Selectivity and Gating of the Type L Potassium Channel in Mouse Lymphocytes

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ABSTRACT Type L voltage-gated K⁺ channels in murine lymphocytes were studied under voltage clamp in cell-attached patches and in the whole-cell configuration. The kinetics of activation of whole-cell currents during depolarizing pulses could be fit by a single exponential after an initial delay. Deactivation upon repolarization of both macroscopic and microscopic currents was mono-exponential, except in Rb-Ringer or Cs-Ringer solution in which tail currents often displayed “hooks,” wherein the current first increased or remained constant before decaying. In some cells type L currents were contaminated by a small component due to type n K⁺ channels, which deactivate ~10 times slower than type L channels. Both macroscopic and single channel currents could be dissected either kinetically or pharmacologically into these two K⁺ channel types. The ionic selectivity and conductance of type L channels were studied by varying the internal and external permeant ion. With 160 mM K⁺ in the cell, the relative permeability calculated from the reversal potential with the Goldman-Hodgkin-Katz equation was K⁺ (1.0) > Rb⁺ (0.76) > NH₄⁺ (0.12) >> Na⁺ (<0.004). Measured 30 mV negative to the reversal potential, the relative conductance sequence was quite different: NH₄⁺ (1.5) > K⁺ (1.0) > Rb⁺ (0.5) > Cs⁺ (0.06) >> Na⁺, Li⁺, TMA⁺ (unmeasurable). Single channel current rectification resembled that of the whole-cell instantaneous I-V relation. Anomalous mole-fraction dependence of the relative permeability P₅⁺/P₇⁺ was observed in NH₄⁻/K⁺ mixtures, indicating that the type L K⁺ channel is a multi-ion pore. Compared with other K⁺ channels, lymphocyte type L K⁺ channels are most similar to "g_{Lq}" channels in myelinated nerve.

INTRODUCTION

Three types of voltage-gated delayed rectifier-type K⁺ channels have been described in lymphocytes, which have been named type n, type l (DeCoursey et al., 1987a), and type n' (Lewis and Cahalan, 1988). Type n channels, the dominant delayed rectifier...
K⁺ channel in most human (DeCoursey et al., 1984; Matteson and Deutsch, 1984; Cahalan et al., 1985) and murine lymphocytes (Chandy et al., 1986; DeCoursey et al., 1987b), resemble delayed rectifier channels in skeletal muscle and some neurons in many respects, including ionic selectivity and a fivefold slowing by external Rb⁺ of deactivation kinetics (Cahalan et al., 1985). Taking into account all known properties, type l channels most closely resemble the g_{f2} component of delayed rectifier currents in frog (Dubois, 1981b; Plant, 1986; Jonas et al., 1989) and rat (Röper and Schwarz, 1989) node of Ranvier (compare Shapiro, 1990). Type l channels are easily differentiated from type n or type n' channels on the bases of kinetics, voltage dependence, single channel conductance, and sensitivities to TEA⁺ (DeCoursey et al., 1987a, b; Lewis and Cahalan, 1988) and charybdotoxin (Sands et al., 1989).

Type l channels were first described in a subset of T lymphocytes from MRL-lpr/lpr mice, in which they are the dominant ionic conductance and are present in large numbers (Chandy et al., 1986; DeCoursey et al., 1987a). This murine strain has a single gene locus mutation that gives rise to a disease resembling human systemic lupus erythematosus, and displays a hundred-fold polyclonal lymphoproliferation of a functionally and phenotypically (CD4⁻CD8⁻B220⁺) abnormal subset of T cells (Altman et al., 1981; Murphy, 1981; Wofsy et al., 1981). Type l channels are also found in some T lymphocytes from normal mice (DeCoursey et al., 1987b), in a fraction of rat type II alveolar epithelial cells (DeCoursey et al., 1988), in normal suppressor-precursor (CD4⁻CD8⁻) murine thymocytes (Lewis and Cahalan, 1988), and in the Loukès human lymphoma cell line (Shapiro and DeCoursey, 1988).

Although several properties of type l K⁺ channels have been described (DeCoursey et al., 1987a), the cation selectivity has not been previously studied. In addition to presenting this new information, we also describe more completely the kinetics of activation and deactivation. This analysis is extended in the companion paper (Shapiro and DeCoursey, 1991) to include the effects of permeant ion species on gating kinetics. In most respects, type l selectivity and permeation characteristics resemble those of voltage-gated K⁺ channels in other cells, including frog node of Ranvier (Hille, 1973), frog muscle (Gay and Stanfield, 1978), snail neuron (Reuter and Stevens, 1980), human T lymphocyte (Cahalan et al., 1985), and squid axon (Wagoner and Oxford, 1987). Considering the similarity of type l and g_{f2} channels and several advantages of the lymphocyte preparation over node of Ranvier, lpr mouse T lymphocytes may be the ideal preparation in which to study this type of K⁺ channel.

Preliminary results have been communicated in abstract form (Shapiro and DeCoursey, 1989; Shapiro, 1990).

**METHODS**

**Recording Techniques**

The composition of solutions is given in Table I. Micropipettes were pulled in several stages using a Flaming Brown automatic pipette puller (Sutter Instruments, San Rafael, CA), coated with Sylgard 184 (Dow Corning Corp., Midland, MI) and heat polished. EG-6, KG-12, or 0010 glass obtained from Garner Glass Co. (Claremont, CA), reported to have a low intrinsic noise.
(Rae and Levis, 1984), formed tight seals (5-30 GΩ) with lymphocyte membranes. Pipette tip resistances measured in Ringer solution ranged between 2 and 5 MΩ. Electrical contact with the pipette solution was achieved by a small sintered Ag-AgCl pellet (In Vivo Metric Systems, Healdsburg, CA) attached to a silver wire covered by a Teflon tube. Pipette and initial bath solutions were filtered at 0.2 μm (Millipore Corp., Bedford, MA). A reference electrode made from a Ag-AgCl pellet was connected to the bath through an agar bridge saturated with Ringer solution. The current signal from the patch clamp (Axopatch-1B, modified to be a 1C; Axon Instruments, Burlingame, CA) was recorded and analyzed using an Indec Laboratory Data Acquisition and Display System (Indec Corp., Sunnyvale, CA). Cells were visualized with a modified Nikon Labophot (Fryer Instruments, Carpentersville, IL), equipped with Hoffmann contrast optics.

