Functionally-Coupled Ion Channels Begin Co-assembling at the Start of Their Synthesis

Authors:

Roya Pournejati[1,2], Jessica M. Huang[1,2], Michael Ma[1,2], Claudia M. Moreno[2,3], Oscar Vivas[1,2]*

Affiliations:

[1] Department of Pharmacology, University of Washington

[2] Department of Neurobiology and Biophysics, University of Washington

[3] Howard Hughes Medical Institute

***Corresponding author:**

Oscar Vivas

Department of Pharmacology

Department of Neurobiology and Biophysics

University of Washington, School of Medicine

Box 357290

Seattle, WA 98195-7290

Email: vivas@uw.edu

Phone: (206) 543-0958

Summary

Calcium binding to BK channels lowers BK activation threshold, substantiating functional coupling

with calcium-permeable channels. This coupling requires close proximity between different

channel types, and the formation of BK–Ca_V1.3 hetero-clusters at nanometer distances

exemplifies this unique organization. To investigate the structural basis of this interaction, we

tested the hypothesis that BK and Ca_V1.3 channels assemble before their insertion into the

plasma membrane. Our approach incorporated four strategies: (1) detecting interactions between

BK and Ca_V1.3 proteins inside the cell, (2) identifying membrane compartments where

intracellular hetero-clusters reside, (3) measuring the proximity of their mRNAs, and (4) assessing

protein interactions at the plasma membrane during early translation. These analyses revealed

that a subset of BK and Ca_V1.3 transcripts are spatially close in micro-translational complexes,

and their newly synthesized proteins associate within the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and Golgi.

Comparisons with other proteins, transcripts, and randomized localization models support the

conclusion that BK and Ca_V1.3 hetero-clusters form before their insertion at the plasma

membrane.

Significance statement

This work examines the proximity between BK and Ca_V1.3 molecules at the level of their mRNAs

and newly synthesized proteins to reveal that these channels interact early in their biogenesis.

Two cell models were used: a heterologous expression system to investigate the steps of protein

trafficking and a pancreatic beta cell line to study the localization of endogenous channel mRNAs.

Our findings show that BK and Ca_V1.3 channels begin assembling intracellularly before reaching

the plasma membrane, revealing new aspects of their spatial organization. This intracellular

assembly suggests a coordinated process that contributes to functional coupling.

Introduction

This work concerns the organization of functionally coupled voltage- and calcium-dependent potassium (BK) channels and voltage-gated calcium (Ca_V) channels.

BK channels (a.k.a. $K_{Ca}1.1$, Maxi-K, Slo1, KCNMA1) are named for their "big potassium (K^+)" conductance, since channel opening leads to unusually large, outward potassium currents and membrane repolarization. Its amino acid sequence is conserved throughout the animal kingdom from worms to mammals. BK channels are expressed in a wide variety of cell types, predominantly excitable cells but also non-excitable salivary, bone and kidney cells, making this channel responsible for a large range of physiological processes [1-9]. Phenotypes of pathological BK mutations in human patients are most prominent in the brain and muscle and often manifest as seizures, movement disorders, developmental delay, and intellectual disability [10, 11]. BK is also implicated in other organ system functions, including but not limited to heart pace making, reproduction, and pancreatic glucose homeostasis [11, 12].

Since BK channels affect function in numerous physiological systems, channel opening is meticulously regulated at the cellular level. BK is a voltage-gated channel activated by membrane depolarization. Interestingly, BK has an additional gating mechanism that differentiates it from typical voltage-gated potassium channels; BK opening is gated by both voltage and intracellular calcium binding to a cytosolic regulatory domain. At the cytoplasmic resting free calcium concentration (~0.1 μM), BK channels remain closed [13]. However, the probability of channel opening increases when both the membrane potential depolarizes and when the local free calcium rises. Yet, increases of calcium are tightly limited by endogenous proteins that bind calcium with high affinity as well as by extrusion mechanisms that take calcium inside organelles or outside the cell. Hence, the activation of BK channels relies on strategies to overcome these regulatory barriers. One such strategy is to localize near sources of calcium.

In excitable cells, BK forms nanodomains with calcium channels that provide exclusive, localized calcium sources. Several subtypes of calcium channels form functional signaling complexes with BK, shifting BK activation voltages to more negative potentials [14-16]. One of these channels, $Ca_V1.3$ (a.k.a. *CACNA1D*), is unique in its electrophysiological profile as an L-type calcium channel, activating with fast kinetics at voltages as negative as -55 mV [17]. Additionally, BK channels are modulated by auxiliary subunits, which fine-tune BK channel gating properties to adapt to different physiological conditions. The β, γ, and LINGO1 subunits each contribute distinct structural and regulatory features: β-subunits modulate Ca^{2+} sensitivity and can induce inactivation; γ-subunits shift voltage-dependent activation to more negative potentials; and LINGO1 reduces surface expression and promotes rapid inactivation. These interactions ensure

precise control over channel activity, allowing BK channels to integrate voltage and calcium
signals dynamically in various cell types [18-24].

Here, we focus on the selective assembly of BK channels with $Ca_V1.3$ and do not evaluate
the contributions of auxiliary subunits to BK channel organization. $Ca_V1.3$ is expressed in many
of the same cell types as BK and is often functionally coupled with BK channels, enabling BK
channels to activate at more negative voltages. Notably, super-resolution microscopy shows that
$Ca_V1.3$ organizes spatially into nanodomains with BK in the plasma membrane [15]. However, the
mechanisms behind the assembly of BK and $Ca_V1.3$ hetero-clusters are unknown.

Mechanism	Description	Source
Co-translation of heteromeric channel subunits	mRNA transcripts and nascent proteins of hERG heteromeric subunits form molecular complexes during protein translation.	[25]
Co-translation of channels permeating different ions	Potassium channel hERG and sodium channel SCN5A form complexes of mRNA transcripts and nascent proteins during protein translation.	[26]
Membrane curvature sensing	Clusters of Piezo1 channels enriche in membrane invaginations.	[27]
ER membrane protein complex	ER membrane complex acts as a chaperone for heteromeric channel assembly	[28]
Scaffolding proteins	Scaffolding protein AKAP150 is required for abnormal gating of $Ca_V1.2$-LQT8 channels.	[29]
Random insertion	Clusters of $Ca_V1.2$, $Ca_V1.3$, BK, and TRPV4 are proposed to be randomly formed into the plasma membranes of smooth muscle, cardiac muscle, hippocampal neurons, and tsA-201 cells.	[30]

Table 1. List of mechanisms described for the interaction between channel subunits, channels of the
same type (homo-clusters), or hetero-clusters of channel families permeating different ions.

Several mechanisms for bringing ion channels together have been suggested (Table 1).
One proposes that proteins assembly precedes protein insertion into the plasma membrane [25,
26, 31]. This mechanism has been observed in studies of hetero-multimers and even channels
permeating different ions. The formation of these groups of proteins would start from their
synthesis. There is even the possibility of mRNA transcripts colocalizing prior to translation. We

explored this mechanism in relation to BK and Ca$_V$1.3 functional coupling. Here, we started by

investigating when and where BK and Ca$_V$1.3 channels cluster in the cell. We looked for BK and

Ca$_V$1.3 hetero-clusters at intracellular membranes of the ER, at ER exit sites, and at the Golgi.

We also investigated the proximity between mRNA transcripts of BK and Ca$_V$1.3.

Definitions used in this manuscript

To guide the reader and prevent confusion on the terms used, we introduce the following

nomenclature, which is also illustrated in Figure 1. Molecular complex: an array of several

polypeptides with a defined function. In our case, a BK channel is a molecular complex of four

alpha subunits whose function is to permeate ions. Homo-cluster: we define a homo-cluster as

the accumulation of proteins. In our work, a homo-cluster refers to the accumulation of BK

channels or the accumulation of calcium channels.

