

# Introduction: P2 Receptors

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**Abstract:** The current status of ligand gated ion channel P2X and G protein-coupled P2Y receptor subtypes is described. This is followed by a summary of what is known of the distribution and roles of these receptor subtypes. Potential therapeutic targets of purinoceptors are considered, including those involved in cardiovascular, nervous, respiratory, urogenital, gastrointestinal, musculo-skeletal and special sensory diseases, as well as inflammation, cancer and diabetes. Lastly, there are some speculations about future developments in the purinergic signalling field.



## HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The first paper describing the potent actions of adenine compounds was published by Drury & Szent-Györgyi in 1929 [1]. Many years later, ATP was proposed as the transmitter responsible for non-adrenergic, non-cholinergic transmission in the gut and bladder and the term 'purinergic' introduced by Burnstock [2]. Early resistance to this concept appeared to stem from the fact that ATP was recognized first for its important intracellular roles and the intuitive feeling was that such a ubiquitous and simple compound was unlikely to be utilized as an extracellular messenger.

Purinergic receptors were first defined in 1976 [3] and two years later a basis for distinguishing two types of purinoceptor, identified as P1 and P2 (for adenosine and ATP/ADP, respectively), was defined [4]. At about the same time, two subtypes of the P1 (adenosine) receptor were recognised [5,6], but it was not until 1985 that a pharmacological basis for distinguishing two types of P2 receptors (P2X and P2Y) was proposed [7]. A year later, two further P2 purinoceptor subtypes were named, a P2T receptor selective for ADP on platelets and a P2Z receptor on macrophages [8]. Further subtypes followed, perhaps the most important of which being the P2U receptor which could recognise pyrimidines such as UTP as well as ATP [9]. However, to provide a more manageable framework for newly identified nucleotide receptors, Abbracchio and Burnstock [10] proposed that purinoceptors should belong to two major families: a P2X family of ligand-gated ion channel receptors and a P2Y family of G protein-coupled purinoceptors, based on studies of transduction mechanisms [11] and the cloning of nucleotide receptors [12-15]. This nomenclature has been widely adopted and currently seven P2X subtypes and eight P2Y receptor subtypes are recognised, including receptors that are sensitive to pyrimidines as well as purines [16-18].

It is widely recognised that purinergic signalling is a primitive system [19] involved in many non-neuronal as well as neuronal mechanisms and in both short-term and long-term (trophic) events [20], including exocrine and endocrine secretion, immune responses, inflammation, pain, platelet aggregation, endothelial-mediated vasodilatation, cell proliferation and death [8, 21-23].

## P2X Receptors

Members of the existing family of ionotropic P2X<sub>1-7</sub> receptors show a subunit topology of: intracellular N- and C-termini possessing consensus binding motifs for protein kinases; two transmembrane spanning regions (TM1 and TM2), the first involved with channel gating and second lining the ion pore; a large extracellular loop, with 10 conserved cysteine residues forming a series of disulphide bridges; a hydrophobic H5 region close to the pore vestibule, for possible receptor/channel modulation by cations (magnesium, calcium, zinc, copper and proton ions); and an ATP-binding site, which may involve regions of the extracellular loop adjacent to TM1 and TM2. The P2X<sub>1-7</sub> receptors show 30-50% sequence identity at the peptide level. The stoichiometry of P2X<sub>1-7</sub> receptors is now thought to involve three subunits which form a stretched trimer [17].

The pharmacology of the recombinant P2X receptor subtypes expressed in oocytes or other cell types is often different from the pharmacology of P2Y-mediated responses in naturally occurring sites. Several contributing factors may account for these differences. First, heteromultimers as well as homomultimers are involved in forming the trimer ion pore. For example, heteromultimers are clearly established for P2X<sub>2/3</sub> in nodose ganglia [24-29]. P2X<sub>7</sub> does not form heteromultimers, and P2X<sub>6</sub> will not form a functional homomultimer [30, 31]. Second, spliced variants of P2X receptor subtypes might play a part. For example, a splice variant of P2X<sub>4</sub> receptor, while it is nonfunctional on its own, can potentiate the actions of ATP through the full-length P2X<sub>4</sub> receptors (e.g. [32]). Third, the presence of powerful ectoenzymes in tissues that rapidly break down purines and pyrimidines is not a factor when examining recombinant receptors [33].

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Many pharmacological and operational differences are exhibited by the P2X receptor family. The kinetics of activation, inactivation and deactivation also vary considerably amongst P2X receptors. Calcium permeability is high for some P2X subtypes, a property that may be functionally important.

