

## Physiological roles of the transient outward current $I_{to}$ in normal and diseased hearts

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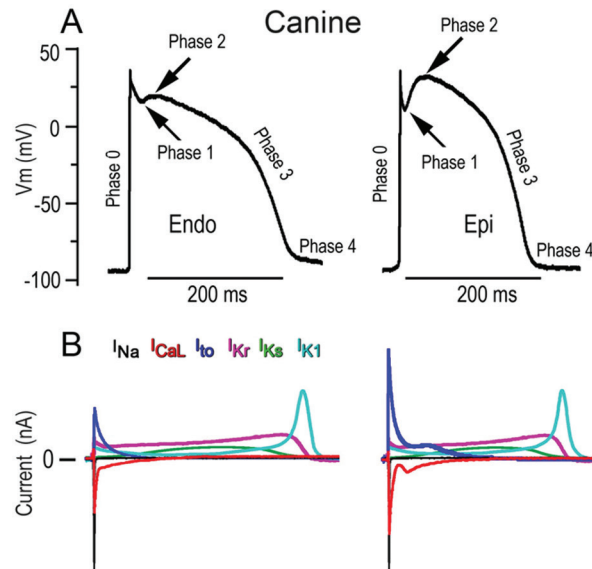
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### 1. ABSTRACT

The  $Ca^{2+}$ -independent transient outward  $K^+$  current ( $I_{to}$ ) plays a critical role in underlying phase 1 of repolarization of the cardiac action potential and, as a result, is central to modulating excitation-contraction coupling and propensity for arrhythmia. Additionally,  $I_{to}$  and its molecular constituents are consistently reduced in cardiac hypertrophy and heart failure. In this review, we discuss the physiological role of  $I_{to}$  as well as the molecular basis of this current in human and canine hearts, in which  $I_{to}$  has been thoroughly studied. In particular, we discuss the role of  $I_{to}$  in the action potential and the mechanisms by which  $I_{to}$  modulates excitation-contraction coupling. We also describe the effects of mutations in the subunits constituting the  $I_{to}$  channel as well as the role of  $I_{to}$  in the failing myocardium. Finally, we review pharmacological modulation of  $I_{to}$  and discuss the evidence supporting the hypothesis that restoration of  $I_{to}$  in the setting of heart failure may be therapeutically beneficial by enhancing excitation-contraction coupling and cardiac function.

### 2. INTRODUCTION

The  $Ca^{2+}$ -independent transient outward  $K^+$  current ( $I_{to}$ ), also referred to as A-type current in neuronal tissue, plays a critical role in shaping the action potential (AP).  $I_{to}$  is observed in atrial and ventricular myocytes as well as Purkinje fibers of mammals including human (1, 2), dog (3, 4), feline(5), ferret (6), rabbit (7), rat (8, 9) and mouse (10). In larger mammals,  $I_{to}$  underlies the early phase of repolarization of the cardiac action potential (AP), and growing evidence suggests that  $I_{to}$  plays a key role in excitation-contraction (EC) coupling(11, 12), as well as in arrhythmogenesis(13). In addition,  $I_{to}$  and its molecular constituents are consistently reduced in cardiac hypertrophy and heart failure (1, 14). This review will highlight the physiological role of  $I_{to}$  as well as the molecular basis of this current in human and canine hearts. We will also discuss the role of  $I_{to}$  in the normal and failing myocardium, as well as under various pathophysiological conditions, such as the Brugada syndrome. Finally, we will discuss pharmaceutical modulation of  $I_{to}$  and how restoration of  $I_{to}$  in the setting of heart failure may be therapeutically beneficial.



**Figure 1.** A cartoon depicting APs (Panel A) and underlying ionic currents (Panel B) from a canine left ventricular Endo and Epi cell. The time courses of ionic currents are partly based on recordings from previous publications (87,122-124).

### 3. THE ACTION POTENTIAL AND ROLE OF $I_{TO}$

The AP in cardiac muscle is critical for initiating and coordinating contraction of the working myocardium (15) while also minimizing arrhythmias via its relatively long refractory period (16, 17). The AP is generated by highly coordinate changes in different ionic conductances. In the human (or canine) heart, the AP is divided into five phases, 0 through 4 (Figure 1). In ventricular myocytes or Purkinje fibers, the initial depolarization (upstroke) to approximately +35 mV (Phase 0) is generated by  $Na^+$  influx ( $I_{Na}$ ), from coordinated opening of voltage-gated sodium channels (18) (Figure 1). The brief repolarization (Phase 1), or “notch,” following the upstroke is due primarily to a  $Ca^{2+}$ -independent (fast) transient outward  $K^+$  current ( $I_{to}$ ) (8, 19).  $I_{to}$  can be divided into two separate currents:  $I_{to,f}$  (fast) and  $I_{to,s}$  (slow), based upon their recovery times from inactivation. In addition,  $Ca^{2+}$ -activated  $Cl^-$  currents have also been thought to contribute to the Phase 1 repolarization (20, 21). The plateau (Phase 2) of the AP arises from a delicate balance between  $K^+$  efflux through voltage-gated potassium channels and  $Ca^{2+}$  influx through voltage-gated calcium channels ( $I_{Ca}$ ). In the late repolarization phase (Phase 3), the balance of ionic currents is shifted in favor of repolarization by the progressive increase in slow delayed rectifier potassium channels ( $I_{Ks}$ ) due to slow activation as well as in the rapid delayed rectifier potassium channels ( $I_{Kr}$ ) which has a unique rapid recovery from inactivation coupled with slow deactivation as the membrane potential becomes more negative. In