**TABLE 1**

### Solutions

| Extracellular (bath) solutions | Na⁺ | K⁺ | Ca²⁺ | Mg²⁺ | Cl⁻ | HEPES |
|-------------------------------|-----|----|------|------|-----|------|
| Name                          | mM  |    |      |      |     |      |
| Ringer                        | 160 | 4.5| 2    | 1    | 170.5| 10   |
| K⁺-Ringer                     | 0   | 160| 2    | 1    | 170.5| 10   |
| X⁺-Ringer                     | 0   | 0  | 2    | 1    | 170.5| 10   |
| *Rb⁺, Cs⁺, NH⁺, Na⁺, Li⁺, and TMA⁺* Ringer solutions were identical to K⁺-Ringer solution with all the K⁺ replaced by the chloride salt of the appropriate cation. Solutions were titrated to pH 7.4 with the hydroxide of the predominant cation or with tetramethylammonium hydroxide (TMAOH) for Rb⁺-Ringer solution and Rb⁺ mixtures. Hepes is [4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazineethane-sulfonic acid]. |

| Intracellular (pipette) solutions | K⁺ | Cl⁻ | F⁻ | CH₃SO₃⁻ | Mg²⁺ | Ca²⁺ | EGTA | HEPES |
|-----------------------------------|----|-----|----|--------|------|------|------|------|
| Name                              | mM |     |    |        |      |      |      |      |
| KCH₃SO₃                             | 162| 6   | 0  | 140    | 2    | 1    | 10   | 10   |
| KF/Cl                              | 162| 76  | 70 | 0      | 2    | 1    | 11   | 10   |
| KCH₃SO₃/F                          | 162| 6   | 40 | 100    | 2    | 1    | 10   | 10   |
| RbF/Cl*                            | 0  | 80  | 80 | 0      | 0    | 0    | 0    | 5    |
| CsF/Cl                             | 0  | 80  | 80 | 0      | 0    | 0    | 0    | 5    |

Solutions were titrated to pH 7.2 with the hydroxide of the permeant cation or with TMAOH for the Rb⁺ solution. EGTA is ethylene glycol bis-(β-aminoethyl ether) N,N,N',N'-tetraacetic acid. Estimated free Ca²⁺ concentration is <43 nM for all solutions, and free Mg²⁺ concentration is <50 nM for fluoride-containing solutions, and 1.9 mM for KCH₃SO₃. *Plus 160 mM Rb⁺ '*Plus 160 mM Cs⁺.*

A Klinger system manipulator (Klinger Instruments, Richmond Hill, NY) with a DC stepping motor attached was used for fine positioning of patch electrodes. Lymphocytes did not adhere to the bottom of the glass recording chamber; seals were made by bringing the pipette close to a cell and then quickly turning on the suction, sucking the cell onto the pipette tip. A typical suction pressure used to form seals was ~5 inches of water. In general, seals were easy to make using this technique. To achieve whole-cell configuration (Hamill et al., 1981), strong suction was applied to the pipette. Lymphocyte input resistances were very high, typically 20 GΩ or more, in the whole-cell configuration at the holding potential, \( V_{holding} = -80 \text{ mV} \). Often, the whole-cell input resistance was greater than the pipette seal resistance. Upon seal formation,
the pipette capacity was cancelled with the Axopatch circuitry; after breaking into the cell, the whole-cell capacity transient (typically ~0.7 pF) was nulled. The series resistance read from the dial was usually 2–6 MΩ and was fairly stable throughout the course of the experiment. Series resistance compensation with the Axopatch 1 series clamp can sometimes be problematical and was used only if very large currents were encountered, e.g., with 160 mM K-Ringer solution in the bath.

Most experiments were done at room temperature (19–26°C), with the bath temperature monitored continuously by a thin-film platinum RTD (resistance temperature detector) element (Omega Engineering, Stamford, CT), and the temperature was stored along with each data run. In some early experiments the room temperature alone was recorded, and the bath temperature was assumed to be 3°C cooler, reflecting measured evaporative heat loss from the bath. A few experiments were done at lower temperatures (8–15°C), with the bath temperature controlled by feedback with Peltier devices (Teca, Chicago, IL).

Data were recorded and analyzed using the SAP/ANAL family of programs written by Dr. Richard S. Lewis (Stanford University, CA), in the BASIC-23 language developed for the Indec computer system. Leak and capacity subtraction was accomplished in SAP using a P/n subthreshold protocol where m pulses l/n the amplitude of the test pulses are applied immediately before the test pulse, where m and n are user-controlled; the leak pulses are averaged, scaled up, and subtracted from the test pulse, thereby allowing the linear leak and residual capacity to be subtracted from the data records.

Most chemicals were purchased from Sigma Chemical Co. (St. Louis, MO) or Aldrich Chemical Co. (Milwaukee, WI). Sigma Chemical Co. has determined that their CsCl contains <0.01% K⁺ or Na⁺ as contaminants, so 160 mM Cs-Ringer solution contains <16 μM K⁺. Crude *Leiurus quinquestriatus hebraeus* scorpion venom was purchased from Sigma Chemical Co.

### Junction Potentials

Data were recorded with a correction for the junction potential that arises when there is an interface between dissimilar salt solutions. Junction potentials arising (a) between the pipette solution and the bath solution and (b) between the bath (reference) electrode and the bath solution were calculated using the Henderson equation (1907), assuming linear mixing of solutions at the interface. Mobilities were taken from Robinson and Stokes (1965), or derived from equivalent ionic conductances extrapolated to infinite dilution (Vanysek, 1987). Electrode drift during long experiments was checked by measuring the reversal potential periodically in a standard solution (usually Ringer or K-Ringer solution; reversal potentials were measured after all solution changes) and by breaking the pipette tip at the end of an experiment. When significant drift was detected (i.e., > 5 mV), potentials were corrected according to the nearest time point.

### Cells

MRL/MpJ-lpr/lpr mice were purchased from Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, ME). The greatly enlarged lymph nodes were isolated from mice killed by cervical dislocation. A few experiments were done on spleen cells. Cells were separated by rubbing the nodes between two frosted glass slides and then filtering the suspension through a coarse nylon mesh. Cells were incubated in RPMI media (Hazelton Biologicals, St. Lenexa, KS), with added 10% FCS (Gibco Laboratories, Grand Island, NY), 2 mM glutamine, 1% penicillin/streptomycin, and incubated in 5% CO₂ at 37°C. The pH of the media was adjusted immediately before use with HCl. A fraction of the isolated cells was frozen for future use in a 20% FCS, 5% DMSO freezing medium and stored either in liquid N₂ or in a freezer at −80°C. Some of the data presented here were from thawed cells; type I currents in these cells were indistinguishable from those in freshly isolated
lymphocytes. A few experiments included here were done on the human B cell lymphocytic Louckes cell line (generously provided by Drs. D. Wang and E. Kieff, Harvard University, Boston, MA).