Hetero-cluster: we define a hetero-cluster as the collection of different types of proteins

that facilitate functional coupling and compartmentalization of a signaling complex. In the present

work, hetero-cluster refers to a coordinated collection of BK and Ca$_V$ channels. It is also used to

refer to the assembly of homo-clusters of BK with homo-clusters of Ca$_V$ channels.

Figure 1. Representation of molecular complex, homo-cluster, and hetero-cluster.

Results

BK and Ca$_V$1.3 hetero-clusters are found inside the cell.

BK and Ca$_V$ hetero-clusters have been observed at the plasma membrane [14-16].

However, a clear understanding of when or how BK and Ca$_V$ hetero-clusters assemble is missing.

A simple mechanism proposes that these hetero-clusters organize only at the plasma membrane.

Here, we tested the alternative hypothesis of BK and Ca$_V$ assembling inside the cell (Figure 2A).

To test this idea, we used proximity ligation assay (PLA) and antibodies against BK and Ca$_V$1.3

channels. When these antibodies are within 40 nm of each other, PLA ligation and amplification

can occur, resulting in the formation of fluorescent puncta (Figure 2B), here referred to as PLA

puncta. Hence, the PLA puncta in Figure 2C represent BK and Ca$_V$1.3 hetero-clusters. To confirm

specificity, a negative control was performed by probing only for BK using the primary antibody,

ensuring that detected signals were not due to non-specific binding or background fluorescence.

We first analyzed Z-projections, in which all the puncta in the cell volume are added, and found a

Figure 2. BK and Ca$_V$1.3 hetero-clusters are found inside the cell. A. Diagram of the hypothesis: hetero-clusters of BK (magenta) and Ca$_V$1.3 (cyan) are on intracellular membranes and on the plasma membrane. **B.** Illustration of the technique to detect BK and Ca$_V$1.3 hetero-clusters. Proximity ligation assay is used to detect the hetero-clusters. **C.** Confocal images of fluorescent puncta from PLA experiments in tsA-201 cells. Left: Cells were transfected and probed for BK and Ca$_V$1.3 channels. Right: negative control. Cells were transfected and probed only for BK channels. Enlargement of a selected region is shown in the inset. **D.** Scatter dot plot comparing puncta density of BK and Ca$_V$1.3 hetero-clusters to the negative control. Data points are from n = 12 cells for BK and Ca$_V$1.3 hetero-clusters and from n = 14 cells for negative control. *p*-values are shown at the top of the graphs. **E.** Confocal images of fluorescent PLA puncta at different focal planes co-labeled against GFP at the plasma membrane. Cells were transfected with BK, Ca$_V$1.3, and PH-PLCδ-GFP and probed for BK channels, Ca$_V$1.3 channels, and GFP. PLA puncta are shown in magenta, and the plasma membrane is shown in green. Enlargements of the representative regions of PM and intercellular hetero-clusters are shown in the insets. **F.** Scatter dot plot comparing BK and Ca$_V$1.3 hetero-cluster abundance at PM and inside the cell. Data points are from n = 12 cells. Scale bar is 10 μm and 1 μm in the insets. For statistical analysis, unpaired t-tests were applied in panel D and paired t-tests in panel F to evaluate significance.

density of $5.8 \pm 1.0 / 10 \ \mu m^2$. In a different experiment, we analyzed the puncta density for

each focal plane of the cell (step size of 300 nm) and compared the puncta at the plasma

membrane to the rest of the cell. We visualized the plasma membrane with a biological sensor

tagged with GFP (PH-PLCδ-GFP) and then probed it with an antibody against GFP (Figure 2E).

By analyzing the GFP signal, we created a mask that represented the plasma membrane. The

mask served to distinguish between the PLA puncta located inside the cell and those at the

plasma membrane, allowing us to calculate the number of PLA puncta at the plasma membrane.

To our surprise, we found a significant number of puncta localized inside the cell. 46 ± 3 % of the

puncta were localized intracellularly, whereas 54 ± 3 % were at the plasma membrane. This

finding is consistent with our supposition that BK and $Ca_V1.3$ channels colocalize in the cell.

BK and $Ca_V1.3$ hetero-clusters localize at ER and ER exit sites.

We next investigated the identity of the intracellular membranes where these PLA puncta

were found. A large component of intracellular membranes in the cell is the endoplasmic reticulum

(ER), where channels are inserted after translation. To determine whether BK and $Ca_V1.3$

associate in the ER (Figure 3A), we combined PLA with immunodetection. As before, PLA probed

for BK and $Ca_V1.3$ hetero-clusters, while a KDEL-moxGFP label identified the ER (Figure 3B). To

avoid disruption of organelle architecture, we used the monomeric mox version of KDEL-GFP,

which is optimized to reduce oligomerization in the ER environment [33]. Neither overexpression

of KDEL-moxGFP nor fixation altered the ER structure as the tubule width remained around 150

nm for either condition (Figure 3C), a value in agreement with the literature [34, 35]. To assess

the percentage of PLA puncta colocalizing with the ER, we employed two different cell lines, our

overexpression system (tsA-201 cells) and a rat insulinoma cell line (INS-1) that expresses BK

and $Ca_V1.3$ channels endogenously. In this and following experiments, we analyze one focal

plane, in the middle of the cell, to quantify PLA puncta colocalization with ER membrane. Figure

3D shows PLA puncta in the same space as the ER. Comparing the overexpression and

endogenous systems, 63 ± 3% versus 50 ± 6% of total PLA puncta were localized at the ER

(Figure 3E). To determine whether the observed colocalization between BK–$Ca_V1.3$ hetero-

clusters and the ER was not simply due to the extensive spatial coverage of ER labeling, we

labeled ER exit sites using Sec16-GFP and probed for hetero-clusters with PLA. This approach

enabled us to test whether the hetero-clusters were preferentially localized to ER exit sites, which

are specialized trafficking hubs that mediate cargo selection and direct proteins from the ER into

the secretory pathway. In contrast to the more expansive ER network, which supports protein

synthesis and folding, ER exit sites ensure efficient and selective export of proteins to their target

Figure 3. BK and Ca$_V$1.3 hetero-clusters localize at ER and ER exit sites (ERES). A. Diagram of the hypothesis: hetero-clusters of BK (magenta) and Ca$_V$1.3 (cyan) can be found at the ER membrane. **B.** Representative image of the ER labeled with exogenous GFP in INS-1 cells. Cells were transfected with KDEL-moxGFP. Magnification is shown in the inset. **C.** Comparison of the ER tubule distance in live and fixed tsA-201 and INS-1 cells. Data points are from n = 23 tsA-201 cells, n = 27 INS-1 cells **D.** Representative images of PLA puncta and ER. Left: tsA-201 cells were transfected with BK, Ca$_V$1.3 and KDEL-moxGFP. Right: INS-1 cells were transfected only with KDEL-moxGFP. Fixed cells were probed for BK-Ca$_V$1.3 hetero-clusters (PLA puncta) and GFP. PLA puncta is shown in magenta. ER is shown in green. **E.** Comparison of BK-Ca$_V$1.3 hetero-clusters found at the ER and relative to all PLA puncta in the cell. Values are given in percentages. **F.** Representative images of PLA puncta and ER exit sites. Left and right are the same as in D, but cells were transfected with Sec16-GFP instead of KDEL. **G.** Comparison of BK-Ca$_V$1.3 hetero-clusters found at ER exit sites relative to all PLA puncta in the cell. Values are given in percentages. Data points are from n = 45 tsA-201 cells for ER, n = 21 tsA-201 cells for ERES, n = 23 INS-1 cells for ER, and n = 23 INS-1 cells for ER exit sites. Scale bar is 10 μm and 2 μm in the magnifications.

destinations. By quantifying the proportion of BK and $Ca_V1.3$ hetero-clusters relative to

total channel expression at ER exit sites, we found 28 ± 3% colocalization in tsA-201 cells and 11

± 2% in INS-1 cells (Figure 3F). While the percentage of colocalization between hetero-clusters

and the ER or ER exit sites alone cannot be directly compared to infer trafficking dynamics, these

findings reinforce the conclusion that hetero-clusters reside within the ER and suggest that BK

and $Ca_V1.3$ channels traffic together through the ER and exit in coordination.