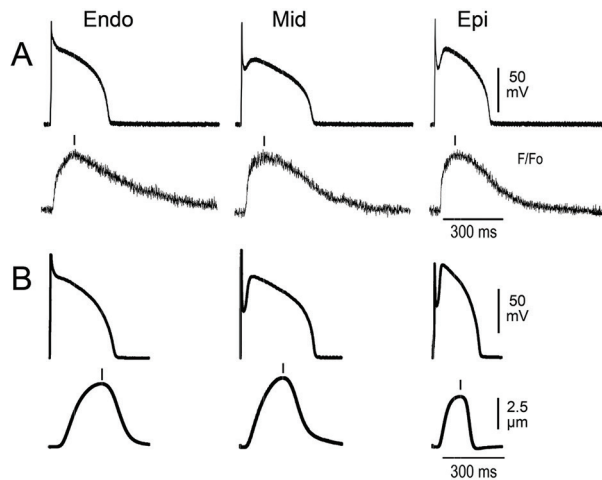
the late phase 3, the  $K^+$  conductance increases further due to the unblocking of inwardly rectifying potassium channels ( $I_{K1}$ ), which are required to stabilize the resting membrane potential following full repolarization (Phase 4) (22). Marked differences in the shape and duration of the cardiac AP have been described in different regions of the mammalian heart, reflecting differences in the underlying ionic currents (7, 8, 23, 24). In humans and canines, the ventricular epicardium (Epi) tissue has a more prominent  $I_{to}$  compared to endocardial (Endo) tissue (7, 25, 26) (Figure 1). This transmural gradient of  $I_{to}$  results in the classical spike-and-dome morphology of Epi and midmyocardial (Mid) APs that is absent in Endo cells. In humans and canines, the Epi  $I_{to}$  is predominantly  $I_{to,f}$  whereas  $I_{to,s}$  is predominantly expressed in the Endo (1, 27). Besides transmural differences in phase 1 repolarization, there are marked differences in AP duration (APD), with long APs in Endo and Mid, whereas the APD is short in Epi (28).

## 4. PHYSIOLOGICAL ROLE OF $I_{TO}$

### 4.1. AP waveform and the initiation of $Ca^{2+}$ transients

Although much attention has focused on the electrical distinctions between the diverse ventricular cells types, it is clear the mechanical properties also vary across the ventricular wall (11, 12, 29). Coordinated contraction of the ventricle is necessary for the efficient ejection of blood to the body. For synchronization of ventricular contraction to occur one would anticipate that all areas of muscle are electrically excited at the same time (30, 31), however this is not the case. In dog, as in human, the electrical impulse distributed through the His-Purkinje system excites predominantly Endo. The wave of excitation must then traverse the ventricular muscle to excite the Mid and Epi layers. Although the Epi is the last region to be excited, it is the first region to repolarize. This observation is reflected by the positive T wave in the canine wedge model electrocardiogram (28). Studies have shown that the transmural conduction time is about 30-40 ms in the canine left ventricle (28). In spite of this difference in transmural conduction, all parts of the ventricle contract in unison. These observations suggest there are regional differences in cardiac excitation-contraction coupling must compensate for the inherent electrical time delays. Differences in AP waveform and duration, which are associated with variations in  $Ca^{2+}$  transient and  $Ca^{2+}$  homeostasis between Epi, Mid and Endo cells, are hypothesized to be important contributing factors for the appropriate synchronization of ventricular contraction (12) (Figure 2).

The  $Ca^{2+}$  transient is a dynamic process governed by  $Ca^{2+}$  influx and release as well as intracellular  $Ca^{2+}$  extrusion and re-uptake. Depolarization of the cardiac membrane results in influx of  $Ca^{2+}$  and subsequent release of  $Ca^{2+}$  from the SR, the process



**Figure 2.** Panel A: Representative APs (top traces) and corresponding normalized  $Ca^{2+}$  transients (bottom traces) recorded from an Epi, Endo and Mid cell. Myocytes were paced at a cycle length of 2 s. The corresponding  $Ca^{2+}$  transients (lower trace) show that Endo cells have a slower time-to-peak as well as a slower decay of the  $Ca^{2+}$  transient. The tick marks on the  $Ca^{2+}$  transient traces denote the peak. Panel B: Representative APs (top) and corresponding unloaded cell shortening (bottom) recorded from an Epi, Endo and Mid cell. Myocytes were paced at a cycle length of 2 s. AP recorded from both Epi and Mid cells exhibit a rapid phase 1 repolarization and prominent spike and dome configuration compared to Endo cells. The latency to onset of contraction was relatively short in Epi and Mid cells and time-to-peak was longest in Endo cells. Modified with permission from (29).

of EC coupling. There are two sources of  $Ca^{2+}$  that contribute to this rise in intracellular  $Ca^{2+}$ : A) influx of  $Ca^{2+}$  across the sarcolemma via various pathways (32) and B) a release of  $Ca^{2+}$  from the sarcoplasmic reticulum (SR) (33-35). The classic model of excitation-contraction suggests that  $Ca^{2+}$  enters the cardiac cell via L-type  $Ca^{2+}$  channels and triggers a larger release of  $Ca^{2+}$  from the SR, a process referred to as “ $Ca^{2+}$ -induced  $Ca^{2+}$  release” (32, 36). Although the main source of trigger calcium is from L-type  $Ca^{2+}$  channels (37), activation of T-type  $Ca^{2+}$  current (38), and the  $Na^{+}$ - $Ca^{2+}$  exchange operating in ‘reverse-mode’ (39, 40) are capable of initiating SR  $Ca^{2+}$  release to cause a contraction. The small, local increases in intracellular  $Ca^{2+}$  from ventricular cells ( $Ca^{2+}$  sparks; reviewed by (41)) are the result of brief, spontaneous openings from clusters of ryanodine receptors (RyRs) and are believed to be the elementary event underlying EC coupling in cardiac muscle.  $Ca^{2+}$  transients in cardiomyocytes represent the spatial and temporal summation of many  $Ca^{2+}$  sparks.