**RESULTS**

The majority of lymphocytes studied from diseased lpr mice had large numbers of type l K⁺ channels. The average saturating chord conductance in Ringer solution (Table I) was 4.9 ± 3.2 nS (mean ± SD, n = 41) and 11.2 ± 7.2 nS (n = 34) in 160 mM K-Ringer solution. This K conductance, $g_K$, corresponds to on the order of 300 type l K⁺ channels in a cell with an input capacity of only 0.7 pF. The $g_K$ is much greater than that of normal murine lymphocytes, but typical of the large type l $g_K$ in T cells from mice with the lpr mutation (Chandy et al., 1986; DeCoursey et al., 1987a; Grissmer et al., 1988). Some lymphocytes displayed only small type n currents, with peak K⁺ currents corresponding to ~10 channels per cell. Many of the cells with type l currents also displayed type n currents, of approximately the same magnitude as cells with only type n currents. The two types of K⁺ currents can be unambiguously identified by tail current kinetics as well as by several other characteristics (DeCoursey et al., 1987a); in all cells included in this study both tail current kinetics and a test for accumulation of inactivation during rapid depolarizing pulse trains were used to confirm the identity of the channel type.

Fig. 1 A shows a family of typical type l currents with KCH₃SO₄ in the pipette and Ringer solution in the bath, recorded during 200-ms depolarizations to potentials from −50 to +60 mV. In this experiment and in all other data obtained in the whole-cell configuration except where indicated, K⁺ was the only intracellular monovalent cation. Current–voltage (Fig. 1 B) and conductance–voltage curves (Fig. 1 C) from this experiment illustrate that type l currents are activated by depolarization, first turning on at approximately −20 mV, with half-activation near 0 mV under these conditions.

In Fig. 2, analogous families of currents are shown for cells wherein the only external monovalent cation was K⁺, Rb⁺, NH₄⁺, or Cs⁺ (Fig. 2, A–D, respectively). It should be noted that all upward currents are outward and are thus carried by the K⁺ in the cell; only the inward currents in K⁺ and Rb⁺ negative to the reversal potential, $V_{rev}$, are carried by the extracellular permeant ion, as are the inward tail currents in all four solutions when the cell is repolarized to the holding potential of −80 mV. It is apparent in this figure that tail currents in K⁺ and NH₄⁺ are fast, those in Rb⁺ are much slower, and tails in Cs⁺ are slow and very small in amplitude. A full treatment of the effect of permeating ion species on deactivation kinetics of type l currents is presented in the companion paper (Shapiro and DeCoursey, 1991).

**Separation of Type l and Type n K⁺ Currents**

Most cells displayed tail currents that had a small slow component as well as a large fast component. We interpret these slower components as reflecting the presence in these cells of some type n channels, which close slowly, in addition to the dominant type l channels, which close 10 times more quickly. Currents from a cell with an exceptionally large type n component are shown in Fig. 3 A. A short depolarizing
FIGURE 1. Typical family of type I currents in a lymphocyte with KCl, SO₄ in the pipette and Ringer solution in the bath. (A) Superimposed are currents recorded during 200-ms depolarizing pulses applied from \( V_{\text{hold}} = -80 \) mV to potentials from -50 through 60 mV in 10-mV increments. (B) Peak current-voltage relationship in the same experiment. (C) Peak chord conductance-voltage curve assuming \( V_{\text{rev}} = -85 \) mV. The smooth curve is a least squares Boltzmann fit given by: 
\[
g_K (\text{nS}) = \frac{8.66}{1 + \exp \left[ \frac{(7.4-V)/6.86} \right]} \quad (V \text{ in mV}).
\]
Input capacity of the cell was 0.7 pF, input resistance was 25 GΩ at \( V_{\text{hold}} \), 1 s between pulses, P/4 leak subtraction, no series resistance compensation used, sample interval \( (I) = 458 \) μs, filter = 500 Hz, 2.1 min after establishing whole-cell configuration. Cell No. 29.

pre-pulse was applied to maximally open K⁺ channels and then the cell was repolarized to the holding potential where channel closing can be observed as a “tail” current. Traces are shown before and after the addition to the bath of 278 μg/ml Leirus quinquestriatus hebraeus scorpion venom, which contains the potent K⁺ channel blocker charybdotoxin. Type \( n \), but not type I channels, are blocked by charybdotoxin (Sands et al., 1989); the unpurified venom is also very effective at separating the two channel types. The presence of type \( n \) channels was detected also by a “shoulder” in the \( g-V \) curve \(-30 \) mV negative to the larger type I component. In Fig. 3 B, \( g-V \)
curves from the same cell as in Fig. 3A are superimposed before and after addition of venom. The amplitude of the slow component in the tail current roughly correlates with the size of the shoulder in the g-V relation. *Leiurus* venom at 10 μg/ml was found to be sufficient to completely abolish the type n component. This concentration of venom was added to solutions in some later experiments, but when added to the pipette solution seals were not obtained.

**Open-Channel Rectification and Selectivity**

*Macroscopic.* Instantaneous current-voltage relations (I-V's) were obtained with K⁺ in the cell under whole-cell voltage clamp for each of the four permeant ions by

![Image of current families with different permeant ions in the bath and K⁺ in the cell.](image-url)
applying a prepulse to a potential at which the channels opened maximally (typically 40 mV) and then stepping to various test potentials, as shown schematically in Fig. 4 D. At negative test potentials where the channels close, the deactivation (tail) transient fit by eye to a single exponential was extrapolated back to zero time; at positive potentials, the current at the start of the test pulse was recorded. These I-Vs presumably reflect single channel rectification in the presence of each bathing ion. Instantaneous I-Vs are shown in Fig. 4 A for a cell with Ringer solution in the bath, and then when the bath was changed to K-Ringer or Rb-Ringer solution. The I-V in Ringer solution is gently concave over the range of −120 to 50 mV and reverses at

![Figure 3](image)

**Figure 3.** (A) Block of type n component of K⁺ current by *Leiurus quinquestratus hebraeus* venom. Whole-cell currents recorded during a 15-ms pre-pulse to 33 mV to maximally open channels and after repolarization to −87 mV where channel closing is observed. This cell has significant numbers of both type l and type n channels. The addition of 278 µg/ml *Leiurus* venom to the bath blocks the slowly deactivating type n component, leaving the fast-closing type l channels unaffected. The fitted time constant (τtail) after addition of venom is 1.0 ms; the tail before venom was fit by a double exponential with fast component τ of 1.0 ms and slow component τ of 14.8 ms. Cell No. 143. (B) Elimination of the type n "shoulder" in the g-V relation by *Leiurus* venom. Curves are shown before (▲) and after (■) addition of venom. The type n component produces a shoulder in the curve around −30 mV. The "after" curve has been corrected by −12 mV due to an observed intrinsic voltage shift of the type l voltage dependence with time in whole-cell perfusion (see companion paper, Fig. 1).

−88 mV, near *E*K. In symmetrical K⁺, the I-V displays strong inward rectification, resulting in large inward currents at negative potentials. In cells studied under this condition, the slope conductance was typically about twice as large at negative than at positive potentials. With Rb⁺ in the bath the I-V displays little rectification and reverses a few mV negative to *V*rev in K-Ringer solution, indicating that *P*Rb (0.76, Table II) is only slightly lower than *P*K.

