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Altering intracellular pH reveals the kinetic basis of intraburst gating in the CFTR Cl⁻ channel

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KEY POINTS SUMMARY

1	•	The cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator (CFTR), which is defective
2		in the genetic disease cystic fibrosis (CF), forms a gated pathway for chloride
3		movement regulated by intracellular ATP.
4	•	To understand better CFTR function, we investigated the regulation of channel
5		openings by intracellular pH.
6	•	We found that short-lived channel closures during channel openings represent subtle
7		changes in the structure of CFTR that are regulated by intracellular pH, in part, at
8		ATP-binding site 1 formed by the nucleotide-binding domains.
9	•	Our results provide a framework for future studies to understand better the regulation
10		of channel openings, the dysfunction of CFTR in CF and the action of drugs that
11		repair CFTR gating defects.

1 ABSTRACT

2 Cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator (CFTR) is an ATP-gated Cl⁻ channel defective in the genetic disease cystic fibrosis (CF). The gating behaviour of CFTR is 3 4 characterized by bursts of channel openings interrupted by brief, flickery closures, separated by long closures between bursts. Entry to and exit from an open burst is controlled by the 5 6 interaction of ATP with two ATP-binding sites, sites 1 and 2 in CFTR. To understand better the kinetic basis of CFTR intraburst gating, we investigated the single-channel activity of 7 human CFTR at different intracellular pH (pHi) values. When compared with the control 8 9 (pH_i 7.3), acidifying pH_i to 6.3 or alkalinizing pH_i to 8.3 and 8.8 caused small reductions in the open-time constant τ_0 of wild-type CFTR. By contrast, the fast closed-time constant τ_{cf} , 10 11 which describes the short-lived closures that interrupt open bursts, was greatly increased at pHi 5.8 and 6.3. To analyse intraburst kinetics, we used linear three-state gating schemes. 12 All data were satisfactorily modeled by the $C_1 \leftrightarrow O \leftrightarrow C_2$ kinetic scheme. Changing the 13 intracellular ATP concentration was without effect on τ_o , τ_{cf} and their responses to pH_i 14 15 changes. However, mutations that disrupt the interaction of ATP with ATP-binding site 1, including K464A, D572N and the CF-associated mutation G1349D all abolished the 16 17 prolongation of τ_{cf} at pH_i 6.3. Taken together, our data suggest that the regulation of CFTR intraburst gating is distinct from the ATP-dependent mechanism that controls channel 18 19 opening and closing. However, our data also suggest that ATP-binding site 1 modulates intraburst gating. 20

1 ABBREVIATIONS

ABC, ATP-binding cassette; CF, cystic fibrosis; CFTR, cystic fibrosis transmembrane
conductance regulator; IBI, interburst interval; MBD, mean burst duration; MSD, membranespanning domain; NBD, nucleotide-binding domain; P_o, open probability; R domain,
regulatory domain.

1 INTRODUCTION

Cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator (CFTR) is an anion channel 2 transporting Cl⁻ and HCO₃⁻ across the apical membrane of epithelial cells (Hwang & Kirk, 3 4 2013). Structurally, CFTR belongs to the ATP-binding cassette (ABC) family, but distinctively it forms a ligand-gated ion channel (Hwang & Kirk, 2013). CFTR contains two 5 6 membrane-spanning domains (MSDs) that form the channel pore, two nucleotide-binding domains (NBDs) that bind ATP molecules to control channel gating, and a unique regulatory 7 domain (R domain) that confers CFTR activation by PKA-dependent phosphorylation 8 (Hwang & Kirk, 2013). CFTR dysfunction causes the genetic disease cystic fibrosis (CF) 9 (Riordan et al., 1989). Because CF mutations frequently disrupt channel gating, 10 understanding gating mechanisms in CFTR is important for deciphering the pathogenesis of 11 12 CF and developing mutation-specific therapies.

The gating pattern of CFTR is characterized by bursts of openings interrupted by 13 short-lived closures and separated by long closures between bursts (Anderson et al., 1991; 14 15 Winter et al., 1994). Early studies demonstrated that the transition between long closures and bursts of openings is regulated by ATP binding and hydrolysis at the NBDs (Anderson et al., 16 1991; Hwang et al., 1994; Carson et al., 1995; Lansdell et al., 1998; Zeltwanger et al., 1999; 17 Ikuma & Welsh, 2000; Vergani et al., 2003). Later studies revealed that the two NBDs form 18 a head-to-tail dimer with an interface containing two ATP-binding sites, site 1 and site 2 19 (Lewis et al., 2004; Vergani et al., 2005). Evidence shows that the turnover rate of ATP at 20 site 1 is less than that at site 2 in CFTR gating (Tsai et al., 2009; Tsai et al., 2010), because 21 site 1 exhibits reduced or absent ATP hydrolytic activity (Aleksandrov et al., 2002; Lewis et 22 al., 2004; Kidd et al., 2004). With ATP stabilizing the two NBDs at site 1, NBD 23 dimerization by ATP binding at site 2 powers CFTR opening (Vergani et al., 2005). 24

1 Recent gating models suggest that site 2 cyclically binds and hydrolyzes ATP to drive channel gating (Aleksandrov et al., 2002; Vergani et al., 2005; Csanady et al., 2010) at a 2 slow pace, about once per second at room temperature (Li et al., 1996). However, CFTR 3 closing may not be strictly coupled to ATP hydrolysis as at least two open states are found to 4 occur during channel opening (Hennager et al., 2001; Jih et al., 2012). In addition, 5 6 significant structural rearrangement at site 1 may accompany the CFTR gating cycle induced by ATP binding and hydrolysis at site 2 (Csanady et al., 2013), suggesting cross talk between 7 sites 1 and 2 to regulate channel gating. 8

Most studies of CFTR gating have focused on transitions between the long closures 9 and bursts of channel opening. The gating kinetics of short-lived channel closures within a 10 burst have received less attention. Previous studies have attributed intraburst closures to 11 recording noise, channel pore blockage by buffer ions such as HEPES (Dalemans et al., 1991; 12 Haws et al., 1992; Tabcharani et al., 1997; Zhou et al., 2001) and MOPS (Ishihara & Welsh, 13 1997) or intrinsic conformational changes in CFTR itself (Ishihara & Welsh, 1997; Cai et al., 14 2003). Intriguingly, the intraburst activity of CFTR resembles the gating behaviour of 15 ligand-gated channels such as cyclic nucleotide-gated ion channels (Sunderman & Zagotta, 16 1999). Moreover, intraburst closures are sensitive to membrane voltage (Cai et al., 2003) and 17 temperature (Ishihara & Welsh, 1997) and differ between species (Lansdell et al., 1998; Cai 18 et al., 2015). These data suggest that sequential openings and closings within a burst might 19 20 be associated with kinetic shifts in CFTR conformation and modulated by physiological stimuli. 21

To test this hypothesis, we studied the single-channel kinetics of wild-type and mutant CFTR. Because intracellular pH (pH_i) alters CFTR gating (Chen *et al.*, 2009), we first tested whether intraburst activity is sensitive to different pH_i solutions. To investigate the underlying regulatory mechanisms for CFTR intraburst activity and its pH_i sensitivity, we

tested several well-known mutants, including the CF mutations ΔF508, G551D and G1349D.
Our data reveal that intraburst activity in CFTR is operated by an ATP-independent gating
mechanism, but associated with the interaction of ATP at site 1. Our findings suggest that
channel openings occur when CFTR enters the ATP-driven bursting state, wherein an ATPindependent mechanism closes the channel gate intermittently to generate short-lived
intraburst closures.

