BRITISH JOURNAL OF PHARMACOLOGY

Volume 164, Supplement 1, November 2011

S 1	INTRODUCTION	S85	Neuropeptide Y
S 1	Guide to Receptors and Channels (GRAC), 5th edition	S86	Neuropeptides B and W
S3	Consultants	S87	Neurotensin
		S88	Opioid and opioid-like
S5	G PROTEIN-COUPLED RECEPTORS	S90	Orexin
S5	Introduction	S91	P2Y
S8	Orphan G protein-coupled receptors	S93	Parathyroid hormone and parathyroid hormone-
S16	5-HT (5-Hydroxytryptamine)		related peptide
S20	Acetylcholine (muscarinic)	S94	Platelet-activating factor
S22	Adenosine	S95	Proteinase-activated
S24	Adrenoceptors, α_1	S97	Prostanoid
S25	Adrenoceptors, α_2	S100	Prokineticin
S26	Adrenoceptors, β	S101	Relaxin family peptide
S28	Anaphylatoxin	S103	Somatostatin
S29	Angiotensin	S105	Sphingosine 1-phosphate
S30	Apelin	S107	Tachykinin
S31	Bile acid	S107	Trace amine-associated
S32	Bombesin	S109	TRH
S33	Bradykinin	S110	Urotensin-II
S34	Calcitonin, amylin, CGRP and adrenomedullin	S111	Vasopressin & oxytocin
S36	Calcium-sensing	S111	
S37	Cannabinoid	3113	VIP & PACAP
S39	Chemokine	S115	LIGAND-GATED ION CHANNELS
S42	Cholecystokinin	S115	Introduction
S43	Corticotropin-releasing factor	S116	5-HT ₃ (5-Hydroxytryptamine ₃)
S44	Dopamine	S118	Acetylcholine (nicotinic)
S46	Endothelin	S122	GABA _A (γ-aminobutyric acid)
S48	Formylpeptide	S126	Glutamate (ionotropic)
S49	Free fatty acid	S130	Glycine
S51	Frizzled	S133	P2X
S53	GABA _B	S135	ZAC (Zinc-activated channel)
S55	Galanin	3133	ZAC (Zinc-activated chainter)
S57	Ghrelin	S137	ION CHANNELS
S59	Glucagon, glucagon-like peptide and secretin	S137	Introduction
S61	Glutamate, metabotropic	S138	Acid-sensing (proton-gated) ion channels (ASICs)
S65		S141	Aquaporins
S66	Glycoprotein hormone	S142	Calcium (voltage-gated)
	Gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH)	S144	CatSper channels
S68	G protein-coupled estrogen (GPER)	S146	Chloride channels
S69	GPR18, GPR55 and GPR119	S152	Connexins and pannexins
S70	Histamine	S153	Cyclic nucleotide-gated channels
S71	Hydroxycarboxylic acid family	S154	Epithelial sodium channels (ENaC)
S72	KISS1, neuropeptide FF, prolactin-releasing peptide	S156	Hyperpolarisation-activated, cyclic nucleotide-gated
	and QRFP		(HCN)
S74	Leukotriene, lipoxin, oxoeicosanoid and resolvin	S157	IP ₃ receptor
S76	Lysophosphatidic acid	S158	Potassium
S78	Melanin-concentrating hormone	S161	Voltage-gated proton channel
S79	Melanocortin	S162	Ryanodine receptor
S80	Melatonin	S162	Sodium leak channel, non-selective
S82	Motilin	S164	•
S83	Neuromedin U	S164 S166	Sodium (voltage-gated) Transient recentor notantial (TPP) estion channels
S84	Neuropeptide S	2100	Transient receptor potential (TRP) cation channels

Contents continued

S175 S175	NUCLEAR RECEPTORS Introduction	S252	SLC22 family of organic cation and anion transporters
S176	Orphan nuclear receptors	S254	SLC23 family of ascorbic acid transporters
S179	Liver X and farnesoid X	S255	SLC24 family of sodium/potassium/calcium
S181	Peroxisome proliferator-activated	0_00	exchangers
S183	Retinoic acid, retinoid X and retinoic acid-related	S256	SLC25 family of mitochondrial transporters
	orphan	S259	SLC26 family of anion exchangers
S185	Steroid hormone	S260	SLC27 family of fatty acid transporters
S187	Thyroid hormone	S261	SLC28 and SLC29 families of nucleoside transporters
S188	Vitamin D, Pregnane X and Constitutive Androstane	S263	SLC30 zinc transporter family
	Transmit 2) 110g.mile 11 mile constitutive initiationality	S263	SLC31 family of copper transporters
S189	CATALYTIC RECEPTORS	S264	SLC32 vesicular inhibitory amino acid transporter
S189	Introduction	S264	SLC33 acetylCoA transporter
S190	Cytokine receptor family	S265	SLC34 family of sodium phosphate co-transporters
S194	GDNF family	S266	SLC35 family of nucleotide sugar transporters
S195	Natriuretic peptide	S267	SLC36 family of proton-coupled amino acid
S197	Pattern recognition receptors	0_0,	transporters
S200	Receptor serine/threonine kinase (RSTK) family	S268	SLC37 family of phosphosugar/phosphate
	(EC 2.7.11.30)	5_00	exchangers
S203	Receptor tyrosine kinases (E.C. 2.7.1.112)	S269	SLC38 family of sodium-dependent neutral amino
S210	Receptor tyrosine phosphatases (RTP, EC 3.1.3.48)	0_0,	acid transporters
S211	Tumour necrosis factor (TNF) family	S270	SLC39 family of metal ion transporters
C212	TDANCHODTERS	S271	SLC40 iron transporter
S213 S213	TRANSPORTERS Introduction	S272	SLC41 family of divalent cation transporters
S213		S272	SLC42 family of non-erythroid Rhesus glycoprotein
S214 S218	ATP-binding cassette family	32,2	ammonium transporters
S210	F-type and V-type ATPases (EC 3.6.3.14)	S273	SLC43 family of large neutral amino acid
S223	P-type ATPases (EC 3.6.3)	32,3	transporters
S223	The SLC superfamily of solute carriers SLC1 family of amino acid transporters	S273	SLC44 family of choline transporters
S225	, 1	S274	SLC45 orphans
S228	SLC2 family of hexose and sugar alcohol transporters	S275	SLC46 family of folate transporters
3220	SLC3 and SLC7 families of heteromeric amino acid	S275	SLC47 family of multidrug and toxin extrusion
S229	transporters (HATs)	0_/0	transporters
S230	SLC4 family of bicarbonate transporters SLC5 family of sodium-dependent transporters	S276	SLC48 haem transporter
S234	,	S276	SLCO family of organic anion transporting
S234	SLC6 neurotransmitter transporter family	0_/0	polypeptides
S239	SLC8 family of sodium/calcium exchangers		por, populate
S240	SLC9 family of sodium/hydrogen exchangers SLC10 family of sodium-bile acid co-transporters	S279	ENZYMES
S240	,	S279	Introduction
3242	SLC11 family of proton-coupled metal ion	S280	Adenosine turnover
S242	transporters SLC12 family of cation coupled chloride transporters	S282	Amino acid hydroxylases (E.C.1.14.16)
_	SLC12 family of cation-coupled chloride transporters SLC13 family of sodium-dependent sulphate/	S283	L-Arginine turnover
S243	, ,	S286	Carboxylases and decarboxylases
5244	carboxylate transporters	S288	Cyclic nucleotide turnover
S244 S245	SLC14 family of facilitative urea transporters	S292	Cytochrome P450 (E.C. 1.14)
S245	SLC15 family of peptide transporters SLC16 family of monocarboxylate transporters	S296	Eicosanoid turnover
S240	, , , ,	S300	Endocannabinoid turnover
3247	SLC17 phosphate and organic anion transporter	S302	Glycerophospholipid turnover
S249	family SLC18 family of vesicular amine transporters	S306	Haem oxygenase (EC 1.14.99.3)
S249		S307	Hydrogen sulphide synthesis
S251	SLC19 family of vitamin transporters	S308	Inositol phosphate turnover
J2J I	SLC20 family of sodium-dependent phosphate	S310	Protein serine/threonine kinases (E.C. 2.7.1)
	transporters	S317	Protein turnover

Guide to Receptors and Channels (GRAC), 5th edition

Abstract

The Fifth Edition of the 'Guide to Receptors and Channels' is a compilation of the major pharmacological targets divided into seven sections: G protein-coupled receptors, ligand-gated ion channels, ion channels, catalytic receptors, nuclear receptors, transporters and enzymes. These are presented with nomenclature guidance and summary information on the best available pharmacological tools, alongside suggestions for further reading. Available alongside this publication is a portal at http://www.GuideToPharmacology.org which is produced in close association with NC-IUPHAR and allows free online access to the information presented in the Fifth Edition.

Introduction

The great proliferation of drug targets in recent years has driven the need to provide a logically-organised synopsis of the nomenclature and pharmacology of these targets. This is the underlying reason for this 'Guide to Receptors and Channels', distributed with the British Journal of Pharmacology, and produced in association with NC-IUPHAR, the Nomenclature Committees of the International Union of Basic and Clinical Pharmacology, Thanks to a closer collaboration between the British Pharmacological Society and NC-IUPHAR, a free online portal containing the information presented in the Guide to Receptors and Channels has been established at http://www.GuideToPharmacology.org. The new portal gathers in one place the previously separate information on drug targets of GRAC and IUPHAR-DB, the database produced by NC-IUPHAR. Over time, these will steadily be integrated and the portal will be developed as a one-stop-shop for information on drug targets and other information of assistance to pharmacology and drug development in both academia and industry. The free online portal has been created by the IUPHAR Database Team (Joanna Sharman, Chido Mpamhanga, Adam Pawson, Helen Benson, Vincent Bombail and Tony Harmar) in the Centre for Cardiovascular Science, University of Edinburgh.

Our intent is to produce an authoritative but user-friendly publication, which allows a rapid overview of the key properties of a wide range of established or potential pharmacological targets. The aim is to provide information succinctly, so that a newcomer to a particular target group can identify the main elements 'at a glance'. It is not our goal to produce all-inclusive reviews of the targets presented; references to these are included in the Further Reading sections of the entries or, for many targets, the website of NC-IUPHAR (http://www.iuphar-db.org) provides extensive information. The 'Guide to Receptors and Channels' presents each entry, typically a circumscribed target class family on, wherever possible, a single page, so as to allow easy access and rapid oversight.

Targets have been selected for inclusion where there is sufficient pharmacological information to allow clear definition or where, in our view, there is clear interest in this molecular class from the pharmacological community. Our philosophy has been to present data on human proteins wherever possible, both in terms of structural information and pharmacology. To this end, the Ensembl ID allows rapid access through a free online database (http://www.ensembl.org) to genomes from many other species, including mouse and rat. From this database, links are also provided to structural information in a number of formats. Where structural or pharmacological information is not available for human targets, we have used data from other species, as indicated. A priority in constructing these tables was to present agents which represent the most selective and which are available by donation or from commercial sources, now or in the near future.

The Guide is divided into seven sections, which comprise pharmacological targets of similar structure/function. These are G protein-coupled receptors, ligand-gated ion channels, ion channels, catalytic receptors, nuclear receptors, transporters and enzymes. In comparison with the Fourth Edition of the 'Guide to Receptors and Channels' (Alexander et al., 2009), we have added a number of new records, expanding the total to include over 1600 protein targets. The expansion for the Fifth Edition comes primarily from including the full complement of transporters defined in the human genome, as well as increasing the content on enzymes. As in the Fourth Edition, we have also included lists of 'orphan' G protein-coupled and nuclear receptors. The preliminary pairings for orphan GPCR and nuclear receptors provide information on targets, where there is some evidence for an endogenous ligand or a link to a disease or disorder.

The Editors of the Guide have compiled the individual records, taking advice from many Consultants (listed on page S3). With each record, an indication is given of the status of the nomenclature, as proposed by NC-IUPHAR, published in *Pharmacological Reviews*. Where this guidance is lacking, advice from several prominent, independent experts has been obtained to produce an authoritative consensus, which attempts to fit in within the general guidelines from NC-IUPHAR (Vanhoutte et al., 1996). Tabulated data provide ready comparison of selective agents and probes (radioligands and PET ligands, where available) within a family of targets and additional commentary highlights whether species differences or ligand metabolism are potential confounding factors. We recommend that any citations to information in the Guide are presented in the following format:

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA (2011). Guide to Receptors and Channels (GRAC), 5th edn. Br J Pharmacol 164 (Suppl. 1): S1-S324.

Stephen P.H. Alexander School of Biomedical Sciences,

University of Nottingham Medical School,

Nottingham NG7 2UH, UK.

E-mail: steve.alexander@nottingham.ac.uk

Medway School of Pharmacy,

The Universities of Kent and Greenwich at Medway,

Central Avenue, Chatham Maritime,

Kent ME4 4TB, UK

E-mail: a.a.mathie@kent.ac.uk

John A. Peters

Alistair Mathie

Neuroscience Division, Medical Education Institute, Ninewells Hospital and Medical School,

The University of Dundee, Dundee DD1 9SY, UK.

E-mail: j.a.peters@dundee.ac.uk

References

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA (2009). Guide to Receptors and Channels (GRAC), 4th Edition. *Br J Pharmacol* **158**: S1–S239. Vanhoutte PM, Humphrey PPA, Spedding M (1996). X. International Union of Pharmacology recommendation for nomenclature of new receptor subtypes. *Pharmacol Rev* **48**: 1–2.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Consultants \$3

Consultants

N. ABUL-HASN, New York, USA C.M.H. ANDERSON, Newcastle, UK M.S. ARAIKSINEN, Helsinki, Finland M. ARITA, Boston, USA E.L. BARKER, West Lafayette, USA C. BARRATT, Dundee, UK N.M. BARNES, Birmingham, UK R. BATHGATE, Melbourne, Australia P.M. BEART, Melbourne, Australia D. BELELLI, Dundee, UK A.J. BENNETT, Nottingham, UK N.J.M. BIRDSALL, London, UK D. BISHOP-BAILEY, London, UK S. BRÖER, Canberra, Australia P. BROWN, Manchester, UK G. CALO', Ferrara, Italy W.A. CATTERALL, Seattle, USA S.L.F. CHAN, Nottingham, UK M.V. CHAO. New York. USA N. CHIANG, Boston, USA A. CHRISTOPOULOS, Parkville, Australia J.J. CHUN, La Jolla, USA D.E. CLAPHAM, Boston, USA S. COCKCROFT, London, UK M.W. CONNOR, Sydney, Australia H.M. COX, London, UK A. CUTHBERT, Cambridge, UK F.M. DAUTZENBERG, Allschwil, Switzerland A.P. DAVENPORT, Cambridge, UK G. DENT, Keele, UK A.C. DOLPHIN, London, UK M.L. DUBOCOVICH, Chicago, USA L. EIDEN, Bethesda, USA K. EIDNE, Nedlands, Australia C. FAHLKE, Hannover, Germany G.A. FITZGERALD, Philadelphia, USA T.M. FONG, Rahway, USA J.R. FRY, Nottingham, UK C.D. FUNK, Kingston, Canada V. GANAPATHY, Augusta, USA B. GASNIER, Paris, France A. GOLDIN, Irvine, USA A.L. GUNDLACH, Melbourne, Australia B. HAGENBUCH, Kansas, USA T.G. HALES, Dundee, UK J.R. HAMMOND, London, Canada M. HAMON, Paris, France J.C. HANCOX, Bristol, UK R.L. HAUGER, San Diego, USA D.L. HAY, Auckland, New Zealand A.J. HOBBS, London, UK M.D. HOLLENBERG, Calgary, Canada N.M. HOLLIDAY, Nottingham, UK D. HOYER, Basel, Switzerland

N.A. HYNES, Basel, Switzerland

K.A. JACOBSON, Bethesda, USA

R. JENSEN, Washington DC, USA

K.-I. INUI, Kyoto, Japan S. ISHII, Tokyo, Japan

M.F. JARVIS, Chicago, USA

C.E. JONES, Horsham, UK

R.L. JONES, Glasgow, UK

C. KENNEDY, Glasgow, UK

M.J. KLIENZ, Cambridge, UK

J.P. KUKKONEN, Turku, Finland

J.Y. LAPOINT, Montreal, Canada

R. LEURS, Amsterdam, The Netherlands E. LINGUEGLIA, Valbonne, France J. LIPPIAT, Leeds, UK S.J. LOLAIT, Bristol, UK S.C.R. LUMMIS, Cambridge, UK J.W. LYNCH, Brisbane, Australia D. MACEWAN, Norwich, UK J.J. MAGUIRE, Cambridge, UK I.L. MARSHALL, Birmingham, UK J.M. MAY, Nashville, USA C.A. MCARDLE, Bristol, UK M.C. MICHEL, Amsterdam, The Netherlands N.S. MILLAR, London, UK V. MITOLO, Bari, Italy P.N. MONK, Sheffield, UK A.J. MOORHOUSE, Sydney, Australia B. MOUILLAC, Montpellier, France P.M. MURPHY. Bethesda, USA J. NEUMAIER, Seattle, USA B. NIESLER, Heidelberg, Germany A. OBAIDAT, Kansas, USA S. OFFERMANNS, Bad Nauheim, Germany B.OLDE, Lund, Sweden M.A. PANARO, Bari, Italy S. PARSONS, Santa Barbara, USA R.G. PERTWEE, Aberdeen, UK I.-P. PIN. Montpellier. France D.R. POYNER, Birmingham, UK S. PRIGENT, Leicester, UK E.R. PROSSNITZ, Albuquerque, USA E.L. RICHELSON, Jacksonville, USA R.E. ROBERTS, Nottingham, UK R. ROSKOSKI, New Orleans, USA R.A. ROSS, Aberdeen, UK M. ROTH, Kansas, USA G. RUDNICK, New Haven, USA R.M. RYAN, Sydney, Australia S.I. SAID. Stonv Brook, USA G.J. SANGER, London, UK L. SCHILD, Lausanne, Switzerland K. SCHOLICH, Frankfurt, Germany A. SCHOUSBOE, Copenhagen, Denmark G. SCHULTE, Stockholm, Sweden S. SCHULZ, Philadelphia, USA C.N. SERHAN, Boston, USA P.M. SEXTON, Melbourne, UK D.R. SIBLEY, Bethesda, USA J.M. SIEGEL, Los Angeles, USA G. SINGH, Cambridge, UK R. SITSAPESAN, Bristol, UK T.G. SMART, London, UK D.M. SMITH, London, Australia T. SOGA, Ibaraki, Japan M. SPEDDING, Paris, France G. STEWART, Dublin, Ireland L.A. STODDART, Nottingham, UK R.J. SUMMERS, Parkville, Australia D.T. THWAITES, Newcastle, UK R.J. VANDENBERG, Sydney, Australia C. VILLALON, Mexico, Mexico S.A. WALDMAN, Philadelphia, USA D.T. WARD, Manchester, UK G.B. WILLARS, Leicester, UK E. WRIGHT, Los Angeles, USA A. YONEZAWA, Kyoto, Japan

L.M.F. LEEB-LUNDBERG, Lund, Sweden

G PROTEIN-COUPLED RECEPTORS

Overview: The completion of the Human Genome Project allowed the identification of a large family of proteins with a common motif of seven groups of 20–24 hydrophobic amino acids arranged as α -helices. Approximately 800 of these seven transmembrane (7TM) receptors have been identified of which over 300 are non-olfactory receptors (see Fredriksson *et al.*, 2003; Lagerstrom and Schioth, 2008). Subdivision on the basis of sequence homology allows the definition of rhodopsin, secretin, adhesion, glutamate and Frizzled receptor families. NC-IUPHAR recognizes Classes A, B, and C, which equate to the rhodopsin, secretin, and glutamate receptor families.

The nomenclature of 7TM receptors is commonly used interchangeably with G protein-coupled receptors (GPCR), although the former nomenclature recognises signalling of 7TM receptors through pathways not involving G proteins. For example, adiponectin and membrane progestin receptors have some sequence homology to 7TM receptors but signal independently of G proteins and appear to reside in membranes in an inverted fashion compared to conventional GPCR. Additionally, the NPR-C natriuretic peptide receptor (see Page S195) has a single transmembrane domain structure, but appears to couple to G proteins to generate cellular responses. The 300+ non-olfactory GPCR are the targets for the majority of drugs in clinical usage (Overington *et al.*, 2006), although only a minority of these receptors are exploited therapeutically.

Signalling through GPCR is enacted by the activation of heterotrimeric GTP-binding proteins (G proteins), made up of α , β and γ subunits, where the α and $\beta\gamma$ subunits are responsible for signalling. The α subunit (tabulated below) allows definition of one series of signalling cascades and permits grouping of GPCRs to suggest common cellular, tissue and behavioural responses. G $\beta\gamma$ subunits (tabulated below) also are able to signal, in a manner independent of the G α subunits. Recently, the concept of agonist bias, or functional selectivity, has arisen (see Kenakin and Miller, 2010), which suggests that particular agonists, or allosteric modulators, may be able to promote post-receptor signalling through one cascade at the expense of an alternative. This has complicated the scenario for classification of GPCR. For the purposes of the Guide to Receptors and Channels, 'Principal transduction' is limited to the predominant established G α signalling.

 $G\alpha_s$ family: β_1 -adrenoceptors (see Page S26) in the heart couple principally through $G\alpha_s$ to activate adenylyl cyclase activity (see Page S288) and elevate intracellular cyclic AMP levels. This in turn leads to activation of protein kinase A (see Page S310) and the consequent phosphorylation and enhancement of function of voltage-gated calcium channels ($Ca_v 1.2$, see Page S142). This, in turn leads to the observed action of noradrenaline (norepinephrine) or adrenaline (epinephrine) in increasing cardiac rate and force of contraction. The identification of other G_s -coupled GPCR in the heart would allow prediction of a similar effect on heart rate and force through the same mechanisms. In other tissues, G_s -coupled receptors would be predicted to evoke smooth muscle relaxation (e.g. β_2 -adrenoceptors in bronchioles, Page S26), enhance secretion (e.g. H_2 histamine receptors in gastric parietal cells, Page S70), stimulate lipolysis in adipocytes (e.g. β_3 -adrenoceptors, Page S26) and inhibit platelet aggregation (e.g. IP prostanoid receptors, Page S97).

Nomenclature	HGNC nomenclature	Other names	Ensembl ID
CC _s	GNAS	Stimulatory G protein	ENSG00000087460
α_{olf}	GNAL	Olfactory type	ENSG00000141404

 $G\alpha_i$ family: M_2 muscarinic acetylcholine receptors (see Page S20) in the heart couple via $G\alpha_i$ subunits to inhibit adenylyl cyclase activity (see Page S288). Vagal innervation targets these receptors, primarily in the atria, to counteract the effects of noradrenaline and adrenaline in the cardiac myocyte, leading to a reduction in heart rate and force of contraction. In addition, $G\alpha_i$ subunits and $G\beta\gamma$ subunits (see below) enhance potassium channel opening ($K_{IR}2.x$, see Page S158). The ensuing hyperpolarization of the cardiac myocyte leads to a reduction in voltage-gated L-type calcium channel activity and a consequent inhibition of rate and force of cardiac contraction – the manifestation of vagal nerve stimulation. In other tissues, G_i -coupled receptors would be predicted to inhibit neurotransmitter release (e.g. μ opioid receptors, Page S88, on parasympathetic nerve terminals in the small intestine), inhibit lipolysis in adipocytes (e.g. A_1 adenosine receptors, Page S22) and enhance platelet aggregation (e.g. P2Y₁₂ receptors, Page S91).

In the retina, transducin (α_t) subunits allow coupling to a cyclic GMP-specific phosphodiesterase, PDE6 (see Page S290). This reduces cellular cyclic GMP levels leading to a reduction of currents through cyclic nucleotide-gated channels (CNG, Page S153) and subsequent decrease of the 'dark' current.

Nomenclature	HGNC nomenclature	Other names	Ensembl ID
$lpha_{i1}$	GNAI1	Inhibitory G protein α subunit	ENSG00000127955
$lpha_{i2}$	GNAI2	Inhibitory G protein α subunit	ENSG00000114353
α_{i3}	GNAI3	Inhibitory G protein α subunit	ENSG0000065135
$lpha_{t1}$	GNAT1	Transducin 1 α subunit	ENSG00000114349
α_{t2}	GNAT2	Transducin 2 α subunit	ENSG00000134183
$lpha_{t3}$	GNAT3	Gustducin α subunit	ENSG00000214415
α_{o}	GNAO1	α other	ENSG00000087258
C/ _z	GNAZ	-	ENSG00000128266

 $G\alpha_q$ family: M_3 muscarinic acetylcholine receptors (see Page S20) in bronchial smooth muscle couple via $G\alpha_{q/11}$ subunits to stimulate phospholipase C- β activity (see Page S302). This leads to an elevation of intracellular calcium ions through inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate action at IP₃ receptors (see Page S157), activation of protein kinase C (see Page S311) and the consequent smooth muscle contraction and reduced airway conductance. In other tissues, G_q -coupled receptor activation leads to increased platelet aggregation (e.g. P2Y₁ receptors, Page S91).

Lysophosphatidic acid receptors (see Page S76) and proteinase-activated receptors (see Page S95) are examples of GPCR which couple through multiple G protein families, including $G\alpha_{12/13}$ leading to activation of a guanine nucleotide exchange factor, or GEF, for the Rho family of low molecular GTP-binding proteins (ENSFM00500000269651), the subsequent activation of Rho kinase (see Page S313) and regulation of the cytoskeleton, leading to cellular shape changes and/or migration.

Nomenclature	HGNC nomenclature	Ensembl ID
α_{q}	GNAQ	ENSG00000156052
α ₁₁	GNA11	ENSG00000088256
α_{12}	GNA12	ENSG00000146535
α_{13}	GNA13	ENSG00000120063
α_{14}	GNA14	ENSG00000156049
α ₁₅	GNA15	ENSG00000060558

GNAQP1 is a pseudogene (ENSG00000214077).

Gβγ subunits: although β and γ subunits are synthesised as separate entities, they are considered to generate a complex which is essentially biologically irreversible. Acylation and prenylation ensure an association with the plasma membrane, where Gβγ subunits may regulate ion channel activities, or recruit members of the G protein-coupled receptor kinase family, also known as β-adrenoceptor kinases (see Page S310). Phosphorylation of particular cytoplasmic serine/threonine residues of GPCR allows binding of β-arrestin (ENSFM00250000000572). These proteins act as scaffolding partners facilitating internalization of GPCR as a mechanism of desensitization, or coupling to alternative signalling pathways (e.g. MAP kinases, see Page S312).

Nomenclature	HGNC nomenclature	Ensembl ID
β1	GNB1	ENSG00000078369
β2	GNB2	ENSG00000172354
β3	GNB3	ENSG00000111664
β4	GNB4	ENSG00000114450
β5	GNB5	ENSG00000069966

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA G protein-coupled receptors \$7

Nomenclature	HGNC nomenclature	Ensembl ID
γ2	GNG2	ENSG00000186469
γ3	GNG3	ENSG00000162188
γ4	GNG4	ENSG00000168243
γ5	GNG5	ENSG00000174021
γ7	GNG7	ENSG00000176533
γ8	GNG8	ENSG00000167414
γ10	GNG10	ENSG00000242616
γ11	GNG11	ENSG00000127920
γ12	GNG12	ENSG00000172380
γ13	GNG13	ENSG00000127588
γt1	GNGT1	ENSG00000127928
γt2	GNGT2	ENSG00000167083

GNB1L (ENSG00000185838) and GNB2L1 (ENSG00000204628) are described as G β -like proteins on the basis of sequence homology. Four G γ pseudogenes are defined in the human genome (GNG5P1, ENSG00000213536; GNG5P2, ENSG00000133136; GNG5P3, ENSG00000254949; GNG5P5, ENSG00000234590).

Further Reading

Foord SM, Bonner TI, Neubig RR, Rosser EM, Pin JP, Davenport AP et al. (2005). International Union of Pharmacology. XLVI. G protein-coupled receptor list. Pharmacol Rev 57: 279–288.

Fredholm BB, Hokfelt T, Milligan G (2007). G-protein-coupled receptors: an update. Acta Physiol 190: 3–7.

Fredriksson R, Lagerstrom MC, Lundin LG, Schioth HB (2003). The G-protein-coupled receptors in the human genome form five main families. Phylogenetic analysis, paralogon groups, and fingerprints. *Mol Pharmacol* 63: 1256–1272.

Hill SJ, Williams C, May LT (2010). Insights into GPCR pharmacology from the measurement of changes in intracellular cyclic AMP; advantages and pitfalls of differing methodologies. *Br J Pharmacol* **161**: 1266–1275.

Kenakin T (2010). Being mindful of seven-transmembrane receptor 'guests' when assessing agonist selectivity. *Br J Pharmacol* **160**: 1045–1047. Kenakin T, Miller LJ (2010). Seven transmembrane receptors as shapeshifting proteins: the impact of allosteric modulation and functional selectivity on new drug discovery. *Pharmacol Rev* **62**: 265–304.

Kenakin TP (2009). Cellular assays as portals to seven-transmembrane receptor-based drug discovery. *Nat Rev Drug Discov* 8: 617–626. Lagerstrom MC, Schioth HB (2008). Structural diversity of G protein-coupled receptors and significance for drug discovery. *Nat Rev Drug Discov* 7: 339–357.

Milligan G (2009). G protein-coupled receptor hetero-dimerization: contribution to pharmacology and function. *Br J Pharmacol* **158**: 5–14. Overington JP, Al-Lazikani B, Hopkins AL (2006). How many drug targets are there? *Nat Rev Drug Discov* **5**: 993–996. http://www.iuphar-db.org/

Orphan G protein-coupled receptors

Preliminary pairings

While the remainder of this section focuses on those GPCR for which there is substantial pharmacological information, or interest, listed below are a number of putative GPCR identified by IUPHAR (Foord et al., 2005), for which only preliminary evidence for an endogenous ligand has been published, or for which there exists a potential link to a disease, or disorder. The GPCR in the table below are all Class A, rhodopsin-like GPCR.

IUPHAR name	Ensembl ID	Other names	Putative endogenous ligand	Comment
CCRL2	ENSG00000121797	Chemokine (C-C motif) receptor-like 2, HCR, CRAM-B, CKRX, CRAM-A, CCR11, Cmkbr1l2, L-CCR, CRAM	Chemerin (Zabel <i>et al.,</i> 2008)	-
GPR1	ENSG00000183671	-	Chemerin (Barnea <i>et al.,</i> 2008)	Reported to act as a co-receptor for HIV (Shimizu <i>et al.</i> , 1999)
GPR3	ENSG00000181773	ACCA	Fails to respond to a variety of lipid-derived agents (Yin et al., 2009)	Reported to activate adenylyl cyclase constitutively through G _s (Eggerickx <i>et al.</i> , 1995). Gene disruption results in premature ovarian aging (Ledent <i>et al.</i> , 2005), reduced β-amyloid deposition (Thathiah <i>et al.</i> , 2009) and heightened pain behaviours (Ruiz-Medina <i>et al.</i> , 2011) in mice
GPR4	ENSG00000177464		Protons (Ludwig <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Tobo <i>et al.</i> , 2007; Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2010a)	An initial report suggesting activation by lysophosphatidylcholine, sphingosylphosphorylcholine (Zhu et al., 2001) has been retracted (Zhu et al., 2005). Gene disruption is associated with increased perinatal mortality and impaired vascular proliferation (Yang et al., 2007)
GPR6	ENSG00000146360	-	Fails to respond to a variety of lipid-derived agents (Yin et al., 2009)	Reported to activate adenylyl cyclase constitutively through G _s and to be located intracellularly (Padmanabhan <i>et al.</i> , 2009)
GPR12	ENSG00000132975	GPCR21, Gpcr01, Gpcr12, Gpcr20	Fails to respond to a variety of lipid-derived agents (Yin et al., 2009)	Gene disruption results in dyslipidemia and obesity (Bjursell et al., 2006)
GPR15	ENSG00000154165	ВОВ	-	Reported to act as a co-receptor for HIV (Edinger <i>et al.</i> , 1997)
GPR17	ENSG00000144230	R12	Dual leukotriene and UDP receptor (Ciana <i>et al.,</i> 2006)	Reported to antagonize CysLT1 receptor signalling <i>in vivo</i> and <i>in vitro</i> (Maekawa <i>et al.</i> , 2009)
GPR20	ENSG00000204882	-	-	Reported to inhibit adenylyl cyclase constitutively through G _{i/o} (Hase et al., 2008)
GPR22	ENSG00000172209		_	Reported to inhibit adenylyl cyclase constitutively through G _{1/o} ; gene disruption results in increased severity of functional decompensation following aortic banding (Adams <i>et al.</i> , 2008). Identified as a susceptibility locus for osteoarthritis (Evangelou <i>et al.</i> , 2011, Kerkhof <i>et al.</i> , 2010, Valdes and Spector, 2010)
GPR26	ENSG00000154478	-	-	Reported to activate adenylyl cyclase constitutively through G _s (Jones <i>et al.,</i> 2007)

IUPHAR name GPR31	Ensembl ID ENSG00000120436	Other names bA517H2.2	Putative endogenous ligand 12(S)-Hydroxyeicosatetraenoic	Comment
GPR34	ENSG00000171659	-	acid (Guo et al., 2011) Lysophosphatidylserine (Sugo et al., 2006), but fails to respond to a variety of lipid-derived agents (Yin et al., 2009)	Gene disruption results in an enhanced immune response (Liebscher <i>et al.</i> , 2011)
GPR35	ENSG00000178623		Kynurenic acid (Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2006); lysophosphatidic acid (Oka <i>et al.</i> , 2010)	Reported to respond to the phosphodiesterase inhibitor zaprinast (Taniguchi <i>et al.</i> , 2006) the chloride channel blocker 5-nitro-2-(3-phenylpropylamino) benzoic acid (Taniguchi <i>et al.</i> , 2008), the pharmaceutical adjuvant pamoic acid (Zhao <i>et al.</i> , 2010) and tyrosine kinase inhibitor tyrphostins (Deng <i>et al.</i> , 2011)
GPR37	ENSG00000170775	PAELR, EDNRBL, Endothelin B receptor-like protein 1, Parkin- associated endothelin receptor-like receptor	Head activator peptide (Rezgaoui <i>et al.,</i> 2006)	Reported to associate and regulate the dopamine transporter (Marazziti et al., 2007) and to be a substrate for parkin (Marazziti et al., 2009). Gene disruption results in altered striatal signalling (Marazziti et al., 2011)
GPR39	ENSG00000183840		Zn ²⁺ (Holst et al., 2007)	Obestatin was reported initially as a endogenous ligand (Zhang et al., 2005), but subsequent studies failed to reproduce these findings. Has been reported to be down-regulate in adipose tissue in obesity-related diabetes (Catalan et al., 2007). Gen disruption results in obesity (Petersen et al., 2011)
GPR50	ENSG00000102195	Melatonin-related receptor, H9, MTNRL	-	A potential orthologue of an avian melatonin receptor (Dufourny et al., 2008)
GPR63	ENSG00000112218	PSP24B	Fails to respond to a variety of lipid-derived agents (Yin et al., 2009)	
GPR65	ENSG00000140030	TDAG8, T-cell death associated gene 8	Protons (Wang <i>et al.,</i> 2004; Ihara <i>et al.,</i> 2010)	Reported to activate adenylyl cyclase; gene disruption leads to reduced eosinophilia in models of allergic airway disease (Kottyan et al., 2009)
GPR68	ENSG00000119714	OGR1	Protons (Ludwig <i>et al.,</i> 2003; Liu <i>et al.,</i> 2010b)	-
GPR75	ENSG00000119737	WI-31133	RANTES (Ignatov <i>et al.</i> , 2006)	-
GPR84	ENSG00000139572	EX33	Medium chain fatty acids (Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2006)	-
GPR87	ENSG00000138271	GPR95	Lysophosphatidic acid (Tabata <i>et al.</i> , 2007)	-
GPR88	ENSG00000181656	STRG	-	Gene disruption results in altered striatal signalling (Logue <i>et al.</i> , 2009)
GPR120	ENSG00000186188		Free fatty acids (Katsuma et al., 2005; Hirasawa et al., 2005)	-
GPR132	ENSG00000183484	G2A	Protons (Murakami <i>et al.</i> , 2004)	Reported to respond to lysophosphatidylcholine (Kabarowski <i>et al.</i> , 2001), but later retracted (Witte <i>et al.</i> , 2005)
GPR143	ENSG00000101850	OA1	L-DOPA (Lopez et al., 2008)	Loss-of-function mutations underlie ocular albinism type 1 (Bassi <i>et al.</i> , 1995)

IUPHAR name	Ensembl ID	Other names	Putative endogenous ligand	Comment
GPR149	ENSG00000174948	PGR10, IEDA		Gene disruption results in enhanced fertility (Edson <i>et al.</i> , 2010)
GPR161	ENSG00000143147	RE2	-	Gene disruption is associated with a failure of asymmetric embryonic development in zebrafish (Leung et al., 2008)
GPR183	ENSG00000169508	EBI2, Epstein-Barr virus induced gene 2, lymphocyte-specific G protein-coupled receptor	Oxysterols (Hannedouche et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2011)	-
GPRC ₆	ENSG00000173612	GPRC6A	Basic amino acids, such as L-arginine, L-lysine and L-ornithine (Wellendorph et al., 2005)	-
LGR4	ENSG00000205213	Leucine-rich repeat-containing G-protein coupled receptor 4, GPR48	R-spondins (Carmon <i>et al.,</i> 2011; de Lau <i>et al.,</i> 2011)	Gene disruption leads to multiple developmental disorders (Luo <i>et al.</i> 2009; Jin <i>et al.</i> , 2008; Song <i>et al.</i> , 2008; Weng <i>et al.</i> , 2008)
LGR5	ENSG00000139292	Leucine-rich repeat-containing G-protein coupled receptor 5, GPR49, GPR67, FEX, HG38	R-spondins (Carmon <i>et al.,</i> 2011; de Lau <i>et al.,</i> 2011)	-
LGR6	ENSG00000133067;	FLJ14471, VTS20631	R-spondins (Carmon <i>et al.,</i> 2011; de Lau <i>et al.,</i> 2011)	-
MAS1	ENSG00000130368	Mas	Angiotensin-(1-7) (Santos et al., 2003)	
MRGPRD	ENSG00000172938	TGR7, Mas-related GPR member D, MrgD	β-Alanine (Shinohara <i>et al.</i> , 2004)	Potentially exists as a heteromer with MRGPRE (Milasta <i>et al.</i> , 2006
MRGPRX1	ENSG00000170255	SNSR4, Mas-related GPR member X1, MrgX1	BAM8-22 (Chen and Ikeda, 2004)	Reported to mediate the sensation of itch (Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2009; Sikand <i>et al.</i> , 2011)
MRGPRX2	ENSG00000183695	Mas-related GPR member X2, MrgX2	PAMP (Kamohara et al., 2005), cortistatin (Robas et al., 2003)	-
P2RY10	ENSG00000078589	Purinergic receptor, P2Y10, P2Y-like	Sphingosine 1-phosphate and lysophosphatidic acid (Murakami <i>et al.,</i> 2008)	-
OXGR1	ENSG00000165621	GPR80, GPR99, P2Y15	2-Oxoglutarate (He <i>et al.,</i> 2004)	-
SUCNR1	ENSG00000198829	GPR91	Succinate (He et al., 2004; Hogberg et al., 2011)	-

Additional 'orphan' GPCRs

In the set of tables below, putative GPCR with as-yet unidentified endogenous ligands are listed.

Class A orphan GPCR

IUPHAR name	Ensembl ID	Other names
GPR19	ENSG00000183150	GPR-NGA
GPR21	ENSG00000188394	-
GPR25	ENSG00000170128	-
GPR27	ENSG00000170837	SREB1, super-conserved receptor expressed in brain 1
GPR33	ENSMUSG00000035148	Pseudogene in man
GPR37L1	ENSG00000170075	Endothelin B receptor-like protein 2, ETBR-LP-2, G-protein coupled receptor 37-like 1, CAG-1 D0Kist8
GPR45	ENSG00000135973	PSP24

IUPHAR name	Ensembl ID	Other names
GPR52	ENSG00000203737	-
GPR61	ENSG00000156097	BALGR, GPCR3
GPR62	ENSG00000180929	GPCR8
GPR78	ENSG00000155269	-
GPR82	ENSG00000171657	-
GPR83	ENSG00000123901	GPR72, KIAA1540, glucocorticoid-induced receptor, GIR, RP105, RP39, RP82
GPR85	ENSG00000164604	SREB2, Super Conserved Receptor Expressed in Brain 2, Srep2, MGC105281
GPR101	ENSG00000165370	GPCR6, RGD1564196
GPR135	ENSG00000181619	HUMNPIIY20, PAFR
GPR139	ENSG00000180269	PGR3, GPRg1
GPR141	ENSG00000187037	PGR13
GPR142	ENSG00000257008	PGR2, KIF19
GPR146	ENSG00000164849	PGR8
GPR148	ENSG00000173302	PGR6, brain and testis restricted GPCR
GPR150	ENSG00000178015	PGR11
GPR151	ENSG00000173250	PGR7, GALR4, GPCR-2037
GPR152	ENSG00000175514	PGR5
GPR153	ENSG00000158292	PGR1
GPR160	ENSG00000173890	GPCR150, GPCR1
GPR162	ENSG00000110811	A-2, GRCA
GPR171	ENSG00000174946	H963
GPR173	ENSG00000184194	Super conserved receptor expressed in brain 3, SREB3
GPR174	ENSG00000147138	FKSG79
GPR176	ENSG00000166073	Gm1012, HB954
GPR182	ENSG00000166856	adrenomedullin receptor, hrhAMR, AM-R, G10-D, Gpcr17, Gpcr22, MB10, NOW, ADMR
MAS1L	ENSG00000204687	MAS-L, MRG, dJ994E9.2, MAS-R, MGC119987, MAS1 oncogene-like
MGRPRX3	ENSG00000179826	MAS-related GPR, member X3, Mrga10, SNSR1, SNSR2, MRGX3, sensory neuron-specific G-protein coupled receptor 1/2
MGRPRX4	ENSG00000179817	MAS-related GPR, member X4, MRGX4, SNSR5, SNSR6, sensory neuron-specific G-protein coupled receptor 5/6
MRGPRE	ENSG00000184350	MAS-related GPR, member E, mrgE, GPR167, MGC138408
MRGPRF	ENSG00000172935	GPR168, GPR140, MGC21621, mrgF, MAS-related GPR, member F, RTA
MRGPRG	ENSG00000182170	MAS-related GPR, member G, GPR169, mrgG, MRGG, EBRT2
OPN3	ENSG00000054277	Opsin-3, Encephalopsin, Panopsin, ECPN, ERO, NMO-1
OPN5	ENSG00000124818	GPR136, neuropsin, PGR12, TMEM13
P2RY8	ENSG00000182162	purinergic receptor P2Y, G-protein coupled, 8, P2Y8, MGC50878

Class B Orphan GPCR

IUPHAR name	Ensembl ID	Other names
GPR157	ENSG00000180758	FLJ12132

Adhesion GPCRs: Adhesion GPCRs are structurally identified on the basis of a large extracellular region, similar to the Class B GPCR, but which is linked to the 7TM region by a 'stalk' motif containing a GPCR proteolytic site. The N-terminus often shares structural homology with proteins such as lectins and immunoglobulins, leading to the term adhesion GPCR (see Fredriksson *et al.*, 2003; Yona *et al.*, 2008).

IUPHAR name	Ensembl ID	Other names	Comment
BAI1	ENSG00000181790	Brain-specific angiogenesis inhibitor 1	Reported to respond to phosphatidylserine (Park <i>et al.</i> , 2007)
BAI2	ENSG00000121753	Brain-specific angiogenesis inhibitor 2	_
BAI3	ENSG00000135298	Brain-specific angiogenesis inhibitor 3	_
CD97	ENSG00000123146	Leukocyte antigen CD97	_
CELSR1	ENSG00000075275	Cadherin EGF LAG seven-pass G-type receptor 1, flamingo homolog 2, hFmi2	-
CELSR2	ENSG00000143126	Cadherin EGF LAG seven-pass G-type receptor 2, epidermal growth factor-like 2, multiple epidermal growth factor-like domains 3, flamingo 1	-
CELSR3	ENSG00000008300	Cadherin EGF LAG seven-pass G-type receptor 3, flamingo homolog 1, hFmi1, multiple epidermal growth factor-like domains 2, epidermal growth factor-like 1	-
ELTD1	ENSG00000162618	EGF, latrophilin and seven transmembrane domain-containing protein 1, EGF-TM7-latrophilin-related protein, ETL	-
EMR1	ENSG00000174837	EGF-like module-containing mucin-like hormone receptor-like 1, cell surface glycoprotein EMR1, EMR1 hormone receptor	-
EMR2	ENSG00000127507	EGF-like module-containing mucin-like hormone receptor-like 2, EGF-like module EMR2, CD312 antigen	-
EMR3	ENSG00000131355	EGF-like module-containing mucin-like hormone receptor-like 3, EGF-like module-containing mucin-like receptor EMR3	-
GPR56	ENSG00000205336	TM7LN4, TM7XN1	Reported to bind tissue transglutaminase 2 (Xu <i>et al.</i> , 2006 and collagen, which activates the G _{12/13} pathway (Luo <i>et al.</i> , 2011)
GPR64	ENSG00000173698	HE6	_
GPR97	ENSG00000182885	Pb99, PGR26	_
GPR98	ENSG00000164199	VLGR1, FEB4, KIAA0686, USH2C, Frings, MASS1, monogenic audiogenic seizure susceptibility 1 homolog	Loss-of-function mutations are associated with Usher syndrome, a sensory deficit disorder (Jacobson et al., 2008)
GPR110	ENSG00000153292	hGPCR36, PGR19	-
GPR111	ENSG00000164393	hGPCR35, PGR20	_
GPR112	ENSG00000156920	RP1-299I16, PGR17	_
GPR113	ENSG00000173567	hGPCR37, PGR23	_
GPR114	ENSG00000159618	PGR27	_
GPR115	ENSG00000153294	FLJ38076, PGR18	_
GPR116	ENSG00000069122	DKFZp564O1923, KIAA0758	_
GPR123	ENSG00000007122	KIAA1828	_
GPR124	ENSG00000137177	Tumour endothelial marker 5	_
GPR125	ENSG00000020181	PGR21	_
GPR126		FLJ14937	_
	ENSG00000112414		_
GPR128	ENSG00000144820	FLJ14454	_
GPR133	ENSG00000111452	PGR25	_
GPR144	ENSG00000180264	PGR24	_
LPHN1	ENSG00000072071	Lectomedin-2, LEC2, latrophilin-1, calcium-independent α-latrotoxin receptor 1	-
LPHN2	ENSG00000117114	Lectomedin-1, LEC1, latrophilin-2, calcium-independent α-latrotoxin receptor 2, latrophilin homolog 1	-
LPHN3	ENSG00000150471	Lectomedin-3, LEC3, Latrophilin-3, calcium-independent α-latrotoxin receptor 3, l	-

Class C Orphan GPCR

Ensembl ID	Other names
ENSG00000175697	PGR28, GABABL
ENSG00000151025	KIAA1136
ENSG00000188888	GPR158L1
ENSG00000013588	RAIG ₁ , Retinoic acid-induced protein 3, retinoic acid-induced gene 1 protein, orphan G-protein-coupling receptor PEIG-1
ENSG00000167191	RAIG ₂ , Retinoic acid-induced gene 2 protein, A-69G12.1
ENSG00000170412	RAIG ₃ , Retinoic acid-induced gene 3 protein,
ENSG00000111291	RAIG ₄ , G-protein coupled receptor family C group 5 member D
	ENSG00000175697 ENSG00000151025 ENSG00000188888 ENSG0000013588 ENSG00000167191 ENSG00000170412

Taste receptors

Whilst the taste of acid and salty foods appears to be sensed by regulation of ion channel activity, bitter, sweet and umami tastes are sensed by specialised GPCR. Two classes of taste GPCR have been identified, T1R and T2R, which are similar in sequence and structure to Class C and Class \hat{A} GPCR, respectively. Activation of taste receptors appears to involve gustducin ($G\alpha_{t3}$, see Page S6) and $G\alpha_{14}$ -mediated signalling, although the precise mechanisms remain obscure. Gene disruption studies suggest the involvement of PLCβ2 (Zhang et al., 2003), TRPM5 (Zhang et al., 2003) and IP₃ (Hisatsune *et al.*, 2007) receptors in post-receptor signalling of taste receptors.

Although predominantly associated with the oral cavity, taste receptors are also located elsewhere, including further down the gastrointestinal system, in the lungs and in the brain.

Sweet/Umami: T1R3 acts as an obligate partner in T1R1/T1R3 and T1R2/T1R3 heterodimers, which sense umami or sweet, respectively. T1R1/T1R3 heterodimers respond to L-glutamate and may be positively allosterically modulated by 5'-nucleoside monophosphates, such as GMP (Li et al., 2002). T1R2/T1R3 heterodimers respond to sugars, such as sucrose, and artificial sweeteners, such as saccharin (Nelson et al., 2001).

Nomenclature	HGNC nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names
T1R1	TAS1R1	ENSG00000173662	GPR70, TR1
T1R2	TAS1R2	ENSG00000179002	GPR71, TR2
T1R3	TAS1R3	ENSG00000169962	-

Bitter: the composition and stoichiometry of bitter taste receptors is not yet established. Bitter receptors appear to separate into two groups, with very restricted ligand specificity or much broader responsiveness. For example, T2R5 responded to cycloheximide, but not 10 other bitter compounds (Chandrashekar et al., 2000), while T2R14 responded to at least eight different bitter tastants, including (-)-α-thujone and picrotoxinin (Behrens et al., 2004).

Nomenclature	HGNC nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names
T2R1	TAS2R1	ENSG00000169777	TRB7
T2R3	TAS2R3	ENSG00000127362	_
T2R4	TAS2R4	ENSG00000127364	_
T2R5	TAS2R5	ENSG00000127366	_
T2R7	TAS2R7	ENSG00000121377	TRB4
T2R8	TAS2R8	ENSG00000121314	TRB5
T2R9	TAS2R9	ENSG00000121381	TRB6
T2R10	TAS2R10	ENSG00000121318	TRB2
T2R13	TAS2R13	ENSG00000212128	TRB3
T2R14	TAS2R14	ENSG00000212127	TRB1
T2R16	TAS2R16	ENSG00000128519	_
T2R19	TAS2R19	ENSG00000212124	T2R23, TAS2R23, TAS2R4
T2R20	TAS2R20	ENSG00000255837	T2R56, TAS2R49
T2R24	TAS2R24	ENSG00000186136	hT2R55, T2R55, TAS2R5

Nomenclature	HGNC nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names
Γ2R30	TAS2R30	ENSG00000256188	TAS2R47
Γ2R31	TAS2R31	ENSG00000256436	T2R53, TAS2R44
Γ2R39	TAS2R39	ENSG00000236398	-
Γ2R40	TAS2R40	ENSG00000221937	GPR60
Γ2R51	TAS2R50	ENSG00000212126	-
Γ2R52	TAS2R43	ENSG00000255374	-
Γ2R54	TAS2R46	ENSG00000226761	-
Γ2R59	TAS2R41	ENSG00000221855	-
Γ2R60	TAS2R60	ENSG00000185899	-
Γ2R61	TAS2R38	ENSG00000257138	PTC

Further Reading

Andres-Barquin PJ, Conte C (2004). Molecular basis of bitter taste: the T2R family of G protein-coupled receptors. Cell Biochem Biophys 41: 99-112.

Bachmanov AA, Beauchamp GK (2007). Taste receptor genes. Annu Rev Nutr 27: 389-414.

DeSimone JA, Lyall V (2006). Taste receptors in the gastrointestinal tract III. Salty and sour taste: sensing of sodium and protons by the tongue. Am J Physiol Gastrointest Liver Physiol 291: G1005-G1010.

Foord SM, Bonner TI, Neubig RR, Rosser EM, Pin JP, Davenport AP et al. (2005). International Union of Pharmacology. XLVI. G protein-coupled receptor list. Pharmacol Rev 57: 279-288.

Fredriksson R, Lagerstrom MC, Lundin LG, Schioth HB (2003). The G-protein-coupled receptors in the human genome form five main families. Phylogenetic analysis, paralogon groups, and fingerprints. Mol Pharmacol 63: 1256-1272.

Kinnamon SC (2011). Taste receptor signaling – from tongues to lungs. Acta Physiol (Oxf) in press.

Lagerstrom MC, Schioth HB (2008). Structural diversity of G protein-coupled receptors and significance for drug discovery. Nat Rev Drug Discov 7: 339-357.

Meyerhof W (2005). Elucidation of mammalian bitter taste. Rev Physiol Biochem Pharmacol 154: 37-72.

Overington JP, Al-Lazikani B, Hopkins AL (2006). How many drug targets are there? Nat Rev Drug Discov 5: 993-996.

Renwick AG, Molinary SV (2010). Sweet-taste receptors, low-energy sweeteners, glucose absorption and insulin release. Br J Nutr 104: 1415–1420. Rozengurt E (2006). Taste receptors in the gastrointestinal tract. I. Bitter taste receptors and α-gustducin in the mammalian gut. Am J Physiol Gastrointest Liver Physiol 291: G171-G177.

Rozengurt E, Sternini C (2007). Taste receptor signaling in the mammalian gut. Curr Opin Pharmacol 7: 557-562.

Temussi PA (2009). Sweet, bitter and umami receptors: a complex relationship. Trends Biochem Sci 34: 296-302.

Tepper BJ (2008). Nutritional implications of genetic taste variation: the role of PROP sensitivity and other taste phenotypes. Annu Rev Nutr 28: 367-388.

Yarmolinsky DA, Zuker CS, Ryba NJ (2009). Common sense about taste: from mammals to insects. Cell 139: 234-244.

Yona S, Lin HH, Siu WO, Gordon S, Stacey M (2008). Adhesion-GPCRs: emerging roles for novel receptors. Trends Biochem Sci 33: 491–500.

References

Adams JW et al. (2008). Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol 295: H509-H521.

Barnea G et al. (2008). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 105: 64-69.

Bassi MT et al. (1995). Nat Genet 10: 13-19.

Behrens M et al. (2004). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 319: 479-485. Bjursell M et al. (2006). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 348: 359-366. Carmon KS et al. (2011). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 108: 11452-11457.

Catalan V et al. (2007). Clin Endocrinol (Oxf) 66: 598-601.

Chandrashekar J et al. (2000). Cell 100: 703-711.

Chen H, Ikeda SR (2004). J Neurosci 24: 5044-5053.

Ciana P et al. (2006). EMBO J 25: 4615-4627.

de Lau W et al. (2011). Nature 476: 293-297.

Deng H et al. (2011). FEBS Lett 585: 1957-1962.

Dufourny L et al. (2008). BMC Evol Biol 8: 105.

Edinger AL et al. (1997). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 94: 14742-14747.

Edson MA et al. (2010). Endocrinology 151: 358-368.

Eggerickx D et al. (1995). Biochem J 309: 837-843.

Evangelou E et al. (2011). Ann Rheum Dis 70: 349-355.

Guo Y et al. (2011). J Biol Chem 286: 33832-33840.

Hannedouche S et al. (2011). Nature 475: 524-527.

Hase M et al. (2008). J Biol Chem 283: 12747-12755.

He W et al. (2004). Nature 429: 188-193.

Hirasawa A et al. (2005). Nat Med 11: 90-94.

Hisatsune C et al. (2007). J Biol Chem 282: 37225-37231.

Hogberg C et al. (2011). J Thromb Haemost 9: 361-372.

Holst B et al. (2007). Endocrinology 148: 13-20.

Ignatov A et al. (2006). Br J Pharmacol 149: 490-497.

Ihara Y et al. (2010). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 107: 17309-17314.

Jacobson SG et al. (2008). Hum Mol Genet 17: 2405-2415.

Jin C et al. (2008). Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci 49: 4245-4253 Jones PG et al. (2007). Biochimica et Biophysica Acta 1770: 890-901.

Kabarowski JH et al. (2001). Science 293: 702-705.

Kamohara M et al. (2005). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 330: 1146-1152.

Katsuma S et al. (2005). J Biol Chem 280: 19507-19515.

Kerkhof HJ et al. (2010). Arthritis Rheum 62: 499-510.

Kottvan LC et al. (2009). Blood 114: 2774-2784.

Ledent C et al. (2005). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 102: 8922-8926.

Leung T et al. (2008). Dev Biol 323: 31-40.

Li X et al. (2002). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 99: 4692–4696.

Liebscher I et al. (2011). J Biol Chem 286: 2101-2110.

Liu C et al. (2011). Nature 475: 519-523.

Liu JP et al. (2010a). Pharmacol Res 61: 499-505.

Liu JP et al. (2010b). Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol 299: H731-H742.

Liu Q et al. (2009). Cell 139: 1353-1365.

Logue SF et al. (2009). Mol Cell Neurosci 42: 438-447.

Lopez VM et al. (2008). PLoS Biol 6: e236.

Ludwig MG et al. (2003). Nature 425: 93-98.

Luo J et al. (2009). Development 136: 2747-2756.

Luo R et al. (2011). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 108: 12925-12930.

Maekawa A et al. (2009). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 106: 11685-11690.

Marazziti D et al. (2007). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 104: 9846-9851.

Marazziti D et al. (2009). FASEB J 23: 1978-1987. Marazziti D et al. (2011). FASEB J 25: 2071-2081. Milasta S et al. (2006). Mol Pharmacol 69: 479-491. Murakami N et al. (2004). J Biol Chem 279: 42484-42491. Nelson G et al. (2001). Cell 106: 381-390. Oka S et al. 2010). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 395: 232-237. Padmanabhan S et al. (2009). FEBS Lett 583: 107-112. Park D et al. (2007). Nature 450: 430-434. Petersen PS et al. (2011). FASEB I in press. Rezgaoui M et al. (2006). J Cell Sci 119: 542-549. Robas N et al. (2003). J Biol Chem 278: 44400-44404. Ruiz-Medina J et al. (2011). Neuropharmacology 61: 43-50. Santos RA et al. (2003). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 100: 8258-8263. Shimizu N et al. (1999). J Virol 73: 5231-5239. Shinohara T et al. (2004). J Biol Chem 279: 23559-23564. Sikand P et al. (2011). J Neurosci 31: 7563-7567. Song H et al. (2008). J Biol Chem 283: 36687-36697. Sugo T et al. (2006). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 341: 1078-1087. Tabata K et al. (2007). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 363: 861-866.

Taniguchi Y et al. (2006). FEBS Lett 580: 5003-5008. Taniguchi Y et al. (2008). Pharmacology 82: 245-249. Thathiah A et al. (2009). Science 323: 946-951. Tobo M et al. (2007). Cell Signal 19: 1745-1753. Valdes AM, Spector TD (2010). Curr Opin Rheumatol 22: 139-143. Wang J et al. (2006). J Biol Chem 281: 22021-22028. Wang JQ et al. (2004). J Biol Chem 279: 45626-45633. Wellendorph P, Hansen KB et al. (2005). Mol Pharmacol 67: 589-597. Weng J et al. (2008). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 105: 6081-6086. Witte ON et al. (2005). Science 307: 206. Xu L et al. (2006). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 103: 9023-9028. Yang LV et al. (2007). Mol Cell Biol 27: 1334-1347. Yin H et al. (2009). J Biol Chem 284: 12328-12338. Zabel BA et al. (2008). J Exp Med 205: 2207-2220. Zhang JV et al. (2005). Science 310: 996-999. Zhang Y et al. (2003). Cell 112: 293-301. Zhao P et al. (2010). Mol Pharmacol 78: 560-568. Zhu K et al. (2001). J Biol Chem 276: 41325-41335. Zhu K et al. (2005). J Biol Chem 280: 43280.

5-HT (5-Hydroxytryptamine)

5-HT receptors [nomenclature as agreed by NC-IUPHAR Subcommittee on 5-HT receptors (Hoyer et~al., 1994) and subsequently revised (Hartig et~al., 1996)] are, with the exception of the ionotropic 5-HT $_3$ class, GPCR where the endogenous agonist is 5-HT. The diversity of metabotropic 5-HT receptors is increased by alternative splicing that produces isoforms of the 5-HT $_{2A}$ (non-functional), 5-HT $_{2C}$ (non-functional), 5-HT $_4$, 5-HT $_6$ (non-functional) and 5-HT $_7$ receptors. Unique amongst the GPCRs, RNA editing produces 5-HT $_{2C}$ receptor isoforms that differ in function, such as efficiency and specificity of coupling to $G_{q/11}$ and also pharmacology (reviewed by Bockaert et~al., 2006; Werry et~al., 2008). Most 5-HT receptors (except 5-ht $_{1e}$ and 5-ht $_{5a/5b}$) play specific roles mediating functional responses in different tissues (reviewed by Villalón and Centurión, 2007; Ramage and Villalón, 2008).

Nomenclature	5-HT _{1A}	5-HT _{1B}	5-HT _{1D}	$5-ht_{1e}$
Other names	_	5-HT _{1Dβ}	5-HT _{1Dα}	_
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000178394	ENSG00000135312	ENSG00000179546	ENSG00000168830
Principal transduction	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{i/o}$
Selective agonists (pKi)	8-OH-DPAT (8.4–9.4), U92016A (9.7) F15599 (8.6, Newman-Tancredi et al., 2009)	L694247 (9.2), CP94253 (8.7), sumatriptan (6.5–8.1), eliptriptan (8.0)	PNU109291 (9.0 – gorilla, Ennis <i>et al.</i> , 1998) sumatriptan (8.0–8.7), eletriptan (8.9), L694247 (9.0, Wurch <i>et al.</i> , 1998)	BRL-54443 (8.7, Brown <i>et al.</i> , 1998)
Selective antagonists (p <i>K_i</i>)	(±)WAY100635 (7.9–9.2), (5)-UH301 (7.9–8.6), NAD299 (robalzotan, 9.2)	SB236057 (8.2, inverse agonist, Middlemiss <i>et al.</i> , 1999), SB224289 (inverse agonist, 8.2–8.6), GR55562 (pK _B 7.4, Hoyer <i>et al.</i> , 2002)	SB714786 (9.1) BRL15572 (7.9)	-
Probes (K_D)	[³ H]WAY100635 (0.3 nM, Khawaja <i>et al.</i> , 1997), [³ H]NAD299 (0.16 nM), [³ H]8-OH-DPAT (0.4 nM), [³ H]F13640 (1.4 nM, Heusler <i>et al.</i> , 2010) [¹¹ C]WAY100635 (PET ligand), p-[¹⁸ F]MPPF (PET ligand)	[N-methyl- ³ H ₃]-AZ10419369 (0.37 nM, Maier et al., 2009) [³ H]alniditan (2.0–2.4 nM) [³ H]eletriptan (3 nM), [³ H]sumatriptan (11 nM) [¹²⁵ I]GTI, [³ H]GR125743 (2.6 nM, Xie et al., 1999), [¹¹ C]AZ10419369 (PET ligand)	[³ H]alniditan (1.2–1.4 nM) [³ H]eletriptan (0.9 nM), [³ H]sumatriptan (7 nM), [¹²⁵ I]GTI, [³ H]GR125743 (2.8 nM, Xie <i>et al.</i> , 1999)	[³ H]5-HT (6 nM)

Nomenclature	5-HT _{1F}	5-HT _{2A}	5-HT _{2B}	5-HT _{2C}
Other names Ensembl ID	5-HT _{1Eβ} , 5-HT ₆ ENSG00000179097	D, 5-HT ₂ ENSG00000102468	5-HT _{2F} ENSG00000135914	5-HT _{1C} ENSG00000147246
Principal transduction	G _{i/o}	$G_{q/11}$	G _{q/11}	G _{q/11}
Selective agonists (p <i>K</i> _i)	LY344864 (8.2, Phebus et al., 1997) LY334370 (8.7), LY573144 (8.7, Nelson et al., 2010), BRL-54443 (8.9, Brown et al., 1993), elitriptan (8.0), sumatriptan (7. 2–7.9)	DOI (7.4–9.2)	DOI (7.6–7.7), Ro600175 (8.3), BW723C86 (7.3–8.6)	DOI (7.2–8.6), Ro600175 (7.7–8.2) WAY163909 (8.0, Dunlop et al., 2005) Locaserin (7.8, Thomsen et al., 2008)
Selective antagonists (p <i>Ki</i>)	-	ketanserin (8.1-9.7), MDL100907 (9.4)	RS127445 (9.0), EGIS-7625 (9.0)	SB242084 (8.2 – 9.0), RS102221 (8.3–8.4) FR260010 (8.9, Harada et al., 2006)
Probes (K₂)	[³ H]LY334370 (0.5 nM), [¹²⁵ i]LSD	[³ H]ketanserin (0.2–1.3 nM), [³ H]RP62203 (fananserin, 0.13 nM – rat, Malgouris et al.,1993), [¹¹ C]M100907 (PET ligand), [¹⁸ F]altanserin (PET ligand)	[³ H]5-HT (8 nM – rat) [³ H]mesulergine (5–10 nM), [³ H]LSD (5–10 nM), [¹²⁵ I]DOI (20–25 nM)	[³ H]mesulergine (0.5–2.2 nM), [¹²⁵ I]DOI (6–25 nM), [³ H]LSD

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA 5-HT (5-Hydroxytryptamine) \$17

Nomenclature	5-HT₄	5-ht _{5a}	5-ht _{5b}	5-HT ₆
Other names	_	5-HT _{5α}	_	_
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000164270	ENSG00000157219	ENSMUSG00000050534	ENSG00000158748
Principal transduction	G_s	G_i/G_o ?	None identified	G_s
Selective agonists (p <i>Ki</i>)	BIMU8 (7.3), ML10302 (7.9–9.0), RS67506 (8.8–guinea-pig, Eglen et al., 1995)	-	-	WAY181187 (8.7, Schechter et al., 2008) E6801 (partial agonist, 8.7, Holenz et al., 2005)
Selective antagonists (p <i>Ki</i>)	GR113808 (9.3-10.3), SB204070 (9.8 – 10.4), RS100235 (8.7–12.2)	SB699551 (8.2)	-	SB399886 (9.4, Hirst <i>et al.</i> , 2006) SB271046 (8.9), SB357134 (8.5, Bromidge <i>et al.</i> , 2001) Ro630563 (7.9–8.4)
Probes (K₀)	[³ H]GR113808 (50 – 200 pM), [¹² 5]SB207710 (86 pM – piglet, Brown <i>et al.</i> , 1993), [³ H]RS57639 (0.25 nM–guinea-pig, Bonhaus <i>et al.</i> , 1997) [¹¹ C] SB207145 (PET ligand)	[³ H]5-CT (2.5 nM), [¹²⁵ I]LSD (0.2 nM)	[³ H]5-CT, [¹²⁵ I]LSD	[1 ²⁵]SB258585 (1.0 nM, Hirst <i>et al.</i> , 2000), [³ H]Ro630563 (5 nM, Boess <i>et al.</i> , 1998), [³ H]5-CT, [1 ²⁵]LSD (2 nM)

Nomenclature 5-HT₇

 Other names
 5-HT1-like, 5-HT1y, orphan

 Ensembl ID
 ENSG00000148680

Principal transduction G

Selective agonists (pKi) E55888 (8.6, Brenchat et al., 2009)

Selective antagonists (pKi) SB656104 (8.7, Forbes et al., 2002), SB269970 (8.6–8.9 Thomas et al., 2000), SB258719 (7.5)

Radioligands (KD) [3H]SB269970 (1.2 nM, Thomas et al. 2000), [3H]5-CT (0.4 nM, Thomas et al., 2000) [3H]LSD (3 nM),

[3H]5-HT (1-8 nM)

Tabulated pK_i and K_D values refer to binding to human 5-HT receptors unless indicated otherwise. Unreferenced values are extracted from the NC-IUPHAR database (www.iuphar-db.org). The nomenclature of 5-HT_{1B}/5-HT_{1D} receptors has been revised (Hartig *et al.*, 1996). Only the non-rodent form of the receptor was previously called 5-HT_{1DB}. The human 5-HT_{1B} receptor (tabulated) displays a different pharmacology to the rodent forms of the receptor due to Thr335 of the human sequence being replaced by Asn in rodent receptors. NAS181 is a selective antagonist of the rodent 5-HT_{1B} receptor. Fananserin and ketanserin bind with high affinity to dopamine D4 and histamine H₁ receptors respectively, and ketanserin is a potent α 1 adrenoceptor antagonist, in addition to blocking 5-HT_{2A} receptors. The human 5-ht_{5A} receptor has been claimed to couple to several signal transduction pathways when stably expressed in C6 glioma cells (Noda *et al.*, 2003). The human orthologue of the mouse 5-ht_{5b} receptor is non-functional due to interruption of the gene by stop codons. The 5-ht_{1e} receptor appears not to have been cloned from mouse, or rat, impeding definition of its function. In addition to the receptors listed in the table, an 'orphan' receptor, unofficially termed 5-HT_{1P}, has been described (Gershon, 1999).

Abbreviations: 5-CT, 5-carboxamidotryptamine; 8-OH-DPAT, 8-hydroxy-2-(di-n-propylamino)tetralin; [N-methyl-3H₃]AZ10419369, 5-methyl-8-(4-methyl-piperazin-1-yl)-4-oxo-4H-chromene-2-carboxylicacid (4-morpholin-4-yl-phenyl)-amide; BIMU8, (endo-N-8-methyl-8-azabicyclo [3,2,1]oct-3-vl)-2,3-dihydro-3-isopropyl-2-oxo-1*H*-benzimidazol-1-carboxamide hydrochloride; BRL15572, 3-[4-(3-chlorophenyl) piperazin-1-yl]-1,1,-diphenyl-2-propanol; BRL54443, 5-hydroxy-3-(1-methylpiperidin-4-yl)-1*H*-indole; BW723C86, 1-[5(2-thienylmethoxy)-1*H*-3indolyl]propan-2-amine hydrochloride; CP94253: 3- (1,2,5,6-tetrahydro-4-pyridyl)-5-propoxypyrrolo[3, 2-b] pyridine; E6801, 6-chloro-N-(3-(2-tetrahydro-4-pyridyl)-5-propoxypyrrolo[3, 2-tetrahydro-4-pyridyl] pyridine; E6801, 6-chloro-N-(3-(2-tetrahydro-4-pyridyl)-5 $dimethylamino) ethyl) - 1 \\ H-indol-5-yl) imidazo [2,1-b] thiazole-5-sulfonamide; E55888, \ dimethyl-[2-[3-(1,3,5-trimethyl-1H-pyrazol-4-yl)-phenyl] - 1 \\ H-indol-5-yl) imidazo [2,1-b] thiazole-5-sulfonamide; E55888, \ dimethyl-[2-[3-(1,3,5-trimethyl-1H-pyrazol-4-yl)-phenyl] - 1 \\ H-indol-5-yl) imidazo [2,1-b] thiazole-5-sulfonamide; E55888, \ dimethyl-[2-[3-(1,3,5-trimethyl-1H-pyrazol-4-yl)-phenyl] - 1 \\ H-indol-5-yl) imidazo [2,1-b] thiazole-5-sulfonamide; E55888, \ dimethyl-[2-[3-(1,3,5-trimethyl-1H-pyrazol-4-yl)-phenyl] - 1 \\ H-indol-5-yl) imidazo [2,1-b] thiazole-5-sulfonamide; E55888, \ dimethyl-[2-[3-(1,3,5-trimethyl-1H-pyrazol-4-yl)-phenyl] - 1 \\ H-indol-5-yl) imidazo [2,1-b] thiazole-5-sulfonamide; E55888, \ dimethyl-[2-[3-(1,3,5-trimethyl-1H-pyrazol-4-yl)-phenyl] - 1 \\ H-indol-5-yl) imidazo [2,1-b] thiazole-5-sulfonamide; E55888, \ dimethyl-[2-[3-(1,3,5-trimethyl-1H-pyrazol-4-yl)-phenyl] - 1 \\ H-indol-5-yl) imidazole-5-sulfonamide; E55888, \ dimethyl-[2-[3-(1,3,5-trimethyl-1H-pyrazol-4-yl)-phenyl] - 1 \\ H-indol-5-yl) imidazole-5-yl) imidazole-5-yl) imidazole-5-yl) imidazole-5-yl) imidazole-5-yl) imidazole-5-yl) imidazole$ ethyl}-amine; EGIS-7625, 1-benzyl-4-[(2-nitro-4-methyl-5-amino)-phenyl]-piperazine; F13640, 3-chloro-4-fluoro-phenyl)-[4-fluoro-4-{[(5-amino)-phenyl]-piperazine; F13640, 3-chloro-4-fluoro-phenyl]-piperazine; F13640, 3-chloro-phenyl]-piperazine; F13640, 3-chl methyl-pyperidin-2-ylmethyl)-amino]-methyl}piperidin-1-yl]-methanone; F15599, 3-chloro-4-fluorophenyl-(4-fluoro-4-{[(5-methyl)pyrimidin-1-yl]-methanone; F15599, 3-chloro-4-fluorophenyl-(4-fluoro-4-fluo 2-ylmethyl)-amino]-methyl}-piperidin-1-yl)-methanone; FR260010, (N-[3-(4-methyl-1H-imidazol-1-yl)phenyl]-5,6-dihydrobenzo[h]quinazolin-4-amine; GR55562, 3-[3-(dimethylamino)propyl]-4-hydroxy-N-[4-(4-pyridinyl)phenyl]benzamide; GR113808, [1-2](methylsuphonyl)amino] ethyl]-4-piperidinyl]methyl-1-methyl-1H-indole-3-carboxylate; GR125743, n-[4-methoxy-3-(4-methyl-1-piperizinyl)phenyl]-3-methyl-4-(4-methyl-1-piperizinyl)phenyl pyrindinyl)benzamide; GTI, 5-hydroxytryptamine-5-O-carboxymethylglycyltyrosinamide; L694247, 2-[5-[3-(4-methylsulphonylamino)benzyl-1,2,4-oxadiazol-5-yl]-1*H*-indol-3yl] ethanamine; LY334370, 5-(4-flurobenzoyl)amino-3-(1-methylpiperidin-4-yl)-1*H*-indole -6-dimethylamino-6,7,8,9-tetrahydro-5*H*-carbazo-3-yl]-4fluorobenzamide; LY573144, N-[(6R) methylpiperidin-4-yl)carbonyl]pyridin-2yl]benzamide; MDL100907, (+/-)2,3-dimethoxyphenyl-1-[2-(4-piperidine)-methanol]; NAD299, (R)-3-*N,N*-dicyclobutylamino-8-fluoro-[6-3H]-3,4-dihydro-2H-1-benzo pyran-5-carboxamide; NAS181, (R)-(+)-2-[[[3-(morpholinomethyl)-2Hchromen-8-yl]oxy]methyl] morpholine methane sulfonate; p-[18F]MPPF 4-(2'-methoxyphenyl)-1-[2'-(N-2"-pyridinyl)-p-fluorobenzamido]ethyl piperazine; PNU109291, (S)-3,4-dihydro-1-[2-[4-(4-methoxyphenyl)-1-piperazinyl]ethyl]-N-methyl-1H-2-benzopyran-6-carboximide; RP62203, 2-[3-(4-(4-fluorophenyl)-piperazinyl)propyl]naphto[1,8-ca]isothiazole-1,1-dioxide; Ro600175, (\$)-2-(6-chloro-5-fluroindol-1-yl)-1methyethylamine; Ro630563, 4-amino-N-[2,6-bis(methylamino)pyridin-4-yl]benzenesulphonamide; RS57639, 4-amino-5-chloro-2-methoxy benzoic acid 1-(3-[2,3-dihydrobenzo[1,4]dioxin-6yl)-propyl]-piperidin-4yl methyl ester; RS67506, 1-(4-amino-5-chloro-2-methoxyphenyl)-3-[1- $(2-methyl\ sulphonylamino) ethyl-4-piperidinyl]-1-propanone\ hydrochloride;\ \textbf{RS100235},\ 1-(8-amino-7-chloro-1,4-benzodioxan-5-yl)-5-((3-(3,4-amino-7-chloro-1,4-benzodioxan-5-yl)-5-((3-(3,4-amino-7-chloro-1,4-benzodioxan-5-yl)-5-((3-(3,4-amino-7-chloro-1,4-benzodioxan-5-yl)-5-((3-(3,4-amino-7-chloro-1,4-benzodioxan-5-yl)-5-((3-(3,4-amino-7-chloro-1,4-benzodioxan-5-yl)-5-((3-(3,4-amino-7-chloro-1,4-benzodioxan-5-yl)-5-((3-(3,4-amino-7-chloro-1,4-benzodioxan-5-yl)-5-((3-(3,4-amino-7-chloro-1,4-benzodioxan-5-yl)-5-((3-(3,4-amino-7-chloro-1,4-benzodioxan-5-yl)-5-((3-(3,4-amino-7-chloro-1,4-benzodioxan-5-yl)-5-((3-(3,4-amino-7-chloro-1,4-benzodioxan-5-yl)-5-((3-(3,4-amino-7-chloro-1,4-benzodioxan-5-yl)-5-((3-(3,4-amino-7-chloro-1,4-benzodioxan-5-yl)-5-((3-(3,4-amino-7-chloro-1,4-benzodioxan-5-yl)-5-((3-(3,4-amino-7-chloro-1,4-benzodioxan-5-yl)-5-((3-(3,4-amino-7-chloro-1,4-benzodioxan-5-yl)-5-((3-(3,4-amino-7-chloro-1,4-benzodioxan-5-yl)-5-((3-(3,4-amino-7-chloro-1,4-benzodioxan-5-yl)-5-((3-(3,4-amino-7-chloro-1,4-amino-7-ch$ dimethoxyphenyl)prop-1-yl)piperidin-4-yl)propan-1-one; RS102221, 8-[5-(5-amino 2,4-dimethoxyphenyl) 5-oxopentyl]-1,3,8-triazaspiro

 $[4,5] decane-2, 4-dione; \\ RS127445, \\ (2-amino-4-(4-fluoronaphthyl-1-yl)-6-isopropylpyrimidine); \\ SB204070, \\ 1-butyl-4-piperidinylmethyl-8-isopropylpyrimidine); \\ [4,5] decane-2, 4-dione; \\ RS127445, \\ (2-amino-4-(4-fluoronaphthyl-1-yl)-6-isopropylpyrimidine); \\ SB204070, \\ 1-butyl-4-piperidinylmethyl-8-isopropylpyrimidine); \\ [4,5] decane-2, 4-dione; \\ RS127445, \\ (2-amino-4-(4-fluoronaphthyl-1-yl)-6-isopropylpyrimidine); \\ [4,5] decane-2, 4-dione; \\ RS127445, \\ (2-amino-4-(4-fluoronaphthyl-1-yl)-6-isopropylpyrimidine); \\ [4,5] decane-2, 4-dione; \\ RS127445, \\ (2-amino-4-(4-fluoronaphthyl-1-yl)-6-isopropylpyrimidine); \\ [4,5] decane-2, 4-dione-2, 4-dione-2,$ amino-7-chloro-1-4-benzoioxan-5-carboxylate; SB207710, 1-butyl-4-piperidinylmethyl-8-amino-7-iodo-1,4-benzodioxan-5-carboxylate; $\textbf{SB224289}, 1'-\text{methyl} - 5[[2'-\text{methyl} - 4'-)5-\text{methyl} - 1,2,4-\text{oxadiazol} - 3-\text{yl}) \\ \textbf{biphenyl} - 4-\text{yl}] \\ \textbf{carbonyl} - 2,3,6,7-\text{tetrahydrospiro}[\text{furo}[2,3-f] \\ \textbf{indole} - 3,4'-\text{yl}] \\ \textbf{carbonyl} - 2,3,6,7-\text{tetrahydrospiro}[\text{furo}[2,3-f] \\ \textbf{carbonyl} - 2,3,6,7$ piperidine]oxalate; SB236057,1'-ethyl-5-(2'-methyl-4' (5-methyl-1,3,4-oxadiazol-2-yl)biphenyl-4-carbonyl)-2,3,6,7-tetrahydrospiro[furo[2,3-6,7-tetrahydrospiro] f]indol3-3,4'-piperidine; SB242084, 6-chloro-5-methyl-1-[2-(2-methylpyridyl-3-oxy)-pyrid-5-yl carbamoyl] indoline; SB258585, 4-iodo-N-[4methoxy-3-(4-methyl-piperazin-1-yl)-phenyl]-benzenesulphonamide; SB258719. (R)-3, N-dimethyl-N-[1-methyl-3-(4-methylpiperidin-1yl)propyl]benzene sulphonamide; SB269970, (R)-3-(2-(4-methyl)pieridin-1-vl)ethyl)pyrrolidine-1-sulphonyl)phenol; SB271046, 5-chloro-N-(4-methoxy-3-piperazin-1-yl-phenyl)-3-methyl-2-benzothiophenesulphonamide; SB357134, N-(2,5-dibromo-3-flurophenyl)-4-methoxy-3piperazin-1-ylbenzenesulphonamide; SB-399885, N-[3,5-dichloro-2-(methoxy)phenyl]-4-(methoxy)-3-(1-piperazinyl)benzenesulfonamide; SB656104, 6-((R)-2-[2-[4-(4-Chloro-phenoxy)-piperidin-1-yl]-ethyl]-pyrrolidine-1-sulphonyl)-1H-indole hydrochloride; SB699551. 3-cyclopentyl-N-[2-(dimethylamino)ethyl]-N-[(4'-{[(2-phenylethyl)amino|methyl}-4-biphenylyl)methyl]propanamide dihydrochloride; SB714786, 2-methyl-5-({2-[4-(8-quinolinylmethyl)-1-piperazinyl]ethyl}oxy)quinoline; UH301, 5-fluoro-8-hydroxy-2-(dipropylamino) tetralin; (+)-R)-2-cyano-*N*,*N*-dipropyl-8-amino-6,7,8,9-tetrahydro-3*H*-benz[e]indole; WAY100635, N-(2-(4-(2-methoxyphenyl)-1piperazinyl)ethyl)-N-(2-pyridyl)-cyclohexanecarboxamide trichloride, WAY163909, (7bR, 10aR)-1,2,3,4,8,9,10,10a-octahydro-7bH-cyclopenta-[b][1,4]diazepino[6,7,1hi]indole; WAY-181187, 2-[1-(6-chloroimidazo[2,1-b]thiazol-5-ylsulfonyl)-1H-indol-3-yl]ethylamine

Further Reading

Aloyo VJ, Berg KA, Spampinato U, Clarke WP, Harvey JA (2009). Current status of inverse agonism at serotonin_{2A} (5-HT_{2A}) and 5-HT_{2C} receptors. *Pharmacol Ther* **121**: 160–173.

Barnes NM, Sharp T (1999). A review of central 5-HT receptors and their function. Neuropharmacology 38: 1083-1152.

Berger M, Gray JA, Roth BL (2009). The expanded biology of serotonin. Annu Rev Med 60: 355-366.

Bockaert J, Claeysen S, Becamel C, Dumuis A, Marin P (2006). Neuronal 5-HT metabotropic receptors: fine-tuning of their structure, signaling, and roles in synaptic modulation. *Cell Tissue Res* 326: 553–572.

Bockaert J, Claeysen S, Compan V, Dumuis A (2008). 5-HT₄ receptors: history, molecular pharmacology and brain functions. *Neuropharmacology* 55: 922–931.

Bojarski AJ (2006). Pharmacophore models for metabotropic 5-HT receptor ligands. Curr Top Med Chem 6: 2005–2026.

Bonasera SJ, Tecott LH (2000). Mouse models of serotonin receptor function: toward a genetic dissection of serotonin systems. *Pharmacol Ther* 88: 133–142.

Bureau R, Boulouard M, Dauphin F, Lezoualc'h F, Rault S (2010). Review of 5-HT₄R ligands: state of art and clinical applications. *Curr Top Med Chem* 10: 527–553.

Caliendo G, Santagada V, Perissutti E, Fiorino F. (2005). Derivatives as 5HT_{1A} receptor ligands – past and present. *Curr Med Chem* 12: 1721–1753. Fink KB, Göthert M (2007). 5-HT receptor regulation of neurotransmitter release. *Pharmacol Rev* 59: 360–417. http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18160701?ordinalpos=69&itool=EntrezSystem2.PEntrez.Pubmed_ResultsPanel.Pubmed_RVDocSum

Gershon MD (1999). Review article: roles played by 5-hydroxytryptamine in the physiology of the bowel. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* **13**: Suppl 2, 15–30.

Glennon RA, Siripurapu U, Roth BL, Kolanos R, Bondarev ML, Sikazwe D, Lee M, Dukat M (2010). The medicinal chemistry of 5-HT₆ receptor ligands with a focus on arylsulfonyltryptamine analogs. *Curr Top Med Chem* 10: 579–595.

Gupta S, Villalón CM (2010). The relevance of preclinical research models for the development of antimigraine drugs: focus on 5-HT_{1B/1D} and CGRP receptors. *Pharmacol Ther* **128**: 170–190.

Hoyer D, Clarke DE, Fozard JR, Hartig PR, Martin GR, Mylecharane EJ et al. (1994). International Union of Pharmacology classification of receptors for 5-hydroxytryptamine (serotonin). Pharmacol Rev 46: 157–203.

Hartig PR, Hoyer D, Humphrey PP, Martin GR (1996). Alignment of receptor nomenclature with the human genome: classification of 5-HT_{1B} and 5-HT_{1D} receptor subtypes. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 17: 103–105.

Heal DJ, Smith SL, Fisas A, Codony X, Buschmann H (2008). Selective 5-HT₆ receptor ligands: progress in the development of a novel pharmacological approach to the treatment of obesity and related metabolic disorders. *Pharmacol Ther* 117: 207–231.

Hoyer D, Hannon JP, Martin GR (2002). Molecular, pharmacological and functional diversity of 5-HT receptors. *Pharmacol Biochem Behav* 71: 533–554.

Jensen NH, Cremers TI, Sotty F (2010). Therapeutic potential of 5-HT_{2C} receptor ligands. ScientificWorldJournal 10: 1870–1885.

King MV, Marsden CA, Fone KC (2008). A role for the 5-HT_{1A}, 5-HT₄ and 5-HT₆ receptors in learning and memory. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 29: 482–492.

Lezoualc'h F, Jockers R, Berque-Bestel I (2009). Multivalent-based drug design applied to serotonin 5-HT₄ receptor oligomers. *Curr Pharm Des* **15**: 719–729.

Kitson SL (2007). 5-hydroxytryptamine (5-HT) receptor ligands. Curr Pharm Des 13: 2621–2637.

Lanfumey L, Hamon M (2004). 5-HT₁ receptors. Curr Drug Targets CNS Neurol Disord 3: 1–10.

Leopoldo M, Lacivita E, Berardi F, Perrone R, Hedlund PB (2011). Serotonin 5-HT₇ receptor agents: structure-activity relationships and potential therapeutic applications in central nervous system disorders. *Pharmacol Ther* **129**: 120–148.

Leysen JE (2004). 5-HT₂ receptors. Curr Drug Targets CNS Neurol Disord 3: 11-26.

Nelson DL (2004). 5-HT₅ receptors. Curr Drug Targets CNS Neurol Disord 3: 53-58.

Pauwels PJ (2000). Diverse signalling by 5-hydroxytryptamine (5-HT) receptors. Biochem Pharmacol 60: 1743–1750.

Ramage AG, Villalón CM (2008). 5-Hydroxytryptamine and cardiovascular regulation. Trends Pharmacol Sci 29: 472-481.

Sanger GJ (2008). 5-hydroxytryptamine and the gastrointestinal tract: where next? Trends Pharmacol Sci 29: 465–471.

Saxena PR, De Vries P, Villalón CM (1998). 5-HT₁-like receptors: a time to bid good-bye. Trends Pharmacol Sci 19: 311-316.

Thomas DR, Hagan JJ (2004). 5-HT7 receptors. Curr Drug Targets CNS Neurol Disord 3: 81-90.

Thomas DR (2006). 5-ht_{5A} receptors as a therapeutic target. *Pharmacol Ther* 111: 707–714.

Villalón CM, Centurión D (2007). Cardiovascular responses produced by 5-hydroxytryptamine: a pharmacological update on the receptors/mechanisms involved and therapeutic implications. *Naunyn Schmiedeberg's Arch Pharmacol* 376: 45–63.

Volk B, Nagy BJ, Vas S, Kostyalik D, Simig G, Bagdy G (2010). Medicinal chemistry of 5-HT_{5A} receptor ligands: a receptor subtype with unique therapeutical potential. *Curr Top Med Chem* 10: 554–578.

Ward SE, Watson JM (2010). Recent advances in the discovery of selective and non-selective 5-HT_{1D} receptor ligands. *Curr Top Med Chem* **10**: 479–492.

Werry TD, Loiacono R, Sexton PM, Christopoulos A (2008). RNA editing of the serotonin 5HT_{2C} receptor and its effects on cell signalling, pharmacology and brain function. *Pharmacol Ther* 119: 7–23.

Woolley ML, Marsden CA, Fone KC (2004). 5-ht₆ receptors. Curr Drug Targets CNS Neurol Disord 3: 59-79.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA 5-HT (5-Hydroxytryptamine) \$19

References

Boess FG et al. (1998). Mol Pharmacol 54: 577–583.
Bonhaus DW et al. (1997). Neuropharmacology 36:671–679.
Brenchat A et al. (2009). Pain 141: 239–247.
Bromidge SM et al. (2001). Bioorg Med Chem Lett 11:55–58.
Brown AM et al. (1993). Br J Pharmacol 110: 10P.
Brown AM et al. (1998). Br J Pharmacol 123: 233P.
Dunlop J et al. (2005). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 313: 862–869.
Eglen RM et al. (1995). Br J Pharmacol 115:1387–1392.
Ennis MD et al. (1998). J Med Chem 41:2180–2183.
Forbes IT et al. (2002). Bioorg Med Chem Lett 12: 3341–3344.
Harada K et al. (2006). Eur J Pharmacol 553: 171–184.
Heusler P et al. (2010). Naunyn Schmiedebergs Arch Pharmacol 382: 321–330.
Hirst WD et al. (2000). Br J Pharmacol 130: 1597–1605.

Hirst WD et al. (2006). Eur J Pharmacol 553: 109-119.

Holenz J et al. (2005). J Med Chem 48: 1781–1795.
Khawaja X et al. (1997). Life Sci 60: 653–665.
Malgouris C et al. (1993). Eur J Pharmacol 233: 37–45.
Maier DL et al. (2009). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 330: 342–351.
Middlemiss DN et al. (1999). Eur J Pharmacol 375: 359–365.
Nelson DL et al. (2010). Cephalalgia 30: 1159–1169.
Newman-Tancredi A et al. (2009). Br J Pharmacol 156: 338–353.
Noda M et al. (2003). J Neurochem 84: 222–232.
Phebus LA et al. (1997). Life Sci 61: 2117–2126.
Schechter LE et al. (2008). Neuropsychopharmacology 33: 1323–1335.
Thomas DR et al. (2000). Br J Pharmacol 130: 409–417.
Thomsen WJ et al. (2008). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 325: 577–587.
Wurch T et al. (1998). Mol Pharmacol 54: 1088–1096.
Xie Z et al. (1999). FEBS Lett 456: 63–67.

S20 Acetylcholine (muscarinic)
Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Acetylcholine (muscarinic)

Overview: Muscarinic acetylcholine receptors (nomenclature as agreed by NC-IUPHAR sub-committee on Muscarinic Acetylcholine Receptors, Caulfield and Birdsall. 1998) are GPCR of the Class A, rhodopsin-like family where the endogenous agonist is acetylcholine. In addition to the agents listed in the table, AC-42, its structural analogues AC-260584 and 77-LH-28-1, desmethylclozapine, TBPB and LuAE51090 have been described as functionally selective agonists of the M₁ receptor subtype via binding in a mode distinct from that utilized by non-selective agonists (Spalding et al., 2002, 2006; Sur et al., 2003; Langmead et al., 2006, 2008; May et al., 2007; Jones et al., 2008; Lebon et al., 2009; Avlani et al., 2010; Sams et al., 2010). There are two pharmacologically characterised allosteric sites on muscarinic receptors, one defined by it binding gallamine, strychnine and brucine, and the other binds KT5720, WIN62,577, WIN51,708 and staurosporine (Lazareno et al., 2000, 2002). There are selective enhancers of acetylcholine binding and action; brucine, BQCA, KT5720, VU0090157, VU0029767 and ML169 (VU0405652) at M1 receptors, PG135 at M₂ receptors, N-chloromethylbrucine and WIN62,577 at M₃ receptors and thiochrome, LY2033298, VU0152099 and VU0152100 at M₄ receptors, and VU0238429 at M₅ receptors (Birdsall and Lazareno, 2005; Brady et al., 2008; Chan et al., 2008; Shirey et al., 2008; Bridges et al., 2009; Ma et al., 2009, Marlo et al., 2009; Reid et al., 2011). LY2033298 has also been shown to activate the M₄ receptor directly via an allosteric site (Nawaratne et al., 2008; 2010; Leach et al., 2010; 2011). The allosteric site for gallamine and strychnine on M2 receptors can be labelled by [3H]dimethyl-W84 (Tränkle et al., 2003). McN-A-343 is a functionally selective partial agonist that appears to interact in a bitopic mode with both the orthosteric and an allosteric site on the M₂ muscarinic receptor (Valant et al., 2008). THRX-160209, hybrid 1 and hybrid 2, are multivalent (bitopic) ligands that also achieve selectivity for M₂ receptors by binding both to the orthosteric and a nearby allosteric site (Steinfeld et al., 2007; Antony et al., 2009). VU0255035 is a recently described competitive orthosteric antagonist with selectivity for the M₁ receptor (Sheffler et al., 2009), and LY593093 has recently been described as a selective orthosteric partial agonist of the M₁ receptor (Watt et al., 2011).

Nomenclature	M_1	M_2	M_3
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000168539	ENSG00000181072	ENSG00000133019
Principal transduction	$G_{q/11}$	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{q/11}$
Antagonists (p <i>K</i> _i)	MT7 (10.9-11.0), 4-DAMP (9.2), tripitramine (8.8), darifenacin (8.3), pirenzepine (6.3-8.3), VU0255035 (7.8), guanylpirenzepine (7.7), AFDX384 (7.3-7.5), MT3 (6.5-7.1), himbacine (6.7-7.1), AFDX116 (6.2)	tripitramine (9.6), AFDX384 (8.0-9.0), 4-DAMP (8.3), himbacine (7.9-8.4), darifenacin (7.3-7.6), AFDX116 (6.7-7.3), VU0255035 (6.2), pirenzepine (4.9-6.4), MT3 (<6), guanylpirenzepine (5.6), MT7 (<5)	4-DAMP (9.3), darifenacin (9.1) AFDX384 (7.2-7.8), tripitramine (7.1-7.4), himbacine (6.9-7.2), pirenzepine (5.6-6.7), guanylpirenzepine (6.5), VU0255035 (6.1), AFDX116 (6.1), MT3 (<6), MT7 (<5)
Probes (K_D)	[³H]NMS (80-150 pM), [³H]QNB (15-60 pM), [³H]pirenzepine (3-15 nM), (<i>R</i> , <i>R</i>)-quinuclidinyl-4-[¹8F]-fluoromethyl-benzilate (PET ligand), [¹¹C]xanomeline (PET ligand), [¹¹C]butylthio-TZTP (PET ligand)	[³ H]NMS (200-400 pM), [³ H]QNB (20-50 pM), [¹⁸ F]FP-TZTP (PET ligand),	[³ H]NMS (150-250 pM), [³ H]QNB (30-90 pM), [³ H]darifenacin (300 pM)

Nomenclature	M_4	M_5
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000180720	ENSG00000184984
Principal transduction	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{q/11}$
Antagonists (p <i>K</i> i)	4-DAMP (8.9), MT3 (8.7), AFDX384 (8.0-8.7), AFDX116 (7-8.7), himbacine (7.9-8.2), tripitramine (7.8-8.2), darifenacin (8.1), pirenzepine (5.9-7.6), guanylpirenzepine (6.5), VU0255035 (5.9), MT7 (<5)	4-DAMP (9.0), darifenacin (8.6), tripitramine (7.3-7.5), guanylpirenzepine (6.8), pirenzepine (6.2-6.9), himbacine (5.4-6.5), AFDX384 (6.3), AFDX116 (5.3-5.6), VU0255035 (5.6), MT3 (<6), MT7 (<5)
Probes (K_D)	[³H]NMS (50-100 pM), [³H]QNB (20-80 pM)	[³H]NMS (500-700 pM), [³H]QNB (20-60 pM)

Antagonist data tabulated are pK_i values determined for human recombinant receptors. MT3 (m4-toxin) and MT7 (m1-toxin1) are toxins contained with the venom of the Eastern green mamba (*Dendroaspis augusticeps*) (see Potter *et al.*, 2004; Servent and Fruchart-Gaillard, 2009).

Abbreviations: 77-LH-28-1, 1-[3-(4-butyl-1-piperidinyl)propyl]-3,4-dihydro-2(1H)-quinolinone; AC-42, 4-n-butyl-1-[4-(2-methylphenyl)-4-oxo-1-butyl]-piperidine hydrogen chloride; AC-260584, 4-[3-(4-butylpiperidin-1-yl)-propyl]-7-fluoro-4H-benzo[1,4]oxazin-3-one; AFDX116 (otenze $pad), \ 1-[2-[2-(diethylaminomethyl)piperidin-1-yl]acetyl]-5H-pyrido[2,3-b][1,4] benozodiazepin-6-one; \ AFDX384, \ (\pm)-5,11-dihydro-11-([(2-[2-1]yl]pineridin-1-yl]pineridin-1-yl]acetyl]-5H-pyrido[2,3-b][1,4] benozodiazepin-6-one; \ AFDX384, \ (\pm)-5,11-dihydro-11-([(2-[2-1]yl]pineridin-1-yl]pineridin-1-yl]acetyl]-5H-pyrido[2,3-b][1,4] benozodiazepin-6-one; \ AFDX384, \ (\pm)-5,11-dihydro-11-([(2-[2-1]yl]pineridin-1-yl]pineridin-1-yl]acetyl]-5H-pyrido[2,3-b][1,4] benozodiazepin-6-one; \ AFDX384, \ (\pm)-5,11-dihydro-11-([(2-[2-1]yl]pineridin-1-yl]pineridin-1-yl]pineridin-1-yl]acetyl]-5H-pyrido[2,3-b][1,4] benozodiazepin-6-one; \ AFDX384, \ (\pm)-5,11-dihydro-11-([(2-[2-1]yl]pineridin-1-yl]pineridin-1-yl]pineridin-1-yl]-5H-pyrido[2,3-b][1,4] benozodiazepin-6-one; \ AFDX384, \ (\pm)-5,11-dihydro-11-([(2-[2-[2-[yl]pineridin-1-yl]pineridin-1-yl]pineridin-1-yl]-5H-pyrido[2,3-b][1,4] benozodiazepin-6-one; \ AFDX384, \ (\pm)-5,11-dihydro-11-yl]-5H-pyrido[2,3-b][1,4] benozodiazepin-6-one; \ AFDX$ [dipropylamino)methyl]-1-piperidinyl)ethyl)amino)carbonyl)-6H-pyrido[2,3-b](1,4)benzodiazepine-6-one; BQCA, benzyl quinolone carboxylic acid; Butylthio-TZTP, butylthio-thiadiazolyltetrahydro-1-methyl-pyridine; Dimethyl-W84, N,N'-bis[3-(1,3-dihydro-1,3-dioxo-4-methyl-2Hisoindol-2-yl)propyl]-N,N,N',N'-tetramethyl-1,6-hexanediaminium diiodide; FP-TZTP, [3-(3-(3-Fluoropropyl)thio)-1,2,5-thiadiazol-4-yl]-1,2,5,6tetrahydro-1-methylpyridine; 4-DAMP, 4-diphenylacetoxy-N-methylpiperidine methiodide; Hybrid 1, 2-{3-[1-(6-{1,1-dimethyl-1-[4-(isoxazol-1,1-dimethyl-1-1]4-(isoxazol-1,1-dimethyl-1-1]4-(isoxazol-1,1-dimethyl-1-1,1-dim 3-yloxy)but-2-ynyl]-ammonium}hexyl)-1,1 dimethylammonio]propyl}isoindoline-1,3-dione dibromide; Hybrid 2, 2-{3-[1-(6-{1,1-dimethyl- $1-\frac{1}{4}$ -(isoxazol-3-yloxy)but-2-ynyl]-ammonium}hexyl)-1,1-dimethylammonio]-2,2-dimethylpropyl}-benzo[de]isoquinoline-1,3-dione dibromide; (9S,10S,12R)-2,3,9,10,11,12-hexahydro-10-hydroxy-9-methyl-1-oxo-9,12-epoxy-1*H*-diindolo[1,2,3-*fg*:3',2',1'-*kl*]pyrrolo[3,4-*i*][1,6] KT5720. benzodiazocine-10-carboxylic acid hexyl ester; LuAE51090, N-{1-[3-(3-oxo-2,3-dihydrobenzo[1,4]oxazin-4-yl)propyl]piperidin-4-yl}-2phenylacetamide; LY2033298, 3-amino-5-chloro-6-methoxy-4-methyl-thieno(2,3-b)pyridine-2-carboxylic acid cyclopropylamide; LY593093, $N - [(1R, 2R) - 6 - (\{(1E) - 1 - [(4 - fluorobenzyl)(methyl)amino]ethylidene\})$ amino) - 2 - hydroxy - 2,3 - dihydro-1H-inden-1-yl]biphenyl-4-carboxamide; McN-A-343, 4-(3-chlorophenyl) carbamoyloxy)-2-butynyltrimethyl ammonium chloride; ML169 (or VU0405652), 2-((1-(5-bromo-2-fluorobenzyl)-1H-indol-3-yl)sulfonyl-N-(5-methylisoxazol-3-yl)acetamide; NMS, N-methylscopolamine; PG135, (3aS,12R,12aS,12bR)-2amino-2,3,3a,4,11,12a,12b-octahydro-10-hydroxyisoquino[2,1,8-lma]carbazol-5(1H)-one hydrochloride; QNB, 3-quinuclidinylbenzilate; TBPB, 1-(1'-2-methylbenzyl)-1,4'-bipiperidin-4-yl)-1H-benzo[d]imidazol-2(3H)-one; THRX160209, $4-\{N-[7-(3-(S)-(1-\text{carbamoyl}-1,1-\text{diphenylmethyl})$ Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Acetylcholine (muscarinic) S21

pyrrolidin-1-yl)hept-1-yl]-N-(n-propyl)amino}-1-(2,6-dimethoxy-benzyl)piperidine; hydroxynaphthalen-1-yl)methylene)acetohydrazide; VU0090157, cyclopentyl 1,6-dimethyl-4-(6-nitrobenzo[d][1,3]-dioxol-5-yl)-2-oxo-1,2,3,4-tetrahydropyrimidine-5-carboxylate; VU0152099, 3-amino-N-(benzo[d][1,3]dioxol-5-ylmethyl)-4,6-dimethylthieno[2,3-b]pyridine carboxamide; VU0152100, 3-amino-N-(4-methoxybenzyl)-4,6-dimethylthieno[2,3-b]pyridine carboxamide; VU0238429, structure not available; VU0255035, N-(3-oxo-3-(4-(pyridine-4-yl)piperazin-1-yl)propyl)-benzo[c][1,2,5]thiadiazole-4 sulfonamide; VU0152100, VU015210, VU0152100, VU0152100, VU0152100, VU0152100, VU0152100

Further Reading

Abrams P, Andersson KE, Buccafusco JI, Chapple C, De Groat WC, Fryer AD *et al.* (2006). Muscarinic receptors: their distribution and function in body systems, and the implications for treating overactive bladder. *Br J Pharmacol* **148**: 565–578.

Andersson KE (2011). Muscarinic acetylcholine receptors in the urinary tract. Handb Exp Pharmacol 202: 319-344.

Birdsall NJM, Lazareno S. (2005). Allosterism at muscarinic receptors: ligands and mechanisms. Mini Rev Med Chem 5: 523-543.

Brown DA (2010). Muscarinic acetylcholine receptors (mAChRs) in the nervous system: some functions and mechanisms. *J Mol Neurosci* 41: 340–346.

Caulfield MP, Birdsall NJM. (1998). International Union of Pharmacology. XVII Classification of muscarinic acetylcholine receptors. *Pharmacol Rev* 50: 279–290.

Conn PJ, Christopoulos A, Lindsley CW (2009a) Allosteric modulators of GPCRs: A novel approach for the treatment of CNS disorders. *Nature Rev Drug Discover* 8: 41–54.

Conn PJ, Jones CK, Lindsley CW (2009b). Subtype-selective allosteric modulators of muscarinic receptors for the treatment of CNS disorders. Trends Pharmacol Sci 30: 148–155.

De Amici M, Dallanoce C, Holzgrabe U, Tränkle C, Mohr K (2010). Allosteric ligands for G protein-coupled receptors: A novel strategy with attractive therapeutic opportunities. *Med Res Rev* 30: 463–549.

Digby GJ, Shirey JK, Conn PJ (2010). Allosteric activators of muscarinic receptors as novel approaches for treatment of CNS disorders. *Mol Biosyst* 6: 1345–1354.

Eckelman WC (2006). Imaging of muscarinic receptors in the central nervous system. Curr Pharm Des 12: 3901-3913.

Eglen RM (2005) Muscarinic receptor subtype pharmacology and physiology. Prog Med Chem 43: 105-136.

Eglen RM (2006). Muscarinic receptor subtypes in neuronal and non-neuronal cholinergic function. *Auton Autocoid Pharmacol* **26**: 219–233. Gregory KJ, Sexton PM, Christopoulos A (2007) Allosteric modulation of muscarinic acetylcholine receptors. *Curr Neuropharmacol* **5**: 157–167. Holzgrabe U, De Amici M, Mohr K (2006). Allosteric modulators and selective agonists of muscarinic receptors. *J Mol Neurosci* **30**: 165–168.

Ishii M, Kurachi Y (2006). Muscarinic acetylcholine receptors. Curr Pharm Des 12: 3573-3581.

Langmead CJ, Watson J, Reavill C (2008). Muscarinic acetylcholine receptors as CNS drug targets. Pharmacol Ther 117: 232–243.

Mohr K, Tränkle C, Kostenis E, Barocelli E, De Amici M, Holzgrabe U (2010). Rational design of dualsteric GPCR ligands: quests and promise. *Br J Pharmacol* 159: 997–1008.

Nathanson NM (2008). Synthesis, trafficking, and localization of muscarinic acetylcholine receptors. Pharmacol Ther 119: 33-43.

Peretto I, Petrillo P, Imbimbo BP (2009). Medicinal chemistry and therapeutic potential of muscarinic M₃ antagonists. *Med Res Rev* **29**: 867–902. Potter LT, Flynn DD, Liang JS, McCollum MH (2004). Studies of muscarinic neurotransmission with antimuscarinic toxins. *Prog Brain Res* **145**: 121–128.

Servent D, Fruchart-Gaillard C (2009). Muscarinic toxins: tools for the study of the pharmacological and functional properties of muscarinic receptors. *J Neurochem* 109: 1193–1202.

Tobin G, Giglio D, Lundgren O (2009) Muscarinic receptor subtypes in the alimentary tract. J Physiol Pharmacol 60: 3–21.

Valant C, Sexton PM, Christopoulos A (2009) Orthosteric/allosteric bitopic ligands: Going hybrid at GPCRs. Mol Int 9: 125-135.

Wess J, Eglen RM, Gautam D (2007). Muscarinic acetylcholine receptors: mutant mice provide new insights for drug development. *Nat Rev Drug Discov* 6: 721–733.

References

Avlani VA et al. (2010). Mol Pharmacol 78: 94–104.
Antony J et al. (2009). FASEB J 23: 442–450.
Brady AE et al. (2008). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 327: 941–953.
Bridges TM et al. (2009). J Med Chem 52: 3445–3448.
Chan WY et al. (2008). Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 105: 10978–10983.
Jones CK et al. (2008). J Neurosci 28: 10422–10433.
Langmead CJ et al. (2006). Mol Pharmacol 69:236–246.
Langmead CJ et al. (2008). Br J Pharmacol 154: 1104–1115.
Lazareno S et al. (2000). Mol Pharmacol 58: 194–207.
Lazareno S et al. (2000). Mol Pharmacol 62: 1492–1505.
Leach K et al. (2010). Neuropsychopharmacology 35: 855–869.
Leach K et al. (2011). Mol Pharmacol 79: 855–865.
Lebon G et al. (2009). Mol Pharmacol 75: 331–341.
Ma L et al. (2009). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 106: 15950–15955.
May LT et al. (2007). Mol Pharmacol 72: 463–476.

Marlo JE et al. (2009). Mol Pharmacol 75: 577–588.

Nawaratne V et al. (2008). Mol Pharmacol 74: 1119–1131.

Nawaratne V et al. (2010). J Biol Chem 285: 19012–19021.

Reid PR et al. (2011). Bioorg Med Chem Lett 21: 2697–2701.

Sams AG et al. (2010). J Med Chem 53: 6386–6397.

Sheffler DJ et al. (2009). Mol Pharmacol 76: 356–368.

Shirey JK et al. (2008). Nat Chem Biol 4: 42–50.

Spalding TA et al. (2002). Mol Pharmacol 61: 1297–1302.

Spalding TA et al. (2006). Mol Pharmacol 70: 1974–1983.

Steinfeld T et al. (2006). Mol Pharmacol 72: 291–302.

Sur C et al. (2003) Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 100: 13674–13679.

Tränkle C et al. (2003). Mol Pharmacol 64: 180–190.

Valant C et al. (2008). J Biol Chem 283: 29312–29321.

Watt ML et al. (2011). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 338: 622–632.

\$22 Adenosine Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Adenosine

Overview: Adenosine receptors (nomenclature as agreed by NC-IUPHAR Subcommittee on Adenosine Receptors; Fredholm *et al.*, 2011) are activated by the endogenous ligand adenosine (potentially inosine also at A_3 receptors). NECA is a non-selective agonist, while XAC and CGS15943 display submicromolar affinity for antagonism of all four adenosine receptors (Klotz *et al.*, 1998; Ongini *et al.*, 1999). Crystal structures for the antagonist-bound and agonist-bound A_{2A} adenosine receptors have been described (Jaakola *et al.*, 2008; Xu *et al.*, 2011).

Nomenclature	A_1	A _{2A}	A_{2B}	A_3
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000163485	ENSG00000128271	ENSG00000170425	ENSG00000121933
Principal transduction	$G_{i/o}$	G_s	G_s	$G_{i/o}$
Selective agonists	CPA, CCPA, S-ENBA, GR79236	CGS21680, HENECA, ATL-146e (Peirce <i>et al.</i> , 2001)	Bay60-6583 (Eckle <i>et al.</i> , 2007)	CI-IB-MECA, IB-MECA
Selective antagonists	PSB36 (9.8, Abo-Salem et al., 2004), DPCPX (8.5), SLV320 (9.0, Kalk et al., 2007)	SCH442416 (10.3, Todde et al., 2000), ZM241385 (9.0), SCH58261 (7.9–9.5)	PSB603 (9.3, Borrmann et al., 2009), MRS1754 (8.7), MRS1706 (8.4), PSB1115 (7.7)	MRS1220 (8.8), VUF5574 (8.4, van Muijlwijk-Koezen et al., 2000), MRS1523 (7.7), MRS1191 (7.0)
Probes	[³ H]-CCPA, [³ H]-DPCPX (0.6–1.2 nM)	[³ H]-CGS21680, [³ H]-ZM241385 (0.8 nM)	[³ H]-MRS1754 (1.1 nM)	[¹²⁵ I]-AB-MECA (0.6 nM)

Adenosine inhibits many intracellular ATP-utilising enzymes, including adenylyl cyclase (P-site). A pseudogene exists for the A_{2B} adenosine receptor (ENSG00000182537) with 79% identity to the A_{2B} adenosine receptor cDNA coding sequence, but which is unable to encode a functional receptor. DPCPX also exhibits antagonism at A_{2B} receptors (pK_1 ca. 7, Alexander *et al.*, 1996; Klotz *et al.*, 1998). HENECA also shows activity at A_3 receptors (Varani *et al.*, 1998). Antagonists at A_3 receptors exhibit marked species differences, such that only MRS1523 and MRS1191 are selective at the rat A_3 receptor. In the absence of other adenosine receptors, [3H]-DPCPX and [3H]-ZM241385 can also be used to label A_{2B} receptors (K_D *ca.* 30 and 60 nM, respectively). [^{125}I]-AB-MECA also binds to A_1 receptors (Klotz *et al.*, 1998). [3H]-CGS21680 is relatively selective for A_{2A} receptors, but may also bind to other sites in cerebral cortex (Johansson and Fredholm, 1995; Cunha *et al.*, 1996). [3H]-NECA binds to other non-receptor elements, which also recognise adenosine (e.g. Lorenzen *et al.*, 1996). XAC-BY630 has been described as a fluorescent antagonist for labelling A_1 adenosine receptors in living cells, although activity at other adenosine receptors was not examined (Briddon *et al.*, 2004).

Abbreviations: AB-MECA. N⁶-(4-aminobenzyl)-adenosine-5'-N-methyluronamide: ATL-146e. 4-{3-[6-amino-9-(5-ethylcarbamoyl-3,4dihydroxy-tetrahydro-furan-2-yl)-9H-purin-2-yl]-prop-2-ynyl]-cyclohexanecarboxylic acid methyl ester; Bay 60-6583, 2-(6-amino-3,5-dicyano-4-(4-(cyclopropylmethoxy)phenyl) pyridin-2-ylthio)acetamide; CCPA, 2-chloro- N^6 -cyclopentyladenosine; CGS15943, 5-amino-9-chloro-2-(2-furyl)1,2,4-triazolo[1,5-c]quinazoline; CGS21680, 2-(4-[2-carboxyethyl]-phenethylamino)adenosine-5'-N-ethyluronamide; Cl-IB-MECA, 2-chloro- N^6 -(3-iodobenzyl)adenosine-5'-N-methyluronamide; CPA, N^6 -cyclopentyladenosine; DPCPX, 8-cyclopentyl-1,3-dipropylxanthine; GR79236, N-[(1s,2s)-2-hydroxycyclopentyl adenosine; HENECA, 2-(1-(E)-hexenyl)adenosine-5'-N-ethyluronamide; MRS1191, 1,4-dihydro-2methyl-6-phenyl-4-(phenylethynyl)-3,5-pyridinedicarboxylic acid, 3-ethyl 5-(phenylmethyl) ester; MRS1220, 9-chloro-2-(2-furyl)5phenylacetylamino[1,2,4]triazolo[1,5*c*]quinazoline; MRS1523, 2,3-ethyl-4,5-dipropyl-6-phenylpyridine-3-thiocarboxylate-5-carboxylate; N-(4-acetylphenyl)-2-(4-[2,3,6,7-tetrahydro-2,6-dioxo-1,3-dipropyl-1H-purin-8-yl]phenoxy)acetamide; MRS1754, cyanophenyl)carbamoylmethyl}oxy]phenyl)-1,3-di(n-propyl)xanthine; NECA, adenosine-5'-N-ethyluronamide; PSB1115, 4-[2,3,6,7-tetrahydro-2,6-dioxo-1-propyl-1H-purin-8-yl)benzenesulphonic acid; PSB36, 1-butyl-8-(3-noradamantanyl)-3-(3-hydroxypropyl)xanthine; PSB603, 8-[4-[4-(4-chlorophenzyl)piperazide-1-sulfonyl)phenyl]]-1-propylxanthine; S-ENBA, (2S)-N⁶-(2-endonorbanyl)adenosine; SCH4421416, 2-(2-furanyl)-pyrazolo[4,3-e]-1,2,4-triazolo[1,5c]pyrimidine; SLV320, trans-4-[(2-phenyl-7H-pyrrolo[2,3-d]pyrimidin-4-yl)amino]cyclohexanol; VUF5574, *N*-(2-methoxyphenyl)-*N*-(2-[3-pyridyl]quinazolin-4-yl)urea; XAC, $8-(4-[\{([\{2\text{-aminoethyl}\}amino]carbonyl)methyl\}oxy]phenyl)-1,3$ dipropylxanthine; also known as xanthine amine congener; XAC-BY630, N-(2-aminoethyl)-2-[4-(2,6-dioxo-1,3-dipropyl-7H-purin-8yl)phenoxy]acetamide; ZM241385, 4-(2-[7-amino-2-{2-furyl}{1,2,4}triazolo{2,3-a}{1,3,5}triazin-5-yl amino]ethyl)phenol

Further Reading

Fredholm BB, IJzerman AP, Jacobson KA, Linden J, Muller CE (2011). International Union of Basic and Clinical Pharmacology. LXXXI. Nomenclature and classification of adenosine receptors – an update. *Pharmacol Rev* 63: 1–34.

Gessi S, Merighi S, Sacchetto V, Simioni C, Borea PA (2011). Adenosine receptors and cancer. Biochim Biophys Acta 1808: 1400-1412.

Goblyos A, IJzerman AP (2011). Allosteric modulation of adenosine receptors. Biochim Biophys Acta 1808: 1309–1318.

Headrick JP, Peart JN, Reichelt ME, Haseler LJ (2011). Adenosine and its receptors in the heart: Regulation, retaliation and adaptation. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1808: 1413–1428.

Kumar V, Sharma A (2009). Adenosine: An endogenous modulator of innate immune system with therapeutic potential. *Eur J Pharmacol* **616**: 7–15.

Lasley RD (2011). Adenosine receptors and membrane microdomains. Biochim Biophys Acta 1808: 1284-1289.

Mundell S, Kelly E (2011). Adenosine receptor desensitization and trafficking. Biochim Biophys Acta 1808: 1319–1328.

Ponnoth DS, Mustaffa SJ (2011). Adenosine receptors and vascular inflammation. Biochim Biophys Acta 1808: 1429-1434.

Wei CJ, Li W, Chen JF (2011). Normal and abnormal functions of adenosine receptors in the central nervous system revealed by genetic knockout studies. *Biochim Biophys Acta* **1808**: 1358–1379.

Zhou Y, Schneider DJ, Blackburn MR (2009). Adenosine signaling and the regulation of chronic lung disease. Pharmacol Ther 123: 105–116.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Adenosine \$23

References

Abo-Salem OM et al. (2004). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 308: 358–366. Alexander SPH et al. (1996). Br J Pharmacol 119: 1286–1290. Borrmann T et al. (2009). J Med Chem 52: 3994–4006. Briddon SJ et al. (2004). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 101: 4673–4678. Cunha RA et al. (1996). Naunyn-Schmiedeberg's Arch Pharmacol 353: 261–271.

Eckle T *et al.* (2007). *Circulation* **115**: 1581–1590. Jaakola VP *et al.* (2008). *Science* **322**: 1211–1217. Johansson B, Fredholm, BB (1995). *Neuropharmacology* **34**: 393–403. Kalk P *et al.* (2007). *Br J Pharmacol* **151**: 1025–1032. Klotz K-N et al. (1998). Naunyn-Schmiedeberg's Arch Pharmacol 357: 1_9

Lorenzen A et al. (1996). Biochem Pharmacol **52**: 1375–1385. Ongini E et al. (1999). Naunyn-Schmiedeberg's Arch Pharmacol **359**: 7–10.

Peirce SM et al. (2001). Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol 281: H67–H74. Todde S et al. (2000). J Med Chem 43: 4359–4362. van Muijlwijk-Koezen JE et al. (2000). J Med Chem 43: 2227–2238. Varani K et al. (1998). Life Sci 63: PL81–PL87. Xu F et al. (2011). Science 332: 322–327.

S24 Adrenoceptors, α₁ Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Adrenoceptors, α₁

Overview: α_1 -Adrenoceptors (nomenclature as agreed by NC-IUPHAR Subcommittee on Adrenoceptors, Bylund *et al.*, 1994) are GPCR activated by the endogenous agonists adrenaline and noradrenaline with equal potency. Phenylephrine, methoxamine and cirazoline are agonists selective for α_1 -adrenoceptors relative to α_2 -adrenoceptors, while prazosin (8.5–10.5) and corynanthine (6.5–7.5) are antagonists considered selective for α_1 -adrenoceptors relative to α_2 -adrenoceptors. [3 H]-Prazosin (0.25 nM) and [125 I]-HEAT (0.1 nM; also known as BE2254) are relatively selective radioligands. Numerous splice variants of the α_1 -adrenoceptors exist, some of which may display a different spectrum of signalling properties. One polymorphism of the α_{1A} -adrenoceptor has been described but is not associated with disease.

Nomenclature α_{1A} α_{1D} α_{1B} Other names α_{1a} , α_{1c} Ω_{1b} $\alpha_{1A/D}$, $\alpha_{1a/d}$ Ensembl ID ENSG00000120907 ENSG00000170214 ENSG00000171873 Principal transduction $G_{q/11}$ $G_{q/11}$ $G_{q/11}$ A61603, dabuzalgron (Blue et al., 2004) Selective agonists Selective antagonists Tamsulosin (10.5), silodosin (10.4), (+)niguldipine (10.0), BMY7378 (8.4)

The clone originally called the α_{1C} -adrenoceptor corresponds to the pharmacologically defined α_{1A} -adrenoceptor (see Hieble *et al.*, 1995). Some tissues possess α_{1A} -adrenoceptors that display relatively low affinity in functional and binding assays for prazosin (pKi < 9) that might represent different receptor states (termed α_{1L} -adrenoceptors, Ford *et al.*, 1997; Morishima *et al.*, 2007). α_{1A} -Adrenoceptor C-terminal splice variants form homo and heterodimers, but fail to generate a functional α_{1L} -adrenoceptor (Ramsay *et al.*, 2004). Recent studies suggest that the α_{1L} -adrenoceptor phenotype may result from the interaction of α_{1A} -adrenoceptors with cysteine-rich epidermal growth factor-like domain 1α (CRELD1 α) (Nishimune *et al.*, 2010). α_{1D} -Adrenoceptors form heterodimers with α_{1B} - or β_2 -adrenoceptors that show increased cell-surface expression (Uberti *et al.*, 2005). Heterodimers formed between α_{1D} - and α_{1B} -adrenoceptors have distinct functional properties (Hague *et al.*, 2004). α_{1D} -Adrenoceptors are mainly located intracellularly. (+)Niguldipine also has high affinity for L-type Ca²⁺ channels.

Signalling is predominantly via $G_{q/11}$ but α_1 -adrenoceptors also couple to $G_{1/0}$, G_s , and $G_{12/13}$. Several ligands activating α_{1A} -adrenoceptors display ligand directed signalling bias. For example, oxymetazoline is a full agonist for extracellular acidification rate (ECAR) and a partial agonist for Ca^{2+} release but does not stimulate cAMP production. Phenylephrine is biased toward ECAR versus Ca^{2+} release or cAMP accumulation but not between Ca^{2+} release and cAMP accumulation (Evans *et al.*, 2011). There are also differences between subtypes in coupling efficiency to different pathways – e.g. coupling efficiency to Ca^{2+} signalling is $\alpha_{1A} > \alpha_{1B} > \alpha_{1D}$ but for MAP kinase signalling is $\alpha_{1D} > \alpha_{1A} > \alpha_{1B}$. The subtypes also seem to show differences in regulation.

Abbreviations: A61603, N-(5-[4,5-dihydro-1H-imidazol-2-y]-2-hydroxy-5,6,7,8-tetrahydronaphthalen-1-yl)methanesulfonamide hydrobromide; BMY7378, 8-(2-[4-{2methoxyphenyl}-1-piperazinyl]ethyl)-8-azaspiro[4,5]decane-7,9-dione dihydrochloride; HEAT, 2- β -4-hydroxy-3-iodophenylethylaminomethyltetralone; RS17053, N-[2-(2-cyclopropylmethoxyphenoxy)ethyl]-5-chloro- α , α -dimethyl-1H-indole-3-ethanamide; silodosin, (-)-(R)-1-(3-hydroxypropyl)-5-(2-[2-{2-(2,2,2-trifluoroethoxy)phenoxyl}ethylamino]propyl)indoline-7-carboxamide, also known as KMD3213;SNAP5089, 2,6-dimethyl-4-(4-nitrophenyl)-1,4-dihydropyridine-3,5-dicarboxylate-N-[3-(4,4-diphenylpiperidin-1-yl)propyl]amide methyl ester

Further Reading

Andersson KE, Gratzke C (2007). Pharmacology of α_1 -adrenoceptor antagonists in the lower urinary tract and central nervous system. *Nat Clin Pract Urol* **4**: 368–378.

Bylund DB, Eikenberg DC, Hieble JP, Langer SZ, Lefkowitz RJ, Minneman KP et al. (1994). International Union of Pharmacology IV. Nomenclature of adrenoceptors. Pharmacol Rev 46: 121–136.

Cotecchia S (2007). Constitutive activity and inverse agonism at the α1adrenoceptors. Biochem Pharmacol 73: 1076–1083.

Cotecchia S (2010). The α_1 -adrenergic receptors: diversity of signaling networks and regulation. *J Recept Signal Transduct Res* **30**: 410–419. Hein L (2006). Adrenoceptors and signal transduction in neurons. *Cell Tissue Res* **326**: 541–551.

Hein P, Michel MC (2007). Signal transduction and regulation: are all α_1 -adrenergic receptor subtypes created equal? *Biochem Pharmacol* 73: 1097–1106.

Hieble JP, Bylund DB, Clarke DE, Eikenburg DC, Langer SZ, Lefkowitz RJ *et al.* (1995). International Union of Pharmacology. X. Recommendation for nomenclature of α1-adrenoceptors: consensus update. *Pharmacol Rev* **47**: 267–270.

Kojima Y, Sasaki S, Hayashi Y, Tsujimoto G, Kohri K (2009). Subtypes of α₁-adrenoceptors in BPH: future prospects for personalized medicine. *Nat Clin Pract Urol* 6: 44–53.

Koshimizu TA, Tanoue A, Tsujimoto G (2007). Clinical implications from studies of α1 adrenergic receptor knockout mice. *Biochem Pharmacol* **73**: 1107–1112.

Perez DM (2007). Structure-function of α₁-adrenergic receptors. Biochem Pharmacol 73: 1051–1062.

References

Blue DR *et al.* (2004). *BJU Int* **93**: 162–170. Evans BA *et al.* (2011). *Mol Pharmacol* **79**: 298–307. Ford APDW *et al.* (1997). *Br J Pharmacol* **121**: 1127–1135. Hague C *et al.* (2004). *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* **309**: 388–397. Morishima S *et al.* (2007). *J Urol* 177: 377–381. Nishimune A *et al.* (2010). *J Pharmacol Sci* 113: 169–181. Ramsay D *et al.* (2004). *Mol Pharmacol* 66: 228–239. Uberti MA *et al.* (2005). *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* 313: 16–23. Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Adrenoceptors, α_2 S25

Adrenoceptors, α2

Overview: α_2 -Adrenoceptors (nomenclature as agreed by NC-IUPHAR Subcommittee on Adrenoceptors; Bylund *et al.*, 1994) are GPCR activated by endogenous agonists with a relative potency of adrenaline>noradrenaline. UK14304 (brimonidine) and BHT920 are agonists selective for α_2 -adrenoceptors relative to α_1 -adrenoceptors. Rauwolscine (9.0) and yohimbine (9.0) are antagonists selective for α_2 -adrenoceptors relative to α_1 -adrenoceptors. [3 H]-rauwolscine (1 nM), [3 H]-UK14304 (5 nM) and [3 H]-RX821002 (0.5 nM and 0.1 nM at α_{2C}) are relatively selective radioligands. There is species variation in the pharmacology of the α_{2A} -adrenoceptor; for example, yohimbine, rauwolscine and oxymetazoline have an ~20-fold lower affinity for rat, mouse and bovine α_{2A} -adrenoceptors compared to the human receptor. These α_{2A} orthologues are sometimes referred to as α_{2D} -adrenoceptors. Multiple mutations of α_2 -adrenoceptors have been described, some of which are associated with alterations in function. The effects of classical (not subtype selective) α_2 -adrenoceptor agonists such as clonidine, guanabenz and UK14304 (brimonidine) on central baroreflex control (hypotension and bradycardia), hypnotic, analgesic, seizure modulation and platelet aggregation are mediated by α_{2A} -adrenoceptors. The roles of α_{2B} and α_{2C} -adrenoceptors are less clear but the α_{2B} subtype appears to be involved in neurotransmission in the spinal cord and α_{2C} in regulating catecholamine release from adrenal chromaffin cells.

Nomenclature α_{2A} α_{2B} α_{20} Other names α_{2D} Ensembl ID ENSG00000150594 ENSG00000222040 ENSG00000184160 Principal transduction $G_{i/o}$ $G_{i/o}$ Selective agonists Oxymetazoline Selective antagonists BRL44408 (8.0, Young et al., 1989) Imiloxan (7.3, Michel et al., 1990) JP1302 (7.8, Sallinen et al., 2007)

Oxymetazoline is a reduced efficacy agonist. ARC239 (pK_i 8.0) and prazosin (pK_i 7.5) show selectivity for α_{2B} - and α_{2C} -adrenoceptors over α_{2A} -adrenoceptors. Binding sites for imidazolines, distinct from α_{2} -adrenoceptors, have been identified and classified as I₁, I₂ and I₃ sites and catecholamines have a low affinity for these sites. I₁-imidazoline receptors are involved in central inhibition of sympathetic tone, I₂-imidazoline receptors are an allosteric binding site on monoamine oxidase B, and I₃-imidazoline receptors regulate insulin secretion from pancreatic β -cells.

Abbreviations: ARC239, 2-(2,4-[O-methoxyphenyl]-piperazin)-1-yl; BHT920, 6-allyl-2-amino-5,6,7,8-tetrahydro-4*H*-thiazolo-[4,5-d]-azepine; BRL44408, 2-(4,5-dihydro-1H-imidazol-2-ylmethyl)-1-methyl-1,3-dihydroisoindole; JP1302, *N*-(4-[4-methyl-1-piperazinyl]phenyl)-9-acridinamine dihydrochloride; MK912, (2*S*,12*bS*)1′,3′-dimethylspiro(1,3,4,5′,6,6′,7,12*b*-octahydro-2*H*-benzo[*b*]furo[2,3-a]quinolizine)-2,4′-pyrimidin-2′-one; RX821002, 2-(2-methoxy-1,4-benzodioxan-2-yl)-2-imidazoline; UK14304, 5-bromo-6-[2-imidazolin-2-ylamino]quinoxaline, also known as brimonidine

Further Reading

Bylund DB, Eikenberg DC, Hieble JP, Langer SZ, Lefkowitz RJ, Minneman KP et al. (1994). International Union of Pharmacology IV. Nomenclature of adrenoceptors. *Pharmacol Rev* 46: 121–136.

Gyires K, Zadori ZS, Torok T, Matyus P (2009). α_2 -Adrenoceptor subtypes-mediated physiological, pharmacological actions. *Neurochem Int* 55: 447–453.

Hein L (2006). Adrenoceptors and signal transduction in neurons. Cell Tissue Res 326: 541-551.

Knaus AE, Muthig V, Schickinger S, Moura E, Beetz N, Gilsbach R *et al.* (2007). α₂-adrenoceptor subtypes – unexpected functions for receptors and ligands derived from gene-targeted mouse models. *Neurochem Int* 51: 277–281.

Philipp M, Hein L (2004). Adrenergic receptor knockout mice: distinct functions of 9 receptor subtypes. Pharmacol Ther 101: 65-74.

References

Michel AD *et al.* (1990). *Br J Pharmacol* **99**: 560–564. Sallinen J *et al.* (2007). *Br J Pharmacol* **150**: 391–402. Young P *et al.* (1989). *Eur J Pharmacol* **168**: 381–386.

S26 Adrenoceptors, β Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Adrenoceptors, B

Overview: β-Adrenoceptors (nomenclature as agreed by the NC-IUPHAR Subcommittee on Adrenoceptors, see Bylund *et al.*, 1994) are GPCR activated by the endogenous agonists adrenaline and noradrenaline. Isoprenaline is a synthetic agonist selective for β-adrenoceptors relative to α_1 - and α_2 -adrenoceptors, while propranolol (pK_1 8.2–9.2) and cyanopindolol (pK_1 10.0–11.0) are relatively selective antagonists. β_3 -Adrenoceptors are relatively resistant to blockade by propranolol (pK_1 8.6.5, Sato *et al.*, 2008). Numerous polymorphisms exist for the β_1 - and β_2 -adrenoceptors and some of these are associated with alterations in signalling in response to agonists. These polymorphisms are likely to be associated with disease susceptibility and altered responses to drugs. The X-ray crystal structures have recently been described of the agonist bound (Warne *et al.*, 2011) and antagonist bound forms of the β_1 - (Warne *et al.*, 2008), agonist-bound (Cherezov *et al.*, 2007) and antagonist-bound forms of the β_2 -adrenoceptor (Rosenbaum *et al.*, 2011; Rasmussen *et al.*, 2011a), as well as agonist-bound, G_5 protein-coupled β_2 -adrenoceptor (Rasmussen *et al.*, 2011b).

Nomenclature	β_1	β_2	β_3
Other names	_	_	atypical β
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000043591	ENSG00000169252	ENSG00000188778
Principal transduction	G_s	G_s	G_s
Rank order of potency	Noradenaline>adrenaline	Adrenaline> noradenaline	Noradenaline =adrenaline
Selective agonists	Noradrenaline, xamoterol, RO363, denopamine	Procaterol, salbutamol, zinterol, salmeterol, formoterol, terbutaline, fenoterol (Baker, 2010)	BRL37344, CL316243, CGP12177A, carazolol, L742791 L755507, SB251023
Selective antagonists	CGP20712A (8.5–9.3), betaxolol (8.5), atenolol (7.6)	ICI118551 (8.3–9.2)	SR59230A (8.8), L748337 (8.4)
Probes	[¹²⁵ I]-ICYP (20–50 pM)+70 nM ICI118551	[¹²⁵ l]-ICYP (20–50 pM)+100 nM CGP20712A	[¹²⁵ I]-ICYP (0.5 nM)

Noradrenaline, xamoterol and RO363 are agonists that show selectivity for β_1 - relative to β_2 -adrenoceptors. Pharmacological differences exist between human and mouse β_3 -adrenoceptors, and the 'rodent selective' agonists BRL37344 and CL316243 have low efficacy at the human β_3 -adrenoceptor whereas CGP12177A and L755507 activate human β_3 -adrenoceptors (Sato *et al.*, 2008). All β_3 -adrenoceptors couple to β_3 (activating adenylyl cyclase and elevating cyclic AMP levels), but it is also clear that they activate other G proteins such as β_1 and many other signalling pathways, particularly mitogen-activated protein kinases. Many antagonists at β_1 - and β_2 -adrenoceptors are agonists at β_3 -adrenoceptors (CL316243, CGP12177A and carazolol). Many 'antagonists' appear to be able to selectively activate mitogen-activated protein kinase pathways (Baker *et al.*, 2003a; Galandrin and Bouvier, 2006; Galandrin *et al.*, 2008; Sato *et al.*, 2007; Sato *et al.*, 2008; Evans *et al.*, 2010) and display ligand-directed signalling bias. Bupranolol appears to act as a neutral antagonist in most systems so far examined. SR59230A has reasonably high affinity at β_3 -adrenoceptors (Manara *et al.*, 1996), but does not discriminate well between the three β -adrenoceptor subtypes (Candelore *et al.*, 1999) and has been reported to have lower affinity for the β_3 -adrenoceptor in some circumstances (Kaumann and Molenaar, 1996).

The β_3 -adrenoceptor has introns, but splice variants have only been described for the mouse (Evans et~al., 1999), where the isoforms display different signalling characteristics (Hutchinson et~al., 2002). There are 3 β -adrenoceptors in turkey (termed the $t\beta$, $t\beta$ 3c and $t\beta$ 4c) that have a pharmacology that differs from the human β -adrenoceptors (Baker, 2011). The 'putative β_4 -adrenoceptor' is not a novel receptor but is likely to represent an alternative site of interaction of CGP12177A and other nonconventional partial agonists at β_1 -adrenoceptors, since 'putative β_4 -adrenoceptor'-mediated agonist effects of CGP12177A are absent in mice lacking β_1 -adrenoceptors (Konkar et~al., 2000; Kaumann et~al., 2001).

Radioligand binding with [125 I]-ICYP can be used to define β_1 - or β_2 -adrenoceptors when conducted in the presence of a 'saturating' concentration of either a β_1 - or β_2 -adrenoceptor-selective antagonist. [3 H]-CGP12177 or [3 H]-dihydroalprenolol can be used in place of [125 I]-ICYP. Binding of a fluorescent analogue of CGP12177 to β_2 -adrenoceptors in living cells has been described (Baker *et al.*, 2003b). [125 I]-ICYP at higher (nM) concentrations can be used to label β_3 -adrenoceptors in systems where there are few if any other β -adrenoceptor subtypes.

Further Reading

Ahles A, Engelhardt S (2009). Polymorphisms determine β -adrenoceptor conformation: implications for cardiovascular disease and therapy. Trends Pharmacol Sci 30: 188–193.

Baker JG, Hill SJ, Summers RJ (2011) Evolution of β-blockers: from anti-anginal drugs to ligand-directed signaling. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 32: 227–234.

Brodde OE (2008). β_1 and β_2 adrenoceptor polymorphisms: Functional importance, impact on cardiovascular diseases and drug responses. *Pharmacol Ther* 117: 1–29.

Bylund DB, Eikenberg DC, Hieble JP, Langer SZ, Lefkowitz RJ, Minneman KP et al. (1994). International Union of Pharmacology IV. Nomenclature of adrenoceptors. Pharmacol Rev 46: 121–136.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Adrenoceptors, β S27

Cazzola M, Molimard M (2010). The scientific rationale for combining long-acting β_2 -agonists and muscarinic antagonists in COPD. *Pulm Pharmacol Ther* 23: 257–267.

Evans BA, Sato M, Sarwar M, Hutchinson DS, Summers RJ (2010) Ligand directed signaling at β–adrenoceptors *Br J Pharmacol* **159**: 1022–1038. Kaumann AJ, Molenaar P (2008). The low-affinity site of the β₁-adrenoceptor and its relevance to cardiovascular pharmacology. *Pharmacol Ther* **118**: 303–336.

Mason RP, Giles TD, Sowers JR (2009). Evolving mechanisms of action of β blockers: focus on nebivolol. *J Cardiovasc Pharmacol* **54**: 123–128. Michel MC, Harding SE, Bond RA (2011). Are there functional β-adrenoceptors in the human heart? *Br J Pharmacol* **162**: 817–822.

Moens AL, Yang R, Watts VL, Barouch LA (2010). β₃-adrenoreceptor regulation of nitric oxide in the cardiovascular system. *J Mol Cell Cardiol* 48: 1088–1095.

Mustafi D, Palczewski K (2009). Topology of class A G protein-coupled receptors: insights gained from crystal structures of rhodopsins, adrenergic and adenosine receptors. *Mol Pharmacol* 75: 1–12.

Patel CB, Noor N, Rockman HA (2010). Functional selectivity in adrenergic and angiotensin signaling systems. *Mol Pharmacol* **78**: 983–992. Pluim BM, de Hon O, Staal JB, Limpens J, Kuipers H, Overbeek SE *et al.* (2011). β-Agonists and physical performance: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Sports Med* **41**: 39–57.

Rosenbaum DM, Rasmussen SG, Kobilka BK (2009). The structure and function of G-protein-coupled receptors. *Nature* **459**: 356–363. Walker JK, Penn RB, Hanania NA, Dickey BF, Bond RA (2011). New perspectives regarding β_2 -adrenoceptor ligands in the treatment of asthma. *Br J Pharmacol* **163**: 18–28.

References

Baker JG et al. (2003a). Mol Pharmacol 64: 1357–1369.
Baker JG et al. (2003b). Br J Pharmacol 139: 232–242.
Baker JG (2010). Br J Pharmacol 160: 1048–1061.
Baker JG (2011). PLoS ONE 5(11): e15487.
Candelore MR et al. (1999). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 290: 649–655.
Cherezov V et al. (2007). Science 318: 1258–1265.
Evans BA et al. (1999). Br J Pharmacol 127: 1525–1531.
Galandrin S et al. (2008). Mol Pharmacol 74: 162–172.
Galandrin S, Bouvier M (2006). Mol Pharmacol 70: 1575–1584.
Hutchinson DS et al. (2002). Br J Pharmacol 135: 1903–1914.
Kaumann AJ et al. (2001). Naunyn-Schmiedeberg's Arch Pharmacol 363: 87–93.

Kaumann AJ, Molenaar P (1996). *Br J Pharmacol* **118**: 2085–2098. Konkar AA *et al.* (2000). *Mol Pharmacol* **57**: 252–258. Manara L *et al.* (1996). *Br J Pharmacol* **117**: 435–442. Rasmussen SG *et al.* (2011a). *Nature* **469**: 175–180. Rasmussen SG *et al.* (2011b). *Nature* **477**: 549–555. Rosenbaum DM *et al.* (2011). *Nature* **469**: 236–240. Sato M *et al.* (2007). *Mol Pharmacol* **72**: 1359–1368. Sato M *et al.* (2008). *Mol Pharmacol* **74**: 1417–1428. Warne T *et al.* (2008). *Nature* **454**: 486–491. Warne T *et al.* (2011). *Nature* **469**: 241–244.

S28 Anaphylatoxin Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Anaphylatoxin

Overview: anaphylatoxin receptors (provisional nomenclature) are activated by the endogenous ~75 amino-acid anaphylatoxin polypeptides C3a (ENSG00000125730) and C5a (ENSG00000106804), generated upon stimulation of the complement cascade.

Nomenclature C3a C5a AZ3B, HNFAG09 **CD88** Other names

Ensembl ID ENSG00000171860 ENSG00000134830

Principal transduction Gi/o, Gz Gi/o, Gz, G16 (Buhl et al., 1993)

Rank order of potency C3a>C5a (Ames et al., 1996) C5a, C5a des Arg>C3a (Ames et al., 1996)

Selective agonists Trp-Trp-Gly-Lys-Lys-Tyr-Arg-Ala-

Phe-Lys-Pro-Cha-Cha-Phe-Lys-D-Cha-Cha-D-Arg (Konteatis et al., 1994), S19 (Yamamoto, 2000) Ser-Lys-Leu-Gly-Leu-Ala-Arg (Ames et al., 1997)

> SB290157 (pIC50 7.5, Ames et al., 2001) NMe-Phe-Lys-Pro-D-Cha-Trp-D-Arg (Konteatis et al., 1994),

AcPhe-Orn-Pro-D-Cha-Trp-Arg (Wong et al., 1998), W54011 (8.7,

Sumichika et al., 2002), CHIPS (Postma et al., 2004)

[125]-C3a [125]-C5a Prohes

SB290157 has also been reported to have agonist properties (Mathieu et al., 2005). A putative chemoattractant receptor termed C5L2 (also known as GPR77, ENSG00000134830) binds [125I]-C5a, with no clear signalling function, but a putative role opposing inflammatory responses (Cain and Monk, 2002; Gao et al., 2005; Gavrilvuk et al., 2005). Binding to this site may be displaced with the rank order C5a des Arg>C5a (Cain and Monk, 2002; Okinaga et al., 2003), while there is controversy over the ability of C3a and C3a des Arg to compete (Kalant et al., 2003; Okinaga et al., 2003; Honczarenko et al., 2005; Kalant et al., 2005). C5L2 appears to lack G protein signalling and has been termed a decoy receptor (Scola et al., 2009).

Abbreviations: BOC-PLPLP, Boc-Phe-Leu-Phe-Leu-Phe; CHIPS, chemotaxis inhibitory protein of Staphylococcus aureus; SB290157, N²-([2,2diphenylethoxy]acetyl)-L-arg; W54011, N-([4-dimethylaminophenyl]methyl)-N-(4-isopropylphenyl)-7-methoxy-1,2,3,4-tetrahydronaphthalen-1-carboxamide hydrochloride

Further Reading

Selective antagonists

Ali H (2010), Regulation of human mast cell and basophil function by anaphylatoxins C3a and C5a, Immunol Lett 128: 36–45. Hajishengallis G (2010). Complement and periodontitis. Biochem Pharmacol 80: 1992–2001. Manthey HD. Woodruff TM, Taylor SM, Monk PN (2009). Complement component 5a (C5a), Int I Biochem Cell Biol 41: 2114–2117.

Monk PN, Scola AM, Madala P, Fairlie DP (2007). Function, structure and therapeutic potential of complement C5a receptors. Br J Pharmacol 152: 429-228.

Sacks SH (2010). Complement fragments C3a and C5a: the salt and pepper of the immune response. Eur J Immunol 40: 668-670. Ward PA (2009). Functions of C5a receptors. J Mol Med (Berl) 87: 375-378.

References

Ames RS et al. (1996). FEBS Lett 395: 157-159. Ames RS et al. (1997). Immunopharmacology 38: 87-92. Ames RS et al. (2001). J Immunol 166: 6341-6348. Buhl AM et al. (1993). FEBS Lett 323: 132-134. Cain SA, Monk, PN (2002). J Biol Chem 277: 7165-7169. Gao H et al. (2005). FASEB J 19: 1003-1005. Gavrilyuk V et al. (2005). J Neurochem 92: 1140-1149. Honczarenko M et al. (2005). Leukemia 19: 1682-1683. Kalant D et al. (2003). J Biol Chem 278: 11123-11129.

Kalant D et al. (2005). J Biol Chem 280: 23936-23944. Konteatis ZD et al. (1994). J Immunol 153: 4200-4205. Mathieu MC et al. (2005). Immunol Lett 100: 139-145. Okinaga S et al. (2003). Biochemistry 42: 9406-9415. Postma B et al. (2004). J Immunol 172: 6994-7001. Scola AM et al. (2009). Mol Immunol 46: 1149-1162. Sumichika H et al. (2002). J Biol Chem 277: 49403-49407. Wong AK et al. (1998). J Med Chem 41: 3417-3425. Yamamoto T (2000). Pathol Int 50: 863-871.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Angiotensin S29

Angiotensin

Overview: The actions of angiotensin II (Ang II) are mediated by AT_1 and AT_2 receptors (nomenclature agreed by the NC-IUPHAR Subcommittee on Angiotensin Receptors; see de Gasparo *et al.*, 2000), which have around 30% sequence similarity. AT_1 receptors are predominantly coupled to $G_{q/11}$, however they are also linked to arrestin recruitment and stimulate G protein independent arrestin signalling (Luttrell and Gesty-Palmer 2010). Most species express a single AT_1 gene, but two related AT_{1A} and AT_{1B} receptor genes are expressed in rodents. The AT_2 receptor counteracts several of the growth responses initiated by the AT_1 receptors. The AT_2 receptor is much less abundant than the AT_1 receptor in adult tissues and is upregulated in pathological conditions. Endogenous ligands are Ang II and angiotensin III (Ang III), while angiotensin I is weakly active in some systems.

Nomenclature AT_1 AT_2

Ensembl ID ENSG00000144891 ENSG00000180772

Principal transduction $G_{q/11}$ G_i / G_o , Tyr & Ser/Thr phosphatases Selective agonists L162313 $[p-NH_2-Phe^6]$ -Ang II, CGP42112

Selective antagonists EXP3174, eprosartan, valsartan, irbesartan, losartan, candesartan PD123319, PD123177

Probes [3H]-A81988, [3H]-L158809, [3H]-eprosartan, [3H]-losartan, [1251]-EXP985 [1251]-CGP42112

There is also evidence for an AT_4 receptor that specifically binds angiotensin IV and is located in the brain and kidney. An additional putative endogenous ligand for the AT_4 receptor has been described (LVV-hemorphin, a globin decapeptide) (Moeller *et al.*, 1997). The AT_1 and bradykinin B2 receptors have been proposed to form a heterodimeric complex (Abdalla *et al.*, 2000). The antagonist activity of CGP42112 has also been reported (Lokuta *et al.*, 1995). Novel AT_1 receptor antagonists bearing substituted 4-phenylquinoline moieties have recently been designed and synthesized. The best of these compounds bind to AT_1 receptors with nanomolar affinity and are slightly more potent than losartan in functional studies (Cappelli *et al.*, 2004).

Abbreviations: A81988, 2(N-n-propyl-N-[{2'-(1H-tetrazol-5-yl)biphenyl-4-yl}methyl]amino)pyridine-3-carboxylate; candesartan, 2-ethoxy-3-[[4-[2-(2H-tetrazol-5-yl)phenyl]phenyl]methyl]benzimidazole-4-carboxylic acid; CGP42112A, nicotinic acid-Tyr-(N-benzoylcarbonyl-Arg)-Lys-His-Pro-lle-OH; eprosartan, (E)- α -([2-butyl-1-{(4-carboxyphenyl)methyl}-1H-imidazol-5-yl]methylene)-2-thiophenepropanoate; EXP3174, n-butyl-4-chloro-1-([2'-{1H-tetrazol-5yl}biphenyl-4-yl]methyl)imidazole-5-carboxylate; EXP985, N-(2-[4-hydroxy-3-iodophenyl]ethyl)-4-chloro-2-propyl-1-([2'-{1H-tetrazol-5yl}biphenyl-4-yl]methyl)imidazole-5-carboxamide; irbesartan, 2-butyl-3-[[2'-(1H-tetrazol-5-yl)][1,1'-biphenyl]-4-yl]methyl]-1,3-diazaspiro[4.4]non-1-en-4-one; L158809, 5,7-dimethyl-2-ethyl-3-(2-[1H-tetrazol-5yl]biphenyl-4-yl)imidazo[4,5-b]pyridine; L162313, 5,7-dimethyl-2-ethyl-3-[[4-[2n-butyloxycarbonylsulfonamido)-5-isobutyl-3-thienyl]phenyl]methyl]midazo[4,5-6]pyridine; losartan, n-n-butyl-4-chloro-5-hydroxymethyl-1-[(2'-(1H-tetrazol-5-yl)biphenyl-4-yl)methyl]midazole, also known as Dup 753; PD123177, 1-(4-amino-3-methylphenyl)methyl-3-(diphenylacetyl)-4,5,6,7-tetrahydro-1H-imidazo[4,5-c]pyridine-6-carboxylate; PD123319, (S)-1-(4-[dimethylamino]-3-methylphenyl)methyl-5-(diphenylacetyl)-4,5,6,7-tetrahydro-1H-imidazo[4,5-c]pyridine-6-carboxylate; valsartan, n-(1-oxopentyl)-n-[[2'-(1H-tetrazol-5-yl)][1,1'-biphenyl]-4-yl]methyl]-L-valine

Further Reading

Aldigier JC, Ghannad E (2002). Exploring AT₁ and AT₂ angiotensin II receptors in humans. Drugs 62: 11-19.

Carey RM (2005). Update on the role of the AT₂ receptor. Curr Opin Nephrol Hypertens 14: 67-71.

Cheung BM (2006) Therapeutic potential of angiotensin receptor blockers in hypertension. Expert Opin Investig Drugs 15: 625-635.

Croom KF, Plosker GL (2008). Irbesartan: a review of its use in hypertension and diabetic nephropathy. Drugs 68: 1543-1569.

De Gasparo M (2002). AT₁ and AT₂ angiotensin (II) receptors: key features. Drugs 62: 1-10.

De Gasparo M, Catt KJ, Inagami T, Wright JW, Unger T (2000). International Union of Pharmacology. XXIII. The angiotensin II receptors. *Pharmacol Rev* 52: 415–472.

Ferrario CM, Chappell MC (2004). Novel angiotensin peptides. Cell Mol Life Sci 61: 2720-2727.

Jones ES, Vinh A, McCarthy CA, Gaspari T, Widdop RE (2008). AT2 receptors: functional relevance in cardiovascular disease. *Pharmacol Ther* 120: 292–316.

Kintscher U, Foryst-Ludwig A, Unger T (2008). Inhibiting angiotensin type 1 receptors as a target for diabetes. *Expert Opin Ther Targets* 12: 1257–1263.

Kusserow H, Unger T (2004). Vasoactive peptides, their receptors and drug development. Basic Clin Pharmacol Toxicol 94: 5-12.

Luttrell LM, Gesty-Palmer D (2010). Beyond desensitization: Physiological relevance of arrestin-dependent signaling. *Pharm Rev* 62: 305–330. Ma TK, Kam KK, Yan BP, Lam YY (2010). Renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system blockade for cardiovascular diseases: current status. *Br J Pharmacol* 160: 1273–1292.

Maggioni AP (2006). Efficacy of angiotensin receptor blockers in cardiovascular disease. Cardiovasc Drugs Ther 20: 295-308.

Nouet S, Nahmias C (2000). Signal transduction from the angiotensin II AT₂ receptor. Trends Endocrinol Metab 11: 1-6.

Ram CV (2008) Angiotensin receptor blockers: current status and future prospects. Am J Med 121: 656-663.

Rashid AJ, O'Dowd BF, George SR (2004). Minireview: diversity and complexity of signaling through peptidergic G protein-coupled receptors. Endocrinology 145: 2645–2652.

Unger T (1999). The angiotensin type 2 receptor: variations on an enigmatic theme. J Hypertens 17: 1775–1786.

Zaman MA, Oparil S, Calhoun DA (2002). Drugs targeting the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system. Nat Rev Drug Discov 1: 621-636.

