the membrane, and they provide a mechanistic framework for understanding the hallmark inhibition of these channels by ATP. Although we do not expect exact overlap of the PIP₂ and ATP binding sites, a negative heterotropic cooperativity is expected, so that individual residues may contribute to the binding of each ligand. Intact cell channel activity is reduced in the K_{ir}6.2[R176A] mutant, demonstrating the physiological relevance of this finding. Membrane PIP composition may vary physiologically (16), and this may explain the wide variability in ATP sensitivity of native K_{ATP} channels (17). It has long been recognized that activation of K_{ATP} channels occurs under conditions where the cytoplasmic concentration of ATP is much higher than that required to inhibit channels in excised membrane patches (1, 6, 9). The profound effects of PIP2 on ATP sensitivity would suggest that as membrane PIP levels increase, KATP channels will be rendered insensitive to ATP, providing a mechanism for physiological activation.

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- 13. Mutant constructs were prepared by overlap extension at the junctions of the relevant residues by sequential polymerase chain reaction (PCR). Before transfection, PCR products were subcloned into pCMV6b vector and sequenced. K_{ii}, 6.2-C was constructed by fusing a DNA fragment containing K_{ii}, 6.2 170-390 to pGEX2T vector. GST and K_{ii}, 6.2-C, expressed in *Escherichia coli*, were purified with glutathione-agarose beads and dialysis in K-INT solution (7)
- 14. Cells were incubated for 24 hours in culture medium containing ^{86}Rb Cl (1 $\mu\text{Ci/ml}$) 2 to 3 days after

transfection. Before measurement of Rb efflux, cells were incubated for 30 min at 25°C in Krebs' Ringer solution with metabolic inhibitors [oligomycin (2.5 μ g/ml) plus 1 mM 2-deoxy-D-glucose]. At selected time points, the solution was aspirated and replaced. The ⁸⁶Rb⁺ in the aspirated solution was counted.

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PIP_2 and PIP as Determinants for ATP Inhibition of K_{ATP} Channels

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Adenosine triphosphate (ATP)–sensitive potassium (K_{ATP}) channels couple electrical activity to cellular metabolism through their inhibition by intracellular ATP. ATP inhibition of K_{ATP} channels varies among tissues and is affected by the metabolic and regulatory state of individual cells, suggesting involvement of endogenous factors. It is reported here that phosphatidylinositol-4,5-bisphosphate (PIP₂) and phosphatidylinositol-4-phosphate (PIP) controlled ATP inhibition of cloned K_{ATP} channels (K_{ir} .6.2 and SUR1). These phospholipids acted on the K_{ir} .6.2 subunit and shifted ATP sensitivity by several orders of magnitude. Receptor-mediated activation of phospholipiase C resulted in inhibition of K_{ATP} -mediated currents. These results represent a mechanism for control of excitability through phospholipids.

Modulation of K_{ATP} channels by activation of metabotropic receptors and cell metabolism is an important pathway for regulation of cell excitability (1). A common feature of these regulatory effects is that inhibition of K_{ATP} channels by ATP can be antagonized and activation can be mimicked by so-called K channel openers (2). These drugs are known to activate K_{ATP} channels even in the presence of millimolar concentrations of ATP (3) and involve the sulfonylurea receptor (SUR) to exert their effect (4, 5).

The effect of the K channel opener diazoxide on the current mediated by K_{ATP} channels in response to voltage steps in giant inside-out patches from *Xenopus* oocytes expressing Kir6.2 and SUR1 subunits is demonstrated in Fig. 1A (6). Inhibition of the KATP-mediated current by an initial application of 100 µM ATP was partly reversed by the addition of 100 µM diazoxide. After wash-out of both ATP and diazoxide, the current amplitude rapidly recovered to the level present before ATP application. This protocol was repeated four times after the patch had been intermittently exposed to the phospholipid PIP2. Besides its known effect of inhibiting run-down (7, 8), exposure to 5 μ M PIP₂ reduced the inhibitory effect of ATP and removed activation of channel activity by diazoxide (n = 3). Patch excision into Mg-ATP-free solution resulted in substantial run-down of K_{ATP} channel activity (Fig. 1B). This phenomenon is known for a variety of native and cloned K_{ir} and K_{ATP} channels (7-10) and has recently been shown to be induced by wash-out of phospholipids such as PIP_2 and PIP(8). Run-down of K_{ATP} channels was accompanied by a marked increase in ATP sensitivity (n = 6). Immediately after patch excision, 10 µM ATP

