

## Structures and Functions of Calcium Channel $\beta$ Subunits

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Calcium channel  $\beta$  subunits have profound effects on how  $\alpha_1$  subunits perform. In this article we summarize our present knowledge of the primary structures of  $\beta$  subunits as deduced from cDNAs and illustrate their different properties. Upon co-expression with  $\alpha_1$  subunits, the effects of  $\beta$  subunits vary somewhat between L-type and non-L-type channels mostly because the two types of channels have different responses to voltage which are affected by  $\beta$  subunits, such as long-lasting prepulse facilitation of  $\alpha_{1C}$  (absent in  $\alpha_{1E}$ ) and inhibition by G protein  $\beta\gamma$  dimer of  $\alpha_{1E}$ , absent in  $\alpha_{1C}$ . One  $\beta$  subunit, a brain  $\beta_{2a}$  splice variant that is palmitoylated, has several effects not seen with any of the others, and these are due to palmitoylation. We also illustrate the finding that functional expression of  $\alpha_1$  in oocytes requires a  $\beta$  subunit even if the final channel shows no evidence for its presence. We propose two structural models for  $Ca^{2+}$  channels to account for " $\alpha_1$  alone" channels seen in cells with limited  $\beta$  subunit expression. In one model,  $\beta$  dissociates from the mature  $\alpha_1$  after proper folding and membrane insertion. Regulated channels seen upon co-expression of high levels of  $\beta$  would then have subunit composition  $\alpha_1\beta$ . In the other model, the "chaperoning"  $\beta$  remains associated with the mature channel and " $\alpha_1$  alone" channels would in fact be  $\alpha_1\beta$  channels. Upon co-expression of high levels of  $\beta$  the regulated channels would have composition  $[\alpha_1\beta]\beta$ .

### INTRODUCTION

Analysis of the subunit composition of voltage-gated calcium channels has shown that they invariably are formed of four subunits:  $\alpha_1$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\alpha_2$  and  $\delta$ , of which the last two are a proteolytically processed disulfide-linked dimer that originates from a single precursor mRNA. Six non-allelic  $\alpha_1$ , four non-allelic  $\beta$ , and one  $\alpha_2\delta$  genes have thus far been discovered (reviewed in Perez-Reyes and Schneider, 1996) and the transcripts

of most if not all genes are subject to alternative splicing. This gives rise to a large degree of molecular diversity, based on both the genes that originate the components that make up the functional channel, and the processing to which the individual subunits are subject.

Pore formation, voltage sensing, and drug/toxin binding are properties conferred by the  $\alpha_1$  subunits (Perez-Reyes *et al.*, 1989). Correlative studies based on both, the functional properties of cloned  $\alpha_1$  subunits expressed together with  $\beta$  and  $\alpha_2\delta$  subunits in eukaryotic cells and the determination of the sites of expression of the cloned  $\alpha_1$  subunits, have given a picture in which  $\alpha_{1S}$  forms the skeletal muscle  $Ca^{2+}$  channel,  $\alpha_{1C}$  forms the cardiac, the smooth muscle, and a DHP-sensitive form of neuronal  $Ca^{2+}$  channels,  $\alpha_{1D}$  is responsible primarily for the DHP-sensitive receptor/ $G_{i/o}$ -regulated  $Ca^{2+}$  channel found in endocrine cells, and  $\alpha_{1B}$  forms the DHP-insensitive receptor/ $G_{i/o}$ -regulated  $Ca^{2+}$  channel found in neurons. Subcellular distri-

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bution places both  $\alpha_{1B}$  and  $\alpha_{1A}$  in presynaptic terminals, and functional studies indicate that classical N-type channels are formed mostly by  $\alpha_{1B}$ . Although subcellular distribution suggests  $\alpha_{1A}$  to be responsible also for P-type channels in cerebellar Purkinje cells, the pharmacological properties of expressed  $\alpha_{1A}$  have thus far not mimicked P-type currents sufficiently to allow an unequivocal assignment. This could be because the actual  $\alpha_1$  forming P-type channels has not been cloned, or that P-type channels are formed by particular splice variants of  $\alpha_{1A}$  that have not yet been properly assembled, or that proper pharmacology depends not only on the identity of the  $\alpha_{1A}$  but also of the combination of both the particular  $\beta$  and  $\alpha_2\delta$  subunits that accompany  $\alpha_{1A}$  and some as yet undefined factor(s) contributed by the neuronal cells in general or the Purkinje cell in particular. [Noteworthy in this regard is to mention that it has not been possible to observe in *Xenopus* oocytes stimulation of the cardiac  $\alpha_{1C}$  by cAMP dependent protein kinase-mediated phosphorylation, i.e., in response to activation of the  $\beta$  adrenergic receptor system or to addition of cAMP, even though when expressed in  $\beta$  adrenergic receptor expressing baby hamster kidney (BHK) cells the clone shows a robust response (Yatani *et al.*, 1995)]. The most elusive molecular identity is that of the T-type channels. Of the cloned  $\alpha_1$  subunits, the one that comes closest to exhibiting T-type properties is  $\alpha_{1E}$ . It has permeation properties expected for T-type currents (Bourinet *et al.*, 1996) and activates at lower voltage than all other  $\alpha_1$  subunits. However, the actual voltages at which it begins activating and the kinetic profile of block by Ni differ from what is found upon expressing  $\alpha_{1E}$  in model cells. Whether indeed  $\alpha_{1E}$  subunits are responsible for T-type currents is an unresolved matter.

Below we provide an overview of the structural and functional features of regulatory  $\beta$  subunits. Except for the results of Dolphin and collaborators, who suppressed  $\beta$  subunit synthesis in natural neuronal cells by microinjection of antisense oligonucleotides (Campbell *et al.* 1995; Berrow *et al.*, 1995), most of the knowledge about roles of  $\beta$  subunits in regulating the functions of  $\alpha_1$  subunits stems from "reconstituting"  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel activity by coexpression in *Xenopus* oocytes, fibroblast L cells, and human embryonic kidney (HEK) cells. This has been complemented by direct protein-protein interaction analysis (Pragnell *et al.*, 1994; De Waard *et al.*, 1994; Witcher *et al.*, 1995; Qin *et al.*, 1997).

## PRIMARY STRUCTURE OF $\beta$ SUBUNITS

As has been the case for all  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel subunits, the first  $\beta$  subunit cloned was that of the skeletal muscle and was based on partial amino acid sequence analysis of the  $\beta$  subunit that forms part of the T-tubule dihydropyridine receptor/ $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel complex. ( $\beta_1$ , Ruth *et al.*, 1989). In contrast to the then known  $\alpha_1$  subunit, which was predicted on the basis of Kyte-Doolittle analysis to be formed of four homologous repeats, each being homologous to a Shaker voltage-gated  $\text{K}^+$  channel with six transmembrane segments of which the fourth (S4) was the positively charged voltage sensor, the cloned skeletal muscle  $\beta$  subunit did not contain hydrophobic segments that would suggest a transmembrane topology. This leads to the conclusion that it had to be cytoplasmic and associated with the channel proper through protein-protein interaction forces.

Cloning on the basis of sequence similarity by F. Hofmann's laboratory in Germany and by several other laboratories, including ours, led in a relatively short time to the identification of alternative splice variants of  $\beta_1$ : rat  $\beta_{1b}$  and  $\beta_{1c}$  expressed in brain (Pragnell *et al.*, 1991; Powers *et al.*, 1992), and of other  $\beta$  subunits:  $\beta_{2a}$ ,  $\beta_{2b}$ , and  $\beta_3$  expressed in rabbit heart, lung, and aorta (Hullin *et al.*, 1992) and  $\beta_{2a}$ ,  $\beta_3$ , and  $\beta_4$  expressed in rat brain (Castellano *et al.*, 1992, 1993a,b). More recently, two homologues of the mammalian  $\beta_3$  subunit were cloned from *Xenopus* oocyte RNA (Tareilus *et al.*, 1997). Table I presents a summary of successful cloning efforts. Table II lists the chromosomal location of  $\beta$  subunit genes in man and mouse. While each of the  $\beta$  genes is found on different chromosomes in man, in the mouse,  $\beta_2$  and  $\beta_4$  are both on chromosome 2 proximal to the its centromere.

Figure 1 shows an alignment of the deduced primary amino acid sequences, including the exon-exon boundaries as inferred from the intron-exon structure determined by Flockerzi's laboratory for  $\beta_3$ . The alignment clearly highlights the existence of five amino acid sequence similarity domains: two highly variable N-terminal D1 and C-terminal D5 domains, one of two middle D3 domains, and two highly similar "connecting" D2 and D4 domains of ca. 130 and 150 amino acids, respectively.  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$ , but apparently not  $\beta_3$  and  $\beta_4$ , come in several flavors through the use of alternatively spliced exons to code for sequence similarity domains 1, 3, and 5, which also gives a structural basis for the evolutionary organization, relatedness, and differences among the five similarity domains. As

Table I. GenBank Accession Numbers of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  Channel  $\beta$  Subunit Clones

Type	Subtype	Name in report	Source	GenBank #	Reference	
$\beta 1$	$\beta 1a$	$\beta$	Rabbit skeletal muscle	M25871	Ruth <i>et al.</i> , 1989	
		$\beta 1M$	Human skeletal muscle	M92301	Powers <i>et al.</i> , 1992	
		$\beta c$	Human heart	L06112	Collin <i>et al.</i> , 1993	
	$\beta 1b$	$\beta 1c$	$\beta 1c$	Human genomic DNA	U86960	Powers <i>et al.</i> , direct submission
			brain $\beta$	Rat brain	X61394	Pragnell <i>et al.</i> , 1991
		$\beta a$	$\beta 1B2$	Human hippocampus	M92303	Powers <i>et al.</i> , 1992
			$\beta a$	Human heart	L06110	Collin <i>et al.</i> , 1993
	$\beta 1c$	—	Human genomic DNA	U86961	Powers, <i>et al.</i> , direct submission	
		brain $\beta 2$	Human brain	M76560	Williams <i>et al.</i> , 1992	
		$\beta 1B1$	Human hippocampus	M92302	Powers <i>et al.</i> , 1992	
		$\beta b$	Human heart	L06111	Collin <i>et al.</i> , 1993	
		$\beta 1c$	Human genomic DNA	U86960	Powers <i>et al.</i> , direct submission	
	$\beta 2$	$\beta 2a$	$\beta 2$	Rat brain	M80545	Perez-Reyes <i>et al.</i> , 1992
$\beta 2c$			Human brain	U95019	Williams, 1997, direct submission	
			Rabbit brain	—	Qin and Birnbaumer, unpublished	
$\beta 2a'$		CaB2a	Rabbit heart	X64297	Hullin <i>et al.</i> , 1992	
$\beta 2a''$		$\beta 2a$	Mouse brain	L20343	Massa <i>et al.</i> , direct submission	
$\beta 2a'''$		CaB2b $\beta 2b$	Rabbit heart	X64298	Hullin <i>et al.</i> , 1992	
$\beta 2c$		CaB2c	Rabbit heart	X64299	Hullin <i>et al.</i> , 1992	
$\beta 3$	$\beta 3a$	$\beta 3$	Rat brain	M88751	Castellano <i>et al.</i> , 1993a	
		CaB3	Rabbit heart	X64300	Hullin <i>et al.</i> , 1992	
		$\beta 3$	Mouse genomic DNA	U20372	Chin <i>et al.</i> , direct submission	
		$\beta 3a$	Mouse genomic DNA	X76555	Murakami <i>et al.</i> , 1996	
		$\beta 3$	Human embryo	L27584	Collin <i>et al.</i> , 1994	
	$\beta 3b$	xo28	<i>Xenopus</i> oocyte	U33217	Tareilus <i>et al.</i> , 1997	
		xo32	<i>Xenopus</i> oocyte	U33218	Tareilus <i>et al.</i> , 1997	
		$\beta 3b$	Human genomic DNA	X76556	Murakami <i>et al.</i> , direct submission	
		$\beta 4$	Rat brain	L02315	Castellano <i>et al.</i> , 1993b	
		$\beta 4$	Human brain	U95020	Williams, direct submission	
$\beta$	$\beta$	Housefly	X78561	Grabner <i>et al.</i> , 1994		

deduced from the intron–exon boundaries determined for the  $\beta 1$  and  $\beta 3$  genes by Powers *et al.* (1992) and Murakami *et al.* (1996), respectively, the D1 and D3 domains are encoded in single exons and the D5 domain is formed of the 3' half of one exon (exon 12

of  $\beta 3$ ) plus a last coding exon (exon 13 of  $\beta 3$ ), while the two highly homologous D2 and D4 are encoded in four and six exons respectively. For  $\beta 1$  and  $\beta 2$  there are alternative exons encoding for alternative D1, D3, and D5 domains. The N-terminal D1 domains are