References

\$30 Apelin Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Apelin

Overview: The apelin receptor (APJ, nomenclature as agreed by NC-IUPHAR on apelin receptors, Pitkin *et al.*, 2010) responds to apelin, a 36 amino-acid peptide derived initially from bovine stomach. Apelin-36, apelin-13 and (Pyr¹)apelin-13 are the predominant endogenous ligands which are cleaved from a 77 amino-acid precursor peptide (ENSG00000171388) by a so far unidentified enzymatic pathway (Tatemoto *et al.*, 1998).

Nomenclature API

Other names Apelin receptor, angiotensin receptor-like 1

Ensembl ID ENSG00000134817

Principal transduction G_{i/o}

Rank order of potency [Pyr¹]apelin-13≥apelin-36 (Tatemoto et al., 1998; Fan et al., 2003)

Selective agonists [Pyr¹]apelin-13, apelin-17, apelin-36

Probes [125]-[Pyr1]Apelin-13 (0.3 nM, Katuqampola et al., 2001), [125]-apelin-13 (Fan et al., 2003),

[3H]-[Pyr¹][Met(0)¹¹]apelin-13 (Medhurst et al., 2003), [125I]-[Nle⁷⁵,Tyr⁷⁷]apelin-36 (Kawamata et al., 2001),

[125]-[Glp⁶⁵Nle⁷⁵,Tyr⁷⁷]apelin-13 (Hosoya et al., 2000)

Potency order determined for heterologously expressed human APJ receptor (pD₂ values range from 9.5 to 8.6). APJ may also act as a co-receptor with CD4 for isolates of human immunodeficiency virus, with apelin blocking this function (Cayabyab *et al.*, 2000). A modified apelin-13 peptide, apelin-13(F13A) was reported to block the hypotensive response to apelin in rat *in vivo* (Lee *et al.*, 2005), however this peptide exhibits agonist activity in HEK293 cells stably expressing the recombinant APJ receptor (Fan *et al.*, 2003).

Further Reading

Chandrasekaran B, Dar O, McDonagh T (2008). The role of apelin in cardiovascular function and heart failure. *Eur J Heart Fail* 10: 725–732. Davenport AP, Pitkin SL, Maguire JJ. (2007). Apelins. In: Offermanns S, Rosenthal W (eds). *Encyclopedic Reference of Molecular Pharmacology*. Springer: Berlin, pp. 201–206.

Japp AG, Newby DE (2008). The apelin-APJ system in heart failure: pathophysiologic relevance and therapeutic potential. *Biochem Pharmacol* 75: 1882–1892.

Langelaan DN, Bebbington EM, Reddy T, Rainey JK (2009). Structural insight into G-protein coupled receptor binding by apelin. *Biochemistry* **48**: 537–548.

Lee DK, George SR, O'Dowd BF (2006). Unravelling the roles of the apelin system: prospective therapeutic applications in heart failure and obesity. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 27: 190–194.

Pitkin SĹ, Maguire JJ, Bonner TI, Davenport AP (2010). International Union of Basic and Clinical Pharmacology. LXXIV. Apelin receptor nomenclature, distribution, pharmacology, and function. *Pharmacol Rev* 62: 331–342.

Sorli SC, van den Berghe L, Masri B, Knibiehler B, Audigier Y. (2006). Therapeutic potential of interfering with apelin signalling. *Drug Discov Today* 11: 1100–1106.

References

Cayabyab M *et al.* (2000). *J Virol* **74**: 11972–11976. Fan X *et al.* (2003). *Biochemistry* **42**:10163–10168. Hosoya M *et al.* (2000). *J Biol Chem* **275**: 21061–21067. Katugampola SD *et al.* (2001). *Br J Pharmacol* **132**: 1255–1260. Kawamata Y *et al.* (2001). *Biochim Biophys Acta* **1538**: 162–171. Lee DK *et al.*, (2005). *Endocrinology* **146**: 231–236. Medhurst AD *et al.* (2003). *J Neurochem* **84**: 1162–1172. Tatemoto K *et al.* (1998). *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* **251**: 471–476.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Bile acid S31

Bile acid

Overview: The bile acid receptor (GPBA, provisional nomenclature) responds to bile acids produced during the liver metabolism of cholesterol.

Nomenclature GPBA

Other names GPBAR1, BG37, GPCR19, GPR131, M-BAR, MGC40597, TGR5

Ensembl ID ENSG00000179921 Principal transduction G_s (Maruyama et al., 2002)

Rank order of potency Lithocholic acid > deoxycholic acid > chenodeoxycholic acid, cholic acid (Maruyama et al., 2002;

Kawamata et al., 2003)

Selective agonists Oleanolic acid (Sato et al., 2007), betulinic acid (Genet et al., 2010)

The triterpenoid natural product betulinic acid has also been reported to inhibit inflammatory signalling through the NFκB pathway (Takada and Aggarwal, 2003). Disruption of GPBA expression is reported to protect from cholesterol gallstone formation (Vassileva *et al.*, 2006).

Further Reading

Fiorucci S, Cipriani S, Baldelli F, Mencarelli A (2010). Bile acid-activated receptors in the treatment of dyslipidemia and related disorders. *Prog Lipid Res* 49: 171–185.

Fiorucci S, Mencarelli A, Palladino G, Cipriani S (2009). Bile-acid-activated receptors: targeting TGR5 and farnesoid-X-receptor in lipid and glucose disorders. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 30: 570–580.

Lefebvre P, Cariou B, Lien F, Kuipers F, Staels B (2009). Role of bile acids and bile acid receptors in metabolic regulation. *Physiol Rev* 89: 147–191. Nguyen A, Bouscarel B (2008). Bile acids and signal transduction: role in glucose homeostasis. *Cell Signal*, 20: 2180–2197.

Pols TW, Noriega LG, Nomura M, Auwerx J, Schoonjans K (2011). The bile acid membrane receptor TGR5 as an emerging target in metabolism and inflammation. *J Hepatol* **54**: 1263–1272.

Sato H, Macchiarulo A, Thomas C, Gioiello A, Une M, Hofmann AF *et al.* (2008). Novel potent and selective bile acid derivatives as TGR5 agonists: biological screening, structure-activity relationships, and molecular modeling studies. *J Med Chem* 51: 1831–1841.

Thomas C, Auwerx J, Schoonjans K (2008). Bile acids and the membrane bile acid receptor TGR5 – connecting nutrition and metabolism. *Thyroid*, 18: 167–174.

Tiwari A, Maiti P (2009). TGR5: an emerging bile acid G-protein-coupled receptor target for the potential treatment of metabolic disorders. *Drug Discov Today*, **14**: 523–530.

Wei J, Qiu DK, Ma X (2009). Bile acids and insulin resistance: implications for treating nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. J Dig Dis, 10: 85-90.

References

Genet C *et al.* (2010). *J Med Chem* **53**: 178–190. Kawamata Y *et al.* (2003). *J Biol Chem* **278**: 9435–9440. Maruyama T *et al.* (2002). *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* **298**: 714–719. Sato H *et al.* (2007). *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* **362**: 793–798. Takada Y, Aggarwal BB (2003). *J Immunol* **171**: 3278–3286. Vassileva G *et al.* (2006). *Biochem J* **398**: 423–430.

\$32 Bombesin Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Bombesin

Overview: Bombesin receptors (nomenclature recommended by the NC-IUPHAR Subcommittee on bombesin receptors, Jensen *et al.*, 2008) are activated by the endogenous ligands gastrin-releasing peptide (GRP), neuromedin B (NMB) and GRP-18-27 (previously named neuromedin C). Bombesin is a tetradecapeptide, originally derived from amphibians. These receptors couple primarily to the $G_{q/11}$ family of G proteins (but see also Jian *et al.*, 1999). Activation of BB_1 and BB_2 receptors causes a wide range of physiological actions, including the stimulation of tissue growth, smooth-muscle contraction, secretion and many central nervous system effects (Tokita *et al.*, 2002). A physiological role for the BB_3 receptor has yet to be fully defined although receptor knockout experiments suggest a role in energy balance and the control of body weight (see Jensen *et al.*, 2008).

Nomenclature	BB_1	BB_2	BB_3
Other names	NMB-R, BB1	GRP-R, BB2	BRS-3, bb3
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000135577	ENSG00000126010	ENSG00000102239
Principal transduction	$G_{q/11}$	$G_{q/11}$	$G_{q/11}$
Selective agonists	NMB	GRP	[D-Tyr ⁶ ,Apa-4Cl ¹¹ ,Phe ¹³ ,Nle ¹⁴] bombesin ₆₋₁₄ ,
Selective antagonists	PD165929, dNal- <i>cyc</i> (Cys-Tyr-dTrp-Orn-Val)-Nal-NH ₂ , dNal-Cys-Tyr-dTrp-Lys-Val-Cys-Nal-NH ₂ , PD168368	[D-Phe ⁶ ,Cpa ¹⁴ , ψ 13-14]Bn ₆₋₁₄ , JMV594, Ac-GRP ₂₀₋₂₆ methylester	-
Probes	[¹²⁵ l]-BH-NMB, [¹²⁵ l]-[Tyr ⁴]bombesin	[125]-[DTyr ⁶]bombesin-6-13-methylester, [125]-GRP, [125]-[Tyr ⁴]bombesin	[¹²⁵ I]-[Tyr ⁶ ,βAla ¹¹ ,Phe ¹³ ,Nle ¹⁴] bombesin-6-14

All three subtypes may be activated by [dPhe⁶, β Ala¹¹,Phe¹³,Nle¹⁴]bombesin-6-14 (Mantey *et al.*, 1997). [D-Tyr⁶, Apa-4Cl, Phe¹³, Nle¹⁴] bombesin-6-14, has more than 200-fold selectivity for BB₃ receptors over BB₁ and BB₂ (Mantey *et al.*, 2004).

Abbreviations: PD165929, 2-[3-(2,6-diisopropylphenyl)-ureido]3-(1H-indol-3-yl)-2-methyl-N-(1-pyridin-2-yl-cyclohexylmethyl)-proprionate, PD168368, 3-(1H-indol-3-yl)-2-methyl-2-[3(4-nitro-phenyl)-ureido]<math>N-(1-pyridin-2-yl-cyclohexylmethyl)-proprionamide, JMV594 H-D-Phe,Gln,Trp,Ala,Val,Gly,His-NH-CH[CH₂-CH(CH₃)₂]-CHOH-(CH₂)₃-CH₃.

Further Reading

Battey J, Wada E (1991). Two distinct receptor subtypes for mammalian bombesin receptors. Trends Neurosci 14: 524-528.

Iwabuchi M, Ui-Tei K, Yamada K, Matsuda Y, Sakai Y, Tanaka K, Ohki-Hamazaki H (2003). Molecular cloning and characterisation of avian bombesin-like peptide receptors: new tools for investigating molecular basis of ligand selectivity. *Br J Pharmacol* 139: 555–566.

Jensen RT, Battey JF, Spindel ER, Benya RV (2008). International Union of Pharmacology. LXVIII. Mammalian bombesin receptors: nomenclature, distribution, pharmacology, signaling and function in normal and disease states. *Pharmacol Rev* 60: 1–42.

Jensen R, Coy D (1991). Progress in the development of potent bombesin receptor antagonists. Trends Pharmacol Sci 12: 13-18.

Kroog GS, Jensen RT, Battey JF (1995). Bombesin receptors. Med Res Rev 15: 389-417.

Moody TW, Merali Z (2004). Bombesin-like peptides and associated receptors within the brain: distribution and behavioural implications. *Peptides* 25: 511–520.

Moody TW, Mantey SA, Pradhan TK, Schumann M, Nakagawa T, Martinez A *et al.* (2004). Development of high affinity camptothecin–bombesin conjugates that have targeted cytotoxicity for bombesin receptor-containing tumor cells. *J Biol Chem* **279**: 23580–23589.

Ohki-Hamazaki H (2000). Neuromedin B. Prog Neurobiol 62: 297–312.

Ohki-Hamazaki H, Iwabuchi M, Maekawa F (2005). Development and function of bombesin-like peptides and their receptors. *Int J Dev Biol* **49**: 293–300.

Roesler R, Henriques JA, Schwartsmann G (2006). Gastrin-releasing peptide receptor as a molecular target for psychiatric and neurological disorders. CNS Neurol Disord Drug Targets 5: 197–204.

Tokita K, Hocart SJ, Coy DH, Jensen RT (2002). Molecular basis of the selectivity of gastrin-releasing peptide receptor for gastrin-releasing peptide. *Mol Pharmacol* **61**: 1435–1443.

Weber D (2003). Design of selective peptidomimetic agonists for the human orphan receptor BRS-3. J Med Chem 46: 1918–1930.

Weber HC (2009). Regulation and signaling of human bombesin receptors and their biological effects. Curr Opin Endocrinol Diabetes Obes 16: 66–71.

Zhou J, Chen J, Mokotoff M, Ball ED (2004). Targeting gastrin-releasing peptide receptors for cancer treatment. Anti-cancer Drugs 15: 921–927.

References

Jian XY et al. (1999). J Biol Chem 274: 11573–11581. Mantey SA et al. (1997). J Biol Chem 272: 26062–26071. Mantey SA et al. (2004). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 310: 1161–1170. Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA 833

Bradykinin

Overview: Bradykinin (or kinin) receptors (nomenclature recommended by the NC-IUPHAR subcommittee on bradykinin (kinin) receptors, Leeb-Lundberg *et al.*, 2005) are activated by the endogenous peptides bradykinin (BK), [des-Arg⁹]BK, Lys-BK (kallidin), Lys-[des-Arg⁹]BK, T-kinin (Ile-Ser-BK), [Hyp³]BK and Lys-[Hyp³]BK. The variation in affinity or inactivity of B₂ receptor antagonists could reflect the existence of species homologues of B₂ receptors.

Nomenclature B_1 B_2

Ensembl ID ENSG00000100739 ENSG00000168398

Principal transduction $G_{q/11}$ $G_{q/2}$

Rank order of potency Lys-[des-Arg 9]BK>[des-Arg 9]BK=Lys-BK>BK Lys-BK>BK>[des-Arg 9]BK, Lys-[des-Arg 9]BK, Sar[DPhe 8][des-Arg 9]BK [Phe 8 , ψ (CH $_2$ -NH)Arg 9]BK, [Hyp 3 ,Tyr(Me) 8]BK

Selective antagonists B9958 (9.2, Regoli *et al.*, 1998), R914 (8.6, Gobeil lcatibant (8.4, Gobeil *et al.*, 1996b), FR173657 (8.2,

et al., 1999), R715 (8.5, Gobeil et al., 1996a), Rizzi et al., 1997), LF160687 (Pruneau et al., 1999) Lys-[Leu⁸][des-Arg⁹]BK (8.0)

Probes [3H]-Lys-[des-Arg9]BK (0.4 nM), [3H]-BK (0.2 nM), [3H]-NPC17731 (50–900 pM),

[³H]-Lys-[Leu⁸][des-Arg⁹]BK, [¹²⁵I]-[Tyr⁸]BK [¹²⁵I]-Hpp-desArg⁹HOE140 (0.1 nM)

Abbreviations: B9958, Lys-Lys[Hyp³,Cpg⁵,dTic²,Cpg³][des-Arg⁰]BK; FR173657, (E)-3-(6-acetamido-3-pyridyl)-N-(N-[2,4-dichloro-3{(2-methyl-8-quinolinyl)oxymethyl} phenyl]-N-methylaminocarbonyl-methyl)acrylamide; Icatibant, DArg[Hyp³,Thi⁵,DTic²,Oic³]BK, also known as HOE140; LF160687, 1-([2,4-dichloro-3-{([2,4-dimethylquinolin-8-yl]oxy)methyl}phenyl]sulfonyl)-N-(3-[{4-(aminoimethyl)phenyl}carbonylamino] propyl)-2(S)-pyrrolidinecarboxamide; NPC17731, DArg[Hyp³,DHypE(transpropyl)²,Oic³]BK; R715, AcLys[D Nal²,Ile³][des-Arg⁰]BK; R914, AcLys-Lys-([αMe]Phe⁵δ-βNal²,Ile³)desArg⁰BK

Further Reading

Campos MM, Leal PC, Yunes RA, Calixto JB (2006). Non-peptide antagonists for kinin B1 receptors: new insights into their therapeutic potential for the management of inflammation and pain. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 27: 646–651.

Calixto JB, Medeiros R, Fernandes ES, Ferreira J, Cabrini DA, Campos MM (2004). Kinin B₁ receptors: key G-protein-coupled receptors and their role in inflammatory and painful processes. *Br J Pharmacol* **143**: 803–818.

Couture R, Harrison M, Vianna RM, Cloutier F (2001). Kinin receptors in pain and inflammation. Eur J Pharmacol 429: 161–176.

Cruden NL, Newby DE (2008). Therapeutic potential of icatibant (HOE-140, JE-049). Expert Opin Pharmacother 9: 2383–2390.

Doggrell SA (2006). Bradykinin B2 receptors as a target in diabetic nephropathy. Curr Opin Investig Drugs 7: 251-255.

Duchene J, Ahluwalia A (2009). The kinin B(1) receptor and inflammation: new therapeutic target for cardiovascular disease. *Curr Opin Pharmacol* 9: 125–131.

Fortin JP, Marceau FO (2006). Advances in the development of bradykinin ligands. Curr Top Med Chem 6: 1353-1363.

Leeb-Lundberg LMF, Marceau F, Muller-Esterl W, Pettibone DJ. Zuraw BL (2005). International Union of Pharmacology. XLV. Classification of the kinin receptor family: from molecular mechanisms to pathophysiological consequences. *Pharmacol Rev* 57: 27–77.

Marceau F, Hess JF, Bachvarov DR (1998). The B-1 receptors for kinins. Pharmacol Rev 50: 357-386.

Marceau F, Regoli D (2004). Bradykinin receptor ligands: Therapeutic perspectives. Nature Rev Drug Discov 3: 845-852.

Regoli D, Allogho SN, Rizzi A, Gobeil FJ (1998). Bradykinin receptors and their antagonists. Eur J Pharmacol 348: 1-10.

Rodi D, Couture R, Ongali B, Simonato M (2005). Targeting kinin receptors for the treatment of neurological diseases. *Curr Pharm Des* 11: 1313–1326.

Thornton E, Ziebell JM, Leonard AV, Vink R (2010). Kinin receptor antagonists as potential neuroprotective agents in central nervous system injury. *Molecules* 15: 6598–6618.

References

Gobeil F et al. (1996a). Hypertension 28: 833-839.

Gobeil F et al. (1996b). Br J Pharmacol 118: 289–294.

Gobeil F et al. (1999). Hypertension 33: 823-829.

Rizzi A et al. (1997). Hypertension 29: 951–956.

Pruneau D et al. (1999). Immunopharmacology 43: 187–194.

Calcitonin, amylin, CGRP and adrenomedullin

Overview: Calcitonin (CT), amylin (AMY), calcitonin gene-related peptide (CGRP) and adrenomedullin (AM) receptors (nomenclature as agreed by NC-IUPHAR Subcommittee on CGRP, AM, AMY, and CT receptors, see Poyner *et al.*, 2002; Hay *et al.*, 2008) are generated by the genes *CALCR* (which codes for the CT receptor (CTR), ENSG00000064989) and *CALCRL* (which codes for the calcitonin receptor-like receptor, CLR, previously known as CRLR, ENSG0000004948). Their function and pharmacology are altered in the presence of RAMPs (receptor activity-modifying protein), which are single TM domain proteins of *ca.* 130 amino acids, identified as a family of three members; RAMP1 (ENSG0000132329), RAMP2 (ENSG00000131477) and RAMP3 (ENSG00000122679). There are splice variants of CTR; these in turn produce variants of the AMY receptor (see Poyner *et al.*, 2002). The endogenous agonists are the peptides CT, α CGRP (formerly known as CGRP-II), β CGRP (formerly known as CGRP-II), AMY (occasionally called islet-amyloid polypeptide, diabetes-associated polypeptide), AM and AM2/Intermedin (AM2/IMD). There are species differences in peptide sequences, particularly for the CTs. CTR-stimulating peptide (CRSP) is another member of the family with selectivity for the CTR but it is not expressed in humans (Katafuchi *et al.*, 2003). BIBN4096BS (also known as olcegepant, pKi ~10.5) and MK0974 (also known as telcagepant, pKi ~9) are the most selective antagonists available, having a high selectivity for CGRP receptors, with a particular preference for those of primate origin.

CLR by itself binds no known endogenous ligand, but in the presence of RAMPs it gives receptors for CGRP, AM and AM2/IMD

Nomenclature	CGRP	AM_1	AM_2
Composition	CALCRL+RAMP1	CALCRL+RAMP2	CALCRL+RAMP3
Principal transduction	G_s	G_s	G_s
Rank order of potency	$CGRP > AM \ge AM2/IMD > AMY \ge salmon CT$	AM > CGRP, AM2/IMD > AMY > salmon CT	$AM = AM2/IMD \ge CGRP > AMY > $ salmon CT
Selective agonists	lphaCGRP	AM	AM
Selective antagonists	BIBN4096BS (10.5, Doods <i>et al.</i> , 2000; Hay <i>et al.</i> , 2003, 2006); MK0974 (9, Salvatore <i>et al.</i> , 2008)	AM-(22–52) (7, Hay et al., 2003)	-
Probes	$[^{125}I]-\alpha CGRP (0.1 nM)$	[¹²⁵ I]-AM (rat, 0.1–1.0 nM)	[125I]-AM (rat, 0.1–1.0 nM)

Transfection of human CTR with any RAMP can generate receptors with a high affinity for both salmon CT and AMY and varying affinity for different antagonists (Christopoulos *et al.*, 1999; Hay *et al.*, 2005, 2006). The insert negative (and major) human CTR splice variant (hCT_(a)) with RAMP1 (i.e. the AMY_{1(a)} receptor) has a high affinity for CGRP, unlike hCT_(a)–RAMP3 (i.e. AMY_{3(a)} receptor) (Christopoulos *et al.*, 1999; Hay *et al.*, 2005). However, the AMY receptor phenotype is RAMP-type, splice variant and cell-line-dependent (Tilakaratne *et al.*, 2000).

Nomenclature	Calcitonin (CT)	AMY_1	AMY ₂	AMY ₃
Composition	CALCR	CALCR+RAMP1	CALCR+RAMP2	CALCR+RAMP3
Principal transduction	G_s	G_s	G_s	G_s
Rank order of potency	Salmon CT \geq human CT \geq AMY, CGRP $>$ AM, AM2/IMD	$AMY_{1(a)}$: Salmon CT \geq AMY \geq CGRP $>$ AM2/IMD $>$ human CT $>$ AM	Poorly defined	$AMY_{3(a)}$: Salmon CT \geq AMY $>$ CGRP $>$ AM2/IMD $>$ human CT $>$ AM
Selective agonists	Human CT	AMY	AMY	AMY
Probes	[¹²⁵ I]-CT (salmon, 0.1 nM), [¹²⁵ I]-CT (human, 0.1–1.0 nM)	[¹²⁵ I]-BH-AMY (rat, 0.1–1.0 nM)	[¹²⁵ I]-BH-AMY (rat, 0.1–1.0 nM)	[¹²⁵ I]-BH-AMY (rat, 0.1–1.0 nM)

The ligands described represent the best available but their selectivity is limited, apart from BIBN4096BS and MK0974. For example, AM has appreciable affinity for CGRP receptors. CGRP can show significant cross-reactivity at AMY receptors and AM₂ receptors. AM2/IMD also has high affinity for the AM₂ receptor (Hong *et al.*, 2011). CGRP-(8-37) acts as an antagonist of CGRP (pKi \sim 8) and inhibits some AM and AMY responses (pKi \sim 6-7). It is inactive at CT receptors. Salmon CT-(8-32) is an antagonist at both AMY and CT receptors. AC187, a salmon CT analogue, is also an antagonist at AMY and CT receptors. Human AM-(22-52) has some selectivity towards AM receptors, but with modest potency (pKi \sim 7), limiting its use (Hay *et al.*, 2003). AM-(22-52) is slightly more effective at AM₁ than AM₂ receptors but this difference is not sufficient for this peptide to be a useful discriminator of the AM receptor subtypes.

Ligand responsiveness at CTR and AMY receptors can be affected by receptor splice variation and can depend on the pathway being measured. Particularly for AMY receptors, relative potency can vary with the type and level of RAMP present and can be influenced by other factors such as G proteins (Tilakaratne *et al.*, 2000; Morfis *et al.*, 2008).

 G_s is a prominent route for effector coupling for CLR and CTR but other pathways (e.g. Ca²⁺, ERK, Akt) and G proteins can be activated (Walker et al., 2010). There is evidence that CGRP-RCP (a 148 amino-acid hydrophilic protein, ENSG00000126522) is important for the coupling of CLR to adenylyl cyclase (Evans et al., 2000).

[125]-Salmon CT is the most common radioligand for CT receptors but it has high affinity for AMY receptors and is also poorly reversible. [125]-Tyr⁰-CGRP is widely used as a radioligand for CGRP receptors.

Some early literature distinguished between CGRP₁ and CGRP₂ receptors. It is now clear that CALCRL/RAMP1 represents the CGRP₁ subtype and is now known simply as the CGRP receptor (Hay et al., 2008). The CGRP₂ receptor is considered to have arisen from the actions of CGRP at AM₂ and AMY receptors. This term should not be used (Hay et al., 2008).

Abbreviations: AC187, acetyl-[Asn³⁰,Tyr³²]salmon CT; BIBN4096BS, 1-piperidinecarboxamide, N-(2-[{5-amino-1-([4-{4-pyridinyl}]-1-piperazinyl]} carbonyl)pentyl}amino]-1-[{3,5-dibromo-4-hydroxyphenyl}methyl]-2-oxoethyl)-4-(1,4-dihydro-2-oxo-3[2H]-quinazolinyl); MK0974, N-[(3R,6s)-6-(2,3-difluorophenyl)-2-oxo-1-(2,2,2-trifluoroethyl)azepan-3-yl]-4-(2-oxo-2,3-dihydro-1*H*-imidazo[4,5-b]pyridin-1-yl)piperidine-1-carboxamide

Further Reading

Benemei S, Nicoletti P, Capone JG, Geppetti P (2009). CGRP receptors in the control of pain and inflammation. Curr Opin Pharmacol 9: 9-14. Gibbons C, Dackor R, Dunworth W, Fritz-Six K, Caron KM (2007). Receptor activity-modifying proteins: RAMPing up adrenomedullin signaling. Mol Endocrinol 21: 783-796.

Hay DL, Poyner DR, Quirion R (2008), International Union of Pharmacology, LXIX, Status of the calcitonin gene-related peptide subtype 2 receptor. Pharmacol Rev 60: 143-145.

Hay DL, Poyner DR, Sexton PM (2006). GPCR modulation by RAMPs. Pharmacol Ther 109: 173-197.

Hong Y, Hay DL, Quirion R, Poyner DR (2011). The pharmacology of Adrenomedullin 2/Intermedin. Br J Pharmacol in press.

Ishimitsu T, Ono H, Minami J, Matsuoka H (2006). Pathophysiologic and therapeutic implications of adrenomedullin in cardiovascular disorders. Pharmacol Ther 111: 909-927.

Nikitenko LL, Fox SB, Kehoe S, Rees MC, Bicknell R (2006). Adrenomedullin and tumour angiogenesis. Br J Cancer 94: 1-7.

Poyner DR, Sexton PM, Marshall I, Smith DM, Quirion R, Born W et al. (2002). International Union of Pharmacology. XXXII. The mammalian calcitonin gene-related peptides, adrenomedullin, amylin, and calcitonin receptors. Pharmacol Rev 54: 233-246.

Recober A, Russo AF (2009). Calcitonin gene-related peptide: an update on the biology. Curr Opin Neurol 22: 241-246.

Walker CS, Conner AC, Poyner DR, Hay DL (2010). Regulation of signal transduction by calcitonin gene-related peptide receptors. Trends Pharmacol Sci 31: 476-483.

References

Christopoulos G et al. (1999). Mol Pharmacol 56: 235-242. Doods H et al. (2000). Br J Pharmacol 129: 420-423. Evans BN et al. (2000). I Biol Chem 275: 31438-31443. Hay DL et al. (2003). Br J Pharmacol 140: 477-486. Hay DL et al. (2005). Mol Pharmacol 67: 1655-1665.

Hav DL et al. (2006). Mol Pharmacol 70: 1984-1991. Katafuchi T et al. (2003). J Biol Chem 278: 12046-12054. Morfis M et al. (2008). Endocrinology 149: 5423-5431. Salvatore CA et al. (2008). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 324: 416-421. Tilakaratne N et al. (2000). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 294: 61-72.

S36 Calcium-sensing Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Calcium-sensing

Overview: The calcium-sensing receptor (CaS, provisional nomenclature) responds to extracellular calcium and magnesium in the millimolar range and to gadolinium and some polycations in the micromolar range (Brown *et al.*, 1993). The sensitivity of CaS to primary agonists can be increased by aromatic L-amino acids (Conigrave *et al.*, 2000) and also by elevated extracellular pH (Quinn *et al.*, 2004) or decreased extracellular ionic strength (Quinn *et al.*, 1998).

Nomenclature CaS

Other names CaSR, CaR

Ensembl ID ENSG00000036828

Principal transduction $G_{q/11}$, $G_{i/o}$, $G_{12/13}$ (Ward, 2004)

Cation rank order of potency $Gd^{3+} > Ca^{2+} > Mg^{2+}$ (Brown *et al.*, 1993)

Polyamine rank order of potency Spermine>spermidine>putrescine (Quinn et al., 1997)

Amino-acid rank order of potency L-Phe, L-Trp, L-His>L-Ala>L-Ser, L-Pro, L-Glu>L-Asp but not L-Lys, L-Arg, L-Leu, and L-lle (Conigrave

et al., 2000)

Positive allosteric modulators NPS R568 (Nemeth et al., 1998), calindol (Petrel et al., 2004), cinacalcet (Nemeth et al., 2004),

AC265347 (Ma et al., 2011)

Negative allosteric modulators NPS 2143, NPS 89636 (Nemeth et al., 2001), Calhex-231 (Petrel et al., 2004), 2-benzylpyrrolidine

derivatives of NPS 2143 (Yang et al., 2005)

Positive allosteric modulators are termed Type II calcimimetics and can suppress parathyroid hormone (PTH) secretion (Nemeth *et al.*, 1998). Negative allosteric modulators are called calcilytics and can act to increase PTH secretion (Nemeth *et al.*, 2001).

The central role of CaS in the maintenance of extracellular calcium homeostasis is seen most clearly in patients with loss-of-function CaS mutations who develop familial hypocalciuric hypercalcaemia (heterozygous mutation) or neonatal severe hyperparathyroidism (homozygous mutation) and in CaS null mice (Ho *et al.*, 1995; Chang *et al.*, 2008), which exhibit similar increases in PTH secretion and blood Ca²⁺ levels. A gain-of-function mutation in the CaS gene is associated with autosomal dominant hypocalcaemia.

 $GPRC_6$ (ENSG00000173612, also known as GPRC6A) is a related G_q -coupled receptor which responds to basic amino acids (Wellendorph *et al.*, 2005).

Abbreviations: AC265347, 1-benzothiazol-2-yl-1-(2,4-dimethyl-phenyl)-ethanol; Calhex-231, (15,25,1′R)-N¹-(4-chlorobenzoyl)-N²-[1-(1-naphthyl)ethyl]-1,2-diaminocyclohexane; calindol, (R)-2-[1-(1-naphthyl) ethylaminomethyl]-1H-indole; NPS R568, (R)-N-(3-methoxy-α-phenylethyl)-3-(2-chlorophenyl)-1-propylamine hydrochloride; NPS 2143, N-[(R)-2-hydroxy-3-(2-cyano-3-chlorophenoxy)propyl]-1,1-dimethyl-2-(2-naphthyl)ethylamine;

Further Reading

Brown EM (2010). Clinical utility of calcimimetics targeting the extracellular calcium-sensing receptor (CaSR). *Biochem Pharmacol* **80**: 297–307. Cavanaugh A, Huang Y, Breitwieser GE (2011). Behind the curtain: Cellular mechanisms for allosteric modulation of calcium sensing receptors. *Br J Pharmacol* in press.

Khan MA, Conigrave AD (2010). Mechanisms of multimodal sensing by extracellular Ca²⁺-sensing receptors: a domain-based survey of requirements for binding and signalling. *Br J Pharmacol* **159**: 1039–1050.

Magno AL, Ward BK, Rataiczak T (2011). The calcium-sensing receptor: a molecular perspective. Endocr Rev 32: 3–30.

Ward DT, Riccardi D (2011). New concepts in calcium-sensing receptor pharmacology and signalling. Br J Pharmacol in press.

References

Brown EM et al. (1993). Nature **366**: 575–580. Chang W et al. (2008) Sci Signal 1: ra1.

Conigrave AD et al. (2000). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 97: 4814-4819.

Ho C et al. (1995). Nat Genet 11: 389-394.

Ma JN et al. (2011) J Pharmacol Exp Ther 337: 275-284.

Nemeth EF et al. (1998). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 95: 4040–4045.

Nemeth EF et al. (2001). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 299: 323-331.

Nemeth EF et al. (2004). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 308: 627-635.

Petrel C et al. (2004). J Biol Chem 279: 18990–18997.

Quinn SJ et al. (1997). Am J Physiol Cell Physiol 273: C1315–C1323.

Quinn SJ et al. (1998). J Biol Chem 273: 19579-19586.

Quinn SJ et al. (2004). J Biol Chem 279: 37241-37249.

Ward DT (2004). Cell Calcium 35: 217-228.

Wellendorph P et al. (2005). Mol Pharmacol 67: 589–597.

Yang W et al. (2005). Bioorg Med Chem Lett 15: 1225-1228.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Cannabinoid S37

Cannabinoid

Overview: Cannabinoid receptors (nomenclature as agreed by NC-IUPHAR Subcommittee on Cannabinoid Receptors; see Pertwee *et al.*, 2010) are activated by endogenous ligands that include N-arachidonoylethanolamine (anandamide), N-homo- γ -linolenoylethanolamine, N-docosatetra-7,10,13,16-enoylethanolamine and 2-arachidonoylglycerol. Potency determinations of endogenous agonists at these receptors are complicated by the possibility of differential susceptibility to enzymatic conversion (see Alexander and Kendall, 2007).

Nomenclature CB_1 CB_2 Ensembl ID ENSG00000118432 ENSG00000188822 Principal transduction ACEA (Hillard et al., 1999), ACPA (Hillard et al., 1999), HU308 (Hanus et al., 1999), JWH133 (Huffman et al., Selective agonists methanandamide (Khanolkar et al., 1996), O-1812 (Di 1999; Pertwee, 2000), L759633 (Ross et al., 1999), L759656 (Ross et al., 1999), AM1241 (Ibrahim et al., Marzo et al., 2001) AM251 (8.1, Lan et al., 1999a), AM281 (7.9, Lan et al., SR144528 (9.2, Rinaldi-Carmona et al., 1998), AM630 Selective antagonists 1999b), rimonabant (7.9, Showalter et al., 1996), (7.5, Ross et al., 1999) LY320135 (6.9, Felder et al., 1998) [3H]-rimonabant (0.6 nM, Rinaldi-Carmona et al., 1996) **Probes**

Both CB₁ and CB₂ receptors may be labelled with [³H]-CP55940 (0.6 nM; Showalter *et al.*, 1996) and [³H]-WIN55212-2 (2–12 nM; Slipetz *et al.*, 1995; Song and Bonner, 1996). Anandamide is also an agonist at vanilloid receptors (TRPV1, see Page S166) and PPARs (see Page S181 and O'Sullivan, 2007; Zygmunt *et al.*, 1999). There is evidence for an allosteric site on the CB₁ receptor (Price *et al.*, 2005). All of the compounds listed as antagonists behave as inverse agonists in some bioassay systems (see Pertwee *et al.*, 2010). For some cannabinoid receptor ligands, additional pharmacological targets that include GPR55 and GPR119 have been identified (see Pertwee *et al.*, 2010). Moreover, GPR18, GPR55 and GPR119 (see Page S69), although showing little structural similarity to CB₁ and CB₂ receptors, respond to endogenous agents that are structurally similar to the endogenous cannabinoid ligands (see Pertwee *et al.*, 2010).

Abbreviations: ACEA, arachidonoyl-2-chloroethylamide; ACPA, arachidonoylcyclopropylamide; AM1241, (2-iodo-5-nitro-phenyl)-[1-(1-methyl-piperidin-2-ylmethyl)-1H-indol-3-yl]-methanone; AM251, N-(piperidin-1-yl)-5-(4-iodophenyl)-1-(2,4-dichlorophenyl)-4-methyl-1-(2,4-dichlorophenyl)-5-(4-iodophenyl)-4-methyl-N-4-morpholinyl-1H-pyrazole-3-carboxamide; 1H-pyrazole-3-carboxamide; AM281. AM630, 6-iodopravadoline; CP55940, (1R,3R,4R)-3-[2-hydroxy-4-(1,1-dimethylheptyl) phenyl]-4-(3-hydroxypropyl)cyclohexan-1-ol; HU308, [4-[4-(1,1-dimethylheptyl)-2,6-dimethoxy-phenyl]-6,6-dimethyl-bicyclo[3.1.1]hept-2-en-2-yl}-methanol; JWH133, (3-(1.1-dimethylbutyl)-6,6,9-trimethyl-6a,7,10,10a-tetrahydro-6H-benzo[c]chromene; L759633, (6ar,10ar)-3-(1,1-dimethylheptyl)-1-methoxy-6,6,9-trimethyl-6a,7, 10,10a-tetrahydro-6*H*-benzo[*c*]chromene; L759656, (6ar,10ar)-3-(1,1-dimethylheptyl)-1-methoxy-6,6-dimethyl-9-methylene-6a,7,8,9,10,10ahexahydro-6H-benzo[c]chromene; LY320135, (6-methoxy-2-[4-methoxyphenyl]benzo[b]thien-3-yl)(4-cyanophenyl)methanone; methanandamide, (R)-(+)-arachidonoyl-1'-hydroxy-2'-propylamide; O-1812, (R)-(20-cyano-16,16-dimethyldocosa-cis-5,8,11,14-tetraenoyl)-1'-hydroxy-2'propylamine;; rimonabant, N-(piperidin-1-yl)-5-(4-chlorophenyl)-1-(2,4-dichlorophenyl)-4-methyl-1H-pyrazole-3-carboxamide hydrochloride, also known as SR141716A; SR144528, N-[[1S]-endo-1,3,3-trimethylbicyclo[2.2.1]heptan-2-yl)-5-(4-chloro-3-methylphenyl)-1-(4-methylbenzyl)-(R)-(+)-[2,3-dihydro-5-methyl-3-(4-morpholinylmethyl)pyrrolo-[1,2,3-de]-1,4-benzoxazin-6-yl]-1pyrazole-3-carboxamide; WIN55212-2, naphthalenylmethanone mesylate

Further Reading

Alexander SPH, Kendall DA (2007). The complications of promiscuity: endocannabinoid action and metabolism. *Br J Pharmacol* **152**: 602–623. Bosier B, Muccioli GG, Hermans E, Lambert DM (2010). Functionally selective cannabinoid receptor signalling: Therapeutic implications and opportunities. *Biochem Pharmacol* **80**: 1–12.

Bradshaw HB, Lee SH, McHugh D (2009). Orphan endogenous lipids and orphan GPCRs: A good match. *Prostaglandins Other Lipid Mediat* 89: 131–134.

Centonze D, Finazzi-Agro A, Bernardi G, Maccarrone M (2007). The endocannabinoid system in targeting inflammatory neurodegenerative diseases. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 28: 180–187.

Di Marzo V, Bisogno T, De Petrocellis L (2007). Endocannabinoids and related compounds: walking back and forth between plant natural products and animal physiology. *Chem Biol* 14: 741–756.

Di Marzo V, De Petrocellis L (2006). Plant, synthetic, and endogenous cannabinoids in medicine. Annu Rev Med 57: 553–574.

Di Marzo V, Petrosino S (2007). Endocannabinoids and the regulation of their levels in health and disease. *Curr Opin Lipidol* 18: 129–140. Fernandez-Ruiz J, Romero J, Velasco G, Tolon RM, Ramos JA, Guzman M (2007). Cannabinoid CB₂ receptor: a new target for controlling neural

Fernandez-Ruiz J, Romero J, Velasco G, Tolon RM, Ramos JA, Guzman M (2007). Cannabinoid CB₂ receptor: a new target for controlling neural cell survival? *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 28: 39–45.

Godlewski G, Offertaler L, Wagner JA, Kunos G (2009). Receptors for acylethanolamides-GPR55 and GPR119. *Prostaglandins Other Lipid Mediat* 89: 105–111.

Hansen HS, Diep TA (2009). N-Acylethanolamines, anandamide and food intake. Biochem Pharmacol 78: 553-560.

Howlett AC, Reggio PH, Childers SR, Hampson RE, Ulloa NM, Deutsch DG (2011). Endocannabinoid Tone versus Constitutive Activity of Cannabinoid Receptors. *Br J Pharmacol* in press.

Izzo AA, Sharkey KA (2010). Cannabinoids and the gut: new developments and emerging concepts. Pharmacol Ther 126: 21-38.

Maccarrone M, Gasperi V, Catani MV, Diep TA, Dainese E, Hansen HS et al. (2010). The endocannabinoid system and its relevance for nutrition. *Annu Rev Nutr* 30: 423–440.

McPartland JM, Glass M, Pertwee RG (2007). Meta-analysis of cannabinoid ligand binding affinity and receptor distribution: interspecies differences. *Br J Pharmacol* 152: 583–593.

O'Sullivan SE (2007). Cannabinoids go nuclear: evidence for activation of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors. *Br J Pharmacol* **152**: 583–593.

S38 Cannabinoid Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Pertwee RG, Howlett AC, Abood ME, Alexander SPH, Di Marzo V, Elphick MR *et al.* (2010). International Union of Basic and Clinical Pharmacology. LXXIX. Cannabinoid receptors and their ligands: beyond CB₁ and CB₂. *Pharmacol Rev* **62**: 588–631. Ross RA (2011). L-α-Lysophosphatidylinositol meets GPR55: a deadly relationship. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* **32**: 265–269. Sharir H, Abood ME (2010). Pharmacological characterization of GPR55, a putative cannabinoid receptor. *Pharmacol Ther* **126**: 301–313. Ueda N, Tsuboi K, Uyama T (2010). Enzymological studies on the biosynthesis of *N*-acylethanolamines. *Biochim Biophys Acta* **1801**: 1274–1285.

References

Di Marzo V et al. (2001). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 281: 444–451. Felder CC et al. (1998). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 284: 291–297. Hanus L et al. (1999). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 96: 14228–14233. Hillard CJ et al. (1999). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 289: 1427–1433. Huffman JW et al. (1999). Bioorg Med Chem 7: 2905–2914. Ibrahim MM et al. (2003). Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 100: 10529–10533. Khanolkar AD et al. (1996). J Med Chem 39: 4515–4519. Lan R et al. (1999b). AAPS PharmSci 1: article 4. DOI: 10.1208/ps010204

Pertwee RG (2000). Expert Opin Investig Drugs 9: 1553–1571. Price MR et al. (2005). Mol Pharmacol 68: 1484–1495. Rinaldi-Carmona M et al. (1996). Life Sci 58: 1239–1247. Rinaldi-Carmona M et al. (1998). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 284: 644–650. Ross RA et al. (1999). Br J Pharmacol 126: 665–672. Showalter VM et al. (1996). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 278: 989–999. Slipetz DM et al. (1995). Mol Pharmacol 48: 352–361. Song ZH, Bonner TI (1996). Mol Pharmacol 49: 891–896. Zygmunt PM et al. (1999). Nature 400: 452–457.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Chemokine

Overview: Chemokine receptors (nomenclature agreed by NC-IUPHAR Subcommittee on Chemokine Receptors, Murphy *et al.*, 2000; Murphy, 2002) comprise a large subfamily of GPCR activated by one or more of the chemokines, a large family of small cytokines typically possessing chemotactic activity for leukocytes.

Chemokines can be divided by structure into four subclasses by the number and arrangement of conserved cysteines. CC (also known as β -chemokines; n = 28), CXC (also known as α -chemokines; n = 16) and CX_3C (n = 1) chemokines all have four conserved cysteines, with zero, one and three amino acids separating the first two cysteines, respectively. C chemokines (n = 2) have only the second and fourth cysteines found in other chemokines. Chemokines can also be classified by function into homeostatic and inflammatory subgroups. Most chemokine receptors are able to bind multiple high affinity chemokine ligands, but the ligands for a given receptor are almost always restricted to the same structural subclass. Most chemokines bind to more than one receptor subtype. Receptors for inflammatory chemokines are typically highly promiscuous with regard to ligand specificity, and may lack a selective endogenous ligand. Listed are those human agonists with EC_{50} values <50 nM in either Ca^{2+} flux or chemotaxis assays at human recombinant receptors expressed in mammalian cell lines. There can be substantial cross-species differences in the sequences of both chemokines and chemokine receptors, and in the pharmacology and biology of chemokine receptors. Endogenous and HIV-encoded non-chemokine ligands have also been identified for chemokine receptors. Many chemokine receptors function as HIV co-receptors, and at least two, CCR5 and CXCR4, play prominent roles in pathogenesis. The tables include both standard chemokine names (Zlotnik and Yoshie, 2000) and the most commonly used synonyms. Numerical data quoted are typically pKi or pIC₅₀ values from radioligand binding to heterologously expressed receptors.

Nomenclature	CCR1	CCR2	CCR3	CCR4	CCR5
Other names	CKR1, CC CK ₁ , CC CKR1, MIP-1 α R, MIP-1 α /RANTES	CKR2, CC CK₂, CC CKR2, MCP-1	CKR3, CC CK ₃ , CC CKR3	CKR4, CC CK ₄ , CC CKR4	CKR5, CC CK ₅ , CC CKR ₅ , CHEMR13
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000163823	ENSG00000121807	ENSG00000183625	ENSG00000183813	ENSG00000160791
Principal transduction	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{i/o}$
Agonists	CCL3 (MIP-1 a), CCL5 (RANTES), CCL7 (MCP-3), CCL8 (MCP-2), CCL13 (MCP-4), CCL14a (HCC-1), CCL15 (HCC-2), CCL23 (MPIF-1)	CCL2 (MCP-1), CCL7 (MCP-3), CCL8 (MCP-2), CCL13 (MCP-4), CCL16 (HCC-4)	CCL11 (eotaxin), CCL5 (RANTES), CCL7 (MCP-3), CCL8 (MCP-2), CCL13 (MCP-4), CCL15 (HCC-2), CCL24 (eotaxin-2), CCL26 (eotaxin-3), CCL28 (MEC)	CCL22 (MDC), CCL17 (TARC), vMIP-III	CCL3 (MIP-1 α), CCL4 (MIP-1 β), CCL5 (RANTES), CCL8 (MCP-2), CCL11 (eotaxin), CCL14a (HCC-1), CCL16 (HCC-4), R5 HIV-1 gp120
Selective agonists	CCL15 (HCC-2), CCL23 (MPIF-1)	CCL2 (MCP-1)	CCL11 (Eotaxin), CCL24 (eotaxin-2), CCL26 (eotaxin-3),	CCL22 (MDC), CCL17 (TARC)	MIP-1 β , R5-HIV gp120
Selective antagonists	BX471 (8.3-9), 2b-1 (8.7), UCB35625 (8.0), CP481715 (8.0), CCL4 (MIP-1β)	CCL11 (eotaxin), CCL26 (eotaxin-3), GSK Compound 34 (7.6)	Banyu Compound 1b (8.6), SB328437 (8.4), BMS Compound 87b (8.1), CXCL10 (IP10), CXCL9 (Mig), CXCL11 (I-TAC)	-	TAK779 (9.0), CCL7 (MCP-3), SCH C, SCH D, MRK-1, E913 (8.7), maraviroc, aplaviroc
Probes	[¹²⁵ I]-MIP-1 <i>a</i> ,[¹²⁵ I]- RANTES,[¹²⁵ I]-MCP-3	[¹²⁵ I]-MCP-1,[¹²⁵ I]- MCP-3	[¹²⁵ I]-RANTES,[¹²⁵ I]- eotaxin,[¹²⁵ I]-MCP-3	[¹²⁵ I]-TARC,[¹²⁵ I]- CTACK/CCL27	[125 I]-RANTES,[125 I]- MCP-2,[125 I]-MIP- 1 α ,[125 I]-MIP-1 β

Nomenclature	CCR6	CCR7	CCR8	CCR9	CCR10
Other names	GPR-CY4, CKR-L3, STRL-22, DRY-6, DCR2, BN-1, GPR29	EBI-1, BLR-2	TER1, CKR-L1, GPR-CY6, ChemR1	GPR 9-6	GPR-2
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000112486	ENSG00000126353	ENSG00000179934	ENSG00000173585	ENSG00000184451
Principal transduction	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{i/o}$
Agonists	CCL20 (LARC), HBD2	CCL19 (ELC, MIP-3 <i>β</i>), CCL21 (SLC)	CCL1 (I-309), CCL4 (MIP-1 β), CCL16 (HCC-4), CCL17 (TARC), HHV8 vMIP-I	CCL25 (TECK)	CCL27 (Eskine, ALP, CTACK), CCL28 (MEC)
Selective agonists	LARC, HBD2	ELC, SLC	I-309	TECK	Eskine, MEC
Selective antagonists	_	-	MCV MC148R (vMCC-I)	-	-
Probes	[125I]-LARC	[125I]-ELC, [125I]-SLC	[125I]-I309	[125I]-TECK	_

\$40 Chemokine Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Nomenclature	CXCR1	CXCR2	CXCR3	CXCR4	CXCR5	CXCR6
Other names	IL8R _A , IL-8 receptor type I, IL-8 receptor α	IL8R _B , IL-8 receptor type II, IL-8 receptor β	IP10/Mig R, GPR9	HUMSTSR, LESTR, fusin, HM89, LCR1	BLR-1, MDR15	STRL-33, BONZO, TYMSTR
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000163464	ENSG00000180871	ENSG00000186810	ENSG00000121966	ENSG00000160683	ENSG00000172215
Principal transduction	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{i/o}$
Agonists	CXCL6 (GCP-2), CXCL8 (IL-8),	CXCL1 (GRO α), CXCL2 (GRO β), CXCL3 (GRO γ), CXCL5 (ENA-78), CXCL6 (GCP-2), CXCL7 (NAP-2), CXCL8 (IL-8), HCMV UL146 (vCXC-1)	CXCL9 (Mig), CXCL10 (IP10), CXCL11 (I-TAC)	CXCL12 α (SDF-1 α),CXCL12 β (SDF-1 β)	CXCL13 (BLC, BCA-1)	CXCL16 (SR-PSOX)
Selective agonists	_	GRO α , GRO γ , GRO β , NAP-2, ENA78	IP10, MIG, I-TAC	SDF-1 <i>α</i> , SDF-1 <i>β</i> , X4-HIV gp120	BLC	CXCL16
Selective antagonists	_	SB225002 (7.7)	eotaxin, MCP-3	AMD3100, HIV-1 Tat, T134, ALX40-4C	_	-
Probes	[¹²⁵ I]-IL8	[¹²⁵ I]-IL8, [¹²⁵ I]-GRO <i>α</i> , [¹²⁵ I]-NAP-2, [¹²⁵ I]-ENA78	[¹²⁵ I]-IP10, [¹²⁵ I]-I-TAC/CXCL11	[¹²⁵ I]-SDF-1	-	[¹²⁵ I]-CXCL16

CXCR1 and CXCR2 also couple to phospholipase C when co-transfected with members of the $G_{q/11}$ family of G proteins. Mouse CXCR2 binds iodinated mouse KC and mouse MIP-2 with high affinity (mouse KC and MIP-2 are homologues of human GRO chemokines), but shows low affinity for human IL-8.

Nomenclature	CX ₃ CR1	XCR1
Other names	CMKBRL1, V28	GPR5
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000168329	ENSG00000173578
Principal transduction	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{i/o}$
Agonists	CX3CL1 (Fractalkine)	XCL1 α and β (Lymphotactin α and β)
Selective agonists	Fractalkine	Lymphotactin
Probes	[¹²⁵ I]-Fractalkine	SEAP-XCL1

Three human 7TM chemokine binding proteins have been identified that lack a known signalling function: 1) D6 (ENSG00000144648), which binds multiple CC chemokines and is expressed on lymphatic endothelial cells and placental trophoblasts; 2) a molecule previously inappropriately named CCR11 and now known as CCX CKR or the human homologue of the bovine gustatory receptor PPAR1 (ENSG00000118519, ENSG00000129048), which binds ELC, SLC and TECK; and 3) Duffy, a highly promiscuous CC and CXC chemokine binding protein expressed mainly on erythrocytes, endothelial cells and Purkinje cells. CXCR7 (former aliases: RDC1, CMKOR1 and GPR159, ENSG00000144476) binds CXCL11 and CXCL12 with high affinity, and is expressed in all four cardiac valves and by marginal zone B cells in mammals. Mice lacking this receptor undergo perinatal mortality because of valvular stenosis. Work in zebrafish has identified a role for a highly conserved CXCR7 homologue in shaping CXCL12 gradients, which guide primordial germ cell migration. Whether this is how it works in mammals, or whether there is, in addition, a signal transduction function for CXCR7 has not yet been fully resolved. Thus, the name CXCR7, though widely used in the field, has not yet been endorsed officially by IUPHAR. Specific chemokine receptors facilitate cell entry by microbes, such as *Plasmodium vivax*, HIV-1 and the poxvirus myxoma virus. Virally encoded chemokine receptors are known (e.g. US28, a homologue of CCR1 from human cytomegalovirus and ECRF3, a homologue of CXCR2 from *Herpesvirus saimiri*), but their role in viral life cycles is not established. Viruses can exploit or subvert the chemokine system by producing chemokine antagonists and scavengers.

The CC chemokine family (CCL1–28) includes I309 (CCL1), MCP-1 (CCL2), MIP-1 α (CCL3), MIP-1 β (CCL4), RANTES (CCL5), MCP-3 (CCL7), MCP-2 (CCL8), eotaxin (CCL11), MCP-4 (CCL13), HCC-1 (CCL14), Lkn-1/HCC-2 (CCL15), TARC (CCL17), ELC (CCL19), LARC (CCL20), SLC (CCL21), MDC (CCL22), MPIF-1 (CCL23), eotaxin-2 (CCL24), TECK (CCL25), eotaxin (CCL26), eskine/CTACK (CCL27) and MEC (CCL28). The CXC chemokine family (CXCL1–16) includes GRO α (CXCL1), GRO β (CXCL2), GRO γ (CXCL3), platelet factor 4 (CXCL4), ENA78 (CXCL5), GCP-2 (CXCL6), NAP-2 (CXCL7), IL-8 (CXCL8), MIG (CXCL9), IP10 (CXCL10), I-TAC (CXCL11), SDF-1 (CXCL12), BLC (CXCL13), BRAK (CXCL14), mouse lungkine (CXCL15) and SR-PSOX (CXCL16). The CX $_3$ C chemokine (CX3CL1) is also known as fractalkine (neurotactin in the mouse). Like CXCL16, and unlike other chemokines, CX3CL1 is multimodular containing a chemokine domain, an elongated mucin-like stalk, a transmembrane domain and a cytoplasmic tail. Both plasma membrane-associated and shed forms have been identified. The C chemokine (XCL1) is also known as lymphotactin. The non-chemokine family includes the cytokine domain of tyrosyl-tRNA synthetase, HBD2, HIV gp120 and HIV Tat. Two chemokine receptor antagonists have now been approved by the FDA: the CCR5 antagonist maraviroc (Pfizer) for treatment of HIV/AIDS in patients with CCR5-using strains; and the CXCR4 antagonist AMD3100 (Plerixifor, Mozibil from Genzyme) for hematopoietic

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

stem cell mobilization with G-CSF in patients undergoing transplantation in the context of chemotherapy for lymphoma and multiple myeloma.

Abbreviations: BLC, B-lymphocyte chemokine; ELC, Epstein–Barr virus-induced receptor ligand chemokine; ENA-78, epithelial cell-derived neutrophil-activating factor-78 amino acids; GCP-2, granulocyte chemoattractant protein 2; HBD2, human β defensin 2; HCC, hemofiltrate CC chemokine; IL-8, interleukin 8; IP-10, γ-interferon-inducible protein 10; I-TAC, interferon-inducible T-cell α chemoattractant; LARC, liver and activation-related chemokine (CCL20); MCP, monocyte chemoattractant protein; MDC, macrophage-derived chemokine; MEC, mucosa expressed chemokine; MIG, monokine-induced by γ-interferon; MIP, macrophage inflammatory protein; MPIF-1, myeloid progenitor inhibitory factor 1; NAP-2, neutrophil-activating peptide 2; RANTES, regulated on activation normal T cell expressed and secreted; SDF, stromal cell-derived factor; SLC, secondary lymphoid tissue chemokine; SEAP, secreted alkaline phosphatase; TARC, T-cell and activation-related chemokine; TECK, thymus-expressed chemokine

Further Reading

Bonecchi R, Galliera E, Borroni EM, Corsi MM, Locati M, Mantovani A (2009). Chemokines and chemokine receptors: an overview. *Front Biosci* 14: 540–551

Borroni EM, Mantovani A, Locati M, Bonecchi R (2010). Chemokine receptors intracellular trafficking. Pharmacol Ther 127: 1-8.

Horuk R (2009). Chemokine receptor antagonists: overcoming developmental hurdles. Nat Rev Drug Discov 8: 23-33.

Jones KL, Maguire JJ, Davenport AP (2011). Chemokine receptor CCR5: from AIDS to atherosclerosis. Br J Pharmacol 162: 1453–1469.

Koenen RR, Weber C (2010). Therapeutic targeting of chemokine interactions in atherosclerosis. Nat Rev Drug Discov 9: 141–153.

Lazennec G, Richmond A (2010). Chemokines and chemokine receptors: new insights into cancer-related inflammation. *Trends Mol Med* 16: 133–144.

Mellado M, Carrasco YR (2008). Imaging techniques: new insights into chemokine/chemokine receptor biology at the immune system. *Pharmacol Ther* 119: 24–32.

Mortier A, Van DJ, Proost P (2008). Regulation of chemokine activity by posttranslational modification. Pharmacol Ther 120: 197-217.

Murphy PM (2002). International Union of Pharmacology. XXX. Update on chemokine receptor nomenclature. *Pharmacol Rev* **54**: 227–229. Murphy PM, Baggiolini M, Charo IF, Hebert CA, Horuk R, Matsushima K *et al.* (2000). International Union of Pharmacology. XXII. Nomenclature for chemokine receptors. *Pharmacol Rev* **52**: 145–176.

Pease JE (2011). Targeting chemokine receptors in allergic disease. Biochem J 434: 11-24.

Salanga CL, O'Hayre M, Handel T (2009). Modulation of chemokine receptor activity through dimerization and crosstalk. *Cell Mol Life Sci* 66: 1370–1386.

Sorce S, Myburgh R, Krause KH (2011). The chemokine receptor CCR5 in the central nervous system. Prog Neurobiol 93: 297-311.

Thelen M, Munoz LM, Rodriguez-Frade JM, Mellado M (2010). Chemokine receptor oligomerization: functional considerations. *Curr Opin Pharmacol* 10: 38–43.

Wang J, Norcross M (2008). Dimerization of chemokine receptors in living cells: key to receptor function and novel targets for therapy. *Drug Discov Todav* 13: 625–632.

Ward SG, Marelli-Berg FM (2009). Mechanisms of chemokine and antigen-dependent T-lymphocyte navigation. *Biochem J* **418**: 13–27. Zlotnik A, Yoshie O (2000). Chemokines: a new classification system and their role in immunity. *Immunity* **12**: 121–127.

S42 Cholecystokinin Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Cholecystokinin

Overview: Cholecystokinin receptors (nomenclature recommended by the NC-IUPHAR Subcommittee on CCK receptors, Noble et~al., 1999) are activated by the endogenous peptides cholecystokinin (CCK)-4, CCK-8, CCK-33 and gastrin. There is evidence for species homologues of CCK₂ receptors distinguished by the relative affinities of the two stereoisomers of devazepide, R-L365260 and S-L365260, or by the differences in affinity of the agonist BC264 (Durieux et~al., 1992).

Nomenclature CCK_1 CCK_2

Other names CCK_A $CCK_B/Gastrin$ Ensembl ID ENSG0000163394 ENSG0000110148

Principal transduction $G_{g/11}/G_s$ G_s

Rank order of potency CCK-8 >>gastrin, des-CCK-8 >CCK-4 CCK-8 ≥gastrin, des-CCK-8, CCK-4

Selective agonists A71623, JMV180, GW5823 Desulfated CCK-8, gastrin, CCK-4, PBC264, RB400

Selective antagonists Devazepide (9.8), T0632 (9.6), SR27897 (9.2), IQM95333 YM022 (10.2), L740093 (10.0), GV150013 (9.3),

(9.2), PD140548 (7.9–8.6), lorglumide (7.2)

RP73870 (9.3), L365260 (7.5–8.7), LY262691 (7.5)

Probes [3H]-Devazepide (0.2 nM) [3H]-Propionyl-BC264 (0.15 nM), [3H]-PD140376

(0.2 nM), [³H]-L365260 (2 nM), [³H]- or [¹25I]-gastrin

(1 nM), [1251]-PD142308 (0.25 nM)

A mitogenic gastrin receptor, which can be radiolabelled with [125 I]-gastrin-(1–17) and which appears to couple to the G_s family of G proteins, has been described in human colon cancer cells (Bold *et al.*, 1994) and other cell lines (e.g. pancreatic AR42J and Swiss 3T3 fibroblasts, Seva *et al.*, 1994; Singh *et al.*, 1995).

Abbreviations: A71623, Boc-Trp-Lys(O-toluylaminocarbonyl)-Asp-(NMe)Phe-NH₂; BC264, Tyr(SO₃H)-gNle-mGly-Trp-(NMe)Nle-Asp-Phe-NH₂; GV150013, (+)-N-(1-[1-adamantane-1-methyl]-2,4-dioxo-5-phenyl-2,3,4,5-tetrahydro-1*H*-1,5-benzodiazepin-3-yl)-N⁷-phenylurea; GW5823, 2-[3-(1H-indazol-3-ylmethyl)-2,4-dioxo-5-phenyl-2,3,4,5-tetrahydrobenzo[b][1,4]diazepin-1-yl]-N-isopropyl-N-(methyoxyphenyl)acetamide;IQM95333, (4cs,5k)-2-benzyl-5[N-(tert-butoxycarbonyl)-L-Trp]amino-1,3-dioxoperhydropyrido[1,2-c]pyrimidine; JMV180, Boc-Tyr(SO₃H)Ahx-Gly-Trp-Ahx-Asp²phenylethyl ester; L365260, 3R(+)-N-(2,3-dihydro-1-methyl-2-oxo-5-phenyl-1H-1,4-benzodiazepin-3-yl)-Napos;-(3-N-([3R]-5-[3-azabicyclo(3.2.2]nonan-3-yl]-2,3-dihydro-1-methyl-2-oxo-1H-1,4-benzodiazepin-3-yl)-N'-(3methylphenyl)urea: L740093, methylphenyl)urea; LY262691, trans-N-(4-bromophenyl)-3-oxo-4,5-diphenyl-1-pyrrazolidinecarboxamide(3.3.1.1^{3,7}); PD140376, L-3-([4-bromophenyl)-3-oxo-4,5-diphenyl-1-pyrrazolidinecarboxamide(3.3.1.1^{3,7}); aminophenyl]methyl)-N-(α-methyl-N-[{tricyclo(3.3.1.1L-Trp)-β-Ala; PD140548, N-(α-methyl-N-[{tricyclo(3.3.1.1L-Trp)-D-3-(phenylmethyl)-β-carbonyl]amino-6-methoxy-2-oxo-1*H*-indole)propanoate; YM022. (R)-1-(2,3-dihydro-1-[2'-methylphenacyl]-2-oxo-5-phenyl-1H-1,4benzodiazepin-3-yl)-3-(3-methylphenyl)urea

Further Reading

Berna MJ, Tapia JA, Sancho V, Jensen RT (2007). Progress in developing cholecystokinin (CCK)/gastrin receptor ligands that have a therapeutic potential. *Curr Opin Pharmacol* 7: 583–592.

Cawston EE, Miller LJ (2010). Therapeutic potential for novel drugs targeting the type 1 cholecystokinin receptor. *Br J Pharmacol* **159**: 1009–1021. De Tullio P, Delarge J, Pirotte B (2000). Therapeutic and chemical developments of cholecystokinin receptor ligands. *Expert Opin Investig Drugs* **9**: 129–146.

Dockray GK (2009). Cholecystokinin and gut-brain signalling. Regul Pept 155: 6-10.

Dufresne M, Seva C, Fourmy D (2006). Cholecystokinin and gastrin receptors. Physiol Rev 86: 805-847.

Herranz R (2003). Cholecystokinin antagonists: pharmacological and therapeutic potential. Med Res Rev 23: 559-605.

Inui A (2003). Neuropeptide gene polymorphisms and human behavioural disorders. Nat Rev Drug Discov 2: 986–998.

Kopin AS, McBride EW, Schaffer K, Beinboen M (2000). CCK receptor polymorphisms: an illustration of emerging themes in pharmacogenomics. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* **21**: 346–353.

Lovick TA (2009) CCK as a modulator of cardiovascular function. J Chem Neuroanat 38: 176-184.

Miller LJ, Gao F (2008). Structural basis of cholecystokinin receptor binding and regulation. Pharmacol Ther 119: 83-95.

Moran TH (2000). Cholecystokinin and satiety: current perspectives. Nutrition 16: 858-865.

Noble F, Roques BP (1999). CCK_B receptor: chemistry, molecular biology, biochemistry and pharmacology. Prog Neurobiol 56: 1–31.

Noble F, Wank SA, Crawley JN, Bradwejn J, Seroogy KB, Hamon M, Roques BP (1999). International Union of Pharmacology. XXI. Structure, distribution, and functions of cholecystokinin receptors. *Pharmacol Rev* 51: 745–781.

Peter SA, D'Amato M, Beglinger C (2006). CCKI antagonists: are they ready for clinical use? Dig Dis 24: 70-82.

Raybould HE (2007). Mechanismsm of CCK signaling from gut to brain. Curr Opin Pharmacol 7: 570-574.

Rozengurt E, Walsh J (2001). Gastrin, CCK, signaling, and cancer. Annu Rev Physiol 63: 49-76.

References

Bold RJ et al. (1994). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 202: 1222-1226.

Durieux C et al. (1992). Mol Pharmacol 41: 1089-1095.

Seva C et al. (1994). Science 265: 410-412.

Singh P. et al. (1995). J Biol Chem 270: 8429-8438.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Corticotropin-releasing factor S43

Corticotropin-releasing factor

Overview: Corticotropin-releasing factor (CRF, nomenclature as recommended by the NC-IUPHAR on Corticotropin-releasing Factor Receptors, see Hauger *et al.*, 2003) receptors are activated by the endogenous peptides CRF (also known as corticotropin-releasing hormone [CRH], a 41 amino-acid peptide, ENSG00000147571), urocortin 1 (a 40 amino-acid peptide, ENSG00000163794), urocortin 2 (a 38 amino-acid peptide, ENSG00000145040) and urocortin 3 (a 38 amino-acid peptide, ENSG00000178473). CRF₁ and CRF₂ receptors are activated non-selectively by CRF and urocortin 1. Binding to CRF receptors can be conducted using [125 I]-Tyr 0 -CRF or [125 I]-Tyr 0 -sauvagine with K_d values of 0.1–0.4 nM. CRF₁ and CRF₂ receptors are non-selectively antagonized by α -helical CRF-(9-41), D-Phe-CRF-(12-41) and astressin.

Nomenclature CRF₁ CRF₂ Other names CRF-RA, PC-CRF CRF-RB, HM-CRF Ensembl ID ENSG00000120088 ENSG00000106113 Principal transduction G Urocortin 2 (Reyes et al., 2001), urocortin 3 (Lewis Selective agonists et al., 2001) Selective antagonists CP154526 (8.3-9.0, Lundkvist et al., 1996), NBI27914 K41498 (9.2, Lawrence et al., 2002), K31440 (8.3-9.0, Chen et al., 1996), antalarmin (8.3-9.0, Webster (8.7-8.8, Ruhmann et al., 2002), antisauvagine-30 et al., 1996), CRA1000 (8.3-9.0, Chaki et al., 1999), (Ruhmann et al., 1998) DMP696 (8.3–9.0, He et al., 2000), R121919 (8.3–9.0, Zobel et al., 2000), SRA125543A (8.7-9.0, Gully et al., 2002) CP376395 (7.8, Chen et al., 2008)

A CRF binding protein has been identified (CRF-BP, ENSG00000145708) to which both CRF and urocortin 1 bind with high affinities, which has been suggested to bind and inactivate circulating CRF (Perkins *et al.*, 1995).

Abbreviations: antalarmin, N-butyl-N-ethyl-(2,5,6-trimethyl)-7-[2,4,6-trimethylphenyl]-7H-pyrrolo[2,3-d]pyrimidin-4-yl-amine; astressin, cyc^{30-33} [D-Phe¹²,Nle^{21,38},Glu³⁰,Lys³³]CRF-(12-41); CP154526, butyl-ethyl-(2,5-dimethyl-7-[2,4,6-trimethylphenyl]-7H-pyrrolo[2,3-d]pyrimidin-4-yl)amine; CRA1000, 2-(N-[2-methylthio-4-isopropylphenyl]-N-ethyl-amino-4-[4-{3}-fluorophenyl}-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridin-1-yl]-6-methylpyrimidine); DMP696, 4-(1,3-dimethoxyprop-2-ylamino)-2,7-dimethyl-8-(2,4-dichlorophenyl)pyrazolo[1,5-a]-1,3,5-triazine; D-Phe-CRF-(12-41), D-Phe¹²,Nle^{21,38}, α MeLeu³⁷-CRF; K31440, Ac-(D-Tyr¹¹,His¹²,Nle¹⁷)sauvagine-(11-40); K41498, [D-Phe¹¹,His¹²,Nle¹⁷]sauvagine-(11-40); NBI27914, 2-methyl-4-(N-propyl-N-cyclopropanemethylamino)-5-chloro-6-(2,4,6-trichloroanilino)pyrimidine; R121919, 3-[6-(dimethylamino)-4-methyl-3-pyridinyl]-2,5-dimethyl-N-N-dipropylpyrazolo[1,5-a]pyrimidin-N-amine; SRA125543A, 4-(N-crolloro-4-methyl-N-fullo

Further Reading

Binder EB, Nemeroff CB (2010). The CRF system, stress, depression and anxiety-insights from human genetic studies. *Mol Psychiatry* **15**: 574–588. Bonci A, Borgland S (2009). Role of orexin/hypocretin and CRF in the formation of drug-dependent synaptic plasticity in the mesolimbic system. *Neuropharmacology* **56** (Suppl. 1): 107–111.

Fekete EM, Zorrilla EP (2007). Physiology, pharmacology, and therapeutic relevance of urocortins in mammals: ancient CRF paralogs. Front Neuroendocrinol 28: 1–27.

Hauger RL, Grigoriadis DE, Dallman MF, Plotsky PM, Vale WW, Dautzenberg FM (2003). International Union of Pharmacology. XXXVI. Current status of the nomenclature for receptors for corticotropin-releasing factor and their ligands. *Pharmacol Rev* 55: 21–26.

Kehne JH, Cain CK (2010). Therapeutic utility of non-peptidic CRF1 receptor antagonists in anxiety, depression, and stress-related disorders: evidence from animal models. *Pharmacol Ther* 128: 460–487.

Koob GF (2010). The role of CRF and CRF-related peptides in the dark side of addiction. Brain Res 1314: 3-14.

Tache Y, Bonaz B (2007). Corticotropin-releasing factor receptors and stress-related alterations of gut motor function. *J Clin Invest* 117: 33–40. Tsatsanis C, Dermitzaki E, Venihaki M, Chatzaki E, Minas V, Gravanis A *et al.* (2007). The corticotropin-releasing factor (CRF) family of peptides as local modulators of adrenal function. *Cell Mol Life Sci* 64: 1638–1655.

Wise RA, Morales M (2010). A ventral tegmental CRF-glutamate-dopamine interaction in addiction. Brain Res 1314: 38-43.

Ziegler CG, Krug AW, Zouboulis CC, Bornstein SR (2007). Corticotropin releasing hormone and its function in the skin. *Horm Metab Res* 39: 106–109.

References

Chaki S et al. (1999). Eur J Pharmacol 371: 205–211. Chen C et al. (1996). J Med Chem 39: 4358–4360. Chen YL et al. (2008). J Med Chem 51: 1385–1392. Gully D et al. (2002). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 301: 322–332. He L et al. (2000). J Med Chem 43: 449–456. Lawrence AJ et al. (2002). Br J Pharmacol 136: 896–904. Lewis K et al. (2001). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 98: 7570–7575. Lundkvist J et al. (1996). Eur J Pharmacol 309: 195–200. Perkins AV et al. (1995). J Endocrinol 146: 395–401. Reyes TM et al. (2001). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 98: 2843–2848. Ruhmann A et al. (1998). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 95: 15264–15269. Ruhmann A et al. (2002). Peptides 23: 453–460. Webster EL et al. (1996). Endocrinology 137: 5747–5750. Zobel AW et al. (2000). J Psychiatr Res 34: 171–181. S44 Dopamine Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Dopamine

Overview: Dopamine receptors (nomenclature as agreed by NC-IUPHAR Subcommittee on Dopamine Receptors, see Schwartz *et al.*, 1998) are commonly divided into D_1 -like (D_1 and D_5) and D_2 -like (D_2 , D_3 and D_4) families, where the endogenous agonist is dopamine. Quinpirole is an agonist with selectivity for D_2 -like receptors.

Nomenclature	D_1	D_2	D_3	D_4	D ₅
Other names	D_{1A}	_	_	_	D_{1B}
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000184845	ENSG00000149295	ENSG00000151577	ENSG00000069696	ENSG00000169676
Principal transduction	G_{s} , G_{olf}	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{i/o}$	G_s
Selective agonists	R(+)SKF81297, R(+)SKF38393	Sumanirole (McCall et al., 2005)	PD128907	PD168077, A412997 (Moreland <i>et al.</i> , 2005)	-
Selective antagonists	SCH23390, SKF83566, SCH39166	Raclopride, domperidone	S33084 (9.6, Millan et al., 2000), nafadotride (9.5), (+)S14297 (7.9, Millan et al., 1994), SB277011 (8.0, Reavill et al., 2000)	L745870 (9.3), U101958 (8.9, Schlachter <i>et al.</i> , 1997), L741742 (8.5)	_
Probes	[³ H]-SCH23390 (0.2 nM), [¹²⁵ I]-SCH23982 (0.7 nM)	[³ H]-Raclopride, [³ H]-spiperone	[³ H]-7-OH-DPAT, [³ H]-PD128907, [³ H]-spiperone	[³ H]-NGD941 (5 nM, Primus <i>et al.</i> , 1997), [¹²⁵ []-L750667 (1 nM, Patel <i>et al.</i> , 1996), [³ H]-spiperone	[¹²⁵ []-SCH23982 (0.8 nM) [³ H]-SCH23390 (0.5 nM)

The selectivity of many of these agents is less than two orders of magnitude. [3H]-Raclopride exhibits similar high affinity for D_2 and D_3 receptors (low affinity for D_4), but has been used to label D_2 receptors in the presence of a D_3 -selective antagonist. [3H]-7-OH-DPAT has similar affinity for D_2 and D_3 receptors, but labels only D_3 receptors in the absence of divalent cations. The pharmacological profile of the D_5 receptor is similar to, yet distinct from, that of the D_1 receptor. The splice variants of the D_2 receptor are commonly termed D_2 s and D_2 L (short and long). The *DRD4* gene encoding the D_4 receptor is highly polymorphic in humans, with allelic variations of the protein from amino acid 387 to 515.

 $Abbreviations: L741742, 5-(4-chlorophenyl)-4-methyl-3-(1-[2-phenethyl]piperidin-4-yl) is oxazole; L745870, 3-[\{4-(4-chlorophenyl)piperazin-1$ yl}methyl)-1*H*-pyrrolo[2,3-*b*]pyridine; L750667, iodinated L745870; NGD941, 2-phenyl-4(S)-(4-[2-pyrimidinyl]-[piperazin-1-yl]-methyl)imidazole dimaleate; (+)7-OH-DPAT, (+)-7-hydroxy-2-aminopropylaminotetralin; PD128907, R-(+)-trans-3,4,4a,10b-tetrahydro-4-propyl-PD168077, 2*H*,5*H*-[1]benzopyrano[4,3-*b*]-1,4-oxazine-9-ol; *N*-methyl-4-(2-cyanophenyl)piperazinyl-3-methylbenzamide; (+)S14297,(+)-7-(*N*,*N*-dipropylamino)-5,6,7,8-tetrahydronaphtho(2,3*b*)dihydro-2,3-furane; S33084, trans-N-(4-[2-{6-cyano-1,2,3,4-tetrahydroisoquinolin-2-3*H*-benzopyrano[3,4-*c*]pyrrole-2-yl)-butyl] (4-phenyl)benzamide; SB277011, yl}ethyl]cyclohexyl)-4-quinolininecarboxamide; SCH23390, 7-chloro-8-hydroxy-3-methyl-5-phenyl-2,3,4,5-tetrahydro-1*H*-3-benzazepine; (-)-trans-6,7,7a,8,9,13b-hexahydro-3-chloro-2-8-iodo-2,3,4,5-tetrahydro-3-methyl-5-phenyl-1*H*-3-benzazepine; SCH39166, R(+)-7,8-dihydroxy-1-phenyl-2,3,4,5-tetrahydro-1H-3-benzazepine; hydroxy-N-ethyl-5H-benzo[d]naphtho-(2,b)azepine; R(+)SKF38393, R(+)SKF81297, R(+)-6-chloro7,8-dihydroxy-1-phenyl-2,3,4,5-tetrahydro-1H-benzazepine; SKF83566, (-)-7-bromo-8-hydroxy-3-methyl-1phenyl-2,3,4,5-tetrahydro-3-benzazepine; U101958, 3-isopropoxy-N-methyl-N-(1-[phenylmethyl]-4-piperidinyl)-2-pyridinylamine

Further Reading

Beaulieu JM, Gainetdinov RR (2011). The physiology, signaling, and pharmacology of dopamine receptors. Pharmacol Rev 63: 182-217.

Bjorklund A, Dunnett SB (2007). Dopamine neuron systems in the brain: an update. Trends Neurosci 30: 194-202.

Bjorklund A, Dunnett SB (2007). Fifty years of dopamine research. Trends Neurosci 30: 185–187.

Carlsson A, Carlsson ML (2008). Adaptive properties and heterogeneity of dopamine D₂ receptors – pharmacological implications. *Brain Res Rev* 58: 374–378.

De Mei C, Ramos M, Iitaka C, Borrelli E (2009). Getting specialized: presynaptic and postsynaptic dopamine D2 receptors. *Curr Opin Pharmacol* 9: 53–58.

Giorgioni G, Piergentili A, Ruggieri S, Quaglia W (2008). Dopamine D5 receptors: a challenge to medicinal chemists. *Mini Rev Med Chem* 8: 976–995.

Hasbi A, O'Dowd BF, George SR (2010). Heteromerization of dopamine D2 receptors with dopamine D1 or D5 receptors generates intracellular calcium signaling by different mechanisms. *Curr Opin Pharmacol* 10: 93–99.

Hoebel BG, Avena NM, Rada P (2007). Accumbens dopamine-acetylcholine balance in approach and avoidance. *Curr Opin Pharmacol* 7: 617–627. Horowski R (2007). A history of dopamine agonists. From the physiology and pharmacology of dopamine to therapies for prolactinomas and Parkinson's disease – a subjective view. *J Neural Transm* 114: 127–134.

Iversen SD, Iversen LL (2007). Dopamine: 50 years in perspective. *Trends Neurosci* **30**: 188–193.

Joyce JN, Millan MJ (2007). Dopamine D3 receptor agonists for protection and repair in Parkinson's disease. *Curr Opin Pharmacol* 7: 100–105. Le Foll B, Gallo A, Le Strat Y, Lu L, Gorwood P (2009). Genetics of dopamine receptors and drug addiction: a comprehensive review. *Behav Pharmacol* 20: 1–17.

Maggio R, Millan MJ (2010). Dopamine D2-D3 receptor heteromers: pharmacological properties and therapeutic significance. *Curr Opin Pharmacol* 10: 100–107.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Ohara K (2007). The n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acid/dopamine hypothesis of schizophrenia. *Prog Neuropsychopharmacol Biol Psychiatry* 31: 469–474.

Rollo CD (2009). Dopamine and aging: intersecting facets. Neurochem Res 34: 601-629.

Rolls ET, Loh M, Deco G, Winterer G (2008). Computational models of schizophrenia and dopamine modulation in the prefrontal cortex. *Nat Rev Neurosci* 9: 696–709.

Rondou P, Haegeman G, Van Craenenbroeck K (2010). The dopamine D4 receptor: biochemical and signalling properties. *Cell Mol Life Sci* 67: 1971–1986.

Schwartz J-C et al. (1998). Dopamine receptors. In: Girdlestone D (ed.). The IUPHAR Compendium of Receptor Characterization and Classification. IUPHAR Media: London, pp. 141–151.

Scott L, Aperia A (2009). Interaction between N-methyl-D-aspartic acid receptors and D1 dopamine receptors: an important mechanism for brain plasticity. *Neuroscience* **158**: 62–66.

Stanwood GD (2008). Protein-protein interactions and dopamine D2 receptor signaling: a calcium connection. *Mol Pharmacol* **74**: 317–319. Thomas MJ, Kalivas PW, Shaham Y (2008). Neuroplasticity in the mesolimbic dopamine system and cocaine addiction. *Br J Pharmacol* **154**: 327–342.

Undieh AS (2010). Pharmacology of signaling induced by dopamine D₁-like receptor activation. Pharmacol Ther 128: 37-60.

Wood MD, Wren PB (2008). Serotonin-dopamine interactions: implications for the design of novel therapeutic agents for psychiatric disorders. *Prog Brain Res* 172: 213–230.

References

McCall RB *et al.* (2005). *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* **314**: 1248–1256. Millan MJ *et al.* (1994). *Eur J Pharmacol* **260**: R3–R5. Millan MJ *et al.* (2000). *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* **293**: 1048–1062. Moreland RB *et al.* (2005). *Pharmacol Biochem Behav* **82**: 140–147.

Patel S *et al.* (1996). *Mol Pharmacol* **50**: 1658–1664. Primus RJ *et al.* (1997). *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* **282**: 1020–1027. Reavill C *et al.* (2000). *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* **294**: 1154–1165. Schlachter SK *et al.* (1997). *Eur J Pharmacol* **322**: 283–286. \$46 Endothelin Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Endothelin

Overview: Endothelin receptors (nomenclature as agreed by NC-IUPHAR Subcommittee on endothelin receptors, Davenport, 2002) are activated by the endogenous 21 amino-acid peptides endothelin-1 (ET-1, ENSG00000078401), ET-2 (ENSG00000127129) and ET-3 (ENSG00000124205). Non-selective peptide (e.g. TAK044, pA₂ 8.4) and non-peptide (e.g. bosentan, pA₂ 6.0–7.2; SB209670, pA₂ 9.4) antagonists can block both ET_A and ET_B receptors. Splice variants of the ET_A receptor have been identified in rat pituitary cells; one of these, ET_AR-C13, appeared to show loss of function with comparable plasma membrane expression (Hatae *et al.*, 2007).

Nomenclature	ET _A	ET_B
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000151617	ENSG00000136160
Principal transduction	$G_{q/11}$, G_s	$G_{q/11}$, $G_{i/o}$
Potency order	ET-1, ET-2 > ET-3 (Maguire and Davenport, 1995)	ET-1, ET-2, ET-3
Selective agonists	_	[Ala ^{1,3,11,1s}]ET-1 (Molenaar <i>et al.</i> , 1992), sarafotoxin S6c (Russell and Davenport, 1996), IRL1620 (Watakabe <i>et al.</i> , 1992), BQ3020 (Russell and Davenport, 1996)
Selective antagonists	A127722 (9.2–10.5, Opgenorth <i>et al.</i> , 1996), LU135252 (8.9, Riechers <i>et al.</i> , 1996), SB234551 (8.7–9.0, Ohlstein <i>et al.</i> , 1998), PD156707 (8.2–8.5, Maguire <i>et al.</i> , 1997), FR139317 (7.3–7.9, Maguire and Davenport, 1995), BQ123 (6.9–7.4, Maguire and Davenport, 1995), ZD4054 (<i>p</i> IC ₅₀ 8.3, Morris <i>et al.</i> , 2005), sitaxsentan (8.0, Wu <i>et al.</i> , 1997), ambrisentan (7.1, Bolli <i>et al.</i> , 2004)	BQ788 (8.4, Russell and Davenport, 1996), A192621 (8.1, von Geldern <i>et al.</i> , 1999), IRL2500 (7.2, Russell and Davenport, 1996), Ro468443 (7.1, Breu <i>et al.</i> , 1996)
Probes	[³ H]-S0139 (0.6 nM), [³ H]-BQ123 (3.2 nM, Ihara et al., 1995), [¹²⁵ I]-PD164333 (0.2 nM, Davenport et al., 1998), [¹²⁵ I]-PD151242 (0.5 nM, Davenport et al., 1994)	[¹²⁵]-IRL1620 (20 pM, Watakabe <i>et al.</i> , 1992), [¹²⁵]-BQ3020 (0.1 nM, Molenaar <i>et al.</i> , 1992), [¹²⁵]-[Ala ^{1,3,11,15}]ET-1 (0.2 nM, Molenaar <i>et al.</i> , 1992)

Subtypes of the ET_B receptor have been proposed, although gene disruption studies in mice suggest that the heterogeneity results from a single gene product (Mizuguchi *et al.*, 1997).

trans-trans-2-(4-methoxyphenyl)-4-(1,3-benzodioxol-5-yl)-1-([N,N-dibutylamino] carbonylmethyl) pyrrolidine-trans-trans-2-(4-methoxyphenyl)-4-(1,3-benzodioxol-5-yl)-1-([N,N-dibutylamino] carbonylmethyl) pyrrolidine-trans-3-carboxylate; A192621, (2R,3R,4S)-2-(4-propoxyphenyl)-4-(1,3-benzodioxol-5-yl)-1-(N-[2,6-diethylphenyl]acetamido)pyrrolidine-3-carboxylic acid; ambrisentan, 2-(4,6-dimethylpyrimidin-2-yl)oxy-3-methoxy-3,3-diphenylpropanoic acid; BQ123, cyc(DTrp-DAsp-Pro-D-Val-Leu); N-acetyl-Leu-Met-Asp-Lys-Glu-Ala-Val-Tyr-Phe-Ala-His-Leu-Asp-Ile-Ile-Trp; BQ788, N-cis-2,6-dimethylpiperidinocarbonyl-L-y $methylleucyl-D-1-methoxycarboyl-D-norleucine; \ FR139317, \ (\textit{R})2-([\textit{R}-2-\{(\textit{S})-2-([1-\{\text{hexahydro}-1\textit{H}-\text{azepinyl}\}\text{carbonyl}]\text{amino})\text{methyl}] pentanoyl]$ amino-3-(3-[methyl-1*H*-indodyl])propionylamino-3-(2-pyridyl))propionate; IRL1620, Suc[Glu⁹,Ala^{11,15}]ET-1₁₀₋₂₁; dimethylbenzoyl)-N-methyl-(D)-(4-phenylphenyl)-Ala-Trp; LU135252, (+)-(S)-2-(4,6-dimethoxypyrimidin-2-yloxy)-3-methoxy-3,3-propionic acid; PD151242, (N-[{hexahydro-1-azepinyl}carbonyl])Leu(1-Me)-DTrp-DTyr; PD156707, 2-benzo[1,3]dioxol-5-yl-4-(4-methoxyphenyl)-4-oxo-2-benzo[1,3]dioxol-5-yl-4-(3-[2-(4-hydroxy-phenyl)-ethylcarbamoyl]-propoxy)-4,5-3-(3,4,5-trimethoxybenzyl)-but-2-enoate; PD164333, dimethoxy-phenyl-3-(4-methoxy-benzoyl)-but-2-enoate; **RES7011**, *cyc*(Gly-Asn-Trp-His-Gly-Thr-Ala-Pro-Asp)-Trp-Phe-Phe-Asn-Tyr-Trp; (R)-4-tert-butyl-N-(6-[2,3-dihydroxypropoxy]-5-[2-methoxyphenoxy]-2-[4-methoxyphenyl]-pyrimidin-4-yl)-benzenesulfonamide; \$0139, 27-O-3-(2-[3-carboxyacryloylamino]-5-hydroxyphenyl)-acryloyloxymyricone, sodium salt; \$B209670, (+)-15,2R,5-3-(2-carboxymethoxy-4-methoxyphenyl)-1-(3,4-methylenedioxyphenyl)-5-prop-1-yloxyindane-2-carboxylate; SB234551, $(E)-\alpha-([1-butyl-5-\{2-([2-butyl-5-\{2-([2-butyl-5-\{2-([2-butyl-5-\{2-([2-butyl-5-\{2-([2-butyl-5-\{2-([2-butyl-5-\{2-([2-butyl-5-\{2-([2-butyl-5-\{2-([2-butyl-5-\{2-([2-butyl-5-\{2-([2-butyl-5-\{2-([2-butyl-5-\{2-([2-butyl-5-([2-but$ carboxyphenyl]methoxy)-4-methoxyphenyl]-1*H*-pyrazol-4-yl]methylene)-6-methoxy-1,3-benzodioxole-5-propanoic acid; sitaxsentan, *N*-(4chloro-3-methyl-1,2-oxazol-5-yl)-2-[2-(6-methyl-1,3-benzodioxol-5-yl)acetyl]thiophene-3-sulfonamide; TAK044, cyc(D-Asp-Asp(Php)-Asp-D-Thg-Leu-D-Trp)-4-oxobut-2-enoate; ZD4054, N-(3-methoxy-5-methylpyrazin-2-yl)-2-(4-[1,3,4-oxadiazol-2-yl]phenyl)pyridine-3-sulfonamide

Further Reading

Bagnato A, Rosano L (2008). The endothelin axis in cancer. Int J Biochem Cell Biol 40: 1443-1451.

Davenport AP (2002). International Union of Pharmacology. XXIX. Update on endothelin receptor nomenclature. *Pharmacol Rev* **54**: 219–226. Dhaun N, Goddard J, Kohan DE, Pollock DM, Schiffrin EL, Webb DJ (2008). Role of endothelin-1 in clinical hypertension: 20 years on. *Hypertension* **52**: 452–459.

Dhaun N, Pollock DM, Goddard J, Webb DJ (2007). Selective and mixed endothelin receptor antagonism in cardiovascular disease. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 28: 573–579.

Dupuis J, Hoeper MM (2008). Endothelin receptor antagonists in pulmonary arterial hypertension. Eur Respir J 31: 407-415.

Kawanabe Y, Nauli SM (2011). Endothelin. Cell Mol Life Sci 68: 195-203.

Khodorova A, Montmayeur JP, Strichartz G (2009). Endothelin receptors and pain. J Pain 10: 4-28.

Kirkby NS, Hadoke PW, Bagnall AJ, Webb DJ (2008). The endothelin system as a therapeutic target in cardiovascular disease: great expectations or bleak house? *Br J Pharmacol* **153**: 1105–1119.

Kohan DE, Rossi NF, Inscho EW, Pollock DM (2011). Regulation of blood pressure and salt homeostasis by endothelin. *Physiol Rev* 91: 1–77. Nguyen A, Thorin-Trescases N, Thorin E (2010). Working under pressure: coronary arteries and the endothelin system. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol* 298: R1188–R1194.

Schneider MP, Boesen EI, Pollock DM. (2007). Contrasting actions of endothelin ET_A and ET_B receptors in cardiovascular disease. *Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol* 47: 731–759.

Schorlemmer A, Matter ML, Shohet RV (2008). Cardioprotective signaling by endothelin. Trends Cardiovasc Med 18: 233-239.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Endothelin \$47

Thorin E, Webb DJ (2010). Endothelium-derived endothelin-1. *Pflugers Arch* **459**: 951–958. Virdis A, Ghiadoni L, Taddei S (2010). Human endothelial dysfunction: EDCFs. *Pflugers Arch* **459**: 1015–1023. Watts SW (2010). Endothelin receptors: what's new and what do we need to know? *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol* **298**: R254–R260.

References

Bolli MH et al. (2004). J Med Chem 47: 2776–2795. Breu V et al. (1996). FEBS Lett 383: 37–41. Davenport AP et al. (1994). Br J Pharmacol 111: 4–6. Davenport AP et al. (1998). Br J Pharmacol 123: 223–230. Hatae N et al. (2007). Mol Endocrinol 21:1192–1204. Ihara M et al. (1995). Eur J Pharmacol 274: 1–6. Maguire JJ et al. (1997). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 280: 1102–1108. Maguire JJ, Davenport AP (1995). Br J Pharmacol 115: 191–197. Mizuguchi T et al. (1997). Br J Pharmacol 120: 1427–1430. Molenaar P et al. (1992). Br J Pharmacol 107: 637–639. Morris CD et al. (2005). Br J Cancer 92: 2148–2152. Ohlstein EH et al. (1998). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 286: 650–656. Opgenorth TJ et al. (1996). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 276: 473–481. Riechers H et al. (1996). J Med Chem 39: 2123–2128. Russell FD, Davenport AP (1996). Br J Pharmacol 119: 631–636. von Geldern TW et al. (1999). J Med Chem 42: 3668–3678. Watakabe T et al. (1992). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 185: 867–873. Wu C et al. (1997). J Med Chem 40: 1690–1697. S48 Formylpeptide Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Formylpeptide

Overview: The formylpeptide receptors (ENSFM00510000502765, nomenclature agreed by NC-IUPHAR Subcommittee on the formyl peptide receptor family, see Ye *et al.*, 2009) respond to exogenous ligands such as the bacterial product formyl-Met-Leu-Phe (fMLP) and endogenous ligands such as annexin I (ENSG00000135046), cathepsin G (ENSG00000100448) and spinorphin, derived from β-haemoglobin (ENSG00000244734).

Nomenclature	FPR1	FPR2/ALX	FPR3
Other names	Formyl peptide, fMLP, FPR	FPRL1, FPR2, FPRH2, RFP, ALX	FPRH1, FMLPY, RMLP-R-I, FPRL2
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000171051	ENSG00000171049	ENSG00000187474
Principal transduction	$G_{i/o}$, G_z	G _i (Maddox et al., 1997)	_
Rank order of potency	fMLP > Cathepsin G > Annexin I (Le <i>et al.,</i> 2002; Sun <i>et al.,</i> 2004)	LXA ₄ = ATL = ATLa2 > LTC ₄ = LTD ₄ >> 15-deoxy-LXA ₄ >> fMLP (Clish <i>et al.</i> , 1999; Fiore <i>et al.</i> , 1994; Fiore and Serhan, 1995; Gronert <i>et al.</i> , 2001; Takano <i>et al.</i> , 1997)	-
Selective agonists	fMLP (Le <i>et al.,</i> 1999)	LXA ₄ , ATL, ATLa2 (Guilford <i>et al.</i> , 2004), RvD1 (Krishnamoorthy <i>et al.</i> , 2010)	F2L (Migeotte et al., 2005)
Selective antagonists	Cyclosporin H (6.3-7.0, Wenzel-Seifert and Seifert, 1993), BOC-PLPLP (6.0-6.5, Wenzel-Seifert and Seifert, 1993), spinorphin (4, Liang <i>et al.</i> , 2001)	-	-
Probes	[³H]-fMLP	[³H]-LXA₄ (0.2–1.7 nM; Fiore <i>et al.</i> , 1994; Takano <i>et al.</i> , 1997)	-

Note that the data for FPR2/ALX are also reproduced on the Leukotriene, lipoxin, oxoeicosanoid and resolvin receptor pages (see Page S74).

Abbreviations: BOC-PLPLP, Boc-Phe-Leu-Phe-Leu-Phe; ATL, aspirin-triggered lipoxin A₄ [15-epi-LXA₄, 5s,6r,15r-trihydroxyl-7e,9e,13e,11z-eicosatetraenoic acid]; ATLa2, ATL analog [15-epi-16-(para-fluoro)-phenoxy-LXA₄]; F2L, an acetylated 21-aa cleavage protein of haem-binding protein (ENSG00000013583); LTC₄, leukotriene C₄; LTD₄, leukotriene D₄; LXA₄, lipoxin A₄ [5s,6r,15s-trihydroxyl-7e,9e,13e-11z-eicosatetraenoic acid]; RvD1, resolvin D1

Further Reading

Cattaneo F, Guerra G, Ammendola R (2010). Expression and signaling of formyl-peptide receptors in the brain. *Neurochem Res* **35**: 2018–2026. Dufton N, Perretti M (2010). Therapeutic anti-inflammatory potential of formyl-peptide receptor agonists. *Pharmacol Ther* **127**: 175–188. Gavins FN (2010). Are formyl peptide receptors novel targets for therapeutic intervention in ischaemia-reperfusion injury? *Trends Pharmacol Sci* **31**: 266–276.

Liberles SD, Horowitz LF, Kuang D *et al.* (2009). Formyl peptide receptors are candidate chemosensory receptors in the vomeronasal organ. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **106**: 9842–9847.

Rabiet MJ, Macari L, Dahlgren C, Boulay F (2011). N-Formyl peptide receptor 3 (FPR3) departs from the homologous FPR2/ALX receptor with regard to the major processes governing chemoattractant receptor regulation, expression at the cell surface, and phosphorylation. *J Biol Chem* **286**: 26718–26731.

Ye RD, Boulay F, Wang JM et al. (2009). International Union of Basic and Clinical Pharmacology. LXXIII. Nomenclature for the formyl peptide receptor (FPR) family. Pharmacol Rev 61: 119–161.

References

Clish CB et al. (1999). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 96: 8247–8252. Fiore S et al. (1994). J Exp Med 180: 253–260. Fiore S, Serhan CN (1995). Biochemistry 34: 16678–16686. Gronert K et al. (2001). Am J Pathol 158: 3–9. Guilford WJ et al. (2004). J Med Chem 47: 2157–2165. Krishnamoorthy S et al. (2010). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 107: 1660–1665. Le Y et al. (1999). I Immunol 163: 6777–6784.

Le Y et al. (2002). Trends Immunol 23: 541–548. Liang TS et al. (2001). J Immunol 167: 6609–6614. Maddox JF et al. (1997). J Biol Chem 272: 6972–6978. Migeotte I et al. (2005). J Exp Med 201: 83–93. Sun R et al. (2004). J Immunol 173: 428–436. Takano T et al. (1997). J Exp Med 185: 1693–1704. Wenzel-Seifert K, Seifert R (1993). J Immunol 150: 4591–4599. Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Free fatty acid \$49

Free fatty acid

Overview: Free fatty acid receptors (FFA, nomenclature as agreed by NC-IUPHAR Subcommittee on free fatty acid receptors, Stoddart *et al.*, 2008) are activated by free fatty acids. Long chain saturated and unsaturated fatty acids (C16:0, C18:0, C18:1, C18:2, C18:3,n-6, C20:4, C20:5,n-3, C22:6,n-3, Briscoe *et al.*, 2003; Itoh *et al.*, 2003; Kotarsky *et al.*, 2003) activate FFA₁ receptors, while short chain fatty acids (C2, C3, C4 and C5) activate FFA₂ (Brown *et al.*, 2003; Le Poul *et al.*, 2003; Nilsson *et al.*, 2003) and FFA₃ (Brown *et al.*, 2003; Le Poul *et al.*, 2007; Smith *et al.*, 2009) and small molecule allosteric modulators, such as 4-CMTB, have recently been characterised for FFA₂ (Lee *et al.*, 2008; Smith *et al.*, 2011).

Nomenclature	FFA ₁	FFA ₂	FFA ₃
Other names	GPR40 (Sawzdargo et al., 1997)	GPR43 (Sawzdargo et al., 1997)	GPR41 (Sawzdargo et al., 1997). LSSIG (Senga et al., 2003)
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000126266	ENSG00000126262	ENSG00000185897
Principal transduction	$G_{q/11}$ (Briscoe <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Itoh <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Stoddart <i>et al.</i> , 2007)	$G_{q/11}, G_{i/o}$ (Brown et al., 2003; Le Poul et al., 2003; Nilsson et al., 2003)	$G_{i/o}$ (Brown et al., 2003; Le Poul et al., 2003; Stoddart et al., 2007
Selective agonists	Linoleic acid (Briscoe <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Itoh <i>et al.</i> , 2003), TUG424 (<i>p</i> EC ₅₀ 7.5, Christiansen <i>et al.</i> , 2008), GW9508 (<i>p</i> EC ₅₀ 7.3; Briscoe <i>et al.</i> , 2006; Sum <i>et al.</i> , 2007), Cpd B (<i>p</i> EC ₅₀ 6.1; Tan <i>et al.</i> , 2008)	(<i>S</i>)-2-(4-chlorophenyl)- <i>N</i> -(5-fluorothiazol-2-yl)-3-methylbutanamide (<i>p</i> EC ₅₀ 6.4 Lee <i>et al.</i> , 2008)	-
Selective antagonists	GW1100 (Briscoe <i>et al.,</i> 2006; Stoddart <i>et al.,</i> 2007)	-	-

GW1100 is also an oxytocin receptor antagonist (Briscoe et al., 2006).

GPR42 (ENSG00000126251) was originally described as a pseudogene within the family (ENSFM00250000002583), but the discovery of several polymorphisms suggests that some versions of GPR42 may be functional (Liaw and Connolly, 2009). GPR120 (ENSG00000186188) and GPR84 (ENSG00000139572) are structurally-unrelated G protein-coupled receptors. GPR120 is activated by unsaturated long chain free fatty acids (Gotoh *et al.*, 2007; Hirasawa *et al.*, 2005; Katsuma *et al.*, 2005) and GW9508 (*p*EC₅₀ 5.7; Briscoe *et al.*, 2006), while GPR84 was found to respond to medium chain fatty acids (Wang *et al.*, 2006).

Abbreviations: C16:0, palmitic acid; C18:0, stearic acid; C18:1, oleic acid; C18:2, linoleic acid; C18:3,n-6, γ-linolenic acid; C2, acetic acid; C20:4, arachidonic acid; C20:5,n-3, 5z,8z,11z,14z,17z-eicosapentaenoic acid, EPA; C22:6,n-3, 4z,7z,10z,13z,16z,19z-docosahexaenoic acid, DHA; C3, propionic acid; C4, butyric acid; C5, valeric acid; 4-CMTB, 4-chloro-α-(1-methylethyl)-*N*-2-thiazolylbenzeneacetamide; Cpd B, 3-chloro-5-trifluoromethyl-pyridin-2-yl-methoxy(4-(3-methylphenyl)methyl-1,3-thiazolidinedione-2,4-dione; GW1100, ethyl 4-(5-[{2-(ethyloxy)-5-pyrimidinyl}methyl]-2-[{(4-fluorophenyl)methyl]thio}-4-oxo-1[4*H*]-pyrimidinyl)benzoate; GW9508, 3-(4-[{(3-[phenyloxy] phenyl)methyl}amino]phenyl)propanoic acid; TUG424, 4-[2-(2-methylphenyl)ethynyl]-benzenepropanoic acid

Further Reading

Alquier T, Poitout V (2009). GPR40: good cop, bad cop? Diabetes 58: 1035-1036.

Hara T, Hirasawa A, Ichimura A, Kimura I, Tsujimoto G (2011). Free fatty acid receptors FFAR1 and GPR120 as novel therapeutic targets for metabolic disorders. *J Pharm Sci* 100: 3594–3601.

Ichimura A, Hirasawa A, Hara T, Tsujimoto G (2009). Free fatty acid receptors act as nutrient sensors to regulate energy homeostasis. Prostaglandins Other Lipid Mediat 89: 82–88.

Maslowski KM, Mackay CR (2011). Diet, gut microbiota and immune responses. Nat Immunol 12: 5-9.

Milligan G, Stoddart LA, Smith NJ (2009) Agonism and allosterism: the pharmacology of the free fatty acid receptors FFA₂ and FFA₃. *Br J Pharmacol* **158**: 146–153.

Morgan NG, Dhayal S (2009). G-protein coupled receptors mediating long chain fatty acid signalling in the pancreatic beta-cell. *Biochem Pharmacol* 78: 1419–1427.

Sleeth ML, Thompson EL, Ford HE, Zac-Varghese SE, Frost G (2010). Free fatty acid receptor 2 and nutrient sensing: a proposed role for fibre, fermentable carbohydrates and short-chain fatty acids in appetite regulation. *Nutr Res Rev* 23: 135–145.

Stoddart LA, Smith NJ, Milligan G (2008). International Union of Pharmacology. LXXI. Free fatty acid receptors FFA1, -2, and -3: pharmacology and pathophysiological functions. *Pharmacol Rev* 60: 405–417.

Wellendorph P, Johansen LD, Brauner-Osborne H (2009). Molecular pharmacology of promiscuous seven transmembrane receptors sensing organic nutrients. *Mol Pharmacol* 76: 453–465.

References

Briscoe CP et al. (2003). J Biol Chem 278: 11303–11311. Briscoe CP et al. (2006). Br J Pharmacol 148: 619–628. Brown AJ et al. (2003). J Biol Chem 278: 11312–11319. Christiansen E et al. (2008). J Med Chem 51: 7061–7064. Gotoh C et al. (2007). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 354: 591–597. Hirasawa A *et al.* (2005). *Nat Med* **11**: 90–94. Itoh Y *et al.* (2003). *Nature* **422**: 173–176. Katsuma S *et al.* (2005). *J Biol Chem* **280**: 19507–19515. Kotarsky K *et al.* (2003). *Pharmacol Toxicol* **93**: 249–258. Liaw CW and Connolly DT. (2009) *DNA Cell Biol* **28**: 555–560.

S50 Free fatty acid Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Le Poul E et al. (2003). J Biol Chem 278: 25481–25489. Lee T et al. (2008). Mol Pharmacol 74: 1559–1609. Nilsson NE et al. (2003). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 303: 1047–1052. Sawzdargo M et al. (1997). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 239: 543–547. Senga T et al. (2003). Blood 101: 1185–1187. Smith NJ et al. (2009) J Biol Chem 284: 17527–17439. Smith NJ et al. (2011) Mol Pharmacol 80: 163–173. Stoddart LA et al. (2007). Mol Pharmacol 71: 994–1005. Sum CS et al. (2007). J Biol Chem 282: 29248–29255. Tan CP et al. (2008) Diabetes 57: 2211–2219. Wang J et al. (2006). J Biol Chem 281: 34457–34464. Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Frizzled S51

Frizzled

Overview: Receptors of the Class Frizzled (FZD, nomenclature as agreed by the NC-IUPHAR committee on Frizzled receptors, Schulte, 2010), which also includes Smoothened (Smo. ENSG00000128602, not considered here), are GPCR originally identified in *Drosophila* (Chan et al., 1992), which are highly conserved across species. FZD are activated by WNTs, which are lipidated, cysteine-rich glycoprotein hormones with fundamental functions in ontogeny and tissue homeostasis. FZD signalling was initially divided into two pathways, being either dependent on the accumulation of the transcription factor β -catenin (ENSG00000168036) or being β -catenin-independent (often referred to as canonical vs non-canonical WNT/FZD signaling, respectively). WNT stimulation of FZDs can, in cooperation with the low density lipoprotein receptors (LRP 5, ENSG00000162337 and LRP6, ENSG00000070018), lead to the inhibition of a constitutively active destruction complex, which results in the accumulation of β -catenin. β -Catenin, in turn, modifies gene transcription in concert with TCF/LEF transcription factors. β -Catenin-independent FZD signaling is far more complex with regard to the diversity of the activated pathways. WNT/FZD signalling can lead to the activation of pertussis toxin-sensitive heterotrimeric G proteins (Kilander et al. 2011), the elevation of intracellular calcium (Slusarski et al., 1997), activation of cGMP-specific PDE6 (Ahumada et al., 2002) and elevation of cAMP (Hansen et al., 2009). FZD signalling can also occur through Dishevelled phosphoproteins (ENSF00000001536) to RAC-1 and JNK, as well as Rho and ROCK kinases. As with other GPCRs, members of the Frizzled family are functionally dependent on the β-arrestin scaffolding protein for internalization (Chen et al., 2003), β-catenin-dependent (Bryja et al., 2007) and -independent (Bryja et al., 2008; Kim and Han, 2007) signalling. The pattern of cell signalling is complicated by the presence of additional ligands which can enhance (Norrin or R-spondin) or inhibit FZD function (secreted Frizzled-related proteins [sFRP], Wnt inhibitory factor [WIF], SOST or Dickkopf), as well as modulatory proteins with positive (Ryk, ENSG00000163785; ROR1, ENSG00000185483 and ROR2, ENSG00000169071, see Page S183) and negative (Kremen) regulatory features, which may also function as independent signalling proteins.

Nomenclature	Other names	Ensembl ID
FZD ₁	Frizzled-1	ENSG00000157240
FZD ₂	Frizzled-2	ENSG00000180340
FZD₃	Frizzled-3	ENSG00000104290
FZD ₄	Frizzled-4, CD344	ENSG00000174804
FZD₅	Frizzled-5	ENSG00000163251
FZD ₆	Frizzled-6	ENSG00000164930
FZD ₇	Frizzled-7	ENSG00000155760
FZD ₈	Frizzled-8	ENSG00000177283
FZD ₉	Frizzled-9, CD349	ENSG00000188763
FZD ₁₀	Frizzled-10, CD350	ENSG00000111432

There is limited knowledge about WNT/FZD specificity and which molecular entities determine the signalling outcome of a specific WNT/FZD pair. There is also a scarcity of information on basic pharmacological characteristics of FZDs, such as binding constants, ligand specificity or concentration-response relationships (see Kikuchi *et al.*, 2009).

Ligands associated with FZD signalling

WNTs: WNT1 (ENSG00000125084), WNT2 (ENSG00000105989, also known as Int-1-related protein), WNT2B (ENSG00000134245, also known as WNT-13), WNT3 (ENSG00000108379), WNT3A (ENSG00000154342), WNT4 (ENSG00000162552), WNT5A (ENSG00000114251), WNT5B (ENSG00000111186), WNT6 (ENSG00000115596), WNT7A (ENSG00000154764), WNT7B (ENSG00000188064), WNT8A (ENSG0000061492), WNT8B (ENSG00000075290), WNT9A (ENSG00000143816, also known as WNT-14), WNT9B (ENSG00000158955, also known as WNT-15 or WNT-14b), WNT10A (ENSG00000135925), WNT10B (ENSG00000169884, also known as WNT-12), WNT11 (ENSG00000085741) and WNT16 (ENSG00000002745).

Extracellular proteins that interact with FZDs: Norrin (ENSG00000124479), R-spondin 1 (ENSG00000169218), R-spondin 2 (ENSG00000147655), R-spondin 3 (ENSG00000146374), R-spondin 4 (ENSG00000101282), sFRP 1 (ENSG00000104332), sFRP 2 (ENSG00000145423), sFRP 3 (ENSG00000162998), sFRP 4 (ENSG00000106483), sFRP 5 (ENSG00000120057),

Extracellular proteins that interact with WNTs or LRPs: Dickkopf 1 (ENSG00000104901), WIF 1 (ENSG00000156076), SOST (ENSG00000167941), Kremen 1 (ENSG00000183762) and Kremen 2 (ENSG00000131650)

Abbreviations: FZD, Frizzled; TCF/LEF, T cell factor/lymphoid enhancer binding factor

Further Reading

Angers S, Moon RT (2009). Proximal events in Wnt signal transduction. Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol 10: 468-477.

Blankesteijn WM, van de Schans VA, ter Horst P, Smits JF (2008). The Wnt/frizzled/GSK-3β pathway: a novel therapeutic target for cardiac hypertrophy. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* **29**: 175–180.

Chien AJ, Moon RT (2007). WNTS and WNT receptors as therapeutic tools and targets in human disease processes. *Front Biosci* 12: 448–457. Egger-Adam D, Katanaev VL (2008). Trimeric G protein-dependent signaling by Frizzled receptors in animal development. *Front Biosci* 13: 4740–4755.

Jin T, Fantus IG, Sun J (2008). Wnt and beyond Wnt: multiple mechanisms control the transcriptional property of β -catenin. *Cell Signal* 20: 1697–1704.

Kikuchi A, Yamamoto H, Kishida S (2007). Multiplicity of the interactions of Wnt proteins and their receptors. Cell Signal 19: 659-671.

\$52 Frizzled Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Kikuchi A, Yamamoto H, Sato A (2009). Selective activation mechanisms of Wnt signaling pathways. Trends Cell Biol 19: 119–129.

Luo J, Chen J, Deng ZL, Luo X, Song WX, Sharff KA *et al.* (2007). Wnt signaling and human diseases: what are the therapeutic implications? *Lab Invest* 87: 97–103.

Maiese K, Li F, Chong ZZ, Shang YC (2008). The Wnt signaling pathway: aging gracefully as a protectionist? *Pharmacol Ther* 118: 58–81. Salinas PC, Zou Y (2008). Wnt signaling in neural circuit assembly. *Annu Rev Neurosci* 31: 339–358.

Schulte G (2010). International Union of Basic and Clinical Pharmacology. LXXX. The class frizzled receptors. Pharmacol Rev 62: 632-667.

Schulte G, Bryja V (2007). The frizzled family of unconventional G-protein-coupled receptors. Trends Pharmacol Sci 28: 518-525.

Schulte G, Schambony A, Bryja V (2010). β-Arrestins – scaffolds and signalling elements essential for WNT/Frizzled signalling pathways? *Br J Pharmacol* **159**: 1051–1058.

Seifert JR, Mlodzik M (2007). Frizzled/PCP signalling: a conserved mechanism regulating cell polarity and directed motility. *Nat Rev Genet* 8: 126–138

Speese SD, Budnik V (2007). Wnts: up-and-coming at the synapse. Trends Neurosci 30: 268-275.

Staal FJ, Luis TC, Tiemessen MM (2008). WNT signalling in the immune system: WNT is spreading its wings. *Nat Rev Immunol* 8: 581–593. van de Schans VA, Smits JF, Blankesteijn WM (2008). The Wnt/frizzled pathway in cardiovascular development and disease: friend or foe? *Eur J Pharmacol* 585: 338–345.

References

Ahumada A et al. (2002). Science 298: 2006–2010. Bryja V et al. (2007). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 104: 6690–6695. Bryja V et al. (2008). EMBO Rep 9: 1244–1250. Chan SD et al. (1992). J Biol Chem 267: 25202–25207. Chen W et al. (2003). Science 301: 1394–1397. Hansen C *et al.* (2009). *J Biol Chem* **284**: 2513–2526. Kilander MBC *et al.* (2011). *Cell Signal* **23**:550–554. Kim GH, Han JK (2007). *EMBO J* **26**: 2513–2526. Slusarski DC *et al.* (1997). *Nature* **390**: 410–413.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA GABA_B S53

GABA_B

Overview: Functional GABA_B receptors (nomenclature agreed by NC-IUPHAR Subcommittee on GABA_B receptors, Bowery et al., 2002; see also Pin et al., 2007) are formed from the heterodimerization of two similar 7TM subunits termed GABA_{R1} and GABA_{R2} (Bowery et al., 2002; Pin et al., 2004; Emson, 2007; Pin et al., 2007; Ulrich and Bettler, 2007). GABAB receptors are widespread in the CNS and regulate both pre- and post-synaptic activity. The GABA_{B1} subunit, when expressed alone, binds both antagonists and agonists, but the affinity of the latter is generally 10-100-fold less than for the native receptor. The GABA_{B1} subunit when expressed alone is not transported to the cell membrane and is non-functional. Co-expression of GABA_{B1} and GABA_{B2} subunits allows transport of GABA_{B1} to the cell surface and generates a functional receptor that can couple to signal transduction pathways such as high-voltage-activated Ca²⁺ channels (Ca_v2.1, Ca_v2.2), or inwardly rectifying potassium channels (Kir3) (Bowery and Enna, 2000; Bowery et al., 2002; Bettler et al., 2004). The GABAB2 subunit also determines the rate of internalisation of the dimeric GABA_B receptor (Hannan et al., 2011). The GABA_{B1} subunit harbours the GABA (orthosteric)-binding site within an extracellular domain (ECD) venus flytrap module (VTM), whereas the GABA_{B2} subunit mediates G-protein coupled signalling (Bowery et al., 2002, Pin et al., 2004). The two subunits interact by direct allosteric coupling (Monnier et al., 2011) such that GABA_{B2} increases the affinity of GABA_{B1} for agonists and reciprocally GABA_{B1} facilitates the coupling of GABA_{B2} to G proteins (Pin et al., 2004; Kubo and Tateyama, 2005). GABA_{B1} and GABA_{B2} subunits assemble in a 1:1 stoichiometry by means of a coiled-coil interaction between α-helices within their carboxy-termini that masks an endoplasmic reticulum retention motif (RXRR) within the GABA_{B1} subunit but other domains of the proteins also contribute to their heteromerization (Bettler et al., 2004; Pin et al., 2004). Recent evidence indicates that higher order assemblies of GABA_B receptor comprising dimers of heterodimers occur in recombinant expression systems and in vivo and that such complexes exhibit negative functional cooperativity between heterodimers (Pin et al., 2009; Comps-Agrar et al., 2011). Adding further complexity, KCTD (potassium channel tetramerization proteins) 8, 12, 12b and 16 associate as tetramers with the carboxy terminus of the GABA_{B2} subunit to impart altered signalling kinetics and agonist potency to the receptor complex (Bartoi et al., 2010; Schwenk et al., 2010 and reviewed by Pinard et al., 2010). Four isoforms of the human GABA_{B1} subunit have been cloned. The predominant GABA_{B1(a)} and GABA_{B1(b)} isoforms, which are most prevalent in neonatal and adult brain tissue respectively, differ in their ECD sequences as a result of the use of alternative transcription initiation sites. GABA_{B1(a)}-containing heterodimers localise to distal axons and mediate inhibition of glutamate release in the CA3-CA1 terminals, and GABA release onto the layer 5 pyramidal neurons, whereas GABA_{B1(b)}-containing receptors occur within dendritic spines and mediate slow postsynaptic inhibition (Vigot et al., 2006; Pérez-Garci et al., 2006). Isoforms generated by alternative splicing are GABA_{B1(c)} that differs in the ECD, and GABA_{B1(e)}, which is a truncated protein that can heterodimerize with the GABAB2 subunit but does not constitute a functional receptor. Only the 1a and 1b variants are identified as components of native receptors (Bowery et al., 2002). Additional GABA_{B1} subunit isoforms have been described in rodents and humans (Lee et al., 2010 and reviewed by Bettler et al., 2004).

Nomenclature GABA_B

Ensembl ID GABA₈₁ ENSG00000237051; GABA₈₂ ENSG00000136928

Principal transduction G_{i/c}

Selective agonists 3-APPA (CGP27492, 5 nM), 3-APMPA (CGP35024, 16 nM), (R)-(-)-baclofen (32 nM), CGP44532 (45 nM)

Selective antagonists CGP62349 (2.0 nM), CGP55845A (6 nM), SCH50911 (3 μM), 2-hydroxy-s-(-)-saclofen (11 μM),

CGP35348 (27 µM)

Probes (*K*_D) [³H](*R*)-(-)-baclofen, [³H]CGP54626 (1.5 nM; Bittiger *et al.*, 1992), [³H]CGP62349 (0.9 nM, Keir *et al.*, 1999), [¹²5l]CGP64213 (1 nM, Galvez *et al.*, 2000), [¹²5l]CGP71872 (*K_i* = 0.5 nM, Belley *et al.*, 1999)

Potencies of agonists and antagonists listed in the table, quantified as IC₅₀ values for the inhibition of [³H]CGP27492 binding to rat cerebral cortex membranes, are from Froestl and Mickel (1997), Bowery *et al.* (2002) and Froestl (2011). Radioligand *K_D* values relate to binding to rat brain membranes. CGP71872 is a photoaffinity ligand for the GABA_{B1} subunit (Belley *et al.*, 1999). CGP27492, CGP35024 and CGP44532 act as antagonists at human GABA_A ρ1 receptors, with potencies in the low micromolar range (Froestl, 2011). In addition to the ligands listed in the table, Ca²+ binds to the VTM of the GABA_{B1} subunit to act as a positive allosteric modulator of GABA (Galvez *et al.*, 2000). In cerebellar Purkinje neurones, the interaction of Ca²+ with the GABA_B receptor enhances the activity of mGlu₁ through functional cross-talk involving G-protein Gβγ subunits (Tabata *et al.*, 2004; Rives *et al.*, 2009). Synthetic positive allosteric modulators with low, or no, intrinsic activity include CGP7930, GS39783, BHF177 and (+)-BHFF (Bettler *et al.*, 2004; Binet *et al.*, 2004; Adams and Lawrence, 2007; Froestl, 2011). The site of action of CGP7930 and GS39783 appears to be on the heptahelical domain of the GABA_{B2} subunit (Pin *et al.*, 2004; Dupuis *et al.*, 2006). In the presence of CPG7930, or GS39783, CGP35348 and 2-hydroxy-saclofen behave as partial agonists (Froestl, 2011). Knock-out of the GABA_{B1} subunit in C57B mice causes the development of severe tonic-clonic convulsions that prove fatal within a month of birth, whereas GABA_{B1} BALB/c mice, although also displaying spontaneous epileptiform activity, are viable. The phenotype of the latter animals additionally includes hyperalgesia, hyperlocomotion (in a novel, but not familiar, environment), hyperdopaminergia, memory impairment and behaviours indicative of anxiety (Enna and Bowery, 2004; Vacher *et al.*, 2006). A similar phenotype has been found for GABA_{B2}-^{1/-} BALB/c mice (Gassmann *et al.*, 2004).

Abbreviations: 3-APMPA (CGP35024), 3-amino-propyl-(P-methyl)-phosphinic acid; 3-APPA (CGP27492), 3-amino-propyl-phosphinic acid; (+)-BHFF, (-)-5,7-di-tert-butyl-3-hydroxy-3-trifluoromethyl-3H-benzofuran-2-one; BHF177, (1*R*,2*R*,45)-bicyclo[2.2.1]hept-2-yl]-2-methyl-5-[4-(trifluoromethyl)phenyl]-4-pyrimidinamine; CGP7930, 2,6-Di-*tert*-butyl-4-(3-hydroxy-2,2-dimethyl-propyl)-phenol; CGP35348, p-(3-dimethyl-propyl)-phenol; CGP35348, p-(3-dimethyl-propy aminopropyl)-P-diethoxymethylphosphinic acid; CGP44532, 3-amino-2-hydroxypropylmethylphosphinic acid; CGP54626, [S-(R,R)]-[3-[[1-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)ethyl]amino]-2-hydroxypropyl](cyclohexylmethyl)phosphinic acid; CGP55845A, 3-[-1-(S)-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-ethyl] [3-[1-R-[[3-(methoxyphenylmethyl)hydroxyphosphinyl]-2(5)amino-2(S)-hydroxypropyl-(P-benzyl)-phosphinic acid: CGP62349, [3-[-(R)-[[3-5N-[1-[2-[[3-iodo-4-hydroxyphenyl]ethyl]carboxamido]pentyl] hydroxypropyl]amino|ethyl]-benzoic acid; CGP64213, $hydroxyphosphinyl] \hbox{-} 2(S) \hbox{-} hydroxy-propyl] amino] \hbox{ethyl-benzoic}$ CGP71872, 3-(1-(R)-(3-((5-(4-azido-2-hydroxy-5acid; iodobenzoylamino)pentyl)hydroxyphosphoryl)-2-(S)-hydroxypropylamino)ethyl)benzoic acid; GS39783, N,N'-dicyclopentyl-2-methylsulfanyl-5-nitro-pyrimidine-4,6-diamine; SCH50911, (+)-(2S)-5,5-dimethyl-2-morpholineacetic acid; VTM, Venus flytrap module

S54 GABA_B Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Further Reading

Benke D (2010). Mechanisms of GABA_B receptor exocytosis, endocytosis, and degradation. Adv Pharmacol 58: 93-111.

Bettler B, Kaupmann K, Mosbacher J, Gassmann M (2004). Molecular structure and physiological functions of GABA_B receptors. *Physiol Rev* 84: 835–367.

Bowery, N.G. (2000). Pharmacology of GABA_B receptors. In: Möhler H (ed.). *Handbook of Experimental Pharmacology, Pharmacology of GABA and Glycine Neurotransmission*, Vol. 150. Springer: Berlin, pp 311–328.

Bowery NG (2006). GABA_B receptor: a site of therapeutic benefit. Curr Opin Pharmacol 6: 37-43.

Bowery NG, Enna SJ (2000). γ-Aminobutyric acid_B receptors: first of the functional metabotropic heterodimers. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* 292: 2–7. Bowery NG, Bettler B, Froestl W, Gallagher JP, Marshall F, Raiteri M *et al.* (2002). International Union of Pharmacology XXXIII. Mammalian γ-aminobutyric acid_B receptors: structure and function. *Pharmacol Rev* 54: 247–264.

Emson PC (2007). GABA_B receptors: structure and function. Prog Brain Res 160: 43-57.

Enna SJ, Bowery NG (2004). GABA_B receptor alterations as indicators of physiological and pharmacological function. *Biochem Pharmacol* 68: 1541–1548.

Froestl W (2011). An historical perspective on GABAergic drugs. Future Med Chem 3: 163-175.

Froestl W, Mickel SW (1997). Chemistry of GABA_B modulators. In: Enna SJ, Bowery NG (eds). *The GABA Receptors*. Humana Press: Totowa, pp. 271–296.

Kornau HC (2006). GABA_B receptors and synaptic modulation. Cell Tissue Res 326: 517-533.

Kubo Y, Tateyama M (2005). Towards a view of functioning dimeric metabotropic receptors. Curr Opin Neurobiol 15: 289–295.

Lehmann A, Jensen JM, Boeckxstaens GE (2010). GABA_B receptor agonism as a novel therapeutic modality in the treatment of gastroesophageal reflux disease. *Adv Pharmacol* **58**:287–313.

Marshall FH, Foord SM (2010). Heterodimerization of the GABA_B receptor-implications for GPCR signaling and drug discovery. *Adv Pharmacol* 58: 63–91.

Padgett CL, Slesinger PA (2010). GABA_B receptor coupling to G-proteins and ion channels. Adv Pharmacol 58: 123-147.

Pin J-P, Kniazeff J, Binet V, Liu J, Maurel D, Galvez T *et al.* (2004). Activation mechanism of the heterodimeric GABA_B receptor. *Biochem Pharmacol* **68**: 1565–1572.

Pin J-P, Comps-Agrar L, Maurel D, Monnier C, Rives ML, Trinquet E *et al.* (2009). G-protein-coupled receptor oligomers: two or more for what? Lessons from mGlu and GABA_B receptors. *J Physiol* **587**: 5337–5544.

Pin J-P, Neubig R, Bouvier M, Devi L, Filizola M, Javitch JA et al. (2007). International Union of Basic and Clinical Pharmacology. LXVII. Recommendations for the recognition and nomenclature of G protein-coupled receptor heteromultimers. Pharmacol Rev 59: 5–13.

Pinard A, Seddik R, Bettler B. (2010). GABA_B receptors: physiological functions and mechanisms of diversity. Adv Pharmacol 58: 231-255.

Rondard P, Goudet C, Kniazeff J, Pin J-P, Prézeau L (2011). The complexity of their activation mechanism opens new possibilities for the modulation of mGlu and GABAB class C G protein-coupled receptors. *Neuropharmacology* 60: 82–92.

Ulrich D, Bettler B (2007). GABA_B receptors: synaptic functions and mechanisms of diversity. Curr Opin Neurobiol 17: 298-303.

References

Adams CL, Lawrence AJ (2007). CNS Drug Rev 13: 308–316.
Bartoi T et al. (2010). J Biol Chem 285: 20625–20633.
Belley M et al. (1999). Bioorg Med Chem 7: 2697–2704.
Binet V et al. (2004). J Biol Chem 279: 29085–29091.
Bittiger H et al. (1992). Pharmacol Commun 2: 23.
Comps-Agrar L et al. (2011). EMBO J (doi:10.1038/emboj.2011.143).
Dupuis DS et al. (2006). Mol Pharmacol 70: 2027–2036.
Galvez T et al. (2000). Mol Pharmacol 57: 419–426.
Gassmann M et al. (2004). J Neurosci 42: 6086–6097.

Keir MJ et al. (1999). Brain Res Mol Brain Res 71: 279–289. Lee C et al. (2010). PLoS ONE 5: e14044. Monnier C et al. (2011). EMBO J 30: 32–42. Pérez-Garci E et al. (2006). Neuron 50: 603–616. Rives ML et al. (2009). EMBO J 28: 2195–2208. Schwenk J et al. (2010). Nature 465: 231–235. Tabata T et al. (2004). Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 101: 16952–16957. Vacher CM et al. (2006). J Neurochem 97: 979–991. Vigot R et al. (2006). Neuron 50: 589–601. Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Galanin \$55

Galanin

Overview: Galanin receptors (provisional nomenclature, see Foord *et al.*, 2005) are activated by the endogenous peptides galanin (ENSG00000069482) and galanin-like peptide (GALP, ENSG00000197487). Human galanin is a 30 amino-acid non-amidated peptide (Evans and Shine, 1991); in other species, it is 29 amino acids long and C-terminally amidated. Amino acids 1–14 of galanin are highly conserved in mammals, birds, reptiles, amphibia and fish. Shorter peptide species (e.g. human galanin-1–19, (Bersani *et al.*, 1991a) and porcine galanin-5–29 (Sillard *et al.*, 1992)) and *N*-terminally extended forms (e.g. N-terminally seven and nine residue elongated forms of porcine galanin (Bersani *et al.*, 1991b; Sillard *et al.*, 1992)) have been reported.

Nomenclature	GAL ₁	GAL_2	GAL ₃
Other names	Galanin-1 receptor, GALR1	Galanin-2 receptor, GALR2	Galanin-3 receptor, GALR3
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000166573	ENSG00000182687	ENSG00000128310
Principal transduction	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{i/o}$, $G_{q/11}$	$G_{i/o}$
Rank order of potency	Galanin>GALP (Ohtaki et al., 1999)	GALP≥galanin (Ohtaki <i>et al.</i> , 1999)	GALP>galanin (Lang et al., 2005)
Selective agonists	-	Galanin-(2–29) (Fathi <i>et al.</i> , 1997; Wang <i>et al.</i> , 1997), D-Trp²-galanin-(1–29) (Smith <i>et al.</i> , 1997)	-
Selective antagonists	2,3-Dihydro-dithiin-1,4-dithiin- 1,1,4,4-tetroxide (Scott <i>et al.,</i> 2000)	M871 (7.9, Sollenberg et al., 2006)	-

Galanin-(1–11) is a high-affinity agonist at GAL₁/GAL₂ (pK₁ 9) and galanin-(2–11) is selective for GAL₂ and GAL₃ compared to GAL₁ (Lu *et al.*, 2005). [¹²⁵I]-[Tyr²⁶]galanin binds to all three subtypes with K_d values ranging from 0.05 to 1 nM (Skofitsch *et al.*, 1986; Smith *et al.*, 1997;1998; Wang *et al.*, 1997; Fitzgerald *et al.*, 1998). Porcine galanin-(3–29) does not bind to cloned GAL₁, GAL₂ or GAL₃ receptors, but a receptor that is functionally activated by porcine galanin-(3–29) has been reported in pituitary and gastric smooth muscle cells (Wynick *et al.*, 1993; Gu *et al.*, 1995). Additional galanin receptor subtypes are also suggested from studies with chimeric peptides (e.g. M15, M35 and M40), which act as antagonists in functional assays in the cardiovascular system (Ulman *et al.*, 1993), spinal cord (Wiesenfeld-Hallin *et al.*, 1992), locus coeruleus, hippocampus (Bartfai *et al.*, 1991) and hypothalamus (Leibowitz and Kim, 1992; Bartfai *et al.*, 1993), but exhibit agonists activity at some peripheral sites (Bartfai *et al.*, 1993; Gu *et al.*, 1995). The chimeric peptides M15, M32, M35, M40 and C7 are agonists at GAL₁ receptors expressed endogenously in Bowes human melanoma cells (Ohtaki *et al.*, 1999), and at heterologously expressed recombinant GAL₁, GAL₂ and GAL₃ receptors (Smith *et al.*, 1997; Fitzgerald *et al.*, 1998).

Abbreviations: C7, galanin-(1–13)-spantide; M15, galanin-(1–13)-substance P-5–11 amide, also known as galantide; M32, galanin-(1–13)-neuropeptide Y amide-(25–36) amide; M35, galanin-(1–13)-bradykinin-(2–9) amide; M40, galanin-(1–13)-Pro-Pro-Ala-Leu-Ala-Leu-Ala amide; M871, galanin-(2–13)-Glu-His-(Pro)₃-(Ala-Leu)₂-Ala-amide

Further Reading

Bauer JW, Lang R, Jakab M, Kofler B (2008). Galanin family of peptides in skin function. Cell Mol Life Sci 65: 1820-1825.

Foord SM, Bonner TI, Neubig RR, Rosser EM, Pin JP, Davenport AP et al. (2005). International Union of Pharmacology. XLVI. G protein-coupled receptor list. Pharmacol Rev 57: 279–288.

Hökfelt T (ed.) (2010) Galanin. In: Experientia Supplementum, Vol. 102. Springer AG: Basel.

Lang R, Gundlach AL, Kofler B (2007). The galanin peptide family: receptor pharmacology, pleiotropic biological actions, and implications in health and disease. *Pharmacol Ther* 115: 177–207.

Lang R, Kofler B (2011) The galanin peptide family in inflammation. Neuropeptides 45: 1-8.

Lawrence C, Fraley GS (2011). Galanin-like peptide (GALP) is a hypothalamic regulator of energy homeostasis and reproduction. Front Neuroendocrinol 32: 1–9.

Man PS, Lawrence CB (2008). Galanin-like peptide: a role in the homeostatic regulation of energy balance? Neuropharmacology 55: 1–7.

Mitsukawa K, Lu X, Bartfai T (2008). Galanin, galanin receptors and drug targets. Cell Mol Life Sci 65: 1796–1805.

Moreno E, Vaz SH, Cai NS, Ferrada C, Quiroz C, Barodia SK, Kabbani N, Canela EI, McCormick PJ, Lluis C, Franco R, Ribeiro J, Sebastião AM, Ferré S (2011) Dopamine-galanin receptor heteromers modulate cholinergic neurotransmission in the rat ventral hippocampus. *J Neurosci* 31: 7412–7423.

Ogren SO, Kuteeva E, Elvander-Tottie E, Hokfelt T (2010). Neuropeptides in learning and memory processes with focus on galanin. *Eur J Pharmacol* **626**: 9–17.

Wraith DC, Pope R, Butzkueven H, Holder H, Vanderplank P, Lowrey P, Day MJ, Gundlach AL, Kilpatrick TJ, Scolding N, Wynick D (2009) A role for galanin in human and experimental inflammatory demyelination. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 106: 15466–15471.

References

Bartfai T *et al.* (1991). *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **88**: 10961–10965. Bartfai T *et al.* (1993). *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **90**: 11287–11291.

Bersani M *et al.* (1991a). *FEBS Lett* **283**: 189–194. Bersani M *et al.* (1991b). *Endocrinology* **129**: 2693–2698. Evans HF, Shine J (1991). *Endocrinol* **129**: 1682–1684. Fathi Z et al. (1997). Mol Brain Res 51: 49–59. Fitzgerald LW et al. (1998). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 287: 448–456. Gu ZF et al. (1995). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 272: 371–378. Lang R et al. (2005). Neuropeptides 39: 179–184. Leibowitz SF, Kim T (1992). Brain Res 599: 148–152. Lu X et al. (2005). Neuropeptides 39: 165–167. \$56 Galanin Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Ohtaki T et al. (1999). J Biol Chem 274: 37041–37045. Scott MK et al. (2000). Bioorg Med Chem 8: 1383–1391. Sillard R et al. (1992). Peptides 13: 1055–1060. Skofitsch G et al. (1986). Peptides 7: 1029–1042. Smith KE et al. (1997). J Biol Chem 272: 24612–24616. Smith KE et al. (1998). J Biol Chem 273: 23321–23326. Sollenberg UE *et al.* (2006). *Int J Pept Res Ther* **12**: 115–119. Ulman LG *et al.* (1993). *J Physiol* **464**: 491–499. Wang S *et al.* (1997). *Mol Pharmacol* **52**: 337–343. Wiesenfeld-Hallin Z *et al.* (1992). *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **89**: 3334–3337. Wynick D *et al.* (1993). *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **90**: 4231–4235.

Ghrelin S57 Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Ghrelin

Overview: Ghrelin receptors (see Davenport et al., 2005) are activated by a 28 amino-acid peptide originally isolated from rat stomach, where it is cleaved from a 117 amino-acid precursor (ENSG00000157017). The human gene encoding the precursor peptide has 83% sequence homology to rat prepro-ghrelin, although the mature peptides from rat and human differ by only two amino acids (Matsumoto et al., 2001). Alternative splicing results in the formation of a second peptide, des-Gln¹⁴-ghrelin with equipotent biological activity (Hosoda et al., 2000). A unique post-translational modification (octanoylation of Ser³, catalysed by ghrelin O-acyltransferase [MBOAT4, ENSG00000177669], Yang et al., 2008) occurs in both peptides, essential for full activity in binding to the ghrelin receptors in the hypothalamus and pituitary; and the release of growth hormone release from the pituitary (Kojima et al., 1999). Structure activity studies showed the first five N-terminal amino acids to be the minimum required for binding (Bednarek et al., 2000) and receptor mutagenesis has indicated overlap of the ghrelin binding site with those for small molecule agonists and allosteric modulators of ghrelin function (Holst et al., 2009). In cell systems, the ghrelin receptor is constitutively active (Holst and Schwartz, 2004), but this is abolished by a naturally occurring mutation (A204E) that results in decreased cell surface receptor expression and is associated with familial short stature (Pantel et al., 2006).

Nomenclature Ghrelin

Other names GHS-R1a (Growth hormone secretagogue receptor type 1), growth hormone-releasing peptide receptor

Ensembl ID ENSG00000121853

Principal transduction $G_{q/11}$

Ghrelin=des-Gln-ghrelin (Matsumoto et al., 2001; Bedendi et al., 2003) Rank order of potency

Selective antagonists YIL781 (K_B 11 nM) (Esler et al., 2007)

[1251-His9]-ghrelin (0.4 nM, Katugampola et al., 2001), [1251-Tyr4]-ghrelin (0.5 nM, Bedendi et al., 2003), **Probes**

[1251]-Tyr4-des-octanoyl (0.7 nM, Bedendi et al., 2003)

Des-octanoyl ghrelin has been shown to bind (as [125I]-Tyr4-des-octanoyl ghrelin) and have effects in the cardiovascular system (Bedendi et al., 2003), which raises the possible existence of different receptor subtypes in peripheral tissues and the central nervous sysytem. A potent inverse agonist has been identified ([D-Arg¹, D-Phe⁵, D-Trp 7,9 ,Leu 11]-substance P, pD_2 8.3; Holst et al., 2003). TZP101, described as a ghrelin receptor agonist (pK₁ 7.8 and pD₂ 7.5 at human recombinant ghrelin receptors), has been shown to stimulate ghrelin receptor mediated food intake and gastric emptying but not elicit release of growth hormone, or modify ghrelin stimulated growth hormone release, thus pharmacologically discriminating the orexigenic and gastrointestinal actions of ghrelin from the release of growth hormone (Fraser et al., 2008).

TZP101, (4R,7S,10R,13R)-7-cyclopropyl-13-(4-fluorobenzyl)-3-oxa-6,9,12,15-tetraaza-4,9,10-trimethyl-4,5,6,7,10,12,13,15, 16,17,18-undecahydro-1,2-benzocyclooctadecene-8,11,14-trione; YIL781, 6-(4-fluorophenoxy)-3-([(3s)-1-isopropylpiperidin-3-yl]methyl)-2methylquinazolin-4(3H)-one

Further Reading

Andrews ZB (2011). The extra-hypothalamic actions of ghrelin on neuronal function. Trends Neurosci 34: 31-40.

Angelidis G, Valotassiou V, Georgoulias P (2010). Current and potential roles of ghrelin in clinical practice. J Endocrinol Invest 33: 823–838.

Briggs DI, Andrews ZB (2011). Metabolic status regulates ghrelin function on energy homeostasis. Neuroendocrinology 93: 48-57.

Cao JM, Ong H, Chen C (2006). Effects of ghrelin and synthetic GH secretagogues on the cardiovascular system. Trends Endocrinol Metab 17: 13 - 18.

Cummings DE (2006). Ghrelin and the short- and long-term regulation of appetite and body weight. Physiol Behav 89: 71-84.

Davenport AP, Bonner TI, Foord SM, Harmar AJ, Neubig RR, Pin JP et al. (2005). International Union of Pharmacology. LVI. Ghrelin receptor nomenclature, distribution, and function. Pharmacol Rev 57: 541-546.

De Smet B, Mitselos A, Depoortere I (2009). Motilin and ghrelin as prokinetic drug targets. Pharmacol Ther 123: 207-223.

De Vriese C, Perret J, Delporte C (2010). Focus on the short- and long-term effects of ghrelin on energy homeostasis. Nutrition 26: 579-584. Dezaki K, Sone H, Yada T (2008). Ghrelin is a physiological regulator of insulin release in pancreatic islets and glucose homeostasis. Pharmacol Ther 118: 239-249.

Garcia EA, Korbonits M (2006). Ghrelin and cardiovascular health. Curr Opin Pharmacol 6: 142-147.

Granata R, Baragli A, Settanni F, Scarlatti F, Ghigo E (2010). Unraveling the role of the ghrelin gene peptides in the endocrine pancreas. J Mol Endocrinol 45: 107-118.

Hosoda H, Kojima M, Kangawa K (2006). Biological, physiological, and pharmacological aspects of ghrelin. J Pharmacol Sci 100: 398-410. Kojima M, Kangawa K (2010). Ghrelin: more than endogenous growth hormone secretagogue. Ann N Y Acad Sci 1200: 140-148.

Leite-Moreira AF, Soares JB (2007). Physiological, pathological and potential therapeutic roles of ghrelin. Drug Discov Todav 12: 276-288.

Maguire JJ, Davenport AP (2005). Regulation of vascular reactivity by established and emerging GPCRs. Trends Pharmacol Sci 26: 448-454.

Nikolopoulos D, Theocharis S, Kouraklis G (2010). Ghrelin: a potential therapeutic target for cancer. Regul Pept 163: 7-17.

Olszewski PK, Schioth HB, Levine AS (2008). Ghrelin in the CNS: from hunger to a rewarding and memorable meal? Brain Res Rev 58: 160–170. Peeters TL (2006). Potential of ghrelin as a therapeutic approach for gastrointestinal motility disorders. Curr Opin Pharmacol 6: 553–558.

Romero A, Kirchner H, Heppner K, Pfluger PT, Tschop MH, Nogueiras R (2010). GOAT: the master switch for the ghrelin system? Eur J Endocrinol

Sanger GJ (2008). Motilin, ghrelin and related neuropeptides as targets for the treatment of GI diseases. Drug Discov Today 13: 234-239. Seim I, Josh P, Cunningham P, Herington A, Chopin L (2011). Ghrelin axis genes, peptides and receptors: Recent findings and future challenges. Mol Cell Endocrinol 340: 3-9.

\$58 Ghrelin Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

References

Bedendi I et al. (2003). Eur J Pharmacol 476: 87–95.
Bednarek MA et al. (2000). J Med Chem 43: 4370–4376.
Esler WP et al. (2007). Endocrinology 148: 5175–5185.
Fraser GL et al. (2008). Endocrinology 149: 6280–6288.
Holst B, Schwartz TW (2004). Trends Pharmacol Sci 25: 113–117.
Holst B et al. (2009). Mol Pharmacol 75: 44–59.
Pantel J et al. (2006). J Clin Invest 116: 760–768.

Holst B *et al.* (2003). *Mol Endocrinol* 17: 2201–2210. Hosoda H *et al.* (2000). *J Biol Chem* 275: 21995–22000. Katugampola SD *et al.* (2001). *Br J Pharmacol* 134: 143–149. Kojima M *et al.* (1999). *Nature* 402: 656–660. Matsumoto M *et al.* (2001). *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 287: 142–146. Yang J *et al.* (2008). *Cell* 132: 387–396.

Glucagon, glucagon-like peptide and secretin

Overview: The glucagon family of receptors (nomenclature as agreed by NC-IUPHAR Subcommittee on the Glucagon receptor family, see Mayo et al., 2003) are activated by the endogenous peptide (27-44 aa) hormones glucagon, glucagon-like peptide 1 (GLP-1), glucagon-like peptide 2 (GLP-2), glucose-dependent insulinotropic polypeptide (also known as gastric inhibitory polypeptide or GIP, ENSG00000159224), growth hormone-releasing hormone (GHRH, ENSG00000118702) and secretin (ENSG00000070031). One common precursor (ENSG00000115263) generates glucagon, GLP-1 and GLP-2 peptides (Irwin, 2001).

Nomenclature	Glucagon	GLP-1	GLP-2
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000215644	ENSG00000112164	ENSG00000065325
Principal transduction	G_s	G_s	G_s
Selective agonists	Glucagon	GLP-1-(7-37) (Dillon et al., 1993); GLP-1-(7-36)amide (Thorens et al., 1993), exendin-3 (Raufman et al., 1991), exendin-4 (Thorens et al., 1993)	GLP-2
Selective antagonists	L168049 (Cascieri <i>et al.</i> , 1999), des-His¹-[Glu²]glucagon amide (Post <i>et al.</i> , 1993), BAY27-9955 (Petersen and Sullivan, 2001), xNNC92-1687 (Madsen <i>et al.</i> , 1998)	Exendin-(9-39) (Thorens <i>et al.</i> , 1993); T0632 (Tibaduiza <i>et al.</i> , 2001)	-
Probes	[¹²⁵ I]-glucagon	[1251]-GLP-1-(7-36) amide, [1251]-exendin, [1251]-exendin-(9-39), [1251]-GLP-1-(7-37)	-

Nomenclature	GIP	GHRH	Secretin
Ensembl ID	ENSG0000010310	ENSG00000106128	ENSG00000080293
Principal transduction	G_s	G_s	G_s
Selective agonists	GIP	BIM28011 (Coy et al., 1996)	Secretin
Selective antagonists	[Pro ³]GIP	JV-1-36 (Schally and Varga, 1999), JV-1-38 (Schally and Varga, 1999)	[(CH₂NH) ^{4,5}]secretin (Kim <i>et al.</i> , 1993)
Probes	[¹²⁵ I]-GIP	[¹²⁵ I]-GHRH	[¹²⁵ l]-(Tyr ¹⁰)secretin

The glucagon receptor has been reported to interact with receptor activity modifying proteins (RAMPs), specifically RAMP2, in heterologous expression systems (Christopoulos et al., 2003), although the physiological significance of this has yet to be established.

Abbreviations: BAY27-9955, (+)-3,5-diiospropyl-2-(1-hydroxyethyl)-6-propyl-4'-fluoro-1,1'-biphenyl; BIM28011, [D-Ala²,Ala^{8,9,15,27},D-Arg²⁹|hGHRH-(1–29)NH₂; **JV**-1-36, [PhAc-Tyr¹,D-Arg²,Phe(4-Cl)⁶,Arg²,Abu¹⁵,Nle²⁷,D-Arg²,Phe(4-Cl)⁶,Har⁹,Tyr(Me)¹⁰,Abu¹⁵,Nle²⁷,D-Arg²⁸,Har²⁹|hGHRH(1–29)NH₂; **L168049**, 2-(4-pyridyl)-5-(4-chlorophenyl)-3-(5-bromo-2-propyloxyphenyl)pyrrole; **NNC92-1687**, 2-(benzimidazol-2-ylthio)-1-(3,4-dihydroxyphenyl)-1-ethanone; **T0632**, sodium (*S*)-3-(1-[2fluorophenyl]-2,3-dihydro-3-[{3-isoquinolinyl}-carbonyl]amino-6-methoxy-2-oxo-1*H*-indole)propanoate

Further Reading

Authier F, Desbuquois B (2008). Glucagon receptors. Cell Mol Life Sci 65: 1880-1899.

Burcelin R, Serino M, Cabou C (2009). A role for the gut-to-brain GLP-1-dependent axis in the control of metabolism. Curr Opin Pharmacol 9: 744-752

De Block CE, Van Gaal LF (2009). GLP-1 receptor agonists for type 2 diabetes. Lancet 374: 4-6.

Doyle ME, Egan JM (2007). Mechanisms of action of glucagon-like peptide 1 in the pancreas. Pharmacol Ther 113: 546-593.

Dube PE, Brubaker PL (2007). Frontiers in glucagon-like peptide-2: multiple actions, multiple mediators. Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab 293:

Frezza EE, Wachtel MS, Chiriva-Internati M (2007). The multiple faces of glucagon-like peptide-1 – obesity, appetite, and stress: what is next? A review. Dig Dis Sci 52: 643-649.

Hayes MR, De Jonghe BC, Kanoski SE (2010). Role of the glucagon-like-peptide-1 receptor in the control of energy balance. Physiol Behav 100:

Holst JJ (2007). The physiology of glucagon-like peptide 1. Physiol Rev 87: 1409–1439.

Holst JJ, Deacon CF, Vilsboll T, Krarup T, Madsbad S (2008). Glucagon-like peptide-1, glucose homeostasis and diabetes. Trends Mol Med 14:

Markovic D, Grammatopoulos DK (2009). Focus on the splicing of secretin GPCRs transmembrane-domain 7. Trends Biochem Sci 34: 443-452. Mayo KE, Miller LJ, Bataille D, Dalle S, Goke B, Thorens B et al. (2003). International Union of Pharmacology. XXXV. The glucagon receptor family. Pharmacol Rev 55: 167-194.

Miller LJ, Dong M, Harikumar KG (2011). Ligand binding and activation of the secretin receptor, a prototypic family B G protein-coupled receptor. Br J Pharmacol in press.

Nauck MA (2009). Unraveling the science of incretin biology. Am J Med 122: S3-S10.

Nauck MA, Vardarli I, Deacon CF, Holst JJ, Meier JJ (2011). Secretion of glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1) in type 2 diabetes: what is up, what is down? Diabetologia 54: 10-18.

Schally AV, Varga JL, Engel JB (2008). Antagonists of growth-hormone-releasing hormone: an emerging new therapy for cancer. *Nat Clin Pract Endocrinol Metab* 4: 33–43.

St-Pierre DH, Broglio F (2010). Secretin: Should we revisit its metabolic outcomes? J Endocrinol Invest 33: 266-275.

Verspohl EJ (2009). Novel therapeutics for type 2 diabetes: incretin hormone mimetics (glucagon-like peptide-1 receptor agonists) and dipeptidyl peptidase-4 inhibitors. *Pharmacol Ther* 124: 113–138.

Vrang N, Larsen PJ (2010). Preproglucagon derived peptides GLP-1, GLP-2 and oxyntomodulin in the CNS: role of peripherally secreted and centrally produced peptides. *Prog Neurobiol* 92: 442–462.

Williams DL (2009). Minireview: finding the sweet spot: peripheral versus central glucagon-like peptide 1 action in feeding and glucose homeostasis. *Endocrinology* **150**: 2997–3001.

References

Cascieri MA et al. (1999). J Biol Chem 274: 8694–8697. Christopoulos A et al. (2003). J Biol Chem 278: 3293–3297. Coy DH et al. (1996). Ann N Y Acad Sci 805: 149–158. Dillon JS et al. (1993). Endocrinology 133: 1907–1910. Irwin DM (2001). Regul Pept 98: 1–12. Kim CD et al. (1993). Am J Physiol Gastrointest Liver Physiol 265: G805–G810. Madsen P et al. (1998). J Med Chem 41: 5150–5157.
Petersen KF, Sullivan JT (2001). Diabetologia 44: 2018–2024.
Post SR et al. (1993). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 90: 1662–1666.
Raufman JP et al. (1991). J Biol Chem 266: 2897–2902.
Schally AV, Varga JL (1999). Trends Endocrinol Metab 10: 383–391.
Thorens B et al. (1993). Diabetes 42: 1678–1682.
Tibaduiza EC et al. (2001). J Biol Chem 276: 37787–37793.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Glutamate, metabotropic S61

Glutamate, metabotropic

Overview: Metabotropic glutamate (mGlu) receptors (nomenclature as agreed by NC-IUPHAR Subcommittee on Metabotropic Glutamate Receptors, Schoepp *et al.*, 2000) are activated by the endogenous ligands L-glutamate, L-aspartate, L-serine-O-phosphate (LSOP), N-acetylaspartylglutamate (NAAG) and L-cysteine sulphinic acid. Examples of agonists selective for mGlu receptors compared with ionotropic glutamate receptors are 1S,3R-ACPD and L-CCG-I, which show limited selectivity for Group II receptors. An example of an antagonist selective for mGlu receptors is LY341495, which blocks mGlu₂ and mGlu₃ at low nanomolar concentrations, mGlu₈ at high nanomolar concentrations, and mGlu₁, mGlu₄, mGlu₅ and mGlu₇ in the micromolar range (Kingston *et al.*, 1998). Three groups of native receptors are distinguishable on the bases of similarities of agonist pharmacology, primary sequence and G-protein effector coupling: Group I (mGlu₁ and mGlu₅); Group II (mGlu₂ and mGlu₃) and Group III (mGlu₄, mGlu₆, mGlu₇ and mGlu₈) (see Further Reading). Group I mGlu receptors may be activated by DHPG and 3HPG (Brabet *et al.*, 1995), and antagonized by (S)-hexylhomoibotenic acid (Madsen *et al.*, 2005). Group II mGlu receptors may be activated by LY389795 (Monn *et al.*, 1999), LY379268 (Monn *et al.*, 1999), LY354740 (Schoepp *et al.*, 1997; Wu *et al.*, 1998), DCG-IV and 2R,4R-APDC (Schoepp *et al.*, 1996), and antagonised by EGLU (4.3, Jane *et al.*, 1996) and LY307452 (Escribano *et al.*, 1998; Wermuth *et al.*, 1996). Group III mGlu receptors may be activated by (RS)PPG (Gasparini *et al.*, 1999a).

