

Potassium channels and human epileptic phenotypes: an updated overview

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1 **Potassium channels and human epileptic phenotypes: an updated**
2 **overview**

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48 **ABSTRACT**

49 Potassium (K⁺) channels are expressed in almost every cells and are ubiquitous in neuronal and
50 glial cell membranes. These channels have been implicated in different disorders, in particular in
51 epilepsy. K⁺ channel diversity depends on the presence in the human genome of a large number of
52 genes either encoding pore-forming or accessory subunits. More than 80 genes encoding the K⁺
53 channels were cloned and they represent the largest group of ion channels regulating the electrical
54 activity of cells in different tissues, including the brain. It is therefore not surprising that mutations
55 in these genes lead to K⁺ channels dysfunctions linked to inherited epilepsy in humans and non-
56 human model animals.

57 This article reviews genetic and molecular progresses in exploring the pathogenesis of different
58 human epilepsies, with special emphasis on the role of K⁺ channels in monogenic forms.

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63 **Keywords:** K⁺ channels, epilepsy, mutation, KCNT1, Kir channels, Kv channels

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97 **INTRODUCTION**

98 Epilepsy is one of the most common neurological disorders characterized by abnormal electrical
99 activity in the central nervous system (CNS) and recurrent seizures represent a cardinal clinical
100 manifestation. The phenotypic expression of each seizure is determined by the original point of the
101 hyperexcitability and its degree of spread in the brain (Steinlein, 2004). Several brain defects due to
102 membrane instability could cause epilepsy.

103 In the last two decades, gene defects underlying different forms of epilepsy have been identified and
104 most of these genes code for ion channels, which thus appear as important players in the
105 etiopathogenesis of idiopathic epilepsy. Indeed, several epileptic phenotypes have been associated
106 to dysfunctions of potassium (K^+) channels (Brenner and Wilcox, 2012). It has been recently
107 proposed to name such epilepsies as “ K^+ channelepsies” (D’Adamo et al., 2013). These channels
108 play a major role in neuronal excitability and their importance is related to the level of their
109 expression in subcellular domain, individual cell, or circuit (Cooper, 2012). K^+ channels are also
110 involved in setting the inward-negative resting membrane potential. Based on their structures,
111 biophysical characteristics, pharmacological sensitivities and physiology, these channels are
112 classified as voltage-gated (Kv), inwardly rectifying (Kir), sodium (Na)-activated channels or Ca^{2+} -
113 activated channels (Table 1) (González et al., 2012).

114 Herein we report an updated discussion on the role of mutations in K^+ channels (Table 2) in the
115 pathogenesis of human epilepsy.

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117

118 **VOLTAGE-GATED K^+ CHANNELS (Kv)**

119 The Kv channels are widely expressed both in the central and in peripheral nervous system where
120 they are involved in several processes (e.g., the regulation of the duration of action potentials, the
121 modulation of the neurotransmitter release, the control of the electrical properties and the firing of
122 neurons). Kv channels generally regulate outward K^+ currents that contribute to membrane
123 repolarization and hyperpolarization, thus limiting the neuronal excitability. Moreover, they
124 actively participate in cellular and molecular signaling pathways that regulate the life and death of
125 neurons, such as apoptosis, channel phosphorylation or cell proliferation (Shah and Aizenman,
126 2014). In particular, neuronal cell apoptosis is correlated to an increased expression of Kv channels
127 at the plasma membrane, thus facilitating more K^+ efflux and a loss of cytosolic K^+ . This drop in the
128 intracellular K^+ concentration activates pro-apoptotic enzymes, such as nuclease or caspase that can
129 trigger downstream apoptotic signals culminating in DNA fragmentation or degradation (Leung et
130 al., 2010).

131 In human genome, forty different genes encoding for Kv channels were reported and subdivided
132 into twelve sub-families (Kv1 through Kv12) (Gutman et al., 2005). Mammalian Kv channels are
133 tetramers, composed of α -subunits that line an ion pore. Each α -subunit shows six α -helical
134 transmembrane domains (S1–S6), a membrane-reentering P loop between S5 and S6, and cytosolic
135 N- and C-termini. The S5-P-S6 segments constitute the ion conduction pore, while the S1–S4
136 sequences are critical for the voltage-sensing and gating of the channel (Brenner and Wilcox, 2012).
137 Furthermore, α -subunits can bind to regulatory β subunits (Kv β 1, Kv β 2 and Kv β 3) as well as to
138 other Kv channel-interacting proteins. This variability in the channel interactions results in strong
139 modifications of the channel properties (McKeown et al., 2008).

140 The following Kv subfamilies have been associated with either epilepsy or other disorders showing
141 seizures.

142

143 **Kv1**

144 The Kv1 subfamily plays an essential role in the initiation and shaping of action potentials. These
145 channels are expressed at the soma, axons, synaptic terminals, and proximal dendrites. The most
146 abundant Kv1 α -subunits are Kv1.1, Kv1.2, and Kv1.4. These subunits are differentially expressed

147 and their composition is dependent upon the brain region, cell type and subcellular localization
148 (Robbins and Tempel, 2012).

149 Heterozygous mutations in the *KCNA1* gene, encoding the Kv1.1 α subunit, were associated with
150 episodic ataxia type 1 (EA1), a dominantly inherited disorder characterized by generalized ataxia
151 attacks and spontaneous muscle quivering (Browne et al., 1994). Interestingly, a subset of patients
152 with familial EA1 shows epileptic seizures, suggesting that Kv1.1 dysfunctions may play a role in
153 the pathophysiology of epilepsy (Spauschus et al., 1999; Zuberi et al., 1999; Eunson et al., 2000).
154 Loss-of function mutations reported in the *KCNA1* gene of EA1 patients cause reduced current
155 amplitude thus contributing to seizures susceptibility (Adelman et al., 1995; Browne et al., 1994;
156 D'Adamo et al., 1999; Imbrici et al., 2006).

157 In support of the hypothesis of an epileptogenic role of *KCNA1* mutations, several knock-out mouse
158 models for this gene developed an epileptic phenotype (Smart et al., 1998; Rho et al., 1999).
159 Biochemical and biophysical studies demonstrated a colocalization of Kv1.1 and Kv1.2 subunits in
160 several subcellular brain regions and that they could form heteromeric channels, which are reported
161 as profoundly altered by EA1 mutations (D'Adamo et al., 1999).