7

8 METHODS

9 Cells and CFTR expression

Experimental details have been described previously (Chen et al., 2009). Briefly, we used 10 mammalian cells heterologously expressing human CFTR constructs. HeLa cells were used 11 to transiently express K464A- and D572N-CFTR by the vaccinia virus/bacteriophage T7 12 hybrid expression system (Rich *et al.*, 1990) and wild-type and Δ F508-CFTR by plasmid 13 transfection with Lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen) in some experiments. 14 Other CFTR variants were stably expressed as follows: wild-type, Δ F508-, Δ RS660A- and G1349D-CFTR 15 in mouse mammary epithelial (C127) cells; G551D-CFTR in Fischer rat thyroid (FRT) cells 16 and K1250M-CFTR in NIH 3T3 cells. The single-channel behaviour of wild-type human 17 CFTR in different mammalian cells is equivalent (Chen et al., 2009). 18

19

20 Electrophysiology

CFTR currents in excised inside-out membrane patches were recorded using Axopatch 200A 21 or 200B patch-clamp amplifiers and analyzed with pCLAMP software (all from Molecular 22 Devices, Union City, CA, USA) as described previously (Sheppard & Robinson, 1997; Chen 23 The pipette (extracellular) solution contained (mM): 140 N-methyl-D-24 et al., 2009). glucamine (NMDG), 140 aspartic acid, CaCl₂, MgSO₄ 25 5 2 and 10 N-

[tris(hydroxymethyl)methyl]-2-aminoethanesulfonic acid (TES), pH 7.3 with Tris ([Cl⁻], 10
mM). The control bath (intracellular) solution contained (mM): 140 NMDG, 3 MgCl₂, 1
CsEGTA, 5 Trizma base and 5 Bis-Tris, pH 7.3 with HCl, ([Cl⁻], 147 mM; free [Ca²⁺], <10⁻⁸
M) at 37 °C. To ensure identical Cl⁻ concentrations, pH solutions were first titrated to pH 7.3
with HCl before titrating with H₂SO₄ to acidic pH or Tris to alkaline pH values.

CFTR channels in excised inside-out membrane patches were activated by adding 6 PKA (75 nM) and ATP (1 mM) to the bath solution. Channel activity was maintained by 7 adding fresh PKA (75 nM) and ATP (0.3 or 1 mM) at the start of each intervention. 8 Membrane voltage was clamped at -50 mV. Experimental protocols and conditions were 9 performed as described previously (Chen et al., 2009). To augment the activity of CFTR 10 mutants in the NBDs, we used ATP at 1 mM, whereas wild-type and Δ RS660A-CFTR were 11 routinely studied using ATP at 0.3 mM. Most CFTR single-channel currents were initially 12 recorded on digital audiotape (Biologic Scientific Instruments, model DTR-1204: Intracel 13 Ltd., Royston, UK) at a bandwidth of 10 kHz, while some were directly digitized and stored 14 in the computer. For digitization, recordings were filtered with an 8-pole Bessel filter (model 15 902LPF2 or 900; Frequency Devices, Inc., Ottawa, IL, USA) at a corner frequency (fc) of 500 16 Hz and acquired using a Digidata 1200 or 1440 interface (Molecular Devices) and pCLAMP 17 software at the sampling rate of 5 kHz. For the purpose of illustration, current recordings 18 19 were filtered at 500 Hz and digitized at 1 kHz.

The number of active channels in a membrane patch was determined by the maximum number of recorded channels that opened simultaneously at any one time during the entire experiment. To obtain burst durations, the channel bursts formed by only one active channel were measured. For open probability (P_o) and burst analysis, event lists of open- and closedtimes were created using pCLAMP software with a half-amplitude crossing criterion.

1 Transitions ≤ 1 ms were excluded from event lists (eight-pole Bessel filter rise time (T_{10-90}) 2 ~0.73 ms at $f_c = 500$ Hz).

Single-channel open- and closed-time histograms were created using logarithmic x-3 4 axes with 10 bins per decade. Using the maximum likelihood method, open- and closed-time histograms were fitted with one- or two-component exponential functions, respectively. The 5 mean values of exponential functions were used to derive open- and closed-time constants. 6 P_o was calculated from open and closed times. To measure mean burst duration (MBD), 7 interburst interval (IBI) and P_0 within a burst ($P_{0-burst}$), burst analysis was performed using 8 9 recordings from membrane patches that contained 1-4 active channels. The delimiter time (t_c) that separates interburst closures from intraburst closures was determined from the point of 10 intersection between the two exponential curves fitting the fast and slow populations of 11 12 channel closures in the closed-time histogram, as described previously (Carson et al., 1995). Event lists and tc values were used to derive MBD and Po-burst with pCLAMP software. Then, 13 IBI was calculated using Equation 1: 14

15
$$P_o = \frac{MBD \times P_{o-burst}}{MBD + IBI}$$
 Equation (Eq.) 1

To develop kinetic gating schemes, we used QuB software (www.qub.buffalo.edu;
Qin *et al.*, 1997) with maximum likelihood analysis (Cai *et al.*, 2003), excluding transitions ≤
1 ms. Only data from membrane patches that contained a single active channel were used for
kinetic modeling.

20

21 Reagents and chemicals

With the exception of PKA purified from bovine heart (Promega, Southampton, UK and
Calbiochem/Merck Millipore, Darmstadt, Germany), chemicals were purchased from the
Sigma-Aldrich Company Ltd. (Gillingham, UK). Stock solutions of ATP were prepared
fresh before each experiment.

2 Statistics

One-way ANOVA and paired Student's t-test were used to analyze sets of data. Differences
were considered statistically significant when *P* < 0.05.

5

6 **RESULTS**

7 Acidic and alkaline intracellular solutions alter the intraburst activity of CFTR

To investigate the intraburst activity of the CFTR Cl⁻ channel, we studied the single-channel 8 activity of wild-type human CFTR at different intracellular pH (pHi) values from pHi 5.8 to 9 8.8 (Fig. 1A and B). The gating pattern of CFTR is characterized by bursts of openings, 10 separated by long closures and interrupted by short-lived closures within bursts (Fig. 1). 11 12 Figures 1 and 2 and Table 1 demonstrate that pH_i had complex effects on CFTR channel gating. Consistent with our previous results (Chen et al., 2009), the interburst activity of 13 CFTR measured by open probability (P_0), mean burst duration (MBD) and interburst interval 14 (IBI) had diverse responses to different pH_i solutions (Fig. 1 and Table 1). For example, at 15 pHi 6.3 Po increased 1.5-fold because MBD increased 2.7-fold and IBI decreased 0.7-fold. 16 By contrast, at pHi 8.3 Po decreased 0.7-fold because MBD decreased 0.6-fold and IBI 17 increased 1.3-fold. 18

To examine whether intraburst openings and closings are sensitive to pH_i changes, we measured their dwell times using the open- and closed-time histograms (Fig. 2A-D). Our data demonstrate that the open-time constant (τ_0) was decreased ~0.8-fold at pH_i 6.3, pH_i 8.3 and pH_i 8.8, but unchanged at pH_i 5.8 (Fig. 2A, C and E). Of note, the fast closed-time constant (τ_{cf}), representing the population of short-lived intraburst closures in the closed-time histogram (Fig. 2B and D) was increased 1.6-fold at pH_i 6.3 and 1.5-fold at pH_i 5.8, but was

¹

unaltered at alkaline pHi (Fig. 2B, D and F). Thus, the data suggest that CFTR intraburst
 gating described by τ₀ and τ_{cf} is sensitive to pHi changes.

Consistent with the analysis of bursts (Table 1), pH_i had complex effects on the slow closed-time constant (τ_{cs}), representing the population of long interburst closures: τ_{cs} decreased 0.6-fold at pH_i 6.3, increased 3.7-fold at pH_i 5.8, increased 1.3-fold at pH_i 8.3, but was unaltered at pH_i 8.8 (Fig. 2B, D and G). Moreover, the diverse responses of τ_{cs} and τ_{cf} to different pH_i solutions suggest that the long interburst closures and short-lived intraburst closures might be regulated by distinct mechanisms.

