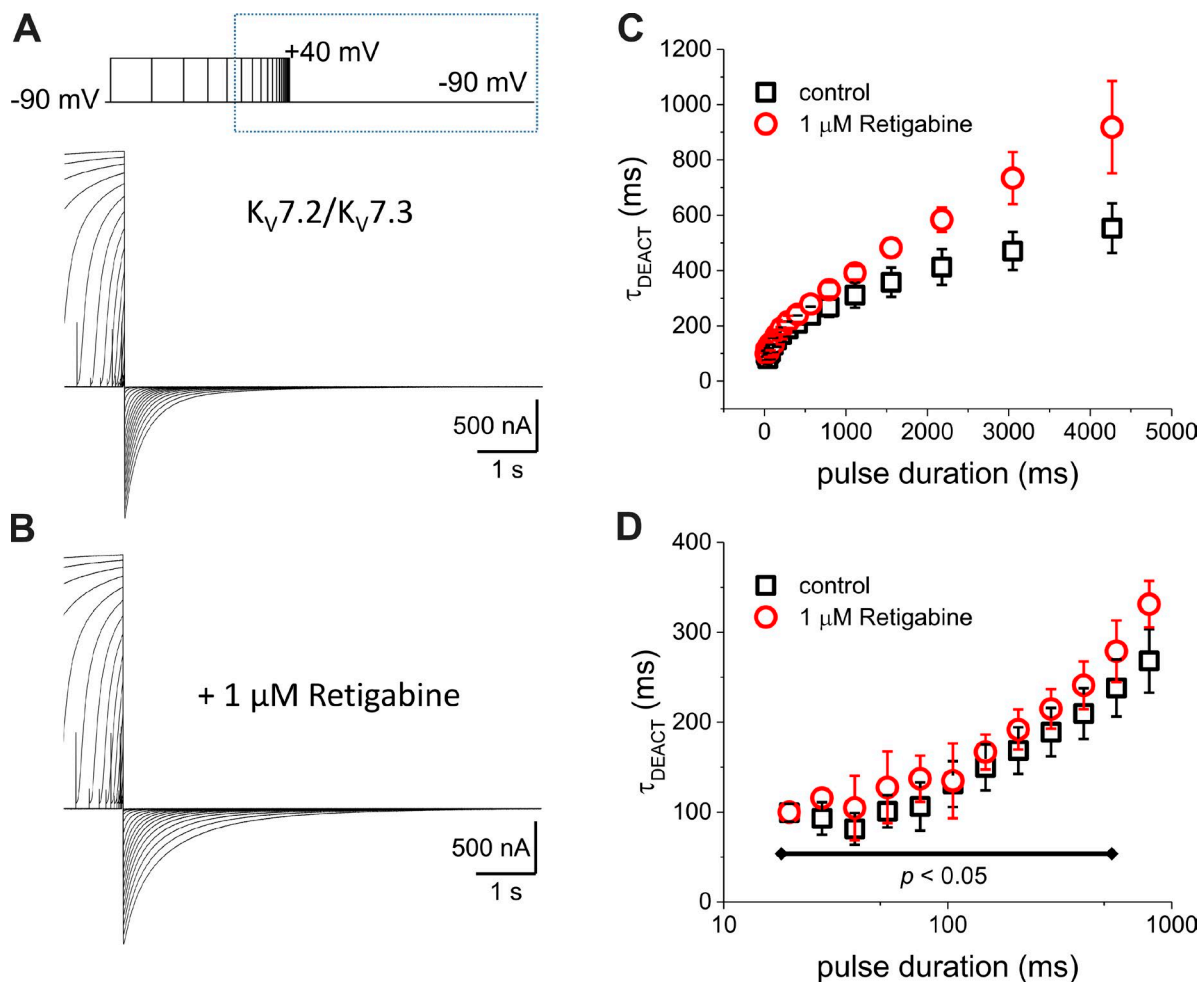
within the first 100 ms of activation, the channels mainly populate state  $O_1$ .

In the presence of 1- $\mu$ M Retigabine (Fig. 3 B), deactivation became slower than in the absence of the drug (Fig. 3 C). Remarkably, Retigabine had no significant effect on the deactivation kinetics after activation pulses shorter than 500 ms. Therefore, we concluded that Retigabine stabilizes those channels in state  $O_2$ .

#### Retigabine stabilizes channels in the open state at the resting potential

Thus far, we have shown that Retigabine only targets channels that have been activated for a few hundreds of milliseconds. However, the duration of a typical neuronal AP is in the order of a few milliseconds (Bean, 2007). So, we wondered how Retigabine can have any

