The Mechanism of Rectification of $i_{K1}$ in Canine Purkinje Myocytes

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ABSTRACT We have characterized the inward rectifying background potassium current, $i_{K1}$, of canine cardiac Purkinje myocytes in terms of its reversal potential, voltage activation curve, and "steady-state" current-voltage relation. The latter parameter was defined from the difference current between holding currents in the presence and absence of 20 mM cesium. Our data suggest that $i_{K1}$ rectification does not arise exclusively from voltage-dependent gating or exclusively from voltage-dependent blockade by internal magnesium ions. The voltage activation curve constructed from tail currents fit to a Boltzmann two-state model predicts less outward current than is actually observed. The magnesium-dependent rectification due to channel blockade is too fast to account for the time-dependent gating of $i_{K1}$ that gives rise to the tail currents. We propose a new model of rectification that assumes that magnesium blockade of the channel occurs simultaneously with voltage-dependent gating. The new model incorporates the kinetic schema elaborated by Matsuda, H. (1988. J. Physiol. 397:237-258) to explain the appearance of subconducting states of the $i_{K1}$ channel in the presence of blocking ions. That schema suggested that $i_{K1}$ channels were composed of three parallel pores, each of which could be blocked independently. In our model we considered the consequences of partial blockade of the channel. If the channels are partially blocked at potentials where normally they are mostly gated closed, and if the partially blocked channels cannot close, then blockade will have the paradoxical result of enhancing the current carried by $i_{K1}$.

INTRODUCTION

The potassium current responsible for inward rectification in the steady-state current-voltage relationship of cardiac myocytes has been called $i_{K1}$ (Isenberg, 1976; DiFrancesco et al., 1984; Shah et al., 1987). The $i_{K1}$ channels activate on hyperpolarization of the membrane, and the single-channel conductance seems to be nearly ohmic (the channel conductance is voltage independent) at potentials negative to the reversal potential of potassium (Sakmann and Trube, 1984; Kurachi, 1985). However, very little or no current passes through the channel in the outward direction (see for instance Sakmann and Trube, 1984; Vandenberg, 1987). Address reprint requests to Dr. Ira S. Cohen, Department of Physiology and Biophysics, Health Sciences Center, State University of New York at Stony Brook, Stony Brook, NY 11794-8661.

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It has been proposed that rectification at the single-channel level is due to internal magnesium blockade of the channel when the driving force on the channel is directed outwardly (Matsuda et al., 1987; Vandenberg, 1987). The channel becomes ohmic for outward as well as inward currents when cytoplasmic magnesium concentration is reduced to or below micromolar levels.

Matsuda (1988) found with excised patches that substates of the outwardly conducting channel can be observed. No subconducting states were observed when the channel passed inward current. The subconducting states had one- and two-thirds of the total conductance, and the probabilities of the substates followed binomial distributions which depended on the concentration of magnesium bathing the cytoplasmic face of the \( i_{K1} \) channel. From these results, Matsuda hypothesized that the \( i_{K1} \) channel was composed of three identical subunits each of which could be independently blocked by one Mg\(^{2+}\). An additional study performed by Matsuda et al. (1989) demonstrated the same distributions of subconducting states with external blockade by Rb\(^+\) or Cs\(^+\) and thus lent further support to the subunit hypothesis.

Blockade of the open channel by magnesium cannot explain all the observed rectifying features of macroscopic \( i_{K1} \). The presence of a hump of outward current at potentials positive to the reversal potential (Shah et al., 1987) implies that the \( i_{K1} \) channels are able to pass appreciable outward current with normal [Mg\(^{2+}\)]\(_i\). Moreover, one can reproduce the general shape of the macroscopic \( i_{K1} \) current-voltage relationship from the gating activation curve, ignoring blockade of the channel conductance by Mg\(^{2+}\) (Kurachi, 1985; Pennefather and Cohen, 1990). If anything, more outward current is observed than is predicted by simple voltage-dependent gating. In the results presented below we examine the contributions of voltage-dependent gating and voltage-dependent blockade to the macroscopic current-voltage relationship of \( i_{K1} \), taking into account the multibarreled nature of \( i_{K1} \) channels. We show that if Mg\(^{2+}\) generates partially blocked channels and if those channels with one or more bores blocked cannot close, Mg\(^{2+}\) blockade will in fact increase the macroscopic outward current through \( i_{K1} \) channels.

**METHODS**

Preparation of Purkinje strands and the dissociation procedure were as described previously (Cohen et al., 1987). Fibers were also stored overnight in medium (Chang et al., 1989) and dissociated on the second day. No difference in \( i_{K1} \) was apparent. The electrophysiologic setup was identical to Cohen et al., 1989, as was the preparation of the electrodes, and the use of an Axopatch amplifier from Axon Instruments Inc., Burlingame, CA. Both series resistance and capacitance compensation were used. The experiments were carried out at 9.6°C.

**Solutions**

**Solution 1.** Choline Tyrode external solution contained in millimolar: 5 KCl, 135 choline chloride, 5 HEPES, 0.1 CdCl\(_2\), 0.5 CaCl\(_2\), 1 MnCl\(_2\), pH 7.4. When indicated, choline chloride was replaced by equimolar quantities of KCl or CsCl.