Table II. Chromosomal Location of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  Channel Beta Subunits

Calcium channel $\beta$ subunit		Species			
Gene	Protein(s)	Human chromosome	Reference	Mouse chromosome	Reference
CACNLB1	$\beta 1$	17q21–q22	Gregg <i>et al.</i> , 1993 Iles <i>et al.</i> , 1993	—	—
CACNLB2	$\beta 2$	10p12	Taviaux <i>et al.</i> , 1997	prox. 2	Chin <i>et al.</i> , 1995
CACNLB3	$\beta 3$	12q13	Park <i>et al.</i> , 1997	15	Chin <i>et al.</i> , 1995
CACNLB4	$\beta 4$	2q22–q23	Taviaux <i>et al.</i> , 1997	prox. 2	Burgess <i>et al.</i> , 1997 Chin <i>et al.</i> , 1995

**Table III.** Summary of Principal Roles of Ca<sup>2+</sup> Channel  $\beta$  Subunits in Ca<sup>2+</sup> Channel Function

- 
1. Obligatory for surface expression of mature channels
    - $\beta 1$  knockout (CACNLB1) is lethal due to lack of skeletal EC<sup>a</sup> coupling
    - $\beta 4$  most active or active only with  $\alpha_{1A}$
    - the "chaperoning"  $\beta$  may remain associated with or dissociate from the mature channel
  2. Setting of proper kinetics of activation and voltage dependence of activation
    - improved (faster) rates of activation
    - improved coupling of voltage-sensing to pore opening
  3. As seen with  $\alpha_{1C}$ 
    - stabilization of gating modes 1 and 2
    - suppression of null's (mode 0)
    - required for establishment of long-lasting ( $\tau = 20$  sec) prepulse facilitation;  $\beta 2a$  inactive
  - 4 As seen with  $\alpha_{1E}$ 
    - acceleration of inactivation and left shift of the midpotential of steady-state inactivation;  $\beta 2a$  has opposite effect
    - inhibition of inhibition by G<sub>i</sub>/G<sub>o</sub>-coupled receptors acting via G $\beta\gamma$  dimer through competitive interaction at a common C-terminal site
- 

<sup>a</sup> EC, excitation contraction coupling; absence of properly assembled and targeted skeletal  $\alpha_{1S}$ .

either "long" (45–57 amino acids) or "short" (15–17 amino acids) with short domains being structurally unrelated but long domains showing evolutionary relatedness as evidenced by the presence of a cluster of basic amino acids (bold in Fig. 1) followed by a serine-rich region that begins with an invariant SDGST sequence.

Structurally, and as it turned out also biochemically and functionally, one of the most interesting of the domains is that of the short D1 domain of the type 2  $\beta$  subunit expressed in brain: although short (16 amino acids), it is homologous to long domain D1 in that it has an incomplete basic amino acid cluster, lacks the GDST-initiated serine-rich region, and displays a unique Cys-Cys doublet (CC) in positions 3 and 4, found in no other  $\beta$  subunit N-terminus. This doublet was recently shown by Hosey and coworkers to be palmitoylated (Chien *et al.*, 1996).

Figure 2 compares  $\beta$  subunit variants in a schematic form based on their sequence similarity domains, along with the phylogenetic relationships of the D2 and D4 domains. It should be noted that since the short AKQKQKX D3 domain is highly conserved among the four  $\beta$  subunits,  $\beta$  subunits with this, rather than the longer forms of D3 found in  $\beta 1$  and  $\beta 2$ , are best described as highly homologous except in their N- and C-termini.

A visual inspection of the amino acid sequence differences among the various  $\beta$  subunits (Fig. 1) reveals, however, that the subdivision into D1 through D5 sequence similarity domains is simplistic and likely to be naive. There are pockets of marked differences that in all likelihood could have functional consequences of fundamental nature. Using the exon structure of  $\beta 3$  as a reference, areas of this type are the C-termini, sequences located toward the end of exon 2, the middle of exon 3, the stretch encoded in the second half of exon 4 plus the rather variable exon 5 plus the "extension" in the  $\beta 1$  and  $\beta 2$  subunits that include exon 6A. A limited analysis in which we replaced the C-terminus of  $\beta 1a$  with the C-terminus of  $\beta 1B$  (118 amino acids longer) gave a  $\beta$  subunit that regulated  $\alpha_{1E}$  activation and inactivation in a manner that was indistinguishable from that of  $\beta 1a$  (Qin *et al.*, 1996; Olcese, Qin, Stefani, and Birnbaumer, unpublished).

## FUNCTIONS OF CALCIUM CHANNEL $\beta$ SUBUNITS

Functional expression of the skeletal muscle  $\alpha_1$  cDNA in murine L cells, in which  $\beta$  subunit or  $\alpha_{2\delta}$  mRNA levels are undetectable (Kim, H.S., Perez-Reyes, E., and Birnbaumer, L., unpublished), showed that the  $\alpha_1$  subunit is a self-contained pore-forming and voltage-sensing Ca<sup>2+</sup> channel (Perez-Reyes *et al.*, 1989). However, the voltage-sensitive Ca<sup>2+</sup> channel formed under these conditions was highly anomalous in several aspects. The most notable was that the half-time for activation at 0–10 mV was on the order of 5–10 sec, instead of being in the millisecond range (Lacerda *et al.*, 1991). This indicated that, most likely, proper responsiveness to voltage was dependent on additional factors. The immediate attention fell on the proteins that co-purified with  $\alpha_{1S}$  in the dihydropyridine receptor  $\beta$ ,  $\alpha_{2\delta}$  and  $\gamma$ .  $\gamma$  appears to be restricted to the skeletal muscle Ca<sup>2+</sup> channel and has not received much attention. We shall concentrate here on  $\beta$  subunits, interjecting a few recent results with  $\alpha_{2\delta}$  as they relate to its ability to modulate effects of  $\beta$  subunits.

Indeed expression of  $\beta 1a$  in  $\alpha_{1S}$  expressing L cells normalized the activation kinetics of the Ca<sup>2+</sup> channel. The importance of  $\beta$  subunits became apparent not only in these studies but independently also through the studies of Singer *et al.* (1991) who injected  $\alpha_{1C}$  into *Xenopus* oocytes alone and in combination with  $\beta$ ,  $\alpha_{2\delta}$ , and  $\gamma$  and observed marked effects of all regulatory subunits. Subsequently, as the remaining

	----- exon #1 -----		
rt $\beta$ 4:	MSSSYAKNGAADGPHSPSSQVARGTTTRRSRLKRSDGST	TSTSFILRQ	53
rt $\beta$ 3:		<b>MYDSSYVPGFEDSEA</b>	<b>GSADS</b> 20
xo $\beta$ 3:		MYDDLHLHGFEDEV	20
m $\beta$ 2a heart		MKATWIRLLKRAKGGRLKSSDIC	28
rb $\beta$ 2a heart		MLDRHLAAPHQTQGLVLEG	22
rt/hum $\beta$ 2a		YQCCGLVHRRVR	21
rb $\beta$ 2b heart	MNQASGLDLLKISYKGGARRKNRFK	SGSDGSTSSSDTTSNSNFVRQ	50
rb $\beta$ 1:	MVQKTSMSRGPYPSPQEI	PMEVFDPSQPKYSKRKGRFKRSDGSTS	DTTSNSNFVRQ
rt $\beta$ 1:	---SG---	-----	62
		*** *	
	----- exon #2 -----		----- exon #3 -----
rt $\beta$ 4:	-----AI-Q-R-Q-AI-----	S-----K-----A---DV--PS	114
rt $\beta$ 3:	<b>YTSRPLSDSDVLSLEEDRESARREVESQAQQLERAK</b>	<b>HKPVAFVAVRTNVSYCGVLDEECVPQG</b>	<b>82</b>
xo $\beta$ 3:	-----T-----R-----R	L-----A-----A-----	82
rt $\beta$ 2:	-----AV--A-R--A--K--	T-----R-SAAQEDDV--P	82
rb $\beta$ 1:	-----AL-K-A-R--LA--K--	T-----G-NPSPGD-V--E	123
rt $\beta$ 1:	-----	-----Q-	123
	*****	*****	**
	----- exon #4 -----		
rt $\beta$ 4:	TAIS-D-----	--N-----CE-G---L--N--IQ---RG	RFHGG 173
rt $\beta$ 3:	<b>SGVNFEAKDFLBIKE</b>	<b>KYSNDWVIGRLVKEGGDIAPFSPQRLESIRLQEQKAR</b>	<b>RS</b> 138
xo $\beta$ 3:	AAI-----	A--T-----A-----	138
rt $\beta$ 2:	MAIS-----V-	-FN-----CE-G---VK--NM--QH--R-K	QGKFYSS 143
rb $\beta$ 1:	VAIT--P-----	-N-----CEVG---VK-D-L-L---L-	Q-RLSSS 184
rt $\beta$ 1:	-----	-----T--N-----	184
	* ***** *	***** * ** *	
	----- exon #5 -----		----- exon # 6A -----
rt $\beta$ 4:	KSS--S--SLGEMVS-TF-AT-TTT		198
rt $\beta$ 3:	<b>GNP--LS DI GNRSPFPPSL</b>		<b>157</b>
xo $\beta$ 3:	GG-MVS-----I		154
rt $\beta$ 2a/b	KSG--S--SLG-IVPSS-K-T--S	AIDIDATGLDAEENDIPANHRSPKPSANSV	198
rb/rt $\beta$ 2c brain			
rb $\beta$ 1:	KSGD-S--SLG-VVT-TRRPTP-AS	GNEMTNLAFELEPLDLEEDAELGEQSGSAKTSVSSV	247
rt $\beta$ 1a			239
b/c			209
	**	A A A A A	
	----- #6B -----		----- exon # 7 -----
rt $\beta$ 4:	-----V	T--I-----	243
rt $\beta$ 3:	<b>AKQKQKQ</b>	<b>AEHVFPYDVVPSMRPVVLVGPVSLKGYE</b>	<b>VTDMMQALFD</b> 202
xo $\beta$ 3:	-----	---TA-----	199
rt $\beta$ 2a/b	TSPHSKEKRMPPFFKK	T--T-----	251
rb $\beta$ 2c	AKQKQKS	T--T-----	
rb $\beta$ 1:	TTPPPHGTRIPFFKK	T-----II-----	299
rt $\beta$ 1a		-----	299
b/c	AKQKQKS	-----	254
	A A A A A A A A	** ***** *	*****
minimum $\alpha_1$ -regulatory fragment of $\beta$ 1b	+++++	+++++	++ 211-245
	----- # 8 -----		----- exon # 9 -----
rt $\beta$ 4:	-----D--	-----I-----S--A---N---L	-----R 303
rt $\beta$ 3:	<b>FLKHRFDGR</b>	<b>ISITRVTADLSLAKRSVLNPNPKRTIIERS SARSSI</b>	<b>AEVQSEIERIFELAK</b> 262
xo $\beta$ 3:	-----	-----A-----T-----	-----S- 259
rt $\beta$ 2:	-----E--	-----I-----S-HA---NT---L	-----R 311
rb $\beta$ 1:	-----	-----I-----S-HI---NT---L	-----R 359
rt $\beta$ 1:	-----	-----	-----359/314
	*****	*****	*****