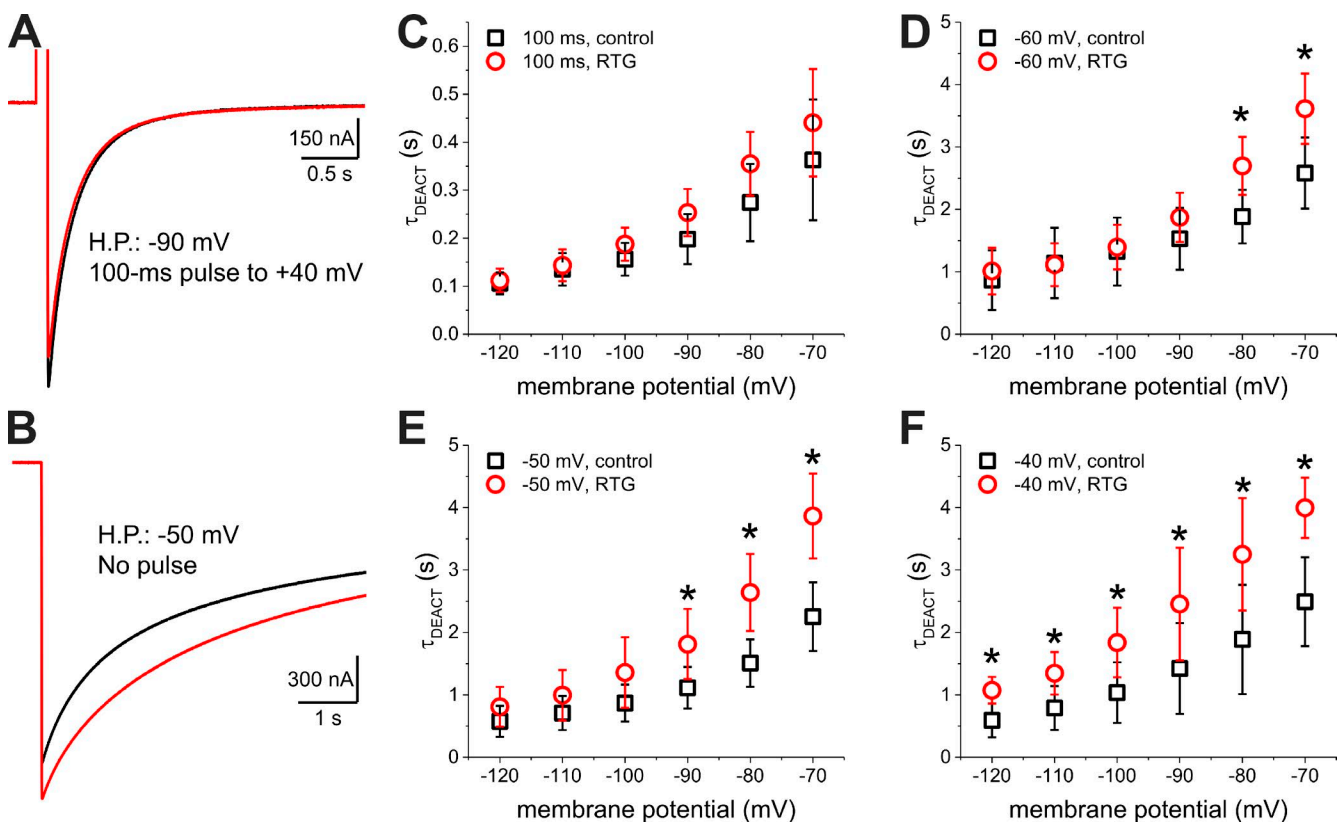
therapeutic effect if this drug is mainly affecting the second open state of the  $K_V7.2/K_V7.3$  channel, which is reached after a prolonged, nonphysiological depolarization. In addressing this question, we observed that a 1.2-s pulse to  $-60$  mV from an HP of  $-90$  mV was able to activate  $2 \pm 2\%$  ( $n = 10$ ) and  $6 \pm 2\%$  ( $n = 10$ ) of the maximum  $K_V7.2/K_V7.3$  conductance observed in our recordings in the absence and presence of 10- $\mu$ M Retigabine, respectively (Fig. 2 B). Because a membrane potential of  $-60$  mV is within the range of a typical neuronal resting potential (Bean, 2007), we hypothesized that this fraction of channels, which are opened in steady state at the resting potential, may be able to reach the open state  $O_2$ . If so, these channels could constitute the therapeutically relevant target of Retigabine. To test this idea, we compared the deactivation kinetics of  $K^+$  currents at  $-90$  mV from a pulse-activated open state



**Figure 3.** Deactivation time constant increase as a function of the duration of the activating pulse. (A and B)  $K^+$  currents were activated by 40-mV pulses with a duration varying from 10 to 4,175 ms in the absence (A) and presence (B) of 1- $\mu$ M Retigabine. The duration of the pulse increased 1.3-fold for each trace. After activation, the  $K^+$  current was deactivated at  $-90$  mV. (C)  $\tau_{DEACT}$ - $t_{PULSE}$  plot shows that  $\tau_{DEACT}$  increased as the activating pulse was longer (black squares). In the presence of Retigabine,  $\tau_{DEACT}$  increased further. (D) The same plot as in C, but the  $t_{PULSE}$  is displayed in a logarithmic scale to highlight the  $\tau_{DEACT}$ - $t_{PULSE}$  relationship for shorter activating pulses and showing that  $\tau_{DEACT}$  was unaltered by Retigabine for pulses shorter than 500 ms. Error bars represent standard deviation. Control,  $n = 7$ ; Retigabine,  $n = 6$ .

and from a resting potential open state. To assess the first condition, we activated channels by applying a 100-ms pulse to 40 mV for an HP of  $-90$  mV. To assess the second condition, we held the membrane potential at  $-50$  mV. When driving deactivation at  $-90$  mV, we observed that the pulse-activated  $K^+$  current deactivated faster (Fig. 4 A, black trace) than the resting potential-activated  $K^+$  current (Fig. 4 B, black trace). These observations revealed that the open state reached by the channels at steady-state resting potential was more stable than the open state reached after a 100-ms activating pulse. In light of these results, we then wondered whether this resting potential open state could be further stabilized by Retigabine. To test this, we used the same recording protocol, but in the presence of  $1\text{-}\mu\text{M}$  Retigabine. Deactivation from the pulse-activated current was not significantly affected by the drug (Fig. 4 A, red trace). In contrast, the deactivation rate from the resting potential-activated current was unambiguously decreased by the drug (Fig. 4 B, red trace). This observation indicated that the stable open state reached at the typical neuronal resting potential was sensitive to Retigabine.