BK and $Ca_V1.3$ hetero-clusters go through the Golgi.

Channels are modified in the Golgi after synthesis (Figure 4A), so we asked whether PLA

puncta formed by BK and $Ca_V1.3$ hetero-clusters can be found in the Golgi. Using the same

strategy, we labeled Golgi with Gal-T-mEGFP (Figure 4B) and detected BK-$Ca_V1.3$ hetero-

clusters using PLA. To confirm that the overexpressed Gal-T-mEGFP labels the Golgi specifically

without altering its structure, we compared the region detected by the antibody against GFP to

the region detected by a primary antibody against the Golgi protein 58K (Figure 4C). 58K is a

specific peripheral protein that localizes to the cytosolic face of Golgi [36]. The overlay shows that

the GFP signal labels the same region as the antibody against 58K. When assessing the presence

of BK-$Ca_V1.3$ hetero-clusters in the Golgi, we found that 31 ± 5% of PLA puncta were localized at

the Golgi in the overexpression system and 25 ± 4% in the endogenous cell model (Figure 4E).

We performed controls to confirm that the formation of hetero-clusters between the two

channels was not coincidental but rather the result of structural coupling. We tested the formation

of PLA puncta between BK channels and the Golgi protein 58K. We also tested for $Ca_V1.3$ and

58K. We did not find PLA puncta when the proximity between the channels and 58K was probed

(Figure 4F), supporting the idea that PLA puncta between BK and $Ca_V1.3$ channels found at the

Golgi represent specific coupling. We selected the Golgi as a control because it represents the

final stage of protein trafficking, ensuring that hetero-cluster interactions observed at this point

reflect specificity maintained throughout earlier trafficking steps, including within the ER. As an

additional control, we tested the formation of PLA puncta between $Ca_V1.3$ channels and RyR_2, a

protein localized in the ER. The number of PLA puncta between $Ca_V1.3$ and RyR_2 was significantly

lower than the number observed between $Ca_V1.3$ and BK channels (Figure 4-Supplement 1),

further supporting the specificity of BK–$Ca_V1.3$ interactions.

It is important to clarify that the percentages provided in this work cannot be added up to

understand the distribution of hetero-clusters along the biosynthetic pathway of the channels. The

percentage in each membrane compartment was compared to the total percentage of hetero-

clusters observed in each cell for that particular experiment. Therefore, there is expected overlap

Figure 4. BK and Ca$_V$1.3 hetero-clusters go through the Golgi. A. Diagram of the hypothesis: PLA puncta detecting hetero-clusters between BK (magenta) and Ca$_V$1.3 (cyan) channels can be found at the Golgi membrane. **B.** Representative image of the Golgi structure with exogenous GFP in INS-1 cells. Cells were transfected with Gal-T-mEGFP. Enlargement is shown in the inset. **C.** Representative images of fixed cells co-stained with antibodies against Gal-T-mEGFP in green and 58K-Golgi in red **D.** Representative images of PLA puncta and Golgi. tsA-201 cells were transfected with BK, Ca$_V$1.3 and Gal-T-mEGFP (left), and INS-1 cells were transfected only with Gal-T-mEGFP (right). PLA puncta are shown in magenta. Golgi is shown in green. **E.** Scatter dot plot of percentages of BK-Ca$_V$1.3 hetero-clusters found at the Golgi relative to all PLA puncta in tsA-201 and INS1 cells. Data points are from n = 22 tsA-201 cells and n = 19 INS-1 cells. **F.** Representative image of PLA puncta and Golgi. tsA-201 cells were transfected with BK, Ca$_V$1.3, and Gal-T-mEGFP. Left: PLA was done against BK and 58K Golgi (magenta), and Golgi is shown in green. Right: PLA was done against Ca$_V$1.3 and 58K Golgi (magenta), and Golgi is shown in green. **G.** Diagram illustrating our interpretation of percentages of BK-Ca$_V$1.3 hetero-clusters found in the cell. This illustration is based on results shown in Figures 1-4. Percentages were modified to represent overlap of fluorescent signals and limited resolution. We also show that hetero-clusters found in the ER exit sites (ERES) are also accounted in the ER. Scale bars: 10 μm and 2 μm in panels B and C; 10 μm and 1 μm in panel D; 2 μm in panel F.

between our measurements due to (1) optical resolution and (2) the effect of not comparing all
the organelles in the same cell. Considering these limitations, we interpreted our results as
follows: about one half of hetero-clusters are found inside the cell. The other half corresponds to
hetero-clusters at the plasma membrane. From the half inside the cell, roughly one third of hetero-
clusters is found in the Golgi, and another third is found in ER exit sites (Figure 4G). The remaining
hetero-clusters are found in other regions of the ER and in membranes that we did not probe,
such as vesicles. Finally, a key limitation of this approach is that we cannot quantify the proportion
of total BK or $Ca_V1.3$ channels engaged in hetero-clusters within each compartment. The PLA
method provides proximity-based detection, which reflects relative localization rather than
absolute channel abundance within individual organelles.

BK mRNA and $Ca_V1.3$ mRNA colocalize.

How is it that BK and $Ca_V1.3$ proteins come in close proximity in membranes of the ER,
ER exit sites and the Golgi? To explore the origins of the initial association, we hypothesized that
the two proteins are translated near each other, which could be detected as the colocalization of
their mRNAs (Figure 5A and B). The experiment was designed to detect single mRNA molecules
from INS-1 cells in culture. We performed multiplex in situ hybridization experiments using an
RNAscope fluorescence detection kit to be able to image three mRNAs simultaneously in the
same cell and acquired the images in a confocal microscope with high resolution. To rigorously
assess the specificity of this potential mRNA-level organization, we used multiple internal controls.
GAPDH mRNA, a highly expressed housekeeping gene with no known spatial coordination with
channel mRNAs, served as a baseline control for nonspecific colocalization due to transcript
abundance. To evaluate whether the spatial proximity between BK mRNA (*KCNMA1*) and $Ca_V1.3$
mRNA (*CACNA1D*) was unique to functionally coupled channels, we also tested for $Na_V1.7$ mRNA
(*SCN9A*), a transmembrane sodium channel expressed in INS-1 cells but not functionally
associated with BK. This allowed us to determine whether the observed colocalization reflected
a specific biological relationship rather than shared expression context. Finally, to test whether
this proximity might extend to other calcium sources relevant to BK activation, we probed the
mRNA of ryanodine receptor 2 (*RyR2*), another Ca^{2+} channel known to interact structurally with
BK channels [37]. Together, these controls were chosen to distinguish specific mRNA
colocalization patterns from random spatial proximity, shared subcellular distribution, or gene
expression level artifacts. Figure 5- Supplementary-2 shows images completely void of
fluorescent signal from INS-1 cells probed for bacterial mRNA (negative control, Figure 5-
Supplementary 2A) and shows images of INS-1 cells probed for mammalian mRNAs expected to
be in these cells (positive control, Figure 5- Supplementary 2B). We confirmed the specificity of

the probes by performing in situ hybridization against *KCNMA1*, *CACNA1D*, *RyR2*, and *SCN9A*
in non-transfected cell lines (Figure 5- Supplementary 2C and D).

Figure 5. BK mRNA (*KCNMA1*) and Ca$_V$1.3 mRNA (*CACNA1D*) colocalize. A. Diagram of the hypothesis: *KCNMA1* and *CACNA1D* mRNAs are found in close proximity to be translated in the same neighborhood. **B.** Images of fluorescent puncta from RNA scope experiments showing *KCNMA1* mRNA in magenta, *CACNA1D* mRNA in cyan, and *GAPDH* mRNA in green. Right, magnification of three ROI. **C.** Comparison of mRNA density of *KCNMA1*, *CACNA1D*, and *GAPDH*. **D.** Correlation plot of mRNA abundance of *KCNMA1* and *CACNA1D* per cell. **E.** Correlation plot of mRNA abundance of *KCNMA1* and *GAPDH* per cell. **F.** Comparison of colocalization between *KCNMA1* mRNA and mRNA from *CACNA1D*, *GAPDH*, and scrambled images of *CACNA1D*. Data points are from n = 67 cells. Scale bar is 10 μm and 1 μm in the magnifications. Data were analyzed using ordinary one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparisons test.