**Fig. 1.** Amino acid sequence alignment of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel beta subunits.  $\beta$ 1 through  $\beta$ 4 are products of non-allelic genes; a, b, ... are splice variants. Vertical lines represent exon-exon boundaries of  $\beta$ 1 (Powers *et al.*, 1994) and  $\beta$ 3 (Murakami *et al.*, 1996) and are extrapolated for all  $\beta$  subunits. Exon 1 amino acids are listed for all  $\beta$  subunits; beginning with Exon 2, sequences are compared to that of rat  $\beta$ 3 (reference sequence). -, identical to reference sequence; —, gap. @, stop. Basic amino acid patterns in the N-termini are highlighted in bold; **RRPTP**,  $\beta$ 1a motif phosphorylated by cAMP-dependent protein kinase (DeJongh *et al.*, 1989); **\*\*\*\*\***, minimum  $\beta$ 1b sequence that when expressed in *Xenopus* oocytes alters kinetics of  $\alpha_1$  activation (De Waard *et al.*, 1994). Reference sequences are as follows: master sequence (bold) is rat  $\beta$ 3, (rt $\beta$ 3); non-rat  $\beta$ 1's are compared to rb $\beta$ 1a;  $\beta$ 2b and  $\beta$ 2c are compared to  $\beta$ 2a. rt, rat; rb, rabbit, hum, human; m, mouse; xo, *Xenopus laevis* oocyte. rt $\beta$ 1a = rat $\beta$ 1M; rt $\beta$ 1c = rt $\beta$ 1B1; rt $\beta$ 1b = rt $\beta$ 1B2. N-termini of  $\beta$ 1b,  $\beta$ 2b, and  $\beta$ 4 show evolutionary relatedness; those of the rat  $\beta$ 2a and the human  $\beta$ 2a are also related and carry a palmitoylation motif; N-termini of  $\beta$ 3, mouse  $\beta$ 2a, rat  $\beta$ 2a, rabbit  $\beta$ 2a, and rabbit  $\beta$ 2b appear to have unrelated evolutionary origins.

	----- exon # 10 -----	----- exon # 11 -----			
rtβ4:	-----I-----H-----	-----K-----S--N--LV-A	363		
rtβ3:	<b>SLQLVVLADDTINHPAQLAKTSLAPIIVFVKVSSPK</b>	<b>VLQRLIRSRGKSQMKHLTVQMMAY</b>	<b>322</b>		
xoβ3:	T-----I-----T-----S-----	V-----N-----L-A	319		
rtβ2:	T-----S-----Y-I-----	-----K-----A-----N--V-A	371		
rbβ1:	T-----A-----S-----YI-IT---	-----K-----S-----N--IA-S	419		
rtβ1:	-----S-----	-----S-----	419/374		
	**** * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *	***** * * * * * * * * * * * * *			
	----- exon # 12 -----				
rtβ4:	---A--- ---M-----E-----G---A-----	TSSSTPMP_TLLGRNVGSTALL	422		
rtβ3:	<b>DKLVQCFP</b>	<b>ESFDVILDENQLDDACEHLAEYLEVYWRATHHPAGPGM</b>	<b>379</b>		
xoβ3:	---I--- ---M-----E-A-----M---K---	LHPQNSQNL	379		
rtβ2:	---A--- Q-----E-----D---A-K--P-	SSNLPNP_LLRTLATSTL	431		
rbβ1:	E-A- ---M-I---E-----A-K--P-	SSTPPNP_LLNRMTATAAL	478		
rtβ1:	-----	-----R-----	478/433		
	** * * * *	* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *			
	----- exon # 13 -----	to end			
rtβ4:	SPY---S--- SQR_MRHSNHSTENSPIERRSLMTS	DENYHNERARKSRNRLSS	475		
rtβ3:	<b>LGPPSAIPGLQ</b>	<b>NQQLLGERGEEHSPLE</b>	<b>RDSLMPSEASESSRQAWTG</b>	<b>416</b>	
xoβ3:	IT-----P--- -----E-SDAN-----	-----Q-----T--KT--A	416		
rtβ2:	PLSPTLASNS-	GSQGDQRTDRSAPRSASQA--EPC--PVKK-QHR-SS-THQNHRSG--R	491		
rbβ1:	AASPAPVSN-	VQVLTSLRRNLSFWGGLETSSQRGGGAVPQQQEHAM@	524		
rtβ1a/c-	V-----	-----@ 1a (M) / 1c (B1)	524/478		
b	V-----	GPVLYSGDQPLDRATGEHASVHEYPGELGQPPGLYPSNHPPGRAGTLWA	493		
	*				
rtβ4:	---H-RD-YPL-----V-----PDS-----K---NRG---	PGGCSHDSRHRL@	519		
rtβ3:	<b>SSQRSSRH</b>	<b>LEEDYADAYQDLYQPHRQET</b>	<b>SGLPSANGH</b>	<b>DFQD</b>	<b>457</b>
xoβ3:	-----H-----	-----E-S-T-T-----H-N-----N-T-G-----SQ-	457		
rtβ2:	GL-R-ETFDSETQESRDSAYVEPK---	SHEHV-R-V---E-NHREESH-S---RHRE-RH	551		
rtβ1b	LSRQDTFDADTPGSRNSVYTEFGDSCVDMETDPSEGGPGDPAGGGTTPPARQGSWEEED		553		
rtβ3:	<b>RLLAQDSEHDEHNRNQRRNP</b>	<b>WPKDSY@</b>	<b>484</b>		
xoβ3:	---ER---QN-----	-----@	484		
rtβ2:	-TRDMGRDQ---ECSK--S-HKSKDRYCDKEGEVISKRRSEAGEWNRDVYIRQ@	2b/2a 628/604			
rtβ1b	YEEEMTDNRNRGRNKARYCAEGGGPVLGRNKNELEGWGQGVYIR@	1b(B2) 597			

Fig. 1. Continued.

types of  $\alpha_1$  were cloned, it became apparent that often co-expression of  $\beta$  augmented macroscopic currents (Wei *et al.*, 1996), to the extent that in some instances it proved to be an intrinsic requirement for development of mature  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel currents. The extreme case of the latter appears to be  $\alpha_{1A}$  (also brain-I or BI; see Mori *et al.*, 1991, and Stea *et al.*, 1994). Many initial studies of newly cloned  $\alpha_1$  subunits were therefore carried out almost exclusively in the presence of co-expressed  $\beta$  (e.g., Ellinor *et al.*, 1993). To some extent this delayed studies of their qualitative effects.

As observed in our laboratory, the functional importance of  $\beta$  subunits became apparent in studies with both  $\alpha_{1C}$  and  $\alpha_{1E}$ , which in contrast to  $\alpha_{1A}$ ,  $\alpha_{1C}$ , and  $\alpha_{1E}$  express readily in *Xenopus* oocytes. This allowed us to compare channel properties expressed in the absence of exogenous  $\beta$  to those obtained in the presence of exogenous  $\beta$ , and hence a comparison of different  $\beta$  subunits.

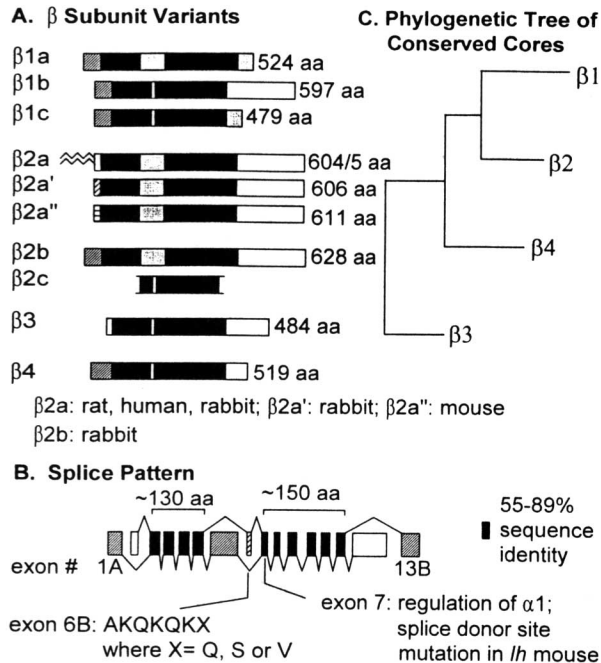
## EFFECTS OF $\beta$ SUBUNITS ON CHANNEL ACTIVATION AND INACTIVATION

The first evidence that  $\beta$  subunits plays important roles in  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel function came from the studies

of Singer *et al.* (1991) who noted major effects on expression and kinetics of the cardiac  $\alpha_{1C}$  in *Xenopus* oocytes, and those of Lacerda *et al.* (1991) who showed that grossly abnormal kinetics of the skeletal  $\alpha_{1S}$  expressed in L cells could be normalized by co-expression of the  $\beta$  subunits. Numerous subsequent studies, increasingly more sophisticated in their analysis of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel currents and carried out primarily but not exclusively in *Xenopus* oocytes, have shown that  $\beta$  subunits affect all aspects of  $\alpha_1$  function. As seen with neuronal non-L-type  $\alpha_1$  subunits,  $\beta$  subunits affect the rates of activation and deactivation by voltage, the rate of voltage-induced inactivation, inhibition by G protein  $\beta\gamma$  dimers, and coupling of voltage sensing to pore opening. Likewise, when tested using an L-type  $\alpha_1$  subunit,  $\alpha_{1C}$ ,  $\beta$  subunits markedly improve the coupling of voltage sensing to pore opening and are an obligatory requirement for development of the pre-pulse facilitation phenomenon.