To further investigate the differential effect of Retigabine on channel closing, we carried out a detailed analysis of the effect of the membrane potential on the deactivation of the channel. For this, we recorded  $K^+$  currents deactivating at different potentials from either the pulse-activated open state (Fig. 4 C) or the resting potential open state (Fig. 4, D–F). In all cases, we observed that  $\tau_{\text{DEACT}}$  decreased as the deactivating potential was more negative (Fig. 4, C–F). Deactivation of the  $K^+$  currents activated at the resting potential was  $\sim 10$ -fold slower than deactivation of the pulse-activated currents at all deactivating potentials. As before, in the presence of Retigabine, deactivation of the pulse-activated currents showed no significant changes in  $\tau_{\text{DEACT}}$  with respect to control (Fig. 4 C). In contrast, Retigabine significantly increased  $\tau_{\text{DEACT}}$  for resting potential-activated currents depending on the deactivating potentials and the HP imposed to activate the currents. Particularly, when channels were activated at an HP of  $-60$  mV,  $\tau_{\text{DEACT}}$  increased only when deactivation was driven at potentials above  $-90$  mV (Fig. 4 D). Holding the membrane potential at  $-50$  mV (Fig. 4 E) enhanced the effect of Retigabine, making  $\tau_{\text{DEACT}}$  significantly larger



**Figure 4.** Deactivation from the depolarized and resting potential open states. (A) Deactivation at  $-90$  mV of the  $K^+$  current elicited by a 100-ms depolarization to 40 mV in the absence (black trace) and presence of  $1\text{-}\mu\text{M}$  Retigabine (red trace). (B) Deactivation at  $-90$  mV of the  $K^+$  current elicited by holding the membrane potential at  $-50$  mV also in the absence (black trace) and presence of  $1\text{-}\mu\text{M}$  Retigabine (red trace). (C–F) Deactivation time constant ( $\tau_{\text{DEACT}}$ ) versus deactivating potential ( $\tau_{\text{DEACT}}-V_{\text{DEACT}}$ ) plot of channels activated by a 100-ms depolarization to 40 mV (C) or by holding the membrane potential at  $-60$  mV,  $-50$  mV, and  $-40$  mV (D, E, and F, respectively) in the absence (black squares) and presence of  $1\text{-}\mu\text{M}$  Retigabine (RTG; red circles). Error bars represent standard deviation.  $t$  test;  $n = 5\text{--}8$ . \*,  $P < 0.05$ ,  $t$  test.

when deactivating potentials were above  $-100$  mV. Activation at  $-40$  mV (Fig. 4 F) resulted in a further enhancement of the drug's effect, increasing  $\tau_{\text{DEACT}}$  at all the deactivating potentials that we tested (Fig. 4 F). These observations suggested that stabilization of the open pore by Retigabine increases the energy barrier for deactivation, which has to be overcome by the electrical work the electrical field does on the voltage-sensing domains (VSDs). Therefore, making the membrane potential more negative provides more energy for the VSD to overcome the Retigabine-induced stabilization of the open pore.

