Long-QT mutations in KCNE1 modulate the 17β-estradiol response of Kv7.1/KCNE1

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Estradiol (17β-E2) is implicated in higher arrhythmia risk of women with congenital or acquired long-QT syndrome (LQTS) compared to men. However, the underlying mechanisms remain poorly understood, and little is known about the impact of LQTS-associated mutations. We show that 17β-E2 inhibits the human cardiac Kv7.1/KCNE1 channel expressed in Xenopus oocytes. We find that the 17β-E2 effect depends on the Kv7.1 to KCNE1 stoichiometry, and we reveal a critical function of the KCNE1 carboxyl terminus for the effect. LQTS-associated mutations in the KCNE1 carboxyl terminus show a range of responses to 17β-E2, from a wild-type like response to impaired or abolished response. Together, this study increases our understanding of the mechanistic basis for 17β-E2 inhibition of Kv7.1/KCNE1 and demonstrates mutation-dependent responses to 17β-E2. These findings suggest that the 17β-E2 effect on Kv7.1/KCNE1 might contribute to the higher arrhythmia risk of women, particularly in carriers with specific LQTS-associated mutations.

INTRODUCTION

The cardiac action potential is the result of opening and closing/inactivation of ion channels, regulating the inward flow of depolarizing Na+ and Ca2+ currents followed by the outward flow of repolarizing K+ currents [reviewed in (1)]. The well-tempered sequential conduction of different ionic currents is required for synchronized cardiomyocyte contraction and action potential propagation throughout the heart. Altered activity of any of the ion channels involved in the cardiac action potential may give rise to cardiac arrhythmias and, in the worst case, cause sudden cardiac death (SCD) (1, 2). Long-QT syndrome (LQTS), characterized by a prolonged QT interval on the electrocardiogram, is one such potentially lethal arrhythmic disorder in which the prolonged action potential duration predisposes the ventricles to early afterdepolarizations, Torsade-de-Pointes ventricular arrhythmias, and SCD (3). Although LQTS is a relatively rare disorder [affecting about 1:2500 people (4)], its severity motivates studies aimed at understanding the mechanistic basis of LQTS.

Mutations in cardiac ion channels are the most common cause of congenital LQTS, of which mutations in the most abundantly affected genes encoding for the IKS, IKr (underlying the slow and rapid component of the delayed rectifier K+ current, respectively), and Nav1.5 channels account together for about 90% of the cases (5). More than 300 mutations in the genes KCNQ1 and KCNE1, encoding for the Kv7.1 α subunit and KCNE1 auxiliary subunit, respectively, of the IKs conducting channel, have been linked to congenital LQTS type 1 and 5 (i.e., LQT1 and LQT5) (2). In addition, there are acquired forms of LQTS caused by exogenous factors such as pharmaceutical drugs or endogenous modulators altering ion channel activity (6, 7). Sex hormones are one class of endogenous modulators that has gained much attention as disease modulators of cardiac arrhythmias, with anticipated QT-shortening or QT-prolonging effects depending on hormone and targeted ion channel. In general, progesterone and testosterone are reported to have QT-shortening effects, mediated through inhibition of L-type voltage-gated Ca2+ (Cav) channels and activation of several cardiac Kv channels [reviewed in (8)]. In contrast, 17β-estradiol [17β-E2; the most abundant estrogen (9)] is, in general, considered to have QT-prolonging effects, mediated through activation of L-type Cav channels and inhibition of several cardiac Kv channels [reviewed in (8)]. The QT-prolonging effect of testosterone in men and the QT-prolonging effect of 17β-E2 in women, which is partially counteracted by QT-shortening effects of progesterone, are hormonal influences likely to contribute to sex-related differences observed in the clinical phenotype of LQTS: Women have a longer heart rate–corrected QT interval than do men and are more prone to drug-induced LQTS (10), particularly during phases of the menstrual cycle with high 17β-E2 levels (11). Moreover, women with congenital LQTS show higher clinical penetrance and increased risk of life-threatening arrhythmic Torsade-de-Pointes events than men (12). Together, it is well established that sex hormones are clinically relevant modulators of cardiac ion channels. However, many aspects of how sex hormones modulate the activity of cardiac ion channels remain unknown, which limits a mechanistic understanding of beneficial and harmful effects and hampers personalized patient management. For instance, the IKS channel is composed of four Kv7.1 subunits and one to four KCNE1 subunits (13–15). Previous studies have observed a 17β-E2–mediated down-regulation of KCNE1 mRNA (16) that may reduce IKS currents, but little is known about channel properties or motifs required for 17β-E2 effects. Moreover, it remains to be determined whether LQTS-associated mutations modify the 17β-E2 effect. Characterizing the putative interplay between mutations implicated in congenital LQTS and sex hormone effects would be one step toward understanding which individuals are particularly susceptible to arrhythmia because of hormonal influences.

In this study, we aimed to expand the understanding of IKS channel properties or motifs important for 17β-E2 effects on IKS.
current densities. To this end, we coexpressed human Kv7.1 and KCNE1 subunits in *Xenopus* oocytes to allow for the formation of *I*_Ks channels (hereafter referred to as Kv7.1/KCNE1) and studied the effect of 17β-E2 and other steroid sex hormones using two-electrode voltage clamp electrophysiology. We found that 17β-E2, but not the other tested steroid sex hormones, induced a prominent reduction of Kv7.1/KCNE1 currents. This reduction was dependent on the KCNE1 subunit and protein kinase C (PKC), with particular importance of the KCNE1 C terminus and conventional PKC isoforms (α, β, and γ). LQTS-associated mutations in KCNE1 altered the 17β-E2 effect. Moreover, we could demonstrate similar *I*_Ks-inhibitory 17β-E2 effects in mammalian cardiomyocytes and elucidated mechanisms that may account for differences in the concentrations of 17β-E2 needed to exhibit *I*_Ks-inhibiting effects in different experimental settings. Our study expands the understanding of how 17β-E2 modulates the Kv7.1/KCNE1 channel and suggests that the genetic background could tune arrhythmia susceptibility due to hormonal influences.

**RESULTS**

### 17β-E2 inhibits the Kv7.1/KCNE1 channel

The major steroid sex hormones encompass progesterone; testosterone; and the estrogens estrone, 17β-E2, and estriol. These hormones are synthesized from cholesterol and contain a common steroid backbone (i.e., three cyclohexane rings and one cyclopentane ring) and are distinguished by variability in the functional groups of the steroidal moiety. The major steroid sex hormones encompass progesterone, estradiol, and testosterone, which are synthesized from cholesterol and contain a common steroid backbone (i.e., three cyclohexane rings and one cyclopentane ring) and are distinguished by variability in the functional groups of the steroidal moiety.

Here, we report on how 17β-E2 modulates the Kv7.1/KCNE1 channel and suggests that the genetic background could tune arrhythmia susceptibility due to hormonal influences. The 17β-E2 effect is KCNE1 dependent