In addition to orthosteric ligands that interact with the glutamate recognition site directly, allosteric modulators have been described. Negative allosteric modulators are listed separately. The positive allosteric modulators most often act as 'potentiators' of an orthosteric agonist response, without significantly activating the receptor in the absence of agonist.

Nomenclature	$mGlu_1$	$mGlu_2$	mGlu₃	$mGlu_4$
Other names	$mGluR_1$	$mGluR_2$	$mGluR_3$	mGluR ₄
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000152822	ENSG00000164082	ENSG00000198822	ENSG00000124493
Principal transduction	$G_{q/11}$	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{i/o}$
Selective agonists	-	-	NAAG (Wroblewska <i>et al.,</i> 1997)	L-AP4, LSOP (Wu <i>et al.</i> , 1998)
Selective positive allosteric modulators	Ro01-6128, Ro67-4853, Ro67-7476 (Knoflach <i>et al.</i> , 2001)	LY487379 (Johnson <i>et al.</i> , 2003), CBiPES (Johnson <i>et al.</i> , 2005), BINA (Bonnefous <i>et al.</i> , 2005b)	-	(-)-PHCCC (Maj et al., 2003), SIB1893, MPEP (Mathiesen et al., 2003), VU0155041 (Niswender et al., 2008), VU0361737 (Engers et al., 2009)
Selective competitive antagonists	3-MATIDA (Moroni et al., 2002), AIDA (Moroni et al., 1997), (\$)-(+)-CBPG (Mannaioni et al., 1999), LY367385 (Clark et al., 1997), (\$)-TBPG (Costantino et al., 2001)	PCCG-4 (Pellicciari <i>et al.</i> , 1996)	-	MAP4
Selective negative allosteric modulators	CPCCOEt (Litschig et al., 1999), BAY36-7620 (Carroll et al., 2001), LY456236 (Li et al., 2002), 3,5-DMPPP (Micheli et al., 2003), EM-TBPC (Malherbe et al., 2003), JNJ16259685 (Lavreysen et al., 2004), A841720 (8.0, Zheng et al., 2005)	Ro64-5229 (Kolczewski et al., 1999)		

The activity of NAAG as an agonist at $mGlu_3$ receptors was questioned on the basis of contamination with glutamate (Chopra *et al.*, 2009; Fricker *et al.*, 2009), but this has been refuted (Neale, 2011).

Nomenclature	mGlus	mGlu ₆	mGlu _z	mGlu ₈
Other names	mGluR₅	mGluR ₆	mGluR ₇	mGluR ₈
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000168959	ENSG00000113262	ENSG00000196277	ENSG00000179603
Principal transduction	$G_{q/11}$	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{i/o}$
Selective agonists	CHPG (Doherty <i>et al.</i> , 1997), (S)-(+)-CBPG (Mannaioni <i>et al.</i> , 1999)	Homo-AMPA (Bräuner-Osborne <i>et al.,</i> 1996), 1-benzyl-APDC (Tuckmantel <i>et al.,</i> 1997)	LSOP (Wu <i>et al.</i> , 1998), L-AP4	LSOP (Wu et al., 1998), L-AP4, (S)-3,4-DCPG (Thomas et al., 2001)

S62 Glutamate, metabotropic Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Nomenclature	mGlu₅	$mGlu_6$	$mGlu_7$	$mGlu_8$
Selective positive allosteric modulators	DFB (O'Brien et al., 2003), CPPHA (O'Brien et al., 2004), CDPPB (Kinney et al., 2005), VU1545 (de Paulis et al., 2006)	-	AMN082 (Mitsukawa et al., 2005)	-
Selective competitive antagonists	ACDPP (6.5, Bonnefous et al., 2005a)	MAP4, THPG (Thoreson et al., 1997)	-	MPPG (Wu <i>et al.,</i> 1998)
Selective negative allosteric modulators	SIB1757 (Varney et al., 1999), SIB1893 (Varney et al., 1999), MPEP (Gasparini et al., 1999b), MTEP (Brodkin et al., 2002), fenobam (Porter et al., 2005), YM298198 (Kohara et al., 2005)	-	MMPIP (Suzuki <i>et al.,</i> 2007)	-

Radioligand binding using a variety of radioligands has been conducted on recombinant receptors (for example, [³H]-R214127 (Lavreysen et al., 2003) and [³H]-YM298198 (Kohara et al., 2005) at mGlu₁ receptors and [³H]-methoxyMPEP (Gasparini et al., 2002) and [³H]-methoxymethyl-MTEP (Anderson et al., 2002) at mGlu₃ receptors. Although a number of radioligands have been used to examine binding using native tissues, correlation with individual subtypes is limited. Many pharmacological agents have not been fully tested across all known subtypes of mGlu receptors. Potential differences linked to the species (e.g. human versus rat or mouse) of the receptors and the receptor splice variants are generally not known. The influence of receptor expression level on pharmacology and selectivity has not been controlled for in most studies, particularly those involving functional assays of receptor coupling.

(*S*)-(+)-CBPG is an antagonist at mGlu₁, but is an agonist (albeit of reduced efficacy) at mGlu₃ receptors. DCG-IV also exhibits agonist activity at NMDA glutamate receptors (Uyama *et al.*, 1997). A potential novel metabotropic glutamate receptor coupled to phosphoinositide turnover has been observed in rat brain; it is activated by 4-methylhomoibotenic acid (ineffective as an agonist at recombinant Group I metabotropic glutamate receptors), but resistant to LY341495 (Chung *et al.*, 1997). There are also reports of a distinct metabotropic glutamate receptor coupled to phospholipase D in rat brain, which does not readily fit into the current classification (Klein *et al.*, 1997; Pellegrini-Giampietro *et al.*, 1996).

ACDPP. 3-(azepan-1-yl)-9-(dimethylamino)-[1]benzothiolo[3,2-d]pyrimidin-4-one; Abbreviations: A841720, 3-amino-6-chloro-5dimethylamino-N-2-pyridinylpyrazinecarboxamide hydrochloride; 1S,3R-ACPD, 1-aminocyclopentane-1*S*,3*R*-dicarboxylate; 1-aminoindan-1,5(R\$)-dicarboxylic acid; also known as UPF523; AMN082, N,N'-bis(diphenylmethyl)-1,2-ethanediamine dihydrochloride; L-AP4, S-2-amino-4-phosphonobutyrate; 2R,4R-APDC, aminopyrrolidine-2R,4R-dicarboxylate; also known as LY314593; BAY 36-7620, (3aS,6aS)-6a-naphtalan-2-ylmethyl-5-methyliden-hexahyrol-cyclopenta[c]furan-1-one; BINA, 3'-([[2-cyclopentyl-2,3-dihydro-6,7-dimethyl-1oxo-1H-inden-5-yl\oxy|methyl)-(1,1'-biphenyl)-4-carboxylic acid, also known as biphenyl indanone A; CBiPES, N-[4'-cyano-biphenyl-3-yl]-N-(3-pyridinylmethyl)-ethanesulphonamide hydrochloride; (*S*)-(+)-CBPG, (s)-(1)-2-(39-carboxybicycle[1.1.1]pentyl)glycine; L-CCG-I, (25,35,45)α-(carboxycyclopropyl)glycine; CDPPB, 3-cyano-N-(1,3-diphenyl-1H-[pyrazol-5-yl)benzamide; CHPG, 2-chloro-5-hydroxyphenylglycine; CPCCOEt, cyclopropan[b]chromen-1a-carboxylate; 4CPG, 4-carboxyphenylglycine; CPPHA, N-{4-chloro-2-[(1,3-dioxo-1,3-dihydro-2*H*-isoindol-2-yl)methyl]phenyl]-2-hydroxybenzamide; DCG-IV, (2*S*,1′*R*,2′*R*,3′*R*)-2-(2,3-dicarboxycyclopropyl)glycine; (*S*)-3,4-DCPG, (*S*)-3, dicarboxylphenylglycine: DFB, 3.3'-difluorobenzaldazine: DHPG, 5-3.5-dihydroxyphenylglycine: DMPPP, 3.5-dimethyl pyrrole-2.4-dicarboxylic acid 2-propyl ester 4-(1,2,2-tri-methyl-propyl) ester; EGLU, (s)-α-ethylglutamate; EM-TBPC, (1-ethyl-2-methyl-6-oxo-4-(1,2,4,5-tetrahydrobenzo[d]azepin-3-yl)-1,6-dihydropyrimidine-5-carbonitrile; fenobam, N-(3-chlorophenyl)-N'-(4,5-dihydrol-1-methyl-4-oxo-1-H-imidazole-2yl)-urea; 3HPG, 3-hydroxyphenylglycine; [11C]-JNJ-16567083, (3-ethyl-2-[11C]methyl-6-quinolinyl)(cis-4-methoxycyclohexyl) methanone; INI16259685. (3,4-dihydro-2*H*-pyrano[2,3]b-quinolinyl-7-yl)(*cis*-4-methoxycyclohexyl)methanone; LY307452. 2S,4S-2-amino-4-(4,4diphenylbut-1-yl)pentan-1,5-dioc acid; LY341495, 28-2-amino-2-(18,28-2-carboxycyclopropan-1-yl)-3-(xanth-9-yl)propanoic acid; LY354740, (+)-2-aminobicyclic[3.1.0]hexane-2,6-dicarboxylate; LY367385, (+)-2-methyl-4-carboxyphenylglycine; LY379268, (-)-2-oxa-4aminobicylco[3.1.0]hexane-4,6-dicarboxylic acid; LY389795, (-)-2-thia-4-aminobicyclo[3.1.0]hexane-4,6-dicarboxylic acid; LY393675, α -substituted-cyclobutylglycine; LY456066, (2-[4-(indan-2-ylamino)-5,6,7,8-tetrahydro-quinazolin-2-ylsulfanyl]-ethanol,hydrochloride; [(4-methoxy-phenyl)-(6-methoxy-quinazolin-4-yl)-amine hydrochloride; LY487379, 2,2,2-trifluoro-N-[4-(2methoxyphenoxy)phenyl]-N-(3-pyridinylmethyl)-ethanesulphonamide; 3-MATIDA, α-amino-5-carboxy-3-methyl-2-thiopheneacetic acid; MAP4, (S)-2-methyl-2-amino-4-phosphonobutanoate; methoxy-MPEP, 2-methyl-6-((3-methoxyphenyl)ethynyl)-pyridine; methoxy-PEPy, 3-methoxy-5-(pyridin-2-yl-ethynyl)-pyridine; MMPIP, 6-(4-methoxyphenyl)-5-methyl-3-(4-pyridinyl)-isoxazolo[4,5-c]pyridin-4(5H)-one hydrochloride; MPEP, 2-methyl-6-(phenylethynyl)-pyridine; MPPG, (RS)-α-methyl-4-phosphonophenylglycine; MTEP, 3-[(2-methyl-1,3thiazol-4-yl)ethynyl]pyridine; 3-(methoxymethyl)-5-[(2-methyl-1,3-thiazol-4-yl)ethynyl]pyridine; methoxymethyl-MTEP, N-acetylaspartylglutamate, also known as spaglumic acid; PCCG-4, (2S,1'S,2'S,3'R)-2-(2'-carboxy-3'-phenylcyclopropyl)glycine; PHCCC, N-phenyl-7-(hydroxylimino)cyclopropa[b]chromen-1a-carboxamide; (RS)PPG, (R,S)-4-phosphonophenylglycine; R214127, 1-(3,4-dihydro-2Hpyrano[2,3-b]quinolin-7-yl)-2-phenyl-1-ethanone; Ro01-6128, diphenylacetyl-carbamic acid ethyl ester; Ro62-5229, (Z)-1-[2-cycloheptyloxy-2-(2,6-dichlorophenyl)ethenyl]-1H-1,2,4-triazole; Ro67-4853, (9H-xanthene-9-carbonyl)-carbamic acid butyl ester; Ro67-7476, (S)-2-(4-fluorophenyl)-1-(toluene-4-sulphonyl)-pyrrolidine; SIB1757, 6-methyl-2-(phenylazo)-3-pyrindol; SIB1893, ([phenylazo]-3-pyrindole)-2-methyl-6-(2phenylethenyl)pyridine; S-TBPG, 2-(3'-(1H-tetrazol-5-yl)bicyclo[1.1.1]pent-1-yl)glycine; THPG, (RS)-3,4,5-trihydroxyphenylglycine; VU1545, N-[1-(2-fluorophenyl)-3-phenyl-1H-pyrazol-5-yl]-4-nitrobenzamide; VU0155041, cis-2-[[(3,5-dichlorophenyl)amino]carbonyl]cyclohexanec arboxylic acid; VU0361737, N-(4-chloro-3-methoxyphenyl)-2-pyridinecarboxamide; YM298198, (6-{[(2-methoxyethyl)amino]methyl}-Nmethyl-N-neopentylthiaolo[3,2-a]benzoimidazole-2-carboxamide

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Glutamate, metabotropic S63

Further Reading

Anwyl R (2009). Metabotropic glutamate receptor-dependent long-term potentiation. Neuropharmacology 56: 735-740.

Bird MK, Lawrence AJ (2009). The promiscuous mGlu5 receptor – a range of partners for therapeutic possibilities? *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 30: 617–623.

Chaki S (2010). Group II metabotropic glutamate receptor agonists as a potential drug for schizophrenia. Eur J Pharmacol 639: 59-66.

Chiechio S, Copani A, Zammataro M, Battaglia G, Gereau RW, Nicoletti F (2010). Transcriptional regulation of type-2 metabotropic glutamate receptors: an epigenetic path to novel treatments for chronic pain. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 31: 153–160.

Conn PJ, Lindsley CW, Jones CK (2009). Activation of metabotropic glutamate receptors as a novel approach for the treatment of schizophrenia. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 30: 25–31.

D'Antoni S, Berretta A, Bonaccorso CM, Bruno V, Aronica E, Nicoletti F et al. (2008). Metabotropic glutamate receptors in glial cells. Neurochem Res 33: 2436–2443.

Durand D, Pampillo M, Caruso C, Lasaga M (2008). Role of metabotropic glutamate receptors in the control of neuroendocrine function. Neuropharmacology 55: 577–583.

Duty S (2010). Therapeutic potential of targeting group III metabotropic glutamate receptors in the treatment of Parkinson's disease. Br J Pharmacol 161: 271–287.

Gladding CM, Fitzjohn SM, Molnar E (2009). Metabotropic glutamate receptor-mediated long-term depression: molecular mechanisms. *Pharmacol Rev* 61: 395–412.

Goudet C, Magnaghi V, Landry M, Nagy F, Gereau RW, Pin JP (2009). Metabotropic receptors for glutamate and GABA in pain. *Brain Res Rev* 60: 43–56.

Julio-Pieper M, Flor PJ, Dinan TG, Cryan JF (2011). Exciting times beyond the brain: metabotropic glutamate receptors in peripheral and non-neural tissues. *Pharmacol Rev* 63: 35–58.

Kim CH, Lee J, Lee JY, Roche KW (2008). Metabotropic glutamate receptors: phosphorylation and receptor signaling. *J Neurosci Res* 86: 1–10. Krivoy A, Fischel T, Weizman A (2008). The possible involvement of metabotropic glutamate receptors in schizophrenia. *Eur Neuropsychopharmacol* 18: 395–405.

Marek GJ (2010). Metabotropic glutamate2/3 (mGlu2/3) receptors, schizophrenia and cognition. Eur J Pharmacol 639: 81-90.

Moreno JL, Sealfon SC, Gonzalez-Maeso J (2009). Group II metabotropic glutamate receptors and schizophrenia. *Cell Mol Life Sci* 66: 3777–3785. Moussawi K, Kalivas PW (2010). Group II metabotropic glutamate receptors (mGlu2/3) in drug addiction. *Eur J Pharmacol* 639: 115–122.

Nicoletti F, Bockaert J, Collingridge GL, Conn PJ, Ferraguti F, Schoepp DD *et al.* (2011). Metabotropic glutamate receptors: From the workbench to the bedside. *Neuropharmacology* **60**: 1017–1041.

Niswender CM, Conn PJ (2010). Metabotropic glutamate receptors: physiology, pharmacology, and disease. *Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol* 50: 295–322.

O'Connor RM, Finger BC, Flor PJ, Cryan JF (2010). Metabotropic glutamate receptor 7: at the interface of cognition and emotion. *Eur J Pharmacol* 639: 123–131.

Olive MF (2010). Cognitive effects of group I metabotropic glutamate receptor ligands in the context of drug addiction. *Eur J Pharmacol* **639**: 47–58.

Pilc A, Chaki S, Nowak G, Witkin JM (2008). Mood disorders: regulation by metabotropic glutamate receptors. *Biochem Pharmacol* **75**: 997–1006. Robichaud AJ, Engers DW, Lindsley CW, Hopkins CR (2011). Recent progress on the identification of metabotropic glutamate 4 receptor ligands and their potential utility as CNS therapeutics. *Acs Chemical Neuroscience* in press.

Schoepp DD, Alexander SP, Beart P, Conn PJ, Lodge D, Nakanishi S *et al.* (2000). Metabotropic glutamate receptors. In: Watson SP, Girdlestone D (eds). *IUPHAR Compendium of Receptor Characterization and Classification*, 2nd edn. IUPHAR Press: London, pp. 195–208.

Shin SS, Martino JJ, Chen S (2008). Metabotropic glutamate receptors (mGlus) and cellular transformation. *Neuropharmacology* 55: 396–402. Simonyi A, Schachtman TR, Christoffersen GR (2010). Metabotropic glutamate receptor subtype 5 antagonism in learning and memory. *Eur J Pharmacol* 639: 17–25.

Tang FR, Bradford HF, Ling EA (2009). Metabotropic glutamate receptors in the control of neuronal activity and as targets for development of anti-epileptogenic drugs. *Curr Med Chem* **16**: 2189–2204.

Wieronska JM, Pilc A (2009). Metabotropic glutamate receptors in the tripartite synapse as a target for new psychotropic drugs. *Neurochem Int* 55: 85–97.

Wood MR, Hopkins CR, Brogan JT, Conn PJ, Lindsley CW (2011). 'Molecular switches' on mGluR allosteric ligands that modulate modes of pharmacology. *Biochemistry* **50**: 2403–2410.

References

Anderson JJ et al. (2002). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 303: 1044-1051. Bonnefous C et al. (2005a). Bioorg Med Chem Lett 15: 1197-1200. Bonnefous C et al. (2005b). Bioorg Med Chem Lett 15: 4354-4358. Brabet I et al. (1995). Neuropharmacology 34: 895-903. Bräuner-Osborne H et al. (1996). J Med Chem 39: 3188-3194. Brodkin J et al. (2002). Eur J Neurosci 16: 2241-2244. Carroll FY et al. (2001). Mol Pharmacol 59: 965-973. Chopra M et al. (2009). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 330: 212–219. Chung DS et al. (1997). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 283: 742-749. Clark BP et al. (1997). Bioorg Med Chem Lett 7: 2777–2780. Costantino G et al. (2001). Bioorg Med Chem 9: 221-227. de Paulis T et al. (2006). J Med Chem 49: 3332-3344. Doherty AJ et al. (1997). Neuropharmacology 36: 265-267. Engers DW et al. (2009). J Med Chem 52: 4115-4118. Escribano A et al. (1998). Bioorg Med Chem Lett 8: 765-770. Fricker AC et al. (2009). Neuropharmacology 56: 1060-1067. Gasparini F et al. (1999a). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 289: 1678–1687. Gasparini F et al. (1999b). Neuropharmacology 38: 1493-1503. Gasparini F et al. (2002). Bioorg Med Chem Lett 12: 407–409. Jane DE et al. (1996). Neuropharmacology 35: 1029-1035.

Johnson MP et al. (2005). Psychopharmacology 179: 271-283. Kingston AE et al. (1998). Neuropharmacology 37: 1-12. Kinney GG et al. (2005). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 313: 199-206. Klein J et al. (1997). Neuropharmacology 36: 305-311. Knoflach F et al. (2001). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 98: 13402-13407. Kohara A et al. (2005). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 315: 163-169. Kolczewski S et al. (1999). Bioorg Med Chem Lett 9: 2173-2176. Lavreysen H et al. (2003). Mol Pharmacol 63: 1082-1093. Lavreysen H et al. (2004). Neuropharmacology 47: 961-972. Li L et al. (2002). Neuropharmacology 43: 295. Litschig S et al. (1999). Mol Pharmacol 55: 453-461. Madsen U et al. (2005). Neuropharmacology 49 Suppl 1: 114-119. Maj M et al. (2003). Neuropharmacology 45: 895-906. Malherbe P et al. (2003). J Biol Chem 278: 8340-8347. Mannaioni G et al. (1999). Neuropharmacology 38: 917-926. Mathiesen JM et al. (2003). Br J Pharmacol 138: 1026-1030. Micheli F et al. (2003). Bioorg Med Chem 11: 171-183. Mitsukawa K et al. (2005). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 102: 18712-18717. Monn JA et al. (1999). J Med Chem 42: 1027-1040.

Johnson MP et al. (2003). J Med Chem 46: 3189-3192.

S64 Glutamate, metabotropic Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Moroni F et al. (1997). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 281: 721–729.

Moroni F et al. (2002). Neuropharmacology 42: 741–751.

Neale JH (2011). J Neurochem in press.

Niswender CM et al. (2008). Mol Pharmacol 74: 1345–1358.

O'Brien JA et al. (2003). Mol Pharmacol 64: 731–740.

O'Brien JA et al. (2004). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 309: 568–577.

Pellegrini-Giampietro DE et al. (1996). Br J Pharmacol 118: 1035–1043.

Pellicciari R et al. (1996). J Med Chem 39: 2259–2269.

Porter RH et al. (2005). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 315: 711–721.

Schoepp DD et al. (1996). Neuropharmacology 35: 1661–1672.

Suzuki G et al. (2007). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 323: 147–156.

Schoepp DD et al. (1997). Neuropharmacology 36: 1–11. Thomas NK et al. (2001). Neuropharmacology 40: 311–318. Thoreson WB et al. (1997). Neuropharmacology 36: 13–20. Tuckmantel W et al. (1997). Bioorg Med Chem Lett 7: 601–606. Uyama Y et al. (1997). Brain Res 752: 327–330. Varney MA et al. (1999). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 290: 170–181. Wermuth CG et al. (1996). J Med Chem 39: 814–816. Wroblewska B et al. (1997). J Neurochem 69: 174–181. Wu S et al. (1998). Mol Brain Res 53: 88–97. Zheng GZ et al. (2005). J Med Chem 48: 7374–7388.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Glycoprotein hormone S65

Glycoprotein hormone

Overview: Glycoprotein hormone receptors (provisional nomenclature) are activated by a heterodimeric glycoprotein made up of a common α chain (116 amino-acid ENSG00000135346), with a unique β chain that confers the biological specificity to FSH (follicle-stimulating hormone, follitropin, 129 amino-acid, ENSG00000131808), LH (luteinizing hormone, lutropin, 141 amino-acid ENSG00000104826), CG (choriogonadotropin, chorionic gonadotropin, 165 amino-acid, ENSG00000104818/ENSG00000104827) or TSH (thyrotropin, thyroid-stimulating hormone, 138 amino-acid ENSG00000134200). There is binding cross-reactivity across the endogenous agonists for each of the glycoprotein hormone receptors. The deglycosylated hormones appear to exhibit reduced efficacy at these receptors (Sairam, 1989).

Nomenclature	FSH	LH	TSH
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000170820	ENSG00000168546	ENSG00000146013
Principal transduction	G_s	$G_s\text{, }G_{q/11}$ and G_i	All four families of G proteins can be activated by this receptor
Selective agonists	FSH	LH, CG	TSH
Probes	[¹²⁵ I]-FSH	[¹²⁵ I]-LH, [¹²⁵ I]-CG	[¹²⁵ I]-TSH

Animal follitropins are less potent than the human hormone as agonists at the human FSH receptor. Autoimmune antibodies that act as agonists of the TSH receptor are found in patients with Grave's disease (e.g. Rapoport *et al.*, 1998). Gain- and loss-of-function mutations of the FSH receptor are associated with human reproductive disorders (Aittomaki *et al.*, 1995; Beau *et al.*, 1998; Gromoll *et al.*, 1996; Touraine *et al.*, 1999). Loss-of-function mutations of the LH receptor are associated with Leydig cell hypoplasia and gain-of-function mutations are associated with male-limited gonadotropin-independent precocious puberty (e.g. Latronico and Segaloff, 1999; Shenker, 2002) and Leydig cell tumours (Liu *et al.*, 1999). Mutations of the TSH receptor exhibiting constitutive activity underlie hyperfunctioning thyroid adenomas (Parma *et al.*, 1993) and congenital hyperthyroidism (Kopp *et al.*, 1995). TSH receptor loss-of-function mutations are associated with thyrotropin resistance (Sunthorn-thepvarakul *et al.*, 1995). The rat FSH receptor also stimulates phosphoinositide turnover through an unidentified G protein (Quintana *et al.*, 1994).

Further Reading

Chiamolera MI, Wondisford FE (2009). Thyrotropin-releasing hormone and the thyroid hormone feedback mechanism. *Endocrinology* **150**: 1091–1096.

George JW, Dille EA, Heckert LL (2011). Current concepts of follicle-stimulating hormone receptor gene regulation. *Biol Reprod* **84**: 7–17. Hermann BP, Heckert LL (2007). Transcriptional regulation of the FSH receptor: new perspectives. *Mol Cell Endocrinol* **260–262**: 100–108. Kleinau G, Krause G (2009). Thyrotropin and homologous glycoprotein hormone receptors: structural and functional aspects of extracellular signaling mechanisms. *Endocr Rev* **30**: 133–151.

Mueller S, Jaeschke H, Gunther R, Paschke R (2010). The hinge region: an important receptor component for GPHR function. *Trends Endocrinol Metab* 21: 111–122.

Piersma D, Verhoef-Post M, Berns EM, Themmen AP (2007). LH receptor gene mutations and polymorphisms: an overview. *Mol Cell Endocrinol* **260–262**: 282–286.

Puett D, Angelova K, da Costa MR, Warrenfeltz SW, Fanelli F (2010). The luteinizing hormone receptor: insights into structure-function relationships and hormone-receptor-mediated changes in gene expression in ovarian cancer cells. *Mol Cell Endocrinol* 329: 47–55.

Rao CV, Lei ZM (2007). The past, present and future of nongonadal LH/hCG actions in reproductive biology and medicine. *Mol Cell Endocrinol* **269**: 2–8.

Ziecik AJ, Kaczmarek MM, Blitek A, Kowalczyk AE, Li X, Rahman NA (2007). Novel biological and possible applicable roles of LH/hCG receptor. Mol Cell Endocrinol 269: 51–60.

References

Aittomaki K et al. (1995). Cell 82: 959–968.
Beau I et al. (1998). J Clin Invest 102: 1352–1359.
Gromoll J et al. (1996). J Clin Endocrinol Metab 81: 1367–1370.
Kopp P et al. (1995). N Engl J Med 332: 150–154.
Latronico AC, Segaloff DL (1999). Am J Hum Genet 65: 949–958.
Liu G et al. (1999). N Engl J Med 341: 1731–1736.
Parma J et al. (1993). Nature 365: 649–651.

Quintana J et al. (1994). J Biol Chem 269: 8772–8779. Rapoport B et al. (1998). Endocr Rev 19: 673–716. Sairam MR (1989). FASEB J 3: 1915–1926. Shenker A (2002). Receptors Channels 8: 3–18. Sunthornthepvarakul T et al. (1995). N Engl J Med 332: 155–160. Touraine P et al. (1999). Mol Endocrinol 13: 1844–1854.

Gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH)

Overview: GnRH₁ and GnRH₂ receptors (provisonal nomenclature, also called Type I and Type II, respectively) have been cloned from numerous species (most of which express two or three types of GnRH receptor) and grouped phylogenetically (Silver et al., 2005). Gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH) is a hypothalamic decapeptide (pGlu-His-Trp-Ser-Tyr-Gly-Leu-Arg-Pr-Gly-NH₂, also known as luteinising hormone-releasing hormone, gonadoliberin, luliberin, gonadorelin, ENSG00000147437) designated GnRH I, to distinguish it from related peptides, such as GnRH II (pGlu-His-Trp-Ser-His-Gly-Trp-Tyr-Pro-Gly-NH2, also known as chicken GnRH-II, ENSG00000180290). Receptors for all three ligands exist in amphibians but only GnRH I and GnRH II (and their cognate receptors) have been found in mammals (Sealfon et al., 1997; Millar, 2005). GnRH₁ receptors are expressed primarily by pituitary gonadotrophs in mammals and mediate central control of reproduction. They are selectively activated by GnRH I and all lack the C-terminal tails found in other GPCR. GnRH2 receptors all possess C-terminal tails and (where tested) are selective for GnRH II (over GnRH I). An alternative phylogenetic classification (see Millar et al., 2004) divided these receptors into three classes and includes both GnRH I-selective mammalian and GnRH II-selective non-mammalian receptors as GnRH₁ receptors. Although thousands of peptide analogues of GnRH I have been synthesised and several (agonists and antagonists) are used therapeutically (Kiesel et al., 2002), the potency of most of these peptides at GnRH₂ receptors is unknown.

Nomenclature GnRH₂ Other names Type I GnRHR, LHRH receptor, GnRH I receptor Type II GnRHR ENSG00000109163 ENSG00000211451 Ensembl ID Principal transduction $G_{q/11}$ $G_{q/11}$ Rank order of potency GnRH I > GnRH II GnRH II > GnRH I Triptorelin, buserelin, leuprorelin, nafarelin, histrelin, goserelin Selective agonists Antide (9.0, Neill, 2002), cetrorelix (8.8, Neill, 2002), ganirelix, abarelix Trptorelix-1 (Maiti et al., 2003) Selective antagonists [125I]-GnRH I, [125I]-buserelin [125I]-GnRH II **Probes**

GnRH₁ and GnRH₂ receptors couple primarily to $G_{q/11}$ (Grosse et al., 2000) but coupling to G_s and G_i is evident in some systems (Krsmanovic et al., 2003). GnRH₂ receptors may also mediate (heterotrimeric) G protein-independent signalling to protein kinases (see Caunt et al., 2004). There is increasing evidence for expression of GnRH receptors on hormone-dependent cancer cells where they can exert antiproliferative and/or proapoptotic effects and mediate effects of cytotoxins conjugated to GnRH analogues (Limonta et al., 2003; Harrison et al., 2004; Schally and Nagy, 2004; Cheng and Leung, 2005). In some human cancer cell models GnRH II is more potent than GnRH I, implying mediation by GnRH₂ receptors (Grundker et al., 2002). However, GnRH2 receptors that are expressed by some primates are probably not expressed in humans because the human GNRHR2 gene contains a frame shift and internal stop codon (Morgan et al., 2003). The possibility remains that this gene generates GnRH₂ receptor-related proteins (other than the full-length receptor) that mediate responses to GnRH II (see Neill et al., 2004). Alternatively, there is evidence for multiple active GnRH receptor conformations (Caunt et al., 2004; Maudsley et al., 2004; Millar et al., 2004) raising the possibility that GnRH₁ receptor-mediated proliferation inhibition in hormone-dependent cancer cells is dependent upon different conformations (with different ligand specificity) than effects on $G_{g(1)}$ in pituitary cells (Maudsley et al., 2004). Loss-of-function mutations in the GnRH₁ receptor and deficiency of GnRH I are associated with hypogonadotropic hypogonadism although some 'loss of function' mutations may actually prevent trafficking of 'functional' GnRH1 receptors to the cell surface, as evidenced by recovery of function by nonpeptide antagonists (Leanos-Miranda et al., 2003). GnRH receptor signalling may be dependent upon receptor oligomerisation (Conn et al., 1982; Kroeger et al., 2001).

Further Reading

Bliss SP, Navratil AM, Xie J, Roberson MS (2010). GnRH signaling, the gonadotrope and endocrine control of fertility. Front Neuroendocrinol 31:

Bouligand J, Ghervan C, Trabado S, Brailly-Tabard S, Guiochon-Mantel A, Young J (2010). Genetics defects in GNRH1: a paradigm of hypothalamic congenital gonadotropin deficiency. Brain Res 1364: 3-9.

Ciechanowska M, Lapot M, Mateusiak K, Przekop F (2010). Neuroendocrine regulation of GnRH release and expression of GnRH and GnRH receptor genes in the hypothalamus-pituitary unit in different physiological states. Reprod Biol 10: 85-124.

Colledge WH (2009). Kisspeptins and GnRH neuronal signalling. Trends Endocrinol Metab 20: 115-121.

Finch AR, Sedgley KR, Armstrong SP, Caunt CJ, McArdle CA (2010). Trafficking and signalling of gonadotrophin-releasing hormone receptors: an automated imaging approach. Br J Pharmacol 159: 751-760.

Gardner S, Stavrou E, Rischitor PE, Faccenda E, Pawson AJ (2010). Targeting mediators of Wnt signalling pathways by GnRH in gonadotropes. J Mol Endocrinol 44: 195-201.

Huhtaniemi I, White R, McArdle CA, Person BE (2009). Will GnRH antagonists improve prostate cancer treatment? Trends Endocrinol Metab 20:

Millar RP, Lu ZL, Pawson AJ, Flanagan CA, Morgan K, Maudsley SR (2004). Gonadotropin-releasing hormone receptors. Endocr Rev 25: 235–275. Millar RP (2005). GnRHs and GnRH receptors. Anim Reprod Sci 88: 5-28.

Navratil AM, Bliss SP, Roberson MS (2010). Membrane rafts and GnRH receptor signaling. Brain Res 1364: 53-61.

Silveira LF, Trarbach EB, Latronico AC (2010). Genetics basis for GnRH-dependent pubertal disorders in humans. Mol Cell Endocrinol 324: 30-38.

References

Caunt CJ et al. (2004). Endocrinology 145: 3594-3602. Cheng CK, Leung PC (2005). Endocr Rev 26: 283-306. Conn PM et al. (1982). Endocrinology 111: 335-337. Grosse R et al. (2000). J Biol Chem 275: 9193-9200.

Grundker C et al. (2002). Am J Obstet Gynecol 187: 528-537. Harrison GS et al. (2004). Endocr Relat Cancer 11: 725-748. Kiesel LA et al. (2002). Clin Endocrinol 56: 677-687. Kroeger KM et al. (2001). J Biol Chem 276: 12736-12743.

Krsmanovic LZ et al. (2003). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 100: 2969-2974. Leanos-Miranda A et al. (2003). J Clin Endocrinol Metab 88: 3360-3367. Limonta P et al. (2003). Front Neuroendocrinol 24: 279–295. Maiti K et al. (2003). Mol Cells 16: 173-179. Maudsley S et al. (2004). Cancer Res 64: 7533-7544. Morgan K et al. (2003). Endocrinology 144: 423-436.

Neill JD (2002). Endocrinology 143: 737-743. Neill JD et al. (2004). Trends Endocrinol Metab 15: 383-392. Schally AV, Nagy A (2004). Trends Endocrinol Metab 15: 300-310. Sealfon SC et al. (1997). Endocr Rev 18: 180-205. Silver MR et al. (2005). Endocrinology 146: 3351-3361.

G protein-coupled estrogen (GPER)

Overview: The G protein-coupled estrogen receptor (GPER, provisional nomenclature) was identified following observations of oestrogenevoked cyclic AMP signalling in breast cancer cells (Aronica *et al.*, 1994), dependent on the expression of an orphan GPCR GPR30 (Owman *et al.*, 1996; Carmeci *et al.*, 1997). There are observations of both cell-surface and intracellular localization of GPER (Revankar *et al.*, 2005; Thomas *et al.*, 2005).

Nomenclature GPER

Other names GPR30, IL8-related receptor DRY12, flow-induced endothelial G-protein coupled receptor, GPCR-BR

Ensembl ID ENSG00000164850

Principal transduction G_s (Filardo et al., 2000), G_{i/o} (Revankar et al., 2005)

Selective agonists G1 (Bologa *et al.,* 2006)
Selective antagonists G15 (Dennis *et al.,* 2009)

Probes [3H]-Oestrogen (Revankar et al., 2005; Thomas et al., 2005)

Antagonists at the nuclear oestrogen receptor, such as ICI182780 and tamoxifen (Filardo *et al.*, 2000), as well as the flavonoid 'phytoestrogens' genistein and quercetin (Maggiolini *et al.*, 2004), are agonists at GPER receptors.

Abbreviations: G1, 1-(4-[6-bromo-benzo{1,3}]dioxol-5-yl}-3a,4,5,9b-tetrahydro-3Hcyclopenta[c]quinolin-8-yl)ethanone; G15, 4-(6-bromo-benzo[1,3]dioxol-5-yl)-3a,4,5,9b-tetrahydro-3H-cyclopenta[c]quinoline; ICI182780, 7α-(9-[{4,4,5,5,5,-pentafluoropentyl}sulphinyl]nonyl)estra-1,3,5(10)-triene-3,17 β -diol

Further Reading

Nilsson BO, Olde B, Leeb-Lundberg LM (2011). G protein-coupled estrogen receptor 1 (GPER1)/GPR30: a new player in cardiovascular and metabolic estrogenic signaling. Br J Pharmacol 163: 1131–1139.

Olde B, Leeb-Lundberg LMF (2009). GPR30/GPER1: searching for a role in estrogen physiology. Trends Endocrinol Metab 20: 409-416.

Prossnitz ER, Arterburn JB, Smith HO, Oprea TI, Sklar LA, Hathaway HJ (2008). Estrogen signaling through the transmembrane G protein-coupled receptor GPR30. *Annu Rev Physiol* 70: 165–190.

Prossnitz ER, Barton M (2009). Signaling, physiological functions and clinical relevance of the G protein-coupled estrogen receptor GPER. Prostaglandins Other Lipid Mediat 89: 89–97.

Prossnitz ER, Maggiolini M (2009). Mechanisms of estrogen signaling and gene expression via GPR30. Mol Cell Endocrinol 308: 32–38.

Prossnitz ER, Sklar LA, Opros TJ, Arterburn IR (2008). GPR201 a poyel thorogenistic target in extraord related disease. Trends Plagmacel Sci.

Prossnitz ER, Sklar LA, Oprea TI, Arterburn JB (2008). GPR30: a novel therapeutic target in estrogen-related disease. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 29: 116–123.

Smith HO, Arias-Pulido H, Kuo DY et al. (2009). GPR30 predicts poor survival for ovarian cancer. Gynecol Oncol 114: 465-471.

References

Aronica SM *et al.* (1994). *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 91: 8517–8521. Bologa CG *et al.* (2006). *Nat Chem Biol* 2: 207–212. Carmeci C *et al.* (1997). *Genomics* 45: 607–617. Dennis MK *et al.* (2009). *Nat Chem Biol* 5: 421–427. Filardo EJ *et al.* (2000). *Mol Endocrinol* 14: 1649–1660.

Maggiolini M et al. (2004). J Biol Chem 279: 27008–27016. Owman C et al. (1996). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 228: 285–292. Revankar CM et al. (2005). Science 307: 1625–1630. Thomas P et al. (2005). Endocrinology 146: 624–632. Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA GPR18, GPR55 and GPR119 S69

GPR18, GPR55 and GPR119

Overview: GPR18, GPR55 and GPR119 (provisional nomenclature), although showing little structural similarity to CB₁ and CB₂ receptors, respond to endogenous agents analogous to the endogenous cannabinoid ligands, as well as some natural/synthetic cannabinoid receptor ligands (see Pertwee *et al.*, 2010).

Nomenclature GPR18 GPR55 **GPR119** Other names SNORF25 Ensembl ID FNSG00000125245 ENSG00000135898 ENSG00000147262 Principal G_{i/o} (Kohno et al., 2006) G_{12/13} (Ryberg et al., 2007) G_s (Ning et al., 2008; Overton et al., 2006) transduction Putative endogenous N-Arachidonoylglycine (Kohno Lysophosphatidylinositol (Oka N-Oleoylethanolamine > N-palmitoylethanolamine > agonists et al., 2006) et al., 2007). 2-arachidonoylglycerolphosphoinositol N-stearoylethanolamine (Oka et al., 2009) (anandamide is ineffective, Overton et al., 2006) AM251 (Henstridge et al., 2009; PSN375963, PSN632408 (Overton Synthetic agonists Kapur et al., 2009) et al., 2006), AS1269574 (Yoshida et al., 2010)

GPR18 failed to respond to a variety of lipid-derived agents in an *in vitro* screen (Yin *et al.*, 2009), but has recently been reported to be activated by Δ^9 -tetrahydrocannnabinol (McHugh *et al.*, 2011). GPR55 responds to AM251 and rimonabant at micromolar concentrations, compared to their nanomolar affinity as CB₁ receptor antagonists/inverse agonists (see Pertwee *et al.*, 2010). Lysophosphatidylinositol has been reported to act at other sites (Bondarenko *et al.*, 2011). Oleoyl-lysophosphatidylcholine has also been suggested to act, at least in part, through GPR119 (Ning *et al.*, 2008). Although PSN375963 and PSN632408 produce GPR119-dependent responses in heterologous expression systems, comparison with OEA-mediated responses suggests additional mechanisms of action (Ning *et al.*, 2008).

Abbreviations: AM251, N-(piperidin-1-yl)-5-(4-iodophenyl)-1-(2,4-dichlorophenyl)-4-methyl-1*H*-pyrazole-3-carboxamide; AS1269574, 2-([2-{4-bromophenyl}-6-methyl-4-pyrimidinyl]amino)ethanol; PSN375963, 4-(5-[4-butylcyclohexyl]-1,2,4-oxadiazol-3-yl)pyridine; PSN632408, 4-([3-{4-pyridinyl}-1,2,4-oxadiazol-5-yl]methoxy)-1-piperidinecarboxylic acid, 1,1-dimethylethyl ester; rimonabant, N-(piperidin-1-yl)-5-(4-chlorophenyl)-1-(2,4-dichlorophenyl)-4-methyl-1*H*-pyrazole-3-carboxamide hydrochloride, also known as SR141716A

Further Reading

Bradshaw HB, Lee SH, McHugh D (2009). Orphan endogenous lipids and orphan GPCRs: a good match. *Prostaglandins Other Lipid Mediat* 89: 131–134.

Godlewski G, Offertaler L, Wagner JA, Kunos G (2009). Receptors for acylethanolamides-GPR55 and GPR119. *Prostaglandins Other Lipid Mediat* 89: 105–111.

Hansen HS, Diep TA (2009). N-Acylethanolamines, anandamide and food intake. Biochem Pharmacol 78: 553-560.

Pertwee RG, Howlett AC, Abood ME, Alexander SPH, Di Marzo V, Elphick MR et al. (2010). International Union of Basic and Clinical Pharmacology. LXXIX. Cannabinoid receptors and their ligands: beyond CB₁ and CB₂. Pharmacol Rev 62: 588–631.

Ross RA (2011). L-α-Lysophosphatidylinositol meets GPR55: a deadly relationship. Trends Pharmacol Sci 32: 265–269.

Sharir H, Abood ME (2010). Pharmacological characterization of GPR55, a putative cannabinoid receptor. Pharmacol Ther 126: 301–313.

References

Bondarenko AI *et al.* (2011). *Pflugers Arch* **461**: 177–189. Henstridge CM *et al.* (2009). *FASEB J* **23**: 183–193. Kapur A *et al.* (2009). *J Biol Chem* **284**: 29817–29827. Kohno M *et al.* (2006). *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* **347**: 827–832. McHugh D *et al.* (2011). *Br J Pharmacol* in press. Ning Y *et al.* (2008). *Br J Pharmacol* **155**: 1056–1065.

Oka S et al. (2007). Biochem Biophys Res Commun **362**: 928–934. Oka S et al. (2009). J Biochem **145**: 13–20. Overton HA et al. (2006). Cell Metab **3**: 167–175. Ryberg E et al. (2007). Br J Pharmacol **152**: 1092–1101. Yin H et al. (2009). J Biol Chem **284**: 12328–12338. Yoshida S et al. (2010). Biochem Biophys Res Commun **400**: 437–441.

\$70 Histamine Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Histamine

Overview: Histamine receptors (nomenclature as agreed by NC-IUPHAR Subcommittee on Histamine Receptors, see Hill *et al.*, 1997) are activated by the endogenous ligand histamine. Marked species differences exist between histamine receptor orthologues (see Hill *et al.*, 1997).

Nomenclature	H ₁	H_2	H ₃	H ₄
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000196639	ENSG00000168546	ENSG00000146013	ENSG00000134489
Principal transduction	$G_{q/11}$	G_s	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{i/o}$
Selective agonists	Histaprodifen, <i>N</i> ^r -methylhistaprodifen	Amthamine	Methimepip (Kitbunnadaj et al., 2005), immethridine (Kitbunnadaj et al., 2004)	Clobenpropit, 4-methylhistamine, VUF8430 (Lim <i>et al.</i> , 2006)
Selective antagonists	Triprolidine (9.9), mepyramine (9.1)	Tiotidine (7.8), ranitidine (7.1)	Clobenpropit (9.9), iodophenpropit (9.6), A331440 (8.5, Hancock et al., 2004), thioperamide (8.4)	JNJ7777120 (8.1)
Probes	[³ H]-Mepyramine (1 nM), [¹¹ C]-Mepyramine, [¹¹ C]-doxepin	[³ H]-Tiotidine (15 nM), [¹²⁵ i]-iodoaminopotentidine (0.3 nM)	[³H]-R-α-Methylhistamine (0.5 nM), [³H]-N ^α -methylhistamine (2 nM), [¹²⁵l]-iodophenpropit (0.6 nM), [¹²⁵l]-iodoproxyfan (0.06 nM)	[³ H]-JNJ7777120 (3.6 nM)

Histaprodifen and N^{T} -methylhistaprodifen are reduced efficacy agonists. The H₄ receptor appears to exhibit broadly similar pharmacology to the H₃ receptor for imidazole-containing ligands, although R-α-methylhistamine and N-α-methylhistamine are less potent, while clobenpropit acts as a reduced efficacy agonist (Nakamura *et al.*, 2000; Oda *et al.*, 2000; Liu *et al.*, 2001; Nguyen *et al.*, 2001; Zhu *et al.*, 2001). Moreover, 4-methylhistamine is identified as a high affinity, full agonist for the human H₄ receptor (Lim *et al.*, 2005). [3 H]-Histamine has been used to label the H₄ receptor in heterologous expression systems.

Further Reading

Gemkow MJ, Davenport AJ, Harich S, Ellenbroek BA, Cesura A, Hallett D (2009). The histamine H₃ receptor as a therapeutic drug target for CNS disorders. *Drug Discov Today* 14: 509–515.

Haas HL, Sergeeva OA, Selbach O (2008). Histamine in the nervous system. Physiol Rev 88: 1183-1241.

Hill SJ, Ganellin CR, Timmerman H, Schwartz JC, Shankley NP, Young JM *et al.* (1997). International Union of Pharmacology. XIII. Classification of histamine receptors. *Pharmacol Rev* 49: 253–278.

Leurs R, Chazot PL, Shenton FC, Lim HD, de Esch IJ (2009). Molecular and biochemical pharmacology of the histamine H₄ receptor. Br J Pharmacol 157: 14–23.

Panula P, Nuutinen S (2011). Histamine and H₃ receptor in alcohol-related behaviors. J Pharmacol Exp Ther 336: 9–16.

Passani MB, Blandina P, Torrealba F (2011). The histamine H₃ receptor and eating behavior. J Pharmacol Exp Ther 336: 24–29.

Thurmond RL, Gelfand EW, Dunford PJ (2008). The role of histamine H₁ and H₄ receptors in allergic inflammation: the search for new antihistamines. *Nat Rev Drug Discov* 7: 41–53.

Yanai K, Tashiro M (2007). The physiological and pathophysiological roles of neuronal histamine: An insight from human positron emission tomography studies. *Pharmacol Ther* 113: 1–15.

Zampeli E, Tiligada E (2009). The role of histamine H₄ receptor in immune and inflammatory disorders. Br J Pharmacol 157: 24–33.

Zhang M, Thurmond RL, Dunford PJ (2007). The histamine H₄ receptor: a novel modulator of inflammatory and immune disorders. *Pharmacol Ther* 113: 594–606.

References

Hancock AA *et al.* (2004). *Eur J Pharmacol* **487**: 183–197. Kitbunnadaj R *et al.* (2004). *J Med Chem* **47**: 2414–2417. Kitbunnadaj R *et al.* (2005). *Bioorg Med Chem* **13**: 6309–6323. Lim HD *et al.* (2005). *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* **314**: 1310–1321. Lim HD *et al.* (2006). *J Med Chem* **49**: 6650–6651.

Liu C *et al.* (2001). *Mol Pharmacol* **59**: 420–426. Nakamura T *et al.* (2000). *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* **279**: 615–620. Nguyen T *et al.* (2001). *Mol Pharmacol* **59**: 427–433. Oda T *et al.* (2000). *J Biol Chem* **275**: 36781–36786. Zhu Y *et al.* (2001). *Mol Pharmacol* **59**: 434–441. Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Hydroxycarboxylic acid family \$71

Hydroxycarboxylic acid family

Overview: The hydroxycarboxylic acid family of receptors (ENSFM00500000271913, nomenclature as agreed by NC-IUPHAR Subcommittee on Hydroxycarboxylic acid receptors, see Offermanns *et al.*, 2011) respond to organic acids, including the endogenous short chain fatty acids, butyrate and lactate, as well as the lipid lowering agents nicotinic acid (niacin), acipimox and acifran (Soga *et al.*, 2003; Tunaru *et al.*, 2003; Wise *et al.*, 2003). These receptors were provisionally described as nicotinic acid receptors, although nicotinic acid shows submicromolar potency at HCA2 receptors only (Tunaru *et al.*, 2003; Wise *et al.*, 2003).

Nomenclature	HCA ₁	HCA ₂	HCA ₃
Other names	GPR81, GPR104	GPR109A, Niacin receptor 1, HM74A, Nic1, Puma-G,	GPR109B, Low affinity nicotinic acid receptor, HM74, Nic2
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000196917	ENSG00000182782	ENSG00000255398
Principal transduction	G _{i/o} (Ge <i>et al.</i> , 2008)	G _{i/o} (Soga <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Wise <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Tunaru <i>et al.</i> , 2003)	$G_{i/o}$ (Soga et al., 2003; Wise et al., 2003)
Selective agonists	Lactate (Cai <i>et al.</i> , 2008; Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2009)	Nicotinic acid (Soga et al., 2003; Wise et al., 2003; Tunaru et al., 2003), acipimox (Wise et al., 2003), 3-hydroxybutyrate (Taggart et al., 2005)	3-Hydroxyoctanoic acid (Ahmed et al., 2009), IBC293 (Semple et al., 2006)
Probes	-	[³ H]-Nicotinic acid (Soga <i>et al.,</i> 2003)	-

Further closely-related GPCR include the 5-oxoeicosanoid receptor (ENSG00000162881, see Page S74) and GPR31 (ENSG00000120436).

Abbreviations: IBC293, 1-(1-methylethyl)-1H-benzotriazole-5-carboxylic acid

Further Reading

Boatman PD, Richman JG, Semple G (2008). Nicotinic acid receptor agonists. J Med Chem 51: 7653-7662.

Chapman MJ, Redfern JS, McGovern ME, Giral P (2010). Niacin and fibrates in atherogenic dyslipidemia: Pharmacotherapy to reduce cardiovascular risk. *Pharmacol Ther* 126: 314–345.

Gille A, Bodor ET, Ahmed K, Offermanns S (2008). Nicotinic acid: pharmacological effects and mechanisms of action. *Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol* **48**: 79–106.

Guyton JR (2007). Niacin in cardiovascular prevention: mechanisms, efficacy, and safety. Curr Opin Lipidol 18: 415-420.

Offermanns S, Colletti SL, Lovenberg TW, Semple G, Wise A, IJzerman AP (2011). International Union of Basic and Clinical Pharmacology. LXXXII: nomenclature and classification of hydroxy-carboxylic acid receptors (GPR81, GPR109A, and GPR109B). *Pharmacol Rev* 63: 269–290. Soudijn W, van Wijngaarden I, IJzerman AP (2007). Nicotinic acid receptor subtypes and their ligands. *Med Res Rev* 27: 417–433. Vosper H (2009). Niacin: a re-emerging pharmaceutical for the treatment of dyslipidaemia. *Br J Pharmacol* 158: 429–441.

References

Ahmed K et al. (2009). J Biol Chem **284**: 21928–21933. Cai TQ et al. (2008). Biochem Biophys Res Commun **377**: 987–991. Ge H et al. (2008). J Lipid Res **49**: 797–803. Liu C et al. (2009). J Biol Chem **284**: 2811–2822. Semple G et al. (2006). J Med Chem **49**: 1227–1230. Soga T et al. (2003). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 303: 364–369. Taggart AK et al. (2005). J Biol Chem 280: 26649–26652. Tunaru S et al. (2003). Nat Med 9: 352–355. Wise A et al. (2003). J Biol Chem 278: 9869–9874.

KISS1, neuropeptide FF, prolactin-releasing peptide and QRFP

Overview: KISS1 (nomenclature agreed by NC-IUPHAR committee on kisspeptin receptors (Kirby et al., 2010), neuropeptide FF (NPFF), prolactin-releasing peptide (PrP) and QRFP receptors (provisional nomenclature) respond to endogenous peptides with an argininephenylalanine-amide (RFamide) motif. Kisspeptin-54 (KP54, originally named metastin), KP13 and KP10 are biologically-active peptides cleaved from the KISS1 gene product (ENSG00000170498), while a single propeptide precursor (ENSG00000139574) generates the octapeptides NPFF (FLFQPQRF-NH₂, neuropeptide FF or F-8-F-amide) and NPSF (SLAAPQRF-NH₂, neuropeptide SF) and the octadecapeptide NPAF (AGEGLSSPFWSLAAPQRF-NH2, neuropeptide AF or A-18-F-amide). NPFF and NPAF were originally isolated from bovine brain (Yang et al., 1985). The precursor (ENSG00000071677) for PrRP generates 31 and 20-amino-acid versions. QRFP (named after a pyroglutamylated argininephenylalanine-amide peptide) is a 43 amino acid peptide derived from ENSG00000188710, and is also known as P518 or 26RFa. RFRP is an RF amide-related peptide (Hinuma et al., 2000) derived from a FMRFamide-related peptide precursor (ENSG00000105954), which is cleaved to generate neuropeptide NPSF (Neuropeptide RFRP-1), neuropeptide RFRP-2 and neuropeptide NPVF (neuropeptide RFRP-3).

Nomenclature	KISS1	NPFF1	NPFF2	PrRP	QRFP
Other names	hOT7T175 (Ohtaki et al., 2001), GPR54, metastin, hypogonadotropin	Neuropeptide FF 1, GPR147 (Bonini et al., 2000), OT/T022	Neuropeptide FF 2, GPR74 (Bonini <i>et al.</i> , 2000), HLWAR77	Prolactin-releasing peptide, GPR10 (Hinuma <i>et al.</i> , 1998), hGR3, UHR-1	SP9155 (Jiang <i>et al.</i> , 2003), AQ27 (Fukusumi <i>et al.</i> , 2003), P518
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000116014	ENSG00000148734	ENSG00000056291	ENSG00000119973	ENSG00000186867
Principal transduction	G _{q/11} (Kotani <i>et al.,</i> 2001; Muir <i>et al.,</i> 2001)	$G_{q/11}$	G _{i/o} (Mollereau <i>et al.,</i> 2005)	G _{q/11} (Langmead et al., 2000)	G _{q/11} , G _{i/o} (Fukusumi et al., 2003)
Potency order	-	FMRF, NPFF > NPAF > NPSF, QRFP, PrP31 (Gouardères <i>et al.</i> , 2007)	NPAF, NPFF > PrP31 > FMRF, QRFP > NPSF (Gouardères et al., 2007)	PrRP20, PrRP31 (Langmead <i>et al.</i> , 2000)	-
Selective agonists	KP54, KP13, KP10 (Kotani et al., 2001; Ohtaki et al., 2001), 4-fluorobenzoyl- FGLRW-NH ₂ (Tomita et al., 2008), [dY]¹KP-10 (Curtis et al., 2010)	NPFF, NPVF	NPFF, dNPA (Roussin et al., 2005), AC263093 (Lameh et al., 2010)	PrRP	QRFP
Selective antagonists	Peptide 234 (Roseweir <i>et al.,</i> 2009)	AC262620, AC262970 (Lameh et al., 2010)	-	Neuropeptide Y (Lagerstrom <i>et al.,</i> 2005)	-
Probes	[¹²⁵ I]-KP10 (Kotani et al., 2001), [¹²⁵ I]KP14 (Mead et al., 2007), [¹²⁵ I-Tyr ⁴⁵]-KP15 (Ohtaki et al., 2001)	[1251]-NPFF, [1251]-YVP (Gouardères et al., 2002), [3H]-NPVF (Talmont et al., 2009)	[¹²⁵]]-NPFF, [¹²⁵]]-EYF (Gouardères <i>et al.</i> , 2002), [³ H]-EYF (Talmont <i>et al.</i> , 2009)	[¹²⁵]-PrRP20 (Langmead <i>et al.,</i> 2000), [¹²⁵]-PrRP31 (Ellacott <i>et al.,</i> 2005)	[¹²⁵ I]-QRFP (Takayasu et al., 2006)

An orphan receptor GPR83 (ENSG00000123901) shows sequence similarities with NPFF1, NPFF2, PrRP and QRFP receptors. The antagonist RF9 is selective for NPFF receptors, but does not distinguish between the NPFF1 and NPFF2 subtypes (pKi 7.1 and 7.2, respectively, Simonin et al.,

Abbreviations: dNPA, D-Asn-Pro-(N-Me)Ala-Phe-Leu-Phe-Gln-Pro-Gln-Arg-Phe-NH₂; NPVF, Val-Pro-Asn-Leu-Pro-Gln-Arg-Phe-NH₂; Peptide 234, ac[(D)-A]NWNGFG[9D)-W]RF; RF9, adamantylcarbonyl-arginyl-phenylalaninamide; AC262620, AC262970, AC263093

Further Reading

Colledge WH (2009). Kisspeptins and GnRH neuronal signalling. Trends Endocrinol Metab 20: 115-121.

Fukusumi S, Fujii R, Hinuma S (2006). Recent advances in mammalian RFamide peptides: the discovery and functional analyses of PrRP, RFRPs and QRFP. Peptides 27: 1073-1086.

Hameed S, Jayasena CN, Dhillo WS (2011). Kisspeptin and fertility. J Endocrinol 208: 97-105.

Jayasena CN, Dhillo WS, Bloom SR (2009). Kisspeptins and the control of gonadotropin secretion in humans. Peptides 30: 76–82.

Kirby HR, Maguire JJ, Colledge WH, Davenport AP (2010). International Union of Basic and Clinical Pharmacology. LXXVII. Kisspeptin receptor nomenclature, distribution, and function. Pharmacol Rev 62: 565-578.

Mead EJ, Maguire JJ, Kuc RE, Davenport AP (2007). Kisspeptins: a multifunctional peptide system with a role in reproduction, cancer and the cardiovascular system. Br J Pharmacol 151: 1143-1153.

Millar RP, Roseweir AK, Tello JA, Anderson RA, George JT, Morgan K et al. (2010). Kisspeptin antagonists: unraveling the role of kisspeptin in reproductive physiology. Brain Res 1364: 81-89.

Mouledous L, Mollereau C, Zajac JM (2010). Opioid-modulating properties of the neuropeptide FF system. Biofactors 36: 423–429.

Oakley AE, Clifton DK, Steiner RA (2009). Kisspeptin signaling in the brain. Endocr Rev 30: 713-743.

Samson WK, Taylor MM (2006). Prolactin releasing peptide (PrRP): an endogenous regulator of cell growth. Peptides 27: 1099-1103.

Seminara SB (2006). Mechanisms of disease: the first kiss-a crucial role for kisspeptin-1 and its receptor, G-protein-coupled receptor 54, in puberty and reproduction. Nat Clin Pract Endocrinol Metab 2: 328-334.

Takayanagi Y, Onaka T (2010). Roles of prolactin-releasing peptide and RFamide related peptides in the control of stress and food intake. FEBS I 277: 4998-5005.

Tena-Sempere M (2010). Kisspeptin signaling in the brain: recent developments and future challenges. Mol Cell Endocrinol 314: 164–169. Vyas N, Mollereau C, Cheve G, McCurdy CR (2006). Structure-activity relationships of neuropeptide FF and related peptidic and non-peptidic derivatives. Peptides 27: 990-996.

Yang HY, Tao T, Iadarola MJ (2008). Modulatory role of neuropeptide FF system in nociception and opiate analgesia. Neuropeptides 42: 1-18.

References

Bonini JA et al. (2000). J Biol Chem 275: 39324-39331. Curtis AE et al. (2010). Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab 298: E296-E303. Ellacott KL et al. (2005). Peptides 26: 675-681. Fukusumi S et al. (2003). J Biol Chem 278: 46387-46395. Gouardères C et al. (2002). Neuroscience 115: 349-361. Gouardères C et al. (2007). Neuropharmacology 52: 376-386. Hinuma S et al. (1998). Nature 393: 272-276. Hinuma S et al. (2000). Nat Cell Biol 2: 703-708. Jiang Y et al. (2003). J Biol Chem 278: 27652-27657. Kotani M et al. (2001). J Biol Chem 276: 34631-34636. Lagerstrom MC et al. (2005). Genomics 85: 688-703. Lameh J et al. (2010). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 334: 244-254.

Langmead CJ et al. (2000). Br J Pharmacol 131: 683-688. Mead EJ et al. (2007). Endocrinology 148: 140-147. Mollereau C et al. (2005). Mol Pharmacol 67: 965-975. Muir A et al. (2001). J Biol Chem 276: 28969-28975. Ohtaki T et al. (2001). Nature 411: 613-617. Roseweir AK et al. (2009). J Neurosci 29: 3920-3929. Roussin A et al. (2005). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 336: 197-203. Simonin F et al. (2006). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 103: 466-471. Takayasu S et al. (2006). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 103: 7438-7443. Talmont F et al. (2009). Neurochem Int 55: 815-819. Tomita K et al. (2008). Biopolymers 90: 503-511. Yang HY et al. (1985). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 82: 7757-7761.

Leukotriene, lipoxin, oxoeicosanoid and resolvin

Overview: Leukotriene receptors (nomenclature agreed by NC-IUPHAR on Leukotriene and Lipoxin Receptors, Brink et al., 2003) are activated by the endogenous ligands leukotriene (LT) B₄. LTC₄. LTD₄. LTE₄. 12R-HETE and 12S-HETE. CvsLT₁ and CvsLT₂ are co-expressed by most myeloid cells. However, the function of CysLT₂ remains unclear. CysLT₂ has been demonstrated to exert a suppressive influence on CysLT₁ expression, suggesting an autoregulatory function which is indicated by a reported up-regulation of CysLT-mediated responses in mice lacking CysLT₂ receptors (Jiang et al., 2007).

Leukotrienes bind extensively to enzymes in their metabolic pathways (glutathione-S-transferase/LTC₄ synthase, γ-glutamyltranspeptidase and several aminopeptidases) and can also bind to peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor α (PPAR α , Lin et al., 1999) and the FPR2/ÅLX lipoxin receptor (Fiore et al., 1994), complicating the interpretation of radioligand binding and functional studies (e.g. LTC4 is rapidly converted in many systems to LTD₄). Metabolic inhibitors (e.g. serine-borate complex) reduce this problem but can also have non-specific effects.

Nomenclature	BLT ₁	BLT ₂	CysLT ₁	CysLT ₂
Other names	LTB ₄	_	HG55, HMTMF81, LTD₄	HPN321, LTC₄
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000116329	ENSG00000082556	ENSG00000173198	ENSG00000152207
Principal transduction	$G_{q/11}$, $G_{i/o}$	$G_{q/11}$, $G_{i/o}$	$G_{q/11}$	$G_{q/11}$
Rank order of potency	LTB ₄ > 20-hydroxy-LTB ₄ >> 12 <i>R</i> -HETE (Yokomizo <i>et al.</i> , 2001)	LTB ₄ > 12s-HETE = 12s-HPETE > 15s-HETE > 12R-HETE = 5s-HETE > 20-hydroxy-LTB ₄ (Yokomizo et al., 2001)	LTD ₄ > LTC ₄ > LTE ₄ (Sarau <i>et al.,</i> 1999)	LTC ₄ = LTD ₄ >> LTE ₄ (Nothacker <i>et al.</i> , 2000)
Selective agonists	-	12s-HETE	-	BAYu9773
Selective antagonists	CP105696 (pIC ₅₀ 7.2), U75302 (pIC ₅₀ 6.9)	LY255283 (pIC ₅₀ 6.0)	Zafirlukast (9.5), montelukast (9.3), SR2640 (8.7), pobilukast (8.6), sulukast (8.3)	-
Probes	[³ H]-LTB ₄ (0.2–0.7 nM), [³ H]-CGS23131 (13 nM)	[³ H]-LTB ₄ (0.2–23 nM)	[³H]-LTD ₄ , [³H]-ICI198615	[³H]-LTD₄

BAYu9773 is an antagonist at CysLT₁ (6.8–7.7) and a reduced efficacy agonist at CysLT₂ receptors. The CysLT₁ and CyLT₂ receptors also respond to uracil nucleotides (Mellor et al., 2001; 2003). GPR17 has been described as a 'dualistic' receptor responding to both uracil nucleotides and cysteinyl leukotrienes, responses which may be inhibited by antagonists of either P2 or CysLT receptors (Ciana et al., 2006).

Lipoxin A₄ receptors (FPR2/ALX, nomenclature agreed by NC-IUPHAR on Leukotriene and Lipoxin Receptors; Ye et al., 2009) are activated by the endogenous lipid-derived, anti-inflammatory ligands lipoxin A₄ (LXA₄) and 15-epi-LXA₄ (aspirin-triggered lipoxin A₄, ATL). The FPR2/ALX receptor also interacts with endogenous peptide and protein ligands, such as MHC binding peptide (Chiang et al., 2000) as well as annexin 1 (ANXA1) and its N-terminal peptides (Perretti et al., 2002). In addition, a soluble hydrolytic product of protease action on the urokinase-type plasminogen activator receptor has been reported to activate the FPR2/ALX receptor (Resnati et al., 2002). Furthermore, FPR2/ALX has been suggested to act as a receptor mediating proinflammatory actions of the acute-phase reactant, serum amyloid A (Su et al., 1999; Sodin-Semrl et al., 2004).

Oxoeicosanoid receptors (OXE, nomenclature agreed by NC-IUPHAR on Oxoeicosanoid Receptors; Brink et al., 2004) are activated by endogenous chemotactic eicosanoid ligands oxidised at the C-5 position, with 5-oxo-ETE the most potent agonist identified for this receptor.

Nomenclature	FPR2/ALX	OXE
Other names	FPRL1, FPR2, FPRH2, RFP, ALX	TG1019 (Hosoi et al., 2002), R527 (Jones et al., 2003), hGPCR48 (Koike et al., 2006)
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000171049	ENSG00000162881
Principal transduction	G _i (Maddox <i>et al.,</i> 1997)	$G_{i/o}$ (O'Flaherty et al., 2000; Hosoi et al., 2002; Jones et al., 2003; Hosoi et al., 2005)
Rank order of potency	$LXA_4 = ATL = ATLa2 > LTC_4 = LTD_4 >> 15-deoxy-LXA_4 >> fMLP (Clish et al., 1999; Fiore et al., 1994; Fiore and Serhan, 1995; Gronert et al., 2001; Takano et al., 1997)$	5-Oxo-ETE, 5-oxo-C20:3 >> 5s-HpETE > 5s-HETE (Hosoi <i>et al.</i> , 2002; Jones <i>et al.</i> , 2003, Patel <i>et al.</i> , 2008)
Selective agonists	LXA ₄ , ATL, ATLa2 (Guilford <i>et al.</i> , 2004), RvD1 (Krishnamoorthy <i>et al.</i> , 2010)	5-Oxo-ETE
Probes	[³H]-LXA₄ (0.2–1.7 nM; Fiore <i>et al.,</i> 1994; Takano <i>et al.,</i> 1997)	[³H]-5-oxo-ETE (3.8 nM, O'Flaherty et al., 1998)

Note that the data for FPR2/ALX are also reproduced on the Formylpeptide receptor pages (see Page S48). A receptor selective for LXB4 has been suggested from functional studies (Maddox and Serhan, 1996; Romano et al., 1996; Ariel et al., 2003). Initial characterization of the heterologously expressed OXE receptor suggested that polyunsaturated fatty acids, such as DHA and EPA, acted as receptor antagonists (Hosoi et al., 2002).

Resolvin receptors (provisional nomenclature) are activated by the lipid-derived, anti-inflammatory ligand resolvin E1 (RvE1), which is the result of sequential metabolism of EPA by aspirin-modified cyclooxygenase and lipoxygenase (Arita et al., 2005a,b). In addition, 2 GPCRs for resolvin D1 (RvD1) have been identified, FPR2/ALX, the lipoxin A4 receptor, and GPR32, an orphan receptor (Krishnamoorthy et al., 2010).

Nomenclature RvD1 Other names ChemR23, chemokine receptor-like 1, DEZ GPR32 Ensembl ID ENSG00000174600 ENSG00000142511 Principal transduction Not yet established Not yet established Rank order of potency RvE1 > chemerin C-terminal peptide > 18R-HEPE > EPA RvD1 > LXA4(Arita et al., 2005a,b) Selective agonists RvE1 RvD1. LXA₄ **Probes** [3H]-RvE1 (11 nM, Arita et al., 2005a) [3H]-RvD1 (0.2 nM, Krishnamoorthy et al., 2010)

Abbreviations: 12R-HETE. 12R-hydroxyeicosa-5z.8z.10E.14z-tetraenoic acid: 18R-HEPE. 18R-hydroxyeicosapentaenoic acid: 5s-HETE. 5s-hydroxy-6E,8z,11z,14z-eicosatetraenoic acid; 5-oxo-C20:3, 5-oxo-6E,8z,11z,14z-eicosatetraenoic acid; 5-oxo-C20:3, 5-oxo-6E,8z,11zeicosatrienoic acid; 5-oxo-ETE, 5-oxo-6E,8z,11z,14z-eicosatetraenoic acid; ANXA1, annexin 1; ATL, aspirin-triggered lipoxin A4 [15-epi-LXA4, 5s,6R,15R-trihydroxyl-7*E*,9*E*,13*E*,11*z*-eicosatetraenoic acid]; ATLa2, ATL analog [15-*epi*-16-(para-fluoro)-phenoxy-LXA₄]; BAYu9773, 6(*R*)-(4'-CGS23131, carboxyphenyl-thio)-5(S)-hydroxy-7E,11Z,14Z-eicosatetraenoic acid; (E)-5-(3-carboxybenzoyl)-2- $([6-{4-methoxyphenyl}-5$ hexenyl]oxy)benzene propanoic acid; also known as LY223982; CP105696, (+)-1-(3S,4R)-[3-(4-phenylbenzyl)-4-hydroxy-chroman-7yl]cyclopentane carboxylic acid; DHA, 4z,7z,10z,13z,16z,19z-docosahexaenoic acid; EPA, 5z,8z,11z,14z,17z-eicosapentaenoic acid; ICI198615, (1-[2-methoxy-4-[([phenylsulfonylamino]carbonyl)phenyl]methyl]-1*H*-indazol-6-yl)carbamic acid cyclopentyl ester; LTC₄, leukotriene C₄; LTD₄, leukotriene D4; LXA4, lipoxin A4 [5S,6R,1SS-trihydroxyl-7E,9E,13E-11z-eicosatetraenoic acid]; LY255283, 1-(5-ethyl-2-hydroxy-4-[{6-methyl-(1H-tetrazol-5-yl)-heptyl}-oxy]-phenyl)-ethanone; OXE, oxoeicosanoid; RvE1, resolvin E1 or 5s,12r,18r-trihydroxy-6z,8e,10e,14z,16e-EPA; SR2640, 2-(3-[2-quinolylmethoxy]phenylamino)benzoic acid; U75302, 6-(6-(3-hydroxy-1E,5z-undecadien-1-yl)-2-pyridinyl)-1,5-hexanediol

Further Reading

Ariel A, Serhan CN (2007). Resolvins and protectins in the termination program of acute inflammation. Trends Immunol 28: 176–183. Baker N, O'Meara SJ, Scannell M, Maderna P, Godson C (2009). Lipoxin A4: anti-inflammatory and anti-angiogenic impact on endothelial cells. I Immunol 182: 3819-3826.

Brink C, Dahlen SE, Drazen J, Evans JF, Hay DWP, Nicosia S et al. (2003). International Union of Pharmacology. XXXVII. Nomenclature for Leukotriene and Lipoxin Receptors. Pharmacol Rev 55: 195-227.

Brink C, Dahlen SE, Drazen J, Evans JF, Hay DWP, Rovati GE et al. (2004). International Union of Pharmacology XLIV. Nomenclature for the oxoeicosanoid receptor. Pharmacol Rev 56: 149-157.

Grant GE, Rokach J, Powell WS (2009). 5-Oxo-ETE and the OXE receptor. Prostaglandins Other Lipid Mediat 89: 98-104.

Kohli P, Levy BD (2009). Resolvins and protectins: mediating solutions to inflammation. Br J Pharmacol 158: 960-971.

Ryan A, Godson C (2010). Lipoxins: regulators of resolution. Curr Opin Pharmacol 10: 166-172.

Serhan CN, Chiang N (2008). Endogenous pro-resolving and anti-inflammatory lipid mediators: a new pharmacologic genus. Br J Pharmacol 153 Suppl 1: S200-S215.

Serhan CN, Chiang N, Van Dyke TE (2008). Resolving inflammation: dual anti-inflammatory and pro-resolution lipid mediators. Nat Rev Immunol 8: 349-361.

Serhan CN, Yacoubian S, Yang R (2008). Anti-inflammatory and proresolving lipid mediators. Annu Rev Pathol 3: 279-312.

Uddin M, Levy BD (2011). Resolvins: Natural agonists for resolution of pulmonary inflammation. Prog Lipid Res 50: 75-88.

Xu ZZ, Ji RR (2011). Resolvins are potent analgesics for arthritic pain. Br J Pharmacol in press.

Ye RD, Boulay F, Wang JM et al. (2009). International Union of Basic and Clinical Pharmacology. LXXIII. Nomenclature for the formyl peptide receptor (FPR) family. Pharmacol Rev 61: 119-161.

References

Ariel A et al. (2003). J Immunol 170: 6266-6272. Arita M et al. (2005a). J Exp Med 201: 713-722. Arita M et al. (2005b). J Immunol 178: 3912-3917. Chiang N et al. (2000). J Exp Med 191: 1197-1208. Ciana P et al. (2006). EMBO J 25: 4615-4627. Clish CB et al. (1999). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 96: 8247-8252. Fiore S et al. (1994). J Exp Med 180: 253-260. Fiore S, Serhan CN (1995). Biochemistry 34: 16678-16686. Gronert K et al. (2001). Am J Pathol 158: 3-9. Guilford WJ et al. (2004). J Med Chem 47: 2157-2165. Hosoi T et al. (2002). J Biol Chem 277: 31459-31465. Hosoi T et al. (2005). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 334: 987-995. Jiang Y et al. (2007). Blood 110: 3263-3270. Jones CE et al. (2003). Mol Pharmacol 63: 471-477. Koike D et al. (2006). J Biochem (Tokyo) 139: 543-549. Krishnamoorthy S et al. (2010). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 107: 1660-1665.

Maddox JF et al. (1997). J Biol Chem 272: 6972-6978. Maddox JF, Serhan CN (1996). J Exp Med 183: 137-146. Mellor EA et al. (2001). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 98: 7964-7969. Mellor EA et al. (2003). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 100: 11589-11593. Nothacker HP et al. (2000). Mol Pharmacol 58: 1601-1608. O'Flaherty JT et al. (1998). J Biol Chem 273: 32535-32541. O'Flaherty JT et al. (2000). J Immunol 164: 3345-3352. Patel P et al. (2008). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 325: 698-707. Perretti M et al. (2002). Nat Med 8: 1296-1302. Resnati M et al. (2002). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 99: 1359-1364. Romano M et al. (1996). J Immunol 157: 2149-2154. Sarau HM et al. (1999). Mol Pharmacol 56: 657-663. Sodin-Semrl S et al. (2004). Int J Immunopathol Pharmacol 17: 145-156. Su SB et al. (1999). J Exp Med 189: 395-402. Takano T et al. (1997). J Exp Med 185: 1693-1704. Yokomizo T et al. (2001). J Biol Chem 276: 12454-12459.

Lin Q et al. (1999). Biochemistry 38: 185-190.

S76 Lysophosphatidic acid Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Lysophosphatidic acid

Overview: Lysophosphatidic acid (LPA) receptors (nomenclature as agreed by NC-IUPHAR Subcommittee on Lysophospholipid Receptors; Chun et~al., 2010) are activated by the endogenous lipid derivative LPA. Originally identified as members of the endothelial differentiation gene (edg) family along with sphingosine 1-phosphate receptors, the gene names have been updated to LPARI, etc. to reflect the receptor function of these proteins. The identified receptors can account for most, although not all, LPA-induced phenomena in the literature, indicating that a majority of LPA-dependent phenomena are receptor-mediated. Radioligand binding has been conducted in heterologous expression systems using [3 H]-LPA (e.g. Fukushima et~al., 1998). In native systems, analysis of binding data is complicated by metabolism and high levels of nonspecific binding, and therefore the relationship between recombinant and endogenously expressed receptors is unclear. Targeted deletion of LPA receptors has clarified signalling pathways and identified physiological and pathophysiological roles. LPA has also been described to be an agonist at PPAR γ receptors (McIntyre et~al., 2003), although the physiological significance of this observation remains unclear (Simon et~al., 2005).

Nomenclature	LPA ₁	LPA ₂	LPA ₃	LPA ₄	LPA ₅	LPA ₆
Other names	VZG-1, Edg2, <i>lp</i>	Edg4, Ip A2	Edg7, Ip A3	p2y9, gpr23	GPR92	P2y5, P2RY5
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000198121	ENSG00000064547	ENSG00000171517	ENSG00000147145	ENSG00000184574	ENSG00000139679
Principal transduction	$G_{i/o},\ G_{q/11},\ G_{12/13}$	$G_{i/o},\ G_{q/11},\ G_{12/13}$	$G_{i/o},\;G_{q/11},\;G_s$	G _{i/o} , G _{q/11} , G _s , G _{12/13} (Lee <i>et al.</i> , 2007)	G _q , G _{12/13} (Kotarsky <i>et al.</i> , 2006; Lee <i>et al.</i> , 2006)	G _{12/13} (Yanagida <i>et al.</i> , 2009; Kimura <i>et al.</i> , 2011)
Selective agonists	-	FAP10, FAP12 (Virag <i>et al.</i> , 2003)	OMPT (Hasegawa et al., 2003)	-	-	_
Selective antagonists	Ki16425 (Ohta et al., 2003), AM966 (Swaney et al., 2010)	-	DGPP 8:0 (Ohta et al., 2003)	-	-	-

FAP12, VPC12249 and VPC32179 have antagonist activity at LPA₁ and LPA₃ receptors (Bagga *et al.*, 2004; Okusa *et al.*, 2003; Virag *et al.*, 2003). The selectivity of these antagonists is less than two orders of magnitude. None of the currently available chemical tools have validated specificity *in vivo*.

 $Abbreviations: AM966, (4'-\{4-[(R)-1-(2-chloro-phenyl)-ethoxycarbonylamino]-3-methyl-isoxazol-5-y \ l\}-biphenyl-4-yl)-acetic acid; DGPP 8:0, dioctanoylglycerol pyrophosphate; FAP10, decanol phosphate; FAP12, dodecanol phosphate; Ki16425, 3-(4-[4-[(1-[2-chloro-phenyl]-ethoxy)carbonylamino]-3-methyl-5-isoxazolyl]benzylsulfanyl)propanoic acid; OMPT, 1-oleoyl-2-O-methyl-rac-glycero-phosphothionate; VPC12249, (s)-phosphoric acid mono-[3-(4-benzyloxy-phenyl)-2-octadec-9-enoylamino-propyl] ester; VPC32179, (R)-phosphoric acid mono-[2-octadec-9-enoylamino-3-[4-(pyridin-2-ylmethoxy)-phenyl]-propyl} ester$

Further Reading

Aoki J, Inoue A, Okudaira S (2008). Two pathways for lysophosphatidic acid production. Biochim Biophys Acta 1781: 513-518.

Choi JW, Herr DR, Noguchi K, Yung YC, Lee CW, Mutoh T, Lin ME, Teo ST, Park KE, Mosley AN, Chun J (2010). LPA receptors: subtypes and biological actions. *Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol*, **50**: 157–186.

Chun J, Hla T, Lynch KR, Spiegel S, Moolenaar WH (2010). International Union of Basic and Clinical Pharmacology. LXXVIII. Lysophospholipid receptor nomenclature. *Pharmacol Rev* 62: 579–587.

Georas SN (2009). Lysophosphatidic acid and autotaxin: emerging roles in innate and adaptive immunity. Immunol Res 45: 229-238.

Hama K, Aoki J (2010). LPA₃, a unique G protein-coupled receptor for lysophosphatidic acid. Prog Lipid Res 49: 335–342.

Ishii S, Noguchi K, Yanagida K (2009). Non-Edg family lysophosphatidic acid (LPA) receptors. Prostaglandins Other Lipid Mediat 89: 57-65.

Lin ME, Herr DR, Chun J (2010). Lysophosphatidic acid (LPA) receptors: signaling properties and disease relevance. *Prostaglandins Other Lipid Mediat* 91: 130–138.

Meyer Zu Heringdorf D, Jakobs KH (2007). Lysophospholipid receptors: Signalling, pharmacology and regulation by lysophospholipid metabolism. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1768: 923–940.

Mutoh T, Chun J (2008). Lysophospholipid activation of G protein-coupled receptors. Subcell Biochem 49: 269-297.

Noguchi K, Herr D, Mutoh T, Chun J (2009). Lysophosphatidic acid (LPA) and its receptors. Curr Opin Pharmacol 9: 15-23.

Pyne NJ, Pyne S (2008). Sphingosine 1-phosphate, lysophosphatidic acid and growth factor signaling and termination. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1781: 467–476.

Shimizu T (2009). Lipid mediators in health and disease: enzymes and receptors as therapeutic targets for the regulation of immunity and inflammation. *Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol* **49**: 123–150.

Sun W, Yang J (2010). Molecular basis of lysophosphatidic acid-induced NF-κB activation. Cell Signal 22: 1799–1803.

Swaney JS, Chapman C, Correa LD, Stebbins KJ, Bundey RA, Prodanovich PC *et al.* (2010). A novel, orally active LPA₁ receptor antagonist inhibits lung fibrosis in the mouse bleomycin model. *Br J Pharmacol* **160**: 1699–1713.

Tigyi G (2010). Aiming drug discovery at lysophosphatidic acid targets. Br J Pharmacol 161: 241–270.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Lysophosphatidic acid S77

References

Bagga S et al. (2004). Blood 104: 4080–4087. Fukushima N et al. (1998). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 95: 6151–6156. Hasegawa Y et al. (2003). J Biol Chem 278: 11962–11969. Kimura T et al. (2011). Cardiovasc Res 92: 149–158. Kotarsky K et al. (2006). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 318: 619–628. Lee CW et al. (2006). J Biol Chem 281: 23589–23597. Lee CW et al. (2007). J Biol Chem 282: 4310–4317. McIntyre TM *et al.* (2003). *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **100**: 131–136. Ohta H *et al.* (2003). *Mol Pharmacol* **64**: 994–1005. Okusa MD *et al.* (2003). *Am J Physiol Renal Physiol* **285**: F565–F574. Simon MF *et al.* (2005). *J Biol Chem* **280**: 14656–14662. Virag T *et al.* (2003). *Mol Pharmacol* **63**: 1032–1042. Yanagida K *et al.* (2009). *J Biol Chem* **284**: 17731–17741.

Melanin-concentrating hormone

Overview: Melanin-concentrating hormone (MCH) receptors (provisional nomenclature, see Foord et al., 2005) are activated by an endogenous nonadecameric cyclic peptide identical in humans and rats (DFDMLRCMLGRVYRPCWQV) generated from a precursor (ENSG00000183395), which also produces neuropeptides EI and GE.

Nomenclature MCH₁ MCH₂

Other names SLC-1, GPR24 SLT, GPRv17 ENSG00000128285 ENSG00000152034 Ensembl ID

Principal transduction G_{a/11} (Hill et al., 2001; Mori et al., 2001; Rodriguez et al., $G_{q/11}$, $G_{i/o}$

2001)

Rank order of potency Human MCH > salmon MCH Human MCH = salmon MCH (Hill et al., 2001)

SNAP7941 (9.2, Borowsky et al., 2002), GW803430 (9, Selective antagonists

Gehlert et al., 2009), ATC0175 (pIC50 7.9-8.2, Chaki et al., 2005), T226296 (7.5, Takekawa et al., 2002)

[3H]-MCH (Burgaud et al., 1997), [Phe¹³,[¹²⁵I]-Tyr¹⁹]MCH **Probes**

(Burgaud et al., 1997), [1251]-S36057 (0.04 nM, Audinot

et al., 2001)

The MCH₂ receptor appears to be a non-functional pseudogene in rodents (Tan et al., 2002).

Abbreviations: ATC0175, N-(cis-4-{[4-(dimethylamino)quinazolin-2-yl]amino}cyclohexyl)-3,4-difluorobenzamide hydrochloride; GW803430, 6-(4-chlorophenyl)-3-[3-methoxy-4-(2-pyrrolidin-1-ylethoxy)phenyl] thieno[3,2-d] pyrimidin-4-one;S36057, 3-iodo-tyr-(8-amino-3,6dioxyoctanoyl)MCH-(6-17); SNAP7941, difluorophenyl)-6-(methoxymethyl)-2-oxo-1,2,3,4-tetrahydro-5-pyrimidinecarboxylate hydrochloride; T226296, (-)-N-[6-(dimethylamino)methyl]-5,6,7,8-tetrahydro-2-naphthalenyl]-4'-fluoro[1,1'-biphenyl]-4-carboxamide

Further Reading

Chung S, Parks GS, Lee C, Civelli O (2011). Recent updates on the melanin-concentrating hormone (MCH) and its receptor system: lessons from MCH1R antagonists. I Mol Neurosci 43: 115-121.

Chung S, Saito Y, Civelli O (2009). MCH receptors/gene structure-in vivo expression. Peptides 30: 1985–1989.

Eberle AN, Mild G, Zumsteg U (2010). Cellular models for the study of the pharmacology and signaling of melanin-concentrating hormone receptors. J Recept Signal Transduct Res 30: 385-402.

Foord SM, Bonner TI, Neubig RR, Rosser EM, Pin JP, Davenport AP et al. (2005). International Union of Pharmacology. XLVI. G protein-coupled receptor list. Pharmacol Rev 57: 279-288.

Gao XB (2009). Electrophysiological effects of MCH on neurons in the hypothalamus. Peptides 30: 2025–2030.

Kemp EH, Weetman AP (2009). Melanin-concentrating hormone and melanin-concentrating hormone receptors in mammalian skin physiopathology. Peptides 30: 2071-2075.

Lakaye B, Coumans B, Harray S, Grisar T (2009). Melanin-concentrating hormone and immune function. Peptides 30: 2076–2080.

Luthin DR (2007). Anti-obesity effects of small molecule melanin-concentrating hormone receptor 1 (MCHR1) antagonists. Life Sci 81: 423-440. Pissios P (2009). Animals models of MCH function and what they can tell us about its role in energy balance. Peptides 30: 2040–2044.

Pissios P, Bradley RL, Maratos-Flier E (2006). Expanding the scales: The multiple roles of MCH in regulating energy balance and other biological functions. Endocr Rev 27: 606-620.

Rokosz LL, Hobbs DW (2006). Biological examination of melanin concentrating hormone receptor 1: multi-tasking from the hypothalamus. Drug News Perspect 19: 273-286.

Saito Y, Nagasaki H (2008). The melanin-concentrating hormone system and its physiological functions. Results Probl Cell Differ 46: 159–179. Shimazaki T, Yoshimizu T, Chaki S (2006). Melanin-concentrating hormone MCH1 receptor antagonists: a potential new approach to the treatment of depression and anxiety disorders. CNS Drugs 20: 801-811.

References

Audinot V et al. (2001). Br J Pharmacol 133: 371-378. Borowsky B et al. (2002). Nat Med 8: 825-830. Burgaud JL et al. (1997). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 241: 622-629. Chaki S et al. (2005). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 313: 831-839. Gehlert DR et al. (2009). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 329: 429-438.

Hill J et al. (2001). J Biol Chem 276: 20125-20129. Mori M et al. (2001). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 283: 1013-1018. Rodriguez M et al. (2001). Mol Pharmacol 60: 632-639. Takekawa S et al. (2002). Eur J Pharmacol 438: 129-135. Tan CP et al. (2002). Genomics 79: 785-792.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Melanocortin \$79

Melanocortin

Overview: Melanocortin receptors (provisional nomenclature, see Foord *et al.*, 2005) are activated by members of the melanocortin family (MSH – α , β , and γ forms – δ form is not found in mammals) and adrenocorticotrophin (ACTH). Endogenous antagonists include agouti and agouti-related protein (AGRP).

Nomenclature	MC_1	MC_2	MC ₃	MC ₄	MC ₅
Other names	_	ACTH	_	_	_
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000258839	ENSG00000185231	ENSG00000124089	ENSG00000166603	ENSG00000176136
Principal transduction	G_s	G_s	G_s	G_s	G_s
Rank order of potency	α -MSH > β -MSH \geq ACTH, γ -MSH	ACTH	γ -MSH, β -MSH ≥ ACTH, α -MSH	$β$ -MSH $\ge α$ -MSH, ACTH $> γ$ -MSH	α -MSH $\geq \beta$ -MSH \geq ACTH $> \gamma$ -MSH
Selective agonists	-	-	D-Trp ⁸ -γ-MSH (Grieco <i>et al.,</i> 2000)	THIQ (Van der Ploeg et al., 2002), MK0493 (Krishna et al., 2009)	-
Selective antagonists	-	-	-	HS014 (8.5, Schiöth et al., 1998), MBP10 (Bednarek et al., 2001)	-
Probes	[¹²⁵ I]-NDP-MSH	[¹²⁵ I]-ACTH-(1–24)	[¹²⁵ I]-NDP-MSH, [¹²⁵ I]-SHU9119	[¹²⁵ I]-NDP-MSH, [¹²⁵ I]-SHU9119	[¹²⁵ I]-NDP-MSH

Polymorphisms of the MC_1 receptor have been linked to variations in skin pigmentation. Defects of the MC_2 receptor underlie familial glucocorticoid deficiency. Polymorphisms of the MC_4 receptor have been linked to obesity (Chagnon *et al.*, 1997; Farooqi and O'Rahilly, 2008).

Abbreviations: HS014, cyc(S-S)-(Ac-Cys¹¹,D-Nal¹⁴,Cys¹³,Asp-NH₂) β -MSH-(11-22); MBP10, $cyclo(6\beta \rightarrow 10\epsilon)(succinyl(6)-D-(2')Nal²-Arg³-Trp³-Lys¹⁰)-NH₂; MK0493, N-1-(2-[1-{tert-butyl-4-(2,4-difluorophenyl)pyrrolidin-3-yl}-5-chlorophenyl]ethyl)acetamide; NDP-MSH, [Nle⁴,d-Phe²]<math>\alpha$ -MSH; SHU9119, Ac-Nle-Asp-His-d-Nal²-Arg-Trp-Lys-NH₂; THIQ, N-([3R]-1,2,3,4-tetrahydroisoquinolinium-3-ylcarbonyl)-(1R)-1-(4-chlorobenzyl)-2-(4-cyclohexyl-4-[1H-1,2,4-triazol-1ylmethyl]piperidin-1-yl)-2-oxoethylamine

Further Reading

Breit A, Buch TR, Boekhoff I, Solinski HJ, Damm E, Gudermann T (2011). Alternative G protein coupling and biased agonism: new insights into melanocortin-4 receptor signalling. *Mol Cell Endocrinol* 331: 232–240.

Catania A (2007). The melanocortin system in leukocyte biology. J Leukoc Biol 81: 383-392.

Cooray SN, Clark AJ (2011). Melanocortin receptors and their accessory proteins. Mol Cell Endocrinol 331: 215-221.

Ducrest AL, Keller L, Roulin A (2008). Pleiotropy in the melanocortin system, coloration and behavioural syndromes. *Trends Ecol Evol* 23: 502–510.

Farooqi IS, O'Rahilly S (2008). Mutations in ligands and receptors of the leptin-melanocortin pathway that lead to obesity. *Nat Clin Pract Endocrinol Metab* 4: 569–577.

Foord SM, Bonner TI, Neubig RR, Rosser EM, Pin JP, Davenport AP et al. (2005). International Union of Pharmacology. XLVI. G protein-coupled receptor list. Pharmacol Rev 57: 279–288.

Greenfield JR (2011). Melanocortin signalling and the regulation of blood pressure in human obesity. J Neuroendocrinol 23: 186–193.

Mountjoy KG (2010). Functions for pro-opiomelanocortin-derived peptides in obesity and diabetes. Biochem J 428: 305–324.

Wikberg JE, Mutulis F (2008). Targeting melanocortin receptors: an approach to treat weight disorders and sexual dysfunction. *Nat Rev Drug Discov* 7: 307–323.

References

Bednarek MA *et al.* (2001). *J Med Chem* **44**: 3665–3672. Chagnon YC *et al.* (1997). *Mol Med* **3**: 663–673. Grieco P *et al.* (2000). *J Med Chem* **43**: 4998–5002. Farooqi IS, O'Rahilly S (2008). *Nat Clin Pract Endocrinol Metab* **4**: 569–577. Krishna R et al. (2009). Clin Pharmacol Ther 86: 659–666.
Schiöth HB et al. (1998). Br J Pharmacol 124: 75–82.
Van Der Ploeg LH et al. (2002). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 99: 11381–11386.

\$80 Melatonin Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Melatonin

Overview: Melatonin receptors (nomenclature as agreed by NC-IUPHAR Subcommittee on melatonin receptors, Dubocovich *et al.*, 2010) are activated by the endogenous ligands melatonin and *N*-acetylserotonin.

Nomenclature MT₁ MT₂

 Other names
 MEL1A, ML1A, Mel1a
 MEL1B, ML1B, Mel1b

 Ensembl ID
 ENSG00000168412
 ENSG00000134640

Principal transduction $G_{i/o}$ $G_{i/o}$

Selective agonists – IIK7 (Sugden et al., 1999), 5-methoxyluzindole (Dubocovich

et al., 1997)

Selective antagonists – K185 (9.3, Sugden et al., 1999), 4P-PDOT (8.8, Dubocovich

et al., 1997), DH97 (8.0, Teh and Sugden, 1998)

Probes 2-lodo-[1251]-melatonin (Dubocovich et al., 1997), 2-lodo-[1251]-melatonin (Dubocovich et al., 1997),

[³H]-melatonin (Browning et al., 2000) [³H]-melatonin (Browning et al., 2000)

Melatonin, 2-iodo-melatonin, S20098, GR196429, LY156735 and TAK375 (Kato et~al., 2005) are nonselective agonists for MT₁ and MT₂ receptors. (-)-AMMTC displays an ~400-fold greater agonist potency than (+)-AMMTC at rat MT₁ receptors (Ting et~al., 1999). Luzindole is an MT₁/MT₂ melatonin receptor-selective competitive antagonist with some selectivity for the MT₂ receptor (Dubocovich et~al., 1998). MT₁/MT₂ heterodimers present different pharmacological profiles from MT₁ and MT₂ receptors (Ayoub et~al., 2004).

The MT_3 binding site of hamster brain and peripheral tissues such as kidney and testis, also termed the ML_2 receptor, binds selectively 2-iodo-[^{125}I]-5MCA-NAT (Molinari et~al., 1996). Pharmacological investigations of MT_3 binding sites have primarily been conducted in hamster tissues. At this site, N-acetylserotonin (Eison and Mullins, 1993; Popova and Dubocovich, 1995; Molinari et~al., 1996; Lucchelli et~al., 1997) and 5MCA-NAT (Popova and Dubocovich, 1995) appear to function as agonists, while prazosin (Lucchelli et~al., 1997) functions as an antagonist. A suggested physiological function of the MT_3 receptor is in the control of intraocular pressure in rabbits (Pintor et~al., 2003). The MT_3 binding site of hamster kidney was also identified as the hamster homologue of human quinone reductase 2 (ENSG00000124588, Nosjean et~al., 2000; 2001). Xenopus melanophores and chick brain express a distinct receptor (x420, P49219; c346, P49288, initially termed Mel_{1C}) coupled to the $G_{1/0}$ family of G proteins, for which GPR50 has recently been suggested to be a mammalian counterpart (see Dufourny et~al., 2008) although melatonin does not bind to GPR50 receptors.

Abbreviations: 4P-PDOT, 4-phenyl-2-propionamidotetraline; AMMTC, N-acetyl-4-aminomethyl-6-methoxy-9-methyl-1,2,3,4-tetrahydrocarbazole; DH97, 2-benzyl-N-pentanoyltryptamine; GR196429, N-(2-[2,3,7,8-tetrahydro-1H-furo(2,3-g)indol-1-yl]ethyl)acetamide; IIK7, N-butanoyl-2-(2-methoxy-6H-isoindolo [2,1-a]indol-11-yl)ethanamine; K185, N-butanoyl-2-(5,6,7-trihydro-11-methoxybenzo[3,4]cyclohept[2,1-a]indol-13-yl)ethanamine; LY156735, β-methyl-6-chloromelatonin; 5MCA-NAT, 5-methoxy-carbonylamino-N-acetyltryptamine; S20098, N-(2-[7-methoxy-1-naphthalenyl]ethyl)acetamide; TAK375, (S)-N-[2(1,6,7,8-tetrahydro-2H-indeno[5,4-B-b]furan-8-yl)ethyl]propionamide

Further Reading

Alarma-Estrany P, Pintor J (2007). Melatonin receptors in the eye: location, second messengers and role in ocular physiology. *Pharmacol Ther* 113: 507–522.

Ambriz-Tututi M, Rocha-Gonzalez HI, Cruz SL, Granados-Soto V (2009). Melatonin: a hormone that modulates pain. Life Sci 84: 489-498.

de Bodinat C, Guardiola-Lemaitre B, Mocaer E, Renard P, Munoz C, Millan MJ (2010). Agomelatine, the first melatonergic antidepressant: discovery, characterization and development. *Nat Rev Drug Discov* 9: 628–642.

Dubocovich ML, Delagrange P, Krause DN, Sugden D, Cardinali DP, Olcese J (2010). International Union of Basic and Clinical Pharmacology. LXXV. Nomenclature, classification, and pharmacology of G protein-coupled melatonin receptors. *Pharmacol Rev* 62: 343–380.

Dufourny L, Levasseur A, Migaud M, Callebaut I, Pontarotti P, Malpaux B et al. (2008). GPR50 is the mammalian ortholog of Mel_{1c}: evidence of rapid evolution in mammals. BMC Evol Biol 8: 105.

Falcon J, Besseau L, Sauzet S, Boeuf G (2007). Melatonin effects on the hypothalamo-pituitary axis in fish. *Trends Endocrinol Metab* 18: 81–88. Hardeland R (2008). Melatonin, hormone of darkness and more: occurrence, control mechanisms, actions and bioactive metabolites. *Cell Mol Life Sci* 65: 2001–2018.

Jockers R, Maurice P, Boutin JA, Delagrange P (2008). Melatonin receptors, heterodimerization, signal transduction and binding sites: what's new? *Br J Pharmacol* 154: 1182–1195.

Luchetti F, Canonico B, Betti M, Arcangeletti M, Pilolli F, Piroddi M et al. (2010). Melatonin signaling and cell protection function. FASEB J 24: 3603–3624.

Reiter RJ, Tan DX, Fuentes-Broto L (2010). Melatonin: a multitasking molecule. Prog Brain Res 181: 127-151.

Slominski A, Tobin DJ, Zmijewski MA, Wortsman J, Paus R (2008). Melatonin in the skin: synthesis, metabolism and functions. *Trends Endocrinol Metab* 19: 17–24.

Srinivasan V, Pandi-Perumal SR, Spence DW, Moscovitch A, Trakht I, Brown GM et al. (2010). Potential use of melatonergic drugs in analgesia: mechanisms of action. Brain Res Bull 81: 362–371.

References

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Melatonin S81

Dubocovich ML et al. (1998). FASEB J 12: 1211–1220. Eison AS, Mullins UL (1993). Life Sci 53: L393–L398. Kato K et al. (2005). Neuropharmacology 48: 301–310. Lucchelli A et al. (1997). Br J Pharmacol 121: 1775–1781. Molinari EJ et al. (1996). Eur J Pharmacol 301: 159–168. Nosjean O et al. (2000). J Biol Chem 275: 31311–31317. Nosjean O et al. (2001). Biochem Pharmacol 61: 1369–1379. Pintor J et al. (2003). Br J Pharmacol 138: 831–836. Popova JS, Dubocovich ML (1995). J Neurochem 64: 130–138. Sugden D et al. (1999). Reprod Nutr Dev 39: 335–344. Teh MT, Sugden D (1998). Naunyn-Schmiedeberg's Arch Pharmacol 358: 522–528.

Ting KN et al. (1999). Br J Pharmacol 127: 987–995.

\$82 Motilin Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Motilin

Overview: Motilin receptors (provisional nomenclature, see Foord *et al.*, 2005) are activated by a 22 amino-acid peptide derived from a precursor (ENSG00000096395), which also generates motilin-associated peptide. These receptors are suggested to be responsible for the gastrointestinal prokinetic effects of motilides (particular macrolide antibiotics) as well as small molecule receptor agonists.

Nomenclature Motilin

Other names MTLR1 (Feighner et al., 1999), GPR38 (Mckee et al., 1997)

Ensembl ID ENSG00000102539

Principal transduction G_{q/11} (Depoortere and Peeters, 1995; Feighner *et al.*, 1999)

Rank order of potency Motilin > ABT229, mitemcimal >erythromycin (Clark et al., 1999) = GSK962040 (Sanger et al., 2009)

Selective agonists ABT229 (Lartey et al., 1995), mitemcinal (Koga et al., 1994; Takanashi et al., 2007), GSK962040 (Sanger et al.,

2009)

Selective antagonists MA2029 (pA2 9.2, Sudo et al., 2008), GM109 (Takanashi et al., 1995; pA2 7.2-7.5 Clark et al., 1999)

Probes [1251]-Motilin (0.1 nM, Feighner et al., 1999)

In rodents, the gene encoding the motilin precursor appears to be absent, while the receptor appears to be a pseudogene. Functions of motilin are not usually detected in rodents, although brain and other responses to motilin have been reported; the mechanism of action is obscure (see Sanger *et al.*, 2011).

Abbreviations: ABT229, 8,9-anhydro-4"-deoxy-3'-N-desmethyl-3'-N-ethylerythromycin B 6,9-hemiacetal; GM109, phe-cyclo[Lys-Tyr(3-tBu)-β-Ala].trifluoroacetate; GSK962040, N-(3-fluorophenyl)-1-[(4-([(3S)-3-methyl-1-piperazinyl]methyl)phenyl)acetyl]-4-piperidinamine; MA2029, (S)-N-[(S)-2-(3-tert-butyl-4-hydroxy-phenyl)-1-ethylcarbamoyl-ethyl]-3-methyl-2-[methyl-((S)-2-methylamino-3-phenyl-propionyl)-amino]-butyramide hydrochloride; mitemcinal, de(N-methyl)-11-deoxy-N-isopropyl-12-O-methyl-11-oxo-8,9-anhydroerythromycin A 6,9-hemiacetal fumaric acid, also known as GM611

Further Reading

Ceddia RB (2011). Motilin beyond gut motility: A novel role in the regulation of adipose tissue metabolism. *Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab* in press.

De Smet B, Mitselos A, Depoortere I (2009). Motilin and ghrelin as prokinetic drug targets. Pharmacol Ther 123: 207–223.

Foord SM, Bonner TI, Neubig RR, Rosser EM, Pin JP, Davenport AP et al. (2005). International Union of Pharmacology. XLVI. G protein-coupled receptor list. *Pharmacol Rev* 57: 279–288.

Sanger GJ (2008). Motilin, ghrelin and related neuropeptides as targets for the treatment of GI diseases. *Drug Discov Today* 13: 234–239. Sanger GJ, Holbrook JD, Andrews PL (2011). The translational value of rodent gastrointestinal functions: a cautionary tale. *Trends Pharmacol Sci*

Sanger GJ, Holbrook JD, Andrews PL (2011). The translational value of rodent gastrointestinal functions: a cautionary tale. *Trends Pharmacol Sc* 32: 402–409.

Takeshita E, Matsuura B, Dong M, Miller LJ, Matsui H, Onji M (2006). Molecular characterization and distribution of motilin family receptors in the human gastrointestinal tract. *J Gastroenterol* 41: 223–230.

References

Clark MJ et al. (1999). Clin Exp Pharmacol Physiol 26: 242–245. Depoortere I, Peeters TL (1995). Regul Pept 55: 227–235. Feighner SD et al. (1999). Science 284: 2184–2188. Koga H et al. (1994). Bioorg Med Chem Lett 4: 1347–1352. Lartey PA et al. (1995). J Med Chem 38: 1793–1798.

McKee KK *et al.* (1997). *Genomics* **46**: 426–434. Sanger GJ *et al.* (2009). *Neurogastroenterol Motil* **21**: 657–1. Sudo H *et al.* (2008). *Eur J Pharmacol* **581**: 296–305. Takanashi H *et al.* (1995). *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* **273**: 624–628. Takanashi H *et al.* (2007). *Pharmacology* **79**: 137–148.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Neuromedin U S83

Neuromedin U

Overview: Neuromedin U receptors (provisional nomenclature) are activated by the endogenous 25 amino acid peptide neuromedin U (NMU), a peptide originally isolated from pig spinal cord (Minamino *et al.*, 1985). In humans, NMU appears to be the sole product of a precursor (ENSG00000109255) showing a broad tissue distribution, but which is expressed at highest levels in the upper gastrointestinal tract, CNS, bone marrow and fetal liver. Much shorter versions of NMU are found in some species, but not human, and are derived at least in some instances from the proteolytic cleavage of the longer NMU. Despite species differences in NMU structure, the C-terminal region (particularly the C-terminal pentapeptide) is highly conserved and contains biological activity. Neuromedin S (NMS) has also been identified as an endogenous agonist (Mori *et al.*, 2005). NMS is a 36 amino-acid product of a precursor protein derived from a single gene (ENSG00000204640) and contains an amidated C-terminal heptapeptide identical to NMU. NMS appears to activate NMU receptors with equivalent potency to NMU.

Nomenclature	NMU1	NMU2
Other names	GPR66, FM3, SNORF62 (Fujii <i>et al.</i> , 2000; Hedrick <i>et al.</i> , 2000; Hosoya <i>et al.</i> , 2000; Howard <i>et al.</i> , 2000; Kojima <i>et al.</i> , 2000; Raddatz <i>et al.</i> , 2000; Szekeres <i>et al.</i> , 2000)	FM4, TGR1, SNORF72 (Hosoya et al., 2000; Howard et al., 2000; Raddatz et al., 2000; Shan et al., 2000)
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000171596	ENSG00000132911
Principal transduction	G _{q/11} (Hedrick et al., 2000; Brighton et al., 2004a)	G _{q/11} (Hosoya et al., 2000; Brighton et al., 2004a)
Antagonists	-	R-PSOP (Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2009)

NMU1 and NMU2 couple predominantly to $G_{q/11}$ although there is evidence of good coupling to $G_{i/o}$ (see Hosoya *et al.*, 2000; Brighton *et al.*, 2004a; Hsu and Luo, 2007). NMU1 and NMU2 can be labelled with [^{125}I]-NMU and [^{125}I]-NMS (of various species, e.g. Meng *et al.*, 2008); BODIPY® TMR-NMU or Cy3B-NMU-8 (Brighton *et al.*, 2004a). A range of radiolabelled (^{125}I -), fluorescently labelled (e.g. Cy3, Cy5, rhodamine and FAM) and biotin labelled versions of NMU and NMS are now commercially available.

Abbreviations: NMS, neuromedin S; NMU, neuromedin U; R-PSOP, (*R*)-5′-(phenylaminocarbonylamino)spiro[1-azabicyclo[2.2.2.]octane-3,2′(3′H)-furo[2,3-*b*]pyridine]

Further Reading

Brighton PJ, Szekeres PG, Willars GB (2004b). Neuromedin U and its receptors: structure, function, and physiological roles. *Pharmacol Rev* 56: 231–248.

Budhiraja S, Chugh A (2009). Neuromedin U: physiology, pharmacology and therapeutic potential. *Fundam Clin Pharmacol* 23: 149–157. Mitchell JD, Maguire JJ, Davenport AP (2009). Emerging pharmacology and physiology of neuromedin U and the structurally related peptide neuromedin S. *Br J Pharmacol* 158: 87–103.

Novak CM (2009). Neuromedin S and U. Endocrinology 150: 2985-2987.

References

Brighton PJ et al. (2004a). Mol Pharmacol 66: 1544–1556. Fujii R et al. (2000). J Biol Chem 275: 21068–21074. Hedrick JA et al. (2000). Mol Pharmacol 58: 870–875. Hosoya M et al. (2000). J Biol Chem 275: 29528–29532. Howard AD et al. (2000). Nature 406: 70–74. Hsu S-H and Luo C-W (2007) Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab 293: E1021–E1029. Kojima M et al. (2000) Biochem Biophys Res Commun 276: 435–438. Liu JJ et al. (2009) J Pharmacol Exptl Therap 330: 268–275.

Meng T et al. (2008) Acta Pharmacol Sin 29: 517–527.

Minamino N et al. (1985). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 130: 1078–1085.

Mori K et al. (2005). EMBO J 24: 325–335.

Raddatz R et al. (2000). J Biol Chem 275: 32452–32459.

Shan L et al. (2000). J Biol Chem 275: 39482–39486.

Szekeres PG et al. (2000). J Biol Chem 275: 20247–20250.

S84 Neuropeptide S Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Neuropeptide S

Overview: The neuropeptide S receptor (NPS, provisional nomenclature, see Foord *et al.*, 2005) responds to the 20 amino-acid peptide neuropeptide S derived from a precursor (ENSG00000214285).

Nomenclature NPS

Other names GPRA, GPR154, vasopressin receptor-related receptor 1, PGR14

Ensembl ID ENSG00000187258

Principal transduction G_s, G_{q/11} (Gupte *et al.*, 2004; Vendelin *et al.*, 2005)

Selective agonists NPS

Probes [125I-Tyr¹⁰]-NPS

Polymorphisms in the NPS receptor have been suggested to be associated with asthma (Vendelin *et al.*, 2005) and irritable bowel syndrome (D'Amato *et al.*, 2007).

Further Reading

Dal Ben D, Antonini I, Buccioni M, Lambertucci C, Marucci G, Thomas A *et al.* (2011). Neuropeptide S receptor: recent updates on nonpeptide antagonist discovery. *Chem Med Chem* 6: 1163–1171.

Dal Ben D, Antonini I, Buccioni M, Lambertucci C, Marucci G, Vittori S *et al.* (2010). Molecular modeling studies on the human neuropeptide S receptor and its antagonists. *Chem Med Chem* 5: 371–383.

Foord SM, Bonner TI, Neubig RR, Rosser EM, Pin JP, Davenport AP et al. (2005). International Union of Pharmacology. XLVI. G protein-coupled receptor list. *Pharmacol Rev* 57: 279–288.

Guerrini R, Salvadori S, Rizzi A, Regoli D, Calo' G (2010). Neurobiology, pharmacology, and medicinal chemistry of neuropeptide S and its receptor. *Med Res Rev* 30: 751–777.

Pape HC, Jungling K, Seidenbecher T, Lesting J, Reinscheid RK (2010). Neuropeptide S: a transmitter system in the brain regulating fear and anxiety. *Neuropharmacology* **58**: 29–34.

Reinscheid RK (2008). Neuropeptide S: anatomy, pharmacology, genetics and physiological functions. Results Probl Cell Differ 46: 145-158.

References

D'Amato M et al. (2007). Gastroenterology 133: 808–817. Gupte J et al. (2004). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 101: 1508–1513. Vendelin J et al. (2005). Am J Respir Cell Mol Biol 33: 262–270. Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Neuropeptide Y S85

Neuropeptide Y

Overview: Neuropeptide Y (NPY) receptors (nomenclature agreed by NC-IUPHAR on Neuropeptide Y Receptors, see Michel *et al.*, 1998) are activated by the endogenous peptides NPY, NPY-(3-36), peptide YY (PYY), PYY-(3-36) and pancreatic polypeptide (PP). The receptor originally identified as the Y3 receptor has been identified as the CXCR4 chemokine recepter (originally named LESTR, Loetscher *et al.*, 1994). The y6 receptor is a functional gene product in mouse, absent in rat, but contains a frame-shift mutation in primates producing a truncated non-functional gene (Gregor *et al.*, 1996). Many of the agonists exhibit differing degrees of selectivity dependent on the species examined. For example, the relative potency of PP is greater at the rat Y_4 receptor than at the human receptor (Eriksson *et al.*, 1998). In addition, many agonists lack selectivity for individual subtypes, but can exhibit comparable potency against pairs of NPY receptor subtypes, or have not been examined for activity at all subtypes. [125 I]-PYY or [125 I]-NPY can be used to label Y_1 , Y_2 , Y_5 and Y_6 subtypes non-selectively, while [125 I]-[cPP(1-7),NPY(19-23),Ala 31 ,Aib 32 ,Gln 34]hPP may be used to label Y_5 receptors preferentially.

Nomenclature	Y_1	Y_2	Y_4	Y ₅	У6
Other names	_	_	PP ₁	_	Y_5 , PP_2 , Y_{2B}
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000164128	ENSG00000185149	ENSG00000204174	ENSG00000164129	ENSG00000226306
Principal transduction	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{i/o}$
Rank order of potency	$NPY \ge PYY >> PP$	$NPY \ge PYY >> PP$	PP > NPY = PYY	$NPY \ge PYY \ge PP$	NPY = PYY > PP
Selective agonists	[Leu ³¹ ,Pro ³⁴]NPY, [Pro ³⁴]NPY, [Leu ³¹ ,Pro ³⁴]PYY, [Pro ³⁴]PYY	NPY-(3-36), PYY-(3-36)	PP	[Ala ³¹ ,Aib ³²]NPY (Cabrele <i>et al.,</i> 2000)	-
Selective antagonists	BIBO3304 (9.5, Wieland <i>et al.</i> , 1998), BIBP3226 (8.2, Gerald <i>et al.</i> , 1996)	BIIE0246 (8.5, Doods <i>et al.</i> , 1999), JNJ5207787 (Bonaventure <i>et al.</i> , 2004)	-	L152804 (7.6, Kanatani <i>et al.</i> , 2000)	-
Probes	[¹²⁵ l]-[Leu ³¹ ,Pro ³⁴] NPY, [³ H]-BIBP3226 (2.1 nM)	[¹²⁵ I]-PYY-(3-36)	[¹²⁵ I]-PP	[¹²⁵ l]-[cPP(1-7),NPY(19-23), Ala ³¹ ,Aib ³² ,Gln ³⁴]hPP (Dumont <i>et al.</i> , 2004)	-

The Y_1 agonists indicated are selective relative to Y_2 receptors. BIBP3226 is selective relative to Y_2 , Y_4 and Y_5 receptors (Gerald *et al.*, 1996). NPY-(13-36) is Y_2 selective relative to Y_1 and Y_5 receptors. PYY-(3-36) is Y_2 selective relative to Y_1 receptors.

 $\begin{tabular}{ll} Abbreviations: BIBO 3304: (R)-N-([4-{aminocarbonylaminomethyl}-phenyl]] methyl)-N^2-(diphenylacetyl)-argininamide trifluoroacetate; BIBP 3226: R-N^2-(diphenylacetyl)-N-(4-hydroxyphenyl)methyl-argininamide; BIEO 246: (s)-N^2-([1-{2-(4-[(R,s)-5,11-dihydro-6(6H)-oxodibenz [b,e]azepin-11-yl]-1-piperazinyl)-2-oxoethyl]cyclopentyl]acetyl)-N-(2-[1,2-dihydro-3,5(4H)-dioxo-1,2-diphenyl-3H-1,2,4-triazol-4-yl]ethyl)-argininamide; JNJ 5207787, N-(1-acetyl-2,3-dihydro-1H-indol-6-yl)-3-(3-cyano-phenyl)-N-[1-(2-cyclopentylethyl)piperidin-4-yl]acrylamide; L152804: 2-(3,3-dimethyl-1-oxo-4H-1H-xanthen-9-yl)-5,5-dimethyl-cyclohexane-1,3-dione \end{tabular} \begin{tabular}{ll} Abbreviation (R)-N-([4-{aminocarbonylaminomethyl}-N-(2-[1,2-dihydro-3,5(4H)-dioxo-1,2-diphenyl-3H-1,2,4-triazol-4-yl]ethyl)-argininamide; \quad N-(1-acetyl-2,3-dihydro-1H-indol-6-yl)-3-(3-cyano-phenyl)-N-[1-(2-cyclopentylethyl)piperidin-4-yl]acrylamide; \quad L152804: 2-(3,3-dimethyl-1-oxo-4H-1H-xanthen-9-yl)-5,5-dimethyl-cyclohexane-1,3-dione \quad \qu$

Further Reading

Brothers SP, Wahlestedt C (2010). Therapeutic potential of neuropeptide Y (NPY) receptor ligands. EMBO Mol Med 2: 429-439.

Lunniss GE, Barnes AA, Barton N et al. (2009). The identification and optimisation of novel and selective diamide neuropeptide Y Y2 receptor antagonists. Bioorg Med Chem Lett 19: 4022–4025.

Michel MC, Beck-Sickinger A, Cox H, Doods HN, Herzog H, Larhammar D, Quirion R, Schwartz T, Westfall T (1998). International Union of Pharmacology XVI. Recommendations for the nomenclature of neuropeptide Y, peptide YY, and pancreatic polypeptide receptors. *Pharmacol Rev* 50: 143–150.

Nguyen AD, Herzog H, Sainsbury A (2011). Neuropeptide Y and peptide YY: important regulators of energy metabolism. *Curr Opin Endocrinol Diabetes Obes* 18: 56–60.

Tough IR, Holliday ND, Cox HM (2006) Y₄ receptors mediate the inhibitory responses of pancreatic polypeptide in human and mouse colon mucosa. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* 319: 20–30.

References

Bonaventure P *et al.* (2004). *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* **308**: 1130–1137. Cabrele C *et al.* (2000). *J Biol Chem* **275**: 36043–36048. Doods H *et al.* (1999). *Eur J Pharmacol* **384**: R3–R5. Dumont Y *et al.* (2004). *Neuropeptides* **38**: 163–174. Eriksson H *et al.* (1998). *Regul Pept* **75-76**: 29–37.

Gerald C *et al.* (1996). *Nature* **382**: 168–171. Gregor P *et al.* (1996). *J Biol Chem* **271**: 27776–27781. Kanatani A *et al.* (2000). *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* **272**: 169–173. Loetscher M *et al.* (1994). *J Biol Chem* **269**: 232–237. Wieland HA *et al.* (1998). *Br J Pharmacol* **125**: 549–555. S86 Neuropeptides B and W Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Neuropeptides B and W

Overview: The neuropeptide BW receptor 1 (NPBW1, provisional nomenclature) is activated by two 23-amino-acid peptides, neuropeptide W (NPW-23) and neuropeptide B (NPB-23) (Shimomura *et al.*, 2002; Fujii *et al.*, 2002). C-terminally extended forms of the peptides (NPW-30 and NPB-29) also activate NPBW1 (Brezillon *et al.*, 2003). Unique to both forms of NPB is the *N*-terminal bromination of the first tryptophan residue. des-Br-NPB-23 and des-Br-NPB-29 were not found to be major components of bovine hypothalamic tissue extracts. The NPBW2 receptor is activated by the short and C-terminal extended forms of NPB and NPW (Brezillon *et al.*, 2003).

Nomenclature NPRW/1 NPRW2 GPR7 GPR8 Other names Ensembl ID ENSG00000183729 ENSG00000125522 Principal transduction Gi/0 (Mazzocchi et al., 2005) G_{i/0} (Mazzocchi et al., 2005) Rank order of potency NPB-29 > NPB-23 > NPW-23 > NPW-30 (Brezillon NPW-23 > NPW-30 > NPB-29 > NPB-23 (Brezillon et al., 2003) et al., 2003) Ava-3, Ava-5 (Kanesaka et al., 2007) Selective agonists **Probes** [1251]-NPW-23 (0.44 nM, Singh et al., 2004) [125]]-NPW-23

Potency measurements were conducted with heterologously-expressed receptors with a range of 0.14–0.57 nM (NPBW1) and 0.98–21 nM (NPBW2).

Further Reading

Lee DK, George SR, O'Dowd BF (2003). Continued discovery of ligands for G protein-coupled receptors. *Life Sci* **74**: 293–297. Hondo M, Ishii M, Sakurai T (2008). The NPB/NPW neuropeptide system and its role in regulating energy homeostasis, pain, and emotion. *Results Probl Cell Differ* **46**: 239–256.

Singh G, Davenport AP (2006). Neuropeptide B and W: neurotransmitters in an emerging G-protein-coupled receptor system. *Br J Pharmacol* **148**: 1033–1041.

References

Brezillon S *et al.* (2003). *J Biol Chem* **278**: 776–783. Fujii R *et al.* (2002). *J Biol Chem* **277**: 34010–34016. Kanesaka M *et al.* (2007). *J Peptide Sci* **13**:379–385. Mazzocchi G *et al.* (2005). *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* **90**: 3466–3471. Shimomura Y *et al.* (2002). *J Biol Chem* **277**: 35826–35832. Singh G *et al.* (2004). *Brain Res* **1017**: 222–226. Singh G, Davenport AP (2006). *Br J Pharmacol* **148**: 1033–1041.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Neurotensin S87

Neurotensin

Overview: Neurotensin receptors (provisional nomenclature, see Foord *et al.*, 2005) are activated by the endogenous tridecapeptide neurotensin (pGlu-Leu-Tyr-Glu-Asn-Lys-Pro-Arg-Arg-Pro-Tyr-Ile-Leu) derived from a precursor (ENSG00000133636), which also generates neuromedin N, an agonist at the NTS₂ receptor. A nonpeptide antagonist, SR142948A, shows high affinity (p K_i ~9) at both NTS₁ and NTS₂ receptors (Gully *et al.*, 1997). [3 H]-Neurotensin and [125 I]-neurotensin may be used to label NTS₁ and NTS₂ receptors at 0.1–0.3 and 3–5 nM concentrations, respectively.

NTS₁ Nomenclature NTS2 Other names High-affinity neurotensin receptor, NTRH, NTR-1, NT₁ Low-affinity neurotensin receptor, NTRL, NTR-1, NT₂ Ensembl ID ENSG00000101188 ENSG00000169006 Principal transduction $G_{q/11}$ $G_{q/11}$ Rank order of potency Neurotensin > neuromedin N (Hermans et al., 1997) Neurotensin = neuromedin N (Mazella et al., 1996) Selective agonists JMV449 (Souaze et al., 1997) Levocobastine (Mazella et al., 1996) Selective antagonists SR48692 (7.5-8.2; Gully et al., 1997) **Probes** [3H]-SR48692 (3.4 nM; Labbe-Jullie et al., 1995)

Neurotensin appears to be a low-efficacy agonist at the NTS₂ receptor (Vita et~al., 1998), while the NTS₁ receptor antagonist SR48692 is an agonist at NTS₂ receptors (Vita et~al., 1998). An additional protein, provisionally termed NTS3 (also known as NTR3, gp95 and sortilin; ENSG00000134243), has been suggested to bind lipoprotein lipase and mediate its degradation (Nielsen et~al., 1999). It has been reported to interact with the NTS₁ receptor (Martin et~al., 2002) and has been implicated in hormone trafficking and/or neurotensin uptake.

Abbreviations: JMV449, H-Lys ψ (CH₂NH)-Lys-Pro-Tyr-Ile-Leu; SR142948A, 2-([5-{2,6-dimethoxyphenyl}-1-{4-(N-[3-dimethylaminopropyl]-N-methylcarbamoyl)-2-isopropylphenyl}-1H-pyrazole-3-carbonyl]amino)adamantane-2-carboxylic acid hydrochloride; SR48692, 2-([1-{7-chloro-4-quinolinyl}-5-{2,6-dimethoxyphenyl}pyrazol-3-yl]carboxylamino)tricyclo(3.3.1.1.[3.7])decan-2-carboxylic acid

Further Reading

Antonelli T, Fuxe K, Tomasini MC, Mazzoni E, Agnati LF, Tanganelli S et al. (2007). Neurotensin receptor mechanisms and its modulation of glutamate transmission in the brain: relevance for neurodegenerative diseases and their treatment. Prog Neurobiol 83: 92–109.

Boules M, Shaw A, Fredrickson P, Richelson E (2007). Neurotensin agonists: potential in the treatment of schizophrenia. *CNS Drugs* 21: 13–23. Ferraro L, Tomasini MC, Mazza R, Fuxe K, Fournier J, Tanganelli S *et al.* (2008). Neurotensin receptors as modulators of glutamatergic transmission. *Brain Res Rev* 58: 365–373.

Foord SM, Bonner TI, Neubig RR, Rosser EM, Pin JP, Davenport AP et al. (2005). International Union of Pharmacology. XLVI. G protein-coupled receptor list. Pharmacol Rev 57: 279–288.

Hwang JI, Kim DK, Kwon HB, Vaudry H, Seong JY (2009). Phylogenetic history, pharmacological features, and signal transduction of neurotensin receptors in vertebrates. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 1163: 169–178.

References

Gully D *et al.* (1997). *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* **280**: 802–812. Hermans E *et al.* (1997). *Br J Pharmacol* **121**: 1817–1823. Labbe-Jullie C *et al.* (1995). *Mol Pharmacol* **47**: 1050–1056. Martin S *et al.* (2002). *Gastroenterology* **123**: 1135–1143.

Mazella J et al. (1996). J Neurosci 16: 5613–5620. Nielsen MS et al. (1999). J Biol Chem 274: 8832–8836. Souaze F et al. (1997). J Biol Chem 272: 10087–10094. Vita N et al. (1998). Eur J Pharmacol 360: 265–272. S88 Opioid and opioid-like Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Opioid and opioid-like

Overview: Opioid and opioid-like receptors are activated by a variety of endogenous peptides including [Met]enkephalin (met), [Leu]enkephalin (leu), β -endorphin (β -end), α -neo-dynorphin, dynorphin A (dynA), dynorphin B (dynB), Big dynorphin (Big dyn), nociceptin/orphanin FQ (N/OFQ), and possibly endomorphin -1 and -2. The Greek letter names for the opioid receptors, μ , δ , and κ , are well established and IUPHAR considers these names most appropriate (Foord *et al.*, 2005). The human N/OFQ receptor is considered 'opioid-related' rather than opioid because while it exhibits a high degree of structural homology with the conventional opioid receptors (Mollereau *et al.*, 1994), it displays a distinct pharmacology.

Nomenclature	Delta opioid receptor	Kappa opioid receptor	Mu opioid receptor	N/OFQ receptor
Preferred abbreviation	δ	κ	μ	NOP
Other names	OP ₁ , DOP, DOR	OP ₂ , KOP, KOR	OP ₃ , MOP, MOR	ORL1, OP ₄
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000116329	ENSG00000082556	ENSG00000112038	ENSG00000125510
Principal transduction	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{i/o}$
Rank order of potency	β -End = leu = met > dynA	Big dyn > dynA >> β -end > leu > met	β -End> met \geq leu \geq .dynA	N/OFQ >> dynA
Selective agonists	DPDPE (Mosberg et al., 1983), DSBULET (Delay-Goyet et al., 1988), [DAla ²]deltorphin I or II (Erspamer et al., 1989), SNC80 (Bilsky et al., 1995)	U69593 (Lahti <i>et al.</i> , 1985), CI977 (Hunter <i>et al.</i> , 1990), Salvinorin A (Roth <i>et al.</i> , 2002)	Endomorphin-1 and -2 (Zadina et al., 1997), morphine (Goldstein and Naidu, 1989), DAMGO (Handa et al., 1981), sufentanil (Yeadon and Kitchen, 1988), PL017 (Costa et al., 1992)	N/OFQ, N/OFQ-(1-13)-NH ₂ (Guerrini <i>et al.</i> , 1997), Ro646198 (Jenck <i>et al.</i> , 2000), UFP-112 (Rizzi <i>et al.</i> , 2007)
Selective antagonists	Naltrindole (Portoghese <i>et al.,</i> 1988), naltriben (Sofuoglu <i>et al.,</i> 1991)	Nor-binaltorphimine (Portoghese <i>et al.</i> , 1987), GNTI (Stevens <i>et al.</i> , 2000)	CTAP (Pelton et al., 1986)	J113397 (8.3, Kawamoto et al., 1999), SB612111 (9.5, Zaratin et al., 2004), UFP101 (7.2, Calo' et al., 2002)
Probes	[³H]-DPDPE (Goldstein and Naidu, 1989), [³H]-naltrindole (Yamamura et al., 1992), [³H]-deltorphin II (Gomes et al., 2000), [³H]-naltriben (Lever and Scheffel, 1998)	[³H]-U69593 (Lahti <i>et al.</i> , 1985), [³H]-Cl977 (Simonin <i>et al.</i> , 2001)	[³ H]-DAMGO (Goldstein and Naidu, 1989), [³ H]-PL017 (Hawkins <i>et al.</i> , 1987)	[³ H]-N/OFQ (Dooley and Houghten, 1996), [³ H]-Leu-N/OFQ, [¹²⁵ I]-Tyr ¹⁴ -N/OFQ

Subtypes of μ (μ 1, μ 2), δ (δ 1, δ 2) and κ (κ 1, κ 2, κ 3) receptor have been proposed based primarily on binding studies with poorly selective ligands or results from *in vivo* studies. Only three naloxone-sensitive opioid receptors have been cloned, and while the μ -receptor in particular may be subject to extensive alternative splicing, these putative isforms have not been definitively correlated with any of the proposed subtypes. A distinct met-enkephalin receptor lacking structural resemblence to the opioid receptors listed has been identified (ENSG0000060491) and termed an opioid growth factor receptor. Opioid receptor subtypes may reflect hetero-dimerization of opioid receptors with each other or with other GPCR, and while there is increasing evidence for heterodimers in native cells, the consequences this heterodimerinzation for signalling remains largely unknown. For μ -opioid receptors at least, dimerization does not seem to be required for sigalling (Kuszak *et al.*, 2009).

Two areas of increasing importance in defining opioid receptor function are the presence of functionally relevant single nucleotide polymorphisms in human μ -receptors (see Oertel *et al.*, 2009) and the identification of biased signalling by opioid receptor ligands, in particular, compounds previously characterized as antagonists (Bruchas *et al.*, 2007). As ever, the mechanisms underlying the acute and long term regulation of opioid receptor function are the subject of intense investigation and debate.

Abbreviations: CI977, (5R)-(5R)- $(5\alpha,7\alpha,8\beta)$ -(-)-N-methyl-N-(7-[1-pyrrolidinyl]-1-oxaspiro[4,5]dec-8-yl)-4-benzofuranacetamide hydrochloride; CTAP, D-Phe-cyc[Cys-Tyr-D-Trp-Arg-Thr-Pen]-Thr-NH₂; **DAMGO**, Tyr-DAla-Gly-[NMePhe]-NH(CH₂)₂; **DPDPE**, cyc[DPen², DPen⁵]enkephalin; **DSBULET**, Tyr-DSer(OtBu)-Gly-Phe-Leu-Thr; **GNTI**, 5'-guanidinyl-17-(cyclopropylmethyl)-6,7-dehydro-4,5 α -epoxy-3,14-dihydroxy-6,7-2',3'-indolomorphinan; **ICI174864**, N,N-diallyl-Tyr-Aib-Phe-Leu-OH (Aib is aminoisobutyric acid); **J113397**, 1-[(3r,4r)-1-cyclooctylmethyl-3-hydroxymethyl-4-piperidyl]-3-ethyl-1,3-dihydro-2H-benzimidazol-2-one; **PL017**, [N-MePhe³,DPro⁴]morphiceptin; **Ro646198**, (1S,3aS)-8-(2,3,3a,4.5.6-hexahydro-1H-phenalen-1-yl)-1-phenyl-1,3,8-triazaspiro[4.5]decan-4-one; **SB612111**, (-)-cis-1-methyl-7-[[4-(2,6-dichlorophenyl)piperidin-1-yl]methyl]-6,7,8,9-tetrahydro-5H-benzocyclohepten-5-ol; **SNC80**, (+)-4-[(α R)- α -((2S,5R)-4-allyl-2,S-dimethyl-1-piperazinyl)-3-methoxybenzyl]-N,N-diethylbenzamide; **U69593**, $S\alpha$, 7α , 8β -(-)-N-methyl-N-(7-[1-pyrrolidinyl]-1-oxasipro(4,S)dec-8-yl)benzene acetamide; **UFP101**, [Nphe¹,Arg¹⁴,Lys¹⁵]nociceptin-NH₂; **UFP-112**, [(pF)Phe⁴Aibð-Arg¹⁴Lys¹⁵]N/OFQ-NH₂

Further Reading

Armstead WM (2011). Nociceptin/orphanin phenylalanine glutamine (FQ) receptor and cardiovascular disease. *Cardiovasc Ther* **29**: 23–28. Ballantyne JC, Laforge KS (2007). Opioid dependence and addiction during opioid treatment of chronic pain. *Pain* **129**: 235–255. Bruchas MR, Land BB, Chavkin C (2010). The dynorphin/κ opioid system as a modulator of stress-induced and pro-addictive behaviors. *Brain Res* **1314**: 44–55.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Opioid and opioid-like S89

Bruijnzeel AW (2009). κ-Opioid receptor signaling and brain reward function. Brain Res Rev 62: 127-146.

Bushlin I, Rozenfeld R, Devi LA (2010). Cannabinoid-opioid interactions during neuropathic pain and analgesia. *Curr Opin Pharmacol* 10: 80–86. Cahill CM, Holdridge SV, Morinville A (2007). Trafficking of δ-opioid receptors and other G-protein-coupled receptors: implications for pain and analgesia. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 28: 23–31.

Carlezon WA, Jr., Beguin C, Knoll AT, Cohen BM (2009). κ-opioid ligands in the study and treatment of mood disorders. *Pharmacol Ther* 123: 334–343.

DeHaven-Hudkins DL, DeHaven RN, Little PJ, Techner LM (2008). The involvement of the μ-opioid receptor in gastrointestinal pathophysiology: therapeutic opportunities for antagonism at this receptor. *Pharmacol Ther* 117: 162–187.

Doll C, Konietzko J, Poll F, Koch T, Hollt V, Schulz S (2011). Agonist-selective patterns of μ-opioid receptor phosphorylation revealed by phosphosite-specific antibodies. *Br J Pharmacol* **164**: 298–307.

Fichna J, Janecka A, Costentin J, Do Rego JC (2007). The endomorphin system and its evolving neurophysiological role. *Pharmacol Rev* 59: 88–123.

Gomes I, IJzerman AP, Ye K, Maillet EL, Devi LA (2011). G protein-coupled receptor heteromerization: a role in allosteric modulation of ligand binding. *Mol Pharmacol* 79: 1044–1052.

Henriksen G, Willoch F (2008). Imaging of opioid receptors in the central nervous system. Brain 131: 1171-1196.

Kieffer BL, Evans CJ (2009). Opioid receptors: from binding sites to visible molecules in vivo. Neuropharmacology 56 (Suppl 1): 205-212.

Koch T, Hollt V (2008). Role of receptor internalization in opioid tolerance and dependence. Pharmacol Ther 117: 199-206.

Lambert DG (2008). The nociceptin orphanin FQ receptor: a target with broad therapeutic potential. Nat Rev Drug Discov 7: 694-710.

Morgan MM, Christie MJ (2011). Analysis of opioid efficacy, tolerance, addiction, and dependence from cell culture to human. *Br J Pharmacol* 164: 1322–1334.

Oertel BG, Kettner M, Scholich K, Renne C, Roskam B, Geisslinger G *et al.* (2009). A common human micro-opioid receptor genetic variant diminishes the receptor signaling efficacy in brain regions processing the sensory information of pain. *J Biol Chem* **284**: 6530–6535.

Pineyro G, Archer-Lahlou E (2007). Ligand-specific receptor states: implications for opiate receptor signalling and regulation. *Cell Signal* 19: 8–19. Pradhan AA, Walwyn W, Nozaki C, Filliol D, Erbs E, Matifas A *et al.* (2010). Ligand-directed trafficking of the delta-opioid receptor in vivo: two paths toward analgesic tolerance. *J Neurosci* 30: 16459–16468.

Schwarzer C (2009). 30 years of dynorphins – new insights on their functions in neuropsychiatric diseases. *Pharmacol Ther* **123**: 353–370. Shippenberg TS (2009). The dynorphin/κ opioid receptor system: a new target for the treatment of addiction and affective disorders? *Neuropsychopharmacology* **34**: 247.

Somogyi AA, Barratt DT, Coller JK (2007). Pharmacogenetics of opioids. Clin Pharmacol Ther 81: 429-444.

Terenius L, Johansson B (2010). The opioid systems - panacea and nemesis. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 396: 140-142.

van Rijn RM, Whistler JL, Waldhoer M (2010). Opioid-receptor-heteromer-specific trafficking and pharmacology. *Curr Opin Pharmacol* 10: 73–79. Watkins LR, Hutchinson MR, Rice KC, Maier SF (2009). The 'toll' of opioid-induced glial activation: improving the clinical efficacy of opioids by targeting glia. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 30: 581–591.

Zollner C, Stein C (2007). Opioids. Handb Exp Pharmacol 31-63.

References

Bilsky EJ et al. (1995). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 273: 359-366. Bruchas MR et al. (2007). J Biol Chem 282: 29803-29811. Calo' G et al. (2002). Br J Pharmacol 136: 303-311. Costa EM et al. (1992). Life Sci 50: 73-81. Delay-Goyet P et al. (1988). J Biol Chem 263: 4124-4130. Dooley CT, Houghten RA (1996). Life Sci 59: L23-L29. Erspamer V et al. (1989). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 86: 5188-5192. Foord SM et al. (2005). Pharmacol Rev 57: 279-288. Goldstein A, Naidu A (1989). Mol Pharmacol 36: 265-272. Gomes I et al. (2000). I Neurosci 20: RC110. Guerrini R et al. (1997). J Med Chem 40: 1789-1793. Handa BK et al. (1981). Eur J Pharmacol 70: 531-540. Hawkins KN (1987). Eur J Pharmacol 133: 351-352. Hunter JC et al. (1990). Br J Pharmacol 101: 183-189. Jenck F et al. (2000). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 97: 4938-4943. Kawamoto H et al. (1999). J Med Chem 42: 5061-5063. Kuszak AJ et al. (2009) J Biol Chem 284: 26732-26741.

Lahti RA et al. (1985). Eur J Pharmacol 109: 281-284. Lever JR, Scheffel U (1998). Eur J Pharmacol 350: 335-344. Mollereau C et al. (1994). FEBS Lett 341: 33-38. Mosberg HI et al. (1983). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 80: 5871-5874. Pelton JT et al. (1986). J Med Chem 29: 2370-2375. Portoghese PS et al. (1987). J Med Chem 30: 1991-1994. Portoghese PS et al. (1988). Eur J Pharmacol 146: 185-186. Rizzi A et al. (2007). Peptides 28: 1240-1251. Roth BL et al. (2002). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 99: 11934-11939. Simonin F et al. (2001). Eur I Pharmacol 414: 189-195. Sofuoglu M et al. (1991). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 257: 676-680. Stevens WC et al. (2000). J Med Chem 43: 2759-2769. Yamamura MS et al. (1992). Life Sci 50: L119-L124. Yeadon M, Kitchen I (1988). Neuropharmacology 27: 345-348. Zadina JE et al. (1997). Nature 386: 499-502. Zaratin PF et al. (2004). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 308: 454-461.

S90 Orexin Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Orexin

Overview: Orexin receptors (provisional nomenclature) are activated by the endogenous polypeptides orexin-A and orexin-B (also known as hypocretin-1 and -2; 33 and 28 aa) derived from a common precursor, preproorexin or orexin precursor (ENSG00000161610), by proteolytic cleavage (Sakurai *et al.*, 1998). Binding to both receptors may be accomplished with [125]-orexin A (Holmqvist *et al.*, 2001).

Nomenclature OX₁

Other names Hypocretin receptor type 1 Hypocretin receptor type 2
Ensembl ID ENSG00000121764 ENSG00000137252

Principal transduction $G_{q/11}$ $G_{q/11}$

Rank order of potency Orexin-A > orexin-B Orexin-A = orexin-B

Selective agonists – [Ala¹¹,D-Leu¹⁵]orexin-B (Asahi *et al.*, 2003)

Selective antagonists SB408124 (7.5, Langmead *et al.*, 2004), SB334867A EMPA (8.6–9.0, Malherbe *et al.*, 2009), JNJ10397049 (7.2-7.3, Porter *et al.*, 2001) (7.9–8.3, McAtee *et al.*, 2004), compound 29 (7.4;

Hirose et al., 2003)

The primary coupling of orexin receptors to $G_{q/11}$ proteins is rather speculative and based on the strong activation of phospholipase C. Coupling of both receptors to $G_{1/0}$ and G_s has also been reported (Kukkonen and Åkerman, 2005; Ramanjaneya *et al.*, 2009); for most cellular responses observed, the G protein pathway is unknown. The rank order of endogenous agonist potency may depend on the cellular signal transduction machinery. The synthetic [Ala¹¹,D-Leu¹⁵]orexin-B may show poor OX₂ receptor selectivity (Putula *et al.*, 2011).

Loss-of-function mutations in the gene encoding the OX2 receptor underlie canine hereditary narcolepsy (Lin et al., 1999).

Abbreviations: compound 29, *N*-acyl 6,7-dimethoxy-1,2,3,4-tetrahydroisoquinoline; EMPA, *N*-ethyl-2-[(6-methoxy-pyridin-3-yl)-(toluene-2-sulphonyl)-amino]-N-pyridin-3-ylmethyl-acetamide; JNJ10397049, 1-(2,4-dibromo-phenyl)-3-((4S,5S)-2,2-dimethyl-4-phenyl-[1,3]dioxan-5-yl)-urea; SB334867A, 1-(2-methyylbenzoxanzol-6-yl)-3-[1,5]naphthyridin-4-yl-urea hydrochloride; SB408124, 1-(6,8-difluoro-2-methyl-quinolin-4-yl)-3-(4-dimethylamino-phenyl)-urea

Further Reading

Boss C, Brisbare-Roch C, Jenck F (2009). Biomedical application of orexin/hypocretin receptor ligands in neuroscience. *J Med Chem* **52**: 891–903. Coleman PJ, Renger JJ (2010). Orexin receptor antagonists: a review of promising compounds patented since 2006. *Expert Opin Ther Pat* **20**: 307–324

Heinonen MV, Purhonen AK, Makela KA, Herzig KH (2008). Functions of orexins in peripheral tissues. *Acta Physiol (Oxf)* 192: 471–485. Nishino S (2007). The hypothalamic peptidergic system, hypocretin/orexin and vigilance control. *Neuropeptides* 41: 117–133. Sakurai T (2007). The neural circuit of orexin (hypocretin): maintaining sleep and wakefulness. *Nat Rev Neurosci* 8: 171–181. Scammell TE, Winrow CJ (2011). Orexin receptors: pharmacology and therapeutic opportunities. *Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol* 51: 243–266. Sharf R, Sarhan M, Dileone RJ (2010). Role of orexin/hypocretin in dependence and addiction. *Brain Res* 1314: 130–138. Tsujino N, Sakurai T (2009). Orexin/Hypocretin: a neuropeptide at the interface of sleep, energy homeostasis, and reward system. *Pharmacol Rev* 61: 162–176.

References

Asahi S et al. (2003). Bioorg Med Chem Lett 13: 111–113.

Hirose M et al. (2003). Bioorg Med Chem Lett 13: 4497–4499.

Holmqvist T et al. (2001). Neurosci Lett 305: 177–180.

Kukkonen JP, Åkerman KEO (2005). In: Hypocretins. Integrators of Physiological Signals. Springer Verlag: pp. 221–231.

Langmead CJ et al. (2004). Br J Pharmacol 141: 340–346.

Lin L et al. (1999). Cell 98: 365–376.

Malherbe P et al. (2009). Br J Pharmacol 156: 1326–1341. McAtee LC et al. (2004). Bioorg Med Chem Lett 14: 4225–4229. Porter RA et al. (2001). Bioorg Med Chem Lett 11: 1907–1910. Putula J et al. (2011). Neurosci Lett 494: 57–60. Ramanjaneya M et al. (2009). J Endocrinol 202: 249–261. Sakurai T et al. (1998). Cell 92: 573–585. Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

P2Y

Overview: P2Y receptors (nomenclature as agreed by NC-IUPHAR Subcommittee on P2Y Receptors, Abbracchio *et al.*, 2003; 2006) are activated by the endogenous ligands ATP, ADP, UTP, UDP and UDP-glucose. The relationship of many of the cloned receptors to endogenously expressed receptors is not yet established and so it might be appropriate to use wording such as 'UTP-preferring (or ATP-, etc.) P2Y receptor' or 'P2Y₁-like', etc., until further, as yet undefined, corroborative criticia can be applied.

Nomenclature	P2Y ₁	P2Y ₂	P2Y ₄	P2Y ₆
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000169860	ENSG00000175591	ENSG00000186912	ENSG00000171631
Principal transduction	$G_{q/11}$	$G_{q/11}$	$G_{q/11}$	$G_{q/11}$
Rank order of potency	ADP > ATP	UTP = ATP	UTP > ATP (at rat recombinant receptors, UTP = ATP)	UDP >> UTP > ATP
Selective agonists	2-MeSADP, ADP β S, MRS2365 (Bourdon <i>et al.</i> , 2006)	UTPγS (Lazarowski et al., 1996), Ap ₄ A (Castro et al., 1992), 2-thioUTP (El-Tayeb et al., 2006), MRS2768 (Ko et al., 2008)	UTPγS (Lazarowski <i>et al.,</i> 1996), MRS4062 (Maruoka <i>et al.,</i> 2011)	UDP, 3-phenacylUDP (PSB0474, El-Tayeb <i>et al.</i> , 2006), 5-iodoUDP (Besada <i>et al.</i> , 2006)
Selective antagonists	MRS2500 (8.8, Kim et al., 2003), MRS2279 (8.0, Waldo et al., 2002), MRS2179 (7.0, Boyer et al., 1996), PIT (6.8, Gao et al., 2004)	-	ATP (6.2, Kennedy <i>et al.</i> , 2000)	MRS2578 (pIC ₅₀ 7.4, Mamedova <i>et al.</i> , 2004)
Probes	[3 H]-MRS2279 (8 nM, Waldo <i>et al.</i> , 2002), [35 S]-ADP β S, [35 S]-ATP α S, [35 S]-dATP α S	-	-	-

Nomenclature	P2Y ₁₁	P2Y ₁₂	P2Y ₁₃	P2Y ₁₄
Other names	_	P2Y _{ADP} , P _{2T}	GPR86, GPR94, SP174	KIAAA00001, gpr105
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000244165	ENSG00000169313	ENSG00000181631	ENSG00000174944
Principal transduction	G_s , $G_{q/11}$	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{q/11}$
Rank order of potency	ATP > UTP	ADP >> ATP	ADP >> ATP	UDP-glucose
Selective agonists	ARC67085 (Communi <i>et al.</i> , 1999), NAD ⁺ (Moreschi <i>et al.</i> , 2006), NAADP ⁺ (Moreschi <i>et al.</i> , 2008), NF546 (Meis <i>et al.</i> , 2010)	ADP, 2-MeSADP	-	MRS2690 (Ko <i>et al.,</i> 2007)
Selective antagonists	NF157 (Ullmann <i>et al.,</i> 2005)	ATP, ARL66096 (Humphries et al., 1995)	MRS2211 (Kim <i>et al.,</i> 2005)	_

ARC69931MX shows selectivity for $P2Y_{12}$ and $P2Y_{13}$ receptors compared to other P2Y receptors (Marteau *et al.* 2003; Takasaki *et al.*, 2001). NF157 also has antagonist activity at $P2X_1$ receptors (Ullmann *et al.*, 2005). UDP has been reported to be an antagonist at the $P2Y_{14}$ receptor (Fricks *et al.*, 2008).

An orphan GPCR suggested to be a 'P2Y₁₅' receptor (Inbe *et al.*, 2004) appears not to be a genuine nucleotide receptor (see Abbracchio *et al.*, 2006), but rather responds to dicarboxylic acids (He *et al.*, 2004). Further P2Y-like receptors have been cloned from non-mammalian sources; a clone from chick brain, termed a p2y₃ receptor (ENSGALG00000017327), couples to the $G_{q/11}$ family of G proteins and shows the rank order of potency ADP > UTP > ATP = UDP (Webb *et al.*, 1996a). In addition, human sources have yielded a clone with a preliminary identification of p2y5 (ENSG0000139679) and contradictory evidence of responses to ATP (King and Townsend-Nicholson, 2000; Webb *et al.*, 1996b). This protein is now classified as LP4₄, a receptor for lysophosphatidic acid (Pasternack *et al.*, 2008; Yanagida *et al.*, 2009) (see Page S76). The clone p2y7 (ENSG00000196943), originally suggested to be a P2Y receptor (Akbar *et al.*, 1996), has been shown to encode a leukotriene receptor (Yokomizo *et al.*, 1997). A P2Y receptor that was initially termed a p2y8 receptor (P79928) has been cloned from *Xenopus laevis*; it shows the rank order of potency ADP β S > ATP = UTP = GTP = CTP = TTP = ITP > ATP γ S and elicits a Ca²⁺-dependent Cl⁻ current in *Xenopus* oocytes (Bogdanov *et al.*, 1997). The p2y10 clone (ENSG00000078589) lacks functional data. Diadenosine polyphosphates also have effects on as yet uncloned P2Y-like receptors with the rank order of potency of Ap₄A > Ap₅A > Ap₃A, coupling *via* $G_{q/11}$ (Castro *et al.*, 1992). P2Y-like receptors have recently been described on mitochondria (Belous *et al.*, 2004). CysLT₁ and CysLT₂ leukotriene receptors respond to nanomolar concentrations of UDP, although they are activated principally by leukotrienes C₄ and D₄ (Mellor *et al.*, 2001; 2003); Human (ENSG00000144230) and rat GPR17, which are structurally related to CysLT and P2Y receptors, are also activated by leukotrienes as well as UDP and UDP-glucose (Ciana *et al.*, 2006). Activity at t

S92 P2Y Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Abbreviations: ARC67085, 2-propylthio- $β_Y$ -dichloromethylene-ATP; AR-C69931MX, N^6 -(2-methylthioethyl)-2-(3,3,3-trifluoropropylthio)- $β_Y$ -dichloromethylene-ATP, also known as cangrelor; 2-MeSADP, 2-methylthio-adenosine-5'-triphosphate; 2-MeSATP, 2-methylthio-adenosine-5'-triphosphate; ARL66096, 2-propylthio- $β_Y$ -difluoromethylene ATP (previously FPL66096); ATP $_Y$ 8, adenosine 5'-(3-thio)triphosphate; MRS2179, N^6 -methyl-2'-deoxyadenosine-3',5'-bisphosphate; MRS2211, pyridoxal-5'- phosphate-6-azo (2-chloro-5-nitrophenyl)-2,4-disulfonate; MRS2279, 2-chloro- N^6 -methyl-(N)-methanocarba-2'-deoxyadenosine-3',5'-bisphosphate; MRS2365, (N)-methanocarba-2-MeSADP; MRS2500, N^6 -methyl-(N)-methanocarba-2'-deoxyadenosine-3',5-bisphosphate; MRS2578, N,N'-1,4-butanediyl bis(N'-[3-isothiocynatophenyl)] thiourea; MRS2690, 2-thiouridine-5'-diphosphoglucose; MRS2768, uridine-5'-tetraphosphate δ -phenyl ester; MRS4062, N^4 -phenylpropoxycytidine-5'-triphosphate; NF157, 8,8'-[carbonylbis[imino-3,1-phenylenecarbonylimino]]bis-1,3,5-naphthalene trisulfonic acid hexasodium salt; NF546, 4,4'-(carbonylbis(imino-3,1-phenylene-carbonylimino-3,1-(4-methyl-phenylene)-carbonylimino))-bis(1,3-xylene- α , α '-diphosphonic acid); PIT, 2,2'-pyridylisatogen tosylate

Further Reading

Abbracchio MP, Boeynaems JM, Barnard EA, Boyer JL, Kennedy C, Miras-Portugal MT *et al.* (2003). Characterization of the UDP-glucose receptor (re-named here the P2Y₁₄ receptor) adds diversity to the P2Y receptor family. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* **24**: 52–55.