**Solution 2.** Internal or pipette solution contained in millimolar: 120 KCl, 1 MgCl\(_2\), 5 HEPES, 5 EGTA, 5 Na\(_2\)ATP, pH 7.2 neutralized with KOH, free Mg\(^{2+}\) = 26 \( \mu \)M. In some experiments, the concentration of free Mg\(^{2+}\) was increased to 565 \( \mu \)M by reducing the total [ATP] to 1.6 mM and raising the total [MgCl\(_2\)] to 2.0 mM. The Mg\(^{2+}\) activity of the pipette...
solutions was calculated using a computer program (CABUFFER) developed by J. Klein-schmidt based on the equations of Goldstein (1979).

**Electrophysiological Studies**

The data were acquired, digitized, and analyzed with the pCLAMP system (Labmaster/TL-1 interface combination from Axon Instruments Inc.) running in a PC clone. We digitized the data by taking samples every 800 μs. We additionally recorded the data on an FM tape recorder (model 3964a, 3% ips, 1,250 Hz bandwidth; Hewlett-Packard Co., Palo Alto, CA).

After breaking the patch and entering the whole-cell patch configuration, we waited ~30 min for some equilibration between the pipette and cell contents. According to Oliva et al. (1988), it takes ~30 min to achieve 90% equilibration when the pipette resistance is 3 MΩ and the diffusion coefficient of the diffusing substance is $10^{-5}$ cm²/s.

**Protocols and Extraction of Parameters**

The voltage-clamp protocols used to determine the activation curve, reversal potential, and steady-state current-voltage relation were generated by the CLAMPEX program of the pCLAMP software package. The holding potential for the protocols was usually the resting potential of the cell which changed with different extracellular potassium concentrations. All experimental values are expressed as mean ± SD.

**Activation curve.** The activation curve protocol consisted of holding the membrane at different conditioning potentials separated by 5 mV from roughly -50 to +40 mV with respect to the potassium equilibrium potential for 400 ms and then stepping the potential to -30 mV with respect to the potassium equilibrium potential for 400 ms. From the tail currents, we obtained the steady-state ensemble open probability of $i_{K1}$. We fitted a nonlinear two-state Boltzmann equation to the tail currents vs. conditioning membrane potential data. In doing the fitting we used the first 10 points starting from the most negative potential. Points at potentials positive to the reversal potential of $i_{K1}$ showed scatter, possibly due to overlapping currents at these positive potentials. The equation we fitted to the data was:

$$
\frac{A}{1 + \exp \left[ \frac{(V - V_d)}{s} \right]} = B - A
$$

where $\delta I$ is the tail current magnitude, $V$ is the conditioning potential, $B$ is the tail current magnitude when $V$ is infinitely positive, $A$ is the difference between $B$ and the tail current when $V$ is infinitely negative, $V_d$ is the midpoint of the activation curve, and $s$ is the slope factor of the activation curve. $B$, $A$, $V_d$, and $s$ are parameters extracted by minimizing the least-squares differences between the observed and predicted tail currents. The ensemble open probability at each test voltage was obtained from the expression $(B - \delta I) / A$, where $\delta I_v$ is the tail current obtained from test voltage $V$, $A$, divided by the driving force at the test potential, provided one estimate of the maximal conductance of $i_{K1}$ channels. Conductance values were normalized for cell capacity, which was calculated from the surface area as described by Cohen et al. (1987).

**Reversal potential.** The reversal potential protocol was just the inverted version of the activation curve protocol. We obtained the reversal potential by interpolating between the two nearest points where the relaxations changed sign.

**Steady state current-voltage ($I/V$) relationship.** The steady-state $I/V$ relations of the membrane were measured while the membrane was held at the different potentials of the activation protocol. After 100–150 ms of establishing the potential steps, we averaged 100 ms of the digitized current data. To extract the $i_{K1}$ specific steady-state $I/V$ relationship, we followed a typical procedure (Shah et al., 1987). We obtained the steady-state $I/V$ relationship
in control and in Cs containing external solutions and subtracted the average current values obtained in the two solutions.

We know that

\[ I(V) = G(V - V_r)P(V) \]

where \( I/V \) is the steady-state channel current at the membrane potential \( V \), \( G \) is the maximal ensemble conductance, \( V_r \) is the reversal potential for the channels, and \( P(V) \) is the steady-state open-channel probability. Therefore, the steady-state \( I/V \) curve allowed us to calculate another estimate of the maximal conductance of \( i_{K1} \) channels in a cell.

The value of \( G \) that minimizes the least-squares differences between the measured and theoretical currents is:

\[ G = \frac{\sum I_{\text{exp}}(V)P(V)(V - V_r)}{\sum P^2(V)(V - V_r)} \]

where \( I_{\text{exp}}(V) \) is the current measured when the membrane potential is \( V \). The summations are carried out over the inward currents. In doing this calculation, we make the reasonable assumption that \( G \) is not voltage dependent since at potentials appreciably negative to \( E_K \), the channels do not experience blockade (Vandenberg, 1987; Matsuda, 1988), and little inactivation is present in our Na\(^+\)-free solutions (see also Biermans et al., 1988).

**THEORY**

*The Model*

Our model is basically an extension of the kinetic model that Matsuda (1988) and Matsuda et al. (1989) elaborated to explain the appearance of subconducting states of a single \( i_{K1} \) channel distribution. Their data suggested that the channel was composed of three subunits each with equal conductance and that each subunit could be blocked independently by one blocking ion.