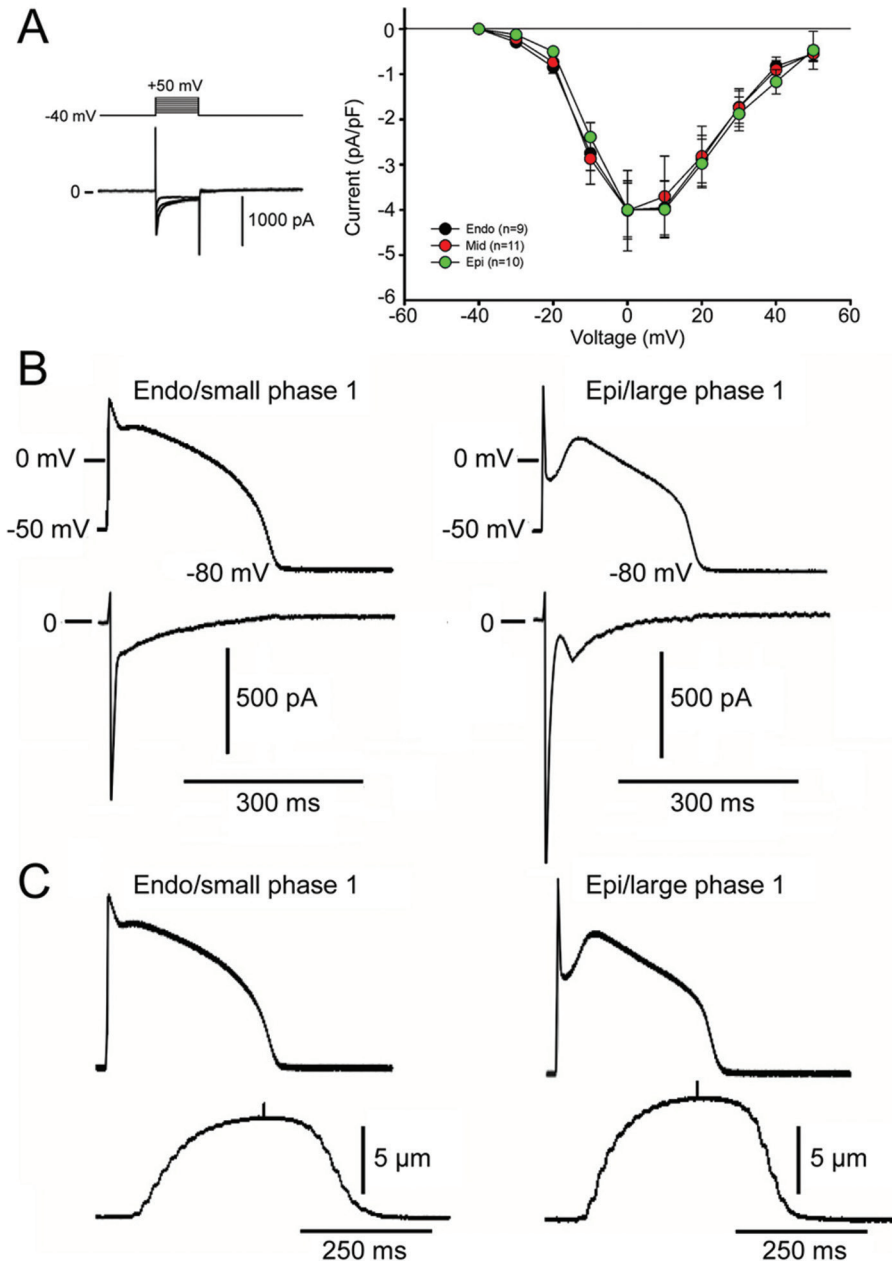
Consistent with the role of AP profile on  $Ca^{2+}$  release and contraction properties, regional differences in AP waveform and duration can dramatically affect the  $Ca^{2+}$  transient and mechanical shortening. The bulk of  $Ca^{2+}$  entry through  $I_{CaL}$  occurs during phase 1 and the plateau phase of the AP, where the membrane potential is in the optimal range for  $Ca^{2+}$  entry via  $I_{CaL}$ . The magnitude of  $I_{CaL}$  is equivalent across the wall in the

canine left ventricle when measured using a square wave voltage clamp pulse (Figure 3A) (29, 42, 43). However, differences in AP morphology alter the size and kinetics  $I_{CaL}$  across the ventricular wall. Increasing the early rate of (phase 1) repolarization increases the driving force, which results in a large peak  $I_{CaL}$  amplitude, a faster time to peak of  $I_{CaL}$ , as well as greater total charge (Figure 3B) (11, 29, 44). These observations suggest that an AP waveform with a spike-and-dome morphology is a more efficient releaser of SR  $Ca^{2+}$ . Conversely, an AP with a small phase 1 repolarization, such as in Endo, results in a smaller  $I_{CaL}$ , desynchronized SR  $Ca^{2+}$  release and reduced efficiency of EC coupling. This results in a slower velocity of cell shortening (Figure 3C). Nevertheless, variations in  $I_{to}$  and the size of the phase 1 repolarization across the ventricular wall contribute to differences in electrical and mechanical characteristics of the three cell types. The implications relative to the mechanical function of the heart under normal and diseased condition are numerous and will be described in the sections to follow.

#### 4.2. The decline of $Ca^{2+}$ transients

The duration of myocyte contraction is limited by the inactivation of  $I_{CaL}$  coupled with  $Ca^{2+}$  removal from the cytosol through several pathways, leading to a reduction in the cytosolic free  $Ca^{2+}$ , dissociation of  $Ca^{2+}$  from the contractile machinery and relaxation of the myocardium (45). The dominant pathway for removal of  $Ca^{2+}$  from the cytosol is through the activity of the SR  $Ca^{2+}$ -ATPase (SERCA), which derives the energy from ATP to actively pump  $Ca^{2+}$  into the lumen of the SR. The contribution of SERCA in the removal of  $Ca^{2+}$  from the cytosol varies between 70-92% depending on the species examined. The large contribution of SERCA to  $Ca^{2+}$  cycling ensures that the SR is replenished with  $Ca^{2+}$  and the cell is ready for the next round of EC coupling. In addition to SERCA,  $Ca^{2+}$  is also removed from the cytosol into the extracellular matrix through the activity of the  $Na^{+}$ - $Ca^{2+}$  exchanger (NCX) which depending on the species, can contribute up to 30% to  $Ca^{2+}$  efflux (46). Evidently, the fraction of  $Ca^{2+}$  efflux by NCX is approximately equal to the amount of  $Ca^{2+}$  that enters the cell through the activity of  $I_{CaL}$  (47). In addition to playing a role in removal of  $Ca^{2+}$ , it has been suggested that  $Ca^{2+}$  influx through the reverse mode of the NCX may directly act as a trigger for  $Ca^{2+}$  release from the SR. The relative contribution of  $Ca^{2+}$  influx through NCX towards EC coupling remains to be determined.