162 Notably, a Kv1.2 knock-out mouse model displayed increased seizure susceptibility (Brew et al.,
163 2007). In this regard, Syrbe and collaborators recently identified *de novo* loss or gain-of-function
164 mutations in *KCNA2* gene (Table 2), encoding the Kv1.2 channel, in patients showing mild to
165 severe epileptic encephalopathy (Syrbe et al., 2015). A role of Kv1.2 was also suggested by another
166 case report describing a *de novo* mutation, leading to the p.Arg297Gln amino acid substitution in a
167 patient affected by ataxia and myoclonic epilepsy (Pena and Coimbra, 2015).

168

169 **Kv4**

170 The Kv4 channels are highly expressed in the brain and mediate the main dendritic A-currents
171 which critically regulate action potential back-propagation and the induction of specific forms of
172 synaptic plasticity. In particular, the Kv4.2 subunit is a key component of the A-type potassium
173 current in the CNS (I_A) (Birnbaum et al., 2004).

174 In 2006, Singh and collaborators described a truncation mutation (p.Asn587fsX1) in the Kv4.2
175 channel encoded by the *KCND2* gene, in a patient affected by temporal lobe epilepsy (TLE). This
176 mutation causes a frame-shift, leading to a premature termination codon and consequently to a
177 Kv4.2 channel haploinsufficiency (Singh et al., 2006). Recently, a whole exome sequencing study
178 identified a *de novo* gain-of-function mutation (p.Val404Met) in *KCND2*. The mutation was found
179 in monozygotic twins affected by autism and severe intractable seizures and occurred at a highly
180 conserved residue within the C-terminus of the S6 transmembrane region of the ion pore. A
181 functional analysis of mutated channels revealed a significantly slowed channel inactivation (Lee et
182 al., 2014).

183 Very recently, an involvement of Kv4.3 subunits in epilepsy was also suggested by the
184 identification of a *de novo* mutation (p.Arg293_Phe295dup) in the relevant *KCND3* gene causing a
185 severe channel dysfunction in a patient with complex early onset cerebellar ataxia, intellectual
186 disability, oral apraxia and epilepsy. This mutation results in the duplication of a RVF (Arginine-
187 Valine-Phenylalanine) motif in the S4 segment and leads to a more positively charged voltage-
188 sensor domain, altering the voltage-dependent gating properties of the channel. In details, the
189 p.Arg293_Phe295dup mutation induced a strong depolarizing shift in the voltage dependence of
190 both the activation (about +59.3 mV) and inactivation (+62 mV) of the channel (Smets et al.,
191 2015).

192

193 **Kv7**

194 KCNQ (Kv7) channels are low-threshold activated voltage-gated potassium channels. Among the
195 five known isoforms, KCNQ2–5 are expressed throughout the nervous system, whereas KCNQ1 is
196 mostly expressed in cardiac tissue. The *KCNQ2* gene is the most commonly reported as mutated in

197 epilepsy. Its mutations cause neonatal epilepsies with wide phenotypic heterogeneity, ranging from
198 benign familial neonatal seizures (BFNS) with normal cognition and unremarkable neuroimaging to
199 early onset epileptic encephalopathies (EOEEs) with mental retardation, suppression-burst
200 electroencephalography (EEG) and distinct neuroradiologic features (Singh et al., 1998;
201 Weckhuysen et al., 2012; Soldovieri et al., 2014). More than 80 different mutations in *KCNQ2*,
202 consisting of missense, non-sense, truncations, splice site defects and frame-shift mutations, as well
203 as sub-microscopic deletions or duplications, were described and most of them are found in the pore
204 region and the large intracellular C-terminal domain (Lee et al., 2009). Functional studies suggested
205 a strict phenotype/genotype correlation between disease severity and functional properties of mutant
206 channels (Miceli et al., 2013). *KCNQ2* is a primary player that mediates neuronal muscarinic (M)
207 currents: the opening of this channel or of heterogeneous *KCNQ2/KCNQ3* complexes inhibits
208 initiation of action potential and thus suppresses neuronal excitability (Brown and Passmore, 2009).
209 Mutations in *KCNQ3* gene have been described in families affected with benign epilepsy with
210 variable age of onset and good outcome (Zara et al., 2013; Griton et al., 2015) or in a patient with
211 benign childhood epilepsy with centrotemporal spikes (BECTS) (Fusco et al., 2015). However, two
212 recent reports suggested that mutations in *KCNQ3*, similarly to *KCNQ2*, can be also found in
213 patients with more severe phenotypes, including intellectual disability. In particular, they described
214 *KCNQ3* mutations in patients with early-onset epilepsy and neurocognitive deficits (Soldovieri et
215 al., 2014; Miceli et al., 2015; Table 2).
216 Mutations in the *KCNQ1* gene were associated with a particular form of long QT syndrome, the
217 LQT1 (Wang et al., 1996). Interestingly, some authors observed that epilepsy occurred in mouse
218 lines bearing dominant human LQT1 mutations in this channel, which caused syncope and sudden
219 death (Goldman et al., 2009). Moreover, genetic variants in the *KCNQ1* gene were reported in three
220 cases of sudden unexpected death in epilepsy (SUDEP), a catastrophic complication of human
221 idiopathic epilepsy with unknown causes. However, the relationship of these variants to the disease
222 remains to be elucidated (Yang et al., 2009; Partemi et al., 2015). The evidence that *KCNQ1* genetic
223 variations may confer susceptibility for recurrent seizure activity increasing the risk of sudden death
224 is further supported by the description of a pathogenic *KCNQ1* variant (p.Leu273Phe) in a family
225 featuring LQTS and epilepsy (Tiron et al., 2015).
226