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blocked about 30% of the current. This block increased to about 70% after several minutes, suggesting that the change in ATP sensitivity results from wash-out of phospholipids (Fig. 1B). The effect of PIP_2 on ATP inhibition was further characterized in experiments with

Fig. 1. Polyphospholipids act as K channel openers. (A) Responses to voltage steps from -80 to 20 mV in a giant inside-out patch with K_{ir}6.2/SUR1 channels. Solutions were exchanged with a multibarrel application system. One hundred micromolar ATP (in K-Int1.0Mg) blocked almost all channel activity (left). Addition of 100 µM diazoxide activated channels in the presence of Mg-ATP. Wash-out of diazoxide and Mg-ATP recovered current to the level present before Mg-ATP application before rundown continued. Application of 5 μ M PIP₂ stopped current run-down and slightly increased current. Reapplication of Mg-ATP produced less current inhibition, and diazoxide was less effective in antagonizing ATP inhibition (middle panel). Three subsequent applications of PIP, further decreased ATP sensitivity and finally abolished the diazoxide effect (right). Time scales are as indicated. (B) Repetitive dose-response measurements after patch excision with ATP concentrations as indicated. The first and last dose responses are shown on an expanded time scale. The first application of 10 μ M ATP produced about 30% block, whereas the last application produced about 70% block. (C) Inside-out patch with four active channels at -80 mV. Initial application of 1 mM ATP (in K-Int_{omg}) blocked channel activity, application single channels (Fig. 1C) and metabolites of PIP_2 (Fig. 1, D to F). Prolonged application of 10 μ M PIP_2 completely removed inhibition of K_{ATP} channels by 1 mM ATP (Fig. 1D; n = 3). The current amplitude in the absence of ATP remained unchanged in this

type of experiment, indicating that the PIP_2 mediated decrease in ATP sensitivity can be separated from the effect on run-down. Moreover, PIP_2 had no effect on the single-channel amplitude but increased the channels' open probability with respect to that observed after



of 100 μ M PIP₂ for 10 s increased channel activity, and reapplication of 1 mM ATP produced only partial channel inhibition. PIP₂ had no obvious effect on the single-channel amplitude. (**D** to **F**) Application of 10 μ M PIP₂ (D), 10 μ M PIP (E), or 100 μ M PI (F) on inside-out patches with K_{ATP} channels in the presence of 1 mM ATP (in K-Int_{omg}). PIP₂ and PIP recovered K_{ATP}-mediated currents, whereas PI failed.

Fig. 2. Effect of PIP₂ on steady state and time course of ATP inhibition. (A) Dose-response measurements of ATP inhibition (ATP concentrations as indicated, voltage steps from 0 to -80 mV) in an inside-out patch before (top) and 1 s (middle) or 405 s (bottom) after PIP (100 µM) application. (B) Dose-response curves from experiments as in (A); data points are mean ± SD from three experiments. Continuous lines represent fit of a Hill equation: I/I_{max} = $1/[1+([ATP]/IC_{50(ATP)})^n]$, where *I* is the current in the presence of ATP, I_{max} is the current amplitude in the absence of ATP, $I_{C_{50}(ATP)}$ is the concentration for half-maximal inhibition, and n is the Hill coefficient. PIP₂ (cumulative application time as indicated) shifted ATP sensitivity of KATP channels without affecting the Hill coefficient. (C) On and off kinetics of ATP inhibition measured with a piezo-driven application system allowing solution exchange at an inside-out patch in less than 2 ms. Time course of block and block release by 100 μ M ATP (in K-Intomg) as measured before and after application of 10 μ M PIP₂ (duration as indicated). Each trace is the average current from five subsequent ATP applications. Currents were normalized to the current preceding ATP appli-



