

Potentiation of the Kv1 Family K⁺ Channel by Cortisone Analogues

Yaping Pan,[†] Elena J. Levin,[†] Matthias Quick,^{‡,§} and Ming Zhou^{*,†}

 † † † Department of Physiology and Cellular Biophysics, College of Physicians and Surgeons and $^\ddag$ Department of Psychiatry and Center for Molecular Recognition, Columbia University, 630 West 168th Street, New York, New York 10032, United States § Division of Molecular Therapeutics, New York State Psychiatric Institute, 1051 Riverside Drive, New York, New York 10032, United States

ABSTRACT: The Kv1 family voltage-dependent K⁺ channels are essential for termination of action potentials in neurons and myocytes. These channels form a stable complex with their beta subunits $(Kv\beta)$, some of which inhibit channel activity. Cortisone potentiates Kv1 channel by binding to Kv β and promoting its dissociation from the channel, but its half-maximum effective concentration is ∼46 μM. To identify corticosteroids that are more efficient than cortisone, we examined 25 cortisone analogues and found that fluticasone propionate potentiates channel current with a half-maximum effective concentration (EC_{50}) of 37 \pm 1.1 nM. Further studies showed that fluticasone propionate potentiates channel current by inducing dissociation of Kvβ, and docking of fluticasone propionate into the cortisone binding site reveals potential interactions that enhance the EC_{50} value. Thus, fluticasone

propionate provides a starting point for rational design of more efficient small-molecule compounds that increase Kv1 activity and affect the integrity of the Kv1-Kv β complex.

 \bf{V} oltage-dependent potassium channels (Kv) are tetrameric
integral membrane proteins that allow K⁺ to flow out of a
sell unear membrane depelvination. The efflux of K⁺ brings the cell upon membrane depolarization. The efflux of K^+ brings the membrane potential back to the resting value, thus reducing the cell's excitability. In humans, reduced Kv1 channel activity due to heterozygous loss-of-function mutations has been linked directly to epilepsy and atrial fibrillation, $1,2$ and in theory, Kv1 channel openers could decrease hyperexcitability found in these diseases. However, currently there are n[o c](#page-4-0)linically useful Kv1 channel openers.

Kv1 channels assemble with a cytosolic beta subunit $(Kv\beta)$ to form a stable complex with a stoichiometry of $(Kv1)₄(Kvβ1)₄$.³⁻⁸ The functions of Kv $β$ are at least 3-fold. First, Kv1 and Kv β associate in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) at an [e](#page-4-0)arly stage [of](#page-4-0) channel biosynthesis, 9,10 and an intact Kv1-Kv $β$ complex is exported to its final destination on the plasma membrane more efficiently than Kv1 al[one.](#page-4-0)^{9,11,12} Second, Kv β has a large impact on channel activities. There are three mammalian Kv β genes, Kv β 1–3.¹³ Kv β 1 an[d Kv](#page-4-0) β 3 have flexible N-termini that block the channel, 14 a mechanism commonly known as N-type inactivation.^{1[5,1](#page-5-0)6} Third, and perhaps most intriguingly, all three Kvβs shar[e](#page-5-0) a highly conserved and structured core region $17,18$ tha[t act](#page-5-0)s as a functional aldo-keto reductase with NADPH as a cofactor.^{19−21} Oxidation of the NADPH on the co[nserv](#page-5-0)ed core of Kvβ reduces N-type inactivation.^{19,20} However, the physio[logica](#page-5-0)l function of this redox regulated channel activity remains a mystery.

Although [the](#page-5-0) Kv1-Kv β complex is stable under physiological conditions, cortisone induces dissociation of $Kv\beta$ from the channel by binding to Kv β at a site close to the Kv1-Kv β interface.²² When cortisone was applied to the Kv1-Kv β 1 complex, a significant increase of current was observed due to loss of N-type inactivation, and the effect had a half-maximum effective concentration (EC₅₀) of 46 \pm 1.1 μ M.²² In addition to being a Kv1 channel opener, cortisone could be a chemical knockout reagent to facilitate investigation of $Kv\beta$ $Kv\beta$ functions in physiology. Eliminating Kv β after the Kv1-Kv β complex is already delivered to its intended position has an advantage over genetic knockout of Kvβ genes, because the chemical approach will likely preserve the location and surface expression level of the channel. As the first step to improving the affinity and efficacy of cortisone, we examined how cortisone analogues affect channel current.