Probes against *GAPDH* mRNA were used as a control in the same cells that we probed
for *KCNMA1* and *CACNA1D* using the multiplex capability of this design. Transcripts were
detected at different expression levels. *GAPDH* and *CACNA1D* mRNAs were more abundant
(134 and 33 mRNA/100 μm^2, respectively) than *KCNMA1* mRNA (12 mRNA/100 μm^2, Figure 5C).
Interestingly, the abundance of *KCNMA1* transcripts correlated more with the abundance of
CACNA1D transcripts than with the abundance of *GAPDH*, though with a modest R^2 value (Figure

5D and E). Furthermore, *KCNMA1* and *CACNA1D* mRNA colocalized by 60 ± 4%, which was

20% more than with *GAPDH* mRNA (Figure 5F). As an additional control and to rule out the

potential influence of difference between *CACNA1D* and *KCNMA*1 abundance, we assessed

CACNA1D colocalization against randomized, computer-generated *KCNMA1* mRNA signals,

where localization was randomized while maintaining the same overall transcript count. The

significantly lower (20%) colocalization observed in scrambled conditions compared to genuine

BK-Cav1.3 mRNA interactions confirms that proximity is not an artifact of expression levels but

reflects a specific spatial association. These results suggest that some fraction of mRNAs for BK

and Ca$_V$1.3 channels are translated nearby, so the channel proteins potentially could be inserted

into the same regions of the ER. We suggest that the newly synthesized proteins remain together

during trafficking through the ER and the Golgi.

Next, we compared the proximity between *KCNMA1* and *SCN9A*. We detected *SCN9A* in

the same cells where *KCNMA1* was found (Figure 6A). The colocalization between *KCNMA1* and

SCN9A was only 18 ± 2% (Figure 6C), which was less than what was observed with *KCNMA1*

and *CACNA1D* (60%, Figure 5F). notably, we observed comparable levels of co-localization

between *KCNMA1* and *SCN9A* transcripts in both directions (data not shown), with no statistically

significant difference. These findings support the specificity of mRNA co-localization and that

KCNMA1 tends to localize closer to *CACNA1D* than to *SCN9A* or *GAPDH*, supporting the

specificity of *KCNMA1* and *CACNA1D* mRNA association.

With the goal of understanding if this concept could apply to other channels, we used the

same approach to test a second protein known to provide calcium for BK channel opening. Similar

to the coupling between BK and Ca$_V$1.3 channels, RyR2 also can be structurally coupled to BK

channels [37]. Figure 6B shows high resolution images of single molecule in situ hybridization for

RyR2 probed together with *KCNMA1* in INS-1 cells. In the same population of cells, *KCNMA1*

and *RyR2* colocalization was 27 ± 3%, which is 1.5 times that with *SCN9A* mRNA. We also

assessed *RyR2* colocalization with randomized, computer-generated *KCNMA1* mRNA signals.

We found that colocalization between randomized *KCNMA1* and genuine *RyR2* was 87% less

colocalized compared to the analysis of genuine *KCNMA1* and genuine *RyR2* (Figure 6C),

suggesting that *KCNMA1* not only colocalizes with *CACNA1D* but also with mRNA of other known

calcium sources.

Figure 6. BK mRNA (*KCNMA1*) and RyR-2 mRNA (*RyR2*) colocalize. A. Representative confocal images of *KCNMA1* and Na$_V$1.7 (*SCN9A*) mRNA. **B**. Representative images of *KCNMA1* and *RyR2* mRNA. **C**. Comparison of the colocalization between *KCNMA1* mRNA and mRNA from *RyR2*, *SCN9A*, and scrambled images of *KCNMA1*. Data points are from n =67 cells. One way ANOVA. Scale bar is 10 µm and 1 µm in the magnifications. Data were analyzed using ordinary one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparisons test.

To further investigate whether *KCNMA1* and *CACNA1D* are localized in regions of active

translation (Figure 7A), we performed RNAscope targeting *KCNMA1* and *CACNA1D* alongside

immunostaining for BK protein. This strategy enabled us to visualize transcript-protein

colocalization in INS-1 cells with subcellular resolution.

By directly evaluating sites of active BK translation, we aimed to determine whether newly

synthesized BK protein colocalized with *CACNA1D* mRNA signals (Figure 7A). Confocal imaging

revealed distinct micro-translational complex where *KCNMA1* mRNA puncta overlapped with BK

protein signals and were located adjacent to *CACNA1D* mRNA (Figure 7B). Quantitative analysis

showed that 71 ± 3% of all *KCNMA1* colocalized with BK protein signal which means that they

are in active translation. Interestingly, 69 ± 3% of the *KCNMA1* in active translation colocalized

with *CACNA1D* (Figure 7C), supporting the existence of functional micro-translational complexes

between BK and Ca$_V$1.3 channels.

Figure 7. BK mRNA (*KCNMA1*) and Ca$_V$1.3 mRNA (*CACNA1D)* colocalize in micro-translational complexes. **A**. Diagram of the hypothesis: *KCNMA1* mRNAs are found in micro-translational complexes. **B.** Representative images of *KCNMA1* mRNA in magenta, *CACNA1D* mRNA in cyan, and BK protein in green. **C**. Comparison of the frequency of colocalization *KCNMA1* mRNA in active translation and in micro-translational complexes. Data points are from n = 57 cells. One way ANOVA was used as statistical analysis. Scale bar is 10 µm and 1 µm in the magnifications.

293   BK and Ca$_V$1.3 channels form hetero-clusters at the plasma membrane of INS-1 cells.

We previously showed the organization of BK and Ca$_V$1.3 channels in hetero-clusters in

tsA-201 cells and neurons, including hippocampal and sympathetic motor neurons [15]. Our

present study utilizes INS-1 cells. We detected single microscopy and determined their degree of

colocalization. Figure 8A shows a representative image of the localizations of antibodies against

BK and Ca$_V$1.3 channels. Maps were rendered at 5 nm, the pixel size for the images presented.

BK-positive pixels formed multi-pixel aggregates, which has been interpreted as homo-clusters of

molecules in INS-1 cells. It is important to note that this technique does not allow us to distinguish

Figure 8. Formation of BK and Ca$_V$1.3 hetero-clusters in INS-1 cells. A. Representative localization map of antibodies against BK (magenta) and Ca$_V$1.3 (cyan) channels. Magnifications are shown in the insets on the right. **B.** Scatter dot plot of homo-cluster densities of BK and Ca$_V$1.3 channels in INS-1 cells. **C.** Cumulative frequency distributions of homo-cluster sizes of BK and Ca$_V$1.3 channels. Inset compares median size of BK and Ca$_V$1.3 homo-clusters. **D.** Comparison of colocalization between BK and Ca$_V$1.3 and between scrambled BK and Ca$_V$1.3. Data points are from n = 13 cells. Scale bar is 5 μm and 300 nm in the magnifications. Data was analyzed using paired t-tests to evaluate significance.

between labeling of four BK α-subunits within a tetramer and labeling of multiple BK channels in a cluster. Hence, particles smaller than ~1680 nm² may represent either a single tetramer or a cluster. This limitation applies to Figures 8C and 9D and does not affect measurements of BK–Ca$_V$1.3 proximity. Ca$_V$1.3 channels also formed homo-clusters. When looking at the formation of BK and Ca$_V$1.3 hetero-clusters, no fixed geometry or stoichiometry was observed. On the contrary, maps showed a distribution of distances between BK and Ca$_V$1.3 detected pixels. In some cases, BK and Ca$_V$1.3 channels were perfectly overlapping, as if the detection of the antibodies could not be separated by the 20 nm resolution. In other cases, BK

and Ca$_V$1.3 channels were adjacent (less than 5 nm), and in other cases, BK homo-clusters were
surrounded by a variable number of Ca$_V$1.3 channels.