### P2Y Receptors

Metabotropic P2Y<sub>1-14</sub> receptors are characterised by a subunit topology of: extracellular N-terminus and intracellular C-terminus, the latter possessing consensus binding motifs for protein kinases; seven transmembrane spanning regions which help to form the ligand docking pocket; a high level of sequence homology between some transmembrane spanning regions, particularly TM3, 6 and 7; structural diversity of intracellular loops and C-terminus amongst P2Y subtypes, so influencing the degree of coupling with G<sub>q/11</sub>, G<sub>s</sub> and G<sub>i</sub> proteins. Each P2Y receptor binds to a single heterotrimeric G protein (typically G<sub>q/11</sub>), although P2Y<sub>11</sub> can couple to both G<sub>q/11</sub> and G<sub>s</sub> whereas P2Y<sub>12</sub>, P2Y<sub>13</sub> and P2Y<sub>14</sub> couple to G<sub>i</sub>. P2Y receptors may form homo- and heteromultimeric assemblies under some conditions, and many tissues express multiple P2Y subtypes [18]. P2Y receptors show a low level of sequence homology at the peptide level (19-55% identical) and, consequently, show significant differences in their pharmacological and operational profiles. In response to nucleotide activation, recombinant P2Y receptors either activate phospholipase C and release intracellular calcium or affect adenylyl cyclase and alter cAMP levels. There is little evidence to indicate P2Y<sub>5,9,10</sub> sequences are nucleotide receptors or affect intracellular signalling cascades. Endogenous P2Y receptors show a greater diversity in intracellular signalling and can activate phospholipases A<sub>2</sub>, C and D, MEP/MAP kinase, Rho-dependent kinase and tyrosine kinase, as well as coupling both positively and negatively to adenylyl cyclase.

2-MethylthioADP is a potent agonist of mammalian P2Y<sub>1</sub> receptors [34], and MRS 2179 is a potent antagonist [35]; MRS 2269 and MRS 2286 have been identified as selective antagonists [36]. At P2Y<sub>2</sub> and P2Y<sub>4</sub> receptors in the rat, ATP and UTP are equipotent, but the two receptors can be distinguished with antagonists, i.e. suramin blocks P2Y<sub>2</sub>, while Reactive blue 2 blocks P2Y<sub>4</sub> receptors [37,38]. P2Y<sub>6</sub> is UDP-selective, while P2Y<sub>7</sub> turned out to be a leukotriene receptor. P2Y<sub>8</sub> is a receptor cloned from frog embryos, where all the nucleotides are equipotent [39], but no mammalian homologue has been identified to date, apart from a recent report of P2Y<sub>8</sub> mRNA in undifferentiated HL60 cells [40]. P2Y<sub>11</sub> is unusual in that there are two transduction pathways, adenylyl cyclase as well as inositol triphosphate, which is the second messenger system used by the majority of the P2Y receptors. The P2Y<sub>12</sub> receptor found on platelets was not cloned until recently [41], although it only has 19% homology with the other P2Y receptor subtypes. It seems likely to represent one of a subgroup of P2Y receptors for which transduction is entirely through adenylyl cyclase. A further receptor, P2Y<sub>13</sub>, has recently been identified [42], which is related to the P2Y<sub>12</sub> receptor, and the UDP-glucose receptor which has been recently renamed as the P2Y<sub>14</sub> receptor [18,43,44].

There are suggestions that P2Y receptors can be divided into two subgroups on the basis of structural similarities: (i) P2Y<sub>1</sub>, P2Y<sub>2</sub>, P2Y<sub>4</sub>, P2Y<sub>6</sub> and P2Y<sub>11</sub> and (ii) P2Y<sub>12</sub>, P2Y<sub>13</sub> and P2Y<sub>14</sub>. In addition, the non-mammalian p2y<sub>8</sub> and tp2y receptors are activated by all triphosphate nucleotides. Table 1 summarises the status of the P2 receptor subtype agonists and antagonists currently available [18].

### DISTRIBUTION AND ROLES OF PURINOCEPTOR SUBTYPES

#### P2X Receptors

The distribution of P2X receptor subtypes based on Northern blot and *in situ* hybridization studies [45] has been extended, after antibodies to these receptors became available, by immunohistochemical localization at both light microscopic [46-58] and electron microscopic levels [59-63]. For example, while it was originally thought that smooth muscle contained only P2X<sub>1</sub> receptors, there is now evidence for the presence of P2X<sub>2</sub>, P2X<sub>4</sub> and probably P2X<sub>5</sub> receptors as both homomultimers and heteromultimers [64, 66]. P2X<sub>1</sub> receptors, which, in earlier studies, were not considered to be present in the brain, now have been found at postjunctional sites in synapses in the cerebellum [60].