## $\alpha_{1C}$ Regulation by $\beta$ Subunits

As seen with  $\alpha_{1C}$  in *Xenopus* oocytes,  $\beta$  subunits promote a left shift in the current-voltage ( $I-V$ ) and conductance-voltage ( $G-V$ ) relationships (Fig. 3A and



**Fig. 2.** Ideograms of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel  $\beta$  subunit gene and splice variants (panel A) and evolutionary relatedness (growtree phylogram of the Wisconsin GCG Computer Package; panel C). Panel B depicts the splice pattern of  $\beta$  subunits as inferred from Powers *et al.* (1994) and Murakami *et al.* (1996) for  $\beta 1$  and  $\beta 3$  respectively. It also shows the location of the splice donor site mutation in  $\beta 4$  that causes ataxia and seizures in the lethargic (*lh*) mouse (Burgess *et al.* 1997).

3B) and at the same time accelerate the rate at which the channel activates at any given test potential (Fig. 4). By employing the “cut open oocyte” vaseline-gap voltage clamp method it is possible to record not only ionic currents of  $\alpha_{1C}$  channels expressed in *Xenopus* oocytes, but also gating currents and their development as a function of the test potential. This revealed that in contrast to ionic currents, the movement of the voltage sensor as a function of voltage ( $Q-V$  relationship) is not affected by the presence of the  $\beta$  subunit. Moreover, for the particular combination of  $\alpha_{1C}$  and  $\beta 2a$ , the total charge moved at fully activating potentials was unaffected by the presence of the exogenously expressed  $\beta$  subunit. Since the charge moved is proportional to the number of voltage-sensing molecules under clamp conditions, this indicated that increases in macroscopic current observed upon co-expressing  $\beta$  with  $\alpha_{1C}$  are fully accounted for by the shift in the  $G-V$  relationship. By extension this is proof that the  $\beta$  improves the coupling of charge movement to pore opening (Neely *et al.*, 1993; Noceti *et al.*, 1996). In contrast to  $\beta 2a$ , other types of  $\beta$  subunits not only

improve intramolecular coupling between the voltage sensing and pore opening, but also the expression/maturation of the channel proper. As a result, with  $\beta 1b$ , for example, both gating currents and coupling of voltage sensing to pore opening are improved, and the increase in macroscopic currents is the result of the sum of more channels each “working” more efficiently.

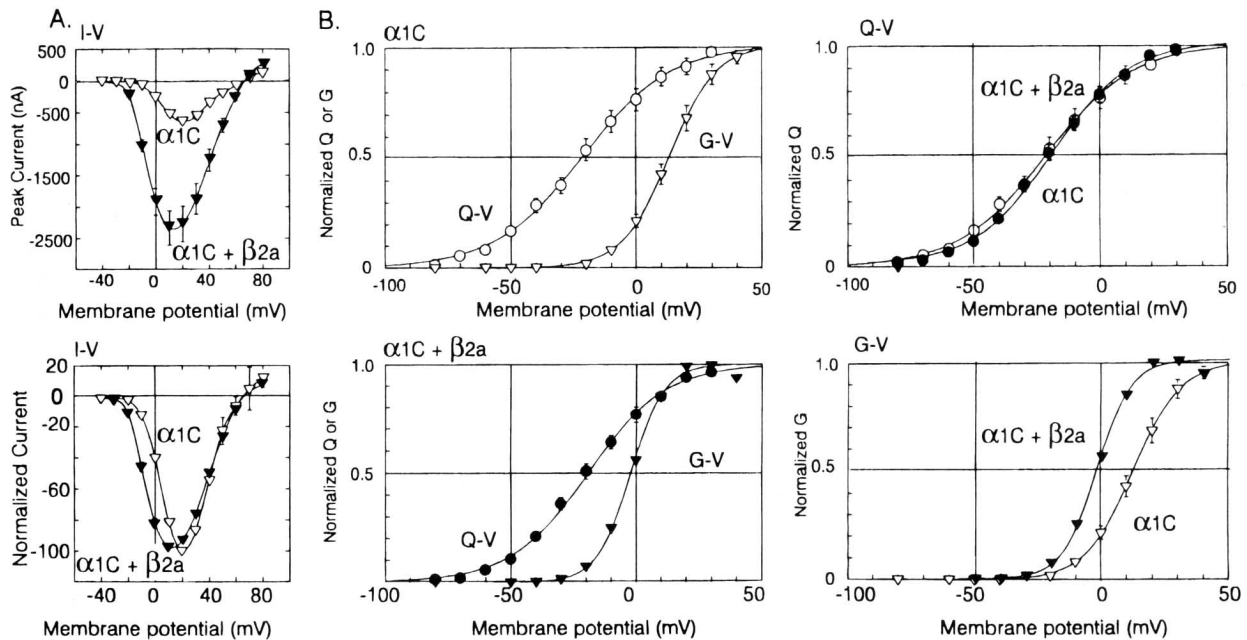
### $\alpha_{1E}$ Regulation by $\beta$ Subunits

In contrast to L-type channels, non-L-type  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels not only activate rapidly in response to a test potential but also inactivate. Both responses are affected by  $\beta$  subunits. As seen with  $\alpha_{1E}$ , activation of non-L-type  $\alpha_1$  channels is qualitatively similar to that seen with the L-type  $\alpha_{1C}$ : co-expression of  $\beta$  subunits improves coupling of voltage sensing to pore opening and, depending on the type of  $\alpha_1$ , facilitates ( $\alpha_{1A}$ ) or does not facilitate ( $\alpha_{1E}$ ) assembly, maturation, and surface expression of the channel complex.

Coupling of charge movement to pore opening is much tighter in  $\alpha_{1E}$  than in  $\alpha_{1C}$  (Olcese *et al.*, 1996). The ability of  $\beta$  subunits to facilitate pore opening is thus not seen as one of left-shifting the overall voltage-conductance relationship, but rather one of increasing the “steepness” of the  $G-V$  curve, which of course is also seen with  $\alpha_{1C}$ . The “steepening” of the  $\alpha_{1E}$   $G-V$  curve (Fig. 5) is well explained by a switching in gating modes with distinct midpotentials ( $V_{1/2}$ ) of activation: one activating with  $V_{1/2}$  around 0 mV, the other with  $V_{1/2}$  at approximately 40 mV. For  $\alpha_{1E}$  alone the  $G-V$  is well described by a simple sum of 50% of the channels gating in one mode and 50% in the other. Upon co-expression of a  $\beta$  subunit the distribution of channels between these gating modes is changed so that now 75–80% of the channels are activated with  $V_{1/2}$  around 0 mV. This is accompanied by a reduction in the proportion of channels that are activated with mid-activation potentials around 40 mV. In addition, for  $\alpha_{1E}$  this is also accompanied by an increase in the absolute  $P_{o_{max}}$ , presumably through reduction of channels trapped in a non-opening gating mode (nulls, e.g., Noceti *et al.*, 1996). Important for the present discussion is that all  $\beta$  subunits had the same qualitative effect on  $\alpha_{1E}$  activation, regardless of the gene of origin or the type of splice variant (Fig. 5).

### $\beta 4$ and $\alpha_{1A}$

Despite the initial successes in observing an effect of the newly cloned  $\beta 4$  subunit on  $\alpha_{1C}$ , this has been



**Fig. 3.** *I-V*, *G-V*, and *Q-V* relationships of  $\alpha_{1C}$  and  $\alpha_{1C}\beta_{2a}$  in *Xenopus* oocytes. Panel A. *I-V* relations obtained using a standard two-electrode voltage clamp. Adapted from Perez-Reyes *et al.* (1991) Panel B. *G-V* and *Q-V* relations replotted from Neely *et al.* (1994). Note that  $\beta_{2a}$  did not affect the *Q-V* relationship but left-shifted the *G-V* relationship. Since the change in conductance (pore opening) is the readout of the effect of a change in voltage on the voltage sensor, the data show that  $\beta$  subunits improve coupling between voltage sensing and pore opening.

an observation that has been difficult to repeat consistently, with most attempts at determining an effect of  $\beta_4$  on either  $\alpha_{1E}$  or  $\alpha_{1C}$  being unsuccessful. Likewise, functional expression of  $\alpha_{1A}$  (either the type I or the type II splice variant, generously provided by T. Tanabe) has also been a low-frequency event, so that we have very few sets of experiments in which the batch of oocytes injected with  $\alpha_{1A}$  alone developed measurable  $Ca^{2+}$  channel currents (i.e., peak currents greater than 5 nA at 0 mV). Results from one of these sets of experiments are shown in Fig. 4B. Yet in spite of these failures (no effect of  $\beta_4$  and lack of consistent expression of  $\alpha_{1A}$  alone), the combination of  $\alpha_{1A}$  and  $\beta_4$  leads consistently to expression of  $\alpha_{1A}\beta_4$  channels (Fig. 4B). The molecular determinants responsible for this selectivity have not been investigated.

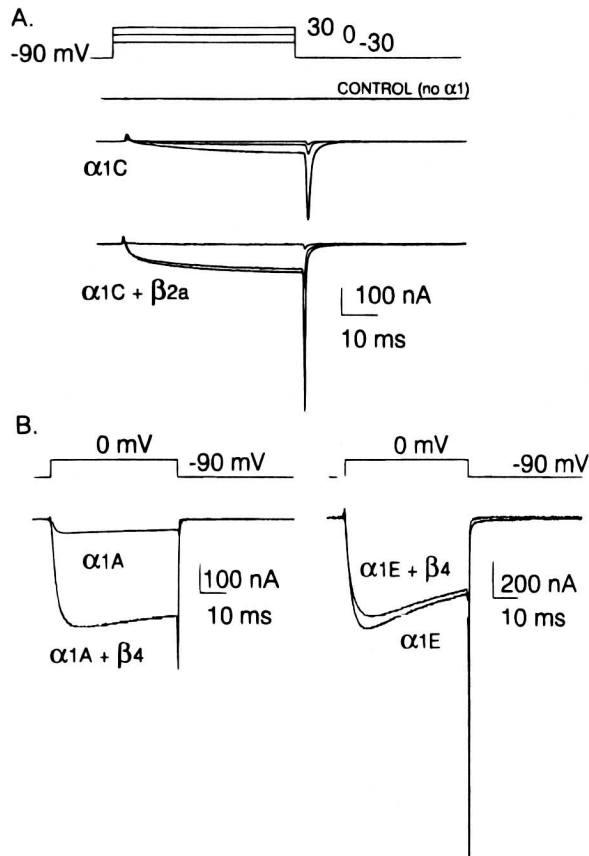
### Inactivation

$\alpha_{1E}$  channels display a rather rapid voltage-induced inactivation and this inactivation is strongly modulated by  $\beta$  subunits. The first report on the ability of different  $\beta$ 's to confer differential inactivation prop-

erties to an  $\alpha_1$  came from a study in which inactivation of Doe-1 was studied (Ellinor *et al.*, 1993). This was expanded to other  $\alpha_1$  subunits, particularly  $\alpha_{1A}$  which was shown by Stea *et al.* (1994) to inactivate much more slowly when co-expressed with  $\beta_{2a}$  than with other  $\beta$  subunits. The use of  $\alpha_{1E}$ , which, in contrast to Doe-1 and  $\alpha_{1A}$ , expresses well in *Xenopus* oocytes without requiring the simultaneous co-expression of an exogenous  $\beta$ , uncovered that the effects of  $\beta_{2a}$  and  $\beta_{1b}$  differed not in the extent to which they accelerated inactivation, with  $\beta_{2a}$  being the least effective of the two, but that the two  $\beta$ 's had opposing effects:  $\beta_{1b}$  accelerated inactivation and left-shifted the potential at which a given protocol promotes 50% inactivation;  $\beta_{2a}$ , on the other hand, caused the opposite to happen: inactivation was slower in being established and 50% inactivation occurred at higher potentials (Fig. 6).