In Fig. 4 B, I-Vs are shown for a cell first in K-Ringer solution and then in NH₄-Ringer solution. The shape of the I-V for NH₄⁺ is strikingly different from that in K⁺. In NH₄⁺, the I-V displays strong inward rectification around *V*rev, but the slope conductance decreases at more negative potentials. The slope conductance at *V*rev,
-30 mV is one and a half times greater for NH$_4^+$ than for K$^+$, even though the reversal potential of -55 mV in NH$_4$-Ringer solution indicates that NH$_4^+$ has a relative permeability only one-eighth that of K$^+$ (Table II). In other words, the relative permeability and relative conductance for NH$_4^+$ are very dissimilar.

Instantaneous $I$-$V$s in another cell are shown in Fig. 4 C, with Ringer, K-Ringer and Cs-Ringer solutions sequentially in the bath. Profound inward rectification in K-Ringer solution is especially evident in this cell, although the precise amplitude of

![Figure 4](image-url)

**Figure 4.** Instantaneous current-voltage relations for different external permeant ions. (A) Ringer (○), K-Ringer (■), and Rb-Ringer solution (▲). (B) K-Ringer (■) and NH$_4$-Ringer solution (▲). (C) K-Ringer (■), Ringer (○), and Cs-Ringer solution (▲). (D) Protocol used to obtain instantaneous current-voltage relations: a brief pre-pulse is applied to 40 mV to maximally open channels and then a test pulse is applied to the indicated range of potentials. All data are corrected for junction potentials and currents are leak-subtracted, as described in Methods. (A) Cell No. 140, (B) 57, (C) 111.

the current at strongly negative potentials is somewhat approximate because of the dependence on exact series resistance compensation necessitated by the large magnitude of the current. In Cs-Ringer solution, $V_{rev}$ is -55 mV, the same as that in NH$_4^+$, so by this criterion these ions have the same relative permeability (Table II); however, inward Cs$^+$ currents are very small. Even when the $I$-$V$ in Cs$^+$ is scaled up so that the outward currents are the same, the relative conductance for Cs$^+$ ions is only a small fraction of that for NH$_4^+$. Evidence that the inward currents in Cs-Ringer
solution are type l currents includes their block by 2 mM TEA+ and the lack of any other inward conductance in lpr lymphocytes (e.g., Na+ or Ca2+ currents). Contamination of Cs+ by trace K+ is too low to account for the observed currents (see Methods).

After replacement of all bathing K+ with Cs+, both inward and outward currents are greatly reduced (▼, Fig. 4 C). The reduction of outward currents is much greater than that predicted by the Goldman-Hodgkin-Katz current equation. In other experiments, washout of Cs-Ringer with Ringer or K-Ringer solution only partially restored the current. Apparently Cs-Ringer solution in the bath does not simply block the current but rather irreversibly reduces the number of functioning channels. This interpretation is supported by single channel measurements in the on-cell patch configuration, in which outward currents carried by K+ from the cell with Cs+ in the pipette were as large as when K+-containing pipette solutions were used (Fig. 5, compare A and C). Profound rundown was also seen with K-free Na-Ringer solution (data not shown), but not with the other three permeant ions studied. Perhaps type l channels need external permeant ions to remain functional, a need only partially satisfied by 160 mM Cs+. Analogous phenomena occur in squid delayed rectifier (Chandler and Meves, 1970; Almers and Armstrong, 1980).

Table II summarizes the selectivity data for experiments with K+ in the cell. The sequence of relative permeability calculated from \( V_{rev} \) measured under bi-ionic conditions using the Goldman-Hodgkin-Katz equation is K+ (≈1.0) > Rb+ (0.76) > NH4+, Cs+ (0.12) > Na+, Li+ (<0.005). The conductance sequence measured at \( V_{rev} \) was estimated by scaling the inward Cs+ currents by the ratio of outward currents in Ringer before and after the Cs+ measurement.

### Table II

| Ion       | \( P_w \) | \( g_{sw} \) | N  |
|-----------|-----------|--------------|----|
| K+        | ≈1.0      | ≈1.0         | –  |
| Rb+       | 0.76      | 0.5          | 7  |
| NH4+      | 0.12      | 1.5          | 5  |
| Cs+       | 0.12      | <0.06*       | 6  |
| Na+       | <0.005    | Undefined    | 2  |

Relative permeabilities, \( P_{w} \), were calculated from reversal potentials \( V_{rev} \), with K+ as the monovalent cation in the intracellular (pipette) solution under whole-cell clamp and the Ringer of the indicated ion in the bath. From \( V_{rev} \) in bi-ionic conditions, the permeability relative to that of K+ was calculated using the Goldman-Hodgkin-Katz equation: \( V_{rev} = \frac{RT}{2F} \ln \left( \frac{[A]_o P_A/[B]_o P_B} {1} \right) \), where [A]_o and [B]_o are the concentrations of the external and internal permeant ions, respectively, \( P_A \) and \( P_B \) are the permeabilities, \( R \) is the gas constant, \( T \) is the temperature (°K), \( z \) is the valence, which is one, and \( F \) is Faraday's constant. For the case of internal K+, \( P_A/P_B \) is the relative permeability. Relative conductances, \( g_{w} \), are the slope conductances measured 30 mV negative to the reversal potential. This measurement of conductance was chosen to reflect the ability of the external permeant ion to carry current. Since the \( I-V \) for each ion rectifies differently, measuring \( g_{w} \) at another potential would result in somewhat different values.

*Because currents were irreversibly diminished in Cs-Ringer (see text), \( g_{w} \) was estimated by scaling the inward Cs+ currents by the ratio of outward currents in Ringer before and after the Cs+ measurement.
−30 mV is different: NH₄⁺ (1.5) > K⁺ (≡1.0) > Rb⁺ (0.5) > Cs⁺ (0.06) ≫ Na⁺. Relative permeabilities and conductances are often different, but NH₄⁺ seems anomalous with $g_{NH}$ at least 10 times greater than $P_{NH}$, (both relative to K⁺), while the relative conductances of Rb⁺ and Cs⁺ are lower than their respective relative permeabilities.