The P2X<sub>1</sub> receptor is characterised by rapid desensitization and potent actions of  $\gamma$ -methylene ATP ( $\gamma$ -meATP), and there are now very potent selective antagonists for this receptor, such as trinitrophenyl ATP [67], diinosine pentaphosphate [68], NF449 [69] and MRS 2257 [70] widespread in the central nervous system and have been found at both pre- and postsynaptic sites in the hypothalamus [62,63]. A feature of the P2X<sub>2</sub> receptor is lack of fast desensitisation and high sensitivity to acidity and Zn<sup>2+</sup> [71,72]. P2X<sub>3</sub> receptors are interesting in that they are predominantly localised on sensory nerves, particularly the small nociceptive neurons in the dorsal root, trigeminal and nodose ganglia [73]. The central projections are located in inner lamina II of the dorsal horn of the spinal cord, and peripheral extensions have been noted in the skin, tongue [74] and most recently in tooth pulp [75] and bladder [76]. There is recent evidence for P2X<sub>2</sub> and P2X<sub>3</sub> labelling of endothelial cells of microvessels in brain, thymus, thyroid, and gut and also in epithelial cells in the thyroid [54,61,77,78]. P2X<sub>4</sub> and P2X<sub>6</sub> receptors are prominent in the central nervous system, but are unusual in that responses to purines mediated by these receptors are not blocked by agents commonly used as P2 antagonists [79]. P2X<sub>5</sub> receptors have been shown to be associated with proliferating and differentiating epithelial cells in the skin and hair follicles [53], in the bladder, ureter, and vagina [55,57,58]. P2X<sub>5</sub> receptors are also prominent in a number of cell types in embryonic development [80, 81]. P2X<sub>7</sub> receptors are unique in that, as well as a cation pore, a large, 4-nm pore can be formed, which appears to be linked with apoptosis, perhaps associated with the elongated C-terminus of this receptor [82]. The P2X<sub>7</sub> receptor is often internalized in cells, although under pathological conditions such as ischemia and cancer, it becomes externalized, leading to apoptosis. Fluorescent green protein coupled to P2X<sub>7</sub> receptors provide a valuable technique for observing the movement of receptors in living cells [83].

Table 1. Mammalian P2 Receptors and Assessment of Activities of Agonists and Antagonists (\* Selective).

	P2X <sub>1</sub>	P2X <sub>2</sub>	P2X <sub>3</sub>	P2X <sub>4</sub>	P2X <sub>5</sub>	P2X <sub>6</sub>	P2X <sub>7</sub>	P2X <sub>2/3</sub>	P2X <sub>1/5</sub>	P2X <sub>4/6</sub>	P2Y <sub>1</sub>	P2Y <sub>2</sub>	P2Y <sub>4</sub>	P2Y <sub>6</sub>	P2Y <sub>11</sub>	P2Y <sub>12</sub>	P2Y <sub>13</sub>	P2Y <sub>14</sub>
<u>Agonists</u>																		
ATP	✓✓✓	✓✓	✓✓✓	✓✓	✓✓	✓	✓	✓✓✓	✓✓✓	✓✓	✓	✓✓✓	✓✓	-	✓			
ADP	✓	-	✓	-	-	-	-		✓✓		✓✓		✓			✓✓	✓✓	
2-MeSATP	✓✓✓	✓✓	✓✓✓	✓✓	✓✓	✓	✓				✓✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓✓	
PAPET-ATP	✓✓	✓	✓✓✓	✓							✓✓✓*							
2-MeSADP				✓							✓✓✓*			✓✓		✓✓✓	✓✓✓	
HT-AMP	✓✓	-	✓✓✓	✓✓							✓✓							
, -meATP*	✓✓✓	-	✓✓✓*	✓	✓	✓	-	✓✓✓	✓✓	✓				-				
, -meATP	✓✓	-	✓✓	-	✓		-							-				
ATP S	✓✓	✓✓	✓✓	✓	✓✓	✓	-				✓	✓	✓		✓✓✓	✓		
ATP S											✓✓				✓	✓✓		
Bz-ATP	✓✓✓	✓✓	✓	✓✓✓	✓✓		✓✓						✓		✓✓✓			
UDP-glucose																		✓✓✓*
UDP S														✓✓✓*				
2-dATP															✓✓			
Ap <sub>4</sub> A	✓✓✓	✓	✓✓✓	✓	✓							✓✓	✓✓					
UTP	-	-	-	-	✓							✓✓✓	✓✓✓	✓				
UTP S												✓✓✓*						
UDP					-							✓	✓✓	✓✓✓				
CTP	✓	✓	✓	-	✓								✓✓					
<u>Antagonists</u>																		
PPADS	✓✓	✓✓	✓✓	-	✓✓	✓	✓					✓	✓	✓✓				
isoPPADS	✓✓	✓✓	✓✓															
PPNDS	✓✓*																	
Suramin	✓✓	✓	✓	-	✓✓	-	-				✓	✓	-	-	✓✓	✓		
NF023	✓✓*	✓	✓															
Reactive blue 2	✓	✓✓	✓	-	✓						✓		✓	✓✓	✓	✓✓		
MRS 2179	✓	-	✓	-							✓✓✓	-	-	-				
MRS 2279	-		-								✓✓✓*							
TNP-ATP	✓✓✓*	✓	✓✓✓*	✓	✓		✓											
KN-62							✓✓✓											