The model used to explain that data was:

\[
\begin{align*}
C & \xrightarrow{\alpha} O_3 \xrightarrow{3\mu} O_5 \\
& \xrightarrow{\beta} O_2 \xrightarrow{2\lambda} O_4 \xrightarrow{\mu} O_1 \xrightarrow{3\lambda} O_0
\end{align*}
\]

where \( C \) and \( O_5 \) are the closed and fully unblocked states, respectively. \( O_2, O_1, \) and \( O_0 \) represent the states where 1, 2, or 3 subunits are blocked, respectively. \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) are the channel’s closed-to-opened and opened-to-closed transition rate constants, respectively. The unblocked and blocked probabilities of subunits are \( p = \lambda/(\mu + \lambda) \) and \( q = \mu/(\mu + \lambda) \), respectively. The major extension to the model that we made was to incorporate the measured voltage dependence of \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) and to consider the implications of the model for macroscopic currents. We define \( P_g = \alpha/(\alpha + \beta) \) and \( Q_g = \beta/(\alpha + \beta) \), and estimated \( P_g \) from an activation curve protocol.

The set of equations that describes this kinetic schema is:

\[
\frac{dC}{dt} = \beta O_3 - \alpha C
\]
OLIVA ET AL. Rectification of $i_k$,

\[
\begin{align*}
\frac{dO_3}{dt} &= \alpha C + \lambda O_2 - O_3(\beta + 3\mu) \\
\frac{dO_2}{dt} &= (3\mu O_3 + 2\lambda O_1) - O_2(\lambda + 2\mu) \\
\frac{dO_1}{dt} &= (2\mu O_2 + 3\lambda O_0) - O_1(2\lambda + \mu) \\
\frac{dO_0}{dt} &= \mu O_1 - 3\lambda O_0 \\
1 &= C + O_3 + O_2 + O_1 + O_0
\end{align*}
\]

By setting the differential equations equal to zero the steady-state probability distribution of the various states of the channel can be predicted. In the appendix we show that, if the model is correct, the measured steady-state current, $I_{\text{exp}}$, will be determined by gating and blockade as follows:

\[
I_{\text{exp}} = G(V - V_r)\frac{P_g p}{P_g + Q_g p^3}
\]

where $G$ is the conductance when all of the channels are open and unblocked $V_r$ is the reversal potential of the current, and $V$ is the membrane potential.

If the channels were ohmic for potentials negative and positive to their reversal potential, had the activation curve which we denoted by $P_g$, and did not undergo blockade then the following would hold:

\[
I_{\text{ohmic}} = G(V - V_r) P_g
\]

This implies that:

\[
\frac{I_{\text{exp}}}{I_{\text{ohmic}}} = \frac{p}{P_g + Q_g p^3}
\]

Therefore, once one knows the ratio of experimental to ohmic currents and the activation curve, one can estimate $p$ by solving the cubic equation that is generated from the equation above.

**Effect of Blockade on the Steady-State Current**

Clearly, when $p = 0$ the currents ratio is equal to zero and the channel is always blocked. When $p = 1$, the ratio of experimental to ohmic current is equal to one, the channel is always unblocked behaving like an ohmic-unblockable channel, and any steady-state rectification would be due to the gating of the channel. Intermediate values of $p$ imply there is partial blockade of the channel. Here we show that for certain possible values of $P_g$ and $p$, the current ratio can be >1. A ratio >1 implies that the ensemble of channels is passing more current than that predicted for an ohmic-unblockable channel ensemble.

For a given value of $P_g$, the value of $p$ that will produce the maximum current ratio >1 can be calculated by setting the derivative of the ratio with respect to $p$ equal to
zero and solving for $p_{\text{max}}$ from the resulting equation:

$$\frac{d(I_{\text{exp}}/I_{\text{ohmic}})}{dp} = \frac{P_g - 2Q_g p_{\text{max}}^3}{(P_g + Q_g p_{\text{max}}^3)^2}$$

At the maximum:

$$0 = P_g - 2Q_g p_{\text{max}}^3; \quad \text{and } p_{\text{max}}^3 = P_g/2Q_g$$

By replacing $p_{\text{max}}$ in the equation for the currents ratio, one obtains:

$$\frac{I_{\text{exp}}}{I_{\text{ohmic}}}_{\text{max}} = \frac{2}{3[2(1 - P_g)P_g^2]^{1/3}}$$

For $(I_{\text{exp}}/I_{\text{ohmic}})_{\text{max}}$ to be $>1$:

$$\frac{(2/3)^3}{2} = 0.1481 > P_g^2(1 - P_g)$$

This inequality holds for all $P_g < 7/8$ implying that for conditions in which $P_g < 7/8$ there exists a value of $p$ where $(I_{\text{exp}}/I_{\text{ohmic}})$ is maximally $>1$. A maximum implies a range of values of $p$ where $(I_{\text{exp}}/I_{\text{ohmic}})$ is $>1$. For a given value of $P_g$ that range can be deduced as follows: If there is a current ratio maximum that is $>1$ for $0 < p_{\text{max}} < 1$ then there should be two different values of $p$ for which the current ratio is smaller than the maximum and equal to 1. One of these values is $p = 1$, and the other value, which we call $p_1$, can be found by solving the cubic equation of the current ratio.