We next tested whether the observed 17β-E2-mediated inhibition of Kv7.1/KCNE1 was KCNE1-dependent. 17β-E2 concentrations up to 100 μM did not affect *G*<sub>max</sub> or *V*<sub>50</sub> of Kv7.1 alone (Δ*G*<sub>max</sub> and Δ*V*<sub>50</sub> was within ±10% and ±1.6 mV, respectively; Fig. 2A and fig. S1A). To test whether Kv7.1/KCNE1-like gating is enough for 17β-E2 effects, we quantified the effect of 17β-E2 on the Kv7.1/F315A mutant, which gates in a Kv7.1/KCNE1-like manner (Fig. 2B) (17). Ten micromolar 17β-E2 had a small activating effect on Kv7.1/F315A (Δ*G*<sub>max</sub> = +22 ± 5%, *n* = 4, *P* = 0.02 with one-sample *t*-test; Fig. 2B), suggesting that the KCNE1 subunit itself is required for 17β-E2-mediated inhibition of the Kv7.1/KCNE1 channel. In line with a KCNE1 dependence of the 17β-E2 effect, reducing the number of KCNE1 subunits in the Kv7.1/KCNE1 complex also impaired the ability of 17β-E2 to reduce *G*<sub>max</sub>. At saturating 17β-E2 concentrations, 17β-E2 induced a smaller effect on concatenated Kv7.1 and KCNE1 subunits promoting a 4:2 stoichiometry compared to coinjected Kv7.1/KCNE1, whereas the effect on concatamers promoting 4:4 stoichiometry was comparable to that of coinjected Kv7.1/KCNE1 (fig. S1, B and C). Three micromolar 17β-E2 reduced *G*<sub>max</sub> of concatamers promoting 4:2 stoichiometry by only −4 ± 2%, whereas *G*<sub>max</sub> of concatamers promoting 4:4 stoichiometry was reduced by −22 ± 6% (fig. S1C). Ten micromolar 17β-E2 reduced *G*<sub>max</sub> of concatamers promoting 4:2 stoichiometry by about half to that seen for concatamers promoting 4:4 stoichiometry (Δ*G*<sub>max</sub> = −36 ± 6% compared to −60 ± 3%; fig. S1C). Thus, the KCNE1 subunit is required for 17β-E2 to reduce *G*<sub>max</sub> and the effect is tuned by the number of KCNE1 subunits.

### Part of the KCNE1 C terminus is required for 17β-E2–mediated inhibition of Kv7.1/KCNE1

KCNE1 is a single-transmembrane helix protein of 129 amino acids with an extracellular N terminus, an intracellular C terminus, and a transmembrane portion encompassing approximately residues 46 to 66 (Fig. 2C) (18). Given the critical role of KCNE1 for 17β-E2 effects, we generated truncated KCNE1 variants with the aim to identify which region of the KCNE1 subunit is important for the 17β-E2 effect. We generated one N-terminal truncated (KCNE1Δ2-38) and four C-terminal truncated (KCNE1Δ67, KCNE1Δ78, KCNE1Δ80, and KCNE1Δ102) KCNE1 variants (Fig. 2C; see table S5 for intrinsic biophysical properties of variants). The KCNE1Δ78, KCNE1Δ80, and KCNE1Δ102 truncated variants responded to 17β-E2 comparable to WT Kv7.1/KCNE1 (Fig. 2D, fig. S2, and table S2). In contrast, the KCNE1Δ2-38 and KCNE1Δ67 truncated mutants responded with a significantly smaller reduction in *G*<sub>max</sub> compared to WT Kv7.1/KCNE1 (Fig. 2D, fig. S2, and table S2). Ten micromolar 17β-E2 reduced *G*<sub>max</sub> of Kv7.1/KCNE1Δ2-38 by −26 ± 10%, whereas *G*<sub>max</sub> of KCNE1Δ67 was not reduced at all (Δ*G*<sub>max</sub> = +2 ± 9%; Fig. 2D and table S2). For all truncated KCNE1 variants, Δ*V*<sub>50</sub> in response to 17β-E2 remained within 7 mV (table S2). Together, these experiments suggest that several regions of KCNE1 influence the 17β-E2 effect. However, the lack of 17β-E2 effect on KCNE1Δ67 and fully restored effect on KCNE1Δ78 highlight a region encompassing residues 67 to 77 as of special interest for the 17β-E2 effect.
Fig. 1. 17β-E2 inhibits the Kv7.1/KCNE1 channel. (A) Molecular structure of the steroid backbone and indicated steroid sex hormones. (B) Summary of the effect of indicated concentrations of steroid sex hormones on \( G_{\text{max}} \) of Kv7.1/KCNE1. TMC, time-matched control (perfusion with control solution); E1, estrone; 17β-E2: estradiol; E3, estriol; Prog, progesterone; Test, testosterone. Data are shown as means ± SEM. \( n = 4 \) to 18 (table S1). Statistics indicate a one-sample t test compared to a hypothetical value of 0 (i.e., no change in \( G_{\text{max}} \)). ***, \( P < 0.0001 \); > 0.05 [not significant (n.s.)] for all other data (table S1). (C) Representative current family with corresponding \( G(V) \) curve of Kv7.1/KCNE1 in the absence (left) and presence (middle) of 10 \( \mu \)M 17β-E2. Used voltage protocol is shown as inset. Curves in the \( G(V) \) plot (right) represent Boltzmann fits (see Materials and Methods for details). For this specific cell, \( V_{50,\text{ctrl}} = +31 \) mV, \( I_{\text{tail max,ctrl}} = 4.2 \) \( \mu \)A, \( V_{50,17\beta-E2} = +28 \) mV, and \( I_{\text{tail max,17\beta-E2}} = 1.2 \) \( \mu \)A. (D) Same as in (C) but for progesterone. For this specific cell, \( V_{50,\text{ctrl}} = +25 \) mV, \( I_{\text{tail max,ctrl}} = 3.4 \) \( \mu \)A, \( V_{50,\text{prog}} = +28 \) mV, and \( I_{\text{tail max,prog}} = 3.8 \) \( \mu \)A. (E) Time course of onset/washout of 17β-E2 effect assessed by stepping to +40 mV from a holding voltage of −80 mV every 30 s (quantified at the end of the +40-mV pulse). Dashed line, current amplitude before 17β-E2 application. (F) Concentration dependence of the 17β-E2 effect on \( G_{\text{max}} \) of Kv7.1/KCNE1. See Materials and Methods for details of the concentration-response fit. Best fit, maximum \( \Delta G_{\text{max}} = -94\% \) and IC\textsubscript{50} = 5.2 \( \mu \)M. Data are shown as means ± SEM. \( n = 4 \) to 18. Small error bars are covered by symbols. (G) Same as in (F) but for current amplitude at +40 mV. Best fit, maximum \( \Delta I_{40 \text{ mV}} = -95\% \) and IC\textsubscript{50} = 5.3 \( \mu \)M.
Steroid sex hormones such as 17β-E2 activate multiple signaling pathways (19). Rapid effects (obtained after several minutes or few hours) may be transduced via, for instance, membrane-bound classical steroid receptors (e.g., the estrogen receptors ERα and ERβ), nonclassical receptors such as G-protein–coupled receptors (e.g., GPR30), and protein kinases such as PKA and PKC (19–21). Slower signaling transduction, which typically has functional effects more than 6 hours after 17β-E2 treatment, may involve genomic pathways (22–24). 17β-E2–mediated inhibition of the Kv7.1/KCNE3 channel has been attributed to two underlying mechanisms involving PKC signaling: 17β-E2 has been proposed to reduce Kv7.1/KCNE3 membrane abundance by PKC-triggered dynamin-dependent channel internalization and to cause KCNE3 dissociation from Kv7.1 by stimulating PKC-mediated phosphorylation of S82 in KCNE3 (25–27). To evaluate the putative importance of PKC and other well-studied mediators involved in transducing rapid 17β-E2 effects, we used a set of receptor or kinase inhibitors (Fig. 3A, left), one by one, and assessed whether any of the inhibitors altered the reduction of $G_{\text{max}}$ induced by 17β-E2 (see Materials

Fig. 2. 17β-E2 inhibition of Kv7.1/KCNE1 is KCNE1 dependent. (A) Representative current family with corresponding $G(V)$ curve of Kv7.1 in the absence (left) and presence (right) of 10 μM 17β-E2. Curves in the $G(V)$ plot (right) represent Boltzmann fits. For this specific cell, $V_{50,\text{ctrl}} = -23$ mV, $I_{\text{tailmax,ctrl}} = 2.0$ μA, $V_{50,17\beta-E2} = -24$ mV, and $I_{\text{tailmax,17\beta-E2}} = 2.3$ μA. (B) Same as in (A) but for Kv7.1_F351A and 10 μM 17β-E2. For this specific cell, $V_{50,\text{ctrl}} = +34$ mV, $I_{\text{tailmax,ctrl}} = 1.9$ μA, $V_{50,17\beta-E2} = +34$ mV, and $I_{\text{tailmax,17\beta-E2}} = 2.3$ μA. (C) Amino acid sequence of KCNE1. Numbers indicate sites for truncations. Gray bar indicates the transmembrane portion of KCNE1. (D) Summary of the effect of 3 and 10 μM 17β-E2 on Kv7.1/KCNE1 channels with indicated KCNE1 truncations. Data are shown as means ± SEM. $n = 4$ to 13 (defined in table S2). Statistics indicate one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Dunnett’s multiple comparisons test to determine whether the 17β-E2 effect on truncated channels deviates from the effect on WT. **$P < 0.01$, ***$P < 0.001$, and ****$P < 0.0001$. $P > 0.05$ (n.s.) for all other data (see table S2). Gray and black dashed lines indicate the effect of 3 and 10 μM 17β-E2, respectively, on WT Kv7.1/KCNE1.