227 **Kv8**

228 The *KCNV2* gene encodes the voltage-gated K⁺ channel Kv8.2. This subunit is
229 electrophysiologically silent when assembled in homotetramer. Otherwise, it significantly reduces
230 the surface expression of the resulting channels and influences their biophysical properties when
231 involved in the formation of functional heterotetramers with Kv2 subunits (Czirják et al., 2007).
232 Kv2.1 and Kv8.2 show significant regional overlap: within the hippocampus, transcripts for both
233 *KCNV2* and *KCNB1*, which encodes Kv2.1, are detected in excitatory neurons of the pyramidal cell
234 layers and the dentate gyrus. Similarly, both of them are abundantly expressed in the cortex
235 (Maletic-Savatic et al., 1995). Their regional colocalization is consistent with an effect of Kv8.2
236 variants on Kv2.1 channels within cells critically important for seizure generation and propagation.
237 A support of the involvement of *KCNV2* in seizure pathogenesis was provided by the identification
238 of non-synonymous variants in two unrelated children showing epilepsy: p.Arg7Lys and
239 p.Met285Arg. In particular, the p.Arg7Lys was found in a patient affected by febrile and afebrile
240 partial seizures, whereas the p.Met285Arg was reported in a case of epileptic encephalopathy and
241 severe refractory epilepsy. The functional characterization of these variants demonstrated that they
242 both enhanced Kv8.2-mediated suppression of Kv2.1 currents, suggesting a role in decreasing
243 delayed rectifier K⁺ current in neurons, therefore increasing cells excitability. Moreover, the
244 p.Met285Arg caused a shift in the voltage-dependence of activation as well as slower activation
245 kinetics, in accordance with the more severe clinical phenotype of the patient (Jorge et al., 2011).
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248 **Kv11-HERG**

249 The human ether-a-go-go-related gene (*hERG*, also known as *KCNH2*) encodes the pore-forming
250 subunit of the rapid component of the delayed rectifier K⁺ channels, Kv11.1, which are expressed in
251 several tissues, mostly in brain and heart. In the brain, Kv11.1 channels regulate neuronal firing and
252 modulate the excitability of GABAergic and dopaminergic neurons. The same channel exerts a
253 different function in the heart being involved in the regulation of membrane potentials in the
254 ventricles (Vandenberg et al., 2012).

255 Mutations in the *KCNH2* gene were reported to cause type 2 long QT syndrome (LQT2), a rare
256 inherited ion channel disorder characterized by prolonged QT interval and predisposing patients to
257 ventricular arrhythmias that can lead to syncope and sudden cardiac death (SCD). LQT2 syndrome
258 is frequently misdiagnosed as epilepsy due to seizures that are triggered by cerebral hypoperfusion
259 during a ventricular arrhythmia, therefore suggesting a possible link between epilepsy and cardiac
260 arrhythmias, as described by several clinical reports (Johnson et al., 2009; Keller et al., 2009;
261 Omichi et al., 2010; Tu et al., 2011; Zamorano-León et al., 2012; Partemi et al., 2013). In particular,
262 a seizure phenotype was reported in about 30% of unrelated LQTS patients carrying pathogenic
263 variants in the *KCNH2* gene, suggesting that mutations in the Kv11.1 channel associated with
264 LQTS may also predispose to seizure activity (Johnson et al., 2009). Moreover, a post-mortem
265 study identified nearly 13% of LQTS pathogenic variants in the *KCNH2* and *SCN5A* genes in
266 epileptic samples. In particular, regarding *KCNH2*, two non-synonymous mutations have been
267 identified: p.Arg176Trp and p.Arg1047Leu (Tu et al., 2011). Another study on three families
268 showing a history of seizures and LQTS2 lead to the identification of three novel *KCNH2*
269 mutations: p.Tyr493Phe, Ala429Pro and Thr74ArgfsTer32 (also named p.del234-241). *In vitro*
270 functional analyses of all these variants showed a loss of hERG potassium channel function with a
271 reduction of the current, suggesting a dominant negative effect (Keller et al., 2009). Omichi and
272 collaborators reported a case of a man with long history of epilepsy and referred for cardiologic
273 evaluation, showing the p.Arg534Cys mutation (Omichi et al., 2010). In addition, other authors
274 identified a nonsense mutation (p.Arg863X) leading to a 296-amino acid deletion (Zamorano-León
275 et al., 2012) while a loss-of-function mutation (p.Ile82Thr) was reported in a pedigree featuring
276 LQTS, idiopathic epilepsy and increased risk of sudden death (Partemi et al., 2013).

278 **AUXILIARY SUBUNITS OF Kv CHANNELS**

279 Kv channel functional diversity is enhanced by coassembly with a wide array of auxiliary subunits,
280 which cannot form functional channels alone but which can greatly impact channel function upon
281 coassembly with α subunits to form hetero-oligomeric complexes (Trimmer, 1998). Defects in these
282 subunits may affect Kv channel function and network excitability, resulting thus in an increase of
283 seizure susceptibility. Several subunits have been identified, including β -subunit (Kv β), leucine-rich
284 glioma-inactivated-1 (KVLGII) and K⁺ channel-interacting protein (KvKCHIP).

286 **Kv β**

287 Kv β subunits are cytoplasmatic proteins critical for the correct membrane localization and normal
288 biophysical properties of voltage-gated K⁺ channels. Variations in the expression of different Kv β
289 genes and their isoforms could significantly impact K⁺ channel function, especially with respect to
290 inactivation kinetics. In the mammalian genome three genes encode Kv β subunits: Kv β 1, Kv β 2 and
291 Kv β 3 (Pongs and Schwarz, 2010). Interestingly, Kv β 2 knockout mouse models were characterized
292 by cold-swim induced tremors and occasional seizures, suggesting thus a role of this subunit in the
293 regulation of neuronal excitability (McCormack et al., 2002). An association between the severity
294 of seizures and the loss-of-function of the *KCNAB2* gene that encodes the β 2 subunit was reported
295 (Heilstedt et al., 2001). In particular, the hemizygous deletion of *KCNAB2* identified in this
296 manuscript in epileptic patients suggested that haploinsufficiency of this gene may represent a
297 significant risk factor for epilepsy: the lack of the β subunit would reduce K⁺ channel-mediate
298 membrane repolarization and increase neuronal excitability (Heilstedt et al., 2001).