Abbracchio MP, Burnstock G, Boeynaems JM, Barnard EA, Boyer JL, Kennedy C *et al.* (2006). International Union of Pharmacology LVIII: update on the P2Y G protein-coupled nucleotide receptors: from molecular mechanisms and pathophysiology to therapy. *Pharmacol Rev* **58**: 281–341. Burnstock G (2007). Purine and pyrimidine receptors. *Cell Mol Life Sci* **64**: 1471–1483.

Burnstock G (2008). Purinergic signalling and disorders of the central nervous system. Nat Rev Drug Discov 7: 575-590.

Erlinge D, Burnstock G (2008). P2 receptors in cardiovascular regulation and disease. Purinergic Signal 4: 1-20.

Jacobson KA, Ivanov AA, de Castro S, Harden TK, Ko H (2009). Development of selective agonists and antagonists of P2Y receptors. *Purinergic Signal* 5: 75–89.

References

Akbar GKM et al. (1996). J Biol Chem 271: 18363-18367. Belous A et al. (2004). J Cell Biochem 92: 1062-1073. Besada P et al. (2006). J Med Chem 49: 5532-5543. Bogdanov YD et al. (1997). J Biol Chem 272: 12583-12590. Bourdon DM et al. (2006). J Thromb Haemost 4: 861-868. Bover IL et al. (1996). Mol Pharmacol 50: 1323-1329. Castro E et al. (1992). Br J Pharmacol 106: 833-837. Ciana P et al. (2006). EMBO J 25: 4615-4627. Communi D et al. (1999). Br J Pharmacol 128: 1199-1206. El-Tayeb A et al. (2006). J Med Chem 49: 7076-7087. Fricks IP et al. (2008). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 325: 588-594. Gao ZG et al. (2004). Biochem Pharmacol 68: 231-237. He W et al. (2004). Nature 429: 188-193. Humphries RG et al. (1995). Br J Pharmacol 115: 1110-1116. Inbe H et al. (2004). J Biol Chem 279: 19790-19799. Kennedy C et al. (2000). Mol Pharmacol 57: 926-931. Kim HS et al. (2003). J Med Chem 46: 4974-4987. Kim YC et al. (2005). Biochem Pharmacol 70: 266-274. King BF, Townsend-Nicholson A (2000). J Auton Nerv Syst 81: 164–170. Ko H et al. (2007). J Med Chem 50: 2030-2039.

Ko H et al. (2008) Bioorg Med Chem 16: 6319-6332. Lazarowski ER et al. (1996). Br J Pharmacol 117: 203-209. Mamedova LK et al. (2004). Biochem Pharmacol 67: 1763-1770. Marteau F et al. (2003). Mol Pharmacol 64: 104-112. Maruoka H et al. (2011). J Med Chem 54: 4018-4033. Meis S et al. (2010). I Pharmacol Exp Ther 332: 238-247. Mellor EA et al. (2001). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 98: 7964-7969. Mellor EA et al. (2003). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 100: 11589-11593. Moreschi I et al. (2006). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 345: 573-580. Moreschi I et al. (2008). Cell Calcium 43: 344-355. Noguchi K et al. (2003). J Biol Chem 278: 25600-25606. Pasternack SM et al. (2008). Nat Genet 40: 329-334. Takasaki J et al. (2001). Mol Pharmacol 60: 432-439. Ullmann H et al. (2005). J Med Chem 48: 7040-7048. Waldo GL et al. (2002). Mol Pharmacol 62: 1249-1257. Webb TE et al. (1996a). Mol Pharmacol 50: 258-265. Webb TE et al. (1996b). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 219: 105-110. Yanagida K et al. (2009). J Biol Chem 284: 17731-17741. Yokomizo T et al. (1997). Nature 387: 620-624.

Parathyroid hormone and parathyroid hormone-related peptide

Overview: Parathyroid hormone (PTH) and parathyroid hormone-related peptide (PTHrP) receptors (provisional nomenclature) are activated by precursor-derived peptides: PTH (84 amino acids, ENSG00000152266), PTHrP (141 amino-acids and related peptides (PTHrP-1-36, PTHrP-38-94 and osteostatin (PTHrP-107-139) (ENSG00000087494) and TIP39 (39 amino acids, ENSG00000142538). [125 I]-PTH may be used to label both PTH₁ and PTH2 receptors.

Nomenclature PTH₁ PTH₂ PTH/PTHrP, PPR Other names ENSG00000160801 Ensembl ID ENSG00000144407 Principal transduction G_s , $G_{q/11}$ G_s , $G_{q/11}$ Rank order of potency PTH = PTHrPTIP39. PTH >> PTHrP TIP39 (Hoare et al., 2000) Selective agonists TIP-9-39 (Jonsson et al., 2001) Selective antagonists

Although PTH is an agonist at human PTH₂ receptors, it fails to activate the rodent orthologues. TIP39 is a weak antagonist at PTH₁ receptors (Jonsson et al., 2001).

Abbreviations: PTH, parathyroid hormone; PTHrP, parathyroid hormone-related peptide; TIP39, tuberoinfundibular protein of 39 residues

Further Reading

Datta NS, Abou-Samra AB (2009). PTH and PTHrP signaling in osteoblasts. Cell Signal 21: 1245–1254.

Dobolyi A, Palkovits M, Usdin TB (2010). The TIP39-PTH2 receptor system: unique peptidergic cell groups in the brainstem and their interactions with central regulatory mechanisms. Prog Neurobiol 90: 29-59.

Gesty-Palmer D, Luttrell LM (2011). 'Biasing' the parathyroid hormone receptor: a novel anabolic approach to increasing bone mass? Br J Pharmacol 164: 59-67.

Guerreiro PM, Renfro JL, Power DM, Canario AV (2007). The parathyroid hormone family of peptides: structure, tissue distribution, regulation, and potential functional roles in calcium and phosphate balance in fish. Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol 292: R679–R696.

Kraenzlin ME, Meier C (2011). Parathyroid hormone analogues in the treatment of osteoporosis. Nat Rev Endocrinol in press.

Mierke DF, Mao L, Pellegrini M et al. (2007). Structural characterization of the parathyroid hormone receptor domains determinant for ligand binding. Biochem Soc Trans 35: 721-723.

Naveh-Many T (2010). The play of proteins on the parathyroid hormone messenger ribonucleic acid regulates its expression. Endocrinology 151: 1398-1402.

Silva BC, Bilezikian JP (2011). New approaches to the treatment of osteoporosis. Annu Rev Med 62: 307-322.

Silver J, Naveh-Many T (2009). Phosphate and the parathyroid. Kidney Int 75: 898–905.

Vilardaga JP, Romero G, Friedman PA, Gardella TJ (2011). Molecular basis of parathyroid hormone receptor signaling and trafficking: a family B GPCR paradigm. Cell Mol Life Sci 68: 1-13.

References

Hoare SR et al. (2000). J Biol Chem 275: 27274-27283. Jonsson KB et al. (2001). Endocrinology, 142, 704-709.

S94 Platelet-activating factor
Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Platelet-activating factor

Overview: Platelet-activating factor (PAF, 1-O-alkyl-2-acetyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine) is a biologically active phospholipid mediator. PAF acts by binding to a unique G protein-coupled receptor (PAF-R) and activates multiple intracellular signaling pathways by coupling to the $G_{q/11}$ and $G_{1/O}$ families of G proteins. PAF-R is activated by PAF and its metabolically stable analogue mc-PAF. Other suggested endogenous ligands are oxidized phosphatidylcholine (Marathe $et\ al.$, 1999) and lysophosphatidylcholine (Ogita $et\ al.$, 1997). It may also be activated by bacterial lipopolysaccharide (Nakamura $et\ al.$, 1992).

Nomenclature PAF-R

Ensembl ID ENSG00000169403

Principal transduction $G_{q/11}, G_{l}, G_{o}$ Selective agonists mc-PAF

Selective antagonists CV-6209 (9.5), SR27417 (10.0), WEB2086 (8.0), L659989 (8.1), ginkgolide B (6.4)

Radioligand [3H]-PAF (1.6 nM, Fukunaga et al., 2001)

Note that a previously recommended radioligand ([3 H]-WEB2086; $K_{\rm d}$ 44.6 nM) is currently unavailable.

Abbreviations: CV-6209, 2-(*N*-acetyl-*N*-[2-methoxy-3-octadecylcarbamoyloxypropoxycarbamoyl]aminomethyl)-1-ethylpyridinium chloride; L659989, *trans*-2-(3-methoxy-5-methylsulphonyl-4-propoxyphenyl)-5-(3,4,5-trimethoxyphenyl)tetrahydrofuran; **mc-PAF**, 1-*O*-alkyl-2-*N*-methylcarbamoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphocholine; also known as (methyl)carbam(o)yl-PAF or c-PAF; **SR27417**, *N*-(2-dimethylaminoethyl)-*N*-(3-pyridinylmethyl)(4-[2,4,6-triisopropylphenyl]thoiazol-2-yl)amine; **WEB2086**, 3-(4-[2-chlorophenyl]-9-methyl-6*H*-thieno[3,2-f|[1,2,4]triazolo[4,3-a][1,4]diazepine-2-yl)-1-(4-morpholinyl)-1-propanone; also known as apafant

Further Reading

Honda Z, Ishii S, Shimizu T (2002). Platelet-activating factor receptor. J Biochem 1331: 773-779.

Ishii S, Nagase T, Shimizu T (2002). Platelet-activating factor receptor. Prostaglandins Other Lipid Mediators 68: 599-609.

Ishii S, Shimizu T (2000). Platelet-activating factor (PAF) receptor and genetically engineered PAF receptor mutant mice. *Prog Lipid Res* **39**: 41–82. Izumi T, Shimizu T (1995). Platelet-activating factor receptor; gene expression and signal transduction. *Biochim Biophys Acta* **1259**: 317–333. Kasperska-Zajac A, Brzoza Z, Rogala B (2008). Platelet-activating factor (PAF): a review of its role in asthma and clinical efficacy of PAF antagonists in the disease therapy. *Recent Pat Inflamm Allergy Drug Discov* **2**: 72–76.

Montrucchio G, Alloatti G, Camussi G (2000). Role of platelet-activating factor in cardiovascular pathophysiology. *Physiol Rev* 80: 1669–1699. MacLennan KM, Smith PF, Darlington CL (1996). Platelet-activating factor in the CNS. *Prog Neurobiol* 50: 585–596.

Prescott SM, Zimmerman GA, Stafforini DM, McIntyre TM (2000). Platelet-actiating factor and related lipid mediators. *Annu Rev Biochem* 69: 419-445

Shimizu T (2009). Lipid mediators in health and disease: enzymes and receptors as therapeutic targets for the regulation of immunity and inflammation. *Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol* **49**: 123–150.

Stafforini DM, McIntyre TM, Zimmerman, GA, Prescott SM (2003). Platelet-activating factor, a pleiotrophic mediator of physiological and pathological processes. Crit Rev Clin Lab Sci 40: 643–672.

Summers JB, Albert DH (1995). Platelet activating factor antagonists. Adv Pharmacol 32: 67-168.

References

Fukunaga K *et al.* (2001). *J Biol Chem* **276**: 43025–43030. Marathe GK *et al.* (1999). *J Biol Chem* **274**: 28395–28404. Nakamura M *et al.* (1992). *FEBS Lett* **314**: 125–129. Ogita T *et al.* (1997). *Am J Physiol* **272**: H17–H24.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Proteinase-activated \$95

Proteinase-activated

Overview: Proteinase-activated receptors (PARs, nomenclature as agreed by NC-IUPHAR Subcommittee on Proteinase-activated Receptors, see Hollenberg and Compton, 2002) are unique members of the GPCR superfamily activated by proteolytic cleavage of their amino terminal exodomains. Agonist proteinase-induced hydrolysis unmasks a tethered ligand at the exposed amino terminus, which acts intramolecularly at the binding site in the body of the receptor to effect transmembrane signalling. Tethered ligand sequences at human PAR1–4 are SFLLRN, SLIGKV, TFRGAP and GYPGQV, respectively. With the exception of PAR3, these synthetic peptide sequences (as carboxyl terminal amides) are able to act as agonists at their respective receptors. Several proteinases, including neutrophil elastase, cathepsin G and chymotrypsin can have inhibitory effects at the PAR1 and PAR2 such that they cleave the exodomain of the receptor without inducing activation, thereby preventing activation by activating proteinases but not by agonist peptides. The role of such an action *in vivo* is unclear.

Nomenclature	PAR ₁	PAR ₂	PAR ₃	PAR ₄
Other names	Thrombin receptor, PAR-1, PAR ₁	PAR-2, PAR ₂	Thrombin receptor, PAR-3, PAR₃	Thrombin receptor, PAR-4, PAR ₄
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000181104	ENSG00000164251	ENSG00000164220	ENSG00000127533
Principal transduction	$G_{q/11}/G_{i/o}/G_{12/13}$	$G_{q/11}/G_{i/o}/G_{12/13}$	$G_{q/11}/G_{i/o}$	$G_{q/11}/G_{i/o}$
Agonist proteases	Thrombin, activated protein C, matrix metalloproteinase 2	Trypsin, tryptase, TF/VIIa, Xa	Thrombin	Thrombin, trypsin, cathepsin G
Selective agonists	TFLLR-NH ₂	2-Furoyl-LIGRLO-NH ₂ (McGuire <i>et al.</i> , 2004), SLIGRL-NH ₂ , SLIGKV-NH ₂	-	AYPGKF-NH ₂ , GYPGQV-NH ₂ , GYPGKF-NH ₂
Selective antagonists	RWJ56110 (Andrade-Gordon et al., 1999), SCH530348 (Chackalamannil et al., 2008), E5555 (Serebruany et al., 2009)	-	-	-
Probes	[³H]-haTRAP (Ahn <i>et al.,</i> 1997)	Trans-cinnamoyl-LIGRLO[N-[³H]-propionyl]-NH ₂ (Al Ani et al., 1999), 2-furoyl-LIGRL[N[³H]propionyl]-O-NH ₂ and 2-furoyl-LIGRL[N-(Alexa Fluor 594)-O]-NH ₂ (Hollenberg et al., 2008).	-	-

TFLLR-NH₂ is selective relative to the PAR2 receptor (Blackhart et al., 1996; Kawabata et al., 1999). Thrombin is inactive at the PAR₂ receptor.

Endogenous serine proteinases (EC 3.4.21._) active at the proteinase-activated receptors include: thrombin, generated by the action of Factor X (ENSG00000126218) on liver-derived prothrombin (ENSG00000180210); trypsin, generated by the action of enterokinase (ENSG00000154646) on pancreatic-derived trypsinogen (ENSG00000204983); tryptase, a family of enzymes (α/β 1 ENSG00000172236; γ 1 ENSG00000116176; δ 1 ENSG00000095917) secreted from mast cells; cathepsin G (ENSG00000100448) generated from leukocytes; liver-derived protein C (ENSG00000115718) generated in plasma by thrombin and matrix metalloproteinase 1 (see Page S317).

Abbreviations: [^{3}H]-haTRAP, Ala- ^{4}P -fluoroPhe-Ala-Arg-cyclohexylAla-homoArg-[^{3}H]-Tyr-amide; RWJ56110, (α S)- ^{4}P -fluoroPhe-Ala-Arg-cyclohexylAla-homoArg-[^{4}H -fluoroPhe-Ala-Arg-cyclohexylAla-homoArg-[^{4}H -fluoroPhe-Ala-Arg-cyclohexylAla-homoArg-[^{4}H -fluoroPhe-Ala-Arg-cyclohexylAla-homoArg-[^{4}H -fluoroPhe-Ala-Arg-cyclohexylAla-homoArg-[^{4}H -fluoroPhe-Ala-Arg-cyclohexylAla-homoArg-cyclohexylAla-homoArg-cyclohexylAla-homoArg-cyclohexylAla-homoArg-cyclohexylAla-homoArg-cyclohexylAla-homoArg-cyclohexylAla-homoArg-cyclohexylAla-homoArg-cyclohexylAla-homoArg-cyclohexylAla-homoArg-cyclohexylAla-homoArg-cyclohexylAla-homoArg-cyclohexylAla-homoArg-cyclohexylAla-homoArg-cyclohexylAla-homoArg-cyclohexylAla-homoArg-cyclohexy

Further Reading

Adams MN, Ramachandran R, Yau MK, Suen JY, Fairlie DP, Hollenberg MD *et al.* (2011). Structure, function and pathophysiology of protease activated receptors. *Pharmacol Ther* 130: 248–282.

Garcia PS, Gulati A, Levy JH (2010). The role of thrombin and protease-activated receptors in pain mechanisms. *Thromb Haemost* 103: 1145–1151. Hollenberg MD, Compton SJ (2002). International Union of Pharmacology. XXVIII. Proteinase-activated receptors. *Pharmacol Rev* 54: 203–217. Shpacovitch V, Feld M, Bunnett NW, Steinhoff M (2007). Protease-activated receptors: novel PARtners in innate immunity. *Trends Immunol* 28: 541–550.

Soh UJ, Dores MR, Chen B, Trejo J (2010). Signal transduction by protease-activated receptors. Br J Pharmacol 160: 191–203.

Steinhoff M, Buddenkotte J, Shpacovitch V, Rattenholl A, Moormann C, Vergnolle N *et al.* (2005). Proteinase-activated receptors: transducers of proteinase-mediated signaling in inflammation and immune response. *Endocr Rev* 26: 1–43.

Vergnolle N (2009). Protease-activated receptors as drug targets in inflammation and pain. Pharmacol Ther 123: 292-309.

References

S96 Proteinase-activated Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Blackhart BD *et al.* (1996). *J Biol Chem* **271**: 16466–16471.
Chackalamannil S *et al.* (2008). *J Med Chem* **51**: 3061–3064.
Hollenberg MD *et al.* (2008). *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* **326**: 453–462.
McGuire, J. J., Saifeddine, M., Triggle, C. R., Sun, K., and Hollenberg, M. D. (2004) *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* **309**, 1124–1131.

Kawabata A et al. (1999). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 288: 358–370.

Serebruany, V. L., Kogushi, M., Dastros-Pitei, D., Flather, M., and Bhatt, D. L. (2009) *Thromb Haemost* 102, 111–119.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Prostanoid S97

Prostanoid

Overview: Prostanoid receptors (nomenclature agreed by the NC-IUPHAR Subcommittee on Prostanoid Receptors, see Coleman *et al.*, 1994) are activated by the endogenous ligands prostaglandin (PG) D_2 (D), PGE_2 (E), $PGF_{2\alpha}$ (F), PGH_2 (H), prostacyclin [PGI₂ (I)] and thromboxane A_2 (T). Measurement of the potency of PGI_2 and TXA_2 is hampered by their instability in physiological salt solution; they are often replaced by cicaprost and U46619, respectively, in receptor characterization studies.

Nomenclature	DP_1	DP_2	FP	IP	TP
Other names	_	CRTh2, GPR44	_	_	_
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000168229	ENSG00000183134	ENSG00000122420	ENSG00000160013	ENSG00000006638
Principal transduction	G_s	$G_{i/o}$	$G_{q/11}$	G_s	$G_{q/11}$
Rank order of potency	D >> E > F > I,T	D >> F, E > I, T	F > D > E > I,T	I >> D,E,F > T	T = H >> D,E,F,I
Selective agonists	L644698, BW245C, ZK118182, RS93520, SQ27986	13,14-Dihydro-15-oxo PGD ₂ , 15 <i>R</i> -15-methyl PGD ₂ (Hata <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Monneret <i>et al.</i> , 2003)	Fluprostenol, latanoprost free acid, AL12180 (Sharif et al., 2006)	Cicaprost, AFP07, BMY45778 (Seiler et al., 1997)	U46619, STA ₂ , I-BOP, AGN192093
Selective antagonists	BWA868C (9.3, Giles et al., 1989), S5751 (8.8, Arimura et al., 2001), laropiprant (10.1, Sturino et al., 2007)	Ramatroban (Sugimoto <i>et al.,</i> 2003), CAY10471 (Royer <i>et al.,</i> 2007)	AS604872 (Cirillo et al., 2007)	RO1138452 (8.8), RO3244794 (8.5) (Bley <i>et al.</i> , 2006)	BMS180291 (9.3–10.0), ONO-3708 (8.9), GR32191 (8.3–9.4, Lumley <i>et al.</i> , 1989), SQ29548 (8.1–9.1, Swayne <i>et al.</i> , 1988)
Probes	[³ H]-PGD ₂ (13–34 nM)	[³ H]-PGD ₂ (6–11 nM)	[³H]-PGF _{2x} (2–4 nM), [³H]-(+)-fluprostenol (34 nM)	[³ H]-lloprost (1–20 nM)	[³ H]-SQ29548 (5–40 nM), [¹²⁵ I]-SAP (0.2–1.0 nM), [¹²⁵ I]-I-BOP (0.3–5.0 nM)

Ramatroban is also a TP receptor antagonist. Cicaprost exhibits moderate EP₄ receptor agonist potency (Abramovitz *et al.*, 2000). Iloprost also binds to EP₁ receptors. The TP receptor exists in α and β isoforms due to alternative splicing of the cytoplasmic tail (Raychowdhury *et al.*, 1994).

Nomenclature	EP ₁	EP ₂	EP ₃	EP ₄
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000160951	ENSG00000125384	ENSG00000050628	ENSG00000171522
Principal transduction	$G_{q/11}$	G_s	$G_{i/o}$	G_s
Rank order of potency	E > F,I > D,T	E > F,I > D,T	E > F,I > D,T	E > F,I > D,T
Selective agonists	17-Phenyl-PGE ₂ , ONO-DI-004	Butaprost-free acid, CP533536 (Cameron et al., 2009), ONO-AE1–259	Sulprostone, SC46275, ONO-AE-248	ONO-AE1-329, L902688 (Young et al., 2004), CP734432 (Prasanna et al., 2009)
Selective antagonists	ONO8711 (9.2), GW848687X (9.1, Giblin et al., 2007), SC51322 (8.8)	-	L798106 (7.7), ONO-AE3-240 (8.8, Amano <i>et al.</i> , 2003)	GW627368 (9.2), ONO-AE3–208 (8.5), L161982 (8.5), BGC201531 (7.8, Maubach et al. 2009), CJ042794 (8.6, Murase et al. 2008), ER819762 (Chen et al., 2010), MK2894 (Blouin et al., 2010)
Probes	[³ H]-PGE ₂ (1–25 nM)	[³ H]-PGE ₂ (5–22 nM)	[³ H]-PGE ₂ (0.3–7 nM)	[³ H]-PGE ₂ (0.6–24 nM)

17-Phenyl-PGE₂ also shows agonist activity at EP₃ receptors. Sulprostone also has affinity for EP₁ receptors. Butaprost and SC46275 may require de-esterification within tissues to attain full agonist potency. There is evidence for subtypes of FP (Liljebris *et al.*, 1995), IP (Takechi *et al.*, 1996; Wise *et al.*, 1995; Wilson *et al.*, 2011) and TP (Krauss *et al.*, 1996) receptors. mRNA for the EP₁ and EP₃ receptors undergo alternative splicing to produce two (Okuda-Ashitaka *et al.*, 1996) and at least six variants, respectively, which can interfere with signalling (Okuda-Ashitaka *et al.*, 1996) or generate complex patterns of G-protein ($G_{1/o}$, $G_{q/11}$, G_s and $G_{12,13}$) coupling (e.g. Kotani *et al.*, 1995; Negishi *et al.*, 1995). The possibility of additional receptors for the isoprostanes has been suggested (Pratico *et al.*, 1996). Receptors (prostamide F, which as yet lack a molecular correlate) that preferentially recognize PGF_{2c}-1-ethanolamide and its analogues (e.g. bimatoprost) have been identified, together with moderate-potency antagonists (e.g. AGN 211334) (see Woodward *et al.*, 2008).

S98 Prostanoid Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Abbreviations: AFP07, 7,7-difluoro-16S,20-dimethyl-18,19-didehydro-PGI₂; AGN192093, (Z)-7-($[1\alpha,5\alpha,6\alpha,7\beta]$ -7- $[\{1E,3S\}$ -3-hydroxy-1-octenyl]-AH23848, $(1\alpha[z], 2\beta, 5\alpha)$ -(±)-7-(5-[{(1,1'-biphenyl)-4-yl}methoxy]-2-[4-morpholinyl]-3-3-oxo-2,4-dioxobicyclo[3.2.1]oct-6-yl)-5-heptenol; oxocyclopentyl)-4-heptenoate; AL12180, 5,6-dihydro-4,5-didehydro-11-deoxy-11-oxa-16-(3-chlorophenoxy)-ω-tetranor-PGF_{2a}; AS604872, (2S)-3-([1,1-biphenyl]-4-ylsulphonyl-N-[(R)-phenyl(2-pyridinyl)-methyl]-1,3-thiazolidine-2-carboxamide; BGC201531, (N-(4-[4-(5-methoxypyridin-2-vl)phenoxymethyll-5-methylfuran-2-carbonyl)-2-methylbenzenesulphonamide; BMS180291. $(1s-(1\alpha,2\alpha,3\alpha,4\alpha)-2-([3-\{4-(1\alpha,2\alpha,3\alpha,4\alpha)-2-([3-\{4-(1\alpha,2\alpha,3\alpha,4\alpha)-2-([3-\{4-(1\alpha,2\alpha,3\alpha,4\alpha)-2-([3-\{4-(1\alpha,2\alpha,3\alpha,4\alpha)-2-([3-\{4-(1\alpha,2\alpha,3\alpha,4\alpha)-2-([3-\{4-(1\alpha,2\alpha,3\alpha,4\alpha)-2-([3-\{4-(1\alpha,2\alpha,3\alpha,4\alpha)-2-([3-\{4-(1\alpha,2\alpha,3\alpha,4\alpha)-2-([3-\{4-(1\alpha,2\alpha,3\alpha,4\alpha)-2-([3-\{4-(1\alpha,2\alpha,3\alpha,4\alpha)-2-([3-\{4-(1\alpha,2\alpha,3\alpha,4\alpha)-2-([3-(1\alpha,2\alpha,3\alpha,4\alpha)-2-([3-(1\alpha,2\alpha,3\alpha,4\alpha)-2-([3-(1\alpha,2\alpha,3\alpha,4\alpha)-2-([3-(1\alpha,2\alpha,3\alpha,4\alpha)-2-([3-(1\alpha,2\alpha,3\alpha,4\alpha)-2-([3-(1\alpha,2\alpha,2\alpha,3\alpha,4\alpha)-2-([3-(1\alpha,2\alpha,2\alpha,2\alpha,2\alpha)-2-([3-(1\alpha,2\alpha,2\alpha,2\alpha,2\alpha)-2-([3-(1\alpha,2\alpha,2\alpha,2\alpha)-2-([3-(1\alpha,2\alpha,2\alpha,2\alpha)-2-([3-(1\alpha,2\alpha,2\alpha,2\alpha)-2-([3-(1\alpha,2\alpha,2\alpha,2\alpha)-2-([3-(1\alpha,2\alpha,2\alpha)-2-([3-(1\alpha,2\alpha,2\alpha)-2-([3-(1\alpha,2\alpha,2\alpha)-2-([3-(1\alpha,2\alpha,2\alpha)-2-([3-(1\alpha,2\alpha,2\alpha)-2-([3-(1\alpha,2\alpha,2\alpha)-2-([3-(1\alpha,2\alpha,2\alpha)-2-([3-(1\alpha,2\alpha,2\alpha)-2-([3-(1\alpha)-2-([3-(1\alpha,2\alpha)-2-([3-(1\alpha)-2-([3$ ([pentylamino]carbonyl)-2-oxazolyl}-7-oxabicyclo{2.2.1}hept-2-yl]methyl)benzenepropanoic acid; also known as ifetroban; BMY45778, 3-(4-[4,5-diphenyl-2-oxazolyl]-5-oxazolyl)phenoxyacetic acid; BW245C. 5-(6-carboxyhexyl)-1-(3-cyclohexyl-3-hydroxypropyl)hydantoin; BW848687, 6-[2-(5-chloro-2-{[(2,4-difluorophenyl)methyl]oxy}phenyl)-1-cyclopenten-1-yl]-2-pyridinecarboxylic acid; BWA868C, 3-benzyl-5-(6-carboxyhexyl)-1-(2-cyclohexyl-2-hydroxyethylamino)hydantoin; CAY10471, (+)-3-([{4-fluorophenyl}sulfonyl]methylamino)-1,2,3,4tetrahydro-9H-carbazole-9-acetic acid; CJ042794, 4-{(1\$)-1-[({5-chloro-2-[(4-fluorophenyl)oxy]phenyl]carbonyl)amino]ethyl} benzoic acid, N-(4-t-butylbenzyl)-pyridyl-3-yl-sulphonamidomethylphenoxyacetic CP734432, 5-{3-[(2S)-2-{(3R)-3-hydroxy-4-[3-(S)-1'-(3,5-dimethylbenzyl)-2-ethyl-7.9- $(trifluoromethyl) phenyl] butyl\}-5-oxopyrrolidin-1-yl] propyl\} thiophene-2-carboxylate;\\$ ER819762, dimethoxy -10-methyl-5,10-dihydrospiro [benzo[e]imidazo [1,5-a]azepine-1,4'-piperidin]-3(2H)-one; GR32191, $[1R-[1(Z),2\alpha,3\beta,5]]-(+)-[1R-[1(Z),2\alpha,3\beta,5]]$ 7-[5-[[(1,1'-biphenyl)-4-yl]methoxy]-3-hydroxy-2-(1-piperidinyl)cyclopentyl]-4-heptenoic acid. GW627368 *N*-(2-[4-{4,9-diethoxy-1oxo-1,3-dihydro-2H-benzo[f]isoindol-2-yl}phenyl]-acetyl)benzenesulphonamide; GW848687X, 6-[2-[5-chloro-2-[(2,4difluorophenyl)methoxy|phenyl|cyclopenten-1-yl|pyridine-2-carboxylic $(1S-[1\alpha,2\beta\{5z\},3\alpha[1e,3s,],4\alpha])-7-(3-[hydroxy-4-\{4'-1a,2b'\}])$ iodophenoxy}-1-butenyl]-7-oxabicyclo[2.2.1]hept-2-yl)-5-heptanoate; 5-butyl-2,4-dihydro-[[2'-[N-(5-methyl-2-L161982. thiophenecarbonyl)sulphamoyl]biphenyl-4-yl]methyl]-2-[(2-trifluoromethyl)phenyl]-1,2,4-triazol-3-one; L644698, 4-(3-{3-|3-hydroxyoctyl}-4-L798106. oxo-2-thiazolidinyl}propyl)benzoate racemate: 5-bromo-2-methoxy-*N*-[3-(naphthalen-2-yl-methylphenyl)-acryloyl]benzenesulphonamide; L902688, 8-aza-1-decarboxy-11-deoxy-16,16-difluoro-16-phenyl-ω-tetranor-1-(5-tetrazolo) PGE₁; MK2894, 4-{1-[({2,5-6})] MK2894, 4-[({2,5-6})] MK289 Dimethyl-4-[4-(trifluoromethyl)benzyl]-3-thienyl}carbonyl)amino|cyclopropyl}benzoic acid; ONO3708, (9,11)-(11,12)-dideoxa- 9α , 11α dimethylmethano-11,12-methano-13,14-dihydro-13-aza-14-oxo-15-cyclopentyl-16,17,18,19,20-pentanor-15-epi-TXA2; ONO8711, 6-[(2\$\int_{0}\$3\$)-3-(4-chloro-2-methylphenylsulphonylaminomethyl)-bicyclo[2.2.2]octan-2-yl]-5Z-hexenoic acid; ONO-DI-004, 17S-17,20-dimethyl-2,5-ethano-6oxo PGE₁; ONO-AE-248, 11,15-O-dimethyl-PGE₂; ONO-AE1-259, 16s-9-deoxy-9 β -chloro-15-deoxy-16-hydroxy-17,17-propano-19,20-didehydro-PGE₂; ONO-AE1-329, 16-(3-methoxymethyl)phenyl-\(\omega\)-tetranor-3,7-dithia-PGE₁; ONO-AE3-208, 2-(2-(2-methyl-2-naphth-1-ylacetylamino)phenylmethyl)-benzoic acid; ONO-AE3-240, 2-(2-[3-napth-1-yl-3-sec-butyl-propionylamino]-4-[pyrazol-1-ylmethyl]phenylmethyl)-benzoic 4,5-dihydro-1*H*-imidazol-Z-yl)-[4-(4-isopropoxybenzyl)phenyl]amine; RO3244794, RO1138452, R-3-(4-fluorophenyl)-2-[5-(4fluorophenyl)-benzofuran-2-ylmethoxycarbonylamino]-propionic acid; RS93520, Z-4-([C3'S,1R,2R,3S,6R]-2C3'-cyclohexyl-3'-hydroxyprop-1ynyl)-3-hydroxybicyclo(4.2.0)oct-7-ylidene butyrate; SAP, 7-([1R,2S,3S,5R]-6,6-dimethyl-3-benzenesulphonamino-bicyclo[3.1.1]hept-2-yl)-5z-heptenoic acid; SC46275, methyl- $7-(2\beta-[6-\{1-cyclopenten-1-yl\}-4R-hydroxy-4-methyl-1e,5e-hexadienyl]-3<math>\alpha$ -hydroxy-5-oxo-1R, 1α cyclopentyl)-4z-heptenoic acid; SC51322, 8-chlorodibenz[b,f][1,4]oxazepine-10(11H)-carboxylic acid, 2-[3-[furanylmethyl)- thio]-1-SO29548. $(1S-[1\alpha,2\beta(5z],3\beta,4\beta])7-(3-[\{2-(phenylamino)carbonyl\}hydrazino]methyl)-7-oxabicyclo[2.2.1]hept-2-yl-5-(1S-[1\alpha,2\beta(5z],3\beta,4\beta])7-(3-[\{2-(phenylamino)carbonyl\}hydrazino]methyl)-7-oxabicyclo[2.2.1]hept-2-yl-5-(1S-[1\alpha,2\beta(5z],3\beta,4\beta])7-(3-[\{2-(phenylamino)carbonyl]hydrazino]methyl)-7-oxabicyclo[2.2.1]hept-2-yl-5-(1S-[1\alpha,2\beta(5z],3\beta,4\beta])7-(3-[\{2-(phenylamino)carbonyl]hydrazino]methyl)-7-oxabicyclo[2.2.1]hept-2-yl-5-(1S-[1\alpha,2\beta(5z],3\beta,4\beta])7-(3-[\{2-(phenylamino)carbonyl]hydrazino]methyl)-7-oxabicyclo[2.2.1]hept-2-yl-5-(1S-[1\alpha,2\beta(5z],3\beta,4\beta])]hept-2-yl-5-(1S-[1\alpha,2\beta(5z],3\beta,4\beta])]hept-2-yl-5-(1S-[1\alpha,2\beta(5z],3\beta,4\beta])hept-2-yl-5-(1S-[1\alpha,2\beta(5z],3\beta,4\beta])hept-2-yl-5-(1S-[1\alpha,2\beta(5z],3\beta,4\beta])hept-2-yl-5-(1S-[1\alpha,2\beta(5z],3\beta,4\beta])hept-2-yl-5-(1S-[1\alpha,2\beta(5z],3\beta,4\beta])hept-2-yl-5-(1S-[1\alpha,2\beta(5z],3\beta,4\beta))hept-2-yl-5-(1S-[1\alpha,2\beta(5z],3\beta))hept-2-yl-5-(1S-[1\alpha,2\beta(5z],3\beta))hept-2-yl-5-(1S-[1\alpha,2\beta(5z],3\beta))hept-2-yl-5-(1S-[1\alpha,2\beta(5z],3\beta))hept-2-yl-5-(1S-[1\alpha,2\beta(5z],3\beta))hept-2-yl-5-(1S-[1\alpha,2\beta(5z],3\beta))hept-2-yl-5-(1S-[1\alpha,2\beta(5z],3\beta))hept-2-yl-5-(1S-[1\alpha,2\beta(5z],3\beta))hept$ oxopropyl]hydrazide; heptenoate; \$5751, ((Z)-7-[1R,2R,3S,5S)-2-(5-hydroxybenzo[b]thiophen-3-ylcarbonylamino)-10-norpinan-3-yl]hept-5-enoic acid); \$Q27986, $[15-[18,2B(5Z),3A(1E,3S)4B]]7-[3-(3-cyclohexyl-3-hydroxy-1-propenyl)-7-oxabicyclo[2.2.1]hept-2-y]5-heptenoic acid; STA_2, 11$\alpha-carba-9\alpha,11$\beta-1-(1B,2B(5Z),3A(1E,3S)4B]]7-[3-(3-cyclohexyl-3-hydroxy-1-propenyl)-7-oxabicyclo[2.2.1]hept-2-y]5-heptenoic acid; STA_2, 11$\alpha-carba-9\alpha,11$\beta-1-(1B,2B(5Z),3A(1E,3S)4B)]7-[3-(3-cyclohexyl-3-hydroxy-1-propenyl)-7-oxabicyclo[2.2.1]hept-2-y]5-heptenoic acid; STA_2, 11$\alpha-carba-9\alpha,11$\beta-1-(1B,2B(5Z),3A(1E,3S)4B)]7-[3-(3-cyclohexyl-3-hydroxy-1-propenyl)-7-oxabicyclop(2.2.1]hept-2-y]5-heptenoic acid; STA_2, 11$\alpha-carba-9\alpha-$ U46619, 11α ,9α-epoxymethano-PGH₂; ZK 118182, (5Z,13E)-(9R,11R,15S)-9-chloro-15-cyclohexyl-11,15-dihydroxy-3-oxa-16,17,18,19,20-pentanor-5,13-prostadienoic acid; ZK138357, (5Z)-7-([2RS,4S,5S]-2-[2-chlorophenyl]-5-[{1E}-{3R,S}-3-hydroxy-3-cyclohexyl-1propenyl]-1,3-dioxolan-4-yl)-5-heptanoic acid

Further Reading

Andreasson K (2010). Emerging roles of PGE₂ receptors in models of neurological disease. *Prostaglandins Other Lipid Mediat* **91**: 104–112. Coleman RA, Smith WL, Narumiya S (1994). VIII. International Union of Pharmacology classification of prostanoid receptors: properties, distribution, and structure of the receptors and their subtypes. *Pharmacol Rev* **46**: 205–229.

Feletou M, Huang Y, Vanhoutte PM (2010). Vasoconstrictor prostanoids. Pflugers Arch 459: 941–950.

Feletou M, Vanhoutte PM, Verbeuren TJ (2010). The thromboxane/endoperoxide receptor (TP): the common villain. *J Cardiovasc Pharmacol* 55: 317–332.

Flavahan NA (2007). Balancing prostanoid activity in the human vascular system. Trends Pharmacol Sci 28: 106-110.

Jones RL, Giembycz MA, Woodward DF (2009). Prostanoid receptor antagonists: development strategies and therapeutic applications. *Br J Pharmacol* 158: 104–145.

Nakahata N (2008). Thromboxane A₂: Physiology/pathophysiology, cellular signal transduction and pharmacology. *Pharmacol Ther* 118: 18–35. Pettipher R (2008). The roles of the prostaglandin D₂ receptors DP₁ and CRTH2 in promoting allergic responses. *Br J Pharmacol* 153: S191–S199. Pettipher R, Hansel TT, Armer R (2007). Antagonism of the prostaglandin D₂ receptors DP₁ and CRTH2 as an approach to treat allergic diseases. *Nat Rev Drug Discov* 6: 313–325.

Schuligoi R, Sturm E, Luschnig P, Konya V, Philipose S, Sedej M *et al.* (2010). CRTH2 and D-type prostanoid receptor antagonists as novel therapeutic agents for inflammatory diseases. *Pharmacology* **85**: 372–382.

Smyth EM, Grosser T, Wang M, Yu Y, FitzGerald GA (2009). Prostanoids in health and disease. J Lipid Res 50 Suppl: S423-S428.

Sugimoto Y, Narumiya S (2007). Prostaglandin E receptors. J Biol Chem 282: 11613-11617.

Woodward DF, Jones RL, Narumiya S (2011). International Union of Basic and Clinical Pharmacology LXXXIII: classification of prostanoid receptors, updating 15 years of progress. *Pharmacol Rev* 63: 471–538.

Woodward DF, Liang Y, Krauss AHP (2008). Prostamides (prostaglandin-ethanolamides) and their pharmacology. *Br J Pharmacol* 153: 410–419. Yang C, Liu X, Cao Q, Liang Q, Qiu X (2011). Prostaglandin E receptors as inflammatory therapeutic targets for atherosclerosis. *Life Sci* 88: 201–205.

References

Abramovitz M et al. (2000). Biochim Biophys Acta 1483: 285–293. Amano H et al. (2003). J Exp Med 197: 221–232. Arimura A et al. (2001). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 298: 411–419. Bley KR et al. (2006). Br J Pharmacol 147: 335–345. Blouin M et al. (2010). J Med Chem 53: 2227–2238. Cameron KO et al. (2009). Bioorg Med Chem Lett 19: 2075–2078.

Chen Q et al. (2010). Br J Pharmacol 160: 292–310. Cirillo R et al. (2007). Am J Obstet Gynecol 197: 54–59. Giblin GM et al. (2007). Bioorg Med Chem Lett 17: 385–389. Giles H et al. (1989). Br J Pharmacol 96: 291–300. Hata AN et al. (2003). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 306: 463–470. Kotani M et al. (1995). Mol Pharmacol 48: 869–879. Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA S99

Krauss AH et al. (1996). Br J Pharmacol 117: 1171–1180. Liljebris C et al. (1995). J Med Chem 38: 289–304. Lumley P et al. (1989). Br J Pharmacol 97: 783–794. Maubach KA et al. (2009). Br J Pharmacol 156: 316–327. Monneret G et al. (2003). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 304: 349–355. Murase A et al. (2008). Life Sci 82: 226–232. Negishi M et al. (1995). J Biol Chem 270: 16122–16127. Okuda-Ashitaka E et al. (1996). J Biol Chem 271: 31255–31261. Prasanna G et al. (2009). Exp Eye Res 89: 608–617. Pratico D et al. (1996). J Biol Chem 271: 14916–14924. Raychowdhury MK et al. (1994). J Biol Chem 269: 19256–19261.

Royer JF et al. (2007). Allergy 62: 1401–1409. Seiler SM et al. (1997). Prostaglandins 53: 21–35. Sharif NA et al. (2006). J Ocul Pharmacol Ther 22: 291–309. Sturino CF et al. (2007). J Med Chem 50: 794–806. Sugimoto H et al. (2003). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 305: 347–352. Swayne GT et al. (1988). Eur J Pharmacol 152: 311–319. Takechi H et al. (1996). J Biol Chem 271: 5901–5906. Wilson SM et al. (2011). Mol Pharmacol 79: 586–595. Wise H et al. (1995). Eur J Pharmacol 278: 265–269. Young RN et al. (2004). Heterocycles 64: 437–446. \$100 Prokineticin Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Prokineticin

Overview: Prokineticin receptors (provisional nomenclature, see Foord *et al.*, 2005) respond to the cysteine-rich 81-86 amino-acid peptides prokineticin 1 (PROK1, also known as endocrine-gland-derived vascular endothelial growth factor, mambakine, ENSG00000143125) and prokineticin 2 (PROK2, protein Bv8 homolog, ENSG00000163421). An orthologue of PROK1 from black mamba (*Dendroaspis polylepis*) venom, mamba intestinal toxin 1 (MIT1, Schweitz *et al.*, 1999) is a potent, non-selective agonist at prokineticin receptors (Masuda *et al.*, 2002), while Bv8, an orthologue of PROK2 from amphibians (*Bombina sp.*, Mollay *et al.*, 1999), is equipotent at recombinant PK₁ and PK₂ receptors (Negri *et al.*, 2005), and has high potency in macrophage chemotaxis assays, which are lost in PK₁-null mice (Martucci *et al.*, 2006).

Nomenclature PK_1 PK₂ Other names PK-R1, GPR73 (Lin et al., 2002; Soga et al., 2002), PK-R2, GPR73a (Lin et al., 2002), GPRg2 (Soga et al., G-protein coupled receptor ZAQ (Masuda et al., 2002), ISE (Masuda et al., 2002) Ensembl ID ENSG00000169618 ENSG00000101292 Principal transduction G_{q/11} (Lin et al., 2002; Masuda et al., 2002) G_{0/11} (Lin et al., 2002; Masuda et al., 2002) PROK2 ≥ PROK1 (Lin et al., 2002; Masuda et al., PROK2 ≥ PROK1 (Lin et al., 2002; Masuda et al., Rank order of potency 2002; Soga et al., 2002) 2002; Soga et al., 2002)

Abbreviations: PROK1, prokineticin 1; PROK2, prokineticin 2

Further Reading

Abreu AP, Kaiser UB, Latronico AC (2010). The role of prokineticins in the pathogenesis of hypogonadotropic hypogonadism. *Neuroendocrinology* 91: 283–290.

Balasubramanian R, Plummer L, Sidis Y, Pitteloud N, Cecilia M, Zhou QY et al. (2011). The puzzles of the prokineticin 2 pathway in human reproduction. Mol Cell Endocrinol 346: 44–50.

Catalano RD, Lannagan TR, Gorowiec M, Denison FC, Norman JE, Jabbour HN (2010). Prokineticins: novel mediators of inflammatory and contractile pathways at parturition? *Mol Hum Reprod* 16: 311–319.

Foord SM, Bonner TI, Neubig RR, Rosser EM, Pin JP, Davenport AP et al. (2005). International Union of Pharmacology. XLVI. G protein-coupled receptor list. Pharmacol Rev 57: 279–288.

Maldonado-Perez D, Evans J, Denison F, Millar RP, Jabbour HN (2007). Potential roles of the prokineticins in reproduction. *Trends Endocrinol Metab* 18: 66–72.

Monnier J, Samson M (2010). Prokineticins in angiogenesis and cancer. Cancer Lett 296: 144-149.

Nebigil CG (2009). Prokineticin receptors in cardiovascular function: foe or friend? Trends Cardiovasc Med 19: 55-60.

Negri L, Lattanzi R, Giannini E, Melchiorri P (2007). Bv8/Prokineticin proteins and their receptors. Life Sci 81: 1103–1116.

Ngan ES, Tam PK (2008). Prokineticin-signaling pathway. Int J Biochem Cell Biol 40: 1679-1684.

References

Lin DC *et al.* (2002). *J Biol Chem* **277**: 19276–19280. Martucci C *et al.* (2006). *Br J Pharmacol* **147**: 225–234. Masuda Y *et al.* (2002). *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* **293**: 396–402. Mollay C *et al.* (1999). *Eur J Pharmacol* **374**: 189–196. Negri L et al. (2005). Br J Pharmacol 146: 625–632. Schweitz H et al. (1999). FEBS Lett 461: 183–188. Soga T et al. (2002). Biochim Biophys Acta 1579: 173–179. Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Relaxin family peptide S101

Relaxin family peptide

Overview: Relaxin family peptide receptors (RXFP, nomenclature as recommended by the NC-IUPHAR committee on relaxin family peptide receptors, Bathgate *et al.* 2006) may be divided into two groups RXFP1/2 and RXFP3/4. Endogenous agonists at these receptors are a number of heterodimeric peptide hormones analogous to insulin: H1 relaxin [ENSG00000107018], H2 relaxin [ENSG00000107014], H3 relaxin [also known as INSL7, ENSG00000171136], insulin-like peptide (INSL) 3 [OTTHUMG00000070952*] and INSL5 [ENSG00000172410].

Species homologues of relaxin have distinct pharmacology – H2 relaxin interacts with RXFP1, RXFP2 and RXFP3, whereas mouse and rat relaxin selectively bind to and activate RXFP1 (Scott *et al.*, 2005a) and porcine relaxin may have a higher efficacy than H2 relaxin (Halls *et al.*, 2005). H3 relaxin has differential affinity for RXFP2 receptors between species; mouse and rat RXFP2 have a higher affinity for H3 relaxin (Scott *et al.*, 2005b). At least two binding sites have been identified on RXFP1 and RXFP2 receptors: a high-affinity site in the leucine-rich repeat region of the ectodomain and a somewhat lower-affinity site located in the surface loops of the transmembrane (Halls *et al.*, 2005; Sudo *et al.*, 2003). The unique *N*-terminal LDLa module of RXFP1 and RXFP2 is essential for receptor signalling (Scott *et al.*, 2006).

Nomenclature	RXFP1	RXFP2
Other names	Relaxin receptor, LGR7, leucine-rich repeat-containing G-protein-coupled receptor 7, RX1	INSL3 receptor, LGR8, leucine-rich repeat-containing G-protein-coupled receptor 8, GREAT, RX2
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000171509	ENSG00000133105
Principal transduction	$G_s,~G_{\alpha\alpha8},~G_{\alpha\alpha3}$ (Halls et al., 2006, 2009a; Hsu et al., 2002)	G_s , G_{coB} (Halls et al., 2006; Kumagai et al., 2002)
Rank order of potency	H2 relaxin > H3 relaxin >> INSL3 (Sudo et al., 2003)	INSL3 > H2 relaxin >> H3 relaxin (Kumagai <i>et al.,</i> 2002; Sudo <i>et al.,</i> 2003)
Antagonists	LGR7-truncate (Scott <i>et al.</i> , 2006), B13/17K H2 relaxin (Hossain <i>et al.</i> , 2010)	INSL3 B-chain analog (Del Borgo <i>et al.</i> , 2006), (des 1-8) A-chain INSL3 analog (Bullesbach and Schwabe, 2005), INSL3 B chain dimer (Shabanpoor <i>et al.</i> , 2011).
Probes	[³³ P]-H2 relaxin (0.2 nM, Sudo <i>et al.</i> , 2003), Europium-labelled H2 relaxin (1 nM; Hossain <i>et al.</i> , 2009)	[³³ P]-H2 relaxin (1.06 nM; Sudo <i>et al.</i> , 2003), [¹²⁵ I]-INSL3 (0.1 nM; Muda <i>et al.</i> , 2005), Europium-labelled INSL3 (0.9 nM; Shabanpoor <i>et al.</i> , 2008)

Mutations in *INSL3* and *LGR8* (RXFP2) have been reported in populations of patients with cryptorchidism (Ferlin *et al.*, 2003). Numerous splice variants of the human RXFP1 and RXFP2 receptors have been identified, none of which bind relaxin family peptides (Muda *et al.*, 2005). Splice variants of RXFP1 encoding the *N*-terminal LDLa module act as antagonists of RXFP1 signalling (Scott *et al.*, 2005b; 2006). cAMP elevation appears to be a major signalling pathway for RXFP1 and RXFP2 (Hsu *et al.*, 2000; Hsu *et al.*, 2002) but RXFP1 also activates MAP kinases, nitric oxide signalling and interacts with tyrosine kinases and glucocorticoid receptors (Halls *et al.*, 2007). RXFP1 signalling involves lipid rafts, residues in the C-terminus of the receptor and activation of phosphatidylinositol-3-kinase (Halls *et al.*, 2009a). More recent studies provide evidence that RXFP1 is pre-assembled in signalosomes with other signalling proteins including $G\alpha_s$, $G\beta\gamma$ and adenylyl cyclase 2 that display constitutive activity and are exquisitely sensitive to sub-picomolar concentrations of relaxin (Halls and Cooper, 2010). The cAMP signalling pattern is highly dependent on the cell type in which RXFP1 is expressed (Halls *et al.*, 2009b).

Nomenclature	RXFP3	RXFP4
Other names	Relaxin 3 receptor, GPCR135, somatostatin and angiotensin-like peptide receptor SALPR, RX3	INSL5 receptor, GPCR142, GPR100, relaxin 3 receptor 2, RX4
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000182631	ENSG00000173080
Principal transduction	$G_{i/o}$ (Matsumoto <i>et al.</i> , 2000; Van der Westhuizen <i>et al.</i> , 2007)	G _{i/o} (Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2003b)
Rank order of potency	H3 relaxin > H3 relaxin B chain (Liu <i>et al.,</i> 2003a), also H2 relaxin (see below)	INSL5 = H3 relaxin > H3 relaxin B chain (Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2003b; 2005a)
Antagonists	INSL5 (Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2005a), R3(B∆23-27)R/I5 chimeric peptide (Kuei <i>et al.</i> , 2007), R3 B1-22R (Haugaard-Kedström <i>et al.</i> , 2011)	R3(B Δ 23-27)R/I5 chimeric peptide (Kuei <i>et al.,</i> 2007)
Probes	[¹²⁵ I]-H3 relaxin (0.3 nM; Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2003a), [¹²⁵ I]-H3-B/INSL5 A chimera (0.5 nM; Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2005b), Europium-labelled H3-B/INSL5 A chimera (5 nM; Haugaard-Kedstrom <i>et al.</i> , 2011)	[¹²⁵ l]-H3 relaxin (0.2 nM; Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2003b), [¹²⁵ l]-H3-B/INSL5 A chimera (1.2 nM; Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2005b), Europium-labelled INSL5 (5 nM; Haugaard-Kedstrom <i>et al.</i> , 2011)

H3 relaxin acts as an agonist at both RXFP3 and RXFP4 whereas INSL5 is an agonist at RXFP4 and an antagonist at RXFP3. Unlike RXFP1 and RXFP2 both RXFP3 and RXFP4 are encoded by a single exon and therefore no splice variants exist. The rat RXFP3 sequence has two potential start codons that encode RXFP3L and RXFP3S with the longer variant having an additional 7 amino-acids at the *N*-terminus. It is not known which variant is expressed. Rat and dog RXFP4 sequences are pseudogenes (Wilkinson *et al.*, 2005). Recent studies suggest that H2 relaxin also interacts with RXFP3 to cause a pattern of activation of signalling pathways that are a subset of those activated by H3 relaxin. The two patterns of signalling observed in several cell types expressing RXFP3 are strong inhibition of forskolin-stimulated cAMP accumulation, ERK1/2 activation and nuclear factor NFκ-B reporter gene activation with H3 relaxin, and weaker activity with H2 relaxin, porcine relaxin, or insulin-like peptide

\$102 Relaxin family peptide Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

(INSL) 3 and a strong stimulation of activator protein (AP)-1 reporter genes with H2 relaxin, and weaker activation with H3 or porcine relaxin (Van der Westhuizen *et al.*, 2010). Two distinct ligand binding sites were also identified on RXFP3-expressing cells using two different radioligands. ¹²⁵I-INSL5 A-chain/relaxin-3 B-chain chimera binds with high affinity with competition by H3 relaxin or a H3 relaxin B-chain peptide, whereas ¹²⁵I-H2 relaxin binding is competed for by H2 relaxin, H3 relaxin, or INSL3 and weakly by porcine relaxin. Thus at RXFP3, H2 relaxin is a biased ligand compared to the cognate ligand H3 relaxin.

Abbreviations: H2 relaxin, human gene 2 relaxin; H3 relaxin, human gene 3 relaxin; INSL3, insulin-like peptide 3; INSL5, insulin-like peptide 5

Further Reading

Bathgate RA, Ivell R, Sanborn BM, Sherwood OD, Summers RJ (2006). International Union of Pharmacology LVII: Recommendations for the nomenclature of receptors for relaxin family peptides. *Pharmacol Rev* 58: 7–31.

Callander GE, Bathgate RA (2010). Relaxin family peptide systems and the central nervous system. Cell Mol Life Sci 67: 2327-2341.

Chan LJ, Hossain MA, Samuel CS, Separovic F, Wade JD (2011). The relaxin peptide family – structure, function and clinical applications. *Protein Pept Lett* 18: 220–229.

Du XJ, Bathgate RA, Samuel CS, Dart AM, Summers RJ (2010). Cardiovascular effects of relaxin: from basic science to clinical therapy. *Nat Rev Cardiol* 7: 48–58.

Grossman J, Frishman WH (2010). Relaxin: a new approach for the treatment of acute congestive heart failure. Cardiol Rev 18: 305-312.

Halls ML, van der Westhuizen ET, Bathgate RA, Summers RJ (2007). Relaxin family peptide receptors – former orphans reunite with their parent ligands to activate multiple signalling pathways. *Br J Pharmacol* **150**: 677–691.

Hoffmann FG, Opazo JC (2011). Evolution of the relaxin/insulin-like gene family in placental mammals: implications for its early evolution. *J Mol Evol* **72**: 72–79.

Ivell R, Kotula-Balak M, Glynn D, Heng K, Anand-Ivell R (2011). Relaxin family peptides in the male reproductive system – a critical appraisal. *Mol Hum Reprod* 17: 71–84.

Kong RC, Shilling PJ, Lobb DK, Gooley PR, Bathgate RA (2010). Membrane receptors: structure and function of the relaxin family peptide receptors. *Mol Cell Endocrinol* 320: 1–15.

van der Westhuizen ET, Halls ML, Samuel CS *et al.* (2008). Relaxin family peptide receptors – from orphans to therapeutic targets. *Drug Discov Today* 13: 640–651.

van der Westhuizen ET, Summers RJ, Halls ML, Bathgate RA, Sexton PM (2007). Relaxin receptors – new drug targets for multiple disease states. *Curr Drug Targets* 8: 91–104.

References

Bullesbach EE, Schwabe C (2005). *J Biol Chem* **280**: 14586–14590. Del Borgo MP *et al.* (2006). *J Biol Chem* **281**: 13068–13074. Ferlin A *et al.* (2003). *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* **88**: 4273–4279. Halls ML *et al.* (2005). *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* **313**: 677–687. Halls ML *et al.* (2006). *Mol Pharmacol* **70**, 214–226. Halls ML *et al.* (2009a). *Mol Pharmacol* **75**, 415–428. Halls ML *et al.* (2009b). *Ann N Y Acad Sci* **1160**: 108–111. Halls ML, Cooper DM (2010). *EMBO J*, **29**: 2772–2787. Haugaard-Kedström LM *et al.* (2011). *JACS* **133**: 4965–4974. Hossain MA *et al.* (2009). *Org Biomol Chem* **7**: 1547–1553. Hossain MA *et al.* (2010). *Amino acids* **39**: 409–416. Hsu SY *et al.* (2000). *Mol Endocrinol* **14**: 1257–1271. Hsu SY *et al.* (2002). *Science* **295**: 671–674. Kuei C *et al.* (2007) *J Biol Chem* **282**: 25425–25435. Kumagai J *et al.* (2002). *J Biol Chem* **277**: 31283–31286.

Liu C et al. (2003b). J Biol Chem 278: 50765–50770.
Liu C et al. (2005a). J Biol Chem 280: 292–300.
Liu C et al. (2005b). Mol Pharmacol 67: 231–240.
Matsumoto M et al. (2000). Gene 248: 183–189.
Muda M et al. (2005). Mol Hum Reprod 11: 591–600.
Scott DJ et al. (2005a). Ann N Y Acad Sci 1041: 8–12.
Scott DJ et al. (2005b). Ann N Y Acad Sci 1041: 13–16.
Scott DJ et al. (2006). J Biol Chem 281: 34942–34954.
Shabanpoor F et al. (2011). Biopolmers 96: 81–87.
Sudo S et al. (2003). J Biol Chem 278: 7855–7862.
Van der Westhuizen ET et al. (2007) Mol Pharmacol 71, 1618–1629.
Van der Westhuizen ET et al. (2010) Mol Pharmacol 77, 759–772.
Wilkinson TN et al. (2005) BMC Evol Biol 5, 14.

Liu C et al. (2003a). J Biol Chem 278: 50754-50764.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Somatostatin \$103

Somatostatin

Overview: Somatostatin (somatotropin release inhibiting factor) is an abundant neuropeptide, which acts on five subtypes of somatostatin receptor (sst1–sst5; nomenclature approved by the NC-IUPHAR Subcommittee on Somatostatin Receptors, see Hoyer *et al.*, 2000). Activation of these receptors produces a wide range of physiological effects throughout the body including inhibiting the secretion of many hormones. The relationship of the cloned receptors to endogenously expressed receptors is not yet well established in some cases. Endogenous ligands for these receptors are somatostatin-14 (SRIF-14) and somatostatin-28 (SRIF-28). Cortistatin (CST-14) has also been suggested to be an endogenous ligand for somatostatin receptors (Delecea *et al.*, 1996).

Nomenclature	sst ₁	sst ₂	sst ₃	sst ₄	sst ₅
Alternative names Ensembl ID	SSTR1, SRIF ₂ , SRIF _{2A} ENSG00000139874	SSTR2, SRIF ₁ , SRIF _{1A} ENSG00000180616	SSTR3, SRIF ₁ , SRIF _{1C} ENSG00000183473	SSTR4, SRIF ₂ , SRIF _{2B} ENSG00000132671	SSTR5, SRIF ₁ , SRIF _{1B} ENSG00000162009
Principal transduction	G _i	G _i	G _i	G _i	G _i
Selective agonists	des-Ala ^{1,2,5} -[DTrp ⁸ , lamp ⁹]SRIF, L797591	Octreotide, seglitide, BIM23027, L054522	L796778	NNC269100, L803087	BIM23268, BIM23052, L817818
Selective antagonists	SRA880	Cyanamid 154806 (7.7–8.0)	NVP ACQ090	-	BIM23627 (7.1)
Probes	-	[¹²⁵ I]-[Tyr ³]octreotide (0.13 nM) [¹²⁵ I]-BIM23027	-	-	[¹²⁵ l]-[Tyr ³]octreotide (0.23 nM)

[¹²⁵I]-[Tyr¹¹]SRIF-14, [¹²⁵I]-LTT-SRIF-28, [¹²⁵I]-CGP23996 and [¹²⁵I]-[Tyr¹⁰]CST-14 may be used to label somatostatin receptors nonselectively; BIM23052 is said to be selective in rat but not human receptor (Patel and Srikant, 1994). A number of nonpeptide subtype-selective agonists have been synthesised (see Rohrer *et al.*, 1998).

Abbreviations: BIM23027, cyc(N-Me-Ala-Tyr-D-Trp-Lys-Abu-Phe); BIM23052, DPhe-Phe-Phe-DTrp-Lys-Thr-Phe-Thr-NH₂; BIM23056, DPhe-Phe-Tyr-DTrp-Lys-Val-Phe-dNal-NH₂; BIM23268, cyc(Cys-Phe-Phe-D-Trp-Lys-Thr-Phe-Cys)-NH₂; CGP23996, cyc(Asn-Lys-Asn-Phe-Phe-Trp-Lys-Thr-Tyr-Thr-Ser); Cyanamid 154806, Ac-(4-NO₂-Phe)-cyc(D-Cys-Tyr-D-Trp-Lys-Thr-Cys)-D-Tyr-NH₂; L797591, (2R)-N-(6-amino-2,2,4-trimethylhexyl)-3-(1-naphthyl)-2-([[(2-phenylethyl)2-pyridin-2-ylethyl)amino]carbonyl]amino)propanamide; L054522, tert-butyl (bS)-b-methyl-N[[4-(2-oxo-2,3,-dihydro-1H-benzimidazol-1-yl)piperidin-1-yl]carbonyl]-D-tryptophyl-L-lysinate; L796778, methyl (2S)-6-amino-2-[((2R)-2-[[((1S)-1-benzyl-2-[(4-nitrophenyl)amino]-2-oxoethyl]amino)lamino)hexanoyl)amino]hexanoate; L803087, methyl (2S)-5-[amino(imino)methyl]amino]-2-[[4-(5,7-difluoro-2-phenyl-1H-indol-3-yl)butanoyl]amino]pentanoate; L817818, (2R)-2-aminopropyl N2-[[2-(2-naphthyl)-1H-benzo[g]indo-3-yl]acetyl]-L-lysinat; L17581F-28, $[Leu^8,D17p^{22},D17p^{25}]SR1F$ -28; NNC269100, 1-[3-[N-(S-bromopyridin-2-yl)-N-(3,4-dichlorobenzyl)amino]propyl]-3-[3-(N-(H-imidazol-1-yl)propyl]thiourea

Further Reading

Crider AM, Witt KA (2007). Somatostatin sst4 ligands: chemistry and pharmacology. Mini Rev Med Chem 7: 213-220.

Csaba Z, Dournaud P (2001). Cellular biology of somatostatin receptors. Neuropeptides 35: 1-23.

Dasgupta P (2004). Somatostatin analogues: multiple roles in cellular proliferation, neoplasia, and angiogenesis. *Pharmacol Ther* **102**: 61–85. Duran-Prado M, Malagon MM, Gracia-Navarro F, Castano JP (2008). Dimerization of G protein-coupled receptors: new avenues for somatostatin receptor signalling, control and functioning. *Mol Cell Endocrinol* **286**: 63–68.

Hannon JP, Nunn C, Stolz B, Bruns C, Weckbecker G, Lewis I et al. (2002). Drug design at peptide receptors – somatostatin receptor ligands. J Mol Neurosci 18: 15–27.

Hofland LJ, Feelders RA, de Herder WW, Lamberts SW (2010). Pituitary tumours: the sst/D2 receptors as molecular targets. *Mol Cell Endocrinol* 326: 89–98.

Hoyer D, Epelbaum J, Feniuk W, Humphrey PPA, Meyerhof W, O'Carroll AM et al. (2000). Somatostatin receptors. In: Watson SP, Girdlestone D (eds). The IUPHAR Compendium of Receptor Characterization and Classification, 2nd edn. IUPHAR Media: London, pp. 354–364.

Lahlou H, Guillermet J, Hortala M, Vernejoul F, Pyronnet S, Bousquet C, Susini C (2004). Molecular signalling of somatostatin receptors. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* **1014**: 121–131.

Moller LN, Stidsen CE, Hartmann B, Holst JJ (2003). Somatostatin receptors. Biochim Biophys Acta 1616: 1-84.

Olias G, Viollet C, Kusserow H, Epelbaum J, Meyerhof W (2004). Regulation and function of somatostatin receptors. *J Neurochem* **89**: 1057–1091. Patel YC (1999). Somatostatin and its receptor family. *Front Neuroendocrinology* **20**: 157–198.

Patel YC, Greenwood MT, Panetta R, Demchyshyn L, Niznik H, Srikant CB (1995). The somatostatin receptor family. *Life Sci* 57: 1249–1265. Rashid AJ, O'Dowd BF, George SR (2004). Minireview: Diversity and complexity of signaling through peptidergic G protein-coupled receptors. *Endocrinology* 145: 2645–2652.

Siehler S, Nunn C, Hannon J, Feuerbach D, Hoyer D (2008). Pharmacological profile of somatostatin and cortistatin receptors. *Mol Cell Endocrinol* 286: 26–34.

Van der Hoek J, Hofland LJ, Lamberts SW (2005). Novel subtype specific and universal somatostatin analogues: clinical potential and pitfalls. *Curr Pharm Des* 11: 1573–1592.

Van Op den Bosch J, Adriaensen D, Van Nassauw L, Timmermans JP (2009). The role(s) of somatostatin, structurally related peptides and somatostatin receptors in the gastrointestinal tract: a review. Regul Pept 156: 1–8.

Weckbecker G, Lewis I, Albert R, Schmid HA, Hoyer D, Bruns C (2003). Opportunities in somatostatin research: Biological, chemical and therapeutic aspects. *Nat Rev Drug Discov* 2: 999–1017.

Zatelli MC, degli Überti E (2009). The significance of new somatostatin analogs as therapeutic agents. Curr Opin Investig Drugs 10: 1025-1031.

S104 Somatostatin Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

References

Delecea L *et al.* (1996). *Nature* **381**: 242–245. Patel YC, Srikant CB (1994). *Endocrinology* **135**: 2814–2817. Rohrer SP *et al.* (1998). *Science* **282**: 737–740. Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Sphingosine 1-phosphate S105

Sphingosine 1-phosphate

Overview: Sphingosine 1-phosphate (S1P) receptors (nomenclature as agreed by NC-IUPHAR Subcommittee on Lysophospholipid receptors; see Chun *et al.*, 2010) are activated by the endogenous lipid derivatives S1P and sphingosylphosphorylcholine (SPC). Originally identified as members of the endothelial differentiation gene (*edg*) family along with lysophosphatidic acid receptors, the gene names have recently been updated to *S1PR1*, etc. to reflect the receptor function of these proteins. S1P has also been described to act at intracellular sites (see Takabe *et al.*, 2008), although most cellular phenomena ascribed to S1P can be explained by receptor-mediated mechanisms. The relationship between recombinant and endogenously expressed receptors is unclear. Radioligand binding has been conducted in heterologous expression systems using [³²P]-S1P (e.g. Okamoto *et al.*, 1998). In native systems, analysis of binding data is complicated by metabolism and high levels of nonspecific binding. Targeted deletion of several S1P receptors and key enzymes involved in S1P biosynthesis or degradation has clarified signalling pathways and physiological roles.

Nomenclature	S1P ₁	S1P ₂	S1P ₃	S1P ₄	S1P ₅
Other names	edg1, <i>lp</i> _{B1}	edg5, <i>lp</i> _{B2} , AGR16, H218	edg3, <i>lp</i> _{B3}	edg6, lpc1	edg8, Ip _{B4} , NRG-1
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000170989	ENSG00000175898	ENSG00000186354	ENSG00000125910	ENSG00000180739
Principal transduction	$G_{i/o}$	G_q , $G_{12/13}$, G_s	G_q , $G_{i/o}$, G_s	$G_{i/o}$, $G_{12/13}$, G_s	G _{i/o} , G _{12/13}
Rank order of potency	S1P > dihydro-S1P > SPC(Okamoto <i>et al.</i> , 1998, Ancellin and Hla, 1999)	S1P > dihydro-S1P > SPC (Okamoto <i>et al.</i> , 1998, Ancellin and Hla, 1999)	S1P > dihydro-S1P > SPC (Okamoto <i>et al.</i> , 1998)	S1P > dihydro-S1P > SPC (Van Brocklyn et al., 2000)	S1P > dihydro-S1P > SPC (Im et al., 2000)
Selective agonists	SEW2871 (Sanna et al., 2004), AUY954 (Pan et al., 2006)	-	-	-	-
Selective antagonists	W146 (Sanna et al., 2006)	JTE013 (Osada <i>et al.</i> , 2002)	_	-	-

The immunomodulator fingolimod (FTY720) may be phosphorylated *in vivo* (Albert *et al.*, 2005) to generate a relatively potent agonist with activity at SIP₁, SIP₃, SIP₄ and SIP₅ receptors (Brinkmann *et al.*, 2002; Mandala *et al.*, 2002). VPC23019 and VPC44116 have antagonist activity at S1P₁ and S1P₃ receptors (see Marsolais and Rosen, 2009). This compound has received world-wide approval as the first oral therapy for relapsing forms of Multiple Sclerosis, with a novel mechanism of action (Cohen and Chun, 2011; Choi *et al.*, 2011).

Abbreviations: AUY954, an aminocarboxylate analog of fingolimod; JTE013, pyrazolopyridine analog; SEW2871, 5-(4-phenyl-5-trifluoromethylthiophen-2-yl)-3-(3-trifluoromethylphenyl)-(1,2,4)-oxadiazole; S1P, sphingosine 1-phosphate; VPC23019, (κ)-phosphoric acid mono-[2-amino-2-(3-octyl-phenylcarbamoyl)-ethyl] ester; VPC44116, [3-amino-3-(3-octyl-phenylcarbamoyl)-phosphonic acid; W146, (κ)-3-amino-(3-hexylphenylamino)-4-oxobutylphosphonic acid

Further Reading

Aktas O, Kury P, Kieseier B, Hartung HP (2010). Fingolimod is a potential novel therapy for multiple sclerosis. *Nat Rev Neurol* 6: 373–382. Bartke N, Hannun YA (2009). Bioactive sphingolipids: metabolism and function. *J Lipid Res* 50: S91–S96.

Chi H (2011). Sphingosine-1-phosphate and immune regulation: trafficking and beyond. Trends Pharmacol Sci 32: 16-24.

Choi JW, Lee CW, Chun J (2008). Biological roles of lysophospholipid receptors revealed by genetic null mice: an update. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1781: 531–539.

Choi JW, Gardell SE, Herr DR, Rivera R, Lee CW, Noguchi K et al. (2011). FTY720 (fingolimod) efficacy in an animal model of multiple sclerosis requires astrocyte sphingosine 1-phosphate receptor 1 (S1P1) modulation. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 108: 751–756.

Chun J, Hla T, Lynch KR, Spiegel S, Moolenaar WH (2010). International Union of Basic and Clinical Pharmacology. LXXVIII. Lysophospholipid Receptor Nomenclature. *Pharmacol Rev* 62: 579–587.

Cohen JA, Chun J (2011). Mechanisms of fingolimod's efficacy and adverse effects in multiple sclerosis. Ann Neurol 69: 759–777.

Hla T, Brinkmann V (2011). Sphingosine 1-phosphate (S1P): Physiology and the effects of S1P receptor modulation. Neurology 76: S3-S8.

Hla T, Venkataraman K, Michaud J (2008). The vascular S1P gradient-cellular sources and biological significance. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1781: 477–482.

Huwiler A, Pfeilschifter J (2009). Lipids as targets for novel anti-inflammatory therapies. Pharmacol Ther 124: 96–112.

Igarashi J, Michel T (2009). Sphingosine-1-phosphate and modulation of vascular tone. Cardiovasc Res 82: 212–220.

Ishii S, Noguchi K, Yanagida K (2009). Non-Edg family lysophosphatidic acid (LPA) receptors. Prostaglandins Other Lipid Mediat 89: 57-65.

Kim RH, Takabe K, Milstien S, Spiegel S (2009). Export and functions of sphingosine-1-phosphate. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1791: 692–696.

Levkau B (2008). Sphingosine-1-phosphate in the regulation of vascular tone: a finely tuned integration system of S1P sources, receptors, and vascular responsiveness. *Circ Res* 103: 231–233.

Marsolais D, Rosen H (2009). Chemical modulators of sphingosine-1-phosphate receptors as barrier-oriented therapeutic molecules. *Nat Rev Drug Discov* 8: 297–307.

Means CK, Brown JH (2009). Sphingosine-1-phosphate receptor signalling in the heart. Cardiovasc Res 82: 193-200.

Meyer Zu Heringdorf D, Jakobs KH (2007). Lysophospholipid receptors: Signalling, pharmacology and regulation by lysophospholipid metabolism. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1768: 923–940.

Milstien S, Gude D, Spiegel S (2007). Sphingosine 1-phosphate in neural signalling and function. Acta Paediatr Suppl 96: 40–43.

Nixon GF (2009). Sphingolipids in inflammation: pathological implications and potential therapeutic targets. Br J Pharmacol 158: 982–993.

Pappu R, Schwab SR, Cornelissen I, Pereira JP, Regard JB, Xu Y et al. (2007). Promotion of lymphocyte egress into blood and lymph by distinct sources of sphingosine-1-phosphate. Science 316: 295–298.

\$106 Sphingosine 1-phosphate Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Pyne NJ, Long JS, Lee SC, Loveridge C, Gillies L, Pyne S (2009). New aspects of sphingosine 1-phosphate signaling in mammalian cells. *Adv Enzyme Regul* 49: 214–221.

Pyne NJ, Pyne S (2010). Sphingosine 1-phosphate and cancer. Nat Rev Cancer 10: 489-503.

Pyne S, Pyne NJ (2011). Translational aspects of sphingosine 1-phosphate biology. Trends Mol Med.

Rosen H, Gonzalez-Cabrera P, Marsolais D, Cahalan S, Don AS, Sanna MG (2008). Modulating tone: the overture of S1P receptor immunotherapeutics. *Immunol Rev* 223: 221–235.

Rosen H, Gonzalez-Cabrera PJ, Sanna MG, Brown S (2009). Sphingosine 1-Phosphate Receptor Signaling. *Annu Rev Biochem* **78**: 743–768. Shimizu T (2009). Lipid mediators in health and disease: enzymes and receptors as therapeutic targets for the regulation of immunity and inflammation. *Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol* **49**: 123–150.

Spiegel S, Milstien S (2011). The outs and the ins of sphingosine-1-phosphate in immunity. Nat Rev Immunol 11: 403-415.

Takabe K, Paugh SW, Milstien S, Spiegel S (2008). 'Inside-out' signaling of sphingosine-1-phosphate: therapeutic targets. *Pharmacol Rev* **60**: 181–195.

References

Albert R *et al.* (2005). *J Med Chem* **48**: 5373–5377. Ancellin N, Hla T (1999). *J Biol Chem* **274**: 18997–19002. Brinkmann V *et al.* (2002). *J Biol Chem* **277**: 21453–21457. Im DS *et al.* (2000). *J Biol Chem* **275**: 14281–14286. Mandala S *et al.* (2002). *Science* **296**: 346–349. Okamoto H *et al.* (1998). *J Biol Chem* **273**: 27104–27110. Osada M et al. (2002). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 299: 483–487. Pan S et al. (2006). Chem Biol 13: 1227–1234. Sanna MG et al. (2004). J Biol Chem 279: 13839–13848. Sanna MG et al. (2006). Nat Chem Biol 2: 434–441. van Brocklyn JR et al. (2000). Blood 95: 2624–2629.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Tachykinin S107

Tachykinin

Overview: Tachykinin receptors (provisional nomenclature, see Foord *et al.*, 2005) are activated by the endogenous peptides substance P (SP), neurokinin A (NKA; previously known as substance K, neurokinin α , neuromedin L), neurokinin B (NKB; previously known as neurokinin β , neuromedin K), neuropeptide K and neuropeptide γ (*N*-terminally extended forms of neurokinin A). The neurokinins (A and B) are mammalian members of the tachykinin family, which includes peptides of mammalian and nonmammalian origin containing the consensus sequence: Phe-x-Gly-Leu-Met. Marked species differences in pharmacology exist for all three receptors, in particular with nonpeptide ligands.

Nomenclature	NK_1	NK ₂	NK ₃
Other names	Substance P	Substance K	Neurokinin B, neuromedin k
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000115353	ENSG00000075073	ENSG00000169836
Principal transduction	$G_{q/11}$	$G_{q/11}$	$G_{q/11}$
Rank order of potency	SP > NKA > NKB	NKA > NKB >> SP	NKB > NKA > SP
Selective agonists	SP methylester, [Sar ⁹ ,Met(O ₂) ¹¹]SP, [Pro ⁹]SP, septide	[β-Ala ⁸]NKA-(4-10),[Lys ⁵ ,Me-Leu ⁹ ,Mle ¹⁰] NKA-(4-10), GR64349	Senktide, [MePhe ⁷]NKB
Selective antagonists	Aprepitant (10.7; Hale <i>et al.</i> , 1998), SR140333 (9.5), LY303870 (9.4), CP99994 (9.3), RP67580 (7.6)	GR94800 (9.6), GR159897 (9.5), MEN10627 (9.2), SR48968 (9.0), MEN11420 (8.6; Catalioto <i>et al.</i> , 1998)	SR142802 (9.2), SB223412 (9.0, Sarau <i>et al.</i> , 1997), PD157672 (7.8)
Probes	[³ H]- or [¹²⁵ I]-SP, [³ H]- or [¹²⁵ I]-BH-[Sar ⁹ ,Met(O ₂) ¹¹]SP, [¹²⁵ I]-L703606 (0.3 nM), [¹⁸ F]-SPA-RQ	[³H]-SR48968 (0.5 nM), [³H]-GR100679, [¹²⁵l]-NKA	[³ H]-Senktide, [¹²⁵ I]-[MePhe ⁷]NKB, [³ H]-SR142801 (0.13 nM)

The NK_1 receptor has also been described to couple to other G proteins (Roush and Kwatra, 1998). The hexapeptide agonist septide appears to bind to an overlapping but non-identical site to SP on the NK_1 receptor. There are suggestions for additional subtypes of tachykinin receptor; an orphan receptor (SwissProt P30098) with structural similarities to the NK_3 receptor was found to respond to NKB when expressed in *Xenopus* occutes or Chinese hamster ovary cells (Donaldson *et al.*, 1996; Krause *et al.*, 1997).

 $\textbf{Abbreviations:} \quad \textbf{Aprepitant,} \quad 5-[[(2R,3S]-2-[(1R)-1-[3,5-bis(trifluoromethyl) \quad phenyl]ethoxy]-3-(4-fluorphenyl)-4-morpholinyl]methyl]-1,2-bis(trifluoromethyl) \quad phenyl]ethoxy]-1,2-bis(trifluoromethyl) \quad phenyl]ethoxy$ dihydro-3H-1,2,4-triazol-3-one (also known as Emend); CP99994, (+)-(2\$,3\$)-3-(2-methoxybenzylamino)-2-phenylpiperidine; [18F]-SPA-RQ, ([[¹⁸F]-2-fluoromethoxy-5-(5-trifluoromethyl-tetrazol-1-yl)-benzyl]([2*S*,3*S*]2-phenyl-piperidin-3-yl)-amine; GR100679, cyclohexylcarbonyl-Gly-Ala-DTrp-Phe-NMe₂; GR159897, (R)-1-(2-[5-fluoro-1H-indol-3-yl]ethyl)-4-methoxy-4([phenylsulfinyl]methyl)piperidine; GR64349, Lys-Asp-Ser-Phe-Val-Gly- $(R-\gamma$ -lactam); GR94800, $N-\alpha$ -benzoyl-Ala-Ala-DTrp-Phe-DPro-Pro-Nle-NH₂; L-703606, cis-2(diphenylmethyl)-N-([2-L-742694, $2(s)-([3,5-bis\{trifluoromethyl\}benzyl]-oxy)-3(S)-phenyl-4-([3-oxo-1,2,4-bis\{trifluoromethyl]benzyl]-oxy)-3(S)-phenyl-4-([3-oxo-1,2,4-bis\{trifluoromethyl]benzyl]-oxy)-3(S)-phenyl-4-([3-oxo-1,2,4-bis[trifluoromethyl]benzyl]-oxy)-3(S)-([3-oxo-1,2,4-bis[trifluoromethyl]benzyl]-oxy)-3(S)-([3-oxo-1,2,4-bis[trifluoromethyl]benzyl]-oxy)-3(S)-([3-oxo-1,2,4-bis[trifluoromethyl]benzyl]-oxy)-3(S)-([3-oxo-1,2,4-bis[trifluoromethyl]benzyl]-oxy)-3(S)-([3-oxo-1,2,4-bis[trifluoromethyl]benzyl]-oxy)-3(S)-([3-oxo-1,2,4-bis[trifluoromethyl]benzyl]-oxy)-3(S)-([3-oxo-1,2,4-bis[trifluoromethyl]benzyl]-oxy)-3(S)-([3-oxo-1,2,4-bis[trifluoromethyl]benzyl]-oxy)-3(S)-([3-oxo-1,2,4-bis[trifluoromethyl]benzyl]-oxy)-3(S)-([$ iodophenyl]methyl)-1-azabicyclo[2.2.2]octan-3-amide; triazol-5-yl]methyl)morpholine; LY303870, (R)-1-(N-[2-methoxybenzyl]acetylamino)-3-(1H-indol-3yl)-2-(N-[2-[4-(piperidin-1-yl)piperidin-1-yl yl\acetyl\amino)propane; also known as lanepitant; MEN10627, $cyc(2\beta-5\beta)$ (Met-Asp-Trp-Phe-Dap-Leu); MEN11420, $cyc(2\beta-5\beta)$ [Asn(2-AcNH- β -D-Glc)-Asp-Trp-Phe-Dap-Leul; also known as nepadutant; PD157672, Boc-(s)Phe-(κ)αMePheNH(CH₂)γNHCONH₂; RP67580, 3αR,7αR-(1-imino-2-[2-methoxyphenyl]ethyl)-7,7-diphenyl-4-perhydroisoindolone; SB223412, (s)-(-)-N-(α -ethylbenzyl)-3-hydroxy-2-phenylquinoline-4-(s)-1-(2-[3-{3,4-dichlorophenyl}-1-{3-isopropoxyphenylacetyl}piperidin-3-yl]ethyl)-4-phenyl-1-SR140333, carboxamide; azoniabicyclo(2.2.2)octane chloride; SR142801, (s)-(N)-(1-[3-{1-benzoyl-3-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)piperidin-3-yl}propyl]-4-phenylpiperidin-4-yl)-N-methylacetamide; SR48968, (s)-N-methyl-N-(4-acetylamino-4-phenylpiperidino)-2-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)butylbenzamide; also known as saredutant

Further Reading

Commons KG (2010). Neuronal pathways linking substance P to drug addiction and stress. Brain Res 1314: 175–182.

Diemunsch P, Joshi GP, Brichant JF (2009). Neurokinin-1 receptor antagonists in the prevention of postoperative nausea and vomiting. Br J Anaesth 103: 7–13.

Foord SM, Bonner TI, Neubig RR, Rosser EM, Pin JP, Davenport AP et al. (2005). International Union of Pharmacology. XLVI. G protein-coupled receptor list. Pharmacol Rev 57: 279–288.

Jones Ś, Gibbins JM (2008). The neurokinin 1 receptor: a potential new target for anti-platelet therapy? *Curr Opin Pharmacol* 8: 114–119. Rance NE, Krajewski SJ, Smith MA, Cholanian M, Dacks PA (2010). Neurokinin B and the hypothalamic regulation of reproduction. *Brain Res* 1364: 116–128.

Tuluc F, Lai JP, Kilpatrick LE, Evans DL, Douglas SD (2009). Neurokinin 1 receptor isoforms and the control of innate immunity. *Trends Immunol* 30: 271–276.

References

Catalioto RM *et al.* (1998). *Br J Pharmacol* **123**: 81–91. Donaldson LF *et al.* (1996). *Biochem J* **320**: 1–5. Hale JJ *et al.* (1998). *J Med Chem* **41**: 4607–4614.

Krause JE et al. (1997). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 94: 310–315. Roush ED, Kwatra MM (1998). FEBS Lett 428: 291–294. Sarau HM et al. (1997). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 281: 1303–1311. \$108 Trace amine-associated Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Trace amine-associated

Overview: Trace amine-associated receptors (nomenclature as agreed by NC-IUPHAR for trace amine receptors, see Maguire *et al.*, 2009) were initially discovered as a result of a search for novel 5-HT receptors (Borowsky *et al.*, 2001), where 15 mammalian orthologues were identified and divided into two families. Emerging evidence suggests that TA_1 is a modulator of monoaminergic activity in the brain (Xie and Miller, 2009) with TA_1 and dopamine D_2 receptors shown to form constitutive heterodimers when co-expressed (Espinoza *et al.*, 2011).

Nomenclature TA₁ TA₂

 Other names
 TAA1, TaR-1, BO111
 TAA2, GPR58

 Ensembl ID
 ENSG00000146399
 ENSG00000146378

Principal transduction G_s G_s

Potency order Tyramine ≥ PEA > octopamine = dopamine (Borowsky et al., 2001) PEA > tryptamine (Borowsky et al., 2001)

Probes [3H]-Tyramine (20 nM, Borowsky et al., 2001)

TAAR3 (BO107, ENSMUSG00000069708, ENSRNOG00000025982), in some individuals, and TAAR4 (ENSMUSG00000069707, ENSRNOG000000029877) are pseudogenes in man, although functional in rodents. The signalling characteristics and pharmacology of TAA_5 (PNR, Putative Neurotransmitter Receptor, ENSG00000135569), TAA_6 (Trace amine receptor 4, TAR-4, ENSG00000146383), TAA_8 (Trace amine receptor 5, GPR102, ENSG00000146385) and TAA_9 (trace amine associated receptor 9, ENSG00000237110) are lacking. The thyronamines, endogenous derivatives of thyroid hormone, have been shown to have affinity for rodent cloned trace amine receptors, including TA_1 (Scanlan *et al.*, 2004). An antagonist EPPTB has recently been described that has a pK_1 of 9.1 at the mouse TA_1 but less than 5.3 for human TA_1 (Stalder *et al.*, 2011).

Abbreviations: EPPTB, N-(3-ethoxyphenyl)-4-pyrrolidin-1-yl-3-trifluoromethylbenzamide; PEA, 2-phenylethylamine

Further Reading

Burchett SA, Hicks TP (2006). The mysterious trace amines: protean neuromodulators of synaptic transmission in mammalian brain. *Prog Neurobiol* 79: 223–246.

Grandy DK (2007). Trace amine-associated receptor 1-Family archetype or iconoclast? Pharmacol Ther 116: 355–390.

Maguire JJ, Parker WA, Foord SM, Bonner TI, Neubig RR, Davenport AP (2009). International Union of Pharmacology. LXXII. Recommendations for trace amine receptor nomenclature. *Pharmacol Rev* 61: 1–8.

Miller GM (2011). The emerging role of trace amine-associated receptor 1 in the functional regulation of monoamine transporters and dopaminergic activity. *J Neurochem* 116: 164–176.

Sotnikova TD, Caron MG, Gainetdinov RR (2009). Trace amine-associated receptors as emerging therapeutic targets. *Mol Pharmacol* **76**: 229–235. Zucchi R, Chiellini G, Scanlan TS, Grandy DK (2006). Trace amine-associated receptors and their ligands. *Br J Pharmacol* **149**: 967–978.

References

Borowsky B et al. (2001). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 98: 8966-8971.

Scanlan TS et al. (2004). Nat Med 10: 638-642.

Espinoza S et al. (2011). Mol Pharmacol 80: 416-425.

Stalder H et al. (2011). Bioorg Med Chem Lett 21: 1227-1231.

Xie Z, Miller GM (2009). Biochem Pharmacol 78: 1095-1104.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA TRH S109

TRH

Overview: Thyrotropin-releasing hormone (TRH) receptors (provisional nomenclature) are activated by the endogenous tripeptide TRH (pGlu-His-ProNH₂). TRH and TRH analogues fail to distinguish TRH₁ and TRH₂ receptors (Sun *et al.*, 2003). [3 H]-TRH is able to label both TRH₁ and TRH₂ receptors with K_d values of 13 and 9 nM, respectively.

Nomenclature

TRH1

TRH2

Other names

TRH receptor, thyroliberin

Ensembl ID

ENSG00000174417

ENSMUSG00000039079, ENSRNOG0000012789

Principal transduction

Gq

Gq

Selective antagonists

Midazolam (Drummond et al., 1989), chlordiazepoxide (Straub et al., 1990), diazepam

The human orthologue of the rodent TRH2 receptor has yet to be identified.

Abbreviations: MeTRH, pGlu-[N^t-methyl]His-ProNH₂

Further Reading

Bilek R, Bicikova M, Safarik L (2011). TRH-like peptides. Physiol Res 60: 207-215.

Chiamolera MI, Wondisford FE (2009). Thyrotropin-releasing hormone and the thyroid hormone feedback mechanism. *Endocrinology* **150**: 1091–1096.

Engel S, Gershengorn MC (2007). Thyrotropin-releasing hormone and its receptors – a hypothesis for binding and receptor activation. *Pharmacol Ther* 113: 410–419.

Gaspar E, Hardenbicker C, Bodo E, Wenzel B, Ramot Y, Funk W et al. (2010). Thyrotropin releasing hormone (TRH): a new player in human hair-growth control. FASEB J 24: 393–403.

Kamath J, Yarbrough GG, Prange AJ, Winokur A (2009). The thyrotropin-releasing hormone (TRH)-immune system homeostatic hypothesis. *Pharmacol Ther* 121: 20–28.

Kleinau G, Krause G (2009). Thyrotropin and homologous glycoprotein hormone receptors: structural and functional aspects of extracellular signaling mechanisms. *Endocr Rev* **30**: 133–151.

References

Drummond AH *et al.* (1989). *Ann N Y Acad Sci* **553**: 197–204. Straub RE *et al.* (1990). *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **87**: 9514–9518. Sun Y *et al.* (2003). *J Mol Endocrinol* **30**: 87–97.

\$110 Urotensin-II Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Urotensin-II

Overview: The urotensin-II (U-II) receptor (UT, nomenclature as agreed by NC-IUPHAR, see Foord *et al.*, 2005, Douglas and Ohlstein, 2000) is activated by the endogenous dodecapeptide U-II, originally isolated from the urophysis, the endocrine organ of the caudal neurosecretory system of teleost fish (Bern *et al.*, 1985). Several structural forms of U-II exist in fish and amphibians. The Goby orthologue was used to identify U-II as the cognate ligand for the predicted receptor encoded by the rat gene *gpr14* (Coulouarn *et al.*, 1998; Liu *et al.*, 1999; Mori *et al.*, 1999; Nothacker *et al.*, 1999). Human U-II (derived from ENSG00000049247), an 11-amino-acid peptide (Coulouarn *et al.*, 1998), retains the cyclohexapeptide sequence of goby U-II that is thought to be important in ligand binding (Kinney *et al.*, 2002; Brkovic *et al.*, 2003). This sequence is also conserved in the deduced amino-acid sequence of rat (14 amino-acids) and mouse (14 amino-acids) U-II, although the *N*-terminal is more divergent from the human sequence (Coulouarn *et al.*, 1999). A second endogenous ligand for UT has been discovered in rat (Sugo and Mori, 2008). The urotensin II-related peptide (URP) an octapeptide, is derived from a different gene, but shares the C-terminal sequence (CFWKYCV) common to U-II from other species. Identical sequences to rat URP are predicted for the mature mouse and human peptides.

Nomenclature UT

Other names GPR14, SENR, UR-IIR Ensembl ID ENSG00000181408

Principal transduction G_{q/11}

Selective agonists [Pen⁵]U-II-(4–11), U-II (Grieco et al., 2002), AC7954 (Lehmann et al., 2005), FL104 and analogues

(Lehmann et al., 2006; 2007)

Selective antagonists Urantide (8.3, Patacchini et al., 2003), SB706375 (7.5-8.0, Douglas et al., 2005), palosuran (pIC₅₀ 7.1, Clozel et al.,

2004), SB611812 (6.6, Rakowski et al., 2005)

Probes [125I]-hU-II (0.24 nM, Maguire et al., 2000)

In human vasculature, human U-II elicits both vasoconstrictor (pD₂ 9.3–10.1, Maguire et al., 2000) and vasodilator (pIC₅₀ 10.3–10.4, Stirrat et al., 2001) responses.

Abbreviations: [Pen⁵]U-II-(4-11], [pencillamine, β,β-dimethylcysteine]⁵U-II-(4-11); AC7954, 3-(4-chlorophenyl)-3-(2-dimethyl-aminoethyl)-isochroman-1-one HCl; FL104, (+)N-(1-[4-chlorophenyl]-3-dimethylaminopropyl)-4-phenylbenzamide oxalate; palosuran, 1-[2-(4-benzyl-4-hydroxy-piperidin-1-yl)-ethyl]-3-(2-methyl-quinolin-4-yl)-urea sulphate, also known as ACT058362; SB611812, 2,6-dichloro-N-(4-chloro-3-{[2-(dimethylamino)ethyl]oxy}phenyl)-4-(trifluoromethyl)benzenesulfonamide; SB706375, 2-bromo-4,5-dimethoxy-N-[3-(R)-1-methyl-pyrrolidin-3-yloxy)-4-trifluromethyl-phenyl]-benzenesulphonamide HCl; urantide, [Pen⁵,DTrp⁷,Orn⁸]hU-II(4-11)

Further Reading

Desai N, Sajjad J, Frishman WH (2008). Urotensin II: a new pharmacologic target in the treatment of cardiovascular disease. *Cardiol Rev* 16: 142–153. Douglas SA, Ohlstein EH (2000). Urotensin receptors. In: *The IUPHAR Receptor Compendium of Receptor Characterization and Classification*. IUPHAR Media Ltd: London, pp. 365–372.

Foord SM, Bonner TI, Neubig RR et al. (2005). International Union of Pharmacology. XLVI. G protein-coupled receptor list. Pharmacol Rev 57: 279–288

Guidolin D, Albertin G, Ribatti D (2010). Urotensin-II as an angiogenic factor. Peptides 31: 1219-1224.

Hunt BD, Ng LL, Lambert DG (2010). A rat brain atlas of urotensin-II receptor expression and a review of central urotensin-II effects. *Naunyn Schmiedebergs Arch Pharmacol* 382: 1–31.

Leprince J, Chatenet D, Dubessy C, Fournier A, Pfeiffer B, Scalbert E et al. (2008). Structure-activity relationships of urotensin II and URP. Peptides 29: 658–673.

Lescot E, Bureau R, Rault S (2008). Nonpeptide Urotensin-II receptor agonists and antagonists: review and structure-activity relationships. *Peptides* 29: 680–690.

Maryanoff BE, Kinney WA (2010). Urotensin-II receptor modulators as potential drugs. J Med Chem 53: 2695–2708.

Ong KL, Wong LY, Cheung BM (2008). The role of urotensin II in the metabolic syndrome. Peptides 29: 859-867.

Proulx CD, Holleran BJ, Lavigne P et al. (2008). Biological properties and functional determinants of the urotensin II receptor. Peptides 29: 691–699.

Ross B, McKendy K, Giaid A (2010). Role of urotensin II in health and disease. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol* **298**: R1156–R1172. Vaudry H, Do Rego JC, Le Mevel JC, Chatenet D, Tostivint H, Fournier A *et al.* (2010). Urotensin II, from fish to human. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* **1200**: 53–66.

References

Bern HA et al. (1985). Recent Prog Horm Res 41: 533–552.
Brkovic A et al. (2003). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 306: 1200–1209.
Clozel M et al. (2004). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 311: 204–212.
Coulouarn Y et al. (1998). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 95: 15803–15808.
Coulouarn Y et al. (1999). FEBS Lett 457: 28–32.
Douglas SA et al. (2005). Br J Pharmacol 145: 620–635.
Grieco P et al. (2002). J Med Chem 45: 4391–4394.
Kinney WA et al. (2002). Angew Chem Int Ed Engl 41: 2940–2944.
Lehmann F et al. (2005). Bioorg Med Chem 13: 3057–3068.
Lehmann F et al. (2006). J Med Chem 49:2232–2240.

Lehmann F et al. (2007). Eur J Med Chem, 42:276–285. Liu Q et al. (1999). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 266: 174–178. Maguire JJ et al. (2000). Br J Pharmacol 131: 441–446. Mori M et al. (1999). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 265: 123–129. Nothacker HP et al. (1999). Nat Cell Biol 1: 383–385. Patacchini R et al. (2003). Br J Pharmacol 140: 1155–1158. Rakowski E et al. (2005). J Mol Cell Cardiol 39: 785–791. Stirrat A et al. (2001). Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol 280: H925–H928. Sugo T, Mori M (2008). Peptides 29: 809–812. Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Vasopressin & oxytocin S111

Vasopressin & oxytocin

Overview: Vasopressin (AVP) and oxytocin (OT) receptors (nomenclature as agreed by NC-IUPHAR Subcommittee on vasopressin and oxytoxcin receptors) are activated by the endogenous cyclic nonapeptides AVP and OT. These peptides are derived from precursors (ENSG00000101200 and ENSG00000101405, respectively), which also produce neurophysins.

Nomenclature	V_{1A}	V_{1B}	V_2	OT
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000166148	ENSG00000198049	ENSG00000126895	ENSG00000180914
Principal transduction	$G_{q/11}$	$G_{q/11}$	G_s	$G_{q/11}$, $G_{i/o}$
Rank order of potency	AVP > OT	AVP > OT	AVP > OT	$OT \ge AVP$
Selective agonists	F180, [Phe²,Orn ⁸]VT	d[D-3-Pal ²]VP, d(Cha ⁴]AVP (Derick et al., 2002), d[Leu ⁴ ,Lys ⁸]VP (Pena et al., 2007)	d[Val ⁴ ,DArg ⁸]VP, OPC51803, VNA932	[Thr ⁴ ,Gly ⁷]OT (Elands et al., 1988)
Selective antagonists	d(CH ₂) ₅ [Tyr(Me) ² , Arg ⁸]VP (9.0), SR49059 (8.9), YM087 (8.2)	SSR149415 (8.4; Griebel <i>et al.</i> , 2002; Serradeil-Le Gal <i>et al.</i> , 2002)	VPA985 (8.9, Albright et al., 1998), d(CH ₂) ₃ [D-lle ² , lle ⁴]AVP (8.4), SR121463A (8.4; Serradeil-Le Gal et al., 1996), OPC31260 (7.6; Yamamura et al., 1992), YM087 (8.96)	SSR126768A (9.3; Serradeil-Le Gal et al., 2004) desGlyNH ₂ -d(CH ₂) ₅ [Tyr(Me) ² Thr ⁴ ,Orn ⁸] OT (8.5), L372662 (8.4),
Probes	[3H]-AVP, [3H]-SR49059 (1.5 nM), [3H]-d(CH ₂) ₅ [Tyr(Me) ² , Arg ⁸]AVP (1.1 nM), [¹²⁵ I]-HO-Phaa,D-Tyr(Me)- Phe-Gln-Asn-Arg-Pro-Arg-NH ₂ (50 pM)	[³ H]-AVP, [³ H]-SSR149415 (1 nM; Serradeil-Le Gal <i>et al.</i> 2007)	[³ H]-AVP, [³ H]-desGly-NH ₂ [D-lle ² ,lle ⁴]AVP (2.8 nM), [³ H]-d[D-Arg ⁸]AVP (0.8 nM), [³ H]-SR121463A (4.1 nM)	[³H]-OT, [³5S]-Non Peptide OT Antagonist (42 pM; Lemaire et al., 2002), [¹²5l]-d(CH₂) ₅ [Tyr(Me)², Thr⁴,Orn³, Tyr-NH₂ °]OVT (90 pM), [¹¹¹ln]-DOTA-dLVT (4.5 nM; Chini et al., 2003)

The V_2 receptor exhibits marked species differences, such that many ligands (d(CH₂)₅[D-Ile²,Ile⁴]VP and [³H]-desGly-NH₂[D-Ile²,Ile⁴]VP) exhibit low affinity at human V_2 receptors (Ala *et al.*, 1997). Similarly, [³H]-d[D-Arg⁸]VP is V_2 selective in the rat, not in the human (Saito *et al.*, 1997). The gene encoding the V_2 receptor is polymorphic in man, underlying nephrogenic diabetes insipidus (Bichet, 1998). YM087 display high affinity for both human V_{1a} and V_2 receptors (Tahara *et al.*, 1998). d[Cha⁴]AVP is selective only for the human and bovine V_{1b} receptors (Derick *et al.*, 2002), while d[Leu⁴,Lys⁸]VP has high affinity for the rat V_{1b} receptor (Pena *et al.*, 2007).

Abbreviations: F180, Hmp-Phe-Ile-Hgn-Asn-Cys-Pro-Dab(Abu)-Gly-NH₂; [111In]-DOTA-dLVT, [111In]-DOTA-Lys⁸-deamino-vasotocin; L372662, $1-(1-\{4-[1-(2-methyl-1-oxidopyridin-3-ylmethyl)piperidin-4-yloxyl]-2-methoxybenzoyl\} piperidin-4-yl)-1, 4-dihydrobenz[d][1,3]] oxazin-2one;$ OPC31260, 5-dimethylamino-1-(4-[2-methylbenzoylamino]benzoyl)-2,3,4,5-tetrahydro-1H-benzazepine; OPC51803, (5r)-2-(1-[2-chloro-4-{1pyrrolidinyl}benzoyl]-2,3,4,5-tetrahydro-1*H*-1-benzazepin-5-yl)-*N*-isopropylacetamide; [35S]-non-peptide OT antagonist, [35S]-(1-(1-(2-(2,2,2trifluoroethoxy)-4-(1-methylsulfonyl-4-piperidinyloxy)phenylacetyl)-4-piperidinyl)-3,4-dihydro-2(1H)-quinolinone); SR121463A, 1-(4-Boc-2methoxybenzenesulfonyl)-5-ethoxy-3-spiro-(4-[2-morpholinoethoxy]cyclohexane)indol-2-one fumarate; equatorial isomer; SR49059, $(2s)-1-([2r,3s]-[5-chloro-3-\{chlorophenyl]-1-\{3,4-dimethoxysulfonyl]-3-hydroxy]-2,3-dihydro-1\\H-indole-2-carbonyl)-pyrrolidine-2-carboxamide;$ (2S,4R)-1-[5-chloro-1-[(2,4-dimethoxyphenyl)sulfonyl]-3-(2-methoxy-phenyl)-2-oxo-2,3-dihydro-1*H*-indol-3-yl]-4-hydroxy-*N*,*N*dimethyl-2-pyrrolidine carboxamide; SSR126768A, 4-chloro-3-[(3R)-(+)-5-chloro-1-(2,4-dimethoxybenzyl)-3-methyl-2-oxo-2,3-dihydro-1Hindol-3-yl]-N-ethyl-N-(3-pyridylmethyl)-benzamide, hydrochloride; VNA932, (2-chloro-4-[3-methyl-pyrazol-1-yl]-phenyl)-(5H,11H)pyrrolo(2,1-c)(1,4)benzodiazepin-10-yl-methanone; VPA985, 5-fluoro-2-methyl-N-(4-[5*H*-pyrrolo[2,1-c][1,4]benzodiazepin-10(11*H*)-ylcarbonyl]-(4'-[(2-methyl-1,4,5,6-tetrahydroimidazo[4,5-d][1]benzazepin-6-yl) carbonyl]-2-phenylbenzanilide YM087, 3-chlorophenyl)benzamide; monohydrochloride)

Further Reading

Gimpl G, Reitz J, Brauer S, Trossen C (2008). Oxytocin receptors: ligand binding, signalling and cholesterol dependence. *Prog Brain Res* 170: 193–204

Lee HJ, Macbeth AH, Pagani JH, Young WS, III (2009). Oxytocin: the great facilitator of life. *Prog Neurobiol* 88: 127–151.

Manning M, Stoev S, Chini B *et al.* (2008). Peptide and non-peptide agonists and antagonists for the vasopressin and oxytocin V1a, V1b, V2 and OT receptors: research tools and potential therapeutic agents. *Prog Brain Res* 170: 473–512.

McGregor IS, Callaghan PD, Hunt GE (2008). From ultrasocial to antisocial: a role for oxytocin in the acute reinforcing effects and long-term adverse consequences of drug use? *Br J Pharmacol* **154**: 358–368.

Oghlakian G, Klapholz M (2009). Vasopressin and vasopressin receptor antagonists in heart failure. Cardiol Rev 17: 10-15.

\$112 Vasopressin & oxytocin Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Roper J, O'Carroll AM, Young W, III, Lolait S (2011). The vasopressin Avpr1b receptor: molecular and pharmacological studies. *Stress* 14: 98–115. Veeraveedu PT, Palaniyandi SS, Yamaguchi K, Komai Y, Thandavarayan RA, Sukumaran V *et al.* (2010). Arginine vasopressin receptor antagonists (vaptans): pharmacological tools and potential therapeutic agents. *Drug Discov Today* 15: 826–841.

References

Ala Y et al. (1997). Eur J Pharmacol 331: 285–293. Albright JD et al. (1998). J Med Chem 41: 2442–2444. Bichet DG (1998). Am J Med 105: 431–442. Chini B et al. (2003). Br J Cancer 89: 930–936. Derick S et al. (2002). Endocrinology 143: 4655–4664. Elands J et al. (1988). Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab 254: E31–E38. Griebel G et al. (2002). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 99: 6370–6375. Lemaire W et al. (2002). Eur J Pharmacol 450: 19–28. Pena A et al. (2007). Endocrinology 148: 4136–4146. Saito M *et al.* (1997). *Biochem Pharmacol* **53**: 1711–1717.

Serradeil-Le Gal C *et al.* (1996). *J Clin Invest* **98**: 2729–2738.

Serradeil-Le Gal C *et al.* (2002). *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* **300**: 1122–1130.

Serradeil-Le Gal C *et al.* (2004). *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* **309**: 414–424.

Serradeil-Le Gal C *et al.* (2007). *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol* **293**: R938–R949.

Tahara A et al. (1998). Naunyn-Schmiedeberg's Arch Pharmacol 357: 63–69.

Yamamura Y et al. (1992). Br J Pharmacol 105: 787-791.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA VIP & PACAP S113

VIP & PACAP

Overview: Vasoactive intestinal peptide (VIP) and pituitary adenylate cyclase-activating peptide (PACAP) receptors (nomenclature recommended by the NC-IUPHAR Subcommittee on Vasoactive Intestinal Peptide Receptors, Harmar *et al.*, 1998) are activated by the endogenous peptides VIP, PACAP-38, PACAP-27, peptide histidine isoleucineamide (PHI), peptide histidine methionineamide (PHM) and peptide histidine valine (PHV). 'PACAP type II receptors' (VPAC₁ and VPAC₂ receptors) display comparable affinity for PACAP and VIP, whereas PACAP-27 and PACAP-38 are >100 fold more potent than VIP as agonists of most isoforms of the PAC₁ receptor. However, one splice variant of the human PAC₁ receptor has been reported to respond to PACAP-38, PACAP-27 and VIP with comparable affinity (Dautzenberg *et al.*, 1999). PG99-465 (Moreno *et al.*, 2000) has been used as a selective VPAC₂ receptor antagonist in a number of physiological studies, but has been reported to have significant activity at VPAC₁ and PAC₁ receptors (Dickson *et al.*, 2006). The selective PAC₁ receptor agonist maxadilan, was extracted from the salivary glands of sand flies (*Lutzomyia longipalpis*) and has no sequence homology to VIP or PACAP (Moro and Lerner, 1997). Two deletion variants of maxadilan, M65 (Uchida *et al.*, 1998) and max.d.4 (Moro *et al.*, 1999) have been reported to be PAC₁ receptor antagonists, but these peptides have not been extensively characterised.

Nomenclature	VPAC ₁	VPAC ₂	PAC ₁
Other names	VIP ₁ /PACAP, VIP, VIP ₁ , PACAP type II, PVR2	VIP ₂ /PACAP, VIP ₂ , PACAP ₃ , PVR2	PACAP, PACAP type I, PVR1
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000114812	ENSG00000106018	ENSG00000078549
Principal transduction	G_s	G_s	G_s
Rank order of potency	VIP, PACAP-27, PACAP-38 >> GHRH, PHI, secretin	VIP, PACAP-38, PACAP-27 > PHI >> GHRH, secretin	PACAP-27, PACAP-38 >> VIP
Selective agonists	[Ala ^{11,22,28}]VIP, [Lys ¹⁵ ,Arg ¹⁶ ,Leu ²⁷]VIP(1-7)/ GRF(8-27)-NH ₂	Ro251553 (Gourlet <i>et al.,</i> 1997a, 1997b) Ro251392 (Xia <i>et al.,</i> 1997)	Maxadilan (Moro and Lerner, 1997)
Selective antagonists	PG97-269 (Gourlet et al., 1997a)	_	_
Probes	[¹²⁵ I]-VIP, [¹²⁵ I]-PACAP-27	[¹²⁵ I]-VIP, [¹²⁵ I]-PACAP-27	[¹²⁵ I]-PACAP-27

Further Reading

Couvineau A, Ceraudo E, Tan YV, Laburthe M (2010). VPAC1 receptor binding site: contribution of photoaffinity labeling approach. *Neuropeptides* 44: 127–132.

Gonzalez-Rey E, Varela N, Chorny A, Delgado M (2007). Therapeutical approaches of vasoactive intestinal peptide as a pleiotropic immuno-modulator. *Curr Pharm Des* 13: 1113–1139.

Dickson L, Finlayson K (2009). VPAC and PAC receptors: from ligands to function. Pharmacol Ther 121: 294-316.

Groneberg DA, Rabe KF, Fischer A (2006). Novel concepts of neuropeptide-based drug therapy: vasoactive intestinal polypeptide and its receptors. *Eur J Pharmacol* 533: 182–194.

Harmar AJ, Arimura A, Gozes I, Journot L, Laburthe M, Pisegna JR et al. (1998). International Union of Pharmacology. XVIII. Nomenclature of receptors for vasoactive intestinal peptide and pituitary adenylate cyclase-activating polypeptide. *Pharmacol Rev* 50: 265–270.

Hill JM (2007). Vasoactive intestinal peptide in neurodevelopmental disorders: therapeutic potential. Curr Pharm Des 13: 1079-1089.

Laburthe M, Couvineau A, Tan V (2007). Class II G protein-coupled receptors for VIP and PACAP: structure, models of activation and pharmacology. *Peptides* 28: 1631–1639.

Moody TW, Ito T, Osefo N, Jensen RT (2011). VIP and PACAP: recent insights into their functions/roles in physiology and disease from molecular and genetic studies. *Curr Opin Endocrinol Diabetes Obes* 18: 61–67.

Nakata M, Yada T (2007). PACAP in the glucose and energy homeostasis: physiological role and therapeutic potential. *Curr Pharm Des* 13: 1105–1112.

Schytz HW, Olesen J, Ashina M (2010). The PACAP receptor: a novel target for migraine treatment. Neurotherapeutics 7: 191–196.

Vaudry D, Falluel-Morel A, Bourgault S, Basille M, Burel D *et al.* (2009) Pituitary adenylate cyclase-activating polypeptide and its receptors: 20 years after the discovery. *Pharmacol Rev* **61**: 283–357.

References

Dautzenberg FM et al. (1999). J Neuroendocrinol 11: 941–949. Dickson L et al. (2006). Neuropharmacology 51: 1086–1098. Gourlet P et al. (1997a). Peptides 18: 1539–1545. Gourlet P et al. (1997b). Peptides 18: 403–408. Moreno D et al. (2000) Peptides 21: 1543–1549.

Moro O, Lerner EA (1997). *J Biol Chem* **272**: 966–970. Moro O *et al.* 1999). *J Biol Chem* **274**: 23103–23110. Uchida D *et al.* (1998). *Ann N Y Acad Sci* **865**: 253–258. Xia M *et al.* (1997). *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* **281**: 629–633.

LIGAND-GATED ION CHANNELS

Ligand-gated ion channels (LGICs) are integral membrane proteins that contain a pore which allows the regulated flow of selected ions across the plasma membrane. Ion flux is passive and driven by the electrochemical gradient for the permeant ions. The channels are opened, or gated, by the binding of a neurotransmitter to an orthosteric site(s) that triggers a conformational change that results in the conducting state. Modulation of gating can occur by the binding of endogenous, or exogenous, modulators to allosteric sites. LGICs mediate fast synaptic transmission, on a millisecond time scale, in the nervous system and at the somatic neuromuscular junction. Such transmission involves the release of a neurotransmitter from a pre-synaptic neurone and the subsequent activation of post-synaptically located receptors that mediate a rapid, phasic, electrical signal (the excitatory, or inhibitory, post-synaptic potential). However, In addition to their traditional role in phasic neurotransmission, it is now established that some LGICs mediate a tonic form of neuronal regulation that results from the activation of extra-synaptic receptors by ambient levels of neurotransmitter. The expression of some LGICs by non-excitable cells is suggestive of additional functions.

By convention, the LGICs comprise the excitatory, cation-selective, nicotinic acetylcholine (Millar and Gotti, 2009; Changeux, 2010), 5-HT₃ (Barnes *et al.*, 2009; Walstab *et al.*, 2010), ionotropic glutamate (Lodge, 2009; Traynelis *et al.*, 2010) and P2X receptors (Jarvis and Khakh, 2009; Surprenant and North, 2009) and the inhibitory, anion-selective, GABA_Λ (Olsen and Sieghart, 2008; Belelli *et al.*, 2009) and glycine receptors (Lynch, 2009; Yevenes and Zeilhofer, 2011). The nicotinic acetylcholine, 5-HT₃, GABA_Λ and glycine receptors (and an additional zinc-activated channel) are pentameric structures and are frequently referred to as the Cys-loop receptors due to the presence of a defining loop of residues formed by a disulphide bond in the extracellular domain of their constituent subunits (Miller and Smart, 2010; Thompson *et al.*, 2010). However, the prokaryotic ancestors of these receptors contain no such loop and the term pentameric ligand-gated ion channel (pLGIC) is gaining acceptance in the literature (Hilf and Dutzler, 2009). The ionotropic glutamate and P2X receptors are tetrameric and trimeric structures, respectively. Multiple genes encode the subunits of LGICs and the majority of these receptors are heteromultimers. Such combinational diversity results, within each class of LGIC, in a wide range of receptors with differing pharmacological and biophysical properties and varying patterns of expression within the nervous system and other tissues. The LGICs thus present attractive targets for new therapeutic agents with improved discrimination between receptor isoforms and a reduced propensity for off-target effects. The development of novel, faster screening techniques for compounds acting on LGICs (Dunlop *et al.*, 2008) will greatly aid in the development of such agents.

Further Reading

Barnes NM, Hales TG, Lummis SCR, Peters JA (2009). The 5-HT₃ receptor – the relationship between structure and function. *Neuropharmacology* 56: 273–284.

Belelli D, Harrison NL, Maguire J, Macdonald RL, Walker MC, Cope DW (2009). Extrasynaptic GABA_A receptors: form, pharmacology, and function. *J Neurosci* 29: 12757–12763.

Changeux J-P (2010). Allosteric receptors: from electric organ to cognition. Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol 50: 1-38.

Dunlop J, Bowlby M, Peri R, Vasilyev D, Arias R (2008). High-throughput electrophysiology: an emerging paradigm for ion channel screening and physiology. *Nat Rev Drug Discov* 7: 358–368.

Hilf RJ, Dutzler R (2009). A prokaryotic perspective on pentameric ligand-gated ion channel structure. Curr Opin Struct Biol 19: 418-424.

Jarvis MF, Khakh BS (2009). ATP-gated P2X cation-channels. Neuropharmacology 56: 230-236.

Lodge D (2009). The history of the pharmacology and cloning of ionotropic glutamate receptors and the development of idiosyncratic nomenclure. *Neuropharmacology* **56**: 6–21.

Lynch JW (2009). Native glycine receptors and their physiological roles. Neurpharmacology 56: 303-309.

Millar NS, Gotti C (2009). Diversity of vertebrate nicotinic acetylcholine receptors. Neuropharmacology 56: 237–246.

Miller PS, Smart TG (2010). Binding, activation and modulation of Cys-loop receptors. Trends Pharmacol Sci 31: 161-174.

Olsen RW, Sieghart W (2009). International Union of Pharmacology. LXX. Subtypes of γ-aminobutyric acid_A receptors: classification on the basis of subunit composition, pharmacology, and function. Update. *Pharmacol Rev* **60**: 243–260.

Surprenant A, North RA (2009). Signaling at purinergic P2X receptors. Annu Rev Physiol 71: 333-359.

Thompson AJ, Lester HA, Lummis SCR (2010). The structural basis of function in Cys-loop receptors. Q Rev Biophys 43: 449-499.

Traynelis SF, Wollmuth LP, McBain CJ, Menniti FS, Vance KM, Ogden KK et al. (2010). Glutamate receptor ion channels: structure, regulation, and function. Pharmacol Rev 62: 405–496.

Walstab J, Rappold G, Niesler B (2010). 5-HT₃ receptors: role in disease and target of drugs. Pharmacol Ther 128: 146-169.

Yevenes GE, Zeilhofer HU (2011). Allosteric modulation of glycine receptors. Br J Pharmacol 164: 224-236.

5-HT₃ (5-Hydroxytryptamine₃)

Overview: The 5-HT₃ receptor [nomenclature as agreed by the NC-IUPHAR Subcommittee on 5-hydroxytryptamine (serotonin) receptors (Hoyer et al., 1994; see also Peters et al., 2010)] is a ligand-gated ion channel of the Cys-loop family that includes the nicotinic acetylcholine, GABAA and strychnine-sensitive glycine receptors. The receptor exists as a pentamer of 4TM subunits that form an intrinsic cation selective channel (Barnes et al., 2009). Five human 5-HT₃ receptor subunits have been cloned and homo-oligomeric assemblies of 5-HT3A and hetero-oligomeric assemblies of 5-HT3A and 5-HT3B subunits have been characterised in detail. The 5-HT3C (ENSG00000178084), 5-HT3D (ENSG00000186090) and 5-HT3E (ENSG0000186038) subunits (Karnovsky et al., 2003; Niesler et al., 2003), like the 5-HT3B subunit, do not form functional homomers, but are reported to assemble with the 5-HT3A subunit to influence its functional expression rather than pharmacological profile (Niesler et al., 2007; Holbrook et al., 2009; Walstab et al., 2010a). 5-HT3A, -C, -D, and -E subunits also interact with the chaperone RIC-3 which predominantly enhances the surface expression of homomeric 5-HT₃A receptor (Walstab et al., 2010a). The co-expression of 5-HT3A and 5-HT3C-E subunits has been demonstrated in human colon (Kapeller et al., 2011). A recombinant hetero-oligomeric 5-HT₃AB receptor has been reported to contain two copies of the 5-HT3A subunit and three copies of the 5-HT3B subunit in the order B-B-A-B-A (Barrera et al., 2005), but this is inconsistent with recent reports which show at least one A-A interface (Lochner and Lummis, 2010; Thompson et al., 2011b). The 5-HT3B subunit imparts distinctive biophysical properties upon hetero-oligomeric 5-HT₃AB versus homo-oligomeric 5-HT₃A recombinant receptors (Davies et al., 1999; Dubin et al., 1999; Hanna et al., 2000; Kelley et al., 2003; Stewart et al., 2003; Peters et al., 2005; Jensen et al., 2008), influences the potency of channel blockers, but generally has only a modest effect upon the apparent affinity of agonists, or the affinity of antagonists (Brady et al., 2001; but see Dubin et al., 1999; Das and Dillon, 2003; Deeb et al., 2009) which may be explained by the orthosteric binding site residing at an interface formed between 5-HT3A subunits (Lochner and Lummis, 2010; Thompson et al., 2011b). However, 5-HT3A and 5-HT₃AB receptors differ in their allosteric regulation by some general anaesthetic agents, small alcohols and indoles (Solt et al., 2005; Rüsch et al., 2007; Hu and Peoples, 2008). The potential diversity of 5-HT₃ receptors is increased by alternative splicing of the genes HTR3A and E (Hope et al., 1993; Bruss et al., 2000; Niesler et al., 2007, 2008; Niesler 2011). In addition, the use of tissue-specific promoters driving expression from different transcriptional start sites has been reported for the HTR3A, HTR3B, HTR3D and HTR3E genes, which could result in 5-HT3 subunits harbouring different N-termini (Tzvetkov et al., 2007; Jensen et al., 2008; Niesler, 2011). To date, inclusion of the 5-HT3A subunit appears imperative for 5-HT₃ receptor function.

Nomenclature 5-HT₃ Former names Ensembl ID 5-HT3A ENSG00000166736, 5-HT3B ENSG00000149305 Selective agonists (pEC₅₀) SR57227A (6.4), 3-chlorophenyl-biguanide (5.4-5.8), 2-methyl-5-HT (5.5-5.6), 1-phenylbiguanide (4.1) Selective antagonists (p K_i) (S)-Zacopride (9.0), granisetron (8.6–8.8), tropisetron (8.5–8.8), ondansetron (7.8–8.3) Channel blockers (pIC50) TMB-8 (5.4), diltiazem (4.1–4.8), picrotoxinin (4.9 + 5-HT3B = 4.2), bilobalide (3.3 + 5-HT3B = 2.5); ginkgolide B (3.1 + 5-HT3B > 3.0)Radioligands (K_D) [³H]Ramosetron (0.15 nM), [³H]granisetron (1.2 nM), [³H](S)-zacopride (2.0 nM), [³H]GR65630 (2.6 nM), [3H]LY278584 (3 nM) Functional characteristics $\gamma = 0.4-0.8$ pS [+ 5-HT3B, $\gamma = 16$ pS]; inwardly rectifying current [+ 5-HT3B, rectification reduced]; n_H 2-3 [+ 5-HT3B 1-2]; relative permeability to divalent cations reduced by co-expression of the 5-HT3B subunit

Quantitative data in the table refer to homo-oligomeric assemblies of the human 5-HT3A subunit, or the receptor native to human tissues. Significant changes introduced by co-expression of the 5-HT3B subunit are indicated in parenthesis. Methadone, although not a selective antagonist, displays multimodal and subunit-dependent antagonism of 5-HT3 receptors (Deeb *et al.*, 2009). Similarly, TMB-8, diltiazem, picrotoxin, bilobalide and ginkgolide B are not selective for 5-HT3 receptors (*e.g.* Thompson *et al.*, 2011a). The anti-malarial drugs mefloquine and quinine exert a modestly more potent block of 5-HT3A *versus* 5-HT3AB receptor-mediated responses (Thompson and Lummis, 2008). Varenicline, know better as a partial agonist of nicotinic acetylcholine α4β2 receptors, is also an agonist of the 5-HT3A receptor (Lummis *et al.* 2011). Human (Belelli *et al.*, 1995; Miyake *et al.*, 1995), rat (Isenberg *et al.*, 1993), mouse (Maricq *et al.*, 1991), guinea-pig (Lankiewicz *et al.*, 1998) referret (Mochizuki *et al.*, 2000) and canine (Jensen *et al.*, 2006) orthologues of the 5-HT3A receptor subunit have been cloned that exhibit intraspecies variations in receptor pharmacology. Notably, most ligands display significantly reduced affinities at the guinea-pig 5-HT3 receptor in comparison with other species. In addition to the agents listed in the table, native and recombinant 5-HT3 receptors are subject to allosteric modulation by extracellular divalent cations, alcohols, several general anaesthetics and 5-hydroxy- and halide-substituted indoles (see reviews by Parker *et al.*, 1996; Thompson and Lummis, 2006, 2007; Walstab *et al.*, 2010b).

 $\label{lem:hyl-1} \begin{tabular}{ll} Abbreviations: $GR65630, $3-(5-methyl-1$H-imidazol-4-yl)-1-(1-methyl-1$H-indol-3-yl)-1-propanone; $LY278584, $1-methyl-$N-(8-methyl-8-azabicyclo[3.2.1]oct-3-yl)-1$H-indazole- $3-carboxamide; $R57227A, $4-amino-(6-chloro-2-pyridyl)-1 $piperidine hydrochloride, $TMB-8, $8-(diethylamine)octyl-3,4,5-trimethoxybenzoate $$1-methyl-$N-(8-methyl-8-azabicyclo[3.2.1]oct-3-yl)-1$H-indazole- $1-methyl-$N-(8-methyl-8-azabicyclo[3.2.1]oct-3-yl)-1$H-indazole- $1-methyl-$N-(8-methyl-8-azabicyclo[3.2$

Further Reading

Barnes NM, Hales TG, Lummis SCR, Peters JA (2009). The 5-HT₃ receptor – the relationship between structure and function. *Neuropharmacology* 56: 273–284.

Chameau P, Van Hooft JA (2006). Serotonin 5-HT₃ receptors in the central nervous system. Cell Tissue Res 326: 573-581.

Costall B, Naylor RJ (2004). 5-HT₃ receptors. Curr Drug Targets CNS Neurol Disord 3: 27-37.

Engleman EA, Rodd ZA, Bell RL, Murphy JM (2008). The role of 5-HT₃ receptors in drug abuse and as a target for pharmacotherapy. CNS Neurol Disord Drug Targets 7: 454–467.

Hoyer D, Clarke DE, Fozard JR, Hartig PR, Martin GR, Mylecharane EJ et al. (1994). International Union of Pharmacology classification of receptors for 5-hydroxytryptamine (serotonin). Pharmacol Rev: 46, 157–203.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA 5-HT₃ (5-Hydroxytryptamine₃) \$117

Jensen AA, Davies PA, Bräuner-Osborne H, Krzywkowski K (2008). 3B but which 3B? And that's just one of the questions: the heterogeneity of human 5-HT₃ receptors. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 29: 437–444.

Machu TK (2011). Therapeutics of 5-HT₃ receptor antagonists: current uses and future directions. Pharmacol Ther 130: 338–347.

Modica MN, Pittalà V, Romeo G, Salerno L, Siracusa MA (2010). Serotonin 5-HT₃ and 5-HT₄ ligands: an update of medicinal chemistry research in the last few years. *Curr Med Chem* 17: 334–362.

Niesler B (2011). 5-HT₃ receptors: potential of individual isoforms for personalised therapy. Curr Opin Pharmacol 11: 81–86.

Niesler B, Kapeller J, Hammer C, Rappold G (2008). Serotonin type 3 receptor genes: HTR3A, B, C, D, E. Pharmacogenomics 9: 501–514.

Parker RM, Bentley KR, Barnes NM (1996). Allosteric modulation of 5-HT₃ receptors: focus on alcohols and anaesthetic agents. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 17: 95–99.

Peters JA, Hales TG, Lambert JJ (2005). Molecular determinants of single channel conductance and ion selectivity in the Cys-loop transmitter-gated ion channels: insights from the 5-HT₃ receptor. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 26: 587–594.

Peters JA, Barnes NM, Hales TG, Lummis SCR (2010). 5-HT₃ receptors, introductory chapter. IUPHAR database (IUPHAR-DB), http://www.iuphar-db.org/IC/FamilyIntroductionForward?familyId=2

Thompson AJ, Lummis SCR (2006). 5-HT₃ receptors. Curr Pharm Des 12: 3615–3630.

Thompson AJ, Lummis SCR (2007). The 5-HT₃ receptor as a therapeutic target. Expert Opin Ther Targets 11: 527-540.

Thompson AJ, Lester HA, Lummis SCR (2010). The structural basis of function in Cys-loop receptors. Q Rev Biophys 43: 449-499.

Walstab J, Rappold G, Niesler B (2010b). 5-HT₃ receptors: role in disease and target of drugs. Pharmacol Ther 128: 146-169.

Yaakob N, Malone DT, Exintaris B, Irving HR (2011). Heterogeneity amongst 5-HT₃ receptor subunits: is this significant? Curr Mol Med 11: 57-68.

References

Barrera NP et al. (2005). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 102: 12595–12600. Belelli D et al. (1995). Mol Pharmacol 48: 1054–1062. Brady CA et al. (2001). Neuropharmacology 41: 282–284.

Bruss M et al. (2000). Naunyn Schmiedebergs Arch Pharmacol 362: 392–401.

Das P, Dillon GH (2003). Brain Res Mol Brain Res 119: 207-212.

Davies PA et al. (1999). Nature 397: 359-363.

Deeb TZ et al. (2009). Mol Pharmacol 75: 908-917.

Dubin A et al. (1999). J Biol Chem 274: 30799-30810.

Hanna MC et al. (2000). J Neurochem 75: 240-247.

Hope AG et al. (1993). Eur J Pharmacol 245: 187-192.

Holbrook JD et al. (2009). J Neurochem 108: 384-396.

Hu XQ, Peoples RW (2008). J Biol Chem 283: 6826-6831.

Isenberg KE et al. (1993). Neuroreport 18: 121–124.

Jensen TN et al. (2006). Eur J Pharmacol 538: 23-31.

Kapeller J et al. (2011). J Comp Neurol 519: 420-432.

Karnovsky AM et al. (2003). Gene 319: 137-148.

Kelley SP et al. (2003). Nature 424: 321-324.

Lankiewicz S et al. (1998). Mol Pharmacol 53: 202-212.

Lochner M, Lummis SCR (2010). Biophys J 98: 1494-1502.

Lummis SCR et al. (2011). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 339: 125-131.

Maricq AV et al. (1991). Science 254: 432-437.

Miyake A et al. (1995). Mol Pharmacol 48: 407-416.

Mochizuki S et al. (2000). Eur J Pharmacol 399: 97-106.

Niesler B et al. (2003). Gene 310: 101-111.

Niesler B et al. (2007). Mol Pharmacol 72: 8-17.

Rüsch D et al. (2007). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 321: 1069-1074.

Solt K et al. (2005). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 315: 771–776.

Stewart A et al. (2003). Neuropharmacology 44: 214-223.

Thompson AJ, Lummis SCR (2008). Br J Pharmacol 153: 1686–1696.

Thompson AJ et al. (2011a). Neuropharmacology 60: 488-495.

Thompson AJ et al. (2011b). J Physiol 589: 4243-4257.

Tzvetkov MV et al. (2007). Gene 386: 52-62.

Walstab J et al. (2010a) J Biol Chem 285: 26956-26965.

S118 Acetylcholine (nicotinic) Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Acetylcholine (nicotinic)

Overview: Nicotinic acetylcholine receptors are members of the Cys-loop family of transmitter-gated ion channels that includes the GABA_A, strychnine-sensitive glycine and 5-HT₃ receptors (Sine and Engel, 2006; Albuquerque et al., 2009; Millar and Gotti, 2009; Taly et al., 2009, Wu and Lukas, 2011). All nicotinic receptors are pentamers in which each of the five subunits contains four α -helical transmembrane domains. Genes (Ensembl family ID ENSF00000000049) encoding a total of 17 subunits (α 1-10, β 1-4, γ , δ and ϵ) have been identified (Kalamida et al., 2007). All subunits with the exception of $\alpha 8$ (present in avian species) have been identified in mammals. All α subunits possess two tandem cysteine residues near to the site involved in acetylcholine binding, and subunits not named α lack these residues (Millar and Gotti, 2009). The orthosteric ligand binding site is formed by residues within at least three peptide domains on the α subunit (principal component), and three on the adjacent subunit (complementary component). nAChRs contain several allosteric modulatory sites. One such site, for positive allosteric modulators (PAMs) and allosteric agonists, has been proposed to reside within an intrasubunit cavity between the four transmembrane domains (Young et al., 2008; Gill et al., 2011; see also Hibbs and Gouaux, 2011). The high resolution crystal structure of the molluscan acetylcholine binding protein, a structural homologue of the extracellular binding domain of a nicotinic receptor pentamer, in complex with several nicotinic receptor ligands (e.g., Celie et al., 2004) and the crystal structure of the extracellular domain of the α 1 subunit bound to α -bungarotoxin at 1.94 Å resolution (Dellisanti et al., 2007), has revealed the orthosteric binding site in detail (reviewed Sine and Engel, 2006; Kalamida et al., 2007; Changeux and Taly, 2008; Rucktooa et al., 2009). Nicotinic receptors at the somatic neuromuscular junction of adult animals have the stoichiometry $(\alpha 1)_2 \beta 1 \delta \epsilon$, whereas an extrajunctional $(\alpha 1)_2 \beta 1 \gamma \delta$ receptor predominates in embryonic and denervated skeletal muscle and other pathological states. Other nicotinic receptors are assembled as combinations of $\alpha(2-6)$ and $\beta(2-4)$ subunits. For α 2, α 3, α 4 and β 2 and β 4 subunits, pairwise combinations of α and β (e.g., $\alpha 3\beta 4$, $\alpha 4\beta 2$) are sufficient to form a functional receptor *in vitro*, but far more complex isoforms may exist in vivo (reviewed by Gotti et al., 2006, 2009, Millar and Gotti, 2009). There is strong evidence that the pairwise assembly of some α and β subunits can occur with variable stoichiometry [e.g., $(\alpha 4)_2(\beta 2)_2$, or $(\alpha 4)_3(\beta 2)_2$] which influences the biophysical and pharmacological properties of the receptor (Millar and Gotti, 2009). α5 and β3 subunits lack function when expressed alone, or pairwise, but participate in the formation of functional hetero-oligomeric receptors when expressed as a third subunit with another α and β pair [e.g., $\alpha 4\alpha 5\alpha \beta 2$, $\alpha 4\alpha \beta 2\beta 3$, $\alpha 5\alpha 6\beta 2$, see Millar and Gotti (2009) for further examples]. The α6 subunit can form a functional receptor when co-expressed with β4 in vitro, but more efficient expression ensues from incorporation of a third partner, such as $\beta 3$ (Yang et al., 2009). The $\alpha 7$, $\alpha 8$, and $\alpha 9$ subunits form functional homo-oligomers, but can also combine with a second subunit to constitute a hetero-oligomeric assembly (e.g., $\alpha7\beta2$ and $\alpha9\alpha10$). For functional expression of the $\alpha 10$ subunit, co-assembly with $\alpha 9$ is necessary. The latter, along with the $\alpha 10$ subunit, appears to be largely confined to cochlear and vestibular hair cells. Comprehensive listings of nicotinic receptor subunit combinations identified from recombinant expression systems, or in vivo, are given in Millar and Gotti (2009). In addition, numerous proteins interact with nicotinic ACh receptors modifying their assembly, trafficking to and from the cell surface, and activation by ACh (reviewed by Millar, 2008; Araud et al., 2010; Jones et al., 2010).

The nicotinic receptor subcommittee of NC-IUPHAR has recommended a nomenclature and classification scheme for nicotinic acetylcholine (nACh) receptors based on the subunit composition of known, naturally- and/or heterologously-expressed nACh receptor subtypes (Lukas et~al., 1999). Headings for this table reflect abbreviations designating nACh receptor subtypes based on the predominant α subunit contained in that receptor subtype. An asterisk following the indicated α subunit denotes that other subunits are known to, or may, assemble with the indicated α subunit to form the designated nACh receptor subtype(s). Where subunit stoichiometries within a specific nACh receptor subtype are known, numbers of a particular subunit larger than 1 are indicated by a subscript following the subunit (enclosed in parentheses – see also Collingridge et~al., 2009).

Nomenclature	α1*	α2*	α3*
Previous names	Muscle-type, muscle	_	Autonomic, ganglionic
Selective agonists	Succinylcholine (selective for $(\alpha 1)_2\beta 1\gamma \delta$)	-	_
Positive allosteric modulators	-	LY-2087101 (Broad <i>et al.</i> , 2006, also potentiates α 4 β 2 and α 4 β 4)	-
Selective antagonists	Waglerin-1 (selective for $\alpha(1)_2\beta1\delta\epsilon$), α-bungarotoxin, α-conotoxin GI, α-conotoxin MI, pancuronium	-	α 3β2: α -conotoxin MII (also blocks α 6-containing), α -conotoxin-GIC, α -conotoxin PnIA, α -conotoxin TxIA α 3β4: α -conotoxin AuIB
Commonly used antagonists	$(\alpha 1)_2 \beta 1 \gamma \delta$ and $(\alpha 1)_2 \beta 1 \delta \epsilon$: α -bungarotoxin, > pancuronium > vecuronium > rocuronium > (+)-Tc (IC ₅₀ = 43–82 nM)	α 2β2: DHβE (K_8 = 0.9 μM), (+)-Tc (K_8 = 1.4 μM) α 2β4: DHβE (K_8 = 3.6 μM), (+)-Tc (K_8 = 4.2 μM)	α 3β2: DHβE (K_8 = 1.6 μM, IC $_{50}$ = 2.0 μM), (+)-Tc (K_8 = 2.4 μM) α 3β4: DHβE (K_8 = 19 μM, IC $_{50}$ = 26 μM), (+)-Tc (K_8 = 2.2 μM)
Channel blockers	$\alpha(1)_2\beta 1\delta\epsilon$ and $\alpha(1)_2\beta 1y\delta$: gallamine (IC50 \sim 1 $\mu M)$ $\alpha(1)_2\beta 1\delta\epsilon$: mecamylamine (IC50 \sim 1.5 $\mu M)$	mecamylamine, hexamethonium	$\alpha3\beta2$: mecamylamine (ICso = 7.6 μM), hexamethonium $\alpha3\beta4$: mecamylamine (ICso = 0.39 μM), hexamethonium
Radioligands (K _d)	[³H]/[¹²⁵I]-α-bungarotoxin	[3H]/[125I]-epibatidine (hα2β4, 42 pM; rα2β2, 10–21 pM; rα2β4, 84–87 pM), [3 H]-cytisine	[³H]/[¹²⁵I]-epibatidine (hα3β2, 7 pM; hα3β4, 230 pM; rα3β2, 14–34 pM, rα3β4, 290–304 pM), [³H]-cytisine
Functional characteristics	$\alpha(1)_2\beta\gamma\delta$: $P_{Ca}/P_{Na}=0.16-0.2$, $P_f=2.1-2.9\%$; $\alpha(1)_2\beta\delta\epsilon$: $P_{Ca}/P_{Na}=0.65-1.38$, $P_f=4.1-7.2\%$	$\alpha 2\beta 2 \colon P_{\text{Ca}}/P_{\text{Na}} \sim 1.5$	$\alpha 3\beta 2\colon P_{\text{Ca}}/P_{\text{Na}}=1.5; \;\alpha 3\beta 4\colon P_{\text{Ca}}/P_{\text{Na}}=0.781.1,\; P_{\text{f}}=2.74.6\%$

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Acetylcholine (nicotinic) \$119

Nomenclature	α4*	α6*	α7*
Previous names	Neuronal, α -bungarotoxin-insensitive	-	Neuronal, α -bungarotoxin-sensitive
Selective agonists	α4β2: TC-2559 (Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2003), TC-2403 (RJR-2403, Papke <i>et al.</i> , 2000)	-	(α7) ₅ : PNU-282987 (Bodnar <i>et al.</i> , 2005), PHA-543613 (Wishka <i>et al.</i> , 2006); PHA-709829 (Acker <i>et al.</i> , 2008), A-582941 (Bitner <i>et al.</i> , 2007, TC-5619 (Hauser <i>et al.</i> , 2009)
Allosteric agonists	_	_	4BP-TQS (Gill et al., 2011)
Positive allosteric modulators	α 4β2 and α 4β4: LY-2087101 (Broad <i>et al.</i> , 2006, also potentiates α 2*), NS9283 (Lee <i>et al.</i> , 2011)	-	(α7) _s :Type 1: LY-2087101 (Broad <i>et al.</i> , 2006), NS1738 (Timmermann <i>et al.</i> , 2007; also blocks α 3 β 4 and α 4 β 2) (α 7) _s :Type 2: PNU-120596 (Hurst <i>et al.</i> , 2005), A-867744 (Malysz <i>et al.</i> , 2009; also blocks α 3 β 4 and α 4 β 2) (α 7) _s :Type 1/2 intermediate: JNJ1930942 (Dinklo <i>et al.</i> , 2011)
Selective antagonists	-	α 6/ α 3β2β3 chimera: α -conotoxin PIA α 6β2β3: α -conotoxin MII [H9A, L15A] α 6β2*: α -conotoxin MII (also blocks α 3β2)	$(α7)_s$: $α$ -bungarotoxin, methyllycaconitine, $α$ -conotoxin ImI, $α$ -conotoxin ArIB
Commonly used antagonists	α 4β2: DHβE (K_{8} = 0.1 μ M; IC ₅₀ = 0.08–0.9 μ M), (+)-Tc (K_{8} = 3.2 μ M, IC ₅₀ = 34 μ M) α 4β4: DHβE (K_{8} = 0.01 μ M, IC ₅₀ = 0.19–1.2 μ M), (+)-Tc (K_{8} = 0.2 μ M, IC ₅₀ = 50 μ M)	α 6/ α 3β2β3 chimera: DHβE (IC $_{50} = 1.1~\mu M)$	$(\alpha 7)_5$: DH β E (IC $_{50} = 8-20~\mu$ M) $(\alpha 7)_5$: (+)-Tc (IC $_{50} = 3.1~\mu$ M)
Channel blockers	$\alpha 4\beta 2$: mecamylamine (IC $_{50}=3.6$ –4.1 $\mu M),$ hexamethonium (IC $_{50}=6.8$ –29 $\mu M)$ $\alpha 4\beta 4$: mecamylamine (IC $_{50}=0.33$ –4.9 $\mu M),$ hexamethonium (IC $_{50}=91$ $\mu M)$	$\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ chimera: mecamylamine (IC ₅₀ = 11 μM), hexamethonium	($\alpha 7$) ₅ : mecamylamine (IC ₅₀ = 15.6 μ M)
Radioligands (K_d)	[3 H]/[125 I]-epibatidine (hα4β2, 10–33 pM; hα4β4, 187 pM; rα4β2, 30–46 pM; rα4β4, 85–94 pM), [3 H]-cytisine (hα4β2, 430–630 pM; rα4β2, 100 pM; hα4β4 100 pM), [3 H]-nicotine (rα4β2, 400 pM)	[3 H]-epibatidine (native cα6 4 *, 35 pM), [125 I]-α-conotoxin MII	[3 H]-epibatidine (($h\alpha$ 7) $_5$, 0.6 pM) [3 H]/[125 I]- α -bungarotoxin (($h\alpha$ 7) $_5$, 0.7–5 nM), [3 H]-methyllycaconitine (native r α 7*, 1.9 nM), [3 H]-A-585539 (native h α 7, 70 pM; Anderson <i>et al.</i> , 2008), [3 H]AZ11637326 ($h\alpha$ 7) $_5$, 230 pM; Gordon <i>et al.</i> , 2010)
Functional characteristics	$\begin{array}{l} \alpha 4 \beta 2 \colon P_{\text{Ca}}/P_{\text{Na}} = 1.65, \; \textit{P}_{\text{f}} = 2.6 2.9\%; \\ \alpha 4 \beta 4 \colon \textit{P}_{\text{f}} = 1.5 3.0 \; \% \end{array}$	-	$P_{Ca}/P_{Na} = 6.6-20, P_f = 8.8-11.4\%$

Nomenclature	$\alpha 8*$ (avian)	α9*
Previous names	Neuronal, α-bungarotoxin-sensitive	-
Selective agonists	_	-
Selective antagonists	-	$(\alpha 9)_s$: α -bungarotoxin, strychnine, nicotine, muscarine $\alpha 9\alpha 10$: α -contoxin RgIA, α -bungarotoxin, strychnine, nicotine, muscarine
Commonly used antagonists	$(\alpha 8)_5$: α-bungarotoxin > atropine \geq (+)-Tc \geq strychnine	$(\alpha 9)_s$: α-bungarotoxin > methyllycaconitine > strychnine ~ tropisetron > (+)-Tc $\alpha 9\alpha 10$: α-bungarotoxin > tropisetron = strychnine > (+)-Tc
Channel blockers	_	-
Radioligands (K _d)	[3 H]-epibatidine ((α 8) $_5$, 0.2 nM) [3 H]/[125 I]- α -bungarotoxin (native α 8*, 5.5 nM)	[3 H]-methyllycaconitine (h α 9 α 10, 7.5 nM) [3 H]/[125 I]- α -bungarotoxin
Functional characteristics	-	($\alpha 9$) ₅ : $P_{Ca}/P_{Na}=9$; $\alpha 9\alpha 10$: $P_{Ca}/P_{Na}=9$, $P_f=22\%$

Commonly used agonists of nicotinic acetylcholine receptors that display limited discrimination in functional assays between receptor subtypes include A-85380, cytisine, DMPP, epibatidine, nicotine and the natural transmitter, ACh. A summary of their profile across differing receptors is provided in Gotti *et al.* (2006) and quantitative data across numerous assay systems are summarised in Jensen *et al.* (2005). Quantitative data presented in the table for commonly used antagonists and channel blockers for human receptors studied under voltage-clamp are from Buisson *et al.*, 1996, Chavez-Noriaga *et al.*, (1997), Papke *et al.* (2001, 2008), Paul *et al.* (2002) and Wu *et al.* (2006). Type I PAMs increase peak agonist-evoked responses but have little, or no, effect on the rate of desensitization of α 7 nicotinic ACh receptors whereas type II PAMs also cause a large reduction in desensitization (reviewed by Williams *et al.*, 2011).

\$120 Acetylcholine (nicotinic) Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Abbreviations: 4BP-TQS, 4-(4-bromophenyl)-3a,4,5,9b-tetrahydro-3H-cyclopenta[c]quinoline-8-sulfonamide; A-582941, 2-methyl-5-(6phenyl-pyridazin-3-yl)-octahydro-pyrrolo[3,4-c]pyrrole; A-585539, (15,4\$)-2,2-dimethyl-5-(6-phenylpyridazin-3-yl)-5-aza-2-azaniabicyclo[2,2,1] heptane; A-867744, 4-(5-(4-chlorophenyl)-2-methyl-3-propionyl-1*H*-pyrrol-1-yl)benzenesulfonamide; ABT-594, (R)-5-(2-azetidinylmethoxy)acetylcholine; AZ11637326, (5'-(2-fluoro[3,4,5(-3)H3]phenyl)-spiro[1-azabicyclo [2.2.2]octane-3,2'(3'H)-DHBE. DMPP. 1,1-dimethyl-4-phenylpiperazinium; JNJ-1930942. furo[2,3-b]pyridine, dihydro-\(\beta\)-erythroidine: 2-[[4-fluoro-3-(trifluoromethyl)phenyl]amino]-4-(4-pyridinyl)-5-thiazolemethanol; LY-2087101, see Broad et al. (2006) for structure; NS1738, 1-(5-chloro-2hydroxy-phenyl)-3-(2-chloro-5-trifluoromethyl-phenyl)-urea; NS9283, 3-(3-(pyridine-3-yl)-1,2,4-oxadiazol-5-yl)benzonitrile; PHA-543613, N-[(3R)-1-azabicyclo[2.2.2]oct-3-yl] furo[2,3-c] pyridine-5-carboxamide; PHA-709829, N-[(3R,5R)-1-azabicyclo[3.2.1]oct-3-yl] furo[2,3-c] pyridine-5-carboxamide; PHA-709829, N-[(3R,5R)-1-azabicyclo[3.2.1]oct-3-yl]5-carboxamide; PNU-120596, 1-(5-chloro-2,4-dimethoxy-phenyl)-3-(5-methyl-isoxazol-3-yl)-urea; PNU-282987 N-[(3R)-1-azabicyclo[2.2.2] oct-3-yl]-4-chlorobenzamide hydrochloride; PSAB-OFP, (R)-(-)-5'phenylspiro[1-azabicyclo[2.2.2] octane-3,2'-(3'H)furo[2,3-b]pyridine; TC-2403 (E)-N-methyl-4-(3-pyridinyl)-3-butene-1-amine;TC-2559, (E)-N-methyl-4-[3-(5-ethoxypyridin)yl]-3-buten-1-amine; N-[2-(pyridin-3-ylmethyl)-1-azabicyclo[2.2.2]oct-3-yl]-1-benzofuran-2-carboxamide; (+)-Tc, (+)-tubocurarine

Further Reading

Albuquerque EX, Pereira EF, Alkondon M, Rogers SW (2009). Mammalian nicotinic acetylcholine receptors: from structure to function. *Physiol Rev* 89: 73–120.

Araud T, Wonnacott S, Bertrand D (2010). Associated proteins: the universal toolbox controlling ligand gated ion channel function. *Biochem Pharmacol* 80: 160–169.

Arneric SP, Holladay M, Williams M (2007). Neuronal nicotinic receptors: a perspective on two decades of drug discovery research. *Biochem Pharmacol* 74: 1092–1101.

Arias HR (2010). Positive and negative modulation of nicotinic receptors. Adv Protein Chem Struct Biol 80: 153-203.

Balfour DJK (2009). The neuronal pathways mediating the behavioral and addictive properties of nicotine. *Handb Exp Pharmacol* **192**: 209–233. Benowitz NL (2009). Pharmacology of nicotine: addiction, smoking-induced disease, and therapeutics. *Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol* **49**: 57–71. Champtiaux N, Changeux J-P (2004). Knockout and knockin mice to investigate the role of nicotinic receptors in the central nervous system. *Prog Brain Res* **145**: 235–251.

Changeux JP, Taly A (2008). Nicotinic receptors, allosteric proteins and medicine. Trends Mol Med 14: 93-102.

Collingridge GL, Olsen RW, Peters J, Spedding M (2009). A nomenclature for ligand-gated ion channels. Neuropharmacology 56: 2-5.

Dajas-Bailador F, Wonnacott S (2004). Nicotinic acetylcholine receptors and the regulation of neuronal signalling. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 25: 317–324.

D'hoedt D, Bertrand D (2009). Nicotinic acetylcholine receptors: an overview on drug discovery. Expert Opin Ther Targets 13: 395–411.

Faghih R, Gopalakrishnan M, Briggs CA (2008). Allosteric modulators of the α 7 nicotinic acetylcholine receptor. *J Med Chem* **51**: 701–712. Fucile S (2004). Ca²⁺-permeability of nicotinic acetylcholine receptors. *Cell Calcium* **35**: 1–8.

Gotti C, Zoli M, Clementi F (2006). Brain nicotinic acetylcholine receptors: native subtypes and their relevance. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 27: 482–491. Gotti C, Clementi F, Fornari A, Gaimarri A, Guiducci S, Manfredi I *et al.* (2009). Structural and functional diversity of native brain neuronal nicotinic receptors. *Biochem Pharmacol* 78: 703–711.

Hogg RC, Bertrand D (2004). Nicotinic acetylcholine receptors as drug targets. Curr Drug Targets CNS Neurol Disord 3: 123-130.

