

Selectivity and activity of adenine dinucleotides at recombinant $P2x_2$ and $P2y_1$ purinoceptors

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- 1 Adenine dinucleotides $(Ap_xA, x=2-6)$ are naturally-occurring polyphosphated nucleotidic substances which are found in the CNS and are known to be released in a calcium-dependent manner from storage vesicles in brain synaptosomes. The selectivity and activity of adenine dinucleotides for neuronally-derived recombinant P_2 purinoceptors were studied using $P2x_2$ and $P2y_1$ subtypes expressed in *Xenopus* oocytes.
- 2 For the $P2Y_1$ subtype derived from chick brain, Ap_3A was equipotent and as active as ATP (EC₅₀ values: 375 ± 86 nM and 334 ± 25 nM, respectively). Ap4A was a weak partial agonist and other dinucleotides were inactive as agonists. None of the inactive dinucleotides were antagonists nor modulated the activity of Ap_3A and ATP.
- 3 For the P2X₂ subtype derived from rat PC12 cells, Ap₄A was as active as ATP but less potent (EC₅₀ values: $15.2 \pm 1 \mu$ M and $3.7 \pm 0.7 \mu$ M, respectively). Other adenosine dinucleotides were inactive as either agonists or antagonists.
- 4 Ap₅A (1-100 nM) potentiated ATP-responses at the P2x₂ subtype, showing an EC₅₀ of 2.95 ± 0.7 nM for this modulatory effect. Ap₅A (10 nM) shifted the concentration-response curves for ATP to the left by one-half log₁₀ unit but did not alter the Hill co-efficient for ATP (n_H= 2.1 ± 0.1). Ap₅A (10 nM) failed to potentiate Ap₄A-responses but did enhance the efficacy of the P₂ purinoceptor antagonist, suramin, by 12 fold at the P2x₂ subtype.
- 5 In conclusion, the results show that ionotropic $(P2x_2)$ and metabotropic $(P2y_1)$ ATP receptors which occur in the CNS are activated selectively by naturally-occurring adenine dinucleotides which are known to be released with nucleotides from storage vesicles. The observed potentiation of $P2x_2$ -responses by Ap_5A , where co-released with ATP by brain synaptosomes, may have a functional bearing in purinergic signalling in the CNS.

Keywords: Adenine dinucleotide; diadenosine polyphosphate; ATP; purine; P₂ purinoceptors; recombinant receptor; *Xenopus* oocytes

Introduction

Adenine dinucleotides, also termed diadenosine polyphosphates or ApxA (where x indicates the number of phosphates), are a family of naturally-occurring nucleotides where two adenosine molecules are linked at the 5' position on their ribose moiety by a chain of phosphates varying from 2 to 6 in length (for review, see McLennan & Zamecnik, 1992). Like mononucleotides, this family of dinucleotides displays activity inside and outside cells. Intracellularly, adenine dinucleotides can exert a variety of actions on cell metabolism such as triggering DNA synthesis (Grummt, 1978) and they can also act as second messengers during cell stress (Denisenko, 1984). Extracellularly, adenine dinucleotides can induce platelet aggregation (Luthje & Ogilvie, 1983; Schlüter et al., 1994), act as modulatory substances in neural systems (Pintor & Miras-Portugal, 1993) and affect calcium mobilization in vascular tissues (Tepel et al., 1996).

Dinucleotides possess several features attributable to neurotransmitters or neuromodulators. For example, diadenosine tetraphosphate (Ap₄A), diadenosine pentaphosphate (Ap₅A) and diadenosine hexaphosphate (Ap₆A) are concentrated in *Torpedo* cholinergic vesicles (Pintor *et al.*, 1992b), in synaptic vesicles of chromaffin cells (Rodriguez del Castillo *et al.*, 1988; Pintor *et al.*, 1992c) and in rat brain synaptic terminals (Pintor *et al.*, 1992a). They are released exocytotically in a Ca²⁺-dependent manner from synaptosomal preparations by either secretagogue induction or by depolarizing agents (Pintor *et al.*,

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1992a,b,c). In the extracellular space, these substances bind to and activate most of the naturally-occurring P₂ purinoceptors described to date (Hoyle, 1990; Pintor *et al.*, 1993; Williams, 1994; Abbracchio & Burnstock, 1995; Pintor & Miras-Portugal, 1995a,b).