It is of interest to know whether ionic permeability is the same regardless of the side of the membrane on which the ion is present. In one cell of those studied with RbF/Cl in the pipette (and thus Rb⁺ as the intracellular permeant ion), $P_{Rb}$ was 0.82, similar to $P_{Rb}$ measured with Rb-Ringer solution in the bath. The I-V in symmetrical

Rb⁺ was approximately linear (data not shown). Most of the successful experiments with Cs⁺ in the pipette were done with the human B cell Louckes cell line, which also have type I K⁺ channels (Shapiro and DeCoursey, 1988). $P_{Cs}$ estimated from $V_{rev}$ in Louckes cells with Cs⁺ internally and K⁺ externally was 0.13, indistinguishable from $P_{Cs}$ with K⁺ internally and Cs⁺ externally. In cells studied with NH₄⁺ in the pipette, seals were poor, and large leak currents in the whole-cell configuration precluded good estimates of $V_{rev}$. In summary, under the conditions studied, permeability ratios appear to be independent of which side of the membrane the ions were present.
Microscopic. We investigated the single open channel current-voltage relation \(i-V\) in on-cell patches with \(K^+\), \(Rb^+\), or \(Cs^+\) in the pipette. Currents were recorded during voltage ramps from positive to negative potentials. Type \(l\) channels typically are open at the start of the ramp and stay open for a variable time before closing as the ramp potential goes negative. We used only on-cell data where the resting potential appeared to be fairly steady; the bath solution used in these experiments was K-Ringer in order to “clamp” the resting potential near 0 mV. Fig. 5 shows average leak-subtracted \(i-V\)s assembled from many ramps, with 160 mM \(K^+\), 160 mM \(Rb^+\), or 160 mM \(Cs^+\) in the pipette (Figs. 5, A–C, respectively). A much faster ramp rate was used for measurements with \(K^+\) in the pipette than with \(Rb^+\) or \(Cs^+\) since the channel closes much faster with \(K^+\) as the external permeant ion (Fig. 2 and companion paper). With high \(K^+\) concentrations on both sides of the membrane the channel rectifies inwardly, with a slope conductance of \(~36\ \text{pS at } -100 \text{ mV} \), decreasing to \(~23\ \text{pS at } 60 \text{ mV} \). When the pipette contained \(Rb^+\), the \(i-V\) exhibited little rectification, with a slope conductance of \(~15\ \text{pS at negative potentials} \) (where \(Rb^+\) is the charge carrier) and \(~18\ \text{pS at positive potentials} \). Thus with \(K^+\) or \(Rb^+\) in the pipette, single channel rectification resembles that of the macroscopic instantaneous \(I-V\) relation in K-Ringer or Rb-Ringer solutions, respectively. For inward currents at negative potentials the \(Rb^+\) conductance, \(g_{Rb}\), is slightly less than half of \(g_{K}\), again comparable to \(g_{Rb}/g_{K}\) estimated from macroscopic \(I-V\) measurements. The outward current with \(Cs^+\) in the pipette (Fig. 5 C) at large positive potentials is as large as the outward current at comparable potentials with \(K^+\) in the pipette. Evidently, \(Cs^+\) in the external solution does not interfere with \(K^+\) efflux through type \(l\) channels. No inward \(Cs^+\) current could be resolved at the single channel level. Scaled from the macroscopic \(I-V\) in Cs-Ringer solution, single channel inward \(Cs^+\) current at \(-100 \text{ mV} \) would be 0.05 pA, well below the resolution of our measurements.

Mole-fraction dependent permeabilities. Multi-ion channels may exhibit anomalous mole fraction effects (e.g., Hille and Schwarz, 1978). We studied the mole fraction dependence of the \(NH_4^+\) permeability in \(K^+\)-\(NH_4^+\) mixtures because both ions carry large currents, and the reversal potentials in isotonic \(K^+\) or \(NH_4^+\) differ by a large amount. Fig. 6 summarizes the results. The permeability ratio \(P_{NH_4}/P_K\) is \(0.12 \pm 0.02\) (mean \(\pm\) SD in four cells) in 160 mM \(NH_4\)-Ringer solution, but falls to a value less than half that in 20 \(K^+\), 140 \(NH_4^+\), \(0.032 \pm 0.019\) \((n = 3)\), which is significantly smaller \((P < 0.005)\). As the fractional \(K^+\) concentration is increased further, \(P_{NH_4}/P_K\) increases again, although at the high \(K^+\) end the absolute size of changes in \(V_{rev}\) becomes small and hard to quantify. There is thus a minimum in the permeability ratio for \(NH_4^+\)-\(K^+\) mixtures. We found no obvious minimum in the relation between mole fraction and conductance, however. Some measurements were made in \(K^+\)-\(Rb^+\) mixtures, but because of the small total range of \(V_{rev}\) encompassed by a complete change from K-Ringer to Rb-Ringer solution, we could not determine whether \(P_{Rb}\) varies with mole fraction.

Type \(l\) Kinetics: Macroscopic

Activation kinetics. Type \(l\) current activation could not be fit by traditional Hodgkin-Huxley (1952) \(n^4\) kinetics, unlike type \(n\) currents in lymphocytes (Cahalan et al.,
1985), and in fact was poorly fit by any one order of exponential over the entire voltage range studied, consistent with earlier work (DeCoursey et al., 1987a). Activation was well fitted, however, at all potentials by a variable short delay followed by a single exponential, as illustrated in the right inset in Fig. 7. The time constants of these single exponentials are the $\tau_{\text{act}}$ data plotted in Fig. 7. The rate of activation was voltage dependent, with $\tau_{\text{act}}$ decreasing $e$-fold in ~20 mV between the peak and 60 mV more positive (filled symbols), with an increasingly gradual decrease in $\tau_{\text{act}}$ at more positive potentials, and apparently approaching a limiting value at >100 mV positive to the half-activation potential.

The delays needed to fit the rising phase of type $l$ currents were also voltage dependent, becoming shorter with increasing depolarization. Delays were somewhat less precisely defined by the data, but their voltage dependence could be generally described as exponential, decreasing $e$-fold for ~75 mV depolarization. Since the voltage dependence of the delay is less steep than that of $\tau_{\text{act}}$, especially for moderate depolarizations, the ratio of the delay to $\tau_{\text{act}}$ increases with depolarization.

**Deactivation kinetics.** We quantified the deactivation kinetics of type $l$ currents by fitting tail currents to an exponential curve by eye. The left inset of Fig. 7 illustrates an outward tail current (dotted curve) recorded in Ringer solution at -40 mV with a fitted single exponential (solid curve). Most tail currents were fit well with a single exponential if adequate series resistance compensation had been used. In cells in which there was a significant fraction of type $n$ (slow-closing) channels, a double exponential curve was fit to the tail currents, with the faster component corresponding to the type $l$ channels, as was demonstrated in Fig. 3. The deactivation time constant, $\tau_{\text{del}}$, for type $l$ currents was voltage dependent, decreasing monotonically at more negative potentials (half-filled symbols, Fig. 7). The voltage dependence was
steepest between −20 and −70 mV, changing e-fold in ∼25 mV and became more gradual at strongly negative potentials. The τ-V curve is approximately bell-shaped.