When differences in the AP waveform and duration are eliminated by application of a square wave under voltage clamp conditions, some of these differences in cell shortening persists, suggesting there are intrinsic differences in E-C coupling between the three cell types. Therefore, factors other than AP morphology can contribute to the mechanical distinctions. These



**Figure 3.** Panel A: Representative traces showing  $I_{Ca}$  recorded from a canine Mid ventricular myocyte.  $Ca^{2+}$  currents were recorded during a 300 ms step depolarization from  $-40$  to  $+50$  mV in 10 mV increments. Current-voltage relationship for  $I_{Ca}$  is shown on right side of Panel A. Panel B: Representative  $I_{Ca}$  current traces (defined as the nifedipine-sensitive difference current) recorded from a cell in response to an Endo (left side) or Epi (right side) AP waveform. To eliminate the effects of  $I_{Na}$ , the AP was modified so that  $-50$  mV was the start of the waveform (top of figure). Application of the Epi waveform produced a larger peak current and greater charge entry compared to the Endo waveform. Panel C: Endo and Epi AP waveforms and corresponding cell shortening (bottom traces) recorded from a cell in response to endocardial and Epi AP waveforms (top). Five pre-pulses were applied to the cell to maintain uniform SR  $Ca^{2+}$  content. Application of the Epi waveform caused a faster time-to-peak and greater cell shortening. The tick marks on the cell shortening traces denote the peak. Modified with permission from (29).

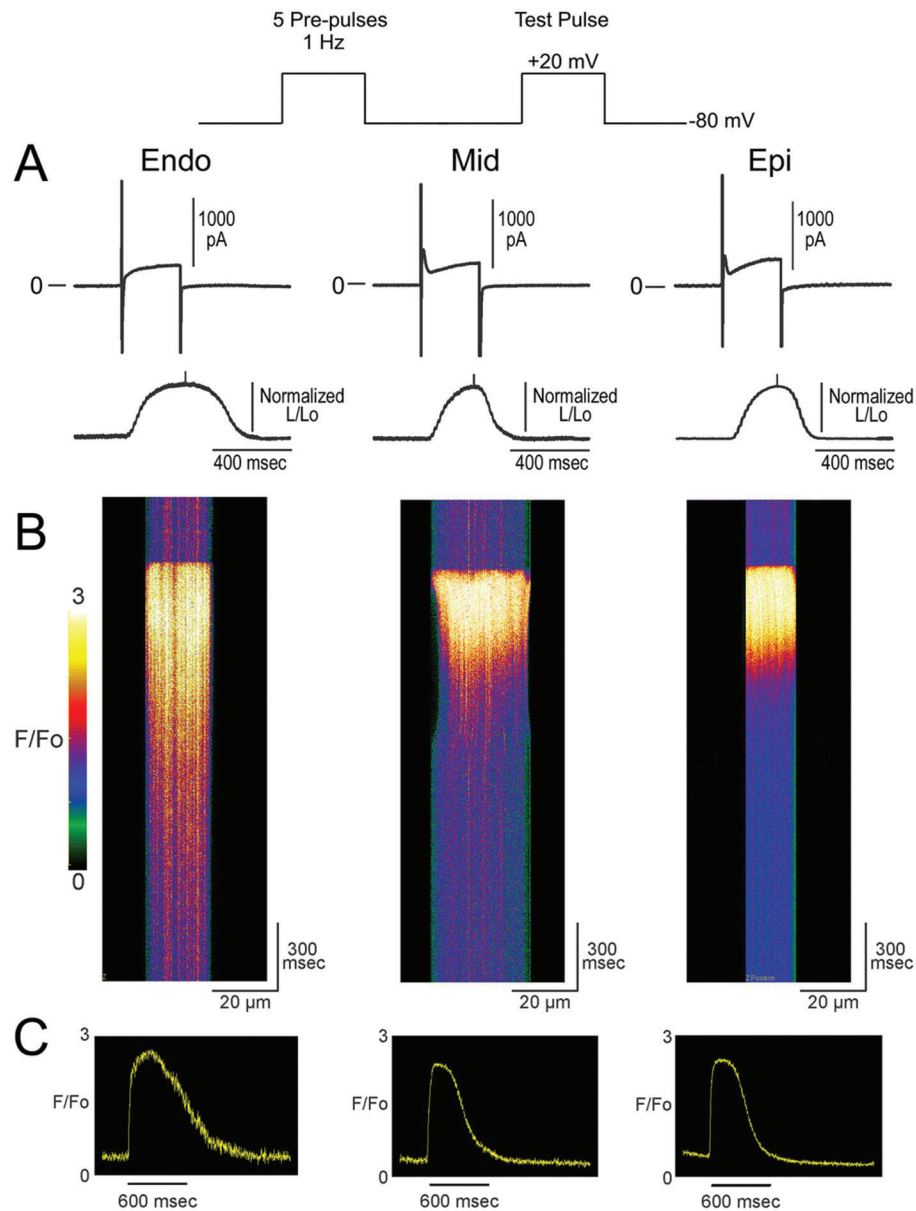
variations may be due to differences in intracellular  $Ca^{2+}$  buffering or expression of  $Ca^{2+}$  handling proteins. In canine ventricular myocardium, it has been shown that the expression of SERCA is greater in the Epi versus Endo (Figure 4). The greater SERCA2a expression in Epi results in a faster decline of the  $Ca^{2+}$  transient (48).