299 **KvLGI1**

300 The leucine-rich glioma-inactivated-1 (LGI1) is the best characterized LGI family protein, highly
301 expressed in neurons, which encodes a secreted protein containing two domains (a leucine-rich
302 repeat domain (LRR) and a β -propeller domain called EPTP) that mediate protein-protein
303 interactions. LGI1 binds to the presynaptic voltage-gated potassium channel Kv1.1 and prevents Kv
304 channel inactivation mediated by the β subunit of the channel (Schulte et al., 2006). The *LGI* gene
305 was found to be mutated in approximately 50% of ADLTE (autosomal dominant lateral temporal lobe
306 epilepsy) families: more than 30 disease-causing mutations in *LGI1* gene have been associated so
307 far with this focal epilepsy that is characterized by good response to antiepileptic drugs and with a
308 juvenile onset (Kalachikov et al., 2002; Morante-Redolat et al., 2002; Dazzo et al., 2015). In
309 particular, almost all mutations are missense, splice-site or short indels (Ho et al., 2012; Nobile et
310 al., 2009) while only a single microdeletion has been reported (Fanciulli et al., 2012). Certain LGI1
311 mutants (typically non-secreted mutants) fail to prevent channel inactivation resulting in more
312 rapidly closing channels, which extends presynaptic depolarization and leads to increased calcium
313 (Ca^{2+}) influx. Consequently, release of neurotransmitter is increased excessively and may induce
314 focal seizures (Nobile et al., 2009). Moreover, it was demonstrated that the loss of *LGI1* gene in
315 mice induced lethal epilepsy, suggesting its essential role as an antiepileptogenic ligand. LGI1 may
316 serve as a major determinant of brain excitation and the LGI1 gene-targeted mouse could provide a
317 good model for human epilepsy (Fukata et al., 2010).

318

319 **KvKChIP**

320 The K^+ channel-interacting proteins (KChIPs 1–4) compose a subfamily of neuronal Ca^{2+} sensor
321 proteins that modulate trafficking, targeting to the plasma membrane, as well as turnover and
322 endocytosis of Kv4 channels (An et al., 2000). Among KChIPs, KChIP2 is abundantly expressed in
323 hippocampal pyramidal cells and represents the major target of Kv4 α subunits to form a complex
324 essential for I_A regulation in hippocampal neurons (Rhodes et al., 2004). This current has been
325 found to be reduced in the presence of a deletion in the *KChIP2* gene by Wang and collaborators.
326 The authors thus suggested that it may increase susceptibility to seizures (Wang et al., 2013).
327 Moreover, they also hypothesized a role of *KChIP2* in SUDEP risk (Wang et al., 2013), since
328 *KChIP2* knockout mice were previously shown to be highly susceptible to induced arrhythmias
329 (Kuo et al., 2001). In conclusion, these data suggested that loss-of-function mutations in modulatory
330 subunits could increase the susceptibility to seizures and cardiac arrhythmias, thereby providing a
331 unified mechanism for a neurocardiac syndrome such as SUDEP.

332

333

334 **INWARDLY RECTIFYING POTASSIUM CHANNELS**

335 Inwardly rectifying K^+ (Kir) channels are widely expressed in several excitable and non-excitable
336 tissues playing a key role in the maintenance of the resting membrane potential and consequently in
337 the regulation of cell excitability. Approximately 15 Kir clones forming either homotetramers or
338 heterotetramers were identified and grouped in 7 different families based on sequence similarity and
339 functional properties: Kir1-Kir7 (Hibino et al., 2010). Generally, Kir channels showed the greater
340 conductance at negative potentials in respect to the equilibrium potential for K^+ (E_K), while an
341 inhibition of the outward flow of K^+ ions caused by both Mg^{2+} and polyamines was reported at
342 more positive values (Lopatin et al., 1994). Several Kir channels have been associated with epileptic
343 phenotypes and, in particular, Kir2.1, Kir3, Kir4 and Kir6.

344

345 **Kir2.1**

346 The Kir2.1 channel is encoded by the *KCNJ2* gene whose expression is reported in several brain
347 areas (Karschin et al., 1996) as well as in astrocytes where they control astrocyte-mediated K^+
348 buffering in combination with Kir4.1 (Jabs et al., 2008; Chever et al., 2010).

349 Several mutations impairing the channel functionality were reported in the *KCNJ2* of Andersen-
350 Tawil syndrome (ATS) patients (Haruna et al., 2007; Chan et al., 2010; Guglielmi et al., 2015; see
351 Table 2 for mutation details). On the other hand, Kir2.1 gain-of-function mutations cause the type-3
352 variant of the short QT syndrome (SQT3s) which results in QT shortening and increased risk of
353 sudden cardiac death (Priori et al., 2005). Recently, some authors detected a novel mutation
354 (p.Lys346Thr) in the *KCNJ2* in monozygotic twins displaying SQT3s and autism-epilepsy
355 phenotype, suggesting the existence of a Kir2.1 role in neuropsychiatric disorders and epilepsy.
356 Functional studies revealed that this mutation causes an increase of the channel's surface expression
357 and stability at the plasma membrane, a reduction in protein degradation and an altered protein
358 compartmentalization (Ambrosini et al., 2014).

359

360 **Kir3-GIRK**

361 The G-protein-coupled Kir (GIRK) channels belong to the subfamily of Kir3 that are important
362 regulators of electrical excitability in both cardiomyocytes and neurons (Slesinger et al., 1995).
363 Different types of neurotransmitters, such as acetylcholine, dopamine, opioids, serotonin,
364 somatostatin, adenosine and GABA, activate these channels by stimulating their G-protein coupled
365 receptors (GPCRs). This results in a final membrane hyperpolarization and inhibition of cell
366 excitability due to the activation of an outward flux of K⁺ ions (Krapivinsky et al., 1995; Slesinger
367 et al., 1995). Mammals express four GIRK channel subunits (GIRK1-4, also named Kir3.1-3.4),
368 encoded by *KCNJ3*, *KCNJ6*, *KCNJ9* and *KCNJ5*, respectively. These four subunits can form homo
369 or heterotetramers with unique biophysical properties, regulation and distribution (Lüscher and
370 Slesinger, 2010).

371 Alterations in GIRK channel function have been associated with pathophysiology of severe brain
372 disorders, including epilepsy. In this regard, a GIRK2 knockout mouse model resulted to be more
373 susceptible to develop both spontaneous or induced seizures in respect to wild type mice (Signorini
374 et al., 1997). In particular, mice carrying a p.Gly156Ser mutation displayed an epileptic phenotype
375 (Patil et al., 1995). Indeed, this mutation has been found to alter the putative ion-permeable, pore-
376 forming domain of the channel, inducing Ca²⁺ overload in cells and reducing channel availability,
377 leading thus to neurodegeneration and seizures susceptibility (Slesinger et al., 1996).

378 An increased expression of GIRK channels was observed in rat brain after an electroconvulsive
379 shock, probably altering the excitability of granule cells and the functions of neurotransmitter
380 receptors which are coupled to these channels (Pei et al., 1999). Another evidence in support of a
381 role of GIRK channels in epilepsy was provided by the demonstration that ML297, a potent and
382 selective activator of GIRK channels, showed epileptogenic properties in mice (Kaufmann et al.,
383 2013). On the other hand, the inhibition of GIRK channel activity by drugs causes seizures
384 (Mazarati et al., 2006). All these considerations imply that changes in Kir3 channel activity may
385 alter the susceptibility to seizures.