Modulation of Kv1 Current by Cortisone Analogues. A total of 25 commercially available cortisone analogues were examined, and the analogues were perfused to inside-out patches expressing Kv1.1 and Kv β 1. A single concentration of 500 μ M was used for the majority of the analogues, except for cortisone 21-acetate and fluticasone propionate, which were 100 and 20 μ M in the initial test due to low solubility. Change in channel current after perfusion of a compound was quantified and plotted in Figure 1. Typical currents before and after perfusion are shown for the vehicle control (Figure 1a), cortisone (Figure 1b), cortis[on](#page-1-0)e 21-acetate (Figure 1c), and fluticasone propionate (Figure 1d). Only two compounds, [co](#page-1-0)rtisone 21-acetate a[nd](#page-1-0) fluticasone propionate, potenti[at](#page-1-0)ed channel current significantly (Figur[e](#page-1-0) 1e and f).

To further characterize the effect of the two compounds, channel current was recorded at [var](#page-1-0)ious concentrations of either cortisone 21-acetate or fluticasone propionate, and

Received: May 10, 2012 Accepted: July 17, 2012 Published: July 17, 2012

Figure 1. Potentiation of Kv1 current by cortisone analogues. (a−d) Current traces of Kv1.1 co-expressed with Kvβ1 before (black) and after (red) perfusion of the vehicle (1% DMSO) (a), 500 μ M cortisone (b), 100 μ M cortisone 21-acetate (c), or 20 μ M fluticasone propionate (d). Scale bars represent 300 pA and 10 ms. (e) Chemical structures of cortisone, cortisone 21-acetate, and fluticasone propionate. (f) ΔI_{ss} after perfusion of the vehicle (1% DMSO), cortisone and 25 cortisone analogues. (g) Normalized ΔI_{ss} induced by different concentrations of cortisone (O), cortisone 21acetate (□), and fluticasone propionate (△) in Kv1.1 co-expressed with Kv β 1. The solid curves are the dose–response function fit to the data points. Error bars are SEM from 3 to 13 patches.

dose−response profiles were constructed (Figure 1g), which led to an estimated EC_{50} of 9.0 \pm 1.1 μ M and 37 \pm 1.1 nM for cortisone 21-acetate and fluticasone propionate, respectively. Although the EC_{50} value for cortisone 21-acetate is slightly lower than that of cortisone (46 μ M), that of fluticasone propionate is substantially lower.

Mechanism of Kv1 Current Potentiation. To examine if potentiation of current in the presence of cortisone 21-acetate or fluticasone propionate is mediated by the conserved core of Kvβ1, a mutant Kv1.1, Kv1.1-inact was tested. The Kv1.1-inact construct contains the inactivation gate of $Kv\beta1$ spliced onto the N-terminus of Kv1.1, and therefore lacks the core domain while still generating inactivating currents similar to these produced by co-expression Kv1.1 and Kv β 1^{19,22} (Figure 2a). When perfused to the inside-out patches expressing Kv1.1 inact, neither cortisone 21-acetate nor flutic[ason](#page-5-0)e propio[na](#page-2-0)te increased current significantly more than the vehicle control (Figure 2a and d), indicating that both compounds potentiate channel current through the conserved core of Kv β 1.

Altho[ug](#page-2-0)h cortisone 21-acetate has a pregnene ring identical to that of cortisone, fluticasone propionate does not, and this raises the question of whether the two compounds bind to Kv β 1 similarly to cortisone. A previous study showed that Kv β provides a deep binding pocket to accommodate the pregnene ring of cortisone, and a mutation in the binding pocket, V245R, eliminates cortisone binding. 22 We therefore examined how the compounds affect the V245R mutant protein. Both compounds induced a small change in [c](#page-5-0)hannel current, which was not significantly different from the vehicle controls (Figure 2b and d). These results confirmed that the two compounds likely interact with $Kv\beta1$ at the same site where cortisone bi[nd](#page-2-0)s.

