

# Regulation of Cx45 hemichannels mediated by extracellular and intracellular calcium

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**Abstract** Connexin45 (Cx45) hemichannels (HCs) open in the absence of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and close in its presence. To elucidate the underlying mechanisms, we examined the role of extra- and intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  on the electrical properties of HCs. Experiments were performed on HeLa cells expressing Cx45 using electrical (voltage clamp) and optical ( $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  imaging) methods. HCs exhibit a time- and voltage-dependent current ( $I_{\text{hc}}$ ), activating with depolarization and inactivating with hyperpolarization. Elevation of  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{o}}$  from 20 nM to 2  $\mu\text{M}$  reversibly decreases  $I_{\text{hc}}$ , decelerates its rate of activation, and accelerates its deactivation. Our data suggest that  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{o}}$  modifies the channel properties by adhering to anionic sites in the channel lumen and/or its outer vestibule. In this way, it blocks the channel pore and reversibly lowers  $I_{\text{hc}}$  and modifies its kinetics. Rapid lowering of  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{o}}$  from 2 mM to 20 nM, achieved early during a depolarizing pulse, led to an outward  $I_{\text{hc}}$  that developed with virtually no delay and grew exponentially in time paralleled by unaffected  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{i}}$ . A step increase of  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{i}}$  evoked by photorelease of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  early during a depolarizing pulse led to a transient decrease of  $I_{\text{hc}}$  superimposed on a growing outward  $I_{\text{hc}}$ ; a step decrease of  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{i}}$  elicited by photoactivation of a  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  scavenger provoked a transient increase in  $I_{\text{hc}}$ . Hence, it is tempting to assume that  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  exerts a direct effect on Cx45 hemichannels.

**Keywords** Gap junction hemichannel · Electrical properties · Calcium · Connexin45

## Introduction

Gap junction channels (GJC) and hemichannels (HC) are regulated by different means, including electrical gating, chemical gating, and biochemical modulation. The underlying mechanisms involve voltage gradient, intra-/extracellular ions and lipophilic molecules, or phosphorylation [6, 17, 44]. The availability of convenient methods to measure small currents may have led to the impression that voltage gating is the most biologically important mechanism. However, in most tissues and under a variety of situations, chemical gating and biochemical modulation are presumably more important and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  seems to be substantially involved in these regulatory functions.

Since nearly four decades ago, it was reported that  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  is causally involved in the process of “healing over” in cardiac tissue [8]. This phenomenon is based on  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  entry into damaged cardiac cells followed by closing of GJCs. Intact tissue is consequently isolated from damaged cells, thus re-establishing the integrity of the syncytial tissue. This pivotal result initiated a research area focused on chemical regulation of GJCs [20]. It has since been shown that intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  exerts conflicting effects on GJCs: at elevated  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{i}}$  (>500 nM), it closes channels and prevents functional cell–cell interactions [e.g., 21, 25, 32, 45]; at physiological  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{i}}$  (~100 nM), it diffuses through open channels and assists propagation of intercellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  waves, thus acting as second messenger [27].

The current concept is based on the assumption that GJCs consist of paired HCs arranged in series, and that each HC accommodates two separate voltage-sensitive gating mechanisms [6]. One mechanism, termed fast  $V_j$  gating, describes

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the sensitivity to the voltage between the cells of a pair, i.e., the transjunctional voltage  $V_j$ . The other mechanism is termed slow  $V_j$  gating or “loop gating” because it resembles the gating transitions during the initial opening of newly formed GJCs [5, 38]. It is fairly well established that unpaired HCs are precursors of GJCs and also exert functional roles on their own [33]. While GJCs in the cell–cell configuration are open in most situations and form a cytoplasmic continuum, unopposed HCs in single cells are usually closed. When open, they connect the cell interior with the extracellular space. Because HCs have large poorly selective pores, they accommodate not only ions but also molecules up to 1.2 kDa, including metabolites and signaling molecules. Unregulated flow through the channels would therefore cause cells to readily lose their contents and perish. However, if HC openings were brief, i.e., when controlled by gating mechanisms, they could provide a pathway for release (or uptake) of signaling molecules and ions. Indeed, such tasks have been ascribed to HCs in multiple cell types and associated with diverse functions [9, 14, 29, 34, 46]. These studies propose a signaling pathway involving propagated intercellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  waves, mediated by HC-dependent ATP release and subsequent activation of purinergic receptors in neighboring cells. Single cells expressing HCs have also been used to examine properties of GJCs that are not directly accessible to studies on GJCs in cell pair experiments [28].

In this study, we have examined the effects of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  on the properties of Cx45 HCs expressed in HeLa cells. This connexin (Cx) is prominently expressed in heart [30], blood vessels [16], neurons [26], and retina [31], and thus may control diverse biological processes. We found that  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  exerts a direct effect on Cx45 hemichannels. This regulatory mechanism is consistent with the view that external  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  can modify HC properties by reversible binding to regulatory sites located in the channel lumen and/or its outer vestibule, thus affecting voltage sensors and blocking/unblocking the pore.

## Methods

### Cells and solutions

Transfected human HeLa cells expressing mouse Cx45 (GJC1; see [www.genenames.org/genefamily/gj.php](http://www.genenames.org/genefamily/gj.php)) and non-transfected HeLa cells (both kindly provided by K. Willecke, Bonn, Germany [7, 12]) were grown in Dulbecco's medium (DMEM) containing 10 % fetal calf serum (FCS), 100  $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$  streptomycin, and 100 U/ml penicillin. Transfected cells were selected with 0.5–1  $\mu\text{M}$  puromycin. To perform experiments, the cells were harvested in DMEM with 10 % FCS ( $0.2 \times 10^6$  to  $1 \times 10^6$  cells/ml), seeded onto

sterile glass coverslips placed in multiwell culture dishes, and used within 1–2 days.

Experiments were carried out in  $\text{K}^+$ -rich solution with normal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  (mM): KCl 140, NaCl 4,  $\text{CaCl}_2$  2,  $\text{MgCl}_2$  1, HEPES 5 (pH 7.4), glucose 5, pyruvate 2,  $\text{CsCl}_2$  2,  $\text{BaCl}_2$  1, TEA-Cl 2, or with reduced  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  (mM): EGTA 10;  $\text{CaCl}_2$  was added to adjust the free  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_o$  to 20 nM (pCa 7.7) using Patcher's Power Tools (IgorPro Tool Collection; F. Mendez and F. Würriehausen, MPI, Göttingen, Germany). Solutions with intermediate free  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_o$  were obtained by adding appropriate amounts of  $\text{CaCl}_2$ . Patch pipettes were filled with normal pipette solution (mM): KCl 140, NaCl 4,  $\text{CaCl}_2$  1,  $\text{MgCl}_2$  1, Mg-ATP 3, HEPES 5 (pH 7.2), EGTA 5 (free  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  40 nM, pCa 7.4),  $\text{CsCl}_2$  2,  $\text{BaCl}_2$  1, and TEA-Cl 2, filtered through 0.2- $\mu\text{m}$  pores.  $\text{Ba}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Cs}^+$ , and  $\text{TEA}^+$  served to block  $\text{K}^+$  channels and hence increase the input resistance. Extracellular solutions were complemented with 40  $\mu\text{M}$  Mibefradil (gift from Roche Pharma, Basel, Switzerland) to block the volume-regulated anion channels [1, 2]. All solutions were adjusted to 310 mOsm by adding mannitol. The bath solution was exchanged by means of a gravity system.