$$I_{\text{exp}} p^4 = I_{\text{ohmic}} p + Q_g p^3$$

Since we know one of the roots of this equation (namely, $p = 1$), we only need to solve a quadratic equation to find the other roots. This is clear after factoring the cubic polynomial.

$$p^3 - \frac{P_g}{Q_g} = (p - 1)[p^2 + p - (P_g/Q_g)]$$

The physically possible root of the quadratic equation (namely $p > 0$) is:

$$p_1 = -1 + \frac{[1 + 4(P_g/Q_g)]^{1/2}}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \left( \frac{1}{4} + P_g/Q_g \right)^{1/2} - \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

Therefore, provided the voltage dependence of gating ($P_g$) and magnesium blockade ($p$) are such that there exists a range of potentials where $1 > p > \left[ (0.4 + P_g/Q_g)^{1/2} - \sqrt{2} \right]$ (e.g.; some blockade but not too much) then, in that range of potentials $i_{\text{K}1}$ channels will conduct more current in the presence than in the absence of blockade.
This paradox of having the ensemble of channels passing more current at steady state when they are partially blocked as compared with when they are fully unblocked seems counterintuitive. However, this possibility is a logical consequence of the kinetic model. We should remember with this model the channel can go from state to state only in a sequential manner. For the channel to go from any of the blocked states to the closed state, the channel randomly jumps from state to state until it reaches the fully unblocked state from which it could then close. The end result is that the total time the channel spends in conducting states has been elongated due to the “trapping” of the channel in the partially blocked states.

RESULTS

The Whole-Cell Cesium-sensitive I/V Relationships

The steady-state I/V relationship was obtained in two different external potassium concentrations, 12.8 and 5 mM, in control and cesium-containing (20 mM) external solutions. The results in both [K]'s were qualitatively similar so sample figures were chosen from the more physiologic 5 mM [K]. The I/V relationships for one such cell studied in this manner along with raw data from a second cell are illustrated in Fig. 1.

The difference I/V relationship obtained from the data in Fig. 1 A (control-cesium) is provided in Fig. 2. The subtracted currents showed little or no time dependence beyond 100 ms suggesting that only time-dependent currents of rapid time course contributed to this difference current. This subtracted I/V is presumed to be the i_K1 specific I/V relationship (Shah et al., 1987). A thorough account of the experimental evidence that argues for this specificity is relegated to the Discussion.

The Unblockable Channel Model and Our Data

Our aim is to explain the underlying process that is responsible for the features of the i_K1 I/V relationship illustrated in Fig. 2. As a first approximation, we tested the ability of a simple unblockable channel model to account for the characteristics of the steady-state I/V relationship. The model assumes that the conductance of the open i_K1 channel is independent of voltage, and therefore the maximal conductance of the macroscopic current is also voltage independent. Only the open-channel probability is assumed to be voltage dependent, and the I/V relationship is obtained by multiplying the maximal conductance, ensemble open probability, and driving force.

Activation curves. We obtained the i_K1 activation curves at two different external potassium concentrations (12.8 and 5 mM). Fig. 3 illustrates the activation curve obtained from the same cell as Fig. 1 A. Samples of tail currents from a second cell are also provided (see inset in the figure). The ensemble open probability increases with hyperpolarization of the cell membrane and the voltage dependence can be accurately fitted using the Boltzmann equation. The solid line is the best fit of the Boltzmann equation to the data.

From the fitting, we extracted the midpoint of activation and slope factor of the activation curve. In 12.8 mM external potassium the average values are $-59.7 \pm 2.0$ mV and $5.9 \pm 1.1$ mV ($n = 5$), respectively. The average deviation of the midpoint
**Figure 1.** (A) Steady-state I/V relationship in 5 mM K from cell W9131C01. The squares are data obtained in control solution, and the triangles are data obtained when the Tyrode contained 20 mM cesium. (B) Raw data from cell W9502C01. The currents were recorded after stepping the membrane potential from a holding potential of \(-57\), \(-92\), \(-87\), \(-77\), \(-67\), and \(-52\) mV for \(-400\) ms and then stepping to \(-87\) mV. The panel on the left was recorded in control solution and that on the right in external solution that contained 20 mM cesium. The lengths of the vertical and horizontal scale bars are 200 pA and 50 ms, respectively.

**Figure 2.** Cesium-sensitive I/V relationship. The squares are the currents obtained by subtracting the current recorded when there was 20 mM cesium in the extracellular solution from the current recorded in control solution. These cesium-sensitive currents were obtained from the data set shown in Fig. 1 A.
of activation from the tail current reversal potential is \(-7.5 \pm 2.2\) mV \((n = 5)\). Therefore, \(~22\%\) of \(i_{K_1}\) channels are active at the reversal potential. These values agree well with the values obtained previously in similar conditions (Cohen et al., 1989). In 5 mM external potassium, the average values of the midpoint of activation and slope factor are \(-84.7 \pm 6.7\) mV and \(3.8 \pm 0.5\) mV \((n = 7)\), respectively. The average deviation of the midpoint of activation from the reversal potential is \(-6.4 \pm 1.1\) mV and \(~16\%\) of \(i_{K_1}\) channels are active at the reversal potential.