9

10 Buffers are without effect on the intraburst activity of the CFTR Cl⁻ channel

A caveat for analyzing CFTR intraburst gating is that short-lived closures might result from 11 blockage of the channel pore by buffer ions, such as HEPES (Dalemans et al., 1991; Haws et 12 al., 1992; Tabcharani et al., 1997; Zhou et al., 2001), TES (Tabcharani et al., 1997) and 13 MOPS (Ishihara & Welsh, 1997). To address this possibility, we tested whether increasing 14 the concentration of the buffers Trizma or Bis-Tris three-fold in the intracellular solution 15 might alter CFTR intraburst gating (Fig. 3A-C). The data demonstrate that increasing the 16 concentrations of either Trizma or Bis-Tris did not affect MBD, τ_0 and τ_{ef} of wild-type CFTR 17 (Fig. 3A-C). Similarly, using intracellular solutions with a different buffer, TES (10 mM), or 18 the same Trizma buffer, but at a very low concentration (0.1 mM) had little or no effect on 19 MBD, τ_0 , τ_{cf} and τ_{cs} (Fig. 3D-G). Thus, the data suggest that intraburst closures were unlikely 20 to be caused by buffer-generated blockage of the CFTR channel pore. Since the intraburst 21 closures (Fig. 1) were also distinct from biphasic recording noise, the data suggest that 22 openings and closings within a burst might represent stable and integral conformational states 23 during CFTR gating. 24

1 Kinetic modeling of CFTR gating at different pH_i

2 Complex cyclic gating models have been developed to describe CFTR channel gating by ATP binding and hydrolysis at the NBDs (Tsai et al., 2010; Jih et al., 2012; Csanady et al., 3 4 2013). However, to investigate intraburst gating of CFTR at different pH_i, we utilized the simple linear three-state kinetic schemes $C_1 \leftrightarrow O \leftrightarrow C_2$ and $C_1 \leftrightarrow C_2 \leftrightarrow O$ to analyze 5 transitions between the long closed state C₁, short-lived closed state C₂, and open state O (Fig. 6 4A and F) (Winter et al., 1994; Cai et al., 2003). In both kinetic schemes, the rate constants 7 β_1 , β_2 , α_1 and α_2 describe the transition rates between three gating states and bursts of channel 8 opening are modeled by the transitions $O \leftrightarrow C_2$ or $C_2 \leftrightarrow O$ (Fig. 4A and F, see dashed boxes). 9 In the $C_1 \leftrightarrow O \leftrightarrow C_2$ kinetic scheme, the relationships between the rate constants and other 10 kinetic parameters can be described by Equation 2 (Colquhoun & Hawkes, 1982; Sakmann & 11 12 Trube, 1984):

13 IBI =
$$\tau_{cs} = \frac{1}{\beta_1}$$
; MBD = $\frac{(\beta_2 + \alpha_2)}{\alpha_1 \alpha_2}$; $\tau_{cf} = \frac{1}{\alpha_2}$; $\tau_o = \frac{1}{\alpha_1 + \beta_2}$ Eq. 2

In the C₁ \leftrightarrow O \leftrightarrow C₂ kinetic scheme, an increase in the rate constant β_1 at pH_i 6.3 (Fig. 14 4B) decreased IBI (Table 1) and τ_{cs} (Fig. 2G), whereas reductions in β_1 at pH_i 8.3 and 5.8 15 (Fig. 4B) enhanced IBI and τ_{cs} at these pH_i values (Table 1 and Fig. 2G). In addition, 16 decreases in α_1 prolonged MBD at acidic pH_i 5.8 and 6.3 (Fig. 4D and Table 1), whereas 17 increases in α₁ shortened MBD at alkaline pH_i 8.3 and 8.8 (Fig. 4D and Table 1). For CFTR 18 intraburst gating, the increased β_2 rate constant at pHi 6.3 (Fig. 4C) might cause a small 19 decrease in τ_0 (Fig. 2E) as $\tau_0 = 1/(\alpha_1 + \beta_2)$ (Eq. 2). Following this equation, the enhanced α_1 20 rate constant at alkaline pH_i (Fig. 4D) might also cause a small reduction in τ_0 (Fig. 2E). 21 Moreover, the marked increase in τ_{cf} at acidic pH_i 6.3 and 5.8 (Fig. 2F) might be caused by 22 large reductions in the α_2 rate constant (Fig. 4E) as $\tau_{cf} = 1/\alpha_2$ (Eq. 2). Taken together, these 23 data suggest that the $C_1 \leftrightarrow O \leftrightarrow C_2$ kinetic scheme adequately accounts for the pH_i-24 25 sensitivity of CFTR interburst and intraburst gating.

Because the C₁ ↔ O ↔ C₂ and C₁ ↔ C₂ ↔ O kinetic schemes are mathematically
equivalent (Colquhoun & Hawkes, 1982; Sakmann & Trube, 1984; Kienker, 1989), we next
modeled CFTR gating using the C₁ ↔ C₂ ↔ O kinetic scheme. In the C₁ ↔ C₂ ↔ O kinetic
scheme, the relationships between rate constants and kinetic parameters can be described by
Equation 3 (Colquhoun & Hawkes, 1982; Sakmann & Trube, 1984):

6 IBI =
$$\tau_{cs} = \frac{1}{\beta_1} [1 + (\frac{\alpha_1}{\beta_2})] + (\frac{1}{\beta_2}); \text{ MBD} = \frac{(\beta_2 + \alpha_1)^2 + \beta_2 \alpha_2}{(\beta_2 + \alpha_1) \alpha_1 \alpha_2}; \tau_{cf} = \frac{1}{\alpha_1 + \beta_2}; \tau_o = \frac{1}{\alpha_2}$$
 Eq. 3

Consistent with the $C_1 \leftrightarrow O \leftrightarrow C_2$ kinetic scheme (Fig. 4B and D), alterations in β_1 and α_1 in 7 the $C_1 \leftrightarrow C_2 \leftrightarrow O$ kinetic scheme (Fig. 4G and I) accounted for the changes in IBI and MBD, 8 respectively, at different pH_i (Eq. 3 and Table 1). However, the rate constants β_2 and α_2 , 9 10 which describe intraburst gating in this scheme were little altered at different pH_i (Fig. 4H and J). Instead, the $C_1 \leftrightarrow C_2 \leftrightarrow O$ kinetic scheme indicated that alterations in τ_{cf} at different 11 pH_i (Fig. 2F) were caused by the corresponding changes in the rate constant α_1 (Fig. 4I) as τ_{cf} 12 = $1/(\alpha_1+\beta_2)$ (Eq. 3). Moreover, the small decreases in τ_0 at pHi 6.3, 8.3 and 8.8 (Fig. 2E) 13 were not well simulated by the rate constant α_2 in the $C_1 \leftrightarrow C_2 \leftrightarrow O$ kinetic scheme (Fig. 4J). 14

To further compare the modeling results of these two kinetic schemes (Fig. 4) with 15 the measured data in Figure 2 and Table 1, we derived the kinetic parameters Po, Po within a 16 burst (Po-burst), MBD, IBI, τ_0 , τ_{cf} and τ_{cs} (Tables 2 and 3) using the rate constant data at acidic 17 pHi 6.3 and 5.8 (Fig. 4). At pHi 6.3 and 5.8, we observed large changes in CFTR intraburst 18 gating (Fig. 1 and 2). Tables 2 and 3 demonstrate that the kinetic parameters derived using 19 both schemes at pH_i 6.3 and 5.8 were comparable to our measured data. However, the τ_0 20 value derived by the $C_1 \leftrightarrow C_2 \leftrightarrow O$ kinetic scheme was not significantly decreased at pHi 6.3 21 compared to that at pHi 7.3 (Table 3), consistent with the modeling results (Fig. 4J). To 22 interpret these data, we speculate that although mathematically the two kinetic schemes 23 generate similar modeling results, the kinetic relationship between the three gating states 24

might prevent the C₁ ↔ C₂ ↔ O kinetic scheme from adequately modeling pH_i-sensitive
 changes in CFTR intraburst gating.

As the C₁ ↔ O ↔ C₂ kinetic scheme consistently well described pH_i-sensitive
intraburst gating of CFTR, we selected this kinetic scheme to analyse data acquired in
subsequent experiments. Because CFTR gating is ATP-dependent (Hwang & Kirk, 2013),
we began by testing whether the pH_i-sensitive intraburst activity of CFTR is regulated by the
ATP concentration. For these experiments, we studied channel gating at pH_i 6.3, because it
induced significant changes in CFTR intraburst activity (Figs. 1 and 2).