### Measurement of hemichannel currents

Glass coverslips with adherent cells were transferred to an experimental chamber superfused with saline at room temperature (22–25 °C) and mounted on an inverted microscope (Diaphot-TMD, Nikon; Nippon Kogaku, Tokyo, Japan). Patch pipettes were pulled from glass capillaries (GC150F-10; Harvard Apparatus, Edenbridge, UK) by means of a horizontal puller (DMZ-Universal; Zeitz Instruments, Munich, Germany). To reduce the capacitance, the tip of the pipettes was coated with a silicon elastomer (Sylgard 184; Dow Corning, Wiesbaden, Germany). Filled with solution, the pipettes had a DC resistance of 2–6 M $\Omega$ . Pipettes were fixed in a holder mounted on a micromanipulator (MP-258; Sutter Instrument, Novato, CA, USA) and connected to an amplifier (EPC 7; HEKA Elektronik, Darmstadt, Germany). Single cells were voltage clamped in the whole-cell configuration of the patch-clamp technique [1]. For analysis, the signals were filtered at 1 kHz (eight-pole Bessel filter) and digitized at 3 kHz with an A/D converter (ITC-16; Instrutech, Port Washington, NY, USA). Data acquisition and analysis were done with Pulse/PulseFit software (HEKA Elektronik). Curve fitting and statistical analysis were performed with SigmaPlot and SigmaStat, respectively (Jandel Scientific, Erkrath, Germany). The results are presented as means  $\pm$  1 SEM ( $p \leq 0.05$  was considered significant). Given  $p$  values are calculated using a  $t$  statistics.

## Current recording combined with confocal microscopy and UV-flash photolysis

Internal solution contained (mM): KCl 144, HEPES 5, CsCl 2, BaCl<sub>2</sub> 1, TEA-Cl 2, K<sub>2</sub>-ATP 5, fluo-3-K 0.1, reduced glutathione (GSH) 2, Na<sub>4</sub>-DM-nitrophen 2 (unphotolyzed  $K_D$  for Ca<sup>2+</sup> 80 nM), or K<sub>4</sub>-dialo-2 (unphotolyzed  $K_D$  for Ca<sup>2+</sup> 2.2 μM); CaCl<sub>2</sub> was added to adjust the free [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>i</sub> to 100 nM using Patcher's Power Tools, pH 7.2 (KOH); external solution contained (mM): KCl 144, HEPES 5, CsCl 2, BaCl<sub>2</sub> 1, TEA-Cl 2, MgCl<sub>2</sub> 1, Pyruvate 2, Glucose 5, EGTA 5, and mibefradil 40 μM, pH 7.4 (KOH), adjusted to 310 mOsm (see above). Where required, the superfusion solution contained 2 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub> instead of EGTA. Rapid changes of the extracellular solutions were performed with a gravity-driven superfusion system ( $t_{1/2} \approx 400$  ms). The Ca<sup>2+</sup> pump of endoplasmic reticulum was blocked adding 0.1 μM thapsigargin (Alomone Labs, Jerusalem, Israel) to the bath solution. The interference with the Na<sup>+</sup>/Ca<sup>2+</sup> exchanger can be assumed as negligible. This was verified in the presence of 8 or 1 mM Ni<sup>2+</sup> in the bath solution (data not shown).

Membrane currents were recorded with an Axopatch 200 voltage-clamp amplifier (Axon Instruments, Foster City, CA, USA). Data were acquired using custom-written software developed under LabView software (National Instruments, Ettlingen, Switzerland). Data analysis was carried out with IgorPro software (WaveMetrics, Lake Oswego, OR, USA).

The Ca<sup>2+</sup> indicator fluo-3 (Biotium, Hayward, CA, USA) was excited with the 488 nm line of an argon-ion laser (Model 5000; Ion Laser Technology, Salt Lake City, NE, USA) at 50 μW intensity on the cell. The fluorescence was detected at 540±15 nm with a confocal laser-scanning microscope operated in the line-scan mode (MRC 1000; Bio-Rad, Hemel Hempstead, UK). Amplitude and time course of [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>i</sub> are shown as fluo-3 self-ratios (F/F<sub>0</sub>). Ultraviolet-light flashes (wavelength 340–390 nm, flash duration 400 μs, discharged energy 230 J) were used to photolyze intracellular DM-nitrophen (Calbiochem, VWR, Dietikon, Switzerland) or dialo-2 (Molecular Probes, Eugene OR, USA) in an epillumination arrangement and were generated with a xenon short-arc flash lamp. The UV light was coupled into the microscope via an optical light guide. After reflection at a dichroic mirror, the light passed through the microscope objective (Neofluar ×63, NA 1.25; Zeiss) generating a homogeneous illumination of the entire visible field. All experiments were carried out at room temperature (20–22 °C).

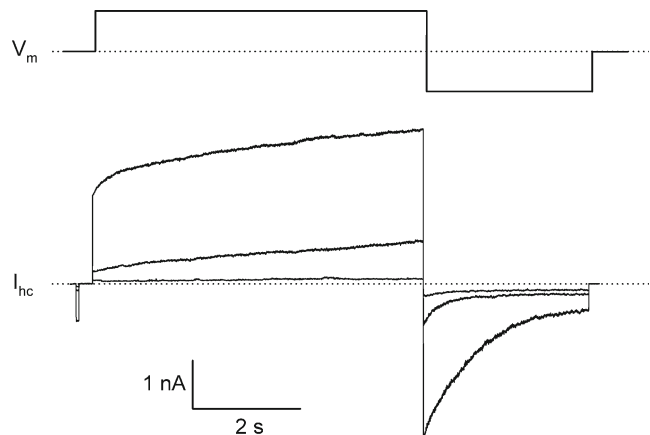
## Results

### Effects of extracellular Ca<sup>2+</sup> on hemichannel currents

Under physiological conditions, single HCs are usually closed. However, as previously shown, they can be forced

to open by reduced extracellular Ca<sup>2+</sup> [1, 39]. To further study this behavior, we have examined the effects of different [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>o</sub> on currents carried by HCs in transfected HeLa cells expressing Cx45.

Figure 1, upper panel, illustrates the pulse protocol. Superimposed on a holding potential  $V_h = 0$  mV, a dual voltage pulse was administered every 30 s. It consisted of a conditioning pulse to 50 mV for 6 s followed by a test pulse to -50 mV for 3 s. Since the major charge carriers were set to [K<sup>+</sup>]<sub>o</sub> = [K<sup>+</sup>]<sub>i</sub> (see "Methods"), the net charge transfer at  $V_h = 0$  mV was minimal. Figure 1, lower panel, shows superimposed HC currents,  $I_{hc}$ , from a cell consecutively exposed to bath solutions containing 20 nM (large signal), 2 μM (medium signal), and 2 mM [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>o</sub> (small signal), i.e., control condition. In both solutions with reduced [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>o</sub>, depolarization of the membrane potential,  $V_m$ , gave rise to an outward current consisting of a rapid initial rise followed by a time-dependent increase, and hyperpolarization caused an inward current that decayed with time. Hence,  $I_{hc}$  was activated on depolarization and deactivated on hyperpolarization. The reversal potential of the HCs turned out to be ~0 mV. In solution with [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>o</sub> = 2 mM, the pulse protocol elicited a marginal outward current of constant amplitude followed by a small inward current with a hint of a decay due to suboptimal solution change and/or unspecified background currents. Under optimal conditions, no time-dependent current was discernable [1, 39]. Moreover, as reported before, wild-type HeLa cells yielded no extra current in low [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>o</sub>, implying that the extra currents in Fig. 1 are carried by Cx45 HCs [1, 39].