Reversal potential. This parameter was determined from analysis of tail currents as described in Methods. As expected, the reversal potential was less negative when the external potassium concentration was higher. The average reversal potentials were \(-52.2 \pm 3.5\) mV \((n = 5)\) and \(-78.3 \pm 6.9\) mV \((n = 7)\) when the external potassium concentrations were 12.8 and 5 mM, respectively. We can compare the reversal potential of \(i_{K_1}\) obtained from the tail currents with the potential at which the cesium-sensitive current is zero (it is the potential at which the current intercepts the abscissa). The average values are \(-50.7 \pm 3.8\) mV \((n = 5)\) and \(-79.5 \pm 8.6\) mV \((n = 7)\) when the external potassium concentrations are 12.8 and 5 mM, respectively. Thus, the average zero-current potential did not differ by more than a few millivolts from the values obtained from the tail currents.

The measured reversal potentials are close to the expected values for a perfectly selective potassium electrode, \(-58.4\) and \(-81.3\) mV obtained when the external potassium concentrations are 12.8 and 5 mM, respectively, and the cell potassium concentration is 140 mM.

Maximal cesium-sensitive conductance and maximal whole-cell \(i_{K_1}\) conductance. The final parameter needed to calculate the steady-state current that should flow through channels that behave as predicted by the unblockable channel model is the maximal whole-cell channel ensemble conductance. Therefore, we needed to calculate the specific conductance that results when all of the \(i_{K_1}\) channels are open. As explained in the Methods, we have two ways of estimating this conductance. We can calculate...
the maximal cesium-sensitive conductance or, alternatively, the conductance that
derives from one of the parameters obtained by fitting the Boltzmann equation to
the tail currents of the activation curve protocol.

We calculated the maximal cesium-sensitive conductance from the steady-state $I/V$
relationship, as explained in the Methods. The average values were $53.4 \pm 22.7$
$\mu S/\mu F$ ($n = 5$) and $47.0 \pm 16.7 \mu S/\mu F$ ($n = 7$) when the external potassium
concentrations were 12.8 and 5 mM, respectively. The average values of the maximal
conductances estimated from the tail currents were $43.0 \pm 16.0 \mu S/\mu F$ ($n = 5$)
and $39.2 \pm 23.3 \mu S/\mu F$ ($n = 7$) when the external potassium concentrations were 12.8
and 5 mM, respectively.

On average, in 5 mM $[K]_o$ the maximal conductance estimated from the activation
curve was 81% of that estimated from the cesium-sensitive $I/V$ relation. In 12.8 mM
$[K]_o$, the estimate of maximal conductance derived from the activation curve was
83% of that estimated from the cesium-sensitive $I/V$ relationship. These differences
may reflect a small component of the cesium-sensitive current that does not exhibit
time-dependent gating. Alternatively, it may reflect problems in estimating the initial
amplitude of $i_{K1}$ relaxations induced by voltage jumps.

This reasonably close agreement between the maximal conductances estimated by
the two methods implies that the $i_{K1}$ channels exhibiting time-dependent gating are
responsible for most of the steady-state cesium-sensitive current flowing at potentials
negative to the reversal potential.

The unblockable channel model and steady-state properties. The solid line of Fig. 4 is
the predicted steady-state current assuming that the $i_{K1}$ channels are ohmic and
unblockable, and the squares are the experimentally measured cesium-sensitive
currents already shown in Fig. 2. There is more current in the outward direction
than predicted using the unblockable model of the $i_{K1}$ channel.

Fig. 5 is the ratio of currents ($i_{exp}/i_{ohm}$). At potentials negative to the reversal
potential of the current, this ratio approaches the value of 1, but at potentials
positive to the reversal potential the ratio is $>1$. This finding was present for all but
one of the cells tested and it implies that the unblockable channel model cannot account for all of the results.

Before examining a more complicated model, we decided to estimate the magnitude of the deviation from a simple Boltzmann two-state model of the voltage dependence of activation. We calculated the activation curve that would allow an unblockable model of the channel to fit the steady-state $I/V$ relationship of $i_{K1}$.

The plot in Fig. 6 illustrates our results. There is a substantial deviation between the Boltzmann two-state fit to the tail currents and the expected activation curve if the unblockable model was correct. In general this deviation was larger in 5 mM than in 12.8 mM [K], although both deviations were in the same direction. We felt this deviation was large enough to justify the consideration of a more elaborate model to analyze the data, particularly in light of recent single-channel studies demonstrating multiple conducting substates of the $i_{K1}$ channel (Matsuda, 1988; Matsuda et al., 1989).
A More Elaborate Model

We have found that the excess outward current in the \( i_{K1} \) current-voltage relationship can be accounted for if the unblockable model is combined with the Matsuda model (detailed in Theory) of blockade of \( i_{K1} \) channels by cytoplasmic \( Mg^{2+} \). Briefly, the Matsuda model assumes that the \( i_m \) channel is composed of three subunits each of which can be independently blocked by a \( Mg^{2+} \). \( Mg^{2+} \) blocks only outward currents, and the conductance of the open channel is ohmic when the channel is passing inward currents. By applying Matsuda's model to our data, we could estimate the voltage dependence of the probability of the unblocked subunit, \( p \), (see Theory).

Fig. 7 provides a summary of the values calculated when the external potassium concentrations were 12.8 (top) and 5 mM (bottom). The upper panel shows the values calculated for five cells and the lower panel shows the values calculated for seven cells.
increases, the probability of the unblocked subunit decreases. The dependence of the absence of blockade on driving force is similar for both $[K^+]$'s.