#### Retigabine modulates AP triggering in *Xenopus* oocytes

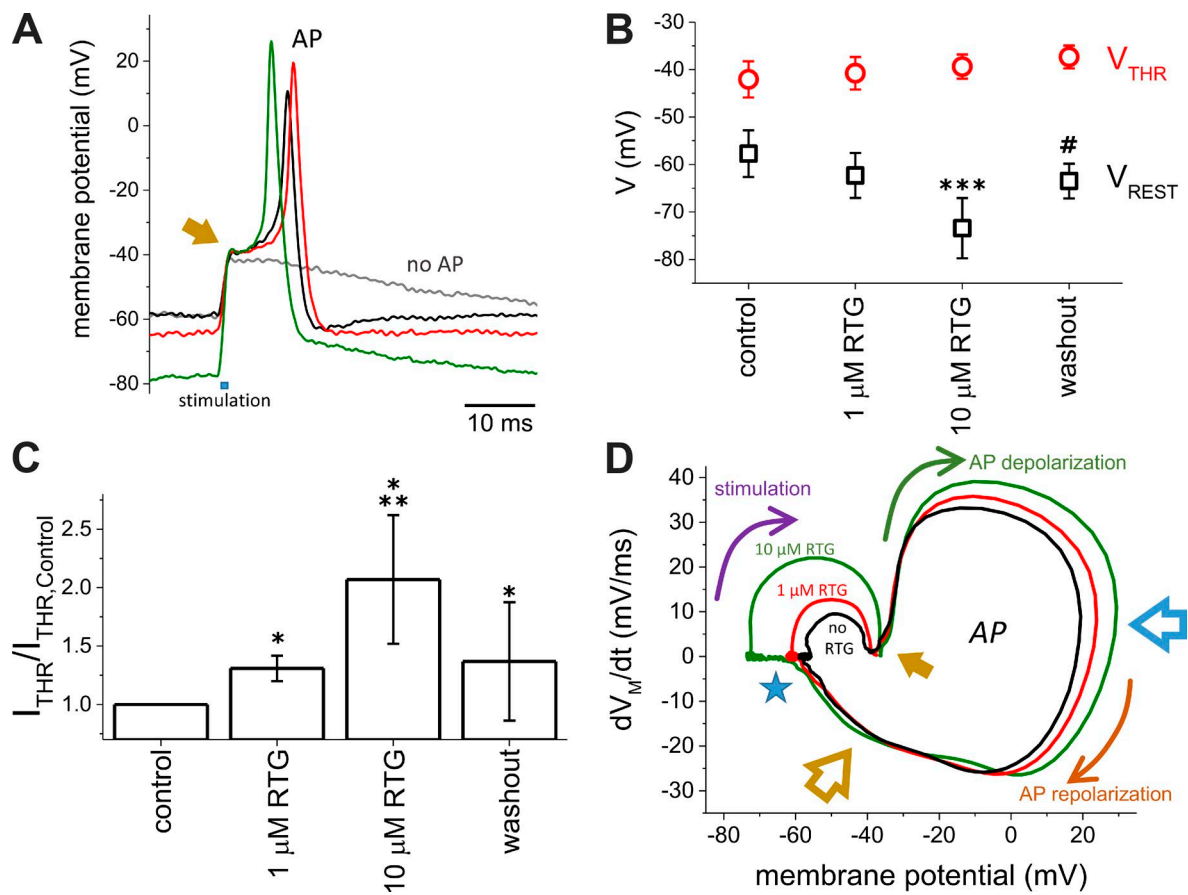
Thus far, we have shown that, on one hand, Retigabine has no significant effect on deactivation of the heteromeric  $K_v7.2/K_v7.3$  channels that are activated by short depolarizing pulses. In contrast, Retigabine stabilizes channels that are already opened at the resting potential. These observations are consonant with the notion that Retigabine induces hyperpolarization of the plasma membrane (Main et al., 2000; Tatulian et al., 2001; Wainger et al., 2014). On the other hand, the activation of  $K_v7.2/K_v7.3$  seems to be too slow to significantly contribute to the increase of the  $K^+$  conductance during a typical neuronal AP. Therefore, we hypothesized that Retigabine would have little or no effect on AP repolarization. To further test this view, we decided to evaluate the effect of this anticonvulsant on the generation of AP in a system with a defined background of channel expression. To do so, we co-injected *Xenopus* oocytes with cRNAs encoding for the sodium-selective, voltage-gated channel  $Na_v1.4$  ( $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  subunits) and the  $K_v$  channels ShakerIR,  $K_v7.2$ , and  $K_v7.3$ . From such oocytes, we were able to evoke AP-like electrical activity using a modified ("loose") two-electrode voltage-clamp technique (see Materials and methods for details; Shapiro et al., 2012). Using this approach, we were able to depolarize the membrane to evoke APs while being able to poorly voltage-clamp the oocytes (Fig. 5 A). From a resting potential ( $V_{\text{REST}}$ ) near  $-60$  mV, a brief (0.25–0.75 ms) depolarization of the membrane was induced by current injection. If the depolarization failed to evoke an AP, the membrane potential returned to its resting value within the next 100 ms (Fig. 5 A, gray trace). However, if an AP was successfully triggered, repolarization was achieved within a few milliseconds after the peak of the AP (Fig. 5 A, black trace). Under our experimental conditions, the minimum amplitude of the current required to evoke an AP ( $I_{\text{THR}}$ ) ranged between 1 and 5  $\mu\text{A}$ . In the presence of 1- $\mu\text{M}$  Retigabine (Fig. 5 A, red trace),  $V_{\text{REST}}$  tended to become more negative (Fig. 5 B), requiring an increase of 30% in the magnitude of  $I_{\text{THR}}$  to reach the threshold potential for evoking an AP ( $V_{\text{THR}}$ ; Fig. 5 C). For 10- $\mu\text{M}$  Retigabine, the resting membrane potential became more negative

with respect to control (Fig. 5 B), requiring a further increase in  $I_{\text{THR}}$ ,  $\sim 86\%$ , to reach  $V_{\text{THR}}$  (Fig. 5 C). In spite of the unambiguous effect of 10- $\mu\text{M}$  Retigabine on  $V_{\text{REST}}$ , Retigabine seemed not to affect  $V_{\text{THR}}$ , as this parameter remained fairly constant in the presence of the drug (Fig. 5 B). Because  $V_{\text{THR}}$  is the potential at which the inwardly rectifying  $Na^+$  cancels the outwardly rectifying  $K^+$  current, we reasoned that the slow response of the heteromeric  $K_v7.2/K_v7.3$  channel to changes in membrane potential results in a negligible increase in the contribution of these channels to the  $K^+$  conductance during a single AP. Therefore, the  $V_{\text{THR}}$  was mainly determined by the activation of  $Na_v1.4$  and ShakerIR, both of which are not sensitive to Retigabine.