cation. Time course was slowed and steady state of ATP inhibition was decreased by PIP₂, whereas block release remained unchanged. (**Inset**) Current traces normalized to their amplitude for better comparison of time courses for block and unblock. (**D**) Time dependence of PIP₂ effect on ATP inhibition kinetics. Off-rates were calculated from the time constants obtained by monoexponential fits to the release of ATP inhibition (τ_{off}) as $k_{off} = 1/\tau_{off}$. Apparent on-rates were calculated from k_{off} , steady-state block (*b*), and ATP concentration ([ATP]) as $k_{on} = (bk_{off})/\{(1 - b)[ATP]\}$; this procedure was used because fit of the on-reaction required more than a single exponential. The last four data points were obtained with 1 mM ATP to obtain sufficient current inhibition. \bigcirc , k_{on} ; ●, k_{off} . Data points are mean \pm SD from two to four experiments.

run-down of channel activity (Fig. 1C). Similar to PIP₂, PIP was also able to reduce ATP inhibition, although on a slower time scale (Fig. 1E; n = 6), whereas phosphatidylinositol (PI) had no obvious effect on KATP channels even at a 10 times higher concentration (Fig. 1F; n = 3). Furthermore, phospholipids were only active when



Fig. 3. Contribution of K_{ATP} subunits to ATP inhibition and PIP₂ effect. (**A** to **C**) Dose-response curves from experiments as in Fig. 2A with $K_{ir}6.2(\Delta C26)$ channels in the presence (A) and absence (B) of SUR1 or with K, 6.2(R176A)/SUR1 channels (C). Data points are mean \pm SD from four experiments; cumulative application time of PIP_2 is as indicated. (D) Dependence of IC_{50} for ATP inhibition as a function of PIP₂ application time for the channels indicated. Data points are taken from the results shown in Fig. 2B and (A) to (C).

Fig. 4. Modulation of K_{ATP} currents by PIP₂ injection or stimulation of a coexpressed P2Y receptor. (A) Two electrode voltage-clamp measurements from oocytes expressing cloned $K_{\mbox{\scriptsize ATP}}$ channels in response to voltage ramps from - 120 to 50 mV. The external solution was intermittently changed from Ext_{90K} to $Ext_{2.5K}$ to monitor both leakage and K_{ATP} current. Injection of 50 nl of 10 mM PIP, plus 10 mM BAPTA produced an initial transient increase of the leakage current (visible at 2.5 mM K⁺) and a delayed but continuous increase in K_{ATP} -mediated ($I_{K_{ATP}}$) current from about 1 to about 8 µA over 4.5 hours. (B) Relative increase of K_{ATP}-mediated current measured 10 hours after injection of either 10 mM BAPTA, 1 mM PIP and 10 mM BAPTA, or 1 mM PIP₂ and 10 mM BAPTA. Bars represent mean \pm SD of three to five experiments. (C and D) Stimulation of a coexpressed P2Y receptor decreased KATP-mediated currents by increasing ATP sensitivity. (C) Responses to voltage ramps from -120 mV to 50 mV in 2.5 s in Ext_{20K} (traces in black) or Ext_{2.5K} (traces in grey) to which 100 nM staurosporine was added. Application of ATP evoked a transient increase in outward current followed by a reversible decrease in KATP-mediated current. Measurements of KATP-mediated currents in whole oocytes were enabled by high expression levels of the channel protein. (D) Dose response for ATP inhibition of K_{ATP} channels measured in patches from oocytes before (control) and after stimulation of P2Y





receptors (P2Y stimulation). Data points are mean \pm SD from five experiments. (Inset) Relative inhibition (calculated from the ratio of the two dose responses) of K_{ATP} currents by P2Y receptor stimulation was independent of intracellular ATP for concentrations > 100 μ M.