9

10 ATP-dependence of acid-sensitive intraburst gating

11 Numerous studies have demonstrated that the opening rate of CFTR or the rate constant β_1 in 12 the C₁ \leftrightarrow O \leftrightarrow C₂ kinetic scheme is ATP-dependent (Winter *et al.*, 1994; Venglarik *et al.*, 13 1994; Li *et al.*, 1996; Zeltwanger *et al.*, 1999; Cai & Sheppard, 2002; Vergani *et al.*, 2003). 14 Previous studies (Winter *et al.*, 1994; Li *et al.*, 1996; Lansdell *et al.*, 1998) also demonstrate 15 that τ_0 and τ_{cf} are independent of the intracellular ATP concentration. Nevertheless, some 16 data raise the possibility that intraburst gating might be ATP-dependent (Zeltwanger *et al.*, 17 1999; Cai & Sheppard, 2002; Cai *et al.*, 2015).

Figure 5 demonstrates the effects of different ATP concentrations on CFTR gating at 18 pH_i 6.3 and 7.3. At both pH_i 7.3 and 6.3, τ_{cs} was markedly decreased from 0.03 to 0.3 mM 19 ATP and further reduced from 0.3 to 1 mM ATP (Fig. 5B). Interestingly, τ_{cs} at pH_i 6.3 was 20 smaller than that at pH_i 7.3 in the presence of ATP at 0.3 and 1 mM, but not at 0.03 mM, (Fig. 21 5B), suggesting that when the ATP concentration is very low, the collision frequency of ATP 22 molecules with CFTR becomes the rate-limiting factor for channel opening. When compared 23 to values at pH_i 7.3, the effects of pH_i 6.3 on τ_0 and τ_{cf} were similar among all three ATP 24 concentrations tested (Fig. 5D-E). Interestingly, values of MBD were significantly prolonged 25

1 at pH_i 6.3 compared to those at pH_i 7.3, particularly at 0.3 and 1 mM ATP (Fig. 5C), 2 suggesting that the ATP collision rate might affect the stability of CFTR's bursting state at 3 acidic pH_i. Consistent with the τ_{cs} changes (Fig. 5B), only the rate constant β_1 in the C₁ \leftrightarrow O 4 \leftrightarrow C₂ kinetic scheme was sensitive to the ATP concentration (Fig. 5F-I).

Conversely, the kinetic parameters for CFTR intraburst gating including the time 5 constants τ_0 and τ_{cf} (Fig. 5D and E) and rate constants β_2 and α_2 (Fig. 5H and I) were 6 7 insensitive to the ATP concentration at both pHi 7.3 and 6.3, suggesting that intraburst openings and closings are not regulated by ATP. However, it is uncertain whether the 8 intraburst closings might represent the intermediate closed state when CFTR has already 9 bound ATP prior to channel opening (Haws et al., 1992; Venglarik et al., 1994; Zeltwanger 10 et al., 1999). Using the two linear kinetic schemes (Fig. 4A and F), we examined this 11 12 possibility by analyzing chemical kinetics (see Appendix A) to mathematically derive the relationship between the P₀ of CFTR and the ATP concentration, which is best described by 13 the Michaelis-Menten equation (Anderson et al., 1991; Venglarik et al., 1994; Zeltwanger et 14 al., 1999; Cai & Sheppard, 2002; Vergani et al., 2003; Scott-Ward et al., 2007; Chen et al., 15 2009). The modeling results show that both kinetic models required an intermediate closed 16 state C₁' between the long closed state C₁ and the bursting state to derive a Michaelis-17 Menten-like relationship (e.g. the $C_1 \leftrightarrow C_1' \leftrightarrow O \leftrightarrow C_2$ kinetic scheme in Appendix A, Eq. 18 A7 for the $C_1 \leftrightarrow O \leftrightarrow C_2$ kinetic scheme). Therefore, the short-lived C_2 state is unlikely to 19 represent an ATP-bound intermediate closed state in CFTR gating. These data also suggest 20 that CFTR intraburst gating might be controlled by a gating mechanism that follows ATP 21 binding to CFTR. 22

Next, we explored whether the interaction of ATP molecules with ATP-binding sites
1 and 2 affects the intraburst activity of CFTR. For these experiments, we studied several
CFTR mutants in the NBDs that disturb ATP binding and hydrolysis.

1

2 Role of the R domain and ATP-binding sites in CFTR intraburst gating

To disrupt ATP-dependent regulation of CFTR channel gating, we selected four CFTR
variants (Fig. 6 and 7): (i) ΔRS660A-CFTR, which deletes a large part of the R domain and
likely impacts the function of both ATP-binding sites (Rich *et al.*, 1991; Winter & Welsh,
1997; Mense *et al.*, 2006); (ii) K1250M-CFTR, which impairs ATP binding and hydrolysis at
site 2 (Carson *et al.*, 1995; Vergani *et al.*, 2003; Vergani *et al.*, 2005); (iii) K464A-CFTR,
which perturbs ATP binding at site 1 (Carson *et al.*, 1995; Vergani *et al.*, 2003) and (iv)
D572N-CFTR, which attenuates Mg²⁺ binding at site 1 (Vergani *et al.*, 2003).

10 Figure 6 shows representative recordings (Fig. 6A), τ_0 and τ_{cf} data (Fig. 6B and C) of Δ RS660A-CFTR tested at pH_i 7.3 and pH_i 6.3 in the presence of 0.3 mM ATP. Compared to 11 that of wild-type CFTR, τ_0 was reduced, but τ_{cf} was enhanced in $\Delta RS660A$ -CFTR at pHi 7.3 12 (see # symbols, Fig. 6B and C). However, similar to that in wild-type CFTR, pHi 6.3 13 decreased τ_0 but increased τ_{cf} of $\Delta RS660A$ -CFTR (Fig. 6B and C). Moreover, Figure 7 14 15 shows representative recordings, τ_0 and τ_{cf} data of CFTR NBD mutants at pH_i 7.3 and pH_i 6.3 in the presence of 1 mM ATP. When compared with values for wild-type CFTR, the τ_0 of 16 K464A-CFTR at pHi 7.3 was decreased (Fig. 7B), whereas the K1250M mutation appeared 17 to decrease τ_0 (P = 0.12), but increase τ_{cf} (P = 0.08) at pH_i 7.3 (Fig. 7B and C). Interestingly, 18 the τ_0 reduction by pH_i 6.3 in wild-type CFTR was abolished by the NBD mutations K1250M, 19 K464A and D572N (Fig. 7B), whereas the τ_{cf} elongation by pH_i 6.3 was absent in the mutants 20 K464A- and D572N-CFTR (Fig. 7C). We interpret these results to suggest that the R domain 21 and ATP-binding sites might contribute to the regulation of CFTR intraburst gating. The data 22 23 also suggest that both ATP-binding sites might contribute to the reduction in τ_0 at pHi 6.3, whereas only site 1 might mediate the prolongation of τ_{cf} at pH_i 6.3. 24

1 The CF mutation G1349D greatly disturbs CFTR intraburst gating

To further investigate the roles of ATP-binding sites 1 and 2 and learn whether CF mutations 2 perturb intraburst gating, we studied the CF mutations, Δ F508, G551D and G1349D at 1 mM 3 ATP (Fig. 8). Located on the surface of NBD1, Δ F508 not only perturbs communication 4 between the NBDs and MSDs (Serohijos et al., 2008; Mornon et al., 2008; Dong et al., 2011), 5 6 but also destabilizes the NBD1:NBD2 dimer (Jih et al., 2011). By contrast, G551D and G1349D affect equivalent residues in the LSGGQ motifs in NBD1 and NBD2, which 7 8 contribute to site 2 and site 1, respectively (Lewis et al., 2004; Cai et al., 2006; Bompadre et al., 2007). Both mutations perturb severely CFTR channel gating, with G551D rendering 9 CFTR gating ATP-independent (Bompadre et al., 2007). 10

11 Consistent with previous studies (Cai *et al.*, 2006), G551D and G1349D not only 12 greatly prolonged IBI, but noticeably reduced the MBD of CFTR (Fig. 8A and B). 13 Interestingly, pHi 6.3 only enhanced the MBD of Δ F508-CFTR among the three CF mutants 14 studied (Fig. 8B). However, the fold change of MBD in Δ F508-CFTR was less than that of 15 wild-type CFTR (MBD_{pHi} 6.3/MBD_{pHi} 7.3: Δ F508-CFTR, 1.8 ± 0.2; wild-type CFTR, 2.8 ± 0.2; 16 N = 6, *P* < 0.05, one-way ANOVA; Fig. 8B). Of note, at pHi 6.3 the MBD of G1349D-17 CFTR was significantly reduced (Fig. 8A and B).