17β-E2–mediated inhibition of Kv7.1/KCNE1 is dependent on PKC
Fig. 3. 17β-E2 inhibition of Kv7.1/KCNE1 is PKC dependent. (A) Left: An overview of used receptor or kinase inhibitors with indicated primary target. Right: A summary of the effect of either control solution only (open bars, “−17β-E2”) or 10 μM 17β-E2 (closed bars, “+17β-E2”) on Kv7.1/KCNE1 exposed to indicated inhibitors (see Materials and Methods for details). The dashed bar for PKCε inhibitory peptide (IP) denotes data for oocytes injected with PKCε IP. Data are shown as means ± SEM. n = 3 to 9 (defined in table S3). Statistics indicate one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett’s multiple comparisons test to determine whether the 17β-E2 effect in the presence of inhibitors deviates from the effect on WT (included as bar marked “Ctrl”). *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, and ***P < 0.0001. P > 0.05 (n.s.) for all other data (see table S3). (B) Representative current family with corresponding G(V) curve of chelerythrine-treated Kv7.1/KCNE1 in the absence (left) and presence (middle) of 10 μM 17β-E2. Curves in the G(V) plot (right) represent Boltzmann fits. For this specific cell, V_{G,ctr} = +20 mV, I_{tailmax,ctrl} = 1.0 μA, V_{50,17β-E2} = +15 mV, and I_{tailmax,17β-E2} = 1.1 μA.

and Methods for concentrations and incubation times for the inhibitors.

Neither the ERα/ERβ antagonist fulvestrant nor the GPR30 antagonist G15 prevented 17β-E2 from reducing G_{max}. Ten micromolar 17β-E2 reduced G_{max} of Kv7.1/KCNE1 by −58 ± 7% in the presence of fulvestrant and −46 ± 7% in the presence of G15, compared with −58% in the absence of inhibitors (Fig. 3A and table S3). These data suggest that ER- and GPR30-mediated pathways are not involved in the 17β-E2 effect. The PKC antagonist chelerythrine, but not the PKA antagonist H89, abrogated the effect of 17β-E2 on G_{max}. Ten micromolar 17β-E2 reduced G_{max} of Kv7.1/KCNE1 by −67 ± 9% in the presence of H89 (Fig. 3A and table S3). In contrast, 10 μM 17β-E2 did not reduce G_{max} of Kv7.1/KCNE1 in the presence of chelerythrine (ΔG_{max} was −6 ± 15%; Fig. 3A, A and B, and table S3). This suggests that the 17β-E2 effect is PKC, but not PKA, dependent.

X. laevis oocytes are known to express most types of PKCs (28) including the conventional PKCa, PKCb, and PKCy isoforms and novel PKCd and PKCe isoforms. To further study the PKC dependence of the 17β-E2 effect, four PKC isotype-specific inhibitors were used: HBDDE (PKCa and PKCy specific), rottlerin (PKCd specific), and PKCε inhibitor peptide (PKCe specific) (Fig. 3A). HBDDE and rottlerin impaired the ability of 10 μM 17β-E2 to reduce G_{max} by about 50%, rendering a G_{max} reduction of −17 to −28% (Fig. 3A and table S3). Rottlerin and PKCe inhibitor peptide, however, did not significantly alter the ability of 10 μM 17β-E2 to reduce G_{max} (Fig. 3A and table S3). None of the inhibitors alone or in combination with 10 μM 17β-E2 had prominent effects on V_{50} (ΔV_{50} was within ±7 mV; table S3). Together, these data suggest that the 17β-E2–induced reduction in G_{max} of Kv7.1/KCNE1 is dependent on conventional PKC subtypes (α, β, and γ). However, 17β-E2–induced inhibition of Kv7.1/KCNE1 could not be mimicked by simple activation of PKC using phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA), which is a commercially available PKC activator. In contrast to the reduction in G_{max} induced by 17β-E2, acute application of 1 nM PMA increased G_{max} of Kv7.1/KCNE1 by +15 ± 6% (P < 0.05 with one-sample t test; fig. S3), an effect that was abolished by the PKC inhibitor chelerythrine (fig. S3).
**17β-E2-mediated inhibition of Kv7.1/KCNE1 is dependent on S68 but not dynamin**

To test whether the 17β-E2 effect on Kv7.1/KCNE1 is dependent on similar PKC-mediated pathways, as proposed for Kv7.1/KCNE3, we assessed the impact of preventing dynamin-dependent internalization or phosphorylation of the homologous predicted PKC target in KCNE1 (S68, homologous to S82 in KCNE3) (29), respectively. In contrast to the 17β-E2 effect on Kv7.1/KCNE3 (25), the dynamin inhibitor dynasore did not impair the ability of 17β-E2 to reduce \(G_{\text{max}}\) of Kv7.1/KCNE1. In the presence of dynasore, 10 μM 17β-E2 reduced \(G_{\text{max}}\) of Kv7.1/KCNE1 by −74 ± 6%, which was similar to the 17β-E2 effect in the absence of dynasore (Fig. 4, A and D, and table S3). In contrast, the serine-to-alanine mutation at position 68, which is anticipated to prevent phosphorylation at position 68, abolished 17β-E2-mediated inhibition of Kv7.1/KCNE1 (Fig. 4, B and D). \(\Delta G_{\text{max}}\) for 10 μM 17β-E2 on Kv7.1/KCNE1_S68A was −14 ± 4% (\(P > 0.05\) with one-sample \(t\) test; Fig. 4, B to D). As a control, we found that a serine-to-alanine mutation of S102, a predicted PKC target outside the region of KCNE1 residues 67 to 77 identified as important for the 17β-E2, did not alter the 17β-E2 effect. Ten micromolar 17β-E2 reduced \(G_{\text{max}}\) of Kv7.1/KCNE1_S102A to a similar extent as for wild-type (WT) Kv7.1/KCNE1 (\(\Delta G_{\text{max}}\) was −57 ± 6%; Fig. 4D). Notably, a serine-to-aspartic acid mutation at position 68, which is anticipated to mimic the phosphorylated form of serine at position 68, did not abolish 17β-E2-mediated inhibition of Kv7.1/KCNE1 (Fig. 4, C and D). \(\Delta G_{\text{max}}\) for 10 μM 17β-E2 on the phosphomimetic Kv7.1/KCNE1_S68D mutant was −68 ± 4% (n = 5), which was similar to the 17β-E2 effect on WT Kv7.1/KCNE1 (Fig. 4, C and D). Moreover, the phosphomimetic S68D mutation removed the PKC dependence of the 17β-E2 effect, as the PKC inhibitor chelerythrine did not abolish the \(G_{\text{max}}\) effect of 10 μM 17β-E2 on Kv7.1/KCNE1_S68D (Fig. 4D). Together, these data suggest that the 17β-E2 effect on Kv7.1/KCNE1 is dependent on S68, but not on dynamin. Furthermore, the chelerythrine and mutagenesis data for position 68 suggest that either PKC (with S68 as predicted phosphorylation target) or a phosphomimetic side chain at position 68 is required for 17β-E2 effects.