**Fig. 1** **a, b** Role of extracellular Ca<sup>2+</sup> on HC currents,  $I_{hc}$ . **a** Voltage-clamp protocol with a conditioning pulse to 50 mV for 6 s followed by a test pulse to -50 mV for 3 s. Holding potential  $V_h = 0$  mV. **b** Superimposed traces  $I_{hc}$  recorded in solution with 20 nM (large signal), 2 μM (medium size signal), and 2 mM [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>o</sub> (small signal).  $I_{hc}$  at the end of the conditioning pulse corresponds to  $I_{hc,max}$  (max—maximal);  $I_{hc}$  at the beginning and end of the test pulse correspond to  $I_{hc,inst}$  (inst—instantaneous), and  $I_{hc,ss}$  (ss—steady state), respectively. Lowering of [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>o</sub> enhances  $I_{hc,max}$ ,  $I_{hc,inst}$ , and  $I_{hc,ss}$

To further explore the effects of  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  on the properties of  $I_{hc}$ , the amplitude of the test pulse was altered in steps of 20 mV between  $V_m = \pm 50$  mV, while the amplitude of the conditioning pulse was maintained to reassure that the activation of  $I_{hc}$  was kept constant. The associated  $I_{hc}$  signals were recorded for analysis. To get an estimate of the responses, control solution ( $[Ca^{2+}]_o = 2$  mM) in the bath was replaced by test solution with 20 nM free  $Ca^{2+}$ . Thereafter,  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  was elevated by superfusion with test solutions containing 200 nM or 2  $\mu$ M free  $Ca^{2+}$ .

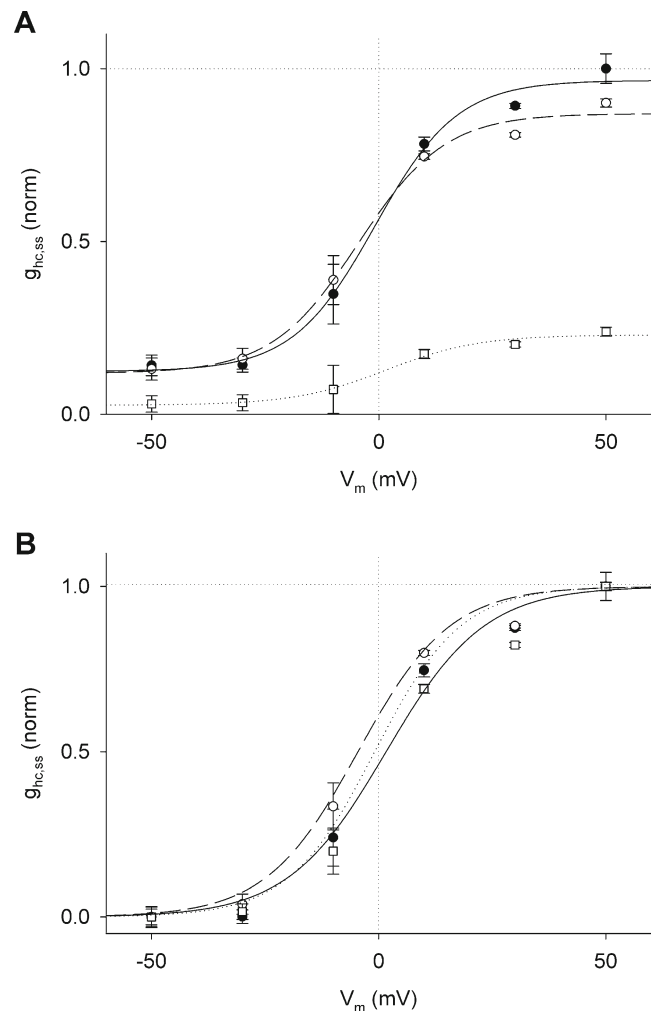
Each  $I_{hc}$  recording of a cell was analyzed in terms of the amplitude at the beginning and end of a test pulse to yield a value for  $I_{hc,inst}$  (inst—instantaneous) and  $I_{hc,ss}$  (ss—steady state) and to calculate the respective conductances  $g_{hc,inst}$  and  $g_{hc,ss}$ . The  $g_{hc,inst}$  data of each cell were scaled by referring to a value extrapolated to  $V_m = 0$  mV; scaling of  $g_{hc,ss}$  data involved expression as a fraction of  $g_{hc,inst}$  on a pulse-to-pulse basis [1]. The scaled  $g_{hc,ss}$  data obtained in solutions of different  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  were then normalized to the maximal  $g_{hc,ss}$  at  $V_m = 50$  mV in the presence of 20 nM  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$ . The normalized  $g_{hc,ss}$  data from individual cells were sampled, averaged, and plotted as a function of  $V_m$ .

Figure 2a shows the graphs for the solutions with  $[Ca^{2+}]_o = 20$  nM (filled circles), 200 nM (open circles), and 2  $\mu$ M (open squares). For each  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  examined, the normalized relationship between  $g_{hc,ss}$  and  $V_m$  was sigmoidal with a minimum at negative  $V_m$ , i.e.,  $g_{hc,min}$ , and a maximum at positive  $V_m$ , i.e.,  $g_{hc,max}$ , thus exhibiting a positive slope. In the presence of  $[Ca^{2+}]_o = 20$  nM, the lowest concentration tested, the values of  $g_{hc,ss}$  were largest. As  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  was increased, the values of  $g_{hc,max}$  and  $g_{hc,min}$  decreased. Hence, elevation of  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  provoked a decrease in  $g_{hc,ss}$  over the entire voltage range examined, thus compressing the amplitude of the function  $g_{hc,ss} = f(V_m)$ . These findings indicate that  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  and  $g_{hc,ss}$  are inversely proportional. Note that  $g_{hc,ss}$  failed to reach zero at large negative voltage.

The normalized  $g_{hc,ss}$  data gained at  $[Ca^{2+}]_o = 20$  nM, 200 nM, and 2  $\mu$ M were fitted to the Boltzmann equation assuming a two-state process:

$$\frac{g_{hc,ss}}{g_{hc,inst}} = \frac{g_{hc,max} - g_{hc,min}}{1 + e^{A(V_m - V_{m,0})}} + g_{hc,min} \quad (1)$$

$V_{m,0}$  corresponds to  $V_m$  at which  $g_{hc,ss}$  is half-maximally activated;  $A$  is a constant expressing gating charge  $zq(kT)^{-1}$  ( $z =$  unitary positive charge  $q$  moving through the electric field applied;  $k =$  Boltzmann constant;  $T =$  Kelvin temperature; cf. Harris et al. [17]). The smooth curves in Fig. 2a represent the best fit of data to Eq. (1) for  $[Ca^{2+}]_o = 20$  nM (continuous curve), 200 nM (dashed curve), and 2  $\mu$ M (pointed curve). Table 1 summarizes the Boltzmann parameters obtained. They indicate that  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  affected  $g_{hc,max}$



**Fig. 2** a, b Effects of different  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  on the relationship between  $g_{hc,ss}$  (HC conductance at steady state) and  $V_m$  (membrane potential). Currents were elicited by the dual-pulse protocol with a constant conditioning pulse (50 mV, 6 s) and a variable test pulse (range,  $\pm 50$  mV, 20 mV steps, 3 s). **a** Plots of normalized  $g_{hc,ss}$  as a function of  $V_m$  obtained at different  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$ : 20 nM (filled circles; solid curve), 200 nM (open circles; dashed curve), and 2  $\mu$ M (open squares; pointed curve). They emphasize the differences in  $g_{hc,ss}$  amplitude. Symbols represent means  $\pm 1$  SEM calculated from six to nine cells. The curves correspond to the best fit of data to the Boltzmann equation (for values, see Table 1). **b** Replots of  $g_{hc,ss}$  data emphasizing the voltage sensitivity of  $g_{hc,ss}$ . The fitted curves  $g_{hc,ss} = f(V_m)$  shown in panel (a) were transformed to vary between  $g_{hc,min} = 0$  and  $g_{hc,max} = 1$ , thus representing the voltage-sensitive part of  $g_{hc,ss}$ . The curves are the best fit to the Boltzmann equation (for parameters, see text). They are nearly superimposed implying that  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  did not affect the voltage sensitivity of  $g_{hc,ss}$

and  $g_{hc,min}$ , thus altering the apparent steepness of the sigmoidal curves, characterized by  $z$ .