To further evaluate the effect of Retigabine on our oocyte AP model, we generated phase plots from records of the membrane potential ( $V_M$ ) during an AP. Phase plots are built by plotting the first derivative of  $V_M$  with respect to time ( $dV_M/dt$ ) as a function of the  $V_M$  itself (Bean, 2007). Starting at  $V_{\text{REST}}$  (Fig. 5 D, star), injecting current depolarized the membrane. This was seen as a transient positive deflection in the phase plot (Fig. 5 D, stimulation [purple arrow]). At the end of the current injection,  $V_M$  was more positive, but  $dV_M/dt$  went back to zero. At this point, if  $V_{\text{THR}}$  was reached during current injection (Fig. 5, A and D, solid yellow arrow), an AP was evoked. As  $Na_v$  channels were activated, depolarization appeared as a rapid increase in  $dV_M/dt$ , driving the  $V_M$  to more positive voltages (Fig. 5 D, AP depolarization [green arrow]). Then, the combination of inactivation of  $Na_v$  channels and activation of  $K_v$  channels resulted in the decrease of  $dV_M/dt$  to zero, at which the peak voltage of the AP is reached (Fig. 5 D, open blue arrow). After the peak,  $dV_M/dt$  became negative as the repolarization phase of the AP started. This late phase was driven by the activity of  $K_v$  channels. Remarkably, we observed that the late phase of the repolarization was unaltered by Retigabine (Fig. 5 D, open yellow arrow). These observations were consistent with the idea that  $K_v7$  channel activation was too slow to be increased within the time of a single AP. Furthermore, Retigabine caused the peak of the AP to be more positive. We interpreted this to be the result of the recovery of  $Na_v$  channels from steady-state inactivation as a consequence of the  $V_{\text{REST}}$  hyperpolarization (Fig. 5 C). Based on these results, we concluded that the effect of Retigabine on excitability was restricted to the modulation of the resting potential open state of the heteromeric  $K_v7.2/K_v7.3$ .

## DISCUSSION

In agreement with previous studies, our data show that Retigabine enhanced the activity of  $K_v7.2/K_v7.3$  channels. Previous publications have reported that Retigabine boosts channel activity by shifting the voltage dependence



**Figure 5.** The resting potential, but not the threshold potential for triggering AP, was affected by Retigabine. (A) APs were recorded from *Xenopus* oocytes coexpressing both the  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  subunits of  $Na_v1.4$ , ShakerIR,  $K_v7.2$ , and  $K_v7.3$ . The APs were recorded using the loose two-electrode voltage-clamp technique (see Materials and methods for details) in the absence (black trace) or presence of 1- $\mu$ M (red trace) or 10- $\mu$ M (green trace) Retigabine. The gray trace shows the response of  $V_M$  when a subthreshold was applied. The arrow indicates the moment at which AP threshold ( $V_{THR}$ ) is reached. (B) Effect of Retigabine (RTG) on the resting membrane potential ( $V_{REST}$ ) and AP threshold ( $V_{THR}$ ). (C) Minimum current injection needed to evoke an AP ( $I_{THR}$ ). The values of  $I_{THR}$  were normalized by  $I_{THR}$  in the absence of Retigabine ( $n = 4$ ). (D) Example of a phase plot calculated from the APs shown on A.  $V_{REST}$  was strongly affected by Retigabine (blue star), whereas  $V_{THR}$  remained fairly unaltered. Although the depolarization phase was affected by Retigabine (blue arrow), the late phase of repolarization (yellow arrow) remained unaltered. Arrows indicate the progress of the AP in time during the stimulation phase (purple arrow), depolarization phase (green arrow), and repolarization phase (orange arrow). The open blue arrow points at the times when APs reached their maximum voltage. The open yellow arrow points at the late repolarization phase. Error bars represent standard deviation.  $t$  test;  $n = 5$ . \*,  $P < 0.002$  with respect to control; \*\*,  $P < 0.07$  with respect to 1- $\mu$ M Retigabine; \*\*\*,  $P < 0.0025$  with respect to control; #,  $P < 0.072$  with respect to control.

for  $K^+$  current activation toward more negative values (Rundfeldt and Netzer, 2000a,b; Wickenden et al., 2000; Schenzer et al., 2005; Wuttke et al., 2005; Gunthorpe et al., 2012; Orhan et al., 2012; Kim et al., 2015). Although our observations are consonant with these previous studies (Fig. 2 B), we argue that the effect of Retigabine on the deactivation kinetics have a deeper impact on excitability than the change in voltage dependence that facilitates channel activation. On this topic, we would like to point out that the relative slow activation kinetics of  $K_v7.2/K_v7.3$  channels with respect to the lifetime of an AP strongly suggests that the number of activated  $K_v7$  channels remains constant during this type of electrical event. Hence, slowing down the deactivation of channels that are already opened at the resting potential seems

to have a higher impact on the activity of  $K_v7.2/K_v7.3$  channels during neuronal activity.

We observed that, along with a slight shift in the voltage dependence for activation, Retigabine mainly stabilized  $K_v7.2/K_v7.3$  channels that were already opened. Further, we also observed that these channels deactivate in two modalities, revealing the existence of at least two types of open states, with deactivation from the second ( $O_2$ ) open state being slower (Figs. 3 and 4). Furthermore, we also discovered that Retigabine discriminated between these two types of open states, decreasing the deactivation rate from the open state  $O_2$  (Fig. 1 D). This latter finding confirmed the existence of at least two open states, as they were distinguished not only by their deactivation kinetics, but also by their distinct sensitivities



to Retigabine. Combined, these observations cast doubts on the notion that the clinically relevant effect of Retigabine is to facilitate channel activation. Instead, our findings indicate that Retigabine stabilizes those channels that have been already activated.