18 For CFTR intraburst gating, only G1349D caused large reductions in both τ_0 and τ_{cf} at pH_i 7.3 (Fig. 8C and D). Like wild-type CFTR, the τ_0 of all three CF mutants at pH_i 6.3 was 19 20 shorter than that at pH_i 7.3 (Fig. 8C, P = 0.061 for G551D). However, only G551D and G1349D abolished the prolongation of τ_{cf} at pH_i 6.3 (Fig. 8D). Moreover, the MBD/ τ_0 ratio, 21 which is used to estimate the average number of channel openings within a burst of openings 22 was unchanged in Δ F508-CFTR compared to that of wild-type CFTR (Fig. 8E). Conversely, 23 the MBD/ τ_0 ratio at both pHi 7.3 and pHi 6.3 was reduced to 1.7 in G551D-CFTR and 1.3 in 24 G1349D-CFTR compared to 2.8 at pH_i 7.3 for wild-type CFTR (see # symbols, Fig. 8E). 25

These data suggest that bursts of channel openings were very difficult to form in G1349D CFTR such that each burst often only appeared to contain a single opening (Fig. 8A). Taken
 together, our data indicate that CFTR intraburst gating and its pHi-sensitivity were altered
 slightly by ΔF508, moderately by G551D, but severely by G1349D.

5

6 **DISCUSSION**

This study aimed to investigate intraburst gating in the CFTR Cl⁻ channel by exploiting the
effects of pH_i on gating kinetics. Our data reveal that intraburst openings and closings are
integral gating events. The C₁ ↔ O ↔ C₂ kinetic scheme adequately simulated CFTR
intraburst gating at different pH_i values. Mutations in ATP-binding site 1, particularly the CF
mutation G1349D, had greater impact on intraburst gating than those in ATP-binding site 2.

12

13 Nature of the intraburst closures

When recording the single-channel activity of CFTR, we and other groups (e.g. Ishihara & 14 Welsh, 1997; Tabcharani et al., 1997; Vergani et al., 2005; Fuller et al., 2005; Bompadre et 15 al., 2007) consistently observed burst-like openings when the channel is open. Most studies 16 attribute this bursting behaviour of CFTR to the brief and intermittent intraburst closures. 17 which interrupt channel openings. It is proposed that these intraburst closures are caused by 18 blockage of the CFTR pore by buffer ions (Ishihara & Welsh, 1997; Tabcharani et al., 1997; 19 20 Zhou et al., 2001) or unknown intrinsic conformational movements (Ishihara & Welsh, 1997; Cai et al., 2003). Studies using open-channel blockers of CFTR have demonstrated that fast-21 speed channel blockers with low binding affinity (e.g. niflumic acid, Scott-Ward et al., 2004) 22 only intermittently and partially obstruct Cl⁻ flow through the channel pore. Conversely, 23 intermediate-speed channel blockers with high binding affinity (e.g. glibenclamide, Sheppard 24 & Robinson, 1997) cause full blockage of CFTR single-channel currents. The buffer ion best 25

known to block the CFTR pore is MOPS, which shows fast and intermediate-speed blocking 1 behaviour at 10 mM (Ishihara & Welsh, 1997). These studies together with the present data 2 argue that the millimolar concentrations of buffer ions in our intracellular solutions are 3 4 unlikely to cause open-channel block of the CFTR pore when the channel is open. Recording noise, often seen as biphasic spikes, are unlikely to be the reason for intraburst closures. 5 Interestingly, the short-lived closures are sensitive to the membrane voltage (Zhou et al., 6 2001; Cai et al., 2003). Therefore, we speculate that part of the conformational changes that 7 underlie CFTR intraburst gating occur within the MSDs. 8

9

10 Control of the intraburst activity in CFTR gating

NBD dimerization and dissociation induced by cycles of ATP binding and hydrolysis at 11 binding site 2 forms the basic gating mechanism for interburst gating of the CFTR Cl⁻ 12 channel (Vergani et al., 2005; Scott-Ward et al., 2007; Tsai et al., 2010; Csanady et al., 2010; 13 Jih et al., 2012). Interestingly, our study found that the effects of pH_i, ATP and mutations on 14 intraburst gating (τ_0 and τ_{cf}) of CFTR were mismatched to their effects on interburst gating 15 such as τ_{cs} , IBI and MBD. These findings suggest the presence of a second gating 16 mechanism that controls CFTR intraburst gating. We propose that once CFTR enters the 17 open state during ATP-dependent gating cycles, the second gating mechanism intermittently 18 closes the channel pore thereby generating fast and short-lived intraburst closures. 19

Several lines of evidence support the presence of a second gating mechanism
governing the intraburst activity of CFTR. First, previous work demonstrates that disrupting
salt bridges in the MSDs alters the intraburst activity of CFTR (Cotten & Welsh, 1999).
Mutations on extracellular loop 1 in MSDs could destabilize the burst duration of CFTR
(Sheppard *et al.*, 1993; Cui *et al.*, 2014; Infield *et al.*, 2016). Second, studies of CFTR
homologues have identified differences in intraburst gating (Lansdell *et al.*, 1998; Scott-Ward

1 et al., 2007). Differences in the MSDs are likely responsible for the peculiar patterns of 2 intraburst gating between murine and human CFTR (Scott-Ward et al., 2007). Similarly, ovine CFTR exhibits differences in intraburst gating to human CFTR characterized by shorter 3 τ_{cf} , but longer τ_0 than human CFTR (Cai *et al.*, 2015). Finally, while studying the permeation 4 of [Au(CN)₂]⁻¹ through the channel pore of cysless-CFTR, a gate movement within a defined 5 6 section of the MSDs encompassing residues 338-341 in transmembrane segment 6 was discovered recently (Gao & Hwang, 2015). These data suggest that the gating mechanism 7 8 which controls the intraburst activity of CFTR varies among different species and is possibly associated with conformational changes in the MSDs. 9

10

11 pH_i sensitivity of CFTR intraburst gating

Interburst closures demonstrate a different sensitivity to pH_i changes than intraburst closures. 12 Our previous work suggest that ATP-binding site 2 determines the pH_i sensitivity of MBD 13 and IBI in CFTR gating (Chen et al., 2009). Because G1349D-CFTR may have modest ATP 14 function at site 2 (Cai et al., 2006; Bompadre et al., 2007), large alterations in its intraburst 15 16 activity and pH_i sensitivity are plausibly caused by ATP dysfunction at binding site 1. The site 1 mutations K464A and D572N, which prevented the τ_{cf} prolongation at pH_i 6.3 may also 17 18 have normal ATP function at site 2 (Vergani et al., 2003). Therefore, our data suggest that ATP-binding site 1 plays a major role in sensing acidic pH_i during CFTR intraburst gating. 19

Several studies demonstrate that ATP binding at site 1 regulates CFTR gating by acting like a ligand. At site 1, ATP has a higher binding affinity than site 2 (Howell et al., 2000), but exhibits a low turnover rate (i.e. over ten minutes) in biochemical studies (Aleksandrov *et al.*, 2002; Basso *et al.*, 2003) and shows reduced or no hydrolytic activity (Aleksandrov *et al.*, 2002; Lewis *et al.*, 2004; Kidd *et al.*, 2004). Conversely, patch-clamp studies indicate that ATP turnover at site 1 might be less than a minute or a few seconds (Tsai

1 et al., 2009; Tsai et al., 2010), suggesting that ATP stability at binding site 1 during active 2 CFTR gating cycles might be less than that in the biochemical studies (Aleksandrov et al., 2002; Basso et al., 2003). Consistent with this idea, Csanady et al. (2013) found that site 1 3 4 undergoes significant structural rearrangements during channel opening. Thus, CFTR intraburst gating might resemble that of the cyclic nucleotide-gated channels (Sunderman & 5 6 Zagotta, 1999), in which unstable binding of the ligand causes dynamic conformational rearrangements that generate the intermittent intraburst closures. Moreover, amino acid 7 residues such as H620, H667, C469 and C491 around the K464 and D572N residues at ATP-8 9 binding site 1 might be candidates for sensing pH_i changes. Future studies should explore their potential role in CFTR intraburst gating. 10