Recent advances in molecular biology have helped to reclassify P₂ purinoceptor subtypes into two broad families of ionotropic (P2x_{1-n}) and metabotropic (P2y_{1-n}) ATP receptors (Abbracchio & Burnstock, 1995). So far, cloned ionotropic ATP receptors (P2x₁₋₇ subtypes) show considerable structural diversity (Brake et al., 1994; Valera et al., 1994; Chen et al., 1995; Bo et al., 1995; Collo et al., 1996; Surprenant et al., 1996) and possess pharmacological profiles that are often distinct from agonist potencies observed for native P_{2x} purinoceptors in many tissues. This discrepancy has prompted the suggestion that some native P2x purinoceptors are assembled as heteromultimers of cloned P2x subtypes (Lewis et al., 1995). Structurally-distinct subtypes of metabotropic ATP receptors (P2Y₁₋₇ subtypes) have also been isolated (Lustig et al., 1993; Webb et al., 1993; Chang et al., 1995; Communi et al., 1995; Webb et al., 1996a,b; Akbar et al., 1996), and possess distinct pharmacological profiles, including a marked preference for either ATP (P2Y₁) or UTP (P2Y₄) or, to varying extents, both of these naturally-occurring nucleotides (P2Y2,3,5,6,7)

Ionotropic and metabotropic ATP receptors have been cloned from neural tissues, including a P2X₂ purinoceptor from rat phaeochromatocytoma PC12 cells (Brake et al., 1994) and a P2Y₁ purinoceptor from embryonic chick brain (Webb et al., 1993). These particular recombinant P₂ purinoceptors are distinguished by possessing pharmacological profiles similar to neuronal P_{2x} and P_{2y} purinoceptors native to their source tissues (Simon et al., 1995; King et al., 1996c). Since adenine

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dinucleotides have been reported to activate native P_{2x} and P_{2y} purinoceptors in neural tissues (Stone & Perkins, 1981; Castro et al., 1990; Klishin et al., 1994), we decided to investigate the actions of the full family of adenine dinucleotides (Ap_xA , x=2-6) on these two recombinant P_2 purinoceptor subtypes. Recently, it was reported that Ap_4A is a potent agonist of the recombinant human $P2Y_2$ purinoceptor from non-neural (epithelial) tissue (Lazarowski et al., 1995) and, therefore, we were also interested to compare this earlier study with agonist actions of adenine dinucleotides at neurally-derived $P2X_2$ and $P2Y_1$ subtypes of recombinant P_2 purinoceptors.

Methods

Oocyte preparation

Xenopus laevis frogs were anaesthetized with tricaine (0.1% w/v), killed by decapitation and the ovarian lobes were removed. Oocytes (stages V and VI) were plucked off the inner ovarian epithelial layer with fine forceps and stored (at 4°C) in Barths' solution (pH 7.4) containing (in mM): NaCl 110, KCl 1, NaHCO₃ 2.4, Tris-HCl 7.5, Ca(NO₃)₂ 0.33, CaCl₂ 0.41, MgSO₄ 0.82, gentamycin 50 μg 1^{-1} . *Xenopus* oocytes were stripped of their follicle cell layer (defolliculated) by a three-step method, as described previously (Ziganshin *et al.*, 1995). Briefly, oocytes were treated for 3 h with collagenase (Type 1A, 2 mg ml⁻¹) in a Ca²⁺-free Ringer solution containing (in mM): NaCl 110, KCl 2.5, HEPES 5, pH 7.4. Then, the follicle cell monolayer was removed with fine forceps and denuded oocytes were rolled in poly-L-lysine coated dishes to remove adhering debris and small plaques of follicle cells.

Oocyte injection, receptor expression and electrophysiological measurements

Defolliculated *Xenopus* oocytes were injected with mRNA (40 nl, $2.0 \mu g \mu l^{-1}$) for chick P2Y₁ purinoceptor (Webb *et al.*, 1993) and mRNA (40 nl, $0.1 \mu g \mu l^{-1}$) for rat P2X₂ purinoceptor (Brake *et al.*, 1994) using a Drummond microinjector. Injected oocytes were stored at 18°C for two days in Barth's solution to allow full expression of recombinant P₂ purinoceptors, then kept at 4°C for up to 12 days until used in electrophysiological studies (as in Webb *et al.*, 1993; Simon *et al.*, 1995; King *et al.*, 1996c).