**LQTS-associated mutations in KCNE1 alter the 17β-E2 effect**

In addition to the predicted PKC target S68, the region of residues 67 to 77 in KCNE1 harbors several residues for which LQTS-associated mutations or polymorphisms have been described. These mutations include R67C, S68T, K69R, K70N, H73Y, S74L, and D76N (2, 14, 30–32). Both autosomal heterozygous and autosomal homozygous forms of these mutations have been described, with autosomal dominant inheritance being by far the most prevalent form. To determine whether any of these LQTS-associated mutations affected the 17β-E2 effect, we tested the ability of 3 and 10 μM 17β-E2 to reduce \(G_{\text{max}}\) of each mutant. The mutants Kv7.1/KCNE1_K69R, Kv7.1/KCNE1_S74L, and Kv7.1/KCNE1_D76N showed a response to 17β-E2 comparable to that of WT Kv7.1/KCNE1 with pronounced reduction in \(G_{\text{max}}\) (Fig. 5, A and B, and table S4). In contrast, mutants Kv7.1/KCNE1_S68T and Kv7.1/KCNE1_K70N showed impaired response to 17β-E2 with a reduction in \(G_{\text{max}}\) less than half of that of WT Kv7.1/KCNE1 (Fig. 5, A and C, and table S4). Mutants Kv7.1/KCNE1_R67C and Kv7.1/KCNE1_H73Y were not inhibited by 17β-E2 [Fig. 5, A and D (\(P > 0.05\) for \(\Delta G_{\text{max}}\) with one-sample \(t\) test), and table S4]. These coinjunction experiments with Kv7.1 and LQTS-mutant forms of KCNE1 would represent the most extreme effect that a specific KCNE1 mutation may have on its susceptibility to 17β-E2 (i.e., mimicking a homozygous setting in our coinjection experiments). To mimic a heterozygous setting, we repeated these experiments for the four LQTS mutants that showed a deviating 17β-E2 response to that of WT, this time coinjecting WT Kv7.1 with 50% mutant KCNE1 and 50% WT KCNE1. These experiments show that, in the heterozygous setting, mutant Kv7.1/KCNE1_S68T displayed a WT-like response to 17β-E2 (Fig. S4), whereas mutants Kv7.1/KCNE1_R67C, Kv7.1/KCNE1_K70N, and Kv7.1/KCNE1_H73Y showed an 17β-E2 response that was intermediate to that of WT Kv7.1/KCNE1 and the homozygous setting for each mutant (Fig. S4). Together, these experiments show that Kv7.1/KCNE1 channels harboring LQTS-associated mutations display a range of responses to 17β-E2, from a WT-like response to either impaired or abolished response.

**LQTS-associated mutations and 17β-E2 have a combined burden on Kv7.1/KCNE1**

In line with previous reports for several of the LQTS-associated mutants, all mutants showed loss of function phenotype with a \(V_{\text{50}}\) that was shifted more than 20 mV toward more positive voltages compared to that of WT Kv7.1/KCNE1 under control conditions (Fig. S5 and table S5). Moreover, all mutants except Kv7.1/KCNE1_K69R generated smaller currents at +40 mV (a voltage relevant for the action potential plateau phase) compared to WT [denoted by "0 μM," \(P < 0.05\) using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Dunnett’s multiple comparisons test; Fig. 6A]. Kv7.1/KCNE1_S68T showed the most impaired ability to generate current (<3% of WT current amplitude), and Kv7.1/KCNE1_K69R showed the most preserved ability to generate current (about 68% of WT current amplitude).

To determine the combined burden of a mutation and 17β-E2, we multiplied this relative current amplitude of each mutant with the change in current amplitude at +40 mV for each mutant induced by 17β-E2 (i.e., 0 μM in Fig. 6A multiplied with data in Fig. S6). This gave us the relative remaining current of each mutant under the influence of 17β-E2 compared to WT under control conditions (i.e., no 17β-E2). The pattern of how the steady-state current at +40 mV was affected by 17β-E2 followed the pattern of effects at \(G_{\text{max}}\), with Kv7.1/KCNE1_K69R, Kv7.1/KCNE1_S74L, and Kv7.1/KCNE1_D76N responding with the largest current reduction induced by 17β-E2 in a concentration-dependent manner and Kv7.1/KCNE1_K70N responding with a less pronounced current reduction (Fig. 6A). In contrast, the current amplitude of Kv7.1/KCNE1_R67C and Kv7.1/KCNE1_H73Y did not show further reduction induced by 17β-E2 (Fig. 6A). The reduction in steady-state current of Kv7.1/KCNE1_S68T induced by 17β-E2 could not be reliably determined, as the currents at +40 mV generated by the Kv7.1/KCNE1_S68T mutant were too small. Together, these data suggest that whereas the function of some mutants is not further impaired by 17β-E2 (such as Kv7.1/KCNE1_R67C and Kv7.1/KCNE1_H73Y), the combined burden of the mutation and 17β-E2 results in less than 10% remaining currents of mutants such as Kv7.1/KCNE1_S74L and Kv7.1/KCNE1_D76N compared to WT Kv7.1/KCNE1 under control conditions.
Fig. 4. 17β-E2 inhibition of Kv7.1/KCNE1 is dependent on KCNE1/S68A but not dynamin. (A) Representative current family with corresponding G(V) curve of dynasore-treated Kv7.1/KCNE1 in the absence (left) and presence (middle) of 10 μM 17β-E2. Curves in the G(V) plot (right) represent Boltzmann fits. For this specific cell, \( V_{50,\text{ctrl}} = +40 \text{ mV}, I_{\text{tailmax,ctrl}} = 2.2 \mu A, V_{50,17\beta-E2} = +39 \text{ mV}, \) and \( I_{\text{tailmax,17\beta-E2}} = 0.4 \mu A. \) (B) Representative current family with corresponding G(V) curve of Kv7.1/KCNE1_S68A in the absence (left) and presence (middle) of 10 μM 17β-E2. Curves in the G(V) plot (right) represent Boltzmann fits. For this specific cell, \( V_{50,\text{ctrl}} = +49 \text{ mV}, I_{\text{tailmax,ctrl}} = 0.6 \mu A, V_{50,17\beta-E2} = +50 \text{ mV}, \) and \( I_{\text{tailmax,17\beta-E2}} = 0.6 \mu A. \) (C) Same as in (B) but for Kv7.1/KCNE1_S68D. For this specific cell, \( V_{50,\text{ctrl}} = +42 \text{ mV}, I_{\text{tailmax,ctrl}} = 1.2 \mu A, V_{50,17\beta-E2} = +45 \text{ mV}, \) and \( I_{\text{tailmax,17\beta-E2}} = 0.4 \mu A. \) (D) Summary of the effect of 10 μM 17β-E2 on Kv7.1/KCNE1 channels with indicated inhibitor or KCNE1 mutations. Data are shown as means ± SEM. \( n = 3 \) to 18. Statistics indicate one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett’s multiple comparisons test to determine whether the 17β-E2 effect deviates from the effect on WT (included as bar marked “Ctrl”). *** \( P < 0.001, P > 0.05 \) (n.s.) for all other data (see also table S3). Open bar (“-17β-E2”) denotes Kv7.1/KCNE1 exposed to the indicated inhibitor in the absence of 17β-E2 (see Materials and Methods for details). The black dashed line indicates the effect of 10 μM 17β-E2 on WT Kv7.1/KCNE1.
Fig. 5. LQTS-associated mutations in KCNE1 alter the 17β-E2 effect. (A) Summary of the effect of 3 and 10 μM 17β-E2 on Kv7.1/KCNE1 channels with indicated LQTS-associated mutations in KCNE1. Data are shown as means ± SEM. n = 3 to 10 (defined in table S4). Statistics indicate one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett’s multiple comparisons test to determine whether the 17β-E2 effect on mutated channels deviates from the effect on WT. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, and ****P < 0.0001. P > 0.05 (n.s.) for all other data (see table S4). Gray and black dashed lines indicate the effect of 3 and 10 μM 17β-E2, respectively, on WT Kv7.1/KCNE1. (B) Representative current family with corresponding G(V) curve of Kv7.1/KCNE1_S74L in the absence (left) and presence (middle) of 10 μM 17β-E2. Curves in the G(V) plot (right) represent Boltzmann fits. For this specific cell, V50,ctrl = +44 mV, Itailmax,ctrl = 3.1 μA, V50,17β-E2 = +47 mV, and Itailmax,17β-E2 = 1.4 μA. (C) Same as in (B) but for Kv7.1/KCNE1_K70N. For this specific cell, V50,ctrl = +57 mV, Itailmax,ctrl = 6.2 μA, V50,17β-E2 = +61 mV, and Itailmax,17β-E2 = 5.1 μA. (D) Same as in (B) but for Kv7.1/KCNE1_H73Y. For this specific cell, V50,ctrl = +61 mV, Itailmax,ctrl = 2.9 μA, V50,17β-E2 = +68 mV, and Itailmax,17β-E2 = 3.5 μA.
The combined burden of a mutation and 17β-E2 effects on I_{KS} (Fig. 7D). The corresponding numbers for G_{max} were −79% and 241 nM. However, the choice of stock solvent affected only the 17β-E2 concentrations required to induce effects but not the pattern of effects. Like in experiments using EtOH as the stock solvent, Kv7.1 alone was unresponsive to 17β-E2 with DMSO as the stock solvent (Fig. 7E). Moreover, 17β-E2 with DMSO as the stock solvent affected the S4L mutant in a WT-like manner, whereas the H73Y mutant was unaffected (Fig. 7F), in line with experiments shown in Figs. 5 and 6.