Hogg RC, Raggenbass M, Bertrand D (2003). Nicotinic acetylcholine receptors: from structure to brain function. *Rev Physiol Biochem Pharmacol* 147: 1–46.

Jensen AA, Frøland B, Liljefors T, Krogagaard-Larsen P. (2005). Neuronal nicotinic acetylcholine receptors: structural revelations, target identifications, and therapeutic inspirations. *J Med Chem* 48: 4705–4745.

Jones AK, Buckingham SD, Sattelle DB (2010). Proteins interacting with nicotinic acetylcholine receptors: expanding functional and therapeutic horizons. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 31: 455–462.

Kalamida D, Poulas K, Avramopoulou V, Fostieri E, Lagoumintzis G, Lazaridis K et al. (2007). Muscle and neuronal nicotinic acetylcholine receptors. Structure, function and pathogenicity. FEBS J 274: 3799–3845.

Letchworth SR, Whiteaker P (2011). Progress and challenges in the study of α6-containing nicotinic acetylcholine receptors. *Biochem Pharmacol* 82: 862–872

Lukas RJ, Changeux J-P, Le Novere N, Albuquerque EX, Balfour DJ, Berg DK et al. (1999). International Union of Pharmacology. XX. Current status of the nomenclature for nicotinic acetylcholine receptors and their subunits. *Pharmacol Rev* 51: 397–401.

Millar NS (2008). RIC-3: a nicotinic acetylcholine receptor chaperone. Br | Pharmacol 153 (Suppl. 1): \$177–\$183.

Millar NS, Gotti C (2009). Diversity of vertebrate nicotinic acetylcholine receptors. Neuropharmacology 56: 237-246.

Millar NS, Harkness PC (2008). Assembly and trafficking of nicotinic acetylcholine receptors. Mol Membr Biol 25: 279–292.

Miwa JM, Freedman R, Lester HA (2011). Neural systems governed by nicotinic acetylcholine receptors: emerging hypotheses. *Neuron* **70**: 20–33. Olivera BM, Quik M, Vincler M, MacIntosh JM (2008). Subtype-selective conopeptides targeted to nicotinic receptors. *Channels (Austin)* **2**: 143–152.

Pandya A, Yakel JL (2011). Allosteric modulators of the $\alpha 4\beta 2$ subtype of neuronal nicotinic acetylcholine receptors. *Biochem Pharmacol* 82: 862–872.

Romanelli MN, Gratteri P, Guandalini L, Martini E, Bonaccini C, Gualtieri F (2007). Central nicotinic receptors: structure, function, ligands, and therapeutic potential. *ChemMedChem* 2: 746–767.

Rucktooa P, Smit AB, Sixma TK (2009). Insight in nAChR subtype selectivity from AChBP crystal structures. *Biochem Pharmacol* **78**: 777–787. Sharma G, Vijayaraghavan S (2008). Nicotinic receptors containing the α7 subunit: a model for rational drug design. *Curr Med Chem* **15**: 2921–2932.

Steinlein OK, Bertrand D (2008). Neuronal nicotinic acetylcholine receptors: from the genetic analysis to neurological diseases. *Biochem Pharmacol* **76**: 1175–1183.

Sine SM, Engel AG (2006). Recent advances in Cys-loop receptor structure and function. Nature 440: 448-455.

Taly A, Corringer PJ, Guedin D, Lestage P, Changeux JP (2009). Nicotinic receptors: allosteric transitions and therapeutic targets in the nervous system. *Nat Rev Drug Discov* 8: 733–750.

Tsetlin V, Hucho F (2009). Nicotinic acetylcholine receptors at atomic resolution. Curr Opin Pharmacol 9: 306-310.

Tsetlin V, Utkin Y, Kasheverov I (2009). Polypeptide and peptide toxins, magnifying lenses for binding sites in nicotinic acetylcholine receptors. *Biochem Pharmacol* 78: 720–731.

Tsetlin V, Kuzmin D, Kasheverov I (2011). Assembly of nicotinic and other Cys-loop receptors. J Neurochem 116: 734-741.

Unwin N (2005). Refined structure of the nicotinic acetylcholine receptor at 4Å resolution. J Mol Biol 346: 967–989.

Williams DK, Wang J, Papke RL (2011). Positive allosteric modulators as an approach to nicotinic acetylcholine receptor-targeted therapeutics: advantages and limitations. *Biochem Pharmacol* 82: 915–930.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Acetylcholine (nicotinic) \$121

Yang KC, Jin GZ, Wu J (2009). Mysterious α6-containing nAChRs: function, pharmacology, and pathophysiology. *Acta Pharmacol Sin* 30: 740–751.

Wu J, Lukas RJ (2011). Naturally expressed nicotinic acetylcholine receptor subtypes. Biochem Pharmacol 82: 800-807.

Zouridakis M, Zisimopoulou P, Poulas K, Tzartos SJ (2009). Recent advances in understanding the structure of nicotinic acetylcholine receptors. *IUBMB Life* 61: 407–423.

References

Acker BA et al. (2008). Bioorg Med Chem Lett 18: 3611–3625.
Anderson DJ et al. (2008). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 324: 179–187.
Bitner RS et al. (2007). J Neurosci 27: 10578–10587.
Bodnar AL et al. (2005). J Med Chem 48: 905–908.
Broad LM et al. (2006). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 318: 1108–1117.
Buisson B et al. (1996). J Neurosci 16: 7880–7891.
Celie PH et al. (2004). Neuron 25: 907–914.
Chavez-Noriaga LE et al. (1997). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 280: 346–356.
Chen Y et al. (2003). Neuropharmacology 45: 334–344.
Dellisanti CD et al. (2007). Nat Neurosci 10: 953–962.
Dinklo T et al. (2011). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 336: 560–574.
Gill JK et al. (2011). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 108: 5867–5872.
Gordon JC et al. (2010). Eur J Pharmacol 645: 63–69.

Hauser TA et al. (2009). Biochem Pharmacol 78: 803–812. Hibbs RE, Gouaux E (2011). Nature 474: 54–60. Hurst RS et al. (2005). J Neurosci 25: 4396–4405. Lee CH et al. (2011). Biochem Pharmacol 82: 959–966. Malysz J et al. (2009). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 330: 257–267. Papke RL et al. (2000). J Neurochem 75: 204–216. Papke RL et al. (2001). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 297: 646–656. Papke RL et al. (2008). Neuropharmacology 54: 1189–1200. Paul M et al. (2002). Anesth Analg 94: 597–603. Timmermann DB et al. (2007). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 323: 294–307. Wishka DG et al. (2006). J Med Chem 49: 4425–4436. Wu J et al. (2006). J Physiol 576: 103–118. Young GT et al. (2008). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 105: 14686–14691.

GABA_A (γ-aminobutyric acid)

Overview: The GABA_A receptor is a ligand-gated ion channel of the Cys-loop family that includes the nicotinic acetylcholine, 5-HT₃ and strychnine-sensitive glycine receptors. GABA_A receptor-mediated inhibition within the CNS occurs by fast synaptic transmission, sustained tonic inhibition and temporally intermediate events that have been termed 'GABA_A, slow' (Campogna and Pearce, 2011). GABA_A receptors exist as pentamers of 4TM subunits that form an intrinsic anion selective channel. Sequences of six α, three β, three γ, one δ, three ρ, one ε, one π and one θ GABA_A receptor subunits (Ensembl gene family ID ENSF000000000053) have been reported in mammals (Korpi *et al.*, 2002; Whiting, 2003; Sieghart, 2006; Olsen and Sieghart, 2008, 2009). The π-subunit is restricted to reproductive tissue. Alternatively spliced versions of many subunits exist (*e.g.* α4- and α6- (both not functional) α5-, β2-, β3- and γ2), along with RNA editing of the α3 subunit (Daniel and Ohman, 2009). The three ρ-subunits, (ρ1-3) function as either homo- or hetero-oligomeric assemblies (Zhang *et al.*, 2001; Chebib, 2004). Receptors formed from p-subunits, because of their distinctive pharmacology that includes insensitivity to bicuculline, benzodiazepines and barbiturates, have sometimes been termed GABA_C receptors (Zhang *et al.*, 2001), but they are classified as GABA_A receptors by NC-IUPHAR on the basis of structural and functional criteria (Barnard *et al.*, 1998; Olsen and Sieghart, 2008, 2009).

Many GABA_A receptor subtypes contain α -, β - and γ -subunits with the likely stoichiometry 2α .2 β .1 γ (Korpi *et al.*, 2002, Olsen and Sieghart, 2008). It is thought that the majority of GABA_A receptors harbour a single type of α - and β -subunit variant. The α 1 β 2 γ 2 hetero-oligomer constitutes the largest population of GABA_A receptors in the CNS, followed by the α 2 β 3 γ 2 and α 3 β 3 γ 2 isoforms. Receptors that incorporate the α 4- α 5-or α 6-subunit, or the β 1-, γ 1-, γ 3-, δ -, ϵ - and θ -subunits, are less numerous, but they may nonetheless serve important functions. For example, extrasynaptically located receptors that contain α 6- and δ -subunits in cerebellar granule cells, or an α 4- and δ -subunit in dentate gyrus granule cells and thalamic neurones, mediate a tonic current that is important for neuronal excitability in response to ambient concentrations of GABA (see Mody and Pearce, 2004; Semyanov *et al.*, 2004; Farrant and Nusser, 2005; Belelli *et al.*, 2009). GABA binding occurs at the β +/ α - subunit interface and the homologous γ +/ α - subunits interface creates the benzodiazepine site. A second site for benzodiazepine binding has recently been postulated to occur at the α +/ β - interface (Ramerstorfer *et al.*, 2011; reviewed by Sigel and Lüscher, 2011). The particular α -and γ -subunit isoforms exhibit marked effects on recognition and/or efficacy at the benzodiazepine site. Thus, receptors incorporating either α 4- or α 6-subunits are not recognised by 'classical' benzodiazepines, such as flunitrazepam (but see You *et al.*, 2010). The trafficking, cell surface expression, internalisation and function of GABA_A receptors and their subunits are discussed in detail in several recent reviews (Chen and Olsen, 2007; Jacob *et al.*, 2001; Vithlani *et al.*, 2011) but one point worthy of note is that receptors incorporating the γ 2 subunit (except when associated with α 5) cluster at the postsynaptic membrane (but may distribute dynamically betw

NC-IUPHAR (Barnard *et al.* 1998; Olsen and Sieghart, 2008) class GABA $_{\rm A}$ receptors according to their subunit structure, pharmacology and receptor function. Currently, eleven native GABA $_{\rm A}$ receptors are classed as conclusively identified (*i.e.*, α 1β2 γ 2, α 1β γ 2, α 4β γ 2, α 6β γ 3, α 5β γ 2, α 6β γ 2, α 6β2δ, α 6β3δ and ρ) with further receptor isoforms occurring with high probability, or only tentatively (Olsen and Sieghart, 2008, 2009). It is beyond the scope of this Guide to discuss the pharmacology of individual GABA $_{\rm A}$ receptor isoforms in detail; such information can be gleaned in the reviews by Barnard *et al.* (1998), Frolund *et al.* (2002), Korpi *et al.* (2002), Krogsgaard-Larsen *et al.* (2002), Johnston (2005), Sieghart (2006), Möhler (2007), Olsen and Sieghart (2008, 2009) and Atack (2008, 2010). Agents that discriminate between α -subunit isoforms are noted in the table and additional agents that demonstrate selectivity between receptor isoforms, for example *via* β -subunit selectivity, are indicated in the text below. The distinctive agonist and antagonist pharmacology of ρ receptors is summarised in the table and additional aspects are reviewed by Zhang *et al.* (2001), Chebib (2004), Johnston *et al.* (2010) and Ng *et al.* (2011).

Nomenclature

 $GABA_A$

Ensembl Gene family ID Selective agonists (GABA site) ENSF00000000053

Selective antagonists (GABA site)

Muscimol (partial agonist at ρ subunits), isoguvacine (partial agonist at ρ subunits), THIP (gaboxadol; δ subunit preferring, antagonist at ρ subunits), piperidine-4-sulphonic acid (low efficacy at α 4 and α 6 subunits, antagonist at ρ subunits), isonipecotic acid (α 4 and α 6 subunit selective *via* relatively high efficacy, antagonist at ρ subunits), (\pm)-*cis*-2-CAMP (ρ subunit selective), 5-MeIAA (ρ subunit selective)

Selective agonists (positive allosteric modulators) (benzodiazepine site)

Bicuculline (not active at ρ subunits), gabazine (SR95531; weakly active on ρ subunits), TPMPA (ρ subunit selective), *cis*- and *trans*-3-ACPBPA (ρ subunit selective), Aza-THIP (ρ subunit selective)

Selective antagonists (neutral allosteric modulators) (benzodiazepine site) Diazepam (not α 4- or α 6-subunits), flunitrazepam (not α 4- or α 6-subunits), bretazenil (including α 4- and α 6-subunits, zolpidem, zaleplon and indiplon (α 1 subunit selective via high affinity), ocinaplon (α 1 subunit selective as essentially a full agonist versus partial agonist at α 2, α 3 and α 5 subunit-containing receptors), L838417 (α 2, α 3 and α 5 subunit selective as a partial agonist versus antagonist at α 1-subunit-containing receptors), R0154513 (selective for α 4- and α 6-subunit-containing receptors as an agonist versus inverse agonist at α 1-, α 2-, α 3- and α 5-subunit-containing receptors), TP003 (selective for α 3-subunit-containing receptors as a high efficacy partial agonist versus essentially antagonist activity at α 1- α 2- and α 5-subunit-containing receptors), TPA023 (selective for α 2- and α 3-subunit-containing receptors as a low efficacy partial agonist versus essentially antagonist activity at α 1- and α 5-subunit-containing receptors)

Inverse agonists (negative allosteric modulators) (benzodiazepine site)

Flumazenil (low affinity for α 4- or α 6-subunits and partial agonist), ZK93426, L838417 (α 1 subunit selective via antagonist activity versus partial agonist at α 2-, α 3- and α 5-subunit subunit containing receptors)

DMCM, Ro194603, α 3IA (α 3 selective via higher affinity and greater inverse agonist activity versus α 1, α 2 and α 5-subunit containing receptors), L655708, RY024 (α 5 selective via high affinity), α 5IA, MRK016 (α 5 selective versus α 1, α 2 and α 3-subunit containing receptors via greater inverse agonist efficacy), Ro4938581 (α 5 selective versus α 1, α 2 and α 3-subunit containing receptors via higher affinity and greater inverse agonist activity)

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA GABA_A (y-aminobutyric acid) \$123

Nomenclature GABA_A

Endogenous allosteric 5α -pregnan- 3α -ol-20-one (potentiation), tetrahydrodeoxycorticosterone (potentiation), Zn^{2+} (potent modulators inhibition of receptors formed from binary combinations of α and β subunits, incorporation of a δ - o

inhibition of receptors formed from binary combinations of α and β subunits, incorporation of a δ - or γ -subunit causes a modest, or pronounced, reduction in inhibitory potency, respectively, Krishek *et al.*,

1998), extracellular protons (subunit dependent activity, Krishek et al., 1996)

Channel blockers Picrotoxin, TBPS

Probes

GABA site [3H]Muscimol, [3H]gabazine (SR95531)

benzodiazepine site [3 H]Flunitrazepam (not α 4- or α 6-subunit), [3 H]zolpidem (α 1-subunit selective), [3 H]L655708 (α 5-subunit

selective), [${}^{3}H$]RY80 (α 5-subunit selective), [${}^{3}H$]Ro154513 [selectively labels α 4- and α 6-subunit-containing receptors in the presence of a saturating concentration of a 'classical' benzodiazepine (*e.g.*, diazepam)],

[3 H]CGS8216, [11 C]flumazenil (PET ligand with low affinity for α 4- or α 6-subunits),

[18F]fluoroethylflumazenil (PET ligand)

Anion channel [35S]TBPS

The potency and efficacy of many GABA agonists varies between receptor GABA_A receptor isoforms (Frolund et al., 2002; Krogsgaard-Larsen et al., 2002). For example, THIP (gaboxadol) is a partial agonist at receptors with the subunit composition $\alpha 4\beta 3\gamma 2$, but elicits currents in excess of those evoked by GABA at the α 483 δ receptor where GABA itself is a low efficacy agonist (Brown et al., 2002; Bianchi and MacDonald, 2003). The antagonists bicuculline and gabazine differ in their ability to suppress spontaneous openings of the GABAA receptor, the former being more effective (Thompson et al. 1999). The presence of the γ subunit within the heterotrimeric complex reduces the potency and efficacy of agonists (Stórustovu and Ebert, 2006). The GABA_A receptor contains distinct allosteric sites that bind barbiturates and endogenous (e.g., 5α-pregnan-3αol-20-one) and synthetic (e.g., alphaxalone) neuroactive steroids in a diastereo- or enantio-selective manner (see Belelli and Lambert 2005; Herd et al., 2007; Hosie et al., 2007; Veleiro and Burton, 2009). Picrotoxinin and TBPS act at an allosteric site within the chloride channel pore to negatively regulate channel activity; negative allosteric regulation by γ-butyrolactone derivatives also involves the picrotoxinin site, whereas positive allosteric regulation by such compounds is proposed to occur at a distinct locus. Many intravenous (e.g., etomidate, propofol) and inhalational (e.g., halothane, isoflurane) anaesthetics and alcohols also exert a regulatory influence upon GABAA receptor activity (Bonin and Orser, 2008; Olsen and Li, 2011). Specific amino acid residues within GABA_A receptor α - and β -subunits that influence allosteric regulation by anaesthetic and non-anaesthetic compounds have been identified (Hemmings et al., 2005; Hosie et al., 2007). Photoaffinity labelling of distinct amino acid residues within purified GABA_A receptors by the etomidate derivative, [3H]-azietomidate, has also been demonstrated (Li et al., 2006) and this binding subject to positive allosteric regulation by anaesthetic steroids (Li et al., 2009). An array of natural products including flavonoid and terpenoid compounds exert varied actions at GABAA receptors (reviewed in detail by Johnston, 2005).

In addition to the agents listed in the table, modulators of GABA_A receptor activity that exhibit subunit dependent activity include: salicylidene salicylhydrazide [negative allosteric modulator selective for β 1- versus β 2-, or β 3-subunit-containing receptors (Thompson et al., 2004)]; fragrent dioxane derivatives [positive allosteric modulators selective for β 1- versus β 2-, or β 3-subunit-containing receptors (Sergeeva et al., 2010)]; loreclezole, etomidate, tracazolate mefenamic acid, etifoxine, stiripentol, valerinic acid amide [positive allosteric modulators with selectivity for β 2/ β 3- over β 1-subunit-containing receptors, see Korpi et al. (2002), Fisher (2009), Khom et al., (2010)]; tracazolate [intrinsic efficacy, i.e., potentiation, or inhibition, is dependent upon the identity of the γ 1-3-, δ -, or e-subunit co-assembed with α 1- and β 1-subunits (Thompson et al., 2002)]; amiloride [selective blockade of receptors containing an α 6-subunit (Fisher, 2002)]; furosemide [selective blockade of receptors containing an α 6-subunit co-assembled with β 2/ β 3-, but not β 1-subunit (see Korpi et al. (2002)]; La³⁺ [potentiates responses mediated by α 1 β 3 γ 2L receptors, weakly inhibits α 6 β 3 γ 2L receptors, and strongly blocks α 6 β 3 δ 3 and α 4 β 3 δ 3 receptors (Saxena et al., 1997, Brown et al., 2002)]; ethanol [selectively potentiates responses mediated by α 4 β 3 δ 3 and α 6 β 3 δ 3 receptors versus receptors in which β 2 replaces β 3, or γ replaces δ 6 (Wallner et al., 2009)]. It should be noted that the apparent selectivity of some positive allosteric modulators (e.g., neurosteroids such as $\delta \alpha$ -pregnan-3 α -ol-20-one for δ -subunit-containing receptors (e.g., α 1 β 3 δ 3) may be a consequence of the unusually low efficacy of GABA at this receptor isoform (Bianchi and MacDonald, 2003; Belelli et al., 2009).

Abbreviations: 3-ACPBPA, 3-amino-cyclopentenylbutylphosphonic acid; 5-Me-IAA, 5-methy-1H-imidazole-4-acetic acid; (±)-cis-2-CAMP, (±)-cis-2-aminomethylcyclopropane carboxylic acid; α3IA, 6-(4-pyridyl)-5-(4-methoxyphenyl)-3-carbomethoxy-1-methyl-1H-pyridin-2-one; α5ΙΑ, 3-(5-methylisoxazol-3-yl)-6-[(1-methyl-1,2,3-triazol-4-yl)methyloxy]-1,2,4-triazolo[3,4-a]phthalazine; CACA, cis-aminocrotonic acid; CGS8216, 2-phenylpyrazolo[4,3-c]quinolin-3(5)-one; DMCM, methy-6,7-dimethoxy-4-ethyl-β-carboline-3-carboxylate; DS1, 4-chloro-N-[6,8-dimethoxy-4-ethyl-β-carboline-3-carboxylate; DS1, 4-chloro-N-[6,8-dimethoxy-4-ethyl-β-carboxylate; DS1, 4-chloro-N-[6,8-dimethoxy-4-ethy dibromo-2-(2-thienyl)imidazo[1,2-a]pyridine-3-yl benzamide; DS2, 4-chloro-N-[2-(2-thienyl)imidazo[1,2-a]pyridine-3-yl benzamide; L655708, $ethyl(s)-(11,12,13,13a-tetrahydro-7-methoxy-9-oxo)-imidazo[1,5-a]pyrrolo[2,1-c][1,4] benzodiazepine-1-carboxylate; \\ \textbf{L838417}, \\ \textit{7-tert-butyl-3-tetrahydro-7-methoxy-9-oxo} - \textbf{1}[1,5-a]pyrrolo[2,1-c][1,4] \\ \textbf{1}[1,4] \\ \textbf{1}[1,4] \\ \textbf{2}[1,4] \\ \textbf{3}[1,4] \\ \textbf{3}[1,4] \\ \textbf{4}[1,4] \\ \textbf{4}[1,4] \\ \textbf{5}[1,4] \\ \textbf{5}[1,4]$ (2,5-difluoro-phenyl)-6-(2-methyl-2*H*-[1,2,4]triazol-3-ylmethoxy)-[1,2,4]triazolo[4,3-b]pyridazine; MRK016, 3-tert-butyl-7-(5-methylisoxazol-Ro154513, ethyl-8-azido-5,6-dihydro-5-methyl-6-oxo-4H-3-yl)-2-(1-methyl-1H-1,2,4-triazol-5-ylmethoxy)-pyrazolo[1,5-d]-[1,2,4]triazine; imidazo[1,5-a][1,4] benzodiazepine-3-carboxylate; Ro194603, imidazo[1,5-a]1,4-thienodiazepinone; Ro4938581, 3-bromo-10-difluoromethyl-9*H*-imidazo[1,5-a][1,2,4]triazolo[1,5-d][1,4]benzodiazepine; SR95531, 2-(3'-carboxy-2'-propyl)-3-amino-6-p-methoxyphenylpyridazinium bromide; TBPS, tert-butylbicyclophosphorothionate; TP003, 4,2'-difluro-5'-[8-fluro-7-(1-hydroxy-1-methylethyl)imidazo[1,2-á]pyridine-3yl]biphenyl-2-carbonitrile; TPA023, 7-(1,1-dimethylethyl)-6-(2-ethyl-2H-1,2,4-triazol-3-ylmethoxy)-3-(2-fluorphenyl)-1,2,4-triazolo[4,3b]pyridazine; TPMPA, (1,2,5,6-tetrahydropyridine-4-yl)methylphosphinic acid; RY024, tert-butyl-8-ethynyl-5,6-dihydro-5-methyl-6-oxo-4H $imidazol[1,5-\alpha][1,4] benzodiazepine-3-carboxylate; RY80, ethyl-8-acetylene-5, 6-dihydro-5-methyl-6-oxo-4H-imidazo[1,5a][1,4] benzodiazepine-3-carboxylate; RY80, ethyl-8-acetylene-5, 6-dihydro-5-methyl-6-oxo-4H-imidazo[1,5a][$ 3-carboxylate; ZK93423, 6-benzyloxy-4-methoxymethy-β-carboline-3-carboxylate ethyl ester; ZK93426, 5-isopropyl-4-methyl-β-carboline-3carboxylate ethyl ester

Further Reading

Atack JR (2008). GABA $_{A}$ receptor subtype-selective efficacy: TPA023, an $\alpha 2/\alpha 3$ selective non-sedating anxiolytic and $\alpha 5$ IA, an $\alpha 5$ selective cognition enhancer. CNS Neurosci Ther 14: 25–35.

Atack JR (2010). GABA_A receptor $\alpha 2/\alpha 3$ subtype-selective modulators as potential nonsedating anxiolytics. Curr Top Behav Neurosci 2: 331–360.

Barnard EA, Skolnick P, Olsen RW, Mohler H, Sieghart W, Biggio G et al. (1998). International Union of Pharmacology. XV. Subtypes of γ -aminobutyric acid, receptors: classification on the basis of subunit structure and receptor function *Pharmacol Rev* 50: 291–313.

Belelli D, Lambert JJ (2005). Neurosteroids: endogenous regulators of the GABAA receptor. Nat Rev Neurosci 6: 565-575.

Belelli D, Harrison NL, Maguire J, Macdonald RL, Walker MC, Cope DW (2009). Extrasynaptic GABA_A receptors: form, pharmacology, and function. *J Neurosci* 29: 12757–12763.

Bonin RP, Orser BA (2008). GABA_A receptor subtypes underlying general anesthesia. Pharmacol Biochem Behav 90: 105-112.

Bowery NG, Smart TG (2006). GABA and glycine as neurotransmitters: a brief history. Br J Pharmacol 147 (Suppl. 1): \$109-\$119.

Capogna M, Pearce RA (2011). GABA A,slow: causes and consequences. Trends Neurosci 34: 101-112.

Chebib M (2004). GABAC receptor ion channels. Clin Exp Pharmacol Physiol 31: 800-804.

Daniel C, Ohman M (2009). RNA editing and its impact on GABA_Λ receptor function. Biochem Soc Trans 37: 1399–1403.

Chen ZW, Olsen RW (2007). GABA_A receptor associated proteins: a key factor regulating GABA_A receptor function. *J Neurochem* **100**: 279–294. D'Hulst C, Atack JR, Kooy RF (2009). The complexity of the GABA_A receptor shapes unique pharmacological properties. *Drug Discov Today* **14**: 866–875.

Farrant M, Nusser Z. (2005). Variations on an inhibitory theme: phasic and tonic activation of GABA $_{\Lambda}$ receptors. *Nat Rev Neurosci* 6: 215–229. Farrant M, Kaila K (2007). The cellular, molecular and ionic basis of GABA $_{\Lambda}$ receptor signalling. *Prog Brain Res* 160: 59–87.

Frolund B, Ebert B, Kristiansen U, Liljefors T, Krogsgaard-Larsen P (2002). GABA_A receptor ligands and their therapeutic potentials. *Curr Top Med Chem* 2: 817–832.

Galanopoulou AS (2010). Mutations affecting GABAergic signaling in seizures and epilepsy. Pflugers Arch 460: 505-523.

Hanchar HJ, Wallner M, Olsen RW (2004). Alcohol effects on γ-aminobutyric acid type A receptors: are extrasynaptic receptors the answer? *Life Sci* 76: 1–8.

Hemmings HC, Akabas MH, Goldstein PA, Trudell JR, Orser BA, Harrison NL (2005). Emerging molecular mechanisms of general anesthetic action. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 26: 503–510.

Herd MB, Belelli D, Lambert JJ (2007). Neurosteroid modulation of synaptic and extrasynaptic GABA_A receptors. Pharmacol Ther 116: 20–34.

Hosie AM, Wilkins ME, Smart TG (2007). Neurosteroid binding sites on GABA_A receptors. Pharmacol Ther 116: 7–19.

Jacob TC, Moss SJ, Jurd R (2008). GABA_A receptor trafficking and its role in the dynamic modulation of neuronal inhibition. *Nat Rev Neurosci* 9: 331–343.

Johnston GA (2005). GABAA receptor channel pharmacology. Curr Pharm Des 11: 1867-1885.

Johnston GA, Chebib M, Hanrahan JR, Mewett KN (2010). Neurochemicals for the investigation of GABA_C receptors. *Neurochem Res* 35: 1970–1977.

Korpi ER, Grunder G, Luddens H (2002). Drug interactions at GABA_A receptors. Prog Neurobiol 67: 113-159.

Korpi ER, Debus F, Linden AM, Malecot C, Leppa E, Vekovischeva O *et al.* (2007). Does ethanol act preferentially *via* selected brain GABA_A receptor subtypes? The current evidence is ambiguous. *Alcohol* **41**: 163–176.

Krogsgaard-Larsen P, Frolund B, Liljefors T (2002). Specific GABA_A agonists and partial agonists. Chem Rec 2: 419–430.

Luscher B, Fuchs T, Kilpatrick CL (2011). GABA_A receptor trafficking-mediated plasticity of inhibitory synapses. Neuron 70: 385–409.

Mody I, Pearce RA (2004). Diversity of inhibitory neurotransmission through GABA_Λ receptors. Trends Neurosci 27: 569–575.

Möhler H (2006). GABA_A receptors in central nervous system disease: anxiety, epilepsy, and insomnia. *J Recept Signal Transduct Res* **26**: 731–740. Möhler H (2007). Molecular regulation of cognitive functions and developmental plasticity: impact of GABA_A receptors. *J Neurochem* **102**: 1–12. Möhler H, Fritschy JM, Vogt K, Crestani F, Rudolph U (2005). Pathophysiology and pharmacology of GABA_A receptors. *Handb Exp Pharmacol* **169**: 225–247

Munro G, Ahring PK, Mirza NR (2009). Developing analgesics by enhancing spinal inhibition after injury: GABA_A receptor subtypes as novel targets. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 30: 453–459.

Ng CK, Kim HL, Gavande N, Yamamoto I, Kumar RJ, Mewett KN *et al.* (2011). Medicinal chemistry of ρ GABA_C receptors. *Future Med Chem* 3: 197–209.

Nutt DJ, Stahl SM (2010). Searching for perfect sleep: the continuing evolution of GABA_A receptor modulators as hypnotics. *J Psychopharmacol* **24**: 1601–1612.

Olsen RW, Li GD (2011). GABA_A receptors as molecular targets of general anesthetics: identification of binding sites provides clues to allosteric modulation. *Can J Anaesth* 58: 206–215.

Olsen RW, Sieghart W (2008). IUPHAR, LXX. Subtypes of γ-aminobutyric acid_A receptors: classification on the basis of subunit composition, pharmacology, and function. Update. *Pharmacol Rev* **60**: 243–260.

Olsen RW, Sieghart, W (2009). GABA_A receptors: subtypes provide diversity of function and pharmacology. Neuropharmacology 56: 141–148.

Olsen RW, Chang CS, Li G, Hanchar HJ, Wallner M (2004). Fishing for allosteric sites on GABA_A receptors. *Biochem Pharmacol* **68**: 1675–1684. Rudolph U, Möhler H (2004). Analysis of GABA_A receptor function and dissection of the pharmacology of benzodiazepines and general anesthetics through mouse genetics. *Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol* **44**: 475–498.

Rudolph U, Möhler H (2006). GABA-based therapeutic approaches: GABA_A receptor subtype functions. Curr Opin Pharmacol 6: 18–23.

Semyanov A, Walker MC, Kullmann DM, Silver RA (2004). Tonically active GABA_A receptors: modulating gain and maintaining the tone. *Trends Neurosci* 27: 263–269.

Sieghart W (2006). Structure, pharmacology, and function of GABA_A receptor subtypes. Adv Pharmacol 54: 231–263.

Sigel E, Lüscher BP (2011). A closer look at the high affinity benzodiazepine binding site on GABA_A receptors. Curr Top Med Chem 11: 241–246. Tan KR, Rudolph U, Lüscher C (2011). Hooked on benzodiazepines: GABA_A receptor subtypes and addiction. Trends Neurosci 34: 188–197.

Veleiro AS, Burton G (2009). Structure-activity relationships of neuroactive steroids acting on the GABA_A receptor. *Curr Med Chem* **16**: 455–472. Vithlani M, Terunuma M, Moss SJ (2011). The dynamic modulation of GABA_A receptor trafficking and its role in regulating the plasticity of inhibitory synapses. *Physiol Rev* **91**: 1009–1022.

Wallner M, Hanchar HJ, Olsen RW (2006). Low dose acute alcohol effects on GABA_A receptor subtypes. Pharmacol Ther 112: 513–528.

Whiting PJ (2003). The GABA_A receptor gene family: new opportunities for drug development. Curr Opin Drug Discov Devel 6: 648–657.

Zeller A, Jurd R, Lambert S, Arras M, Drexler B, Grashoff C et al. (2008). Inhibitory ligand-gated ion channels as substrates for general anesthetic actions. *Handb Exp Pharmacol* 182: 31–51.

Zhang D, Pan ZH, Awobuluyi M, Lipton SA (2001). Structure and function of GABA_C receptors: a comparison of native versus recombinant receptors. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 22: 121–132.

References

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA GABA_A (γ-aminobutyric acid) S125

Khom S *et al.* (2010). Br J Pharmacol **161**: 65–78. Krishek BJ *et al.* (1996). J Physiol **492**: 431–443. Krishek BJ *et al.* (1998). J Physiol **507**: 639–652. Li GD *et al.* (2006). J Neurosci **26**: 11599–11605. Li GD *et al.* (2009). J Biol Chem **284**: 11771–11775. Ramerstorfer J *et al.* (2011). J Neurosci **31**: 870–877. Saxena NC *et al.* (1997). Mol Pharmacol **51**: 328–335.

Sergeeva OA et al. (2010). J Biol Chem 285: 23985–23993. Stórustovu SI, Ebert B (2006). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 316: 3151–3159. Thompson SA et al. (1999). Br J Pharmacol 127: 1349–1358. Thompson SA. et al. (2002). Mol Pharmacol 61: 861–869. Thompson SA et al. (2004). Br J Pharmacol 142: 97–106. Wafford KA et al. (2009). Neuropharmacology 56: 182–189. You H et al. (2010). Neuropharmacology 59: 527–533. \$126 Glutamate (ionotropic) Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Glutamate (ionotropic)

Overview: The ionotropic glutamate receptors comprise members of the NMDA (*N*-methyl-D-aspartate), AMPA (α -amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazoleproprionic acid) and kainate receptor classes, named originally according to their preferred, synthetic, agonist (Dingledine et al., 1999; Lodge, 2009; Traynelis et al., 2010). Receptor heterogeneity within each class arises from the homo-oligomeric, or hetero-oligomeric, assembly of distinct subunits into cation-selective tetramers. Each subunit of the tetrameric complex comprises an extracellular amino terminal domain (ATD), an extracellular ligand binding domain (LBD), a transmembrane domain (TMD) composed of three membrane spans (M1, M3 and M4) with a channel lining re-entrant 'p-loop' (M2) located between M1 and M3 and an intracellular carboxy- terminal domain (CTD) (see Mayer, 2006; Kaczor and Matosiuk, 2010; Nakagawa, 2010; Traynelis et al., 2010). The X-ray structure of a homomeric ionotropic glutamate receptor (GluA2 - see below) has recently been solved at 3.6Å resolution (Sobolevsky et al., 2009) and although providing the most complete structural information current available may not representative of the subunit arrangement of, for example, the heteromeric NMDA receptors (Karakas et al., 2011). It is beyond the scope of this supplement to discuss the pharmacology of individual ionotropic glutamate receptor isoforms in detail; such information can be gleaned from Dingledine et al. (1999), Jane et al. (2000), Cull-Candy and Leszkiewicz (2004), Kew and Kemp (2005), Erreger et al. (2007), Paoletti and Neyton (2007), Chen et al. (2008), Jane et al. (2009) and Traynelis et al. (2010). Agents that discriminate between subunit isoforms are, where appropriate, noted in the tables and additional compounds that distinguish between receptor isoforms are indicated in the text below

The classification of glutamate receptor subunits has been recently been re-addressed by NC-IUPHAR (Collingridge et al., 2009). The scheme developed recommends a revised nomenclature for ionotropic glutamate receptor subunits that is adopted here.

NMDA receptors: NMDA receptors assemble as obligate heteromers that may be drawn from GluN1, GluN2A, GluN2B, GluN2C, GluN2D, GluN3A and GluN3B subunits. Alternative splicing can generate eight isoforms of GluN1 with differing pharmacological properties. Various splice variants of GluN2B, 2C, 2D and GluN3A have also been reported. Activation of NMDA receptors containing GluN1 and GluN2 subunits requires the binding of two agonists, glutamate to the S1 and S2 regions of the GluN2 subunit and glycine to S1 and S2 regions of the GluN1 subunit (Erreger et al. 2004; Chen and Wyllie, 2006). The minimal requirement for efficient functional expression of NMDA receptors in vitro is a di-heteromeric assembly of GluN1 and at least one GluN2 subunit variant, as a dimer of heterodimers arrangement in the extracellular domain (Furukawa et al., 2005; Mayer, 2006; Karakas et al., 2011). However, more complex tri-heteromeric assemblies, incorporating multiple subtypes of GluN2 subunit, or GluN3 subunits, can be generated in vitro and occur in vivo. The NMDA receptor channel commonly has a high relative permeability to Ca²⁺ and is blocked, in a voltage-dependent manner, by Mg²⁺ such that at resting potentials the response is substantially inhibited.

Nomenclature NMDA

ENSF00000000436 Ensembl Gene family ID

NMDA (GluN2D > GluN2C > GluN2B > GluN2A), L-aspartate (GluN2D = GluN2B > GluN2C = GluN2A), Selective agonists D-aspartate (GluN2D > GluN2C = GluN2B > GluN2A), (RS)-(tetrazol-5-yl)glycine (GluN2D > GluN2C = (glutamate site)

GluN2B > GluN2A), homoquinolinic acid (GluN2B \geq GluN2A \geq GluN2D > GluN2C; partial agonist at GluN2A

Selective antagonists

(glutamate site)

D-AP5, CGS19755 (selfotel), CGP37849, LY233053, D-CCPene (GluN2A = GluN2B > GluN2C = GluN2D), UBP141 (GluN2D > GluN2D > GluN2A > GluN2A, Morley et al., 2005), NVP-AAM077 (GluN2A > GluN2B (human), Auberson et al. 2002; but weakly selective for rat GluN2A versus GluN2B Feng et al., 2004; Frizelle et al., 2006; Neyton and Paoletti, 2006), conantokin-G (GluN2B > GluN2D = GluN2C = GluN2A)

Glycine (GluN2D > GluN2C > GluN2B > GluN2A), D-serine (GluN2D > GluN2C > GluN2B > GluN2A),

Selective agonists (glycine

(+)-HA966 (partial agonist, GluN2B > GluN2A)

Selective antagonists

(glycine site) Channel blockers 5,7-Dichlorokynurenate, L689560, L701324, GV196771A

 Mg^{2+} (GluN2A = GluN2B > GluN2C = GluN2D), (+)-MK801, ketamine, phencyclidine, memantine (GluN2C \geq $GluN2D \ge GluN2B > GluN2A)$, amantidine ($GluN2C = GluN2D \ge GluN2B \ge GluN2A$), N^1 -dansyl-spermine

(GluN2A = GluN2B >> GluN2C = GluN2D)

Probes

Glutamate site [3H]CPP, [3H]CGS19755, [3H]CGP39653

Glycine site [3H]Glycine, [3H]L689560, [3H]MDL105519, [3H]CGP61594 (photoaffinity ligand)

Cation channel [3H]-MK801 (dizocilpine)

Potency orders unreferenced in the table are from Kuner and Schoepfer (1996), Dravid et al. (2007), Erreger et al. (2007), Paoletti and Neyton (2007), Chen et al. (2008) and Traynelis et al. (2010). In addition to the glutamate and glycine binding sites documented in the table, physiologically important inhibitory modulatory sites exist for Mg²⁺, Zn²⁺, and protons (see Dingledine et al., 1999; Cull-Candy and Leszkiewicz, 2004; Traynelis et al., 2010). Voltage-independent inhibition by Zn²⁺ binding with high affinity within the ATD is highly subunit selective (GluN2A >> GluN2B > GluN2C ≥ GluN2D; Paoletti and Neyton, 2007, Traynelis et al., 2010). The receptor is also allosterically modulated, in both positive and negative directions, by endogenous neuroactive steroids in a subunit dependent manner (Malayev et al., 2002, Horak et al., 2006). Tonic proton blockade of NMDA receptor function is alleviated by polyamines and the inclusion of exon 5 within GluN1 subunit splice variants, whereas the non-competitive antagonists ifenprodil and CP101606 (traxoprodil) increase the fraction of receptors blocked by protons at ambient concentration. Inclusion of exon 5 also abolishes potentiation by polyamines and inhibition by Zn²⁺ that occurs through binding in the ATD (Traynelis et al., 1998). Ifenprodil, CP101606, haloperidol, felbamate and Ro84304 discriminate between recombinant NMDA receptors assembled from GluN1 and either GluN2A, or GluN2B, subunits by acting as selective, non-competitive, antagonists of heterooligomers incorporating GluN2B through a binding site at the ATD GluN1/GluN2B subunit interface (Karakas et al., 2011). LY233536 is a competitive antagonist that also displays selectivity for GluN2B over GluN2A subunit-containing receptors. Similarly, CGP61594 is a photoaffinity label that interacts selectively with receptors incorporating GluN2B versus GluN2A, GluN2D and, to a lesser extent, GluN2C subunits. In addition to influencing the pharmacological profile of the NMDA receptor, the identity of the GluN2 subunit co-assembled with GluN1 is an Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Glutamate (ionotropic) \$127

important determinant of biophysical properties that include sensitivity to block by Mg^{2+} , single-channel conductance and maximal open probablity and channel deactivation time (Cull-Candy and Leszkiewicz, 2004; Erreger *et al.*, 2004; Gielen *et al.*, 2009). Incorporation of the GluN3A subunit into tri-heteromers containing GluN1 and GluN2 subunits is associated with decreased single-channel conductance, reduced permeability to Ca^{2+} and decreased susceptibility to block by Mg^{2+} (Cavara and Hollmann, 2008; Henson *et al.*, 2010). Reduced permeability to Ca^{2+} has also been observed following the inclusion of GluN3B in tri-heteromers. The expression of GluN3A, or GluN3B, with GluN1 alone forms, in *Xenopus laevis* oocytes, a cation channel with unique properties that include activation by glycine (but not NMDA), lack of permeation by Ca^{2+} and resistance to blockade by Mg^{2+} and NMDA receptor antagonists (Chatterton *et al.*, 2002). The function of heteromers composed of GluN1 and GluN3A is enhanced by Zn^{2+} , or glycine site antagonists, binding to the GluN1 subunit (Madry *et al.*, 2008). Zn^{2+} also directly activates such complexes. The co-expression of GluN1, GluN3A and GluN3B appears to be required to form glycine-activated receptors in mammalian cell hosts (Smothers and Woodward, 2007).

AMPA and Kainate receptors: AMPA receptors assemble as homomers, or heteromers, that may be drawn from GluA1, GluA2, GluA3 and GluA4 subunits. Transmembrane AMPA receptor regulatory proteins (TARPs) of class I (i.e. γ2, γ3, γ4 and γ8) act, with variable stoichiometry, as auxiliary subunits to AMPA receptors and influence their trafficking, single channel conductance gating and pharmacology (reviewed by Esteban, 2008; Milstein and Nicoll, 2008; Tomita, 2010; Jackson and Nicoll, 2011). Functional kainate receptors can be expressed as homomers of GluK1, GluK2 or GluK3 subunits. GluK1-3 subunits are also capable of assembling into heterotetramers (e.g. GluK1/K2; see Lerma, 2006; Pinheiro and Mulle, 2006; Perrais et al., 2010). Two additional kainate receptor subunits, GluK4 and GluK5, when expressed individually, form high affinity binding sites for kainate, but lack function, but can form heteromers when expressed with GluK1-3 subunits (e.g. GluK2/K5; reviewed by Pinheiro and Mulle, 2006; Jane et al., 2009; Perrais et al., 2010). Kainate receptors may also exhibit 'metabotropic' functions (Lerma, 2006; Rodriguez-Morino and Sihra, 2007). As found for AMPA receptors, kainate receptors are modulated by auxiliary subunits (Neto proteins, see Perrais et al., 2010; Lerma, 2011). An important function difference between AMPA and kainate receptors is that the latter require extracellular Na⁺ and Cl⁻ for their activation (Bowie, 2010; Plested, 2011). RNA encoding the GluA2 subunit undergoes extensive RNA editing in which the codon encoding a p-loop glutamine residue (Q) is converted to one encoding arginine (R). This Q/R site strongly influences the biophysical properties of the receptor. Recombinant AMPA receptors lacking RNA edited GluA2 subunits are: (1) permeable to Ca²⁺; (2) blocked by intracellular polyamines at depolarized potentials causing inward rectification (the latter being reduced by TARPs); (3) blocked by extracellular argiotoxin and Joro spider toxins and (4) demonstrate higher channel conductances than receptors containing the edited form of GluA2 (Seeburg and Hartner, 2003; Isaac et al., 2007). GluK1 and GluK2, but not other kainate receptor subunits, are similarly edited and broadly similar functional characteristics apply to kainate receptors lacking either an RNA edited GluK1, or GluK2, subunit (Lerma, 2006; Perrais et al., 2010). Native AMPA and kainate receptors displaying differential channel conductances, Ca²⁺ permeabilites and sensitivity to block by intracellular polyamines have been identified (Cull-Candy *et al.*, 2006; Isaac *et al.*, 2007, Liu and Zukin, 2007). GluA1-4 can exist as two variants generated by alternative splicing (termed 'flip' and 'flop') that differ in their desensitization kinetics and their desensitization in the presence of cyclothiazide which stabilises the nondesensitized state. TARPs also stabilise the non-desensitized conformation of AMPA receptors and facilitate the action of cyclothiazide (Milstein and Nicoll, 2008). Splice variants of GluK1-3 also exist which affects their trafficking (Lerma, 2006; Perrais et al., 2010).

Nomenclature	AMPA	Kainate
Ensembl Gene family ID	ENSF0000000118	ENSF0000000118
Selective agonists	AMPA, (S)-5-fluorowillardiine	ATPA, (S)-4-AHCP, 8-deoxy-neodysiherbaine, (S)-5-iodowillardiine, LY339434 (all selective for receptors containing a GluK1 subunit), (2S,4R)-4-methylglutamate (SYM2081), dysiherbaine, domoic acid (inactive at GluK3), kainate (low potency at GluK3)
Selective antagonists	NBQX, ATPO, LY293558, GYKI53655/LY300168 (active isomer GYKI53784/LY303070) (noncompetitive)	UBP302, UBP310, ACET, LY382884, LY466195 (all selective for receptors containing a GluK1 subunit), NS3763 (non-competitive, GluK1 selective), MSVIII-19 (GluK1 selective), 2,4-epi-neodysiherbaine (GluK1 and GluK2 selective)
Positive modulators	Pyrrolidinones (piracetam, aniracetam), benzothiadiazides (cyclothiazide, S18986, IDRA-21), benzylpiperidines (CX-516 (BDP-12), CX-546), biarylpropylsulfonamides (LY392098, LY404187 and LY503430)	Concanavalin A (GluK1 and GluK2, not GluK3)
Channel blockers	Intracellular polyamines, extracellular argiotoxin, extracellular Joro toxin, (selective for channels lacking GluA2)	Intracellular polyamines (subtype selective; GluK3 >> GluK2)
Probes (K_d)	[³H]AMPA, [³H]CNQX	[³H]Kainate, [³H](2 <i>S</i> ,4 <i>R</i>)-4-methylglutamate, [³H]UBP310 (GluK1, 21 nM, GluK3, 0.56 μM, Atlason et al., 2010)

All AMPA receptors are additionally activated by kainate (and domoate) with relatively low potency, ($EC_{50} \sim 100 \,\mu\text{M}$). Inclusion of TARPs within the receptor complex increases the potency and maximal effect of kainate (Milstein and Nicoll, 2008; Jackson and Nicoll, 2011). AMPA is weak partial agonist at GluK1 and at heteromeric assemblies of GluK1/GluK2, GluK1/GluK5 and GluK2/GluK5 (Jane *et al.*, 2009). Quinoxalinediones such as CNQX and NBQX show limited selectivity between AMPA and kainate receptors. LY293558 also has kainate (GluK1) receptor activity as has GYKI53655 (GluK3 and GluK2/GluK3) (Jane *et al.*, 2009). ATPO is a potent competitive antagonist of AMPA receptors, has a weaker antagonist action at kainate receptors comprising GluK1 subunits, but is devoid of activity at kainate receptors formed from GluK2 or GluK2/GluK5 subunits. The pharmacological activity of ATPO resides with the (S)-enantiomer. ACET and UBP310 may block GluK3, in addition to GluK1 (Perrais *et al.*, 2009; Atlason *et al.*, 2010). (2S,4R)-4-methylglutamate (SYM2081) is equipotent in activating (and desensitising) GluK1

S128 Glutamate (ionotropic) Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

and GluK2 receptor isoforms and, *via* the induction of desensitisation at low concentrations, has been used as a functional antagonist of kainate receptors. Both (2*S*,4*R*)-4-methylglutamate and LY339434 have agonist activity at NMDA receptors. (2*S*,4*R*)-4-methylglutamate is also an inhibitor of the glutamate transporters EAAT1 and EAAT2.

Delta subunits: GluD1 and GluD2 comprise, on the basis of sequence homology, an 'orphan' class of ionotropic glutamate receptor subunit. They do not form a functional receptor when expressed solely, or in combination with other ionotropic glutamate receptor subunits, in transfected cells (Yuzaki, 2003). However, GluD2 subunits bind D-serine and glycine and GluD2 subunits carrying the mutation A654T form a spontaneously open channel that is closed by D-serine (Naur *et al.*, 2007).

Abbreviations: (S)-4-AHCP, (S)-2-amino-3-(3-hydroxy-7,8-dihydro-6H-cyclohepta[d]isoxazol-4-yl)propionic acid; ACET, (S)-1-(2-amino-2carboxyethyl)-3-(2-carboxy-5-phenylthiophene-3-yl-methyl)-5-methylpyrimidine-2,4-dione; AMPA, (RS)-α-amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4isoxazole propionic acid; APTA, (RS)-2-amino-3-(3-hydroxy-5-tert-butylisoxazol-4-yl)propionic acid; ATPO, (RS)-2-amino-3-(3-[5-tert-butyl-3-(phosphonomethoxy)-4-isoxazolyl]propionic acid; CGP37849, (RS)-(E)-2-amino-4-methyl-5-phosphono-3-pentenoic acid; CGP39653, (RS)-(E)-2-amino-4-methyl-5-phosphono-4-methyl-5-phosphono-4-methyl-5-phos 2-amino-4-propyl-5-phosphono-3-pentenoic acid; CGS19755, (±)-cis-4-phosphonomethylpiperidine-2-carboxylic acid; CGP 61594, (±)-trans-4-[2-(4-azidophenyl)-acetylamino]-5,7-dichloro-1,2,3,4-tetrahydro-quinoline-2-carboxylic acid; CNQX, 6-cyano-7-nitroquinoxaline-2,3-dione; (15,2S)-1-4-hydroxyphenyl)-2-(4-hydroxy-4-phenylpiperidino)-1-propanol; CPP. (R)-3-(2-carboxypiperazine-4-yl)propyl-1phosphonic acid; CX-516; 1-(quinoxalin-6-yl-carbonyl)piperidine; CX-546, 1-(1,4-benzodioxan-6-ylcarbonyl)piperidine; d-AP5, (R)-2-amino-5-phosphonopentanoate; d-CCPene, (R)-(E)-3-(2-carboxypiperazine-4-yl)propenyl-1-phosphonic acid; GV196771A, E-4,6-dichloro-3-(2-carboxypiperazine-4-yl)propenyl-1-phosphonic acid; GV196771A, E-4,6-dichloro-3-(2-carboxypiperazine-4-yl)propenyloxo-1-phenylpyrrolidin-3-ylidenemethyl)-1H-indole-2-carboxylic acid; GYKI53655, (±)-1-(4-aminophenyl)-3-methylcarbamoyl-4-methyl-3,4dihydro-7,8-(methylenedioxy)-5H-2,3-benzodiazepine; also known as LY300168; GYKI53784, (-)-1-(4-aminophenyl)-3-methylcarbamoyl-4-methyl-3,4-dihydro-7,8-(methylenedioxy)-5*H*-2,3-benzodiazepine, also known as LY303070; HA966, 3-amino-1-hydroxypyrrolidin-7-chloro-3-methyl-3,4-dihydro-2*H*-1,2,4-benzothiadiazine-*S*,*S*-dioxide; L689560, trans-2-carboxy-5,7-dichloro-4phenylaminocarbonylamino-1,2,3,4-tetrahydroquinoline; L701324, 7-chloro-4-hydroxy-3-(3-phenoxy)phenyl-2(H)quinolone; LY233053, (±)cis-4-[(2H-tetrazol-5-yl)methyl]piperidine-2-carboxylic acid; LY233536, (\pm)-6-(1H-tetrazol-5-yl)methyl)decahydraisoquinoline-3-carboxylic acid; LY293558, (3S,4aR,6R,8aR)-6-[2-(1H)-tetrazol-5-yl)ethyl]decahydroisoquinoline-3-carboxylic acid; LY339434, (2S,4R,6E)-2-amino-4-carboxy-7-(2-naphthyl)hept-6-enoic acid; LY382884, (35,4aR,65,8aR)-6-((4-carboxyphenyl)methyl-1,2,3,4,4a,5,6,7,8,8a-decahydroisoquinoline-3carboxylic acid; LY392098, propane-2-sulfonic acid [2-(4-thiophen-3-yl-phenyl)propyl]amide; LY404187, propane-2-sulfonic acid [2-(4'-cyanobiphenyl-4-yl)propyl]amide; LY466195, (3S,4aR,6S,8aR)-6-[[(2S)-2-carboxy-4,4-difluoro-1-pyrrolidinyl]-methyl]decahydro-3isoquinolinecarboxylic acid; LY503430, (R)-4'-[1-fluoro-1-methyl-2-(propane-2-sulfonylamino)ethyl]biphenyl-4-carboxylic acid methylamide; MDL105519, (E)-3-(2-phenyl-2-carboxyethenyl)-4,6-dichloro-1H-indole-2-carboxylic acid; MSVIII-19, (2R,3aR,7aR)-2-[(2S)-2-amino-2carboxyethyl]-hexahydro-furo-[3,2-b]pyran-2-carboxylic acid; NBQX, 2,3-dihydroxy-6-nitro-7-sulfamoylbenzo(f)quinoxaline; NS3763, 5-carboxy-2,4-di-benzamidobenzoic acid; NVP-AAM077, (R)-[(S)-1-(4-bromophenyl)ethylamino]-(2,3-dioxo-1,2,3,4-tetrahydroquinoxalin-5yl)methyl]phosphonic acid; Ro8-4304, 4-3-[4-(4-fluorophenyl)-3,6-dihydro-2H-pyridin-1-yl]-2-hydroxypropoxybenzamide; \$18986, (S)-2,3dihvdro-[3,4]cvclopentano-1,2,4-benzothiadiazine-1,1-dioxide; UBP141, (2R*,3S*)-1-(phenanthrenyl-3-carbonyl)piperazine-2,3-dicarboxylic acid; UBP302, (S)-1-(2-amino-2-carboxyethyl)-3-(2-carboxybenzyl)pyrimidine-2,4-dione, UBP310, (S)-1-(2-amino-2-carboxyethyl)-3-(2 carboxythiophene-3-yl-methyl)-5-methylpyrimidine-2,4-dione

Further Reading

Bowie D (2008). Ionotropic glutamate receptors & CNS disorders. CNS Neurol Disord Drug Targets 7: 129-143.

Bowie D (2010). Ion dependent gating of kainate receptors. J Physiol 588: 67-81.

Cavara NA, Hollmann M (2008). Shuffling the deck anew: how NR3 tweaks NMDA receptor function. Mol Neurobiol 38: 16-26.

Chen PD, Wyllie DJ (2006). Pharmacological insights obtained from structure-function studies of ionotropic glutamate receptors. *Br J Pharmacol* 147: 839–853

Collingridge GL, Olsen RW, Peters JA, Spedding M (2009). A nomenclature for ligand-gated ion channels. Neuropharmacology 56: 2-5.

Contractor A, Mulle C, Swanson GT (2010). Kainate receptors coming of age: milestones of two decades of research. *Trends Neurosci* 34: 154–163. Cull-Candy SG, Leszkiewicz DN (2004). Role of distinct NMDA receptor subtypes at central synapses. *Sci STKE* 255: re16.

Cull-Candy SG, Kelly L, Farrant M (2006). Regulation of Ca²⁺-permeable AMPA receptors: synaptic plasticity and beyond. *Curr Opin Neurobiol* 16: 288–297.

Dingledine R, Borges K, Bowie D, Traynelis SF (1999). The glutamate receptor ion channels. Pharmacol Rev 51: 7-61.

Esteban JA (2008). Intracellular machinery for the transport of AMPA receptors. Br J Pharmacol 153 (Suppl. 1): S35–S43.

Erreger K, Chen PE, Wyllie DJ, Traynelis SF (2004).Glutamate receptor gating. Crit Rev Neurobiol 16: 187–224.

Hall BJ, Ghosh A (2008). http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18201773?ordinalpos=25&itool=EntrezSystem2.PEntrez.Pubmed_Pubmed_ResultsPanel.Pubmed_DefaultReportPanel.Pubmed_RVDocSumRegulation of AMPA receptor recruitment at developing synapses. *Trends Neurosci* 31: 82–89.

Hardingham GE, Bading H (2010). Synaptic versus extrasynaptic NMDA receptor signalling: implications for neurodegenerative disorders. *Nat Rev Neurosci* 11: 682–696.

Isaac JTR, Ashby MC, McBain CJ (2007). The role of the GluR2 subunit in AMPA receptor function and synaptic plasticity. *Neuron* **54**: 859–871. Hansen KB, Yuan H, Traynelis SF (2007). Structural aspects of AMPA receptor activation, desensitization and deactivation. *Curr Opin Neurobiol* **17**: 281–288.

Henson MA, Roberts AC, Pérez-Otaño I, Philpot BD (2010). Influence of the NR3A subunit on NMDA receptor functions. *Prog Neurobiol* 91: 23–37.

Jackson AC, Nicoll RA (2011). The expanding social network of ionotropic glutamate receptors: TARPs and other transmembrane auxiliary subunits. *Neuron* 70: 178–199.

Jane DE, Tse H-W, Skifter DA, Christie JM, Monaghan DT (2000). Glutamate receptor ion channels: activators and inhibitors In: Endo M, Kurachi Y, Mishina M (eds). *Handbook of Experimental Pharmacology, Pharmacology of Ionic Channel Function: Activators and Inhibitors*, Vol. 147. Springer: Berlin. pp. 415–478.

Jane DE, Lodge D, Collingridge GL (2009). Kainate receptors: pharmacology, function and therapeutic potential. *Neuropharmacology* **56**: 90–113. Kaczor AA, Matosiuk D (2010). Molecular structure of ionotropic glutamate receptors. *Curr Med Chem* **17**: 2608–2635.

Kessels HW, Malinow R (2009). Synaptic AMPA receptor plasticity and behavior. *Neuron* 61: 340–350.

Kew JN, Kemp JA (2005). Ionotropic and metabotropic glutamate receptor structure and pharmacology. Psychopharmacology 179: 4–29.

Kloda A, Martinac B, Adams DJ (2007). Polymodal regulation of NMDA receptor channels. Channels (Austin) 1: 334–343.

Lerma J (2006). Kainate receptor physiology. Curr Opin Pharmacol 6: 89-97.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Glutamate (ionotropic) \$129

Lerma J (2011). Net(o) excitement for kainate receptors. Nat Neurosci 14: 808-810.

Liu SJ, Zukin RS (2007). Ca²⁺-permeable AMPA receptors in synaptic plasticity and neuronal death. Trends Neurosci 30: 126–134.

Lodge D (2009). The history of the pharmacology and cloning of ionotropic glutamate receptors and the development of idiosyncratic nomenclature. *Neuropharmacology* **56**: 6–21.

Low CM, Wee KS (2010). New insights into the not-so-new NR3 subunits of N-methyl-D-aspartate receptor: localization, structure, and function. *Mol Pharmacol* **78**: 1–11.

Mayer ML (2006). Glutamate receptors at atomic resolution. Nature 440: 456-462.

Mellor IR (2010). The AMPA receptor as a therapeutic target: current perspectives and emerging possibilities. Future Med Chem 2: 877-891.

Milstein AD, Nicoll RA (2008). http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18514334?ordinalpos=2&itool=EntrezSystem2.PEntrez.Pubmed_Pubmed_ResultsPanel.Pubmed_DefaultReportPanel.Pubmed_RVDocSumRegulation of AMPA receptor gating and pharmacology by TARP auxiliary subunits. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 29: 333–339.

Monaghan DT, Jane DE (2009). Pharmacology of NMDA Receptors. In: Van Dongen AM (ed.). Biology of the NMDA Receptor. Chapter 12. CRC Press: Boca Raton.

Mony L, Kew JN, Gunthorpe MJ, Paoletti P (2009). Allosteric modulators of NR2B-containing NMDA receptors: molecular mechanisms and therapeutic potential. *Br J Pharmacol* 157: 1301–1317.

Nakagawa T (2010). The biochemistry, ultrastructure, and subunit assembly mechanism of AMPA receptors. Mol Neurobiol 42: 161-184.

O'Neill MJ, Witkin JM (2007). AMPA receptor potentiators: application for depression and Parkinson's disease. *Curr Drug Targets* 8: 603–620. O'Neill MJ, Bleakman D, Zimmerman DM, Nisenbaum ES (2004). AMPA receptor potentiators for the treatment of CNS disorders. *Curr Drug*

Paoletti P, Neyton J (2007). NMDA receptor subunits: function and pharmacology. Curr Opin Pharmacol 7: 39-47.

Paoletti P, Vergnano AM, Barbour B, Casado M (2009). Zinc at glutamatergic synapses. Neuroscience 158: 126-136.

Perrais D, Veran J, Mulle C (2010). Gating and permeation of kainate receptors: differences unveiled. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 31: 516–522.

Pinheiro P, Mulle C (2006). Kainate receptors. Cell Tissue Res 326: 457–482.

Targets CNS Neurol Disord 3: 181-194.

Planells-Cases R, Lerma J, Ferrer-Montiel A (2006). Pharmacological intervention at ionotropic glutamate receptor complexes. *Curr Pharm Des* 12: 3583–3596.

Plested AJ (2011). Kainate receptor modulation by sodium and chloride. Adv Exp Med Biol 717: 93-113.

Prorok M, Castellino FJ (2007). The molecular basis of conantokin antagonism of NMDA receptor function. Curr Drug Targets 8: 633-642.

Rodriguez-Morino A, Sihra TS (2007). Kainate receptors with a metabotropic modus operandi. Trends Neurosci 30: 630-637.

Seeburg PH, Hartner J (2003). Regulation of ion channel/neurotransmitter receptor function by RNA editing. *Curr opin Neurobiol* 13: 279–283. Stawski P, Janovjak H, Trauner D (2010). Pharmacology of ionotropic glutamate receptors: a structural perspective. *Bioorg Med Chem* 18: 7759–7772.

Stephenson FA, Cousins SL, Kenny AV (2008). Assembly and forward trafficking of NMDA receptors. Mol Membr Biol 25: 311-320.

Swanson GT, Sakai R (2009). Ligands for ionotropic glutamate receptors. Prog Mol Subcell Biol 46: 123-157.

Tomita, S. (2010). Regulation of ionotropic glutamate receptors by their auxiliary subunits. Physiology (Bethesda) 25: 41-49.

Traynelis SF, Wollmuth LP, McBain CJ, Menniti FS, Vance KM, Ogden KK et al. (2010). Glutamate receptor ion channels: structure, regulation, and function. Pharmacol Rev 62: 405–496.

Ward SE, Bax BD, Harries M (2010). Challenges for and current status of research into positive modulators of AMPA receptors. *Br J Pharmacol* **160**: 181–190.

Waxman EA, Lynch DR (2005). N-methyl-D-aspartate receptor subtypes: multiple roles in excitotoxicity and neurological disease. *Neuroscientist* 11: 37–49.

Yuzaki M (2003). The delta2 glutamate receptor: 10 years later. Neurosci Res 46: 11-22.

References

Atlason PT et al. (2010). Mol Pharmacol 78: 1036–1045. Auberson YP et al. (2002). Bioorg Med Chem Lett 12: 1099–1102. Chatterton JE et al. (2002). Nature 415: 793–798. Chen PE et al. (2008). J Physiol 586: 227–245. Dravid SM et al. (2007). J Physiol 581: 107–128. Erreger K et al. (2007). Mol Pharmacol 72: 907–920. Feng B et al. (2004). Br J Pharmacol 141: 508–516. Frizelle PA et al. (2006). Mol Pharmacol 70: 1022–1032. Furukawa H et al. (2005). Nature 438: 185–192. Gielen M et al. (2009). Nature 459: 703–707. Horak M et al. (2006). Neuroscience 137: 93–102.

Karakas E *et al.* (2011). *Nature* **475**: 249–253. Kuner T, Schoepfer R (1996). *J Neurosci* **16**: 3549–3558. Madry C *et al.* (2008). *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **105**: 12563–12568. Malayev A *et al.* (2002). *Br J Pharmacol* **135**: 901–909. Morley RM *et al.* (2005). *J Med Chem* **48**: 2627–2637. Naur P *et al.* (2007). *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **104**: 14116–11421. Neyton J, Paoletti P (2006). *J Neurosci* **26**: 1331–1333. Perrais D *et al.* (2009). *Neuropharmacology* **56**: 131–140. Smothers CT, Woodward JJ (2007). *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* **322**: 739–748. Sobolevsky AI *et al.* (2009). *Nature* **462**: 745–756. Traynelis SF *et al.* (1998). *J Neurosci* **18**: 6163–6175. \$130 Glycine Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Glycine

Overview: The inhibitory glycine receptor [nomenclature as agreed by the NC-IUPHAR sub-committee on glycine receptors (Lynch, 2009a)] is a member of the Cys-loop superfamily of transmitter-gated ion channels that includes the GABA, nicotinic acetylcholine and 5-HT₂ receptors (Lynch 2009b). The receptor is expressed either as a homo-pentamer of α subunits, or a complex now thought to harbour 2α and 3β subunits (Grudzinska et al., 2005; Betz and Laube, 2006), that contain an intrinsic anion channel. Four differentially expressed isoforms of the α -subunit $(\alpha 1-\alpha 4)$ and one variant of the β -subunit ($\beta 1$, ENSG00000109738) have been identified by genomic and cDNA cloning. Further diversity originates from alternative splicing of the primary gene transcripts for $\alpha 1$ ($\alpha 1^{\text{INS}}$ and $\alpha 1^{\text{del}}$), $\alpha 2$ ($\alpha 2A$ and $\alpha 2B$), $\alpha 3$ ($\alpha 3S$ and $\alpha 3L$) and β ($\beta \Delta 7$) subunits and by mRNA editing of the α2 and α3 subunit (Meier et al., 2005; Oertel et al., 2007; Eichler et al., 2008). Both α2 splicing and α3 mRNA editing can produce subunits (i.e., α 2B and α 3P185L) with enhanced agonist sensitivity. Predominantly, the mature form of the receptor contains α 1 (or α 3) and β subunits while the immature form is mostly composed of only α 2 subunits. RNA transcripts encoding the α 4-subunit have not been detected in adult humans. The N-terminal domain of the α-subunit contains both the agonist and strychnine binding sites that consist of several discontinuous regions of amino acids. Inclusion of the β-subunit in the pentameric glycine receptor contributes to agonist binding, reduces single channel conductance and alters pharmacology. The β-subunit also anchors the receptor, via an amphipathic sequence within the large intracellular loop region, to gephyrin. The latter is a cytoskeletal attachment protein that binds to a number of subsynaptic proteins involved in cytoskeletal structure and thus clusters and anchors hetero-oligomeric receptors to the synapse (see Moss and Smart, 2001; Kirsch, 2006; Kneussel and Loebrich, 2007). G-protein βγ subunits enhance the open state probability of native and recombinant glycine receptors by association with domains within the large intracellular loop (Yevenes et al., 2003; 2006). Intracellular chloride concentration modulates the kinetics of native and recombinant glycine receptors (Pitt et al., 2008). Intracellular Ca²⁺ appears to increase native and recombinant glycine receptor affinity, prolonging channel open events, by a mechanism that does not involve phosphorylation (Fucile et al., 2000).

Nomenclature	α1	α2	α3
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000145888	ENSG00000101958	ENSG00000145451
Selective agonists (potency order)	Glycine $> \beta$ -alanine $>$ taurine	Glycine $> \beta$ -alanine $>$ taurine	Glycine $> \beta$ -alanine $>$ taurine
Selective antagonists and modulators with subunit selectivity	Strychnine, PMBA, bilobalide (IC ₅₀ = 20 μ M + β = 204 μ M), pregnenolone sulphate (K_i = 1.9 μ M; + β = 2.7 μ M), tropisetron (K_i = 84 μ M), colchicine (IC ₅₀ = 324 μ M), nifedepine (IC ₅₀ = 3.3 μ M + β = 1.2 μ M), ginkgolide X (IC ₅₀ = 0.76 μ M + β > 300 μ M), HU308 (weak inhibition)	Strychnine, PMBA, bilobalide (8 μ M + β = 50 μ M), pregnenolone sulphate (K_i = 5.5 μ M; + β = 10.1 μ M), tropisetron (K_i = 13 μ M + β = 5.4 μ M), colchicine (IC ₅₀ = 64 μ M), DCKA (IC ₅₀ = 188 μ M), ginkgolide X (IC ₅₀ = 2.8 μ M + β > 300 μ M), HU210 (90 nM), HU308 (1.1 μ M), WIN55,212-2 (220 nM)	Strychnine, nifedepine (IC ₅₀ = 29.2 μ M + β = 11.4 μ M), HU210 (50 nM), HU 308 (97 nM), WIN55212-2 (97 nM), (12E,20Z,18S)-8-hydroxyvariabilin (IC ₅₀ = 7.0 μ M)
Selective potentiators (EC ₅₀)	HU210 (270 nM), anandamide (38 nM), Δ^9 -tetrahydrocannabinol (~3 μ M, ~1500% potentiation)	Δ^9 -tetrahydrocannabinol (~1 μ M, ~230% potentiation)	Δ^9 -tetrahydrocannabinol (~5 μ M, ~1500% potentiation)
Endogenous potentiators (EC_{50})	Zn^{2+} (37nM) (not affected by $\beta)$	Zn ²⁺ (540 nM) (not affected by β)	
Endogenous inhibitors (IC ₅₀)	Zn ²⁺ (15 μM; + β = 13 μM), Cu ²⁺ (4-15 μM) (not affected by β), H ⁺	Zn^{2+} (360 μM; + β = 180 μM), Cu^{2+} (17 μM)	Zn ²⁺ (150 μM), Cu ²⁺ (9μM)
Channel blockers (IC ₅₀)	cyanotriphenylborate (1.3 μ M + β = 2.8 μ M), picrotoxin (6.3 μ M + β = 219 μ M), picrotoxinin (5.1 μ M + β = 27 μ M), picrotin (5.2 μ M + β = 27 μ M), ginkgolide B (0.6–8.0 μ M + β = 0.18–2.5 μ M),	cyanotriphenylborate (>>20 μ M; + β = 7.5 μ M), picrotoxin (2.3 μ M + β = 29.7 μ M), picrotoxinin (0.41 μ M), picrotoxinin (0.41 μ M), picrotin (13.1 μ M), ginkgolide B (3.7–11.4 μ M + β = 0.14–0.8 μ M)	picrotoxin (+ β weakens block), picrotoxinin (0.43 μ M + β = 8.9 μ M), picrotin (6.0 μ M + β = 24 μ M), ginkgolide B (1.8 μ M + β = 0.55 μ M)
Probes	[³ H]strychnine	[³ H]strychnine	[³ H]strychnine
Functional characteristics	γ = 86 pS (main state) (+ β = 44 pS)	γ = 111 pS (main state) (+ β = 54 pS)	γ = 105 pS (main state) (+ β = 48)

Data in the table refer to homo-oligomeric assemblies of the α -subunit, significant changes introduced by co-expression of the $\beta 1$ subunit are indicated in parenthesis. Not all glycine receptor ligands are listed within the table, but some that may be useful in distinguishing between glycine receptor isoforms are indicated (see Lynch (2009a) for a more comprehensive listing). Pregnenolone sulphate, tropisetron and colchicine, for example, although not selective antagonists of glycine receptors, are included for this purpose. Strychnine is a potent and selective competitive glycine receptor antagonist with affinities in the range 5–15 nM. RU5135 demonstrates comparable potency, but additionally blocks GABA $_{\Lambda}$ receptors. There are conflicting reports concerning the ability of cannabinoids to inhibit (Lozovaya et al., 2005), or potentiate and at high concentrations activate (Hejazi et al., 2006; Yang et al., 2008; Ahrens et al., 2009; Demir et al., 2009; Xiong et al., 2011) glycine receptors. Nonetheless, cannabinoid analogues may hold promise in distinguishing between glycine receptor subtypes (Yang et al., 2008). In addition, potentiation of glycine receptor activity by cannabinoids has been claimed to contribute to cannabis-induced analgesia relying on Ser296/307 ($\alpha 1/\alpha 3$) in M3 (Xiong et al., 2011). Several analogues of muscimol and piperidine act as agonists and antagonists of both glycine and GABA $_{\Lambda}$ receptors. Picrotoxin acts as an allosteric inhibitor that appears to bind within the pore, and shows strong selectivity towards homomeric receptors. While its components, picrotoxinin and picrotin, have equal potencies at $\alpha 1$ receptors, their potencies at $\alpha 2$ and $\alpha 3$ receptors differ modestly and may allow some distinction between different receptor types (Yang et al., 2007). Binding of picrotoxin within the pore has recently been demonstrated in the crystal structure of the related C. elegans GluCl Cys-loop receptor (Hibbs and Gouaux, 2011) In addition to the

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Glycine \$131

compounds listed in the table, numerous agents act as allosteric regulators of glycine receptors (comprehensively reviewed by Laube et al., 2002; Lynch, 2004; Webb and Lynch, 2007; Yevenes and Zeilhofer, 2011). Zn²⁺ acts through distinct binding sites of high- and low-affinity to allosterically enhance channel function at low (<10 µM) concentrations and inhibits responses at higher concentrations in a subunit selective manner (Miller et al., 2005). The effect of Zn²⁺ is somewhat mimicked by Ni²⁺. Endogenous Zn²⁺ is essential for normal glycinergic neurotransmission mediated by α1 subunit-containing receptors (Hirzel et al., 2006), Elevation of intracellular Ca²⁺ produces fast potentiation of glycine receptor-mediated responses. Dideoxyforskolin (4 µM) and tamoxifen (0.2-5 µM) both potentiate responses to low glycine concentrations (15 μM), but act as inhibitors at higher glycine concentrations (100 μM). Additional modulatory agents that enhance glycine receptor function include inhalational, and several intravenous general anaesthetics (e.g. minaxolone, propofol and pentobarbitone) and certain neurosteroids. Ethanol and higher order n-alcohols also enhance glycine receptor function although whether this occurs by a direct allosteric action at the receptor (Mascia et al., 2000), or through G-protein βγ subunits (Yevenes et al., 2010) is debated. Recent crystal structures of the bacterial homologue, GLIC, have identified transmembrane binding pockets for both anaesthetics (Nury et al., 2011) and alcohols (Howard et al., 2011). Solvents inhaled as drugs of abuse (e.g. toluene, 1-1-1-trichloroethane) may act at sites that overlap with those recognising alcohols and volatile anaesthetics to produce potentiation of glycine receptor function. The function of glycine receptors formed as homomeric complexes of $\alpha 1$ or $\alpha 2$ subunits, or hetero-oligomers of $\alpha 1/\beta$ or $\alpha 2/\beta$ subunits, is differentially affected by the 5-HT₃ receptor antagonist tropisetron (ICS 205-930) which may evoke potentiation (which may occur within the femtomolar range at the homomeric glycine α 1 receptor), or inhibition, depending upon the subunit composition of the receptor and the concentrations of the modulator and glycine employed. Potentiation and inhibition by tropeines involves different binding modes (Maksay et al., 2009). Additional tropeines, including atropine, modulate glycine receptor activity.

 $\label{eq:Abbreviations: DCKA, dichlorokynurenic acid, HU210, (6aR,10aR)-9-(hydroxymethyl)-6,6-dimethyl-3-(2-methyloctan-2-yl)-6a,7,10, \\ 10a-tetrahydrobenzo[c]chromen-1-ol; HU308, [(1R,2R,5R)-2-[2,6-dimethoxy-4-(2-methyloctan-2-yl)phenyl]-6,6-dimethyl-4-bicyclo[3.1.1] \\ hept-3-enyl]methanol; PMBA, 3-[2'-phosphonomethyl[1,1'-biphenyl]-3-yl]alanine; RU5135, 3α-hydroxy-16-imino-5β-17-azaandrostan-11-one, WIN55212-2, (R)-(+)-[2,3-dihydro-5-methyl-3-(4-morpholinylmethyl)pyrrolo-[1,2,3-de]-1,4-benzoxazin-6-yl]-1-naphthalenylmethanone mesylate$

Further Reading

Betz H, Laube B (2006). Glycine receptors: recent insights into their structural organization and functional diversity. *J Neurochem* 97: 1600–1610. Bowery NG, Smart TG (2006). GABA and glycine as neurotransmitters: a brief history. *Br J Pharmacol* 47 (Suppl. 1): S109–S119.

Callister RJ, Graham BA (2010). Early history of glycine receptor biology in mammalian spinal cord circuits. Front Mol Neurosci 3: 13.

Cascio M (2004). Structure and function of the glycine receptor and related nicotinicoid receptors. J Biol Chem 279: 19383–19386.

Colquhoun D, Sivilotti LG (2004). Function and structure in glycine receptors and some of their relatives. Trends Neurosci 27: 337-344.

Dumoulin A, Triller A, Kneussel M (2010). Cellular transport and membrane dynamics of the glycine receptor. Front Mol Neurosci 2: 28.

Gilbert DF, Islam R, Lynagh T, Lynch JW, Webb TI (2009). High Throughput Techniques for Discovering New Glycine Receptor Modulators and their Binding Sites. Front Mol Neurosci 2: 17.

Harvey RJ, Topf M, Harvey K, Rees MI (2008). The genetics of hyperekplexia: more than startle! Trends Genet 24: 439-447.

Harvey VL, Caley A, Müller UC, Harvey RJ, Dickenson AH (2009). A selective role for α3 subunit glycine receptors in inflammatory pain. Front Mol Neurosci 2: 14.

Hernandes MS, Troncone LR (2009). Glycine as a neurotransmitter in the forebrain: a short review. J Neural Transm 116: 1551–1560.

Kirsch J (2006). Glycinergic transmission. Cell Tissue Res 326, 535-540.

Kneussel M, Loebrich S (2007). Trafficking and synaptic anchoring of ionotropic inhibitory neurotransmitter receptors. *Biol Cell* **99**: 297–309. Laube B, Maksay G, Schemm R, Betz H (2002). Modulation of glycine receptor function: a novel approach for therapeutic intervention at inhibitory synapses. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* **23**: 519–527.

Legendre P (2001). The glycinergic inhibitory synapse Cell Mol Life Sci 58: 760–793.

Lewis T M, Schofield PR (1999). Structure-function relationships for the human glycine receptor: insights from hyperekplexia mutations. *Ann NY Acad Sci* 868: 681–684.

Lobo IA. Harris RA (2005). Sites of alcohol and volatile anesthetic action on glycine receptors. Int Rev Neurobiol 65: 53-87.

Lynch JW (2004). Molecular structure and function of the glycine receptor chloride channel. Physiol Rev 84: 1051–1095.

Lynch JW (2009a). Glycine receptors, introductory chapter. IUPHAR database (IUPHAR-DB), http://www.iuphar-db.org/IC/FamilyIntroduction Forward?familyId=9

Lynch JW (2009b) Native glycine receptor subtypes and their physiological roles. Neuropharmacology 56: 303-309.

Lynch JW, Callister RJ.(2006). Glycine receptors: a new therapeutic target in pain pathways. Curr Opin Investig Drugs 7: 48-53.

Moss SJ, Smart TG (2001). Constructing inhibitory synapses. Nature Neurosci Rev 2: 240-250.

Perkins DI, Trudell JR, Crawford DK, Alkana RL, Davies DL (2010). Molecular targets and mechanisms for ethanol action in glycine receptors. *Pharmacol Ther* 127: 53–65.

Sivilotti LG (2010). What single-channel analysis tells us of the activation mechanism of ligand-gated channels: the case of the glycine receptor. *J Physiol* 588: 45–58.

Webb TI, Lynch JW (2007). Molecular pharmacology of the glycine receptor chloride channel. Curr Pharm Des 13: 2350-2367.

Xu TL, Gong N (2010). Glycine and glycine receptor signaling in hippocampal neurons: diversity, function and regulation. *Prog Neurobiol* 91: 349–361.

Yevenes GE, Zeilhofer HU (2011). Allosteric modulation of glycine receptors. Br J Pharmacol 164: 224-236.

References

Ahrens J et al. (2009). Pharmacology 83: 217–222. Demir R et al. (2009). Pharmacology 83: 270–274. Eichler SA et al. (2008). J Cell Mol Biol Med 12: 2848–2866. Fucile S et al. (2000). Neuron 28: 571–583. Grudzinska J et al. (2005). Neuron 45: 727–739. Hejazi N et al. (2006). Mol Pharmacol 69: 991–997. Hibbs RE, Gouaux E (2011). Nature 474: 54–60. Hirzel K et al. (2006). Neuron 52: 679–690.

Howard RJ et al. (2011). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 108: 12149–12154. Lozovaya N et al. (2005). J Neurosci 25: 7499–7506. Maksay G et al. (2009). J Neurochem 109: 1725–1732. Mascia MP et al. (2000). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 97: 9305–9310. Meier JC et al. (2005). Nat Neurosci 8: 736–744. Miller PS et al. (2005). J Physiol (Lond) 566: 657–670. Nury H et al. (2011). Nature 469: 428–431. Oertel J et al. (2007). J Biol Chem 282: 2798–2807.

S132 Glycine Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Pitt SJ et al. (2008). J Neurosci 28: 11454–11467. Xiong W et al. (2011). Nat Chem Biol 7: 296–303. Yang Z et al. (2007). J Neurochem 103: 580–589. Yang Z et al. (2008). Biochem Pharmacol 76: 1014–1023. Yevenes GE et al. (2003). Nat Neurosci 6: 819–824. Yevenes GE et al. (2006). J Biol Chem 281: 39300–39307. Yevenes GE et al. (2010). J Biol Chem 285: 30203–30213. Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA P2X S133

P2X

Overview: P2X receptors (nomenclature as agreed by NC-IUPHAR Subcommittee on P2X Receptors, Collingridge *et al.*, 2009; Khakh *et al.*, 2001) are ligand-gated ion channels with a trimeric topology (Jiang *et al.*, 2003; Kawate *et al.*, 2009; Nicke *et al.*, 1998), gating primarily Na⁺, K⁺ and Ca²⁺, exceptionally Cl⁻ with two putative TM domains, where the endogenous ligand is ATP. The Nomenclature Subcommittee has recommended that for P2X receptors, structural criteria should be the initial criteria for nomenclature where possible. The P2X receptor nomenclature recommended below reflects the newly accepted format for ligand-gated ion channels (see Collingridge *et al.*, 2009). Functional P2X receptors exist as polymeric transmitter-gated channels; the native receptors may occur as either homopolymers (e.g. P2X1 in smooth muscle) or heteropolymers (e.g. P2X2:P2X3 in the nodose ganglion and P2X1:P2X5 in mouse cortical astrocytes, Lalo *et al.*, 2008). P2X2, P2X4 and P2X7 receptors have been shown to form functional homopolymers which, in turn, activate pores permeable to low molecular weight solutes (see Surprenant and North, 2009). The hemi-channel pannexin-1 has been implicated in the pore formation induced by P2X7 (Pelegrin and Surprenant, 2009), but not P2X2 (Chaumont and Khakh, 2008), receptor activation.

Nomenclature	P2X1	P2X2	P2X3	P2X4
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000108405	ENSG00000187848	ENSG00000109991	ENSG00000135124
Potent agonists	L- $eta\gamma$ -meATP, $lphaeta$ -meATP, BzATP	-	lphaeta-meATP, BzATP	_
Potent antagonists	TNP-ATP (<i>p</i> IC ₅₀ 8.9, Virginio <i>et al.</i> , 1998), Ip ₅ I (<i>p</i> IC ₅₀ 8.5), NF023 (<i>p</i> IC ₅₀ 6.7); NF449 (<i>p</i> IC ₅₀ 6.3, Kassack <i>et al.</i> , 2004)	-	TNP-ATP (plC ₅₀ 8.9, Virginio et al., 1998), AF353 (plC ₅₀ 8.0, Gever et al., 2010), A317491 (7.5, Jarvis et al., 2002), RO3 (plC ₅₀ 7.5, Ford et al., 2006)	-

A317491 and RO3 also block the P2X2:P2X3 heteromultimer (Jarvis et al., 2002; Ford et al., 2006). NF449, A317491 and RO3 are more than 10-fold selective for P2X1 and P2X3 receptors, respectively.

Nomenclature	P2X5	P2X6	P2X7
Other names	_	-	P _{2Z}
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000083454	ENSG00000099957	ENSG00000089041
Potent antagonists	-	-	Brilliant Blue G (pIC_{50} 8.0, Jiang <i>et al.</i> , 2000), A804598 (pIC_{50} 8.0), A839977 (pIC_{50} 7.7, Donnelly-Roberts and Jarvis, 2007; Donnelly-Roberts <i>et al.</i> , 2009, Honore <i>et al.</i> , 2009), decavanadate (pA_2 7.4, Michel <i>et al.</i> , 2006a), KN62 (Gargett and Wiley, 1997), A740003 (pIC_{50} 7.4), A438079 (pIC_{50} 6.9, Donnelly-Roberts and Jarvis, 2007)

Agonists listed show selectivity within recombinant P2X receptors of *ca.* one order of magnitude. A804598, A839977, A740003 and A438079 are at least 10-fold selective for P2X7 receptors and show similar affinity across human and rodent receptors (Donnelly-Roberts and Jarvis, 2007, Donnelly-Roberts *et al.*, 2009; Honore *et al.*, 2009).

Several P2X receptors (particularly P2X1 and P2X3) may be inhibited by desensitisation using stable agonists (e.g. $\alpha\beta$ -meATP); suramin and PPADS are non-selective antagonists at r & hP2X1–3,5 and hP2X4, but not rP2X4,6,7 (Buell *et al.*, 1996), and can also inhibit ATPase activity (Crack *et al.*, 1994). Ip₅I is inactive at rP2X2, an antagonist at rP2X3 (pIC₅₀ 5.6) and enhances agonist responses at rP2X4 (King *et al.*, 1999). Antagonist potency of NF023 at recombinant P2X2, P2X3 and P2X5 is two orders of magnitude lower than that at P2X1 receptors (Soto *et al.*, 1999). The P2X7 receptor may be inhibited in a non-competitive manner by the protein kinase inhibitors KN62 and chelerythrine (Shemon *et al.*, 2004), while the p38 MAP kinase inhibitor SB202190 and the cyclic imide AZ11645373 show a species-dependent non-competitive action (Donnelly-Roberts *et al.*, 2004; Michel *et al.*, 2006b; Stokes *et al.*, 2006; Michel, 2009). The pH-sensitive dye used in culture media, phenol red, is also reported to inhibit P2X1 and P2X3 containing channels (King *et al.*, 2005). Some recombinant P2X receptors expressed to high density bind [35 S]-ATP γ S and [3 H]- $\alpha\beta$ -meATP, although the latter can also bind to 5'-nucleotidase (Michel *et al.*, 1995). [3 H]-A317491 and [3 H]-A804598 have been used as high affinity antagonist radioligands for P2X3 (and P2X7) and P2X7 receptors, respectively (Donnelly-Roberts *et al.*, 2009).

Abbreviations: $\alpha\beta$ -meATP, $\alpha\beta$ -methylene-adenosine 5'-triphosphate; $\beta\gamma$ -meATP, $\beta\gamma$ -methylene-adenosine 5'-triphosphate; A317491, 5-([[3-phenoxybenzyl]][(1S)-1,2,3,4-tetrahydro-1-naphthalenyl]amino]carbonyl)-1,2,4-benzenetricarboxylic acid; A438079, 3-(5-(2,3-dichlorophenyl)-1H-tetrazol-1-yl) methyl pyridine; A740003, (N-(1-{[(cyanoimino)(5-quinolinylamino) methyl]amino}-2,2-dimethylpropyl)-2-(3,4-dimethoxyphenyl)acetamide; A839977,1-(2,3-dichlorophenyl)-N-[2-(pyridin-2-yloxy)benzyl]-1H-tetrazol-5-amine; A804598, (s)-1-(1-(4-bromophenyl))-2-cyano-3-(quinoline-5-yl)guanidine; AF353, (5-(5-iodo-2-isopropyl-4-methoxy-phenoxy)-pyrimidine-2,4-diamine; ATPγδ, adenosine 5'-(3-thio)triphosphate; AZ11645373, 3-[1-[4-(3-nitrophenyl)phenoxy]-4-pyridin-4-ylbutan-2-yl]-1,3-thiazolidine-2,4-dione; Ip₅I, diinosine-5',5"-pentaphosphate; KN62, 1-(N,O-bis[5-isoquinolinesulphonyl]-N-methyl-1-tyrosyl)-4-phenylpiperazine; NF023, 8,8'-(carbonylbis[imino-3,1-phenylene carbonylimino])bis-1,3,5-naphthalenetrisulfonic acid; NF449, 4,4',4",4"'-(carbonylbis[imino-5,1,3-benzenetriyl-bis[carbonylimino]])bietrakisbenzene-1,3-disulfonic acid octasodium salt; PPADS, pyridoxalphosphate-6-azophenyl-2',4'-disulphonate; RO3, 5-(methyl[2-methylethyl-4,5-dimethoxyphenyl]-2,4pyridinediamine; SB202190, 4-[4-(4-fluorophenyl)-5-pyridin-4-yl-1H-imidazol-2-yl]phenol; TNP-ATP, 2',3'-O-(2,4,6-trinitrophenyl)-ATP

Further Reading

Burnstock G (2008). Purinergic signalling and disorders of the central nervous system. *Nat Rev Drug Discov* 7: 575–590. Browne LE, Jiang LH, North RA (2010). New structure enlivens interest in P2X receptors. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 31: 229–237.

S134 P2X Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Browne LE, Cao L, Broomhead HE, Bragg L, Wilkinson WJ, North RA (2011). P2X receptor channels show threefold symmetry in ionic charge selectivity and unitary conductance. Nat Neurosci 14: 17-18.

Collingridge GL, Olsen RW, Peters J, Spedding M (2009). A nomenclature for ligand-gated ion channels. Neuropharmacology, 56: 2-5.

Donnelly-Roberts D, McGaraughty S, Shieh CC, Honore P, Jarvis MF (2008). Painful purinergic receptors. J Pharmacol Exp Ther 324: 409-415. Evans RJ (2010). Structural interpretation of P2X receptor mutagenesis studies on drug action. Br J Pharmacol 161: 961–971.

Guile SD, Alcaraz L, Birkinshaw TN, Bowers KC, Ebden MR, Furber M et al. (2009). Antagonists of the P2X7 receptor. From lead identification to drug development. J Med Chem 52: 3123-3141.

Hu H, Hoylaerts MF (2010). The P2X1 ion channel in platelet function. Platelets 21: 153-166.

Jarvis MF (2010). The neural-glial purinergic receptor ensemble in chronic pain states. Trends Neurosci 33: 48–57.

Jarvis MF, Khakh BS (2009). ATP-gated P2X cation-channels. Neuropharmacology 56: 208-215.

Khakh BS, Burnstock G, Kennedy C, King BF, North RA, Séguéla P et al. (2001). International Union of Pharmacology. XXIV. Current status of the nomenclature and properties of P2X receptors and their subunits. Pharmacol Rev 53: 107-118.

Pankratov Y, Lalo U, Krishtal OA, Verkhratsky A (2009). P2X receptors and synaptic plasticity. Neuroscience 158: 137-148.

Skaper SD, Debetto P, Giusti P (2010). The P2X7 purinergic receptor: from physiology to neurological disorders. FASEB J 24: 337–345.

Surprenant A, North RA (2009). Signaling at Purinergic P2X receptors. Annu Rev Physiol, 71: 333-359.

Young MT (2010). P2X receptors: dawn of the post-structure era. Trends Biochem Sci 35: 83-90.

Zemkova H, Balik A, Jindrichova M, Vavra V (2008). Molecular structure of purinergic P2X receptors and their expression in the hypothalamus and pituitary. Physiol Res 57 (Suppl. 3): S23-S38.

References

Buell G et al. (1996). EMBO J 15: 55-62.

Chaumont S, Khakh BS (2008). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A, 105: 12063-12068.

Crack BE et al. (1994). Br J Pharmacol 113: 1432-1438.

Donnelly-Roberts DL et al. (2004). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 308: 1053-1061.

Donnelly-Roberts DL et al. (2009). Br J Pharmacol, 157: 1203-1214. Donnelly-Roberts DL, Jarvis MF (2007). Br J Pharmacol 151: 571–579. Ford APDW et al. (2006). Br J Pharmacol 147: S132-S143.

Gargett CE, Wiley JS (1997). Br J Pharmacol 120: 1483-1490.

Gever JR et al. (2010). Br J Pharmacol 160: 1387-1398.

Honore P et al., (2009). Behav Brain Res 204: 77-81.

Jarvis MF et al. (2002). Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 99: 17179-17184.

Jiang LH et al. (2000). Mol Pharmacol 58: 82-88.

Jiang LH et al. (2003). J Neurosci 23: 8903-8910.

Kassack MU et al. (2004). Eur J Med Chem 39: 345-357.

Kawate T et al. (2009). Nature, 460: 592-598.

King BF et al. (1999). Br J Pharmacol 128: 981-988.

King BF et al. (2005). Br J Pharmacol 145: 313-322.

Lalo U et al. (2008). J Neurosci, 28: 5473-5480.

Michel AD (2009). Br I Pharmacol. 156: 1312-1325.

Michel AD et al. (1995). Br J Pharmacol 115: 767-774.

Michel AD et al. (2006a). Eur J Pharmacol 534: 19-29.

Michel AD et al. (2006b). Br J Pharmacol 149: 948-957.

Nicke A et al. (1998). EMBO J 17: 3016-3028.

Pelegrin P, Surprenant A (2009). Purinergic Signal 5: 129–137.

Shemon AN et al. (2004). Br J Pharmacol 142: 1015-1019.

Soto F et al. (1999). Neuropharmacology 38: 141-149.

Stokes L et al. (2006). Br J Pharmacol, 149: 880-887. Virginio C et al. (1998). Mol Pharmacol 53: 969-973. Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA ZAC (Zinc-activated channel) \$135

ZAC (Zinc-activated channel)

Overview: The zinc-activated channel [ZAC, nomenclature as agreed by the NC-IUPHAR Subcommittee for the zinc activated channel (Hales and Peters (2010)] is a member of the Cys-loop family that includes the nicotinic acetylcholine, 5-HT₃, $GABA_A$ and strychnine-sensitive glycine receptors (Davies *et al.*, 2003; Houtani *et al.*, 2005). The channel is likely to exist as a homopentamer of 4TM subunits that form an intrinsic cation selective channel displaying constitutive activity that can be blocked by (+)-tubocurarine (Davies *et al.*, 2003). ZAC is present in the human, chimpanzee, dog, cow and opossum genomes, but is functionally absent from mouse, or rat, genomes (Davies *et al.*, 2003; Houtani *et al.*, 2005).

Nomenclature ZAC
Other names L2

Ensembl ID ENSG00000186919

Selective agonists (pEC $_{50}$) Zn^{2+} (3.3)

Selective antagonists (pIC₅₀) (+)-Tubocurarine (5.2)

Functional characteristics Outwardly rectifying current (both constitutive and evoked by Zn²+)

Although tabulated as an antagonist, it is possible that (+)-tubocurarine acts as a channel blocker.

References

Davies PA et al. (2003). J Biol Chem 278: 712-717.

Hales TG, Peters JA (2010). ZAC. IUPHAR database (IUPHAR-DB), http://www.iuphar-db.org/DATABASE/ObjectDisplayForward?objectId=587 Houtani T et al. (2005). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 335: 277–285.

ION CHANNELS

Overview: Ion channels are pore-forming proteins that allow the flow of ions across membranes, either plasma membranes or the membranes of intracellular organelles (Hille, 2001). Many ion channels (such as most Na, K Ca and some Cl channels) are gated by voltage but others (such as certain K and Cl channels, TRP channels, ryanodine receptors and IP_3 receptors) are relatively voltage-insensitive and are gated by second messengers and other intracellular and/or extracellular mediators. As such, there is some blurring of the boundaries between 'ion channels' and 'ligand-gated channels' which are compiled separately in this guide.

Resolution of ion channel structures, beginning with K channels (Doyle *et al.*, 1998) then Cl channels (Dutzler *et al.*, 2002) and most recently Na channels (Payandeh *et al.*, 2011) has greatly improved understanding of the structural basis behind ion channel function. Many ion channels (e.g., K, Na, Ca, HCN and TRP channels) share several structural similarities. These channels are thought to have evolved from a common ancestor and have been classified together as the 'voltage-gated-like (VGL) ion channel chanome' (see Yu *et al.*, 2005). Other ion channels, however, such as Cl channels, aquaporins and connexins, have completely different structural properties to the VGL channels, having evolved quite separately.

Currently, ion channels (including ligand-gated ion channels) represent the second largest target for existing drugs after G protein-coupled receptors (Overington *et al.*, 2006). However, the advent of novel, faster screening techniques for compounds acting on ion channels (Dunlop *et al.*, 2008) suggests that these proteins represent promising targets for the development of additional, novel therapeutic agents in the near future.

Further Reading

Doyle D, Morais Cabral J, Pfuetzner RA, Kuo A, Gulbis JM, Cohen SL, Chait B, MacKinnon R (1998). The structure of the potassium channel: molecular basis of potassium conduction and selectivity. *Science* 280: 69–77.

Dunlop J, Bowlby M, Peri R, Vasilyev D, Arias R (2008). High-throughput electrophysiology: an emerging paradigm for ion channel screening and physiology. *Nat Rev Drug Discov* 7: 358–368.

Dutzler R, Campbell EB, Cadene M, Chait B, MacKinnon R (2002). X-ray structure of a CIC chloride channel at 3.0A reveals the molecular basis of ion selectivity. *Nature* **415**: 287–294.

Hille B (2001). Ion Channel of Excitable Membranes. 3rd edn. Sinauer Associates: Sunderland MA.

Overington JP, Al-Lazikani B, Hopkins AL (2006). How many drug targets are there? Nat Rev Drug Discov 5: 993-996.

Payandeh J, Scheuer T, Zheng N, Catterall WA (2011). The crystal structure of a voltage-gated sodium channel. Nature 475: 353-358.

Yu FH, Yarov-Yarovoy V, Gutman GA, Catterall WA (2005). Overview of molecular relationships in the voltage-gated ion channel superfamily. *Pharmacol Rev* 57: 387–295.

Acid-sensing (proton-gated) ion channels (ASICs)

Overview: Acid-sensing ion channels (ASICs, provisional nomenclature; see Wemmie et al., 2006; Lingueglia, 2007) are members of a Na⁺ channel superfamily that includes the epithelial Na⁺ channel (ENaC), the FMRF-amide activated channel (FaNaC) of invertebrates, the degenerins (DEG) of Caenorhabitis elegans, channels in Drosophila melanogaster and 'orphan' channels that include BLINaC (Sakai et al., 1999) and INaC (Schaefer et al. 2000). ASIC subunits contain two TM domains and assemble as homo- or hetero-trimers (Jasti et al., 2007; Gonzales et al., 2009) to form proton-gated, voltage-insensitive, Na+ permeable, channels (reviewed by Gründer and Chen (2010)). Splice variants of ASIC1 [provisionally termed ASIC1a (ASIC, ASICα, BNaC2α) (Waldmann et al. 1997a), ASIC1b (ASICβ, BNaC2β) (Chen et al., 1998) and ASIC1b2 (ASICβ2) (Ugawa et al., 2001); note that ASIC1a is also permeable to Ca²⁺] and ASIC2 [provisionally termed ASIC2a (MDEG1, BNaC1α, BNC1a) (Price et al., 1996; Waldmann et al., 1996; Garcia-Anoveros et al., 1997) and ASIC2b (MDEG2, BNaC1β); (Lingueglia et al., 1997)] have been cloned. Unlike ASIC2a (listed in table), heterologous expression of ASIC2b alone does not support H+gated currents. A third member, ASIC3 (DRASIC, TNaC1) (Waldmann et al., 1997b), has been identified. A fourth mammalian member of the family (ASIC4/SPASIC) does not support a proton-gated channel in heterologous expression systems and is reported to down regulate the expression of ASIC1a and ASIC3 (Akopian et al. 2000; Grunder et al., 2000; Donier et al., 2008). ASIC channels are primarily expressed in central and peripheral neurons including nociceptors where they participate in neuronal sensitivity to acidosis. They have also been detected in taste receptor cells (ASIC1-3), photoreceptors and retinal cells (ASIC1-3), cochlear hair cells (ASIC1b), testis (hASIC3), pituitary gland (ASIC4), lung epithelial cells (ASIC1a and -3), urothelial cells, adipose cells (ASIC3), vascular smooth muscle cells (ASIC1-3), immune cells (ASIC1,-3 and -4) and bone (ASIC1-3). The activation of ASIC1a within the central nervous system contributes to neuronal injury caused by focal ischemia (Xiong et al., 2007) and to axonal degeneration in autoimmune inflammation in a mouse model of multiple sclerosis (Friese et al., 2007). However, activation of ASIC1a can terminate seizures (Ziemann et al., 2008). Peripheral ASIC3-containing channels play a role in post-operative pain (Deval et al., 2011). Further proposed roles for centrally and peripherally located ASICs are reviewed in Wemmie et al. (2006) and Lingueglia (2007). The relationship of the cloned ASICs to endogenously expressed proton-gated ion channels is becoming established (Escoubas et al., 2000; Sutherland et al., 2001; Wemmie et al., 2002, 2003, 2006; Diochot et al., 2004, 2007; Lingueglia et al., 2006; Lingueglia, 2007; Hattori et al., 2009). Heterologously expressed heteromultimers form ion channels with altered kinetics, ion selectivity, pH- sensitivity and sensitivity to blockers that resemble some of the native proton activated currents recorded from neurones (Lingueglia et al., 1997; Babinski et al., 2000, Escoubas et al., 2000, Baron et al., 2008).

Nomenclature	ASIC1	ASIC2	ASIC3
Nomenciature	ASICI	ASIC2	ASIC3
Other names	ASIC; BNaC2	BNC1; BNaC1; MDEG	DRASIC, TNaC1
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000110881	ENSG00000108684	ENSG00000213199
Endogenous activators	Extracellular H $^+$ (ASIC1a, pEC $_{50}$ \sim 6.2–6.8; ASIC1b, pEC $_{50}$ \sim 5.1–6.2)	Extracellular H $^+$ (pEC ₅₀ \sim 4.1–5.0)	Extracellular H $^+$ (transient component pEC $_{50} \sim 6.2$ –6.7) (sustained component pEC $_{50} \sim 3.5$ –4.3), agmatine (EC $_{50} \sim 9.8$ mM @ pH 7.4, aracaine (EC $_{50} \sim 1.2$ mM @ pH 7.4), GMQ (largely non-desensitizing; pEC $_{50} \sim 3.0$ @ pH 7.4)
Blockers (IC₅o)	ASIC1a: Psalmotoxin 1 (PcTx1) (0.9 nM), Zn^{2+} (~7 nM), A-317567 (~2 μ M), Pb ²⁺ (~4 μ M), Ni ²⁺ (~0.6 mM), amiloride (10 μ M), EIPA, benzamil (10 μ M), nafamostat (~13 μ M), diarylamidines (~3 μ M), ibuprofen/flurbiprofen (350 μ M) ASIC1b: Amiloride (21–23 μ M); Pb ²⁺ (~1.5 μ M), diarylamidines	Amiloride (28 μM), A-317567 (~30 μM), nafamostat (~70 μM), Cd ²⁺ (~1 mM), diarylamidines	APETx2 (63 nM) (transient component only), nafamostat (2.5 ~ μM) (transient component), amiloride (16–63 μM) (transient component only – sustained component enhanced by 200 μM amiloride @ pH 4), A-317567 (~10 μM), aspirin/diclofenac (92 μM – sustained component), salicylic acid (260 μM – sustained component), Gd³+ (40 μM), Zn²+ (61 μM), diarylamidines
Functional characteristics	ASIC1a: $\gamma \sim 14\text{pS}$; $P_{\text{Na}}/P_{\text{K}} = 5-13$, $P_{\text{Na}}/P_{\text{Ca}} = 2.5$; rapid activation rate (5.8–13.7 ms) rapid inactivation rate (1.2–4 s) @ pH 6.0, slow recovery (5.3–13 s) @ pH 7.4 ASIC1b: $\gamma \sim 19$ pS; $P_{\text{Na}}/P_{\text{k}} = 14.0$; $P_{\text{Na}} >> P_{\text{Ca}}$; rapid activation rate (9.9 ms); rapid inactivation rate (0.9–1.7 s) @ pH 6.0, slow recovery (4.4–7.7 s) @ pH 7.4	γ ~10.4–13.4 pS; P_{Na}/P_K = 10, P_{Na}/P_{Ca} = 20; rapid activation rate, moderate inactivation rate (3.3–5.5 s) @ pH 5	$\gamma \sim 13-15$ pS; biphasic response consisting of rapidly inactivating transient and sustained components; very rapid activation (<5 ms) and inactivation (0.4 s); fast recovery (0.4–0.6 s) @ pH 7.4, transient component partially inactivated at pH 7.2
Probes	[125 I]-PcTx1 (ASIC1a $K_D = 213$ pM)	-	-

Psalmotoxin 1 (PcTx1) inhibits ASIC1a by modifying activation and desensitization by H⁺, but promotes ASIC1b opening. PcTx1 has little effect upon ASIC2a, ASIC3, or ASIC1a expressed as a heteromultimer with either ASIC2a, or ASIC3 (Escoubas *et al.*, 2000; Diochot *et al.*, 2007) but does block ASIC1a expressed as a heteromultimer with ASIC2b (Sherwood *et al.*, 2011). Spermine, which apparently competes with PcTx1 for binding to ASIC1a, selectively enhances the function of the channel (Duan *et al.*, 2011). Blockade of ASIC1a by PcTx1 activates the endogenous enkephalin pathway and has very potent analgesic effects in rodents (Mazzuca *et al.*, 2007). APETx2 most potently blocks homomeric ASIC3 channels, but also ASIC2b+ASIC3, ASIC1b+ASIC3, and ASIC1a+ASIC3 heteromeric channels with IC₅₀ values of 117 nM, 900 nM and 2 μM, respectively. APETx2 has no effect on ASIC1a, ASIC1b, ASIC2a, or ASIC2a+ASIC3 (Diochot *et al.*, 2004; 2007). IC₅₀ values for A-317567 are inferred from blockade of ASIC channels native to dorsal root ganglion neurones (Dube *et al.*, 2005). The pEC₅₀ values for proton activation of ASIC channels are influenced by numerous factors including extracellular di- and poly-valent ions, Zn²⁺, protein kinase C and serine proteases (reviewed by Lingueglia *et al.*, 2006). Rapid acidification is required for activation of ASIC1 and ASIC3 due to fast inactivation/desensitization.

pEC₅₀ values for H⁺-activation of either transient, or sustained, currents mediated by ASIC3 vary in the literature and may reflect species and/or methodological differences (Waldmann et al., 1997b; de Weille et al., 1998; Babinski et al., 1999). The transient and sustained current components mediated by rASIC3 are selective for Na⁺ (Waldmann et al., 1997b); for hASIC3 the transient component is Na⁺ selective ($P_{Na}/P_{K} > 10$) whereas the sustained current appears non-selective $(P_{Na}/P_K = 1.6)$ (de Weille et al., 1998; Babinski et al., 1999). The reducing agents dithiothreitol (DTT) and glutathione (GSH) increase ASIC1a currents expressed in CHO cells and ASIC-like currents in sensory ganglia and central neurons (Andrey et al., 2005; Chu et al., 2006) whereas oxidation, through the formation of intersubunit disulphide bonds, reduces currents mediated by ASIC1a (Zha et al., 2009). ASIC1a is also irreversibly modulated by extracellular serine proteases, such as trypsin, through proteolytic cleavage (Vukicevic et al., 2006). Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) are direct blockers of ASIC currents at therapeutic concentrations (reviewed by Voilley, 2004). Extracellular Zn²⁺ potentiates proton activation of homomeric and heteromeric channels incorporating ASIC2a, but not homomeric ASIC1a or ASIC3 channels (Baron et al., 2001). However, removal of contaminating Zn²⁺ by chealation reveals a high affinity block of homomeric ASIC1a and heteromeric ASIC1a+ASIC2 channels by Zn²⁺ indicating complex biphasic actions of the divalent (Chu et al., 2004). Nitric oxide potentiates submaximal currents activated by H⁺ mediated by ASIC1a, ASIC1b, ASIC2a and ASIC3 (Cadiou et al., 2007). Ammonium activates ASIC channels (most likely ASIC1a) in midbrain dopaminergic neurones: that may be relevant to neuronal disorders associated with hyperammonemia (Pidoplichko and Dani, 2006). The positive modulation of homomeric, heteromeric and native ASIC channels by the peptide FMRFamide and related substances, such as neuropeptides FF and SF, is reviewed in detail by Lingueglia et al. (2006). Inflammatory conditions and particular pro-inflammatory mediators induce overexpression of ASIC-encoding genes, enhance ASIC currents (Mamet et al., 2002), and in the case of arachidonic acid directly activate the channel (Smith et al., 2007; Deval et al., 2008). The sustained current component mediated by ASIC3 is potentiated by hypertonic solutions in a manner that is synergistic with the effect of arachidonic acid (Deval et al., 2008). Selective activation of ASIC3 by GMQ at a site separate from the proton binding site is potentiated by mild acidosis and reduced extracellular Ca²⁺ (Yu et al., 2010).

Abbreviations: A-317567 C-{6-[2-(1-Isopropyl-2-methyl-1,2,3,4-tetrahydro-isoquinolin-7-yl)-cyclopropyl]-naphthalen-2-yl}-methanediamine, EIPA, ethylisopropylamiloride; GMQ, 2-guanidine-4-methylquinazoline; FMRFamide, Phe-Met-Arg-Phe-amide; Neuropeptide FF, Phe-Leu-Phe-Gln-Pro-Gln-Arg-Phe-amide; Neuropeptide SF, Ser-Leu-Ala-Pro-Gln-Arg-Phe-amide

Further Reading

Chen X, Orser BA, MacDonald JF (2010). Design and screening of ASIC inhibitors based on aromatic diamidines for combating neurological disorders. Eur J Pharmacol 648: 15-23.

Deval E, Gasull X, Noël J, Salinas M, Baron A, Diochot S, Lingueglia E (2010). Acid-sensing ion channels (ASICs): pharmacology and implication in pain. Pharmacol Ther 128: 549-558.

Diochot S, Salinas M, Baron A, Escoubas P, Lazdunski M (2007). Peptides inhibitors of acid-sensing ion channels. Toxicon 49: 271–284.

Dubé GR, Elagoz A, Mangat H (2009). Acid sensing ion channels and acid nociception. Curr Pharm Des 15: 1750-1766.

Gründer S, Chen X (2010). Structure, function, and pharmacology of acid-sensing ion channels (ASICs): focus on ASIC1a. Int J Physiol Pathophysiol Pharmacol 2: 73-94.

Lingueglia E (2007). Acid-sensing ion channels in sensory perception. J Biol Chem 282: 17325–17329.

Lingueglia E, Deval E, Lazdunski M (2006). FMRFamide-gated sodium channel and ASIC channels: a new class of ionotropic receptors for FMRFamide and related peptides. Peptides 27: 1138-1152.

Kress M, Waldmann R (2006). Acid sensing ionic channels. Curr Top Membr 57: 241-276.

Krishtal O (2003). The ASICs: signaling molecules? Modulators? Trends Neurosci 26: 477-483.

Noel, J., Salinas, M., Baron, A., Diochot, S., Deval, E., Lingueglia, E. (2010). Current perspectives on acid-sensing ion channels: new advances and therapeutic implications. Expert Rev Clin Pharmacol 3, 331–346.

Reeh PW, Kress M (2001). Molecular physiology of proton transduction in nociceptors. Curr Opin Pharmacol 1: 45-51.

Sluka KA, Winter OC, Wemmie JA (2009). Acid-sensing ion channels: a new target for pain and CNS diseases. Curr Opin Drug Discov Devel 12: 693-704.

Voilley N (2004). Acid-sensing ion channels (ASICs): new targets for the analgesic effects of non-steroid anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs). Curr Drug Targets Inflamm Allerg 3: 71-79.

Waldmann R, Lazdunski M (1998). H⁺-gated cation channels: neuronal acid sensors in the NaC/DEG family of ion channels Curr Opin Neurobiol 8: 418-424.

Waldmann R (2001). Proton-gated cation channels-neuronal acid sensors in the central and peripheral nervous system. Adv Exp Med Biol 502: 293-304.

Wemmie JA, Price MP, Welsh MJ (2006). Acid-sensing ion channels: advances, questions and therapeutic opportunities. Trends Neurosci 29:

Xiong ZG, Chu XP, Simon RP (2007). Acid sensing ion channels-novel therapeutic targets for ischemic brain injury. Front Biosci 12: 1376–1386. Xiong ZG, Pignataro G, Li M, Chang SY, Simon RP (2008). Acid-sensing ion channels as pharmacological targets for neurodegenerative diseases. Curr Opin Pharmacol 8: 25-32.

Xu TL, Duan B (2009). Calcium-permeable acid-sensing ion channel in nociceptive plasticity: a new target for pain control. Prog Neurobiol 87: 171-180.

Xu TL, Xiong ZG (2007). Dynamic regulation of acid-sensing ion channels by extracellular and intracellular modulators. Curr Med Chem 14:1753-1763.

References

Akopian AN et al. (2000). Neuroreport 11: 2217-2222. Andrey F et al. (2005). Biochim Biophys Acta 1745: 1-6. Babinski K et al. (1999). J Neurochem 72: 51–57. Babinski K et al. (2000). J Biol Chem 37: 28519-28525. Baron A et al. (2001). J Biol Chem 276: 35361-35367. Baron A et al. (2008). J Neurosci 28:1498-1508. Cadiou H et al. (2007). J Neurosci 27: 13251-13260. Chen C-C et al. (1998). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 95: 10240-10245. Chu X-P et al. (2004). J Neurosci 24: 8678-8689. Chu X-P et al. (2006). J Neurosci 26: 5329-5339. Deval E et al. (2008). EMBO J 27: 3047-3055. Deval E et al. (2011). J Neurosci 31: 6059-6066. Diochot S et al. (2004). EMBO J 23: 1516-1525. Donier E et al. (2008). Eur J Neurosci 28: 74-86. Duan B et al. (2011). J Neurosci 31: 2101-2112. Dube GR et al. (2005). Pain 117: 88-96.

Escoubas P et al. (2000). J Biol Chem 275: 25116–25121.
Friese MA et al. (2007). Nat Med 13: 1483–1489.
Garcia-Anoveros J et al. (1997). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 94: 1459–1464.
Gonzales EB et al. (2009). Nature 460: 599–604.
Grunder S et al. (2000). Neuroreport 11: 1607–1611.
Hattori T et al. (2009). Circ Res 105: 279–286.
Jasti J et al. (2007). Nature 449: 316–323.
Lingueglia E et al. (1997). J Biol Chem 272: 29778–29783.
Mamet J et al. (2002). J Neurosci 22: 10662–10670.
Mazzuca M et al. (2007). Nat Neurosci 10: 943–945.
Pidoplichko VI, Dani JA (2006). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 103: 11376–11380.
Price MP et al. (1996). J Biol Chem 271: 7879–7882.

103: 11376–11380. Yu Y et al. (2010)
Price MP et al. (1996). J Biol Chem 271: 7879–7882. Zha XM et al. (2010)
Sakai H et al. (1999). J Physiol (Lond) 519: 323–333. Ziemann AE et al. Schaefer L et al. (2000). FEBS Lett 471: 205–210.

Sherwood TW et al. (2011). J Neurosci 31: 9723–9734.
Smith ES et al. (2007). Neuroscience 145: 686–698.
Sutherland SP et al. (2001). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 98: 711–716.
Ugawa S et al. (2001). Neuroreport 12: 2865–2869.
Vukicevic M et al. (2006). J Biol Chem 281: 714–722.
Waldmann R et al. (1996). J Biol Chem 271: 10433–10436.
Waldmann R et al. (1997a). Nature 386:173–177.
Waldmann R et al. (1997b). J Biol Chem 272: 20975–20978.
de Weille JR et al. (1998). FEBS Lett 433: 257–260.
Wemmie JA et al. (2002). Neuron 34: 463–477.
Wemmie JA et al. (2003). J Neurosci 23: 5496–5502.
Yu Y et al. (2010). Neuron 68: 61–72
Zha XM et al. (2009). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 106: 3573–3578.
Ziemann AE et al. (2008). Nat Neurosci 11: 816–822.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Aquaporins \$141

Aquaporins

Overview: Aquaporins and aquaglyceroporins are membrane channels that allow the permeation of water and certain other small solutes across the cell membrane. Since the isolation and cloning of the first aquaporin (AQP1) (Preston *et al.*, 1992), 12 additional members of the family have been identified, although little is known about the functional properties of two of these (AQP11 (ENSG00000178301) and AQP12 (ENSG00000184945)). The other 11 aquaporins can be divided into two families (aquaporins and aquaglyceroporins) depending on whether they are permeable to glycerol (King *et al.*, 2004). One or more members of this family of proteins have been found to be expressed in almost all tissues of the body. Individual AQP subunits have six transmembrane domains with an inverted symmetry between the first three and last three domains (Castle, 2005). Functional AQPs exist as tetramers but, unusually, each subunit contains a separate pore, so each channel has four pores.

Nomenclature	AQP0	AQP1	AQP2	AQP3
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000135517	ENSG00000240583	ENSG00000167580	ENSG00000165272
Activators	_	cGMP	_	_
Inhibitors	Hg ²⁺	Hg ²⁺ , TEA, Ag ⁺	Hg ²⁺	Hg ²⁺ , acid pH
Permeability	Water (low)	Water (high)	Water (high)	Water (high), glycerol

Nomenclature	AQP4	AQP5	AQP6	AQP7
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000171885	ENSG00000161798	ENSG00000086159	ENSG00000165269
Activators	-	_	Acid pH	-
Inhibitors	PKC activation	Hg ²⁺	Hg ²⁺	Hg ²⁺
Permeability	Water (high)	Water (high)	Water (low), anions	Water (high), glycerol

			I	
Nomenclature	AQP8	AQP9	AQP10	
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000103375	ENSG00000103569	ENSG00000143595	
Activators	_	-	-	
Inhibitors	Hg ²⁺	Hg ²⁺ , phloretin	Hg ²⁺	
Permeability	Water (high)	Water (low), glycerol	Water (low), glycerol	

AQP6 is an intracellular channel permeable to anions as well as water (Yasui et al. 1999).

Further Reading

Agre P (2006). The aquaporin water channels. Proc Am Thoroc Soc 3: 5-13.

Agre P, King LS, Yasui M, Guggino WB, Ottersen OP, Fujiyoshi Y et al. (2002). Aquaporin water channels: from atomic structure to clinical medicine. J Physiol 542: 3–16.

Amiry-Moghaddam M, Ottersen OP (2003). The molecular basis of water transport in the brain. Nat Rev Neurosci 4: 991-1001.

Carbrey JM, Agre P (2009). Discovery of the aquaporins and development of the field. Handb Exp Pharmacol 190: 3-28.

Castle NA (2005). Aquaporins as targets for drug discovery. Drug Discov Today 10: 485-493.

De Groot BL, Grubmuller H (2005). The dynamics and energetics of water permeation and proton exclusion in aquaporins. *Curr Opin Struct Biol* 15: 176–183.

Frigeri A, Nicchia GP, Svelto M (2007). Aquaporins as targets for drug discovery. Curr Pharm Des 13: 2421–2427.

Ishibashi K, Hara S, Kondo S (2009). Aquaporin water channels in mammals. Clin Exp Nephrol 13: 107-117.

Jeyaseelan K, Sepramaniam S, Armugam A, Wintour EM (2006). Aquaporins: a promising target for drug development. *Expert Opin Ther Targets* 10: 889–909.

Kimelberg HK (2004). Water homeostasis in the brain: basic concepts. Neuroscience 129: 851-860.

King KL, Kozono D, Agre P (2004). From structure to disease: the evolving tale of aquaporin biology. Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol 5: 687–698.

Rojek A, Praetorius J, Frokiaer J, Nielsen S, Fenton RA (2008). A current view of the mammalian aquaglyceroporins. *Annu Rev Physiol* **70**: 301–327. Takeda T, Taguchi D (2009). Aquaporins as potential drug targets for Meniere's disease and its related diseases. *Handb Exp Pharmacol* **190**: 17–184. Verkman AS (2009). Aquaporins: translating bench research to human disease. *J Exp Biol* **212**: 1707–1715.

Wang F, Feng XC, Li YM, Yang H, Ma TH (2006). Aquaporins as potential drug targets. Acta Pharmacol Sin 27: 395-401.

References

Preston GM *et al* (1992). *Science* **256**: 385–387. Yasui M *et al* (1999). *Nature* **402**: 184–187.

\$142 Calcium (voltage-gated)

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Calcium (voltage-gated)

Overview: Calcium (Ca^{2+}) channels are voltage-gated ion channels present in the membrane of most excitable cells. The nomenclature for Ca^{2+} channels was proposed by Ertel *et al.* (2000) and approved by the NC-IUPHAR subcommittee on Ca^{2+} channels (Catterall *et al.*, 2005). Ca^{2+} channels form hetero-oligomeric complexes. The $\alpha 1$ subunit is pore-forming and provides the extracellular binding site(s) for practically all agonists and antagonists. The 10 cloned α -subunits can be grouped into three families: (1) the high-voltage activated dihydropyridine-sensitive (L-type, $Ca_V 1.x$) channels; (2) the high-voltage activated dihydropyridine-insensitive ($Ca_V 2.x$) channels and (3) the low-voltage-activated (T-type, T-type, T-ty

Nomenclature	Ca _V 1.1	Ca _V 1.2	Ca _V 1.3	Ca _V 1.4	Ca _V 2.1
Alternative names	L-type, α_{1s} , skeletal muscle L	L-type, α_{1C} , cardiac or smooth muscle L	L-type, α_{1D}	L-type, α_{1F}	P-type, Q-type, α_{1a}
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000081248	ENSG00000151067	ENSG00000157388	ENSG00000102001	ENSG00000141837
Activators	(-)-(<i>S</i>)-BayK8644 SZ(+)-(<i>S</i>)-202-791 FPL64176	(-)-(S)-BayK8644 SZ(+)-(S)-202-791 FPL64176	(-)-(S)-BayK8644	(-)-(S)-BayK8644	
Blockers	dihydropyridine antagonists, e.g. nifedipine, diltiazem, verapamil, calciseptine	dihydropyridine antagonists, e.g. nifedipine diltiazem, verapamil, calciseptine	Less sensitive to dihydropyridine antagonists verapamil	Less sensitive to dihydropyridine antagonists	$ω$ -Agatoxin IVA (P: IC ₅₀ \sim 1 nM) (Q: IC ₅ \sim 90 nM) $ω$ -Agatoxi IVB, $ω$ -Conotoxin, MVIIC
Functional characteristics	High voltage-activated, slow inactivation	High voltage-activated, slow inactivation (Ca ²⁺ dependent)	Low-moderate voltage-activated, slow inactivation (Ca ²⁺ dependent)	Moderate voltage-activated, slow inactivation (Ca ²⁺ independent)	Moderate voltage-activated, moderate inactivation

Nomenclature	Ca _V 2.2	Ca _V 2.3	Ca _V 3.1	Ca _V 3.2	Ca _V 3.3
Alternative names Ensembl ID	N-type, α_{1B} ENSG00000148408	R-type, α _{1E} ENSG00000198216	T-type, α_{1G} ENSG00000006283	T-type, α _{1H} ENSG00000196557	T-type, α ₁₁ ENSG00000100346
Blockers	ω-Conotoxin GVIA, ω-Conotoxin MVIIC	SNX482 (may not be completely specific), high Ni ²⁺	Mibefradil, low sens. to Ni ²⁺ , kurtoxin, SB-209712	Mibefradil, high sens. to Ni ²⁺ , kurtoxin, SB-209712	Mibefradil, low sens. to Ni ²⁺ , kurtoxin, SB-209712
Functional characteristics	High voltage-activated, moderate inactivation	Moderate voltage-activated, fast inactivation	Low voltage-activated, fast inactivation	Low voltage-activated, fast inactivation	Low voltage-activated, moderate inactivation

In many cell types, P and Q current components cannot be adequately separated and many researchers in the field have adopted the terminology 'P/Q-type' current when referring to either component. Ziconotide (a synthetic peptide equivalent to ω -conotoxin) has been approved for the treatment of chronic pain (Williams *et al.*, 2008).

Further Reading

Bauer CS, Tran-Van-Minh A, Kadurin I, Dolphin AC (2010). A new look at calcium channel α 2 δ subunits. *Curr Opin Neurobiol* 20: 563–571. Belardetti F, Zamponi GW (2008).Linking calcium-channel isoforms to potential therapies. *Curr Opin Investig Drugs* 9: 707–715.

Buraei Z, Yang J (2010). The β subunit of voltage-gated Ca²⁺ channels. *Physiol Rev* 90: 1461–1506.

Catterall WA (2000). Structure and regulation of voltage-gated Ca²⁺ channels. Ann Rev Cell Dev Biol 16: 521–555.

Catterall WA (2011). Voltage-gated calcium channels. Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol 3: a003947.

Catterall WA, Perez-Reyes E, Snutch TP, Striessing J (2005). International Union of Pharmacology. XLVIII. Nomenclature and structure-function relationships of voltage-gated calcium channels. *Pharmacol Rev* 57: 411–425.

Catterall, WA, Dib-Hajj S, Meisler MH, Pietrobon D (2008). Inherited neuronal ion channelopathies: new windows on complex neurological diseases. *J Neurosci* 28: 11768–11777.

Davies A, Hendrich J, Van Minh AT, Wratten J, Douglas L, Dolphin AC (2007). Functional biology of the alpha(2)delta subunits of voltage-gated calcium channels. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 28: 220–228.

Dolphin AC (2003). G protein modulation of voltage-gated calcium channels. Pharmacol Rev 55: 607-627.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Calcium (voltage-gated) \$143

Dolphin AC (2009). Calcium channel diversity: multiple roles of calcium channel subunits. Curr Opin Neurobiol 19: 237-244.

Elmslie KS (2004). Calcium channel blockers in the treatment of disease. I Neurosci Res 75: 733-741.

Ertel EA, Campbell KP, Harpold MM, Hofmann F, Mori Y, Perez-Reyes E *et al.* (2000). Nomenclature of voltage-gated calcium channels. *Neuron* **25**: 533–535.

Gao L (2010). An update on peptide drugs for voltage-gated calcium channels. Recent Pat CNS Drug Discov 5: 14-22.

Han TS, Teichert RW, Olivera BM, Bulaj G (2008). Conus venoms – a rich source of peptide-based therapeutics. *Curr Pharm Des* 14: 2462–2479. Hofmann F, Lacinova L, Klugbauer N (1999). Voltage-dependent calcium channels; from structure to function. *Rev Physiol Biochem Pharmacol* 139: 35–87.

Kochegarov AA (2003). Pharmacological modulators of voltage-gated calcium channels and their therapeutic application. *Cell Calcium* 33: 145–162.

Lewis RJ, Garcia ML (2003). Therapeutic potential of venom peptides. Nat Rev Drug Discov 2: 790-802.

Lory P, Chemin J (2007). Towards the discovery of novel T-type calcium channel blockers. Expert Opin Ther Targets 11: 717-722.

Nelson MT, Todorovic SM, Perez-Reyes E (2006). The role of T-type calcium channels in epilepsy and pain. Curr Pharm Des 12: 2189–2197.

Perez-Reyes E (2003). Molecular physiology of low-voltage-activated T-type calcium channels. Physiol Rev 83: 117–161.

Pexton T, Moeller-Bertram T, Schilling JM, Wallace MS (2011). Targeting voltage-gated calcium channels for the treatment of neuropathic pain: a review of drug development. Expert Opin Investig Drugs 20: 1277–1284.

Taylor CP, Anelotti T, Fauman E (2007). Pharmacology and mechanism of action of pregabalin; the calcium channel alpha2-delta subunit as a target for antiepileptic drug discovery. *Epilepsy Res* **73**: 137–150.

Terlau H, Olivera BM (2004). Conus venoms: a rich source of novel ion channel-targeted peptides. Physiol Rev 84: 41-68.

Triggle DJ (2006). L-type calcium channels. Curr Pharm Des 12: 443-457.

Triggle DJ (2007). Calcium channel antagonists: clinical uses - past, present and future. Biochem Pharmacol 74: 1-9.

Trimmer JS, Rhodes KJ (2004). Localisation of voltage-gated ion channels in mammalian brain. Ann Rev Physiol 66: 477-519.

Williams JA, Day M, Heavner JE (2008). Ziconotide: an update and review. Expert Opin Pharmacother 9: 1575-1583.

Yamamoto T, Takahara A (2009). Recent updates of N-type calcium channel blockers with therapeutic potential for neuropathic pain and stroke. *Curr Top Med Chem* 9: 377–395.

Yu FH, Catterall WA (2004). The VGL-chanome: a protein superfamily specialized for electrical signaling and ionic homeostasis. *Sci STKE* **2004**: re15.

Zamponi GW, Lewis RJ, Todorovic SM, Arneric SP, Snutch TP (2009). Role of voltage-gated calcium channels in ascending pain pathways. *Brain Res Rev* **60**: 84–89.

\$144 CatSper channels Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

CatSper channels

Overview: CatSper channels (CatSper1-4; nomenclature as agreed by NC-IUPHAR, Clapham and Garbers, 2005) are putative 6TM, voltage-gated, calcium permeant channels that are presumed to assemble as a tetramer of α-like subunits and mediate the current I_{CatSper} . In mammals, CatSper subunits are structurally most closely related to individual domains of voltage-activated calcium channels (Ca_v) (Ren *et al.*, 2001). CatSper1 (Ren *et al.*, 2001), CatSper2 (Quill *et al.*, 2001) and CatSpers 3 and 4 (Lobley *et al.*, 2003; Lin *et al.*, 2005; Qi *et al.*, 2007), in common with a recently identified putative 2TM auxiliary CatSperβ protein (Liu *et al.*, 2007) and two putative 1TM associated CatSperγ and CatSperδ proteins (Wang *et al.*, 2009; Chung *et al.*, 2011), are restricted to the testis and localised to the principle piece of sperm tail.

Nomenclature	CatSper1	CatSper2	CatSper3	CatSper4
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000175294	ENSG00000166762	ENSG00000152705	ENSG00000188782
Activators	Constitutively active, weakly facilitated by membrane depolarisation, strongly augmented by intracellular alkalinisation. In human, but not mouse, spermatozoa progesterone ($EC_{50} \sim 8$ nM) also potentiates the CatSper current ($I_{CatSper}$).	-	-	-
Blockers	Cd ²⁺ (200 μM), Ni ²⁺ (300 μM), ruthenium red (10 μM), NNC55-0396 (2–10 μM), HC-056456 (20 μM), mibefradil (30 μM)	-	-	-
Functional characteristics	Calcium selective ion channel ($Ba^{2+}>Ca^{2+}>>Mg^{2+}>>Na^+$); quasilinear monovalent cation current in the absence of extracellular divalent cations; alkalinization shifts the voltage-dependence of activation towards negative potentials [$V_{1/2}$ @ pH 6.0 = +87 mV (mouse); $V_{1/2}$ @ pH 7.5 = +11 mV (mouse) or pH 7.4 = +85 mV (human)]	Required for I _{CatSper}	Required for I _{CatSper}	Required for I _{CatSper}

CatSper channel subunits expressed singly, or in combination, fail to functionally express in heterologous expression systems (Ren et al., 2001; Quill et al., 2001). The properties of CatSper1 tabulated above are derived from whole cell voltage-clamp recordings comparing currents endogenous to spermatozoa isolated from the corpus epididymis of wild-type and Catsper1^(-/-) mice (Kirichok et al., 2006) and also mature human sperm (Lishko et al., 2011; Strünker et al., 2011). I_{CatSper} is also undetectable in the spermatozoa of *Catsper2*^(-/-), *Catsper3*^(-/-), or *Catsper4*^(-/-) mice and CatSper 1 associates with CatSper 2, 3, or 4 in heterologous expression systems (Qi et al., 2007). Moreover, targeted disruption of Catsper 1, 2, 3, or 4 genes results in an identical phenotype in which spermatozoa fail to exhibit the hyperactive movement (whip-like flagellar beats) necessary for penetration of the egg cumulus and zona pellucida and subsequent fertilization. Such disruptions are associated with a deficit in alkalinization and depolarization-evoked Ca²⁺ entry into spermatozoa (Carlson et al., 2003, 2005; Qi et al., 2007). Thus, it is likely that the CatSper pore is formed by a heterotetramer of CatSpers1-4 (Qi et al., 2007) in association with the auxiliary subunits (β , γ , δ) that are also essential for function (Chung et al., 2011). CatSper channels are required for the increase in intracellular Ca²⁺ concentration in sperm evoked by egg zona pellucida glycoproteins (Xia and Ren, 2009). The driving force for Ca^{2+} entry is principally determined by a mildly outwardly rectifying K^+ channel (KSper) that, like CatSpers, is activated by intracellular alkalinization (Navarro et al., 2007). Mouse KSper is encoded by mSlo3, a protein detected only in testis (Navarro et al., 2007; Martinez-Lopez et al., 2009; Zeng et al., 2011). In human sperm, such alkalinization may result from the activation of H_v1, a proton channel (Lishko and Kirichok, 2010). Mutations in CatSpers are associated with syndromic and non-syndromic male infertility (Hildebrand et al., 2010). In human ejaculated spermatozoa, progesterone (<50 nM) potentiates the CatSper current by a non-genomic mechanism and acts synergistically with intracellular alkalinisation (Lishko et al., 2011; Strünker et al., 2011). In addition, certain prostaglandins (e.g. PGF_{1α}, PGE₁) also potentiate CatSper mediated currents (Lishko et al., 2011; Strünker et al., 2011).

Abbreviations: HC-056456, (3,4-bis(2-thienylcarbonyl)-1,2,5-oxadiazole-2-ium-2-olate); NNC55-0396, (15,2S)-2-[2-[[3-(1*H*-benzimidazol-2-yl)propyl]methylamino]ethyl]-6-fluoro-1,2,3,4-tetrahydro-1-(1-methylethyl)-2-naphthalenyl cyclopropanecarboxylate

Further Reading

Clapham DE, Garbers DL (2005). International Union of Pharmacology. L. Nomenclature and structure-function relationships of CatSper and two-pore channels. *Pharmacol Rev* 57: 451–454.

Hildebrand MS, Avenarius MR, Fellous M, Zhang Y, Meyer NC, Auer J et al. (2010). Genetic male infertility and mutation of CATSPER ion channels. Eur J Hum Genet 18: 1178–1184.

Kirichok Y, Lishko PV (2011). Rediscovering Sperm Ion Channels with the Patch-Clamp Technique. Mol Hum Reprod 17: 478-499.

Lishko PV, Kirichok Y (2010). The role of Hv1 and CatSper channels in sperm activation. J Physiol 588: 4667–4672.

Navarro B, Kirichok Y, Chung JJ, Clapham DE (2008). Ion channels that control fertility in mammalian spermatozoa. *Int J Dev Biol* **52**:607–613. Publicover SJ, Giojalas LC, Teves ME, de Oliveira GS, Garcia AA, Barratt CL *et al.* (2008). Ca²⁺ signalling in the control of motility and guidance in mammalian sperm. *Front Biosci* **13**: 5623–5637.

Quill TA, Wang D, Garbers DL (2006). Insights into sperm cell motility through sNHE and the CatSpers. Mol Cell Endocrinol 250: 84-92.

Ren D, Xia J (2010). Calcium signaling through CatSper channels in mammalian fertilization. Physiology (Bethesda) 25: 165-175.

Suarez SS (2008). Control of hyperactivation in sperm. Hum Reprod Update 14: 647-657.

Zhang D, Gopalakrishnan M (2005). Sperm ion channels: molecular targets for the next generation of contraceptive medicines? *J Androl* 26: 643–653.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA CatSper channels S145

References

Carlson AE et al. (2003). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 100: 14864–14868. Carlson AE et al. (2005). J Biol Chem 280: 32238–32244. Chung J-J et al. (2011). Nat Commun 2: 153. Kirichok Y et al. (2006). Nature 439: 737–740. Lin J-L et al. (2005). Biol Reprod 73: 1235–1242. Liu J et al. (2007). J Biol Chem 282: 18945–18952. Lishko PV et al. (2011). Nature 471: 387–391. Lobley A et al. (2003). Reprod Biol Endocrinol 1: 53. Martinez-Lopez P et al. (2009). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 381: 204–209.

Navarro B et al. (2007). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 104: 7688–7692. Qi H et al. (2007). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 104: 1219–1223. Quill TA et al. (2001). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 98: 12527–12531. Ren D et al. (2001). Nature 413: 603–609. Strünker T et al., (2011). Nature 471, 382–386. Wang H et al. (2009). Biol Reprod 81: 539–544. Xia J, Ren D (2009). Biol Reprod 80: 1092–1098. Zeng XH et al. (2011). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 108: 5879–5884.

\$146 Chloride channels Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Chloride channels

Overview: Chloride channels are a functionally and structurally diverse group of anion selective channels involved in processes including the regulation of the excitability of neurones, skeletal, cardiac and smooth muscle, cell volume regulation, transepithelial salt transport, the acidification of internal and extracellular compartments, the cell cycle and apoptosis (reviewed by Duran *et al.*, 2010). Excluding the transmittergated GABA_A and glycine receptors (see separate tables), well characterised chloride channels can be classified as certain members of the voltage-sensitive CIC subfamily, calcium-activated channels, high (maxi) conductance channels, the cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator (CFTR) and volume regulated channels (Verkman and Galietta, 2009). No official recommendation exists regarding the classification of chloride channels. Functional chloride channels that have been cloned from, or characterised within, mammalian tissues are listed with the exception of several classes of intracellular channels (*e.g.* CLIC) that are reviewed by Edwards and Kahl (2010).

CIC-family: The mammalian CIC family (reviewed by Chen, 2005; Dutzler, 2007; Jentsch, 2008; Accardi and Picollo, 2010; Duran et al., 2010) contains 9 members that fall, on the basis of sequence homology, into three groups; ClC-1, ClC-2, hClC-Ka (rClC-K1) and hClC-Kb (rClC-K2); CIC-3 to CIC-5, and CIC-6 and -7. CIC-1 and CIC-2 are plasma membrane chloride channels. CIC-Ka and CIC-Kb are also plasma membrane channels (largely expressed in the kidney and inner ear) when associated with barttin (ENSG00000162399), a 320 amino acid 2TM protein (Estévez et al., 2001). The localisation of the remaining members of the CIC family is likely to be predominantly intracellular in vivo, although they may traffic to the plasma membrane in overexpression systems. Numerous recent reports indicate that CIC-4, CIC-5, CIC-6 and CIC-7 (and by inference ClC-3) function as Cl⁻/H⁺ antiporters (secondary active transport), rather than classical Cl⁻ channels (Picollo and Pusch, 2005: Scheel et al., 2005; Graves et al., 2008; Neagoe et al., 2010; Leisle et al., 2011; reviewed by Pusch et al., 2006 and Accardi and Picollo, 2010). Novarino et al. (2010) recently reported that the activity of CIC-5 as a Cl⁻/H⁺ exchanger is important for renal endocytosis. Alternative splicing increases the structural diversity within the CIC family. The crystal structure of two bacterial CIC proteins has been described by Dutzler et al. (2002) and a eukaryotic CIC transporter (CmCLC) has recently been described at 3.5 Å resolution (Feng et al., 2010). Each CIC subunit, with a complex topology of 18 intramembrane segments, contributes a single pore to a dimeric 'double-barrelled' CIC channel that contains two independentlygated pores, confirming the predictions of previous functional and structural investigations (reviewed by Chen, 2005; Pusch et al., 2006; Dutzler, 2007; Jentsch, 2008). As found for ClC-4, ClC-5, ClC-6 and ClC-7, the prokaryotic ClC homologue (ClC-ec1) and CmCLC function as H+/Clantiporters, rather than as ion channels (Accardi and Miller, 2004; Feng et al., 2010). The generation of monomers from dimeric ClC-ec1 has firmly established that each CIC subunit is a functional unit for transport and that cross-subunit interaction is not required for CI⁻/H⁺ exchange in CIC transporters (Robertson et al., 2010).

Nomenclature	CIC-1	CIC-2	CIC-Ka	CIC-Kb
Other names	skeletal muscle Cl ⁻ channel	-	CIC-K1 (rodent)	CIC-K2 (rodent)
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000186544	ENSG00000114859	ENSG00000186510	ENSG00000184908
Activators	Constitutively active	Arachidonic acid, amidation, acid-activated omeprazole, lubiprostone (SPI-0211)	Constitutively active (when co-expressed with barttin) Niflumic acid (10–1000 µM)	Constitutively active (when co-expressed with barttin) Niflumic acid (10–1000 µM)
Blockers	S-(-)CPP, S-(-)CPB, 9-AC, Cd ²⁺ , Zn ²⁺ , niflumic acid, fenofibric acid	GaTx2 (apparent K_D = 15 pM at -100 mV), NPPB, DPC, Cd ²⁺ , Zn ²⁺	3-phenyl-CPP, DIDS, benzofuran derivatives, niflumic acid (>1 mM)	3-phenyl-CPP, DIDS, benzofuran derivatives
Functional characteristics	γ = 1–1.5 pS; voltage-activated (depolarization) (by fast gating of single protopores and a slower common gate allowing both pores to open simultaneously); inwardly rectifying; incomplete deactivation upon repolarization, ATP binding to cytoplasmic cystathionine β -synthetase related (CBS) domains inhibits CIC-1 (by closure of the common gate), depending on its redox status	γ = 2–3 pS; voltage-activated by membrane hyperpolarization by fast protopore and slow cooperative gating; channels only open negative to E _{Cl} resulting in steady-state inward rectification; voltage-dependence modulated by permeant anions; activated by cell swelling, PKA, and weak extracellular acidosis; potentiated by SGK1; inhibited by phosphorylation by p34(cdc2)/cyclin B; cell surface expression and activity increased by association with Hsp90	γ = 26 pS; linear current-voltage relationship except at very negative potentials; no time dependence; inhibited by extracellular protons (p K = 7.1); potentiated by extracellular Ca ²⁺	Bidirectional rectification; no time dependence; inhibited by extracellular protons; potentiated by extracellular Ca ²⁺

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Chloride channels \$147

CIC-3 CIC-5 Nomenclature CIC-4 Ensembl ID ENSG00000109572 ENSG00000073464 ENSG00000171365 Activators Blockers Phloretin (30 µM); insensitive to DIDS Zn^{2+} (50 μ M), Cd^{2+} (68 μ M) (IC₅₀ Insensitive to DIDS 1 mM), DPC and NPPB and tamoxifen (10 µM) values; Osteen and Mindell, 2008) (1 mM), 9-AC (2 mM), NPPB (0.5 mM), niflumic acid (1 mM) **Functional** Cl-/H+ antiporter (Matsuda et al., Cl-/H+ antiporter (2Cl-:1H+) Picollo and Cl-/H+ antiporter (2Cl-:1H+) (Picollo 2008); pronounced outward and Pusch, 2005; Scheel et al., 2005; characteristics Pusch, 2005; Scheel et al., 2005; rectification; slow activation, fast Alekov and Fahlke, 2009); extreme Zifarelli and Pusch, 2009; Smith and Lippiat, 2010); extreme outward deactivation; activity enhanced by outward rectification: CaM kinase II; inhibited by intracellular voltage-dependent gating with rectification; voltage-dependent gating Ins(3,4,5,6)P4 and extracellular midpoint of activation at +73 mV with midpoint of activation of acidosis (Orhan et al., 2011); rapid activation 116.0 mV; rapid activation and and deactivation; inhibited by deactivation; potentiated and inhibited extracellular acidosis; non-hydrolytic by intracellular and extracellular nucleotide binding required for full acidosis, respectively; ATP binding to activity cytoplasmic cystathionine β-synthetase related (CBS) domains activates CIC-5

CIC-7 Nomenclature CIC-6 Ensembl ID ENSG00000011021 ENSG00000103249 Activators Active when co-expressed with Ostm1 DIDS (1 mM) DIDS (40 μ M), NS5818 (52 μ M); NPPB (156 μ M) (IC₅₀ values; Schulz et al., Blockers 2010) Cl-/H+ antiporter (2Cl-:1H+) (Neagoe et al., Cl⁻/H⁺ antiporter (2Cl⁻:1H⁺) (Graves et al., 2008; Schulz et al., 2010; Leisle **Functional** characteristics 2010); outward rectification, rapid et al., 2011); strong outward rectification; voltage-dependent gating with a activation and deactivation threshold more positive than ~ + 20 mV; very slow activation and deactivation

CIC channels display the permeability sequence Cl⁻ > Br⁻⁻ > I⁻ (at physiological pH). CIC-1 has significant opening probability at resting membrane potential, accounting for 75% of the membrane conductance at rest in skeletal muscle, and is important for stabilization of the membrane potential. S-(-)CPP, 9-AC and niflumic acid act intracellularly and exhibit a strongly voltage-dependent block with strong inhibition at negative voltages and relief of block at depolarized potentials (Liantonio et al., 2007 and reviewed by Pusch et al., 2002). Inhibition of CIC-2 by the peptide GaTx2, from Leiurus quinquestriatus herbareus venom, is likely to occur through inhibition of channel gating, rather than direct open channel blockade (Thompson et al., 2009). Although CIC-2 can be activated by cell swelling, it does not correspond to the VRAC channel (see below). Alternative potential physiological functions for CIC-2 are reviewed by Planells-Cases and Jentsch (2009). Functional expression of human CIC-Ka and CIC-Kb requires the presence of barttin (Estévez et al., 2001; Scholl et al., 2006; reviewed by Fahlke and Fischer, 2010). The properties of ClC-Ka/barttin and ClC-Kb/barttin tabulated are those observed in mammalian expression systems: in oocytes the channels display time- and voltage-dependent gating. The rodent homologue (CIC-K1) of CIC-Ka demonstrates limited expression as a homomer, but its function is enhanced by barttin which increases both channel opening probablility in the physiological range of potentials (Estévez et al., 2001; Scholl et al., 2006; Fischer et al., 2010; reviewed by Fahlke and Fischer, 2010). CIC-Ka is approximately 5 to 6-fold more sensitive to block by 3-phenyl-CPP and DIDS than ClC-Kb, while newly synthesized benzofuran derivatives showed the same blocking affinity (<10 μM) on both CLC-K isoforms (Liantonio et al. 2008). The biophysical and pharmacological properties of ClC-3, and the relationship of the protein to the endogenous volume-regulated anion channel(s) VRAC (see Guan et al., 2006; Alekov and Fahlke, 2008) are controversial and further complicated by the possibility that CIC-3 may function as both a Cl⁻/H⁺ exchanger and an ion channel (Picollo and Pusch, 2005; Wang et al., 2006, Alekov and Fallke, 2008). The functional properties tabulated are those most consistent with the close structural relationship between CIC-3, CIC-4 and CIC-5. Activation of heterologously expressed CIC-3 by cell swelling in response to hypotonic solutions is disputed, as are many other aspects of its regulation. Dependent upon the predominant extracellular anion (e.g. SCN versus Cl-), CIC-4 can operate in two transport modes: a slippage mode in which behaves as an ion channel and an exchanger mode in which unitary transport rate is 10-fold lower (Alekov and Fahlke, 2009). Similar findings have been made for ClC-5 (Zdebik et al. 2008). ClC-7 associates with a β subunit, Ostm1, which increases the stability of the former (Lange et al., 2006) and is essential for its function (Leisle et al., 2011).

CFTR: CFTR, a 12TM, ABC transporter-type protein (see Page S214), is a cAMP-regulated epithelial cell membrane Cl⁻ channel involved in normal fluid transport across various epithelia. Of the 1700 mutations identified in CFTR, the most common is the deletion mutant Δ F508 (a class 2 mutation) which results in impaired trafficking of CFTR and reduces its incorporation into the plasma membrane causing cystic fibrosis (reviewed by Cuthbert, 2011). Channels carrying the Δ F508 mutation that do traffic to the plasma membrane demonstrate gating defects. Thus, pharmacological restoration the function of the Δ F508 mutant would require a compound that embodies 'corrector' (*i.e.* facilitates folding and trafficking to the cell surface) and 'potentiator' (*i.e.* promotes opening of channels at the cell surface) activities (see Cuthbert, 2011). In addition to acting as an anion channel *per se*, CFTR may act as a regulator of several other conductances including inhibition of the epithelial Na channel (ENaC), calcium activated chloride channels (CaCC) and volume regulated anion channel (VRAC), activation of the outwardly rectifying chloride channel (ORCC), and enhancement of the sulphonylurea sensitivity of the renal outer medullary potassium channel (ROMK2), (reviewed by Nilius and Droogmans, 2003). CFTR also regulates TRPV4, which provides the Ca²⁺ signal for regulatory volume decrease in airway epithelia (Arniges *et al.*, 2004). The activities of CFTR and the chloride-bicarbonate exchangers SLC26A3 (DRA) and SLC26A6 (PAT1) are mutually enhanced by a physical association between the regulatory (R) domain of CFTR and the STAS domain of the SCL26 transporters, an effect facilitated by PKA-mediated phosphorylation of the R domain of CFTR (Ko *et al.*, 2004).

\$148 Chloride channels Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Nomenclature CFTR
Other names ABCC7

Ensembl ID ENSG0000001626

Potentiators VX-770, flavones (e.g. UCCF-339, UCCF-029, apigenin, genistein), benzimidazolones (e.g. UCCF-853, NS004),

benzoquinolines (e.g. CBIQ), 1,4-dihydropyridines (e.g. felopidine, nimodipine), capsaicin, phenylglycines (e.g. 2 [(2.1 H index 3 yl acetyl) mothylaminol N (4 isopropylphonyl) 2 phonylacetamide), sulfonamides (e.g.

 $\hbox{2-[(2-1$$H$-indol-3-yl-acetyl)-methylamino]-N-(4-isopropylphenyl)-2-phenylacetamide), sulfonamides (\emph{e.g.}). The sulfonamides (\emph{e.g.}) is a sulfonamide of the sulfonamide of th$

6-(ethylphenylsulfamoyl)-4-oxo-1,4-dihydroquinoline-3-carboxylic acid cycloheptylamide)

Blockers GaTx-1, GlyH-101 (extracellular application causes channel block), CFTR_{inh}-172 (intracellular application prolongs mean

closed time), malonic acid hydrazide conjugates (see Verkman and Galietta, 2009), glibenclamide (non-selective)

Functional $\gamma = 6-10 \text{ pS}$; permeability sequence = Br $^- \ge Cl^- > l^- > F^-$, (P₁/P_{Cl} = 0.1–0.85); slight outward rectification; phosphorylation necessary for activation by ATP binding at binding nucleotide binding domains (NBD)1 and 2; positively regulated by PKC

and PKGII (tissue specific); regulated by several interacting proteins including syntaxin 1A, Munc18 and PDZ domain

proteins such as NHERF (EBP50) and CAP70

In addition to the agents listed in the table, the novel small molecule, ataluren, induces translational read through of nonsense mutations in CFTR (reviewed by Sloane and Rowe, 2010). Corrector compounds that aid the folding of Δ F508CFTR to increase the amount of protein expressed and potentially delivered to the cell surface include VX-532 (which is also a potentiator), VRT-325, KM11060, Corr-3a and Corr-4a (see Verkman and Galietta (2009) for details and structures of Corr-3a and Corr-4a). Inhibition of CFTR by intracellular application of the peptide GaTx1, from *Leiurus quinquestriatus herbareus venom*, occurs preferentially for the closed state of the channel (Fuller *et al.*, 2007). CFTR contains two cytoplasmic nucleotide binding domains (NBDs) that bind ATP. A single open-closing cycle is hypothesised to involve, in sequence: binding of ATP at the N-terminal NBD1, ATP binding to the C-terminal NBD2 leading to the formation of an intramolecular NBD1-NBD2 dimer associated with the open state, and subsequent ATP hydrolysis at NBD2 facilitating dissociation of the dimer and channel closing, and the initiation of a new gating cycle (Aleksandrov *et al.*, 2007; Muallem and Vergani, 2009). Phosphorylation by PKA at sites within a cytoplasmic regulatory (R) domain facilitates the interaction of the two NBD domains. PKC (and PKGII within intestinal epithelial cells *via* guanylin-stimulated cGMP formation) positively regulate CFTR activity.