Ionic currents evoked by nucleotides and dinucleotides were measured under voltage-clamp conditions with a twin-electrode amplifier (Axoclamp 2A). The voltage-recording and current-recording microelectrodes (1–2 M Ω tip resistance) were filled with 0.6 M K₂SO₄ and 3 M KCl, respectively. Oocytes were placed in a 0.5 ml bath and superfused at a flow rate of 5 ml min⁻¹ with an amphibian Ringer containing (mM): NaCl 110, KCl 2.5, HEPES 5, CaCl₂ 1.8, pH 7.4. Dual-impaled oocytes were studied if their resting membrane potential was more negative than -40 mV and their input resistance greater than 0.5 M Ω . Data were stored on magnetic tape using a DAT recorder (Sony 1000ES) and displayed using a pen recorder (Gould).

Adenine dinucleotides and ATP (at the concentrations shown in the text) were superfused over dual-impaled oocytes by continuous flow, which allowed the rapid addition and washout of test substances. Agonists were applied in Ringer for 1 min and, thereafter, agonists washed out with Ringer for a period of 20 min to allow receptors to recover from any desensitization. For concentration-response curves, data were normalized with respect to the maximum current (I_{max}) evoked by ATP in each experiment. The concentration that evoked 50% of the maximum response (EC₅₀) was taken from Hill plots of the transform $\log I/I$ - I_{max} (I being the current evoked at each concentration of agonist). The Hill co-efficient ($n_{\rm H}$) was taken from the slope of Hill plots. The efficacy of the P₂ antagonist suramin on P2x₂ was tested by adding the antagonist in cumulative concentrations ($0.1-100~\mu{\rm M}$), applied for

10 min prior to the addition of a submaximal concentration of ATP (3 μ M, which is close to EC₅₀). The antagonist concentration that reduced ATP-responses by 50% (IC₅₀) was taken from inhibition curves. Data are presented as mean \pm s.e.mean of at least four determinations using different oocyte batches. Significant differences were determined by Student's two-tailed t test. Single experimental traces shown in the text are representative of four determinations showing identical results. Concentration-response curves and inhibition curves were fitted by non-linear regression analysis using commercially-available software packages ('FigP' Software, v.6.0c and Prism v.1.03, Graphpad).

Nucleotide stability

The stability and purity of adenine dinucleotides and ATP were determined by high performance liquid chromatography (h.p.l.c.), as described previously (King et al., 1996a). The chromatographic system comprised a Beckman (114M) solvent delivery module coupled to a UV/VIS absorbance detector (Savern Analytical, SA6500). Chromatographic runs were carried out using a Spherisorb ODS2 column (25 cm length, 0.46 cm i.d.; Hichrom). The column was equilibrated overnight with a mobile phase containing 0.2 mm KH₂PO₄ and 3% methanol, pH 6.0, at a flow rate of 0.2 ml min⁻¹. This mobile phase was filtered through HAFT filters (Millipore) and degassed under vacuum before use. The analysis of samples (10 μ l volume) was carried out at a flow rate of 1.5 ml min⁻¹. The separation of dinucleotides and nucleotides was carried out by isocratic reverse-phase chromatography with spectrophotometric detection at a wavelength of 260 nm.

Drugs

ATP and adenine dinucleotides were obtained from Sigma Chemical Co. (UK). Other reagents were analytical grade and obtained from Merck (Darmstadt, Germany). Suramin (Germanin) was kindly provided by Bayer plc (U.K.).

Results

Dinucleotide stability

Adenine dinucleotides were tested by h.p.l.c. to verify their purity and stability. Chromatographs (Figure 1) showed one major peak for each dinucleotide assayed, each peak showing a significantly different mobility to the peak for ATP. The results confirmed adenine dinucleotides were stable, that each sample contained only one species of dinucleotide and none was contaminated with ATP. Defolliculated Xenopus oocytes were incubated (at 18°C) with dinucleotides and ATP in Ringer solution for 1 min (a period of time where dinucleotide-evoked currents reached maximum amplitude in electrophysiological experiments), then samples (100 μ l) were withdrawn and assayed by h.p.l.c. Analysis of chromatographs showed no significant difference in the height of peaks in chromatographs (see Figure 1), indicating that dinucleotides and ATP were not degraded significantly by surface enzymes (ecto-ATPase) on oocytes nor released or taken up by oocytes. In another series of experiments where Xenopus oocytes were incubated (at 18°C) with dinucleotides (100 μ M) for 3 h, the observed rate of breakdown was (in terms of pmol h⁻¹ per oocyte): Ap₂A, 239 ± 25 ; Ap₃A, 310 ± 41 ; Ap₄A, 300 ± 65 ; Ap₅A, 108 ± 10 ; Ap_6A , 169 ± 19 (n = 8). This low rate of breakdown confirmed the stability of dinucleotides in the presence of oocytes.