To find out if cortisone 21-acetate or fluticasone propionate potentiate channel current by promoting dissociation of $Kv\beta1$, we tested the two compounds on the Kv β 1-Kv1.1 chimera, in which Kv β 1 was spliced to the N-terminus of Kv1.1 and thus cannot dissociate from the channel. The chimera was not potentiated by either of the compounds, indicating that both compounds modify channel current by inducing dissociation of Kv β 1 (Figure 2c and d).

To further demonstrate that cortisone 21-acetate or fluticasone pr[op](#page-2-0)ionate binds to $Kv\beta1$ at the same site as cortisone, we used a scintillation proximity assay (SPA) to measure the binding of radio-labeled cortisone to Kv β . By competing with the labeled cortisone with various concentrations of unlabeled cortisone, an equilibrium inhibition constant (K_i) was obtained at 30 \pm 10 μ M (Figure 2e). The

Figure 2. Mechanism of channel potentiation by cortisone 21-acetate and fluticasone propionate. (a−c) Current traces of Kv1.1-inact (a), Kv1.1 coexpressed with Kvβ1 V245R (b), and Kvβ1-Kv1.1 chimera (c) before (black) and after (red) perfusion of 100 μ M cortisone 21-acetate (left panel) or 20 μM fluticasone propionate (right panel). Scale bars represent 300 pA and 10 ms. (d) ΔI_{ss} after perfusion of the vehicle (1% DMSO), cortisone 21-acetate, or fluticasone propionate. Error bars are SEM from 3 to 5 patches. (e) SPA-based ³H-cortisone equilibrium binding with increasing concentrations of cortisone. The solid curve corresponds to data fit with a single-site binding isotherm. Error bars are SEM from 3 measurements. (f) SPA-based ³H-cortisone equilibrium binding without or with cortisone analogues. Error bars are SEM from 3 measurements.

Figure 3. Comparison of cortisone and fluticasone propionate binding to Kv β . (a) Surface representation of the Kv β binding site shown with either the docking model of fluticasone propionate (left) or cortisone (right) from the crystal structure (gray), overlaid with a docking model produced by the same protocol used for the fluticasone propionate model (black). (b) Fluticasone propionate (left) and cortisone (right) shown as spheres. (c) The location of the binding site on the Kvβ tetramer (blue) shown in complex with the channel T1 domain (teal, PDB 1EXB). The inset shows expected clashes between cortisone (gray) or fluticasone propionate (black) and residues 75−76 on the T1 domain.

Figure 4. Cortisone and fluticasone propionate potentiate Kv1 current in HEK cells. Current traces of Kv1.1 co-expressed with Kvβ1 from whole-cell patch clamped HEK cells before (black) and after (red) perfusion of the vehicle (1% DMSO) (a), 200 μ M cortisone (b), or 20 μ M fluticasone propionate (c). Scale bars represent 300 pA and 30 ms. (d) ΔI_{ss} after perfusion of the vehicle (1% DMSO), cortisone, or fluticasone propionate. Error bars are SEM from 3 to 5 patches.

value is comparable to the EC_{50} values obtained from measuring dissociation of Kv β from the channel.²² Unlabeled cortisone 21-acetate (250 μ M) and fluticasone propionate (250 μ M) reduced cortisone binding by 95 \pm 0.2% an[d 9](#page-5-0)8 \pm 0.1%, respectively (Figure 2f). These data provide another line of evidence that the two identified cortisone analogues bind to the same binding pocket [a](#page-2-0)s cortisone.

Interactions of Fluticasone Propionate with Kv β . To determine how fluticasone propionate interacts with $Kv\beta$ to achieve an EC_{50} almost 1000 fold smaller than that of cortisone, we attempted to obtain a structure of fluticasone propionate in complex with $Kv\beta$, but our repeated efforts were unsuccessful. We therefore used the program AutoDock Vina²³ to model fluticasone propionate into the known binding site for cortisone. The lowest energy conformation is sho[wn](#page-5-0) in Figure 3a. As a control, an identical docking protocol was performed with cortisone, which predicted a conformation for the ligand [w](#page-2-0)ith a 0.9 Å root-mean-square deviation from the crystallographically determined position (Figure 3a, right). While the fluticasone propionate model suggests some possible electrostatic interactions with the protein not p[re](#page-2-0)sent with cortisone, including a hydrogen bond between a fluorine atom and residue Lys44 on the protein, a more significant contributor to the lower EC_{50} of fluticasone propionate may be the improved shape complementarity between the ligand and binding site. The fluorine atoms on fluticasone propionate appear to increase the area of the interacting surface between the ligand and the binding pocket (Figure 3a). Also, the additional double bond between carbons 1 and 2 introduces a kink to the steroid rings that better matches the [s](#page-2-0)ock-like shape of the cavity (Figure 3b).