The graph in Fig. 2b repeats the data of Fig. 2a in a format that allows a direct comparison of the voltage sensitivity of the different  $g_{hc,ss}$  curves. To this end, the fitted curve  $g_{hc,ss} = f(V_m)$  at each  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  was transformed to vary from  $g_{hc,min} = 0$  to  $g_{hc,max} = 1$ , to emphasize the voltage-sensitive span of  $g_{hc,ss}$ . The resulting

**Table 1** Effects of external  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  on gating properties of Cx45 HCs

$[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_o$	$V_{m,0}$ (mV)	$g_{hc,min}$	$g_{hc,max}$	$z$
20 nM	-0.85	0.12	0.97	2.81
200 nM	-4.53	0.12	0.87	2.68
2 $\mu\text{M}$	1.64	0.03	0.23	2.53

Boltzmann parameters:  $V_{m,0}$ :  $V_m$  at which  $g_{hc,ss}$  is half-maximally deactivated;  $g_{hc,min}$ : minimal conductance at large negative  $V_m$ ;  $g_{hc,max}$ : maximum conductance at large positive  $V_m$ ;  $z$ : equivalent number of unitary positive charges  $q$  moving through the electric field applied. For explanations, see text

curves are nearly superimposed (symbols in Fig. 2a and b are identical). They are best described by the following Boltzmann parameters,  $V_{m,0}$  and  $z$ :  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_o=20$  nM: -0.94 mV and -2.65;  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_o=200$  nM: -2.77 mV and -2.48;  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_o=2$   $\mu\text{M}$ : 3.79 mV and -2.32. These data indicate that  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_o$  does not significantly shift the function  $g_{hc,ss} = f(V_m)$  along the voltage axis.

The current recordings in Fig. 1 and others from the same set of experiments have also been used to study the role of external  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  on the kinetic properties of  $I_{hc}$ . Depolarization of  $V_m$  to 50 mV led to an outward current with a sudden rise,  $I_{hc,inst}$ , followed by a time-dependent increase, and hyperpolarization to -50 mV caused an inward current decaying with time. Both the size and the contour of  $I_{hc}$  was sensitive to external  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_o$ . With regard to size, elevation of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  from 20 nM to 2  $\mu\text{M}$  gave rise to a decrease in amplitude of both components of outward current and a decrease in amplitude of inward current. Such elevations of  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_o$  also slowed down the time-dependent increase of  $I_{hc}$  during depolarization and sped up its time-dependent decrease during hyperpolarization.

To determine kinetic properties, the  $I_{hc}$  records were treated with a least-square curve-fitting procedure [1]. Upon depolarization,  $I_{hc}$  increased with time as sum of two exponentials providing two time constants of activation,  $\tau_{a1}$  and  $\tau_{a2}$ ; upon hyperpolarization, it decreased as a single exponential entailing a single time constant of deactivation,  $\tau_d$ . Table 2 summarizes the averaged time constants. In the case of  $I_{hc}$  activation,

**Table 2** Effects of external  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  on kinetic properties of Cx45 HC currents,  $I_{hc}$ 

$[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_o$	$\tau_{a1}$ (s)	$C_1$	$\tau_{a2}$ (s)	$C_2$	$\tau_d$ (s)
20 nM	0.31±0.06	0.48±0.03	2.95±0.32	0.52±0.03	1.28±0.11
2 $\mu\text{M}$	0.45±0.07	0.54±0.07	5.48±0.92*	0.46±0.07	0.78±0.09*

The data were derived from records gained at  $V_m=\pm 50$  mV.  $\tau_{a1}$ ,  $\tau_{a2}$ : time constants of  $I_{hc}$  activation of the fast and slow component, i.e.,  $I_{hc1}$  and  $I_{hc2}$ .  $C_1$ ,  $C_2$ : relative contribution of  $I_{hc1}$  and  $I_{hc2}$  corresponding to the fractional amplitude of  $I_{hc}$  at steady state.  $\tau_d$ : time constant of  $I_{hc}$  deactivation. Number of experiments at  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_o=20$  nM:  $n=10$  ( $\tau_{a1}$ ,  $\tau_{a2}$ ),  $n=16$  ( $\tau_d$ ); at  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_o=2$   $\mu\text{M}$ :  $n=6$  ( $\tau_{a1}$ ,  $\tau_{a2}$ ),  $n=9$  ( $\tau_d$ )

\*Significant at  $p<0.01$ . For explanations, see text

the analysis also furnished values of the fractional amplitudes of  $I_{hc}$  at steady state,  $C_1$  and  $C_2$ , reflecting the relative contribution of both activation processes.

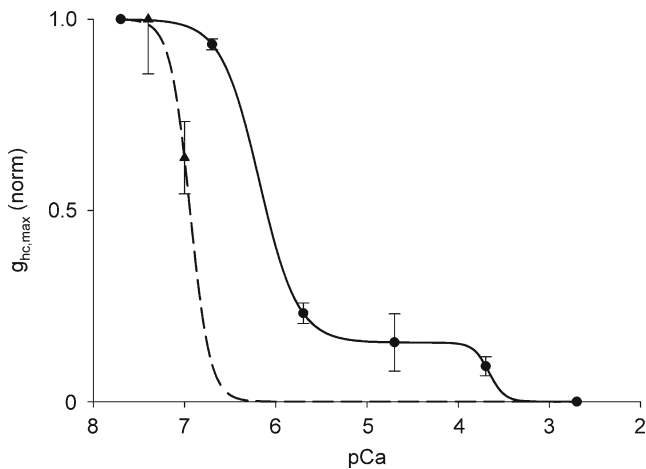
Figure 3 shows the concentration–response relationship documenting the effect of  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_o$  on  $g_{hc,max}$ . It includes data obtained at  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_o=20$  nM ( $n=20$ ), 200 nM ( $n=10$ ), 2  $\mu\text{M}$  ( $n=15$ ), 20  $\mu\text{M}$  ( $n=5$ ), 200  $\mu\text{M}$  ( $n=7$ ), and 2 mM ( $n=10$ ). The normalized  $g_{hc,ss}$  values at  $V_m=50$  mV, i.e.,  $g_{hc,max}$ , were plotted as a function of the negative logarithm of  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_o$ , i.e.,  $\text{pCa}_o$ . The symbols represent mean values  $\pm 1$  SEM (filled circles). The solid curve is the best fit of data to the sum of two Hill equations:

$$g_{hc,max}(\text{norm}) = a_1 \frac{1}{1 + (K_{1Ca}/[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_o)^{n_1}} + a_2 \frac{1}{1 + (K_{2Ca}/[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_o)^{n_2}} \quad (2)$$

It was obtained assuming two separate processes with a relative contribution of  $a_1=0.85$  and  $a_2=0.15$  ( $p<0.0001$ ) for  $g_{hc,max}(\text{norm})_1$  and  $g_{hc,max}(\text{norm})_2$  at steady state, respectively. The Hill parameters were  $\text{p}K'_{1Ca}=6.18$  and  $\text{p}K'_{2Ca}=3.67$  [apparent binding constants, corresponding to  $K_{1Ca}=0.66$   $\mu\text{M}$  ( $p<0.0001$ ) and  $K_{2Ca}=216$   $\mu\text{M}$  ( $p<0.003$ ), respectively];  $n_1=2.1$  ( $p<0.0001$ ) and  $n_2=5.1$  ( $p<0.8$ ) (Hill coefficient). The values of  $n$  place a lower limit of two and five  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  binding sites per HC.