Effect of diadenosine polyphosphates on P2Y₁ purinoceptor

Superfusions of either ATP, Ap₃A or Ap₄A $(0.03-100 \mu M)$ evoked inward currents ($I_{Cl,Ca}$) in oocytes injected with mRNA for chick P2Y₁ purinoceptor; Ap₂A, Ap₅A and Ap₆A $(0.03-100 \mu M)$

100 μ M) were inactive as agonists (Figure 2). Ap₃A was equipotent with and as active as ATP, while Ap₄A was a weak partial agonist (Figure 2). Analysis of concentration-response curves for Ap₃A and ATP revealed EC₅₀ values of 375 ± 86 nM and 334 ± 25 nM, respectively. The Hill co-efficients (n_H) for

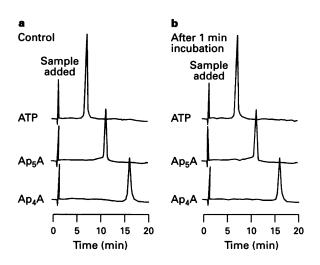


Figure 1 Stability of ATP, Ap₄A and Ap₅A in solution: h.p.l.c. elution profiles (a) of adenosine 5'-triphosphate (ATP), diadenosine tetraphosphate (Ap₄A) and diadenosine pentaphosphate (Ap₅A) in Ringer solution (control, $10 \,\mu\text{M}$). Each chromatograph showed one major peak which followed the sharp biphasic injection artefact (at $t=1 \,\text{min}$), indicating the presence of one substance in each run. These three nucleotides ($10 \,\mu\text{M}$) also were incubated with mRNA-injected oocytes for 1 min to test whether dinucleotides and ATP were rapidly broken down. The h.p.l.c. elution profiles (b) confirmed there was little breakdown of these substances, as judged by no significant difference in the height of peaks and absence of secondary peaks.

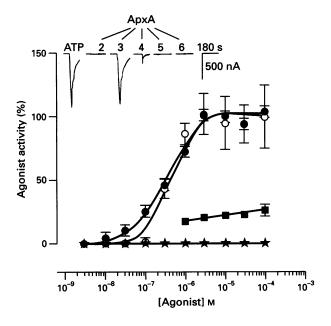


Figure 2 Adenine dinucleotide and ATP activity at P2Y₁ purinoceptor: concentration-response curves (n=4) for adenine dinucleotides and ATP, where only Ap₃A (\bigcirc) , Ap₄A (\blacksquare) and ATP (\bigcirc) stimulated the recombinant P2Y₁ purinoceptor. Other dinucleotides (Ap_2A, Ap_5A) and Ap_6A ; see \bigstar) were ineffective as agonists. The amplitude of currents evoked by dinucleotides was normalized to the maximum response to ATP. Analyses of concentration-response curves are given in the text. Inset: matched responses of dinucleotides and ATP $(at 10 \, \mu M)$ on the same mRNA-injected oocyte $(V_h = -40 \, \text{mV})$.

Ap₃A and ATP were 1.1 ± 1 and 1.2 ± 0.1 respectively, which indicated only one agonist molecule was necessary to activate the P2Y₁ purinoceptor.

When co-superfused with ATP (3 μ M), non-agonist adenine dinucleotides (0.1–100 μ M) neither inhibited nor potentiated ATP-responses. Uninjected defolliculated oocytes were not activated by any of the adenine dinucleotides (100 μ M) nor by ATP (100 μ M). These results indicated that defolliculated oocytes do not possess endogenous P_{2x} and P_{2y} purinoceptors, so confirming earlier observations (King *et al.*, 1995; 1996b).

Effect of diadenosine polyphosphates on $P2X_2$ purinoceptor

Superfusions of ATP and Ap₄A $(0.1-500~\mu\text{M})$ evoked inward currents $(I_{\text{Na/K}})$ in oocytes injected mRNA for the rat P2X₂ purinoceptor, while Ap₂A, Ap₃A, Ap₅A and Ap₆A $(0.1-500~\mu\text{M})$ were inactive (Figure 3). Ap₄A was less potent than ATP, but showed the same maximal activity (Figure 3). EC₅₀ values for Ap₄A and ATP were $15.2\pm1~\mu\text{M}$ and $3.7\pm0.7~\mu\text{M}$ respectively, diadenosine tetraphosphate being 4 fold less potent than ATP. The Hill co-efficient (n_{H}) for Ap₄A and ATP were 1.8 ± 0.1 and 2.0 ± 0.1 , respectively. Values for n_{H} indicated a requirement for two molecules of each agonist to activate this receptor, as observed in other studies of agonists at P2x₂ (Brake *et al.*, 1994; King *et al.*, 1996c).