(h)

((Table 1. Contd....))

	P2X <sub>1</sub>	P2X <sub>2</sub>	P2X <sub>3</sub>	P2X <sub>4</sub>	P2X <sub>5</sub>	P2X <sub>6</sub>	P2X <sub>7</sub>	P2X <sub>2/3</sub>	P2X <sub>1/5</sub>	P2X <sub>4/6</sub>	P2Y <sub>1</sub>	P2Y <sub>2</sub>	P2Y <sub>4</sub>	P2Y <sub>6</sub>	P2Y <sub>11</sub>	P2Y <sub>12</sub>	P2Y <sub>13</sub>	P2Y <sub>14</sub>
AR-C67085 MX															✓✓*	✓✓✓*		
2-MeSAMP																✓✓		
Brilliant Blue G	✓	✓	-				✓✓✓ (r)											
Ip <sub>3</sub> I	✓✓✓*	-	✓	-														
MRS 2257	✓✓✓*		✓✓*															
NF279	✓✓✓*	✓	✓	-			✓											

Number of ticks (✓) indicates relative potency with respect to agonist/antagonist concentration. Agonists: ✓✓✓<1μM, ✓✓ 1-10μM, ✓>10μM, - virtually inactive. Antagonists: ✓✓✓<10nM, ✓✓ 10nM-300nM, ✓>300nM, - virtually inactive. \*, selective agonist or antagonist. *h* human, *r* rat. ATP, Adenine-5'-triphosphate; ADP, adenosine-5'-diphosphate; 2-MeSAMP, 2-methylthioadenosine 5'-triphosphate; PAPET, 2-[2-(4-aminophenyl)ethyl-thio]adenosine 5'-triphosphate; 2-MeSADP, 2-methylthio ADP; HT-AMP, 2-(hexylthio)adenosine 5'-monophosphate; -, -meATP, , methylthio ATP; , -meATP, , methylene ATP; BzATP, benzoyl benzoyl ATP; 2-dATP, deoxyATP; AP<sub>4</sub>A, P<sup>1</sup>, P<sup>4</sup>-Di-(adenosine-5')tetraphosphate ammonium; UTP, uridine triphosphate, UDP, uridine diphosphate; CTP, cytidine triphosphate; PPADS, pyridoxal-phosphate-6-azophenyl-2', 4'-disulphonic acid; iso-PPADS, pyridoxal-phosphate-6-azophenyl-2', 5'-disulphonic acid; PPNS, pyridoxal-5'-phosphate-6-(2'-naphthylazo-6'-nitro-4', 8' disulfonate); NF023, 8, 8'-[carbonylbis(imino-3, 1-phenylenecarbonyl-imino)] bis-(1, 3, 5-naphthalene trisulphonate); MRS 2179, N<sup>6</sup>-methyl-2'-deoxyadenosine 3', 5'-bisphosphate; MRS 2269, N<sup>6</sup>-methyl-1, 5-anhydro-2-(adenin-9-yl)-2, 3-dideoxy-D-arabino-hexitol-4, 6-bis (diammonium phosphate); TNP-ATP, trinitrophenol-ATP, KN-62, 1-[N, O-bis (5-isoquinolinesulfonyl)-N-methyl-L-tyrosyl]-4-phenylpiperazine; AR-C67085 MX, 2-propylthio-D- -dichloromethylene ATP; IP<sub>3</sub>I; diinosine pentaphosphate, MRS 2257, pyridoxal-5'-phosphonate-6-azophenyl-3', 5'-bismethyl phosphonate; NF279, (8, 8'-(carbonylbis(imino-4, 1-phenylene carbonylimino-4, 1-phenylene carbonyl-imino))bis (1, 3, 5-naphthalenetrisulphonic acid)). Table reproduced with permission from [18].