As shown in Figure 3c, cortisone's position in the binding pocket [on](#page-2-0) Kv β results in steric clashes between the D ring and the hydroxyl group on t[he](#page-2-0) 17th position and residues 75 and 76 on the T1 domain of the channel, leading to dissociation of Kv β . Fluticasone propionate has two large substitutions at the 17th position, resulting in an increased volume protruding into the $Kv\beta/T1$ interface. The more severe steric clash generated by the presence of fluticasone propionate may contribute to its lower apparent EC_{50} .

Cortisone and Fluticasone Propionate Potentiate Kv1 Current in HEK Cells. Since all electrophysiological studies have been performed on inside-out patches with cortisone and fluticasone propionate being perfused directly to the intracellular side of the membrane, as a first step to demonstrate the utility of these compounds, we examined them on HEK293

cells stably transfected with Kv1.1 and Kv β 1. The whole-cell patch clamp configuration was employed, and the compounds were applied to the extracellular side of a cell. Cortisone and fluticasone propionate both potentiated channel current significantly (Figure 4a−d), indicating that both could be effective on primary cells or in an organism.

Discussion. In summary, we have found that fluticasone propionate potentiates Kv1 current by promoting dissociation of Kv β 1. Compounds that target Kv β have specificity to Kv1 channels because of exclusive assembly between Kv1 and Kv β .^{3,8,24} The EC₅₀ of the fluticasone propionate effect is significantly smaller than that of cortisone, and the improvemen[t c](#page-4-0)[an](#page-5-0) be attributed, at least in part, to favorable interactions between fluorine on the ligand and a positively charged residue on the protein and to better shape complementarity between the ligand and the binding pocket. It is intriguing that although fluticasone propionate has a much lower EC_{50} value, its maximum effect on ΔI_{ss} is smaller than that of cortisone (Figure 1d,f). Nevertheless, all three corticosteroids are highly effective in potentiating channel current, and fluticasone propion[at](#page-1-0)e represents an improved starting point over cortisone for further structure−activity studies to identify compounds that have better efficiency to potentiate Kv1 channel current.

Fluticasone propionate has long been used as an inhaled drug to treat asthma, and because it is an analogue of corticosteroid, its mechanism of action is thought to be related to the regulation of the immune response. However, the current study suggests that fluticasone propionate may play an additional role: Kv1 and Kvβ1 are both highly expressed on airway smooth muscle cells,²⁵ and the inhaled fluticasone propionate could potentiate these channels in the smooth muscle, which would lead to relaxati[on](#page-5-0) of the smooth muscle cells and relief of airway obstruction.

■ METHODS

Molecular Biology and Electrophysiological Recordings. For oocyte expression, the full length cDNA of rat Kv1.1 (accession number NM_173095) or that of rat Kvβ1 (accession number NM_017303) was cloned into a modified pBluescript vector (a gift from Dr. Mark Sonders, Columbia University) between the KpnI and EcoRI sites for in vitro transcription. The Kv1.1-inact or the Kv β 1-Kv1.1 connected chimera was generated by splicing the DNA sequence encoding residues 1 to 70 of Kvβ1 or the full length of Kvβ1 onto that of Kv1.1 (encoding residues 2 to 495-stop) by the overlapping PCR method, respectively. The PCR products were then ligated into the same pBluescript vector. Point mutations were made using the QuikChange kit (Agilent Technologies). mRNA was

prepared by in vitro T7 polymerase transcription after DNA was linearized with NotI. mRNAs were purified using the Trizol reagent (Invitrogen Inc.) and injected into Xenopus oocytes for channel expression. For co-expression, mRNAs of Kv1.1 and Kv β 1 were mixed and injected together into oocytes. The inside-out patch clamp recordings followed the same procedures detailed in refs 19 and 20.