Effect of diadenosine pentaphosphate on ATP-responses at $P2X_2$ purinoceptor

In light of reports that some adenine dinucleotides inhibited synaptic transmission in the nervous system (Stone & Perkins, 1981; Klishin et al., 1994; Schubert et al., 1994), the possibility was investigated that adenine dinucleotides might affect ATP-responses at the P2x₂ purinoceptor. Ap₂A, Ap₃A, Ap₅A and Ap₆A (0.1-100 μ M) did not antagonize responses to ATP (3 μ M); however, diadenosine pentaphosphate (Ap₅A, 1-100 nM) markedly potentiated ATP-responses (Figure 4a). Low concentrations (1 nM) of Ap₅A were effective and maximal potentiation occurred using 10 mmol Ap₅A, whereas higher concentrations (>10 nM) of Ap₅A did not induce a

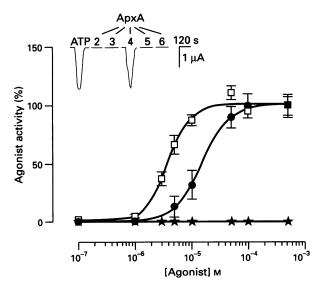


Figure 3 Adenine dinucleotide and ATP activity at $P2x_2$ purinoceptor: concentration-response curves (n=4) for adenine dinucleotides and ATP, where only Ap_4A (\square) and ATP (\blacksquare) stimulated the recombinant $P2x_2$ purinoceptor. Other dinucleotides (Ap_2A, Ap_3A, Ap_5A) and Ap_6A ; see \bigstar) were ineffective as agonists. The amplitude of currents evoked by dinucleotides was normalized to the maximum response to ATP. Analyses of concentration-response curves are given in the text. Inset: matched responses of dinucleotides and ATP (at $100 \ \mu M$) on the same mRNA-injected oocyte $(V_h = -30 \ mV)$.

greater potentiation (Figure 4b). An EC₅₀ value of 2.95 ± 0.7 nm was calculated for this Ap₅A-potentiating effect; n_H was 1.88 ± 0.27 which indicated that two molecules of Ap₅A bind to the P2x2 purinoceptor. Since n_H for ATP-activation is 2.0 ± 0.1 , it is quite likely that one molecule of Ap₅A binds to (or near to) each of the two ATP binding sites. The potentiating effect of Ap₅A (>10 nM) was maintained as long as the dinucleotide was present in the superfusate, but was fully reversible after 20 min washout when ATP-responses returned to control amplitude (Figure 4a). Ap₅A (10 nm) did not alter the slope nor reversal potential of I/V relationship of I_{ATP} activated by the P2x₂ purinoceptor (data not shown), indicating the potentiating effect was due to a change in P2x2 sensitivity to ATP rather than an effect on P2x2 channel conductance. However, Ap5A (10 nm) did not alter the pH of the superfusate (7.3 ± 0.1) before and during dinucleotide superfusion). Thus, the observed potentiation was unrelated to the effects of acidification on ATPsensitivity at P2x₂ (King et al., 1996c).

Maximal Ap₅A-potentiation amounted to $51\pm14\%$ above the amplitude of control responses to ATP (3 μ M, approximately EC₅₀). Therefore, the effect of Ap₅A (10 nM) was tested on a wide range of ATP concentrations to see if the ATP concentration-response curve was displaced leftwards. Ap₅A only enhanced submaximal ATP-responses (Figure 5a) but failed to increase the maximum activity of ATP; thus, its effect was due to an increase in P2x₂ sensitivity to ATP (Figure 5b). EC₅₀ values for ATP were $4.0\pm1~\mu$ M and $1.4\pm0.1~\mu$ M before and during Ap₅A (Figure 5b). In these experiments, n_H for ATP alone was 2.1 ± 0.1 which was not significantly different (2.2 ± 0.1) in the presence of Ap₅A.