## 5. MOLECULAR COMPONENTS AND REGULATION OF $I_{TO}$

### 5.1. Molecular composition of cardiac $I_{to}$

$I_{to,f}$  currents are generated by channels consisting of voltage-gated  $\alpha$ -pore-forming Kv4

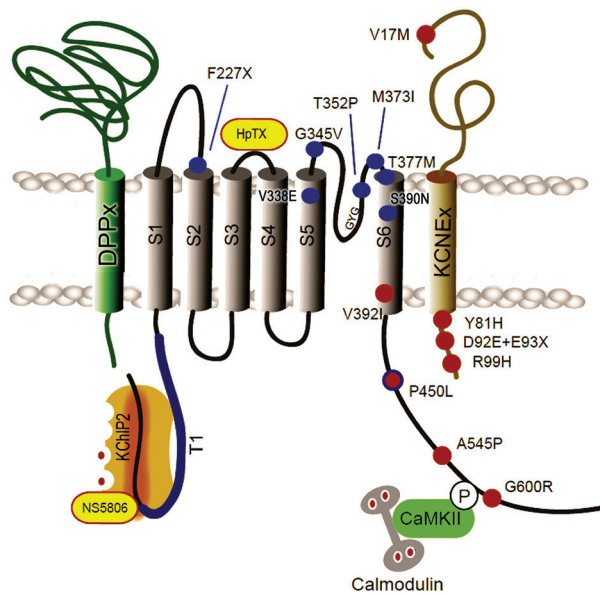




**Figure 4.** Representative recording of ionic currents (upper panel) and cell shortening (lower panel) from an Endo, Mid and Epi myocardial cell recorded under voltage clamp conditions. The voltage clamp protocol is shown at the top. Five pre-pulses were applied to maintain a constant SR load. Following application of a 300 ms test-pulse to +20 mV, a large  $I_{to}$  can be observed in the Epi and Mid cells (upper traces). The tick marks on the cell shortening traces denote the peak. Representative recording of corresponding confocal xt line scans (panel B) from an Endo, Mid and Epi cell recorded under voltage clamp. The voltage clamp protocol is shown at the top of the figure. Five pre-pulses were applied to the myocytes to maintain a constant SR load. Following application of a 300 ms test-pulse to +20 mV, a large  $I_{to}$  can be observed in the epi and mid cell (panel A). The corresponding line scan recordings (panel B) and time course of F/Fo (panel C) for Epi and Mid cells show similar kinetics. In contrast, the line scan recorded from the Endo cell has a much slower decay compared to the other two cell types. Modified with permission from (29, 125).

subunits. Assembly of four Kv  $\alpha$ -subunits into a tetrameric structure forms functional  $I_{to,f}$  channels (49). In human and canine hearts, the majority of studies have shown that Kv4.3 is the predominant  $\alpha$ -subunit of  $I_{to,f}$  (50, 51). Heterologous expression of Kv4  $\alpha$  subunits show rapidly activating, inactivating and recovering  $I_{to,f}$ -like outward  $K^+$  currents (9), which are sensitive to

heteropodatoxins (HpTx) (52), and phrixotoxin (PaTx) similar to native  $I_{to,f}$ . Several transgenic mouse studies have provided further evidence regarding molecular identity of  $I_{to,f}$ . Heterologously expressed Kv4 channels do not recapitulate entirely the kinetics of native cardiac  $I_{to}$ , and Kv4 channels have been shown to assemble with various ancillary  $\beta$ -subunits in cardiac tissue (Figure 5). The most prominent,  $K^+$  Channel Interaction



**Figure 5.** Disease causing mutations in Kv4 and interacting subunits as well as putative drug binding sites. Heteropoda venatoria toxins selectively inhibit Kv4 channels by stabilization of the closed state by binding to the S3B to S4 linker segment (108). NS5806 has been suggested to modulate the interaction between the hydrophobic groove on KChIP and Kv4 as well as to affect calcium sensitivity of KChIP (118). Loss-of-function mutations in Kv4 have been linked to spinocerebellar ataxia (SCA) (indicated by blue dots). SCA19 is associated with T352P, M373I and S390N (92). SCA22 is associated with an in-frame 3-nucleotide deletion F227del, V338E, G345V and T377M (126). Gain-of-function mutations (marked by red dots) have been linked to sudden unexpected death, V392I and G600R (86), the Brugada syndrome (BrS), L450F and G600R (85) and early onset atrial fibrillation, A545P (87). P450L (marked by red dot with blue outline) has been associated with both BrS and SCA (93). P450L results in a gain of function of Kv4.3. In the accessory subunit KCNE3, R99H resulting in increased Kv4 currents has been linked to BrS (90). Likewise, mutations in KCNE5, Y81H, D92E+E93X, resulting in increased Kv4 currents has been linked to BrS (73).

Protein 2 (KChIP2) is one of four KChIPs (KChIP1–4) that are members of the neuronal calcium sensor subfamily of  $Ca^{2+}$  binding proteins characterized by four  $Ca^{2+}$ -binding EF-hand motifs (53). It is believed that only KChIP2 is specifically expressed in the heart (54), and KChIP2 co-immunoprecipitates with both Kv4.2 and Kv4.3 (55).

KChIP2 increases Kv4.3 current density by facilitating trafficking, slowing inactivation and accelerating recovery kinetics (10, 56). Co-expressed with KChIP2, Kv4-encoded currents in heterologous systems are almost identical to native  $I_{to,f}$  in rodent cardiomyocytes (57). Interestingly, mice lacking KChIP2 have no  $I_{to,f}$  (10, 58) suggesting an additional role of KChIP2 in facilitating expression of Kv4 channels by stabilizing Kv4 proteins in their formation (59, 60). Several studies suggest that Kv4.3 mRNA levels are uniform throughout the canine left ventricle and the gradient in  $I_{to}$  expression is due to a gradient in KChIP2, as KChIP2 mRNA is more abundant in Epi- and Mid than

in Endo (2, 27, 61, 62). Interestingly, the time constant ( $t$ ) of decay was faster in Epi and Mid than in Endo (6, 63). As KChIP2 slows Kv4.3 current decay (64), this may suggest that Endo  $I_{to}$  is not merely Kv4.3. In absence of KChIP2 and indicates that other  $K^+$  subunits contribute to Endo  $I_{to}$  in human and canine hearts.