386

387 **Kir4**

388 Among Kir4 channels, the Kir4.1, encoded by the *KCNJ10* gene, is the only one that has been
389 associated to epilepsy. This subunit can assemble itself in homomeric channels or it can constitute
390 heterotetramers in combination with Kir5.1 (*KCNJ16*) (Pessia et al., 2001). Kir4.1 expression has
391 been detected primarily in the thalamus, cortex, brainstem and hippocampus (Higashi et al., 2001).
392 Kir4.1 channels play a key role in maintaining resting membrane potential by transporting K⁺ from
393 the extracellular space into glial cells in the CNS (Nishida and MacKinnor, 2002).

394 Alterations of Kir4.1 channels have been linked to seizure susceptibility in both mice (Ferraro et al.,
395 2004) and humans (Buono et al., 2004). Conditional Kir4.1 knockout mice in astrocytes have been
396 found to display premature lethality and severe seizures prior to death (Djukic et al., 2007),
397 supporting the idea of a pathophysiological relationship of the Kir4.1 impairment with epilepsy.
398 Concerning human Kir4.1, a linkage study identified a missense variation (p.Arg271Cys) as

399 associated with epileptic phenotypes (Buono et al., 2004). However, the variant did not result to
400 have functional effects *in vitro* (Shang et al., 2005). Mutations in this gene were also reported in
401 EAST syndrome (also named SeSAME) patients, a rare condition showing epileptic seizures among
402 other signs (Bockenbauer et al., 2009; Scholl et al., 2009; Freudenthal et al., 2011; see Table 2 for
403 mutation details).

404 Single nucleotide variations in Kir4.1 were detected in the DNA of TLE patients presenting with
405 hippocampal sclerosis and antecedent febrile seizures, supporting the importance of *KCNJ10* as a
406 candidate gene for seizures susceptibility (Heuser et al., 2010).

407 Interestingly, several authors reported a strong association between epilepsy and autism spectrum
408 disorders (ASDs) and an “autism-epilepsy phenotype” has been proposed (Tuchman et al., 2005,
409 Lee et al., 2015). Indeed, a mutational screening of *KCNJ10* in 52 children affected by cryptogenic
410 epilepsy identified two heterozygous mutations (p.Arg18Gln and p.Val84Met) in three children of
411 two unrelated families displaying seizures, ASDs and intellectual disability. The functional
412 consequences of these mutations appeared to be a gain-of-function mechanism. These findings
413 suggest that an abnormal K⁺ homeostasis in the brain may increase the susceptibility to this
414 “autism-epilepsy phenotype” (Sicca et al., 2011). A common mechanism between autism and
415 epilepsy could be the impairment of astrocytic-dependent K⁺ buffering, altering neuronal
416 excitability and synaptic function.

417

418 **Kir6-K_{ATP}**

419 The adenosine triphosphate (ATP)-sensitive K⁺ (K_{ATP}) channels are widely distributed in various
420 tissues where they couple cell metabolism to cell excitability. These channels are assembled by an
421 inward rectifier K⁺ channel pore (Kir6.1/Kir6.2) and an ATP-binding regulatory subunit, named
422 sulfonylurea receptor (SUR1/SUR2A/SUR2B) (Olson and Terzic, 2010). Neuronal K_{ATP} channels
423 are mainly constituted by a coassembly of Kir6.2/SUR1 subunits. (Inagaki et al., 1995).

424 Several gain-of-function mutations were detected in the Kir6.2 (*KCNJ11*) or the SUR1 subunit
425 (*ABCC8*). These mutations are responsible for developmental delay, epilepsy and neonatal diabetes
426 (DEND), accounting for approximately 40% of cases and caused a decrease in the ability of ATP to
427 block the K_{ATP} channel. This results in more fully openings of the channel at physiologically
428 relevant concentrations of ATP, thus increasing the K_{ATP} current (Hattersley and Ashcroft, 2005).
429 Nevertheless, the pathophysiological mechanism leading to epilepsy remains to be elucidated.
430 Probably, elevated levels of extracellular glucose and intracellular ATP attenuate K_{ATP} channels,
431 producing a more excitable state (Huang et al., 2007). Moreover, mice lacking Kir6.2 are vulnerable
432 to hypoxia, exhibiting a reduced threshold for generalized seizure (Yamada et al., 2001). Transgenic
433 mice, overexpressing the SUR1 gene in the forebrain, show a significant increase in the threshold
434 for kainate-induced seizures (Hernandez-Sanchez et al., 2001).

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436 **SODIUM-ACTIVATED POTASSIUM CHANNELS (K_{Na})**

437 The Na⁺-activated K⁺ channels (K_{Na}) are found in neurons throughout the brain and are responsible
438 for delayed outward currents named *I_{KNa}*. These currents regulate neuronal excitability and the rate
439 of adaption in response to repeated stimulation at high frequencies. In many cases, *I_{KNa}* is mediated
440 by the phylogenetically related K_{Na} channel subunits Slack and Slick (Bhattacharjee and
441 Kaczmarek, 2005). Like the Kv channels, these subunits have six hydrophobic, transmembrane
442 segments (S1–S6) with a pore P-domain between S5 and S6 and a large cytoplasmatic C-terminal
443 domain containing two regulators of K⁺ conductance (RCK) domains that are likely to be sites for
444 Na⁺-binding and channel gating. The Slack subunit binds with Slick to form heterotetrameric
445 channel complexes (Kaczmarek, 2013). Slack has been associated with different epilepsy
446 phenotypes.

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448

449 **SLACK**

450 The *KCNT1* gene encodes the K_{Na} channel subunit KCNT1, called Slack (sequence like a calcium-
451 activated potassium channel, also known as $K_{Ca4.1}$ or Slo2.2). *KCNT1* is highly expressed in the
452 brain but also in the heart and the kidney at lower levels. Concerning brain, it is not widely
453 expressed in the cortex but it is found in neurons of the frontal cortex (Bhattacharjee et al., 2002),
454 consistent with its known role in the pathogenesis of autosomal dominant nocturnal frontal lobe
455 epilepsy (ADNFLE) (Heron et al., 2012). While KCNT1 channels are thought to play important
456 roles in modulating the firing patterns and general excitability of many types of neurons, their
457 precise function is yet to be resolved.