Ap₃A (10 nm) also was tested on Ap₄A-evoked currents at the P2X₂ purinoceptor and caused a decrease (12 \pm 4%) in submaximal responses to Ap₄A (10 μ M); a higher concentration of Ap₅A (100 nm) failed to further inhibit Ap₄A-evoked currents. None of the other adenine dinucleotides (Ap₂A, Ap₃A and Ap₆A) were tested on Ap₄A-responses.

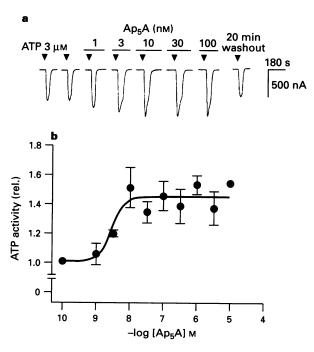


Figure 4 Potentiation of ATP-responses at $P2x_2$ purinoceptor by Ap_5A : in (a) is shown the potentiating effect of Ap_5A $(1-100 \, \text{nM})$ on inward currents evoked by ATP $(3 \, \mu\text{M})$. This effect of Ap_5A fully reversed after $20 \, \text{min}$ washout. $(V_h = -30 \, \text{mV})$. In (b) concentration-response curve (n=4) for the Ap_5A -induced potentiation of the inward current evoked by fixed concentration of ATP $(3 \, \mu\text{M})$. The amplitude of inward currents was normalized to control ATP-responses (taken as 1.0) prior to the addition of the dinucleotide.

Effect of Ap_5A on suramin blockade of $P2X_2$ purinoceptor

By itself, suramin $(0.1-100 \mu M)$ reversibly antagonized ATPresponses in a concentration-dependent manner with an IC₅₀ of $10.4 \pm 1.2 \,\mu\text{M}$ (n=4) (Figure 6b). The efficacy of suramin was increased in the presence of Ap₅A (10 nm) and this potentiation was fully reversible with washout. Thus, suramin (1 μ M) weakly inhibited ATP-responses by $10\pm6\%$ (n=4) in the absence of Ap₅A, but strongly inhibited ATP responses by $77 \pm 4\%$ (n=4) when the dinucleotide was added to the superfusate (Figure 6a). The inhibition curve for suramin was determined under control conditions and, subsequently, shown to be displaced leftwards when Ap₅A (10 nm) was present. With dinucleotide present, suramin showed a 12 fold increase in efficacy with an IC₅₀ of $0.86 \pm 0.2 \mu M$ (n = 4) (Figure 6b). The slope of the inhibition curve was 0.9 ± 0.1 under control conditions and 0.8 ± 0.2 when Ap₅A (10 nm) was present; these similar values for the slope revealed a parallel shift of the inhibition curve while the leftwards shift indicated an increased affinity for suramin. A slope of ~ 1 also indicated that only one molecule of suramin was necessary to block P2x2, yet it required 2 molecules of ATP for receptor activation (since $n_H = 2.1 \pm 0.1$ for ATP).

Discussion

Dinucleotide selectivity and activity at P2Y, purinoceptor

ATP and adenine dinucleotide activation of the recombinant chick P2Y₁ purinoceptor resulted in large ($\sim 1 \mu A$) inward currents in defolliculated *Xenopus* oocytes. Agonist activation of P2Y₁ is known to stimulate the phospholipase C/IP₃/Ca²⁺ pathway (Simon *et al.*, 1995) and, hence, open calcium-activated chloride channels on the oocyte membrane (Barish, 1983). This resultant inward current ($I_{Ca,Cl}$) is now widely

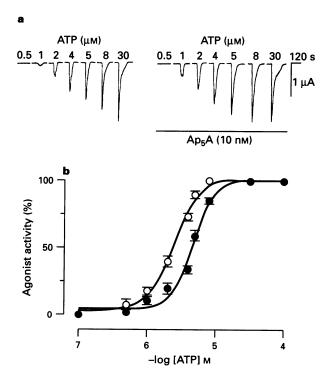
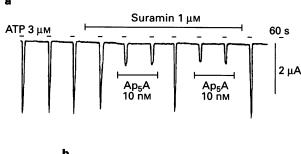


Figure 5 Potentiation of ATP-responses at $P2x_2$ purinoceptor by Ap_5A : in (a) inward currents to ATP $(0.5-30\,\mu\text{M})$ before (left records) and during (right records) the presence of Ap_5A ($10\,\text{nM}$). $(V_h = -30\,\text{mV})$. In (b) concentration-response curves (n=4) for ATP in the absence \bigcirc and presence \bigcirc of Ap_5A ($10\,\text{nM}$). Analyses of concentration-response curves are given in the text.