Besides KChIP2, several other proteins expressed in ventricular tissue have been shown to interact with Kv4.3. Similar to KChIP2, dipeptidyl-peptidases (DPP6 and DPP10) can facilitate Kv4.3 trafficking and accelerate recovery from inactivation; however, in contrast to KChIP2, the DPPs accelerate Kv4.3 inactivation (65) and increase single channel conductance of Kv4.2 (66). DPP6 expression in the heart has been demonstrated both at mRNA and protein level (67). Whether DPP10 is expressed in cardiomyocytes is at the present unclear, though DPP10 mRNA has been detected in atrial tissue (68). Very little is known about the nature of the interaction between Kv4 and DPP, it has been suggested to involve the transmembrane regions of both proteins (69).

Several members of the KCNE  $\beta$ -subunit family have been demonstrated to modulate Kv4 density and kinetics. Loss of KCNE2 in mice leads to a reduction in ventricular  $I_{to,f}$  (70), whereas KCNE3 inhibits Kv4 (71). A recent study demonstrated that KCNE4 expression is localized in the transverse tubules of murine cardiac myocytes, where it co-assembles with Kv4.2 regulating  $I_{to}$  in a “KChIP2-dependent manner” (72). KCNE5 modulates Kv4 channels in the heterologous system and a mutation in KCNE5 resulting in less inhibition of Kv4.3 current have been linked to the Brugada syndrome (BrS) (73). Interestingly, the KCNE5 expression is elevated in failing human hearts (74). Other subunits have been proposed to modulate  $I_{to,f}$  but the physiological importance may be uncertain.

Several studies have demonstrated that  $I_{to}$  in human and canine is not simply mediated by Kv4.3 channel but that other  $\alpha$  subunits may be involved. The presence of Kv1.4 and Kv1.5 has been noted in the ventricle of both human and canine ventricle (3, 14). These  $\alpha$ -subunits are expressed at lower levels compared to Kv4.3 but their presence have been consistently measured by numerous investigators. Kv1.4 gives rise to a slowly recovering  $I_{to,s}$  and is likely responsible for the slow phase of  $I_{to}$  recovery in dog ventricle (27). The presence of a TEA $^{+}$ -sensitive  $I_{to}$  conducted through Kv3.4 was noted in dog ventricular and Purkinje tissue (75). The presence of Kv3.4 message was verified in human tissue by Gaborit *et al.* (51). In that same study, the authors noted the presence of Kv4.2 message, an  $\alpha$ -subunit thought to only be present only in rodents (51). Interestingly, a more recent publication noted a rare genetic mutation of the *KCND2* gene in a patient with J-wave syndrome supporting a functional role for Kv4.2

in human ventricle (76). These observations suggest that  $I_{to}$  in human ventricle may also consist of Kv1.4, Kv1.5, Kv3.4 and Kv4.2, but the precise subunit composition remains to be elucidated.

## 5.2. Molecular regulation of $I_{to}$

$I_{to}$  and its molecular constituents are highly regulated by multiple transcription factors, both constitutively and in response to pro-hypertrophic stimulation, as well as stimulation of adrenergic pathways. With regards to constitutive regulation, Iroquois-class homeo-domain protein 5 (Irx5), which is expressed transmurally as a gradient from Endo-to-Epi (large to small), is a repressor of Kv4.2 expression in the mouse heart and Irx5 has been suggested to establish the  $I_{to}$  Epi-to-Endo gradient in murine hearts (77). In addition, Jia *et al.* found that GATA and FOG2 transcription factors can drive expression of the Kv4.2 promoter (78). The same group also found that c-Jun NH(2)-terminal kinases play a role in mediating the  $\alpha$ -adrenergic receptor-induced reduction in KChIP2, and the MEK-ERK pathway mediates the protein kinase C-mediated down-regulation. In mouse,  $I_{to}$  was found to negatively regulate by the calcineurin/nuclear factor activated T-cell system (NFAT) (79). This mechanism is intriguing since calcineurin/NFAT is activated in heart failure (HF) (80), which coincides with decreases in  $I_{to}$ . However, in rat neonatal cardiomyocytes calcineurin/NFAT increases  $I_{to}$  via up-regulation of Kv4.2 (81). Adding to this complexity, we found that ubiquitous transcription factor nuclear factor kappaB mediates  $\alpha$ -adrenergic receptor-induced reductions in KChIP2 expression (82). Further studies are warranted to more fully understand the complicated transcriptional regulation of  $I_{to}$  subunits by adrenergic stimulation in the context of heart disease.

## 6. PATHOPHYSIOLOGICAL CONDITIONS AND THE ROLE OF $I_{to}$ AND ITS PHARMACOLOGY

The transient outward potassium current  $I_{to}$  has been linked to several pathophysiological conditions and inherited syndromes. In the cardiac field,  $I_{to}$  has been suggested to play a role in the BrS or J-wave syndromes, atrial fibrillation (AF) as well as in hypertrophy and HF. Since  $I_{to}$  is altered in multiple diseases, its potential as a pharmacological target is also highly relevant.