Combined, these experiments show that physiologically relevant concentrations of 17β-E2 can inhibit I_{KS} and that the range of concentrations required to induce effects largely depends on technical aspects of the experiments (such as the choice of stock solvent to increase the overall accessibility of 17β-E2 and prevent binding to plastic material).

**DISCUSSION**

In this study, we show that 17β-E2 inhibits human Kv7.1/KCNE1 expressed in Xenopus oocytes, whereas the other vital steroid sex hormones estrone, estradiol, progestrone, and testosterone are without effect. We find that the KCNE1 subunit is required for this inhibitory 17β-E2 effect and that the effect is tuned by the stoichiometry of Kv7.1 to KCNE1 with reduced 17β-E2 effects upon KCNE1 reduction. Within KCNE1, we identify a stretch of the C terminus critical for the 17β-E2 effect. This KCNE1 region harbors several loss-of-function LQTS-associated mutations, which we find display mutation-specific responses to 17β-E2 experiments. The fact that 3 nM 17β-E2 induced a prominent reduction in I_{KS}, with no further reduction induced by the higher 3 μM 17β-E2, suggests that saturating 17β-E2 effects on I_{KS} most likely already occur at low (or sub) nanomolar concentrations in rabbit cardiomyocytes.

The 17β-E2 effects on I_{KS} observed in rabbit cardiomyocytes occurred at considerably lower concentrations than those observed on Kv7.1/KCNE1 in the Xenopus oocytes. Although several aspects differ between these two experimental models, we were interested in the putative role of the use of dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) as the 17β-E2 stock solvent in the rabbit cardiomyocyte experiments [in contrast to ethanol (EtOH) used in Xenopus oocyte experiments]. A reason for further investigating this aspect was a recent study (34) on another lipophilic compound, cannabidiol, which elegantly shows limited cannabidiol accessibility and binding of cannabidiol to plastic containers and tubing, greatly reducing the pharmacologically available concentration in the solution and, hence, the apparent effects of cannabidiol at submicromolar concentrations. Because studies have shown impaired solubility profile of 17β-E2 from EtOH stocks compared to DMSO stocks (35), we reasoned that 17β-E2 may behave similar as cannabidiol and that the use of DMSO as the solvent may prevent 17β-E2 binding to the plastic material and improve overall 17β-E2 accessibility in Xenopus oocyte experiments. Hence, we performed key control experiments of 17β-E2 effects on Kv7.1/KCNE1 in the Xenopus oocytes, this time using DMSO as the 17β-E2 stock solvent. Under these experimental conditions, 17β-E2 induced pronounced reduction of current amplitude at +40 mV and G_{max} already at nanomolar concentrations (Fig. 7D). The expected maximal 17β-E2 effect on current amplitude at +40 mV was −77% with an median effective concentration (EC_{50}) of 185 nM (Fig. 7D). The corresponding numbers for G_{max} were −79% and 241 nM. However, the choice of stock solvent affected only the 17β-E2 concentrations required to induce effects but not the pattern of effects. Like in experiments using EtOH as the stock solvent, Kv7.1 alone was unresponsive to 17β-E2 with DMSO as the stock solvent (Fig. 7E). Moreover, 17β-E2 with DMSO as the stock solvent affected the S4L mutant in a WT-like manner, whereas the H73Y mutant was unaffected (Fig. 7F), in line with experiments shown in Figs. 5 and 6.

Combined, these experiments show that physiologically relevant concentrations of 17β-E2 can inhibit I_{KS}, and that the range of concentrations required to induce effects largely depends on technical aspects of the experiments (such as the choice of stock solvent to increase the overall accessibility of 17β-E2 and prevent binding to plastic material).
ranging from a WT-like response (Fig. 6B, left) to reduced or abolished response (Fig. 6B, right). Moreover, we could validate these findings in mammalian cardiomyocytes, in which similar \(I_{\text{KS}}\)-inhibitory 17\(\beta\)-E2 effects were found.

The rapid and concentration-dependent inhibition of Kv7.1/KCNE1 described here is in line with previous studies of 17\(\beta\)-E2 effects on Kv7.1/KCNE1 in Xenopus oocytes, Chinese hamster ovary cells (36, 37), and native \(I_{\text{KS}}\) in animal models (16, 38, 39). However, the underlying mechanisms for 17\(\beta\)-E2–induced Kv7.1/KCNE1 inhibition have been poorly understood. In analogy with 17\(\beta\)-E2–mediated inhibition of another channel complex composed of Kv7.1 and another \(\beta\)-subunit from the KCNE family, Kv7.1/KCNE3, which plays a physiological role in the sexual dimorphism and estrous cycle dependence of the antisecretory actions of
estrogen in the intestine (27), we found the 17β-E2 effect to be dependent on PKC and a predicted PKC target in the KCNE C terminus (S68 in KCNE1). However, our data suggest that although there are similarities in the 17β-E2 effect on Kv7.1/KCNE1 and Kv7.1/KCNE3, channel inhibition of the two Kv7.1/KCNE channel complexes are not mediated through similar mechanisms. Whereas the 17β-E2 effect on Kv7.1/KCNE3 is attributed to dynamin-dependent channel internalization (upon phosphorylation of dynamin) and dissociation of KCNE3 from Kv7.1 (upon phosphorylation of S82 in KCNE3) (25–27), we do not find support of similar underlying mechanisms for Kv7.1/KCNE1. In our hands, the 17β-E2 effect on Kv7.1/KCNE1 was not impaired upon inhibition of dynamin-dependent internalization, and we saw no sign of KCNE1 dissociation from Kv7.1 (which would have been observed as Kv7.1-like currents upon 17β-E2 application). Moreover, direct activation of PKC using PMA did not recapitulate the 17β-E2 effect on Kv7.1/KCNE1. Thus, upon 17β-E2 application). Moreover, activation of PKC using PMA did not recapitulate the 17β-E2 effect on Kv7.1/KCNE1. Thus, upon 17β-E2 application. Moreover, direct activation of PKC using PMA did not recapitulate the 17β-E2 effect on Kv7.1/KCNE1. Thus, upon 17β-E2 application. Moreover, direct activation of PKC using PMA did not recapitulate the 17β-E2 effect on Kv7.1/KCNE1. Thus, upon 17β-E2 application. Moreover, direct activation of PKC using PMA did not recapitulate the 17β-E2 effect on Kv7.1/KCNE1. Thus, upon 17β-E2 application. Moreover, direct activation of PKC using PMA did not recapitulate the 17β-E2 effect on Kv7.1/KCNE1. Thus, upon 17β-E2 application.