Our analysis suggests that the probability of the unblocked subunit is a function of $(V - V_r)$ rather than simply $V$. Also, in accordance with the results obtained previously by other researchers at the single-channel level, we observed that the probability of the unblocked subunit is very nearly unity at potentials sufficiently negative to the reversal potential of $i_{K1}$ so that single-channel currents could be measured.

**High Magnesium and Low ATP**

It has been shown that ohmic outward currents through $i_{K1}$ appear when the divalent ion buffering capacity of the pipette solution is high (Vandenberg, 1987; Matsuda et al., 1987). We repeated the whole-cell experiments with a reduced magnesium buffering capacity of the pipette solution. We reduced the ATP concentration of the
pipette solution from 5 to 1.6 mM and increased the MgCl₂ concentration from 1 to 2 mM. These changes should have increased the levels of free Mg in the pipette solution from 26 to 565 μM. Results were obtained from three cells in 10 mM K and three cells in 5 mM K. Fig. 8 provides a plot of ρ vs. membrane potential in the high internal [Mg] at both 5 and 10 mM external [K]. The results are essentially identical to those obtained in Fig. 7 where the pipette [Mg²⁺] was buffered to low levels by ATP. It is likely, therefore, that in our experiments changing the Mg²⁺ buffering capacity of our pipette solution with ATP had little effect on the intracellular concentration of Mg²⁺.

**DISCUSSION**

**Separation of Voltage-dependent Gating from Blockade**

Our model includes voltage-dependent gating and blockade. In applying the model to the data it is necessary to be able to separate these two processes. We have constructed the activation curve with a two-pulse protocol and have considered the time-dependent tail currents at the test potential as a measure of the voltage-dependent gating process. This assumption is based on previous experimentation by Cohen et al., 1989 in which they examined the properties of igl at various internal and external [K]'s. They found they could separate a gating process from blockade particularly at reduced internal [K].

Deactivation was examined by using a three-pulse protocol. After an initial hyperpolarization, rectification was rapid on depolarization positive to Eₖ, and little outward current was observed. However, that rectification was not associated with a rapid recovery of the time-dependent tail current on a second hyperpolarization negative to Eₖ. Gated closure of the channel took place more slowly (see their Fig. 1). The most reasonable interpretation of this result is that both block on depolarization positive to Eₖ and unblock on hyperpolarization negative to Eₖ are rapid, while the voltage-dependent gating is a slower process. This difference between the rapidity of blockade and the slower kinetics of gating is very prominent at reduced internal [K], but also still discernible at normal internal [K] when the rate of gating becomes more rapid and closer to that of blockade. Matsuda et al. (1987) have also noted that Mg blockade occurs more rapidly than gating. We felt the best measure of the voltage dependence of gating was obtained negative to or just positive to the reversal potential.

**Overlap of Other Currents**

*General considerations.* A major premise of this work is that the cesium-sensitive difference current is largely (if not exclusively) iₖ₁. There are several other membrane currents that conceivably could have been altered by Cs⁺ and so overlap with and contaminate our measure of iₖ₁. Since Mn²⁺ and Cd²⁺ are present in our solutions, we need not consider i₃a and calcium-mediated currents. Further, many of the potential overlapping currents are time dependent, and thus should have contributed to a time-dependent component of the cesium difference current. No such time dependence was observed. We therefore feel confident in ruling out much overlap from time-dependent current components. Some cardiac currents are only activated at potentials positive to -50 mV (for example i₃a, iₖ, and iₖ₅₃). We
performed experiments at both 12.8 and 5 mM [K]o with essentially similar results in all important respects. In 5 mM [K]o the potentials studied were mostly negative to -50 mV while in 12.8 mM [K]o they extended above -50 mV.

Cesium block of potassium currents. The selectivity of the Cs+ blockade of K+ currents is of relevance to the present study since at least five potassium currents are known to exist in cardiac muscle besides iK1 (Pennefather and Cohen, 1990). These include the delayed rectifier, the acetylcholine-dependent potassium current, the ATP-sensitive potassium current, the sodium-dependent potassium current, and the calcium-activated potassium current.

The absence of time dependence in the cesium difference current, and the results in 5 mM [K+]o argue against iK1 and iKCa contamination. Our pipette [Na] was too low to activate the sodium-dependent K+ current (Kameyama et al., 1984). Similarly, the pipette ATP concentration exceeded that necessary to block ATP-sensitive potassium channels (Noma and Shibasaki, 1985).

Although low levels of spontaneous activation of iKACa have been reported to exist in cardiac myocytes, these spontaneous channel openings are only a small fraction of the total acetylcholine-induced conductance change and therefore are unlikely to represent a significant contaminant (Soejima and Noma, 1984).

Evaluation of contamination by other currents present in cardiac myocytes. The pacemaker current is time dependent and almost always absent from our Purkinje myocytes in the voltage range -50 to -100 mV (Shah et al., 1987). These characteristics preclude it from being a significant contaminant of our iK1 measurements.

Sodium window currents should not be blocked by cesium (Hille, 1975; Sheets et al., 1987). We estimate the change in window current caused by cesium permeability through the sodium channel to be ~1 pA (Oliva, 1989).