Inquiring about the mechanism of  $K_V7.2/K_V7.3$  channel activity, we wondered whether the two open states or modes were the consequence of the channels being formed by two different types of subunits,  $K_V7.2$  and  $K_V7.3$ . This idea requires that the stabilization of the conductance is caused by differential contributions of both subunit types to the conductive states of the channels. If so, this would imply that Retigabine is acting only on one type of subunit, as only the deactivation of the more stable open state is affected by the drug. However, both  $K_V7.2$  and  $K_V7.3$  are sensitive to Retigabine (Main et al., 2000; Rundfeldt and Netzer, 2000b; Wuttke et al., 2005, 2008; Kim et al., 2015). Thus, this later possibility is likely not probable. Therefore, we argue that the two different open states are not caused by the heteromeric nature of the channel.

The lack of effect of Retigabine on the stabilization of  $O_1$  indicates that these modes likely represent distinct sets of conformations of the activated channel. Thus, the emerging question is, which of the available  $K_V7$  channel models corresponds to the state  $O_2$ ? Addressing this question highlights that a detailed understanding of the atomic interactions underlying the effect of anticonvulsants is needed to expedite the development of new drugs. A few residues in the intracellular side of the pore have been identified as critical for the interaction of  $K_V7$  channels and Retigabine. Among them, a Tryptophan on the channel's fifth transmembrane (S5) segments, namely W236 in  $K_V7.2$  (Schenzer et al., 2005; Wuttke et al., 2005) and the corresponding W265 in  $K_V7.3$  (Schenzer et al., 2005; Kim et al., 2015), is a key player for the atomic interaction underlying the action of Retigabine, whereby removing a single hydrogen bond impairs drug action (Kim et al., 2015). Thus, the structural differences associated with the open states  $O_1$  and  $O_2$  may depend on subtle rearrangements within the pore domain.

One outstanding question is why the changes in voltage dependence of activity that we observed were much lower than reported by other laboratories. We assessed voltage dependence of the  $K_V7.2/K_V7.3$  channel using a pulse protocol like the one shown in Fig. 2 A. During the initial stages of this project, we observed that Retigabine changed the voltage dependence for current activation over  $-20$  mV. However, we also noticed that increasing the duration of the period of time between each trace (intertrace intervals) from 1–2 s to 10–25 s decreased the shift in voltage dependence. So, we modified our protocols and, regretfully, did not systematically follow up on this matter at that time; we are currently addressing this issue, as further experiments are needed.

Nevertheless, as shown in Fig. 4,  $\tau_{\text{DEACT}}$  at  $-90$  mV can reach  $>2$  s. This implies that, assuming a single exponential process for closing, it will take at least 10 s to close 99% of the channels. Based on these observations, we concluded that short intertrace intervals may lead to overestimating the shift in the voltage dependence for activation because using short intertrace intervals does not allow channels to fully deactivate.

One intriguing observation made in this study is that the  $V_{\text{THR}}$  for triggering AP remained unaltered by the drug. Although we did not directly address this issue, we argue that the increased robustness of the  $K^+$  conductance caused by the stabilization of the opened  $K_V7$  channels by Retigabine could be compensated for by the increase of the number of available  $Na^+$  channels rescued from steady-state inactivation. Favoring this idea, we found that the amplitude of the AP tended to increase as  $V_{\text{REST}}$  hyperpolarized (Fig. 5 A). Furthermore, we noticed that the delay between stimulation and the peak of APs shortened in the presence of 10- $\mu$ M Retigabine, which is also consistent with an increase in the number of  $Na_V$  channels driving depolarization (Fig. 5 A). In addition to these indirect effects of Retigabine on the availability of  $Na_V$  channels, the closing of  $K_V7.2/K_V7.3$  channels by hyperpolarization may have relieved the channels from the action of Retigabine, as this drug only acts on channels dwelling in the open state  $O_2$ . Therefore, in an apparent paradox, we propose that Retigabine action constitutes a negative feedback loop. As stabilization of the open  $K_V7$  channels drives hyperpolarization of the plasma membrane, channels tend to close. In turn, channels in closed states are less sensitive to Retigabine. Therefore, the overall effect of the drug decreases.

Another outstanding question is why the effect of Retigabine diminished when deactivation was driven at more negative potentials (Fig. 4). On one hand, here, we have shown that Retigabine stabilizes those channels that are already opened either by a prolonged depolarizing pulse or at steady state at the typical neuronal resting potential. On the other hand, other laboratories have shown that the putative binding site for Retigabine is located at the intracellular side of the central pore domain of  $K_V7$  channels (Schenzer et al., 2005; Wuttke et al., 2005; Lange et al., 2009; Kim et al., 2015). Thus, we concluded that our results could be readily explained by a kinetic scheme like the one described in Fig. 1 D. However, we argue that this scheme may not be consonant with the current understanding of the mechanism of activity of  $K_V$  channels. The canonical  $K_V$  channel is a tetrameric protein with a central pore domain controlled by four VSDs surrounding it (Long et al., 2005, 2007). Activation of  $K_V$  channels occurs as membrane depolarization drives conformational changes in the VSDs (Bezannilla, 2008) that lead to the opening of the central pore by a coupling mechanism that is not fully understood (Vargas et al., 2012). Likewise, deactivation

of  $K_V$  channels is caused by the repolarization of the plasma membrane that drives VSDs toward their initial resting conformation, which, in turn, closes the central pore. As already mentioned, one interpretation for these results is that, at more negative potential, the increased driving force for the movement of the VSD provides enough energy to overcome the effect of Retigabine.