Calcium activated chloride channel: Chloride channels activated by intracellular calcium (CaCC) are widely expressed in excitable and non-excitable cells where they perform diverse functions (Hartzell et al., 2005). The molecular nature of CaCC has been uncertain with both CLCA, TWEETY and BEST genes having been considered as likely candidates (Loewen and Forsyth, 2005; Hartzell et al., 2008; Duran et al., 2010). It is now accepted that CLCA expression products are unlikely to form channels per se and probably function as cell adhesion proteins, or are secreted (Patel et al., 2009). Similarly, TWEETY gene products do not recapictulate the properties of endogenous CaCC. The bestrophins encoded by genes BEST1-4 have a topology more consistent with ion channels (see Hartzell et al., 2008) and form chloride channels that are activated by physiological concentrations of Ca²⁺, but whether such activation is direct is not known (Hartzell et al., 2008). However, currents generated by bestrophin over-expression do not resemble native CaCC currents. The evidence for and against bestrophin proteins forming CaCC is critically reviewed by Duran et al. (2010). Recently, a new gene family, TMEM16 (anoctamin) consisting of 10 members (TMEM16A-K; anoctamin 1-10) has been identified and there is firm evidence that some of these members form chloride channels (Duran and Hartzell, 2011; Kunzelmann et al., 2011). TMEM16A (anoctamin 1; Ano 1) produces Ca²⁺-activated Cl⁻ currents with kinetics similar to native CaCC currents recorded from different cell types (Caputo et al., 2008; Schroeder et al., 2008; Yang et al., 2008; Rock et al., 2009). Knockdown of TMEM16A greatly reduces currents mediated by calcium-activated chloride channels in submandibular gland cells (Yang et al., 2008) and smooth muscle cells from pulmonary artery (Manoury et al, 2010). In TMEM16A⁽⁻⁾ mice secretion of Ca²⁺-dependent Cl⁻ secretion by several epithelia is reduced (Ousingsawat et al., 2009, Rock et al., 2009). Alternative splicing regulates the voltage- and Ca²⁺- dependence of TMEM16A and such processing may be tissue-specific manner and thus contribute to functional diversity (Ferrera et al., 2009). There are also reports that TMEM16B (anoctamin 2; Ano 2) supports CaCC activity (e.g. Pifferi et al., 2009) and in TMEM16B^(-/-) mice Ca-activated Cl- currents in the main olfactory epithelium (MOE) and in the vomeronasal organ are virtually absent (Billig et al., 2011).

Nomenclature CaCC

Other names Ca²⁺-activated Cl⁻ channel

Activators intracellular Ca²⁺

Blockers niflumic acid, flufenamic acid, DCDPC, DIDS, SITS, NPPB, A-9-C, Ins(3,4,5,6)P₄, mibefradil, fluoxetine, tannic acid Functional $\gamma = 0.5-5$ pS; permeability sequence, SCN⁻ > NO₃⁻> I⁻ > Br⁻ > Cl⁻ > F⁻; relative permeability of SCN⁻:Cl⁻ ~8. I⁻:Cl⁻ ~3, characteristics aspartate:Cl⁻ ~0.15, outward rectification (decreased by increasing [Ca²⁺]_i); sensitivity to activation by [Ca²⁺] decreased at

hyperpolarized potentials; slow activation at positive potentials (accelerated by increasing [Ca²⁺]); rapid deactivation at negative potentials, deactivation kinetics modulated by anions binding to an external site; modulated by redox status

Blockade of $I_{Cl(Ca)}$ by niflumic acid, DIDS and 9-AC is voltage-dependent whereas block by NPPB is voltage-independent (Hartzell *et al.*, 2005). Extracellular niflumic acid; DCDPC and A-9-C (but not DIDS) exert a complex effect upon $I_{Cl(Ca)}$ in vascular smooth muscle, enhancing and inhibiting inwardly and outwardly directed currents in a manner dependent upon $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ (see Leblanc *et al.*, 2005 for summary). Considerable crossover in pharmacology with large conductance Ca^{2+} -activated K^+ channels also exists (see Greenwood and Leblanc, 2007 for overview). Two novel compounds, $CaCC_{inh}$ -A01 and $CaCC_{inh}$ -B01 have recently been identified as blockers of calcium-activated chloride channels in T84 human intestinal epithelial cells (see De La Fuente *et al.* (2008) for structures). Significantly, other novel compounds totally block currents mediated by TMEM16A, but have only a modest effect upon total current mediated by CaCC native to T84 cells or human bronchial epithelial cells, suggesting that TMEM16A is not the predominant CaCC in such cells (Namkung *et al.*, 2011). CaMKII modulates CaCC in a tissue dependent manner (reviewed by Hartzell *et al.*, 2005; Leblanc *et al.*, 2005). CaMKII inhibitors block activation of $I_{Cl(Ca)}$ in T_{84} cells but have no effect in parotid acinar cells. In tracheal and arterial smooth muscle cells, but not portal vein myocytes, inhibition of CaMKII reduces inactivation of $I_{Cl(Ca)}$. Intracellular Ins(3,4,5,6)P₄ may act as an endogenous negative regulator of CaCC channels activated by Ca^{2+} , or CaMKII. Smooth muscle CaCC are also regulated positively by Ca^{2+} -dependent phosphatase, calcineurin (see Leblanc *et al.*, 2005 for summary).

Chloride channels \$149 Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Maxi chloride channel: Maxi Cl⁻ channels are high conductance, anion selective, channels initially characterised in skeletal muscle and subsequently found in many cell types including neurones, glia, cardiac muscle, lymphocytes, secreting and absorbing epithelia, macula densa cells of the kidney and human placenta syncytiotrophoblasts (Sabirov and Okada, 2009). The physiological significance of the maxi Cl⁻ channel is uncertain, but roles in cell volume regulation and apoptosis have been claimed. Evidence suggests a role for maxi Cl⁻ channels as a conductive pathway in the swelling-induced release of ATP from mouse mammary C127i cells that may be important for autocrine and paracrine signalling by purines (Sabirov et al., 2001; Dutta et al, 2002). A similar channel mediates ATP release from macula densa cells within the thick ascending of the loop of Henle in response to changes in luminal NaCl concentration (Bell et al., 2003). A family of human high conductance Cl⁻ channels (TTYH1-3) that resemble Maxi Cl⁻ channels has been cloned (Suzuki and Mizuno, 2004), but alternatively, Maxi Cl⁻ channels have also been suggested to correspond to the voltage-dependent anion channel, VDAC, expressed at the plasma membrane (Bahamonde et al., 2003; Okada et al, 2004).

Nomenclature Maxi Cl-

High conductance anion channel, volume- and voltage-dependent ATP-conductive large conductance (VDACL) anion Other names

channel

G-protein-coupled receptors, cytosolic GTP\(gamma\), extracellular triphenylethylene anti-oestrogens (tamoxifen, toremifine), Activators

extracellular chlorpromazine and triflupromazine, cell swelling

Blockers SITS, DIDS, NPPB, DPC, intracellular arachidonic acid, extracellular Zn²⁺ and Gd³⁺

Functional

 γ = 280-430 pS (main state); permeability sequence, I > Br > Cl > F > gluconate ($P_{Cl}P_{Cl} = \sim 1.5$); ATP is a voltage dependent permeant blocker of single channel activity (PATP/PCI = 0.08-0.1); channel activity increased by patch-excision; channel characteristics

opening probability (at steady-state) maximal within approximately ± 20 mV of 0 mV, opening probability decreased at more negative and (commonly) positive potentials yielding a bell-shaped curve; channel conductance and opening

probability regulated by annexin 6

Differing ionic conditions may contribute to variable estimates of γ reported in the literature. Inhibition by arachinonic acid (and cis-unsaturated fatty acids) is voltage-independent, occurs at an intracellular site, and involves both channel shut down ($K_d = 4-5 \mu M$) and a reduction of γ ($K_d = 13-14 \,\mu\text{M}$). Blockade of channel activity by SITS, DIDS, Gd³⁺ and arachidonic acid is paralleled by decreased swelling-induced release of ATP (Sabirov et al., 2001; Dutta et al., 2002). Channel activation by anti-oestrogens in whole cell recordings requires the presence of intracellular nucleotides and is prevented by pre-treatment with 17β-oestradiol, dibutryl cAMP, or intracellular dialysis with GDPβS (Diaz et al., 2001). Activation by tamoxifen is suppressed by low concentrations of okadaic acid, suggesting that a dephosphorylation event by protein phosphatase PP2A occurs in the activation pathway (Diaz et al., 2001). In contrast, 17β-estradiol and tamoxifen appear to directly inhibit the maxi Cl $^-$ channel of human placenta reconstituted into giant liposomes and recorded in excised patches (Riquelme, 2009).

Volume regulated chloride channels: Volume activated chloride channels (also termed VSOAC, volume-sensitive organic osmolyte/anion channel; VRC, volume regulated channel and VSOR, volume expansion-sensing outwardly rectifying anion channel) participate in regulatory volume decrease (RVD) in response to cell swelling. VRAC may also be important for several other processes including the regulation of membrane excitability, transcellular Cl- transport, angiogenesis, cell proliferation, necrosis, apoptosis, glutamate release from astrocytes, insulin release from pancreatic β cells and resistance to the anti-cancer drug, cisplatin (reviewed by Nilius and Droogmans, 2003; Mulligan and MacVicar, 2006; Okada et al., 2009; Best et al., 2010). VRAC may not be a single entity, but may instead represent a number of different channels that are expressed to a variable extent in different tissues and are differentially activated by cell swelling. In addition to CIC-3 expression products (see above) several former VRAC candidates including MDR1 P-glycoprotein, Icln, Band 3 anion exchanger and phospholemman are also no longer considered likely to fulfil this function (see reviews by Nilius and Droogmans, 2003; Sardini et al. 2003).

VRAC (volume regulated anion channel), VSOAC (volume-sensitive organic osmolyte/anion channel), VRC (volume Nomenclature

regulated channel), VSOR (volume expansion-sensing outwardly rectifying anion channel)

Activators cell swelling; low intracellular ionic strength; GTPγS

NS3728, DCPIB, clomiphene, nafoxidine, mefloquine, tamoxifen, gossypol, arachidonic acid, mibefradil, NPPB, quinine, **Blockers**

quinidine, chromones, NDGA, A-9-C, DIDS, 1,9-dideoxyforskolin, oxalon dye (diBA-(5)-C4), carbenoxolone, IAA-94,

extracellular nucleotides, nucleoside analogues, intracellular Mg²⁺

 γ = 10–20 pS (negative potentials), 50–90 pS (positive potentials); permeability sequence SCN > I > NO³⁻ >Br⁻ > Cl⁻ > F⁻ **Functional** characteristics

> gluconate; outward rectification due to voltage dependence of γ , inactivates at positive potentials in many, but not all, cell types; time dependent inactivation at positive potentials; intracellular ionic strength modulates sensitivity to cell swelling and rate of channel activation; rate of swelling-induced activation is modulated by intracellular ATP concentration; ATP dependence is independent of hydrolysis and modulated by rate of cell swelling; inhibited by increased intracellular free Mg²⁺ concentration; swelling induced activation of several intracellular signalling cascades may be permissive of, but not essential to, the activation of VRAC including: the Rho-Rho kinase-MLCK; Ras-Raf-MEK-ERK; PIK3-NOX- H_2O_2 and Src-PLC γ -Ca²⁺ pathways; regulation by PKC α required for optimal activity; cholesterol depletion

enhances activity; activated by direct stretch of β1-integrin

In addition to conducting monovalent anions, in many cell types the activation of VRAC by a hypotonic stimulus can allow the efflux of organic osmolytes such as amino acids and polyols that may contribute to RVD.

Other chloride channels: In addition to some intracellular chloride channels that are not considered here, plasma membrane channels other than those listed have been functionally described. Many cells and tissues contain outwardly rectifying chloride channels (ORCC) that may correspond to VRAC active under isotonic conditions. A cAMP-activated Cl⁻ channel that does not correspond to CFTR has been described in intestinal Paneth cells (Tsumura et al., 1998). A Cl channel activated by cGMP with a dependence on raised intracellular Ca²⁺ has been recorded in various vascular smooth muscle cells types, which has a pharmacology and biophysical characteristics very different from the 'conventional'

\$150 Chloride channels Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

CaCC (see Matchkov *et al.*, 2004; Piper and Large, 2004). It has been proposed that bestrophin-3 is an essential component of the cGMP-activated channel (Matchkov *et al.*, 2008). A proton-activated, outwardly rectifying anion channel has also been described (Lambert and Oberwinkler, 2005).

Abbreviations: A-9-C, anthracene-9-carboxylic acid; CBIQ, 4-chlorobenzo[F]isoquinoline; CFTR_{inh}-172, 3-[(3-trifluoromethyl)phenyl]5-[(4-carboxyphenyl)methylene]-2-thioxo-4-thiazolidinone; S-(-)CPP, S-(-)2-(4-chlorophenoxy)propionic acid; S-(-)CPB, S-(-)2-(4-chlorophenoxy)butyric acid; DCPIB, 4-(2-butyl-6,7-dichlor-2-cyclopentyl-indan-1-on-5-yl) oxybutyric acid; diBA-(5)-C4, bis-(1,3-dibutylbarbituric acid)pentamethine oxanol; DIDS, 4,4'-diisothiocyanostilbene-2,2'-disulphonic acid; DNDS, 4,4'-dinitrostilbene-2,2'-disulphonic acid; GlyH-101, N-(2-naphthalenyl)-[(3,5-dibromo-2,4-dihydroxyphenyl)methylene]glycine hydrazide; IAA-94, indanyloxyacetic acid 94; NDGA, nordihydroguiaretic acid; DPC, diphenylamine carboxylic acid; DPDPC, dichloro-diphenylamine 2-carboxylic acid; KM11060, 7-chloro-4-[4-[(4-chlorophenyl)sulfonyl]piperazino]quinoline; NPA, N-phenylanthracilic acid; NPPB, 5-nitro-2-(3-phenylpropylamino)benzoic acid; NS004, 5-trifluoromethyl-(5-chloro-2-hydroxyphenyl)-1,3-dihydro-2H-benzimidazole-2-one; NS3728, N-[3,5-bis(trifluoromethyl)-phenyl]-N'[4-bromo-2-(1H-tetrazol-5yl)-phenyl]urea; NS5818, N-(3,5-dichloro-phenyl)-N'-[2-(1H-tetrazol-5-yl)-biphenyl-4'-carboxylic acid dimethylamide} urea; SITS, 4'-isothiocyanostilbene-2,2'-disulphonic acid; UCCF-029, 2-(4-pyridinium)benzo[h]4H-chromen-4-one bisulfate; UCCF-180, 3-(3-butynyl)-5-methoxy-1-phenylpyrazole-4-carbaldehyde; UCCF-853, 1-(3-chlorophenyl)-5-trifluoromethyl-3-hydroxybenzimidazol-2-one, VRT-325, 4-cyclohexyloxy-2-[1-[4-(4-methoxy-benzenesulfonyl)piperazin-1-yl]ethyl]quinazoline VX-532, 4-methyl-2-(5-phenyl-1H-pyrazol-3-yl)-phenol; VX-770, N-(2,4-Di-tert-butyl-5-hydroxyphenyl)-1,4-dihydro-4-oxoquinoline-3-carboxamide

Further Reading

Accardi A, Picollo A (2010). CLC channels and transporters: proteins with borderline personalities. *Biochim Biophys Acta* **1798**: 1457–1464. Alekov AK, Fahlke C (2008). Anion channels: regulation of ClC-3 by an orphan second messenger. *Curr Biol* **18**: R1061–1064.

Aleksandrov AA, Aleksandrov LA, Riordan JR (2007). CFTR (ABCC7) is a hydrolyzable-ligand-gated channel. *Pflugers Arch* 453: 693–702.

Amaral MD, Kunzelmann K (2007). Molecular targeting of CFTR as a therapeutic approach to cystic fibrosis. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 28:

334–341.

Aromataris EC, Rychkov GY (2006). CIC-1 chloride channel: matching its properties to a role in skeletal muscle. *Clin Exp Pharmacol Physiol* 33: 1118–1123.

Ashlock MA, Olson ER (2011). Therapeutics development for cystic fibrosis: a successful model for a multisystem genetic disease. *Annu Rev Med* 62: 107–125

Babini E, Pusch MA (2004). Two-holed story: structural secrets about CIC proteins become unraveled? Physiology (Bethesda) 19: 293-299.

Best L, Brown PD, Sener A, Malaisse W (2010). Electrical activity in pancreatic islet cells. The VRAC hypothesis. Islets 2: 59-64.

Chen T-Y (2005). Structure and function of CLC channels. Annu Rev Physiol 67: 809-839.

Chen T-Y, Hwang TC (2008). CLC-0 and CFTR: chloride channels evolved from transporters. Physiol Rev 88: 351-387.

Cuthbert AW (2011). New horizons in the treatment of cystic fibrosis. Br J Pharmacol 163: 173-183.

Duan D (2009). Phenomics of cardiac chloride channels: the systematic study of chloride channel function in the heart. *J Physiol* **587**: 2163–2177.

Duan DD (2011). The ClC-3 chloride channels in cardiovascular disease. Acta Pharmacol Sin 32: 675-684.

Duran C, Hartzell HC (2011). Physiological roles and diseases of tmem16/anoctamin proteins: are they all chloride channels? *Acta Pharmacol Sin* 32: 685–692.

Duran C, Thompson CH, Xiao Q, Hartzell HC (2010). Chloride channels: often enigmatic, rarely predictable. Annu Rev Physiol 72: 95–121.

Dutzler R (2007). A structural perspective on CIC channel and transporter function. FEBS Lett 581: 2839-2844.

Edwards JC, Kahl CR (2010). Chloride channels of intracellular membranes. FEBS Lett 584: 2102-2111.

Fahlke Ch (2001). Ion permeation and selectivity in ClC-type chloride channels. Am J Physiol 280: F748-F757.

Fahlke Ch, Fischer M (2010). Physiology and pathophysiology of ClC-K/barttin channels. Front Physiol 1:155.

Ferrera L, Caputo A, Galietta LJ (2010). TMEM16A protein: a new identity for Ca²⁺-dependent Cl⁻ channels. Physiology (Bethesda) **25**: 357–363. Gadsby DC, Vergani P, Csanady L (2006). The ABC protein turned chloride channel whose failure causes cystic fibrosis. *Nature* **440**: 477–483. Galietta LJ (2009). The TMEM16 protein family: a new class of chloride channels? *Biophys J* **97**: 3047–3053.

Greenwood IA, Leblanc N (2007). Overlapping pharmacology of Ca²⁺-activated Cl and K⁺ channels. Trends Pharmacol Sci 28: 1–5.

Guan Y-Y, Wang G-L, Zhou J-G (2006). The ClC-3 Cl- channel in cell volume regulation, proliferation and apoptosis in vascular smooth muscle cells. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 27: 290–296.

Jentsch TJ (2008). CLC chloride channels and transporters: from genes to protein structure, pathology and physiology. *Crit Rev Biochem Mol Biol* 43: 3–36.

Kirk KL, Wang W (2011). A unified view of cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator (CFTR) gating: combining the allosterism of a ligand-gated channel with the enzymatic activity of an ATP-binding cassette (ABC) transporter. *J Biol Chem* 286: 12813–12819.

Kunzelmann K, Tian Y, Martins JR, Faria D, Kongsuphol P, Ousingsawat J et al. (2011). Anoctamins. Pflugers Arch 479-487.

Hartzell C, Putzier I, Arreola J (2005). Calcium-activated chloride channels. Annu Rev Physiol 67: 719-758.

Hartzell HC, Qu Z, Yu K, Xiao Q, Chien LT (2008). Molecular physiology of bestrophins: multifunctional membrane proteins linked to best disease and other retinopathies. *Physiol Rev* 88: 639–672.

Krämer BK, Bergler T, Stoelcker B, Waldegger S (2008). Mechanisms of Disease: the kidney-specific chloride channels ClCKa and ClCKb, the Barttin subunit, and their clinical relevance. *Nat Clin Pract Nephrol* 4: 38–46.

Leblanc N, Ledoux J, Saleh S, Sanguinetti A, Angermann J, O'Driscoll K et al. (2005). Regulation of calcium-activated chloride channels in smooth muscle cells: a complex picture is emerging. Can J Physiol Pharmacol 83: 541–556.

Loewen ME, Forsyth GW (2005). Structure and function of CLCA proteins. Physiol Rev 85: 1061-1092.

Muallem D, Vergani P (2009). Review. ATP hydrolysis-driven gating in cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator. *Philos Trans R Soc Lond B Biol Sci* 364: 247–255.

Mulligan SJ, MacVicar BA (2006). VRACs CARVe a path for novel mechanisms of communication in the CNS. Sci STKE 357: pe42.

Nilius B, Droogmans G (2003). Amazing chloride channels: an overview. Acta Physiol Scand 177: 119-147.

Noy E, Senderowitz H (2011). Combating cystic fibrosis: in search for CF transmembrane conductance regulator (CFTR) modulators. *ChemMed-Chem* 6: 243–251.

Okada Y (2006). Cell-volume sensitive chloride channels: phenotypic properties and molecular identity. Contrib Nephrol 152: 9–24.

Okada Y, Sato K, Numata T (2009). Pathophysiology and puzzles of the volume-sensitive outwardly rectifying anion channel. *J Physiol* **587**: 2141–1459.

Patel AC, Brett TJ, Holtzman MJ (2009). The role of CLCA proteins in inflammatory airway disease. Annu Rev Physiol 71: 425-449.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Chloride channels S151

Plans V, Rickheit G, Jentsch TJ (2009). Physiological roles of CLC Cl⁻/H⁺ exchangers in renal proximal tubules. *Pflügers Arch* **458**: 23–37.

Planells-Cases R, Jentsch TJ (2009). Chloride channelopathies. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1792: 173–189.

Puljak L, Kilic G (2006). Emerging roles of chloride channels in human diseases. Biochim Biopsy Acta 1762: 404-413.

Pusch M, Accardi A, Liantonio A, Guida P, Traverso S, Camerino DC *et al.* (2002). Mechanisms of block of muscle type CLC chloride channels. *Mol Membr Biol* 19: 285–292.

Pusch M, Zifarelli G, Murgia AR, Picollo A, Babini E (2006). Channel or transporter? The CLC saga continues. Exp Physiol 91: 149–152.

Riquelme G (2009). Placental chloride channels: a review. *Placenta* 30: 659–669.

Riordan JR (2005). Assembly of functional CFTR chloride channels. Annu Rev Physiol 67: 701-718.

Sabirov RZ, Okada Y (2009). The maxi-anion channel: a classical channel playing novel roles through an unidentified molecular entity. *J Physiol Sci* **59**: 3–21.

Sardini A, Amey JS, Weylandt KH, Nobles M, Valverde MA, Higgins CF (2003). Cell volume regulation and swelling-activated chloride channels. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1618: 153–162.

Sloane PA, Rowe SM (2010). Cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator protein repair as a therapeutic strategy in cystic fibrosis. *Curr Opin Pulm Med* 16: 591–597.

Suzuki M, Mizuno A (2004). A novel human Cl⁻ channel family related to *Drosophila* flightless locus. *J Biol Chem* **279**: 22461–22468. Verkman AS, Galietta LJ (2009). Chloride channels as drug targets. *Nat Rev Drug Discov* **8**: 153–171.

References

Accardi A., Miller C (2004). Nature 427: 803-807. Alekov AK, Fahlke C (2009). J Gen Physiol 133: 485-496. Arniges M et al. (2004). J Biol Chem 279: 54062-54068. Bahamonde MI et al. (2003). J Biol Chem 278: 33284-33289. Bell PD et al. (2003). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 100: 4322-4327. Billig GM et al. (2011). Nat Neurosci 14: 763-769. Caputo A et al. (2008). Science 322:590-594. De La Fuente R et al. (2008). Mol Pharmacol 73:758-568. Diaz M et al. (2001). J Physiol 536: 79-88. Dutta AK et al. (2002). J Physiol 542: 803-816. Dutzler R et al. (2002). Nature 415: 287-294. Estévez R et al. (2001). Nature 414: 558-561. Feng L et al. (2010), Science 330: 635-641. Ferrera L et al. (2009). J Biol Chem 284: 33360-33368. Fischer M et al. (2010). J Am Soc Nephrol 21: 1281–1289. Fuller MD et al. (2007). J Biol Chem 282: 37545-37355. Graves AR et al. (2008). Nature 453: 788-792. Ko SBH et al. (2004). Nat Cell Biol 6: 343-350. Lambert S, Oberwinkler J (2005). J Physiol 576: 191-213. Lange PF et al. (2006). Nature 440: 220-223. Leisle L et al. (2011). EMBO J 30: 2140-2152. Liantonio A et al. (2007). Br J Pharmacol 150: 235-247. Liantonio A et al. (2008). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 105:1369-1373. Matchkov VV et al. (2004). J Gen Physiol 123: 121-134.

Matchkov VV et al. (2008). Circ Res 103: 864-872.

Matsuda JJ et al. (2008). Am J Physiol Cell Physiol 294: 251-262. Manoury B et al. (2010). J Physiol 588:2305-2314. Namkung W et al. (2011). J Biol Chem 286: 2365-2374. Novarino G et al. (2010). Science 328: 1398-1401. Neagoe I et al. (2010). J Biol Chem 285: 21689-21697. Okada SF et al. (2004). J Gen Physiol 124: 513-526. Orhan G et al. (2011). Biophys J 100: 1233-1241. Osteen ID. Mindell IA (2008). Biophys I 95: 4668–4675. Ousingsawat J et al. (2009). J Biol Chem 284: 28698-28703. Picollo A, Pusch M (2005). Nature 436: 420-423. Pifferi S et al. (2009). Pflugers Arch 458:1023-1038. Piper AS, Large WA (2004). J Physiol 555: 397-408. Robertson JL et al. (2010). Nature 468: 844-847. Rock JR et al. (2009). J Biol Chem 284: 14875-14880. Sabirov RZ et al. (2001). J Gen Physiol 118: 251-266. Scheel O et al. (2005). Nature 436: 424-427. Scholl U et al. (2006). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 103: 11411-11416. Schulz P et al. (2010). PLoS ONE 5: e12585. Schroeder BC et al. (2008). Cell 134: 1019-1029. Smith AJ, Lippiat JD (2010). FASEB J 24: 3696-3705. Thompson CH et al. (2009). J Biol Chem 284: 26051-26062. Tsumura T et al. (1998). J Physiol 512: 765-777. Yang YD et al. (2008). Nature 455: 1210-1215. Zdebik AA et al. (2008). J Biol Chem 283: 4219-4227. Zifarelli G, Pusch M (2009). EMBO J 28: 175-182.

\$152 Connexins and pannexins

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Connexins and pannexins

Overview: Gap junctions are essential for many physiological processes including cardiac and smooth muscle contraction, regulation of neuronal excitability and epithelial electrolyte transport (see Evans and Martin 2002, Bruzzone *et al.*, 2003, Connors and Long 2004). Gap junction channels allow the passive diffusion of molecules of up to 1,000 Daltons which can include nutrients, metabolites and second messengers (such as IP₃) as well as cations and anions. 21 connexin genes (Cx23, Cx25, Cx26, Cx30, Cx30.2, Cx30.3, Cx31.1, Cx31.1, Cx31.9, Cx32, Cx36, Cx37, Cx40, Cx40.1, Cx43, Cx45, Cx46, Cx47, Cx50, Cx59, Cx62) and 3 pannexin genes (Px1, Px2, Px3; which are structurally related to the invertebrate innexin genes) code for gap junction proteins in humans. Each connexin gap junction comprises 2 hemichannels or 'connexons' which are themselves formed from 6 connexin molecules. The various connexins have been observed to combine into both homomeric and heteromeric combinations, each of which may exhibit different functional properties. It is also suggested that individual hemichannels formed by a number of different connexins might be functional in at least some cells (see Herve *et al.*, 2007). Connexins have a common topology, with four α-helical transmembrane domains, two extracellular loops, a cytoplasmic loop, and N- and C-termini located on the cytoplasmic membrane face. In mice, the most abundant connexins in electrical synapses in the brain seem to be Cx36, Cx45 and Cx57 (Sohl *et al.*, 2005). Mutations in connexin genes are associated with the occurrence of a number of pathologies, such as peripheral neuropathies, cardiovascular diseases and hereditary deafness. The pannexin genes Px1 and Px2 are widely expressed in the mammalian brain (Vogt *et al.*, 2005). Like the connexins, at least some of the pannexins can form hemichannels (Bruzzone *et al.*, 2003, Pelegrin and Surprenant, 2007).

Connexins **Pannexins** Nomenclature Cx23, Cx25, Cx26, Cx30, Cx30.2, Cx30.3, Cx31, Cx31.1, Cx31.9, Cx32, Cx36, Px1, Px2, Px3 Cx37, Cx40, Cx40.1, Cx43, Cx45, Cx46, Cx47, Cx50, Cx59, Cx62 Ensembl ID ENSG00000159248 (Cx36)* ENSG00000110218 (Px1) ENSG00000073150 (Px2) ENSG00000154143 (Px3) Inhibitors carbenoxolone carbenoxolone flufenamic acid little block by flufenamic acid unaffected by raising external calcium octanol raising external calcium

Connexins are most commonly named according to their molecular weights, so, for example, Cx23 is the connexin protein of 23 kDa. This can cause confusion when comparing between species – for example, the mouse connexin Cx57 is orthologous to the human connexin Cx62. No natural toxin or specific inhibitor of junctional channels has been identified yet however two compounds often used experimentally to block connexins are carbenoxolone and flufenamic acid (Salameh and Dhein, 2005). At least some pannexin hemichannels are more sensitive to carbenoxolone than connexins but much less sensitive to flufenamic acid (Bruzzone et al., 2005). It has been suggested that 2-aminoethoxydiphenyl borate (2-APB) may be a more effective blocker of some connexin channel subtypes (Cx26, Cx30, Cx36, Cx40, Cx45, Cx50) compared to others (Cx32, Cx43, Cx46, Bai et al., 2006).

*Due to space constraints, the Ensembl ID for only Cx36 is given. Ensembl information for the other connexins can be found from links therein.

Further Reading

Bennett MV, Zukin RS (2004). Electrical coupling and neuronal synchronization in the mammalian brain. Neuron 41: 495-511.

Connors BW, Long MA (2004). Electrical synapses in the mammalian brain. Ann Rev Neurosci 27: 393-418.

Cruciani V, Mikalsen SO (2006). The vertebrate connexin family. Cell Mol Life Sci 63: 1125-1140.

Evans WH, Martin PEM (2002). Gap junctions: structure and function. Mol Memb Biol 19: 121-136.

Evans WH, De Vuyst E, Leybaert L (2006). The gap junction cellular internet: connexin hemichannels enter the signalling limelight. *Biochem J* 397: 1–14.

Goodenough DA, Paul DL (2009). Gap Junctions. Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol 1: a002576.

Herve JC, Sarrouilhe D (2005). Connexin-made channels as pharmacological targets. Curr Pharm Des 11: 1941–1958.

Herve JC, Phelan P, Bruzzone R, White TW (2005). Connexins, innexins and pannexins: bridging the communication gap. *Biochem Biophys Acta* 1719: 3–5.

Homuzdi SG, Filippov MA, Mitropoulou G, Monyer H, Bruzzone R (2004). Electrical synapses: a dynamic signaling system that shapes the activity of neuronal networks. *Biochem Biophys Acta* 1662: 113–137.

Kandouz M, Batist G (2010). Gap junctions and connexins as therapeutic targets in cancer. Expert Opin Ther Targets 14: 681-692.

Kumar NM, Gilula NB (1996). The gap junction communication channel. Cell 84: 381–388.

MacVicar BA, Thompson RJ (2010). Non-junction functions of pannexin-1 channels. Trends Neurosci 33: 93-102.

Mese G, Richard G, White TW (2007). Gap junctions: basic structure and function. J Invest Dermatol 127: 2516-2524.

Salameh A, Dhein S (2005). Pharmacology of gap junctions: new pharmacological targets for treatment of arrhythmia, seizure and cancer? *Biochem Biophys Acta* 1719: 36–58.

Shestopalov VI, Panchin Y (2008). Pannexins and gap junction protein diversity. Cell Mol Life Sci 65: 376-394.

Sohl G, Maxeiner S, Willecke K (2005). Expression and functions of neuronal gap junctions. Nature Rev Neurosci 6: 191–200.

Spray DC, Dermietzel R (1996). Neuroscience Intelligence Unit: Gap Junctions in the Nervous System. Springer: New York.

Yen MR, Saier MH (2007). Gap junctional proteins of animals: the innexin/pannexin superfamily. Prog Biophys Mol Biol 94: 5-14.

Zoidl G, Dermietzel R (2010). Gap junctions in inherited human disease. Pflugers Arch 460: 451-466.

References

Bai D *et al.* (2006). *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* **319**: 1452–1458. Bruzzone R *et al.* (2003). *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **100**: 13644–13649. Bruzzone R *et al.* (2005). *J Neurochem* **92**: 1033–1043. Herve JC *et al.* (2007). *Prog Biophys Mol Biol* **94**: 29–65. Pelegrin P, Surprenant A (2007). *J Biol Chem* **282**: 2386–2394. Vogt A *et al.* (2005). *Brain Res Mol Brain Res* **141**: 113–120.

Cyclic nucleotide-gated channels

Overview: Cyclic nucleotide-gated (CNG) channels are responsible for signalling in the primary sensory cells of the vertebrate visual and olfactory systems. A standardised nomenclature for CNG channels has been proposed by the NC-IUPHAR subcommittee on voltage-gated ion channels (see Hofmann et al., 2005).

CNG channels are voltage-independent cation channels formed as tetramers. Each subunit has 6TM, with the pore-forming domain between TM5 and TM6. CNG channels were first found in rod photoreceptors (Fesenko et al., 1985; Kaupp et al., 1989), where light signals through rhodopsin and transducin to stimulate phosphodiesterase and reduce intracellular cGMP level. This results in a closure of CNG channels and a reduced 'dark current'. Similar channels were found in the cilia of olfactory neurons (Nakamura and Gold, 1987) and the pineal gland (Dryer and Henderson, 1991). The cyclic nucleotides bind to a domain in the C terminus of the subunit protein: other channels directly binding cyclic nucleotides include HCN, eag and certain plant potassium channels.

Nomenclature	CNGA1	CNGA2	CNGA3
Other names	CNG1, CNGα1, RCNC1	CNG2, CNG α 3, OCNC1	CNG3, CNGα2, CCNC1
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000198515	ENSG00000183862	ENSG00000144191
Activators	Intracellular cyclic nucleotides: cGMP (EC ₅₀ \approx 30 μ M) >> cAMP	Intracellular cyclic nucleotides: cGMP \approx cAMP (EC ₅₀ \approx 1 μ M)	Intracellular cyclic nucleotides: cGMP (EC ₅₀ \approx 30 μ M) >> cAMP
Inhibitors	L- <i>cis</i> diltiazem	_	L- <i>ci</i> s diltiazem
Functional characteristics	$\gamma = 25-30 \text{ pS}$ $P_{\text{Ca}}/P_{\text{Na}} = 3.1$	$\gamma = 35 \text{ pS}$ $P_{\text{Ca}}/P_{\text{Na}} = 6.8$	$\gamma = 40 \text{ pS}$ $P_{\text{Ca}}/P_{\text{Na}} = 10.9$

CNGA1, CNGA2 and CNGA3 express functional channels as homomers, Three additional subunits CNGA4 (ENSG00000132259), CNGB1 (ENSG00000070729) and CNGB3 (ENSG00000170289) do not, and are referred to as auxiliary subunits. The subunit composition of the native channels is believed to be as follows. Rod: CNGA1₃/CNGB1a; Cone: CNGA2₂/CNGB3₂; Olfactory neurons: CNGA2₂/CNGA4/CNGB1b (Weitz et al., 2002; Zheng et al., 2002; Zhong et al., 2002; Peng et al., 2004; Zheng and Zagotta, 2004).

Further Reading

Biel M, Michalakis S (2009). Cyclic nucleotide-gated channels. Handb Exp Pharmacol 191: 111-136.

Bradley J, Reisert J, Frings S (2005). Regulation of cyclic nucleotide-gated channels. Curr Opin Neurobiol 15: 343-349.

Brown RL, Strassmaier T, Brady JD, Karpen JW (2006). The pharmacology of cyclic nucleotide-gated channels: emerging from the darkness. Curr Pharm Des 12: 3597-3613.

Craven KB, Zagotta WN (2006). CNG and HCN channels: two peas, one pod. Annu Rev Physiol 68: 375-401.

Cukkemane A, Seifert R, Kaupp UB (2011). Cooperative and uncooperative cyclic-nucleotide-gated ion channels. Trends Biochem Sci 36: 55-64. Hofmann F, Biel M, Kaup UB (2005). International Union of Pharmacology. LI. Nomenclature and structure-function relationships of cyclic nucleotide-regulated channels. Pharmacol Rev 57: 455-462.

Kaupp UB, Seifert R (2002). Cyclic nucleotide-gated ion channels. Physiol Rev 82: 769-824.

Matulef K, Zagotta WN (2003). Cyclic nucleotide-gated ion channels. Annu Rev Cell Dev Biol 19: 23-44.

Mazzolini M, Marchesi A, Giorgetti A, Torre V (2010). Gating in CNGA1 channels. Pflugers Arch 459: 547-555.

Yu FH, Catterall WA (2004). The VGL-chanome: a protein superfamily specialized for electrical signaling and ionic homeostasis. Sci STKE 2004: re15.

References

Dryer SE, Henderson D (1991). Nature 353: 756-758. Fesenko EE et al. (1985). Nature 313: 310-313. Kaupp UB et al. (1989). Nature 342: 762-766. Nakamura T, Gold GH (1987). Nature 325: 442-444. Peng CH et al. (2004). Neuron 42: 401-410.

Weitz D et al. (2002). Neuron 36: 881-889. Zheng J, Zagotta WN (2004). Neuron 42: 411-421. Zheng J et al. (2002). Neuron 36: 891-896. Zhong H et al. (2002). Nature 420: 193-198.

Epithelial sodium channels (ENaC)

Overview: The epithelial sodium channels (ENaC) mediates sodium reabsorption in the aldosterone-sensitive distal part of the nephron and the collecting duct of the kidney. ENaC is found on other tight epithelial tissues such as the airways, distal colon and exocrine glands. ENaC activity is tightly regulated in the kidney by aldosterone, angiotensin II, vasopressin, insulin and glucocorticoids; this fine regulation of ENaC is essential to maintain sodium balance between daily intake and urinary excretion of sodium, circulating volume and blood pressure. ENaC expression is also vital for clearance of foetal lung fluid, and to maintain air-surface-liquid. (Hummler *et al.*, 1996; Loffing and Korbmacher, 2009). Sodium reabsorption is suppressed by the 'potassium-sparing' diuretics amiloride and triamterene. ENaC is a heteromultimeric channel made of homologous α β and γ subunits. The primary structure of α ENaC subunit was identified by expression cloning (Canessa *et al.*, 1993); β and γ ENaC were identified by functional complementation of the α subunit (Canessa *et al.*, 1994). Each ENaC subunit contains 2 TM α helices connected by a large extracellular loop and short cytoplasmic amino- and carboxy-termini. The stoichiometry of the epithelial sodium channel in the kidney and related epithelia is, by homology with the structurally related channel ASIC1a, thought to be a heterotrimer of 1α :1 β :1 γ subunits (Gonzales *et al.*, 2009).

Nomenclature Epithelial sodium channel (ENaC)

Ensembl ID Human α subunit, ENSG00000111319; human β subunit, ENSG00000168447; human γ subunit,

ENSG00000166828; human δ subunit, ENSG00000162572

Activators (EC₅₀) S3969 (1.2 μM) (Lu *et al.*, 2008)

Blockers (IC₅₀) Amiloride (100-200 nM), benzamil (~10 nM), triamterene (~5 μM) (Canessa et al., 1994; Kellenberger et al.,

2003), P552-02 (7.6 nM; Hirsch et al., 2008)

Functional characteristics $\gamma \approx 4\text{--}5 \text{ pS}, \, P_{\text{Na}}/P_{\text{K}} > 20;$ tonically open at rest; expression and ion flux regulated by circulating

aldosterone-mediated changes in gene transcription. The action of aldosterone, which occurs in 'early' (1.5-3 h) and 'late' (6-24 hr) phases is competitively antagonised by spironolactone, its active metabolites and eplerenone. Glucocorticoids are important functional regulators in lung/airways and this control is potentiated by thyroid hormone; but the mechanism underlying such potentiation is unclear (Barker et al., 1990; Sayegh, et al., 1999; Richard et al., 2004). The density of channels in the apical membrane, and hence G_{Na}, can be controlled via both serum and glucocorticoid-regulated kinases (SGK1, 2 and 3) (Debonneville et al., 2001; Friedrich et al., 2003) and via cAMP/PKA (Morris and Schafer, 2002); and these protein kinases appear to act by inactivating Nedd-4/2, a ubiquitin ligase that normally targets the ENaC channel complex for internalization and degradation (Debonneville et al., 2001, Boarse et al. 2011). ENaC is constitutively activated by soluble and membrane-bound serine proteases, such as furin, prostasin (CAP1), plasmin and elastase (Planes and Caughey, 2007; Rotin and Schild, 2008; Kleyman et al., 2009; Rossier and Stutts, 2009; Kitamura and Tomita, 2010). The activation of ENaC by proteases is blocked by a protein, SPLUNC1, secreted by the airways and which binds specifically to ENaC to prevent its cleavage (Garcia-Caballero et al., 2009). Pharmacological inhibitors of proteases (e.g. camostat acting upon prostasin) reduce the activity of ENaC (Maekawa et al., 2009). Phosphatidylinositides such as PtIns(4,5)P₂ and PtIns(3,4,5)P₃) stabilise channel gating probably by binding to the β and γ ENaC subunits, respectively (Ma et al., 2007; Pochynyuk et al., 2008), whilst C terminal phosphorylation of β and γ -ENaC by ERK1/2 has been reported to inhibit the withdrawal of the channel complex from the apical membrane (Yang et al., 2006). This effect may contribute to the cAMP-mediated increase in sodium conductance.

Data in the table refer to the $\alpha\beta\gamma$ heteromer. There are several human diseases resulting from mutations in ENaC subunits. Liddle's syndrome (including features of salt-sensitive hypertension and hypokalemia), is associated with gain of function mutations in the β and γ subunits leading to defective ENaC ubiquitylation and increased stability of active ENaC at the cell surface (Staub *et al.*, 1996; Rotin and Schild, 2008; Schild, 2010). Enzymes that deubiquitylate ENaC increase its function *in vivo*. Pseudohypoaldosteronism type 1 (PHA-1) can occur through either mutations in the gene encoding the mineralocorticoid receptor, or loss of function mutations in genes encoding ENaC subunits (see Bonny and Hummler, 2000). Regulation of ENaC by phosphoinositides may underlie insulin-evoked renal Na* retention that can complicate the clinical management of type 2 diabetes using insulin-sensitizing thiazolidinedione drugs (Guan *et al.*, 2005).

Further Reading

Bhalla V, Hallows KR (2008). Mechanisms of ENaC Regulation and Clinical Implications. J Am Soc Nephrol 19: 1845-1854.

Bonny O, Hummler E (2000). Dysfunction of epithelial sodium transport: from human to mouse. Kidney Int 57: 1313–1318.

Bubien JK (2010). Epithelial Nat channel (ENaC), hormones, and hypertension. J Biol Chem 285: 23527-23531.

Butterworth MB (2010). Regulation of the epithelial sodium channel (ENaC) by membrane trafficking. *Biochim Biophys Acta* **1802**: 1166–1177. Hamm LL, Feng Z, Hering-Smith KS (2010). Regulation of sodium transport by ENaC in the kidney. *Curr Opin Nephrol Hypertens* **19**: 98–105.

Hummler E, Vallon V (2005). Lessons from mouse mutants of epithelial sodium channel and its regulatory proteins. *J Am Soc Nephrol* **16**: 3160–3166.

Kellenberger S, Schild L. (2002). Epithelial sodium channel/degenerin family of ion channels: a variety of functions for a shared structure. *Physiol Rev* 82: 735–767.

Kitamura K, Tomita K (2010). Regulation of renal sodium handling through the interaction between serine proteases and serine protease inhibitors. Clin Exp Nephrol 14: 405–410.

Kleyman TR, Carattino MD, Hughey RP (2009). ENaC at the cutting edge: regulation of epithelial sodium channels by proteases. *J Biol Chem* **284**: 20447–20451.

Loffing J, Korbmacher C (2009). Regulated sodium transport in the renal connecting tubule (CNT) via the epithelial sodium channel (ENaC). Pflugers Arch 458: 111–135.

Ma HP, Chou CF, Wei SP, Eaton DC (2007). Regulation of the epithelial sodium channel by phosphatidylinositides: experiments, implications, and speculations. Pflugers Arch 455: 169-180.

Planes C, Caughey GH (2007). Regulation of the epithelial Na⁺ channel by peptidases. Curr Top Dev Biol 78: 23–46.

Pochynyuk O, Bugaj V, Stockand JD (2008). Physiologic regulation of the epithelial sodium channel by phosphatidylinositides. Curr Opin Nephrol Hypertens 17: 533-540.

Rossier BC, Stutts MJ (2009). Activation of the epithelial sodium channel (ENaC) by serine proteases. Annu Rev Physiol 71: 361-379.

Rossier BC, Pradervand S, Schild L, Hummler E (2002). Epithelial sodium channel and the control of sodium balance: interaction between genetic and environmental factors. Annu Rev Physiol 64: 877-897.

Rotin D, Schild L (2008). ENaC and its regulatory proteins as drug targets for blood pressure control. Curr Drug Targets 9: 709-716.

Schild L (2004). The epithelial sodium channel: from molecule to disease. Rev Physiol Biochem Pharmacol 151: 93-107.

Schild L (2010). The epithelial sodium channel and the control of sodium balance. Biochim Biophys Acta 1802: 1159–1165.

References

Barker PM et al. (1990). J Physiol 424: 473-485. Boarse NA et al. (2011). Nature Commun 2: 287. Canessa CM et al. (1993). Nature 361: 467-470. Canessa CM et al. (1994). Nature 367: 463-466. Debonneville C et al. (2001). EMBO J 20: 7052-7059. Friedrich B et al. (2003). Pflügers Arch 445: 693-696. Garcia-Caballero A et al. (2009). Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 106:11412-11417. Gonzales EB et al. (2009). Nature 460: 599-604.

Guan Y et al. (2005). Nature Med 11: 861-866.

Hirsch AJ et al. (2008). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 325: 77-88. Hummler E et al. (1996). Nature Genet 12: 325-328. Kellenberger S et al. (2003). Mol Pharmacol 64: 848-856. Lu M et al. (2008). J Biol Chem 283: 11981-11994. Maekawa A et al. (2009). J Hypertens 27: 181-189. Morris RG, Schafer JA (2002). J Gen Physiol 120: 71-85. Richard K et al. (2004). FEBS Lett 576: 339-342. Sayegh R et al. (1999). J Biol Chem 274: 12431-12437. Staub O et al. (1996). EMBO J 15: 2371-2380. Yang L-M et al. (2006). J Biol Chem 281: 9859-9868.

Hyperpolarisation-activated, cyclic nucleotide-gated (HCN)

Overview: The hyperpolarisation-activated, cyclic nucleotide-gated (HCN) channels are cation channels that are activated by hyperpolarisation at voltages negative to ~50 mV. The cyclic nucleotides cAMP and cGMP directly activate the channels and shift the activation curves of HCN channels to more positive voltages, thereby enhancing channel activity. HCN channels underlie pacemaker currents found in many excitable cells including cardiac cells and neurons (DiFrancesco, 1993; Pape, 1996). In native cells, these currents have a variety of names, such as I_h , I_q and I_f . The four known HCN channels have six transmembrane domains and form tetramers. It is believed that the channels can form heteromers with each other, as has been shown for HCN1 and HCN4 (Altomare *et al.*, 2003). A standardised nomenclature for HCN channels has been proposed by the NC-IUPHAR subcommittee on voltage-gated ion channels (see Hofmann *et al.*, 2005).

Nomenclature HCN1 HCN₂ HCN3 HCN4 Ensembl ID ENSG00000164588 ENSG00000099822 ENSG00000143630 ENSG00000138622 cAMP > cGMP (both weak) Activators cAMP > cGMPcAMP > cGMPInhibitors Cs+, ZD7288, ivabradine Cs+, ZD7288, ivabradine Cs+, ZD7288, ivabradine Cs+, ZD7288, ivabradine

HCN channels are permeable to both Na⁺ and K⁺ ions, with a Na⁺/K⁺ permeability ratio of about 0.2. Functionally, they differ from each other in terms of time constant of activation with HCN1 the fastest, HCN4 the slowest and HCN2 and HCN3 intermediate. The compounds ZD7288 (BoSmith *et al.*, 1993) and ivabradine (Bucchi *et al.*, 2002) have proven useful in identifying and studying functional HCN channels in native cells. Zatebradine and cilobradine are also useful blocking agents.

Abbreviations: Ivabradine (\$16257-2), (3-(3-{[((7S)-3,4-dimethoxybicyclo [4,2,0] octa-1,3,5-trien7-yl) methyl] methylamino} propyl)-1,3,4,5-tetrahydro-7,8-dimethoxy-2*H*-3-benzazepin-2-one hydrochloride; ZD7288, [4-(*N*-ethyl-*N*-phenyl-amino)-1,2-dimethyl-6-(methylamino) pyrimidinium chloride

Further Reading

Baruscotti M, Bottelli G, Milanesi R, DiFrancesco JC, DiFrancesco D (2010). HCN-related channelopathies. *Pflugers Arch* **460**: 405–415. Baruscotti M, Bucchi A, DiFrancesco D (2005). Physiology and pharmacology of the cardiac pacemaker ('funny') current. *Pharmacol Ther* **107**: 59–79.

Biel M, Michalakis S (2009). Cyclic nucleotide-gated channels. Handb Exp Pharmacol 191: 111-136.

Biel M, Ludwig A, Zong X, Hofmann F (1999). Hyperpolarisation-activated cation channels: a multi-gene family. *Rev Physiol Biochem Pharmacol* 136: 165–181.

Biel M, Schneider A, Wahl C (2002). Cardiac HCN channels: structure, function and modulation. Trends Cardiovasc Med 12: 206-213.

Biel M, Wahl-Schott C, Michalakis S, Zong X (2009). Hyperpolarization-activated cation channels: from genes to function. *Physiol Rev* 89: 847–885.

Bois P, Guinamard R, Chemaly AE, Faivre JF, Bescond J (2007). Molecular regulation and pharmacology of pacemaker channels. *Curr Pharm Des* 13: 2338–2349.

Craven KB, Zagotta WN (2006). CNG and HCN channels: two peas, one pod. Annu Rev Physiol 68: 375-401.

DiFrancesco D (1993). Pacemaker mechanisms in cardiac tissue. Ann Rev Physiol 55: 455-472.

Di Francesco D. (2010). The role of the funny current in pacemaker activity. Circ Res 106: 434-446.

DiFrancesco D, Camm JA (2004). Heart rate lowering by specific and selective *I–f* current inhibition with ivabradine – a new therapeutic perspective in cardiovascular disease. *Drugs* **64**: 1757–1765.

Dunlop J, Vasilyev D, Lu P, Cummons T, Bowlby MR (2009). Hyperpolarisation-activated cyclic nucleotide-gated (HCN) channels and pain. *Curr Pharm Des* 15: 1767–1772.

Hofmann F, Biel M, Kaupp UB (2005). International Union of Pharmacology. LI. Nomenclature and structure-function relationships of cyclic nucleotide-regulated channels. *Pharmacol Rev* 57: 455–462.

Kaupp UB, Seifert R (2001). Molecular diversity of pacemaker ion channels. Ann Rev Physiol 63: 235–257.

Maher MP, Wu NT, Guo HQ, Dubin AE, Chaplan SR, Wickenden AD (2009). HCN channels as targets for drug discovery. Comb Chem High Throughout Screen 12: 64–72.

Meldrum BS, Rogawski MA (2007). Molecular targets for antiepileptic drug development. Neurotherapeutics 4: 18-61.

Pape HC (1996). Queer current and pacemaker: the hyperpolarisation-activated cation current in neurons. Ann Rev Physiol 58: 299–327.

Tardiff JC (2008). Ivabradine: I(f) inhibition in the management of stable angina pectoris and other cardiovascular diseases. *Drugs Today* 44: 171–181.

Wahl-Schott C, Biel M (2009). HCN channels: structure, cellular regulation and physiological function. Cell Mol Life Sci 66: 470-494.

Yu FH, Catterall WA (2004). The VGL-chanome: a protein superfamily specialized for electrical signaling and ionic homeostasis. *Sci STKE* **2004**: re15

References

Altomare C *et al.* (2003). *J Physiol* **549**: 347–359. Bosmith RE *et al.* (1993). *Br J Pharmacol* **110**: 343–349. Bucchi A *et al.* (2002). *J Gen Physiol* **120**: 1–13.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

IP₃ receptor

Overview: The inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate receptors (IP₃R) are ligand-gated Ca^{2+} -release channels on intracellular Ca^{2+} store sites (such as the endoplasmic reticulum). They are responsible for the mobilization of intracellular Ca^{2+} stores and play an important role in intracellular Ca^{2+} signalling in a wide variety of cell types. Three different gene products (types I–III) have been isolated, which assemble as large tetrameric structures. IP₃Rs are closely associated with certain proteins: calmodulin and FKBP (and calcineurin via FKBP). They are phosphorylated by PKA, PKC, PKG and CaMKII.

Nomenclature	IP₃R1	IP₃R2	IP₃R3
Other names	INSP3R1	INSP3R2	INSP3R3
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000150995	ENSG00000123104	ENSG00000096433
Endogenous activators	Ins(1,4,5)P ₃ (nM – μ M), cytosolic	Ins(1,4,5)P ₃ (nM– μ M),	Ins(1,4,5)P ₃ (nM– μ M),
	Ca^{2+} (<750 μM), cytosolic ATP (<mm)< td=""><td>cytosolic Ca²⁺ (nM)</td><td>cytosolic Ca²⁺ (nM)</td></mm)<>	cytosolic Ca ²⁺ (nM)	cytosolic Ca ²⁺ (nM)
Pharmacological activators	InsP ₃ analogues including Ins(2,4,5)P ₃ , adenophostin A (nM)	InsP ₃ analogues including Ins(2,4,5)P ₃ , adenophostin A (nM)	-
Antagonists	Xestospongin C (μM), caffeine (mM), phosphatidylinositol 4,5-bisphosphate (μM), heparin (μg/ml), decavanadate (μM), calmodulin at high cytosolic Ca ²⁺	Heparin (μg/ml), decavanadate (μM)	Heparin (μg/ml), decavanadate (μM)
Functional characteristics	Ca ²⁺ : $(P_{Ba}/P_K \sim 6)$ single-channel conductance \sim 70 pS (50 mM Ca ²⁺)	Ca ²⁺ : single-channel conductance ~70 pS (50 mM Ca ²⁺), ~390 pS (220 mM Cs ⁺)	Ca ²⁺ : single-channel conductance ~88 pS (55 mM Ba ²⁺)

The absence of a modulator of a particular isoform of receptor indicates that the action of that modulator has not been determined, not that it is without effect.

Abbreviations: FKBP, FK506-binding protein

Further Reading

Balla T (2009). Regulation of Ca^{2+} entry by inositol lipids in mammalian cells by multiple mechanisms. *Cell Calcium* **45**: 527–534. Berridge MJ, Lipp P, Bootman MD (2000). The versatility and universality of calcium signalling. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol* **1**: 11–21.

Bolton TB (2006). Calcium events in smooth muscles and their interstitial cells: physiological roles of sparks. J Physiol 570: 5-11.

Bootman MD, Berridge MJ, Roderick HL (2002). Calcium signalling: more messengers, more channels, more complexity. *Curr Biol* 12: R563–R565. Bosanac I, Michikawa T, Mikoshiba K, Ikura M (2004). Structural insights into the regulatory mechanism of IP₃ receptor. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1742: 89–102.

Bultynck G, Sienaert I, Parys JB, Callewaert G, De Smedt H, Boens N *et al.* (2003). Pharmacology of inositol trisphosphate receptors. *Pflugers Arch* **445**: 629–642.

Choe CU, Ehrlich BE (2006). The inositol 1,4,5-triphosphate receptor (IP3R) and its regulators: sometimes good and sometimes bad team work. *Sci STKE* **2006**: re15.

Foskett JK (2010). Inositol trisphosphate receptor Ca²⁺ release channels in neurological diseases. Pflugers Arch 460: 481–494.

Foskett JK, White C, Cheung KH, Mak DO (2007). Inositol trisphosphate receptor Ca2+ release channels. Physiol Rev 87: 593-658.

Mikoshiba K (2007). IP₃ receptor/Ca²⁺ channel from discovery to new signaling concepts. J Neurochem 102: 1426–1446.

Mikoshiba K (2007). The IP₃ receptor/Ca²⁺ channel and its cellular function. *Biochem Soc Symp* 74: 9–22.

Nahorski SR (2006). Pharmacology of intracellular signalling pathways. Br J Pharmacol 147 (Suppl. 1): S38–S45.

Patel S, Joseph SK, Thomas AP (1999). Molecular properties of inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate receptors. Cell Calcium 25: 247–264.

Patterson RL, Boehning D, Snyder SH (2004). Inositol 1.4.5-triphosphate receptors as signal integrators. Annu Rev Biochem 73: 437–465.

Taylor CW, Traynor D (1995). Calcium and inositol trisphosphate receptors. J Membr Biol 145: 109–118.

Taylor CW, Tovey SC (2010). IP₃ receptors: toward understanding their activation. Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol 2: a004010.

Verkhratsky A (2005). Physiology and pathophysiology of the calcium store in the endoplasmic reticulum of neurons. *Physiol Rev* **85**: 201–279. Vermassen E, Parys JB, Mauger J-P (2004). Subcellular distribution of the inositol 1,4,5-triphosphate receptors: functional relevance and molecular determinants. *Biol Cell* **96**: 3–17.

\$158 Potassium

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Potassium

Overview: Potassium channels are fundamental regulators of excitability. They control the frequency and the shape of action potential waveform, the secretion of hormones and neurotransmitters and cell membrane potential. Their activity may be regulated by voltage, calcium and neurotransmitters (and the signalling pathways they stimulate). They consist of a primary pore-forming α subunit often associated with auxiliary regulatory subunits. Since there are over 70 different genes encoding K channels α subunits in the human genome, it is beyond the scope of this guide to treat each subunit individually. Instead, channels have been grouped into families and subfamilies based on their structural and functional properties. The three main families are the 2TM (two transmembrane domain), 4TM and 6TM families. A standardised nomenclature for potassium channels has been proposed by the NC-IUPHAR subcommittees on potassium channels (see Goldstein *et al.*, 2005; Gutman *et al.*, 2005; Kubo *et al.*, 2005; Wei *et al.*, 2005).

The 2TM family of K channels

The 2TM domain family of K channels are also known as the inward-rectifier K channel family. This family includes the strong inward-rectifier K channels ($K_{IR}2.x$), the G-protein-activated inward-rectifier K channels ($K_{IR}3.x$) and the ATP-sensitive K channels ($K_{IR}6.x$, which combine with sulphonylurea receptors (SUR)). The pore-forming α subunits form tetramers, and heteromeric channels may be formed within subfamilies (e.g. $K_{IR}3.2$ with $K_{IR}3.3$).

Subfamily group	K _{IR} 1.x	K _{IR} 2.x	K _{IR} 3.x	K _{IR} 4.x
Subtypes	K _{IR} 1.1 (ROMK1)	K _{IR} 2.1–2.4 (IRK1–4)	K _{IR} 3.1-3.4 (GIRK1-4)	K _{IR} 4.1-4.2
Ensembl ID*	ENSG00000151704	ENSG00000123700	ENSG00000162989	ENSG00000177807
	$(K_{IR}1.1)$	(K _{IR} 2.1)	$(K_{IR}3.1)$	$(K_{IR}4.1)$
Activators	-	_	PIP ₂ , Gβγ	-
nhibitors	-	[Mg ²⁺] _i , polyamines (internal)	-	-
Functional characteristic	Inward-rectifier current	IK ₁ in heart, 'strong'inward–rectifier current	G-protein-activated inward-rectifier current	Inward-rectifier currer

Subfamily Group	K _{IR} 5.x	K _{IR} 6.x	K _{IR} 7.x
Subtypes	K _{IR} 5.1	$K_{IR}6.1-6.2 (K_{ATP})$	K _{IR} 7.1
Ensembl ID*	ENSG00000153822	ENSG00000121361	ENSG00000115474
	(K _{IR} 5.1)	(K _{IR} 6.1)	$(K_{IR}7.1)$
Activators	-	Minoxidil, cromakalim, diazoxide, nicorandil	-
nhibitors	_	Tolbutamide, glibenclamide	-
- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	Inward-rectifier current	ATP-sensitive, inward-rectifier current	Inward-rectifier curren
Associated subunits	_	SUR1, SUR2A, SUR2B	_

^{*}Due to space constraints, the Ensembl ID for only one member of each subfamily is given. Ensembl information for the other subfamily members can be found from links therein or at the following link: http://www.iuphar-db.org/DATABASE/FamilyMenuForward?familyId=74.

The 4TM family of K channels

The 4TM family of K channels are thought to underlie many leak currents in native cells. They are open at all voltages and regulated by a wide array of neurotransmitters and biochemical mediators. The primary pore-forming α subunit contains two pore domains (indeed, they are often referred to as two-pore domain K channels or K2P) and so it is envisaged that they form functional dimers rather than the usual K channel tetramers. There is some evidence that they can form heterodimers within subfamilies (e.g. K_{2P} 3.1 with K_{2P} 9.1). There is no current, clear, consensus on nomenclature of 4TM K channels, nor on the division into subfamilies (see Goldstein *et al.*, 2005). The suggested division into subfamilies, below, is based on similarities in both structural and functional properties within subfamilies.

Subfamily group	'TWIK'	'TREK'	'TASK'	'TALK'	'THIK'	'TRESK'
Subtypes	K _{2P} 1.1 (TWIK1) K _{2P} 6.1 (TWIK2) K _{2P} 7.1 (KNCK7)	K _{2P} 2.1 (TREK1) K _{2P} 10.1 (TREK2) K _{2P} 4.1 (TRAAK)	K _{2P} 3.1 (TASK1) K _{2P} 9.1 (TASK3) K _{2P} 15.1 (TASK5)	K _{2P} 16.1 (TALK1) K _{2P} 5.1 (TASK2) K _{2P} 17.1 (TASK4)	K _{2P} 13.1 (THIK1) K _{2P} 12.1 (THIK2)	K _{2P} 18.1 (TRESK1)
Ensembl ID*	ENSG00000135750 (K _{2P} 1.1)	ENSG00000082482 (K _{2P} 2.1)	ENSG00000171303 (K _{2P} 3.1)	ENSG00000164626 (K _{2P} 5.1)	ENSG00000152315 (K _{2P} 13.1)	ENSG00000186795 (K _{2P} 18.1)

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Potassium S159

Subfamily group	'TWIK'	'TREK'	'TASK'	'TALK'	'THIK'	'TRESK'
Activators	-	Halothane (not TRAAK), riluzole, stretch, heat, arachidonic acid, acid pH _i	Halothane, alkaline pH_o ($K_{2P}3.1$)	Alkaline pH ₀	-	-
Inhibitors	Acid pH _i	-	Anandamide $(K_{2P}3.1, K_{2P}9.1)$ ruthenium red $(K_{2P}9.1)$ acid pH_0	_	Halothane	Arachidonic acid
Functional characteristic	3	Background current	Background current	Background current	Background current	Background current

The $K_{2P}7.1$, $K_{2P}15.1$ and $K_{2P}12.1$ subtypes, when expressed in isolation, are nonfunctional. All 4TM channels are insensitive to the classical potassium channel blockers TEA and 4-AP, but are blocked to varying degrees by Ba^{2+} ions.

The 6TM family of K channels

The 6TM family of K channels comprises the voltage-gated K_V subfamilies, the KCNQ subfamily the EAG subfamily (which includes herg channels), the Ca^{2+} -activated SIo subfamily (actually with 7TM) and the Ca^{2+} -activated SK subfamily. As for the 2TM family, the pore-forming α subunits form tetramers and heteromeric channels may be formed within subfamilies (e.g. $K_V1.1$ with $K_V1.2$; KCNQ2 with KCNQ3).

Subfamily group	$K_V 1.x$	K _∨ 2.x	K _V 3.x	K _V 4.x
Subtypes	$K_V 1.1 - K_V 1.8$ Shaker-related	K _V 2.1–2.2 Shab-related	K _v 3.1–3.4 Shal-related	$K_V4.1-4.3$ Shaw-related
Ensembl ID*	ENSG00000111262 (K _V 1.1)	ENSG00000158445 (K _V 2.1)	ENSG00000129159 (K _V 3.1)	ENSG00000102057 (K _V 4.1)
Inhibitors	TEA potent (1.1), TEA moderate (1.3, 1.6), 4-AP potent (1.4), α-dendrotoxin (1.1, 1.2, 1.6), margatoxin (1.1, 1.2, 1.3), noxiustoxin (1.2, 1.3)	TEA moderate	TEA potent, 4-AP potent (3.1, 3.2), BDS-1 (3.4)	_
Functional characteristics	K _V (1.1–1.3, 1.5–1.8), K _A (1.4)	K _V (2.1)	K_V (3.1, 3.2), K_A (3.3, 3.4)	K _A
Associated subunits	K_V β_1 , K_V β_2	K _V 5.1, K _V 6.1–6.4, K _V 8.1-8.2,K _V 9.1–9.3	MiRP2 (K _v 3.4)	KChIP, KChAP

Subfamily group	K _v 7.x ('KCNQ')	K _V 10.x, K _V 11.x, K _V 12.x ('EAG')	K _{Ca} 1.x, K _{Ca} 4.x, K _{Ca} 5.x ('Slo')	$K_{Ca}2.x$, $K_{Ca}3.x$ ('SK')
Subtypes	K _v .7.1–7.5 (KCNQ1-5)	K _V 10.1–10.2 (eag1–2) K _V 11.1–11.3 (erg1-3, herg 1–3) K _V 12.1–12.3 (elk1-3)	K _{Ca} 1.1, K _{Ca} 4.1–4.2, K _{Ca} 5.1 Slo (BK), Slack, Slick	K _{Ca} 2.1–2.3 (SK1–SK3) K _{Ca} 3.1 (SK4, IK)
Ensembl ID*	ENSG00000053918 (K _v 7.1)	ENSG00000143473 (K _V 10.1)	ENSG00000156113 (K _{Ca} 1.1)	ENSG00000105642 (K _{Ca} 2.1)
Activators	Retigabine (K _V .7.2,-5)	_	NS004, NS1619	_
Inhibitors	TEA (K _v .7.2, 7.4), XE991 (K _v .7.1, 7.2, 7.4, 7.5), linopirdine	E-4031 (K_V 11.1), astemizole (K_V 11.1), terfenadine (K_V 11.1)	TEA, charybdotoxin, iberiotoxin	Charybdotoxin ($K_{Ca}3.1$), apamin ($K_{Ca}2.1-2.3$)
Functional characteristic	$K_V 7.1$ – cardiac IK_S $K_V 7.2/7.3$ –M current	$K_V 11.1$ – cardiac IK_R	Maxi K _{Ca} K _{Na} (slack & slick)	SK_{Ca} ($K_{Ca}2.1-2.3$) IK_{Ca} ($K_{Ca}3.1$)
Associated subunits	minK, MiRP2 (K _V .7.1)	minK, MiRP1 (erg1)	-	-

^{*}Due to space constraints, the Ensembl ID for only one member of each subfamily is given. Ensembl information for the other subfamily members can be found from links therein or at the following links: http://www.iuphar-db.org/DATABASE/FamilyMenuForward?familyId=81 or http://www.iuphar-db.org/DATABASE/FamilyMenuForward?familyId=69

^{*}Due to space constraints, the Ensembl ID for only one member of each subfamily is given. Ensembl information for the other subfamily members can be found from links therein or at the following link: http://www.iuphar-db.org/DATABASE/FamilyMenuForward?familyId=79.

\$160 Potassium Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Abbreviations: 4-AP, 4-aminopyridine; BDS-1, blood depressing substance 1; E4031, 1-(2-(6-methyl-2-pyridyl)ethyl)-4-(4-methylsulphonyl aminobenzoyl)piperidine; NS004, 1-(2-hydroxy-5-chlorophenyl)-5-trifluromethyl-2-benzimidazolone; NS1619, 1-(2'-hydroxy-5'-trifluromethylphenyl)-5-trifluro-methyl-2(3*H*)benzimidazolone; PIP₂, phosphatidylinositol 4,5, bisphosphate; TEA, tetraethylammonium; XE991, 10,10-bis(4-pyridinylmethyl)-9(10*H*)-anthracene

Further Reading

Aguilar-Bryan L, Clement JP, Gonzalez G, Kunjilwar K, Babenko A, Bryan J (1998). Toward understanding the assembly and structure of K_{ATP} channels. *Physiol Rev* **78**: 227–245.

Ahern CA, Kobertz WR (2009). Chemical tools for K(+) channel biology. Biochemistry 48: 517-526.

Ashcroft FM, Gribble FM (1998). Correlating structure and function in ATP-sensitive K+ channels. Trends Neurosci 21: 288-294.

Bauer CK, Schwartz JR (2001). Physiology of EAG channels. J Membr Biol 182: 1-15.

Bayliss DA, Barrett PQ (2008). Emerging roles for two-pore-domain potassium channels and their potential therapeutic impact. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 29: 566–575.

Bean BP (2007). The action potential in mammalian central neurons. Nat Rev Neurosci 8: 451-465.

Bezanilla F (2000). The voltage sensor in voltage-dependent ion channels. Physiol Rev 80: 555-592.

Dalby-Brown W, Hansen HH, Korsgaard MP, Mirza N, Olesen SP (2006). K(v) channels: function, pharmacology and channel modulators. *Curr Top Med Chem* **6**: 999–1023.

Enyedi P, Czirják G (2010). Molecular background of leak K+ currents: two-pore domain potassium channels. Physiol Rev 90: 559-605.

Goldstein SAN, Bayliss DA, Kim D, Lesage F, Plant LD, Rajan S (2005). International Union of Pharmacology. LV. Nomenclature and molecular relationships of Two-P potassium channels. *Pharmacol Rev* 57: 527–540.

Goldstein SAN, Bockenhauer D, O'Kelly I, Zilberberg N (2001). Potassium leak channels and the KCNK family of two-P domain subunits. *Nat Rev Neurosci* 2: 175–184.

Gutman GA, Chandy KG, Grissmer S, Lazdunski M, McKinnon D, Pardo LA et al. (2005). International Union of Pharmacology. LIII. Nomenclature and molecular relationships of voltage-gated potassium channels. Pharmacol Rev 57: 473–508.

Hancox JC, McPate MJ, El Harchi A, Zhang YH ((2008). The hERG potassium channel and hERG screening for drug-induced torsades de pointes. *Pharmacol Ther* 119: 118–132.

Hansen JB (2006). Towards selective Kir6.2/SUR1 potassium channel openers, medicinal chemistry and therapeutic perspectives. *Curr Med Chem* 13: 26–376.

Honore E (2007). The neuronal background K2P channels: focus on TREK1. Nature Rev Neurosci 8: 251-261.

Jenkinson DH (2006). Potassium channels- multiplicity and challenges. Br J Pharmacol 147 (Suppl. 1): S63–S71.

Judge SI, Bever CT Jr (2006). Potassium channel blockers in multiple sclerosis: neuronal Kv channels and effects of symptomatic treatment. *Pharmacol Ther* 111: 224–259.

Kaczorowski GJ, Garcia ML (1999). Pharmacology of voltage-gated and calcium-activated potassium channels. *Curr Opin Chem Biol* 3: 448–458. Kannankeril P, Roden DM, Darbar D (2010). Drug-Induced Long *QT Syndrome Pharmacol Rev* 62: 760–781.

Kobayashi T, Ikeda K (2006). G protein-activated inwardly-rectifying potassium channels as potential therapeutic targets. *Curr Pharm Des* 12: 4513–4523.

Kubo Y, Adelman JP, Clapham DE, Jan LY, Karschin A, Kurachi Y et al. (2005). International Union of Pharmacology. LIV. Nomenclature and molecular relationships of inwardly rectifying potassium channels. *Pharmacol Rev* 57: 509–526.

Lawson K, McKay NG (2006). Modulation of potassium channels as a therapeutic approach. Curr Pharm Des 12: 459–470.

Lesage F (2003). Pharmacology of neuronal background potassium channels. Neuropharmacology 44: 1-7.

Lewis RJ, Garcia ML (2003). Therapeutic potential of venom peptides. Nat Rev Drug Discov 2: 790-802.

Lüscher C, Slesinger PA (2010). Emerging roles for G protein-gated inwardly rectifying potassium (GIRK) channels in health and disease. *Nat Rev Neurosci* 11: 301–315.

Mannhold R (2006). Structure-activity relationships of KATP channel openers. Curr Top Med Chem 6: 1031-1047.

Mathie A, Veale EL (2007). Therapeutic potential of neuronal two pore domain potassium channel modulators. *Curr Opin Invest Drugs* 8: 555–562. Miller C (2003). A charged view of voltage-gated ion channels. *Nat Struct Biol* 10: 422–424.

Nardi A, Olesen SP (2008). BK channel modulators: a comprehensive review. Curr Med Chem 15: 1126-1146.

Nichols CG, Lopatin AN (1997). Inwardly rectifying potassium channels. Annu Rev Physiol 59: 171-191.

Pongs O, Schwarz JR (2010). Ancillary subunits associated with voltage-dependent K+ channels. Physiol Rev 90: 755-796.

Reimann F, Ashcroft FM (1999). Inwardly rectifying potassium channels. Curr Opin Cell Biol 11: 503–508.

Robbins J (2001). KCNQ potassium channels: physiology, pathophysiology and pharmacology. Pharmacol Ther 90: 1-19.

Salkoff L, Butler A, Ferreira G, Santi C, Wei A (2006). High-conductance potassium channels of the SLO family. *Nature Rev Neurosci* 7: 921–931. Sanguinetti MC (2000). Maximal function of minimal K⁺ channel subunits. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 21: 199–201.

Seino S, Miki T (2003). Physiological and pathophysiological roles of ATP-sensitive K+ channels. Prog Biophys Mol Biol 81: 133–176.

Stanfield PR, Nakajima S, Nakajima Y (2002). Constitutively active and G-protein coupled inward rectifier K⁺ channels: Kir2.0 and Kir3.0. *Rev Physiol Biochem Pharmacol* **145**: 47–179.

Stocker M (2004). Ca²⁺-activated K⁺ channels: molecular determinants and function of the SK family. Nat Rev Neurosci 5: 758–770.

Takeda M, Tsuboi Y, Kitagawa J, Nakagawa K, Iwata K, Matsumoto S (2011). Potassium channels as a potential therapeutic target for trigeminal neuropathic and inflammatory pain. *Mol Pain* 7: 5.

Trimmer JS, Rhodes KJ (2004). Localisation of voltage-gated ion channels in mammalian brain. Annu Rev Physiol 66: 477-519.

Wang H, Tang Y, Wang L, Long CL, Zhang YL (2007). ATP-sensitive potassium channel openers and 2,3-dimethyl-2-butylamine derivatives. *Curr Med Chem* 14: 133–155.

Weatherall KL, Goodchild SJ, Jane DE, Marrion NV (2010). Small conductance calcium-activated potassium channels: from structure to function. *Prog Neurobiol* 91: 242–255.

Wei AD, Gutman GA, Aldrich R, Chandy KG, Grissmer S, Wulff H (2005). International Union of Pharmacology. LII. Nomenclature and molecular relationships of calcium-activated channels. *Pharmacol Rev* 57: 463–472.

Wickenden AD, McNaughton-Smith G (2009). Kv7 channels as targets for the treatment of pain. Curr Pharm Des 15: 1773-1798.

Witchel HJ (2007). The hERG potassium channel as a therapeutic target. Expert Opin Ther Targets 11: 321-336.

Wulff H, Castle NA, Pardo LA (2009). Voltage-gated potassium channels as therapeutic targets. Nat Rev Drug Discov 8: 982-1001.

Yellen G (2002). The voltage-gated potassium channels and their relatives. Nature 419: 35-42.

Yu FH, Catterall WA (2004). The VGL-chanome: a protein superfamily specialized for electrical signaling and ionic homeostasis. *Sci STKE* **2004**: re15.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Voltage-gated proton channel \$161

Voltage-gated proton channel

Overview: The voltage-gated proton channel (provisionally denoted H_v1) is a putative 4TM proton-selective channel gated by membrane depolarization and which is sensitive to the transmembrane pH gradient (Ramsey *et al.*, 2006; Sasaki *et al.*, 2006; DeCoursey, 2008a,b; Capasso *et al.*, 2011). The structure of H_v1 is homologous to the voltage sensing domain (VSD) of the superfamily of voltage-gated ion channels (*i.e.* segments S1 to S4) and contains no discernable pore region (Ramsey *et al.*, 2006; Sasaki *et al.*, 2006). Proton flux through H_v1 is instead most likely mediated by a water wire completed in a crevice of the protein when the voltage-sensing S4 helix moves in response to a change in transmembrane potential (Ramsey *et al.*, 2010; Wood *et al.*, 2011). H_v1 expresses largely as a dimer mediated by intracellular C-terminal coiled-coil interactions (Li *et al.*, 2010) but individual promoters nonetheless support gated H^* flux *via* separate conduction pathways (Koch *et al.*, 2008; Lee *et al.*, 2008; Tombola *et al.*, 2008; Petheo *et al.*, 2010). Within dimeric structures, the two protomers do not function independently, but display co-operative interactions during gating resulting in increased voltage sensitivity, but slower activation, of the dimeric, *versus* monomeric, complexes (Gonzalez *et al.*, 2010; Tombola *et al.*, 2010).

Nomenclature H_v1

Other names Voltage-gated proton channel 1 (HVCN1), Voltage-sensor only protein (VSOP)

Ensembl ID ENSG00000122986

Activators –

Blockers (IC₅₀) Zn^{2+} ($\approx 0.5-2.0 \,\mu\text{M}$), Cd^{2+} ($\approx 10 \,\mu\text{M}$)

Functional Activated by membrane depolarization mediating macroscopic currents with time-, voltage- and pH-dependence; characteristics outwardly rectifying; voltage dependent kinetics with relatively slow current activation sensitive to extracellular pH

outwardly rectifying; voltage dependent kinetics with relatively slow current activation sensitive to extracellular plant temperature, relatively fast deactivation; voltage threshold for current activation determined by pH gradient

 $(\Delta pH = pH_o - pH_i)$ across the membrane

The voltage threshold (V_{thr}) for activation of H_v1 is not fixed but is set by the pH gradient across the membrane such that V_{thr} is positive to the Nernst potential for H^* , which ensures that only outwardly directed flux of H^* occurs under physiological conditions (DeCoursey, 2008a,b; Capasso *et al.*, 2011). Phosphorylation of Hv1 within the N-terminal domain by PKC enhances the gating of the channel (Musset *et al.*, 2010a). Tabulated IC_{50} values for Z^{1} and Z^{2} are for heterologously expressed human and mouse Hv1 (Ramsey *et al.*, 2006; Sasaki *et al.*, 2006). Z^{1} is not a conventional pore blocker, but is coordinated by two, or more, external protonation sites involving histamine residues (Ramsey *et al.*, 2006). Z^{1} binding may occur at the dimer interface between pairs of histamine residues from both monomers where it may interfere with channel opening (Musset *et al.*, 2010b). Mouse knockout studies demonstrate that H_v1 participates in charge compensation in granulocytes during the respiratory burst of NADPH oxidase-dependent reactive oxygen species production that assists in the clearance of bacterial pathogens (Ramsey *et al.*, 2009). Additional physiological functions of H_v1 are reviewed by Capasso *et al.* (2011).

Further Reading

Capasso M, DeCoursey TE, Dyer MJ (2011). pH regulation and beyond: unanticipated functions for the voltage-gated proton channel, HVCN1. *Trends Cell Biol* 21: 20–28.

DeCoursey TE (2008a). Voltage-gated proton channels. Cell Mol Life Sci 65: 2554-2573.

DeCoursey TE (2008b). Voltage-gated proton channels: what's next? J Physiol 586: 5305-5324.

DeCoursey TE, Cherny VV (2007). Pharmacology of voltage-gated proton channels. Curr Pharm Des 13: 2400-2420.

Tombola F, Ulbrich MH, Isacoff EY (2009). Architecture and gating of H_v1 proton channels. J Physiol 587: 5325–5329.

References

Gonzalez C et al. (2010). Nat Struct Mol Biol 17: 51–56. Koch HP et al. (2008). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 105: 9111–9116. Lee S-Y et al. (2008). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 105: 7692–7695. Li SJ et al. (2010). J Biol Chem 285: 12047–12054. Musset B et al. (2010a). J Biol Chem 285: 5117–5121. Musset B et al. (2010b). J Physiol 588: 1435–1449. Petheo GL et al. (2010). PLoS One 5: e14081. Ramsey IS et al. (2006). Nature 440: 1213–1216. Ramsey IS et al. (2009). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 106: 7642–7647. Ramsey IS et al. (2010). Nat Struct Mol Biol 17: 869–875. Sasaki M et al. (2006). Science 312: 589–592. Tombola F et al. (2008). Neuron 58: 546–556. Tombola F et al. (2010). Nat Struct Mol Biol 17: 44–50. Wood ML et al. (2011). Biochem. Biophys Acta. doi: 10.1016/jbb.mem. 2011.07.045

\$162 Ryanodine receptor Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Ryanodine receptor

Overview: The ryanodine receptors (RyRs) are found on intracellular Ca^{2+} storage/release organelles. The family of RyR genes encodes three highly related Ca^{2+} release channels: RyR1, RyR2 and RyR3, which assemble as large tetrameric structures. These RyR channels are ubiquitously expressed in many types of cells and participate in a variety of important Ca^{2+} signaling phenomena (neurotransmission, secretion, etc.). In addition to the three mammalian isoforms described below, various nonmammalian isoforms of the ryanodine receptor have been identified and these are discussed in Sutko and Airey (1996). The function of the ryanodine receptor channels may also be influenced by closely associated proteins such as the tacrolimus (FK506)-binding protein, calmodulin (Yamaguchi *et al.*, 2003), triadin, calsequestrin, junctin and sorcin, and by protein kinases and phosphatases.

Nomenclature	RyR1	RyR2	RyR3
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000196218	ENSG00000198626	ENSG00000198838
Endogenous activators	Depolarisation <i>via</i> DHP receptor, cytosolic Ca ²⁺ (µM), cytosolic ATP (mM), luminal Ca ²⁺ , calmodulin at low cytosolic Ca ²⁺ , CaM kinase, PKA	Cytosolic Ca^{2+} (μM), cytosolic ATP (mM), luminal Ca^{2+} , CaM kinase, PKA	Cytosolic Ca $^{2+}$ (μ M), cytosolic ATP (mM), calmodulin at low cytosolic Ca $^{2+}$
Pharmacological activators	Ryanodine (nM– μ M), caffeine (mM), suramin (μ M)	Ryanodine (nM– μ M), caffeine (mM), suramin (μ M)	Ryanodine (nM–μM), caffeine (mM)
Antagonists	Cytosolic Ca ²⁺ (>100 μM), cytosolic Mg ²⁺ (mM), calmodulin at high cytosolic Ca ²⁺ , dantrolene	Cytosolic Ca ²⁺ (>1 mM), cytosolic Mg ²⁺ (mM), calmodulin at high cytosolic Ca ²⁺	Cytosolic Ca ²⁺ (>1 mM), cytosolic Mg ²⁺ (mM), calmodulin at high cytosolic Ca ²⁺ , dantrolene
Channel blockers	Ryanodine (>100 μM), ruthenium red, procaine	Ryanodine (>100 μ M), ruthenium red, procaine	Ruthenium red
Functional characteristics	Ca ²⁺ : ($P_{Ca}/P_{K^{\sim}}$ 6) single-channel conductance: -90 pS (50 mM Ca ²⁺), 770 pS (200 mM K ⁺)	Ca ²⁺ : ($P_{Ca}/P_{K^{\sim}}6$) single-channel conductance: ~90 pS (50 mM Ca ²⁺), 720 pS (210 mM K ⁺)	Ca ²⁺ : (P_{Ca}/P_{K^-} 6) single-channel conductance: ~140 pS (250 mM Ca ²⁺), 777 pS (250 mM K ⁺)

The modulators of channel function included in this table are those most commonly used to identify ryanodine-sensitive Ca^{2+} release pathways. Numerous other modulators of ryanodine receptor/channel function can be found in the reviews listed below. The absence of a modulator of a particular isoform of receptor indicates that the action of that modulator has not been determined, not that it is without effect. The potential role of cyclic ADP ribose as an endogenous regulator of ryanodine receptor channels is controversial. A region of RyR likely to be involved in ion translocation and selection has been identified (Zhao *et al.*, 1999; Gao *et al.*, 2000).

Further Reading

Berridge M, Bootman MD, Roderick HL (2003). Calcium signalling: dynamics, homeostasis and remodelling. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol* **4**: 517–529. Berridge MJ, Lipp P, Bootman MD (2000). The versatility and universality of calcium signalling. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol* **1**: 11–21.

Betzenhauser MJ, Marks AR (2010). Ryanodine receptor channelopathies. Pflugers Arch 460: 467-480.

Bouchard R, Pattarini E, Geiger JD (2003). Presence and functional significance of presynaptic ryanodine receptors. *Prog Neurobiol* **69**: 391–418. Bolton TB (2006). Calcium events in smooth muscles and their interstitial cells: physiological roles of sparks. *J Physiol* **570**: 5–11.

Collin T, Marty A, Llano I (2005). Presynaptic calcium stores and synaptic transmission. Curr Opin Neurobiol 15: 275-281.

Dulhunty AF, Beard NA, Pouliquin P, Casarotto MG (2007). Agonists and antagonists of the cardiac ryanodine receptor: potential therapeutic agents? *P harmacol Ther* 113: 247–263.

Eisner A, Diaz ME, O'Neill SC, Trafford AW (2004). Physiology and pathological modulation of ryanodine receptor function in cardiac muscle. *Cell Calcium* **35**: 583–589.

Endo M (2009). Calcium-induced calcium release in skeletal muscle. Physiol Rev 89: 1153-1176.

Fill M, Copello JA (2002). Ryanodine receptor calcium release channels. Physiol Rev 82: 893-922.

Hamilton SL, Serysheva II (2009). Ryanodine receptor structure: progress and challenges. J Biol Chem 284: 4047-4051.

Kushnir A, Marks AR (2010). The ryanodine receptor in cardiac physiology and disease. Adv Pharmacol 59: 1-30.

Lanner JT, Georgiou DK, Joshi AD, Hamilton SL (2010). Ryanodine receptors: structure, expression, molecular details, and function in calcium release. *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol* 2: a003996.

Meissner G (2004). Molecular regulation of cardiac ryanodine receptor ion channel. Cell Calcium 35: 621-628.

Nahorski SR (2006). Pharmacology of intracellular signalling pathways. Br J Pharmacol 147 (Suppl. 1): S38–S45.

Ross D, Sorrentino V (2002). Molecular genetics of ryanodine receptors Ca²⁺ release channels. *Cell Calcium* 32: 307–319.

Shoshan-Barmatz V, Ashley RH (1998). The structure, function and cellular regulation of ryanodine-sensitive Ca²⁺-release channels. *Int Rev Cytol* **183**: 185–270.

Sitsapesan R, Williams AJ (1998). The Structure and Function of Ryanodine Receptors. Imperial College Press: London.

Sutko JL, Airey JA (1996). Ryanodine Ca²⁺ release channels: does diversity in form equal diversity in function? *Physiol Rev* 76: 1027–1071.

Sutko JL, Airey JA, Welch W, Ruest L (1997). The pharmacology of ryanodine and related compounds. Pharmacol Rev 49: 53-98.

Taur Y, Frishman WH (2005). The cardiac ryanodine receptor (RyR2) and its role in heart disease. Cardiol Rev 13: 142-146.

Verkhratsky A (2005). Physiology and pathophysiology of the calcium store in the endoplasmic reticulum of neurons. *Physiol Rev* **85**: 201–279. Zucchi, R, Ronca-Testoni S (1997). The sarcoplasmic reticulum Ca²⁺ channel/ryanodine receptor: modulation by endogenous effectors, drugs and disease states. *Pharmacol Rev* **49**: 1–51.

References

Gao L *et al.* (2000). *Biophys J* **79**: 828–840. Yamaguchi N *et al.* (2003). *J Biol Chem* **278**: 23480–23486. Zhao MC *et al.* (1999). *J Biol Chem* **274**: 25971–25974.

Sodium leak channel, non-selective

Overview: The sodium leak channel, non selective (NC-IUPHAR tentatively recommends the nomenclature Na_{Vi}2.1, W.A. Catterall, personal communication) is structurally a member of the family of voltage-gated sodium channel family (Na_v1.1 - Na_v1.9) (Lee et al., 1999; Yu and Catterall, 2004). In contrast to the latter, Na_{vi}2.1, is voltage-insensitive (denoted in the subscript 'vi' in the tentative nomenclature) and possesses distinctive ion selectivity and pharmacological properties. Na_{vi}2.1, which is insensitive to TTX (10 µM), has been proposed to mediate the TTX-resistant and voltage-insensitive Na⁺ leak current (I_L-Na) observed in many types of neurone (Lu et al., 2007). However, whether Na_{Vi}2.1 is constitutively active has been challenged (Swayne et al., 2009). Na_{Vi}2.1 is widely distributed within the central nervous system and is also expressed in the heart and pancreas specifically, in rodents, within the islets of Langerhans (Lee et al., 1999; Lu et al., 2007).

Nomenclature Na_{vi}2.1

Other names NALCN, Nav2.1, Nax, voltage-gated channel like 1 (VGCNL1), Rb21

Ensembl ID ENSG00000102452

Activators Constitutively active (Lu et al., 2007), or activated downstream of Src family tyrosine kinases (SFKs) (Lu et al.,

2009; Swayne et al., 2009); positively modulated by decreased extracellular Ca²⁺ concentration (Lu et al., 2010)

Blockers (IC₅₀) Gd³⁺ (1.4 μ M), Cd²⁺ (0.15 mM), Co²⁺ (0.26 mM), verapamil (0.38 mM)

 $\gamma = 27$ pS (by fluctuation analysis), $P_{Na}/P_{Cs} = 1.3$, $P_{K}/P_{Cs} = 1.2$, $P_{Ca}/P_{Cs} = 0.5$, linear current voltage-relationship, Functional characteristics

voltage-independent and non-inactivating

In native and recombinant expression systems Navi 2.1 can be activated by stimulation of NK1 (in hippocampal neurones), neurotensin (in ventral tegmental area neurones) and M3 muscarinic acetylcholine receptors (in MIN6 pancreatic β-cells and) in a manner that is independent of signalling through G proteins (Lu et al., 2009; Swayne et al., 2009). Pharmacological and molecular biological evidence indicates such modulation to occur though a pathway that involves the activation of Src family tyrosine kinases. It is suggested that Na_{vi}2.1 exists as a macromolecular complex with M3 receptors (Swayne et al., 2009) and peptide receptors (Lu et al., 2009), in the latter instance in association with the protein UNC-80, which recruits Src to the channel complex (Lu et al., 2009, Wang and Ren, 2009). By contrast, stimulation of Navi2.1 by decreased extracellular Ca2+ concentration is G-protein dependent and involves a Ca2+ sensing G protein-coupled receptor and UNC80 which links Na_{vi}2.1 to the protein UNC79 in the same complex (Lu et al., 2010). Na_{vi}2.1 null mutant mice have severe disturbances in respiratory rhythm and die within 24 hours of birth (Lu et al., 2007). Navi 2.1 heterozygous knockout mice display increased serum sodium concentrations in comparison to wildtype littermates and a role for the channel in osmoregulation has been postulated (Sinke et al., 2011).

Further Reading

Gilon P, Rorsman P (2009). NALCN: a regulated leak channel. EMBO Rep 10: 963-964. Swayne LA, Mezghrani A, Lory P, Nargeot, J Monteil A (2010). The NALCN ion channel is a new actor in pancreatic β-cell physiology. Islets 2: 54-56.

References

Lee JH et al. (1999). FEBS Lett 445: 231-236. Lu B et al. (2007). Cell 129: 371-383. Lu B et al. (2009). Nature 457: 741-745. Lu B et al. (2010). Neuron 68: 488-499.

Sinke AP et al. (2011). Physiol Genomics 43: 265-270. Swayne LA et al. (2009). EMBO Rep 10: 873-880. Wang H, Ren D (2009). Channels (Austin) 3: 161-163. Yu F, Catterall WA (2004). Sci STKE 253: re15.

\$164 Sodium (voltage-gated)

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Sodium (voltage-gated)

Overview: Sodium channels are voltage-gated sodium-selective ion channels present in the membrane of most excitable cells. Sodium channels comprise of one pore-forming α subunit, which may be associated with either one or two β subunits (Isom, 2001). α -Subunits consist of four homologous domains (I–IV), each containing six transmembrane segments (S1–S6) and a pore-forming loop. The positively charged fourth transmembrane segment (S4) acts as a voltage sensor and is involved in channel gating. The crystal structure of the bacterial NavAb channel has revealed a number of novel structural features compared to earlier potassium channel structures including a short selectivity filter with ion selectivity determined by interactions with glutamate side chains (Payandeh *et al.*, 2011). Interestingly, the pore region is penetrated by fatty acyl chains that extend into the central cavity which may allow the entry of small, hydrophobic pore-blocking drugs (Payandeh *et al.*, 2011). Auxiliary β 1, β 2, β 3 and β 4 subunits consist of a large extracellular N-terminal domain, a single transmembrane segment and a shorter cytoplasmic domain.

The nomenclature for sodium channels was proposed by Goldin et al., (2000) and approved by the NC-IUPHAR subcommittee on sodium channels (Catterall et al., 2005).

Nomenclature	Na _v 1.1	Na _v 1.2	Na _v 1.3	Na _v 1.4	Na _v 1.5
Alternative names	Brain type I	Brain type II	Brain type III	μ1, SkM1	h1, SkM II, cardiac
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000144285	ENSG00000136531	ENSG00000153253	ENSG00000007314	ENSG00000183873
Activators	Veratridine, batrachotoxin	Veratridine, batrachotoxin	Veratridine, batrachotoxin	Veratridine, batrachotoxin	Veratridine, batrachotoxin
Blockers	Tetrodotoxin (10 nM), saxitoxin	Tetrodotoxin (10 nM), saxitoxin	Tetrodotoxin (2–15 nM), saxitoxin	μ-Conotoxin GIIIA, tetrodotoxin (5 nM), saxitoxin	Tetrodotoxin (2 μM)
Functional characteristic	Fast inactivation (0.7 ms)	Fast inactivation (0.8 ms)	Fast inactivation (0.8 ms)	Fast inactivation (0.6 ms)	Fast inactivation (1 ms)

Nomenclature	Na _V 1.6	Na _v 1.7	Na _v 1.8	Na _v 1.9
Alternative names	PN4, NaCH6	PN1, NaS	SNS, PN3	NaN, SNS2
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000196876	ENSG00000169432	ENSG00000185313	ENSG00000168356
Activators	Veratridine, batrachotoxin	Veratridine, batrachotoxin	-	-
Blockers	Tetrodotoxin (6 nM), saxitoxin	Tetrodotoxin (4 nM), saxitoxin	Tetrodotoxin (60 μM)	Tetrodotoxin (40 μM)
Functional characterist	ic Fast inactivation (1 ms)	Fast inactivation (0.5 ms)	Slow inactivation (6 ms)	Slow inactivation (16 ms)

Sodium channels are also blocked by local anaesthetic agents, antiarrythmic drugs and antiepileptic drugs. There are two clear functional fingerprints for distinguishing different subtypes. These are sensitivity to tetrodotoxin ($Na_V1.5$, $Na_V1.8$ and $Na_V1.9$ are much less sensitive to block) and rate of inactivation ($Na_V1.8$ and particularly $Na_V1.9$ inactivate more slowly).

Further Reading

Andavan GS, Lemmens-Gruber R (2011). Voltage-gated sodium channels: mutations, channelopathies and targets. *Curr Med Chem* **18**: 377–397. Baker MD, Wood JN (2001). Involvement of Na⁺ channels in pain pathways. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* **22**: 27–31.

Bean BP (2007). The action potential in mammalian central neurons. Nat Rev Neurosci 8: 451–465.

Cantrell AR, Catterall WA (2001). Neuromodulation of Na⁺ channels: an unexpected form of cellular plasticity. *Nat Rev Neurosci* 2: 397–407. Catterall WA (1995). Structure and function of voltage-gated ion channels. *Ann Rev Biochem* 64: 493–531.

Catterall WA (2000). From ionic currents to molecular mechanisms: the structure and function of voltage-gated sodium channels. *Neuron* 26: 13–25.

Catterall WA, Goldin AL, Waxman SG (2005). International Union of Pharmacology. XLVII. Nomenclature and structure function relationships of voltage-gated sodium channels. *Pharmacol Rev* 57: 397–409.

Catterall, WA, Dib-Hajj S, Meisler MH, Pietrobon D (2008). Inherited neuronal ion channelopathies: new windows on complex neurological diseases. *J Neurosci* 28: 11768–11777.

Dib-Hajj SD, Cummins TR, Black JA, Waxman SG (2010). Sodium channels in normal and pathological pain. *Annu Rev Neurosci* 33: 325–347. England S, de Groot MJ. (2009). Subtype-selective targeting of voltage-gated sodium channels. *Br J Pharmacol* 158: 1413–1425.

Fozzard HA, Hanck DA (1996). Structure and function of voltage-dependent sodium channels – comparison of brain-II and cardiac isoforms. *Physiol Rev* 76: 887–926.

Fozzard HA, Lee PJ, Lipkind GM (2005). Mechanism of local anesthetic drug action on voltage-gated sodium channels. Curr Pharm Des 11: 2671–2686.

George AL (2005). Inherited disorders of voltage-gated sodium channels. *J Clin Invest* 115: 1990–1999.

Goldin AL (2001). Resurgence of sodium channel research. Ann Rev Physiol 63: 874-894.

Han TS, Teichert RW, Olivera BM, Bulaj G (2008). Conus venoms – a rich source of peptide-based therapeutics. *Curr Pharm Des* **14**: 2462–2479. Isom LL (2001). Sodium channel beta subunits: anything but auxiliary. *Neuroscientist* **7**: 42–54.

Kyle DJ, İlyin VI (2007). Sodium channel blockers. J Med Chem 50: 2583–2588.

Lai J, Porreca F, Hunter JC, Gold MS (2004). Voltage-gated sodium channels and hyperalgesia. Ann Rev Pharmacol Toxicol 44: 371–397.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Sodium (voltage-gated) \$165

Lewis RJ, Garcia ML (2003). Therapeutic potential of venom peptides. Nat Rev Drug Discov 2: 790-802.

Mantegazza M, Curia G, Biagini G, Ragsdale DS, Avoli M (2010). Voltage-gated sodium channels as therapeutic targets in epilepsy and other neurological disorders. *Lancet Neurol* 9: 413–424.

Matulenko MA, Scanio MJ, Kort ME (2009). Voltage-gated sodium channel blockers for the treatment of chronic pain. *Curr Top Med Chem* 9: 362–376.

Priest BT, Kaczorowski GJ (2007). Blocking sodium channels to treat neuropathic pain. Expert Opin Ther Targets 11: 291–306.

Priestley T (2004). Voltage-gated sodium channels and pain. Curr Drug Targets CNS Neurol Disord 3: 441-456.

Terlau H, Olivera BM (2004). Conus venoms: a rich source of novel ion channel-targeted peptides. Physiol Rev 84: 41-68.

Trimmer JS, Rhodes KJ (2004). Localisation of voltage-gated ion channels in mammalian brain. Ann Rev Physiol 66: 477–519.

Wood JN, Boorman J (2005). Voltage-gated sodium channel blockers; target validation and therapeutic potential. *Curr Top Med Chem* **5**: 529–537. Yu FH, Catterall WA (2004). The VGL-chanome: a protein superfamily specialized for electrical signaling and ionic homeostasis. *Sci STKE* **2004**: re15.

References

Goldin AL *et al.* (2000). *Neuron* **28**: 365–368. Payandeh J *et al.* (2011). *Nature* **475**: 353–358.

Transient receptor potential (TRP) cation channels

Overview: The TRP superfamily of channels (nomenclature agreed by NC-IUPHAR; Clapham *et al.*, 2005, Wu *et al.*, 2010), whose founder member is the *Drosophila* Trp channel, exists in mammals as six families; TRPC, TRPM, TRPV, TRPA, TRPP and TRPML based on amino acid homologies. TRP subunits contain six putative transmembrane domains and assemble as homo- or hetero-tetramers to form cation selective channels with diverse modes of activation and varied permeation properties (reviewed by Owsianik *et al.*, 2006b). Established, or potential, physiological functions of the individual members of the TRP families are discussed in detail in the recommended reviews and a compilation edited by Islam (2011). The established, or potential, involvement of TRP channels in disease is reviewed in Kiselyov *et al.* (2007a), Nilius *et al.* (2007) and Nilius and Owsianik (2010), together with a special edition of *Biochemica et Biophysica Acta* on the subject (Nilius, 2007). The pharmacology of most TRP channels is poorly developed (Wu *et al.*, 2010). Broad spectrum agents are listed in the tables along with more selective, or recently recognised, ligands that are flagged by the inclusion of a primary reference. Most TRP channels are regulated by phosphoinostides such as PtIns(4,5)P₂ and Ins(1,4,5)P₃ although the effects reported are often complex, occasionally contradictory, and likely be dependent upon experimental conditions (reviewed by Voets and Nilius, 2007; Nilius *et al.*, 2008; Rohacs, 2009). Such regulation is generally not included in the tables.

TRPC (canonical) family: Members of the TRPC subfamily (reviewed by Freichel *et al.*, 2005; Putney, 2005; Ambudkar and Ong, 2007; Abramowitz and Birnbaumer, 2009; Birnbaumer, 2009; Kiselyov and Patterson, 2009; Patel *et al.*, 2010; Beech, 2011) fall into the subgroups tabulated below. TRPC2 (not tabulated) is a pseudogene in man. It is generally accepted that all TRPC channels are activated downstream of $G_{q/11}$ -coupled receptors, or receptor tyrosine kinases (reviewed by Plant and Schaefer, 2003; Trebak *et al.*, 2007, Wu *et al.*, 2010). A comprehensive listing of G-protein coupled receptors that activate TRPC channels is given in Abramowitz and Birnbaumer (2009). Hetero-oligomeric complexes of TRPC channels and their association with proteins to form signalling complexes are detailed in Ambudkar and Ong (2007) and Kiselyov *et al.* (2007b). TRPC channels have frequently been proposed to act as store-operated channels (SOCs) (or compenents of mulimeric complexes that form SOCs), activated by depletion of intracellular calcium stores (reviewed by Pedersen *et al.*, 2005; Ambudkar and Ong, 2007; Potier and Trebak, 2008; Salido *et al.*, 2009; Yuan *et al.*, 2009; Cheng *et al.*, 2011), but this is controversial. All members of the TRPC family are blocked by 2-APB and SKF96356 (Harteneck and Gollasch, 2011; Harteneck *et al.*, 2011). Activation of TRPC channels by lipids is discussed by Beech (2011).

TRPC1/C4/C5 subgroup: TRPC4/C5 may be distinguished from other TRP channels by their potentiation by micromolar concentrations of La³⁺.

Nomenclature	TRPC1	TRPC4	TRPC5
Other names	TRP1	TRP4, CCE1	TRP5, CCE2
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000144935	ENSG00000133107	ENSG00000072315
Physical activators	Membrane stretch (likely indirect)	_	Membrane stretch (likely indirect)
Chemical activators	Activated by NO-mediated cysteine S-nitrosylation	Activated by NO-mediated cysteine S-nitrosylation, La ³⁺ (micromolar), potentiated by extracellular protons	NO-mediated cysteine S-nitrosylation (disputed), lysophosphatidylcholine, genesteine (independent of tyrosine kinase inhibition, Wong et al., 2010), diadzein, La ³⁺ (micromolar), Gd ³⁺ (0.1 mM), Pb ²⁺ (5 μ M), intracellular Ca ²⁺ (EC ₅₀ = 635 nM at negative potentials), potentiated by extracellular protons
Blockers	GsMTx-4, 2-APB, SKF96365, Gd ³⁺ , La ³⁺	ML204 (IC $_{50}$ = 2.9 μ M, Miller <i>et al.</i> , 2011), 2-APB, SKF96365, niflumic acid, La $^{3+}$ (millimolar)	ML204 (IC ₅₀ \approx 10 μ M, Miller <i>et al.</i> , 2011), GsMTx-4, SKF96365, 2-APB, KB-R7943, BTP2 (Pyr2), flufenamic acid, chlorpromazine, La ³⁺ (millimolar)
Functional characteristics	γ = 16 pS (fluctuation analysis), conducts mono- and di-valent cations non-selectively; monovalent cation current suppressed by extracellular Ca ²⁺ ; non-rectifying, or mildly inwardly rectifying; non-inactivating	γ = 30 –41 pS, conducts monoand di-valent cations non-selectively (P_{Ca}/P_{Na} = 1.1 – 7.7); dual (inward and outward) rectification	γ = 41-63 pS; conducts mono-and di-valent cations non-selectively (P_{Ca}/P_{Na} = 1.8 – 9.5); dual rectification (inward and outward) as a homomer, outwardly rectifying when expressed with TRPC1 or TRPC4

TRPC3/C6/C7 subgroup. All members are activated by diacylglycerol independent of protein kinase C stimulation (Harteneck and Gollasch, 2011).

Nomenclature	TRPC3	TRPC6	TRPC7
Other names	TRP3	TRP6	TRP7
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000138741	ENSG00000137672	ENSG00000069018
Physical activators	_	Membrane stretch (likely indirect)	_

Nomenclature	TRPC3	TRPC6	TRPC7
Chemical activators	Diacylglycerols	Hyperforin (Leuner <i>et al.</i> , 2007), 2,4 diahexanxoylphloroglucinol (Leuner <i>et al.</i> , 2010), diacylglycerols, lysophosphatidylcholine, flufenamate, arachidonic acid, 20-HETE	Diacylglycerols
Blockers	Pyr3 (Kiyonaka <i>et al.</i> , 2009), 2-APB, SKF96365, ACA, KB-R7943, BTP2 (Pyr2), Gd ³⁺ , La ³⁺ , Ni ²⁺	GsMTx-4, SKF96365, 2-APB, amiloride, ACA, KB-R7943, ML-9, La ³⁺ (IC ₅₀ \cong 6 μ M), Gd ³⁺ , Cd ²⁺ , extracellular protons	SKF96365, 2-APB, amiloride, La ³⁺
Functional characteristics	γ = 66 pS; conducts monoand di-valent cations non-selectively (P_{Ca}/P_{Na} = 1.6); monovalent cation current suppressed by extracellular Ca^{2+} ; dual (inward and outward) rectification	γ = 28-37 pS; conducts monoand divalent cations with a preference for divalents (P_{Ca}/P_{Na} = 4.5–5.0); monovalent cation current suppressed by extracellular Ca ²⁺ and Mg ²⁺ , dual rectification (inward and outward), or inward rectification	γ = 25–75 pS; conducts mono and divalent cations with a preference for divalents (P_{Ca}/P_{Cs} = 5.9); modest outward rectification (monovalent cation current recorded in the absence of extracellular divalents); monovalent cation current suppressed by extracellular Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+}

TRPM (melastatin) family: Members of the TRPM subfamily (reviewed by Fleig and Penner, 2004; Harteneck, 2005; Pedersen et al., 2005; Zholos, 2010) fall into the five subgroups tabulated below.

TRPM1/M3 subgroup: TRPM1 exists as five splice variants and is involved in normal melanocyte pigmentation (Oancea et al., 2009) and is also a visual transduction channel in retinal ON bipolar cells (Koike et al., 2010). TRPM3 (reviewed by Oberwinkler and Phillipp, 2007) exists as multiple splice variants four of which (mTRPM3α1, mTRPM3α2, hTRPM3a and hTRPM3₁₃₂₅) have been characterised and found to differ significantly in their biophysical properties. TRPM3 has recently been found to contribute to the detection of noxious heat (Vriens et al., 2011).

Nomenclature	TRPM1	TRPM3
Other names	LTRPC1, Melastatin	LTRPC3
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000134160	ENSG00000083067
Physical activators	_	Heat $(Q_{10} = 7.2 \text{ between } 15-25^{\circ}\text{C}$; Vriens et al., 2011), hypotonic cell swelling
Chemical activators	Pregnenolone sulphate (Lambert et al., 2011)	Pregnenolone sulphate (Wagner <i>et al.</i> , 2008), epipregnanolone sulphate (Majeed <i>et al.</i> , 2010), nifedipine, D-erythro-sphingosine, dihydrosphingosine
Blockers	$Zn^{2+} \text{ (IC}_{50} = 1 \mu\text{M)}$	Rosiglitazone, troglitazone, pioglitazone (independent of PPAR-γ; Majeed et al., 2011), mefenamic acid, Klose et al., 2011), 2-APB, La³+, Gd³+, intracellar Mg²+, extracellular Na⁺ (TRPM3α2 only)
Functional characteristics	Conducts mono- and di-valent cations non-selectively, dual rectification (inward and outward)	TRPM3 ₁₂₃₅ : $\gamma = 83$ pS (Na ⁺ current), 65 pS (Ca ²⁺ current); conducts monoand di-valent cations non-selectively ($P_{Ca}/P_{Na} = 1.6$) TRPM3 α 1: selective for monovalent cations ($P_{Ca}/P_{Cs}\sim0.1$) TRPM3 α 2: conducts mono- and di-valent cations non-selectively ($P_{Ca}/P_{Cs} = 1-10$) Outwardly rectifying (magnitude varies between spice variants)

TRPM2: TRPM2 functions as a sensor of redox status in cells and is also activated by heat (reviewed by Yamamoto et al., 2010). Numerous splice variants of TRPM2 exist which differ in their activation mechanisms (Du et al., 2009).

Nomenclature	TRPM2
Other names	(TRPC7, LTRPC2)
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000142185
Physical activators	Heat ~35°C
Chemical activators	Intracellular Ca ²⁺ via calmodulin, intracellular ADP ribose (ADPR) and cyclic ADPR (cADPR); agents producing reactive oxygen (e.g. H ₂ O ₂) and nitrogen (e.g. GEA 3162) species;, potentiated by arachidonic acid
Blockers	2-APB, ACA, clotrimazole, miconazole, econazole, flufenamic acid, Zn ²⁺ , extracellular protons
Functional characteristics	γ = 52-60 pS at negative potentials, 76 pS at positive potentials; conducts mono- and di-valent cations non-selectively (P_{Ca}/P_{Na} = 0.6–0.7); non-rectifying; inactivation at negative potentials; activated by oxidative stress probably <i>via</i> PARP-1, PARP inhibitors reduce activation by oxidative stress, activation inhibited by suppression of APDR formation by glycohydrolase inhibitors

Ca²⁺ activates all slice variants of TRPM2, but other activators listed are effective only at the full length isoform (Du *et al.*, 2009). Inhibition of TRPM2 by clotrimazole, miconazole, econazole, flufenamic acid is largely irreversible.

TRPM4/5 **subgroup**: TRPM4 and TRPM5 are thermosensitive and have the distinction within all TRP channels of being impermeable to Ca^{2+} (Wu *et al.*, 2010). A splice variant of TRPM4 (*i.e.*TRPM4b) and TRPM5 are molecular candidates for endogenous calcium-activated cation (CAN) channels (Guinamard *et al.*, 2011). TRPM4 has been shown to be an important regulator of Ca^{2+} entry in to mast cells (Vennekens *et al.*, 2007) and dendritic cell migration (Barbet *et al.*, 2008). TRPM5 in taste receptor cells of the tongue appears essential for the transduction of sweet, amino acid and bitter stimuli (Liman, 2007).

Nomenclature	TRPM4	TRPM5
Other names	LTRPC4	TRP-T
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000130529	ENSG0000070985
Physical activators	Membrane depolarization ($V_{v_2} = -20$ to +60 mV dependent upon conditions) in the presence of elevated $[Ca^{2+}]_t$, heat ($Q_{10} = 8.5 @ +25 \text{ mV}$ between 15–25°C)	Membrane depolarization ($V_{12}=0$ to +120 mV dependent upon conditions), heat ($Q_{10}=10.3$ @ -75 mV between 15 and 25°C)
Chemical activators	Decavanadate, whole cell current transiently activated by intracellular Ca $^{2+}$ (EC $_{50}$ 0.3–20 μ M), enhanced by BTP2	Rosiglitazone (Majeed <i>et al.</i> , 2011), transiently activated by intracellular Ca^{2+} (EC ₅₀ 635-840 nM)
Blockers	Clotrimazole, 9-phenanthrol, intracellular nucleotides (ATP ⁴⁻ , ADP, AMP, AMP-PNP – IC ₅₀ range 1.3–19 μ M) and adenosine (IC ₅₀ 630 μ M); intracellular spermine (IC ₅₀ = 35-61 μ M) and flufenamic acid (IC ₅₀ = 2.8 μ M)	Intracellular spermine (IC $_{50}=37~\mu M$) and flufenamic acid (IC $_{50}=24~\mu M$), extracellular protons (IC $_{50}=630~n M$), (not inhibited by ATP $^{4-}$)
Functional characteristics	γ = 23 pS (within the range 60 to +60 mV); permeable to monovalent cations; impermeable to Ca ²⁺ ; strong outward rectification; slow activation at positive potentials, rapid deactivation at negative potentials, deactivation blocked by decavanadate	$\gamma=15\text{-}25$ pS; conducts monovalent cations selectively ($P_{\text{Ca}}/P_{\text{Na}}=0.05$); strong outward rectification; slow activation at positive potentials, rapid inactivation at negative potentials; activated and subsequently desensitized by $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$

TRPM4 exists as multiple splice variants: data listed are for TRPM4b. The sensitivity of TRPM4b and TRPM5 to activation by $[Ca^{2\tau}]_i$ demonstrates a pronounced and time-dependent reduction following excision of inside-out membrane patches (Ullrich *et al.*, 2005). The $V_{\frac{1}{2}}$ for activation of TRPM4 and TRPM5 demonstrates a pronounced negative shift with increasing temperature.

TRPM6/M7 subgroup: TRPM6 and 7 combine channel and enzymatic activities ('chanzymes') and are involved in Mg²⁺ homeostasis (reviewed by Penner and Fleig, 2007; Bates-Withers *et al.*, 2011; Runnels, 2011).

Nomenclature	TRPM6	TRPM7
Other names	-	TRP-PLIK, Chak1, MagNum, MIC
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000119121	ENSG00000092439
Physical activators	_	_
Chemical activators	Constitutively active, activated by reduction of intracellular Mg ²⁺ , potentiated by extracellular protons and 2-APB (micromolar)	Elevated cAMP and activation of PKA; potentiated by intracellular ATP; potentiated by extracellular protons, 2-APB (millimolar)
Blockers	Ruthenium red (voltage dependent block, IC $_{50}$ = 100 nM at –120 mV), inward current mediated by monovalent cations blocked by Ca $^{2+}$ (IC $_{50}$ = 4.8–5.4 μ M) and Mg $^{2+}$ (IC $_{50}$ = 1.1–3.4 μ M)	Spermine (permeant blocker), carvacrol, La ³⁺ , Mg ²⁺ , 2-APB (micromolar)
Functional characteristics	$\gamma=4087$ pS; permeable to mono- and di-valent cations with a preference for divalents (Mg^2+ > Ca^2+; P_{Ca}/P_{Na}=6.9), conductance sequence Zn^2+ > Ba^2+ > Mg^2+= Ca^2+=Mn^2+ > Sr^2+ > Cd^2+ > Ni^2+; strong outward rectification abolished by removal of extracellular divalents, inhibited by intracellular Mg^2+ (IC_{50}=0.5 mM) and ATP	$\gamma=40\text{-}105$ pS at negative and positive potentials respectively; conducts mono-and di-valent cations with a preference for monovalents ($P_{\text{Ca}}/P_{\text{Na}}=0.34$); conductance sequence $Ni^{2+}>Zn^{2+}>Ba^{2+}=Mg^{2+}>Ca^{2+}=Mn^{2+}>Sr^{2+}>Cd^{2+}$; outward rectification, decreased by removal of extracellular divalent cations; inhibited by intracellular Mg^{2+} , Ba^{2+} , Sr^{2+} , Zn^{2+} , Mn^{2+} and $Mg.ATP$ (disputed); activated by and intracellular alkalinization; sensitive to osmotic gradients

TRPM8: Is a channel activated by cooling and pharmacological agents evoking a 'cool' sensation and participates in the thermosensation of cold temperatures (Bautista et al., 2007; Colburn et al., 2007; Dhaka et al., 2007; reviewed by Voets et al. (2007), Liu and Qin (2011), Knowlton and McKemy (2011), Mälkiä et al. (2011).

Nomenclature TRPM8

CMR1, TRP-p8 Other names **Ensembl ID** ENSG00000144481

Physical activators Depolarization ($V_{1/2} \cong +50 \text{ mV}$ at 15°C), cooling (<22–26°C)

Chemical Activators WS-12, (-)-menthol (inhibited by intracellular Ca²⁺), icilin (requires intracellular Ca²⁺ as a co-factor for full agonist

activity); agonist activities are temperature dependent and potentiated by cooling

AMTB (Lashinger et al., 2008), 5-benzyloxytrytamine, clotrimazole, BCTC, capsazepine, 2-APB, La³⁺, ACA, **Blockers**

anandamide, NADA, linoleic acid, cannabinoids (e.g., cannabidiol, THC); insensitive to ruthenium red

Functional characteristics $\gamma = 40-83$ pS at positive potentials; conducts mono- and di-valent cations non-selectively ($P_{ca}/P_{Na} = 1.0-3.3$);

pronounced outward rectification; demonstrates densensitization to chemical agonists and adaptation to a cold

stimulus in the presence of Ca²⁺; modulated by lysophospholipids and PUFAs

Activation of TRPM8 by depolarization is strongly temperature-dependent via a channel-closing rate that decreases with decreasing temperature. The V_{1/2} is shifted in the hyperpolarizing direction both by decreasing temperature and by exogenous agonists, such as menthol (Voets et al., 2004) whereas antagonists produce depolarizing shifts in V_{1/2} (Mälkiä et al., 2007). The V_{1/2} for the native channel is far more positive than that of heterologously expressed TRPM8 (Mälkiä et al., 2007). It should be noted that menthol and structurally related compounds can elicit release of Ca²⁺ from the endoplasmic reticulum independent of activation of TRPM8 (Mahieu et al., 2007). Intracellular pH modulates activation of TRPM8 by cold and icilin, but not menthol (Andersson et al., 2004).

TRPA (ankyrin) family: TRPA1 is the sole mammalian member of this group (reviewed by Garcia-Anoveros and Nagata, 2007). In some (Story et al., 2003; Bandell et al., 2004, Sawada et al., 2007; Karashima et al., 2009), but not other (Jordt et al., 2004; Nagata et al., 2005), studies TRPA1 is activated by noxious cold. One study suggests that activation of TRPA1 is secondary to a cold-induced elevation of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ (Zurborg et al., 2007), but this has been refuted (Karashima et al., 2009). Additionally, TRPA1 has been proposed to be a component of a mechanosensitive transduction channel of vertebrate hair cells (Corey et al., 2004; Nagata et al., 2005), but TRPA1 $^{(-1)}$ mice demonstrate no impairment in hearing, or vestibular function (Bautista et al. 2006; Kwan et al., 2006). There is consensus that TRPA1 acts as a nociceptor for environmental irritants (Baraldi et al., 2010).

Nomenclature TRPA1

Other names ANKTM1, p120, TRPN1 ENSG00000104321 Ensembl ID Physical activators Cooling (<17°C) (disputed)

Chemical Activators

Covalent e.q. Isothiocyanates, cinnamaldehyde, allicin, acroline, formalin, chlorobenzylidene malononitrile

Non-covalent e.g. URB597 (EC₅₀ = 24 μ M, Niforatus et al., 2007), nicotine (EC₅₀ \approx 20 μ M), icilin (-)-menthol (1–100 μ M),

thymol (1-100 μM), THC, 1,4-dihydropyridines

AP18 (3.1 μ M, Petrus et al., 2007), HC030031 (6.2 μ M, McNamara et al., 2007), ruthenium red (IC₅₀ < 1–3 μ M) Blockers (ICso)

Functional characteristics $\gamma = 87-100$ pS; conducts mono- and di-valent cations non-selectively ($P_{Ca}/P_{Na} = 0.84$); outward rectification;

activated by elevated intracellular Ca2+.

Agents activating TRPA1 in a covalent manner are thiol reactive electrophiles that bind to cysteine and lysine residues within the cytoplasmic domain of the channel (Hinman et al., 2006; Macpherson et al., 2007). TRPA1 is activated by a wide range of endogenous and exogenous compounds and only a few representative examples are mentioned in the table: an exhaustive listing can be found in Baraldi et al. (2010). In addition, TRPA1 is potently activated by intracellular zinc (EC₅₀ = 8 nM) (Andersson et al., 2009, Hu et al., 2009).

TRPV (vanilloid) family: Members of the TRPV family (reviewed by Vennekens et al., 2008) can broadly be divided into the theromosensitive, non-selective cation channels, TRPV1-4 and the calcium selective channels TRPV5 and TRPV6.

TRPV1-V4 subfamily: TRPV1 is involved in the development of thermal hyperalgesia following inflammation and may contribute to the detection of noxius heat (reviewed by Pringle et al., 2007; Starowicz et al., 2007; Szallasi et al., 2007). Numerous splice variants of TRPV1 have been described, some of which modulate the activity of TRPV1, or act in a dominant negative manner when co-expressed with TRPV1 (see Schumacher and Eilers, 2010). The pharmacology of TRPV1 channels is discussed in detail in Gunthorpe and Chizh (2009) and Vriens et al. (2009). TRPV2 is probably not a thermosensor in man (Park et al., 2011), but has recently been implicated in innate immunity (Link et al., 2010). TRPV3 and TRPV4 are both thermosensitive, with the latter also having a mechanosensing function (Everaerts et al., 2010a).

Nomenclature TRPV1 TRPV2

Other names VR1, vanilloid/capsaicin receptor, OTRPC1 VRL-1, OTRPC2, GRC Ensembl ID ENSG00000043316 ENSG00000154039

Physical activators Depolarization ($V_{1/2} \cong 0$ mV at 35°C), noxious heat (>43°C at pH 7.4), Noxious heat (>53°C, rodent, not human),

Nomenclature	TRPV1	TRPV2
Chemical Activators	DkTx (irreversible), extracellular protons (pEC ₅₀ = 5.4 at 37°C), capsaicin, resiniferatoxin, vanillotoxins, phenylaceytlrivanil, olvanil, anandamide, camphor, allicin, some eicosanoids (<i>e.g.</i> , 12-(S)-HPETE, 15-(S)-HPETE, 5-(S)-HETE, leukotriene B ₄), NADA, 2-APB, DPBA, activated by NO-mediated cysteine S-nitrosylation	Probenecid, 2-APB (rodent, not human), DPBA, cannabidiol, THC
Blockers (IC ₅₀)	Ruthenium red (0.09–0.22 μM), 5'-iodoresiniferatoxin (3.9 nM), 6-iodo-nordihydrocapsaicin (10 nM), BCTC (6–35 nM), capsazepine (40–280 nM), A-425619 (5 nM), A-778317 (5 nM), AMG517 (0.9 nM), AMG 628 (3.7 nM), JNJ17203212 (65 nM), JYL1421 (9.2 nM), SB366791 (18 nM), SB452533, SB-705498 (3–6 nM)	Ruthenium red (0.6 μM), SKF96365, amiloride, TRIM, La ³⁺
Probes (K _D)	[³H]-A778317 (3.4 nM), [³H]-resiniferatoxin, [¹²sl]-resiniferatoxin	-
Functional characteristics	$\gamma=35$ pS at -60 mV; 77 pS at $+60$ mV, conducts monoand di-valent cations with a selectivity for divalents ($P_{\text{Ca}}/P_{\text{Na}}=9.6$); voltage- and time- dependent outward rectification; potentiated by ethanol; activated/potentiated/upregulated by PKC stimulation; extracellular acidification facilitates activation by PKC; desensitisation inhibited by PKA; inhibited by $Ca^{2+}/$ calmodulin; cooling reduces vanilloid-evoked currents; may be tonically active at body temperature	Conducts mono- and di-valent cations ($P_{\text{Ca}}/P_{\text{Na}} = 0.9-2.9$); dual (inward and outward) rectification; current increases upon repetitive activation by heat; translocates to cell surface in response to IGF-1 to induce a constitutively active conductance, translocates to the cell surface in response to membrane stretch

Nomenclature	TRPV3	TRPV4
Other names	-	VRL-2, OTRPC4, VR-OAC, TRP12
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000167723	ENSG00000111199
Physical activators	Depolarization ($V_{V_2} \sim \approx +80$ mV, reduced to more negative values following heat stimuli), heat (23°–39°C, temperature threshold reduces with repeated heat challenge)	Constitutively active, heat (> 24–32°C), mechanical stimuli
Chemical activators	6-tert-butyl- <i>m</i> -cresol, carvacrol, eugenol, thymol, camphor, menthol, incensole acetate, 2-APB, DPBA, NO-mediated cysteine S-nitrosylation	GSK1016790A (EC ₅₀ = 2.1 nM, Thorneloe <i>et al.</i> , 2008), RN1747 (EC ₅₀ = 0.77 μ M, Vincent <i>et al.</i> , 2009), bisandrographolide A, 4α -PDH, 4α -PDD, PMA, epoxyeicosatrieonic acids, NO-mediated cysteine S-nitrosylation
Blockers	Ruthenium red (<1 μ M), DPTHF (6–10 μ M)	HC067047 (IC ₅₀ = 17 nM, Everaerts <i>et al.</i> , 2010b), RN1734 (IC ₅₀ = 2.3μ M, Vincent <i>et al.</i> , 2009), ruthenium red (voltage dependent block), La ³⁺ , Gd ³⁺
Functional characteristics	γ = 197 pS at = +40 to +80 mV, 48 pS at negative potentials; conducts mono- and di-valent cations; outward rectification; potentiated by arachidonic acid	$\gamma=\sim\!60$ pS at –60 mV, $\sim\!90\text{-}100$ pS at +60 mV; conducts mono- and di-valent cations with a preference for divalents ($P_{\text{Ca}}/P_{\text{Na}}$ =6–10); dual (inward and outward) rectification; potentiated by intracellular Ca^{2+} via $Ca^{2+}/$ calmodulin; inhibited by elevated intracellular Ca^{2+} via an unknown mechanism ($IC_{50}=0.4~\mu\text{M}$);

Activation of TRPV1 by depolarisation is strongly temperature-dependent via a channel opening rate that increases with increasing temperature. The V_{5} is shifted in the hyperpolarizing direction both by increasing temperature and by exogenous agonists (Voets $et\ al.$, 2004). The sensitivity of TRPV4 to heat, but not 4α -PDD, is lost upon patch excision. TRPV4 is activated by anandamide and arachidonic acid following P450 epoxygenase-dependent metabolism to 5',6'-epoxyeicosatrienoic acid (reviewed by Nilius $et\ al.$, 2004). Activation of TRPV4 by cell swelling, but not heat, or phorbol esters, is mediated via the formation of epoxyeicosatrieonic acids. Phorbol esters bind directly to TRPV4.

TRPV5/V6 subfamily: Under physiological conditions, TRPV5 and TRPV6 are calcium selective channels involved in the absorption and reabsorption of calcium across intestinal and kidney tubule epithelia (reviewed by Wissenbach and Niemeyer, 2007; de Groot et al., 2008).

- 1				
	Nomenclature	TRPV5	TRPV6	
-	Other names	ECaC, ECaC1, CaT2, OTRPC3	ECaC2, CaT1, CaT-L	
-	Ensembl ID	ENSG00000127412	ENSG00000165125	
	Activators	Constitutively active (with strong buffering of intracellular Ca ²⁺)	Constitutively active (with strong buffering of intracellular Ca ²⁺), potentiated by 2-APB	

Nomenclature	TRPV5	TRPV6
Blockers	Ruthenium red (IC $_{50}$ = 121 nM), econazole, miconazole, Pb $^{2+}$ = Cu $^{2+}$ = Gd $^{3+}$ > Cd $^{2+}$ > Zn $^{2+}$ > La $^{3+}$ > Co $^{2+}$ > Fe $^{2+}$; Mg $^{2+}$	Ruthenium red (ICso = 9 μ M), Cd²+, Mg²+, La³+
Functional characteristics	γ = 59–78 pS for monovalent ions at negative potentials, conducts mono- and di-valents with high selectivity for divalents ($P_{Ca}/P_{Na} > 107$); voltage- and time- dependent inward rectification; inhibited by intracellular Ca^{2+} promoting fast inactivation and slow downregulation; feedback inhibition by Ca^{2+} reduced by calcium binding protein 80-K-H; inhibited by extracellular and intracellular acidosis; upregulated by 1,25-dihydrovitamin D3	$\gamma=58-79$ pS for monovalent ions at negative potentials, conducts mono- and di-valents with high selectivity for divalents ($P_{Ca}/P_{Na} > 130$); voltage- and time-dependent inward rectification; inhibited by intracellular Ca^{2+} promoting fast and slow inactivation; gated by voltage-dependent channel blockade by intracellular Mg^{2+} ; slow inactivation due to Ca^{2+} -dependent calmodulin binding; phosphorylation by PKC inhibits Ca^{2+} -calmodulin binding and slow inactivation; upregulated by 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D3

TRPV5 preferentially conducts Ca²⁺ under physiological conditions, but in the absence of extracellular Ca²⁺, conducts monovalent cations. Single channel conductances listed for TRPV5 and TRPV6 were determined in divalent cation-free extracellular solution. Ca²⁺-induced inactivation occurs at hyperpolarized potentials when Ca²⁺ is present extracellularly. Single channel events cannot be resolved (probably due to greatly reduced conductance) in the presence of extracellular divalent cations. Measurements of P_{Ca}/P_{Na} for TRPV5 and TRPV6 are dependent upon ionic conditions due to anomalous mole fraction behaviour. Blockade of TRPV5 and TRPV6 by extracellular Mg²⁺ is voltage-dependent. Intracellular Mg²⁺ also exerts a voltage dependent block that is alleviated by hyperpolarization and contributes to the time-dependent activation and deactivation of TRPV6 mediated monovalent cation currents. TRPV5 and TRPV6 differ in their kinetics of Ca2+-dependent inactivation and recovery from inactivation. TRPV5 and TRPV6 function as homo- and hetero-tetramers.

TRPML (mucolipin) family: The TRPML family (see Qian and Noben-Trauth, 2005; Zeevi et al., 2007; Puertollano and Kiselyov, 2009) consists of three mammalian members (TRPML1-3). TRPML channels are probably restricted to intracellular vesicles and mutations in the gene (MCOLN1) encoding TRPML1 (mucolipin-1) are the cause of the neurodegenerative disorder mucolipidosis type IV (MLIV) in man. TRPML1 is a cation selective ion channel that is important for sorting/transport of endosomes in the late endocytotic pathway and specifically fusion between late endosome-lysosome hybrid vesicles. TRPML2 (MCLN2) remains to be functionally characterised in detail. TRPML3 is important for hair cell maturation, stereocilia maturation and intracellular vesicle transport. A naturally occurring gain of function mutation in TRPML3 (i.e. A419P) results in the varitint waddler (Va) mouse phenotype (reviewed by Qian and Noben-Trauth, 2005; Nilius et al., 2007).

Nomenclature	TRPML1	TRPML2	TRPML3	
Other names	MCLN1, mucolipin-1 (ML1)	MCLN2		
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000090674	ENSG00000153898	ENSG00000055732	
Activators TRPML1 ^{Va} : Constitutively active, current potentiated by extracellular acidification (equivalent to intralysosomal acidification)		TRPML2 ^{va} : Constitutively active, current potentiated by extracellular acidification (equivalent to intralysosomal acidification)	TRPML3 ^{va} : Constitutively active, current inhibited by extracellular acidification (equivalent to intralysosomal acidicification) Wild type TRPML3: Activated by Na ⁺ -free extracellular (extracytosolic) solution and membrane depolarization, current inhibited by extracellular acidification (equivalent to intralysosomal acidicification)	
Blockers	_	_	Gd ³⁺	
Functional characteristics	TRPML1 ^{va} : γ = 40 pS and 76-86 pS at very negative holding potentials with Fe ²⁺ and monovalent cations as charge carriers, respectively; conducts Na [*] ≡K [*] >Cs [*] and divalent cations (Ba ²⁺ >Mn ²⁺ >Fe ²⁺ >Ca ²⁺ > Mg ²⁺ > Ni ²⁺ >Co ²⁺ > Cd ²⁺ >Zn ²⁺ >>Cu ²⁺) but not Fe ³⁺ , impermeable to protons; monovalent cation flux suppressed by divalent cations (<i>e.g.</i> Ca ²⁺ , Fe ²⁺); inwardly rectifying	TRPML1 ^{va} : Conducts Na ⁺ ; monovalent cation flux suppressed by divalent cations; inwardly rectifying	TRPML3 ^{Va} : γ = 49 pS at very negative holding potentials with monovalent cations as charge carrier; conducts Na ⁺ > K ⁺ > Cs ⁺ with maintained current in the presence of Na ⁺ , conducts Ca ²⁺ an Mg ²⁺ , but not Fe ²⁺ , impermeable t protons; inwardly rectifying Wild type TRPML3: γ = 59 pS at negative holding potentials with monovalent cations as charge carrier; conducts Na ⁺ > K ⁺ > Cs ⁺ and Ca ²⁺ (P _{Ca} /P _K \cong 350), slowly inactivates in the continued presence of Na ⁺ within the extracellular (extracytosolic) solution; outwardly rectifying	

Data in the table are for TRPML proteins mutated (i.e TRPML1^{va}, TRPML2^{va} and TRPML3^{va}) at loci equivalent to TRPML3 A419P to allow plasma membrane expression when expressed in HEK-293 cells and subsequent characterisation by patch-clamp recording (Grimm et al., 2007; Kim et al., 2007; Xu et al., 2007; Dong et al., 2008; Nagata et al., 2008). Data for wild type TRPML3 are also tabulated (Kim et al., 2007, 2008; Xu et al., 2007; Nagata et al., 2008). It should be noted that alternative methodologies, particularly in the case of TRPML1, have resulted in channels with differing biophysical characteristics (reviewed by Puertollano and Kiselyov, 2009).

TRPP (polycystin) family: The TRPP family (reviewed by Delmas *et al.*, 2004a, Delmas, 2005; Giamarchi *et al.* 2006; Witzgall, 2007; Hofherr and Köttgen, 2011) subsumes the polycystins that are divided into two structurally distinct groups, polycystic kidney disease 1-like (PKD1-like) and polycystic kidney disease 2-like (PKD2-like). Members of the PKD1-like group, in mammals, include PKD1 (reclassified as TRPP1), PDKREJ, PKD1L1, PKD1L2 and PKD1L3. The PKD2-like members comprise PKD2, PKD2L1 and PKD2L2, which have renamed TRPP2, TRPP3 and TRPP5, respectively (Moran *et al.*, 2004). PKDREJ (ENSG00000130943), PKD1L1 (ENSG00000188683), PKD1L2 (ENSMUS00000034416), PKD1L3 (ENSG00000187008) and TRPP5 (ENSG00000078795) are not listed in the table due to lack of functional data. Similarly, TRPP1 (ENSG0000008710) is also omitted because although one study (Babich *et al.*, 2004) has reported the induction of a cation conductance in CHO cells transfected with TRPP1, there is no unequivocal evidence that TRPP1 is a channel *per se* and in other studies (*e.g.* Hanaoka *et al.*, 2000, Delmas *et al.*, 2004b) TRPP1 is incapable of producing currents.

Nomenclature	TRPP2	TRPP3
Other names	Polycystin-2 (PC2), polycystic kidney disease 2 (PKD2)	Polycystic kidney disease 2-like 1 protein (PKD2L1)
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000118762	ENSG00000107593
Activators	Constitutive activity, suppressed by co-expression of TRPP1	Low constitutive activity, enhanced by membrane depolarization; changes in cell volume affect voltage-dependent gating (increased channel opening probability with cell swelling)
Blockers (IC ₅₀)	Amiloride, La ³⁺ , Gd ³⁺	Phenamil (0.14 μ M), benzamil (1.1 μ M), EIPA (10.5 μ M), amiloride (143 μ M), flufenamate, La³+, Gd³+,
Functional characteristics	γ = 123–177 pS (with $K^{\scriptscriptstyle +}$ as charge carrier); P_{Na}/P_K = 0.14–1.1; conducts both mono- and di-valent cations	γ = 105–137 pS (outward conductance) 184–399 pS (inward conductance), conducts mono- and di-valent cations with a preference for divalents ($P_{\text{Ca}}/P_{\text{Na}}$ = 4.0–4.3); steady state currents rectify outwardly, whereas instantaneous currents show strong inward rectification; activated and subsequently inactivated by intracellular Ca^{2+} (human, but not mouse); inhibited by extracellular acidification and potentiated by extracellular alkalization

Data in the table are extracted from Delmas *et al.* (2004a), Dai *et al.* (2007) and Shimizu *et al.* (2009). Broadly similar single channel conductance, mono- and di-valent cation selectivity and sensitivity to blockers are observed for TRPP2 co-expressed with TRPP1 (Delmas, 2004b). Ca^{2+} , Ba^{2+} and Sr^{2+} permeate TRPP3, but reduce inward currents carried by Na^+ . Mg^{2+} is largely impermeant and exerts a voltage dependent inhibition that increases with hyperpolarization.

Abbreviations: 2-APB, 2-amino ethoxyphenylborate; 4α-PDD, 4α-phorbol 12,13-didecanoate; 4α-PDH, 4α-phorbol 12,13-dihexanoate; 5-(δ)-HETE, 5-(S)-hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acid; 12-(S)-HPETE and 15-(S)-HPETE, 12- and 15-(S)-hydroperoxyeicosatetraenoic acids; 20-HETE, 20-hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acid; A-425619, 1-isoquinolin-5-yl-3-(4-trifluoromethyl-benzyl)urea; A-778317, 1-((R)-5-tert-butyl-indan-1-yl)-3isoquinolin-5-yl-urea; ACA, N-(p-amylcinnamoyl)anthranilic acid; AMG 517, N-[4-[6-(4-trifluoromethyl-phenyl)-pyrimidin-4-yloxy]-(R)-N-(4-(6-(4-(1-(4-fluorophenyl)ethyl)piperazin-1-yl)pyrimidin-4-yloxy)benzo[d]thiazol-2benzothiazol-2-yl}-acetamide; AMG628, yl)acetamide; AMTB, N-(3-aminopropyl)-2-{[(3-methylphenyl) methyl]oxy}-N-(2-thienylmethyl)benzamide; AP18, 4-(4-chlorophenyl)-3methyl-3-buten-2-one oxime; BCTC, N-(4-tertiarybutylphenyl)-4-(3-chloropyridin-2-yl)tetrahydropyrazine-1(2H)-carbox-amide; BTP2, 4-methy-4'-[3,5-bis(trifluoromethyl)-1H-pyrazol-1-yl]-1,2,3-thiadiazole-5-carboxanilide; DPBA, diphenylboronic anhydride; DPTHF, diphenylboron nyltetrahydrofuran; GEA3162, 1,2,3,4-oxatriazolium-5-amino-3-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-chloride; GSK1016790A N-((1S)-1-[[4-((2S)-2-[[(2,4-dichlorophenyl)sulfonyl]amino]-3-hydroxypropanoyl)-1-piperazinyl]carbonyl]-3-methylbutyl)-1-benzothiophene-2-carboxamide; HC030031, 2-(1,3-dimethyl-2,6-dioxo-1,2,3,6-tetrahydro-7H-purin-7-yl)-N-(4-isopropylphenyl)acetamide; HC067047, JYL1421; morpholinyl)propyl]-5-phenyl-N-[3-(trifluoromethyl)phenyl]-1*H*-pyrrole-3-carboxamide; N-(4-tert-butylbenzyl)-N'-[3-fluoro-4-(methylsulfonylamino)benzyl]thiourea; JNJ17203212, 4-(3-trifluoromethyl-pyridin-2-yl)-piperazine-1-carboxylic acid (5-trifluoromethyl-pyridin-2-yl)-amide; KB-R7943, 2-[2-[4-(4-nitrobenzyloxy)phenyl]ethyl]isothiourea methanesulfonate; ML-9, 1-(5-chloronaphtalene-1sulphonyl)homopiperazine; ML204, structure not available; NADA, N-arachidonyl dopamine; PMA, phorbol 12 myristate 13-acetate; Pyr3, ethyl-1-(4-(2,3,3-trichloroacrylamide)phenyl)-5-(trifluoromethyl)-1H-pyrazole-4-carboxylate; RN1734, 2,4-dichloro-N-isopropyl-N-(2isopropylaminoethyl)benzenesulfonamide; RN1747, 1-(4-chloro-2-nitrophenyl)sulfonyl-4-benzylpiperazine; SB366791, N-(3-methoxyphenyl)-4-chlorocinnamide; SB705498, N-(2-bromophenyl)-N'-[((R)-1-(5-trifluoromethyl-2-pyridyl)pyrrolidin-3-yl)]urea; SDZ249665, 1-[4-(2-amino $ethoxy)-3-methoxy-benzyl]-3-(4-\textit{tert}-butyl-benzyl)-urea; \\ \textbf{SKF96265}, \\ 1-(\beta-(3-(4-methoxyphenyl)propoxy)-4-methoxyphenethyl)-1H-imidazole \\ \textbf{SKF96265}, \\ 1-(\beta-(3-(4-methoxyphenyl)propoxy)-4-methoxyphenyl)-1H-imidazole \\ \textbf{SKF9626}, \\ 1-(\beta-(3-(4-methoxyphenyl)propoxyphenyl)-1H-imidazole \\ \textbf{SKF9626}, \\ 1-(\beta-(3-(4-methoxyphenyl)propoxyphenyl)-1H-imidazole \\ \textbf{SKF962}, \\ 1-(\beta-(3-(4-methoxyphenyl)propoxyphenyl)-1H-imidazole \\ \textbf{SKF962}, \\ 1-(\beta-(3-(4-methoxyphenyl)propoxyphenyl)-1H-imidazole \\ \textbf{SKF962}, \\ 1-(\beta-(3-(4-methoxyphenyl)propoxyphenyl)-1H-imidazole \\ 1-(\beta-(3-(4-methoxyphenyl)propoxyphenyl)-1H-imidazole \\ 1-(\beta-(3-(4-methoxyphenyl)propoxyphenyl)-1H-imidazole \\ 1-(\beta-(3-(4-methoxyphenyl)propoxyphenyl)-1H-imidazole \\ 1-(\beta-(3-(4-methoxyphenyl)propoxyphenyl)-1H-imidazole \\ 1-(\beta-(3-(4-methoxyphenyl)propoxyphenyl)-1H-imidazole \\ 1-(\beta-(3-(4-methoxyphenyl)propoxyphenyl)-1H$ hydrochloride; THC, Δ⁹-tetrahydrocannabinol; TRIM, 1-(2-(trifluoromethyl)phenyl) imidazole; URB597, 3'-carbamoylbiphenyl-3-yl cyclohexylcarbamate; WS-12, 2-isopropyl-5-methyl-cyclohexanecarboxylic acid (4-methoxy-phenyl)-amide

Further Reading

Abramowitz J, Birnbaumer L (2009). Physiology and pathophysiology of canonical transient receptor potential channels. *FASEB J* 23: 297–328. Ambudkar IS, Ong HL (2007). Organisation and function of TRPC channelosomes. *Pflügers Arch* 455: 187–200.

Baraldi PG, Preti D, Materazzi S, Geppetti P (2010). Transient receptor potential ankyrin 1 (TRPA1) channel as emerging target for novel analgesics and anti-inflammatory agents. *J Med Chem* 53: 5085–5107.

Bates-Withers C, Sah R, Clapham DE (2011). TRPM7, the Mg²⁺ inhibited channel and kinase. Adv Exp Med Biol 704: 173–183.

Beech DJ (2011). Integration of transient receptor potential canonical channels with lipids. *Acta Physiol (Oxf)* doi: 10.1111/j.1748-1716. 2011.02311.x.

Birnbaumer L (2009). The TRPC class of ion channels: a critical review of their roles in slow, sustained increases in intracellular Ca²⁺ concentrations. Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol 49: 395-426.

Cheng KT, Ong HL, Liu X, Ambudkar IS (2011). Contribution of TRPC1 and Orai1 to Ca2+ entry activated by store depletion. Adv Exp Med Biol

Clapham DE, Montell C, Schultz G, Julius D (2005). International Union of Pharmacology. XLIII. Compendium of Voltage-gated ion channels. Transient receptor potential channels. Pharmacol Rev 55: 591–596.

Delmas P (2005). Polycystins: polymodal receptor/ion-channel cellular sensors. Pflügers Arch 451: 264–276.

Delmas P, Padilla F, Osorio N, Coste B, Raoux M, Crest M (2004a). Polycystins, calcium signaling, and human diseases. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 322: 1374-1383.

Dhaka A., Viswanath V, Patapoutian A (2006). Trp ion channels and temperature sensation. Annu Rev Neurosci 29: 135-161.

Everaerts W, Nilius B, Owsianik G (2010a). The vanilloid transient receptor potential channel TRPV4: from structure to disease. Prog Biophys Mol Biol 103: 2-17.

Fleig A, Penner R (2004). The TRPM ion channel subfamily: molecular, biophysical and functional features. Trends Pharmacol Sci 25: 633-639. Freichel M, Vennekens R, Olausson J, Stolz S, Philipp SE, Weißgerber P et al. (2005). Functional role of TRPC proteins in native systems: implications from knockout and knock-down studies. J Physiol 567: 59-66.

Garcia-Anoveros J, Nagata K (2007). TRPA1. Handb Exp Pharmacol 179: 347-362.

Giamarchi A, Padilla F, Coste B, Raoux M, Crest M, Honore E et al. (2006). The versatile nature of the calcium-permeable cation channel TRPP2. EMBO Rep 7: 787-793.

de Groot T, Bindels RJ, Hoenderop JG (2008). TRPV5: an ingeniously controlled calcium channel. Kidney Int 74: 1241-1246.

Guinamard R, Sallé L, Simard C (2011). The non-selective monovalent cationic channels TRPM4 and TRPM5. Adv Exp Med Biol 704: 147–171. Gunthorpe MJ, Chizh BA (2009). Clinical development of TRPV1 antagonists: targeting a pivotal point in the pain pathway. Drug Discov Today

Harteneck C (2005). Function and Pharmacology of TRPM cations channels. Naunyn-Schmiedeberg's Arch Pharmacol 371: 307-314.

Harteneck C, Gollasch M (2011). Pharmacological modulation of diacylglycerol-sensitive TRPC3/6/7 channels. Curr Pharm Biotech 12: 35–41.

Harteneck C, Klose C, Krautwurst D (2011). Synthetic modulators of TRP channel activity. Adv Exp Med Biol 704: 87-106.

Hofherr A, Köttgen M (2011). TRPP channels and polycystins. Adv Exp Med Biol 704: 287-313.

Islam MS (ed) (2011). Transient receptor potential channels. Adv Exp Med Biol 704: 1–1095.

Kiselyov K, Patterson RL (2009). The integrative function of TRPC channels. Front Biosci 14: 45-58.

Kiselyov K, Shin DM, Kim JY, Yuan JP, Muallem S. (2007b) TRPC channels: interacting proteins. Handb Exp Pharmacol 179: 559-574.

Kiselyov K, Soyombo A, Muallem S (2007a). TRPpathies. J Physiol 578: 641-653.

Knowlton WM, McKemy DD (2011). TRPM8: from cold to cancer, peppermint to pain. Curr Pharm Biotechnol 12: 68-77.

Koike C, Numata T, Ueda H, Mori Y, Furukawa T (2010). TRPM1: a vertebrate TRP channel responsible for retinal ON bipolar function. Cell Calcium 48: 95-101.

Liman ER (2007), TRPM5 and taste transduction, Handb Exp Pharmacol 179: 287-298.

Liu Y, Qin N (2011). TRPM8 in health and disease: cold sensing and beyond. Adv Exp Med Biol 704: 185-208.

Mälkiä A, Morenilla-Palao C, Viana F (2011). The emerging pharmacology of TRPM8 channels: hidden therapeutic potential underneath a cold surface. Curr Pharm Biotechnol 12: 54-67.

Moran MM, Xu H, Clapham DE (2004). TRP ion channels in the nervous system. Curr Opin Neurobiol 14: 362-369.

Nilius B (ed.) (2007). TRP channels in disease. Biochem Biophys Acta 1772: 805-1032.

Nilius B, Owsianik G (2010). Transient receptor potential channelopathies. Pflugers Arch 460: 437-450.

Nilius B, Voets T (2005). A TR(I)P through a world of multifunctional cation channels. Pflügers Arch 451: 1-10.

Nilius B, Vriens J, Prenen J, Droogmans G, Voets T (2004). TRPV4 calcium channel: a paradigm for gating diversity. Am J Physiol 286: C195–C205.

Nilius B, Talavera K, Owsianik G, Prenen J, Droogmans G, Voets T. (2005). Gating of TRP channels: a voltage connection? J Physiol 567: 35-44.

Nilius B, Owsianik G, Voets T, Peters JA (2007). Transient receptor potential (TRP) cation channels in disease. Physiol Rev 87: 165-217.

Nilius B, Owsianik G, Voets T (2008). Transient receptor potential channels meet phosphoinositides. EMBO J 27: 2809–2816.

Oberwinkler J, Phillipp SE (2007). TRPM3. Handb Exp Pharmacol 179: 253-267.

Owsianik G, D'hoedt D, Voets T, Nilius B (2006a). Structure-function relationship of the TRP channel superfamily. Rev Physiol Biochem Pharmacol

Owsianik G, Talavera G, Voets, Nilius B (2006b). Permeation and selectivity of TRP channels. Annu Rev Physiol 68: 685-717.

Patel A, Sharif-Naeini R, Folgering JR, Bichet D, Duprat F, Honoré E (2010). Canonical TRP channels and mechanotransduction: from physiology to disease states. Pflugers Arch 460: 571-581.

Pedersen SF, Owsianik G, Nilius B (2005). TRP Channels: an overview. Cell Calcium 38: 233-252.

Penner R, Fleig A (2007). The Mg²⁺ and Mg²⁺-nucleotide-regulated channel-kinase TRPM7. Handb Exp Pharmacol 179: 313–328.

Plant TD, Schaefer M. (2003). TRPC4 and TRPC5: receptor-operated Ca²⁺-permeable non-selective cation channels. Cell Calcium 33: 441–450. Potier M, Trebak M (2008). New developments in the signalling mechanisms of the store-operated calcium entry pathway. Pflügers Arch 457:

405-415. Pringle SC, Matta JA, Ahern GP (2007). Capsaicin receptor: TRPV1 a promiscuous TRP channel. Handb Exp Pharmacol 179: 153-169.

Puertollano R, Kiselyov K (2009). TRPMLs: in sickness and in health. Am J Physiol Renal Physiol 296: F1245-F1254.

Putney JW (2005). Physiological mechanisms of TRPC activation. Pflügers Arch 451: 29-34.

Qian F, Noben-Trauth K (2005). Cellular and molecular function of mucolipins (TRPML) and polycystin 2 (TRPP2). Pflügers Arch 451: 277-285. Ramsey IS, Delling M, Clapham DE (2006). An introduction to TRP channels. Annu Rev Physiol 68: 619-647.

Rohacs T (2009). Phosphoinositide regulation of non-canonical transient receptor potential channels. Cell Calcium 45: 554-565.

Runnels LW (2011). TRPM6 and TRPM7: a Mul-TRP-PLIK-cation of channel functions. Curr Pharm Biotechnol 12: 42-53.

Salido GM, Sage SO, Rosado, JA (2009). TRPC channels and store-operated Ca2+ entry. Biochim Biophys Acta 1793: 223–230.