Response time of hemichannel currents to rapid changes in  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_o$

A set of experiments was carried out to study the response time of  $I_{hc}$  to rapid changes in  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_o$ . As shown in Fig. 4,  $I_{hc}$  was elicited by means of a dual-voltage pulse with the conditioning pulse set to 30 mV for 15 s and the test pulse to -40 mV for 3 s (trace A). Early during the conditioning pulse,  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_o$  in the proximity of the cell was rapidly changed ( $t_{0.5}\approx 0.4$  s) from 2 mM to 20 nM (trace D). This provoked a prominent outward current that activated exponentially with time (trace B). It was initiated quasi-simultaneously



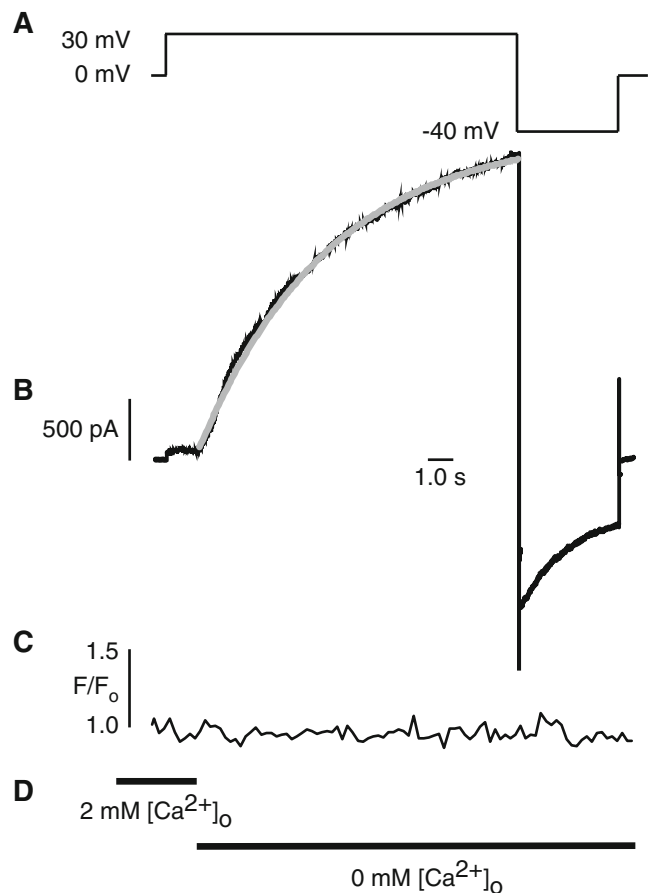
**Fig. 3** Dose–response relationship between  $g_{hc,max}$  and  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$ . The values of  $g_{hc,max}$  were obtained at different  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$ . For each  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  tested, the amplitude of  $I_{hc}$  was determined at the end of the conditioning pulse at quasi-steady-state condition,  $I_{hc,max}$ , and the conductance  $g_{hc,max}$  calculated ( $V_m=50$  mV). The normalized values of  $g_{hc,max}$  were plotted as a function of the negative logarithm of  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  (filled circles). The solid curve represents the best fit of data to a Hill equation (for values, see text). For comparison, the graph also presents the dose–response relationship between  $g_{hc,max}$  and  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  (filled triangles, dashed curve; for values, see text)

with the solution change (compare traces B and D). Prior to solution change, i.e., in the presence of 2 mM  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  (trace D), the conditioning pulse was accompanied by a negligible outward current (trace B). It resembles the current during maintained superfusion with 2 mM  $Ca^{2+}$  solution and reflects unspecific background and/or leak current evoked by the conditioning pulse. Simultaneous measurement of the intracellular  $Ca^{2+}$  by means of fluo-3 and confocal microscopy yielded no change in free  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  when  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  was reduced (trace C). Similar results were obtained in five other cells. Please note that the electrical/optical studies used  $V_m$  steps of 30/–40 mV instead of 50/–50 mV (compare Fig. 1 with Figs. 4 and 5). This more gentle protocol ensured less stress on cells.

Rapid superfusion experiments were also carried out with external solutions containing 50, 100, 150, and 200 nM  $Ca^{2+}$  (data not shown). Results showed that the larger the level of  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$ , the slower was the time-dependent activation of  $I_{hc}$  and the smaller the amplitude of  $I_{hc}$  at steady state reached and vice versa. There was no sign of a change in  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ , irrespective of the prevailing  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$ . The current traces in Fig. 1 already alluded to this behavior.

#### Effects of intracellular $Ca^{2+}$ on hemichannel currents

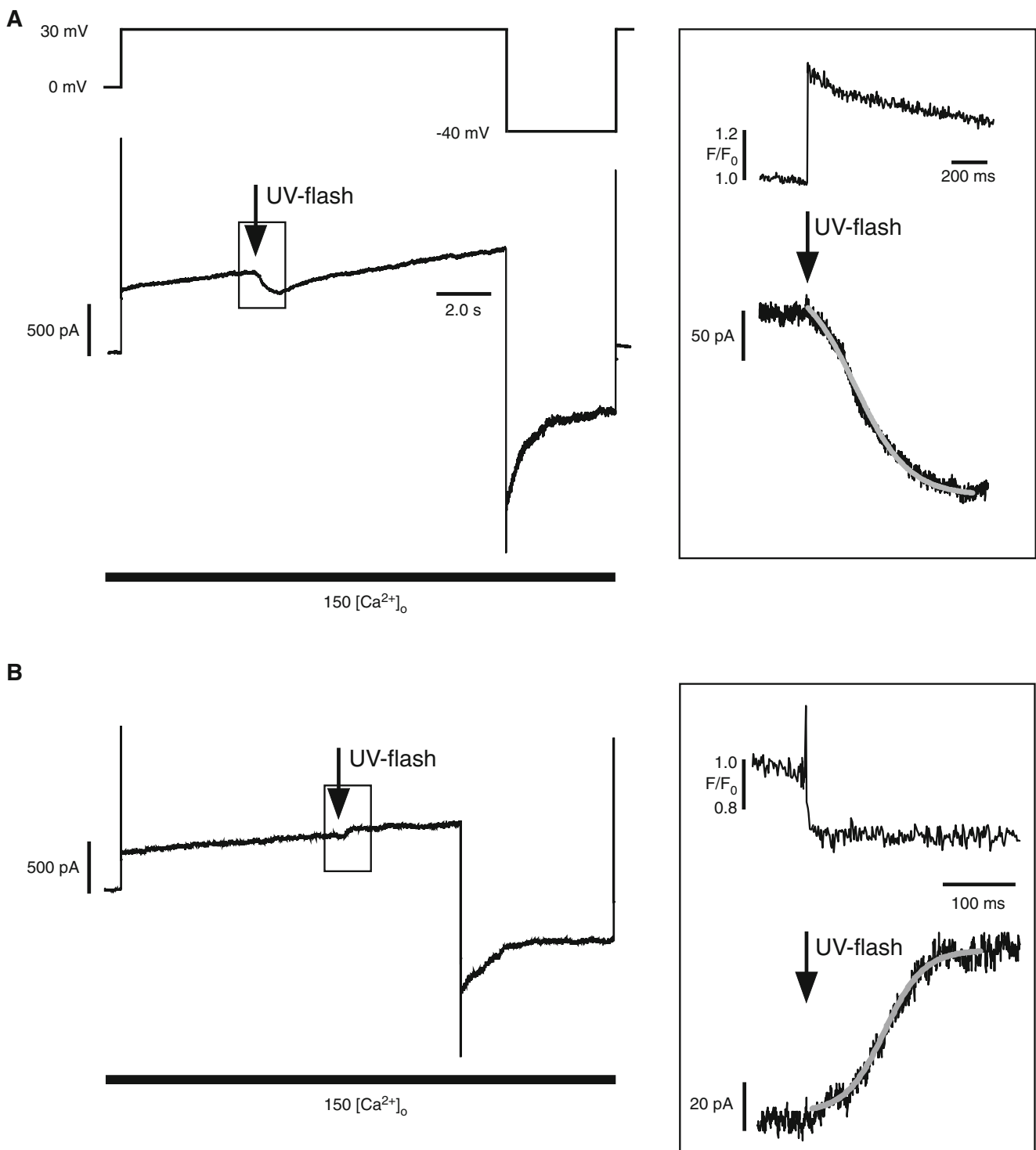
An attempt was also made to study the effects of intracellular  $Ca^{2+}$  on  $I_{hc}$ . Cells were dialyzed with pipette solution containing different  $Ca^{2+}$  concentrations and the dual-pulse protocol