The proposal in 1976 that more than one transmitter can be released from nerve terminals (the cotransmitter hypothesis [3]) is now widely accepted, and the focus has been on defining the “chemical coding” of various nerve types, i.e. to describe the combination of neurotransmitters in these nerves and their projections to various sites. ATP appears to be a cotransmitter in many nerve types, perhaps reflecting the primitive nature of purinergic signalling [19, 84]. ATP is a cotransmitter with noradrenaline and neuropeptide Y in sympathetic nerves, with acetylcholine and vasoactive intestinal peptide in some parasympathetic nerves, with nitric oxide and vasoactive intestinal peptide in enteric NANC inhibitory nerves, and with calcitonin gene-related peptide and substance P in sensory-motor nerves. There is also evidence for ATP with -aminobutyric acid in retinal nerves and for ATP with glutamate or with dopamine in nerves in the brain. ATP provokes a fast, short-lasting twitch response via P2X receptors, while the slower component is mediated by G protein-coupled adrenoceptors and muscarinic receptors, respectively, in sympathetic nerves supplying visceral and vascular smooth muscle and in parasympathetic nerves supplying the urinary bladder [85,86]. In the gut, ATP released from NANC inhibitory nerves produces the fastest response, nitric oxide gives a less rapid response, and vasoactive intestinal peptide produces slow tonic relaxations. In all cases of cotransmission, there are considerable differences in the proportion of the cotransmitters in nerves supplying different regions of the gut or vasculature, between species and in different pathophysiological conditions [87].

The first clear evidence for nerve-nerve purinergic synaptic transmission was published in 1992. Excitatory postsynaptic potentials in the coeliac ganglion were reversibly antagonized by suramin [88, 89] and similar experiments were carried out in the medial habenula in the brain, showing reversible block of excitatory postsynaptic

potentials by suramin [90]. Since then, other examples of purinergic synaptic transmission have been identified [91, 92] and there have been many articles describing the distribution of various P2 receptor subtypes in the brain and spinal cord and electrophysiological studies of the effects of purines in brain slices, isolated nerves, and glial cells [93, 94]. Synaptic transmission also has been found in the myenteric plexus [87] and in various sensory and sympathetic and pelvic ganglia [95].

In addition to the examples of short-term signalling, there are now many examples of purinergic signalling concerned with long-term (trophic) events, such as development and regeneration, proliferation, and cell death [20,96,97]. For example, meATP produces proliferation of glial cells, whereas adenosine inhibits proliferation. P2X<sub>5</sub> and P2X<sub>6</sub> receptors have been implicated in the development of chick skeletal muscle [80]. In recent studies of purinoceptor expression in the mouse myotubes, we have shown progressive expression of P2X<sub>5</sub> (from E14 to E18), P2X<sub>6</sub> (from E16 to E18) and P2X<sub>2</sub> (from E18 to postnatal day 7) [81].

### P2Y Receptors

P2Y purinoceptor-mediated responses occur in non-neuronal and non-muscular cell types, as well as in the nervous system. Examples include endothelial cells, which express P2Y<sub>1</sub>, P2Y<sub>2</sub> and probably P2Y<sub>4</sub> receptors that, when occupied, release nitric oxide leading to vasodilatation. P2Y<sub>1</sub> receptors in pancreatic -cells are involved in insulin secretion [98]. P2Y<sub>2</sub> receptors have been identified in hepatocytes [99]; P2Y<sub>12</sub>, P2X<sub>1</sub>, and P2Y<sub>1</sub> receptors in platelets [100], P2Y<sub>2</sub> receptors on myelinating Schwann cells and P2Y<sub>1</sub> receptors on non-myelinating Schwann cells [101]. P2Y receptors also are involved in signalling to endocrine cells, leading to hormone secretion [77,102-106]. There is a widespread presence of P2Y receptor subtypes in different regions of kidney glomeruli, tubules and collecting ducts

[107-113]. P2Y receptors are strongly represented in the brain, both at presynaptic sites and on glial cells [114-119].

There are also examples of P2Y purinergic signalling concerned with long-term events such as development and regeneration, and proliferation, particularly in glial, vascular smooth muscle and endothelial cells. A P2Y<sub>8</sub> receptor was cloned from the frog embryo, which appears to be involved in the development of the neural plate [39]. P2Y<sub>1</sub> receptors seem to have a role in cartilage development in limb buds and in development of the mesonephros [120].

### POTENTIAL THERAPEUTIC POTENTIAL OF PURINOCEPTORS

There is increasing interest in the therapeutic potential of purinergic compounds in a wide range of disease conditions both in relation to P1 receptors [121-124] and P2 receptors [20,125,127]. A number of purine-related compounds have been patented [128].