To prepare HEK293 cells stably transfected with Kv1.1 and Kvβ1, the cDNA of Kv1.1 was cloned into a pcDNA5/FRT/TO vector and that of Kvβ1 was cloned into a pIRESpuro vector [\(bo](#page-5-0)th f[rom](#page-5-0) Invitrogen). The Flp-in HEK293 cell line was used for transfections and the stably transfected cell lines were maintained under three antibiotics, blasticidin (final concentration of 15 μ g/mL), puromycin (final concentration of 2 μ g/mL), and hygromycin B (final concentration of 100 μ g/mL). Tetracycline at the final concentration of 2 μg/mL was added 18−24 h before patch clamp experiments to induce channel expression. The glass patch pipette solution contained (in mM): K-aspartate 110, $MgCl₂$ 1, CaCl₂ 1, EGTA 11, HEPES 10, and ATP- K_2 5 at pH 7.3. The external solution contained (in mM): NaCl 132, KCl 4.8, MgCl₂ 1.2, CaCl₂ 2, HEPES 10 at pH 7.4, and glucose 5. K⁺ currents were elicited by holding the patch at -80 mV and stepping to +60 mV for 400 ms.

Cortisone analogues were first dissolved in dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO) and then diluted into the internal buffer to the desired concentrations. The final concentration of DMSO was kept at 1% (v/ v) for all analogues. Kvβ1 has a cysteine residue at position 7 that can be oxidized on inside-out patches to affect channel inactivation.²⁶ To eliminate concerns that the effect could be due to cysteine oxidation, we mutated the seventh position cysteine to an alanine, for Kv β [1](#page-5-0) and Kv β 1-Kv1.1. ΔI_{ss} , the increase of steady-state current as a fraction of the initial inactivating current, was calculated by the following equation:

$$
\Delta I_{\rm ss} = \frac{I_{\rm ss,A} - I_{\rm ss,B}}{I_{\rm peak,B} - I_{\rm ss,B}}
$$

where $I_{ss,A}$ and $I_{ss,B}$ are the steady-state currents, measured at 200 ms after depolarization, after and before compounds perfusion, respectively. $I_{peak,B}$ is the peak current amplitude before compounds perfusion. All chemicals were purchased from Sigma.

Scintillation Proximity Assay. The core domain of $Kv\beta2$ was expressed and purified as described in ref 20. Kv β 2 was used instead of Kvβ1 because it is more stable biochemically, and the amino acid sequences of the proteins are more than 80% identical. It has been demonstrated previously that cortisone [can](#page-5-0) bind to both $Kv\beta$ cores, and the binding promotes dissociation.²² The Kv β 2 core used in the binding study carries a mutation, W272A, which eliminates a secondary binding site that is not invo[lve](#page-5-0)d in dissociation of $Kv\beta$.²²

Binding of 80 nM [1,2,6,7⁻³H]cortisone (90 Ci/mmol; American Radiolabeled Chemicals, Inc.) to 1 μ g of purified protein [wa](#page-5-0)s measured in 100 μL of 50 mM Tris/Mes, pH 8.0, 300 mM KCl, 10% $[w/v]$ glycerol, 100 μ M tris(2-carboxyethyl)phosphine (TCEP) containing 2.5 mg Cu^{2+} -coated YSi-SPA beads/mL (Perkin-Elmer) for 4 h at 4 °C. Reactions were performed in 96-well white wall clearbottom plates and assayed in a Wallac photomultiplier tube MicroBeta counter. Non-proximity background signals were determined for all conditions tested in the presence of 400 mM imidazole and used to determine the specific counts per minute (cpm). Appropriate concentrations of the indicated compounds were added to the reactions as indicated. All conditions were tested in triplicate.

Docking. The model of fluticasone propionate was built using the PRODRG server.²⁷ Coordinates from a structure of the unliganded Kv β 1/T1 complex, PDB entry 1EXB,³ were used to build the Kv β tetramer. Hydrog[en](#page-5-0)s and Gasteiger charges were added to ligand and
receptor using AutoDockTools,²⁸ and the docking was performed using AutoDock Vina.²³ Figures of the protein and ligand structures were prepared in PyMol (Schrö [din](#page-5-0)ger, San Diego, CA).