The primary region of  $\beta_{2a}$  responsible for the opposing effect on  $\alpha_{1E}$  inactivation as compared to the effects of other  $\beta$  subunits was localized to its N-terminus (Olcese *et al.*, 1994). In addition, a variable region in the "middle" of the  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$  molecules, inserted between two highly conserved domains, was subsequently found to be a second region able to affect



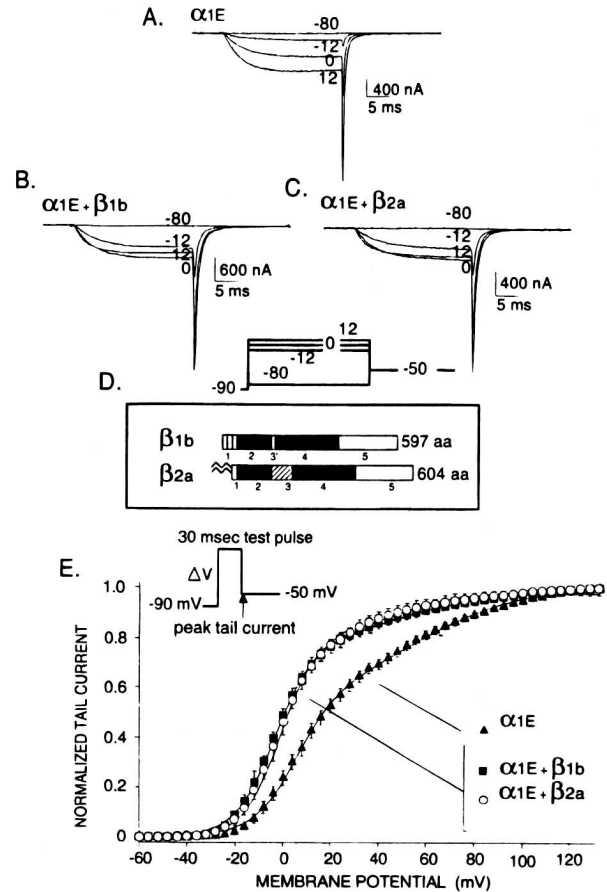


**Fig. 4.** Representative effects of  $\beta$  subunits on  $Ca^{2+}$  channel currents in oocytes injected with different types of  $\alpha_1$  cRNA's. Data in Panel A are adapted from Neely *et al.* (1994). Except when stated otherwise,  $Ca^{2+}$  channel currents presented in this and subsequent figures were recorded using the "cut open oocyte" method of Tagliateia *et al.* (1992) using  $Ba^{2+}$  as the charge carrier.

$\alpha_1$  inactivation. This region is encoded in the two alternatively used exons #6 (cf. Figs. 1 and 2). When compared to the short counterpart, long D3 domains of  $\beta$  subunits slow inactivation and cause a right shift in the potentials causing 50% steady-state inactivation. In contrast to the N-termini, the effect of the long/short middle domains is cryptic, i.e., only seen when the inactivation-setting N-terminal domains are mutationally removed. Further studies are thus necessary to determine the importance, if any, of this middle domain in regulating  $\alpha_{1E}$  inactivation (Qin *et al.*, 1996).

### $\beta$ Subunits and the Phenomena of Prepulse Facilitation

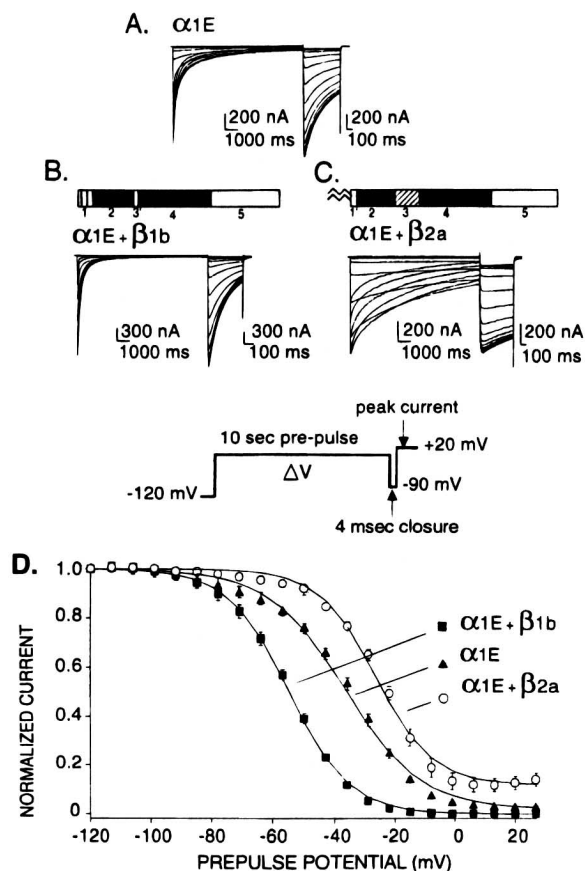
Prepulse facilitation is a phenomenon in which a train of depolarizations or, in its stead, a long and



**Fig. 5.** Facilitation of  $\alpha_{1E}$  activation by  $\beta_{1b}$  and  $\beta_{2a}$  subunits. Note that  $\beta$  subunits accelerate activation (top panels) and promote a left-shift in the  $G-V$  curve. Fits using two Boltzmann distributions showed the effect to be due mainly to an increase in the amplitude of a component that is activated between 0 and 5 mV. Note also that the effects of the two  $\beta$  subunits are indistinguishable. Other experiments (Olcese *et al.*, 1996) showed that at low voltages (-20 to 0 mV)  $G-V$  and  $Q-V$  relations are essentially superimposable, indicating a much tighter intrinsic coupling between voltage sensor and pore opening in  $\alpha_{1E}$  than  $\alpha_{1C}$  (adapted from Olcese *et al.*, 1995).

strong depolarizing pulse, induces a form of the  $Ca^{2+}$  channel that in response to a given test potential exhibits an increased opening probability that persists for several seconds after repolarization (reviewed in Dolphin, 1996). There are two major classes of prepulse-induced facilitation of  $Ca^{2+}$  currents and both are affected by  $Ca^{2+}$  channel  $\beta$  subunits, but in opposite ways.

One type of prepulse facilitation is seen with L-type  $Ca^{2+}$  channels and is highly variable depending on the tissue or cell as well as the species in which it is studied. Thus, it has been recorded in several neuronal cells (Ikeda, 1991; Artalejo *et al.*, 1991; Kavalali



**Fig. 6.** Differential modulation of  $\alpha_{1E}$  inactivation by  $\beta_{1b}$  and  $\beta_{2a}$  subunits. The figure shows voltage-induced inactivation of  $\alpha_{1E}$  in oocytes injected with  $\alpha_{1E}$  alone, and with  $\beta_{1b}$  or  $\beta_{2a}$ . Voltage change protocols are shown on the figure (adapted from Olcese *et al.*, 1994). Note that in contrast to activation, the two  $\beta$  subunits have opposing effects on inactivation. Other experiments (Qin *et al.*, 1996) showed that the opposing effect is conferred to the  $\beta$  subunit by the N-terminus and that in the absence of an N-terminus, the long form of the middle section of  $\beta_{2a}$  and  $\beta_{1b}$  can also confer the ability to a  $\beta$  subunit to delay channel inactivation and that different C-termini associated with  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$  do not influence activation, deactivation, and inactivation of  $\alpha_{1E}$ .

and Plummer, 1996), in skeletal muscle (Johnson *et al.*, 1997), and in guinea pig and amphibian cardiac cells (Brown *et al.*, 1984a, b; Lee, 1987; Fedida *et al.*, 1988; Zygmunt and Maylie, 1990; Noble and Shimoni, 1981a, b), but, for example, not in rodent cardiac cells (Cens *et al.*, 1996). Prepulse facilitation of an L-type  $Ca^{2+}$  channel was recapitulated with cloned  $\alpha_{1C}$  by Kleppisch *et al.* (1994) in CHO cells that had been transfected with  $\alpha_{1C}$  cDNA alone and also by Bourinet *et al.* (1994) in *Xenopus* oocytes. However, in this latter expression system, prepulse facilitation was dependent on co-expression of a  $\beta$  subunit ( $\beta_{1b}$ ).

Another type of prepulse facilitation, also referred to as prepulse potentiation, is seen primarily with non-L-type  $Ca^{2+}$  channels of neurons and is in fact due to a reversal or attenuation of the inhibition of channel activity imposed by agonists known to act via  $G_i/G_o$ -coupled receptors and formation of free  $G\beta\gamma$  dimers (Dunlap and Fischbach, 1981; Tsunoo *et al.*, 1986; Bean, 1989; Ikeda, 1996; Herlitze *et al.*, 1996).

Figure 7 illustrates the dependence of prepulse facilitation of  $\alpha_{1C}$  on a  $\beta$  subunit and the suppression of "prepulse facilitation" of  $\alpha_{1E}$  under negative control by the  $G_i/G_o$ -coupled M2 muscarinic receptor.

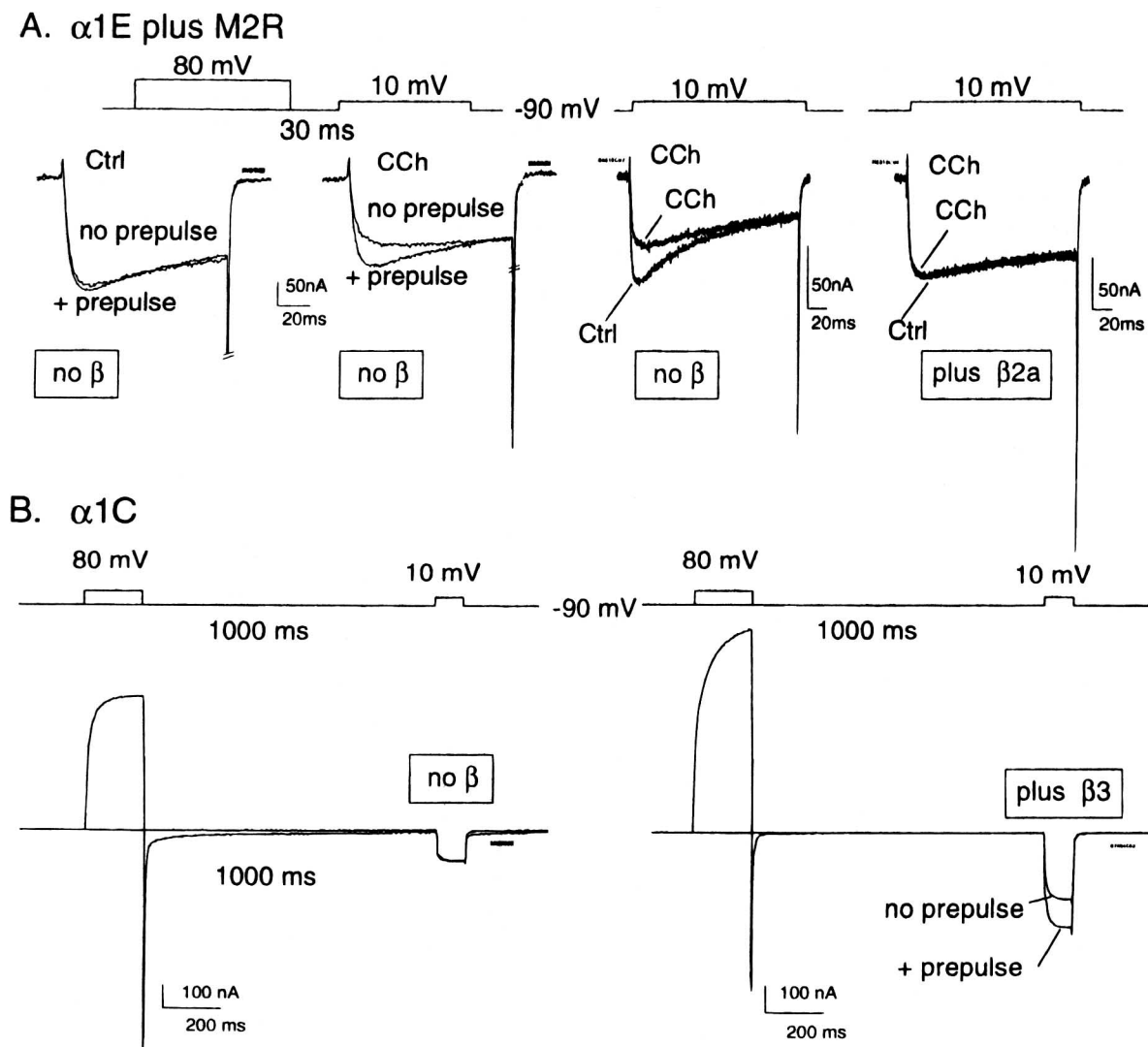
## POSTTRANSLATIONAL MODIFICATIONS OF $\beta$ SUBUNITS AND ROLE OF N-TERMINAL PALMITOYLATION OF $\beta_{2A}$