By contrast, whether CFTR intraburst gating requires normal ATP function at site 2 11 12 is uncertain. This query is raised because the G551D mutation greatly impairs the ATPdependence of channel gating at site 2 (Cai et al., 2006; Bompadre et al., 2007), but it only 13 showed mild effects on CFTR intraburst gating. Intriguingly, G551D-CFTR still responds to 14 15 gating potentiators, such as genistein and phloxine B (Illek et al., 1999; Cai et al., 2006), which enhance CFTR activity possibly by restoring NBD dimerization around site 2 (Cai et 16 al., 2006; Zegarra-Moran et al., 2007). Therefore, we speculate that in our recording 17 condition, sporadic ATP binding or NBD dimerization by an unknown ATP-independent 18 mechanism at site 2 might eventually transform G551D-CFTR into the bursting state, which 19 20 is required for initiating intraburst gating by a second gating mechanism. Similarly, mutations that greatly prolong the channel opening rate such as K1250M (Carson et al., 21 1995), G551D (Cai et al., 2006) and Δ F508 (Dalemans et al., 1991) only mildly or slightly 22 affected CFTR intraburst gating. 23

In conclusion, our study characterized the kinetic basis of intraburst gating in CFTR by changing different pH_i solutions. The data suggest that a separate gating mechanism

1 operating together with the ATP-driven NBD dimerization model (Vergani et al., 2005; 2 Hwang & Kirk, 2013) is required for CFTR intraburst gating. While highlighting the complexity of CFTR gating, this study leaves some unresolved aspects of intraburst gating to 3 future studies. For example, the mechanism that generates two short-lived closed states in 4 CFTR intraburst gating at room temperature (Ishihara & Welsh, 1997) remains unclear. 5 Nevertheless, this work emphasizes the importance of analysing intraburst activity to 6 understand fully the CFTR gating mechanism. We suggest that ATP-dependent channel 7 activity in CFTR represents cycles of transitions between the long closed state and bursting 8 state, whereas movement of a channel gate during the bursting state might be investigated by 9 studying intraburst gating. 10

1 APPENDIX A: ATP-dependence of the $C_1 \leftrightarrow O \leftrightarrow C_2$ kinetic scheme

2 Equation A1 (Eq. A1) describes ATP-dependent CFTR gating using the $C_1 \leftrightarrow O \leftrightarrow C_2$

3 kinetic scheme:

4
$$\operatorname{CFTR}(C_1) + \operatorname{MgATP} \xrightarrow{k_1}_{\overleftarrow{k_1}^{-1}} \operatorname{CFTR} \cdot \operatorname{MgATP}(O) \xrightarrow{k_2}_{\overleftarrow{k_2}^{-1}} \operatorname{CFTR} \cdot \operatorname{MgATP}(C_2)$$
 (A1)

where k₁, k₁⁻¹, k₂ and k₂⁻¹ are the rate constants and CFTR·MgATP represents CFTR with
bound MgATP. The rate constant k₁ describes the ATP-dependent opening rate of CFTR,
whereas the rate constant k₁⁻¹ indicates the closing rate of CFTR due to ATP hydrolysis or
release. The rate constants k₂ and k₂⁻¹ are used to describe the static transitions of CFTR
intraburst gating. Following Eq. A1, we can obtain P₀ from Eq. A2:

10
$$P_{o} = \frac{T_{O}}{T_{C_{1}} + T_{C_{2}} + T_{O}}$$
 (A2)

where the dwell times T_{C_1} , T_{C_2} and T_0 represent the time CFTR spends in the three kinetic states C_1 , C_2 and O, respectively. Assuming that the three kinetic states remain in equilibrium, the forward and reverse reaction rates between the two connected states are the same (Eq. A3):

 $k_1 \times (T_{C_1} \cdot [MgATP]) = k_1^{-1} \times T_0; \quad k_2 \times T_0 = k_2^{-1} \times T_{C_2}$ (A3)

16 Therefore, P_0 is derived using Eq. A2 and A3:

17
$$P_{o} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{k_{1}^{-1}}{k_{1} \cdot [MgATP]} + \frac{k_{2}}{k_{2}^{-1}}} = \frac{\frac{k_{2}^{-1}}{k_{2} + k_{2}^{-1}}[MgATP]}{[MgATP] + \frac{k_{1}^{-1} \cdot k_{2}^{-1}}{k_{1}(k_{2} + k_{2}^{-1})}}$$
(A4)

18 Consequently, as [MgATP] $\rightarrow \infty$, the maximum P_o (P_{omax}) = $\frac{k_2^{-1}}{k_2 + k_2^{-1}}$

19 (A5)

Although Eq. A4 describes the hyperbolic relationship between [MgATP] and the P₀
of CFTR similar to the Michaelis-Menten equation (see below Eq. A6 with a constant K),
P₀max will be close to the P₀ within a burst (P₀-burst, Table 2) ~ 0.9, which is higher than our
previous data ~ 0.72 at pHi 7.3 (Chen *et al.*, 2009). A similar result was also found for the C1
↔ C2 ↔ O kinetic scheme (data not shown).

6
$$P_{o} = \frac{P_{omax}[MgATP]}{[MgATP] + K}$$
 (Michaelis-Menten equation) (A6)

A possible reason for this discrepancy is that after ATP binding to CFTR, there might be an intermediate, rate limiting state prior to the ATP-dependent conformational changes that lead to channel opening (Haws *et al.*, 1992; Venglarik *et al.*, 1994), i.e. the conformational changes for NBD dimerization (Vergani *et al.*, 2005) and coupling of the NBDs and MSDs (Hwang & Kirk, 2013).

12 To model this ATP-dependent rate-limiting step, we added an additional gating state 13 C_1 ' with the rate constants k_0 and k_0^{-1} between the C_1 and O states (the $C_1 \leftrightarrow C_1' \leftrightarrow O \leftrightarrow C_2$ 14 kinetic scheme, Eq. A7).

15
$$\operatorname{CFTR}(C_1) + \operatorname{MgATP} \xrightarrow{k_0} \operatorname{CFTR} \cdot \operatorname{MgATP}(C_1') \xrightarrow{k_1} \operatorname{CFTR} \cdot \operatorname{MgATP}(O) \xrightarrow{k_2} \operatorname{CFTR} \cdot \operatorname{MgATP}(C_2)$$

16 (A7)

17 The P_o and P_{omax} for Eq. A7 can be derived from the following equations (Eqs. A8-A11) with 18 T_{C_1} representing the dwell time CFTR spends in the C₁' state:

19
$$P_{o} = \frac{T_{O}}{T_{C_{1}} + T_{C_{1}'} + T_{C_{2}} + T_{O}}$$
(A8)

20
$$k_0 \times (T_{C_1} \cdot [MgATP]) = k_0^{-1} \times T_{C_1'}; \quad k_1 \times T_{C_1'} = k_1^{-1} \times T_0; \quad k_2 \times T_0 = k_2^{-1} \times T_{C_2}$$
 (A9)

1

2

$$P_{o} = \frac{\frac{1}{(1 + \frac{k_{1}^{-1}}{k_{1}} + \frac{k_{2}}{k_{2}^{-1}})}[MgATP]}{[MgATP] + \frac{k_{0}^{-1} \cdot k_{1}^{-1} \cdot k_{2}^{-1}}{k_{0} \cdot (k_{1} \cdot k_{2}^{-1} + k_{1}^{-1} \cdot k_{2}^{-1} + k_{2} \cdot k_{1})}$$
(A10)

$$P_{\text{omax}} = \frac{1}{\left(1 + \frac{k_1^{-1}}{k_1} + \frac{k_2}{k_2^{-1}}\right)}$$
(A11)

Our calculations show that the relationship between P_0 and [MgATP] is well described by the Michaelis-Menten-like equation (Eq. A10) with P_{omax} (Eq. A11) containing the k₁ rate constant as the rate-limiting parameter. Moreover, Eq. A11 suggests that the P_{omax} of CFTR might be close to $P_{o-burst}$ only if the rate constant k_1^{-1} is close to zero causing a permanent bursting state, or if the rate constant k_1 becomes infinite eliminating the ratelimiting step (C₁' \rightarrow O). By a similar approach, we also derived the C₁ \leftrightarrow C₁' \leftrightarrow C₂ \leftrightarrow O kinetic scheme from the C₁ \leftrightarrow C₂ \leftrightarrow O kinetic scheme (data not shown).