Reagents. Twenty-[fi](#page-5-0)ve cortisone analogues were purchased from Sigma, including cortisone 21-acetate (C3130), fluticasone propionate (F9428), adrenosterone (284998), prednisone (286990), hydrocortisone (H4001), prednisolone (P6004), corticosterone (C2505), androsterone (219010), aldosterone (A9477), 6α-methyl-prednisolone (M0639), betamethasone (B7005), dexamethasone (861871), progesterone (P8783), 17 α -hydroxyprogesterone (H5752), budisonide (B7777), beclomethasone dipropionate (B3022), testosterone (T1500), epitestosterone (E5878), 1,4-androstadiene-3,17-dione (A7505), 5α -androstan-3 β -ol (A2480), 5α -androst-16-en-3-one-(A8008), 5 α -androstan-3 β -ol-16-one (A7386), 5 α -androst-16-en-3 α ol (A7883), cyproterone acetate (C3412), and diflorasone diacetate (D8286).

Data Statistics. The Origin 7.5 software package was used for statistical analysis of the data. The results are expressed as mean ± standard error of mean (SEM). One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to assess changes of a mean value. A value of p < 0.05 was considered significant.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Accession Codes

Coordinates and structure factors of $Kv\beta$ 2-cortisone²² (3EAU) and T1-Kv β 2 complex³ (1EXB) were downloaded from PDB. GenBank identifiers: rat Kv1.1, NM_173095; [ra](#page-5-0)t Kvβ1, NM_017303.

■ AUTHOR INFORMATION

Corresponding Author

*E-mail: mz2140@columbia.edu.

Notes

The auth[ors declare no competin](mailto:mz2140@columbia.edu)g financial interest.

■ REFERENCES

(1) Adelman, J. P., Bond, C. T., Pessia, M., and Maylie, J. (1995) Episodic ataxia results from voltage-dependent potassium channels with altered functions. Neuron 15, 1449−1454.

(2) Olson, T. M., Alekseev, A. E., Liu, X. K., Park, S., Zingman, L. V., Bienengraeber, M., Sattiraju, S., Ballew, J. D., Jahangir, A., and Terzic, A. (2006) Kv1.5 channelopathy due to KCNA5 loss-of-function mutation causes human atrial fibrillation. Hum. Mol. Genet. 15, 2185− 2191.

(3) Gulbis, J. M., Zhou, M., Mann, S., and MacKinnon, R. (2000) Structure of the cytoplasmic beta subunit-T1 assembly of voltagedependent K⁺ channels. Science 289, 123−127.

(4) Long, S. B., Campbell, E. B., and MacKinnon, R. (2005) Crystal structure of a mammalian voltage-dependent Shaker family K⁺ channel. Science 309, 897−903.

(5) Sokolova, O., Accardi, A., Gutierrez, D., Lau, A., Rigney, M., and Grigorieff, N. (2003) Conformational changes in the C terminus of Shaker K⁺ channel bound to the rat Kvbeta2-subunit. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 100, 12607−12612.

(6) Scott, V. E., Rettig, J., Parcej, D. N., Keen, J. N., Findlay, J. B., Pongs, O., and Dolly, J. O. (1994) Primary structure of a beta subunit of alpha-dendrotoxin-sensitive K^+ channels from bovine brain. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 91, 1637−1641.

(7) Yu, W., Xu, J., and Li, M. (1996) NAB domain is essential for the subunit assembly of both alpha-alpha and alpha-beta complexes of shaker-like potassium channels. Neuron 16, 441−453.

(8) Sewing, S., Roeper, J., and Pongs, O. (1996) Kv beta 1 subunit binding specific for shaker-related potassium channel alpha subunits. Neuron 16, 455−463.

(9) Shi, G., Nakahira, K., Hammond, S., Rhodes, K. J., Schechter, L. E., and Trimmer, J. S. (1996) Beta subunits promote K^+ channel surface expression through effects early in biosynthesis. Neuron 16, 843−852.

(10) Nagaya, N., and Papazian, D. M. (1997) Potassium channel alpha and beta subunits assemble in the endoplasmic reticulum. J. Biol. Chem. 272, 3022−3027.

(11) Accili, E. A., Kuryshev, Y. A., Wible, B. A., and Brown, A. M. (1998) Separable effects of human Kvbeta1.2 N- and C-termini on inactivation and expression of human Kv1.4. J. Physiol. 512 (Pt 2), 325−336.