To provide a more quantitative description of the maps, we measured cluster density,
cluster size, and colocalization. We used the particle analysis tool of the software ImageJ for
these measurements. In this analysis, a particle for represents positive pixels irrespective of the
number of pixels composed. INS-1 cells showed 4 times as many Ca$_V$1.3 particles as BK particles
(Figure 8B). Figure 8C shows the frequency distribution of particle size, where the median area
is 1691 nm^2 for BK and 975 nm^2 for Ca$_V$1.3. The colocalization between BK and Ca$_V$1.3 clusters
(Figure 8D) was 7.5%, a value higher than that obtained from scrambled image controls. Notably,
37 ± 3% BK channels are at 200 nm or less from one or more Ca$_V$1.3, while 15 ± 2% of Ca$_V$1.3
channels are at 200 nm or less from one or more BK (Figure 8-supplementary 1 Panel A).
Furthermore, the distribution of the nearest distance between BK and Ca$_V$1.3 in INS-1 cells
(Figure 8-supplementary 1 Panel B, magenta) shows a large proportion of BK channels (around
40%) at <50 nm from any Ca$_V$1.3 channels. Together, these results suggest that INS-1 cells also
exhibit nanodomains containing BK-Ca$_V$1.3 hetero-clusters at the plasma membrane.

Hetero-clusters of BK and Ca$_V$1.3 channels are detected at the plasma membrane soon
after their expression.

In light of our results, our current model is that BK and Ca$_V$1.3 hetero-clusters form prior
to their insertion into the plasma membrane. One prediction based on this model is that channels
inserted in the plasma membrane would appear as hetero-clusters already at early time points
after the start of their synthesis. To test this prediction, we transfected tsA-201 cells with BK and
Ca$_V$1.3 channels and performed a chase experiment to detect their presence at the plasma
membrane using super-resolution microscopy. We measured particle size, density, and
colocalization at 18, 24, and 48 hours after transfection. Notably, although the channels were
transfected simultaneously, BK particles were detected in the plasma membrane 18 hours after
transfection, whereas Ca$_V$1.3 particles were detected 24 hours after transfection (Figure 9A-C).
The distribution of BK and Ca$_V$1.3 particle size did not change with the time after transfection
(Figure 9D and E), in agreement with Sato et al., 2019 [30].

In support of our prediction, we found particles of Ca$_V$1.3 near BK particles as soon as the
expression of Ca$_V$1.3 channels was detected in the plasma membrane (24 hours after
transfection, enlarged Figure 9B). To test this hypothesis further, we compared plots of
localization preference at 24 and 48 hours. These plots were constructed by measuring the
percentage of Ca$_V$1.3 area occupying concentric regions of 20 nm width around BK particles.

Figure 9. Hetero-clusters of BK and Ca$_V$1.3 channels are detected at the plasma membrane soon after their expression begins. A-C. Representative localization maps of antibodies against BK and Ca$_V$1.3 channels. (A) 18 hours, (B) 24 hours, or (C) 48 hours after DNA transfection into cells. Enlargements are shown in insets. **D.** Cumulative frequency distributions of BK homo-cluster size at 18, 24, and 48 hours. Inset compares median BK homo-cluster areas. **E.** Cumulative frequency distributions of Ca$_V$1.3 homo-clusters at 24 and 48 hours. Inset compares median Ca$_V$1.3 cluster areas. Ca$_V$1.3 clusters are not present at the 18-hour time point. **F.** Comparison of colocalization plots between BK and Ca$_V$1.3 channels at 24 and 48-hour time points. Data points are from n = 10 cells. Scale bar is 10 µm and 300 nm in enlargements. Statistical significance was assessed using ordinary one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's multiple comparisons test and unpaired t-test in panel D and E respectively.

345   Values were normalized to the percentage of colocalization found at 200 nm from BK.
346   Figure 9F shows that the localization preference plots are identical at 24 and 48 hours, consistent
347   with the hypothesis that both channels are inserted together into the plasma membrane already
348   as hetero-clusters.
349

Discussion
Intracellular Assembly of BK and Ca$_V$1.3 Channels
Previous work from our group has revealed the organization of hetero-clusters of large-
conductance calcium-activated potassium (BK) channels and voltage-gated calcium channels,
particularly Ca$_V$1.3, within nanodomains [15]. This spatial organization is crucial for the functional
coupling that enables BK channels to respond promptly to calcium influx, thereby modulating
cellular excitability. While physical details of BK-Ca$_V$1.3 interactions are not fully elucidated, the
evidence suggests that BK channels interact with both the Ca$_V$ α1 subunit and its auxiliary
subunits [38, 39].

Our findings highlight the intracellular assembly of BK-Ca$_V$1.3 hetero-clusters, though
limitations in resolution and organelle-specific analysis prevent precise quantification of the
proportion of intracellular complexes that ultimately persist on the cell surface. While our data
confirms that hetero-clusters form before reaching the plasma membrane, it remains unclear
whether all intracellular hetero-clusters transition intact to the membrane or undergo
rearrangement or disassembly upon insertion. Future studies utilizing live cell tracking and high
resolution imaging will be valuable in elucidating the fate and stability of these complexes after
membrane insertion.

A stochastic model of ion channel homo-cluster formation in the plasma membrane
proposes that random yet probabilistic interactions between ion channels contribute to their
formation [30]. These clusters are stabilized and organized within specific membrane regions
through biophysical mechanisms such as membrane curvature. Recent findings on spatial
organization of G-protein coupled receptors provide additional support for this framework,
demonstrating that the coupling of membrane proteins to the curvature of the plasma membrane
acts as a driving force for their clustering into functional domains [40]. Yet, the mechanisms
regulating the spatial organization of hetero-clusters are less known.
375

Colocalization and Trafficking Dynamics
The colocalization of BK and Ca$_V$1.3 channels in the ER and at ER exit sites before
reaching the Golgi suggests a coordinated trafficking mechanism that facilitates the formation of

multi-channel complexes. This functional coupling is crucial for calcium signaling and membrane

excitability [41, 42]. Given the distinct roles of these compartments, colocalization at the ER and

ER exit sites may reflect transient proximity rather than stable interactions. Their presence in the

Golgi further suggests that post-translational modifications and additional assembly steps occur

before plasma membrane transport, providing further insight into hetero-cluster maturation and

sorting events. By examining BK-Ca_V1.3 hetero-cluster distribution across these trafficking

compartments, we ensure that observed colocalization patterns are considered within a broader

framework of intracellular transport mechanisms [43]. Previous studies indicate that ER exit sites

exhibit variability in cargo retention and sorting efficiency [44], emphasizing the need for careful

evaluation of colocalization data. Accounting for these complexities allows for a robust

assessment of signaling complexes formation and trafficking pathways.

BK Surface Expression and Independent Trafficking Pathways

BK surface expression in the absence of Ca_V1.3 indicates that its trafficking does not

strictly rely on Ca_V1.3-mediated interactions. Since BK channels can be activated by multiple

calcium sources, their presence in intracellular compartments suggests that their surface

expression is governed by intrinsic trafficking mechanisms rather than direct calcium-dependent

regulation. While some BK and Ca_V1.3 hetero-clusters assemble into signaling complexes

intracellularly, other BK channels follow independent trafficking pathways, demonstrating that

complex formation is not obligatory for all BK channels. Differences in their transport kinetics

further reinforce the idea that their intracellular trafficking is regulated through distinct

mechanisms. Studies have shown that BK channels can traffic independently of Ca_V1.3, relying

on alternative calcium sources for activation [13, 45]. Additionally, Ca_V1.3 exhibits slower

synthesis and trafficking kinetics than BK, emphasizing that their intracellular transport may not

always be coordinated. These findings suggest that BK and Ca_V1.3 exhibit both independent and

coordinated trafficking behaviors, influencing their spatial organization and functional interactions.