In addition to triggering signaling pathways, 17β-E2 has been shown to directly bind to ion channels to modulate channel activity (40–43). One possibility is that the 17β-E2 effect on Kv7.1/KCNE1 also involves direct 17β-E2 binding to the channel. The KCNE1 region encompassing residues 67 to 73, identified in this study to be important for 17β-E2 effects, has been shown to interact with several regions on Kv7.1 including the lower end of S6 of Kv7.1 (Fig. 6C) (44, 45), interactions that are proposed to contribute to stabilizing the open gate of Kv7.1/KCNE1 (46). Either indirect conformational rearrangements induced by 17β-E2 or direct 17β-E2 binding to this region could potentially inhibit Kv7.1/KCNE1 by disrupting these interactions. In this context, we find the PKC dependence of the 17β-E2 effect and the putative role of the predicted PKC target S68 intriguing. That the 17β-E2 effect is abolished in the S68A mutant (which is unable to be phosphorylated), retained in the S68D mutant (which is mimicking the phosphorylated serine side chain), and no longer PKC dependent in the S68D mutant is compatible with a model, in which a phosphorylated/phosphomimetic side chain at position S68 is required to allow for 17β-E2 effects. Altered pharmacology upon channel phosphorylation was recently described for Nav1.5, in which phosphorylation of tyrosine Y1495 is proposed to impair quinidine inhibition of the channel by inducing a conformational change unfavorable for quinidine binding (47). However, given the multiple and complex mechanisms by which 17β-E2 affects ion channels, including altered exocytosis, internalization, and/or gating (19, 25, 40), the relationship between direct and indirect mechanisms contributing to 17β-E2 inhibition of Kv7.1/KCNE1 needs to be investigated in future work. Such work could favorably include studies of a putative role of phosphatidylinositol 4,5-bisphosphate (PIP2) and calmodulin, as 17β-E2 signaling may influence PIP2 levels (19) and the interface between the C terminus of KCNE1 and Kv7.1 highlighted in Fig. 6C is important for both PIP2 and calmodulin effects (46, 48, 49).

Although sex differences in cardiac repolarization and arrhythmic risk have been experimentally linked to sex differences in repolarizing potassium current densities, namely, IKS, IKs, Ito, and IK1, and contrasting effects of male and female sex hormones on these currents [reviewed in (8)], thus far, only limited data are available on direct effects of 17β-E2 on Kv7.1/KCNE1 channels and the corresponding IKS currents. Indirect evidence for an IKS-reducing effect of 17β-E2 stems from the observation of down-regulation of KCNE1 mRNA levels by 17β-E2 (16). This study now adds evidence for additional direct inhibiting effects of 17β-E2 on Kv7.1/KCNE1 that are mediated by the C terminus of the channels’ auxiliary subunit KCNE1, which could be one contributing factor to the longer QT duration and higher arrhythmic risk in postpubertal women than in men. The inhibiting effect of 17β-E2 on Kv7.1/KCNE1 may be of particular importance in cases with already impaired repolarization capacity, such as for carriers of loss-of-function Kv7.1/KCNE1 mutations. In our hands, this is exemplified by the LQT5-associated mutations K69R, S74L, and D76N, which showed an even greater loss of function upon 17β-E2 exposure. In contrast, the reduced or abolished Kv7.1/KCNE1 response of LQT5-associated mutations R67C, S68T, K70N, and H73Y to 17β-E2 suggest that 17β-E2 may not be an additional QT-prolonging risk factor (i.e., not further aggravating Kv7.1/KCNE1 loss of function) in such carriers. Note, however, that as 17β-E2 also acts on other channels, there might still be some sex differences that are due to other 17β-E2 effects. Whether our observations of less or more pronounced susceptibility to 17β-E2–induced IKs reduction in different KCNE1 variants translate clinically into more or less pronounced sex differences in these LQT subtypes remains to be investigated. While pronounced sex differences in QT duration and arrhythmic risk are known in LQTS patients with a longer QT duration and increased risk in women (12) and estrous cycle–dependent changes in QT intervals (50), these data mainly stem from patients with the most frequent LQTS genotypes associated with mutations in KCNQ1 (LQT1) and KCNH2 (LQT2). It is still unclear in the much rarer forms caused by mutations in KCNE1 (LQT5) due to the paucity of clinical data of this rare form of LQTS. For our here investigated LQT5 mutations, too little clinical data on affected patients are available to conclusively determine whether the specific mutations cause sex differences in QT duration and arrhythmias or even estrous cycle–dependent changes in arrhythmic risk. However, for the common KCNE1 polymorphism pD85N, a sex-specific modulatory effect of the susceptibility to drug-induced LQTS has already been described with 17β-E2–mediated exaggeration of dofetilide-induced APD prolongation and increase in proarrhythmic early afterdepolarizations in induced pluripotent stem cell–derived cardiomyocytes (iPSC-CMs) (51), pointing toward a normal WT-like inhibitory 17β-E2 effect on Kv7.1/KCNE1_D85N and strongly supporting a role of KCNE1 variants in mediating (parts of) the observed sex differences in LQTS.

An important technical discovery made in this study was the great impact of the choice of 17β-E2 solvent for achieving effects at submicromolar concentrations. With the use of DMSO as solvent, we find inhibiting 17β-E2 effects on both IKs in rabbit cardiomyocytes and Kv7.1/KCNE1 expressed in Xenopus oocytes at concentrations in line with reported plasma concentrations, which range from low nanomolar concentrations to 0.1 μM (reference ranges from the American College of Physicians and the Mayo Clinic). Similarly, some previous studies have shown that physiologic, low nanomolar concentrations of 17β-E2 are enough to inhibit the cardiac hERG channel underlying IKs, and prolong action potential duration in cardiomyocytes (52), whereas many studies report that concentrations in the micromolar range are needed to induce

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comparable hERG inhibition and action potential prolongation in different cellular systems (37, 39, 53, 54). The reason why some experimental settings allow us to investigate 17β-E2 effects at nanomolar concentrations and others require micromolar concentrations remains, in most cases, unknown, but may, to some extent, reflect the use of different cell types and experimental temperatures (53). Our study suggests that one contributing factor could be the choice of 17β-E2 solvent, where DMSO appears to provide better experimental conditions for assessing the effect of low 17β-E2 concentrations.

Limitations of our study include the focused studies of 17β-E2 effects on Kv7.1/KCNE1, given that 17β-E2 effects on ion currents in vivo are multiple and complex. Thus, while our experimental system offers strength for investigating the mechanism of 17β-E2 effects on Kv7.1/KCNE1 due to robust expression of ion channels and minimal endogenous interference, more intricate experimental systems are required to capture the full complexity of 17β-E2 effects. Moreover, our experimental setting does not consider the different fractions of 17β-E2 in vivo, which includes unbound 17β-E2 and 17β-E2 bound to, for instance, albumin and sex hormone binding globulin. Hence, in addition to the above-mentioned technical challenges related to available 17β-E2 concentrations, the role of 17β-E2 carrier proteins would need to be studied in a more physiological setting, with the aim of recapitulating the dynamics of 17β-E2 and other ligands binding and dissociating from such carrier proteins. Limitations also include the challenge of subtype selectivity of PKC inhibitors. Many PKC subtypes are closely related, and even inhibitors reported to be relatively selective for one subtype may target additional PKC subtypes (55). Therefore, the specificity of PKC inhibitors should be interpreted with caution.