The voltage dependence of type I channel gating was not constant but shifted with time after achieving whole-cell configuration. The two sets of deactivation and activation time constants in Fig. 7 were obtained at different times after achieving whole-cell configuration in Ringer solution. In this experiment, both activation and deactivation time constants shifted to the left, although τ_{act} seems somewhat more profoundly shifted. In cells subjected to this analysis, many displayed voltage shifts in

![Figure 7](image_url)

**Figure 7.** Voltage-dependence of activation (filled symbols) and deactivation (half-filled) time constants at 7 (○) and 40 (■) min in whole-cell. Activation time constants were fit to a single exponential after a short delay, as illustrated in the right inset. Superimposed in the right inset are a current record from a 12-ms pulse to +60 mV (solid curve) and the fitted curve (dotted line; τ_{act} = 2.25 ms, delay = 1.1 ms, amplitude = 1,392 pA). The “delay” in this fit is the interval from the capacity blip, indicating the start of the pulse, up to the arrow. Activation kinetics at all potentials were well fit using this approach. In the left inset are superimposed a current record from the tail pulse to −40 mV (dots) and the exponential fit (solid curve; I_{p} 425 pA, τ 3.8 ms). Pipette KCH_{3}SO_{4}/F, bath Ringer solution, filter 5 kHz, 19-20°C, cell No. 78.

both activation and deactivation, with activation shifts somewhat more pronounced, while in others, τ_{tail} was not detectably shifted. This spontaneous shift in the voltage dependence of gating is explored in more detail in the Methods of the companion paper (Shapiro and DeCoursey, 1991).

**Hooks.** Inward tail currents in Cs-Ringer and Rb-Ringer solution displayed “hooks,” i.e., the tail current first increased or remained constant before decaying exponentially. The early part of the tail currents at several potentials is illustrated for a cell in Rb-Ringer solution in Fig. 8A and another cell in Cs-Ringer solution in Fig.
The hooks are especially pronounced in Cs-Ringer solution, in which the current distinctly increases before decaying exponentially. In Rb-Ringer solution the hook usually appears as a delay or flat part before the exponential decline of the current. At lower temperatures (8–10°C) hooks in Rb⁺ also had a distinct rising phase. Hooked tail currents in both Cs⁺ and Rb⁺ were well fit by the sum of two exponentials, one rising and one falling (data not shown). The hooks are not due to a capacitance artifact or the result of contamination by another conductance since:

(a) hooks were seen in experiments in which there was no evidence of a series resistance problem (i.e., the tail currents in K-Ringer solution, which are larger than those in Rb-Ringer solution, decayed monoexponentially; hooks were most pronounced in Cs-Ringer solution in which currents were smallest and therefore least likely to have series resistance problems); (b) hooked tail currents in Cs-Ringer solution were abolished when 2 mM TEA was added to the bath (data not shown); (c) hooked tail currents in Rb-Ringer solution were abolished when 2 mM TEA was added to the bath (data not shown); (d) hooks were seen in Rb⁺ in experiments done at low temperatures, in which case the relative amplitude and kinetics of the hooks were scaled approximately along with those of the decaying component of tail currents. Hooks were not detected in Ringer, K-Ringer, or NH₄-Ringer solutions. Mechanisms that might give rise to hooks are presented in the Discussion.

Single-channel deactivation. Microscopic closing kinetics were studied in on-cell patches as for the whole-cell currents; i.e., by applying a brief depolarizing prepulse to open channels in the patch and then stepping back to hyperpolarizing potentials where closing is observed. The resting potential was "clamped" near 0 mV by having K-Ringer solution in the bath. Fig. 9 illustrates an experiment with a patch containing several type l channels and at least one type n channel with a Ca-free, 160

![Figure 8](image-url)
mM K⁺ solution in the pipette. We were unable to form tight seals with Ca-containing solutions (such as Ringer or K-Ringer solution). These permeant ionic conditions presumably correspond to the whole-cell case of high K⁺ on both sides. Three current records are shown in A. In the first two records, two (top) or one (middle) type I channels were open at the end of the prepulse and then quickly closed upon repolarization to −70 mV. Type I channels characteristically close quickly and tend to stay closed. For example, in this experiment, out of 72 type I events only four distinct reopenings were observed at −70 mV. Since type I channels close rapidly anyway upon hyperpolarization, brief reopenings could have been missed. Type I events were distinguished from type n events, an example of which is shown in the bottom record, by their greater unitary amplitude and their relatively flicker-free openings. The type I open-time histogram from many closing events in Fig. 9 B is fit by a single exponential with a time constant, τ, of 0.81 ms.

Ensemble currents from the experiment in Fig. 9 are shown in Fig. 10 A, in which only the events interpreted to be type I were included. Superimposed on the ensemble trace in A is a single exponential fitted by eye, with τ equal to 0.76 ms. The record is very well fit by the line, and the time constant is nearly identical to that fit to the open-time histogram. The ensemble current for all traces from this experiment is

![Figure 9](image-url)
shown in Fig. 10 B. The total ensemble in B was well-fit by adding a second slower exponential ($\tau = 7.2$ ms) to the fast component, which has a time constant (0.83 ms) similar to that in Fig. 10 A. The slower component represents the closing of type n channels that occasionally opened during the recordings. The similarity of the type l ensemble time constant to the open-time histogram corroborates the observation that type l channels rarely reopen after closing. After recording on-cell data from this cell, the patch was ruptured and whole-cell currents were recorded. The cell proved to have large type l currents, with only small type n currents. Fig. 10 C shows a whole-cell tail current to $-70$ mV, fit with a large fast exponential ($\tau_{\text{fast}} = 0.97$ ms) and a small slow component ($\tau_{\text{slow}} = 9.8$ ms). The ratio ($l/n$) of time constants in whole-cell (0.10) is similar to that seen in the patch (0.11). Thus whole-cell and

![Ensemble currents, from the data in Fig. 9, including only events judged to be type l (A) or all events (B). Whole-cell configuration was achieved after acquiring on-cell data; a whole-cell tail current to $-70$ mV with K-Ringer solution (2 mM Ca$^{2+}$) in the bath is shown in C. Superimposed on the data (dots) are exponential curves (solid lines) adjusted by eye, fit with one exponential (A, $\tau = 0.76$ ms), or to a fast plus a slow exponential (B, $\tau_1 = 0.83$ ms, $\tau_2 = 7.24$ ms; C, $\tau_1 = 0.97$ ms, $\tau_2 = 9.8$ ms). The fast and slow components are due to the closing of type l and type n channels, respectively (compare Fig. 3).](image)

single-channel closing kinetics agree; single type l channels apparently close in the presence of only a few nanomolar external Ca$^{2+}$, with kinetics similar to those of tail currents in the whole-cell configuration with 2 mM Ca$^{2+}$ in the bath.