Future experiments using inducible constructs to precisely control transcription timing will enable

more precise quantification of hetero-cluster formation in the ER compartment prior to plasma

membrane insertion and reduce the variability introduced by differences in expression timing after

plasmid transfection.

mRNA Colocalization and Protein Trafficking

The colocalization of mRNAs encoding BK and Ca_V1.3 channels suggests a coordinated

translation mechanism that facilitates their proximal synthesis and subsequent assembly into

functional complexes. As a mechanism, mRNA localization enhances protein enrichment at functional sites, coordinating with translational control to position ion channels at specific subcellular domains; ion channel positioning is especially critical for neurons and cardiomyocytes [46, 47]. By synthesizing these channels in close proximity, channels can be efficiently assembled into functional units, making this process crucial for precise targeting and trafficking of ion channels to specific subcellular domains, thereby ensuring proper cellular function and efficient signal transduction [48-50]. Disruption in mRNA localization or protein trafficking can lead to ion channel mislocalization, resulting in altered cellular function and disease [51, 52]. In cardiac cells, precise trafficking of ion channels to specific membrane subdomains is crucial for maintaining normal electrical and mechanical functions, and its disruption contributes to heart disease and arrhythmias [53-55] Similarly, in neurons, the localization and translation of mRNA at synaptic sites are essential for synaptic plasticity, and disturbances can lead to neurological disorders [56, 57].

Co-translational Regulation and Functional Coordination

The potential co-translational association of transcripts encoding BK and $Ca_V1.3$ ion channels, as well as other known calcium sources like RyR2, may serve as a mechanism to ensure the precise stoichiometry and assembly of functional channel complexes. It is important to note that while our data suggest mRNA coordination, additional experiments are required to directly assess co-translation. In parallel, the spatial organization of BK channels with other calcium sources such as RyR2—particularly in airway myocytes—has been shown to facilitate efficient BK activation by localized Ca^{2+} sparks [38]. Co-translational association of transcripts encoding $K_V1.3$ channels was the first example in which the interaction of nascent $K_V1.3$ N-termini facilitates proper tertiary and quaternary structure required for oligomerization [58, 59]. Similarly, co-translational heteromeric association of hERG1a and hERG1b subunits ensures that cardiac IK_r currents exhibit the appropriate biophysical properties and magnitude necessary for normal ventricular action potential shaping [25]. The precise mechanism by which BK transcripts are associated with the transcripts of calcium sources like $Ca_V1.3$ and RyR2 channels remain to be elucidated. While it is conceivable that complementary base pairing or tertiary structural interactions play a role, RNA binding proteins (RBPs) are likely key mediators of these associations.

Conclusion and Future Directions

This study provides novel insights into the organization of BK and Ca$_V$1.3 channels in
hetero-clusters, emphasizing their assembly within the ER, at ER exit sites, and within the Golgi.
Our findings suggest that BK and Ca$_V$1.3 channels begin assembling intracellularly before
reaching the plasma membrane, shaping their spatial organization, and potentially facilitating
functional coupling. While this suggests a coordinated process that may contribute to functional
coupling, further investigation is needed to determine the extent to which these hetero-clusters
persist upon membrane insertion. While our study advances the understanding of BK and Ca$_V$1.3
hetero-cluster assembly, several key questions remain unanswered. What molecular machinery
drives this colocalization at the mRNA and protein level? How do disruptions to complex assembly
contribute to channelopathies and related diseases? Additionally, a deeper investigation into the
role of RNA binding proteins in facilitating transcript association and localized translation is
warranted.
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Materials and Methods

Key resource table

Reagent type (species) or resource	Designation	Source or reference	Identifiers	Additional information
Cell line (human)	tsA-201	Sigma	RRID:CVCL_2737	Authentication: STR profiling; Mycoplasma: negative (see Materials & Methods).
Cell line (rat)	INS-1	Sigma	RRID:CVCL_0352	Authentication: STR profiling/DNA barcoding; Mycoplasma: negative (see Materials & Methods).
Recombinant DNA reagent	CaV1.3	Addgene	RRID:Addgene_49333; Addgene:49333	Plasmid expressing CACNA1D (rat).

Recombinant DNA reagent	Slo1 (BK)	Addgene	RRID:Addgene_ 113566; Addgene:113566	Mouse BK channel alpha subunit expression vector.
Recombinant DNA reagent	KDEL-mox-GFP (ERmoxGFP)	Addgene	RRID:Addgene_ 68072; Addgene:68072	ER-localized moxGFP with KDEL retention sequence.
Recombinant DNA reagent	pmGFP-Sec16	Addgene	RRID:Addgene_ 15775; Addgene:15775	pmGFP-Sec16S mammalian expression plasmid.
Recombinant DNA reagent	Golgi-mEGFP	Addgene	RRID:Addgene_ 182877; Addgene:182877	Golgi-targeted mEGFP.
Recombinant DNA reagent	pPH-PLC-δ-GFP (PH-PLCD1-GFP)	Addgene	RRID:Addgene_ 51407; Addgene:51407	Biosensor for PI(4,5)P2.
Recombinant DNA reagent	CaVβ3	Diane Lipscombe, Brown University	other	Auxiliary subunit for CaV1.3; repository ID not available; contact depositor.
Recombinant DNA reagent	CaVα2δ1	Diane Lipscombe, Brown University	other	Auxiliary subunit for CaV1.3; repository ID not available; contact depositor.
Sequence-based reagent (rat)	RNAscope 3-plex Positive Control Probes	Advanced Cell Diagnostics	Cat. No. 320871	Species-specific housekeeping targets for RNAscope; 3-plex positive control.
Sequence-based reagent (rat)	RNAscope 3-plex Negative Control Probe (dapB)	Advanced Cell Diagnostics	Cat. No. 320871	Negative control probe targeting bacterial dapB.
Sequence-based reagent (rat)	RNAscope™ Probe - Rn-Ryr	Advanced Cell Diagnostics	Cat. No. 2560931	Custom target probe.
Sequence-based reagent (rat)	RNAscope™ Probe - Rn-Scn9a	Advanced Cell Diagnostics	Cat. No. 317851	Custom target probe.
Sequence-based reagent (rat)	RNAscope Probe - Rn-Kcnma1-C3	Advanced Cell Diagnostics	Cat. No. 1108261-C3	Channel C3 probe.
Sequence-based reagent (rat)	RNAscope Probe - Rn-Cacna1d-C2	Advanced Cell Diagnostics	Cat. No. 409361-C2	Channel C2 probe.
Sequence-based reagent (rat)	RNAscope Probe - Rn-Gapdh	Advanced Cell Diagnostics	Cat. No. 409821	Housekeeping gene control.
Antibody	Anti-CaV1.3 (Rabbit polyclonal)	Drs. William Catterall and Ruth Westenbroek		Rabbit polyclonal primary recognizing residues 809–825 (II–III loop), (1:100), (1µl)
Antibody	Anti-Slo1 (clone L6/60) (Mouse monocolonal)	Millipore Sigma	RRID:AB_10805 948; Cat. No. MABN70	Mouse monoclonal, (1:100), (1µl)
Antibody	Anti-GFP (Goat polyconolal)	Abcam	RRID:AB_30564 3; Cat. No. ab6673	Rabbit polyclonal to full-length Aequorea victoria GFP, (1:100), (1µl)
Antibody	Anti-58K Golgi (Mouse monoclonal)	Abcam	RRID:AB_21070 05; Cat. No. ab27043	Mouse monoclonal recognizing Golgi protein (1:100), (1µl)