**Fig. 4** Response time of  $I_{hc}$  to rapid changes in  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$ . **a** Voltage protocol. Conditioning pulse to 30 mV followed by a test pulse to –40 mV. Note different protocol (see Fig. 1). **b**  $I_{hc}$  signal. **c** Time course of fluo-3 fluorescence recorded under the whole-cell configuration of the voltage-clamp technique; the rapid ( $t_{1/2}\approx 400$  ms) change in  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  was induced by fast superfusion and led to instantaneous activation of  $I_{hc}$  with a  $\tau$  of  $3.8\pm 0.4$  ms ( $n=5$ ). **d** Extracellular solution change. This intervention was not accompanied by changes in  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  whatsoever. The time course was fitted by using an exponential function, means  $\pm 1$  SEM

was used to elicit  $I_{hc}$  (conditioning pulse=30 mV, 10 s; test pulse=–40 mV, 5 s). Prior to measurements, the cells were superfused with solution containing 20 nM  $Ca^{2+}$  to avoid interference from extracellular  $Ca^{2+}$ . Two to three minutes after disruption of the membrane patch, the ionic content of the cytosol reached equilibrium as evident from stable current recordings.  $I_{hc}$  signals were then gathered to measure  $I_{hc,max}$  and calculate  $g_{hc,max}$ . The values obtained from individual cells were sampled and averaged to determine the mean values at different  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ . Reliable data were obtained over a limited range of  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ , i.e., 40 nM ( $g_{hc,max}=25.4\pm 2.4$   $\mu S$ ;  $n=8$ ) and 100 nM ( $g_{hc,max}=16.2\pm 2.3$   $\mu S$ ;  $n=7$ ). Measurements at larger  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  were difficult to carry out and interpret because of deleterious effects on cells.

Figure 3 also depicts the concentration–response relationship of the function  $g_{hc,max}=f([Ca^{2+}]_i)$  (filled triangles,



**Fig. 5 a, b** Response time of  $I_{hc}$  to rapid changes in  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ . Rapid changes of  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  (resting  $[Ca^{2+}]_i=100$  nM) were induced by UV-flash photolysis of caged  $Ca^{2+}$  (DM-nitrophen) and the photoactivatable  $Ca^{2+}$  scavenger (diazo-2) under whole-cell configuration of the voltage-clamp technique. **a** *Top*: voltage protocol. A conditioning voltage pulse to 30 mV was followed by a test pulse to -40 mV in  $[Ca^{2+}]_o=150$  nM (*bottom*). Note different protocol (see Fig. 1). *Middle*:  $I_{hc}$  signal. The inset (*right-hand side*) at expanded time scale shows the fluo-3 fluorescence change measured in line-scan mode after photorelease of  $Ca^{2+}$  and the

corresponding  $I_{hc}$  response. Rapid increase in  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  due to uncaging of DM-nitrophen inhibited  $I_{hc}$  with a time constant ( $\tau$ ) of  $246 \pm 61$  ms ( $n=5$ ). **b**  $I_{hc}$  was activated under similar conditions (see (a)). The inset (*right-hand side*) at expanded time scale shows the decrease in fluo-3 fluorescence after photorelease of the “caged”  $Ca^{2+}$  chelator, diazo-2, and the corresponding  $I_{hc}$  response. Flash photolysis of diazo-2 rapidly and homogeneously decreased  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  and the corresponding  $I_{hc}$  increased simultaneously with a time constant ( $\tau$ ) of  $272 \pm 109$  ms ( $n=5$ ). The time course was fitted by using a sigmoidal function, means  $\pm 1$  SEM

dashed curve). The symbols represent means  $\pm 1$  SEM. Mean values of  $g_{hc,max}$  were normalized and plotted as a function of  $pCa_i$ . The plot was obtained by setting the average  $g_{hc,max}$  in  $[Ca^{2+}]_i=20$  nM to unity and scale the data for  $[Ca^{2+}]_i=40$  nM and 100 nM accordingly. Fitting the available data to a single Hill equation (see Eq. 2) yielded the following values:  $pK'_{Ca}=6.94$  (apparent binding constant, corresponding to  $K_{Ca}=0.12$   $\mu$ M;  $n=4$ ); places a lower limit of four binding sites for  $Ca^{2+}$  per HC.

#### Response time of hemichannel currents to rapid changes in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$

A set of experiments was performed to assess the response time of  $I_{hc}$  to sudden changes in intracellular  $Ca^{2+}$ . Step increases of  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  were induced by means of UV-flash photolysis of caged  $Ca^{2+}$ . Figure 5 illustrates the result of an experiment carried out under following conditions.  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  was set to 100 nM and  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  to 150 nM using EGTA buffer. Interference from  $Na^+/Ca^{2+}$  exchange was minimized by adding 1 mM  $Ni^{2+}$  to the bath solution in some experiments. Moreover, the  $Ca^{2+}$  pump of the endoplasmic reticulum was blocked by 0.1  $\mu$ M thapsigargin added to the pipette solution. Both precautions prevented the removal of  $Ca^{2+}$  from the cytoplasm during subsequent interventions.  $I_{hc}$  was elicited with a bipolar voltage pulse. Figure 5, left-hand panel, shows the pulse protocol (upper trace) and the  $I_{hc}$  signal (lower trace). Depolarization to 30 mV for 15 s gave rise to a gradual increase in outward current. During the development of the current, a UV flash was applied (inset with arrow). This resulted in a distinct transient decrease in  $I_{hc}$ . Figure 5a, right-hand panel, repeats the current trace at higher resolution (lower signal).  $I_{hc}$  began to decrease at the incidence of flashing (see arrow) and then developed in a sigmoidal fashion. The maximal response was reached within 1 s. The decrease in  $I_{hc}$  developed more rapidly than the recovery. Figure 5a, right-hand panel, also shows the simultaneous measurement of  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  by means of confocal microscopy and fluo-3 in the pipette solution (upper signal). The trace displays the  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  versus time after the flash. It shows that  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  increased in milliseconds. The free intracellular  $Ca^{2+}$  recovered within 5 s (signal truncated). The recovery occurred in two phases, an exponential phase followed by a linear one. Signal calibration yielded an initial change in  $Ca^{2+}$  of about 400 nM. The line scan of the  $Ca^{2+}$  signal documented the homogeneity of the  $Ca^{2+}$  signal (not shown). The time constant,  $\tau$ , of  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  change was  $246 \pm 61$  ms ( $n=7$ ).