90 mM K* Π

2.5 mM K

applied to the cytoplasmic side of the membrane; addition of 50 µM PIP₂ into the pipette had no effect on ATP sensitivity in inside-out patches (11).

For a more quantitative investigation of the phospholipid effect, PIP₂ was applied to giant inside-out patches for increasing intervals, and the ATP sensitivity of channels was determined. The dose-response curves for ATP inhibition were gradually shifted toward higher concentrations, without changes in their steepness (Fig. 2, A and B). This result suggests that increasing concentrations of PIP₂ gradually change ATP sensitivity of individual channels rather than render channels ATP insensitive in an all-or-none manner. To analyze the underlying mechanism, we determined the kinetics of ATP inhibition before and after exposure to 10 µM PIP₂, using a piezo-controlled application system (12). The release of ATP inhibition exhibited a monoexponential time course (time constant: $69.1 \pm 10.4 \text{ ms}; n = 5$) that did not change with PIP₂ application (Fig. 2C). The steadystate ATP inhibition, however, was markedly reduced by the phospholipid (Fig. 2, B and C). As a consequence, the apparent blocking of PIP₂ and PIP. Experiments as in Fig. 2B were performed with a mutant of K_i, 6.2 that has been deleted by the COOH-terminal 26 amino acids $[K_{ir}6.2(\Delta C26)]$ and that forms ATP-sensitive channels in the absence of the SUR subunit (13). $K_{ir}6.2(\Delta C26)$ channels displayed PIP2-dependent decrease of ATP inhibition in the absence and presence of SUR1 (Fig. 3, A and B). As described before (13), ATP sensitivity determined before PIP₂ application was substantially lower in homomeric $K_{ir}6.2(\Delta C26)$ channels than in $K_{ir}6.2(\Delta C26)/SUR1$ channels. However, longer applications of PIP₂ were required to shift ATP inhibition (Fig. 3, A, B, and D). In addition, the PIP₂ effect was less stable in $K_{ir}6.2(\Delta C26)$ channels in the absence of SUR1 as judged from the faster wash-out of the phospholipid effect (11). These results indicate that PIP₂ basically exerts its effect on ATP inhibition through interaction with the K_{ir}6.2 subunit. Morever, SUR1 increases sensitivity of KATP channels for ATP and stabilizes binding of PIP₂. Correlation between binding affinity for PIP₂ and channel inhibition by ATP was further investigated in a Kir6.2 mutant channel, in which arginine (R) 176 was changed to alanine (A). This and the adjacent residue have recently been shown to reduce interaction between Kir6.2 and Kir1.1 with PIP₂ (8, 10). Longer PIP₂ applications were indeed necessary to induce a given shift in ATP sensitivity compared with K_{ir}6.2 wild-type channels, although the ATP inhibition measured before PIP₂ exposure was similar in both channels (Fig. 3, C and D).

To ensure that PIP₂ plays a role in the activity of KATP channels in the cellular environment, we injected PIP2 and PIP into oocytes expressing KATP channels (14). Injection of about 50 nl of phospholipids at a concentration of 10 or 1 mM resulted in an increase of KATP-mediated currents (Fig. 4, A and B). PIP, was more effective than PIP, and intracellular calcium had no effect on the KATP-mediated current (Fig. 4B). We further tested the effect of transient stimulation of a coexpressed metabotropic purino-receptor of the P2Y₂ subtype, which is known to activate phospholipase C (PLC) (15, 16) and thus decrease the concentration of PIP₂. Such receptor-activated stimulation of PLC reduces PIP₂ concentrations in cultured cells within minutes by about a factor of 2 (17). Application of 300 µM ATP to an oocyte coexpressing KATP channels and P2Y2 receptors resulted in a reversible reduction of the potassium current by 59 \pm 3% (Fig. 4C; n = 2). To exclude effects of protein kinase C, we performed these experiments in the presence of staurosporine (100 nM). The initial increase in outward current observed in the first few seconds after ATP application is due to transient activation of calcium-dependent chloride channels endogenous to Xenopus oocytes through the PLC-IP₃ pathway (15, 18). The P2Y₂-mediated increase in ATP inhibition was confirmed by dose-response experiments performed with excised patches from oocytes that had been incubated with ATP (1 mM) before the measurements. As shown in Fig. 4D, $P2Y_2$ stimulation resulted in an increase in ATP inhibition by about 70%, which was independent of intracellular ATP at concentrations > 100 μ M.