Antibody	Donkey anti-mouse Alexa 647 (Donkey polyclonal)	Invitrogen (Molecular Probes)	RRID:AB_25361 83; Cat. No. A-31573	Secondary antibody donkey polyclonal, (1:1000), (1µl)
Antibody	Donkey anti-rabbit Alexa 555 (Donkey polyclonal)	Invitrogen (Molecular Probes)	RRID:AB_25340 17; Cat. No. A10042	Secondary antibody, donkey polyclonal, (1:1000), (1µl)
Antibody	Donkey anti-goat Alexa 488 (Donkey polyclonal)	Invitrogen (Molecular Probes)	RRID:AB_16254 2; Cat. No. A-31571	Secondary antibody, donkey polyclonal, (1:1000), (1µl)
Antibody	Duolink® In Situ PLA® probe anti-rabbit PLUS (Donkey polyclonal)	Sigma	RRID:AB_28109 40	Proximity ligation assay probe, donkey polyclonal, (1:20), (2µl)
Antibody	Duolink® In Situ PLA® probe anti-mouse PLUS (Donkey polyclonal)	Sigma	RRID:AB_28109 39	Proximity ligation assay probe, donkey polyclonal, (1:20), (2µl)
Commercial assay or kit	Duolink® In Situ Red Starter Kit	Sigma	Cat. No. DUO92008	PLA detection kit.
Chemical compound, drug	Lipofectamine 3000	Invitrogen	Cat. No. L3000001/008/01 5 (series)	Transfection reagent; see Thermo Fisher catalog for sizes.
Chemical compound, drug	ProLong™ Gold Antifade Mountant with DAPI	Invitrogen	Cat. No. P36931	Mounting medium with DAPI.
Commercial assay or kit	RNAscope™ Multiplex Fluorescent v2 Assay	Advanced Cell Diagnostics (Bio-Techne)	Cat. No. 323270 (with TSA Vivid dyes) / 323100 (reagent kit v2)	Manual multiplex fluorescent RNA ISH assay.
Software, algorithm	Prism	GraphPad	RRID:SCR_0027 98	Version 10
Software, algorithm	Excel	Microsoft		Microsoft 365 build
Software, algorithm	ImageJ	NIH	RRID:SCR_0030 70	ImageJ2/Fiji build
Software, algorithm	NImOS	ONI		Version: v1.18.3

Cell culture:

We used tsA-201 cells to co-express BK and $Ca_V1.3$ channels heterologously. Cells were
grown in DMEM (Gibco) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum and 0.2%
penicillin/streptomycin. We used rat insulinoma (INS-1) cells to study endogenous levels of
transcripts and proteins of channels. INS-1 cells were cultured in RPMI high glutamate medium
(Gibco) with 10% fetal bovine serum, 0.2% penicillin/streptomycin, 10 mM HEPES (Gibco), 1 mM
sodium pyruvate (Gibco), and 50 µM 2-mercaptoethanol. Both cell types were passaged twice a
week and incubated in 5% CO_2 at 37°C. Cell lines tsA-201 (human) and INS-1 (rat) were
purchased from Sigma. According to the manufacturer, these cell lines were authenticated and
tested for mycoplasma contamination prior to shipment. No additional authentication or
contamination testing was performed by the authors.

Plasmids and transfection:
Cells were transfected with 0.1– 0.4 µg DNA per plasmid and plated for 24 hours on poly-
D-Lysine coated coverslips. Lipofectamine 3000 (Invitrogen, RRID: L30000) was used for the
transfection. DNA clones of $Ca_V1.3$, BK channels, PH-PLCδ GFP, ER moxGFP, pmGFP-Sec16S
and Golgi-mGFP were obtained from Addgene (RRID:SCR_002037). The $Ca_V1.3$ α subunit
construct used in our study corresponds to the rat $Ca_V1.3e$ splice variant containing exons 8a, 11,
31b, and 42a, with a deletion of exon 32. The BK channel construct corresponds to the VYR splice
variant of the mouse BKα subunit (KCNMA1). Auxiliary subunits for $Ca_V1.3$ channels, $Ca_Vβ3$ and
$Ca_Vα2δ1$ (from Diane Lipscombe, Brown University, RI), were transfected as well. No BK channel
auxiliary subunits were transfected.

Antibodies:
$Ca_V1.3$ channels were immuno-detected with a rabbit primary antibody recognizing
residues 809 to 825 located at the intracellular II-III loop of the channel
(DNKVTIDDYQEEAEDKD), kindly provided by Drs. William Catterall and Ruth Westenbroek [32].
BK channels were detected using the anti-Slo1 mouse monoclonal antibody clone L6/60. The
goat polyclonal GFP antibody was against the recombinant full-length protein corresponding to
Aequorea victoria GFP. Anti-58K Golgi protein antibody was used to mark the Golgi. Specificity
of antibodies was tested in un-transfected tsA-201 cells (Figure 2- Supplementary 1). The
secondary antibodies tagged with Alexa dyes were Donkey anti-mouse Alexa-647, Donkey anti-
rabbit Alexa-555, Donkey anti-goat Alexa-488 (Molecular Probes).

Immunostaining:

Cells were fixed with freshly prepared 4% paraformaldehyde for 10 minutes. After

washing, aldehydes were reduced with 0.1% NaBH$_4$ for 5 minutes and then washed again.

Nonspecific binding was blocked with 3% bovine serum albumin (Thermo Scientific). Cells were

permeabilized with 0.25% v/v Triton X-100 in PBS for 1 hour. Primary antibodies were used at 10

µg/ml in blocking solution and incubated overnight at 4°C. After washing, secondary antibodies

at 2 µg/ml were incubated for 1 hour at 21°C. Washing steps indicated in all methods include 3

cycles of rinsing and rocking for 5 minutes with PBS at 21°C. Cells were imaged using an inverted

AiryScan microscope or an ONI Nanoimager with super-resolution capabilities, in total internal

reflection fluorescence (TIRF) mode, and with a Z-resolution of 50 nm.

Proximity ligation assay (PLA):

Cells were fixed with freshly prepared 4% paraformaldehyde for 10 minutes. After

washing, aldehydes were reduced with 50 mM glycine for 15 minutes. After another round of

washes, PLA was performed according to manufacturer instructions (Duolink® In Situ Red Starter

Kit). Cells were blocked and permeabilized with Duolink blocking solution. Primary antibodies

were used at 10 µg/ml in Duolink antibody diluent and incubated overnight at 4°C. The Duolink®

In Situ PLA® probe anti-rabbit PLUS and anti-mouse MINUS were used as secondary antibodies,

followed by ligation and amplification. For PLA combined with immunostaining, PLA was followed

by a secondary antibody incubation with Alexa Fluor-488 at 2 µg/ml for 1 hour at 21°C. Since GFP

fluorescence fades significantly during the PLA protocol, resulting in reduced signal intensity and

poor image resolution, GFP was labeled using an antibody rather than relying on its intrinsic

fluorescence. Coverslips were mounted using ProLong™ Gold Antifade Mountant with DAPI.

Cells were imaged using an inverted Zeiss AiryScan microscope.

Single-molecule fluorescence in situ hybridization (RNAscope^{TM}):

Manual RNAscope assay was performed using RNAscope Multiplex Fluorescent V2

Assay according to the manufacturer's protocol. The RNAscope assay consists of target probes

and a signal amplification system composed of a preamplifier, amplifier, and label probe. A

schematic RNAscope assay procedure is shown in Figure 5- Supplementary 1. The probes

against the mRNAs of interest and tested in this work were designed by Advanced Cell

Diagnostics. Briefly, cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde for 30 minutes, washed,

dehydrated, and then rehydrated with ethanol, and permeabilized with 0.1% Tween-20 in PBS.