(12) Gu, C., Jan, Y. N., and Jan, L. Y. (2003) A conserved domain in axonal targeting of Kv1 (Shaker) voltage-gated potassium channels. Science 301, 646−649.

(13) Pongs, O., Leicher, T., Berger, M., Roeper, J., Bahring, R., Wray, D., Giese, K. P., Silva, A. J., and Storm, J. F. (1999) Functional and molecular aspects of voltage-gated K⁺ channel beta subunits. Ann. N.Y. Acad. Sci. 868, 344−355.

(14) Rettig, J., Heinemann, S. H., Wunder, F., Lorra, C., Parcej, D. N., Dolly, J. O., and Pongs, O. (1994) Inactivation properties of voltage-gated K⁺ channels altered by presence of beta-subunit. Nature 369, 289−294.

(15) Hoshi, T., Zagotta, W. N., and Aldrich, R. W. (1990) Biophysical and molecular mechanisms of Shaker potassium channel inactivation. Science 250, 533−538.

(16) Zagotta, W. N., Hoshi, T., and Aldrich, R. W. (1990) Restoration of inactivation in mutants of Shaker potassium channels by a peptide derived from ShB. Science 250, 568−571.

(17) Chouinard, S. W., Wilson, G. F., Schlimgen, A. K., and Ganetzky, B. (1995) A potassium channel beta subunit related to the aldo-keto reductase superfamily is encoded by the Drosophila hyperkinetic locus. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 92, 6763−6767.

(18) McCormack, T., and McCormack, K. (1994) Shaker K⁺ channel beta subunits belong to an NAD(P)H-dependent oxidoreductase superfamily. Cell 79, 1133−1135.

(19) Pan, Y., Weng, J., Cao, Y., Bhosle, R., and Zhou, M. (2008) Functional coupling between the Kv1.1 channel and an aldo-keto reductase Kvbeta1. J. Biol. Chem. 283, 8634−8642.

(20) Weng, J., Cao, Y., Moss, N., and Zhou, M. (2006) Modulation of voltage-dependent shaker family potassium channels by an aldo-keto reductase. J. Biol. Chem. 281, 15194−15200.

(21) Tipparaju, S. M., Barski, O. A., Srivastava, S., and Bhatnagar, A. (2008) Catalytic mechanism and substrate specificity of the betasubunit of the voltage-gated potassium channel. Biochemistry 47, 8840−8854.

(22) Pan, Y., Weng, J., Kabaleeswaran, V., Li, H., Cao, Y., Bhosle, R. C., and Zhou, M. (2008) Cortisone dissociates the Shaker family K^+ channels from their beta subunits. Nat. Chem. Biol. 4, 708−714.

(23) Trott, O., and Olson, A. J. (2010) AutoDock Vina: improving the speed and accuracy of docking with a new scoring function, efficient optimization, and multithreading. J. Comput. Chem. 31, 455− 461.

(24) Rhodes, K. J., Strassle, B. W., Monaghan, M. M., Bekele-Arcuri, Z., Matos, M. F., and Trimmer, J. S. (1997) Association and colocalization of the Kvbeta1 and Kvbeta2 beta-subunits with Kv1 alpha-subunits in mammalian brain K⁺ channel complexes. J. Neurosci. 17, 8246−8258.

(25) Adda, S., Fleischmann, B. K., Freedman, B. D., Yu, M., Hay, D. W., and Kotlikoff, M. I. (1996) Expression and function of voltagedependent potassium channel genes in human airway smooth muscle. J. Biol. Chem. 271, 13239−13243.

(26) Ruppersberg, J. P., Stocker, M., Pongs, O., Heinemann, S. H., Frank, R., and Koenen, M. (1991) Regulation of fast inactivation of cloned mammalian IK(A) channels by cysteine oxidation. Nature 352, 711−714.

(27) Schuttelkopf, A. W., and van Aalten, D. M. (2004) PRODRG: a tool for high-throughput crystallography of protein-ligand complexes. Acta Crystallogr. Sect. D 60, 1355−1363.

(28) Morris, G. M., Huey, R., Lindstrom, W., Sanner, M. F., Belew, R. K., Goodsell, D. S., and Olson, A. J. (2009) AutoDock4 and AutoDockTools4: Automated docking with selective receptor flexibility. J. Comput. Chem. 30, 2785−2791.