Together, our study expands the mechanistic understanding of 17β-E2-mediated inhibition of Kv7.1/KCNE1 and identifies LQTS-associated mutations in the C terminus of KCNE1 that alter the 17β-E2 effect. The important role of KCNE1 in terms of how Kv7.1/KCNE1 responds to pharmacological compounds and the action of accessory molecules such as calmodulin and adenosine triphosphate (ATP) and phosphorylation is well established (56–58). Our findings of the importance of the KCNE1 C terminus for 17β-E2 effects add to this complexity. Moreover, the finding that KCNE1 is required for the inhibitory 17β-E2 effect together with the previous finding of an 17β-E2-induced down-regulation of KCNE1 mRNA by Drici and co-workers (16) suggests that 17β-E2 may regulate/limit its own Kv7.1/KCNE1-inhibitory effect by regulating KCNE1 expression. A fascinating, but challenging, aspect of LQTS is that several concomitant QT-prolonging factors seem, in many cases, to be required to induce the LQTS phenotype (7). Our study suggests that the combined burden of LQTS mutations and 17β-E2 influence may constitute an important example.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**Chemicals**

All chemicals were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Stockholm, Sweden) unless stated otherwise. G15 was from MedChemtronica AB (Sollentuna, Sweden). Stock solutions of hormones were prepared in 99.5% EtOH to a concentration of 10 mM (estril) or 25 mM (all other hormones). In experiments shown in Fig. 7, the stock solution of 17β-E2 was prepared in DMSO to a concentration of 10 mM. Stock solution of PMA was prepared in 99.5% EtOH to a concentration of 20 μM. Stock solutions of antagonists were prepared according to the manufacturers’ instructions with fulvestrant (25 mM), G15 (10 mM), H89 (4 mM), cherythrine (10 mM), HBBDE (25 mM), and dynasore (50 mM) prepared in 99.5% EtOH and ruboxistaurin (1 mM), rottlerin (30 mM), and PKCε inhibitor peptide (12 mM) prepared in DMSO. Stock solutions were stored at −20°C and diluted to the final test solution concentration on the day of the experiment.

**Molecular biology and oocyte preparation**

Human Kv7.1 (GenBank accession no. NM_000218) and KCNE1 (NM_000219) were used in this study. Mutations were introduced through site-directed mutagenesis (QuikChange II XL, with 10XL-Gold cells; Agilent Technologies, Kista, Sweden) and confirmed by sequencing at the Linköping University Core Facility. KCNE1_Δ2-38, KCNE1_Δ67, and concatenated constructs have been described before (59, 60). KCNE1_Δ78, KCNE1_Δ80, and KCNE1_Δ102 were constructed by introducing a stop codon at indicated residue. Complementary RNA (cRNA) for injection was prepared from DNA using a mMESSAGE mMACHINE T7 transcription kit (Invitrogen, Stockholm, Sweden), and cRNA concentrations were determined by means of spectrophotometry (NanoDrop 2000c, Thermo Scientific, Stockholm, Sweden). Isolated oocytes from *X. laevis* frogs were acquired either through surgical removal followed by enzymatic digestion at Linköping University or purchased from Ecocyte Bioscience (Dortmund, Germany). The use of animals (female *X. laevis* frogs; age, 10 months to 5 years; no genetic modification; Nasco, WI, USA), including the performed surgery, followed Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee guidelines and was reviewed and approved by the regional board of ethics in Linköping, Sweden (case no. 1941). cRNA (50 nl) was injected into oocytes at developmental stages V to VI (Drummond Scientific, PA, USA). For coinjection of Kv7.1 and KCNE1, each oocyte received 25 ng of Kv7.1 RNA and 8 ng of KCNE1 RNA. For coinjection of Kv7.1 and mutant KCNE1 in conditions mimicking a heterygous setting, each oocyte received 25 ng of Kv7.1 RNA, 4 ng of WT KCNE1 RNA, and 4 ng of mutant KCNE1 RNA. For injection of Kv7.1 alone or concatenated channels, each oocyte received 50 ng of RNA. Concatenated KCNE1–Kv7.1 channels, promoting either a 4:4 or 2:4 stoichiometry of KCNE1 to Kv7.1, were primarily used to assess the 17β-E2 effect on channels with different numbers of KCNE1 subunits (which is less controlled in our regular coinjection experiments, although we anticipate mainly a 4:4 stoichiometry due to the excess of KCNE1 RNA). Moreover, because the KCNE1 to Kv7.1 stoichiometry of the native cardiac IKs channel complex is debated, we were interested in studying whether the number of KCNE1 subunits in the complex made a difference. Injected oocytes were incubated at 8° or 16°C for 2 to 8 days before electrophysiological experiments in Modified Barth’s Solution consisting of 88 mM NaCl, 1 mM KCl, 2.4 mM NaHCO3, 0.33 mM Ca(NO3)2, 0.41 mM CaCl2, 0.82 mM MgSO4, 15 mM Heps, and 2.5 mM pyruvate, with pH set to 7.6 using NaOH.

**Two-electrode voltage clamp experiments on Xenopus oocytes**

Two-electrode voltage clamp recordings were performed at room temperature with an Axon AxoClamp 900A amplifier system (Molecular Devices Ltd., Wokingham, UK) or a Dagan CA-1B amplifier system (Dagan, MN, USA). Pulled microelectrodes (0.4 to 1.5
megohms; World Precision Instruments Inc., FL, USA) were filled with 3 mM KCl. Whole-cell K⁺ currents were sampled using Clampex (Molecular Devices Ltd., Wokingham, UK) at 5 kHz and filtered at 500 Hz. For most experiments, the holding potential was set to −80 mV, and current records were filtered in incremental test steps of 10 mV from −80 to +70 mV, followed by a tail step to −20 mV. For Kv7.1/KCNE1, the test pulse lasted for 5 s, and for Kv7.1, the test pulse lasted for 2 s. The voltage range of test steps was adjusted for mutants with deviating voltage dependence. The sweep-to-sweep interval was 30 s. The recording control solution consisted of 88 mM NaCl, 1 mM KCl, 0.4 mM CaCl₂, 0.8 mM MgCl₂, and 15 mM Hepes, with pH set to 7.4 using NaOH. Control solution or control solution supplemented with test compounds was continuously perfused through the recording chamber (1 ml/min) using a pump (Harvard Apparatus MP II, CMA Microdialysis, Kista, Sweden, or MINIPULS 3 peristaltic pump, Gilson, WI, USA). Each test substance was applied until a stable effect on the current amplitude was observed (or for a maximum of 12 min), monitored by running an application protocol stepping from a holding voltage of −80 mV to a test voltage of +20 mV every 10 s. The tubing system and recording chamber were cleaned between cells with 70% EtOH and distilled H₂O. For hERG, current families were recorded in incremental test steps of 10 mV for 2 s from −80 to +40 mV, followed by a tail step to −40 mV.

Electrophysiological analysis

GraphPad Prism 8 (GraphPad Software Inc., CA, USA) was used for data analysis. The voltage dependence of the channel opening was approximated by plotting the immediate tail currents (recorded upon stepping to the tail voltage) against the preceding test voltages. Data were fitted with a Boltzmann function to generate conductance versus voltage \( G(V) \) curves

\[
G(V) = G_{\text{min}} + \left( G_{\text{max}} - G_{\text{min}} \right) \left\{ 1 + \left[ \frac{(V_{50} - V)}{s} \right] \right\}^{-1}
\]

(1)

where \( G_{\text{min}} \) is the minimal conductance, \( G_{\text{max}} \) is the maximal conductance, \( V_{50} \) is the midpoint (i.e., the voltage required to reach half the maximal conductance in the Boltzmann fit), and \( s \) is the slope of the curve. The slope (s) was constrained to be equal for control and test compound curves in each oocyte. The relative difference between \( G_{\text{max}} \) obtained with control solution and test compound solution for each oocyte (the \( \Delta G_{\text{max}} \)) was used to quantify changes in the maximum conductance evoked by test compounds. The difference between \( V_{50} \) obtained in control solution and test compound solution for each oocyte (the \( \Delta V_{50} \)) was used to quantify shifts in the voltage dependence of the channel opening evoked by test compounds. For experiments where conductance did not clearly show signs of saturation in the experimental voltage range, these fits should be considered as an approximation. Table S5 summarizes the basic biophysical properties of used constructs. The 17β-E2 effect on hERG was quantified in line with previous studies (52) by quantifying the peak tail current amplitude measured at −40 mV after test pulses to +20 mV before and after application of 17β-E2.