The autonomic nervous system shows marked plasticity, i.e. the expression of cotransmitters and receptors show dramatic changes during development and ageing in nerves that remain after trauma, or surgery and in disease conditions. There are a number of examples where the purinergic component of cotransmission is increased in pathological conditions [20].

### Cardiovascular System

Adenosine and ATP are very much involved in the mechanisms underlying local control of vessel tone [129] as well as cell migration, proliferation and death during angiogenesis, atherosclerosis and restenosis following angioplasty [130]. ATP, released as a cotransmitter from sympathetic nerves, constricts vascular smooth muscle via P2X receptors, while ATP released from sensory-motor nerves during 'axon reflex' activity dilates vessels via P2Y receptors. Further, ATP released from endothelial cells during changes in flow (shear stress) or hypoxia acts on P2Y receptors in endothelial cells to release nitric oxide (NO) resulting in relaxation. Adenosine, following breakdown of extracellular ATP, produces vasodilatation via P1 receptors. P2X receptors are also present on endothelial cells and appear to be associated with cell adhesion and permeability.

There have been very promising recent developments concerning purinergic antithrombotic drugs. Platelets are known to express both P2Y and P2X purinoceptors [41,131]. Recent 'mega' clinical trials (CAPRIE [132] and CURE [133]) provided clear evidence that clopidogrel and ticlopidine, which are antagonists to the P2Y<sub>12</sub> receptor, reduce the risks of recurrent strokes and heart attacks, especially when combined with aspirin. Patents have been lodged for the application of P1 receptor subtype agonists and antagonists for myocardial ischaemia and reperfusion injury, cerebral ischaemia and stroke [122].

ATP plays a significantly greater cotransmitter role in sympathetic nerves supplying hypertensive blood vessels [134]. Upregulation of P2X<sub>1</sub> and P2Y<sub>2</sub> receptor mRNA in hearts of rats with congestive heart failure has been reported [135].

### Neurology

Agonists and antagonists of ATP are being explored as therapeutic agents for a number of neurological conditions. For example, microinjection of ATP analogs into the prepiriform cortex induces generalized motor seizures [136]. P2X<sub>2</sub>, P2X<sub>4</sub> and P2X<sub>6</sub> receptors are expressed in the prepiriform cortex, suggesting that a P2X receptor antagonist may have potential as a neuroleptic agent.

ATP, given systemically, elicits pain responses, and endogenous ATP may contribute to the pain associated with causalgia, reflex sympathetic dystrophy, angina, migraine, lumbar, pelvic and cancer pain [137]. P2X<sub>3</sub> receptors are selectively localized on sensory neurones in trigeminal, nodose, and dorsal root ganglia (DRG) and the terminals of these nociceptive neurones in skin and visceral organs represent unique targets for novel analgesic agents that function as P2X<sub>3</sub> receptor antagonists. Nonspecific P2 receptor antagonists, e.g. suramin, are antinociceptive and P2X<sub>3</sub> receptor knockout mice have reduced nociceptive inflammatory responses [138].

Trophic factors ensure neuronal viability and regeneration. Neuronal injury releases fibroblast growth factor, epidermal growth factor, and platelet-derived growth factor [97]. In combination with these growth factors, ATP can act to stimulate astrocyte proliferation, contributing to the process of reactive astrogliosis, a hypertrophic/hyperplastic response that is associated with brain trauma, stroke/ischemia, seizures and neurodegenerative disorders.

### Respiratory System

The use of theophylline, an adenosine receptor antagonist, as an antiasthmatic agent has focussed attention on the development of novel P1 receptor antagonists as asthmatic medication [139]. ATP may also have a direct role in asthma via its actions on bronchial innervation. Nucleotides trigger a reflex bronchoconstriction via activation of a P2X receptor on vagal C fibres, and both ATP and UTP can potentiate IgE-mediated mast cell histamine release, effects involving P2Y receptors [140].

In Type II alveolar epithelial cells, ATP and UTP stimulate P2Y receptor-mediated surfactant secretion and transepithelial chloride secretion; there are abnormalities in this mechanism in cystic fibrosis [141]. Nucleotides also increase mucous secretion from goblet cells and increase the ciliary beat frequency of airway epithelial cells. Purinergic compounds are being explored for the treatment of cystic fibrosis and to improve clearance of secretions from bronchi in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD), and for sputum expectoration in smokers [141,142]. Pulmonary hypertension can be a problem in patients with COPD; it is a life threatening condition and intravenous ATP infusion in these patients produces a significant decrease in mean pulmonary arterial pressure and pulmonary vascular resistance, without any changes in mean systemic arterial pressure [143].