### Phosphorylation

In both the heart and the skeletal muscle, stimulation of the cAMP-dependent protein kinase leads to augmented  $Ca^{2+}$  channel currents (cf. Osterrieder *et al.*, 1982). Studies on the susceptibility to phosphorylation and state of phosphorylation of the  $Ca^{2+}$  channel components have shown that both the pore-forming  $\alpha_1$  and the regulatory  $\beta$  subunits incorporate phosphate *in vitro* and *in vivo* (Flockerzi *et al.*, 1986; Chang *et al.*, 1991; Haase *et al.*, 1996), and DeJongh *et al.* (1989) identified the phosphorylated site of the skeletal muscle  $\beta$  subunit as Thr-205 in a RRPTP consensus protein kinase A consensus site located just prior to the D3 domain. Analysis of the amino acid sequences deduced from the cloned cDNA's shows consensus sites for not only cAMP-dependent protein kinase but also for protein kinase C in all  $\beta$  subunits. However, in spite of finding that  $\beta$  subunits are phosphorylated and that, for example, the state of phosphorylation in cardiac cells correlates with the state of activation of protein kinases (Haase *et al.*, 1996), it has not been possible as yet to establish whether  $\beta$  subunit phosphorylation is functionally relevant (see, for example, Gutierrez *et al.*, 1994).

### Palmitoylation

Hosey and collaborators made the interesting observation that  $\beta_{2a}$  is unique in that it is palmitoylated at cysteines 3 and 4 of its N-terminus (Chien *et al.*, 1997). Replacement of either Cys-3 or Cys-4 with Ala led to loss of palmitoylation, as did of course double



**Fig. 7.** Distinct forms of prepulse facilitation or potentiation in  $\alpha_{1C}$  and  $\alpha_{1E}$ . Panel A, dependence of prepulse facilitation of  $\alpha_{1C}$  activation on a  $\beta$  subunit. Panel B, dependence of prepulse facilitation of  $\alpha_{1E}$  on prior inhibition by a G protein-coupled receptor, in this case the carbachol (CCh)-activated M2-muscarinic receptor and suppression of the G protein-mediated effect by  $\beta_{2a}$  (adapted from Qin *et al.*, 1997). Although somewhat less effective,  $\beta_{1b}$  and  $\beta_3$  affect the G protein-coupled regulation in the same way as  $\beta_{2a}$  (Bourinet *et al.*, 1995; Qin *et al.*, 1997).

replacement of Cys 3 and 4. Although palmitoylation could be assumed to contribute or even be a determinant for membrane localization of this  $\beta$  subunit, Hosey's group also found that Cys<sup>3,4</sup>Ala still localizes to the membrane fraction of cells in which it is expressed (Chien *et al.*, 1997). As is the case for the B-type splice variant of Kirsten *ras*, a non-isoprenylated form of *ras* (Hancock *et al.*, 1989), membrane localization of the Cys<sup>3,4</sup>Ser  $\beta_{2a}$  may be determined by its cluster of positive amino acids. In contrast to phosphorylation, palmitoylation has been shown to be an important functional parameter and responsible for

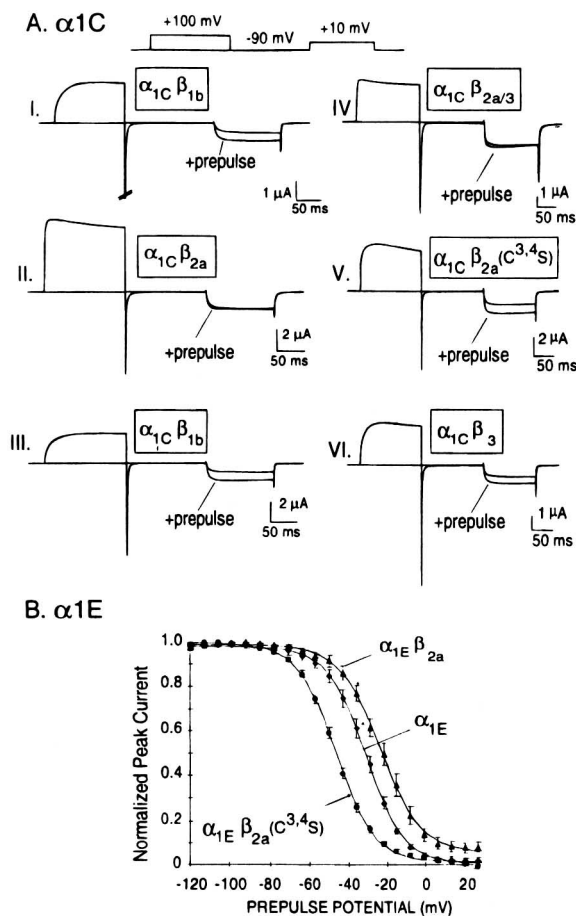
many of the properties that distinguish  $\beta_{2a}$  from other  $\beta$  subunits.

**PALMITOYLATION OF  $\beta_{2A}$  INTERFERES WITH ITS ABILITY TO SUPPORT PREPULSE FACILITATION OF  $\alpha_{1C}$  AND IS RESPONSIBLE FOR RIGHT-SHIFTING STEADY-STATE INACTIVATION CURVES OF  $\alpha_{1E}$ .**

$\beta$  subunit-dependent long-lasting prepulse facilitation of  $\alpha_{1C}$  channels does not develop in oocytes

injected with  $\alpha_{1C}$  plus  $\beta_{2a}$  (Cens *et al.*, 1996). The structural determinant responsible for the difference between  $\beta_{2a}$  and other  $\beta$  subunits resides in the nature of its N-terminus, and within it, in the fact that it is palmitoylated. As shown in Fig. 8A, preventing palmitoylation of  $\beta_{2a}$  by mutating the acceptor cysteines to serines ( $\beta_{2a}[\text{Cys}^{3,4}\text{Ser}]$ ) “unblocks” its inability to support prepulse facilitation of  $\alpha_{1C}$ . In agreement with this interpretation, replacing the N-terminus of  $\beta_3$  with that of the wild type  $\beta_{2a}$  blocked the ability of  $\beta_3$  to support prepulse facilitation. Other experiments

showed concurrent loss of palmitoylation of  $\beta_{2a}$  upon introducing the Cys to Ser. As expected  $\beta_3$  carrying the N-terminus of  $\beta_{2a}$  incorporates palmitate (Qin and Birnbaumer, unpublished). We tested whether other “unique” properties of  $\beta_{2a}$ , notably its distinctive ability to affect inactivation in a manner that is opposite to the way other  $\beta$  subunits do (cf. Fig. 6, Olcese *et al.*, 1994), is also related to its N-terminal palmitoylation. As shown in Fig. 8B, this is indeed the case.



**Fig. 8.** Palmitoylation confers special properties to  $\beta_{2a}$ . A. Prepulse facilitation of  $\alpha_{1C}$ .  $\beta_{1b}$ ,  $\beta_3$ , and a palmitoylation mutant of  $\beta_{2a}$  support development of prepulse facilitation in  $\alpha_{1C}$  while the palmitoylated  $\beta_{2a}$ , or the also palmitoylated ( $\beta_{2a}/\beta_3$  chimera ( $\beta_{2a}[1-16]/\beta_3[16-484]$ ), fail to do so. Voltage protocols are shown on top of the traces; A, B, C, and D show representative records of prepulse facilitation obtained in oocytes injected with  $\alpha_{1C}$  and the indicated  $\beta$  subunit cRNAs. B. Steady-state inhibition of  $\alpha_{1E}$ . While  $\beta_{2a}$  is unique in right-shifting the voltage inhibition curve of  $\alpha_{1E}$ , the non-palmitoylated  $\beta_{2a}[\text{Cys}^{3,4}\text{Ser}]$  causes a left shift as do other  $\beta$  subunits (Fig. 6, Olcese *et al.*, 1994).