458 Mutations in *KCNT1* gene have been found in different epilepsy syndromes: ADNFLE (Heron et
459 al., 2012; Kim et al., 2014; Møller et al., 2015), epilepsy of infancy with migrating focal seizures
460 (EIMFS, previously known as malignant migrating partial seizures in infancy, MMPSI or also more
461 recently as malignant migrating focal seizures of infancy, MMFSI) (Barcia et al., 2012; Ishii et al.,
462 2013; Ohba et al., 2015; Rizzo et al., 2016) and other types of EOEEs, (Vanderver et al., 2014;
463 Ohba et al., 2015), including Ohtahara syndrome (OS) (Martin et al., 2014). The involvement of
464 *KCNT1* in these distinct disorders suggests that *KCNT1* mutations may cause a spectrum of focal
465 epilepsies (Møller et al., 2015). Patients displaying *KCNT1* mutations have a very high occurrence
466 of severe mental and intellectual disability.

467 Four missense mutations (p.Arg398Gln, p.Tyr796His, p.Met896Ile and p.Arg928Cys) in *KCNT1*
468 gene were reported to be associated with ADNFLE cases showing comorbidities of intellectual
469 disability and psychiatric features (Heron et al., 2012). This is in contrast to ADNFLE patients
470 without mutations in *KCNT1* gene, where intelligence and other neurologic functions are largely
471 unimpaired (Philips et al., 1998). Mutations are clustered around the RCK and cytoplasmatic NAD^+
472 binding domain (Heron et al., 2012), the site that regulates the channel sensitivity to Na^+
473 intracellular concentrations (Tamsett et al., 2009). A complete penetrance is reported in ADNFLE
474 families showing *KCNT1* mutations (Heron et al., 2012) with the exception of a non-penetrant case
475 (Møller et al., 2015).

476 Interestingly, Møller et al. reported that a *KCNT1* mutation (p.Arg398Gln) can lead to either
477 ADNFLE or EIMFS within the same family, indicating that genotype-phenotype correlations are
478 not straightforward (Møller et al., 2015). Similarly, a more recent study showed that the
479 p.Gly288Ser mutation could cause both phenotypes, probably due to genetic modifiers or
480 environmental factors (Kim et al., 2014). Nevertheless, this association was unexpected since *in*
481 *vitro* studies demonstrated that mutations associated with MMFSI caused a significantly larger
482 increase in current amplitude than those associated with ADNFLE (Milligan et al., 2014).

483 Concerning EIMFS, in addition to the above mentioned p.Gly288Ser and p.Arg398Gln, several
484 additional mutations have been identified, including p.Val271Phe, p.Arg428Gln, p.Arg474Gln,
485 p.Met516Val, p.Lys629Asn, p.Ile760Met, p.Pro924Leu and p.Ala934Thr (Barcia et al., 2012; Ishii
486 et al., 2013; Mikati et al., 2015; Ohba et al., 2015; Rizzo et al., 2016). These are clustered not only
487 around the RCK and NAD^+ binding domain of the protein, but also within its S5 transmembrane
488 segment, indicating that the alteration of other regions of KCNT1 could also be pathogenic (Ishii et
489 al., 2013; McTague et al., 2013; Kim et al., 2014)

490 Finally, two *KCNT1* mutations were associated with other forms of EOEEs, strengthening once
491 again the existence of a wide phenotypic spectrum of *KCNT1* mutations. In particular, the
492 p.Phe932Ile was detected in a patient affected by EOEEs whereas the p.Ala966Thr was found in
493 one showing OS. Both of them are clustered around the RCK and NAD^+ binding domains of the
494 protein (Martin et al., 2014; Vanderver et al., 2014; Ohba et al., 2015).

495 The effect of nine different mutations in *KCNT1* gene that give rise to these distinct forms of
496 epilepsy was examined and it was demonstrated that they all result in channels displaying a strong
497 gain-of-function phenotype: all of them produced many-fold increases in current amplitude as
498 compared with the wild-type channel. This could greatly increase the cooperativity in channel
499 gating that is detected in clusters of multiple channels (Kim et al., 2014).

500 **CALCIUM-ACTIVATED POTASSIUM CHANNELS (K_{Ca})**

501 Ca^{2+} -activated K^+ channels are highly conserved complexes thought to play a critical role in
502 neuronal firing properties and circuit excitability in the human brain. Three groups of Ca^{2+} -activated
503 K^+ channels can be distinguished: large conductance (BK_{Ca}), intermediate conductance (IK_{Ca}), and
504 small conductance (SK_{Ca}) channels (N'Gouemo, 2011). The opening of these channels is in
505 response to an increase in Ca^{2+} concentration and a depolarization of the membrane potential, which
506 in turn causes a secondary hyperpolarization reestablishing the membrane potential as well as Ca^{2+}
507 levels. Otherwise it can produce an afterhyperpolarization to potentials more negative than the
508 resting membrane potential (Latorre and Brauchi, 2006; Nardi and Olesen, 2008). To date, only the
509 association between $K_{Ca1.1}$ channel and epilepsy has been demonstrated.

510

511 **$K_{Ca1.1}$**

512 *KCNMA1* gene encoded the α -subunit of the large conductance $K_{Ca1.1}$ channels. They show the
513 typical tetrameric structure of K^+ channels, with four α -subunits each displaying seven
514 transmembrane segments, with a unique S0 segment, and the charged S4 segment conferring the
515 voltage-dependence. Ca^{2+} sensitivity comes instead from the bulky C-terminal tail that includes a
516 negatively charged, high-affinity Ca^{2+} binding region (Jiang et al., 2001) and the double negative
517 charged RCK-domain. These channels could associate with four different types of β subunits ($\beta1$ -
518 $\beta4$, each encoded by a specific gene *KCNMB1-4*) which modulated channel function uniquely (Orio
519 et al., 2002).