### Urinogenital System

In the normal human bladder, atropine will block at least 95% of parasympathetic nerve-mediated contraction,

indicating that its innervation is predominantly cholinergic; purinergic signalling is responsible for the atropine-resistant component of contraction [86]. There are now a number of examples where the purinergic component of cotransmission is increased in pathological conditions [20,86]. One example is that purinergic nerve-mediated contraction of the human bladder is increased to 40% in pathophysiological conditions such as interstitial cystitis, outflow obstruction, idiopathic instability and possibly also neurogenic bladder.

Purinergic signalling also appears to play a role in afferent sensation from the bladder. ATP is released from urothelial cells when the bladder is distended. Sensory nerve recording has indicated that P2X<sub>3</sub> receptors are involved in mediating the nerve-responses to bladder distension, providing mechanosensory feedback involving both the micturition reflex and pain [76,144]. This, too, might be a potential target for pharmacological manipulation in the treatment of detrusor instability.

Penile erectile function is dependent upon a delicate balance between contracting and relaxing factors in the corpus cavernosum smooth muscle, which are modulated by signalling from both nerves and endothelial cells. Evidence has accumulated to support a pivotal role for non-adrenergic, non-cholinergic neurotransmitters. NO plays a central role in mediating cavernosal smooth muscle relaxation, but other neurotransmitters can modulate this action and may play a role in erectile dysfunction. ATP potently relaxes cavernosal smooth muscle strips *in vitro*, an action pharmacologically consistent with P2Y receptors. Indeed, P2Y receptors are present on both cavernosal smooth muscle cells and endothelial cells, and ATP is released from a subpopulation of the cavernosal nerves. It appears that smooth muscle relaxation is caused both by ATP acting directly on the cavernosal smooth muscle cells and indirectly, mediated by NO released from the endothelial cells. ATP-mediated cavernosal relaxation is impaired in diabetes mellitus (independent of NO) implying that purinergic signalling may be involved in the pathophysiology of erectile dysfunction [145].

The potential role of P2X<sub>3</sub> receptors in mechanosensory transduction has already been mentioned in relation to the bladder. However, there is increasing evidence that this is not an isolated phenomenon and that ATP released from the epithelial lining of other organs such as the ureter, gut or bile duct following distension may act on P2X<sub>3</sub> receptors on afferent nerves in the subepithelial plexuses to provide sensory feedback and, in the case of the ureter, renal colic pain. P2X<sub>3</sub> receptors have been found on the suburothelial nerve plexus and both the human and guinea-pig ureter have been shown to release ATP in a pressure-dependent fashion when distended [146]. This ATP release is abolished when the urothelium is removed, and sensory nerve-recording studies during ureteral distension demonstrate purinergic involvement, suggesting that specific P2X<sub>3</sub> antagonists may have efficacy in alleviating renal colic [144].

There is a substantial presence of purinoceptors in the kidney, including subtypes involved in the regulation of renin secretion, glomerular filtration and transport of water, ions, nutrients and toxins. ATP and adenosine have been

used to protect kidneys from renal ischaemic/reperfusion injury and are being explored for the treatment of chronic renal failure and transplantation-induced erythrocytosis [147].

### Gastroenterology

Purinergic signalling plays a major role in different activities of the gut [87]. ATP is a cotransmitter in non-adrenergic, non-cholinergic nerves that are responsible for the inhibitory phase in peristalsis; it participates in synaptic transmission in the myenteric and submucosal ganglia; it is involved in vascular control of the gastrointestinal tract and in control of mucosal secretion.

There are a limited number of studies to date on changes in purinergic signalling in diseased gut, but for example, ATP and adenosine have been implicated in the development of gastric ulcers, Hirschsprung's and Chagas' diseases, ischaemia and colonic tumours [87]. Intrinsic, as well as extrinsic, sensory neurones in both myenteric and submucous plexuses of the gut, show positive immunoreactivity for P2X<sub>3</sub>. It is proposed that during moderate distension, low threshold intrinsic enteric sensory fibres are activated via P2X<sub>3</sub> receptors by ATP released from mucosal epithelial cells, leading to reflexes concerned with propulsion of material down the gut. In contrast, it is proposed that with substantial (colic) distension, which is often associated with pain, higher threshold extrinsic sensory fibres are activated by ATP released from the mucosal epithelia, which pass messages through the dorsal root ganglia to pain centres in the central nervous system [144]. P2X<sub>3</sub> receptor expression is increased in human inflammatory bowel disease, suggesting a potential new therapeutic target for dysmotility and pain [148].