Next, cells were quenched with H_2O_2 and treated with Protease III. Probes were hybridized for 2
hours at 40°C followed by RNAscope amplification and then fluorescence detection. Coverslips
were mounted using ProLong™ Gold Antifade Mountant with DAPI. We used the following
RNAscope probes: RNAscope 3-plex Positive Control Probes, RNAscope 3-plex negative control
probes, RNAscope™ Probe- Rn-Ryr, RNAscope™ Probe- Rn-Scn9a, RNAscope Probe- Rn-
Kcnma1-C3, RNAscope Probe- Rn-Cacna1d-C2, and RNAscope Probe- Rn-Gapdh. Cells were
imaged on the inverted AiryScan microscope. For PLA and RNAscope experiments, we used
custom-made macros written in ImageJ. Processing of PLA data included background
subtraction. To assess colocalization, fluorescent signals were converted into binary images, and
channels were multiplied to identify spatial overlap. Specificity of RNAscope probes was tested in
un-transfected tsA-201 cells (Figure 5- Supplementary 2). For RNAscope combined with
immunostaining, RNAscope was followed by blocking in PBS supplemented with 0.01 % Tween-
20 and 3% BSA for 1 h at 21°C. Samples were then probed for BK protein using primary antibody
overnight at 4°C followed by secondary antibody incubation with Alexa Fluor-488 at 2 µg/ml for 1
hour at 21°C. Coverslips were mounted using ProLong™ Gold Antifade Mountant. Cells were
imaged using an inverted Zeiss AiryScan microscope.

High resolution imaging:

Cells were imaged using an inverted AiryScan microscope (Zeiss LSM 880) run by ZEN
black v2.3 software and equipped with a plan apochromat 63X oil immersion objective with 1.4
NA. Fluorescent dyes were excited with a 405 nm diode, 458–514 nm argon, 561 nm, or 633 nm
laser. Emission light was detected using an Airyscan 32 GaAsP detector and appropriate
emission filter sets. The point spread functions were calculated using ZEN black software and 0.1
µm fluorescent microspheres. The temperature inside the microscope housing was 22°C. Images
were analyzed using ImageJ (NIH).

Super-resolution imaging:

Direct stochastic optical reconstruction microscopy (dSTORM) images of BK and $Ca_V1.3$
overexpressed in tsA-201 cells were acquired using an ONI Nanoimager microscope equipped
with a 100X oil immersion objective (1.4 NA), an XYZ closed-loop piezo 736 stage, and triple
emission channels split at 488, 555, and 640 nm. Samples were imaged at 35°C. For single-
molecule localization microscopy, fixed and stained cells were imaged in GLOX imaging buffer
containing 10 mM β-mercaptoethylamine (MEA), 0.56 mg/ml glucose oxidase, 34 µg/ml catalase,
and 10% w/v glucose in Tris-HCl buffer. Single-molecule localizations were filtered using NImOS

software (v.1.18.3, ONI). Localization maps were exported as TIFF images with a pixel size of 5

nm. Maps were further processed in ImageJ (NIH) by thresholding and binarization to isolate

labeled structures. To assess colocalization between the signal from two proteins, binary images

were multiplied. Particles smaller than 400 nm^2 were excluded from the analysis to reflect the

spatial resolution limit of STORM imaging (20 nm) and the average size of BK channels. To

examine spatial localization preference, binary images of BK were progressively dilated to 20 nm,

40 nm, 60 nm, 80 nm, 100 nm, and 200 nm to expand their spatial representation. These modified

images were then multiplied with the $Ca_V1.3$ channel to quantify colocalization and determine BK

occupancy at increasing distances from $Ca_V1.3$. To ensure consistent comparisons across

distance thresholds, data were normalized using the 200 nm measurement as the highest

reference value, set to 1.

Image scrambling:

Images were binarized as TIFF images, and their respective cell perimeter coordinates

were exported as CSV files by ImageJ. Processed binary images were then analyzed by our

SpotScrambler (https://github.com/jehuang2/SpotScramble) Python program. SpotScrambler first

extracts the areas of fluorescent particles in the binary image. SpotScrambler then redraws the

fluorescent particles as circles at randomized coordinates within cell perimeter boundaries.

SpotScrambler accurately preserves particle number and particle sizes, averaging less than 1%

difference in total area of fluorescent particles between pre-SpotScrambler and post-

SpotScrambler images. To ensure reliable randomization for each experiment, results were

averaged between 3 trials of SpotScrambler.

Data analysis

Excel (Microsoft), and Prism (GraphPad) were used to analyze data. ImageJ was used to

process images. One-way ANOVA and non-parametric statistical test (Mann-Whitney Wilcoxon)

were used to test for statistical significance. p-values <0.05 were deemed statistically significant.

The number of cells used for each experiment is detailed in each figure legend.

Materials Availability Statement

All newly created materials used in this study are available for public access. Plasmid constructs

have been deposited in Addgene (repository links and RRIDs are provided in the Methods

section). RNA probes utilized for in situ hybridization are proprietary to ACD Biotechnology and

are not accessible for redistribution. Complete details regarding materials, including catalog

numbers and RRIDs, are provided in the Methods section and in the Supporting Data Excel

sheet.

All datasets supporting the findings of this study have been deposited in Dryad and are publicly

available in dryad (https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.63xsj3vfq)

Anti BK-Alexa 647	Anti Ca$_V$1.3-Alexa 555	Anti GFP-Alexa 488

Figure 2-Supplementary 1. Validation of antibodies against BK, Ca$_V$1.3 and GFP. Representative confocal images of tsA-201 cells immuno-tested for BK channels (left), Ca$_V$1.3 channels (middle), and GFP proteins (right). Cells were not transfected. Nuclei were stained with DAPI and pseudo colored in gray. Scale bar is 10 μm for all images.

Figure 4-Supplementary 1. Ca$_V$1.3 channels do not exhibit proximity interactions with ryanodine receptor type 2 (RyR$_2$). A. Representative images of proximity ligation assay (PLA) experiments in INS-1 cells labeling against Ca$_V$1.3 and BK channels (left) or Ca$_V$1.3 and RyR$_2$ (right). Comparison of PLA puncta density for the two conditions. Statistical significance was assessed using an unpaired t-test.

(1)

(2)

(3)

20 pairs of double ZZ
probes hybridize to
the target mRNA

Preamplifier binds to
the ZZ Probes

Amplifiers and labeled
probes bind to the
preamplifier

627 **Figure 5-Supplementary 1. Illustration of RNA scope methodology.** Steps to detect an mRNA sequence (red

628 zipper) consisting of (1) hybridization, (2) pre-amplification, (3) and labeling. Double ZZ probes are shown in green.

629 Dye labeling the mRNA is shown in magenta.

A Negative control

B Positive control

C *KCNMA1* mRNA

D *CACNA1D* mRNA

E *RyR2* mRNA

F *SCN9A* mRNA

10 µm

Figure 5-Supplementary 2. RNA probe validation. A. Representative images of INS-1 cells subjected to mRNA

probes against a bacterial gene (DapB from *Bacillus subtilis*). **B.** Representative images of INS-1 cells subjected to

mRNA probes against three constitutive mammalian genes (ubiquitin C, cyclophilin B, and a polymerase II subunit). **C**

- F show tsA-201 cells that were naive to exogenous DNA but treated with mRNA probes against the genes for (**C**)

BK channels, (**D**) Ca$_V$1.3 channels, (**E**) Ryanodine Receptors type 2 (RyR2), and (**F**) Na$_V$1.7 channels. Scale bar is

10 µm.

Figure 8-Supplementary 1. Organization of BK-Ca$_V$1.3 hetero-clusters in INS-1 cells. A. Proportion of channels in

clusters or outside clusters for BK and Ca$_V$1.3. Clustered channels were defined as being at a distance of 200 nm or

less from the other channel type. Channels found at 200 nm or more were considered non-clustered. Data from 7 cells.

B. Distribution of the nearest neighbor distance from BK channels to Ca$_V$1.3 channels in INS-1 cells (magenta, n =

1037 BK channels, from N = 5 cells). Distribution of the nearest neighbor distance from BK channels to randomized

channels (gray, n = 363 BK channels). The shift in the distribution from INS-1 cells to randomized images suggests a

preferential localization of endogenous BK-Ca$_V$1.3 hetero-clusters.

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