**DISCUSSION**

**Selectivity and Permeation**

The relative cation permeability of type l channels presented in Table II is similar to that reported previously for delayed rectifier K$^+$ channels in a variety of preparations (Hille, 1973; Gay and Stanfield, 1978; Coronado et al., 1984; Cahalan et al., 1985; Kawa, 1987; Lucero and Pappone, 1989). These studies report relative permeabilities
of 0.63–0.95 for Rb⁺ and 0.10–0.18 for NH₄⁺. Type l channels appear to differ from other K⁺ channels in having a $P_C$ as large as $P_{NH_4}$, 0.12, while in most other preparations $P_C$ is substantially lower.

The relative conductance reported here for Rb⁺ (0.5, Table II) is similar to that found in previous work on delayed rectifiers (estimated at $V_{rev} \approx -30$ mV from their figures) in myelinated nerve: 0.5 (Århem, 1980) and 0.69 (Plant, 1986); and in brown fat cells: 0.47 (Lucero and Pappone, 1989); but somewhat higher than that in squid: 0.25–0.31 (Swenson and Armstrong, 1981; Matteson and Swenson, 1986). In Cs-Ringer solution, small but well-defined inward tail currents carried by Cs⁺ through type l K⁺ channels were seen. Some other delayed rectifier K⁺ channels allow weak Cs⁺ currents (e.g., Gay and Stanfield, 1978; Cahalan et al., 1985; Hadley and Hume, 1990), while most investigators report negligible Cs⁺ permeation (Pickard et al., 1964; Bezanilla and Armstrong, 1972; Hille, 1973; Coronado et al., 1984; Lucero and Pappone, 1989).

The surprisingly high NH₄⁺ conductance through type l channels (1.5 times $g_K$ at $V_{rev} \approx -30$ mV), is a value well beyond nearly all previous results on K⁺ channels. Interestingly, NH₄⁺ was the only one of several dozen monovalent cations tested in endplate channels that had a greater conductance (relative to Na⁺) than expected from independence or from permeability ratios (Adams et al., 1981). The decrease in slope conductance of the $I-V$ in NH₄⁺ at large negative potentials is reminiscent of "self-block" by TI⁺ (Wagoner and Oxford, 1987). We do not know if this is a true property of the single channel $I-V$ at this NH₄⁺ concentration (160 mM), because we were unable to form seals on lymphocytes with NH₄-containing pipette solutions. It is also conceivable that there is some unusual gating process seen only in NH₄⁺, or that external Ca²⁺ blocks only in NH₄-Ringer solution. A speculative interpretation is that the permeation of NH₄⁺ ($pK_a$ of NH₄⁺ = 9.24) protonates a channel residue in or near the pore (at a site inaccessible to buffer molecules) and so the block at negative potentials in NH₄-Ringer solution is equivalent to proton block of Na⁺ channels in low pH solutions (Woodhull, 1973) and in other K⁺ channels (Hille, 1968; Drouin and The, 1969). This idea is also consistent with the 15 mV right-shift of the $g-V$ curve in NH₄-Ringer solution (companion paper).

The whole-cell instantaneous current-voltage relations ($I-V$s) described in this study are a measure of the ability of the permeant ion present to carry current as a function of voltage. These $I-V$s will precisely reflect relative unitary conductance under different ionic conditions if the same number of channels are open after a large depolarizing prepulse that activates the population of channels maximally. In the general case that the open probability is different for each ion species at maximal activation, the macroscopic $I-V$ will accurately reflect single channel rectification but not relative unitary conductance. Since $g_{Rb}/g_K$ of single type l channel currents is similar to that obtained from macroscopic $I-V$s, apparently a similar fraction of type l channels are open during large depolarizations in K-Ringer and Rb-Ringer solutions, and consequently, the macroscopic $I-V$ provides a good estimate of both single channel rectification and $g_{Rb}$.

Type l channels display distinct inward rectification in symmetrical K⁺ solutions, while in Rb-Ringer solution the $I-V$ is approximately linear with either internal K⁺ (Figs. 4 and 5) or Rb⁺ (data not shown). In addition, within the accuracy of our data,
type l channel permeability ratios for Rb\(^+\) (and Cs\(^+\)) appeared to be independent of the side of the membrane to which they were added. These results suggest that the potential energy profile "seen" by K\(^+\) ions during permeation through type l channels is less symmetrical than that encountered by Rb\(^+\). The "fast" K\(^+\) conductance \((g_f)\) in frog node of Ranvier (Plant, 1986) rectifies much like type l channels in K\(^+\) or Rb\(^+\) solutions, as do type n K\(^+\) currents in T lymphocytes (Cahalan et al., 1985), and delayed rectifier K\(^+\) channels in frog skeletal muscle (Spruce et al., 1989). In contrast, in squid axon the \(I-V\) in symmetrical K\(^+\) solutions is relatively linear but exhibits strong outward rectification with Rb\(^+\) in the bath (Swenson and Armstrong, 1981; Clay and Shlesinger, 1983; Wagoner and Oxford, 1987). Thus K\(^+\) permeation in squid has been modeled using fairly symmetrical energy profiles for K\(^+\), with asymmetrical barriers and/or wells introduced to describe permeation of Rb\(^+\) or other ions (Matteson and Swenson, 1986; Wagoner and Oxford, 1987). Asymmetry of the permeation pathway of squid K\(^+\) channels is also suggested by the finding in squid of a lower relative permeability when Rb\(^+\) or NH\(_2\) is applied internally than when applied externally (Wagoner and Oxford, 1987). However, Spruce et al. (1989) and Plant (1986) also report lower \(P_{Rb}\) when Rb\(^+\) is applied internally.

The "anomalous" mole fraction dependence of \(P_{NH_4}\) in type l channels (Fig. 6) closely resembles the anomalous mole fraction dependence of the slope conductance in squid in NH\(_4^+\) and K\(^+\) mixtures (Wagoner and Oxford, 1987), with a clear minimum in both cases at \(\sim 10\%\) K\(^+\). Mole fraction–dependent permeability ratios indicate that, like most K\(^+\) channels (Hille and Schwarz, 1978), type l channels are multi-ion pores.

The most remarkable violations of independence for type l channels are the cases of NH\(_4^+\) and Cs\(^+\) ions, which have an equal permeability but vastly different conductances (Table II). If one thinks of permeability as a measure of how easily an ion enters the channel pore, and conductance as a measure of how rapidly the pore is traversed (Hille, 1975), then once inside, NH\(_4^+\) permeates quickly, whereas Cs\(^+\) gets "stuck" in permeation.