Previous work (Venglarik et al., 1994) applying noise analysis to macroscopic current 10 recordings of wild-type CFTR demonstrated that the $C_1 \leftrightarrow C_1' \leftrightarrow O$ kinetic scheme, 11 excluding short-lived closures, well models the ATP-dependent channel activity of CFTR 12 using the Michaelis-Menten relationship. Their modeling results (Venglarik et al., 1994) also 13 suggest that when the $C_1' \leftrightarrow O$ transitions are rate limiting, a single population of the long 14 closures (Fig. 2B and D) was achieved in the $C_1 \leftrightarrow C_1' \leftrightarrow O$ kinetic scheme. Interestingly, 15 recent studies identified the presence of transient closed states in the journey from long 16 closures to channel openings (Scott-Ward et al., 2007; Sorum et al., 2015). These transient 17 closed states, if rate limiting, are consistent with the C₁' state supporting CFTR gating with 18 the Michaelis-Menten relationship. 19

20 Many studies have developed complex loop models with multiple substates within the 21 $C_1 \leftrightarrow O$ transition controlled by ATP binding and hydrolysis (Vergani *et al.*, 2005; Scott-

Ward *et al.*, 2007; Tsai *et al.*, 2009; Tsai *et al.*, 2010; Csanady *et al.*, 2010; Jih *et al.*, 2012;
Sorum *et al.*, 2015). The transition rates between the C₁ and O states in the C₁ ↔ O ↔ C₂
kinetic scheme should represent the overall transition rates through these multiple substates.
Thus, we did not further investigate more complex gating schemes in this study.

Finally, to verify our approach, we calculated P₀ from the C1 ↔ O ↔ C2 kinetic
scheme without MgATP (Eqs. A12-14).

7
$$\operatorname{CFTR}(C_1) \xrightarrow{k_1}_{\leftarrow k_1^{-1}} \operatorname{CFTR}(O) \xrightarrow{k_2}_{\leftarrow k_2^{-1}} \operatorname{CFTR}(C_2)$$
 (A12)

8
$$k_1 \times T_{C_1} = k_1^{-1} \times T_0; \quad k_2 \times T_0 = k_2^{-1} \times T_{C_2}$$
 (A13)

9
$$P_{o} = \frac{T_{O}}{T_{O} + T_{C_{1}} + T_{C_{2}}} = \frac{1}{1 + (\frac{k_{1}^{-1}}{k_{1}}) + (\frac{k_{2}}{k_{2}^{-1}})} = \frac{k_{1} \cdot k_{2}^{-1}}{(k_{1} + k_{1}^{-1})(k_{2} + k_{2}^{-1}) - k_{2} \cdot k_{1}^{-1}}$$
(A14)

10 Our calculations derive P₀ (Eq. A14) in a similar way to that reported previously

11 (Sakmann & Trube, 1984), validating our mathematical approach using chemical kinetics.

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1 COMPETING INTERESTS

2 None.

3

4 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

5 JH Chen conceived and designed experiments, acquired, analysed and interpreted most data 6 and wrote the article. W Xu acquired and analysed some data. DN Sheppard planned the 7 experiments, contributed to data interpretation and revised the manuscript. DN Sheppard, W 8 Xu and JH Chen all concur with the final submitted version of the manuscript and confirm 9 that all persons designated as authors qualify for authorship, and all those who qualify for 10 authorship are listed. Most data were acquired and analysed at the University of Bristol; 11 some data were acquired and analysed at the University of Hong Kong.

12

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Experiment	Po	MBD	IBI	N
pH _i 5.8	$0.37 \pm 0.01*$	361 ± 39*	534 ± 41*	6
pHi 6.3	$0.66 \pm 0.02*$	358 ± 37*	$107 \pm 10*$	6
pHi 7.3 (control)	0.44 ± 0.01	134 ± 4	154 ± 4	15
pH _i 8.3	$0.31 \pm 0.03*$	85 ± 7*	205 ± 18*	8
pHi 8.8	$0.40\pm0.01*$	$93 \pm 6*$	$144 \pm 10*$	6

1 **Table 1.** Burst analysis of wild-type CFTR gating at different pH_i.

2 Kinetic parameters: P₀, open probability; MBD, mean burst duration; IBI, interburst interval.

3 Data are means \pm S.E.M.; *, P < 0.05 vs. pH_i 7.3 (control), one-way ANOVA. The Table

4 includes data that were previously reported (Chen *et al.*, 2009).

$pH_{i}6.3$								
(N = 6)	D) Po		Po-burst		MBD (ms)		IBI (ms)	
$Model \ / \ pH_i$	7.3	6.3	7.3	6.3	7.3	6.3	7.3	6.3
pCLAMP	0.47±0.02	2 0.66±0.02*	0.95±0.01	0.87±0.02*	147±5	358±37*	153±9	107±10*
$C_1 \leftrightarrow O \leftrightarrow C_2$	0.47±0.02	2 0.68±0.02*	0.93±0.01	0.85±0.02*	132±4	315±30*	135±7	84±8*
$C_1 \leftrightarrow C_2 \leftrightarrow O$	0.47±0.02	2 0.69±0.02*	0.93±0.01	0.87±0.01*	137±5	326±21*	137±9	83±7*
pHi 5.8								
$pH_{i} 5.8$ (N = 6)		Po	Po	-burst	MB	D (ms)	IBI	(ms)
$pH_i 5.8$ (N = 6) Model / pH_i	7.3	Po 5.8	Po 7.3	-burst 5.8	MB	D (ms)	IBI 7.3	(ms) 5.8
$pH_i 5.8$ $(N = 6)$ Model / pH_i $pCLAMP$	7.3 0.41±0.02	Po 5.8 2 0.37±0.01*	Po 7.3 0.95±0.01	-burst 5.8 0.92±0.02*	MB 7.3 127±6	D (ms) 5.8 361±39*	IBI 7.3 169±11	(ms) 5.8 534±41*
pH _i 5.8 (N = 6) Model / pH _i pCLAMP C ₁ ↔O↔C ₂	7.3 0.41±0.02 0.43±0.02	Po 5.8 2 0.37±0.01* 1 0.37±0.02*	Po 7.3 0.95±0.01 0.92±0.01	-burst 5.8 0.92±0.02* 0.89±0.02*	MB 7.3 127±6 113±3	D (ms) 5.8 361±39* 299±19*	IBI 7.3 169±11 138±10	(ms) 5.8 534±41* 433±45*

Table 2. Comparison of kinetic parameters derived using pCLAMP and QuB software.

Po-burst, Po within a burst. Data are means \pm S.E.M. of N observations; *, P < 0.05 vs. pHi 7.3 (control), paired Student's t-test. Data from pCLAMP software were obtained by burst analysis and time constant measurements using the event lists from CFTR single-channel recordings (see Methods for details). Data from QuB software were derived using the rate constants in the C₁ \leftrightarrow C₂ \leftrightarrow O and C₁ \leftrightarrow O \leftrightarrow C₂ kinetic schemes (Fig. 4) with Equations 2 and 3 (see text for details). Only membrane patches that contained a single CFTR Cl⁻ channel were used for analysis. See Table 1 for other details.