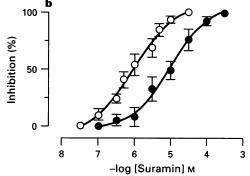


Figure 6 Potentiation of suramin blockade at $P2x_2$ purinoceptor by Ap_5A : in (a), suramin $(1 \, \mu \text{M})$ blockade of inward current to ATP $(3 \, \mu \text{M})$ was enhanced in the presence of Ap_5A (10 nm). This potentiating effect was temporarily reversed by removing Ap_5A from the superfusate and restored by its re-addition. $(V_h = -30 \, \text{mV}.)$ In (b) inhibition-curves (n=4) showing suramin antagonism of ATP-responses (at $3 \, \mu \text{M}$) in the absence (\bigcirc) and presence (\bigcirc) of Ap_5A (10 nm). Analyses of the inhibition curves for suramin are given in the text

considered to be an effective reporter of G-protein-coupled receptors stimulating the $PLC\beta/IP_3/Ca^{2+}$ intracellular system in the oocyte (Landau & Blitzer, 1994). Diadenosine triphosphate (Ap₃A) and, to a lesser extent, diadenosine tetraphosphate (Ap₄A) activated the recombinant P2Y₁ purinoceptor. Compared to ATP, Ap₃A was a full and equipotent agonist while Ap₄A was a weak partial agonist. A different order of activity for dinucleotides has been reported for the recombinant P2Y₂ purinoceptor of human epithelia (Lazarowski et al., 1995), where Ap₄A is as active as ATP but Ap₃A much less active and other dinucleotides (Ap₂A, Ap₅A and Ap₆A) inactive. Thus one important difference between recombinant P2Y₁ and P2Y₂ purinoceptors is their selectivity for Ap₃A and Ap₄A, respectively.

Apart from recombinant P2Y₁ and P2Y₂ purinoceptors, adenine dinucleotides also activate P2y purinoceptors native to a number of mammalian tissues (Castro et al., 1990; Hoyle, 1990; Pintor & Miras-Portugal, 1995b; Ralevic et al., 1995). The recombinant form of chick P2Y₁ purinoceptor appears to be similar to a P_{2Y} purinoceptor found in rat mesenteric arterial bed (Ralevic et al., 1995), inasmuch as both are activated fully by Ap₃A while other adenine dinucleotides are inactive. However, the recombinant P2Y₁ purinoceptor appears to be pharmacologically unlike the native P_{2Y} purinoceptor on chromaffin cells in bovine adrenal medulla which is activated slightly by Ap₃A but fully by Ap₅A and Ap₆A (Castro et al., 1990; Pintor et al., 1991). The P_{2Y} purinoceptor in circular muscle of human colon (Hoyle & Burnstock, 1992) is activated by Ap₅A but not Ap₃A and, to this extent, is unlike the recombinant form of chick P2Y₁ purinoceptor. Ap₃A is known to activate a P2 purinoceptor present in rat hepatocytes, but this P₂ purinoceptor has been characterized pharmacologically as an ADP receptor (Green et al., 1995) whereas ATP>ADP at chick P2Y₁.

It was once thought that all adenine dinucleotides acted broadly on all P_{2Y} purinoceptors. However, it has become clear

from the results of this study (and the comparison of results discussed above) that dinucleotides act selectively on P_{2Y} purinoceptors in different tissues. This selectivity may prove useful in the future characterization of members of the P_{2Y} purinoceptor family, whether studied *in situ* or as recombinant receptors.

Dinucleotide selectivity and activity at P2X₂ purinoceptor

ATP and adenine dinucleotide activation of the recombinant $P2x_2$ purinoceptor from rat PC12 cells resulted in large ($\leq 5 \mu A$) inward currents in defolliculated *Xenopus* oocytes. The $P2x_2$ purinoceptor forms an ATP-gated ion channel which shows inward rectification and a reversal potential for inward currents in the region of -5 mV (Brake *et al.*, 1994). The ion channel is equally permeable to Na^+ and K^+ , while replacement of extracellular Ca^{2+} by Ba^{2+} fails to decrease evoked currents and indicates little or no contribution by Ca^{2+} -activated chloride channels in ATP-evoked inward currents (Brake *et al.*, 1994).