### 6.1. Inherited $I_{to}$ linked channelopathies

The Brugada syndrome was first described as a new clinical entity in 1992(83) and is associated with nocturnal polymorphic ventricular tachycardia and sudden death, predominantly in young males. BrS is characterized by a ST-segment elevation in the right precordial leads, occurring in the absence of structural heart disease. The majority of BrS cases have been linked to loss-of function mutations in cardiac  $I_{Na}$  ((84)

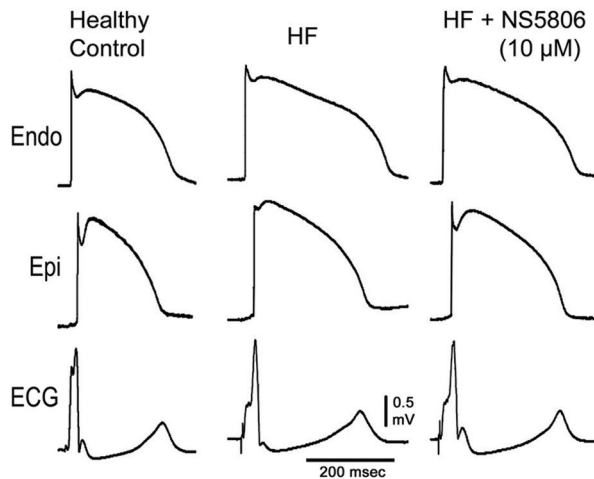
for a recent review); however, several gain-of-function mutations in Kv4.3. have been linked to BrS (L450F and G600R (85)) or sudden unexpected death (SUD, V392I and G600R (86)). Kv4.3. gain of function has also been linked to atrial fibrillation (AF, A545P (87)). All these known gain-of-function mutations in Kv4.3. are located to the C-terminus of Kv4.3. (Figure 5). The C-terminus harbors several sites involved in post-translational modifications (reviewed by (88)), and may be involved in stabilizing the interaction between KChIP2 and Kv4 subunits (89). Furthermore, mutations in the accessory subunits KCNE3 (90) and KCNE5 (91) have been linked to BrS. Both KCNE3 and KCNE5 normally exert an inhibitory effect on Kv4.3. to suppress  $I_{to}$  (71, 90) and mutations in these subunits remove this inhibitory effect resulting in higher  $I_{to}$  densities.

It is important to note that not all BrS patients harboring mutations in Kv4.3. exhibit documented AF (85, 86), and conversely, a Kv4.3. AF patient did not show a BrS ECG phenotype when administered a flecainide challenge (87), suggesting that the expression and/or regulation of other cardiac currents may influence the phenotype. In addition, the Kv4.3. protein is expressed in many different tissue types including neuronal tissue. Loss-of-function mutation in the Kv4.3. $\alpha$ -subunit has been associated with inherited spinocerebellar ataxia (SCA), a progressive disease associated with atrophy of the cerebellum causing ataxia of gait and limbs as well as eye movement and speech impediments. SCA has been linked to loss-of-function and impaired trafficking mutations in Kv4.3 (92). Interestingly, P450L has been associated with both BrS and SCA (93). This puzzling observation has not been resolved, but electrophysiological studies revealed P450L results in a gain of function of Kv4.3. For the other loss-of-function mutations (Figure 5), no cardiac phenotype has been reported.

### 6.2. Alterations in heart failure

Besides the inherited syndromes due to mutations in  $I_{to}$  subunits, changes in  $I_{to}$  expression has repeatedly been linked to a number of cardiac pathologies, including hypertrophy and HF.

During the development of HF, a cascade of events occurs to cardiac tissue that ultimately results in a reduced cardiac output. These changes are multiple and complicated but include alterations in ion channel currents,  $Ca^{2+}$  cycling proteins and ultrastructure changes. The changes that occur, predispose the failing heart to ventricular tachyarrhythmias and sudden cardiac death triggered by early afterdepolarizations (EADs) or delayed afterdepolarizations (DADs). Typically, studies have focused on defects in intracellular  $Ca^{2+}$  cycling and the subsequent remodeling of these processes. Indeed, altered  $Ca^{2+}$  handling during heart failure has been linked to changes in  $Ca^{2+}$  handling proteins such as a decrease in  $I_{CaL}$  density (94) and increased NCX (95, 96).



**Figure 6.** Ventricular tachypacing-induced heart failure-induced reduction in epicardial AP notch and ECG J wave is reversed by NS5806. Left Panel: Representative LV wedge isolated from a normal heart showing Epi and Endo AP as well as corresponding transmural ECG. A pronounced spike-and-dome AP is apparent in the Epi recording. Middle Panel: Representative LV wedge isolated from a 2-week HF heart showing a decrease in Phase 1 repolarization, loss of spike-and-dome morphology and J wave. Right panel: 10  $\mu$ M NS5806 restores AP notch and J wave toward control. Basic cycle length = 2000 ms. Modified with permission from (120).

Down regulation of many repolarizing potassium currents during heart failure is well documented (for review see (97,98)).  $I_{to,f}$  is reduced in both human and animal models of HF (1, 99-101), concomitant with a decrease in phase 1 repolarization and an increase in AP duration (102). The early repolarization phase of the ventricular AP determines the electrochemical driving force for  $Ca^{2+}$  influx through L type  $Ca^{2+}$  channels. Therefore, cell types with a large  $I_{to}$  and spike and dome morphology have a significantly larger peak  $I_{CaL}$  as well as greater total charge compared to a cell type where  $I_{to}$  is absent (29, 44). However, what happens under pathophysiological conditions when  $I_{to}$  is altered? How does this affect the magnitude and kinetics of  $I_{CaL}$ ?

A smaller  $I_{to}$  results in a significant reduction in peak  $I_{CaL}$  as well as total charge when compared with a cell type where  $I_{to}$  is prominent (Figure 3B) (12, 29). The reduction in  $I_{CaL}$  will affect  $Ca^{2+}$  transients (12) and ultimately contraction (Figure 3C). These observations were verified in a study by Cooper *et al.*, (103) who applied previously recorded failing human hearts APs to healthy ventricular rat myocytes using AP voltage clamp techniques. The results demonstrated that applying HF-like AP waveforms to healthy cardiomyocytes lead to a reduced  $I_{CaL}$  and a reduced  $Ca^{2+}$  transient compared to when a human non-failing AP waveform was applied to the same cell. The loss of  $I_{to,f}$  also results in a loss of the transmural gradient in phase 1 repolarization resulting in Epi and Endo tissue having a similar AP morphology (Figure 6). As the early repolarization phase is important

to synchronize  $Ca^{2+}$  transients and cell shortening across the ventricular wall, a loss of  $I_{to}$  will ultimately affect contraction and worsen energy expenditure in the failing heart. This indicates that restoration of the early repolarization may be beneficial to patients in heart failure. However, it is important to note that in the failing heart, changes in AP waveform and duration due to loss of  $I_{to}$  and other ionic currents should not be considered separately from changes in EC coupling.

