

Focused issue on  $K_{ATP}$  channelsRoles of  $K_{ATP}$  channels as metabolic sensors in acute metabolic changes

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**Abstract**

Physiological and pathophysiological roles of  $K_{ATP}$  channels have been clarified recently in genetically engineered mice. The Kir6.2-containing  $K_{ATP}$  channels in pancreatic  $\beta$ -cells and the hypothalamus are essential in the regulation of glucose-induced insulin secretion and hypoglycemia-induced glucagon secretion, respectively, and are involved in glucose uptake in skeletal muscles, thus playing a key role in the maintenance of glucose homeostasis. Disruption of Kir6.1-containing  $K_{ATP}$  channels in mice leads to spontaneous vascular spasm mimicking vasospastic (Prinzmetal) angina in humans, indicating that the Kir6.1-containing  $K_{ATP}$  channels in vascular smooth muscles participate in the regulation of vascular tone, especially in coronary arteries. Together with protective roles of  $K_{ATP}$  channels against cardiac ischemia and hypoxia-induced seizure propagation, it is now clear that  $K_{ATP}$  channels, as metabolic sensors, are critical in the maintenance of homeostasis against acute metabolic changes.

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**Keywords:** SUR1; SUR2; ATP-sensitive  $K^+$  channel; Exocytosis; Sulfonylurea; Glucose responsive neuron; Vasospasm**1. Introduction**

ATP-sensitive potassium ( $K_{ATP}$ ) channels are present in various tissues including pancreatic islet cells, heart, skeletal muscle, vascular smooth muscle, and brain, in which they couple the cellular metabolic state to its membrane excitability [1]. The  $K_{ATP}$  channel is a hetero-octamer comprising two subunits: the pore-forming Kir6.x (Kir6.1 or Kir6.2) and the regulatory sulfonylurea receptor SUR (SUR1 or SUR2) [2–4]. Different combinations of Kir6.1 or Kir6.2 and SUR1 or SUR2 variant (SUR2A or SUR2B) in cell lines constitute  $K_{ATP}$  channels with distinct electrophysiological and pharmacological properties that correspond to the various  $K_{ATP}$  channels in native tissues. Kir6.2 and SUR1 constitute the pancreatic  $\beta$ -cell type  $K_{ATP}$  channel [5,6]; Kir6.2 and SUR2A constitute the cardiac type  $K_{ATP}$  channel [7]. Kir6.1 and SUR2B constitute the vascular smooth muscle type  $K_{ATP}$  channel, which is activated by nucleoside diphosphates (NDPs) and inhibited by glibenclamide [8]. Electrophysiological and biochemical experiments with these reconsti-

tuted  $K_{ATP}$  channels revealed various features of the channels, including the regulation of channel gating by nucleotides, drugs, and intracellular signals, the stoichiometry and membrane topology of the channels, and the membrane sorting of the channels [2–4,9]. Various physiological and pathophysiological roles of  $K_{ATP}$  channels were implied in pharmacological experiments using  $K_{ATP}$  channel blockers and  $K^+$  channel openers (KCOs). However, such pharmacological approaches have been limited because there are few channel blockers and openers specific for each type of  $K_{ATP}$  channel.

Genetically engineered animal models have now made more detailed clarification of the physiological and pathophysiological roles of  $K_{ATP}$  channels possible. Recently, several genetically engineered mice strains lacking  $K_{ATP}$  channels or with altered  $K_{ATP}$  channel function have been generated (Table 1). These include mice lacking various  $K_{ATP}$  channels (knockout mice) [10–14] and mice expressing various mutant  $K_{ATP}$  channels (transgenic mice) [15–18]. In this review, we focus on the role of the  $K_{ATP}$  channels as metabolic sensors learned in studies of transgenic mice expressing a dominant-negative  $K_{ATP}$  channel in pancreatic  $\beta$ -cells and  $K_{ATP}$  channel knockout mice made by genetic disruption of the pore-forming subunit (Kir6.2 or Kir6.1) of the  $K_{ATP}$  channels.

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Table 1  
K<sub>ATP</sub> channel genetically modified mice

<i>Knockout mice</i>
<i>Kir6.2</i> <sup>−/−</sup> [10]
<i>SUR1</i> <sup>−/−</sup> [11,13]
<i>SUR2</i> <sup>−/−</sup> [12]
<i>Kir6.1</i> <sup>−/−</sup> [14]
<i>Transgenic mice</i>
(1) Dominant-negative Kir6.2 in pancreatic β-cells
<i>Kir6.2G132S</i> (by insulin promoter) [15]
<i>Kir6.2</i> <sup>132A133A134A</sup> (by insulin promoter) [16]
(2) Overactive Kir6.2 in pancreatic β-cells
<i>Kir6.2[ΔN2-30]</i> (by αMHC promoter) [17]
(3) Overactive Kir6.2 in heart
<i>Kir6.2[ΔN2-30, K185N]</i> (by αMHC promoter) [17]
(4) Overexpression of SUR1 in forebrain (by CMK promoter) [18]