Step decreases of  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  were induced by means of UV-flash activation of a  $Ca^{2+}$  scavenger, diazo-2 (Fig. 5b). The experiments were performed under the same conditions as the previous ones. The left-hand panel shows the  $I_{hc}$  signal. The inset with the arrow marks the incidence of flashing.

Figure 5b, right-hand panel, repeats the  $I_{hc}$  signal at higher resolution (lower trace) and the fluorescence  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  signal (upper trace). The arrow marks the incidence of flashing. The intervention provoked a decrease of about  $\approx 25$ –50 % in  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  associated with a sigmoidal increase in  $I_{hc}$ . On average, the time constant,  $\tau$ , of the change in  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  was  $272 \pm 109$  ms ( $n=7$ ).

## Discussion

In single HCs, two intrinsic gating mechanisms characterized by fast transitions ( $<1$  ms, fast  $V_m$  gating) between the main state and the residual state, and slow transitions ( $>5$  ms, slow  $V_m$  gating) between an open state and the closed state have been identified [37]. The fast gate seems to reside at the cytoplasmic end of a HC and to involve the C-terminal domain of Cxs [6], and the slow gate at the extracellular end and to involve the extracellular loops E1 and E2 [19, 23, 42]. The fast gate responds to negative or positive voltage, depending on the type of Cx; the slow gate always to negative voltage [6] and is modulated by divalent cations, primarily  $Ca^{2+}$  [10, 23, 37, 41]. In Cx45 HCs, both gates close at negative  $V_m$  [4]. Since both are arranged in series,  $V_m$  acts on both gates in a competitive manner, i.e., closure of one gate entails a collapse of  $V_m$  across this very gate and reduces  $V_m$  across the other gate and vice versa. Hence, the open probability of a gate depends on the state of the other gate via changes in the local electric field, leading to contingent gating [18, 22, 43].

The regulatory functions of  $Ca^{2+}$  on GJC and HCs are still enigmatic and experimental observations are contradictory. The present study examined in detail the effects of extra- and intracellular  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  on the properties of  $I_{hc}$  under two different experimental conditions.

### Extracellular calcium

#### Steady-state properties of $I_{hc}$

Previous studies have reported conflicting data on  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  regulation and corresponding voltage shifts of  $g_{hc,ss} = f(V_m)$  on  $I_{hc}$ . Elevation of  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  provokes a large shift (tens of millivolts) to more positive voltage in Cx46 [10, 11, 23, 41], a small shift (few millivolts) in Cx32 and Cx35 [15, 40], and no shift in Cx37 and Cx50 [3, 24]. Conceivably, the data variance reflects an intrinsic property of Cxs. Interestingly, despite a structural identity of 33 %, the functional properties of Cx45 and Cx46 are different. Furthermore, we found that elevation of  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  decreased  $I_{hc,max}$ , decelerated the rate of  $I_{hc}$  activation, and accelerated the rate of  $I_{hc}$  deactivation of Cx45 HCs reversibly upon return to 20 nM (Fig. 2a). The larger  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$ , the smaller was the amplitude



of  $g_{hc,ss}$  at a given  $V_m$ . In addition, Cx45 HCs show no sign of a surface charge effect by external  $Ca^{2+}$ .

At large positive  $V_m$ ,  $g_{hc,ss}$  approaches a maximum,  $g_{hc,max}$ , which corresponds to an endpoint of  $g_{hc,ss} = f(V_m)$  for each  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$ . Accordingly,  $g_{hc,max}$  reflects the number of HCs dwelling in the main state, unaffected by  $V_m$ -dependent fast and slow gating. As to the effects of  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$ ,  $g_{hc,max}$  represents the ratio of HCs in the main state versus closed state, controlled by interaction of external  $Ca^{2+}$  with slow  $V_m$  gating. The lower the level of  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$ , the larger the number of HCs in the main state and vice versa. At large negative  $V_m$ ,  $g_{hc,ss}$  approaches a minimum,  $g_{hc,min}$ , which corresponds to the number of HCs in the residual state and main state set by fast and slow  $V_m$  gating, respectively, acting in a contingent manner. This behavior is consistent with the view that external  $Ca^{2+}$  modifies HC properties through reversible binding to regulatory sites located in the channel lumen and/or its outer vestibule, thus affecting voltage sensors and blocking/unblocking the pore [10, 15, 23, 35, 42].

Interestingly,  $g_{hc,min}$  did not decline to zero, even at the lowest  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  tested (Table 1, Fig. 2a). This implies that  $V_m$ -sensitive gating is intrinsic to Cx45 HCs and requires no external  $Ca^{2+}$  and is in agreement with the finding that  $P_o$  of Cx45 HCs under  $Ca^{2+}$ -free solution does not reach zero at large negative  $V_m$  [39]. In contrast, Cx46 and Cx37 HCs appears to fail  $V_m$  gating in low  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  [10, 24]. However, this interpretation has been recently challenged [41].

### Kinetics of $I_{hc}$

$V_m$  depolarization evoked an outward current with two components, a sudden rise,  $I_{hc,inst}$ , reflecting the functional state of HCs prior to depolarization, i.e.,  $V_h=0$  mV, and a subsequent time-dependent increase representing  $I_{hc}$  activation;  $V_m$  hyperpolarization led to an inward current with a time-dependent decrease documenting  $I_{hc}$  deactivation, both governed by  $V_m$  gating. These results gained in 20 nM and 2  $\mu$ M  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  concur with data previously reported for Cx45 in  $[Ca^{2+}]_o \cong 10$  nM [1]. Analysis of  $I_{hc}$  in the presence of low and high  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  revealed two processes of activation ( $I_{hc1}$ ,  $I_{hc2}$ ) and a single process of deactivation, giving rise to two time constants of activation,  $\tau_{a1}$  and  $\tau_{a2}$ , and a single one of deactivation,  $\tau_d$  (see Table 2). The former may reflect fast and slow  $V_m$  gating during depolarization, the latter  $V_m$  gating during hyperpolarization. Not unrealistically, we assume the existence of two time constants of deactivation,  $\tau_{d1}$  and  $\tau_{d2}$ , whose values are too similar to be resolved. Table 2 shows that  $\tau_{a1} < \tau_{a2}$ ,  $\tau_{a1} < \tau_d$ , and  $\tau_{a2} > \tau_d$ , irrespective of  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$ . Moreover, it indicates that elevation of  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  led to a significant increase of  $\tau_{a2}$  and decrease of  $\tau_d$ , while  $\tau_{a1}$ ,  $C_1$ , and  $C_2$  remained virtually unchanged. Furthermore, it caused  $I_{hc,inst}$  to decrease (Fig. 1). Hence,  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  does not

only modulate kinetics of slow  $V_m$  gating (i.e.,  $\tau_{a2}$  and  $\tau_d$ ), it also sets the number of open HCs,  $I_{hc,inst}$  (see above). As in Cx45 HCs, elevation of  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  decelerates activation and accelerates deactivation in Cx46 [11]. However, it accelerates activation and deactivation in Cx32 [15], and accelerates deactivation in Cx37 [24], but has no effect in Cx50 [3] indicating that kinetic properties also depend on the type of HC.