The Na/K pump is activated by external cesium as well as potassium (Glitsch et al., 1989). Given our external [K+] and the reported potency of cesium as an activator of the Na/K pump, we estimate that at 9.6°C cesium addition should increase the pump current by 3 and 1 pA at 5 and 12.8 mM [K+]o, respectively (Gadsby, 1980; Falk and Cohen, 1984; Glitsch and Pusch, 1984; Cohen et al., 1987; Glitsch et al., 1989).

Reliability of the Estimation of the Probability of the Unblocked Subunit and Comparison with Previous Estimates

Interpreting our data in terms of the new model of rectification of iK1, our experiments indicate that the probability of the unblocked subunit decreases as the membrane is depolarized and that the voltage dependence of blockade shifts according to the shift in the reversal potential of iK1. At potentials sufficiently negative to the reversal potential of iK1, the probability of the unblocked subunit attains the maximum value of 1.

The voltage dependence of the unblocked subunit that we determined was not quantitatively equivalent to the dependence described previously by Matsuda in 1988. Matsuda finds that the probability of the unblocked subunit decreases from 0.48 to 0.30 by changing the membrane potential from +50 to +70 mV (the reversal potential in these experiments was 0 mV). However, at such depolarized
potentials, we find that the probability of the unblocked subunit is much <0.1. That discrepancy could be explained by considering that Matsuda's results were obtained in the presence of only micromolar concentrations of cytoplasmic magnesium and our results were obtained when the cytoplasmic magnesium concentration was at more physiologic levels (see below). The cytoplasmic magnesium concentration in cardiac tissue has been found to be 0.4–3.5 mM (Hess et al., 1982; Blatter and McGuigan, 1986). The probability of the unblocked subunit at a given membrane depolarization decreases as the cytoplasmic magnesium concentration increases (Matsuda et al., 1987; Matsuda, 1988).

Even though in many of our experiments we had 5 mM ATP in the pipette solution, we believe that the Mg$^{2+}$ in the cell was not appreciably chelated. The reasons to believe so were as follows. First, in light of Oliva et al. (1988), a slow equilibration between the pipette and cellular contents is not unexpected. Second, the magnitude and voltage dependence of $p$ were the same whether the pipette solution had a high or low buffer capacity for Mg using ATP as the buffer. Besides, outward currents through $i_{K1}$ have been observed when the cytoplasmic magnesium concentration has been in the micromolar range (Matsuda et al., 1987), and we did not see ohmic outward tail currents attributable to $i_{K1}$ at potentials 40 mV positive to the reversal potential during the course of our experiments.

**Physiological Relevance of Mg$^{2+}$ Blockade of Open $i_{K1}$ Channels**

Our results support previous suggestions (Kurachi, 1985; Matsuda et al., 1987; Cohen et al., 1989; Pennefather and Cohen, 1990) that voltage-dependent gating of the isomerization between open and closed states of $i_{K1}$ channels accounts for most of their rectification. Negative to $E_K$, where ~80% of that rectification occurs, the change in steady-state conductance due to $i_{K1}$ is accurately described by a Boltzmann two-state model that reflects the gating process (see Fig. 6). Positive to $E_K$ there is more current than expected from such a simple model.

We have shown that in theory blockade of $i_{K1}$ channels by intracellular Mg$^{2+}$ could account for the enhancement of outward current through $i_{K1}$ channels if partial blockade of the multibarreled $i_{K1}$ channel prevents the unblocked bores of the channel from closing (see Matsuda, 1988). Therefore, instead of inducing inward rectification, Mg$^{2+}$ blockade of $i_{K1}$ channels could oppose inward rectification and could insure that there is appreciable $i_{K1}$ conductance tens of millivolts positive to $E_K$ despite strong voltage dependence of gating around $E_K$.

We have used the observed extra outward $i_{K1}$ current to predict the relation between $V$ and $p$, the probability that a bore of the triple barreled $i_{K1}$ channel is not blocked by Mg$^{2+}$. That relationship is consistent with the lack of blockade by Mg$^{2+}$ of inward currents since the relation approaches 1, 10 mV negative to $V_K$ with either 5 or 12.8 mM [K]o. The dependence of the Mg$^{2+}$ blockade on $V_K$ and the rather steep voltage dependence of that blockade (see Fig. 7) suggests that external K$^+$ is one of the determinants of the voltage dependence of $p$.

The system is finely poised for enhancing outward current through $i_{K1}$ channels. As discussed in the Theory section, the voltage dependence of Mg$^{2+}$ blockade and of activation of the $i_{K1}$ channel must be such that $p$ is not too big nor too small for any
given value of $P_g$. The fact that both parameters are a function of $(V - V_{k1})$ will ensure that the balance is maintained in the face of fluctuations of extracellular K.