In conclusion, inhibition of K_{ATP} channels by intracellular ATP depends on the concentration of phospholipids such as PIP and PIP₂ in the cell membrane. At low concentrations of phospholipids, K_{ATP} channels are blocked by micromolar concentrations of ATP, whereas prolonged application of PIP₂ renders channels ATP insensitive. This observation might underlie the variability observed for ATP sensitivity of K_{ATP} channels in various tissues and studies (19, 20) and may contribute to the mechanism or mechanisms by which K_{ATP} channels can overcome the high physiological concentrations of intracellular ATP.

Mechanistically, PIP_2 most likely binds to the K_{ir}6.2 subunit, although SUR increases binding affinity of the phospholipids. It exerts its effect either by stabilizing a state in which the channel cannot interact with ATP (21) or by rendering the ATP-binding site inaccessible for ATP, for example, by competitive binding. However, the finding that PIP_2 changes the apparent on-rate for ATP inhibition by several orders of magnitude without having any effect on the off-rate argues against a change in conformation of the ATP-binding site, which would also affect the off-rate.

The observation that a metabotropic receptor coupling to PLC can control activity of K_{ATP} channels might point toward the physiological role of the phospholipid effect presented here. This role is supported by the finding that ATP sensitivity of cardiac K_{ATP} channels is regulated through a G-protein– related pathway (22). This was observed in a membrane patch and did not involve a diffusible second messenger. Thus, phospholipidmediated opening of otherwise ATP-blocked K_{ATP} channels might represent a new mechanism to control excitability in a wide variety of cells.

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collagenase type II (0.5 mg/ml; Sigma) and incubated at 19°C for 1 to 3 days before use. Experiments were done at room temperature (about 22°C) 2 to 7 days after injection. Giant patch pipettes were made from thickwalled borosilicate glass, had resistances of 0.3 to 0.6 Mohms (tip diameter of 20 to 30 µm), and were filled with 120 mM KCl, 10 mM Hepes, and 1.8 mM CaCl₂. Currents were recorded and corrected for capacitive transients with an EPC9 amplifier (HEKA Electronics, Lamprecht, Germany), whose analog filter was set to 3 kHz (-3 dB). Leakage correction was not performed. Solutions were applied to the cytoplasmic side of the excised patches through a motor-driven multibarrel pipette; solutions had the following compositions (pH adjusted to 7.2 with KOH) with the concentration of free Mg²⁺ ions calculated according to A. Fabiato [Methods Enzymol. 157, 378 (1986)]: K-Int_{1.0Mg} (120 mM KCl, 10 mM Hepes, 10 mM EGTA, and 1.44 mM MgCl₂), which was also used as bathing solution, and K-Int $_{\rm OMg}$ (120 mM KCl, 10 mM Hepes, and 10 mM EGTA), to which K $_2$ -ATP was added as indicated. PIP2, PIP, and PI were dissolved by 30 min of sonification. Staurosporine, ATP, diazoxide, and 1,2-bis(2-aminophenoxy)ethane-N,N,N',N'-tetraacetic acid (BAPTA) were from Sigma, and PIP₂, PIP, and PI were from Boehringer-Mannheim.

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