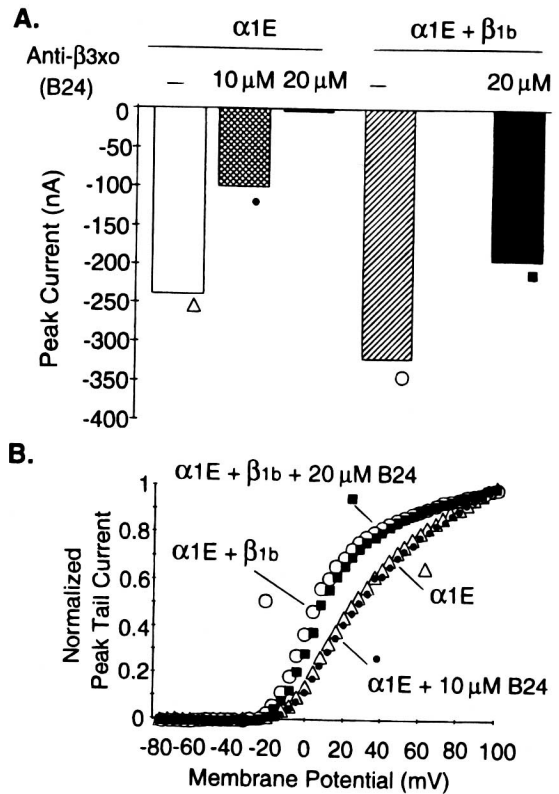
### $\beta$ -SUBUNITS ARE ESSENTIAL FOR PROPER CHANNEL ASSEMBLY AND TARGETING

Three lines of evidence indicate that  $\beta$  subunits are essential for proper channel assembly and delivery to the cell surface: *in vitro* expression of  $\alpha_{1C}$ , gene targeting of  $\beta_1$ , and effects of antisense oligonucleotides in *Xenopus* oocytes. Thus, Hosey and collaborators investigated the subcellular localization of  $\alpha_{1C}$  in cells transfected with  $\alpha_{1C}$  in the absence and presence of  $\beta_{2a}$ , and found that while the total amount of  $\alpha_{1C}$  accumulated in cells in the absence of  $\beta_{2a}$  was not much affected by  $\beta_{2a}$ ,  $\beta_{2a}$  markedly increased the amount of  $\alpha_{1C}$  in the plasma membrane, where it colocalized with  $\alpha_{1C}$ . Expression of  $\beta_{2a}$  alone showed it to localize to the plasma membrane, indicating that while  $\alpha_{1C}$  was dependent on  $\beta$ ,  $\beta$  was not dependent on  $\alpha_1$  to reach the plasma membrane (Chien *et al.*, 1996). Gregg *et al.* (1993) inactivated the murine CACNLB1 gene encoding the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel  $\beta_1$  subunits. This led to death at birth due to asphyxia, secondary to loss of excitation-contraction coupling. Studies of myotubes derived from  $\beta_1$ -mouse embryos showed that myotubes not only lacked excitation-contraction coupling but also that their  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  currents were reduced by 10–20-fold and that this was accompanied by absence of detectable  $\alpha_{1S}$  in the cells (Strube *et al.*, 1996). These authors concluded that not only is the  $\beta$  subunit important for assembly of functional  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels but also for the targeting of the  $\alpha_1$  subunits,  $\alpha_{1S}$  in their case, to its normal site of expression. In agreement with this conclusion, expression of  $\beta_1$  in  $\beta_1$ -myotubes rescued  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  currents and excitation-contraction coupling (Beurg *et al.*, 1997). The third line of evidence pointing to an obligatory role of  $\beta$  subunit in channel assembly and targeting, in addition to their regulatory roles, was the finding that *Xenopus* oocytes express an endogenous  $\beta$  subunit and that

suppression of this  $\beta$  subunit blocked  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel expression.

### A $\beta$ SUBUNIT IN *XENOPUS* OOCYTES

Lacerda and colleagues reported the occurrence of endogenous  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel currents in *Xenopus* oocytes (Lacerda *et al.*, 1994). With a much lower frequency, approximately once every two to three months, we also encountered batches of oocytes that have endogenous  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel currents. We therefore wondered whether these were  $\alpha_1$  or  $\alpha_1\beta$  type channels. This was investigated by searching for presence in the oocytes of mRNA encoding a  $\beta$  subunit. We indeed found such sequences (Tareilus *et al.*, 1997). Using a RACE-PCR approach we cloned from *Xenopus* oocyte mRNA two full-length cDNAs differing in their coding region in only 74 randomly distributed nucleotides and encoding two  $\beta$  subunits of 484 amino acids that differ in 22 amino acids (94.5% sequence identity). *Xenopus* oocytes are tetraploid and the two subunits may either be closely related non-allelic isoforms or two alleles of a highly polymorphic gene. Comparison of the amino acid sequences of the *Xenopus*  $\beta$  subunits to those of the four known mammalian  $\beta$  subunits places them into the type 3 category (Fig. 1).  $\text{Xo}\beta 3$  subunits play an essential role in the expression of endogenous and exogenous  $\alpha_1$  subunits as deduced from the following results: (1) co-injection of  $\alpha_{1E}$  or  $\alpha_{1C}$  cRNA with  $\text{Xo}\beta 3$  cRNA led to  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel currents that resembled those obtained by co-expression of these  $\alpha_1$  subunits with rat  $\beta 3$ . (2) Injection of antisense oligonucleotides to *Xenopus*  $\beta 3$  resulted in suppression of ionic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel currents as well as of the gating currents associated with the expression of  $\alpha_1$  subunits. (3) Injection of oocytes with concentrations of anti- $\text{Xo}\beta 3$  oligonucleotides that resulted in >95% loss of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel currents together with mammalian  $\beta 1a$  cRNA “rescued” expression of  $\alpha_1$ . This last experiment (illustrated in Fig. 9), together with other experiments in which sense oligonucleotides had no effect on expression of “ $\alpha_{1E}$  alone” currents, and  $\text{Xo}\beta 3$  antisense oligonucleotides that suppressed  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel currents had no effect on the expression of Shaker  $\text{K}^+$  channels, indicated that the effect of antisense was not a nonspecific inhibition of the translation machinery of the oocyte. We concluded that the so-called “ $\alpha_1$ -alone” currents recorded by us and others from oocytes that had been injected only with an  $\alpha_1$  cRNA, could be due to channels that had at one point or another inter-



**Fig. 9.** Evidence for dependence of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel currents in *Xenopus* oocytes on an endogenous  $\beta$  subunit: suppression by antisense oligonucleotide and reversal of inhibition by excess mammalian  $\beta$  subunit cRNA. Panel A: Dose-dependent inhibition of  $\alpha_{1E}$  by antisense oligonucleotide B24 and rescue by co-injected  $\beta_{1b}$  cRNA. Panel B: G-V relationships of  $\alpha_{1E}$  channels expressed in oocytes injected with the indicated cRNA's and 10  $\mu\text{M}$  B24. Note that  $\alpha_{1E}$  currents of oocytes in which  $\alpha_{1E}$  expression was inhibited 60% by anti- $\beta 3\text{xo}$  (10  $\mu\text{M}$ ) expressing did not differ from that recorded from oocytes that had received  $\alpha_{1E}$  cRNA alone. We interpret this to mean that the dual gating mode inferred from the two-Boltzmann fit is not due to expression of a mixture of  $\alpha_{1E}$  alone plus  $\alpha_{1E}\beta$  channels. Note further that the better than 98% inhibition of expression by 20  $\mu\text{M}$  anti- $\beta 3\text{xo}$  is not due to a nonspecific or toxic effect of the oligonucleotide.

acted with the endogenous *Xenopus*  $\beta 3$  ( $\beta 3\text{xo}$ ). The most plausible role of  $\beta$  in this case would be that of aiding in folding, subunit assembly, and targeting, as inferred also from gene knockout experiments and the effect of  $\beta$  to redirect  $\alpha_1$  in tissue culture cells.

Burgess *et al.* (1997) mapped the genomic locus causing ataxia and lethargy in the mouse. They identified the genomic locus as that of the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel type-4  $\beta$  subunit (CACNLB4 or CCB4), which in the lethargic (*lh*) mouse has a four-nucleotide insertion (Fig. 2C) that leads to loss of a splice donor site, exon skipping, and a translational frameshift. As a result

the translated protein is truncated and lacks sequence similarity domains D4 and D5, which include the  $\alpha_1$  binding site of  $\beta$  subunits (De Waard *et al.*, 1994). This is further evidence for the essential role of  $\beta$  subunits in  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel structure and function.

## TWO SITES FOR INTERACTION WITH $\beta$ SUBUNITS ON NON-NEURONAL $\alpha_1$ SUBUNITS (TYPE E, A AND B)

The existence in *Xenopus* oocytes of an endogenous  $\beta$  subunit and its obligatory role in the assembly and targeting of channels to the plasma membrane raised the question as to the molecular makeup of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels in oocytes injected with  $\alpha_1$  alone. Two possibilities needed to be considered. The first assumes that the endogenous  $\beta$  does not stay with the channel once it is in the plasma membrane and that channels in  $\alpha_1$  alone injected oocytes are indeed  $\alpha_1$  alone channels as assumed. As such they present a typical functional profile that is then modulated by expression of high levels of an exogenous  $\beta$  subunit. The second possibility is that the endogenous  $\beta$  subunit does not dissociate from the channel after it reaches the plasma membrane and that channels in  $\alpha_1$ -injected oocytes instead of being formed of  $\alpha_1$  alone are instead  $\alpha_1\beta\alpha_0$  complexes. By extension the functional profile of channels expressed in oocytes not receiving  $\beta$  subunit cRNA's are those of  $\alpha_1\beta\alpha_0$ , and not as commonly assumed " $\alpha_1$  alone" channels. By extension the modulated functional profile of channels formed in oocytes receiving both the  $\alpha_1$  and the  $\beta$  subunit cRNA's are given by  $[\alpha_1\beta]\beta$  complexes. By further extension of this reasoning,  $\alpha_1$  subunits should have a second  $\beta$  subunit binding site: one used by the  $\beta$  subunit aiding in folding, assembly, and targeting and another changing its channel characteristics: facilitating activation, supporting prepulse facilitation, modulating voltage-induced inhibition. Campbell and collaborators had shown that loop I (L1), the segment connecting repeat domain I to repeat domain II of  $\alpha_1$  subunits, has the capacity to bind  $\beta$  with high affinity (Pragnell *et al.*, 1994; Witcher *et al.*, 1995). We thus scanned  $\alpha_{1E}$  for additional  $\beta$  subunit binding site(s). As illustrated in Fig. 10, an additional site was found in the C-terminus (Qin *et al.*, 1997). The approach used was similar to that used by Pragnell *et al.* (1994), in that we made  $^{35}\text{S}$ -labeled  $\beta_2a$  by *in vitro* translation of cRNA and asked it to bind to GST fusion proteins formed of glutathione-S-transferase joined to segments of  $\alpha_1$ : N-

terminus, loop 1 (between repeats I and II), loop 2 (between repeats II and III), loop 3 (between repeats III and IV), and the C-terminus.

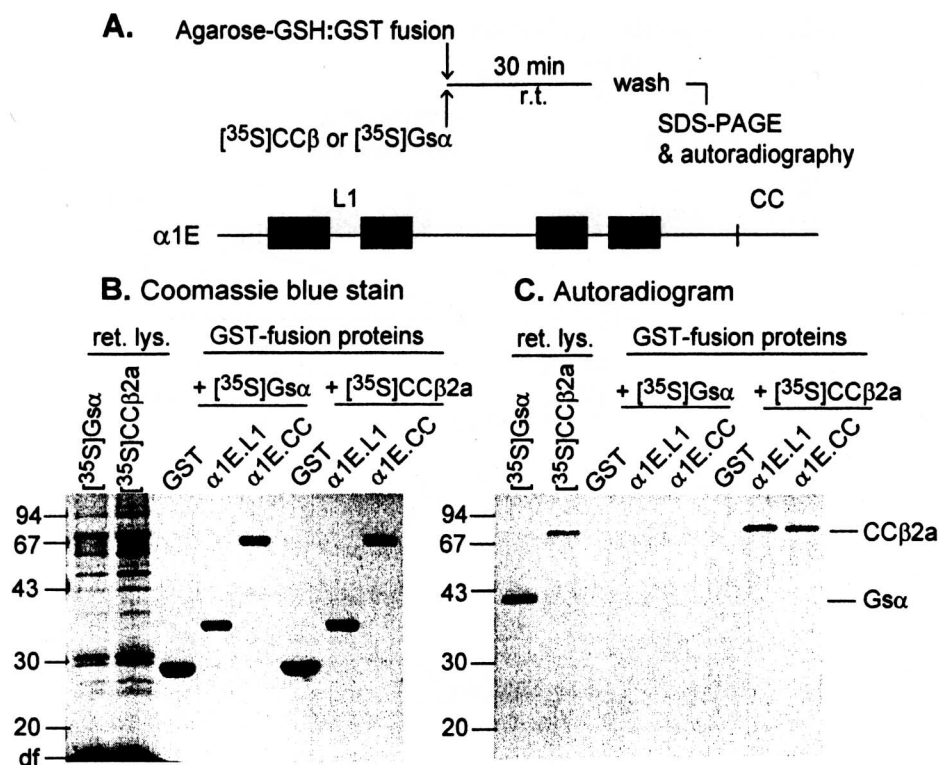
We confirmed the finding of Campbell and collaborators that loop 1 interacts with  $\beta$ . In addition we found that  $\beta$  interacts with the C-terminus (of  $\alpha_{1E}$ , Fig. 10). Fine-mapping of this site identified it to reside in a very short 38-amino acid long stretch in the middle of the  $\alpha_{1E}$  C-terminus (Fig. 11). A homologous site was also found in  $\alpha_{1A}$  and  $\alpha_{1B}$ , but not in  $\alpha_{1C}$  (not shown). The experiments in Fig. 12 show that the region of the  $\beta$  subunit that interacts with the C-terminal  $\alpha_{1E}$  sequence, D4, is the same as that previously determined by Campbell's group to interact with the Loop I-II L1 linker (De Waard *et al.*, 1994).