Schumacher MA, Eilers H (2010). TRPV1 splice variants: structure and function. Front Biosci 15: 872-882.

Starowicz K, Nigam S, Di Marzo V (2007). Biochemistry and pharmacology of endovanilloids. Pharmacol Ther 114: 13-33.

Szallasi A, Cortright DN, Blum CA, Eid SR (2007). The vanilloid receptor TRPV1: 10 years from channel cloning to antagonist proof-of-concept. Nat Rev Drug Discov 6: 357-372.

Trebak M, Lemonnier L, Smyth JT, Vazquez G, Putney JW Jr (2007). Phospholipase C-coupled receptors and activation of TRPC channels. Handb Exp Pharmacol 179: 593-614.

Vay L, Gu C, McNaughton PA (2011). The thermo-TRP ion channel family: properties and therapeutic implications. Br J Pharmacol doi: 10.1111/j.1476-5381.2011.01601.x.

Venkatachalam K, Montell C (2007). TRP channels. Annu Rev Biochem 76: 387-417.

Vennekens R, Nilius B (2007). Insights into TRPM4 function, regulation and physiological role. Handb Exp Pharmacol 179: 269-285.

Vennekens R, Owsianik G, Nilius B (2008). Vanilloid transient receptor potential cation channels: an overview. Curr Pharm Des 14: 18-31.

Vincent F, Duncton MA (2011). TRPV4 Agonists and Antagonists. Curr Top Med Chem 11: 2216-2226.

Voets T, Nilius B (2007). Modulation of TRPs by PIPs. J Physiol 582: 939-944.

Voets T, Owsainik G, Nilius B (2007). TRPM8. Handb Exp Pharmacol 179: 329-344.

Voets T, Talavera K, Owsianik G, Nilius B (2005). Sensing with TRP channels. Nature Chem Biol 2: 85–92.

Vriens J, Appendino G, Nilius B (2009). Pharmacology of vanilloid transient receptor potential cation channels. *Mol Pharmacol* 75: 162–1279.

Wissenbach U, Niemeyer BA (2007). TRPV6. *Handb Exp Pharmacol* 179: 221–234. Witzgall R (2007). TRPP2 channel regulation. *Handb Exp Pharmacol* 179: 363–375.

Wu LJ, Sweet TB, Clapham DE (2010). International Union of Basic and Clinical Pharmacology. LXXVI. Current progress in the mammalian TRP ion channel family. *Pharmacol Rev* 62: 381–404.

Yamamoto S, Takahashi N, Mori Y (2010). Chemical physiology of oxidative stress-activated TRPM2 and TRPC5 channels. *Prog Biophys Mol Biol* 103: 18–27

Yuan JP, Kim MS, Zeng W, Shin DM, Huang G, Worley PF, Muallem S (2009). TRPC channels as STIM1-regulated SOCs Channels (Austin) 3: 221-225

Zeevi DA, Frumkin A, Bach G (2007). TRPML and lysosomal function. Biochim Biophys Acta 1772: 851-858.

Zholos A (2010). Pharmacology of transient receptor potential melastatin channels in the vasculature. Br J Pharmacol 159: 1559–1571.

References

Andersson DA et al. (2004). J Neurosci 24: 5364-5369.

Andersson DA et al. (2009). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 106: 8374-8379.

Babich V et al. (2004). J Biol Chem 279: 25582-25589.

Bandell M et al. (2004). Neuron 41: 849-857.

Barbet G et al. (2008). Nat Immunol 9: 1148-1156.

Bautista DM et al. (2006). Cell 124: 1269-1282.

Bautista DM et al. (2007). Nature 448: 204-208.

Colburn RW et al. (2007). Neuron 54: 379-386.

Corey DP et al. (2004). Nature 432: 723-730.

Dai XQ et al. (2007). Mol Pharmacol 72: 1576-1585.

Delmas P et al. (2004b). FASEB J 18: 740-742.

Dhaka A et al. (2007). Neuron 54: 371-378.

Dong X-P et al. (2008). Nature 455: 992-997.

Du J et al. (2009). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 106: 7239-7244.

Everaerts W et al. (2010b). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 107: 19084–19089.

Grimm C et al. (2007). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 104: 19583–19588.

Hanaoka K et al. (2000). Nature 408: 990-994.

Hinman A et al. (2006). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 103: 19564-19568.

 $Hu\ H\ et\ al.\ (2009).\ Nat\ Chem\ Biol\ 5:\ 183-190.$

Jordt SE et al. (2004). Nature 427: 260-265.

Karashima Y et al. (2009). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 106: 1273–1278.

Kim HJ et al. (2007). J Biol Chem 282: 36138-36142.

Kim HJ et al. (2008). EMBO J 27: 1197-1205.

Kiyonaka S et al. (2009). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 106: 5400–5405.

Klose C et al. (2011). Br J Pharmacol 162: 1757-1769.

Kwan KY et al. (2006). Neuron 50: 277-289.

Lambert S et al. (2011). J Biol Chem 286: 122221-112233.

Lashinger ES *et al.* (2008). *Am J Physiol* **295**: F803–F810.

Leuner K et al. (2007). FASEB J 21: 4101-4111.

Leuner K et al. (2010). Mol Pharmacol 77: 368-377.

Link TM et al. (2010). Nat Immunol 11: 232-239.

Macpherson LJ et al. (2007). Nature 445: 541-545.

Mahieu F et al. (2007). J Biol Chem 282: 3325-3336.

Majeed Y et al. (2010). Br J Pharmacol 161: 430-441.

Majeed Y et al. (2011). Mol Pharmacol 79: 1023-1030.

Mälkiä A et al. (2007). J Physiol 581: 155–174.

McNamara CR et al. (2007). Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 104: 13525-13530.

Miller M et al. (2011). J Biol Chem 286: 33436-33446.

Nagata K et al. (2005). J Neurosci 25: 4052-4061.

Nagata K et al. (2008). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 105: 353-358.

Niforatus W et al. (2007). Mol Pharmacol 71: 1209-1216.

Oancea E et al. (2009). Sci Signal 2: ra21.

Park U et al. (2011). J Neurosa 31: 11425-11436.

Petrus P et al. (2007). Mol Pain 3: 40.

Sawada Y et al. (2007). Brain Res 1160: 39-46.

Shimizu T et al. (2009). Pflügers Arch 457: 795-807.

Story GM et al. (2003). Cell 112: 819-829.

Thorneloe KS et al. (2008). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 326: 432–442.

Ullrich ND et al. (2005). Cell Calcium 37: 267-278.

Vennekens R et al. (2007). Nat Immunol 8: 312-320.

Vincent F et al. (2009). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 389: 490-494.

Voets T et al. (2004). Nature 430: 748-754.

Vriens J et al. (2011). Neuron 70: 482-494.

Wagner TF et al. (2008). Nat Cell Biol 10: 1421-1430.

Wong CO et al. (2010). Br J Pharmacol 159: 1486-1496.

Xu H et al. (2007). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 104: 18321–18326.

Zurborg S et al. (2007). Nat Neurosci 10: 277-279.

NUCLEAR RECEPTORS

Overview: Nuclear receptors are specialised transcription factors with commonalities of sequence and structure, which bind as homoor heterodimers to specific consensus sequences of DNA (response elements) in the promoter region of particular target genes. They regulate (either promoting or repressing) transcription of these target genes in response to a variety of endogenous ligands. Endogenous agonists are hydrophobic entities which, when bound to the receptor promote conformational changes in the receptor to allow recruitment (or dissociation) of protein partners, generating a large multiprotein complex.

Two major subclasses of nuclear receptors with identified endogenous agonists can be identified: steroid and non-steroid hormone receptors. Steroid hormone receptors function typically as dimeric entities and are thought to be resident outside the nucleus in the unliganded state in a complex with chaperone proteins, which are liberated upon agonist binding. Migration to the nucleus and interaction with other regulators of gene transcription, including RNA polymerase, acetyltransferases and deacetylases, allows gene transcription to be regulated. Non-steroid hormone receptors typically exhibit a greater distribution in the nucleus in the unliganded state and interact with other nuclear receptors to form heterodimers, as well as with other regulators of gene transcription, leading to changes in gene transcription upon agonist binding.

Selectivity of gene regulation is brought about through interaction of nuclear receptors with particular consensus sequences of DNA, which are arranged typically as repeats or inverted palindromes to allow accumulation of multiple transcription factors in the promoter regions of genes.

Further Reading

Germain P, Staels B, Dacquet C, Spedding M, Laudet V (2006). Overview of nomenclature of nuclear receptors. Pharmacol Rev 58: 685-704.

S176 Orphan nuclear receptors Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Orphan nuclear receptors

In man, 48 nuclear receptors have been identified from sequence analysis of the genome (see Benoit *et al.*, 2006; Germain *et al.*, 2006), only half of which have been 'assigned' a ligand by Nomenclature Committees of NC-IUPHAR. 19 families of nuclear receptors have been identified, allowing a systematic nomenclature of the format NRXYZ, where NR represents nuclear receptor, X the subfamily (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 or 0), Y the group (A, B, C, D, F, H or I) and Z the individual member.

Preliminary pairings

Listed below are a number of putative nuclear receptors identified by NC-IUPHAR, for which only preliminary evidence for an endogenous ligand has been published.

Common nomenclature	Systematic nomenclature	Other names	Ensembl ID	Putative endogenous ligand	Comment
Rev-erb $lpha$	NR1D1	EAR1, hRev	ENSG00000126368	Haem (Raghuram et al., 2007; Yin et al., 2007)	A synthetic agonist, GSK4112, has been described (Grant et al., 2010)
Rev-erb $oldsymbol{eta}$	NR1D2	EAR1 <i>β,</i> RVR, BD73	ENSG00000174738	Haem (Raghuram et al., 2007; Yin et al., 2007)	A synthetic agonist, GSK4112, has been described (Grant et al., 2010)
HNF4α	NR2A1	Hepatocyte nuclear factor 4- α , MODY1, TCF14	ENSG00000101076	Linoleic acid (Yuan et al., 2009)	-
TR4	NR2C2	Testicular receptor 4, TAK1	ENSG00000177463	Retinol, retinoic acid (Zhou <i>et al.</i> , 2011)	Forms a heterodimer with TR2 (Young et al., 1998)

Orphan nuclear receptors

Common nomenclature	Systematic nomenclature	Other names	Ensembl ID	Comments
HNF4 γ	NR2A2	Hepatocyte nuclear factor 4- γ	ENSG00000164749	_
TR2	NR2C1	Testicular receptor 2	ENSG00000120798	Forms a heterodimer with TR4 (Young et al., 1998); gene disruption appears without effect on testicular development or function (Shyr et al., 2002))
TLX	NR2E1	Tailless homolog, TLL	ENSG00000112333	Gene disruption is associated with abnormal brain development (Monaghan <i>et al.</i> , 1997; Land and Monaghan, 2003)
PNR	NR2E3	Photoreceptor-specific nuclear receptor, retina-specific nuclear receptor	ENSG00000031544	-
COUP-TFI	NR2F1	COUP α , EAR3, SVP44	ENSG00000175745	Gene disruption is perinatally lethal (Qiu <i>et al.,</i> 1997)
COUP-TFII	NR2F2	COUPβ, ARP1, SVP40	ENSG00000185551	Gene disruption is embryonically lethal (Pereira et al., 1999)
EAR2	NR2F6	V-erb-related gene	ENSG00000160113	Gene disruption impairs CNS development (Warnecke <i>et al.</i> , 2005)

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Orphan nuclear receptors \$177

Common nomenclature	Systematic nomenclature	Other names	Ensembl ID	Comments
ERRα	NR3B1	ESRL1, estrogen-related receptor α , estrogen receptor-like 1	ENSG00000173153	Activated by some dietary flavonoids (Suetsugi <i>et al.</i> , 2003); activated by the synthetic agonist GSK4716 (Zuercher <i>et al.</i> , 2005) and blocked by XCT790 (Willy <i>et al.</i> , 2004)
ERR $oldsymbol{eta}$	NR3B2	ESRL2, estrogen-related receptor β , estrogen receptor-like 2	ENSG00000119715	May be activated by DY13 (Yu and Forman, 2005)
$ERR\gamma$	NR3B3	ESRL3, estrogen-related receptor γ , estrogen receptor-like 3	ENSG00000196482	May be activated by DY13 (Yu and Forman, 2005)
Nur77	NR4A1	Nerve growth factor IB, NGFI-B, NAK1, ST59, TR3, HMR	ENSG00000123358	An exogenous agonist, cytosporone B, has been described (Zhan et al., 2008), although structural analysis and molecular modelling has not identifie a ligand binding site (Baker et al., 2003; Flaig et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2003)
NURR1	NR4A2	Immediate-early response protein NOT, transcriptionally-inducible nuclear receptor, TINUR, RNR-1	ENSG00000153234	-
NOR1	NR4A3	Neuron-derived orphan receptor, mitogen-induced nuclear orphan receptor	ENSG00000119508	-
SF1	NR5A1	Steroidogenic factor 1, adrenal 4-binding protein, steroid hormone receptor Ad4BP, Fushi tarazu factor homolog 1	ENSG00000136931	Reported to be inhibited by AC45594 (Del Tredici <i>et al.</i> , 2008) and SID7969543 (Madoux <i>et al.</i> , 2008)
LRH-1	NR5A2	Liver receptor homolog 1, \(\alpha\)1-fetoprotein transcription factor, hepatocytic transcription factor, B1-binding factor, CYP7A promoter-binding factor	ENSG00000116833	-
GCNF	NR6A1	Germ cell nuclear factor, retinoid receptor-related testis-specific receptor, RTR	ENSG00000148200	-
DAX-1	NR0B1	AHCH	ENSG00000169297	_
SHP	NR0B2	Small heterodimer partner	ENSG00000131910	_

Abbreviations: AC45594, 4-heptoxyphenol; DY131, N-(4-(diethylaminobenzylidenyl)-N'-(4-hydroxybenzoyl)-hydrazine; GSK4112, 1,1-dimethylethyl-N-[(4-chlorophenyl)methyl]-N-[(5-nitro-2-thienyl)methyl])glycinate, also known as SR6452; GSK4716, 4-hydroxy-2-[(1E)-[4-(1-methylethyl)phenyl]methylene]hydrazide; SID7969543, ethyl 2-[2-[2-(2,3-dihydro-1,4-benzodioxin-7-ylamino)-2-oxoethyl]-1-oxoisoquinolin5-yl]oxypropanoate; XCT790, (E)-3-[4-[[2,4-bis(trifluoromethyl)phenyl]methoxy]-3-methoxyphenyl]-2-cyano-N-[5-(trifluoromethyl)-1,3,4-thiadiazol-2-yl]prop-2-enamide

Further Reading

Benoit G, Cooney A, Giguere V, Ingraham H, Lazar M, Muscat G et al. (2006). International Union of Pharmacology. LXVI. Orphan nuclear receptors. Pharmacol Rev 58: 798–836.

Chanda D, Park JH, Choi HS (2008). Molecular basis of endocrine regulation by orphan nuclear receptor Small Heterodimer Partner. *Endocr J* 55: 253–268.

Deblois G, Giguere V (2011). Functional and physiological genomics of estrogen-related receptors (ERRs) in health and disease. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1812: 1032–1040.

Duez H, Staels B (2009). Rev-erb-α: an integrator of circadian rhythms and metabolism. J Appl Physiol 107: 1972–1980.

Duez H, Staels B (2010). Nuclear receptors linking circadian rhythms and cardiometabolic control. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol* **30**: 1529–1534. El-Khairi R, Martinez-Aguayo A, Ferraz-de-Souza B, Lin L, Achermann JC (2011). Role of DAX-1 (NR0B1) and steroidogenic factor-1 (NR5A1) in human adrenal function. *Endocr Dev* **20**: 38–46.

Fernandez-Marcos PJ, Auwerx J, Schoonjans K (2011). Emerging actions of the nuclear receptor LRH-1 in the gut. *Biochim Biophys Acta (BBA) Mol Basis Dis* 1812: 947–955.

Germain P, Staels B, Dacquet C, Spedding M, Laudet V (2006). Overview of nomenclature of nuclear receptors. *Pharmacol Rev* **58**: 685–704. Gui H, Li ML, Tsai CC (2011). A tale of tailless. *Dev Neurosci* **33**: 1–13.

Huang P, Chandra V, Rastinejad F (2010). Structural overview of the nuclear receptor superfamily: insights into physiology and therapeutics. *Annu Rev Physiol* 72: 247–272.

Hwang-Verslues WW, Sladek FM (2010). HNF4 α – role in drug metabolism and potential drug target? *Curr Opin Pharmacol* **10**: 698–705. Lin FI, Qin J, Tang K, Tsai SY, Tsai MJ (2011). Coup d'Etat: an Orphan Takes Control. *Endocr Rev* **32**: 404–421.

Mlynarczuk J, Rekawiecki R (2010). The role of the orphan receptor SF-1 in the development and function of the ovary. *Reprod Biol* 10: 177–193. Pearen MA, Muscat GE (2010). Nuclear hormone receptor 4A signaling: implications for metabolic disease. *Mol Endocrinol* 24: 1891–1903.

Phelan CA, Gampe RT, Jr., Lambert MH, Parks DJ, Montana V, Bynum J *et al.* (2010). Structure of Rev-erbα bound to N-CoR reveals a unique mechanism of nuclear receptor-co-repressor interaction. *Nat Struct Mol Biol* 17: 808–814.

Schimmer BP, White PC (2010). Steroidogenic factor 1: its roles in differentiation, development, and disease. *Mol Endocrinol* **24**: 1322–1337. Sladek FM (2011). What are nuclear receptor ligands? *Mol Cell Endocrinol* **334**: 3–13.

Yin L, Wu N, Lazar MA (2010). Nuclear receptor Rev-erbα: a heme receptor that coordinates circadian rhythm and metabolism. *Nucl Recept Signal*

Zhang Y, Hagedorn CH, Wang L (2011). Role of nuclear receptor SHP in metabolism and cancer. *Biochim Biophys Acta (BBA) Mol Basis Dis* 1812: 893–908.

Zhao Y, Bruemmer D (2010). NR4A orphan nuclear receptors: transcriptional regulators of gene expression in metabolism and vascular biology. Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol 30: 1535–1541.

References

Baker KD et al. (2003). Cell 113: 731–742.

Del Tredici AL et al. (2008). Mol Pharmacol 73: 900–908.

Flaig R et al. (2005). J Biol Chem 280: 19250–19258.

Grant D et al. (2010). ACS Chem Biol 5: 925–932.

Land PW, Monaghan AP (2003). Cereb Cortex 13: 921–931.

Madoux F et al. (2008). Mol Pharmacol 73: 1776–1784.

Monaghan AP et al. (1997). Nature 390: 515–517.

Pereira FA et al. (1999). Genes Dev 13: 1037–1049.

Qiu Y et al. (1997). Genes Dev 11: 1925–1937.

Raghuram S et al. (2007). Nat Struct Mol Biol 14: 1207–1213.

Shyr CR et al. (2002). Mol Cell Biol 22: 4661–4666.

Suetsugi M et al. (2003). Mol Cancer Res 1: 981–991.
Wang Z et al. (2003). Nature 423: 555–560.
Warnecke M et al. (2005). Genes Dev 19: 614–625.
Willy PJ et al. (2004). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 101: 8912–8917.
Yin L et al. (2007). Science 318: 1786–1789.
Young WJ et al. (1998). J Biol Chem 273: 20877–20885.
Yu DD, Forman BM (2005). Bioorg Med Chem Lett 15: 1311–1313.
Yuan X et al. (2009). PLoS ONE 4: e5609.
Zhan Y et al. (2008). Nat Chem Biol 4: 548–556.
Zhou XE et al. (2011). J Biol Chem 286: 2877–2885.
Zuercher WJ et al. (2005). J Med Chem 48: 3107–3109.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Liver X and farnesoid X S179

Liver X and farnesoid X

Overview: Liver X and farnesoid X receptors (LXR and FXR, nomenclature as agreed by NC-IUPHAR Committee on Nuclear Receptors, see Moore *et al.*, 2006) are members of a steroid analogue-activated nuclear receptor subfamily (ENSF00000000720), which form heterodimers with members of the retinoid X receptor family. Endogenous ligands for LXRs include hydroxycholesterols (OHC), while FXRs appear to be activated by bile acids.

Nomenclature	LXRlpha	LXReta	FXRlpha	FXReta
Systematic nomenclature	NR1H3	NR1H2	NR1H4	NR1H5
Other names	Oxysterols receptor α	Oxysterols receptor β , ubiquitously expressed nuclear receptor	Bile acid receptor	Lanosterol receptor
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000025434	ENSG00000131408	ENSG00000012504	ENSMUSG00000048938 (pseudogene in man)
Potency order	20s-OHC, 22 <i>R</i> -OHC, 24s-OHC > 25-OHC, 27-OHC (Lehmann <i>et al.</i> , 1997)	20s-OHC, 22 <i>R</i> -OHC, 24s-OHC > 25-OHC, 27-OHC (Lehmann <i>et al.</i> , 1997)	Chenodeoxycholate > lithocholate, deoxycholate (Makishima et al., 1999; Parks et al., 1999)	-
Selective agonists	-	-	ECDCA (Pellicciari et al., 2002), fexaramine (Downes et al., 2003), GW4064 (Maloney et al., 2000)	Lanosterol (Otte <i>et al.</i> , 2003)
Selective antagonists	-	-	Guggulsterone (Urizar <i>et al.,</i> 2002)	-

TO901317 (Repa *et al.*, 2000) and GW3965 (Collins *et al.*, 2002) are synthetic agonists acting at both LXR α and LXR β with less than 10-fold selectivity.

Abbreviations: ECDCA, 6α -ethyl-chenodeoxycholate, also known as INT747; **guggulsterone**, trans-4,17(20)-pregnadiene-3,16-dione; **GW3965**, 3-(3-[N-{2-chloro-3-trifluoromethylbenzyl}-{2,2-diphenylethyl}amino]propyloxy)phenylacetic acid hydrochloride; **GW4064**, 3-[(E)-2-[2-chloro-4-[[3-(2,6-dichlorophenyl)-5-propan-2-yl-1,2-oxazol-4-yl]methoxy]phenyl]ethenyl]benzoic acid; **OHC**, hydroxycholesterol; **TO901317**, N-(2,2,2-trifluoroethyl)-N-(4-[2,2,2-trifluoro-1-hydroxy-1-{trifluoromethyl}ethyl]phenyl)-benzenesulfonamide

Further Reading

Beltowski J, Semczuk A (2010). Liver X receptor (LXR) and the reproductive system – a potential novel target for therapeutic intervention. *Pharmacol Rep* **62**: 15–27.

Calkin AC, Tontonoz P (2010). Liver X receptor signaling pathways and atherosclerosis. Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol 30: 1513-1518.

Cariou B, Staels B (2007). FXR: a promising target for the metabolic syndrome? Trends Pharmacol Sci 28: 236-243.

Chen WD, Wang YD, Meng Z, Zhang L, Huang W (2011). Nuclear bile acid receptor FXR in the hepatic regeneration. *Biochim Biophys Acta (BBA) Mol Basis Dis* 1812: 888–892.

Claudel T, Zollner G, Wagner M, Trauner M (2011). Role of nuclear receptors for bile acid metabolism, bile secretion, cholestasis, and gallstone disease. *Biochim Biophys Acta (BBA) Mol Basis Dis* 1812: 867–878.

El-Hajjaji FZ, Oumeddour A, Pommier AJC, Ouvrier A, Viennois E, Dufour J *et al.* (2011). Liver X receptors, lipids and their reproductive secrets in the male. *Biochim Biophys Acta (BBA) Mol Basis Dis* **1812**: 974–981.

Faulds MH, Zhao C, Dahlman-Wright K (2010). Molecular biology and functional genomics of liver X receptors (LXR) in relationship to metabolic diseases. *Curr Opin Pharmacol* 10: 692–697.

Fievet C, Staels B (2009). Liver X receptor modulators: effects on lipid metabolism and potential use in the treatment of atherosclerosis. *Biochem Pharmacol* 77: 1316–1327.

Fiorucci S, Mencarelli A, Palladino G, Cipriani S (2009). Bile-acid-activated receptors: targeting TGR5 and farnesoid-X-receptor in lipid and glucose disorders. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 30: 570–580.

Fiorucci S, Cipriani S, Baldelli F, Mencarelli A (2010). Bile acid-activated receptors in the treatment of dyslipidemia and related disorders. *Prog Lipid Res* 49: 171–185.

Gabbi C, Warner M, Gustafsson JA (2009). Liver X receptor beta: emerging roles in physiology and diseases. Mol Endocrinol 23: 129-136.

Gadaleta RM, van Mil SW, Oldenburg B, Siersema PD, Klomp LW, van Erpecum KJ (2010). Bile acids and their nuclear receptor FXR: relevance for hepatobiliary and gastrointestinal disease. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1801: 683–692.

Gardmo C, Tamburro A, Modica S, Moschetta A (2011). Proteomics for the discovery of nuclear bile acid receptor FXR targets. *Biochim Biophys Acta (BBA) Mol Basis Dis* 1812: 836–841.

González N, Castrillo A (2011). Liver X receptors as regulators of macrophage inflammatory and metabolic pathways. *Biochim Biophys Acta (BBA) Mol Basis Dis* 1812: 982–994.

Hageman J, Herrema H, Groen AK, Kuipers F (2010). A role of the bile salt receptor FXR in atherosclerosis. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol* 30: 1519–1528.

Kemper JK (2011). Regulation of FXR transcriptional activity in health and disease: emerging roles of FXR cofactors and post-translational modifications. *Biochim Biophys Acta (BBA) Mol Basis Dis* 1812: 842–850.

Kuipers F, Stroeve JH, Caron S, Staels B (2007). Bile acids, farnesoid X receptor, atherosclerosis and metabolic control. *Curr Opin Lipidol* 18: 289–297.

Lefebvre P, Cariou B, Lien F, Kuipers F, Staels B (2009). Role of bile acids and bile acid receptors in metabolic regulation. *Physiol Rev* 89: 147–191. Mencarelli A, Fiorucci S (2010). FXR an emerging therapeutic target for the treatment of atherosclerosis. *J Cell Mol Med* 14: 79–92.

\$180 Liver X and farnesoid X

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Moore DD, Kato S, Xie W, Mangelsdorf DJ, Schmidt DR, Xiao R *et al.* (2006). International Union of Pharmacology. LXII. The NR1H and NR1I receptors: constitutive androstane receptor, pregnene X receptor, farnesoid X receptor α , farnesoid X receptor β , liver X receptor β , and vitamin D receptor. *Pharmacol Rev* 58: 742–759.

Schmuth M, Jiang YJ, Dubrac S, Elias PM, Feingold KR (2008). Thematic review series: skin lipids. Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors and liver X receptors in epidermal biology. *J Lipid Res* 49: 499–509.

Wang YD, Chen WD, Moore DD, Huang W (2008). FXR: a metabolic regulator and cell protector. Cell Res 18: 1087–1095.

Zhang Y, Edwards PA (2008). FXR signaling in metabolic disease. FEBS Lett 582: 10-18.

Zollner G, Trauner M (2009). Nuclear receptors as therapeutic targets in cholestatic liver diseases. Br J Pharmacol 156: 7-27.

References

Collins JL *et al.* (2002). *J Med Chem* **45**: 1963–1966. Downes M *et al.* (2003). *Mol Cell* **11**: 1079–1092. Lehmann JM *et al.* (1997). *J Biol Chem* **272**: 3137–3140. Makishima M *et al.* (1999). *Science* **284**: 1362–1365. Maloney PR *et al.* (2000). *J Med Chem* **43**: 2971–2974.

Otte K *et al.* (2003). *Mol Cell Biol* **23**: 864–872. Parks DJ *et al.* (1999). *Science* **284**: 1365–1368. Pellicciari R *et al.* (2002). *J Med Chem* **45**: 3569–3572. Repa JJ *et al.* (2000). *Science* **289**: 1524–1529. Urizar NL *et al.* (2002). *Science* **296**: 1703–1706.

Peroxisome proliferator-activated

Overview: Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors (PPARs, nomenclature as agreed by NC-IUPHAR Committee on Nuclear Receptors, see Michalik et al.. 2006) are nuclear hormone receptors of the NR1C family, with diverse roles regulating lipid homeostasis, cellular differentiation, proliferation and the immune response. PPARs have many potential endogenous agonists (see Michalik et al., 2006), including 15-deoxy- $\Delta^{12,14}$ prostaglandin J₂, prostacyclin, many fatty acids and their oxidation products, lysophosphatidic acid (McIntyre et al., 2003), 13-HODE, 15-HETE, Paz-PC, azelaoyl-PAF, and leukotriene B₄. These receptors also bind hypolipidaemic drugs (PPARα) and anti-diabetic thiazolidinediones (PPARγ), as well as many non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, such as sulindac and indomethacin. Once activated by a ligand, the receptor forms a heterodimer with members of the retinoid X receptor family and can act as a transcription factor. Although radioligand binding assays have been described for all three receptors, the radioligands are not commercially available. Commonly, receptor occupancy studies are conducted using fluorescent ligands and truncated forms of the receptor limited to the ligand binding domain.

Nomenclature PPARα PPARB PPARγ NR1C1 NR1C3 Systematic nomenclature NR1C2 Other names PPARδ, NUC1, FAAR Ensembl ID ENSG00000100406 ENSG00000112033 ENSG00000132170 GW7647, WY14643, clofibrate. L165041, GW501516, GW0742 Selective agonists Rosiglitazone, ciglitazone, fenofibrate, ciprofibrate, troglitazone, pioglitazone, CDDO, GW1929 gemfibrozil Selective antagonists GW6471 (Xu et al., 2002) GSK0660 (Shearer et al., 2008) GW9662 (Huang et al., 1999), CDDO-Me (Wang et al., 2000), diclofenac (6.2, Adamson et al., 2002), BADGE (4.0, Wright et al., 2000), T0070907 (Lee et al., 2002)

As with the estrogen receptor antagonists, many agents show tissue-selective efficacy (e.g. Bishop-Bailey, 2000; Rocchi et al., 2001; Nakamuta et al., 2002). Agonists with mixed activity at PPARα and PPARγ have also been described (e.g. Doebber et al., 2004; Guo et al., 2004; Xu et al., 2004).

Abbreviations: 13-HODE, 13-hydroxyoctadecadienoic acid; 15-HETE, 15-hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acid; azelaoyl-PAF, 1-O-hexadecyl-2-O-(9-carboxyoctanoyl)-sn-glyceryl-3-phosphocholine; BADGE, bisphenol A diglycidyl ether; CDDO, 2-cyano-3,12-dioxooleana-1,9-dien-28-oic acid; CDDO-Me, 2-cyano-3,12-dioxooleana-1,9-dien-28-oic acid methyl ester; GSK0660, ; GW1929, (2S)-([2-benzoylphenyl]amino)-3-(4-[2-{methylpyridin-2-ylamino}ethoxy]phenyl)propionic acid; GW501516, 2-methyl-4([[(4-methyl-2-[4-trifluoromethylphenyl]-1,3-thiazol-5-yl)methyl}sulfanyl]phenoxy)acetic acid, GW7647, 2-([4-{2-([cyclohexylamino]carbonyl][4-cyclohexylbutyl]amino)ethyl}phenyl]thio)-2-GW9662, 2-chloro-5-nitro-N-phenylbenzamide; methylpropanoic acid: L165041. (4-[3-{4-acetyl-3-hydroxy-2propylphenoxylpropoxyl]phenoxy)acetic acid; Paz-PC, 1-palmitoyl-2-azelaoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine; T0070907, 2-chloro-5-nitro-N-(4pyridyl)benzamide; WY14643, N-(3-[2-quinolinylmethoxy]phenyl)-trifluoromethanesulphonamide

Further Reading

Belvisi MG, Mitchell JA (2009). Targeting PPAR receptors in the airway for the treatment of inflammatory lung disease. Br J Pharmacol 158: 994-1003.

Chaturvedi RK, Beal MF (2008). PPAR: a therapeutic target in Parkinson's disease. J Neurochem 106: 506-518.

Christodoulides C, Vidal-Puig A (2010). PPARs and adipocyte function. Mol Cell Endocrinol 318: 61-68.

Ehrenborg E, Krook A (2009). Regulation of skeletal muscle physiology and metabolism by peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor delta. Pharmacol Rev 61: 373-393.

Hiukka A, Maranghi M, Matikainen N, Taskinen MR (2010). PPARα: an emerging therapeutic target in diabetic microvascular damage. Nat Rev Endocrinol 6: 454-463.

Itoh T, Yamamoto K (2008). Peroxisome proliferator activated receptor gamma and oxidized docosahexaenoic acids as new class of ligand. Naunyn Schmiedebergs Arch Pharmacol 377: 541-547.

Kawai M, Rosen CJ (2010). PPARγ: a circadian transcription factor in adipogenesis and osteogenesis. Nat Rev Endocrinol 6: 629-636.

Kawai M, Sousa KM, MacDougald OA, Rosen CJ (2010). The many facets of PPARy: novel insights for the skeleton. Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab

Lockyer P, Schisler JC, Patterson C, Willis MS (2010). Won't get fooled again: the nonmetabolic roles of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors (PPARs) in the heart. Mol Endocrinol 24: 1111-1119.

Michalik L, Wahli W (2008). PPARs mediate lipid signaling in inflammation and cancer. PPAR Res, 2008: 134059.

Michalik L, Auwerx J, Berger JP, Chatterjee VK, Glass CK, Gonzalez FJ et al. (2006). International Union of Pharmacology. LXI. Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors. Pharmacol Rev 58: 726-741.

Reilly SM, Lee CH (2008). PPAR δ as a therapeutic target in metabolic disease. FEBS Lett 582: 26–31.

Robinson E, Grieve DJ (2009). Significance of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors in the cardiovascular system in health and disease. Pharmacol Ther, 122: 246-263.

Varga T, Czimmerer Z, Nagy L (2011). PPARs are a unique set of fatty acid regulated transcription factors controlling both lipid metabolism and inflammation. Biochim Biophys Acta (BBA) Mol Basis Dis 1812: 1007-1022.

Villacorta L, Schopfer FJ, Zhang J, Freeman BA, Chen YE (2009). PPARy and its ligands: therapeutic implications in cardiovascular disease. Clin Sci, 116: 205-218.

Wan Y (2010). PPARy in bone homeostasis. Trends Endocrinol Metab 21: 722-728.

Wang N, Yin R, Liu Y, Mao G, Xi F (2011). Role of Peroxisome Proliferator-Activated Receptor-gamma in Atherosclerosis. Circ J 75: 528-535. Youssef J, Badr M (2011). Peroxisome Proliferator-Activated Receptors and Cancer Challenges and Opportunities. Br J Pharmacol 164: 68–82.

Yu S, Reddy JK (2007). Transcription coactivators for peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1771: 936–951. Ziouzenkova O, Plutzky J (2008). Retinoid metabolism and nuclear receptor responses: new insights into coordinated regulation of the PPAR-RXR complex. *FEBS Lett* 582: 32–38.

References

Adamson DJ et al. (2002). Mol Pharmacol 61: 7–12. Bishop-Bailey D (2000). Br J Pharmacol 129: 823–833. Doebber TW et al. (2004). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 318: 323–328. Guo Q et al. (2004). Endocrinology 145: 1640–1648. Huang JT et al. (1999). Nature 400: 378–382. Lee G et al. (2002). J Biol Chem 277: 19649–19657. McIntyre TM et al. (2003). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 100: 131–136. Nakamuta M *et al.* (2002). *Cell Biol Int* 26: 235–241. Rocchi S *et al.* (2001). *Mol Cell* 8: 737–747. Shearer BG *et al.* (2008). *Mol Endocrinol* 22: 523–529. Wang Y *et al.* (2000). *Mol Endocrinol* 14: 1550–1556. Wright HM *et al.* (2000). *J Biol Chem* 275: 1873–1877. Xu HE *et al.* (2002). *Nature* 415: 813–817. Xu Y *et al.* (2004). *J Med Chem* 47: 2422–2425.

Retinoic acid, retinoid X and retinoic acid-related orphan

Overview: Cytoplasmic cellular retinoid binding proteins I (ENSG00000114115), II (ENSG00000114113), III (ENSG00000139194) and IV (ENSG00000162444) are thought to control the levels of intracellular retinoids available for interaction with their receptors (Li, 1999). [3H]-ATRA and [3H]-9-cis-retinoic acid have been used to label RARs and RXRs, respectively.

Retinoic acid receptors (nomenclature as agreed by NC-IUPHAR Committee on Nuclear Receptors, see Germain et al., 2006a) are nuclear hormone receptors of the NR1B family activated by the vitamin A-derived agonists all-trans retinoic acid (ATRA) and 9-cis-retinoic acid, and the RAR-selective synthetic agonists TTNPB and adapalene.

Nomenclature $\mathsf{RAR}\alpha$ $RAR\beta$ $RAR\gamma$ Systematic nomenclature NR1B1 NR1B2 NR1B3 Other names HBV-activated protein Ensembl ID ENSG00000131759 ENSG00000077092 ENSG00000172819 AC261066 (Lund et al., 2005), Selective agonists Ro406055 (Delescluse et al., 1991) AHPN (Martin et al., 1992) AC55649 (Lund et al., 2005) Selective antagonists Ro415253 (Apfel et al., 1992) MM11253 (Le et al., 2000)

Ro415253 has been suggested to be a PPAR γ agonist (Schupp et al., 2007). LE135 is an antagonist with selectivity for RAR α and RAR β compared to RARγ (Li et al., 1999).

Retinoid X receptors (nomenclature as agreed by NC-IUPHAR Committee on Nuclear Receptors, see Germain et al., 2006b) are NR2B family members activated by 9-cis-retinoic acid and the RXR-selective agonists LGD1069 and LG100268, sometimes referred to as rexinoids. These receptors form RXR-RAR heterodimers and RXR-RXR homodimers (Mangelsdorf and Evans, 1995; Chambon, 1996).

Nomenclature	$RXR\alpha$	${\sf RXR} \beta$	$RXR\gamma$
Systematic nomenclature	NR2B1	NR2B2	NR2B3
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000078380	ENSG00000112472	ENSG00000143171
Selective agonists	CD3254 (Nahoum et al., 2007)	-	-

UVI3003 has been described as a pan-RXR antagonist (Nahoum et al., 2007).

Retinoic acid-related orphan receptors (ROR, nomenclature as agreed by NC-IUPHAR Committee on Nuclear Receptors, see Benoit et al., 2006) have yet to be assigned a definitive endogenous ligand, although RORα may be synthesised with a 'captured' agonist such as cholesterol (Kallen et al., 2002; 2004).

Nomenclature	RORlpha	ROReta	$ROR\gamma$
Systematic nomenclature	NR1F1	NR1F2	NR1F3
Other names	RZRlpha	RZReta	$RZR\gamma$
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000069667	ENSG00000198963	ENSG00000143365
Selective agonists	Cholesterol sulfate, cholesterol, 7-OHC (Bitsch et al., 2003)	_	_

ATRA shows selectivity for ROR β within the ROR family (Stehlin-Gaon et al., 2003). ROR α has been suggested to be a nuclear receptor responding to melatonin (Wiesenberg et al., 1995).

Abbreviations: 7-OHC, 7-hydroxycholesterol; AC261066, 4-(4-[2-butoxyethoxy]-5-methyl-2-thiazolyl)-2-fluorobenzoic acid; AC55649, 4'-octyl-[1,1'-biphenyl]-4-carboxylic acid; AHPN, 6-[3-(1-adamantyl)-4-hydroxyphenyl]-2-naphthalene carboxylic acid, also known as CD437; ATRA, all-trans-retinoic acid; CD1530, 4-(6-hydroxy-7-tricyclo[3.3.1.13,7]dec-1-yl-2-naphthalenyl)benzoic acid; CD3254, (E)-3-[4-hydroxy-7-tricyclo[3.3.1.13,7]dec-1-yl-2-naphthalenyl)benzoic acid; CD3254, (E)-3-[4-hydroxy-7-tricyclo[3.3.1.13,7]dec-1-yl-2-[4-hydroxy-7-tricyclo[3.3.1.13,7]dec-1-yl-2-[4-hydroxy-7-tricyclo[3.3.1.13,7]dec-1-yl-2-[4-hydroxy-7-tricyclo[3.3.1.13,7]dec-1-yl-2-[4-hydroxy-7-tricyclo[3.3.1.13,7]dec-1-yl-2-[4-hydroxy-7-tricyclo[3.3.1.13,7]dec-1-yl-2-[4-hydroxy-7-tricyclo[3.3.1.13,7]dec-1-yl-2-[4-hydroxy-7-tricyclo[3.3.1.13,7]dec-1-yl-2-[4-hydroxy-7-tricyclo[3.3.1.13,7]dec-1-yl-2-[4-hydroxy-7-tricyclo[3.3.1.13,7]dec-1-yl-2-[4-hydroxy-7-tricyclo[3.3.1.13,7]dec-1-yl-2-[4-hydroxy-7-tricyclo[3.3.1.13,7]dec-1-yl-2-[4-hydroxy-7-tricyclo[3.3.1.13,7]dec-1-yl-2-[4-hydroxy-7-tricyclo[3.3.1.13,7]dec-1-yl-2-[4-hydroxy-7-tricyclo[3.3.1.13,7]dec-1-yl-2-[4-hydroxy-7-tricyclo[3.3.1.13,7]dec-1-yl-2-[4-hydroxy-7-tricyclo[3.3. 3-(3,5,5,8,8-pentamethyl-6, 7-dihydronaphthalen-2-yl)phenyl]prop-2-enoic acid; LE135, 4-(7,8,9,10-tetrahydro-5,7,7,10,10-pentamethyl-5H-benzo[e]naphtho[2,3-b][1,4]diazepin-13-yl)benzoic LG100268, 6-(1-[3,5,5,8,8-pentamethyl-5,6,7,8-tetrahydronaphthalen-2acid; yl]cyclopropyl) nicotinic acid; LGD1069, 4-(1-[3,5,5,8,8-pentamethyl-5,6,7,8-tetrahydro-2-naphthyl]ethenyl) benzoic acid; MM11253, 6-(2-[5,6,7,8-tetrahydro-5,5,8,8-tetramethyl-2-naphthalenyl]-1,3-dithiolan-2-yl)-2-naphthalenecarboxylic acid; Ro406055, 4-([5,6,7,8-tetrahydro-5,5,8,8-tetrahydro-5,8,8-tetrahydr 5,5,8,8-tetramethyl-2-naphthalenyl]carboxamido)benzoic acid (also known as AM580); Ro415253, 4-[2-(7-heptoxy-4,4-dimethyl-1,1-dioxo-2,3dihydrothiochromen-6-yl)prop-1-enyl]benzoic acid, also known as LG629; TTNPB, (E)-4-(2-[5,6,7,8-tetrahydro-5,5,8,8-tetramethyl-2naphthalenyl]-1-propenyl)benzoic acid; UVI3003, 3-(4-hydroxy-3-[5,6,7,8-tetrahydro-5,5,8,8-tetramethyl-3-{pentyloxy}-2-naphthalenyl] phenyl)-2-propenoic acid

Further Reading

Benoit G, Cooney A, Giguere V, Ingraham H, Lazar M, Muscat G et al. (2006). International Union of Pharmacology. LXVI. Orphan nuclear receptors. *Pharmacol Rev* 58: 798–836.

Bour G, Lalevee S, Rochette-Egly C (2007). Protein kinases and the proteasome join in the combinatorial control of transcription by nuclear retinoic acid receptors. *Trends Cell Biol* 17: 302–309.

Duong V, Rochette-Égly C (2011). The molecular physiology of nuclear retinoic acid receptors. From health to disease. *Biochim Biophys Acta (BBA) Mol Basis Dis* 1812: 1023–1031.

Germain P, Chambon P, Eichele G, Evans RM, Lazar MA, Leid M et al. (2006a). International Union of Pharmacology. LX. Retinoic acid receptors. Pharmacol Rev 58: 712–725.

Germain P, Chambon P, Eichele G, Evans RM, Lazar MA, Leid M et al. (2006b). International Union of Pharmacology. LXIII. Retinoid X receptors. Pharmacol Rev 58: 760–772.

Lefebvre P, Benomar Y, Staels B (2010). Retinoid X receptors: common heterodimerization partners with distinct functions. *Trends Endocrinol Metals* 21: 676–683

Maden M (2007). Retinoic acid in the development, regeneration and maintenance of the nervous system. *Nat Rev Neurosci* 8: 755–765. Mark M, Ghyselinck NB, Chambon P (2006). Function of retinoid nuclear receptors: lessons from genetic and pharmacological dissections of the retinoic acid signaling pathway during mouse embryogenesis. *Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol* 46: 451–480.

Perez E, Bourguet W, Gronemeyer H, de Lera AR (2011). Modulation of RXR function through ligand design. Biochim Biophys Acta in press.

References

Apfel C *et al.* (1992). *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **89**: 7129–7133. Bitsch F *et al.* (2003). *Anal Biochem* **323**: 139–149. Chambon P (1996). *FASEB J* **10**: 940–954. Delescluse C *et al.* (1991). *Mol Pharmacol* **40**: 556–562. Kallen J *et al.* (2004). *J Biol Chem* **279**: 14033–14038. Kallen JA *et al.* (2002). *Structure* **10**: 1697–1707. Le Q *et al.* (2000). *Oncogene* **19**: 1457–1465. Li E (1999). *Mol Cell Biochem* **192**: 105–108.

Li Y et al. (1999). J Biol Chem 274: 15360–15366. Lund BW et al. (2005). J Med Chem 48: 7517–7519. Mangelsdorf DJ, Evans RM (1995). Cell 83: 841–850. Martin B et al. (1992). Skin Pharmacol 5: 57–65. Nahoum V et al. (2007). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 104: 17323–17328. Schupp M et al. (2007). Mol Pharmacol 71: 1251–1257. Stehlin-Gaon C et al. (2003). Nat Struct Biol 10: 820–825. Wiesenberg I et al. (1995). Nucleic Acids Res 23: 327–333. Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Steroid hormone \$185

Steroid hormone

Overview: Steroid hormone receptors (nomenclature as agreed by NC-IUPHAR Committee on Nuclear Receptors, see Dahlman-Wright *et al.*, 2006; Lu *et al.*, 2006) are nuclear hormone receptors of the NR3 class, with endogenous agonists that may be divided into 3-hydroxysteroids (oestrone and oestradiol) and 3-ketosteroids (5α-dihydrotestosterone [DHT], aldosterone, cortisol, corticosterone, progesterone and testosterone). These receptors exist as dimers coupled with chaperone molecules (such as HSP90 [ENSG00000166598] and immunophilin FKBP52 [ENSG00000004478]), which are shed on binding the steroid hormone. Although rapid signalling phenomena are observed (see Levin, 2008; Prossnitz and Maggiolini, 2009), the principal signalling cascade appears to involve binding of the activated receptors to nuclear hormone response elements of the genome, with a 15-nucleotide consensus sequence AGAACAnnnTGTTCT (i.e. an inverted palindrome) as homo- or heterodimers. They also affect transcription by protein–protein interactions with other transcription factors, such as activator protein 1 (AP-1) and nuclear factor κΒ (NF-κΒ). Splice variants of each of these receptors can form functional or nonfunctional monomers that combine to form functional or non-functional receptors. For example, alternative splicing of PR mRNA produces A and B monomers that combine to produce functional AA, AB and BB receptors with distinct characteristics (Vegeto *et al.*, 1993).

A 7TM receptor responsive to estrogen (GPE, also known as GPR30, ENSG00000164850, see Prossnitz *et al.*, 2008) has been described. Human orthologues of 7TM 'membrane progestin receptors' (ENSG00000182749, ENSG00000170915 and ENSG00000137819), initially discovered in fish (Zhu *et al.*, 2003a; 2003b), appear to localize to intracellular membranes and appear to respond to 'non-genomic' progesterone analogues independently of G proteins (Smith *et al.*, 2008).

Nomenclature	Glucocorticoid	Mineralocorticoid	Progesterone	Androgen
Preferred abbreviation	GR	MR	PR	AR
Systematic nomenclature	NR3C1	NR3C2	NR3C3	NR3C4
Other names	Type II glucocorticoid receptor	Type I glucocorticoid receptor, aldosterone receptor	-	dihydrotestosterone receptor
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000113580	ENSG00000151623	ENSG00000082175	ENSG00000169083
Rank order of potency	Cortisol, corticosterone >> aldosterone, deoxycortisone (Rupprecht <i>et al.</i> , 1993)	Corticosterone, cortisol, aldosterone, progesterone (Rupprecht <i>et al.</i> , 1993)	Progesterone	DHT > testosterone
Selective agonists	RU28362, RU26988	Aldosterone	ORG2058, progesterone	DHT, mibolerone, R188
Selective antagonists	Mifepristone, ZK112993, onapristone	RU28318, ZK112993, onapristone	Mifepristone, ZK112993, onapristone	Hydroxyflutamide, nilutamide
Probes	[³H]-Dexamethasone	[³H]-Aldosterone	[³ H]-ORG2058	[³H]-DHT, [³H]- mibolerone, [³H]-R1881

[³H]-Dexamethasone also binds to MR *in vitro*. PR antagonists have been suggested to subdivide into Type I (e.g. onapristone) and Type II (e.g. ZK112993) groups. These groups appear to promote binding of PR to DNA with different efficacies and evoke distinct conformational changes in the receptor, leading to a transcription-neutral complex (Gass *et al.*, 1998; Leonhardt *et al.*, 1998). Mutations in AR underlie testicular feminization and androgen insensibility syndromes, spinal and bulbar muscular atrophy (Kennedy's disease).

Oestrogen α	Oestrogen eta
ERlpha	ER $oldsymbol{eta}$
NR3A1	NR3A2
Estradiol	Estradiol
ENSG00000091831	ENSG00000140009
PPT (Kraichely et al., 2000; Stauffer et al., 2000)	DPN (Meyers <i>et al.</i> , 2001), WAY200070 (Malamas <i>et al.</i> , 2004)
MPP (Sun et al., 2002)	PHTPP (Compton <i>et al.</i> , 2004), R,R-THC (Meyers <i>et al.</i> , 1999; Sun <i>et al.</i> , 1999)
	ERα NR3A1 Estradiol ENSG00000091831 PPT (Kraichely <i>et al.</i> , 2000; Stauffer <i>et al.</i> , 2000)

 R_iR -THC exhibits partial agonist activity at ER α (Meyers *et al.*, 1999; Sun *et al.*, 1999). Estrogen receptors may be blocked non-selectively by tamoxifen and raloxifene, and labelled by [3 H]-estradiol and [3 H]-tamoxifen. Many agents thought initially to be antagonists at estrogen receptors appear to have tissue-specific efficacy (e.g. tamoxifen is an antagonist at estrogen receptors in the breast, but is an agonist at estrogen receptors in the uterus), hence the descriptor SERM (selective estrogen receptor modulator) or SnuRM (selective nuclear receptor modulator). Y134 has been suggested to be an ER α -selective estrogen receptor modulator (Ning *et al.*, 2007).

Additional 'orphan' estrogen-receptor-related proteins have been described (ERR α ENSG00000173153; ERR β ENSG00000119715; ERR γ ENSG00000057103); DY131 is an agonist with selectivity for ERR β and ERR γ compared to ERR α , ER α and ER β (Yu and Forman, 2005).

Abbreviations: DHT, 5α -dihydrotestosterone; DPN, 2,3-bis(4-hydroxyphenyl)propionitrile; DY131, N'-([1E]-[4-(diethylamino)phenyl] methylene)-4-hydroxybenzohydrazide; MPP, 1,3-bis(4-hydroxyphenyl)-4-methyl-5-(4-[2-piperidinylethoxy]phenol)-1H-pyrazole; ORG2058, 16- α -ethyl-21-hydroxy-19-norpregn-4-ene-3,20-dione; PPT, 4,4',4"-(4-propyl-[1H]-pyrazole-1,3,5-triyl)trisphenol; PHTPP, 4-(2-phenyl-5,7-bis[trifluoromethyl]pyrazolo[1,5-a]pyrimidin-3-yl)phenol; R1881, 17β -hydroxy-17 α -methyl-estra-4,9,11-triene-3-one, also known as methyl-trienolone; r,r-THC, r,r-tetrahydrochrysene; RU26988, r11 β ,17 β -dihydroxy-21-methyl-17 α -pregna-1,4,6-trien-20-yl-3-on; RU28318, 3-oxo-7-

propyl-17-hydroxy-androstan-4-en-17-yl; RU28362, 11β ,17 β -dihydroxy-6-methyl-17-(1-propionyl)androsta-1,4,6-triene-3-one; Y134, (6-hydroxy-2-[4-hydroxyphenyl]-benzo[b]thiophen-3-yl)-(4-[4-isopropylpiperazin-1-yl]-phenyl)methanone; WAY200070, 7-bromo-2-(4-hydroxyphenyl)-1,3-benzoxazol-5-ol; ZK112993, 11β -(4-acetylphenyl)-17 β -hydroxyl-17 α -(1-propinyl)-4,8-estradiene-3-one

Further Reading

Blaustein JD (2008). Progesterone and progestin receptors in the brain: the neglected ones. Endocrinology 149: 2737–2738.

Briet M, Schiffrin EL (2010). Aldosterone: effects on the kidney and cardiovascular system. Nat Rev Nephrol 6: 261-273.

Brinton RD (2009). Estrogen-induced plasticity from cells to circuits: predictions for cognitive function, Trends Pharmacol Sci 30: 212–222.

Callewaert F, Boonen S, Vanderschueren D (2010). Sex steroids and the male skeleton: a tale of two hormones. *Trends Endocrinol Metab* 21: 89–95.

Chen Y, Sawyers CL, Scher HI (2008). Targeting the androgen receptor pathway in prostate cancer. Curr Opin Pharmacol 8: 440–448.

Dahlman-Wright K, Cavailles V, Fuqua SA, Jordan VC, Katzenellenbogen JA, Korach KS *et al.* (2006). International Union of Pharmacology. LXIV. Estrogen receptors. *Pharmacol Rev* 58: 773–781.

Feldman RD, Gros R (2011). Unraveling the mechanisms underlying the rapid vascular effects of steroids: sorting out the receptors and the pathways. *Br J Pharmacol* **163**: 1163–1169.

Gross KL, Cidlowski JA (2008). Tissue-specific glucocorticoid action: a family affair. Trends Endocrinol Metab 19: 331-339.

Hadoke PW, Iqbal J, Walker BR (2009). Therapeutic manipulation of glucocorticoid metabolism in cardiovascular disease. *Br J Pharmacol* **156**: 689–712.

Handelsman DJ (2008). Indirect androgen doping by oestrogen blockade in sports. Br J Pharmacol 154: 598-605.

Joels M, Karst H, DeRijk R, de Kloet ER (2008). The coming out of the brain mineralocorticoid receptor. Trends Neurosci 31: 1-7.

Kellner M, Wiedemann K (2008). Mineralocorticoid receptors in brain, in health and disease: possibilities for new pharmacotherapy. Eur J Pharmacol 583: 372–378.

Kerkhofs S, Denayer S, Haelens A, Claessens F (2009). Androgen receptor knockout and knock-in mouse models. *J Mol Endocrinol* **42**: 11–17. Lange CA, Gioeli D, Hammes SR, Marker PC (2007). Integration of rapid signaling events with steroid hormone receptor action in breast and prostate cancer. *Annu Rev Physiol* **69**: 171–199.

Levin ER (2008). Rapid signaling by steroid receptors. Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol 295: R1425-R1430.

Lu NZ, Wardell SE, Burnstein KL, Defranco D, Fuller PJ, Giguere V *et al.* (2006). International Union of Pharmacology. LXV. The pharmacology and classification of the nuclear receptor superfamily: glucocorticoid, mineralocorticoid, progesterone, and androgen receptors. *Pharmacol Rev* 58: 782–797.

Matsumoto T, Shiina H, Kawano H, Sato T, Kato S (2008). Androgen receptor functions in male and female physiology. *J Steroid Biochem Mol Biol* 109: 236–241.

McMaster A, Ray DW (2008). Drug insight: selective agonists and antagonists of the glucocorticoid receptor. *Nat Clin Pract Endocrinol Metab* 4: 91–101

Mohler ML, Bohl CE, Jones A *et al.* (2009). Nonsteroidal selective androgen receptor modulators (SARMs): dissociating the anabolic and androgenic activities of the androgen receptor for therapeutic benefit. *J Med Chem* **52**: 3597–3617.

Pippal JB, Fuller PJ (2008). Structure-function relationships in the mineralocorticoid receptor. J Mol Endocrinol 41: 405–413.

Prossnitz ER, Maggiolini M (2009). Non-genomic signaling by steroids. Mol Cell Endocrinol 308: 1-2.

Prossnitz ER, Arterburn JB, Smith HO *et al.* (2008). Estrogen signaling through the transmembrane G protein-coupled receptor GPR30. *Annu Rev Physiol* 70: 165–190.

Schumacher M, Sitruk-Ware R, De Nicola AF (2008). Progesterone and progestins: neuroprotection and myelin repair. *Curr Opin Pharmacol* 8: 740–746.

Simons SS, Jr. (2010). Glucocorticoid receptor cofactors as therapeutic targets. Curr Opin Pharmacol 10: 613-619.

Taplin ME (2007). Drug insight: role of the androgen receptor in the development and progression of prostate cancer. *Nat Clin Pract Oncol* 4: 236-244

Weiser MJ, Foradori CD, Handa RJ (2008). Estrogen receptor β in the brain: from form to function. Brain Res Rev 57: 309–320.

Woolley CS (2007). Acute effects of estrogen on neuronal physiology. Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol 47: 657-680.

References

Compton DR et al. (2004). J Med Chem 47: 5872–5893. Gass EK et al. (1998). Endocrinology 139: 1905–1919. Kraichely DM et al. (2000). Endocrinology 141: 3534–3545. Leonhardt SA et al. (1998). Mol Endocrinol 12: 1914–1930. Malamas MS et al. (2004). J Med Chem 47: 5021–5040. Meyers MJ et al. (1999). J Med Chem 42: 2456–2468. Meyers MJ et al. (2001). J Med Chem 44: 4230–4251. Ning M et al. (2007). Br J Pharmacol 150: 19–28. Rupprecht R et al. (1993). Eur J Pharmacol 247: 145–154.

Smith JL et al (2008). Steroids 73: 1160–1173.
Stauffer SR et al. (2000). J Med Chem 43: 4934–4947.
Sun J et al. (1999). Endocrinology 140: 800–804.
Sun J et al. (2002). Endocrinology 143: 941–947.
Vegeto E et al. (1993). Mol Endocrinol 7: 1244–1255.
Yu DD, Forman BM (2005). Bioorg Med Chem Lett 15: 1311–1313.
Zhu Y et al. (2003a). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 100: 2231–2236.
Zhu Y et al. (2003b). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 100: 2237–2242.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Thyroid hormone \$187

Thyroid hormone

Overview: Thyroid hormone receptors (TRs, nomenclature as agreed by NC-IUPHAR Committee on Nuclear Receptors, see Flamant *et al.*, 2006) are nuclear hormone receptors of the NR1A family, with diverse roles regulating macronutrient metabolism, cognition and cardiovascular homeostasis. TRs are activated by thyroxine (T4) and thyroid hormone (T3). Once activated by a ligand, the receptor acts as a transcription factor either as a monomer, homodimer or heterodimer with members of the retinoid X receptor family.

Nomenclature $TR\alpha$ $TR\beta$ Systematic nomenclature NR1A1 NR1A2 THRA, erbA α , erbA1, EAR7 THRB, erbA β , erbA2 Other names ENSG00000126351 ENSG00000151090 Ensembl ID Rank order of potency T3 > T4 T3 > T4 Selective agonists GC1 (Chiellini et al., 1998)

An interaction with integrin $\alpha V\beta$ 3 has been suggested to underlie plasma membrane localization of thyroid hormone receptors and nongenomic signalling (Bergh *et al.*, 2005). One splice variant, TR α_2 , lacks a functional DNA-binding domain and appears to act as a transcription suppressor.

Although radioligand binding assays have been described for these receptors, the radioligands are not commercially available. NH-3 has been described as an antagonist at thyroid hormone receptors with modest selectivity for TR β (Nguyen *et al.*, 2002).

Abbreviations: GC1, (3,5-dimethyl-4-[4-hydroxy-3-isopropylbenzyl]phenyloxy)acetate; NH-3, (4-[4-hydroxy-3-isopropyl-5-{4-nitrophenylethynyl}-benzyl]-3,5-dimethylphenoxy)acetate

Further Reading

Baxter JD, Webb P (2009). Thyroid hormone mimetics: potential applications in atherosclerosis, obesity and type 2 diabetes. *Nat Rev Drug Discov* 8: 308–320.

Bernal J (2007). Thyroid hormone receptors in brain development and function. Nat Clin Pract Endocrinol Metab 3: 249-259.

Cheng SY, Leonard JL, Davis PJ (2010). Molecular aspects of thyroid hormone actions. Endocr Rev 31: 139-170.

Davis PJ, Zhou M, Davis FB, Lansing L, Mousa SA, Lin HY (2010). Mini-review: cell surface receptor for thyroid hormone and nongenomic regulation of ion fluxes in excitable cells. *Physiol Behav* 99: 237–239.

Davis PJ, Davis FB, Mousa SA, Luidens MK, Lin HY (2011). Membrane receptor for thyroid hormone: physiologic and pharmacologic implications. *Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol* 51: 99–115.

Flamant F, Baxter JD, Forrest D, Refetoff S, Samuels H, Scanlan TS et al. (2006). International Union of Pharmacology. LIX. The pharmacology and classification of the nuclear receptor superfamily: thyroid hormone receptors. Pharmacol Rev 58: 705–711.

Furuya F, Lu C, Guigon CJ, Cheng SY (2009). Nongenomic activation of phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase signaling by thyroid hormone receptors. Steroids 74: 628–634.

Grover GJ, Mellstrom K, Malm J (2007). Therapeutic potential for thyroid hormone receptor-β selective agonists for treating obesity, hyperlipidemia and diabetes. *Curr Vasc Pharmacol* 5: 141–154.

Liu YY, Brent GA (2010). Thyroid hormone crosstalk with nuclear receptor signaling in metabolic regulation. *Trends Endocrinol Metab* 21: 166–173

Pramfalk C, Pedrelli M, Parini P (2011). Role of thyroid receptor β in lipid metabolism. *Biochim Biophys Acta (BBA) Mol Basis Dis* **1812**: 929–937. Visser WE, Friesema EC, Jansen J, Visser TJ (2008). Thyroid hormone transport in and out of cells. *Trends Endocrinol Metab* **19**: 50–56.

Yen PM, Ando S, Feng X, Liu Y, Maruvada P, Xia X (2006). Thyroid hormone action at the cellular, genomic and target gene levels. *Mol Cell Endocrinol* 246: 121–127.

References

Bergh JJ *et al.* (2005). *Endocrinology* **146**: 2864–2871. Chiellini G *et al.* (1998). *Chem Biol* **5**: 299–306. Nguyen NH *et al.* (2002). *J Med Chem* **45**: 3310–3320.

Vitamin D, Pregnane X and Constitutive Androstane

Overview: Vitamin D (VDR), Pregnane X (PXR) and Constitutive Androstane (CAR) receptors (nomenclature as agreed by NC-IUPHAR Committee on Nuclear Receptors, Moore *et al.*, 2006) are members of the NR1I family of nuclear receptors, which form heterodimers with members of the retinoid X receptor family. PXR and CAR are activated by a range of exogenous compounds, with no established endogenous physiological agonists, although high concentrations of bile acids and bile pigments activate PXR and CAR (see Moore *et al.*, 2006).

Nomenclature	Vitamin D	Pregnane X	Constitutive Androstane
Systematic nomenclature	NR1I1	NR112	NR113
Other names	1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D3 receptor	Orphan nuclear receptor PAR1, pregnane-activated receptor, steroid and xenobiotic receptor, SXR	Constitutive activator of retinoid response, constitutive active response, orphan nuclear receptor MB67
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000111424	ENSG00000144852	ENSG00000143257
Selective agonists	1,25-Dihydroxyvitamin D ₃ , EB1089 (Colston et al., 1992)	5β -Pregnane-3,20-dione, estradiol (Jones et al., 2000), hyperforin (Wentworth et al., 2000), lovastatin (Lehmann et al., 1998), rifampicin (Blumberg et al., 1998; Lehmann et al., 1998)	TCPOBOP (Tzameli <i>et al.</i> , 2000), CITCO (Maglich <i>et al.</i> , 2003)
Selective antagonists	TEI9647 (Miura et al., 1999), ZK159222 (Herdick et al., 2000)	-	-

Abbreviations: CITCO, 6-(4-chlorophenyl)imidazo[2,1-b][1,3]thiazole-5-carbaldehyde-O-(3,4-dichlorobenzyl)oxime; EB1089, (1R,3S,5Z)-5-[(2E)-2-[(1R,3aS,7aR)-1-[(1R,2E,4E)-6-ethyl-6-hydroxy-1-methyl-2,4-octadien-1-yl]-octahydro- 7α -methyl-4H-inden-4-ylidene]ethylidene]-4-methylene-1,3-cyclohexanediol, also known as seocalcitol; TEI9647, (23s)-25-dehydro-1α hydroxyvitamin D₃-26,23-lactone; TCPOBOP, 1,4-bis-[2-(3,5-dichloropyridyloxy)]benzene; ZK159222, butyl 1-[(E,1R,4R)-4-[(1R,3aS,4E,7aR)-4-[(2Z)-2-[(3S,5R)-3,5-dihydroxy-2-methylidene]-7a-methyl-2,3,3a,5,6,7-hexahydro-1H-inden-1-yl]-1-hydroxypent-2-enyl]cyclopropane-1-carboxylate

Further Reading

Bikle D (2009). Nonclassic actions of vitamin D. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 94: 26-34.

Bikle DD (2011). Vitamin D: an ancient hormone. Exp Dermatol 20: 7-13.

Bouillon R, Carmeliet G, Verlinden L et al. (2008). Vitamin D and human health: lessons from vitamin D receptor null mice. Endocr Rev 29: 726–776.

Campbell FC, Xu H, El-Tanani M, Crowe P, Bingham V (2010). The yin and yang of vitamin D receptor (VDR) signaling in neoplastic progression: operational networks and tissue-specific growth control. *Biochem Pharmacol* 79: 1–9.

Danescu LG, Levy S, Levy J (2009). Vitamin D and diabetes mellitus. *Endocrine* 35: 11–17.

Deeb KK, Trump DL, Johnson CS (2007). Vitamin D signalling pathways in cancer: potential for anticancer therapeutics. *Nat Rev Cancer* 7: 684–700.

Haussler MR, Haussler CA, Bartik L *et al.* (2008). Vitamin D receptor: molecular signaling and actions of nutritional ligands in disease prevention. *Nutr Rev* **66**: S98–112.

Ihunnah CA, Jiang M, Xie W (2011). Nuclear receptor PXR, transcriptional circuits and metabolic relevance. *Biochim Biophys Acta (BBA) Mol Basis Dis* 1812: 956–963.

Kohle C, Bock KW (2009). Coordinate regulation of human drug-metabolizing enzymes, and conjugate transporters by the Ah receptor, pregnane

X receptor and constitutive androstane receptor. *Biochem Pharmacol* 77: 689–699. Krishnan AV, Feldman D (2011). Mechanisms of the anti-cancer and anti-inflammatory actions of vitamin D. *Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol* 51:

311–336.

Moore DD, Kato S, Xie W, Mangelsdorf DI, Schmidt DR, Xiao R *et al.* (2006). International Union of Pharmacology. LXII. The NR1H and NR1I

Moore DD, Rato S, Xie W, Mangelsdorf DJ, Schmidt DR, Xiao R *et al.* (2006). International Union of Pharmacology. LXII. The NRTH and NRTI receptors: constitutive androstane receptor, pregnene X receptor, farnesoid X receptor α , farnesoid X receptor β , liver X receptor α , liver X receptor β , and vitamin D receptor. *Pharmacol Rev* **58**: 742–759.

Pittas AG, Dawson-Hughes B (2010). Vitamin D and diabetes. J Steroid Biochem Mol Biol 121: 425-429.

Plum LA, DeLuca HF (2010). Vitamin D, disease and therapeutic opportunities. Nat Rev Drug Discov 9: 941-955.

Timsit YE, Negishi M (2007). CAR and PXR: the xenobiotic-sensing receptors. Steroids 72: 231-246.

Urquhart BL, Tirona RG, Kim RB (2007). Nuclear receptors and the regulation of drug-metabolizing enzymes and drug transporters: implications for interindividual variability in response to drugs. *J Clin Pharmacol* 47: 566–578.

References

Blumberg B *et al.* (1998). *Genes Dev* **12**: 3195–3205. Colston KW *et al.* (1992). *Biochem Pharmacol* **44**: 2273–2280. Herdick M *et al.* (2000). *Chem Biol* **7**: 885–894. Jones SA *et al.* (2000). *Mol Endocrinol* **14**: 27–39. Lehmann JM *et al.* (1998). *J Clin Invest* **102**: 1016–1023. Maglich JM *et al.* (2003). *J Biol Chem* **278**: 17277–17283. Miura D *et al.* (1999). *J Biol Chem* **274**: 16392–16399. Tzameli I *et al.* (2000). *Mol Cell Biol* **20**: 2951–2958. Wentworth JM *et al.* (2000). *J Endocrinol* **166**: R11–R16.

CATALYTIC RECEPTORS

Catalytic receptors are cell-surface proteins, usually dimeric in nature, which encompass ligand binding and functional domains typically in one polypeptide chain. The ligand binding domain is placed on the extracellular surface of the plasma membrane and separated from the functional domain by a single transmembrane-spanning domain of 20–25 hydrophobic amino acids. The functional domain on the intracellular face of the plasma membrane has catalytic activity, or interacts with particular enzymes, giving the superfamily of receptors it's name. Endogenous agonists of the catalytic receptor superfamily are peptides or proteins, the binding of which may induce dimerization of the receptor, which is the functional version of the receptor.

Amongst the catalytic receptors, particular subfamilies may be readily identified dependent on the function of the enzymatic portion of the receptor. The smallest group is the particulate guanylyl cyclases of the natriuretic peptide receptor family. The most widely recognized group is probably the receptor tyrosine kinase (RTK) family, epitomized by the neurotrophin receptor family, where a crucial initial step is the activation of a signalling cascade by autophosphorylation of the receptor on intracellular tyrosine residue(s) catalyzed by enzyme activity intrinsic to the receptor. A third group is the extrinsic protein tyrosine kinase receptors, where the catalytic activity resides in a separate protein from the binding site. Examples of this group include the GDNF and ErbB receptor families, where one, catalytically silent, member of the heterodimer is activated upon binding the ligand, causing the second member of the heterodimer, lacking ligand binding capacity, to initiate signaling through tyrosine phosphorylation. A fourth group, the receptor threonine/serine kinase (RTSK) family, exemplified by TGF-β and BMP receptors, has intrinsic serine/threonine protein kinase activity in the heterodimeric functional unit. The fifth and final group are the receptor tyrosine phosphatases (RTP), which appear to lack cognate ligands, but may be triggered by events such as cell:cell contact and have identified roles in the skeletal, hematopoietic and immune systems.

NC-IUPHAR is currently considering nomenclature of catalytic receptors. It is recommended that nomenclature from the Human Genome Organisation Gene Nomenclature Committee (HGNC) is adopted where the precise complement of receptors is known (e.g. using heterologous expression). The alternative nomenclature recommended in the Guide to Receptors and Channels, Fifth Edition, may be considered as provisional.

\$190 Cytokine receptor family

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Cytokine receptor family

Overview: Cytokines are not a clearly defined group of agents, other than having an impact on immune signalling pathways, although many cytokines have effects on other systems, such as in development. A feature of some cytokines, which allows them to be distinguished from hormones, is that they may be produced by 'non-secretory' cells, for example, endothelial cells. Within the cytokine receptor family, some subfamilies may be identified, which are described elsewhere in the Guide to Receptors and Channels, receptors for the TNF family (see Page S211), the TGF-β family (see Page S200) and the chemokines (see Page S39). Within this group of records are described Type I cytokine receptors, the production is the existence of soluble and decoy receptors. These bind cytokines without allowing signalling to occur. A further attribute is the production of endogenous antagonist molecules, which bind to the receptors selectively and prevent signalling.

A commonality of these families of receptors is the ligand-induced homo- or hetero-oligomerization, which results in the recruitment of intracellular protein partners to evoke cellular responses, particularly in inflammatory or haematopoietic signalling. Although not an exclusive signalling pathway, a common feature of the majority of cytokine receptors is activation of the JAK/STAT pathway. This cascade is based around the protein tyrosine kinase activity of the Janus kinases (JAK, ENSFM0025000000777), which phosphorylate the receptor and thereby facilitate the recruitment of signal transducers and activators of transcription (STATs, ENSFM00500000269705, ENSFM00500000269817). The activated homo- or heterodimeric STATs function principally as transcription factors in the nucleus.

Type I cytokine receptors

The IL-2 family of cytokines bind to heterodimeric receptors with ligand-selective α or β chains, and a common γ chain (γ c) (IL2RG, ENSG00000147168, also known as CD132, CIDX, IMD4, severe combined immunodeficiency, SCIDX1).

Nomenclature	Interleukin-2 α	Interleukin-2 β	Interleukin-4	Interleukin-7	Interleukin-9
HGNC nomenclature	IL2RA	IL2RB	IL4R	IL7R	IL9R
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000134460	ENSG00000100385	ENSG00000077238	ENSG00000168685	ENSG00000124334
Other names	CD25, IL2R, TAC antigen	CD122, IL15RB	CD124, P24394	CD127	CD129
Agonist	IL-2	IL-2, IL-15	IL-4, IL-13	IL-7	IL-9

Nomenclature	Interleukin-13 α1	Interleukin-13 α2	Interleukin-15 α	Interleukin-21	TSLP
HGNC nomenclature	IL13RA1	IL13RA2	IL15RA	IL21R	TSLPR
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000131724	ENSG00000123496	ENSG00000134470	ENSG00000103522	ENSG00000205755
Other names	CD213a1, IL-13Ra, NR4	CD213a2, CT19, IL-13R, IL13BP	-	-	CRLF2
Agonist	IL-13	IL-13	IL-15	IL-21	TSLP

IL13RA2 acts as a substitute for γ_c producing a non-signalling complex; a decoy receptor.

Endogenous agonists include IL-2 (ENSG00000109471, also known as T-cell growth factor, TCGF, aldesleukin), IL-4 (ENSG00000113520, also known as B-cell stimulatory factor 1, lymphocyte stimulatory factor 1, binetrakin, pitrakinra), IL-7 (ENSG00000104432), IL-9 (ENSG00000145839, also known as HP40, P40), IL-13 (ENSG00000169194), IL-15 (ENSG00000164136), IL-21 (ENSG00000138684, also known as ZA11) and thymic stromal lymphopoietin (TSLP, ENSG00000145777).

Ro264550 has been described as a selective IL-2 receptor antagonist, which binds to IL-2 (Tilley et al. 1997).

The IL-3 family signal through a receptor complex comprising of a ligand-specific α subunit and a common β chain (CSF2RB, ENSG00000100368, also known as CD131, IL3RB or IL5RB), which is shared between all members of this cytokine family.

Nomenclature	Interleukin-3	Interleukin-5	Granulocyte macrophage colony-stimulating factor
HGNC nomenclature	IL3RA	IL5RA	CSF2RA
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000185291	ENSG00000091181	ENSG00000198223
Other names	CD123, A40266	CD125, CDw125, IL5R	CD116
Agonist	IL-3	IL-5	GM-CSF

Endogenous agonists include IL-3 (ENSG00000164399, also known as multipotential colony-stimulating factor, hematopoietic growth factor, P-cell-stimulating factor, mast cell growth factor), IL-5 (ENSG00000113525, also known as EDF, TRF), GM-CSF (ENSG00000164400), and G-CSF (ENSG00000108342).

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Cytokine receptor family \$191

YM90709 has been described as a selective IL-5 receptor antagonist (Morokata et al., 2002).

The IL-6 family signal through a ternary receptor complex consisting of the cognate receptor and a homodimer of the IL-6 signal transducer gp130 (IL6ST, ENSG00000134352, also known as CD130, oncostatin M receptor), which then activates the JAK/STAT, Ras/Raf/MAPK and PI 3-kinase /PKB signalling modules.

Nomenclature	Interleukin-6	Interleukin-11 α	Interleukin-31
HGNC nomenclature	IL6R	IL11RA	IL31RA
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000160712	ENSG00000137070	ENSG00000164509
Other names	CD126	_	CRL, CRL3, gp130-like monocyte, GLM-R
Agonist	IL-6	IL-11	IL-31
1			

Nomenclature	Ciliary neurotrophic factor $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$	Leptin	Leukemia inhibitory factor	Oncostatin-M specific β
HGNC nomenclature	CNTFR	LEPR	LIFR	OSMR
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000122756	ENSG00000116678	ENSG00000113594	ENSG00000145623
Other names	CNTFRlpha	CD295	CD118	OSMRβ
Agonist	CNTF	Leptin	LIF, CTF1, OSM	OSM

Unusually amongst the cytokine receptors, the CNTF receptor is a glycerophosphatidylinositol-linked protein. CRLF1 (cytokine receptor-like factor 1, ENSG00000006016, also known as CISS, CISS1, CLF, CLF-1, NR6) acts as an endogenous antagonist for the CNTF receptor.

Endogenous agonists include IL-6 (ENSG00000136244, also known as B-cell stimulatory factor 2, interferon β -2, hybridoma growth factor, CTL differentiation factor), IL-11 (ENSG00000095752, also known as adipogenesis inhibitory factor), ciliary neurotrophic factor (CNTF, ENSG00000242689), cardiotrophin-1 (CTF1, ENSG00000150281, also known as B-cell stimulatory factor 3, BSF3), cardiotrophin-like cytokine (CLCF1, ENSG00000175505), leptin (LEP, ENSG00000174697, also known as OB), leukemia inhibitory factor (LIF, ENSG00000128342, also known as cholinergic differentiation factor) and Oncostatin M (OSM, ENSG00000099985).

The IL-12 receptor family: IL12RB1 is shared between receptors for IL-12 and IL-23; the functional agonist at IL-12 receptors is a heterodimer of IL-12A/IL-12B or homodimer of IL-12B/IL-2B subunits, while that for IL-23 receptors is a heterodimer of IL-12A/IL-23A.

Nomenclature	Interleukin-12 β1	Interleukin-12 β2	Interleukin 23
HGNC nomenclature	IL12RB1	IL12RB2	IL23R
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000096996	ENSG00000081985	ENSG00000162594
Other names	CD212, IL12RB	-	-
Agonist	IL-12A/IL-12B, IL-12B/IL-12B	IL-12A/IL-12B, IL-12B/IL-12B	IL-12A/IL-23A

Endogenous agonists include IL-12A (ENSG00000168811, also known as CLMF, IL-12A, NFSK, NKSF1, p35), IL-12B (ENSG00000113302, also known as natural killer cell stimulatory factor 2, cytotoxic lymphocyte maturation factor 2, p40) and IL-23 (ENSG00000110944).

The prolactin receptor family is made up of homodimeric receptor tyrosine kinases.

Nomenclature	Eythropoietin	Granulocyte colony-stimulating factor	Growth hormone	Prolactin	Thrombopoietin
HGNC nomenclature Ensembl ID	EPOR ENSG00000187266	CSF3R ENSG00000119535	GHR ENSG00000112964	PRLR ENSG00000113494	TPOR ENSG00000117400
Other names	-	CD114	Somatotropin, GH-binding protein, GHBP, serum-binding protein		Myeloproliferative leukemia protein, C-mpl, CD110
Endogenous agonist	Erythropoietin	G-CSF	Growth hormone 1, growth hormone 2, choriomammotropin	Prolactin > growth hormone	Thrombopoietin

Endogenous agonists are large (~200 aa) polypeptides, and include erythropoietin (EPO, ENSG00000130427), granulocyte macrophage colony-stimulating factor (GM-CSF, ENSG00000164400, also known as colony-stimulating factor, CSF, sargramostim, molgramostin), growth hormone 1 (GH1, ENSG00000189162), growth hormone 2 (GH2, ENSG00000136488, also known as placenta-specific growth hormone), choriomam-

\$192 Cytokine receptor family

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

motropin (CSH1, ENSG00000136487, also known as lactogen), thrombopoietin (TPO, ENSG00000090534, also known as megakaryocyte colony-stimulating factor, myeloproliferative leukemia virus oncogene ligand, C-mpl ligand, megakaryocyte growth and development factor, MGDF), chorionic somatomammotropin hormone 2 (CSH2, ENSG00000213218), chorionic somatomammotropin hormone-like 1 (CSHL, ENSG00000204414, also known as lactogen-like) and granulocyte colony stimulating factor (CSF3, ENSG00000108342, also known as G-CSF, pluripoietin, filgrastim, lenograstim).

Type II cytokine receptors

The interferon receptor family includes receptors for type I and type II interferons, that bind to heterodimeric receptors made up of IFNAR1/IFNAR2 or IFNGR1/IFNGR2, respectively.

Interferon- α/β 1	Interferon- α/β 2	Interferon-γ 1	Interferon-γ 2
IFNAR1	IFNAR2	IFNGR1	IFNGR2
ENSG00000142166	ENSG00000159110	ENSG00000027697	ENSG00000159128
IFNAR, IFRC	IFNABR	CD119, IFNGR	AF-1, IFNGT1
IFN- α , IFN- β , IFN- ω , IFN- κ	IFN- α , IFN- β , IFN- ω , IFN- κ	IFN-γ	IFN-γ
	IFNAR1 ENSG00000142166 IFNAR, IFRC	IFNAR1 IFNAR2 ENSG00000142166 ENSG00000159110 IFNAR, IFRC IFNABR	IFNAR1 IFNAR2 IFNGR1 ENSG00000142166 ENSG00000159110 ENSG00000027697 IFNAR, IFRC IFNABR CD119, IFNGR

Endogenous agonists in man include IFN- α (IFNA1, ENSG00000197919), IFN- β (IFNB1, ENSG00000171855), IFN- γ (IFNG, ENSG00000111537), IFN- κ (IFNK, ENSG00000147896) and IFN- ω (IFNW1, ENSG00000177047).

The IL-10 family of receptors are heterodimeric combinations of family members: IL10RA/IL10RB responds to IL-10; IL20RA/IL20RB responds to IL-19, IL-20 and IL-24; IL22RA1/IL10RB responds to IL-22; IL28RA/IL10RB responds to IL-28A, IL28R and IL-29.

Nomenclature	Interleukin-10 α	Interleukin-10 β	Interleukin-20 α	Interleukin-20 β
HGNC nomenclature	IL10RA	IL10RB	IL20RA	IL20RB
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000110324	ENSG00000243646	ENSG00000016402	ENSG00000174564
Other names	CDW210A, HIL-10R, IL10R	CDW210B, CRF2-4, CRFB4, D21S58, D21S66, IL-10R2	IL-20R1, ZCYTOR7	DIRS1, FNDC6, IL-20R2, MGC34923

Nomenclature	Interleukin-22 α 1	Interleukin-22 α2	Interleukin-28 α
HGNC nomenclature	IL22RA1	IL22RA2	IL28RA
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000142677	ENSG00000164485	ENSG00000185436
Other names	CRF2-9, IL22R	IL22bP, CRF2-S1	CRF2/12, IFNLR, IL-28R1

Endogenous agonsits are IL-10 (ENSG00000136634), IL-19 (ENSG00000142224), IL-20 (ENSG00000162891), IL-22 (ENSG00000127318), IL-24 (ENSG00000162892), IL-28A (IL28A, ENSG00000183709, also known as IFN- λ 2), IL-28B (IL28B, ENSG00000197110, also known as IFN- λ 3), IL-29 (ENSG00000182393).

Immunoglobulin-like family of IL-1 receptors are heterodimeric receptors made up of a cognate receptor subunit and an IL-1 receptor accessory protein (IL1RAP, ENSG00000196083, also known as C3orf13, IL-1RACP, IL1R3).

Nomenclature	Interleukin-1, type I	Interleukin-1 receptor-like 1	Interleukin-1 receptor-like 2	Interleukin-18 1
HGNC nomenclature	IL1R1	IL1RL1	IL1RL2	IL18R1
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000115594	ENSG00000115602	ENSG00000115598	ENSG00000115604
Other names	CD121A, D2S1473, IL1R, IL1RA	DER4, FIT-1, IL33R, ST2, ST2L, ST2V, T1	IL1R-rp2, IL1RRP2	CD218a, IL-1Rrp, IL1RRP
Endogenous agonists	IL-1α, IL-1β	-	-	IL-18

IL1R2, the type II IL-1 receptor (ENSG00000115590, also known as CD121b, IL1RB), is a decoy receptor, while the IL-1 receptor antagonist (IL1RN, ENSG00000136689, also known as ICIL-1RA, IL1F3, IL1RA, IRAP) prevents IL-1 binding to the receptor. Analogues of IL1RAP have been identified in the human genome: IL-1 receptor accessory protein-like 1 protein (IL1RAPL1, ENSG00000169306, also known as IL1RAPL, MRX10, MRX21, MRX34, OPHN4 or TIGIRR-2), X-linked IL-1 receptor accessory protein-like 2 (IL1RAPL2, ENSG00000189108, also known as IL-1R9, IL1RAPL-2 or TIGIRR-1) and IL-18 receptor accessory protein-like (IL18RAP, ENSG00000115607, also known asAcPL, CD218b).

Endogenous agonists are IL-1 α (IL1A, ENSG00000115008, also known as IL-1 or IL-1F1), IL-1 β (ENSG00000125538, also known as IL-1F2) and IL-18 (ENSG00000150782, also known as IFN- γ -inducing factor).

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Cytokine receptor family \$193

AF12198 has been described as a selective Type I IL-1 receptor antagonist (Akeson et al., 1996).

The IL17 receptor family appear to represent a distinct class of cytokine receptors with incompletely defined signalling.

Nomenclature	Interleukin 17 α	Interleukin 17 β	Interleukin 17 γ	Interleukin 17 δ	Interleukin 17 ε
HGNC nomenclature	IL17RA	IL17RB	IL17RC	IL17RD	IL17RE
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000177663	ENSG00000056736	ENSG00000163702	ENSG00000144730;	ENSG00000163701
Other names	CD217, CDw217, hIL-17R, IL-17RA, IL17R	CRL4, EVI27, IL17BR, IL17RH1	IL17-RL	SEF	-

Endogenous agonists include IL-17A (ENSG00000112115, also known as cytotoxic T-lymphocyte-associated serine esterase 8; CTLA8).

Abbreviations: AF12198, AcPheGluTrpThrProGlyTrpTyrGlnAzeTyrAlaLeuProLeu; CSF, colony stimulating factor; EPO, erythropoietin; GH, growth hormone; G-CSF, granulocyte colony-stimulating factor; GMCSF, granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor; IFN, interferon; IL, interleukin; JAK, Janus kinase; LIF, leukemia inhibitory factor; OSM, oncostatin-M; PRL prolactin; Ro264550, N-[[(3R)-1-(aminoiminomethyl)-3-piperidinyl]acetyl]-4-(phenylethynyl)-L-phenylalanine methyl ester; STAT, signal transducers and activators of transcription; TPO, thrombopoietin; YM90709, 2,3-dimethoxy-6,6-dimethyl-5,6-dihydrobenzo[7,8]indolizino[2,3-b]quinoxaline

Further Reading

Ben-Jonathan N, Hugo ER, Brandebourg TD, LaPensee CR (2006). Focus on prolactin as a metabolic hormone. *Trends Endocrinol Metab* 17: 110–116.

Ben-Jonathan N, LaPensee CR, LaPensee EW (2008). What can we learn from rodents about prolactin in humans? Endocr Rev 29: 1–41.

Constantinescu SN, Girardot M, Pecquet C (2008). Mining for JAK-STAT mutations in cancer. *Trends Biochem Sci* 33: 122–131.

Duncan MJ (2007). Circannual prolactin rhythms: calendar-like timer revealed in the pituitary gland. Trends Endocrinol Metab 18: 259–260.

Giustina A, Mazziotti G, Canalis E (2008). Growth hormone, insulin-like growth factors, and the skeleton. Endocr Rev 29: 535–559.

Grattan DR, Kokay IC (2008). Prolactin: a pleiotropic neuroendocrine hormone. *J Neuroendocrinol* **20**: 752–763. Holt RI. Sonksen PH (2008). Growth hormone. IGF-I and insulin and their abuse in sport. *Br I Pharmacol* **154**: 542–556.

van der Lely AJ, Kopchick JJ (2006). Growth hormone receptor antagonists. *Neuroendocrinology* **83**: 264–268.

Li WX (2008). Canonical and non-canonical JAK-STAT signaling. Trends Cell Biol 18: 545-551.

Lichanska AM, Waters MJ (2008). How growth hormone controls growth, obesity and sexual dimorphism. Trends Genet 24: 41-47.

Marcucci R, Romano M (2008). Thrombopoietin and its splicing variants: structure and functions in thrombopoiesis and beyond. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1782: 427–432.

Moller N, Jorgensen JO (2009). Effects of growth hormone on glucose, lipid, and protein metabolism in human subjects. *Endocr Rev* **30**: 152–177. Pilecka I, Whatmore A, van Hooft HR, Destenaves B, Clayton P (2007). Growth hormone signalling: sprouting links between pathways, human genetics and therapeutic options. *Trends Endocrinol Metab* **18**: 12–18.

Schindler C, Levy DE, Decker T (2007). JAK-STAT signaling: from interferons to cytokines. J Biol Chem 282: 20059–20063.

Soares MJ, Konno T, Alam SM (2007). The prolactin family: effectors of pregnancy-dependent adaptations. *Trends Endocrinol Metab* 18: 114–121. Takano H, Ueda K, Hasegawa H, Komuro I (2007). G-CSF therapy for acute myocardial infarction. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 28: 512–517.

Tworoger SS, Hankinson SE (2006). Prolactin and breast cancer risk. *Cancer Lett* 243: 160–169.

Velloso CP (2008). Regulation of muscle mass by growth hormone and IGF-I. Br J Pharmacol 154: 557-568.

Ward AC (2007). The role of the granulocyte colony-stimulating factor receptor (G-CSF-R) in disease. Front Biosci 12: 608-618.

Xu J, Messina JL (2009). Crosstalk between growth hormone and insulin signaling. Vitam Horm 80: 125-153.

References

Akeson AL *et al.* (1996). *J Biol Chem* **271**: 30517–30523. Morokata T *et al.* (2002). *Int Immunopharmacol* **2**: 1693–1702. Tilley JW *et al.* (1997). *J Am Chem Soc* **119**: 7589–7590. \$194 GDNF family Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

GDNF family

Overview: GDNF family receptors (ENSFM00500000269996) are extrinsic tyrosine kinase receptors. Ligand binding to the extracellular domain of the glycosylphosphatidylinositol-linked cell-surface receptors (tabulated below) activates a transmembrane tyrosine kinase enzyme, Ret (Rearranged during transfection, ENSG00000165731). The endogenous ligands are typically dimeric, linked through disulphide bridges: glial cell-derived neurotrophic factor (GDNF, 211 aa, ENSG00000168621); neurturin (NRTN, 197 aa, ENSG00000171119); artemin (ARTN, 237 aa, ENSG00000117407) and persephin (PSPN, 156 aa, ENSG00000125650).

Nomenclature	GNDF family receptor α 1	GNDF family receptor α 2	GNDF family receptor α 3	GNDF family receptor α4
Preferred abbreviation	GFRα1	GFRα2	GFRα3	GFRα4
Other names	GDNF receptor	Neurturin receptor	Artemin receptor	Persephin receptor
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000151892	ENSG00000168546	ENSG00000146013	ENSG00000125861
Potency order	GDNF>NRTN>ARTN	NRTN>GDNF	ARTN	PSPN
Probes	[¹²⁵]]-GDNF (3-63 pM, Treanor <i>et al.</i> , 1996; Klein <i>et al.</i> , 1997)	-	-	-

Inhibitors of other receptor tyrosine kinases, such as semaxinib, which inhibits VEGF receptor function, may also inhibit Ret function (Mologni et al., 2006). Mutations of Ret and GDNF genes may be involved in Hirschsprung's disease, which is characterized by the absence of intramural ganglion cells in the hindgut, often resulting in intestinal obstruction.

Further Reading

Bespalov MM, Saarma M (2007). GDNF family receptor complexes are emerging drug targets. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* **28**: 68–74. Carnicella S, Ron D (2009). GDNF – a potential target to treat addiction. *Pharmacol Ther* **122**: 9–18.

Ernsberger U (2008). The role of GDNF family ligand signalling in the differentiation of sympathetic and dorsal root ganglion neurons. *Cell Tissue Res* **333**: 353–371.

Paratcha G, Ledda F (2008). GDNF and GFRα: a versatile molecular complex for developing neurons. *Trends Neurosci* 31: 384–391. Rangasamy SB, Soderstrom K, Bakay RA, Kordower JH (2010). Neurotrophic factor therapy for Parkinson's disease. *Prog Brain Res* 184: 237–264. Schueler-Furman O, Glick E, Segovia J, Linial M (2006). Is GAS1 a co-receptor for the GDNF family of ligands? *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 27: 72–77.

References

Klein RD *et al.* (1997). *Nature* **387**: 717–721. Mologni L *et al.* (2006). *J Mol Endocrinol* **37**: 199–212. Treanor JJS *et al.* (1996). *Nature* **382**: 80–83.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Natriuretic peptide S195

Natriuretic peptide

Overview: Natriuretic peptide receptors are a family (ENSFM00250000000198) of homodimeric, catalytic receptors with a single TM domain and guanylyl cyclase (EC 4.6.1.2) activity on the intracellular domain of the protein sequence. Isoforms are activated by the peptide hormones atrial natriuretic peptide (ANP, ENSG00000175206), brain natriuretic peptide (BNP, ENSG00000120937) and C-type natriuretic peptide (CNP, ENSG00000163273). Another family member is GC-C, the receptor for guanylin (ENSG00000113389) and uroguanylin (ENSG00000044012). Family members have conserved ligand-binding, catalytic (guanylyl cyclase) and regulatory domains with the exception of NPR-C which has an extracellular binding domain homologous to that of other NPRs, but with a truncated intracellular domain which appears to couple, via the $G_{i/o}$ family of G proteins to activation of phospholipase C, inwardly-rectifying potassium channels and inhibition of adenylyl cyclase activity (Murthy and Makhlouf, 1999).

Nomenclature	NPR-A	NPR-B	NPR-C	GC-C
Other names	NPR1, GC-A, ANP $_{\rm A}$ receptor, ANPRA, GUCY2A	NPR2, GC-B, ANP _B receptor, ANPRB, GUCY2B	NPR3, ANPRC, <i>npr3</i> , clearance receptor	STaR, GUCY2C
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000169418	ENSG00000159899	ENSG00000113389	ENSG00000070019
Potency order	ANP \geq BNP $>>$ CNP (Suga et al., 1992)	CNP >> ANP >> BNP (Suga et al., 1992)	ANP > CNP \geq BNP (Suga et al., 1992)	Uroguanylin > guanylin
Selective agonists	ANP, BNP, sANP (Olson et al., 1996)	CNP (Suga et al., 1992)	cANF ^{4–23} (Maack <i>et al.,</i> 1987), osteocrin (Moffatt <i>et al.,</i> 2007).	E. coli heat-stable enterotoxin (ST _a), linaclotide (Harris and Crowell, 2007)
Selective antagonists	A71915 (9.2–9.5, Delporte et al., 1991), [Asu7,23']-β-ANP ^{7–28} (7.5, Kambayashi et al., 1989), anantin (Wyss et al., 1991)	Monoclonal antibody 3G12 (Drewett <i>et al.</i> , 1995), [Ser ¹¹](N-CNP,C-ANP)pBNP ²⁻²⁵ (Deschenes <i>et al.</i> , 2005)	AP811 (9.3, Veale <i>et al.</i> , 2000), M372049 (Hobbs <i>et al.</i> , 2004)	-
Probes	[¹²⁵ I]-ANP	[¹²⁵ I]-CNP	[¹²⁵ I]-ANP	[¹²⁵ I]-ST _a

The polysaccharide obtained from fermentation of *Aureobasidium* species, HS142-1, acts as an antagonist at both NPR-A and NPR-B receptors (Morishita *et al.*, 1991).

Gucy2D (RetGC1, GC-E, ENSG00000132518) and Gucy2F (RetGC2, GC-F, ENSG00000101890) are predominantly retinal guanylyl cyclase activities, which are inhibited by calcium ions acting through the guanylyl cyclase activating peptides GCAP1 (GUCA1A, ENSG00000048545), GCAP2 (GUCA1B, ENSG00000112599) and GCAP3 (GUCA1C, ENSG00000138472) (see Hunt et al., 2010).

Abbreviations: A71915, ([Arg⁶,Cha⁸]ANP⁶⁻¹⁵-d-Tic-Arg-Cys-NH₂; anantin, cyclo(Gly-Phe-Ile-Gly-Trp-Gly-Asn- β -Asp)-Ile-Phe-Gly-His-Tyr-Ser-Gly-Asp-Phe; AP811, (s)-N²-([4-{(2-naphthalenylcarbonyl)amino}phenyl]acetyl)-l-arginyl-l-isoleucyl-l- α -aspartyl-N-(2-methylbutyl)-l-argininamide; [Asu7,23']- β -ANP(7–28), an antiparallel dimer linked by 7-23' and 7'-23 disulphide bonds (Asu, l- α -aminosuberic acid); cANF⁴⁻²³, des[Gln¹⁸,Ser¹⁹,Gly²⁰,Leu²¹,Gly²²]ANP⁴⁻²³-NH₂; HS142-1, *Aureobasidium*-derived polysaccharide; M372049, see Chauhan *et al.* (2003) for structure; sANP, [G9T, R11S, G16R]ANP

Further Reading

Hunt DM, Buch P, Michaelides M. (2010) Guanylate cyclases and associated activator proteins in retinal disease. *Mol Cell Biochem* **334:** 157–168. van Kimmenade RR, Januzzi JL, Jr. (2009). The evolution of the natriuretic peptides – Current applications in human and animal medicine. *J Vet Cardiol* **11** (Suppl. 1): S9–21.

Kishimoto I, Tokudome T, Nakao K, Kangawa K (2011). Natriuretic peptide system: an overview of studies using genetically engineered animal models. FEBS J 278: 1830–1841.

Kuhn M (2009). Function and dysfunction of mammalian membrane guanylyl cyclase receptors: lessons from genetic mouse models and implications for human diseases. *Handb Exp Pharmacol* 191: 47–69.

Lanfear DE (2010). Genetic variation in the natriuretic peptide system and heart failure. Heart Fail Rev 15: 219-228.

Li P, Lin JE, Marszlowicz GP, Valentino MA, Chang C, Schulz S et al. (2009). GCC signaling in colorectal cancer: is colorectal cancer a paracrine deficiency syndrome? *Drug News Perspect* 22: 313–318.

Misono KS, Philo JS, Arakawa T, Ogata CM, Qiu Y, Ogawa H *et al.* (2011). Structure, signaling mechanism and regulation of the natriuretic peptide receptor guanylate cyclase. *FEBS J* **278**: 1818–1829.

Pandey KN (2011). The functional genomics of guanylyl cyclase/natriuretic peptide receptor-A: perspectives and paradigms. FEBS J 278: 1792–1807.

Potter LR (2011). Natriuretic peptide metabolism, clearance and degradation. FEBS J 278: 1808-1817.

Potter LR, Yoder AR, Flora DR, Antos LK, Dickey DM (2009). Natriuretic peptides: their structures, receptors, physiologic functions and therapeutic applications. *Handb Exp Pharmacol* 191: 341–366.

Rubattu S, Sciarretta S, Morriello A, Calvieri C, Battistoni A, Volpe M (2010). NPR-C: a component of the natriuretic peptide family with implications in human diseases. *J Mol Med* 88: 889–897.

Saito Y (2010). Roles of atrial natriuretic peptide and its therapeutic use. J Cardiol 56: 262–270.

\$196 Natriuretic peptide Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

References

Chauhan S et al. (2003). Proc Natl Aced Sci U S A 100: 1426–1431. Delporte C et al. (1991). Eur J Pharmacol 207: 81–88. Deschenes J et al. (2005). Peptides 26: 517–524. Drewett JG et al. (1995). J Biol Chem 270: 4668–4674. Harris LA, Crowell MD (2007). Curr Opin Mol Ther 9: 403–410. Hobbs A et al. (2004). Circulation 110: 1231–1235. Kambayashi Y et al. (1989). FEBS Lett 248: 28–34. Maack T et al. (1987). Science 238: 675–678.

Moffatt P et al. (2007). J Biol Chem 282: 36454–36262. Morishita Y et al. (1991). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 176: 949–957. Murthy KS, Makhlouf GM (1999). J Biol Chem 274: 17587–17592. Olson LJ et al. (1996). Mol Pharmacol 50: 430–435. Suga S et al. (1992). Endocrinology 130: 229–239. Veale CA et al. (2000). Bioorg Med Chem Lett 10: 1949–1952. Wyss DF et al. (1991). J Antibiot (Tokyo) 44: 172–180. Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Pattern recognition receptors \$197

Pattern recognition receptors

Overview: pattern recognition receptors (PRR, see Takeuchi and Akira, 2010) participate in the innate immune response to microbial agents, the stimulation of which leads to activation of intracellular enzymes and regulation of gene transcription. PRR include both cell-surface and intracellular proteins, including toll-like receptors (TLR), nucleotide-binding oligomerization domain-like receptors (NLR, also known as NOD-like receptors) and the mannose receptor family (ENSFM00250000004089). PRR may be divided into signalling-associated members, identified here, and endocytic members (such as the mannose receptor family), the function of which appears to be to recognise particular microbial motifs for subsequent cell attachment, internalisation and destruction.

PRRs express multiple leucine-rich regions to bind a range of microbially-derived ligands, termed PAMPs or pathogen-associated molecular patterns, which includes peptides, carbohydrates, peptidoglycans, lipoproteins, lipopolysaccharides, and nucleic acids.

Toll-like receptor family

Members of this family share significant homology with the interleukin-1 receptor family and appear to require dimerization either as homoor heterodimers for functional activity. Heterodimerization appears to influence the potency of ligand binding substantially (e.g. TLR1/2 and TLR2/6, Takeuchi et al., 2001; 2002). TLR1, TLR2, TLR4, TLR5, TLR6 and TLR11 are cell-surface proteins, while other members are associated with intracellular organelles, signalling through the MyD88-dependent pathways (with the exception of TLR3). As well as responding to exogenous infectious agents, it has been suggested that selected members of the family may be activated by endogenous ligands, such as hsp60 (Ohashi et al., 2000).

Nomenclature	Other names	Ensembl ID	Agonists
TLR1	Toll/interleukin-1 receptor-like protein, CD281, TIL	ENSG00000174125	-
TLR2	CD282, TIL4	ENSG00000137462	Peptidoglycan (Schwandner et al., 1999; Yoshimura et al., 1999)
TLR3	CD283	ENSG00000164342	PolyIC (Alexopoulou et al., 2001)
TLR4	CD284, hToll, ARMD10	ENSG00000136869	LPS (Poltorak et al., 1998), taxol (Kawasaki et al., 2000)
TLR5	SLEB1, TIL3	ENSG00000187554	Flagellin (Hayashi et al., 2001)
TLR6	CD286	ENSG00000174130	-
TLR7	-	ENSG00000196664	R848 (Hemmi <i>et al.</i> , 2002), imiquimod (Hemmi <i>et al.</i> , 2002), loxoribine (Heil <i>et al.</i> , 2003)
TLR8	_	ENSG00000101916	R848 (Hemmi et al., 2002), imiquimod
TLR9	CD289	ENSG00000173366	CpG (Hemmi et al., 2000)
TLR10		ENSG00000174123	-
TLR11		ENSMUSG00000051969	-

Eritoran (E5564) is a lipid A analogue, which has been described as a TLR4 antagonist (Ingalls et al., 1998).

NOD-like receptor family

Structural analysis has identified a common motif of a mid-peptide located nucleotide-binding and oligomerization (NACHT) domain, which allows division of NOD-like receptors into three subfamilies, NLRC (or NODs), NLRP (or NALP) and IPAF (see Schroder and Tschopp, 2010). NLRC members are named on the basis of a sequence motif expressed at their N-termini, the caspase recruitment domain (CARD), while NLRP members have a pyrin domain. NLRs express C-terminal leucine-rich regions which have regulatory function and appear to recognize the microbial products to which the NLRs respond. NLRC family members recruit a serine/threonine kinase RIPK2 (receptor-interacting serine/threonine kinase 2, also known as CARD3, CARDIAK, RICK, RIP2, ENSG00000104312) leading to signalling through NF-κB and MAP kinase. NLRP family members, upon activation, recruit adaptor proteins (e.g. Asc also known as PYCARD, CARDS, TMS-1, ENSG00000103490). Activated NLRs associate in multiprotein complexes, known as inflammasomes (see Schroder and Tschopp, 2010), allowing the recruitment of caspases (see Page S317).

Nomenclature	Other names	Ensembl ID	Agonists
NLRC1	NOD1, CARD4, CLR7.1	ENSG00000106100	meso-DAP
NLRC2	NOD2, BLAU, CARD15, CD, CLR16.3, IBD1, PSORAS1	ENSG00000167207	Muramyl dipeptide
NLRC3	NOD3, CLR16.2s	ENSG00000167984	
NLRC5	NOD4, NOD27, CLR16.1, FLJ21709	ENSG00000140853	
NLRX1	NOD9, CLR11.3	ENSG00000160703	
CIITA	Class II major histocompatability complex, C2TA, MHC2TA, NLRA	ENSG00000179583	
NLRP1	CARD7, CLR17.1, DEFCAP, DKFZp586O1822, KIAA0926, NAC, NALP1	ENSG00000091592	Muramyl dipeptide

Nomenclature	Other names	Ensembl ID	Agonists
NLRP2	CLR19.9, FLJ20510, NALP2, NBS1, PAN1, PYPAF2	ENSG00000022556	
NLRP3	AGTAVPRL, AII, AVP, C1orf7, CIAS1, CLR1.1, FCAS, FCU, MWS, NALP3, PYPAF1	ENSG00000162711	Multiple virus particles, including Sendai and influenza
NLRP4	CLR19.5, CT58, FLJ32126, NALP4, PAN2, PYPAF4, RNH2	ENSG00000160505	
NLRP5	CLR19.8, MATER, NALP5, PAN11, PYPAF8	ENSG00000171487	
NLRP6	CLR11.4, NALP6, PAN3, PYPAF5	ENSG00000174885	
NLRP7	CLR19.4, NALP7, NOD12, PAN7, PYPAF3	ENSG00000167634	
NLRP8	CLR19.2, NALP8, NOD16, PAN4	ENSG00000179709	
NLRP9	CLR19.1, NALP9, NOD6, PAN12	ENSG00000185792	
NLRP10	CLR11.1, NALP10, NOD8, PAN5, Pynod	ENSG00000182261	
NLRP11	CLR19.6, NALP11, NOD17, PAN10, PYPAF6	ENSG00000179873	
NLRP12	CLR19.3, Monarch1, NALP12, PAN6, PYPAF7, RNO2	ENSG00000142405	
NLRP13	CLR19.7, NALP13, NOD14, PAN13	ENSG00000173572	
NLRP14	CLR11.2, GC-LRR, Nalp-iota, NALP14, NOD5, PAN8	ENSG00000158077	
IPAF	NOD4, NLRC4	ENSG00000091106	
NAIP	BIRC1, NLRB1	ENSG00000249437	

NLRP3 has also been reported to respond to host-derived products, known as danger-associated molecular patterns, or DAMPs, including uric acid (Martinon *et al.*, 2006), ATP, glucose, hyaluronan and amyloid β (see Schroder and Tschopp, 2010).

Loss-of-function mutations of NLRP3 are associated with cold autoinflammatory and Muckle-Wells syndromes.

Abbreviations: CpG, DNA enriched in cytosine:guanosine pairs; imiquimod, 1-(4-amino-imidazo[4,5-c]quinolin-1-yl)-2-methylpropane, also known as R837; LPS, lipopolysaccharide derived from Gram-negative bacteria; meso-DAP, meso-diaminopimeilic acid; polyIC, polyinosine-polycytosine; R848, 1-(4-amino-2-ethoxymethyl-imidazo[4,5-c]quinolin-1-yl)-2-methyl-propan-2-ol, also known as resiquimod and S28463

Further Reading

Barton GM, Kagan JC (2009). A cell biological view of Toll-like receptor function: regulation through compartmentalization. *Nat Rev Immunol* 9: 535–542.

Buchanan MM, Hutchinson M, Watkins LR, Yin H (2010). Toll-like receptor 4 in CNS pathologies. J Neurochem 114: 13-27.

Celis E (2007). Toll-like receptor ligands energize peptide vaccines through multiple paths. Cancer Res 67: 7945–7947.

Chao W (2009). Toll-like receptor signaling: a critical modulator of cell survival and ischemic injury in the heart. *Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol* 296: H1_H12

Chiron D, Jego G, Pellat-Deuceunynck C (2010). Toll-like receptors: expression and involvement in multiple myeloma. *Leuk Res* **34**: 1545–1550. Downes CE, Crack PJ (2010). Neural injury following stroke: are Toll-like receptors the link between the immune system and the CNS? *Br J Pharmacol* **160**: 1872–1888.

Ehlers M, Ravetch JV (2007). Opposing effects of Toll-like receptor stimulation induce autoimmunity or tolerance. *Trends Immunol* 28: 74–79. Garantziotis S, Hollingsworth JW, Zaas AK, Schwartz DA (2008). The effect of toll-like receptors and toll-like receptor genetics in human disease. *Annu Rev Med* 59: 343–359.

Hennessy EJ, Parker AE, O'Neill LA (2010). Targeting Toll-like receptors: emerging therapeutics? Nat Rev Drug Discov 9: 293-307.

Hirsch I, Caux C, Hasan U, Bendriss-Vermare N, Olive D (2010). Impaired Toll-like receptor 7 and 9 signaling: from chronic viral infections to cancer. *Trends Immunol* 31: 391–397.

Hori M, Nishida K (2008). Toll-like receptor signaling: defensive or offensive for the heart? Circ Res 102: 137–139.

Kanzler H, Barrat FJ, Hessel EM, Coffman RL (2007). Therapeutic targeting of innate immunity with Toll-like receptor agonists and antagonists. *Nat Med* 13: 552–559.

Konner AC, Bruning JC (2011). Toll-like receptors: linking inflammation to metabolism. Trends Endocrinol Metab 22: 16-23.

Lecat A, Piette J, Legrand-Poels S (2010). The protein Nod2: an innate receptor more complex than previously assumed. *Biochem Pharmacol* 80: 2021–2031.

Li H, Sun B (2007). Toll-like receptor 4 in atherosclerosis. J Cell Mol Med 11: 88-95.

Marsh BJ, Williams-Karnesky RL, Stenzel-Poore MP (2009). Toll-like receptor signaling in endogenous neuroprotection and stroke. *Neuroscience* **158**: 1007–1020.

Marshak-Rothstein A, Rifkin IR (2007). Immunologically active autoantigens: the role of toll-like receptors in the development of chronic inflammatory disease. *Annu Rev Immunol* 25: 419–441.

Monie TP, Bryant CE, Gay NJ (2009). Activating immunity: lessons from the TLRs and NLRs. Trends Biochem Sci 34: 553-561.

O'Neill LA, Bowie AG (2007). The family of five: TIR-domain-containing adaptors in Toll-like receptor signalling. Nat Rev Immunol 7: 353-364.

O'Neill LA, Sheedy FJ, McCoy CE (2011). MicroRNAs: the fine-tuners of Toll-like receptor signalling. Nat Rev Immunol 11: 163-175.

Sabroe I, Parker LC, Dower SK, Whyte MK (2008). The role of TLR activation in inflammation. *J Pathol* 214: 126–135.

Saitoh S, Miyake K (2009). Regulatory molecules required for nucleotide-sensing Toll-like receptors. Immunol Rev 227: 32-43.

Sanjuan MA, Milasta S, Green DR (2009). Toll-like receptor signaling in the lysosomal pathways. *Immunol Rev* 227: 203–220.

Schroder K, Tschopp J (2010). The inflammasomes. Cell 140: 821–832.

Shaw PJ, Lamkanfi M, Kanneganti TD (2010). NOD-like receptor (NLR) signaling beyond the inflammasome. *Eur J Immunol* 40: 624–627. Takeuchi O, Akira S (2010). Pattern recognition receptors and inflammation. *Cell* 140: 805–820.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Pattern recognition receptors \$199

Trinchieri G, Sher A (2007). Cooperation of Toll-like receptor signals in innate immune defence. Nat Rev Immunol 7: 179-190.

Wenzel J, Tormo D, Tuting T (2008). Toll-like receptor-agonists in the treatment of skin cancer: history, current developments and future prospects. *Handb Exp Pharmacol* **183**: 201–220.

Werling D, Jann OC, Offord V, Glass EJ, Coffey TJ (2009). Variation matters: TLR structure and species-specific pathogen recognition. *Trends Immunol* 30: 124–130.

References

Alexopoulou L et al. (2001). Nature 413: 732–738. Hayashi F et al. (2001). Nature 410: 1099–1103. Heil F et al. (2003). Eur J Immunol 33: 2987–2997. Hemmi H et al. (2000). Nature 408: 740–745. Hemmi H et al. (2002). Nat Immunol 3: 196–200. Ingalls RR et al. (1998). J Immunol 161: 5413–5420. Kawasaki K et al. (2000). J Biol Chem 275: 2251–2254.

Martinon F et al. (2006). Nature 440: 237–241. Ohashi K et al. (2000). J Immunol 164: 558–561. Poltorak A et al. (1998). Science 282: 2085–2088. Schwandner R et al. (1999). J Biol Chem 274: 17406–17409. Takeuchi O et al. (2001). Int Immunol 13: 933–940. Takeuchi O et al. (2002). J Immunol 169: 10–14. Yoshimura A et al. (1999). J Immunol 163: 1–5.

Receptor serine/threonine kinase (RSTK) family (EC 2.7.11.30)

Overview: receptor serine/threonine kinases (RTSK) respond to particular cytokines, the transforming growth factor β (TGF β) and bone morphogenetic protein (BMP) families, and may be divided into two subfamilies on the basis of structural similarities. Agonist binding initiates formation of a cell-surface complex of type I and type II RSTK, possibly heterotetrameric, where the type II protein phosphorylates the type I partner's kinase domain, initiating phosphorylation of particular members of the Smad family. These migrate to the nucleus and act as complexes to regulate gene transcription.

The type I receptor serine/threonine kinases (ENSFM00250000000213) are also known as activin receptors or activin receptor-like kinases, ALKs, for which a systematic nomenclature has been proposed (ALK1-7).

Systematic nomenclature	HGNC nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names
ALK1	ACVRL1	ENSG00000139567	Serine/threonine-protein kinase receptor R3, SKR
ALK2	ACVR1	ENSG00000115170	Activin receptor 1, serine/threonine-protein kinas receptor R1, SKR1
ALK3	BMPR1A	ENSG00000107779	BMP receptor IA, serine/threonine-protein kinase receptor R5, SKR5, CD292
ALK4	ACVR1B	ENSG00000135503	Activin receptor 1B, ACTR-IB, serine/ threonine-protein kinase receptor R2, SKR2
ALK5	TGFBR1	ENSG00000106799	TGF β receptor I, TGFR-1, serine/threonine-protei kinase receptor R4, SKR4
ALK6	BMPR1B	ENSG00000138696	BMP receptor IB, CDw293
ALK7	ACVR1C	ENSG00000123612	Activin receptor 1C, ACTR-IC

The type II receptor serine/threonine kinases (ENSFM00500000269790).

Nomenclature	HGNC nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names
Activin receptor 2A	ACVR2A	ENSG00000121989	ACTR-IIA
Activin receptor 2B	ACVR2B	ENSG00000114739	ACTR-IIB
Anti-Mullerian hormone receptor-II	AMHR2	ENSG00000135409	-
BMP receptor 2	BMPR2	ENSG00000204217	-
TGFβ receptor II	TGFBR2	ENSG00000163513	TGFβR-II
TGFβ receptor III	TGFBR3	ENSG00000069702	Betaglycan

Smads were identified as mammalian orthologues of Drosophila genes termed 'mothers against decapentaplegic' and may be divided into Receptor-regulated Smads (R-Smads, including Smad1, Smad2, Smad3, Smad5 and Smad8), Co-mediated Smad (Co-Smad, Smad4) and Inhibitory Smads (I-Smad, Smad6 and Smad7). R-Smads form heteromeric complexes with Co-Smad. I-Smads compete for binding of R-Smad with both receptors and Co-Smad.

Nomenclature	HGNC nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names
Smad1	SMAD1	ENSG00000170365	JV4-1, MADH1, MADR1
Smad2	SMAD2	ENSG00000175387	JV18-1, MADH2, MADR2
Smad3	SMAD3	ENSG00000166949	HsT17436, JV15-2, MADH3
Smad4	SMAD4	ENSG00000141646	DPC4, MADH4
Smad5	SMAD5	ENSG00000113658	Dwfc, JV5-1, MADH5
Smad6	SMAD6	ENSG00000137834	HsT17432, MADH6, MADH7
Smad7	SMAD7	ENSG00000101665	MADH7, MADH8
Smad8	SMAD9	ENSG00000120693	MADH6, MADH9

Endogenous agonists are characterized by six conserved cysteine residues and are divided into two subfamilies on the basis of sequence comparison and signalling pathways activated: the TGF β /activin/nodal subfamily and the BMP/GDF (growth/differentiation factor)/MIS (Müllerian inhibiting substance) subfamily. Ligands active at RSTKs appear to be generated as large precursors which undergo complex maturation processes (see Li and Flavell, 2008). Some are known to form disulphide-linked homo- and/or heterodimeric complexes. Thus, inhibins are α subunits linked to a variety of β chains, while activins are combinations of β subunits.

Binding of TGFβ family members generate complexes of TGFβ receptor II or activin receptor 2B with ALK4, ALK5 or ALK7 and couple to Smad2 and Smad3 (see Shi and Massague, 2003). Binding of BMP family members generate complexes of BMP receptor 2, activin receptor 2A or activin receptor 2B with ALK1, ALK2, ALK3 or ALK6 and couple to Smad1, Smad5 and Smad8. Activins generate complexes of activin receptor 2A or activin receptor 2B with ALK2 (see Shi and Massague, 2003).

Nomenclature	HGNC nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names
BMP2	BMP2	ENSG00000125845	BMP2A
BMP3	BMP3	ENSG00000152785	
BMP4	BMP4	ENSG00000125378	BMP2B
BMP5	BMP5	ENSG00000112175	_
BMP6	BMP6	ENSG00000153162	VG1-related sequence, VGR1
BMP7	BMP7	ENSG00000101144	Osteogenic protein 1
ВМР8А	BMP8A	ENSG00000183682	-
ВМР8В	BMP8B	ENSG00000116985	BMP8, osteogenic protein 2; op2
ВМР9	GDF2	ENSG00000128802	Growth/differentiation factor 2
BMP10	BMP10	ENSG00000163217	-
BMP11	GDF11	ENSG00000135414	Growth/differentiation factor 11
BMP12	GDF7	ENSG00000143869	Growth differentiation factor 7
BMP13	GDF6	ENSG00000156466	Growth differentiation factor 6
BMP14	GDF5	ENSG00000125965	Growth differentiation factor 5, CDMP1
BMP15	BMP15	ENSG00000130385	Growth/differentiation factor 9b
GDF1	GDF1	ENSG00000130283	Growth/differentiation factor 1
GDF3	GDF3	ENSG00000184344	Growth/differentiation factor 3
GDF9	GDF9	ENSG00000164404	Growth/differentiation factor
GDF10	GDF10	ENSG00000107623	Growth/differentiation factor 10, BMP3b
GDF11	GDF11	ENSG00000130513	TGF-PL, MIC-1, MIC1, NAG-1, PDF, PLAB, PTGFB
Inhibin α	INHA	ENSG00000123999	-
Inhibin βA	INHBA	ENSG00000122641	Activin βA , follicle-stimulating hormone-releasing protein, erythroid differentiation factor
Inhibin βB	INHBB	ENSG00000163083	Activin βB
Inhibin βC	INHBC	ENSG00000175189	-
Inhibin βE	INHBE	ENSG00000139269	Activin, MGC4638
Myostatin	MSTN	ENSG00000138379	Growth/differentiation 8, GDF8
TGFβ1	TGFB1	ENSG00000105329	-
TGFβ2	TGFB2	ENSG00000092969	Glioblastoma-derived T-cell suppressor factor, G-TSF, BSC-1 cell grow inhibitor, polyergin, cetermin
TGFβ3	TGFB3	ENSG00000119699	-

BMP1 is a member of the tolloid-like family (ENSFM00570000851071) of metalloproteinases and does not signal through these receptors.

TGFβ family ligand signalling may be inhibited by endogenous proteins, such as follistatin (ENSG00000134363), which binds and neutralizes activins to prevent activation of the target receptors.

An appraisal of small molecule inhibitors of TGF\$\beta\$ and BMP signalling concluded that TGF\$\beta\$ pathway inhibitors were more selective than BMP signalling inhibitors (Vogt et al., 2011). The authors confirmed the selectivity of SB505124 to inhibit TGFβ signalling through ALK4, ALK5, ALK7 (Dacosta Byfield et al., 2004). Dorsomorphin inhibits BMP signalling through ALK2 and ALK3; it also inhibits AMP kinase (Zhou et al., 2001).

Abbreviations: SB505124, 2-(5-benzo[1,3]dioxol-5-yl-2-tert-butyl-3H-imidazol-4-yl)-6-methylpyridine hydrochloride

Further Reading

Bragdon B, Moseychuk O, Saldanha S, King D, Julian J, Nohe A (2011). Bone morphogenetic proteins: a critical review. Cell Signal 23: 609-620. Clarke DC, Liu X (2008). Decoding the quantitative nature of TGF-β/Smad signaling. Trends Cell Biol 18: 430–442.

Gatza CE, Oh SY, Blobe GC (2010). Roles for the type III TGF-β receptor in human cancer. Cell Signal 22: 1163-1174.

Kang JS, Liu C, Derynck R (2009). New regulatory mechanisms of TGF-β receptor function. Trends Cell Biol 19: 385–394.

Kardassis D, Murphy C, Fotsis T, Moustakas A, Stournaras C (2009). Control of transforming growth factor β signal transduction by small GTPases. FEBS J 276: 2947-2965.

Li MO, Flavell RA (2008). TGF-β: a master of all T cell trades. Cell 134: 392–404.

Miyazono K, Kamiya Y, Morikawa M (2010). Bone morphogenetic protein receptors and signal transduction. J Biochem 147: 35-51.

Pardali E, Goumans MJ, Ten DP (2010). Signaling by members of the TGF-β family in vascular morphogenesis and disease. Trends Cell Biol 20: 556-567.

Rider CC, Mulloy B (2010). Bone morphogenetic protein and growth differentiation factor cytokine families and their protein antagonists. *Biochem J* **429:** 1–12.

Shi Y, Massague J (2003). Mechanisms of TGF-beta signaling from cell membrane to the nucleus. *Cell* **113**: 685–700. Sprague AH, Khalil RA (2009). Inflammatory cytokines in vascular dysfunction and vascular disease. *Biochem Pharmacol* **78**: 539–552. Xia Y, Schneyer AL (2009). The biology of activin: recent advances in structure, regulation and function. *J Endocrinol* **202**: 1–12.

Xiao YT, Xiang LX, Shao JZ (2007). Bone morphogenetic protein. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 362: 550-553.

Yoshimura A, Wakabayashi Y, Mori T (2010). Cellular and molecular basis for the regulation of inflammation by TGF-β. *J Biochem* **147**: 781–792. Zeng S, Chen J, Shen H (2010). Controlling of bone morphogenetic protein signaling. *Cell Signal* **22**: 888–893.

References

Dacosta Byfield S *et al.* (2004). *Mol Pharmacol* **65**: 744–752. Vogt J *et al.* (2011). *Cell Signal* **23**: 1831–1842. Zhou G *et al.* (2001). *J Clin Invest* **108**: 1167–1174.

Receptor tyrosine kinases (E.C. 2.7.1.112)

Receptor tyrosine kinases (RTK)s are a family of 58 cell-surface receptors (see Grassot et al., 2003), which transduce signals to polypeptide and protein hormones, cytokines and growth factors, RTKs are of widespread interest not only through physiological functions, but also as drug targets in many types of cancer and other disease states. A high proportion of drugs exploiting these targets are biological, acting to block the receptor or chelate the ligand, thereby preventing the biological activity. RTKs are dimeric proteins and most structurally diverse in the extracellular region, but exhibit marked similarities in the hydrophobic transmembrane region and the intracellular protein tyrosine kinase domain, often split into two regions. Binding of agonist evokes autophosphorylation leading to the stimulation of multiple signal transduction pathways, including phospholipase C-γ (see Page S302), mitogen-activated protein kinases (see Page S310) and phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase.

ErbB (epidermal growth factor) receptor family

Overview: ErbB family receptors (ENSFM00410000138465) are Class I receptor tyrosine kinases (see Grassot et al., 2003). ErbB2 (also known as HER-2 or NEU, ENSG00000141736) appears to act as an essential partner for the other members of the family without itself being activated by a cognate ligand (Graus-Porta et al., 1997).

Nomenclature ErbB1 ErbB3 ErbB4

ENSG00000146648 Ensembl ID ENSG00000065361 ENSG00000178568

Other names EGF, HER1 HER3 HFR4

EGF, amphiregulin, betacellulin, **Endogenous ligands** NRG-1, NRG-2 Betacellulin, epiregulin, HB-EGF, NRG-1,

epigen, epiregulin, HB-EGF, TGFlphaNRG-2, NRG-3, NRG-4

[125] [126] F has been used to label the ErbB1 EGF receptor. The extracellular domain of ErbB2 can be targetted by the antibodies trastuzumab and pertuzumab to inhibit ErbB family action. The intracellular ATP-binding site of the tyrosine kinase domain can be inhibited by GW583340 (7.9–8.0, Gaul et al., 2003), gefitinib, erlotinib and tyrphostins AG879 and AG1478.

Ligands of the ErbB family of receptors are peptides including EGF (ENSG00000138798), amphiregulin (also known as colorectal cell-derived growth factor, ENSG00000109321), betacellulin (ENSG00000174808), epigen (ENSG00000182585), epiregulin (ENSG00000124882), heparinbinding EGF-like growth factor (HB-EGF or diphtheria toxin receptor, ENSG00000113070), neuregulins (NRG-1, also known as Neu differentiation factor, acetylcholine receptor-inducing activity, heregulin or glial growth factor, ENSG00000157168; NRG-2, ENSG00000158458; NRG-3, ENSG00000185737 and NRG-4, ENSG00000169752) and transforming growth factor- α (TGF α , ENSG00000163235). These ligands appear to be generated by proteolytic cleavage of cell-surface peptides.

Insulin receptor family

Overview: The circulating peptide hormones insulin and the related insulin-like growth factors (IGF) activate Class II receptor tyrosine kinases (see Grassot et al., 2003), to evoke cellular responses, mediated through multiple intracellular adaptor proteins. Exceptionally amongst the catalytic receptors, the functional receptor in the insulin receptor family is derived from a single gene product, cleaved post-translationally into two peptides, which then cross-link via disulphide bridges to form a heterotetramer. Intriguingly, the endogenous peptide ligands are formed in a parallel fashion with post-translational processing producing a heterodimer linked by disulphide bridges. Signalling through the receptors is mediated through a rapid autophosphorylation event at intracellular tyrosine residues, followed by recruitment of multiple adaptor proteins, notably IRS1 (ENSG00000169047), IRS2 (ENSG00000185950), Shc1 (ENSG00000160691), Grb2 (ENSG00000177885) and Sos1 (ENSG00000115904).

Nomenclature Insulin Insulin-like growth factor I **INSRR**

ENSG00000171105 ENSG00000140443 Ensembl ID ENSG00000027644

Other names CD220 antigen IGF-I receptor, CD221 antigen Insulin receptor-related protein, IRR

IGF1 (ENSG00000017427) **Endogenous ligands** Insulin (ENSG00000129965)

IGF2 (ENSG00000167244)

There is evidence for low potency binding and activation of insulin receptors by IGF1. IGF2 also binds and activates the cation-independent mannose 6-phosphate receptor (CI-MPR, insulin-like growth factor II receptor, 300 kDa mannose 6-phosphate receptor, MPR 300, CD222 antigen ENSG0000197081), which lacks classical signalling capacity and appears to subserve a trafficking role (Macdonald et al., 1988). INSRR, which has a much more discrete localization, being predominant in the kidney (Kurachi et al., 1992), currently lacks a cognate ligand or evidence

PQ401 inhibits the insulin-like growth factor receptor (Gable et al., 2006).

PDGF (platelet-derived growth factor) receptor family

Overview: PDGF receptors are Class III RTKs, which function as homo- or heterodimers.

Nomenclature	PDGFRα	PDGFRβ	KIT	CSF1R	FLT3
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000134853	ENSG00000113721	ENSG00000157404	ENSG00000182578	ENSG00000122025
Other names	Platelet-derived growth factor receptor α, CD140a, PDGFR2	Platelet-derived growth factor receptor β, CD140b, PDGFR1, JTK12, PDGFR	CD117, v-kit Hardy-Zuckerman 4 feline sarcoma viral oncogene homolog, C-Kit, PBT, stem cell growth factor receptor, SCFR	Colony stimulating factor 1 receptor, CD115, CSFR, C-FMS, FMS	FMS-related tyrosine kinase 3, CD135, FLK2, STK1
Endogenous ligands	PDGF	PDGF	SCF	CSF1, CSF2, CSF3	FLT3L

Endogenous ligands of PDGF receptors are homo- or heterodimeric: PDGFA (PDGF1, ENSG00000197461), PDGFB (SIS, SSV, ENSG00000100311), PDGFC (fallotein, SCDGF, ENSG00000145431) and PDGFD (IEGF, MSTP036, SCDGF-B, ENSG00000170962) combine as homo- or heterodimers to activate homo- or heterodimeric PDGF receptors. SCF (stem cell factor, KITLG, ENSG00000049130) is a dimeric ligand for KIT. CSF1R may be activated by colony stimulating factor 1 (macrophage-CSF, CSF1, ENSG00000184371), CSF2 (granulocyte-macrophage CSF, GM-CSF, ENSG00000164400) and CSF3 (ENSG00000108342). FLT3L is the cognate ligand of FLT3 (ENSG00000090554).

FGF (fibroblast growth factor) receptor family

Overview: Fibroblast growth factor (FGF) family receptors are members of the Ret family (ENSFM0025000000009), which respond to members of the FGF family. Ret (rearranged during transfection, ENSG00000165731, also known as CDHF12, CDHR16, HSCR1, MEN2A, MEN2B, MTC1, PTC, RET51) is a signalling partner for the GDNF family of receptors (see Page S194). FGF receptors function as homo- and heterodimers.

Nomenclature	FGFR1	FGFR2	FGFR3	FGFR4
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000077782	ENSG00000066468	ENSG00000068078	ENSG00000160867
Other names	CD331, BFGFR, CEK, FLG, FLT2, H2, H3, H4, H5, KAL2, N-SAM	CD332, BEK, CEK3, CFD1, ECT1, JWS, K-SAM, KGFR, TK14, TK25	CD333, ACH, CEK2, JTK4	CD334, JTK2
Endogenous ligands	FGF1, FGF2, FGF4 > FGF, FGF6 (Ornitz <i>et al.</i> , 1996)	FGF1 > FGF4, FGF7 FGF9 > FGF2, FGF6 (Ornitz <i>et al.</i> , 1996)	FGF1, FGF2, FGF9 > FGF4, FGF8 (Ornitz <i>et al.</i> , 1996)	FGF1, FGF2, FGF4, FGF9 > FGF6, FGF8 (Ornitz <i>et al.</i> , 1996)

Splice variation of the receptors can influence agonist responses.

FGFRL1 (ENSG00000127418) is a truncated kinase-null analogue. Mutations of Ret (and GDNF, see Page S194) genes may be involved in Hirschsprung's disease, which is characterized by the absence of intramural ganglion cells in the hindgut, often resulting in intestinal obstruction.

At least 22 members of the FGF gene family have been identified in the human genome (see Itoh and Ornitz, 2011). Within this group, subfamilies of FGF may be divided into canonical, intracellular and hormone-like FGFs. FGF1-FGF10 (ENSG00000113578, ENSG00000138685, ENSG00000186895, ENSG00000075388, ENSG00000138675, ENSG00000111241, ENSG00000140285, ENSG00000107831, ENSG00000102678, ENSG00000070193) have been identified to act through FGF receptors, while FGF11-14 appear to signal through intracellular targets. Other family members are less well characterized.

PD173074 has been described to inhibit FGFR1 and FGFR3 (Skaper et al., 2000).

VEGF (vascular endothelial growth factor) receptor family

Overview: VEGF receptors (ENSFM00440000236870) are homo- and heterodimeric proteins, which respond to VEGF proteins, some of which undergo proteolysis prior to receptor binding. Splice variants of VEGFR1 and VEGFR2 generate truncated proteins limited to the extracellular domains, capable of homodimerisation and binding VEGF ligands as a soluble, non-signalling entity.

^{5&#}x27;-Fluoroindirubinoxime has been described as a selective FLT3 inhibitor (Choi et al., 2010).

- 1					
-	Nomenclature	VEGFR1	VEGFR2	VEGFR3	
-	Ensembl ID	ENSG00000102755	ENSG00000128052	ENSG00000037280	
	Other names	FMS-like tyrosine kinase 1, FLT1	KDR, kinase insert domain protein receptor, CD309, FLK1	FMS-like tyrosine kinase 4, FLT4, PCL	
	Endogenous ligands	VEGFA, VEGFB	VEGFA, VEGFC, VEGFE	VEGFC, VEGFD, VEGFE	

Ligands at VEGF receptors are typically homodimeric: VEGFA (ENSG00000112715, also known as vascular permeability factor), VEGFB (ENSG00000173511, also known as VEGF-related factor or VRF), VEGFC (ENSG00000150630), VEGFD (ENSG00000165197, also known as c-fos induced growth factor, FIGF) or placental growth factor (ENSG00000119630, also known as PIGF). VEGFA is able to activate VEGFR1 homodimers, VEGFR1/2 heterodimers and VEGFR2/3 heterodimers. VEGFB and PIGF activate VEGFR1 homodimers, while VEGFC and VEGFD activate VEGFR2/3 heterodimers and VEGFR3 homodimers, and, following proteolysis, VEGFR2 homodimers.

HGF (hepatocyte growth factor) receptor family

Overview: HGF receptors regulate maturation of the liver in the embryo, as well as having roles in the adult, for example, in the innate immune system.

Nomenclature	HGFR	MST1R
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000105976	ENSG00000164078
Other names	MET, RCCP2, hepatocyte growth factor receptor	CD136, CDw136, PTK8, RON, macrophage stimulating 1 receptor , c-met-related tyrosine kinase
Endogenous ligands	HGF	MST1

Ligands at the HGF receptor family include HGF (ENSG00000019991, also known as hepapoietin A, scatter factor), synthesized as a single gene product, which is post-translationally processed to yield a heterodimer linked by a disulphide bridge. The maturation of HGF is enhanced by a serine proteinase, HGF activating complex (HGFAC, ENSG00000109758), and inhibited by HGF-A inhibitor 1, HAI (SPINT1, ENSG00000166145), a serine protease inhibitor. Macrophage stimulating protein 1 (MST1, ENSG00000173531, also known as hepatocyte growth factor-like) is a related gene.

SU11274 is an inhibitor of the HGF receptor (Sattler et al., 2003), with the possibility of further targets (Arena et al., 2007).

Neurotrophin receptor family

Overview: Various isoforms of neurotrophin receptors exist, including truncated forms of trkB and trkC, which lack catalytic domains. p75, which has homologies with tumour necrosis factor receptors (see Page S211), lacks a tyrosine kinase domain, but can signal via ceramide release and nuclear factor κΒ (NF-κΒ) activation. Both trkA and trkB contain two leucine-rich regions and can exist in monomeric or dimeric forms.

Nomenclature	trkA	trkB	trkC	p75
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000198400	ENSG00000148053	ENSG00000140538	ENSG00000064300
Other names	gp140 ^{trk} , high-affinity, slow-dissociating NGF receptor	gp145 ^{trkB}	gp145 ^{trkC}	p75 ^{NTR} , low-affinity neurotrophin receptor, NGFR
Endogenous ligands	NGF>NT3	BDNF, NT4/5>NT3	NT3	NGF, BDNF, NT3, NT4/5

[125I]-NGF and [125I]-BDNF have been used to label the trkA and trkB receptor, respectively. The selectivity of small molecule peptide mimetics of NGF has not been ascertained (Massa et al., 2003). There are, as yet, no selective antagonists, but activation can be blocked using anti-neurotrophin antisera or selective immunoadhesins that sequester neurotrophins (Shelton et al., 1995). p75 influences the binding of NGF and NT3 to trkA. The ligand selectivity of p75 appears to be dependent on the cell type; for example, in sympathetic neurones, it binds NT3 with comparable affinity to trkC (Dechant et al., 1997).

The endogenous ligands of neurotrophin receptors are small proteins (ca. 120 aa) and include nerve growth factor (NGF, ENSG00000134259), neurotrophin (NT) 3 (ENSG00000185652), NT4/5 (ENSG00000167744) and brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF, ENSG00000176697).

The intracellular tyrosine kinase activity of the trkA receptor can be inhibited by GW441756 (8.7, Wood et al., 2004) and tyrphostin AG879 (Ohmichi et al., 1993).

Ephrin receptor family

Ephrin receptors (ENSFM00250000000121) have a role in the regulation of neuronal development. Their ligands are membrane-associated proteins, although the relationship between ligands and receptors has been incompletely defined.

Nomenclature	EPHA1	EPHA2	ЕРНА3	EPHA4	EPHA5
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000146904	ENSG00000142627	ENSG00000044524	ENSG00000116106	ENSG00000145242
Other names	EPH, EPHT, EPHT1	ECK	ETK, ETK1, HEK, HEK4, TYRO4	Hek8, TYRO1	CEK7, EHK1, Hek7, TYRO4

Nomenclature	EPHA6	EPHA7	ЕРНА8	EPHA10
Ensembl ID Other names	ENSG00000080224	ENSG00000135333	ENSG00000070886	ENSG00000183317
	EHK2	EHK3, HEK11	EEK, HEK3	-

Nomenclature	EPHB1	EPHB2	EPHB3	EPHB4	EPHB6
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000154928	ENSG00000133216	ENSG00000182580	ENSG00000196411	ENSG00000106123
Other names	EPHT2, Hek6	DRT, EPHT3, ERK, Hek5, Tyro5	ETK2, Hek2, Tyro6	HTK, Tyro11	HEP

Ligands at the ephrin receptors may be divided into two families, ephrin A and ephrin B. Ephrin A are glycosylphosphatidylinositol-linked proteins: EFNA1 (ENSG00000169242, ECKLG, EPLG1, LERK1, TNFAIP4), EFNA2 (ENSG00000099617, ELF-1, EPLG6, LERK6), EFNA3 (ENSG00000143590, Ehk1-L, EPLG3, LERK3), EFNA4 (ENSG00000243364, EPLG4, LERK4) and EFNA5 (ENSG00000184349, AF1, EPLG7, LERK7). Ephrin B (ENSFM00250000002014) are single TM proteins: EFNB1 (ENSG00000090776), EFNB2 (ENSG00000125266) and EFNB3 (ENSG00000108947).

TAM (or AXL) receptor family

Members of this RTK family (ENSFM00500000269872) represented a novel structural motif, when sequenced. The ligands for this family are able to bind to negatively-charged surfaces of apoptotic cells.

Nomenclature	AXL	TYRO3	MERTK
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000167601	ENSG00000092445	ENSG00000153208
Other names	JTK11, UFO	Brt, Dtk, RSE, Sky, Tif	c-mer proto-oncogene tyrosine kinase, mer, RP38
Endogenous ligands	Gas6 (Nagata <i>et al.</i> , 1996), protein S (Stitt <i>et al.</i> , 1995)	Gas6 (Nagata <i>et al.</i> , 1996), protein S (Stitt <i>et al.</i> , 1995)	Gas6 (Nagata <i>et al.,</i> 1996)

Gas6 (ENSG00000183087, also known as growth arrest specific protein 6, AXLLG, AXSF) and protein S α (ENSG00000184500) are secreted plasma proteins which undergo vitamin K-dependent post-translational modifications through the generation of carboxyglutamate-rich domains.

Leukocyte tyrosine kinase (LTK) receptor family

The LTK family (ENSFM00500000270379) appear to lack endogenous ligands.

Nomenclature	LTK	ALK	ROS1
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000062524	ENSG00000171094	ENSG0000047936
Other names	Leukocyte tyrosine kinase, TYK1	Anaplastic lymphoma kinase, CD246	c-ros-1, MCF3

Crizotinib appears to be a selective ALK inhibitor acting on the tyrosine kinase activity (see Gerber and Minna, 2010).

TIE family of angiopoietin receptors

The TIE family (ENSFM00420000140591) were initially associated with formation of blood vessels and respond to angiopoietins.

TIE1 Nomenclature TIF2 Ensembl ID ENSG00000066056 ENSG00000120156 Other names Tyrosine kinase with immunoglobulin-like and TEK tyrosine kinase, endothelial, CD202b, VMCM, EGF-like domains 1, JTK14 VMCM1 **Endogenous ligands** Angiopoietin 1, angiopoietin 4

Endogenous ligands (ENSFM00500000269808) are angiopoietin 1 (ANGPT1, ENSG00000154188), angiopoietin 2 (Ang2, ENSG00000091879), and angiopoietin 4 (ANGPT4 ENSG00000101280) Related sequences include angiotensin protein-like 1 (ANGPTL1, ENSG00000116194, also known as angiopoietin 3) and ANGPTL7 (ENSG00000171819, AngX, CDT6). Angiopoietin 2 appears to act as an endogenous antagonist of angiopoietin 1 function.

DDR (collagen receptor) family

Overview: Collagen receptors (ENSFM00260000050411) are structurally-related membrane protein tyrosine kinases activated by collagen. Collagen is probably the most abundant protein in man, with at least 29 families of genes encoding proteins, which undergo splice variation and post-translational processing, and may exist in monomeric or polymeric forms, producing a triple-stranded, twine-like structure.

Nomenclature	DDR1	DDR2
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000204580	ENSG00000162733
Other names	Epithelial discoidin domain-containing receptor 1, epithelial discoidin domain receptor 1, neuroepithelial tyrosine kinase, cell adhesion kinase, TRK E, protein-tyrosine kinase RTK 6, HGK2, CD167 antigen-like family member A, CD167a antigen	Discoidin domain-containing receptor 2 Precursor (Discoidin domain receptor 2, receptor protein-tyrosine kinase TKT, tyrosine-protein kinase TYRO10, neurotrophic tyrosine kinase, receptor-related 3, CD167 antigen-like family member B, CD167b antigen

In man, principal family members include COL1A1 (ENSG00000108821), COL2A1 (ENSG00000139219), COL3A1 (ENSG00000168542) and COL4A1 (ENSG00000187498).

ROR family and other RTKs

Members of the ROR family (ENSFM00510000502747) appear to be activated by ligands complexing with other cell-surface proteins.

Nomenclature	ROR1	ROR2	MUSK	PTK7	RYK
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000185483	ENSG00000169071	ENSG00000030304	ENSG00000112655	ENSG00000163785
Other names	NTRKR1, receptor tyrosine kinase-like orphan receptor 1	BDB, BDB1, NTRKR2, receptor tyrosine kinase-like orphan receptor 2	Muscle, skeletal, receptor tyrosine kinase	CCK4	JTK5, JTK5A, RYK1

ROR1 and ROR2 appear to be activated by Wnt5a (ENSG00000114251) binding to a Frizzled receptor (see Page S51) and forming a cell-surface multiprotein complex (Grumolato et al., 2010). Agrin (AGRN, ENSG00000188157) forms a complex with LRP4 (ENSG00000134569) to activate MUSK (Kim et al., 2008). PTK7 and RYK also appear to interact with the Wnt signalling system (Fradkin et al., 2010; Puppo et al., 2011).

Abbreviations: BDNF, brain-derived neurotrophic factor; erlotinib, N-(3-ethynylphenyl)-6,7-bis(2-methoxyethoxy)quinazolin-4-amine, also known as OSI774; gefitinib, N-(3-chloro-4-fluoro-phenyl)-7-methoxy-6-(3-morpholin-4-ylpropoxy)quinazolin-4-amine, also known as ZD1839; GW441756, 1,3-dihydro-3-[(1-methyl-1*H*-indol-3-yl)methylene]-2*H*-pyrrolo[3,2-b]pyridin-2-one hydrochloride; GW583340, N-(3-chloro-4-[{3-2})methylene]-2*H*-pyrrolo[3,2-b]pyridin-2-one hydrochloride; GW583340, N-(3-chloro-4-[{3-2})methylene]-2*H* fluorophenyl]methoxy]phenyl)-6-(2-[{(2-[methylsulfonyl]ethyl)amino}methyl]-4-thiazolyl)-4-quinazolinamine dihydrochloride; IGF, insulinlike growth factor; NGF, nerve growth factor; PD173074, 1-tert-butyl-3-[2-[4-(diethylamino)butylamino]-6-(3,5-dimethoxyphenyl)pyrido[2,3d]pyrimidin-7-yl]urea; PQ401, 1-(5-chloro-2-methoxyphenyl)-3-(2-methylquinolin-4-yl)urea; tyrphostin AG1478, N-(3-chlorophenyl)-6,7dimethoxyquinazolin-4-amine hydrochloride; tyrphostin AG879, \(\alpha\)-cyano-(3,5-di-t-butyl-4-hydroxy)thiocinnamide

Further Reading

Acevedo VD, Ittmann M, Spencer DM (2009). Paths of FGFR-driven tumorigenesis. Cell Cycle 8: 580-588.

Acquaviva J, Wong R, Charest A (2009). The multifaceted roles of the receptor tyrosine kinase ROS in development and cancer. Biochim Biophys Acta 1795: 37-52.

Augustin HG, Koh GY, Thurston G, Alitalo K (2009). Control of vascular morphogenesis and homeostasis through the angiopoietin-Tie system. Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol 10: 165-177.

Avraham R, Yarden Y (2011). Feedback regulation of EGFR signalling: decision making by early and delayed loops. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol* 12: 104–117.

Banerjee A, Macdonald ML, Borgmann-Winter KE, Hahn CG (2010). Neuregulin 1-erbB4 pathway in schizophrenia: from genes to an interactome. *Brain Res Bull* 83: 132–139.

Baselga J, Swain SM (2009). Novel anticancer targets: revisiting ERBB2 and discovering ERBB3. Nat Rev Cancer 9: 463-475.

Beekman R, Touw IP (2010). G-CSF and its receptor in myeloid malignancy. Blood 115: 5131-5136.

Buonanno A (2010). The neuregulin signaling pathway and schizophrenia: from genes to synapses and neural circuits. *Brain Res Bull* 83: 122–131. da Cunha Santos G, Shepherd FA, Tsao MS (2011). EGFR mutations and lung cancer. *Annu Rev Pathol* 6: 49–69.

De Palma M, Naldini L (2009). Tie2-expressing monocytes (TEMs): novel targets and vehicles of anticancer therapy? *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1796: 5–10.

Eck MJ, Yun CH (2010). Structural and mechanistic underpinnings of the differential drug sensitivity of EGFR mutations in non-small cell lung cancer. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1804: 559–566.

Feigin ME, Muthuswamy SK (2009). ErbB receptors and cell polarity: new pathways and paradigms for understanding cell migration and invasion. *Exp Cell Res* 315: 707–716.

Ferguson KM (2008). Structure-based view of epidermal growth factor receptor regulation. Annu Rev Biophys 37: 353-373.

Fiske WH, Threadgill D, Coffey RJ (2009). ERBBs in the gastrointestinal tract: recent progress and new perspectives. *Exp Cell Res* **315**: 583–601. Frank-Raue K, Rondot S, Raue F (2010). Molecular genetics and phenomics of RET mutations: impact on prognosis of MTC. *Mol Cell Endocrinol* **322**: 2–7.

Fry WH, Kotelawala L, Sweeney C, Carraway KL III (2009). Mechanisms of ErbB receptor negative regulation and relevance in cancer. *Exp Cell Res* **315**: 697–706.

Garcia-Sainz JA, Romero-Avila MT, Medina LD (2010). Dissecting how receptor tyrosine kinases modulate G protein-coupled receptor function. *Eur J Pharmacol* **648**: 1–5.

Gerber DE, Minna JD (2010). ALK inhibition for non-small cell lung cancer: from discovery to therapy in record time. *Cancer Cell* 18: 548–551.

Giustina A, Mazziotti G, Canalis E (2008). Growth hormone, insulin-like growth factors, and the skeleton. *Endocr Rev* 29: 535–559.

Gow DJ, Sester DP, Hume DA (2010). CSF-1, IGF-1, and the control of postnatal growth and development. J Leukoc Biol 88: 475-481.

Grassot J, Mouchiroud G, Perriere G (2003). RTKdb: database of Receptor Tyrosine Kinase. Nucleic Acids Res 31: 353-358.

Green JL, Kuntz SG, Sternberg PW (2008). Ror receptor tyrosine kinases: orphans no more. Trends Cell Biol 18: 536-544.

Harada D, Yamanaka Y, Ueda K, Tanaka H, Seino Y (2009). FGFR3-related dwarfism and cell signaling. J Bone Miner Metab 27: 9-15.

Hato T, Tabata M, Oike Y (2008). The role of angiopoietin-like proteins in angiogenesis and metabolism. Trends Cardiovasc Med 18: 6-14.

Holt RI, Sonksen PH (2008). Growth hormone, IGF-I and insulin and their abuse in sport. Br J Pharmacol 154: 542-556.

Hu Y, Bouloux PM (2010). Novel insights in FGFR1 regulation: lessons from Kallmann syndrome. Trends Endocrinol Metab 21: 385-393.

Huang H, Bhat A, Woodnutt G, Lappe R (2010). Targeting the ANGPT-TIE2 pathway in malignancy. Nat Rev Cancer 10: 575-585.

Itoh N, Ornitz DM (2011). Fibroblast growth factors: from molecular evolution to roles in development, metabolism and disease. *J Biochem* **149**: 121–130.

Jaaro-Peled H, Hayashi-Takagi A, Seshadri S, Kamiya A, Brandon NJ, Sawa A (2009). Neurodevelopmental mechanisms of schizophrenia: understanding disturbed postnatal brain maturation through neurogulin-1-ErbB4 and DISC1. *Trends Neurosci* 32: 485–495.

Kadomatsu T, Tabata M, Oike Y (2011). Angiopoietin-like proteins: emerging targets for treatment of obesity and related metabolic diseases. *FEBS J* 278: 559–564.

Kalkman HO (2009). Altered growth factor signaling pathways as the basis of aberrant stem cell maturation in schizophrenia. *Pharmacol Ther* 121: 115–122.

Karam CS, Ballon JS, Bivens NM, Freyberg Z, Girgis RR, Lizardi-Ortiz JE et al. (2010). Signaling pathways in schizophrenia: emerging targets and therapeutic strategies. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 31: 381–390.

Klein R (2009). Bidirectional modulation of synaptic functions by Eph/ephrin signaling. *Nat Neurosci* 12: 15–20.

Kleinberg DL, Wood TL, Furth PA, Lee AV (2009). Growth hormone and insulin-like growth factor-I in the transition from normal mammary development to preneoplastic mammary lesions. *Endocr Rev* 30: 51–74.

Knights V, Cook SJ (2010). De-regulated FGF receptors as therapeutic targets in cancer. *Pharmacol Ther* **125**: 105–117.

Koch S, Tugues S, Li X, Gualandi L, Claesson-Welsh L (2011). Signal transduction by vascular endothelial growth factor receptors. *Biochem J* **437**: 169–183.

Kosaka N, Sakamoto H, Terada M, Ochiya T (2009). Pleiotropic function of FGF-4: its role in development and stem cells. *Dev Dyn* 238: 265–276. Laron Z (2008). Insulin – a growth hormone. *Arch Physiol Biochem* 114: 11–16.

Lemke G, Rothlin CV (2008). Immunobiology of the TAM receptors. Nat Rev Immunol 8: 327-336.

Lemmon MA, Schlessinger J (2010). Cell signaling by receptor tyrosine kinases. Cell 141: 1117–1134.

Lichtenstein L, Kersten S (2010). Modulation of plasma TG lipolysis by Angiopoietin-like proteins and GPIHBP1. *Biochim Biophys Acta* **1801**: 415–420.

Lin SX, Chen J, Mazumdar M, Poirier D, Wang C, Azzi A et al. (2010). Molecular therapy of breast cancer: progress and future directions. Nat Rev Endocrinol 6: 485–493.

Lu X, Kang Y (2010). Epidermal growth factor signalling and bone metastasis. Br J Cancer 102: 457-461.