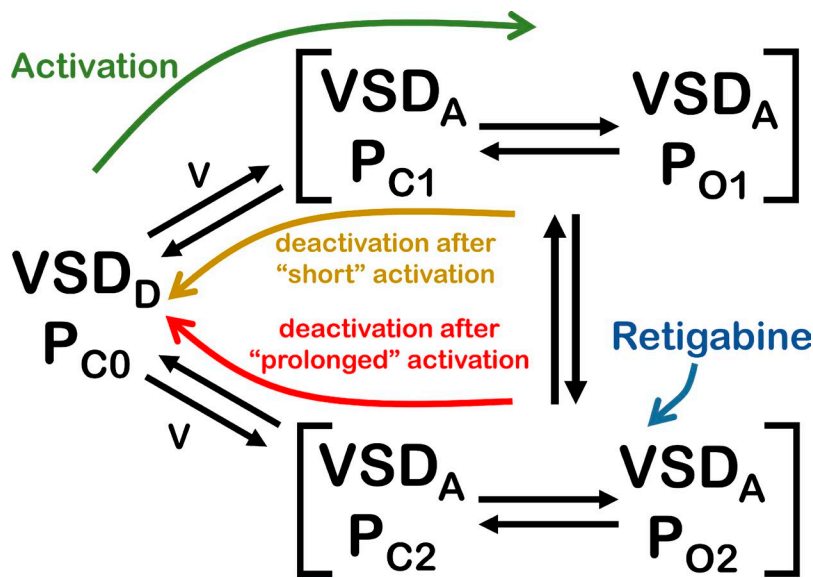
Another aspect to be considered is that the sequence of events inherent to the closing of channels is not exactly the reverse sequence of events observed during the opening; changes in the conductive status is always initiated by electrically driven changes in the VSD. In this view, activation and deactivation follow distinct pathways that may display distinct voltage sensitivities. Indeed, a commonly overlooked feature of  $K_V$  channels and other VSD proteins is that their activity displays hysteresis (Bezanilla et al., 1982; Shirokov et al., 1992; Olcese et al., 1997; Pennefather et al., 1998; Piper et al., 2003; Kuzmenkin et al., 2004; Männikkö et al., 2005; Villalba-Galea et al., 2008; Akemann et al., 2009; Xiao et al., 2010; Lacroix et al., 2011; Benndorf et al., 2012; Labro et al., 2012; Priest et al., 2013; Villalba-Galea, 2014; Li et al., 2015). Hysteresis is a property of many physical and chemical systems whereby their response to a stimulus depends on whether the magnitude of the stimulus is increasing or decreasing. In  $K_V$  channels, hysteresis is manifested as a shift in the voltage dependence of their activity, a decrease in the deactivation rate, or both (Olcese et al., 1997; Pennefather et al., 1998; Piper et al., 2003; Lacroix et al., 2011; Labro et al., 2012; Priest et al., 2013). In the case of ShakerIR and  $K_V1.2$ , the relationship between  $\tau_{\text{DEACT}}$  and duration of the activation pulse ( $\tau_{\text{DEACT}}-t_{\text{PULSE}}$  plot) increases in three stages: the first one in which  $\tau_{\text{DEACT}}$  is small and remains constant, a second stage in which  $\tau_{\text{DEACT}}$  increases, and a third stage in which  $\tau_{\text{DEACT}}$  reaches a plateau (Labro et al., 2012). The first stage is associated with stabilization of the open pore, and the last stage is the result of VSD relaxation. This latter process is a hysteretic mechanism that is intrinsic of the VSD (Villalba-Galea et al., 2008, 2009, 2013; Akemann et al., 2009; Lacroix et al., 2011; Villalba-Galea, 2012, 2014). Here, we show that the  $\tau_{\text{DEACT}}-t_{\text{PULSE}}$  plot for  $K_V7.2/K_V7.3$  also displays three stages, with the third one, however, not reaching a plateau within the time frame used in these studies. This observation suggests that the deactivation for state  $O_2$  follows a distinct voltage-dependent pathway, implying that the activity of  $K_V7.2/K_V7.3$  is hysteretic. In this view, stabilizing the pore domain in an open conformation can cause a shift in voltage dependence, as channel closing will require more energy.

According to the sequential model in Fig. 1 D, depolarization drives the VSDs from their deactivated conformations to the activated ones. In doing so, the energy gained by this electrical work drives the opening of the pore to the first open state ( $O_1$ ). Eventually, the second

open state ( $O_2$ ) is reached from  $O_1$ . In the presence of Retigabine, the stability of  $O_2$  is enhanced. According to the scheme in Fig. 1 D, deactivation only occurs from  $O_1$ , which implies that channels need to be relieved from the action of the drug before closing. Although this is a possible scenario, in terms of the current understanding of structure-function of channels, there is no reason to believe that the VSD will not deactivate from state  $O_2$ . Based on this idea, we argue that the initial scheme depicted in Fig. 1 D seems to be insufficient to describe our findings. To address this issue, we have modified our original kinetic scheme to explicitly define the VSDs and pore as intrinsically independent modules that are coupled (Fig. 6). For simplicity, we represented the activation of four VSDs to occur in a single step instead of the explicit 16 states emerging from all the possible combinations of activated and deactivated VSDs and pore domain. Also, another simplification implemented is that we did not make any explicit distinction between  $K_V7.2$  and  $K_V7.3$  subunits. The purpose of this new scheme (Fig. 6) is to illustrate a basic framework that allows us to describe our findings in terms of what we know on the dynamics of VSD proteins. According to the new scheme, hyperpolarization of the membrane drives the four VSDs into their deactivated conformation ( $VSD_D$ ), which in turn keeps the pore closed ( $P_{C0}$ ; Fig. 6, state  $VSD_D/P_{C0}$ ). As the membrane potential becomes more positive (e.g., at the membrane resting potential), VSD sojourns between the  $VSD_D$  and the activated ( $VSD_A$ ) state, allowing the pore to also sojourn between the nonconductive ( $P_{C1}$ ) and the conductive ( $P_{O1}$ ) states (Fig. 6). If the membrane is immediately hyperpolarized, VSD deactivates, driving the pore domain back to state  $P_{C0}$ . In contrast, holding the membrane at the resting potential will allow the pore to eventually change conformation into a second set of open ( $P_{O2}$ ) and closed ( $P_{C2}$ ) states. From these new states, deactivation is slower, as the pore has stabilized. In addition, the channels become Retigabine sensitive, so that in the presence of this drug, the pore is further stabilized and deactivation becomes slower.