pH _i 6.3							
(N = 6)	$\tau_{0} \text{ (ms)}$		$ au_{ m cf}$	(ms)	τ_{cs} (ms)		
$Model \ / \ pH_i$			7.3 6.3		7.3	6.3	
pCLAMP	48±3	38±5*	3.1±0.2	4.9±0.4*	136±11	84±8*	
$C_1 \leftrightarrow O \leftrightarrow C_2$	42±3	31±4*	3.2±0.2	4.7±0.5*	135±70	84±8*	
$C_1 \leftrightarrow C_2 \leftrightarrow O$	39±5	33±4	3.2±0.2	4.6±0.5*	137±90	83±7*	
pHi 5.8							
$pH_i 5.8$ (N = 6)	$ au_{ m o}$	(ms)	$ au_{ m cf}$	(ms)	τ _{cs}	(ms)	
$pH_i 5.8$ (N = 6) Model / pH_i	τ _o 7.3	(ms) 5.8	τ _{cf} 7.3	(ms) 5.8	τ _{cs} 7.3	(ms) 5.8	
$pH_i 5.8$ $(N = 6)$ Model / pH_i $pCLAMP$	τ _o 7.3 46±5	(ms) 5.8 50±7	τ _{cf} 7.3 3.2±0.2	(ms) 5.8 4.4±0.2*	τ _{cs} 7.3 154±14	(ms) 5.8 487±51*	
pHi 5.8 (N = 6) Model / pHi pCLAMP $C_1 \leftrightarrow O \leftrightarrow C_2$	τ ₀ 7.3 46±5 38±4	(ms) 5.8 50±7 39±5	τ _{cf} 7.3 3.2±0.2 3.2±0.1	(ms) 5.8 4.4±0.2* 4.4±0.2*	τ _{cs} 7.3 154±14 138±10	(ms) 5.8 487±51* 433±45*	

1	Table 3. Con	mparison of	time co	onstants	derived	using pC	CLAMP	and QuI	3 software.
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2 Data are means \pm S.E.M. of N observations; *, P < 0.05 vs. pH_i 7.3 (control), paired Student's t-

3 test. See Figure 2 and Table 2 for other details.

1 FIGURES AND LEGENDS

Figure 1. Altering pHi affects the intraburst activity of wild-type CFTR. A and B,
representative recordings show the single-channel activity of a wild-type CFTR channel at
pHi 8.3, 7.3 and 6.3 (A) or at pHi 8.8, 7.3 and 5.8 (B) in the presence of ATP (0.3 mM) and
PKA (75 nM). Dotted lines indicate where the channel was closed and downward deflections
correspond to channel openings. The recordings in (A) and (B) are from separate wild-type
CFTR Cl⁻ channels in different excised inside-out membrane patches.

8

Figure 2. Multiple effects of pH_i on wild-type CFTR channel gating. A-B, open- (A) and 9 closed-time (B) histograms of a wild-type CFTR channel at pHi 6.3, 7.3 and 8.3. Vertical 10 lines show the open-time constant τ_0 , fast closed-time constant τ_{cf} , and slow closed-time 11 constant τ_{cs} . The continuous coloured lines are the fits of one- or two-component exponential 12 13 functions to the data. The dotted black lines in the closed-time histograms show the individual components of the functions. Logarithmic x-axes with 10 bins per decade were 14 used for the dwell-time histograms. C-D, open- (C) and closed-time (D) histograms from a 15 different wild-type CFTR channel tested at pH_i 5.8, 7.3 and 8.8; other details as for (A) and 16 (B). E-G, effects of acidic (yellow) and alkaline (green) pH_i on τ_0 , τ_{cf} and τ_{cs} . Data are 17 means \pm S.E.M. Numbers in parentheses indicate N for panels E-G; *, P < 0.05 vs. pH_i 7.3 18 (control), one-way ANOVA. Error bars are smaller than symbol size except where shown. 19

20

Figure 3. Biological buffers are without effect on CFTR intraburst gating. A-C, effects on MBD, τ_0 and τ_{cf} of pH_i solutions containing 3-fold concentration increases in Trizma or Bis-Tris buffers. Circles joined by lines show values from individual experiments and columns are means + S.E.M. Data are from membrane patches that contained one or two active CFTR Cl⁻ channels. **D-G**, effects on MBD, τ_0 , τ_{cf} and τ_{cs} of different buffer solutions. Circles show

values from individual experiments and columns are means + S.E.M. For Trizma/Bis-Tris
and TES groups, membrane patches that contained only one active CFTR Cl⁻ channel were
used for analysis. Numbers in parentheses indicate N for panels A-C and D-G. Statistical
differences between groups were analyzed by paired Student's t-test (A-C) and one-way
ANOVA (D-G).

Figure 4. Kinetic modeling of CFTR gating using linear three-state schemes. A and F, the 6 $C_1 \leftrightarrow O \leftrightarrow C_2$ and the $C_1 \leftrightarrow C_2 \leftrightarrow O$ kinetic schemes. States, C_1 , C_2 and O represent two 7 closed states and one open state, respectively, while β_1 , β_2 , α_1 and α_2 represent the rate 8 9 constants describing transitions between the different states. States enclosed within the dashed box represent the bursting state. **B-E**, rate constants at acidic (yellow) and alkaline 10 (green) pH_i values for the $C_1 \leftrightarrow O \leftrightarrow C_2$ kinetic scheme. **G-J**, rate constants at acidic 11 (yellow) and alkaline (green) pH_i values for the $C_1 \leftrightarrow C_2 \leftrightarrow O$ kinetic scheme. Data are 12 means \pm S.E.M. Numbers in parentheses indicate N for panels B-E and G-J; *, P < 0.05 vs. 13 pHi 7.3 (control), one-way ANOVA. Error bars are smaller than symbol size except where 14 shown. 15

16

Effects of pH_i 6.3 on ATP-dependence of CFTR gating. A, representative 17 Figure 5. recordings show the effects of pHi 6.3 on the single-channel activity of wild-type CFTR at 18 0.03 and 1 mM ATP. Dotted lines indicate the closed state and downward deflections 19 correspond to channel openings. For representative recordings at 0.3 mM ATP, please see 20 Figure 1A. **B-I**, effects of pH_i 6.3 on MBD, the time constants τ_0 , τ_{cf} and τ_{cs} and the rate 21 constants β_1 , β_2 , α_1 and α_2 for the $C_1 \leftrightarrow O \leftrightarrow C_2$ kinetic scheme at the indicated ATP 22 concentrations. Data are means \pm S.E.M. Numbers in parentheses indicate N for panels B-I; 23 *. P < 0.05 vs. pH_i 7.3 (control), paired Student's t-test; #, P < 0.05 between the indicated 24

groups of data, one-way ANOVA. Error bars are smaller than symbol size except whereshown.

3

Figure 6. Role of the R domain in CFTR intraburst gating. A, representative recordings show the single-channel activity of wild-type and ΔRS660A-CFTR in the presence of 0.3 mM ATP at pH_i 7.3 and pH_i 6.3. B and C, the time constants τ_o (B) and τ_{cf} (C) at indicated pH_i values. Data are means + S.E.M. Numbers in parentheses indicate N for panels B and C; *, *P* < 0.05 vs. pH_i 7.3 (control), paired Student's t-test; *#*, *P* < 0.05 between the indicated groups of data, one-way ANOVA.

10

Figure 7. Regulation of CFTR intraburst gating by ATP-binding sites. **A**, representative recordings show the single-channel activity of the indicated CFTR mutants in the presence of 1 mM ATP at pH_i 7.3 and pH_i 6.3. **B and C**, the time constants τ_0 (B) and τ_{cf} (C) of different CFTR mutants at the indicated pH_i values. Data are means + S.E.M. Numbers in parentheses indicate N for panels B and C; *, P < 0.05 vs. pH_i 7.3 (control), paired Student's t-test; \ddagger , P < 0.05 between the indicated groups of data, one-way ANOVA.

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Figure 8. Intraburst gating of the CF mutants G551D-, G1349D- and Δ F508-CFTR. **A**, representative single-channel recordings of the indicated CF mutants in the presence of 1 mM ATP. Left traces show 10-s recordings; right the 1-s portions indicated by grey bars are shown on an expanded time scale. Note that the number of active channels in the G551Dand G1349D-CFTR traces is unknown. For representative control recordings of wild-type CFTR at pH_i 7.3 and 6.3, please see Figure 7A. **B-E**, MBD, τ_0 , τ_{cf} and the MBD/ τ_0 ratio of CF mutants at pH_i 7.3 and pH_i 6.3. Data are means + S.E.M. Numbers in parentheses

- 1 indicate N for panels B-E; *, P < 0.05 vs. pHi 7.3 (control), paired Student's t-test; \ddagger , P <
- 2 0.05 between the indicated groups of data, one-way ANOVA.





























0

WT

∆RS660A

0

WT

∆RS660A



0

WT

K1250M K464A D572N

0

WT

K1250M K464A D572N