520 $K_{Ca1.1}$ channels play a role in promoting high neuronal frequency firing which is consistent with
521 their predominant expression in axon and presynaptic terminals of neurons located in brain regions
522 (e.g. hippocampus and cortex) frequently involved in epilepsy (Gu et al., 2007; Martire et al., 2010).
523 The involvement of these channels in epilepsy was suggested not only by their localization but also
524 by studies on animal models. In this regard, it has been demonstrated in mice highly susceptible to
525 convulsions that the inhibition of $K_{Ca1.1}$ channels is sufficient to block cortical bursting activity (Jin
526 et al., 2000). Moreover, the loss of $\beta4$ subunits in $K_{Ca\beta4}$ knockout mice promoted the excitatory
527 synaptic transmission, resulting in temporal cortex seizures (Brenner et al., 2005). Finally,
528 Ermolinsky and collaborators demonstrated a deficit of *KCNMA1* expression in the dentate gyrus in
529 animal models, hypothesizing therefore its critical role in the pathogenesis of mesial temporal lobe
530 epilepsy (mTLE) (Ermolinsky et al., 2008).

531 An association between $K_{Ca1.1}$ channels and epilepsy has also been observed in humans. A missense
532 mutation in *KCNMA1* (p.Asp434Gly) was detected in a large family with generalized epilepsy and
533 paroxysmal dyskinesia. Functional studies revealed an increased Ca^{2+} sensitivity predicting a gain-
534 of-function and neuronal hyperexcitability by a presumably faster action potential repolarization
535 (Du et al., 2005). Additional studies suggested that depending on the distribution of the various β
536 subunits in the brain, this mutation can differently modulate $K_{Ca1.1}$ channels contributing to the
537 pathophysiology of epilepsy and dyskinesia (Lee and Cui, 2009). As far as genes different from
538 *KCNMA1*, a polymorphism in *KCNMB4*, named rs398702, was also associated with mTLE in an
539 Irish cohort population (Cavalleri et al., 2007) but the study failed to be replicated (Manna et al.,
540 2013), while a truncation mutation in *KCNMB3* (p.Val256TyrfsTer4) affecting synaptic inhibition
541 and thereby increasing neuronal excitability and seizure susceptibility, was associated with
542 idiopathic generalized epilepsy (Hu et al., 2003; Lorenz et al., 2007).

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545 **CONCLUDING REMARKS**

546 Epilepsy is one of the most common chronic and heterogeneous neurological disorders, affecting 1-
547 2% of the population, characterized by recurrent unprovoked seizures due to abnormal
548 synchronized electrical discharges within the CNS (Stenlein, 2004). Since ion channels mediate the
549 axonal conduction of action potentials and transduction through synaptic transmission, increasing
550 evidence suggests that any mutation-induced channel malfunction directly alter brain excitability

551 and can induce epileptic seizures. Therefore, the discovery of genetic defects and, in particular, the
552 electrophysiological characterization of mutant ion channels in hereditary forms of epilepsy may
553 elucidate pathophysiological concepts of hyperexcitability in the CNS. This knowledge could
554 enable new therapeutic strategies by antagonizing the epilepsy-causing mechanisms using the
555 defective proteins as pharmacological targets. Given these considerations, we present an overview
556 of mutations in K⁺ channels and their related accessory subunits underlying different human
557 epileptic phenotypes. Several families of K⁺ channels have been involved in the pathogenesis of
558 epilepsy or other syndromes showing seizures as a clinical sign. For each channel family, the effect
559 of reported mutations is different: loss-of-function as well as gain-of-function could be observed.
560 The common effect of all mutations is to determine membrane hyperexcitability, thus increasing the
561 susceptibility to seizures. Our review highlights the pleiotropic effects of some mutations in K⁺
562 channels and the lack of a direct genotype-phenotype correlation. Interestingly, K⁺ channels
563 dysfunctions seem to be mainly observed in epileptic patients with neurological comorbidities, such
564 as ASDs, intellectual disabilities or psychiatric features, in which they are associated with more
565 clinical severity. This observation could suggest to perform a mutation screening of K⁺ channels in
566 patients showing intellectual disabilities.

567 In conclusion, the discovery of K⁺ channels encoding genes that influence susceptibility and disease
568 progression will provide insight into the molecular events of epileptogenesis, improve molecular
569 diagnostic utility and identify novel therapeutic targets for treatment of human epilepsy.

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572 **Conflict of interest statement**

573 The authors declare that they have no potential conflict of interests with the study.

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Provisional

Table 1. Summary of human K⁺ channels subfamilies involved in epilepsies

| Subfamily | Main functions | Cloned subunits | Subunits associated with epilepsy |
|--|--|--|--|
| Voltage-gated K ⁺ channels (Kv) | Regulation of outward K ⁺ currents and action potentials, modulation of neurotransmitter release, control of both excitability and electrical properties of neurons | Kv1-12 | Kv1.1; Kv1.2 Kv4.2; Kv4.3 Kv7.1; Kv7.2; Kv7.3 Kv8.2 Kv11.1 |
| Inwardly rectifying K ⁺ channels (Kir) | Maintenance of the resting membrane potentials and regulation of the cell excitability | Kir1-7 | Kir2.1 Kir4.1 Kir6.2 |
| Sodium-activated K ⁺ channels (K _{Na}) | Regulation of delayed outward currents I_{KNa} and contribution to adaptation of firing rate | K _{Ca4.1} (Slack) K _{Ca4.2} (Slick) | K _{Ca4.1} (Slack) |
| Calcium-activated K ⁺ channels (K _{Ca}) | Regulation of neuronal firing properties and circuit excitability | K _{Ca1-3} K _{Ca5.1} | K _{Ca1.1} |

Table 2. Mutations in K⁺ channels associated with human epileptic phenotypes

| Gene/protein | Epileptic phenotypes | Mutations | Effects on channel functionality | References |
|--------------------|---|--|--|--|
| <i>KCNA1/Kv1.1</i> | Generalized or partial seizures associated to EA1 | Several heterozygous point mutations | Loss-of-function mutations altering the channel's properties and frequently associated with reduced currents | Browne et al., 1994; Adelman et al., 1995; D'Adamo et al., 1999; Spauschus et al., 1999; Zuberi et al., 1999; Eunson et al., 2000; Imbrici et al., 2006; |
| <i>KCNA2/Kv1.2</i> | Mild to severe epileptic encephalopathy | p.Ile263Thr p.Arg297Gln p.Leu298Phe p.Pro405Leu | Loss-of-function Gain-of-function Gain-of-function Loss-of-function | Syrbe et al., 2015 |
| | Ataxia and myoclonic epilepsy | p.Arg297Gln | Functional analysis are under way | Pena and Coimbra, 2015 |
| <i>KCND2/Kv4.2</i> | TLE | p.Asn587fsX1 | Channel haploinsufficiency due to truncated Kv4.2 subunit | Singh et al., 2006 |
| | Autism and severe intractable seizures | p.Val404Met | Gain-of-function mutation showing slowed channel inactivation | Lee et al., 2014 |
| <i>KCND3/Kv4.3</i> | Early onset cerebellar ataxia, intellectual disability, oral apraxia and epilepsy | p.Arg293_Phe295dup | strong shift of the voltage-dependence of activation and inactivation of the channel subunit | Smets et al., 2015 |
| <i>KCNQ1/Kv7.1</i> | LQTS and epilepsy | p.Leu273Phe | No available data on channel functionality | Tiron et al., 2015 |
| | SUDEP | p.Ala46Thr p.Val287Met p.Val648Ile | p.Ala46Thr: activation of more rapid current without initial delay | Yang et al., 2009 Partemi et al., 2015 |