### Musculo-skeletal System

Purinergic signalling is implicated in bone development and remodelling. P2X and P2Y receptors are present on osteoclasts with P2Y receptors only being present on osteoblasts. ATP, but not adenosine, stimulates the formation of osteoclasts and their resorptive actions *in vitro* and can inhibit osteoblast-dependent bone formation. The bisphosphonate, clodronate, which is used in the treatment of Paget's disease and tumour-induced osteolysis, may act via osteoclast P2 receptors. A recent study has shown that very low (nM) concentrations of ADP acting through P2Y<sub>1</sub> receptors turn on osteoclast activity [149]. Modulation of P2 receptor function may have potential in the treatment of osteoporosis [150].

### Immune System and Inflammation

ATP and adenosine are released at sites of inflammation. ATP is involved in the development of inflammation by a combination of actions: release of histamine from mast cells, provoking production of prostaglandins and production and release of cytokines from immune cells [151]. In addition to the roles of purines in inflammation, they have a broad range of functions via purinergic receptors on immune cells, including killing of intracellular pathogens by inducing apoptosis of host macrophages, chemoattraction and cell adhesion [152]. Purinergic compounds may turn out to be

useful for the treatment of neurogenic inflammation, rheumatoid arthritis, and periodontitis [22].

### Oncology

The anticancer activity of adenine nucleotides was first described by Rapaport in 1983. Intraperitoneal injection of ATP into tumour-bearing mice resulted in significant anticancer activity against several fast-growing aggressive carcinomas [125]. ATP inhibits the growth of murine colonic adenocarcinoma and human pancreatic carcinoma in mice and inhibited the weight loss in these mice. Growth of prostate cancer cells *in vitro* is inhibited by up to 90% by ATP via P2-receptors, although it is not yet clear which subtype mediates this effect and whether it is a directly antiproliferative effect or a pro-apoptotic effect [153]. Phase I clinical trials showed that infusion of ATP into patients with advanced cancer was feasible, but was limited by chest tightness and dyspnoea, probably due to conversion to adenosine [125]. A phase II trial has been carried out in patients with non-small cell lung cancer and intravenous ATP for 96 hours at 4 week intervals reduced weight loss [125]. A combination of interferon- and ATP is being explored for the treatment of acute myeloid leukaemia. Further clarification of the mechanisms mediating the dramatic anti-neoplastic effects of ATP for breast, ovarian and colorectal carcinoma [154] may yield new purinergic agents which are more specific, better tolerated and more appropriate for human trials.

### Diabetes

P2Y receptors are present on pancreatic  $\beta$ -cells and are involved in insulin secretion. ATP stimulates pancreatic insulin release via a glucose-dependent, P2Y receptor-mediated mechanism [155] and also modulates insulin secretion by interactions with ATP-sensitive potassium channels in islet  $\beta$ -cells. The potential role of purinergic compounds as novel treatment for diabetes, especially Type II, has yet to be fully explored.

### Special Senses

In the ear, ATP, acting via P2Y receptors, depresses sound-evoked gross compound action potentials in the auditory nerve and the distortion product otoacoustic emission, the latter being a measure of the active process of the outer hair cells [156]. P2X splice variants are found on the endolymphatic surface of the cochlear endothelium, an area associated with sound transduction. Both P2X and P2Y receptors have been identified in the vestibular system. It has been suggested that ATP may regulate fluid homeostasis, cochlear blood flow, hearing sensitivity and development, and thus may be useful in the treatment of Ménière's disease, tinnitus, and sensorineural deafness.

In the eye, ATP, acting via both P2X and P2Y receptors, modulates retinal neurotransmission affecting retinal blood flow and intraocular pressure. The ATP analogue, 2-methyleneATP has greater efficacy in reducing intraocular pressure (40%) than muscarinic agonists like pilocarpine (25%) or  $\alpha$ -adrenoceptor blockers (30%), raising the potential for purinergic agents in glaucoma. P2Y<sub>2</sub> receptor activation increases salt, water, and mucus secretion and thus represents a potential treatment for dry eye conditions [141].

In the retinal pigmented layer, P2Y<sub>2</sub> receptor activation promotes fluid absorption and may be involved in retinal detachment.

### FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Several clinically relevant pharmacological interventions are already being explored. However, one of the main reasons that most purinergic therapies are still to be established is the current scarcity of P2 receptor subtype-specific agonists and antagonists which are effective *in vivo*. In addition to the development of selective agonists and antagonists, for the different P2 receptor subtypes, therapeutic strategies are likely to include agents that control the expression of P2 receptors, inhibitors of extracellular breakdown of ATP and enhancers or inhibitors of ATP transport. The interactions of purinergic signalling with other established signalling systems will also be an important way forward. The development of new investigative tools and recent advances in the understanding of cell biology of purinergic signalling, as well as new compounds, hopefully will lead to significant progress in this field.

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