Kinetics. We were unable to fit type l currents with Hodgkin-Huxley-type \(n^4\) kinetics, a result consistent with previous studies (DeCoursey et al., 1987a). The delay followed by a single-exponential fitting approach we used was arbitrary and certainly real currents do not have a sharp inflection at the end of a delay. However, the subsequent rising phase of type l currents was fit remarkably well at all potentials. K\(^+\) currents in node of Ranvier similarly are well-fitted by a delay preceding a single exponential (Dubois, 1981a). Depolarization to threshold potentials negative to the midpoint of the \(g-V\) relation, \(V_{1/2}\), elicited currents with faster \(\tau_{act}\) than at \(V_{1/2}\); i.e., \(\tau_{act}\) and \(\tau_{ail}\) tended to converge, with a maximum near the midpoint of the \(g-V\) curve, both in K\(^+\)-containing or Rb\(^+\)-containing solutions. This suggests that activation (after a delay presumably caused by passage through a series of closed states) and deactivation can be approximated by a first order transition between two states, with half-activation at the peak of the \(\tau-V\) curve.

Tail currents with hooks. Inward tail currents with Rb\(^+\) or Cs\(^+\) in the external solution frequently displayed "hooks." Hooked tail currents classically have been associated with blockade of K\(^+\) channels by internal cationic blockers (e.g., Armstrong, 1975; Shapiro, 1977). However, we observed hooks when the only intracellular...
lar cation was K⁺ or Rb⁺. Ascribing the hooks to block by a potent hypothetical contaminant would not account for the absence of hooks with K⁺ or NH₄⁺ in the bath. Apparently then the hooks reflect an intrinsic gating mechanism of type l channels. Possibly there is a nonconducting or lower conductance state that a substantial fraction of channels occupy at positive potentials, from which upon repolarization the channels must pass through the open state before closing (a “trans-open” state). Given this hypothesis, the transition from the trans-open state might become apparent only under ionic conditions (e.g., external Rb⁺) that result in profoundly slowed deactivation. Thus, hooks may be present in K-Ringer solution but would be too fast to resolve if scaled the same as the subsequent decaying phase; alternatively, Rb⁺ and Cs⁺ may reveal a kinetic step that is not detectable until specific deactivation steps affected by these ions are slowed. Tail currents with hooks in K⁺-containing solutions have been reported in cardiac delayed rectifier, in which they were attributed to rapid removal of depolarization-induced “inactivation” (Shibasaki, 1987).

Previous work on K⁺ channels has emphasized the importance of Ca²⁺ ions in channel gating or selectivity. One proposal is that Ca²⁺ or other divalent cations bound externally stabilize the closed conformation of the K⁺ channel, dissociating when the channel opens (Gilly and Armstrong, 1982; Armstrong and Matteson, 1986). Another proposal is that K⁺ channels close preferentially with a Ca²⁺ ion bound within the pore (Armstrong and Matteson, 1986), and that in the absence of Ca²⁺ gating as well as selectivity reversibly disappear (Armstrong and Lopez-Barneo,}

### Table III

| Characteristic | Type L K⁺ Channels | G₉₁ |
|---------------|-------------------|-----|
| gₒ, midpoint (Vₒ) | -10 to 0 mV (10, 12) | -20 to 5 mV (5, 6, 7, 8) |
| τₒ (90 mV, 20°C) | 0.8 ms (10, 12) | 0.8 ms (2, 3, 5, 8) |
| τₑ (30 mV, 20°C) | 2 ms (10) | 1–2 ms (2, 4) |
| Activation kinetics: | | |
| n⁺ kinetics | No (10, 12) | No (4) |
| delay + 1-exp | Yes (10) | Yes (4) |
| τₑ, in K-Ringer | ~1 s (11, 13) | ~1 s (1, 5) |
| Unitary conductance (inward, high K⁺) | ~33 pS (10) | 30 pS (9) |
| Rb⁺ permeability | Pₒ/P₉ = 0.76 (10) | 0.76 (8) |
| Rb⁺ conductance | gₒ / g₉ = 0.5 (10) | 0.5 (8) |
| Slowing effect of [Rb⁺]₀ on τₒ | ~10-fold (15) | ~5-fold (8) |
| TEA sensitivity, Kₚ | ~80 μM (12) | ~150 μM (5) |
| 4-AP sensitivity, Kₚ | <200 μM (12) | 10 μM (5) |
| Block by capsaicin | Yes, time-dependent (13) | Yes, time-dependent (6) |
| Block by naloxone | Yes, time-independent (13) | Yes (7) |
| Block by charybdotoxin | No (10, 14) | ? |

References: (1) Schwarz and Vogel, 1971; (2) Palti et al., 1976; (3) Illyin et al., 1980; (4) Dubois, 1981a; (5) Dubois, 1981b; (6) Dubois, 1982; (7) Hu and Rubly, 1983; (8) Plant, 1986; (9) Jonas et al., 1989; (10) this study; (11) unpublished observations of the authors; (12) DeCoursey et al., 1987a; (13) Shapiro, 1990; (14) Sands et al., 1989; (15) Shapiro and DeCoursey, 1991.
1987). While we did not test the effect of Ca\(^{2+}\) ions on selectivity, we discerned no obvious modulatory role of external Ca\(^{2+}\) in gating when comparing on-cell patch (nanomolar Ca\(^{2+}\)) and whole-cell (2 or 20 mM Ca\(^{2+}\)) data. Changing the external [Ca\(^{2+}\)] between 2 and 20 mM in whole-cell experiments shifted activation and deactivation time constants about equally by 10–15 mV (data not shown), consistent with shifts explainable by traditional surface charge theory (e.g., Hille, 1968; Gilbert and Ehrenstein, 1969; Mozhayeva and Naumov, 1972). Apparently Ca\(^{2+}\) plays a smaller role in type l K\(^{+}\) channel gating than in squid K\(^{+}\) channels. Lymphocytes did not survive long enough in Ca-free bathing solutions to be studied in whole-cell mode.

**Are Type l Channels the Same as g\(_{f2}\) Channels in Node of Ranvier?**

In light of the additional information presented here, we have compared the type l K\(^{+}\) channel with other types of K\(^{+}\) channels described in the literature. Taking into account all known properties, type l channels in lymphocytes most closely resemble one of the two “fast” K\(^{+}\) channels in frog node of Ranvier: the “\(g_{f2}\)” channel (Dubois, 1981b), also called the “\(F\)” channel (Jonas et al., 1989). These two K\(^{+}\) channels are compared in detail in Table III. Considering differences in experimental milieu, the two channels are virtually identical with respect to all parameters for which quantitative comparisons can be made. We conclude that type l K\(^{+}\) channels in lymphocytes are essentially identical to the \(g_{f2}\) K\(^{+}\) channel in myelinated nerve. Considering the facility of the lymphocyte preparation and the abundance of type l K\(^{+}\) channels in lpr T lymphocytes with only a small contaminant from other ion channels, while node of Ranvier has substantial contamination by two other K\(^{+}\) channels, lpr lymphocytes may be the ideal preparation in which to study this type of K\(^{+}\) channel.

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