To plot the concentration dependence of the 17β-E2 effect on \( G_{\text{max}} \), the following concentration-response curve was fitted to the data

\[
\Delta G_{\text{max}} = \frac{\text{maximal} \Delta G_{\text{max}}}{1 + \left[ \left( \frac{[C]}{IC_{50}} \right) \right]^{-1}}
\]

(2)

where \( \text{maximal} \Delta G_{\text{max}} \) is the maximal effect on \( G_{\text{max}} \), \( C \) is the concentration of 17β-E2, and \( IC_{50} \) is the 17β-E2 concentration needed to cause 50% of the maximal effect.

To estimate the relative current generated by each LQTS-associated mutation compared to WT under control conditions (0 μM in Fig. 6), the current amplitude of mutants determined at the end of the 5 s long test pulse to +40 mV was normalized to the current amplitude of WT Kv7.1/KCNE1 expressed in the same batch of oocytes that were incubated under identical conditions. The human ventricular action potential has a systolic voltage range of about 0 to +40 mV (61, 62). A potential of +40 mV was the lowest voltage for which we could reliably determine current amplitude for all mutants. To estimate the ability of 17β-E2 to further reduce current amplitude at +40 mV (+3 and 10 μM in Fig. 6), we quantified for each mutant the mean 17β-E2−induced decrease in steady-state current amplitude at +40 mV during the 17β-E2 experiments reported in Fig. 5. The mean 17β-E2−induced decrease in steady-state current amplitude (reported in fig. S5) was then multiplied with the control amplitude for each mutant (0 μM in Fig. 6). This multiplication approach allowed us to estimate the combined burden of a mutation and 17β-E2. This approach has been previously used to estimate the combined effect of mutations and channel activators (63).

Experiments with receptor and kinase inhibitors or activators

To test signaling pathways involved in the 17β-E2 effect, inhibitors of classical ERs (fulvestrant), GPR30 (G15), PKAs (H89), PKCs (chelerythrine, HBBDE, ruboxistaurin, rottlerin, and PKCε inhibitor peptide), and dynamin (dynasore) were used. Oocytes were first pretreated with each inhibitor in 96-well plates with inhibitor-supplemented control recording solution at 16°C for 30 to 180 min. The concentration and incubation times of each inhibitor were selected on the basis of previous reports, which, as far as possible, included assessment in Xenopus oocytes (see details in table S6). Used concentrations and incubation times were as follows: 1 μM G15 for 180 min, 50 μM H89 for 180 min, 20 μM chelerythrine for 30 min, 50 μM HBBDE for 180 min, 40 nM ruboxistaurin for 90 min, 5 μM rottlerin for 60 min, 1 μM PKCε inhibitor peptide for 120 min, 80 μM dynasore for 40 min, and 10 μM fulvestrant for a minimum of 24 hours (10 μM fulvestrant showed a stable basal effect after 170 min incubation, and the 17β-E2 effect remained similar following 170 min to 72 hours of preincubation with fulvestrant). Data for a minimum of 24 hours of preincubation are included in Fig. 3 and table S3. In addition, because of the reported limited membrane permeability of PKCε inhibitor peptide on Xenopus oocytes (64), a second dataset with the PKCε inhibitor peptide was collected with 50 nl of 100 nM PKCε inhibitor peptide injected into each oocyte 15 min before 17β-E2 experiments. After pretreating the cells, the baseline current family was recorded under perfusion with control solution supplemented with inhibitor (same concentration as during pretreatment). Then, the 17β-E2 effect was recorded as in the other 17β-E2 experiments but with the control solution and 17β-E2 still supplemented with the inhibitor. Time-matched controls (open bars in Figs. 3A and 4C) of the effect
of the inhibitor in the time range used to assess 17β-E2 effects were performed in the same manner but without 17β-E2 added to the control solution. The PKC activator PMA was acutely administered with perfusion at a concentration of 1 nM for up to 20 min.

Rabbit cell isolation and whole-cell patch clamp experiments
All animal experiments were performed in compliance with European Union legislation (directive 2010/63/EU) and the Swiss Animal Welfare Ordinance after approval by the Cantonal Veterinary Office and the Animal Welfare Officer (Kanton Bern, approval number BE131-20). New Zealand White female rabbits (13 to 14 weeks old) were anesthetized with an intramuscular injection of ketamine S (12.5 mg/kg) and xylazine (3.75 mg/ml). A standard enzymatic digestion was used to isolate ventricular cardiomyocytes from five rabbits (65). After euthanasia with intravenous pentobarbital injection, hearts were rapidly excised, cannulated by the aorta, and mounted on a Langendorf perfusion system, where they were washed with oxygenated, body-temperature Tyrode solution. Shortly afterward, 0.1 mM EGTA-supplemented Tyrode was perfused for 5 to 7 min, followed by a 20 to 25 min step of collagenase digestion (Worthington type 1) in 80 μM Ca²⁺ Tyrode. The heart was then removed from the perfusion system and reduced into small pieces. The process was followed by sequential 5-min steps of collagenase digestion in 80 μM Ca²⁺ Tyrode buffered with 15 mM bovine serum albumin.

To elucidate the acute 17β-E2 effects on the slow component of the delayed rectifier potassium current (I_Ks), isolated rabbit cardiomyocytes were incubated for 2 to 5 hours with 3 nM or 3 μM 17β-E2 (dissolved in DMSO) or 0.06% (v/v) DMSO as vehicle control. Whole-cell configuration of the patch clamp technique was used to record the I_Ks current-voltage curve at 37°C (ThermoClamp-1, AutoMate Scientific Inc.) using an Axopatch 200B amplifier (Axon Instruments). The patch pipette solution consisted of 125 mM KCl, 5 mM NaCl, 1 mM MgCl₂, 5 mM K₂ATP, 10 mM Hepes, and 5 mM EGTA. The extracellular solution consisted of standard 1.8 mM Ca²⁺ Tyrode solution supplemented with 5 mM 4-aminopyridine, 10 mM nisoldipine, and 2 mM BaCl₂. I_Ks current density was identified as the chromanol 293B (30 μM)-sensitive current. To record I_Ks, depolarizing pulses were applied for 5 s to potentials from −10 to +50 mV in 10-mV steps from a holding potential of −40 mV; the test pulse was followed by a repolarizing step to −40 mV to observe the tail current.

Statistical analysis
Average values are expressed as means ± SEM. When comparing two groups, Student’s t test was performed. One sample t test was used to compare an effect to a hypothetical effect of 0. The one sample t test is a built-in statistical hypothesis test in the GraphPad Prism software, used to determine whether the mean calculated from sample data collected from a single group is different from a designated value specified by the researcher. When comparing multiple groups, a one-way ANOVA was performed, followed by Dunnett’s multiple comparisons test when comparing to a single reference group. For cardiomyocyte experiments, two-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post hoc analysis was used. A P value of <0.05 was considered statistically significant. All statistical analyses were carried out in GraphPad Prism 8.

Supplementary Materials
This PDF file includes:
Figs. S1 to S6
Tables S1 to S6
References

View/request a protocol for this paper from Bio-protocol.

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