Open pore stabilization provides a straightforward mechanism for hysteresis in  $K_V$  channels. However, the charge movement of an isolated VSD can also show hysteresis through an intrinsic process known as VSD relaxation (Villalba-Galea et al., 2008, 2009). After relaxation, the voltage dependence for charge movement (sensing/gating currents) can shift to more negative potentials as well as to become slower. This implies that hysteresis in  $K_V7$  channels could also originate from VSD relaxation (Lacroix et al., 2011; Labro et al., 2012). Our observations, alas, do not allow us to evaluate this possibility, as we have not been able to record gating currents from  $K_V7.2/K_V7.3$ .

In spite of the findings reported here, the overall impact that hysteresis can have on electrical signaling



**Figure 6.** Proposed kinetic scheme for the activity of  $K_V7.2/K_V7.3$  and the effect of Retigabine. The scheme contains five global states, which are different with respect to each other depending on the activation status of the VSD and the pore domain (P). In the scheme, VSD represents the four voltage sensors of the channel. At negative potentials, the VSDs are in the deactivated state ( $VSD_D$ ) and the pore is, therefore, closed ( $P_{C0}$ ). Upon depolarization, the VSDs are activated ( $VSD_A$ ), allowing the pore to sojourn between a conductive and a nonconductive state ( $P_{O1}$  and  $P_{C1}$ , respectively). Holding the membrane depolarized potentials keeps the VSDs in the  $VSD_A$  state while allowing a second transition in the pore. As a result, the pore sojourns between a second pair of conductive and nonconductive states ( $P_{O2}$  and  $P_{C2}$ , respectively) and the channel becomes Retigabine sensitive. Deactivation from these states is slower than from from the pair  $P_{C1}$ – $P_{O1}$ . Retigabine further decreases the rate of deactivation from the pair  $P_{C2}$ – $P_{O2}$  while leaving deactivation unaffected from the other pair.

and its biological role remain elusive. Here, for the first time, we provide an example of hysteresis in the activity of a  $K_V$  channel that directly affects the channel's pharmacology under physiological conditions. In line with recent findings on the action of Retigabine on the isolated pore of  $K_V7$  channels (Syeda et al., 2015), our observations clearly show that the stabilized open state of the  $K_V7.2/K_V7.3$  channel is the target for the action of the anticonvulsant Retigabine. These findings have several implications. First, using the effect on the activation of the  $K_V7$  channels is an important but not sufficient parameter when evaluating new drugs targeting the activity of these channels. Second, the observation of a hysteretic behavior in the activity of  $K_V7$  channels implies the existence of two or more distinct sets of open states. These sets of states are likely associated with also structurally distinct sets of conformations. Our results showed that Retigabine can differentially affect the stability of these states, confirming that the channel adopts a different set of conformations that can be pharmacologically discriminated. It remains to be established, however, whether the stabilization of the second open state ( $O_2$ ) is driven by conformational changes in the pore, VSD relaxation, or both. For this, future studies will need to directly study the dynamics of the VSD and determine whether the VSD of  $K_V7$  channels relaxes. On this issue, no study showing gating currents from these channels has been reported to our knowledge. Recording gating currents from both  $K_V7.2$  and  $K_V7.3$  has proven technically challenging, as we also failed to record gating currents during the present study. At this point, we can conclude that, although it seems that Retigabine is acting on the pore domain, we cannot rule out the possibility that VSD relaxation is involved in the stabilization of the open state.

On a final note, knowing that the activation of  $K_V7.2/K_V7.3$  takes several tens of milliseconds to occur (Fig. 1 A), whereas a typical neuronal AP lasts less than a couple of milliseconds (Fig. 5; Bean, 2007), highlights the apparent disconnect between the kinetics of both processes. This upholds the idea that, during the lifetime of an AP, the number of activated  $K_V7.2/K_V7.3$  channels likely remains constant. In our view, this is consistent with the notion that neuronal  $K_V7$  channels function as regulators of excitability by contributing the control of the resting potential (Jentsch, 2000; Peters et al., 2005; Miceli et al., 2008; Cooper, 2012). Thus, our observations indicate that the voltage-dependent activation of  $K_V7.2/K_V7.3$  channels may constitute a mechanism that is physiologically relevant only at transmembrane voltages near the resting potential. Therefore, the use of activation by depolarization to experimentally evaluate the effect of drugs or mutations on these channels may not be suitable.

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