## THE C-TERMINAL $\beta$ SUBUNIT BINDING SITE IS ALSO A $G\beta\gamma$ BINDING SITE

The fact that no second  $\beta$  binding site was seen for  $\alpha_{1C}$  led to two corollaries for the C-terminal  $\beta$  subunit binding site: (1) it could not be responsible for the modulation of our hypothetical  $\alpha_1\beta$  complexes, because both non-L and L-type  $\alpha_1$  subunits require  $\beta$  subunits for expression in the oocyte, and (2) its existence raised the question whether it is of functional relevance. Independent studies that we were carrying out in parallel on the mode of action of G protein  $\beta\gamma$  subunits provided the answer to the question of functional relevance, for we determined that it is the site to which  $\beta$  subunits bind to inhibit the effect of  $G\beta\gamma$  dimers (Qin *et al.*, 1997).

## CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this article we have illustrated the importance of  $\beta$  subunits in the moment-to-moment regulation of voltage-gated  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels. Isolated as part of a dihydropyridine binding complex from skeletal muscle T-tubules,  $\beta$  subunits have now been shown to be central players in most if not all functional aspects of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel function: facilitation of activation and deactivation in response to voltage, modulation of inactivation by voltage, and support for or inhibition of special  $\alpha_1$ -specific phenomena such as long-lasting prepulse facilitation ( $\tau = \text{ca. } 20 \text{ sec!}$ ) and  $G\beta\gamma$ -mediated inhibition of non-L-type  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels (formed by  $\alpha_{1E}$ ,  $\alpha_{1B}$ , or  $\alpha_{1A}$ ). Some of the immediate questions that need to be addressed are the molecular makeup



**Fig. 10.** Identification of two sites on  $\alpha_{1E}$  that interact with  $\beta$  subunits. The figure shows binding of *in vitro*-translated,  $^{35}\text{S}$ -labeled  $\beta_{2a}$  to the recombinant L1 and the CC regions of  $\alpha_{1E}$  synthesized in *E. coli* as fusion proteins fused to bacterial glutathione-S-transferase (GST). Note that  $\beta_{2a}$  interacts not only with the loop connecting  $\alpha_1$  repeat domains I and II (L1), originally identified by Pragnell *et al.* (1994), but also with the carboxyl-half of the C-terminal tail of  $\alpha_{1E}$  (last 275 amino acids of the 2312 amino acid  $\alpha_{1E}$ , referred to as CC or, elsewhere, as ECC). As outlined in the figure, GST: $\alpha_{1E}$  fusions were adsorbed to glutathione-agarose and incubated with  $^{35}\text{S}$ -labeled calcium channel  $\beta_{2a}$  (CC $\beta_{2a}$ ) or  $\text{G}\alpha$  (control). The beads were then collected by centrifugation, washed several times, and resuspended in Laemmli's sample buffer containing 1% SDS. The mixtures were directly electrophoresed in 9% SDS-PAGE gels, stained with Coomassie blue (Panel A), dried, and autoradiographed (Panel B) to determine whether  $[^{35}\text{S}]\text{G}\alpha$  or  $[^{35}\text{S}]\text{CC}\beta_{2a}$  had bound to GST or any of the GST fusion proteins. Note also that  $\alpha_{1E}$  L1 and  $\alpha_{1E}$  CC bound  $[^{35}\text{S}]\text{CC}\beta_{2a}$  but not an unrelated protein,  $[^{35}\text{S}]\text{G}\alpha$ .

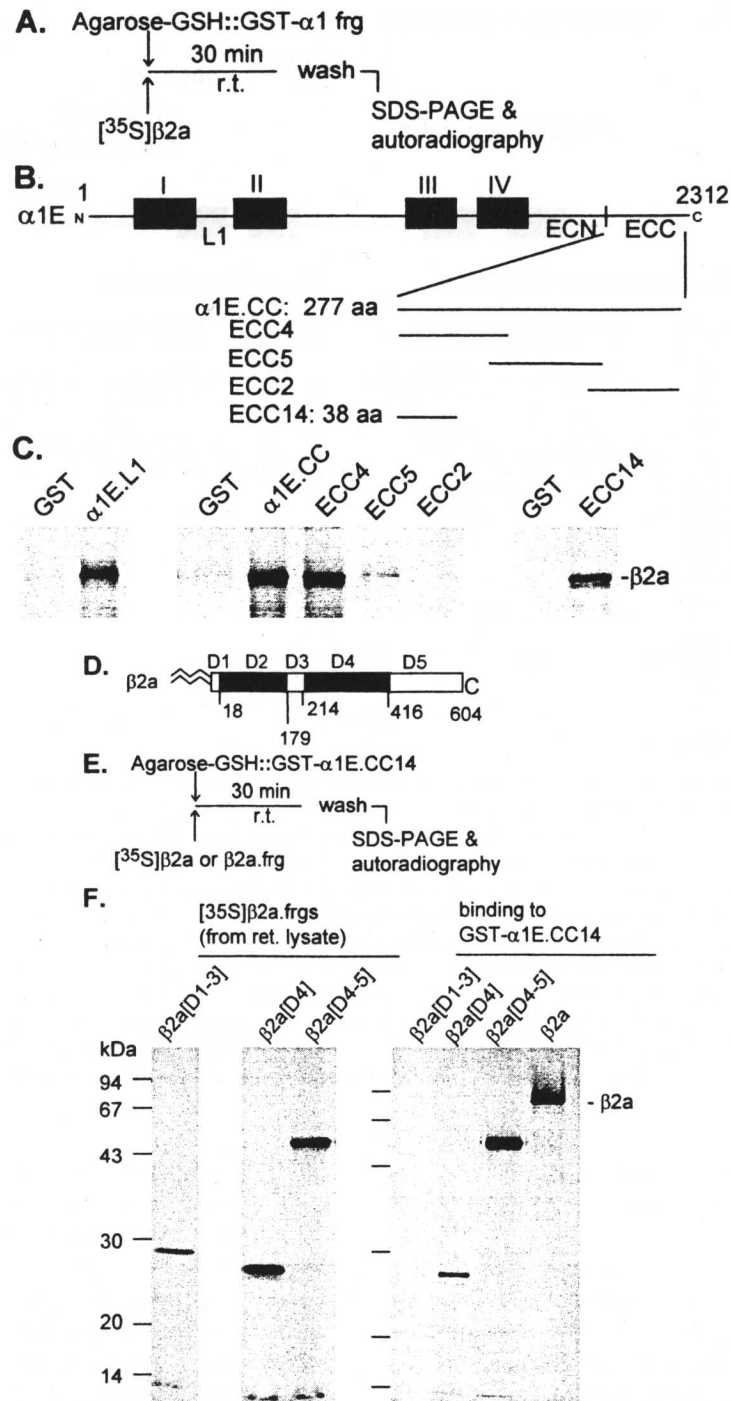
of the so-called " $\alpha_1$  alone" and " $\alpha_1\beta$ " channels in *Xenopus* oocytes and the fine mapping of  $\alpha_1$ - $\beta$  interactions.

Truncation of the C-terminus of  $\alpha_{1E}$  up to and including the  $\beta$  binding site showed that this loss does not affect regulation of channel kinetics by  $\beta$  subunits and indicated that even though  $\beta$  binds tightly to two distinct sites, only one of them, the binding to the L1 loop between repeat domains I and II, appears to be relevant to regulation of the channel's responses to voltage (Qin *et al.*, 1997).

The existence of two  $\beta$  subunit interaction domains raises the immediate question as to the three-dimensional structures of the binding complexes. A sequence comparison of the region in loop I involved

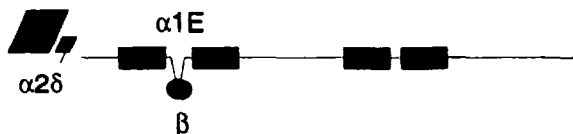
in binding to  $\beta$  (De Waard *et al.*, 1994) to those of the C-termini in  $\alpha_{1A}$ ,  $\alpha_{1B}$ , and  $\alpha_{1E}$  shows no obvious similarities. Also among the C-terminal binding sequences there is significant variation. A study of the three-dimensional configuration of these complexes should therefore be revealing in terms of further understanding the mechanisms by which  $\beta$  subunits regulate  $\alpha_1$  subunits. Although the L- and C-terminal binding sites of  $\alpha_1$  have the capacity to bind  $\beta$  independent of each other, it is conceivable that in the context of full  $\alpha_1$  the two sites cooperate in interacting with a single  $\beta$ .

The kinetic mechanism by which a  $\beta$  subunit reduces the frequency of nulls is also of interest. Analysis of the effect of  $\beta$  on  $\alpha_{1C}$  gating at the single-channel level revealed, surprisingly, that it had little effect on



**Fig. 11.** Binding of  $\beta$ 2a to subfragments of the C-terminus of  $\alpha$ <sub>1E</sub> reveals a 38 amino acid  $\beta$  subunit binding domain of  $\alpha$ <sub>1E</sub> (Panels A–C) that binds to the sequence similarity domain 4 (D4) of the  $\beta$  subunit (D–F). A homologue of the  $\alpha$ <sub>1E</sub>  $\beta$  subunit binding site was also found in  $\alpha$ <sub>1B</sub> and  $\alpha$ <sub>1A</sub> but not in  $\alpha$ <sub>1C</sub>. For further details see Qin *et al.* (1997).



Model 1. The mature regulated channel is formed of  $\alpha_{1E}\beta\alpha_{2\delta}$ Model 2. The mature regulated channel is formed of  $[\alpha_{1E}\beta]\alpha_{2\delta}$ 

**Fig. 12.** Two Models of subunit composition of an  $\alpha_{1E}$   $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel under the regulatory effect of  $\beta$  and  $\alpha_{2\delta}$  subunits.

the relative frequency with which an opening channel entered into either type 1 (unwilling) or type 2 (willing) gating modes; rather, it decreased mode switching.

While undoubtedly  $\alpha_1$  subunits are the business end of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels and their structure–function study is a fruitful avenue for new findings, it is clear that studies on the interaction and effects of  $\beta$  subunits with  $\alpha_1$  subunits is an equally fruitful road to new discoveries.

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