### Relationship between $[Ca^{2+}]_o$ and $g_{hc}$

The shape of the normalized curve  $g_{hc,max} = f([Ca^{2+}]_o)$  (Fig. 3) suggests the presence of two different regulatory  $Ca^{2+}$ -binding sites enabling reversible HC block: (1) high-affinity binding and low  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$ , and (2) low-affinity binding and high  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$ . Since there is no overlap, the two regulatory systems act sequentially.  $Ca^{2+}$  is likely to interfere with cationic binding sites putatively located in the lumen of a channel and/or its vestibule. For convenience, it might be useful to define a  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  threshold for chemical gating. Consider the value of  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  at  $g_{hc,max}(norm) = 0.025$  for process 2, the threshold would be 440  $\mu$ M. However, this  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  would be close to physiological settings. Based on Hill parameters reported for HCs, the sensitivity to external  $Ca^{2+}$  seems to be Cx specific, Cx45 being most sensitive and Cx32 least [3, 15, 24, 36].

### Rapid changes in $[Ca^{2+}]_o$

The rapid modulatory effect of  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  on  $I_{hc}$  in response to rapid external solution change is consistent with a direct action of extracellular  $Ca^{2+}$  on HCs ( $g_{hc,max}$ ) rather than an effect mediated by molecular intermediates, e.g., calmodulin [20]. Comparison of Figs. 4 and 1 reveals that step changes in  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  and  $V_m$  generate  $I_{hc}$  signals of different contour. The rapid rise in outward  $I_{hc}$  was absent and the subsequent time-dependent outward  $I_{hc}$  developed as single exponential instead of a dual exponential. Moreover, its time course was decelerated. Thus,  $V_m$  gating proceeds faster than  $Ca^{2+}$  gating, a process driven by external  $Ca^{2+}$  named chemical gating. Conceivably,  $Ca^{2+}$  act on receptor sites located in the channel lumen and/or its outer mouth provoking block/unblock, thus setting the number of HCs available for  $V_m$  gating. Concomitant measurement of free  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  revealed that changes in  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  did not alter internal  $Ca^{2+}$  (Fig. 4c), implying that chemical gating is solely controlled by external  $Ca^{2+}$ . This is consistent with the view that cytosolic intermediates are not involved in  $Ca^{2+}$  gating. At 30 mV, most HCs were closed due to block by high external  $Ca^{2+}$ . Subsequent rapid lowering of  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  to 20 nM initiated unblock of HCs and led to a growing number of open channels, thus giving rise to a time-dependent increase in  $I_{hc}$  aiming for a steady state. The rise in  $I_{hc}$  developed more slowly when

evoked by a step change in  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  than a step change in  $V_m$  (Figs. 4 and 1). This reflects a difference in the nature of the underlying processes, i.e.,  $Ca^{2+}$  gating driven by concentration gradient versus  $V_m$  gating driven by voltage gradient. However, an effect of external  $Ca^{2+}$  on  $V_m$  gating cannot be excluded.

### Intracellular calcium

#### *Relationship between $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ and $g_{hc}$*

Efforts to determine the curve  $g_{hc,max} = f([Ca^{2+}]_i)$  were successful. However, data analysis yielded a system with high-affinity binding and relatively low  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$ . A comparison of  $g_{hc,max} = f([Ca^{2+}]_i)$  (Fig. 3, dashed curve) and  $g_{hc,max} = f([Ca^{2+}]_o)$  (Fig. 3, solid curve) reveals that Cx45 HCs are more sensitive to  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  than  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$ . This may imply two locations of  $Ca^{2+}$ -binding sites, one putatively at the outer face of a channel responding to  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  and one at the inner face reacting to  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ . However, this interpretation has to be further examined. Interestingly, exposure of Cx46 HCs to high  $Ca^{2+}$  on either side leads to robust channel closure [23]. Hence, the authors postulated a single gate localized extracellular to position 35. Moreover, earlier studies on cardiomyocytes expressing predominantly Cx43 were devoted to the sensitivity of GJCs to internal  $Ca^{2+}$ . They yielded a broad range of Hill parameters ( $pK'_{Ca}=6.4$ ,  $K_{Ca}=0.40 \mu M$ ;  $n=3.6$ , [21];  $pK'_{Ca}=3.5$ ,  $K_{Ca}=315 \mu M$ ,  $n=0.87$ , [13]).

#### *Rapid changes in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$*

Rapid increase in  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  induced by photorelease of caged  $Ca^{2+}$  elicited a rapid onset (milliseconds) of inward  $I_{hc}$  that evolved into a sigmoidal decay (Fig. 5a). Conversely, a decrease in  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  caused by  $Ca^{2+}$  binding to a scavenger initiated a rapid onset (milliseconds) of outward  $I_{hc}$  developing into a sigmoidal rise (Fig. 5b). The latter response was less prominent due to cytosolic redistribution of  $Ca^{2+}$  via diffusion. The quasi-instantaneous response indicates that  $I_{hc}$  is directly controlled by internal  $Ca^{2+}$  and argues against indirect effects by biochemical intermediates [20]. Again, it supports the concept that Cx45 HCs have separate  $Ca^{2+}$ -binding sites located at the outer and inner face of channels. Conceivably, Cx45 HCs are also regulated by binding of internal  $Ca^{2+}$  to sites located near the cytosolic face of HCs, thus altering channel properties.

### Relevance of data

Cx45 HCs have a sizable conductance and permeability [39] and should therefore be closed under physiological conditions. This is essential to maintain ionic gradients and

cytosolic concentrations. According to Fig. 3, the low-affinity  $Ca^{2+}$ -binding system operates close to the range of  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  relevant to regulate the open/closed state of Cx45 HCs under physiological conditions, i.e., 2 mM. An estimate of its threshold level is  $\sim 440 \mu M$  (see above). Given the channel conductance, few open HCs would be necessary to exert a prominent effect. It is possible that unapposed HCs are involved in regulating cell–cell interactions. Conceivably,  $Ca^{2+}$  gating may play a role during HC docking. The functional relevance of such a regulatory system has to be validated. However, pathophysiological situations in cardiac tissue are associated with complex changes in the  $Ca^{2+}$  signaling and remodeling of regional gradients in expression of connexins. Thus, regulatory functions of  $Ca^{2+}$  on GJC may contribute to cardiac electrical dysfunction and arrhythmias. However, be aware, all experiments have been carried out at room temperature, not at body temperature (the relevant temperature coefficients are physical— $Q_{10} \sim 1$ ; chemical— $Q_{10} \sim 2$ ; biochemical— $Q_{10}$  up to  $\sim 4$ ).

We demonstrate that  $Ca^{2+}$  regulation of Cx45 HCs occurs too quick to be mediated by biomolecular intermediates, such as calmodulin. Interestingly, a previous study reported that  $Ca^{2+}$ -dependent inhibition of Cx43 GJs is mediated by calmodulin binding to the intracellular loop region of Cx43 [47]. Moreover, the combination of electrical and optical methods turned out to be promising in HC research. In the present paper, we succeeded to differentiate between current driven by concentration gradient and current driven by voltage gradient.

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