## 2. Roles of K<sub>ATP</sub> channels learned from *Kir6.2*<sup>−/−</sup> mice

### 2.1. K<sub>ATP</sub> channels in pancreatic β-cells link glucose metabolism and electrical activity

Heterologous expression of Kir6.2 with SUR1 reconstitutes K<sub>ATP</sub> channel currents with electrophysiological and pharmacological properties similar to those observed in native pancreatic β-cells [5,6]. The K<sub>ATP</sub> channel in the pancreatic β-cell has been known to be critical in both glucose-stimulated and sulfonylurea-stimulated insulin secretion. The current model of glucose-stimulated insulin secretion is illustrated in Fig. 1 [19–21]. In this model, glucose is transported into pancreatic β-cells through glucose transporter (GLUT) (GLUT2 in rodents and GLUT1 in human), the subsequent metabolism of glucose generating various metabolic signals including ATP. A rise in the intracellular ATP concentration closes the K<sub>ATP</sub> channels, depolarizing the β-cell membrane, which opens the voltage-dependent calcium channels (VDCCs), allowing calcium influx. The resultant rise in intracellular calcium concentration ([Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>i</sub>) in the β-cell triggers insulin secretion. Thus, the K<sub>ATP</sub> channel links metabolic alterations to the electrical activity of the β-cells. In addition, the K<sub>ATP</sub> channel of the pancreatic β-cell is the target of sulfonylureas such as glibenclamide and tolbutamide, widely used in

treatment of type 2 (non-insulin dependent) diabetes mellitus (NIDDM), which stimulate insulin secretion by closing the K<sub>ATP</sub> channels [22–24]. The potassium channel opener (KCO) diazoxide inhibits insulin secretion by opening the K<sub>ATP</sub> channels [23–25].

On the other hand, glucose can potentiate insulin secretion in a K<sub>ATP</sub> channel-independent manner [26–28]. In addition, Takasawa et al. [29] has suggested that cyclic ADP-ribose induces insulin secretion independently of the K<sub>ATP</sub> channels. Thus, genetically engineered mice lacking K<sub>ATP</sub> channel function is an ideal animal model to clarify the roles of K<sub>ATP</sub> channels in glucose-stimulated insulin secretion.

#### 2.1.1. K<sub>ATP</sub> channels are essential for glucose responsiveness in pancreatic β-cells

Electrophysiological analysis of the pancreatic β-cells of *Kir6.2*<sup>−/−</sup> mice shows that K<sub>ATP</sub> channel activity is completely absent in the pancreatic β-cells of *Kir6.2*<sup>−/−</sup> mice, indicating that the Kir6.2 subunit is an essential component of the β-cell K<sub>ATP</sub> channel [10]. While *Kir6.2*<sup>−/−</sup> mice show transient hypoglycemia as neonates, serum insulin levels remain relatively high, indicating that regulation of insulin secretion by glucose is defective in *Kir6.2*<sup>−/−</sup> β-cells. However, the hypoglycemia seen in *Kir6.2*<sup>−/−</sup> mice lasts only for a week, and the blood glucose levels of *Kir6.2*<sup>−/−</sup> mice as adults in the fed state were not significantly different from those of wild-type mice. The β-cell membrane was hyperpolarized under the resting condition in the presence of low glucose (2.8 mM), and repetitive bursts of action potential were seen in *Kir6.2*<sup>−/−</sup> β-cells. Importantly, there was no change in the membrane potential of *Kir6.2*<sup>−/−</sup> β-cells in response to high glucose (16.7 mM), indicating that the Kir6.2-containing K<sub>ATP</sub> channel is essential for electrical excitability of the β-cell by glucose. Basal intracellular calcium levels ([Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>i</sub>) in the β-cell also were significantly elevated in *Kir6.2*<sup>−/−</sup> β-cells, and neither high glucose (16.7 mM) nor tolbutamide (100 μM) elicited further change in [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>i</sub> in *Kir6.2*<sup>−/−</sup> β-cells. Oral glucose tolerance test revealed the insulin secretory response to glucose to be severely impaired in *Kir6.2*<sup>−/−</sup> mice. In addition, batch incubation and perfusion experiments using pancreatic islets has shown that neither 16.7 mM glucose nor 100 μM tolbutamide elicits significant insulin secretion in *Kir6.2*<sup>−/−</sup> mice. The roles of Kir6.2 in pancreatic β-cells also were examined in transgenic mice expressing a dominant-negative Kir6.2 (*Kir6.2G132S*) in pancreatic β-cells (*Kir6.2G132S* Tg mice) [14]. *Kir6.2G132S* is mutated in the first residue of the Gly-Tyr-Gly motif with Ser (residue 132) in the putative K<sup>+</sup> ion permeable domain (H5), which is critical for K<sup>+</sup> ion selectivity [30]. The pancreatic β-cells of *Kir6.2G132S* Tg mice have been shown to have impaired K<sub>ATP</sub> channel activity, higher membrane potentials, and elevated [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>i</sub>, and *Kir6.2G132S* Tg mice have defective insulin secretion in response to glucose [14].

Thus, the Kir6.2-pore-forming subunit of the K<sub>ATP</sub> channel in pancreatic β-cells determines both membrane potential and basal [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>i</sub>, and is critical in the regulation of mem-

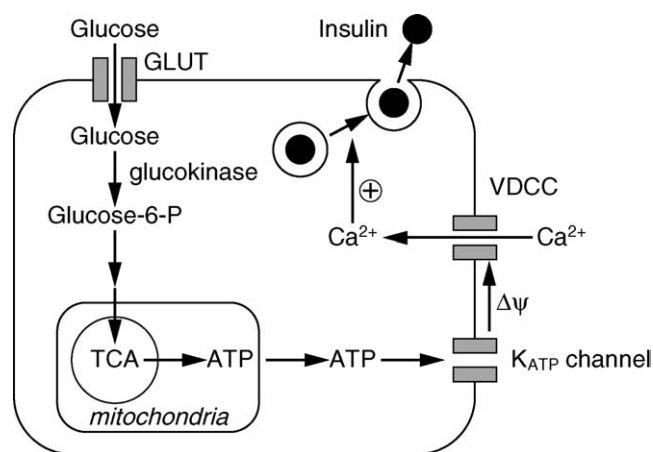


Fig. 1. Insulin secretion by glucose and sulfonylurea. See text for details.

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