APPENDIX

The kinetic schema that describes the model elaborated by Matsuda in 1988 is described in the subsection The Model of the Theory section, as are the differential equations that describe the kinetic model. What follows are the mathematical implications of setting the differential equations equal to zero. We set them equal to zero to analyze the steady-state implications of the kinetic schema:

$$0 = O_3 \beta - C \alpha \quad (1)$$

$$0 = O_3 \lambda - 3O_3 \mu + C \alpha - O_3 \beta \quad (2)$$

$$0 = 3O_3 \mu + 2O_3 \lambda - O_2 (\lambda + 2 \mu) \quad (3)$$

$$0 = 2O_2 \mu + 3O_2 \lambda - O_1 (2 \lambda + \mu) \quad (4)$$

$$0 = O_1 \mu - 3O_2 \lambda \quad (5)$$

From Eq. 1 one obtains:

$$C = O_3 \frac{\beta}{\alpha} \quad (6)$$

The result of replacing C in Eq. 2 and rearranging is:

$$O_2 = O_3 \frac{3 \mu}{\lambda} \quad (7)$$

By replacing $O_2$ from Eq. 7 into Eq. 3 and rearranging, one obtains:

$$O_1 = O_3 \frac{3 \mu^2}{\lambda^2} \quad (8)$$

By replacing $O_1$ from Eq. 8 into Eq. 5 and rearranging, one obtains:

$$O_0 = O_3 \frac{\mu^3}{\lambda^3} \quad (9)$$

We should remember that:

$$C + O_3 + O_2 + O_1 + O_0 = 1 \quad (10)$$

By replacing into Eq. 10 the expressions for the corresponding states $(C, O_3, O_2, O_1, O_0)$ shown in Eqs. 6–9 and rearranging, one obtains:

$$O_3 \left( \frac{\beta \alpha + \lambda^3 + 3 \mu \lambda^2 + 3 \mu^2 \lambda + \mu^3}{\lambda^3} \right) = 1 \quad (11)$$

We should remember that $P_g = \alpha/(\alpha + \beta)$ and $Q_g = \beta/(\alpha + \beta)$. Therefore, $Q_g/P_g = \beta/\alpha$. By replacing this ratio into Eq. 11 and rearranging, one obtains:

$$O_3 \left[ \frac{Q_g}{P_g} = \frac{(\lambda + \mu)^3}{\lambda^3} \right] = 1 \quad (12)$$
We should remember that \( p = \frac{\lambda}{\lambda + \mu} \). Therefore, \( p^3 = \left[\frac{\lambda}{\lambda + \mu}\right]^3 \). By replacing \( p^3 \) into the above equation and rearranging, one obtains:

\[
O_3 = \frac{P_g p^3}{P_k + Q_g p^3} \quad (13)
\]

By replacing the expression for \( O_3 \) from Eq. 13 into Eq. 6 and rearranging, one obtains:

\[
C = \frac{Q_g p^3}{P_k + Q_g p^3} \quad (14)
\]

By replacing the expression for \( O_3 \) from Eq. 13 into Eqs. 7-9 and rearranging, we can find the steady-state fraction of channels in states \( O_{\nu}, O_{\omega}, \) and \( O_{\alpha} \), respectively. The final expressions follow.

\[
O_\nu = \frac{3\mu P_g p^3}{\lambda (P_k + Q_g p^3)} \quad (15)
\]

\[
O_\omega = \frac{3\mu^2 P_g p^3}{\lambda^2 (P_k + Q_g p^3)} \quad (16)
\]

\[
O_\alpha = \frac{\mu^3 P_g p^3}{\lambda^3 (P_k + Q_g p^3)} \quad (17)
\]

If there are \( N \) channels in the cell, the steady-state number of channels in each of the channels states is \( N_{O_{\nu}}, N_{O_{\omega}}, N_{O_{\alpha}}, \) and \( N_{O_{\beta}} \). The channel states that conduct current are \( O_{\nu}, O_{\omega}, \) and \( O_{\alpha} \). States \( O_{\beta} \) and \( O_{\omega} \) have two thirds and one third of the conductance of state \( O_{\beta} \). Therefore, if we denote by \( g_0 \) the conductance of state \( O_{\beta} \), then the conductances of states \( O_{\beta} \) and \( O_{\omega} \) would be \( g_0(\frac{2}{3}) \) and \( g_0(\frac{1}{3}) \), respectively. To calculate the steady-state current flowing through the channels, one has to multiply the steady-state number of channels in each of the channel states by the conductance of the respective states, multiply these products by the driving force, and finally add all these products. To simplify the equations, one can neglect the channels in states \( C \) and \( O_{\alpha} \) because the conductances of these states are nil. The steady-state ensemble current is:

\[
I = g_0 N(V - V_r) \frac{P_g p^3}{P_k + Q_g p^3} \left[ 1 + \frac{2(3\mu)}{3\lambda} + \frac{3\mu^2}{3\lambda^2} \right] \quad (18)
\]

where \( (V - V_r) \) is the driving force at the voltage \( V \) if the reversal potential is \( V_r \). By rearranging, one obtains:

\[
I = g_0 N(V - V_r) \frac{P_g p^3 (\lambda + \mu)^2}{\lambda^2} \quad (19)
\]

We should remember that \( p = \frac{\lambda}{\lambda + \mu} \). Therefore, by replacing \( p \) into the above equation, one obtains:

\[
I = g_0 N(V - V_r) \frac{P_k p}{P_k + Q_g p^3} \quad (20)
\]

This is the equation we showed in the Theory section. It only remains to define \( g_0 N = G \), the maximal ensemble conductance.
Note added in proof. Since our original submission, a report has appeared which employs a similar model to that presented above (Ishihara et al. 1989. *Journal of Physiology*. 419:297–320) to explain $i_{K1}$ rectification in guinea pig ventricular myocytes based on quite different experimental protocols.

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