| | | | | |
|---------------------|---|--|---|---|
| <i>KCNQ2/Kv7.2</i> | BFNS with normal cognition or EOEES with mental retardation | > 80 mutations (missense, non-sense, truncations, splice-site defects, frame-shift mutations, sub-microscopic deletions or duplications) | Impairment of channel function, leading to reduced current densities | Singh et al., 1998; Weckhuysen et al., 2012; Soldovieri et al., 2014 |
| <i>KCNQ3/Kv7.3</i> | BFNS with variable age of onset and good outcome | p.Gly340Val p.Arg780Cys | No available data on channel functionality | Zara et al., 2013; Griton et al., 2015 |
| | Early-onset epilepsy and neurocognitive deficits | p.Ile317Thr p.Arg330Leu | Impairment of channel function, leading to reduced current densities | Soldovieri et al., 2014; Miceli et al., 2015 |
| | BECTS | p.Arg364His | No available data on channel functionality | Fusco et al., 2015 |
| <i>KCNV2/Kv8.2</i> | Febrile and afebrile partial seizures | p.Arg7Lys | Decrease in delayed rectifier K ⁺ current in neurons | Jorge et al., 2011 |
| | Epileptic encephalopathy and severe refractory epilepsy | p.Met285Arg | Decrease in delayed rectifier K ⁺ current in neurons and impairment of the voltage-dependence of the channel | Jorge et al., 2011 |
| <i>KCNH2/Kv11.1</i> | Epilepsy associated with LQT2 | p.Ile82Thr p.Arg176Trp p.Thr74ArgfsTer32 p.Ala429Pro p.Tyr493Phe p.Arg534Cys p.Arg863X p.Arg1047Leu | Loss-of-function mutations, leading to reduced currents | Keller et al., 2009; Omichi et al., 2010; Tu et al., 2011; Zamorano-León et al., 2012; Partemi et al., 2013 |

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| <i>KCNAB2</i> /Kvβ2 | Severe epilepsy | hemizygous deletion of <i>KCNAB2</i> | Loss-of-function mutations/haploinsufficiency | Heilstedt et al., 2001 |
| <i>LGII</i> | ADLTE | > 30 mutations (missense, splice-site mutations, short indels, single microdeletion) | Failure in preventing channel inactivation resulting in more rapidly closing channels | Kalachikov et al., 2002; Morante-Redolat et al., 2002; Nobile et al., 2009; Fanciulli et al., 2012; Dazzo et al., 2015 |
| <i>KCNJ2</i> /Kir2.1 | Seizures associated to ATS | p.Arg67Gln p.Gly146Ser p.Thr192Ile | Loss-of-function mutations with dominant-negative effects | Haruna et al., 2007; Chan et al., 2010 |
| | SQT3s and autism-epilepsy phenotype | p.Lys346Thr | Gain-of-function mutation leading to enhance the channel's surface expression and stability at the plasma membrane, reduce protein degradation and alter protein compartmentalization | Ambrosini et al., 2014 |
| <i>KCNJ10</i> /Kir4.1 | Seizure susceptibility | p.Arg271Cys | No observable changes in channel function or in predicted channel structure | Buono et al., 2004; Shang et al., 2005 |
| | Epilepsy associated to EAST or SeSAME syndrome | p.Arg65Cys p.Arg65Pro p.Phe75Lys p.Gly77Arg p.Val259fs259X | Loss-of-function recessive mutations | Bockenbauer et al., 2009; Scholl et al., 2009; Freudenthal et al., 2011 |
| | Epilepsy associated to ASDs and intellectual disability | p.Arg18Gln p.Val84Met | Gain-of-function mutations leading to increased channel surface expression | Sicca et al., 2011 |
| <i>KCNJ11</i> /Kir6.2 <i>ABCC8</i> /SUR1 | DEND syndrome | several point mutations | Gain-of-function mutations causing reduction in ATP sensitivity, leading to an increase in the K _{ATP} current | Hattersley and Ashcroft, 2005 |

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| <i>KCNT1</i> /Slack | ADNFLE associated to intellectual disability and psychiatric features | p.Gly288Ser p.Arg398Gln p.Tyr796His p.Met896Ile p.Arg928Cys | Gain-of-function mutations, increasing the cooperativity in channel gating | Heron et al., 2012; Kim et al., 2014; Møller et al. 2015 |
| | EIMFS | p.Val271Phe p.Gly288Ser p.Arg398Gln p.Arg428Gln p.Arg474His p.Met516Val p.Lys629Asn p.Ile760Met p.Pro924Leu p.Ala934Thr | Gain-of-function mutations, increasing the cooperativity in channel gating | Barcia et al., 2012; Ishii et al., 2013; Kim et al., 2014; Moller et al., 2015; Ohba et al., 2015; Mikati et al., 2015; <u>Rizzo et al., 2016</u> |
| | EOEEs | p.Phe932Ile | No available data on channel functionality | Vanderdervet et al., 2014 |
| | OS | p.Ala966Thr | Gain-of-function mutation | Martin et al., 2014; Kim et al., 2014 |
| <i>KCNMA1</i> / $K_{Ca1.1}$ | Generalized epilepsy and paroxysmal dyskinesia | p.Asp434Gly | Gain-of-function mutation leading to an increase of channel opening probability and Ca^{2+} dependence | Du et al., 2005; Lee and Cui, 2009 |
| <i>KCNMB3</i> / $K_{Ca\beta3}$ | Idiopathic generalized epilepsy | p.Val256TyrfsTer4 | Loss-of-function truncation mutation affecting synaptic inhibition and increasing neuronal excitability | Hu et al., 2003; Lorenz et al., 2007 |