### 6.3. Pharmacology

Kv4 currents are selectively inhibited by several spider toxins containing three disulfide bonds that form an "inhibitory cysteine knot," including the Heteropoda venatoria toxins (104) HpTX2 (105) and HpTX3 (6), the Phrixotrichus auratus toxins PaTx1 and PaTx2 (106) and the Theraphosa leblondi toxins TLx1-3 (107). These toxins exert their function by binding to the extracellular linker region between transmembrane segments S3B and S4 (105, 108) and rather than occluding the channel pore, these toxins work by interfering with the channel's gating mechanism and stabilizes the closed state of the channel protein (108,109). Recently, Kv4 channels have been shown to be blocked by the AmmTX3 of the  $\alpha$ -KTX15 family of scorpion toxins, principally in the presence of the auxiliary subunits DPP6 and DPP10 (110).

Kv4.3/ $I_{to,f}$  is blocked by 4-aminopyridine (4-AP) in millimolar range concentrations (111). However, 4-AP also blocks Kv1 channels/ $I_{to,s}$  in micromolar concentrations, which limits the use of 4-AP to discriminate between  $I_{to,f}$  and  $I_{to,s}$ . Interestingly the underlying mechanisms are different.  $I_{to,s}$  4-AP is blocked in the open-state whereas 4-AP binds to  $I_{to,f}$  in the closed state (112), which results in complex recovery properties of  $I_{to}$  (112).  $I_{to,f}$  is blocked by several sodium channel blockers, including flecainide (113) and quinidine (114) and several calcium channel blockers, including nifedipine (115). Since a large phase 1 repolarization and  $I_{to}$  is thought to play a central role in the BrS,  $I_{to}$  blockers could be of therapeutic value in BrS. In line with this, hydroquinidine could prevent VT/VF induction in a group of asymptomatic BrS patients with inducible arrhythmias (116) as well as reduced the occurrence of arrhythmias in BrS patients that had suffered several ICD shocks (117). However, quinidine is associated with frequent gastrointestinal side-effects (84) and the development of better  $I_{to}$  antagonists could be beneficial for treating BrS patients.

We have recently added an  $I_{to,f}$  activator, NS5806, to this list of  $I_{to}$  affecting compounds. NS5806 increases  $I_{to,f}$  peak currents and slows current decay (27). This resulted in enhanced phase 1 repolarization in canine ventricular wedge preparations (62). NS5806 has been suggested to modulate the interaction between the hydrophobic groove on KChIP2 and Kv4 as well as to



affect  $Ca^{2+}$  sensitivity of KChIP2(118); however, in the absence of KChIP2 there is still substantial effect of NS5806 on Kv4.3. currents(119) suggesting additional binding sites for NS5806 on the Kv4 subunits.

## 7. $I_{to}$ AS THERAPEUTIC TARGET FOR HEART FAILURE?

Several lines of evidence suggest that restoring  $I_{to}$  in the setting of heart failure could be beneficial: 1) Application of an  $I_{to,f}$  activator will result in restoration of the spike-and-dome morphology (120) resulting in an immediate increase in  $Ca^{2+}$  influx into the cell during the course of an AP; 2) by restoring  $I_{to,f}$ , the transmural gradient in phase 1 repolarization would also be restored which would result in a better coordination of the calcium transients and transmural contraction. This could potentially decrease the energy expenditure and improve the contractile function of the heart, and 3) on the long term basis, enhancement of  $I_{to,f}$  will maintain SR load since a greater amount of  $Ca^{2+}$  will enter the cell during each AP. We have recently demonstrated that application of the  $I_{to}$  activator NS5806, resulted in restoration in the spike and dome morphology of the AP in failing hearts (Figure 6). Despite the clear evidence for the potential benefit of modulation of  $I_{to,f}$  in heart failure, these studies are still lacking in animal models with classical spike-dome AP morphology, which would be more applicable to humans. Novel  $I_{to,f}$  agonists, such as NS5806, and the greater technological potential for viral gene transfer (121) will greatly enhance the prospects of exploring this hypothesis in the near future.

## 8. SUMMARY

Because of its prominent role in cardiac excitability,  $I_{to}$  is one of the most studied  $K^+$  currents.  $I_{to}$  plays a role in Brugada syndrome and is altered in a number of cardiomyopathies including heart failure. In addition, it is clear that the  $I_{to}$  mediated spike-and-dome morphology is essential for normal repolarization and can have important effects on EC coupling in canine and human hearts. The spike and dome-morphology results in a significant increase in peak  $I_{CaL}$  as well as total charge when compared to a cell type where  $I_{to}$  is reduced or absent. In the setting of heart failure, where  $I_{to}$  is known to be reduced, this reduction in  $I_{to}$  results in reduced  $Ca^{2+}$  influx into the cell via  $I_{CaL}$ . Augmentation of  $I_{to}$  in heart failure may have a beneficial effect on cardiac output since application of an  $I_{to}$  activator will result in restoration of the spike-and-dome morphology resulting in an immediate increase in  $Ca^{2+}$  influx into the cell during the course of an AP. Furthermore, enhancement of  $I_{to}$  may re-establish the transmural gradient of phase 1 repolarization and improve the synchronization of contraction which will minimize the metabolic stress of the failing heart. On a long term basis, increasing  $I_{to}$  may help maintain SR load since a greater amount of  $Ca^{2+}$

will enter the cell during each AP. Further studies are warranted to examine this hypothesis.

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