In the present study, the EC₅₀ for ATP (3.7 μ M) was smaller than an EC₅₀ value of 15 μ M reported originally for the recombinant P2x2 (Brake et al., 1994). We have found that ATPpotency at P2x₂ is very sensitive to extracellular pH and is increased by acidification (up to pH 6.5) but decreased by alkalinization (up to pH 8.0) of the bathing medium (King et al., 1996c). Thus, the observed difference in EC₅₀ values for ATP may be have been due to slight differences in extracellular pH. The recombinant P2x₂ purinoceptor was selective for diadenosine tetraphosphate (Ap₄A) but the dinucleotide was 5 fold less potent than ATP. This potency order (ATP>Ap4A) was different from the potency order for recombinant chick P2Y₁ $(ATP = Ap_3A > > Ap_4A)$ seen in the present study and human $P2Y_2$ (ATP = Ap₄A > Ap₃A) reported earlier (Lazarowski et al., 1995). Thus, P2x₂ can be clearly distinguished from P2y₁ and P2_{Y2} purinoceptors on the basis of selectivity, potency and activity of adenine dinucleotides.

Adenine dinucleotides also have been tested on native P2X purinoceptors in various mammalian tissues (Krishtal et al., 1988; MacKenzie et al., 1988; Marchenko et al., 1988; Hoyle, 1990; Ralevic et al., 1995). Ap₄A and Ap₅A are agonists of P_{2x} purinoceptors in guinea-pig vas deferens, the latter dinucleotide being 100 fold more potent than ATP (MacKenzie et al., 1988). Ap₄A, Ap₅A and Ap₆A elicit vaso-constriction via P_{2x} purinoceptors in rat mesenteric artery, these dinucleotides being 30-130 fold more potent than ATP (Ralevic et al., 1995). P_{2x} purinoceptors in rat urinary bladder are activated by Ap₆A alone (Hoyle, 1990). The P_{2x} purinoceptors on nodose ganglion neurones are activated by Ap₄A and Ap₅A (Marchenko et al., 1988), but the activity of Ap₄A is less than 15% of the maximal activity of ATP. An ionotropic purinoceptor described as a dinucleotide receptor and P₄ purinoceptor is stimulated fully by Ap₅A (Pintor & Miras-Portugal, 1995a; Schubert et al., 1995). However, none of the above native P2x purinoceptors show the same selectivity for adenine dinucleotides as seen in the present study of the recombinant P2x2 purinoceptor. This diversity in dinucleotide selectivity, potency and activity also may prove useful in the future characterization of members of the P_{2X} purinoceptor family, whether studied in situ or as recombinant receptors.

Potentiation of ATP activity and suramin blockade by Ap_5A

Nanomolar concentrations of Ap₅A potentiated ATP-responses at the recombinant P2x₂ purinoceptor by increasing agonist potency. These low concentrations of Ap₅A failed to alter extracellular pH and, so, this action of Ap₅A differed from the reported effects of acidicifiction on agonist potency at P2x₂ (King *et al.*, 1996c). The Hill co-efficient for ATP indicated two molecules are necessary to activate P2x₂. The Hill co-efficient for ATP was not significantly altered in presence of

Ap₅A, indicating Ap₅A does not occupy either of the two binding sites. Ap₅A also enhanced the efficacy of suramin, a competitive antagonist at $P2x_2$ purinoceptors, causing a parallel and leftwards shift of the suramin inhibition-curve. Thus, Ap₅A appears to affect allosterically the binding of ATP and suramin at $P2x_2$.

The observed potentiation of ATP-responses by Ap₅A may have a functional bearing on purinergic signalling in the CNS, since both ATP and Ap₅A are constituents of storage vesicles in brain synaptosomes (Pintor *et al.*, 1992a). The present findings indicate that exocytotically-released Ap₅A would enhance fast ATP-transmission at P2x₂ receptors which, from *in situ* hybridization experiments, appears to be distributed widely throughout the brain and spinal cord (Collo *et al.*, 1996). Interestingly, a potentiating effect also has been described for periodate-oxidized ATP at P_{2x} purinoceptors in vas deferens (Fedan & Lamport, 1990; Fedan & Grant, 1995).

However, periodate-oxidized ATP is a synthetic compound and potentiates only at millimolar concentrations while Ap_5A is a naturally-occurring substance and potentiates at nanomolar concentrations. Thus, the physiological role for adenine dinucleotides (at nanomolar concentrations) in the CNS may rest more with potentiation of ATP-activity at $P2x_2$ purinoceptors than their selective activation (at micromolar concentrations) of P2x and P2y purinoceptors as discussed above.

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