Masson K, Ronnstrand L (2009). Oncogenic signaling from the hematopoietic growth factor receptors c-Kit and Flt3. *Cell Signal* 21: 1717–1726. Minami Y, Oishi I, Endo M, Nishita M (2010). Ror-family receptor tyrosine kinases in noncanonical Wnt signaling: their implications in developmental morphogenesis and human diseases. *Dev Dyn* 239: 1–15.

Morandi A, Plaza-Menacho I, Isacke CM (2011). RET in breast cancer: functional and therapeutic implications. *Trends Mol Med* 17: 149–157. Nakamura T, Sakai K, Nakamura T, Matsumoto K (2011). Hepatocyte growth factor twenty years on: much more than a growth factor. *J Gastroenterol Hepatol* 26 (Suppl. 1): 188–202.

Nishita M, Enomoto M, Yamagata K, Minami Y (2010). Cell/tissue-tropic functions of Wnt5a signaling in normal and cancer cells. *Trends Cell Biol* 20: 346–354.

Pasquale EB (2008). Eph-ephrin bidirectional signaling in physiology and disease. Cell 133: 38-52.

Pines G, Kostler WJ, Yarden Y (2010). Oncogenic mutant forms of EGFR: lessons in signal transduction and targets for cancer therapy. *FEBS Lett* **584**: 2699–2706.

Pitulescu ME, Adams RH (2010). Eph/ephrin molecules-a hub for signaling and endocytosis. Genes Dev 24: 2480-2492.

Plant AL, Bhadriraju K, Spurlin TA, Elliott JT (2009). Cell response to matrix mechanics: focus on collagen. *Biochim Biophys Acta* **1793**: 893–902. Pyne NJ, Pyne S (2011). Receptor tyrosine kinase-G-protein-coupled receptor signalling platforms: out of the shadow? *Trends Pharmacol Sci* **32**: 443–450.

Ratushny V, Astsaturov I, Burtness BA, Golemis EA, Silverman JS (2009). Targeting EGFR resistance networks in head and neck cancer. *Cell Signal* 21: 1255–1268.

Schneider MR, Sibilia M, Erben RG (2009). The EGFR network in bone biology and pathology. Trends Endocrinol Metab 20: 517-524.

Sharif A, Prevot V (2010). ErbB receptor signaling in astrocytes: a mediator of neuron-glia communication in the mature central nervous system. Neurochem Int 57: 344-358.

Shoulders MD, Raines RT (2009). Collagen structure and stability. Annu Rev Biochem 78: 929-958.

Sorkin A. Goh LK (2009). Endocytosis and intracellular trafficking of ErbBs. Exp. Cell Res. 315: 683–696.

Takano H, Ueda K, Hasegawa H, Komuro I (2007). G-CSF therapy for acute myocardial infarction. Trends Pharmacol Sci 28: 512–517.

Underwood CK, Coulson EJ (2008). The p75 neurotrophin receptor. Int J Biochem Cell Biol 40: 1664-1668.

Velloso CP (2008). Regulation of muscle mass by growth hormone and IGF-I. Br J Pharmacol 154: 557-568.

Villegas SN, Canham M, Brickman JM (2010). FGF signalling as a mediator of lineage transitions – evidence from embryonic stem cell differentiation. J Cell Biochem 110: 10-20.

Wesche J, Haglund K, Haugsten EM (2011). Fibroblast growth factors and their receptors in cancer. Biochem J 437: 199-213.

Wieduwilt MJ, Moasser MM (2008). The epidermal growth factor receptor family: biology driving targeted therapeutics. Cell Mol Life Sci 65:

Wilson KJ, Gilmore JL, Foley J, Lemmon MA, Riese DJ (2009). Functional selectivity of EGF family peptide growth factors; implications for cancer. Pharmacol Ther 122: 1-8.

Wu X, Liu N (2010). The role of Ang/Tie signaling in lymphangiogenesis. Lymphology 43: 59-72.

Xu AM, Huang PH (2010). Receptor tyrosine kinase coactivation networks in cancer. Cancer Res 70: 3857–3860.

Xu J, Messina JL (2009). Crosstalk between growth hormone and insulin signaling. Vitam Horm 80: 125-153.

Zeng F, Singh AB, Harris RC (2009). The role of the EGF family of ligands and receptors in renal development, physiology and pathophysiology. Exp Cell Res 315: 602-610.

References

Arena S et al. (2007). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 104: 11412-11417. Choi SJ et al. (2010). Bioorg Med Chem Lett 20: 2033-2037. Dechant G et al. (1997). J Neurosci 17: 5281-5287. Fradkin LG et al. (2010). Trends Neurosci 33: 84-92. Gable KL et al. (2006). Mol Cancer Ther 5: 1079-1086. Gaul MD et al. (2003). Bioorg Med Chem Lett 13: 637-640. Graus-Porta D et al. (1997). EMBO J 16: 1647-1655. Grumolato L et al. (2010). Genes Dev 24: 2517-2530. Kim N et al. (2008). Cell 135: 334-342. Kurachi H et al. (1992). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 187: 934-939. MacDonald RG et al. (1988). Science 239: 1134-1137.

Massa SM et al. (2003). J Mol Neurosci 20: 323-326. Nagata K et al. (1996). J Biol Chem 271: 30022-30027. Ohmichi M et al. (1993). Biochemistry 32: 4650-4658. Ornitz DM et al. (1996). I Biol Chem 271: 15292-15297. Puppo F et al. (2011). EMBO Rep 12: 43-49. Sattler M et al. (2003). Cancer Res 63: 5462-5469. Stitt TN et al. (1995). Cell 80: 661-670. Shelton DL et al. (1995). J Neurosci 15: 477-491. Skaper SD et al. (2000). J Neurochem 75: 1520-1527. Wood ER et al. (2004). Bioorg Med Chem Lett 14: 953-957.

Receptor tyrosine phosphatases (RTP, EC 3.1.3.48)

Overview: receptor tyrosine phosphatases (RTP) are cell-surface proteins with a single TM region and intracellular phosphotyrosine phosphatase activity. Many family members exhibit constitutive activity in heterologous expression, dephosphorylating intracellular targets such as Src tyrosine kinase (ENSG00000197122) to activate signalling cascades. Family members bind components of the extracellular matrix or cell-surface proteins indicating a role in intercellular communication.

Nomenclature	HGNC nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names
Туре А	PTPRA	ENSG00000132670	Leukocyte common antigen-related peptide, HLPR, HPTPA, LRP, PTPA, PTPRL2, RPTPA
Туре В	PTPRB	ENSG00000127329	R-PTP-beta, vascular endothelial protein tyrosine phosphatase, VEPTP
Туре С	PTPRC	ENSG00000081237	CD45, T200 leukocyte common antigen, gp180
Type D	PTPRD	ENSG00000153707	HPTP, R-PTP-delta
Type E	PTPRE	ENSG00000132334	PTPE, R-PTP-epsilon
Type F	PTPRF	ENSG00000142949	Leukocyte antigen-related PTP receptor, LAR
Type G	PTPRG	ENSG00000144724	R-PTP-gamma
Туре Н	PTPRH	ENSG00000080031	Stomach cancer-associated protein tyrosine phosphatase 1, SAP1
Type J	PTPRJ	ENSG00000149177	R-PTP-eta, CD148, density-enhanced phosphatase 1, DEP1, susceptibilit to colon cancer 1 homologue, SCC1
Туре К	PTPRK	ENSG00000152894	R-PTP-kappa
Туре М	PTPRM	ENSG00000173482	R-PTP-mu, PTPRL1, RPTPM, RPTPU, hR-PTPu
Type N	PTPRN	ENSG00000054356	Islet cell antigen 2, IA-2
Type N2	PTPRN2	ENSG00000155093	Islet cell antigen 2β, IA-2β, phogrin, ICAAR
Type O	PTPRO	ENSG00000151490	PTP-phi, PTPase U2, glomerular epithelial protein 1, GLEPP1, osteoclast transmembrane protein-tyrosine phosphatase, NPHS6, PTP-OC
Type Q	PTPRQ	ENSG00000139304	PTPGMC1
Type R	PTPRR	ENSG00000153233	Ch-1 PTPase; NC-PTPCOM1; R-PTP-R; ch-1PTPase, EC-PTP, PCPTP1, PTP-SL, PTPBR7, PTPRQ
Type S	PTPRS	ENSG00000105426	R-PTP-sigma
Туре Т	PTPRT	ENSG00000196090	RPTP-rho
Type U	PTPRU	ENSG00000060656	R-PTP-psi, pancreatic carcinoma phosphatase 2, PCP-2, PTPU2
Type Z1	PTPRZ1	ENSG00000106278	Phosphacan, R-PTP-zeta-2, PTP18, PTPRZ, PTPZ, RPTPB, RPTPZ2

Further Reading

Granot-Attas S, Elson A (2008). Protein tyrosine phosphatases in osteoclast differentiation, adhesion, and bone resorption. *Eur J Cell Biol* 87: 479–490.

Hendriks WJ, Dilaver G, Noordman YE, Kremer B, Fransen JA (2009). PTPRR protein tyrosine phosphatase isoforms and locomotion of vesicles and mice. *Cerebellum* 8: 80–88.

Hermiston ML, Zikherman J, Zhu JW (2009). CD45, CD148, and Lyp/Pep: critical phosphatases regulating Src family kinase signaling networks in immune cells. *Immunol Rev* 228: 288–311.

Schmitt I, Bitoun E, Manto M (2009). PTPRR, cerebellum, and motor coordination. Cerebellum 8: 71-73.

Torii S (2009). Expression and function of IA-2 family proteins, unique neuroendocrine-specific protein-tyrosine phosphatases. *Endocr J* 56: 639–648.

Vang T, Miletic AV, Arimura Y, Tautz L, Rickert RC, Mustelin T (2008). Protein tyrosine phosphatases in autoimmunity. *Annu Rev Immunol* 26: 29–55.

Tumour necrosis factor (TNF) family

Overview: The TNF receptor superfamily (TNFRSF) displays limited homology beyond an extracellular domain rich in cysteine residues and is activated by at least 18 different human homologues of TNF referred to as the TNF superfamily (TNFSF). Some homologues lacking transmembrane and cytoplasmic domains function as decoy receptors binding ligand without inducing cell signalling. Many of these receptors and ligands function as multimeric entities. Signalling through these receptors is complex and involves interaction with cytoplasmic adaptor proteins (such as TRADD and TRAF1). Several of these receptors contain cytoplasmic motifs known as 'death domains', which upon activation serve to recruit death domain- and death effector domain-containing proteins crucial for the initiation of an apoptotic response. Additional signalling pathways include the regulation of the nuclear factor κB or mitogen-activated protein kinase (see Page S310) pathways. Pharmacological manipulation of these receptors is mainly enacted through chelating the endogenous agonists with humanised monoclonal antibodies (e.g. infliximab or adalimumab) or recombinant fusion proteins of IgG and soluble receptors (e.g. etanercept). Some mutated forms of TNF ligands are capable of selecting for different receptor subtypes.

Nomenclature	Other names	Ensembl ID	Adaptor proteins	Endogenous ligands
TNFRSF1A	TNFR1, CD120a, p55TNFR, TNFAR, TNFR60	ENSG00000067182	TRADD	TNFSF1, TNFSF2
TNFRSF1B	TNFR2, CD120b, p75TNFR, p80, TNFBR	ENSG00000028137	TRAF1, 2, 5	TNFSF1, TNFSF2
TNFRSF3	TNFR III, LTBR, TNFCR, TNFR-RP, TNFR2-RP, CD18	ENSG00000111321	TRAF3, 4, 5	TNFSF3, TNFSF14
TNFRSF4	OX-40, ACT35, TXGP1L, CD134	ENSG00000186827	TRAF1, 2, 3, 5	TNFSF4
TNFRSF5	CD40, Bp50, p50	ENSG00000101017	TRAF1, 2, 3, 5, 6	TNFSF5
TNFRSF6	Fas, CD95, APO-1, APT1, TNFRSF6A	ENSG00000026103	FADD	TNFSF6
TNFRSF7	CD27, S152, Tp55, T14	ENSG00000139193	TRAF2, SIVA	TNFSF7
TNFRSF8	CD30, Ki-1	ENSG00000120949	TRAF1, 2, 3, 5	TNFSF8
TNFRSF9	4-1BB, CDw137, ILA	ENSG00000049249	TRAF1, 2, 3	TNFSF9
TNFRSF10A	DR4, TNF-related apoptosis-inducing ligand receptor 1, TRAIL-R1, APO-2, CD261	ENSG00000104689	FADD	TNFSF10
TNFRSF10B	DR5, TNF-related apoptosis-inducing ligand receptor 2, TRAIL-R2, KILLER, CD262, TRICK2A, TRICKB	ENSG00000120889	FADD	TNFSF10
TNFRSF11A	Receptor activator of NF-κB, RANK, osteoclast differentiation factor receptor, ODFR, TRANCE-R, CD265	ENSG00000141655	TRAF1, 2, 3, 5, 6	TNFSF11
TNFRSF11B	Osteoprotegerin, OPG, osteoclastogenesis inhibitory factor, OCIF, TR1	ENSG00000164761	_	TNFSF11
TNFRSF12	TRS, WSL-1, LARD, WSL-LR, apoptosis-mediating receptor DR3, apoptosis-mediating receptor TRAMP, death domain receptor 3	ENSG00000171680	TRADD	TNFSF15, TNFSF12
TNFRSF12A	TWEAK-R, Fn14, FGF-inducible 14, CD266 antigen	ENSG00000006327	TRAF1, 2, 3, 5	TNFSF12
TNFRSF13B	Transmembrane activator and CAML interactor, TACI, CD267	ENSG00000108516	TRAF2, 5, 6	TNFSF13B
TNFRSF13C	B cell-activating factor receptor, BAFF-R, CD268, BR3	ENSG00000159958	TRAF3	TNFSF13B
TNFRSF14	Herpesvirus entry mediator A, HVEM, tumour necrosis factor receptor-like 2, TR2, LIGHT-R, ATAR, HVEA	ENSG00000157873	TRAF1,2,3,5	TNFSF14, TNFSF1, BTI
TNFRSF16	Low affinity nerve growth factor receptor, NGF receptor, Gp80-LNGFR, p75, p75 ^{NTR} , NGF-R, NTR, CD271	ENSG00000064300	TRAF2, 4, 6	NGF, BDNF, NT-3, NT-
TNFRSF17	BCMA, BCM, TNFRSF13, TNFRSF13a, CD269	ENSG00000048462	TRAF1,2,3,5,6	TNFSF13B, TNFSF13
TNFRSF18	Glucocorticoid-induced TNFR-related protein, GITR, activation-inducible TNFR family receptor, AITR	ENSG00000186891	TRAF1, 2, 3	TNFSF18
TNFRSF19	Toxicity and JNK inducer, TAJ, TROY, TAJ- α , TRADE	ENSG00000127863	TRAF1,2,3,5	
TNFRSF19L	Receptor expressed in lymphoid tissues, RELT	ENSG00000054967	TRAF1	
TNFRSF21	Death receptor 6, DR6	ENSG00000146072	TRADD	
TNFRSF22	SOBa; Tnfrh2, Tnfrsf1al2, mDcTrailr2	ENSMUSG00000010751	_	
TNFRSF23	mSOB, Tnfrh1, mDcTrailr1	ENSMUSG00000037613	_	
TNFRSF27	X-linked ectodysplasin-A2 receptor, EDA-A2 receptor	ENSG00000131080	_	

TNFRSF1A is preferentially activated by the shed form of TNF ligand, whereas the membrane-bound form of TNF serves to activate TNFRSF1A and TNFRSF1B equally.

TNFRSF6B (ENSG00000026036, also known as the decoy receptor for Fas ligand (DcR3), TR6, M68) acts as a non-functional target for TNFSF14, TNFSF15 and TNFSF6. TNFRSF10C (ENSG00000173535, also known as decoy receptor 1, DcR1, decoy TRAIL receptor without death domain, TNF-related apoptosis-inducing ligand receptor 3, TRAIL-R3, LIT, TRID, CD263) and TNFRSF10D (ENSG00000173530, also known as decoy receptor 2, DcR2, TNF-related apoptosis-inducing ligand receptor 4, TRAIL-R4, TRUNDD, CD264) act as non-functional targets for TNFSF10.

The tumour necrosis factor ligand superfamily includes TNFSF1 (ENSG00000204496, TNF β , lymphotoxin- α , LT α), TNFSF2 (ENSG00000204490, TNF, TNF α , cachectin, necrosin, cytotoxin, DIF), TNFSF3 (ENSG00000206327 TNFC, LTB, lymphotoxin- β , LT β), TNFSF4 (ENSG00000117586, OX-40 ligand, CD252, glycoprotein Gp34, TAX transcriptionally-activated glycoprotein 1, TXGP-1), TNFSF5 (ENSG00000102245, CD40 ligand, CD154, gp39, TNF-related activation protein, TRAP), TNFSF6 (ENSG00000117560, Fas ligand, CD95L, CD178, ApoI L, Apoptosis antigen ligand), TNFSF7 (ENSG00000125726, CD70, CD27 ligand, Ki-24), TNFSF8 (ENSG00000106952, CD30 ligand, CD153), TNFSF9 (ENSG00000125657, 4-1BB ligand, CDw137L), TNFSF10 (ENSG00000121858, TRAIL, Apo-2 ligand (Apo-2L), TL2, CD253), TNFSF11 (ENSG00000120659, Receptor activator of nuclear factor κB ligand, RANKL, TNF-related activation-induced cytokine, TRANCE, osteoprotegerin ligand, OPGL, osteoclast differentiation factor, ODF, CD254 antigen), TNFSF12 (TNF-related weak inducer of apoptosis, TWEAK, Apo-3 ligand, Apo3L, CD255), TNFSF13 (ENSG00000161955, APRIL, TALL2, TRDL-1, ZTNF2, TNFSF13A, CD256), TNFSF13B (ENSG00000102524, zTNF4, THANK, TNF- and APOL-related leukocyte expressed ligand 1, TALL-1, B lymphocyte stimulator, BLyS, B cell-activating factor, BAFF, dendritic cell-derived TNF-like molecule, DTL, CD257 antigen), TNFSF14 (ENSG00000125735, LIGHT, LTg, TR2, Herpesvirus entry mediator-ligand, CD258), TNFSF15 (ENSG00000181634, TL1,TL1A,VEGI, vascular endothelial cell growth inhibitor, TNF ligand-related molecule 1), and TNFSF18 (ENSG00000120337, TL6, glucocorticoid- induced TNF-related ligand, activation-inducible TNF-related ligand).

Abbreviations: BDNF, brain-derived neurotrophic factor (ENSG00000176697); BTLA, B- and T-lymphocyte attenuator (ENSG00000186265); FADD, Fas-associated death domain (ENSG00000168040); NT-3, neurotrophin-3 (ENSG00000185652); NT-4, neurotrophin-4 (ENSG00000167744); SIVA, ENSG00000184990; TRADD, TNF receptor-associated death domain (ENSG00000102871); TRAF, TNF receptor-associated factor (ENSF00000000597)

Further Reading

Cretney E, Takeda K, Smyth MJ (2007). Cancer: novel therapeutic strategies that exploit the TNF-related apoptosis-inducing ligand (TRAIL)/ TRAIL receptor pathway. *Int J Biochem Cell Biol* 39: 280–286.

Croft M (2005). The evolving crosstalk between co-stimulatory and co-inhibitory receptors: HVEM-BTLA. Trends Immunol 26: 292-294.

Elewaut D, Ware CF (2007). The unconventional role of LT $\alpha\beta$ in T cell differentiation. Trends Immunol 28: 169–175.

Paul AT, Gohil VM, Bhutani KK (2006). Modulating TNF-α signaling with natural products. Drug Discov Today 11: 725–732.

Popa C, Netea MG, van Riel PL, van der Meer JW, Stalenhoef AF (2007). The role of TNF-α in chronic inflammatory conditions, intermediary metabolism, and cardiovascular risk. *I Lipid Res* **48**: 751–762.

Scott DL, Kingsley GH (2006). Tumor necrosis factor inhibitors for rheumatoid arthritis. N Engl J Med 355: 704–712.

Shen HM, Pervaiz S (2006). TNF receptor superfamily-induced cell death: redox-dependent execution. FASEB J 20: 1589–1598.

Sriram K, O'Callaghan JP (2007). Divergent roles for tumor necrosis factor-α?in the brain. J Neuroimmune Pharmacol 2: 140–153.

Tracey D, Klareskog L, Sasso EH, Salfeld JG, Tak PP (2008). Tumor necrosis factor antagonist mechanisms of action: a comprehensive review. *Pharmacol Ther* 117: 244–279.

Wullaert A, van Loo G, Heyninck K, Beyaert R (2007). Hepatic tumor necrosis factor signaling and nuclear factor-κB: effects on liver homeostasis and beyond. *Endocr Rev* 28: 365–386.

TRANSPORTERS

Overview: The majority of biological solutes are charged organic or inorganic molecules. Cellular membranes are hydrophobic and, therefore, effective barriers to separate them allowing the formation of gradients, which can be exploited, for example, in the generation of energy. Membrane transporters carry solutes across cell membranes, which would otherwise be impermeable to them. The energy required for active transport processes is obtained from ATP turnover or by exploiting ion gradients.

ATP-driven transporters can be divided into three major classes: P-type ATPases; F-type and V-type ATPases and ATP-binding cassette transporters. The first of these, P-type ATPases, are multimeric proteins, which transport (primarily) inorganic cations. The second, F-type or V-type ATPases, are proton-coupled motors, which can function either as transporters or as motors. Last, are ATP-binding cassette transporters, heavily involved in drug disposition as well as transporting endogenous solutes.

The second largest family of membrane proteins in the human genome, after the G protein-coupled receptors, are the SLC solute carrier family. Within the solute carrier family, there are not only a great variety of solutes transported, from simple inorganic ions to amino acids and sugars to relatively complex organic molecules like haem. The solute carrier family includes 48 families of almost 400 members, many of whom remain orphan transporters, in as much as a physiological function has yet to be determined. The SLC transporters include members which function as antiports, where solute movement in one direction is balanced by a solute moving in the reverse direction. Symports allow concentration gradients of one solute to allow movement of a second solute across a membrane. A third, relatively small group are equilibrative transporters, which allow solutes to travel across membranes down their concentration gradients. A more complex family of transporters, the SLC27 fatty acid transporters also express enzymatic function. Many of the transporters also express electrogenic properties of ion channels.

S214 ATP-binding cassette family Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

ATP-binding cassette family

Overview: ATP-binding cassette transporters are ubiquitous membrane proteins characterized by facilitated movement of a range of substrates, including ions, lipids, peptides, steroids. The functional transporter is probably dimeric, with individual subunits typically made up of two groups of 6TM-spanning domains, with two nucleotide-binding domains (NBD). The majority of eukaryotic ABC transporters are 'full' transporters incorporating both TM and NBD entities. Some ABCs, notably the ABCD and ABCG families, appear relatively truncated and are only functional as homo- or heterodimers. Eukaryotic ABC transporters convey substrates from the cytoplasm, either out of the cell or into intracellular organelles. Their role in the efflux of exogenous compounds, notably chemotherapeutic agents, has led to considerable interest.

ABCA subfamily

Systematic name	Common abbreviation	Other names	Ensembl ID	Comments
ABCA1	ABC1, CERP	Cholesterol efflux regulatory protein	ENSG00000165029	Loss-of-function mutations are associated with Tangier disease, in which plasma HDL cholesterol levels are greatly reduced
ABCA2	ABC2	-	ENSG00000107331	_
ABCA3	ABC3, ABCC	-	ENSG00000167972	Loss-of-function mutations are associated with pulmonary surfactant deficiency
ABCA4	ABCR	Retinal-specific ATP-binding cassette transporter, RIM ABC transporter, RmP, Stargardt disease protein	ENSG00000198691	Retinal-specific transporter of <i>N</i> -retinylPE; loss-of-function mutations are associated with Stargardt disease, a juvenile onset macular degenerative disease
ABCA5	_	-	ENSG00000154265	-
ABCA6	_	-	ENSG00000154262	-
ABCA7	-	_	ENSG00000064687	Genome wide association studies identify ABCA7 variants as associated with Alzheimer's Disease (Hollingworth <i>et al.</i> , 2011)
ABCA8	_	KIAA0822	ENSG00000141338	-
ABCA9	_	-	ENSG00000154258	-
ABCA10	_	-	ENSG00000154263	-
ABCA12	-	-	ENSG00000144452	Reported to play a role in skin ceramide formation (Zuo <i>et al.</i> , 2008)
ABCA13	_	-	ENSG00000179869	-

A number of structural analogues are not found in man: ABCA14 (ENSMUSG00000062017); ABCA15 (ENSMUSG00000054746); ABCA16 (ENSMUSG00000051900) and ABCA17 (ENSMUSG00000035435).

ABCB subfamily

Systematic name	Common abbreviation	Other names	Ensembl ID	Comments
ABCB1	MDR1, PGP1	Multi-drug resistance protein 1, P-glycoprotein 1, CD243 antigen	ENSG00000085563	Responsible for the cellular export of many therapeutic drugs
ABCB2	TAP1	Antigen peptide transporter 1, APT1, peptide transporter TAP1, peptide supply factor 1 (PSF-1), peptide transporter involved in antigen processing 1	ENSG00000168394	Endoplasmic reticulum, possibly as heterodimer with TAP2
ABCB3	TAP2	Antigen peptide transporter 2 (APT2), Peptide transporter TAP2, peptide supply factor 2 (PSF-2), peptide transporter involved in antigen processing 2	ENSG00000204267	Endoplasmic reticulum, possibly as heterodimer with TAP1
ABCB4	PGY3	Multi-drug resistance protein 3, P-glycoprotein 3	ENSG00000005471	Transports phosphatidylcholine from intracellular to extracellular face of the hepatocyte canalicular membrane (Oude Elferink and Paulusma, 2007)
ABCB5	_	-	ENSG00000004846	Multidrug resistance protein in, and marker of, melanoma cells (Schatton <i>et al</i> . 2008)
ABCB6	MTABC3	Mitochondrial ABC transporter 3, ubiquitously expressed mammalian ABC half transporter, P-glycoprotein-related protein	ENSG00000115657	Mitochondrial porphyrin transporter (Krishnamurthy <i>et al.,</i> 2006)
ABCB7	ABC7	-	ENSG00000131269	Mitochondrial; reportedly essential for haematopoiesis (Pondarre <i>et al.</i> 2007)
ABCB8	MABC1	-	ENSG00000197150	Mitochondrial; suggested to play a role in chemoresistance of melanoma (Elliott and Al-Hajj, 2009)
ABCB9	TAPL	TAP-like protein, hABCB9	ENSG00000150967	Reported to be lysosomal (Kamakura <i>et al.</i> , 2008)
ABCB10	MTABC2	Mitochondrial ABC transporter 2	ENSG00000135776	Mitochondrial
ABCB11	ABC16	Bile salt export pump, BSEP, PFIC-2, PFIC2, PGY4, SPGP	ENSG00000073734	Loss-of-function mutations are associated with familial intrahepati cholestasis (Stieger, 2009)

ABCC subfamily

Systematic name	·		Ensembl ID	Comments
ABCC1	MRP1	Multidrug resistance-associated protein 1, leukotriene C ₄ transporter	ENSG00000103222	Exhibits a broad substrate specificity (Bakos and Homolya, 2007)
ABCC2	MRP2, cMOAT	Multidrug resistance-associated protein 2, canalicular multispecific organic anion transporter 1, canalicular multidrug resistance protein	ENSG00000023839	Loss-of-function mutations are associated with Dubin-Johnson syndrome, in which plasma levels of conjugated bilirubin are elevated
ABCC3	MRP3	Multidrug resistance-associated protein 3, canalicular multispecific organic anion transporter 2, multi-specific organic anion transporter-D, MOAT-D	ENSG00000108846	Transports conjugates of glutathione, sulfate or glucuronide (see Borst <i>et al.</i> , 2007)
ABCC4	MRP4	Multidrug resistance-associated protein 4, multi-specific organic anion transporter-B, MOAT-B	ENSG00000125257	Although reported to facilitate cellular cyclic nucleotide export, this role has been questioned (see Borst <i>et al.</i> , 2007); reported to export prostaglandins in a manner sensitive to NSAIDS (Reid <i>et al.</i> , 2003)
ABCC5	MRP5	Multidrug resistance-associated protein 5, multi-specific organic anion transporter-C, MOAT-C, pABC11, SMRP	ENSG00000114770	Although reported to facilitate cellular cyclic nucleotide export, this role has been questioned (see Borst <i>et al.</i> , 2007)
ABCC6	MRP6	Multidrug resistance-associated protein 6, anthracycline resistance-associated protein, multi-specific organic anion transporter-E, MOAT-E	ENSG00000091262	-
ABCC7	CFTR	Cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator, cAMP-dependent chloride channel	ENSG00000001626	See page S214
ABCC10	MRP7	Multidrug resistance-associated protein 7	ENSG00000124574	-
ABCC11	MRP8	Multidrug resistance-associated protein 8	ENSG00000121270	Single nucleotide polymorphisms distinguish wet vs. dry earwax; association between earwax allele and breast cancer risk in Japanese but not European populations
ABCC12	MRP9	Multidrug resistance-associated protein	ENSG00000140798	-

ABCC8 (ENSG0000006071, also known as SUR1, sulfonylurea receptor 1) and ABCC9 (ENSG00000069431, also known as SUR2, sulfonylurea receptor 2) are unusual in that they lack transport capacity but regulate the activity of particular K^+ channels (K_{ir} 6.1-6.2, see Page S158), conferring nucleotide sensitivity to these channels to generate the canonical K_{ATP} channels. ABCC13 (ENSG00000155288) is a possible pseudogene.

ABCD subfamily of peroxisomal ABC transporters

This family of 'half-transporters' act as homo- or heterodimers to accumulate fatty acid-CoA esters into peroxisomes for oxidative metabolism (see Kemp *et al.*, 2011).

Systematic name	Common abbreviation	Other names	Ensembl ID	Substrates
ABCD1	ALDP	Adrenoleukodystrophy protein	ENSG00000101986	Coenzyme A esters of very long chain fatty acids (van Roermund <i>et al.</i> , 2008; 2011)
ABCD2	ALDR	Adrenoleukodystrophy- related protein, adrenoleukodystrophy-like 1	ENSG00000173208	Coenzyme A esters of very long chain unsaturated fatty acids (van Roermund <i>et al.,</i> 2011)
ABCD3	PMP70	70 kDa peroxisomal membrane protein, PXMP1	ENSG00000117528	-

ABCD4 (ENSG00000119688, also known as PMP69, PXMP1-L or P70R) appears to be located on the endoplasmic reticulum (Kashiwayama *et al.*, 2009), with an unclear function. Loss-of-function mutations in the gene encoding ALDP underlie the metabolic storage disorder X-linked adrenoleukodystrophy.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

ATP-binding cassette family \$217

ABCG subfamily

This family of 'half-transporters' act as homo- or heterodimers; particularly ABCG5 and ABCG8 are thought to be obligate heterodimers. They are associated with cellular export of sterols and phospholipids, as well as exogenous drugs (ABCG2).

Systematic name	Common abbreviation	Other names	Ensembl ID	Comments
ABCG1	ABC8	White protein homolog	ENSG00000160179	Transports sterols and choline phospholipids (see Kerr <i>et al.</i> , 2011)
ABCG2	ABCP	Placenta-specific ATP- binding cassette transporter, breast cancer resistance protein, BCRP, mitoxantrone resistance-associated protein, MXR, CD338 antigen, CDw338	ENSG00000118777	Exhibits a broad substrate specificity, including urate and haem, as well as multiple synthetic compounds (see Kerr et al., 2011)
ABCG4	_	White2	ENSG00000172350	Putative functional dependence on ABCG1
ABCG5	-	White3, Sterolin-1	ENSG00000138075	Transports phytosterols; forms a heterodimer with ABCG8
ABCG8	-	Sterolin-2	ENSG00000143921	Transports phytosterols; forms a heterodimer with ABCG5

A further group of ABC transporter-like proteins have been identified to lack membrane spanning regions and are not believed to be functional transporters, but appear to have a role in protein translation (Chen *et al.*, 2006; Paytubi *et al.*, 2009): ABCE1 (ENSG00000164163, also known as OABP or 2'-5' oligoadenylate-binding protein); ABCF1 (ENSG00000204574, also known as ABC50 or TNF- α -stimulated ABC protein); ABCF2 (ENSG00000033050, also known as iron-inhibited ABC transporter 2) and ABCF3 (ENSG00000161204).

Abbreviations: ABC, ATP-binding cassette; NBD, nucleotide-binding domain; N-retinylPE, N-retinylphosphatidylethanolamine; NSAID, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs

Further Reading

Aye IL, Singh AT, Keelan JA (2009). Transport of lipids by ABC proteins: interactions and implications for cellular toxicity, viability and function. *Chem Biol Interact* 180: 327–339.

Borst P, de Wolf C, van de Wetering K (2007). Multidrug resistance-associated proteins 3, 4, and 5. Pflugers Arch 453: 661-673.

Bryan J, Munoz A, Zhang X, Dufer M, Drews G, Krippeit-Drews P *et al.* (2007). ÅBCC8 and ABCC9: ABC transporters that regulate K+ channels. *Pflugers Arch* **453**: 703–718.

Ecker GF, Stockner T, Chiba P (2008). Computational models for prediction of interactions with ABC-transporters. *Drug Discov Today* 13: 311–317.

Gutmann DA, Ward A, Urbatsch IL, Chang G, van Veen HW (2010). Understanding polyspecificity of multidrug ABC transporters: closing in on the gaps in ABCB1. *Trends Biochem Sci* 35: 36–42.

Kemp S, Theodoulou FL, Wanders RJ (2011). Mammalian peroxisomal ABC transporters: from endogenous substrates to pathology and clinical significance. *Br J Pharmacol* in press.

Kerr ID, Haider AJ, Gelissen IC (2011). The ABCG family of membrane-associated transporters: you don't have to be big to be mighty. Br J Pharmacol in press.

Linton KJ, Higgins CF (2007). Structure and function of ABC transporters: the ATP switch provides flexible control. *Pflugers Arch* **453**: 555–567. Miller DS (2010). Regulation of P-glycoprotein and other ABC drug transporters at the blood-brain barrier. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* **31**: 246–254. Procko E, O'Mara ML, Bennett WF, Tieleman DP, Gaudet R (2009). The mechanism of ABC transporters: general lessons from structural and functional studies of an antigenic peptide transporter. *FASEB J* **23**: 1287–1302.

Ravna AW, Sager G (2009). Molecular modeling studies of ABC transporters involved in multidrug resistance. *Mini Rev Med Chem* 9: 186–193. Rees DC, Johnson E, Lewinson O (2009). ABC transporters: the power to change. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol* 10: 218–227.

Russel FG, Koenderink JB, Masereeuw R (2008). Multidrug resistance protein 4 (MRP4/ABCC4): a versatile efflux transporter for drugs and signalling molecules. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 29: 200–207.

Schrickx JA, Fink-Gremmels J (2008). Implications of ABC transporters on the disposition of typical veterinary medicinal products. *Eur J Pharmacol* 585: 510–519.

Seeger MA, van Veen HW (2009). Molecular basis of multidrug transport by ABC transporters. Biochim Biophys Acta 1794: 725-737.

Sharom FJ (2008). ABC multidrug transporters: structure, function and role in chemoresistance. Pharmacogenomics 9: 105-127.

Szakacs G, Varadi A, Ozvegy-Laczka C, Sarkadi B (2008). The role of ABC transporters in drug absorption, distribution, metabolism, excretion and toxicity (ADME-Tox). *Drug Discov Today* 13: 379–393.

Wanders RJ, Visser WF, van Roermund CW, Kemp S, Waterham HR (2007). The peroxisomal ABC transporter family. Pflugers Arch 453: 719–734.

References

Bakos E, Homolya L (2007). *Pflugers Arch* **453**: 621–641. Chen ZQ *et al.* (2006). *J Biol Chem* **281**: 7452–7457. Elliott AM, Al-Hajj MA (2009). *Mol Cancer Res* **7**: 79–87. Hollingworth P *et al.* (2011). *Nat Genet* **43**: 429–435. Kamakura A *et al.* (2008). *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* **377**: 847–851. Kashiwayama Y *et al.* (2009). *Exp Cell Res* **315**: 190–205. Krishnamurthy PC *et al.* (2006). *Nature* **443**: 586–589. Oude Elferink RP, Paulusma CC (2007). *Pflugers Arch* **453**: 601–610.

Paytubi S et al. (2009). J Biol Chem 284: 24061–24073. Pondarre C et al. (2007). Blood 109: 3567–3569. Reid G et al. (2003). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 100: 9244–9249. Schatton T et al. (2008). Nature 451: 345–349. Stieger B (2009). Curr Opin Lipidol 20: 176–181. van Roermund CW et al. (2008). FASEB J 22: 4201–4208. van Roermund CW et al. (2011). Biochim Biophys Acta 1811: 148–152. Zuo Y et al. (2008). J Biol Chem 283: 36624–36635.

F-type and V-type ATPases (EC 3.6.3.14)

The F-type (ATP synthase) and the V-type (vacuolar or vesicular proton pump) ATPases, although having distinct subcellular locations and roles, exhibit marked similarities in subunit structure and mechanism. They are both composed of a 'soluble' complex (termed F_1 or V_1) and a membrane complex (F_0 or V_0). Within each ATPase complex, the two individual sectors appear to function as connected opposing rotary motors, coupling catalysis of ATP synthesis or hydrolysis to proton transport.

F-type ATPase

The F-type ATPase, also known as ATP synthase or ATP phosphohydrolase (H^+ -transporting), is a mitochondrial membrane-associated multimeric complex consisting of two domains, an F_0 channel domain in the membrane and an F_1 domain extending into the lumen. Proton transport across the inner mitochondrial membrane is used to drive the synthesis of ATP, although it is also possible for the enzyme to function as an ATPase. The ATP5O subunit (oligomycin sensitivity-conferring protein, OSCP, ENSG00000241837), which acts as a connector between F_1 and F_0 motors,

The F_1 motor, responsible for ATP turnover, has the subunit composition $\alpha 3\beta 3\gamma \delta \epsilon$.

Nomenclature	HGNC nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names
α	ATP5A1; ATPAF2	ENSG00000152234; ENSG00000171953	ATP5A, ATP5AL2, ATPM, hATP1, OMR, ORM; ATP synthase mitochondrial F1 complex assembly factor 2, ATP12, Atp12p
β	ATP5B; ATPAF1	ENSG00000110955; ENSG00000123472	ATPSB; ATP synthase mitochondrial F1 complex assembly factor 1, ATP11, Atp11p, FLJ22351
γ	ATP5C1	ENSG00000165629	ATP5C, ATP5CL1
δ	ATP5D	ENSG00000099624	-
ε	ATP5E	ENSG00000124172	-

The F_0 motor, responsible for ion translocation, is complex in mammals, with probably nine subunits centring on A, B, and C subunits in the membrane, together with D, E, F2, F6, G2 and 8 subunits.

Nomenclature	HGNC nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names
A	MT-ATP6	ENSG00000198899	F-ATPase protein 6
В	ATP5F1	ENSG00000116459	_
С	ATP5G1; ATP5G2; ATP5G3	ENSG00000159199; ENSG00000135390; ENSG00000154518	ATP synthase proteolipid P1, ATPase protein 9
D	ATP5H	ENSG00000167863	ATP5JD, ATPQ
E	ATP5I	ENSG00000169020	ATP5K
F2	ATP5J2	ENSG00000241468	ATP5JL
F6	ATP5J	ENSG00000154723	ATP5, ATP5A, ATPM, CF6, ATP synthase-coupling factor
G2	ATP5L2	ENSG00000249222	ATP5K2
8	MT-ATP8	ENSG00000229604	_

Multiple pseudogenes for these proteins have been defined in the human genome.

V-type ATPase

The V-type ATPase is most prominently associated with lysosomes in mammals, but also appears to be expressed on the plasma membrane and neuronal synaptic vesicles.

The V_1 motor, responsible for ATP turnover, has eight subunits with a composition of A-H.

Nomenclature	HGNC nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names
A	ATP6V1A	ENSG00000114573	ATP6A1, ATP6V1A1, VA68, Vma1, VPP2
B1	ATP6V1B1	ENSG00000116039	ATP6B1, RTA1B, VATB, Vma2, VPP3
B2	ATP6V1B2	ENSG00000147416	ATP6B2, HO57, VATB, Vma2, VPP3
C1	ATP6V1C1	ENSG00000155097	ATP6C, ATP6D, VATC, Vma5
C2	ATP6V1C2	ENSG00000143882	ATP6C2, VMA5
D	ATP6V1D	ENSG00000100554	ATP6M, VATD, VMA8
E1	ATP61VE1	ENSG00000131100	ATP6E, ATP6E2, ATP6V1E, P31, Vma4
E2	ATP6V1E2	ENSG00000250565	ATP6E1, ATP6EL2, ATP6V1EL2, MGC9341, VMA4
F	ATP6V1F	ENSG00000128524	ATP6S14, VATF, Vma7
G1	ATP6V1G1	ENSG00000136888	ATP6G, ATP6G1, ATP6GL, ATP6J, DKFZp547P234, Vma10
G2	ATP6V1G2	ENSG00000230900; ENSG00000213760; ENSG00000234668; ENSG00000234920; ENSG00000206445; ENSG00000226850	ATP6G, ATP6G2, Em:AC004181.3, NG38, Vma10
G3	ATP6V1G3	ENSG00000151418	ATP6G3, Vma10
Н	ATP6V1H	ENSG00000047249	CGI-11, SFD, SFDalpha, SFDbeta, VMA13

The V_0 motor, responsible for ion translocation, has six subunits (a–e).

Nomenclature	HGNC nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names
a1	ATP6V0A1	ENSG00000033627	ATP6N1, ATP6N1A, Stv1, Vph1, VPP1
a2	ATP6V0A2	ENSG00000185344	ATP6a2, ATP6N1D, J6B7, Stv1, TJ6, TJ6M, TJ6s, Vph1
a3	TCIRG1	ENSG00000110719	T-cell immune regulator 1, Atp6i, ATP6N1C, ATP6V0A3, OC-116, OC116, TIRC7
a4	ATP6V0A4	ENSG00000105929	ATP6N1B, ATP6N2, RDRTA2, RTA1C, RTADR, Stv1, Vph1, VPP2
b	ATP6V0B	ENSG00000117410	ATP6F, HATPL, VMA16
с	ATP6V0C	ENSG00000185883	ATP6C, ATP6L, ATPL, VATL, Vma3
d1	ATP6V0D1	ENSG00000159720	ATP6D, ATP6DV, P39, VATX, Vma6, VPATPD
d2	ATP6V0D2	ENSG00000147614	ATP6D2, FLJ38708, VMA6
e1	ATP6V0E1	ENSG00000113732	ATP6H, ATP6V0E, M9.2
e2	ATP6V0E2	ENSG00000171130	ATP6V0E2L, C7orf32

Further Reading

von Ballmoos C (2007). Alternative proton binding mode in ATP synthases. J Bioenerg Biomembr 39: 441-445. von Ballmoos C, Cook GM, Dimroth P (2008). Unique rotary ATP synthase and its biological diversity. Annu Rev Biophys 37: 43-64. von Ballmoos C, Wiedenmann A, Dimroth P (2009). Essentials for ATP synthesis by F₁F₀ ATP synthases. Annu Rev Biochem 78: 649-672. Junge W, Sielaff H, Engelbrecht S (2009). Torque generation and elastic power transmission in the rotary F₀F₁-ATPase. Nature 459: 364–370. Nakamoto RK, Baylis Scanlon JA, Al-Shawi MK (2008). The rotary mechanism of the ATP synthase. Arch Biochem Biophys 476: 43-50. Nakanishi-Matsui M, Sekiya M, Nakamoto RK, Futai M (2010). The mechanism of rotating proton pumping ATPases. Biochim Biophys Acta 1797: 1343-1352.

Navarro A, Boveris A (2007). The mitochondrial energy transduction system and the aging process. Am J Physiol Cell Physiol 292: C670–C686. Qi J, Wang Y, Forgac M (2007). The vacuolar (H+)-ATPase: subunit arrangement and in vivo regulation. J Bioenerg Biomembr 39: 423-426.

P-type ATPases (EC 3.6.3.-)

Phosphorylation-type ATPases are associated with membranes and the transport of ions or phospholipids. A characteristic is the interconversion between E1 and E2 conformations in the activity cycle of the transporters.

Na+/K+-ATPase (EC 3.6.3.9)

The cell-surface Na^+/K^+ -ATPase is an integral membrane protein which regulates the membrane potential of the cell by maintaining gradients of Na^+ and K^+ ions across the plasma membrane, also making a small, direct contribution to membrane potential, particularly in cardiac cells. The active enzyme is a heteromultimer with incompletely defined stoichiometry, possibly as tetramers of heterodimers, each consisting of one of four large, ten TM domain catalytic α subunits and one of three smaller single TM domain glycoprotein β -subunits (see table). Additional protein partners known as FXYD proteins (e.g. FXYD2, ENSG00000137731) appear to associate with and regulate the activity of the pump.

Nomenclature	Systematic name	Ensembl ID	Other names
α1	ATP1A1	ENSG00000163399	Sodium/potassium-transporting ATPase subunit α -1, sodium pump subunit α -1, Na*/K* ATPase α -1 subunit
α2	ATP1A2	ENSG00000018625	Sodium/potassium-transporting ATPase subunit α -1, sodium pump subunit α -1, Na+/K+ ATPase α -1 subunit
α3	ATP1A3	ENSG00000105409	Sodium/potassium-transporting ATPase subunit α -3, sodium pump subunit α -3, Na+/K+ ATPase α -3 subunit
α4	ATP1A4	ENSG00000132681	Sodium/potassium-transporting ATPase subunit α -4, sodium pump subunit α -4, Na+/K+ ATPase α -4 subunit
β1	ATP1B1	ENSG00000143153	Sodium/potassium-transporting ATPase subunit β-1
β2	ATP1B2	ENSG00000129244	Sodium/potassium-transporting ATPase subunit β-2
β3	ATP1B3	ENSG00000069849	Sodium/potassium-transporting ATPase subunit β -3, CD298 antigen

Na⁺/K⁺-ATPases are inhibited by ouabain and cardiac glycosides, such as digoxin, as well as potentially endogenous cardiotonic steroids (see Bagrov *et al.*, 2009).

Ca2+-ATPases (EC 3.6.3.8)

The sarcoplasmic/endoplasmic reticulum Ca²⁺-ATPase (SERCA) is an intracellular membrane-associated pump for sequestering calcium from the cytosol into intracellular organelles, usually associated with the recovery phase following excitation of muscle and nerves.

Nomenclature	Systematic name	Ensembl ID	Other names
SERCA1	ATP2A1	ENSG00000196296	Sarcoplasmic/endoplasmic reticulum calcium ATPase 1, fast twitch skeletal muscle isoform
SERCA2	ATP2A2	ENSG00000174437	Sarcoplasmic/endoplasmic reticulum calcium ATPase 2, calcium pump 2, slow twitch skeletal muscle isoform
SERCA3	ATP2A3	ENSG00000074370	Sarcoplasmic/endoplasmic reticulum calcium ATPase 3

The fungal toxin ochratoxin A has been described to activate SERCA in kidney microsomes (Chong and Rahimtula, 1992). Cyclopiazonic acid (Seidler *et al.*, 1989), thapsigargin (Lytton *et al.*, 1991) and BHQ are widely employed to block SERCA. Thapsigargin has also been described to block the TRPV1 vanilloid receptor (Toth *et al.*, 2002).

The plasma membrane $Ca^{2\tau}$ -ATPase (PMCA) is a cell-surface pump for extruding calcium from the cytosol, usually associated with the recovery phase following excitation of cells. The active pump is a homodimer, each subunit of which is made up of ten TM segments, with cytosolic C-and N-termini and two large intracellular loops.

Nomenclature	Systematic name	Ensembl ID	Other names
PMCA1	ATP2B1	ENSG00000070961	Plasma membrane calcium ATPase isoform 1
PMCA2	ATP2B2	ENSG00000157087	Plasma membrane calcium ATPase isoform 2
PMCA3	ATP2B3	ENSG00000067842	Plasma membrane calcium ATPase isoform 3
PMCA4	ATP2B4	ENSG00000058668	Plasma membrane calcium ATPase isoform 4, matrix-remodeling-associated protein 1

The stoichiometry of flux through the PMCA differs from SERCA, with the PMCA transporting 1 Ca²⁺ while SERCA transports 2 Ca²⁺.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

P-type ATPases (EC 3.6.3.-) S221

Secretory pathway Ca2+-ATPases (SPCA) allow accumulation of calcium and manganese in the Golgi apparatus.

Nomenclature	Systematic name	Ensembl ID	Other names
SPCA1	ATP2C1	ENSG0000017260	ATPase 2C1, ATP-dependent Ca ²⁺ pump PMR1
SPCA2	ATP2C2	ENSG00000064270	ATPase 2C2, secretory pathway Ca ²⁺ -ATPase 2
1			

Loss-of-function mutations in SPCA1 appear to underlie Hailey-Hailey disease (Hu et al., 2000).

H+/K+-ATPase (EC 3.6.3.10)

The H⁺/K⁺ ATPase is a heterodimeric protein, made up of α and β subunits. The α subunit has 10 TM domains and exhibits catalytic and pore functions, while the β subunit has a single TM domain, which appears to be required for intracellular trafficking and stabilising the α subunit. The ATP4A and ATP4B subunits are expressed together, while the ATP12A subunit is suggested to be expressed with the β 1 (ATP1B1) subunit of the Na⁺/K⁺-ATPase (Pestov *et al.*, 2006).

Nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names
ATP4A	ENSG00000105675	Potassium-transporting ATPase α chain 1, gastric H $^+$ /K $^+$ -ATPase α subunit, ATP6A
ATP12A	ENSG00000075673	Potassium-transporting ATPase α chain 2, non-gastric H $^+$ /K $^+$ -ATPase α subunit, ATP1AL1
ATP4B	ENSG00000186009	Potassium-transporting ATPase β chain 1, gastric $H^{\scriptscriptstyle +}/K^{\scriptscriptstyle +}\text{-ATPase }\beta$ subunit

The gastric H+/K+-ATPase is inhibited by (R)-lansoprazole and a metabolite of (s)-omeprazole.

Cu2+-ATPase (EC 3.6.3.4)

Copper-transporting ATPases convey copper ions across cell-surface and intracellular membranes. They consist of eight TM domains and associate with multiple copper chaperone proteins (e.g. ATOX1, ENSG00000177556).

Nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names
ATP7A ATP7B	ENSG00000165240 ENSG00000123191	Copper-transporting ATPase 1, copper pump 1, Menkes disease-associated protein Copper-transporting ATPase 2, copper pump 2, Wilson disease-associated protein
AIF/B	EN3G00000123191	Copper-transporting Arrase 2, copper pump 2, wilson disease-associated protein

Phospholipid-transporting ATPase (EC 3.6.3.1)

These transporters are thought to translocate the aminophospholipids phosphatidylserine and phosphatidylethanolamine from one side of the phospholipid bilayer to the other.

Nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names
ATP8A1	ENSG00000124406	Probable phospholipid-transporting ATPase IA, chromaffin granule ATPase II
ATP8A2	ENSG00000132932	Probable phospholipid-transporting ATPase IB, ML-1
ATP8B1	ENSG00000081923	Probable phospholipid-transporting ATPase IC, familial intrahepatic cholestasis type 1
ATP8B2	ENSG00000143515	Probable phospholipid-transporting ATPase ID
ATP8B3	ENSG00000130270	Probable phospholipid-transporting ATPase IK
ATP8B4	ENSG00000104043	Probable phospholipid-transporting ATPase IM
ATP9A	ENSG00000054793	Probable phospholipid-transporting ATPase IIA, ATPase IIA
ATP9B	ENSG00000166377	Probable phospholipid-transporting ATPase IIB, ATPase class II type 9B
ATP10A	ENSG00000206190	Probable phospholipid-transporting ATPase VA, ATPase class V type 10A, aminophospholipid translocase VA, ATP10C
ATP10B	ENSG00000118322	Probable phospholipid-transporting ATPase VB, ATPase class V type 10B
ATP10D	ENSG00000145246	Probable phospholipid-transporting ATPase VD, ATPase class V type 10D
ATP11A	ENSG00000068650	Probable phospholipid-transporting ATPase IH, ATPase class VI type 11A, ATPase IS
ATP11B	ENSG00000058063	Probable phospholipid-transporting ATPase IF, ATPase class VI type 11B, ATPase IR
ATP11C	ENSG00000101974	Probable phospholipid-transporting ATPase IG, ATPase class VI type 11C, ATPase IG, ATPase IQ

Loss-of-function mutations in ATP8B1 are associated with type I familial intrahepatic cholestasis.

A further series of structurally-related proteins have been identified in the human genome, with as yet undefined function, including ATP13A1 (ENSG00000105726), ATP13A2 (ENSG00000159363), ATP13A3 (ENSG00000133657), ATP13A4 (ENSG00000127249) and ATP13A5 (ENSG00000187527).

Abbreviations: BHQ, 2,5-di-t-butyl-1,4 benzohydroquinone

Further Reading

Bagrov AY, Shapiro JI, Fedorova OV (2009). Endogenous cardiotonic steroids: physiology, pharmacology, and novel therapeutic targets. Pharmacol Rev 61: 9–38.

Benarroch EE (2011). Na⁺, K⁺-ATPase: functions in the nervous system and involvement in neurologic disease. Neurology 76: 287-293.

Bers DM, Despa S (2009). Na/K-ATPase - an integral player in the adrenergic fight-or-flight response. Trends Cardiovasc Med 19: 111-118.

Brini M (2009). Plasma membrane Ca²⁺-ATPase: from a housekeeping function to a versatile signaling role. *Pflugers Arch* **457**: 657–664.

Brini M, Carafoli E (2009). Calcium pumps in health and disease. Physiol Rev 89: 1341-1378.

Cartwright EJ, Oceandy D, Neyses L (2009). Physiological implications of the interaction between the plasma membrane calcium pump and nNOS. *Pflugers Arch* **457**: 665–671.

Di Leva F, Domi T, Fedrizzi L, Lim D, Carafoli E (2008). The plasma membrane Ca²⁺ ATPase of animal cells: structure, function and regulation. *Arch Biochem Biophys* **476**: 65–74.

Fedorova OV, Shapiro JI, Bagrov AY (2010). Endogenous cardiotonic steroids and salt-sensitive hypertension. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1802: 1230–1236.

Floyd R, Wray S (2007). Calcium transporters and signalling in smooth muscles. Cell Calcium 42: 467-476.

Folmer DE, Elferink RP, Paulusma CC (2009). P4 ATPases – lipid flippases and their role in disease. Biochim Biophys Acta 1791: 628-635.

Inesi G, Prasad AM, Pilankatta R (2008). The Ca²⁺ ATPase of cardiac sarcoplasmic reticulum: physiological role and relevance to diseases. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 369: 182–187.

Jaitovich A, Bertorello AM (2010). Salt, Na+, K+-ATPase and hypertension. Life Sci 86: 73-78.

Kaler SG (2011). ATP7A-related copper transport diseases-emerging concepts and future trends. Nat Rev Neurol 7: 15-29.

Kawase Y, Hajjar RJ (2008). The cardiac sarcoplasmic/endoplasmic reticulum calcium ATPase: a potent target for cardiovascular diseases. *Nat Clin Pract Cardiovasc Med* 5: 554–565.

Lingrel JB (2010). The physiological significance of the cardiotonic steroid/ouabain-binding site of the Na,K-ATPase. *Annu Rev Physiol* 72: 395–412.

Manunta P, Messaggio E, Casamassima N, Gatti G, Carpini SD, Zagato L *et al.* (2010). Endogenous ouabain in renal Na⁺ handling and related diseases. *Biochim Biophys Acta* **1802**: 1214–1218.

Morth JP, Pedersen BP, Buch-Pedersen MJ, Andersen JP, Vilsen B, Palmgren MG et al. (2011). A structural overview of the plasma membrane Na⁺,K⁺-ATPase and H⁺-ATPase ion pumps. Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol 12: 60–70.

Muthusamy BP, Natarajan P, Zhou X, Graham TR (2009). Linking phospholipid flippases to vesicle-mediated protein transport. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1791: 612–619.

Patel S, Docampo R (2010). Acidic calcium stores open for business: expanding the potential for intracellular Ca2+ signaling. *Trends Cell Biol* 20: 277–286.

Poulsen H, Morth P, Egebjerg J, Nissen P (2010). Phosphorylation of the Na⁺,K⁺-ATPase and the H⁺,K⁺-ATPase. FEBS Lett 584: 2589–2595.

Prassas I, Diamandis EP (2008). Novel therapeutic applications of cardiac glycosides. Nat Rev Drug Discov 7: 926-935.

Puts CF, Holthuis JC (2009). Mechanism and significance of P4 ATPase-catalyzed lipid transport: lessons from a Na⁺/K⁺-pump. *Biochim Biophys Acta* **1791**: 603–611.

Rasmussen HH, Hamilton EJ, Liu CC, Figtree GA (2010). Reversible oxidative modification: implications for cardiovascular physiology and pathophysiology. *Trends Cardiovasc Med* 20: 85–90.

Rosenberg PB (2009). Calcium entry in skeletal muscle. J Physiol 587: 3149-3151.

Scarpignato C, Hunt RH (2008). Proton pump inhibitors: the beginning of the end of the beginning? *Curr Opin Pharmacol* 8: 677–684. Tadini-Buoninsegni F, Bartolommei G, Moncelli MR, Fendler K (2008). Charge transfer in P-type ATPases investigated on planar membranes. *Arch Biochem Biophys* 476: 75–86.

Taub M, Springate JE, Cutuli F (2010). Targeting of renal proximal tubule Na,K-ATPase by salt-inducible kinase. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 393: 339–344

Toyoshima C (2009). How Ca²⁺-ATPase pumps ions across the sarcoplasmic reticulum membrane. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1793: 941–946.

Weidemuller C, Hauser K (2009). Ion transport and energy transduction of P-type ATPases: implications from electrostatic calculations. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1787: 721–729.

Wray S, Burdyga T (2010). Sarcoplasmic reticulum function in smooth muscle. Physiol Rev 90: 113–178.

Zhang L, Zhang Z, Guo H, Wang Y (2008). Na⁺/K⁺-ATPase-mediated signal transduction and Na⁺/K⁺-ATPase regulation. *Fundam Clin Pharmacol* 22: 615–621.

References

Chong X, Rahimtula AD (1992). *Biochem Pharmacol* **44**: 1401–1409. Hu Z *et al.* (2000). *Nat Genet* **24**: 61–65.

Lytton J et al. (1991). J Biol Chem 266: 17067–17071.

Pestov NB *et al.* (2006). *Am J Physiol -Cell Physiol* **291**: C366–C374. Seidler NW *et al.* (1989). *J Biol Chem* **264**: 17816–17823.

Toth A et al. (2002). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 293: 777–782.

The SLC superfamily of solute carriers

The SLC superfamily of solute carriers is the second largest family of membrane proteins after G protein-coupled receptors, but with a great deal fewer therapeutic drugs that exploit them. As with the ABC transporters, however, they play a major role in drug disposition and so can be hugely influential in determining the clinical efficacy of particular drugs.

48 families are identified on the basis of sequence similarities, but many of them overlap in terms of the solutes that they carry. For example, amino acid accumulation is mediated by members of the SLC1, SLC3/7, SLC6, SLC15, SLC16, SLC17, SLC32, SLC36, SLC38 and SLC43. Further members of the SLC superfamily regulate ion fluxes at the plasma membrane, or solute transport into and out of cellular organelles.

Within the SLC superfamily, there is an abundance in diversity of structure. Two families (SLC3 and SLC7) only generate functional transporters as heteromeric partners, where one partner is a single TM domain protein. Membrane topology predictions for other families suggest 3, 4 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, or 14 TM domains. Functionally, members may be divided into those dependent on gradients of ions (particularly sodium, chloride or protons), exchange of solutes or simple equilibrative gating. For many members, the stoichiometry of transport is not yet established. Furthermore, one family of transporters also possess enzymatic activity (SLC27), while many members function as ion channels (e.g. SLC1A7/ EAAT5), which increases the complexity of function of the SLC superfamily.

Further Reading

Fredriksson R, Nordstrom KJ, Stephansson O, Hagglund MG, Schioth HB (2008). The solute carrier (SLC) complement of the human genome: phylogenetic classification reveals four major families. FEBS Lett 582: 3811-3816.

Giacomini KM, Huang SM, Tweedie DJ, Benet LZ, Brouwer KL, Chu X et al. (2010). Membrane transporters in drug development. Nat Rev Drug Discovery 9: 215-236.

SLC1 family of amino acid transporters

Overview: The SLC1 family of sodium dependent transporters includes the plasma membrane located glutamate transporters and the neutral amino acid transporters ASCT1 and ASCT2 (Amara and Arriza, 1993; Palacín et al., 1998; Kanai and Hediger, 2003; 2004; Beart and O'Shea, 2007).

Glutamate transporter subfamily

Glutamate transporters present the unusual structural motif of 8TM segments and 2 re-entrant loops (Grunwald and Kanner, 2000). The crystal structure of a glutamate transporter homologue (Gltph) from Pyrococcus horikoshii supports this topology and indicates that the transporter assembles as a trimer, where each monomer is a functional unit capable of substrate permeation (Yernool et al., 2004; Boudker et al., 2007; Reyes et al., 2009; reviewed by Jiang and Amara, 2011). These structural data are in agreement with the proposed quaternary structure for EAAT2 (Gendreau et al., 2004) and several functional studies that propose the monomer is the functional unit (Ryan et al., 2004; Grewer et al., 2005; Koch et al., 2007; Leary et al., 2007). Recent evidence suggests that EAAT3 and EAAT4 may assemble as heterotrimers (Nothmann et al., 2011). The activity of glutamate transporters located upon both neurones (predominantly EAAT3, 4 and 5) and glia (predominantly EAAT 1 and 2) serves, dependent upon their location, to regulate excitatory neurotransmission, maintain low ambient extracellular concentrations of glutamate (protecting against excitotoxicity) and provide glutamate for metabolism including the glutamate-glutamine cycle. The Na⁺/K⁺-ATPase (see Page S219) that maintains the ion gradients that drive transport has been demonstrated to co-assemble with EAAT1 and EAAT2 (Rose et al., 2009). Recent evidence supports altered glutamate transport and novel roles in brain for splice variants of EAAT1 and EAAT2 (Gebhardt et al., 2010; Lee and Pow, 2010). Three patients with dicarboxylic aminoaciduria (DA) were recently found to have loss-of-function mutations in EAAT3 (Bailey et al., 2011). DA is characterized by excessive excretion of the acidic amino acids glutamate and aspartate and EAAT3 is the predominant glutamate/aspartate transporter in the kidney. Enhanced expression of EAAT2 resulting from administration of ß-lactam antibiotics (e.g. ceftriaxone) is neuroprotective and occurs through NF-κB-mediated EAAT2 promoter activation (Rothstein et al., 2005; Ganel et al., 2006; Lee et al., 2008; reviewed by Kim et al., 2010). PPARγ (see Page S181) activation (e.g. by rosiglitazone) also leads to enhanced expression of EAAT though promoter activation (Romera et al., 2007). In addition, several translational activators of EAAT2 have recently been described (Colton et al., 2010) along with treatments that increase the surface expression of EAAT2 (e.g. Lau et al., 2011, Zou et al., 2011), or prevent its down-regulation (e.g. Goursaud et al., 2011). A thermodynamically uncoupled Cl⁻ flux, activated by Na⁺ and glutamate (Kanai and Hediger, 2003; Grewer and Rauen, 2005; Machtens et al., 2011) (Na+ and aspartate in the case of Gltph, Ryan and Mindell, 2007), is sufficiently large, in the instances of EAAT4 and EAAT5, to influence neuronal excitability (Veruki et al., 2006; Torres-Salazar and Fahlke, 2007). Indeed, it has recently been suggested that the primary function of EAATS is as a slow anion channel gated by glutamate, rather than a glutamate transporter (Gameiro et al., 2011).

Common abbreviation EAAT1 EAAT2 EAAT3 Systematic name SLC1A3 Nomenclature Excitatory amino acid transporter 1 Excitatory amino acid transporter 2 Excitatory amino acid transporter 3 Other names GLAST GLT1 EAAC1 **Ensembl ID** ENSG000000079215 ENSG00000110436 ENSG00000106688

Common abbreviation	EAAT1	EAAT2	EAAT3
Endogenous substrates	L-glutamate, L-aspartate	L-glutamate, L-aspartate	L-glutamate, L-aspartate, L-cysteine (Zerangue and Kavanaugh, 1996a)
Synthetic substrates	DL- <i>threo</i> -β-hydroxyaspartate, L- <i>trans</i> -2,4-pyrolidine dicarboxylate	DL- <i>threo</i> -β-hydroxyaspartate, L- <i>trans</i> -2,4-pyrolidine dicarboxylate	DL- <i>threo</i> -β-hydroxyaspartate, L- <i>trans</i> -2,4-pyrolidine dicarboxylate
Inhibitors (K_B or K_i)	UCPH-101 (IC $_{50}$ = 120 nM – membrane potential assay, Jensen et al., 2009), DL-TBOA (9 μ M)	WAY-213613 (IC ₅₀ = 130 nM), DL-TBOA (0.12 μ M), (2S,4R)-4-methylglutamate (3.4 μ M), dihydrokainate (9 μ M), Threo-3-methylglutamate (18 μ M)	NBI-59159 (IC $_{50}$ = 25 nM), DL-TBOA (IC $_{50}$ =8 μ M), L- β -BA (IC $_{50}$ =0.8 μ M – [3 H]-D-aspartate uptake assay)
Probes	[3 H]-ETB-TBOA (K_D = 15.5 nM), [3 H]-[(3 5,4 R)-4-methylglutamate, [3 H]-D-aspartate, [3 H]-L-aspartate	[3 H]-ETB-TBOA (K_D = 16.2 nM), [3 H]-[(3 5,4 8)-4-methylglutamate, [3 H]-D-aspartate, [3 H]-L-aspartate	[3 H]-ETB-TBOA (K_{D} = 320 nM), [3 H]-D-aspartate, [3 H]-L-aspartate
Stoichiometry	Probably 3 Na ⁺ : 1 H ⁺ : 1 glutamate (in): 1 K ⁺ (out)	3 Na ⁺ : 1 H ⁺ : 1 glutamate (in): 1 K ⁺ (out) (Levy <i>et al.</i> , 1998)	3 Na ⁺ : 1 H ⁺ : 1 glutamate (in): 1 K ⁺ (out) (Zerangue and Kavanaugh, 1996b)

Common abbreviation	EAAT4	EAAT5
Systematic name	SLC1A6	SLC1A7
Nomenclature	Excitatory amino acid transporter 4	Excitatory amino acid transporter 5
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000105143	ENSG00000162383
Endogenous substrates	L-glutamate, L-aspartate	L-glutamate, L-aspartate
Synthetic substrates	DL- <i>threo</i> -β-hydroxyaspartate, L- <i>trans</i> -2,4-pyrolidine dicarboxylate	DL- <i>threo</i> -β-hydroxyaspartate, L- <i>trans</i> -2,4-pyrolidine dicarboxylate
Inhibitors (K_B or K_i)	DL-TBOA (4.4 μM), <i>Threo</i> -3-methylglutamate (50 μM)	DL-TBOA (3.2 μM)
Probes	[3 H]-ETB-TBOA (K_D = 24.8 nM), [3 H]-D-aspartate, [3 H]-L-aspartate	[3 H]-ETB-TBOA (K_{D} = 29.5 nM), [3 H]-D-aspartate, [3 H]-L-aspartate
Stoichiometry	Probably 3 Na ⁺ : 1 H ⁺ : 1 glutamate (in): 1 K ⁺ (out)	Probably 3 Na ⁺ : 1 H ⁺ : 1 glutamate (in): 1 K ⁺ (out)

The K_B (or K_I) values reported, unless indicated otherwise, are derived from transporter currents mediated by EAATs expressed in voltage-clamped Xenopus laevis oocytes (Vandenberg et al., 1997; Shimamoto et al., 1998; Eliasof et al. 2001; Shigeri et al. 2001). K_B (or K_i) values derived in uptake assays are generally higher (e.g. Shimamoto et al., 1998). In addition to acting as a poorly transportable inhibitor of EAAT2, (2S,4R)-4methylglutamate, also known as SYM2081, is a competitive substrate for EAAT1 (K_M = 54 μM; Vandenberg et al., 1997; Huang et al., 2009) and additionally is a potent kainate receptor agonist (Zhou et al., 1997) which renders the compound unsuitable for autoradiographic localisation of EAATs (Apricò et al., 2007). Similarly, at concentrations that inhibit EAAT2, dihydrokainate binds to kainate receptors (Shimamoto et al. 1998). WAY-855 and WAY-213613 are both non-substrate inhibitors with a preference for EAAT2 over EAAT3 and EAAT1 (Dunlop et al., 2003; Dunlop et al., 2005). NBI-59159 is a non-substrate inhibitor with modest selectivity for EAAT3 over EAAT1 (>10-fold) and EAAT2 (5-fold) (Coon et al., 2004; Dunlop, 2006). Analogously, L-β-threo-benzyl-aspartate (L-β-BA) is a competitive non-substrate inhibitor that preferentially blocks EAAT3 versus EAAT1, or EAAT2 (Esslinger et al., 2005b). [3 H]-[(2S,4R)-4-methylglutamate demonstrates low affinity binding ($K_D \cong 6.0 \, \mu M$) to EAAT1 and EAAT2 in rat brain homogenates (Apricó et al., 2001) and EAAT1 in murine astrocyte membranes (Apricò et al., 2004), whereas [3H]-ETB-TBOA binds with high affinity to all EAATs other than EAAT3 (Shimamoto et al., 2007). The novel isoxazole derivative (-)-HIP-A may interact at the same site as TBOA and preferentially inhibit reverse transport of glutamate (Colleoni et al., 2008). Threo-3-methylglutamate induces substratelike currents at EAAT4, but does not elicit heteroexchange of [3H]-aspartate in synaptosome preparations, inconsistent with the behaviour of a substrate inhibitor (Eliasof et al., 2001). Parawixin1, a compound isolated from the venom from the spider Parawixia bistriata is a selective enhancer of the glutamate uptake through EAAT2 but not through EAAT1 or EAAT3 (Fontana et al., 2003, 2007). In addition to the agents listed in the table, DL-threo-β-hydroxyaspartate and L-trans-2,4-pyrolidine dicarboxylate act as non-selective competitive substrate inhibitors of all EAATs. Zn²⁺ and arachidonic acid are putative endogenous modulators of EAATs with actions that differ across transporter subtypes (reviewed by Vandenberg et al., 2004).

Alanine/serine/cysteine transporter subfamily

ASC transporters mediate Na*-dependent exchange of small neutral amino acids such as Ala, Ser, Cys and Thr and their structure is predicted to be similar to that of the glutamate transporters (Arizza *et al.*, 1993; Utsunomiya-Tate *et al.*, 1996). ASCT1 and ASCT2 also exhibit thermodynamically uncoupled chloride channel activity associated with substrate transport (Zerangue and Kavanaugh, 1996c; Bröer *et al.*, 2000). Whereas EAATs counter-transport K* (see above) ASCTs do not and their function is independent of the intracellular concentration of K* (Zerangue and Kavanaugh, 1996c).

Common abbreviation	ASCT1	ASCT2
Systematic name	SLC1A4	SLC1A5

Nomenclature Alanine/serine/cysteine transporter 1 Alanine/serine/cysteine transporter 2

Common abbreviation	ASCT1	ASCT2
Other names	Neutral amino acid transporter A, SATT	Neutral amino acid transporter $B(0)$, $hATB^0$, $AAAT$
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000115902	ENSG00000105281
Endogenous substrates	L-cysteine > L-alanine = L-serine > L-threonine	L-alanine = L-serine = L-cysteine (low $V_{\rm max}$) = L-threonine = L-glutamine = L-asparaginine >> L-methionine \cong L-glycine \cong L-leucine > L-valine > L-glutamate (enhanced at low pH)
Inhibitors	-	<i>p</i> -nitrophenyl glutamyl anilide (Esslinger <i>et al.</i> , 2005a), benzylserine, benzylcysteine (Grewer and Grabsch, 2004)
Predicted stoichiometry	1 Na ⁺ : 1 amino acid (in): 1 Na ⁺ : 1 amino acid (out); (homo-, or hetero-exchange; Zerangue and Kavanaugh, 1996b)	1 Na ⁺ : 1 amino acid (in): 1 Na ⁺ : 1 amino acid (out); (homo-, or hetero-exchange; Bröer <i>et al.</i> , 1999)

The substrate specificity of ASCT1 may extend to proline and hydroxyproline (Pinilla-Tenas et al., 2003). At low pH (~5.5) both ASCT1 and ASCT2 are able to exchange acidic amino acids such as cysteate and glutamate (Tamarappoo et al., 1996; Utsunomiya-Tate et al., 1996). In addition to the inhibitors tabulated above, HgCl2, methymercury, mersalyl, at low micromolar concentrations, non-competitively inhibit ASCT2 by covalent modification of cysteine residues (Oppedisano et al., 2010).

Further Reading

Beart PM, O'Shea RD (2007). Transporters for L-glutamate: an update on their molecular pharmacology and pathological involvement. Br J Pharmacol 150: 5-17.

Bridges RJ, Esslinger CS (2005). The excitatory amino acid transporters: pharmacological insights on substrate and inhibitor specificity of the EAAT subtypes. Pharmacol Ther 107: 271-285.

Bunch L, Erichsen MN, Jensen AA (2009). Excitatory amino acid transporters as potential drug targets. Expert Opin Ther Targets 13: 719-731. Chao XD, Fei F, Fei Z (2010). The role of excitatory amino acid transporters in cerebral ischemia. Neurochem Res 35: 1224–1230.

Danbolt NC (2001). Glutamate uptake. Prog Neurobiol 65: 1-105.

Dunlop J (2006). Glutamate based therapeutic approaches: targeting the glutamate transport system. Curr Opin Pharmacol 6: 103-107.

Dunlop J, Butera JA (2006). Ligands targeting the excitatory amino acid transporters (EAATs). Curr Top Med Chem 6: 1897–1906.

Fuchs BC, Bode BP (2005). Amino acid transporters ASCT2 and LAT1 in cancer: partners in crime? Semin Cancer Biol 15: 254-266.

Grewer C, Rauen T (2005). Electrogenic glutamate transporters in the CNS: molecular mechanism, pre-steady-state kinetics, and their impact on synaptic signaling. J Membr Biol 203: 1-20.

Grewer C, Gameiro A, Zhang Z, Tao Z, Braams S, Rauen T (2008). Glutamate forward and reverse transport: from molecular mechanism to transporter-mediated release after ischemia. IUBMB Life 60: 609-619.

Hinoi E, Takarada T, Tsuchihashi Y, Yoneda Y (2005). Glutamate transporters as drug targets. Curr Drug Targets CNS Neurol Disord 4: 211–220. Huang YH, Bergles DE (2004). Glutamate transporters bring competition to the synapse. Cur Opin Neurobiol 14: 346-352.

Kanai Y, Hediger MA (2003). The glutamate and neutral amino acid transporter family: physiological and pharmacological implications. Eur J Pharmacol 479: 237-247.

Kanai Y, Hediger MA (2004). The glutamate/neutral amino acid transporter family SLC1: molecular, physiological and pharmacological aspects. Pflügers Archiv 447: 465-468.

Jiang J, Amara SG (2011). New views of glutamate transporter structure and function: advances and challenges. Neuropharmacology 60: 172–181. Kanner BI (2006). Structure and function of sodium-coupled GABA and glutamate transporters. J Membr Biol 213: 89–100.

Kanner BI, Zomot E (2008). Sodium-coupled neurotransmitter transporters. Chem Rev 108:1654–1668.

Kim K, Lee SG, Kegelman TP, Su ZZ, Das SK, Dash R et al. (2010). Role of excitatory amino acid transporter-2 (EAAT2) and glutamate in neurodegeneration: opportunities for developing novel therapeutics. J Cell Physiol 226: 2484-2493.

Lee A, Pow DV (2010). Astrocytes: glutamate transport and alternate splicing of transporters. Int J Biochem Cell Biol 42: 1901–1906.

McGivan JD, Bungard CI (2007). The transport of glutamine into mammalian cells. Front Biosci 12: 874-882.

Palacín M, Estévez R, Bertran J, Zorano A (1998). Molecular biology of mammalian plasma membrane amino acid transporters Physiol Rev 78:

Ryan RM, Vandenberg RJ (2005). A channel in a transporter. Clin Exp Pharmacol Physiol 32: 1-6.

Sheldon AL, Robinson MB (2007). The role of glutamate transporters in neurodegenerative diseases and potential opportunities for intervention. Neurochem Int 51: 333-355.

Shigeri Y, Seal RP, Shimamoto K (2004). Molecular pharmacology of glutamate transporters, EAATs and VGLUTs. Brain Res Brain Res Rev 45: 250-265

Shimamoto K (2008). Glutamate transporter blockers for elucidation of the function of excitatory neurotransmission systems. Chem Rec 8: 182-199.

Sonders MS, Quick M, Javitch JA (2005). How did the neurotransmitter cross the bilayer? A closer look. Curr Opin Neurobiol 15: 296-304. Tzingouris AV, Wadiche JI (2007). Glutamate transporters: confining runaway excitation by shaping synaptic transmission. Nat Rev Neurosci 8:

935-947. Vandenberg RJ (2006). Mutational analysis of glutamate transporters. Handb Exp Pharmacol 175:113–135.

Vandenberg RJ, Ryan RM (2005). How and why are channels in transporters? Sci STKE 19: pe17.

Vandenberg RJ, Ju P, Aubrey KR, Ryan RM, Mitrovic AD (2004). Allosteric modulation of neurotransmitter transporters at excitatory synapses. Eur I Pharm Sci 23: 1-11.

Vandenberg RJ, Huang S, Ryan RM (2008). Slips, leaks and channels in glutamate transporters. Channels (Austin) 2: 51–58.

References

Amara SG, Arriza JL (1993). Curr Opin Neurobiol 3: 337-344. Apricò K et al. (2001). J Neurochem 77: 1218-1225. Apricò K et al. (2004). J Neurosci Res 75: 751-759. Apricò K et al. (2007). Neurochem Int 51: 507-516. Arizza J et al. (1993). J Biol Chem 268: 15329-15332. Bailey CG et al. (2011). J Clin Inv 121: 4464-4453. Boudker O et al. (2007). Nature 445: 387-393. Bröer A et al. (1999). J Neurochem 73: 2184-2194. Bröer A et al. (2000). Biochem J 346: 705-710. Colton CK et al. (2010). J Biomol Screen 15: 653-662. Colleoni S et al. (2008). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 326: 646-656. Coon TR et al. (2004). Abstract Viewer/Itinerary Planner, Program No. 168.10. Society for Neuroscience: Washington, DC. Dunlop J et al. (2003). Br J Pharmacol 140: 839-846. Dunlop J et al. (2005). Mol Pharmacol 68: 974-982. Eliasof S et al. (2001). J Neurochem 77: 550-557. Esslinger CS et al. (2005a). Bioorg Med Chem 13:1111-1118. Esslinger CS et al. (2005b). Neuropharmacology 49: 850-861. Fontana AC et al. (2003). Br J Pharmacol 139: 1297-1309. Fontana AC et al. (2007). Mol Pharmacol 72: 1228-1237. Gameiro A et al. (2011). Biophys J 100: 2623-2632. Ganel R et al. (2006). Neurobiol Dis 21: 556-567. Gebhardt FM et al. (2010). J Biol Chem 285: 31313-31324. Gendreau S et al. (2004). J Biol Chem 279: 39505-39512 Goursaud S et al. (2011). FASEB J doi: 10.1096/Fj.11-182337. Grewer C, Grabsch E (2004). J Physiol 557:747-759. Grewer C et al. (2005). Biochemistry 44:11913-11923. Grunwald M, Kanner BI (2000). J Biol Chem 275: 9684-9698. Huang S et al. (2009). J Biol Chem 284: 4510-4515. Koch HP et al. (2007). J Neurosci 27: 2943-2947.

Jensen AA et al. (2009). J Med Chem 52: 912-915. Lau CL et al. (2011). Br J Pharmacol 163: 533-545. Leary GP et al. (2007). J Neurosci 27: 2938-2942. Lee SG et al. (2008). J Biol Chem 283:13116-13123. Levy L et al. (1998). J Neurosci 18: 9620-9628. Machtens JP et al. (2011). J Biol Chem 286: 23780-23788. Nothmann D et al. (2011). J Biol Chem 286: 3935-3943. Oppedisano F et al. (2010). Biochem Pharmacol 80: 1266-1273. Pinilla-Tenas J et al. (2003). J Membr Biol 195: 27-32. Reyes N et al. (2009). Nature 462: 880-885. Romera C et al. (2007). J Cereb Blood Flow Metab 27: 1327-1338. Rose EM et al. (2009). J Neurosci 29: 8143-8155. Rothstein JD et al. (2005). Nature 433: 73-77 Ryan RM, Mindell JA (2007). Nat Struct Mol Biol 14: 365-371. Ryan RM et al. (2004). J Biol Chem 279: 20742-20751. Shigeri Y et al. (2001). J Neurochem 79: 279-302. Shimamoto K et al. (1998). Mol Pharmacol 53: 195-201. Shimamoto K et al. (2007). Mol Pharmacol 71: 294-302. Tamarappoo B et al. (1996). Biochim Biophys Acta 1279: 131-136. Torres-Salazar D, Fahlke C (2007). J Biol Chem 282: 34719-33426. Utsunomiya-Tate N et al. (1996). J Biol Chem 271:14883-14890. Veruki ML et al. (2006). Nat Neurosci 11: 1388-1396. Vandenberg RJ et al. (1997). Mol Pharmacol 51: 809-815. Yernool D et al. (2004). Nature 431: 811-818. Zerangue N, Kavanaugh MP (1996a). J Physiol 493: 419-423. Zerangue N, Kavanaugh MP (1996b). Nature 383: 634-637. Zerangue N, Kavanaugh MP (1996c). J Biol Chem 271: 27991-27994. Zhou LM et al. (1997). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 280: 422-427. Zou S et al. (2011). J Neurochem 117: 833-840.

SLC2 family of hexose and sugar alcohol transporters

Overview: the SLC2 family transports glucose, fructose, inositol and related hexoses. Three classes of glucose transporter can be identified, separating GLUT1-4 and 14; GLUT6, 8, 10 and 12; and GLUT5, 7, 9 and 11. Modelling suggests a 12 TM membrane topology, with intracellular termini, with functional transporters acting as homodimers or homotetramers.

Class I transporters are able to transport glucose, but not fructose, in the direction of the concentration gradient and may be inhibited non-selectively by phloretin and cytochalasin B. GLUT1 is the major glucose transporter in brain, placenta and erythrocytes, GLUT2 is found in the pancreas, liver and kidneys, GLUT3 is neuronal and placental, while GLUT4 is the insulin-responsive transporter found in skeletal muscle, heart and adipose tissue. GLUT14 appears to result from gene duplication of GLUT3 and is expressed in the testes (Wu and Freeze, 2002).

Systematic name	SLC2A1	SLC2A2	SLC2A3	SLC2A4	SLC2A14
Preferred abbreviation	GLUT1	GLUT2	GLUT3	GLUT4	GLUT14
Nomenclature	Glucose transporter 1	Glucose transporter 2	Glucose transporter 3	Glucose transporter 4	Glucose transporter 14
Other names	HepG2 glucose transporter, erythrocyte/brain glucose transporter	Liver glucose transporter	Fructose transporter, brain glucose transporter	Insulin-responsive glucose transporter	-
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000117394	ENSG00000163581	ENSG00000059804	ENSG00000181856	ENSG00000173262
Substrates	Glucose = glucosamine (Uldry et al., 2002), dehydroascorbic acid (Bianchi and Rose, 1986)	Glucosamine > glucose (Uldry <i>et al.</i> , 2002)	Glucose	Glucosamine <u>></u> glucose (Uldry <i>et al.,</i> 2002)	-
Probes	[3H]-2-Deoxyglucose	[3H]-2-Deoxyglucose	[3H]-2-Deoxyglucose	[3H]-2-Deoxyglucose	_

Class II transporters transport fructose and appear to be insensitive to cytochalasin B.

Systematic name	SLC2A5	SLC2A7	SLC2A9	SLC2A11
Preferred abbreviation	GLUT5	GLUT7	GLUT9	GLUT11
Nomenclature	Glucose transporter 5	Glucose transporter 7	Glucose transporter 9	Glucose transporter 11
Other names	Small intestine glucose transporter	_	-	-
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000142583	ENSG00000197241	ENSG00000109667	ENSG00000133460
Substrates	Fructose > glucose (Burant et al., 1992)	Fructose, glucose (Cheeseman, 2008)	Fructose, uric acid (Caulfield et al., 2008)	Glucose (Doege <i>et al.</i> , 2001), fructose (Manolescu <i>et al.</i> , 2007)
	Preferred abbreviation Nomenclature Other names Ensembl ID	Preferred abbreviation Nomenclature Other names Small intestine glucose transporter Ensembl ID ENSG00000142583 Substrates Fructose > glucose (Burant	Preferred abbreviation GLUT5 GLUT7 Nomenclature Glucose transporter 5 Glucose transporter 7 Other names Small intestine glucose transporter Ensembl ID ENSG00000142583 ENSG00000197241 Substrates Fructose > glucose (Burant Fructose, glucose	Preferred abbreviation GLUT5 GLUT7 GLUT9 Nomenclature Glucose transporter 5 Glucose transporter 7 Glucose transporter 9 Other names Small intestine glucose transporter 7 — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — —

Class II transporters appear to be predominantly intracellularly located.

1				
Systematic name	SLC2A6	SLC2A8	SLC2A10	SLC2A12
Preferred abbreviation	GLUT6	GLUT8	GLUT10	GLUT12
Nomenclature	Glucose transporter 6	Glucose transporter 8	Glucose transporter 10	Glucose transporter 12
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000160326	ENSG00000136856	ENSG00000197496	ENSG00000146411
Substrates	_	Glucose (Ibberson et al., 2000)	Glucose, dehydroascorbic acid (Lee <i>et al.</i> , 2010)	Glucose (Rogers <i>et al.</i> , 2003)

Proton-coupled inositol transporters are expressed predominantly in the brain and can be inhibited by phloretin and cytochalasin B (Uldry et al., 2002).

Systematic name	SLC2A13
Preferred abbreviation	НМІТ
Nomenclature	Proton <i>myo</i> -inositol cotransporter
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000151229
Other names	H ⁺ - <i>myo</i> -inositol symporter
Substrates	myo-Inositol, scyllo-inositol, chiro-inositol, muco-inositol (Uldry et al., 2002)
Stoichiometry	1 H ⁺ : 1 inositol (in) (Di Daniel <i>et al.</i> , 2009)

Further Reading

Augustin R (2010). The protein family of glucose transport facilitators: it's not only about glucose after all. IUBMB Life 62: 315-333. Leney SE, Tavare JM (2009). The molecular basis of insulin-stimulated glucose uptake: signalling, trafficking and potential drug targets. J Endocrinol 203: 1-18.

Uldry M, Thorens B (2004). The SLC2 family of facilitated hexose and polyol transporters. Pflugers Arch 447: 480-489.

References

Bianchi J, Rose RC (1986). Proc Soc Exp Biol Med 181: 333-337. Burant CF et al. (1992). J Biol Chem 267: 14523-14526. Caulfield MJ et al. (2008). PLoS Med 5: e197. Cheeseman C (2008). Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab 295: E238-E241. Di Daniel E et al. (2009). BMC Cell Biol 10: 54. Doege H et al. (2001). Biochem J 359: 443-449.

Ibberson M et al. (2000). J Biol Chem 275: 4607-4612. Lee YC et al. (2010). Hum Mol Genet 19: 3721-3733. Manolescu AR et al. (2007). Mol Membr Biol 24: 455-463. Rogers S et al. (2003). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 308: 422-426. Uldry M et al. (2002). FEBS Lett 524: 199-203. Wu X, Freeze HH (2002). Genomics 80: 553-557.

SLC3 and SLC7 families of heteromeric amino acid transporters (HATs)

Overview: these families combine to generate functional transporters, where the subunit composition is a disulphide-linked combination of a heavy chain (SLC3 family) with a light chain (SLC7 family).

SLC3 family members are single TM proteins with extensive glycosylation of the exterior C-terminus, which heterodimerize with SLC7 family members in the endoplasmic reticulum and assist in the plasma membrane localization of the transporter.

Systematic name SLC3A1 SLC3A2

Common abbreviation RBAT 4F2hc

Nomenclature Cystine, dibasic, and neutral amino acid transporter 4F2 cell-surface antigen heavy chain

Ensembl ID ENSG00000138079 ENSG00000168003

EN34000015007

Other names B^{0,+}-type amino acid transport protein; D2H, ATR1 CD98 antigen Lymphocyte activation antigen 4F2 large

subunit

SLC7 family members may be divided into two major groups: cationic amino acid transporters (CATs) and glycoprotein-associated amino acid transporters (gpaATs).

Cationic amino acid transporters are 14 TM proteins, which mediate pH- and sodium-independent transport of cationic amino acids (system y^+), apparently as an exchange mechanism. These transporters are sensitive to inhibition by N-ethylmaleimide.

Systematic name	SLC7A1	SLC7A2	SLC7A3	SLC7A4	SLC7A14
Preferred abbreviation	CAT1	CAT2	CAT3	CAT4	-
Nomenclature	High affinity cationic amino acid transporter 1	Low affinity cationic amino acid transporter 2	Cationic amino acid transporter 3	Cationic amino acid transporter 4	-
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000139514	ENSG00000003989	ENSG00000165349	ENSG00000099960	ENSG00000013293
Other names	System Y ⁺ basic amino acid transporter, ecotropic retroviral leukemia receptor homolog, ERR, ATRC1	ATRC2	Cationic amino acid transporter y+	-	-
Substrates	L-Arginine, L-lysine, L-ornithine, L-histidine	L-Arginine, L-lysine, L-ornithine, L-histidine	L-Arginine, L-lysine, L-ornithine	-	-

CAT4 appears to be non-functional in heterologous expression (Wolf et al., 2002), while SLC7A14 has yet to be characterized.

Glycoprotein-associated amino acid transporters are 12 TM proteins, which heterodimerize with members of the SLC3 family to act as cell-surface amino acid exchangers.

Heterodimers between 4F2hc and hLAT1 or hLAT2 generate sodium-independent system L transporters. These transport large neutral amino acids (L-leucine, L-isoleucine and L-methionine).

Heterodimers between 4F2hc and y+LAT1 or y+LAT2 generate sodium-dependent transporters, similar to the system y^+L transporters. These transporters are N-ethylmaleimide-insensitive and transport neutral (L-leucine) as well as cationic (L-arginine, L-lysine and L-ornithine) amino acids. Heterodimers between RBAT and $B^{0,+}AT$ appear to mediate sodium-independent system $b^{0,+}$ transport of neutral and cationic amino acids (L-leucine, L-arginine, L-lysine and L-ornithine).

Systematic name	SLC7A5	SLC7A8	SLC7A7	SLC7A6	SLC7A9
Preferred abbreviation	hLAT1	hLAT2	y+LAT1	y+LAT2	B ^{0,+} AT
Nomenclature	L-type amino acid transporter 1	L-type amino acid transporter 2	y+L amino acid transporter 1	y+L amino acid transporter 2	B ^{0,+} -type amino acid transporter 1
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000103257	ENSG00000092068	ENSG00000155465	ENSG00000103064	ENSG00000021488

Systematic name	SLC7A5	SLC7A8	SLC7A7	SLC7A6	SLC7A9
Other names	Large neutral amino acids transporter small subunit 1, y+ system cationic amino acid transporter, 4F2 light chain, 4F2LC, CD98 light chain, integral membrane protein E16	Large neutral amino acids transporter small subunit 2	Monocyte amino acid permease 2, MOP-2	Cationic amino acid transporter, y+ system	Glycoprotein-associated amino acid transporter

Asc-1 appears to heterodimerize with 4F2hc to allow the transport of small neutral amino acids (such as L-alanine, L-serine and glycine), as well as D-serine, in a sodium-independent manner.

xCT generates a heterodimer with 4F2hc for a system x_c^- transporter that accumulates cystine in a sodium-independent manner.

AGT has been conjugated with SLC3 members as fusion proteins to generate functional transporters, but the identity of a native heterodimer has yet to be ascertained.

Systematic name	SLC7A10	SLC7A11	SLC7A13
Preferred abbreviation	Asc-1	xCT	XAT2
Nomenclature	Asc-type amino acid transporter 1	_	AGT1
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000130876	ENSG00000151012	ENSG00000164893

Abbreviations: CAT, cationic amino acid transporter, gpaAT, glycoprotein-associated amino acid transporter

Further Reading

Closs EI, Boissel JP, Habermeier A, Rotmann A (2006). Structure and function of cationic amino acid transporters (CATs). J Membr Biol 213: 67–77. Palacin M, Kanai Y (2004). The ancillary proteins of HATs: SLC3 family of amino acid transporters. Pflugers Arch 447: 490-494. Palacin M, Nunes V, Font-Llitjos M, Jimenez-Vidal M, Fort J, Gasol E et al. (2005). The genetics of heteromeric amino acid transporters. Physiology (Bethesda) 20: 112-124.

Verrey F, Closs EI, Wagner CA, Palacin M, Endou H, Kanai Y (2004). CATs and HATs: the SLC7 family of amino acid transporters. Pflugers Arch 447: 532-542.

Reference

Wolf S et al. (2002). Biochem J 364: 767-775.

SLC4 family of bicarbonate transporters

Overview: together with the SLC26 family, the SLC4 family of transporters subserve anion exchange, principally of chloride and bicarbonate, but also carbonate and hydrogen sulphate (HSO₄-). SLC4 family members regulate bicarbonate fluxes as part of carbon dioxide movement, chyme neutralization and reabsorption in the kidney.

Within the family, subgroups of transporters are identifiable: the electroneutral sodium-independent Cl⁻/HCO₃⁻ transporters (AE1, AE2 and AE3), the electrogenic sodium-dependent HCO₃⁻ transporters (NBCe1 and NBCe2) and the electroneutral HCO₃⁻ transporters (NBCn1 and NBCn2). Topographical information derives mainly from study of AE1, abundant in erythrocytes, which suggests a dimeric or tetrameric arrangement, with subunits made up of 13 TM domains and re-entrant loops at TM9/10 and TM11/12. The N terminus exhibits sites for interaction with multiple proteins, including glycolytic enzymes, haemoglobin and cytoskeletal elements.

Anion exchangers

Systematic name	SLC4A1	SLC4A2	SLC4A3	SLC4A9
Common abbrevi	ation AE1	AE2	AE3	AE4
Nomenclature	Anion exchange pro	tein 1 Anion exchange prot	tein 2 Anion exchange pro	otein 3 Anion exchange protein 4
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000004939	ENSG00000164889	ENSG00000114923	ENSG00000113073
Other names	Band 3, CD233	Non-erythroid band protein, BND3L	3-like Neuronal band 3-lik protein, cardiac/brai 3-like protein, CAE3	in band cotransporter 5
Endogenous subs	trates Chloride, bicarbonat	e Chloride, bicarbonate	e Chloride, bicarbonat	te –
Stoichiometry	1 Cl ⁻ (in) : 1 HCO ₃ ⁻	(out) 1 Cl ⁻ (in) : 1 HCO ₃ ⁻ ((out) $1 \text{ Cl}^- \text{ (in)} : 1 \text{ HCO}_3^-$	(out) –

Sodium-dependent HCO₃⁻ transporters

Systematic name	SLC4A4	SLC4A5	SLC4A7	SLC4A10
Common abbreviation	NBCe1	NBCe2	NBCn1	NBCn2
Nomenclature	Electrogenic sodium bicarbonate cotransporter 1	Electrogenic sodium bicarbonate cotransporter 4	Electroneutral sodium bicarbonate cotransporter 1	Electroneutral sodium bicarbonate cotransporter 2
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000080493	ENSG00000188687	ENSG00000033867	ENSG00000144290
Other names	Sodium bicarbonate cotransporter, kNBC1, NBC2, pNBC	NBC4	Sodium bicarbonate cotransporter 3, NBC3	Sodium-driven chloride bicarbonate exchanger NCBE
Endogenous substrates	Sodium bicarbonate	Sodium bicarbonate	Sodium bicarbonate	Sodium bicarbonate
Stoichiometry	1 Na ⁺ : 2/3 HCO ₃ ⁻ (out) or 1 Na ⁺ : CO ₃ ^{2*} (out) or 1 NaCO ₃ ⁻ (out)	1 Na ⁺ : 2/3 HCO ₃ ⁻ (out) or 1 Na ⁺ : CO ₃ ^{2*} (out) or 1 NaCO ₃ ⁻ (out)	1 Na ⁺ : 1 HCO ₃ ⁻ (out) or 1 Na ⁺ : CO ₃ ^{2*} (out) or 1 NaCO ₃ ⁻ (out)	1 Na*: 1 HCO ₃ ⁻ (out) of 1 Na*: CO ₃ ^{2*} (out) or 1 NaCO ₃ ⁻ (out)

		I
Systematic name	SLC4A8	SLC4A11
Common abbreviation	NDCBE	BTR1
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000050438	ENSG00000088836
Other names	Electroneutral Na⁺-driven Cl-HCO₃ exchanger, k-NBC3	NaBC1, bicarbonate transporter-related protein 1
Endogenous substrates	Chloride, sodium bicarbonate	-
Stoichiometry	1 Na ⁺ : 2HCO ₃ ⁻ (in) : 1 Cl ⁻ (out)	-

Further Reading

Alper SL (2009). Molecular physiology and genetics of Na⁺-independent SLC4 anion exchangers. J Exp Biol 212: 1672–1683. Romero MF, Fulton CM, Boron WF (2004). The SLC4 family of HCO₃⁻ transporters. Pflugers Arch 447: 495–509.

SLC5 family of sodium-dependent transporters

Overview: The SLC5 family of sodium-dependent transporters includes, in mammals, the Na⁺/substrate co-transporters for choline, glucose, monocarboxylates, myo-inositol and iodide (Ferguson and Blakely, 2004; Wright and Turk, 2004; Ganapathy et al., 2008; Wright et al., 2011). Members of the SLC5 and SLC6 families, along with other unrelated Na⁺ cotransporters (i.e. Mhp1 and BetP), share a common structural core that contains an inverted repeat of 5TM α-helical domains (Abramson and Wright, 2009).

Choline transporter

The high affinity, hemicholinium-3-sensitive, choline transporter (CHT) is expressed mainly in cholinergic neurones on nerve cell terminals and synaptic vesicles (keratinocytes being an additional location). In autonomic neurones, expression of CHT requires an activity-dependent retrograde signal from postsynaptic neurones (Krishnaswamy and Cooper 2009). Through recapture of choline generated by the hydrolysis of ACh by acetylcholinesterase, CHT serves to maintain ACh synthesis within the presynaptic terminal (Ferguson and Blakely, 2004). Homozygous mice engineered to lack CHT die within one hour of birth as a result of hypoxia arising from failure of transmission at the neuromuscular junction of the skeletal muscles that support respiration (Ferguson et al., 2004). A low affinity choline uptake mechanism that remains to be identified at the molecular level may involve multiple transporters. In addition, a family of choline transporter-like (CTL) proteins, (which are members of the SLC44 family) with weak Na⁺dependence have been described (Traiffort et al., 2005).

Common abbreviation	СНТ
Systematic name	SLC5A7
Other names	CHT1, choline transporter 1
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000115665
Endogenous substrates	Choline
Synthetic substrates	Triethylcholine
Selective inhibitors (K_i)	HC-3 (1-5 nM)
Probes (K_D)	[³ H]-HC-3 (4-6 nM)
Stoichiometry	Na ⁺ : choline (variable stoichimetry); modulated by extracellular Cl ⁻ (Iwamoto <i>et al.</i> , 2006)

 K_i and K_D values for hemicholinium-3 listed in the table are for human CHT expressed in Xenopus laevis oocytes (Okuda and Haga, 2000), or COS-7 cells (Apparsundaram et al., 2000). Hemicholinium mustard is a substrate for CHT that causes covalent modification and irreversible inactivation of the transporter. Several exogenous substances (e.g. triethylcholine) that are substrates for CHT act as precursors to cholinergic false transmitters.

Hexose transporter family

Detailed characterisation of members of the hexose transporter family is limited to SGLT1, 2 and 3, which are all inhibited in a competitive manner by phlorizin, a natural dihydrocholine glucoside, that exhibits modest selectivity towards SGLT2 (see Wright et al., 2011 for an extensive review). SGLT1 is predominantly expressed in the small intestine, mediating the absorption of glucose, but also occurs in the brain, heart and in the late proximal straight tubule of the kidney. The expression of SGLT2 is almost exclusively restricted to the early proximal convoluted tubule of the kidney, where it is largely responsible for the renal reabsorption of glucose. SGLT3 is not a transporter but instead acts as a glucosensor generating an inwardly directed flux of Nat that causes membrane depolarization (Diez-Sampedro et al., 2003).

Common abbreviation	SGLT1	SGLT2	SGLT3	SGLT4	SGLT5
Systematic name	SLC5A1	SLC5A2	SLC5A4	SLC5A9	SLC5A10
Other names	Sodium/glucose cotransporter 1, high affinity sodium-glucose cotransporter	Sodium/glucose cotransporter 2, low affinity sodium-glucose cotransporter	Low affinity sodium-glucose cotransporter, sodium/glucose cotransporter 3 (note, these previous names are a misnomer since SGLT3 is a glucosensor)	Sodium/glucose cotransporter 4	Sodium/glucose cotransporter 5
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000100170	ENSG00000140675	ENSG00000100191	ENSG00000117834	ENSG0000015402
Substrates	D-glucose, D-galactose	D-glucose	Ligands include D-glucose, 1-deoxynojirimycin, miglitol, miglustat, N-ethyl-1-deoxynojirimycin, and 1-deoxynojirimycin- 1-sulfonic acid	D-glucose, D-mannose	D-glucose, D-galactose
Synthetic substrates	αMDG	αMDG	-	αMDG	-
Inhibitors (pIC₅0)	Dapaglifozin (5.9), canaglifozin (6.4), empaglifozin (5.1), remogliflozin (p K_i = 5.4), sergliflozin (p K_i = 5.1)	Dapagliflozin (9.0), canaglifozin (8.7), empaglifozin (8.5) remogliflozin (p $K_i = 7.9$), sergliflozin (p $K_i = 6.8$)		_	_
Stoichiometry	2 Na ⁺ : 1 glucose (Kanai <i>et al.,</i> 1994)	1 Na ⁺ : 1 glucose (Hummel <i>et al.</i> , 2011)	-	_	-

Recognition and transport of substrate by SGLTs requires that the sugar is a pyranose. De-oxyglucose derivatives have reduced affinity for SGLT1, but the replacement of the sugar equatorial hydroxyl group by fluorine at some positions, excepting C2 and C3, is tolerated (see Wright *et al.*, 2011 for a detailed quantification). Although SGLT1 and SGLT2 have been described as high- and low-affinity sodium glucose co-transporters, respectively, recent work suggests that they have a similar affinity for glucose under physiological conditions (Hummel *et al.*, 2011). Selective blockers of SGLT2, and thus blocking ~50% of renal glucose reabsorption, are in development for the treatment of diabetes (*e.g.* Chao and Henry, 2010).

Sodium iodide symporter, sodium-dependent multivitamin transporter and sodium-coupled monocarboxylate transporters

The sodium-iodide symporter (NIS) is an iodide transporter found principally in the thyroid gland where it mediates the accumulation of iodide within thyrocytes. Transport of iodide by NIS from the blood across the basolateral membrane followed by apical efflux into the colloidal lumen. mediated at least in part by pendrin (SLC22A4), and most likely not SMCT1 (SLC5A8) as once thought, provides the iodide required for the synthesis of the thyroid hormones triiodothyronine (T_3) and thyroxine (T_4) (Bizhanova and Kopp, 2009). NIS is also expressed in the salivary glands, gastric mucosa, intestinal enterocytes and lactating breast. NIS mediates I⁻ absorption in the intestine and I⁻ secretion into the milk. SMVT is expressed on the apical membrane of intestinal enterocytes and colonocytes and is the main system responsible for biotin (vitamin H) and pantothenic acid (vitamin B₅) uptake in humans (Said, 2009). SMVT located in kidney proximal tubule epithelial cells mediates the reabsorption of biotin and pantothenic acid. SMCT1 (SLC5A8), which transports a wide range of monocarboxylates, is expressed in the apical membrane of epithelia of the small intestine, colon, kidney, brain neurones and the retinal pigment epithelium (Ganapathy et al., 2008). SMCT2 (SLC5A12) also localises to the apical membrane of kidney, intestine, and colon, but in the brain and retina is restricted to astrocytes and Müller cells, respectively (Ganapathy et al., 2008). SMCT1 is a high-affinity transporter whereas SMCT2 is a low-affinity transporter. The physiological substrates for SMCT1 and SMCT2 are lactate, pyruvate, propionate, and nicotinate in non-colonic tissues such as the kidney. SMCT1 is also likely to be the principal transporter for the absorption of nicotinate (vitamin B3) in the intestine and kidney (Gopal et al., 2005). In the small intestine and colon, the physiological substrates for these transporters are nicotinate and the short-chain fatty acids acetate, propionate, and butyrate that are produced by bacterial fermentation of dietary fiber (Miyauchi et al., 2004). In the kidney, SMCT2 is responsible for the bulk absorption of lactate because of its low-affinity/high-capacity nature. Absence of both transporters in the kidney leads to massive excretion of lactate in urine and consequently drastic decrease in the circulating levels of lactate in blood (Thangaraju et al., 2006a). SMCT1 also functions as a tumour suppressor in the colon as well as in various other non-colonic tissues (Ganapathy et al., 2009). The tumour-suppressive function of SMCT1 is based on its ability to transport pyruvate, an inhibitor of histone deacetylases, into cells in non-colonic tissues (Thangaraju et al., 2006b); in the colon, the ability of SMCT1 to transport butyrate and propionate, also inhibitors of histone deacetylases, underlies the tumour-suppressive function of this transporter (Gupta et al., 2006; Ganapathy et al., 2008; Ganapathy et al., 2009). The ability of SMCT1 to promote histone acetylase inhibition through accumulation of butyrate and propionate in immune cells is also responsible for suppression of dendritic cell development in the colon (Singh et al., 2010).

Common abbreviation	NIS	SMVT	SMCT1	SMCT2
Systematic name	SLC5A5	SLC5A6	SLC5A8	SLC5A12
Other names	Sodium/iodide cotransporter, sodium-iodide symporter	Sodium-dependent multivitamin transporter	Sodium-coupled monocarboxylate transporter 1, electrogenic sodium monocarboxylate cotransporter, sodium iodide-related cotransporter, apical iodide transporter (AIT)	Sodium-coupled monocarboxylate transporter 2, electroneutral sodium monocarboxylate cotransporter, low-affinity sodium-lactate cotransporter
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000105641	ENSG00000138074	ENSG00000139357	ENSG00000148942
Substrates	I⁻, thiocyanate, nitrate	Pantothenic acid, biotin, lipoic acid, l ⁻ (de Carvalho and Quick, 2011)	Butyrate, L-lactate, propionate, acetoacetate, α-ketoisocaproate, nicotinate, pyroglutamate, pyruvate, D-lactate, β-D-hydroxybutryrate, β-L-hydroxybutryrate, acetate	Lactate, pyruvate, nicotinate
Synthetic substrates	Perchlorate, pertectnetate	-	Benzoate, salicylate, 5-aminosalicylate, 2-oxothiazolidine-4-carboxylate, dichloroacetate, 8-bromopyruvate	-
Inhibitors (pIC ₅₀)	-	-	lbuprofen (4.2) , ketoprofen, fenoprofen	-
Stoichiometry	2 Na ⁺ : 1 I ⁻ (Eskandari et al., 1997); 1 Na ⁺ : 1 ClO ₄ ⁻ (Dohan et al., 2007)	2 Na ⁺ : 1biotin (or pantothenic acid) (Prasad <i>et al.</i> , 2000)	2 Na ⁺ : 1 monocarboxylate (Coady <i>et al.</i> , 2007)	-

I-, perchlorate, thiocyanate and nitrate are competitive substrate inhibitors of NIS (Dohan et al., 2007). α-Lipoic acid appears to act as a competitive substrate inhibitor of SMVT (Wang et al., 1999) and the anticonvulsant drugs primidone and carbamazepine competitively block the transport of biotin by brush border vesicles prepared from human intestine (Said et al., 1998).

Sodium myo-inositol cotransporter transporters

Three different mammalian myo-inositol cotransporters are currently known; two are the Na⁺-coupled SMIT1 and SMIT2 tabulated below and the third is proton-coupled HMIT (SLC2A13). SMIT1 and SMIT2 have a widespread and overlapping tissue location but in polarized cells, such as the Madin-Darby canine kidney cell line, they segregate to the basolateral and apical membranes, respectively (Bissonnette et al., 2004). In the nephron, SMIT1 mediates myo-inositol uptake as a 'compatible osmolyte' when inner medullary tubules are exposed to increases in extracellular osmolality, whilst SMIT2 mediates the reabsorption of myo-inositol from the filtrate. In some species (e.g. rat, but not rabbit) apically located SMIT2 is responsible for the uptake of myo-inositol from the intestinal lumen (Aouameur et al., 2007).

Common abbreviation	SMIT1	SMIT2
Systematic name	SLC5A3	SLC5A11
Other names	Sodium/myo-inositol cotransporter (SMIT)	Sodium/ <i>myo</i> -inositol cotransporter 2, sodium/glucose cotransporter6, kST1
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000198743	ENSG00000158865
Substrates	Myo-inositol, scyllo-inositol > L-fucose > L-xylose > L-glucose, D-glucose, alpha-methyl-D-glucopyranoside > D-galactose, D-fucose > D-xylose (Hager <i>et al.</i> , 1995)	Myo-inositol = D-chiro-inositol> D-glucose > D-xylose > L-xylose (Coady et al., 2002)
Inhibitors	Phlorizin	Phlorizin
Stoichiometry	2 Na ⁺ :1 <i>myo</i> -inositol (Hager <i>et al.</i> , 1995)	2 Na ⁺ :1 <i>myo</i> -inositol (Bourgeois <i>et al.</i> , 2005)

The data tabulated are those for dog SMIT1 and rabbit SMIT2. SMIT2 transports D-chiro-inositol, but SMIT1 does not. In addition, whereas SMIT1 transports both D- and L-xylose and D- and L-fucose, SMIT2 transports only the D-isomers of these sugars (Hager et al., 1995; Coady et al., 2002). Thus the substrate specificities of SMIT1 (for L-fucose) and SMIT2 (for D-chiro-inositol) allow discrimination between the two SMITs. Human SMIT2 appears not to transport glucose (Lin et al., 2009).

Abbreviations: HC-3, hemicholinium-3; αMDG, α-methyl-D-glucose pyranoside

Further Reading

Abramson J, Wright EM (2009). Structure and function of Na(+)-symporters with inverted repeats. Curr Opin Struct Biol 19: 425-432.

Amenta F, Tayebati SK (2008). Pathways of acetylcholine synthesis, transport and release as targets for treatment of adult-onset cognitive dysfunction. Curr Med Chem 15: 488-498.

Bailey CJ (2011). Renal glucose reabsorption inhibitors to treat diabetes. Trends Pharmacol Sci 32: 63-71.

Bazalakova MH, Blakely RD (2006). The high-affinity choline transporter: a critical protein for sustaining cholinergic signaling as revealed in studies of genetically altered mice. Handb Exp Pharmacol 175: 525-544.

Bizhanova A, Kopp P (2009). The sodium-iodide symporter NIS and pendrin in iodide homeostasis of the thyroid. Endocrinology, 150: 1084–1090. Boldys A, Okopien B (2009). Inhibitors of type 2 sodium glucose co-transporters-a new strategy for diabetes treatment. Pharmacol Rep 61: 778-784.

Chao EC, Henry RR (2010). SGLT2 inhibiton - a novel strategy for diabetes treatment. Nat Rev Drug Dev 9: 511-559.

Ferguson SM, Blakely RD (2004). The choline transporter resurfaces: new roles for synaptic vesicles. Mol Interv 4: 22-37.

Ganapathy V, Thangaraju M, Gopal E, Martin PM, İtagaki S, Miyauchi S, Prasad PD (2008). Sodium-coupled monocarboxylate transporters in normal tissues and in cancer. AAPS J 10: 193-199.

Ganapathy V, Thangaraju M, Prasad PD (2009). Nutrient transporters in cancer: relevance to Warburg hypothesis and beyond. Pharmacol Ther 121: 29-40.

Ghosh RK, Ghosh SM, Chawla S, Jasdanwala SA (2011). SGLT2 inhibitors: a new emerging therapeutic class in the treatment of type 2 diabetes mellitus. J Clin Pharmacol doi: 10-1177/091270011400604.x

Kinne RK, Castaneda F (2011). SGLT inhibitors as new therapeutic tools in the treatment of diabetes Handb Exp Pharmacol 203: 105-126. Okuda T, Haga T (2003). High-affinity choline transporter. Neurochem Res 28: 483-488.

Ribeiro FM, Black SA, Prado VF, Rylett RJ, Ferguson SS, Prado MA. (2006). The "ins" and "outs" of the high-affinity choline transporter CHT1. I Neurochem 97: 1-12.

Sabino-Silva R, Mori RC, David-Silva A, Okamoto MM, Freitas HS, Machado UF. (2010). The Nat/glucose cotransporters: from genes to therapy. Braz J Med Biol Res 43: 1019-1026.

Said HM (2009). Cell and molecular aspects of human intestinal biotin absorption. J Nutr 139: 158-162.

Sarter M, Parikh V (2005). Choline transporters, cholinergic transmission and cognition. Nat Rev Neurosci 6: 48-56.

Uldry M, Thorens B (2004). The SLC2 family of facilitated hexose and polyol transporters. Pflugers Arch 447: 480-489.

Wright EM, Loo DD, Hirayama BA (2004). Surprising versatility of Na⁺-glucose cotranporters: SCL5. Physiology 19: 370-376.

Wright EM, Loo DD, Hirayama BA (2011). Biology of human sodium glucose transporters. Physiol Rev 91: 733-794.

Wright EM, Turk E (2004). The sodium/glucose cotransport family SLC5. Pflügers Arch 447: 510-518.

References

Aouameur R et al. (2007). Am J Physiol 293: G1300–G1307.

Apparsundaram S et al. (2000). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 276: 862–867.

Bissonnette P et al. (2004). J Physiol 558: 759–568.

Bourgeois F et al. (2005). J Physiol 563: 333–343.

Coady MJ et al. (2002). J Biol Chem 277: 35219–35224.

Coady MJ et al. (2007). Biophys J 93: 2325–2331.

De Carvalho FD, Quick M (2011). J Biol Chem 286: 131–137.

Diez-Sampedro A et al. (2003). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 100: 11753–11758.

Dohan O *et al.* (2007). *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **104**: 20250–20255. Eskandari S *et al.* (1997). *J Biol Chem* **272**: 27230–27238. Ferguson SM *et al.* (2004). *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **101**: 8762–8767. Gopal E *et al.* (2005). *Biochem J* **388**: 309–316. Gupta N *et al.* (2006). *Life Sci* **78**: 2419–2425.

Iwamoto H et al. (2006). J Neurosci 26: 9851–9859. Hager K et al. (1995). J Membr Biol 143: 103–113. Hummel CS et al. (2011). Am J Physiol Cell Physiol 300: C14–C21. Kanai Y et al. (1994). J Clin Invest 93: 397–404. Krishnaswamy A, Cooper E (2009). Neuron 61: 272–286. Lin X et al. (2009). Arch Biochem Biophys 481: 197–201. Miyauchi S et al. (2004). J Biol Chem 279: 13293–13296. Okuda T, Haga T (2000). FEBS Lett 484: 92–97. Prasad PD et al. (2000). Biochem Biphys Res Commun 270: 836–840. Said HM et al. (1998). Am J Clin Nutr 49: 127–131. Singh N et al. (2010). J Biol Chem 285: 27601–27608. Thangaraju M et al. (2006a). J Biol Chem 281: 26769–26773. Thangaraju M et al. (2006b). Cancer Res 66: 11560–11564. Traiffort E et al. (2005). J Neurochem 92: 1116–1125. Wang H et al. (1999). J Biol Chem 274: 14875–14883.

SLC6 neurotransmitter transporter family

Overview: Members of the solute carrier family 6 (SLC6) of sodium- and (sometimes chloride-) dependent neurotransmitter transporters (see Chen *et al.*, 2004; Bröer, 2006; Kristensen *et al.*, 2011) are primarily plasma membrane located and may be divided into four subfamilies that transport monoamines, GABA, glycine and neutral amino acids, plus the related bacterial NSS transporters (see Saier *et al.*, 2009). The members of this superfamily share a structural motif of 10 TM segments that has been observed in crystal structures of the NSS bacterial homolog LeuT_{Aa}, a Na⁺-dependent amino acid transporter from *Aquiflex aeolicus* (Yamashita *et al.*, 2005) and in several other transporter families structurally related to LeuT (Forrest and Rudnick, 2009).

Monoamine transporter subfamily

Monoamine neurotransmission is limited by perisynaptic transporters. Presynaptic monoamine transporters allow recycling of synaptically released noradrenaline, dopamine and 5-hydroxytryptamine.

Common abbreviation	NET	DAT	SERT
Systematic name	SLC6A2	SLC6A3	SLC6A4
Other names	NAT1	DAT1	5-HTT, SERT1
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000103546	ENSG00000142319	ENSG00000108576
Endogenous substrates	Noradrenaline, adrenaline, dopamine	Dopamine, adrenaline, noradrenaline	5-HT
Synthetic substrates	Amphetamine, methamphetamine, MPP ⁺	Amphetamine, methamphetamine, MPP ⁺	p-Chloroamphetamine, MDMA
Selective inhibitors (pK _i)	Mazindol (8.9), nisoxetine (8.4), nomifensine (8.1), reboxetine (8.0, Wong <i>et al.</i> , 2000)	Mazindol (8.0), WIN35428 (7.9), GBR12935 (7.6)	Paroxetine (9.6, Tatsumi <i>et al.</i> , 1997), sertraline (9.1), fluoxetine (8.5, Tatsumi <i>et al.</i> , 1997)
Probes	[³H]-Mazindol (0.5 nM), [³H]-nisoxetine (4 nM)	[³ H]-GBR12935 (3 nM, Pristupa et al., 1994), [³ H]-WIN35428 (10 nM, Pristupa et al., 1994)	[³H]-Paroxetine (0.2 nM), [³H]-citalopram (5 nM)
Predicted stoichiometry	1 Noradrenaline: 1 Na⁺:1 Cl⁻ (Gu <i>et al.,</i> 1996)	1 Dopamine:1–2 Na ⁺ :1 Cl ⁻ (Gu <i>et al.</i> , 1994)	1 5-HT:1 Na ⁺ :1 Cl ⁻ (in), + 1 K ⁺ (out) (Talvenheimo <i>et al.</i> , 1983)

[125 I]-RTI55 labels all three monoamine transporters (NET, DAT and SERT) with affinities between 0.5 and 5 nM. Cocaine is an inhibitor of all three transporters with pK_i values between 6.5 and 7.2. Potential alternative splicing sites in non-coding regions of SERT and NET have been identified. A bacterial homologue of SERT shows allosteric modulation by selected anti-depressants (Singh *et al.*, 2007).

GABA transporter subfamily

The activity of GABA-transporters located predominantly upon neurones (GAT1), glia (GAT3) or both (GAT2, BGT1) serves to terminate phasic GABA-ergic transmission, maintain low ambient extracellular concentrations of GABA, and recycle GABA for reuse by neurones. Nonetheless, ambient concentrations of GABA are sufficient to sustain tonic inhibition mediated by high affinity GABA, receptors in certain neuronal populations (Semyanov *et al.*, 2004). GAT1 is the predominant GABA transporter in the brain and occurs primarily upon the terminals of presynaptic neurones and to a much lesser extent upon distal astocytic processes that are in proximity to axons terminals. GAT3 resides predominantly on distal astrocytic terminals that are close to the GABAergic synapse. By contrast, BGT1 occupies an extrasynaptic location possibly along with GAT2 which has limited expression in the brain (Madsen *et al.*, 2010). TauT is a high affinity taurine transporter involved in osmotic balance that occurs in the brain and non-neuronal tissues, such as the kidney, brush border membrane of the intestine and blood

brain barrier (Chen et al., 2004; Han et al., 2006). CT1, which transports creatine, has a ubiquitous expression pattern, often co-localizing with creatine kinase (Chen et al., 2004).

Common abbreviation	GAT1	GAT2	GAT3
Systematic name	SLC6A1	SLC6A13	SLC6A11
Other names	mGAT1, GAT-A	mGAT3	mGAT4, GAT-B
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000157103	ENSG00000010379	ENSG00000132164
Endogenous substrates	GABA	GABA, β-alanine	GABA, β-alanine
Synthetic substrates	Nipecotic acid, guvacine	Nipecotic acid, guvacine	Nipecotic acid, guvacine
Selective inhibitors (IC ₅₀)	NNC-711 (0.14–1.4 μ M), SKF89976A (0.13 μ M), CI-966 (0.26 μ M), tiagabine (0.11 – 2.4 μ M), (<i>R</i> / <i>S</i>) EF-1500 (2 – 13 μ M) (<i>R</i>)-EF1502 (4 μ M – 8.9 μ M), LU32-176B (4 μ M), (<i>S</i>)-EF-1502 (120 μ M – > 250 μ M)	SNAP-5114 (20 μM)	SNAP-5114 (6.6 μM)
Probes	[³H]Tiagabine	-	-
Predicted stoichiometry	2 Na ⁺ : 1Cl ⁻ : 1GABA	2 Na ⁺ : 1Cl ⁻ :1GABA	≥2 Na ⁺ : 2 Cl ⁻ : 1GABA

Common abbreviation	BGT1	TauT	CT1
Systematic name	SLC6A12	SLC6A6	SLC6A8
Other names	mGAT2	Sodium- and chloride-dependent taurine transporter	Sodium- and chloride-dependent creatine transporter 1, CRT, CRTR, SLC6A10
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000111181	ENSG00000131389	ENSG00000130821
Endogenous substrates	GABA, betaine	Taurine, β -alanine, GABA (Anderson et al., 2009)	Creatine
Synthetic substrates	_	_	_
Selective inhibitors (IC50)	NNC052090 (1.4 μM), (<i>R</i>)-EF-1502 (22 μM–180 μM), (<i>R</i> /5) EF-1500 (26 μM) (<i>S</i>)-EF-1502 (34 μM – > 250 μM), LU32-176B (>100 μM)		-
Predicted stoichiometry	3 Na+: 1 (or 2) Cl-: 1 GABA	2 Na⁺: 1Cl⁻: 1 taurine	Probably 2 Na ⁺ : 1Cl ⁻ : 1 creatine

The IC₅₀ values for GAT1-3 reported in the table reflect the range reported in the literature from studies of both human and mouse transporters. There is a tendency towards lower IC₅₀ values for the human orthologue (Kvist et al. 2009). SNAP-5114 is only weakly selective for GAT2 and GAT3, with IC₅₀ values in the range 22 to >30 μM at GAT1 and BGT1, whereas NNC052090 has at least an order of magnitude selectivity for BGT1 [see Schousboe et al. (2004b) and Clausen et al. (2006) for reviews]. (R)-(1-{2-[tris(4-methoxyphenyl)methoxy]ethyl}pyrrolidin-2-yl)acetic acid is a compound that displays 20-fold selectivity for GAT3 over GAT1 (Fülep et al., 2006). In addition to the inhibitors listed, EGYT3886 is a moderately potent, though non-selective, inhibitor of all cloned GABA transporters (IC₅₀ = 26-46 μM; Dhar et al., 1994). Diaryloxime and diarylvinyl ether derivatives of nipecotic acid and guvacine that potently inhibit the uptake of [3H]GABA into rat synaptosomes have been described (Knutsen et al., 1999). Several derivatives of exo-THPO (e.g. N-methyl-exo-THPO and N-acetyloxyethyl-exo-THPO) demonstrate selectivity as blockers of astroglial, versus neuronal, uptake of GABA [see Schousboe et al. (2004a) and Clausen et al. (2006) for reviews]. GAT3 is inhibited by physiologically relevant concentrations of Zn²⁺ (Cohen-Kfir et al., 2005). TauT transports GABA, but with low affinity, but CT1 does not, although it can be engineered to do so by mutagenesis guided by LeuT as a structural template (Dodd and Christie, 2007). Although inhibitors of creatine transport by CT1 (e.g. β -guanidinopropionic acid, cyclocreatine, γ -guanidino sulphonic acid) are known (e.g. Dai et al., 1999) they are insufficiently characterized to be included in the table.

Glycine transporter subfamily

Two gene products, GlvT1 and GlvT2, are known that give rise to transporters that are predominantly located on glia and neurones, respectively. Five variants of GlyT1 (a,b,c,d & e) differing in their N- and C-termini are generated by alternative promoter usage and splicing, and three splice variants of GlyT2 (a,b & c) have also been identified (see Supplisson and Roux, 2002; Eulenburg et al., 2005; Betz et al., 2006; Gomeza et al., 2006 for reviews). GlyT1 transporter isoforms expressed in glia surrounding glutamatergic synapses regulate synaptic glycine concentrations influencing NMDA receptor-mediated neurotransmission (Bergeron et al., 1998; Gabernet et al., 2005), but also are important, in early neonatal life, for regulating glycine concentrations at inhibitory glycinergic synapses (Gomeza et al., 2003a). Homozygous mice engineered to totally lack GlyT1 exhibit severe respiratory and motor deficiencies due to hyperactive glycinergic signalling and die within the first postnatal day (Gomeza et al., 2003a, Tsai et al., 2004). Disruption of GlyT1 restricted to forebrain neurones is associated with enhancement of EPSCs mediated by NMDA receptors and behaviours that are suggestive of a promnesic action (Yee et al., 2006). GlyT2 transporters localised on the axons and boutons of glycinergic neurones appear crucial for efficient transmitter loading of synaptic vesicles but may not be essential for the termination of inhibitory neurotransmission (Gomeza et al., 2003b; Rousseau et al., 2008). Mice in which GlyT2 has been deleted develop a fatal hyperekplexia phenotype during the second postnatal week (Gomeza et al., 2003b) and mutations in the human gene encoding GlvT2 (SLC6A5) have been identified in patients with hyperekplexia (reviewed by Harvey et al., 2008). ATB⁰⁺ (SLC6A14) is a transporter for numerous dipolar and cationic amino acids and thus has a much broader substrate specificity than the glycine transporters alongside which it is grouped on the basis of structural similarity (Chen et al., 2004). ATB⁰⁺ is expressed in various peripheral tissues (Chen et al., 2004). By contrast PROT (SLC6A7), which is expressed only in brain in association with a subset of excitatory nerve terminals, shows specificity for the transport of L-proline.

Common abbreviation	GlyT1	GlyT2	ATB ^{0,+}	PROT
Systematic name	SLC6A9	SLC6A5	SLC6A14	SLC6A7
Other names	Glycine transporter 1	Glycine transporter 2	Sodium- and chloride-dependent neutral and basic amino acid transporter B ^{0,+}	Sodium-dependent proline transporter
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000196517	ENSG00000165970	ENSG00000087916	ENSG00000011083
Endogenous substrates	Glycine, sarcosine	Glycine	Iso > leu, met > phe > trp > val > ser (Sloan and Mager, 1999), β -alanine (Anderson <i>et al.</i> , 2008, 2009)	L-Proline
Synthetic substrates	-	-	BCH , 1-methytryptophan (Karunakaran <i>et al.</i> , 2008), valganciclovir (Umapathy <i>et al.</i> , 2004), zwitterionic or cationic NOS inhibitors (Hatanaka <i>et al.</i> , 2001)	_
Selective inhibitors (IC ₅₀)	(R)-NFPS (ALX 5407) (0.8 - 3 nM), SSR-103800 (2 nM), N-methyl-SSR-504734 (2.5 nM), NFPS (3 – 100 nM), LY2365109 (16 nM), SSR504734 (18 - 314 nM), GSK931145 (30 nM); RG1678 (30 nM); SB-733993 (31 nM); NPTS (37 nM), Org 24598	ALX 1393, ALX 1405, Org 25543 (20 nM)	α-methyltryptophan (250 μM, Karunakaran et al., 2008)	LP-403812 (0.11 μM, \ et al., 2009)
Probes (K _d)	[³ H]-(<i>R</i>)-NPTS (1 nM), [³ H]-GSK931145 (1.7 nM), [³⁵ S]-ACPPB (2 nM), [³ H]-SB-733993 (2.2 nM), [³ H]- <i>N</i> -methyl-SSR504734 (3.3 -8.1 nM), [³ H]-NFPS (7-21 nM)	-	-	-
Predicted stoichiometry	2 Na ⁺ : 1 Cl [−] : 1 glycine	3 Na ⁺ : 1 Cl ⁻ : 1 glycine	2-3 Na⁺: 1 Cl⁻: 1 amino acid (Sloan and Mager, 1999)	Probably 2 Na ⁺ : 1 Cl ⁻ : 1 L-proline

Sarcosine is a selective transportable inhibitor of GlyT1 and also a weak agonist at the glycine binding site of the NMDA receptor (Zhang *et al.*, 2009), but has no effect on GlyT2. This difference has been attributed to a single glycine residue in TM6 (serine residue in GlyT2) (Vandenberg *et al.*, 2007). Inhibition of GLYT1 by the sarcosine derivatives NFPS, NPTS and Org24598 is non-competitive (Mallorga *et al.*, 2003; Mezler *et al.*, 2008). IC $_{50}$ values for Org 24598 reported in the literature vary, most likely due to differences in assay conditions (Brown *et al.*, 2001; Mallorga *et al.*, 2003). The tricyclic antidepressant amoxapine weakly inhibits GlyT2 (IC $_{50}$ 92 μ M) with approximately 10-fold selectivity over GlyT1 (Nunez *et al.*, 2000). The endogenous lipids arachidonic acid and anandamide exert opposing effects upon GlyT1a, inhibiting (IC $_{50} \sim 2 \mu$ M) and potentiating (EC $_{50} \sim 13 \mu$ M) transport currents, respectively (Pearlman *et al.*, 2003). *N*-arachidonyl-glycine, *N*-arachidonyl- γ -aminobutyric acid and *N*-arachidonyl-*D*-alanine have been described as endogenous non-competitive inhibitors of GlyT2a, but not GlyT1b (Wiles *et al.*, 2006; Edington *et al.*, 2009; Jeong *et al.*, 2010). Protons (Aubrey *et al.*, 2000) and Zn²⁺ (Ju *et al.*, 2004) act as non-competitive inhibitors of GlyT1b, with IC $_{50}$ values of ~100 nM and ~10 μ M respectively, but neither ion affects GlyT2 (reviewed by Vandenberg *et al.*, 2004). Glycine transport by GLYT1 is inhibited by lithium, whereas GLYT2 transport is stimulated (both in the presence of Na⁺) (Pérez-Siles *et al.* 2011).

Neutral amino acid transporter subfamily

Certain members of neutral amino acid transport family are expressed upon the apical surface of epithelial cells and are important for the absorption of amino acids from the duodenum, jejunum and ileum and their reabsorption within the proximal tubule of the nephron (*i.e.* B°AT1 (SLC6A19), SLC6A17, SLC6A18, SLC6A20). Others may function as transporters for neurotransmitters or their precursors (*i.e.* B°AT2, SLC6A17) (Bröer, 2008).

Common abbreviation	B ^o AT1	B°AT2	B ^o AT3
Systematic name	SLC6A19	SLC6A15	SLC6A18
Other names	B ^o neutral amino acid transporter	NTT73, v7-3, SBAT1	XT2, XTRP2
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000174358	ENSG00000072041	ENSG00000164363
Endogenous substrates	Leu, met, iso, val > asn, phe, ala, ser > thr, gly, pro (Bröer <i>et al.</i> , 2006)	Pro > ala, val, met, leu > iso, thr, asn, ser, phe > gly (Bröer <i>et al.</i> , 2006)	Ala, gly > met, phe, leu, his, gln (Vanslambrouck <i>et al</i> . 2010)
Predicted stoichiometry	1 Na: 1 amino acid (Böhmer <i>et al.,</i> 2005)	1 Na: 1 amino acid (Bröer <i>et al.</i> , 2006)	Na ⁺ - and Cl ⁻ -dependent transport (Singer <i>et al.</i> , 2009)

Systematic name	SLC6A16	SLC6A17	SLC6A20
Common abbreviation	_	_	SIT1
Other names	NTT5	NTT4, XT1, XTRP1	XTRP3, rB21A, IMINO, XT3, sodium/ imino-acid transporter 1
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000063127	ENSG00000197106	ENSG00000163817
Endogenous substrates	Unknown	Leu, met, pro > cys, ala, gln, ser > his, gly (Zaia and Reimer, 2009)	Proline
Predicted stoichiometry	-	Na ⁺ -dependent, Cl ⁻ -indpendent transport (Zaia and Reimer, 2009)	2 Na ⁺ : 1 Cl [−] : 1 imino acid (Bröer <i>et al.</i> , 2009)
I			

Mutations in B⁰AT1 are associated with Hartnup disorder.

(S)-2-amino-4-chloro-N-(1-(4-phenyl-1-(propylsulfonyl)piperidin-4-yl)ethyl)benzamide; benzyloxyphenyl-3-flurophenyl]methyl-L-serine; ALX 1405, structure not available; BCH, 2-aminobicyclo-[2.2.1]-heptane-2-carboxylic acid; CI966, [1-[2-[bis-4(trifluromethyl)phenyl]methoxy]ethyl]-1,2,5,6-tetrahydro-3-pyridinecarboxylic acid; EF1500, N-[4,4-bis(3-methyl)-2-thienyl)-3-butenyl]-3-hydroxy-4-amino-4,5,6,7-tetrahydrobenzo[d]isoxazol-3-ol; EF1502. N-[4,4-bis(3-methyl-2-thienyl)-3-butenyl]-3-hydroxy-4-(methylamino)4,5,6,7,tetrabenzo[d]isoxazol-3-ol; EGYT3886, (-)-2-phenyl-2-[(dimethylamino)ethoxy]-(1R)-1,7,7-trimethylbicyclo[2.2.1] heptane; exo-THPO, 3-hydroxy-4-amino-4,5,6,7-tetrahydro-1,2-benzisoxazol; GBR12935, 1-(2-[diphenylmethoxy]ethyl)-4-(3-phenylpropyl) piperazine; GSK931145, N-{[1-(dimethylamino)cyclopentyl](phenyl)methyl}-2,6-dimethylbenzamide; LP-403812, see Yu et al. (2009) for structure; LU32-176B, N-[4,4-bis(4-fluorophenyl)-butyl]-3-hydroxy-4-amino-4,5,6,7-tetrahydrobenzo[d]isoxazol-3-ol; LY2365109, [[2-(4-bis(4-fluorophenyl)-butyl]-3-hydroxy-4-amino-4,5,6,7-tetrahydrobenzo[d]isoxazol-3-ol; LY2365109, [[2-(4-bis(4-fluorophenyl)-butyl]-3-hydroxy-4-amino-4,5,6,7-tetrahydrobenzo[d]isoxazol-3-oli; LY2365109, [[2-(4-bis(4-fluorophenyl)-butyl]-3-hydroxy-4-amino-4,5,6,7-tetrahydrobenzo[d]isoxazol-3-oli; LY2365109, [[2-(4-bis(4-fluorophenyl)-butyl]-3-hydroxy-4-amino-4,5,6,7-tetrahydrobenzo[d]isoxazol-3-oli; LY2365109, [[2-(4-bis(4-fluorophenyl)-butyl]-3-hydroxy-4-amino-4,5,6,6,7-tetrahydrobenzo[d]isoxazol-3-oli; LY2365109, [[2-(4-bis(4-fluorophenyl)-butyl]-3-hydroxy-4-amino-4,5,6,7-tetrahydrobenzo[d]isoxazol-3-oli; LY2365109, [[2-(4-bis(4-fluorophenyl)-butyl]-3-hydroxy-4-amino-4,5,6,7-tetrahydrobenzo[d]isoxazol-3-oli; LY2365109, [[2-(4-bis(4-fluorophenyl)-butyl]-3-hydroxy-4-amino-4,5,6,7-tetrahydrobenzo[d]isoxazol-3-oli; LY2365109, [[2-(4-bis(4-fluorophenyl)-butyl]-3-hydroxy-4-amino-4,5,6,7-tetrahydrobenzo[d]isoxazol-3-oli; LY2365109, [[2-(4-bis(4-fluorophenyl)-butyl]-3-hydroxy-4-amino-4,5,6,7-tetrahydroxy-4-amino-4,5,7-tetrahydroxy-4-amino-4,5,7-tetrahydroxy-4-amino-4,5,7benzo[1,3]dioxol-5-yl-2-tert-butylphenoxy)ethyl]-methylamino}-acetic acid; MDMA, 3,4-methylenedioxymethamphetamine; MPP+, 1-methyl-4-phenylpyridinium; NFPS, N-[3-(4'-fluorophenyl)-3-(4'-phenylphenoxy)propyl]sarcosine; NNC052090, 1-(3-(9H-carbazol-9-yl)-1-propyl)-4-(2-methoxy phenyl)-4-piperidinol; NNC711, 1-2-(((diphenylmethylene)amino) oxy) ethyl)-1, 2, 5, 6-tetra hydro-3-pyridine carboxylic acid hydro-diphenylmethylene) amino) oxy) ethyl)-1, 2, 5, 6-tetra hydro-3-pyridine carboxylic acid hydro-diphenylmethylene) amino) oxy) ethyl)-1, 2, 5, 6-tetra hydro-3-pyridine carboxylic acid hydro-diphenylmethylene) amino) oxy) ethyl)-1, 2, 5, 6-tetra hydro-3-pyridine carboxylic acid hydro-diphenylmethylene) amino) oxy) ethyl)-1, 2, 5, 6-tetra hydro-3-pyridine carboxylic acid hydro-diphenylmethylene) amino) oxy) ethyl)-1, 2, 5, 6-tetra hydro-3-pyridine carboxylic acid hydro-diphenylmethylene) amino) oxy) ethyl)-1, 2, 5, 6-tetra hydro-3-pyridine carboxylic acid hydro-diphenylmethylene) amino) oxy) ethyl)-1, 2, 5, 6-tetra hydro-3-pyridine carboxylic acid hydro-diphenylmethylene) amino) oxy) ethyl oxy acid hydro-diphenylmethylene) amino) oxy acid hydro-diphenylmethylene) amino) oxy acid hydro-diphenylmethylene) amino) oxy acid hydro-diphenylmethylene) amino) oxy acid hydro-diphenylmethylene) amino) oxy acid hydro-diphenylmethylene) amino) oxy acid hydro-diphenylmethylene) amino) oxy acid hydro-diphenylmethylene) amino) oxy acid hydro-diphenylmethylene) amino) oxy acid hydro-diphenylmethylene) amino) oxy acid hydro-diphenylmethylene) amino) oxy acid hydro-diphenylmethylene) amino) oxy acid hydro-diphenylmethylene) amino) acid hydro-diphenylmethylene) acid hydro-diphenylmethyllene) acid hydro-diphenylmethyllene) acid hydro-diphenylmethyllene) acid hydrchloride; NPTS, (N-[3-phenyl-3-(4'-(4-toluoyl) phenoxy)propyl]sarcosine; Org 24598, R-(-)-N-[3-[(4-triflouromethyl)phenoxy]-3-phenylpropylglycine; Org 25543, 4-benzyloxy-3,5-dimethoxy-N-[1-(dimethylaminocyclopentyl) methyl] benzamide; RG1678, [4-(3-fluoro-5trifluoromethylpyridin-2-yl)piperazin-1-yl][5-methanesulfonyl-2-((S)-2,2,2-trifluoro-1-methylethoxy)phenyl] methanone;RT155. carbomethoxy- 3β (4-iodophenyl) tropane (also known as β -CIT); SB-733993, (2R)-3-[(2R,6S)-2,6-dimethylpiperidin-1-yl]-2-hydroxy-S-(naphthalen-1-yl)propane-1-sulfonamido; SKF89976A, 1-(4,4-diphenyl-3-butenyl)-3-piperidinecarboxylic acid; SSR103800, structure not available; SSR504734, 2-chloro-[N-(S)-phenyl[(2S)-piperidin-2-vl]methyl]-3-trifluoromethyl benzamide; WIN35428, 2 β -carboxymethy-3 β -(4fluorophenyl)tropane (also known as β -CFT).

Further Reading

Aragón C, Lopez-Córcuera B (2005). Glycine transporters: crucial roles of pharmacological interest revealed by gene deletion. Trends Pharmacol

Betz H, Gomeza J, Scholze P, Eulenberg V (2006). Glycine transporters: essential regulators of synaptic transmission. J Neurochem 97: 1600–1610. Bridges TM, Williams R, Lindsley CW (2008). Design of potent GlyT1 inhibitors: in vitro and in vivo profiles. Curr Opin Mol Ther 10: 591-601. Bröer S (2006). The SLC6 orphans are forming a family of amino acid transporters. Neurochen Int 48: 559-567.

Bröer S (2008). Apical transporters for neutral amino acids: physiology and pathophysiology. Physiology 23: 95–103.

Chen N-H, Reith MEA, Quick MW (2004). Synaptic uptake and beyond: the sodium and chloride dependent neurotransmitter transporter family SLC6. Pflügers Archiv 447: 519-531.

Christie DL (2007). Functional insights into the creatine transporter. Subcell Biochem 46: 99-118.

Clausen RP, Madsen K, Larsson OM, Frolund B, Krogsgaard-Larsen P, Schousboe A (2006). Structure-activity relationship and pharmacology of gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA) transport inhibitors. Adv Pharmacol 54: 265-284.

Dai W et al. (1999). Arch Biochem Biophys 361: 75-84.

Dalby NO (2003). Inhibition of gamma-aminobutyric acid uptake: anatomy, physiology and effects against epileptic seizures. Eur J Pharmacol 479: 127-137.

Daws LC (2009). Unfaithful neurotransmitter transporters: focus on serotonin uptake and implications for antidepressant efficacy. Pharmacol Ther 121: 89-99.

Dohi T, Morita K, Kitayama T, Motoyama N, Morioka N (2009). Glycine transporter inhibitors as a novel drug discovery strategy for neuropathic pain. Pharmacol Ther 123: 54-79.

Eulenburg V, Armsen W, Betz H, Gomeza J (2005). Glycine transporters: essential regulators of neurotransmission. Trends Biochem Sci 30:

Foster JD, Cervinski MA, Gorentla BK, Vaughan RA (2006). Regulation of the dopamine transporter by phosphorylation. Handb Exp Pharmacol 197-214.

Gadia A, Lopez-Colome AM (2001). Glial transporters for glutamate, glycine and GABA: II. GABA transporters. *J Neurosci Res* 63: 461–468. Gasnier B (2004). The SLC32 transporter, a key protein for the synaptic release of inhibitory amino acids. *Pflügers Archiv* 447: 756–759.

Gether U, Andersen PH, Larsson OM, Schousboe A (2007). Neurotransmitter transporters: molecular function of important drug targets. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 27: 375–383.

Gomeza J, Armsen W, Betz H, Eulenburg V (2006). Lessons from the knocked-out glycine transporters. *Handb Exp Pharmacol* 175: 457–483. Gonzalez-Burgos G (2010). GABA transporter GAT1: a crucial determinant of GABA_B receptor activation in cortical circuits? *Adv Pharmacol* 58:175–204.

Han X, Patters AB, Jones DP, Zelikovic I, Chesney RW (2006). The taurine transporter: mechanisms of regulation. *Acta Physiol (Oxf)* **187**: 61–73. Harsing LG Jr, Juranyi Z, Gacsalyi I, Tapolcsanyi P, Czompa A, Matyus P (2006). Glycine transporter type-1 and its inhibitors. *Curr Med Chem* **13**: 1017–1044.

Harvey RJ, Topf M, Harvey K, Rees MI (2008). The genetics of hyperekplexia: more than startle! Trends Genet 24: 439-447.

Hashimoto K (2011). Glycine transporter-1: a new potential therapeutic target for schizophrenia. Curr Pharm Des 17:112-120.

Hog S, Greenwood JR, Madsen KB, Larsson OM, Frolund B, Schousboe A et al. (2006). Structure-activity relationships of selective GABA uptake inhibitors. Curr Top Med Chem 6: 1861–1882.

Horstmann S, Binder EB (2009). Pharmacogenomics of antidepressant drugs. Pharmacol Ther 124: 57-73.

Javitt DC (2009). Glycine transport inhibitors for the treatment of schizophrenia: symptom and disease modification. *Curr Opin Drug Discov Devel* 12:468–478.

Kanner BI (2006). Structure and function of sodium-coupled GABA and glutamate transporters. J Membr Biol 213: 89-100.

Karunakaran S et al. (2008). Biochem J 414: 343-555.

Kristensen AS, Andersen J, Jørgensen TN, Sørensen L, Eriksen J, Claus J. Loland CJ et al. (2011). SLC6 Neurotransmitter transporters: structure, function, and regulation. *Pharmacol Rev* 63: 585–640.

Kulig K, Szwaczkiewicz M (2008). The role of structure activity relationship studies in the search for new GABA uptake inhibitors. *Mini Rev Med Chem* 8: 1214–1223.

Lechner SM (2006). Glutamate-based therapeutic approaches: inhibitors of glycine transport. Curr Opin Pharmacol 6: 75–81.

Madsen KK, White HS, Schousboe A (2010). Neuronal and non-neuronal GABA transporters as targets for antiepileptic drugs. *Pharmacol Ther* 125: 394–401.

Mazei-Robinson MS, Blakely RD (2006). ADHD and the dopamine transporter: are there reasons to pay attention? *Handb Exp Pharmacol* 175: 373–415.

Millan MJ (2006). Multi-target strategies for the improved treatment of depressive states: conceptual foundations and neuronal substrates, drug discovery and therapeutic application. *Pharmacol Ther* **110**: 135–370.

Moltzen EK, Bang-Andersen B (2006). Serotonin reuptake inhibitors: the corner stone in treatment of depression for half a century–a medicinal chemistry survey. *Curr Top Med Chem* 6: 1801–1823.

Richerson GB, Wu Y (2004). Role of the GABA transporter in epilepsy. Adv Exp Med Biol 548: 76-91.

Runyon SP, Carroll FI (2006). Dopamine transporter ligands: recent developments and therapeutic potential. *Curr Top Med Chem* 6: 1825–1843. Sałat K, Kulig K. (2011). GABA transporters as targets for new drugs. *Future Med Chem* 3: 211–222.

Saier MH, Yen MR, Noto K, Tamang DG, Elkan C (2009). The Transporter Classification Database: recent advances. *Nucleic Acids Res*, 37: D274–D278.

Sarup A, Larsson OM, Schousboe A (2003). GABA Transporters and GABA-Transaminase as Drug Targets. Curr Drug Target CNS Neurol Disord 2: 269–277.

Schousboe A, Sarup A, Bak LK, Waagepetersen HS, Larsson OM (2004a). Role of astrocytic transport processes in glutamatergic and GABAergic neurotransmission. *Neurochem Int* 45: 521–527.

Schousboe A, Sarup A, Larsson OM, White HS (2004b). GABA transporters as drug targets for modulation of GABAergic activity. *Biochem Pharmacol* 68: 1557–1563.

Schousboe A, Madsen KK, White HS (2011). GABA transport inhibitors and seizure protection: the past and future. *Future Med Chem* 3: 183–187. Semyanov A, Walker MC, Kullmann DM, Silver RA (2004). Tonically active GABA_A receptors: modulating gain and maintaining the tone. *Trends Neurosci* 27: 262–269.

Soudijn W, van Wijngaarden I (2000). The GABA transporter and its inhibitors. Curr Med Chem 7: 1063–1079.

Supplisson S, Roux MJ (2002). Why glycine transporters have different stoichiometries. FEBS Lett 529: 93-101.

Sur C, Kinney GG (2007). Glycine transporter 1 inhibitors and modulation of NMDA receptor-mediated excitatory neurotransmission. *Curr Drug Targets* 8: 643–649.

Torres GE, Gainetdinov RR, Caron MG (2003). Plasma membrane monoamine transporters: structure, regulation and function. *Nat Rev Neurosci* 4: 13–25.

Vandenberg RJ, Ju P, Aubrey KR, Ryan RM, Mitrovic AD (2004). Allosteric modulation of neurotransmitter transporters at excitatory synapses. Eur J Pharm Sci 23: 1–11.

Wang CI, Lewis RJ (2010). Emerging structure-function relationships defining monoamine NSS transporter substrate and ligand affinity. *Biochem Pharmacol* 79: 1083–1091.

Williams JM, Galli A (2006). The dopamine transporter: a vigilant border control for psychostimulant action. *Handb Exp Pharmacol*: 215–232. Wolkenberg SE, Sur C (2010). Recent progress in the discovery of non-sarcosine based GlyT1 inhibitors. *Curr Top Med Chem* 10: 170–186. Zafra F, Giménez C (2008). Glycine transporters and synaptic function. *IUBMB Life* 60: 810–817.

References

Anderson CMH et al. (2008). J Physiol 586: 4061–4067.
Anderson CMH et al. (2009). J Physiol 587: 731–744.
Aubrey KR et al. (2000). Mol Pharmacol 58: 129–135.
Bergeron R et al. (1998). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 95:15730–15734.
Böhmer C et al. (2005). Biochem J 389: 745–751.
Brown A et al. (2001). Bioorg Med Chem Lett 11: 2007–2009.
Bröer A et al. (2006). Biochem J 393: 421–430.
Bröer A et al. (2009). Mol Membr Biol 26: 333–346.
Cohen-Kfir E et al. (2005). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 102: 6154–6159.
Dhar TGM et al. (1994). J Med Chem 37: 2334–2342.
Dodd JR, Christie, JL (2007). J Biol Chem 282: 15528–15533.

Edington AR et al. (2009). J Biol Chem 284: 36424–36330. Forrest LR, Rudnick G (2009). Physiology (Bethesda) 24: 377–386. Fülep GH et al. (2006). Eur J Med Chem 41: 809–824. Gabernet L et al. (2005). Neurosci Lett 373: 79–84. Gomeza J et al. (2003a). Neuron 40: 785–796. Gomeza J et al. (2003b). Neuron 40: 797–806. Gu H et al. (1994). J Biol Chem 269: 7124–7130. Gu HH et al. (1996). J Biol Chem 271: 6911–6916. Hatanaka T et al. (2001). J Clin Invest 107: 1035–1043. Jeong HJ et al. (2010). Br J Pharmacol 161: 925–935. Ju P et al. (2004). J Biol Chem 279: 22983–22991.

Karunakaran S et al. (2008). Biochem J 414: 343-355. Knutsen LJS et al. (1999). J Med Chem 42: 3447-3462. Kvist T et al. (2009). Comb Chem High Throughput Screen 12: 241-249. Mallorga PJ et al. (2003). Neuropharmacology 45: 585-593. Mezler M et al, (2008). Mol Pharmacol 74: 1705-1715. Nunez E et al. (2000). Br J Pharmacol 129: 200-206. Pearlman RJ et al. (2003). J Neurochem 84: 592-601. Pérez-Siles G et al. (2011). J Neurochem 118: 195-204. Pristupa ZB et al. (1994). Mol Pharmacol 45: 125-135. Rousseau F et al. (2008). J Neurosci 28: 9755-9768. Singer D et al. (2009). J Biol Chem 284: 19953-19960. Singh SK et al. (2007). Nature 448: 952-956. Sloan JL, Mager S (1999). J Biol Chem 274: 23740-23745.

Talvenheimo J et al. (1983). J Biol Chem 258: 6115-6119. Tatsumi M et al. (1997). Eur J Pharmacol 340: 249-258. Tsai G et al. (2004). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 101: 8485-8490. Umapathy NS et al. (2004). Pharm Res 21: 1303-1310. Vandenberg RJ et al. (2007). J Biol Chem 282:14447-14453. Vanslambrouck JM et al. (2010). Biochem J 428: 397-407. Wong EH et al. (2000). Biol Psychiatry 47: 818-829. Wiles AL et al. (2006). J Neurochem 99: 781-786. Yamashita A et al. (2005). Nature 437: 215-223. Yee BK et al. (2006). J Neurosci 26: 3169-3181. Yu X-C et al. (2009). Neurosci Lett 451: 212-216. Zaia KA, Reimer RJ (2009). J Biol Chem 284: 8439-8448. Zhang HX et al. (2009). J Physiol 587: 3207-3220.

SLC8 family of sodium/calcium exchangers

Overview: the sodium/calcium exchangers (NCX) use the extracellular sodium concentration to facilitate the extrusion of calcium out of the cell. Alongside the plasma membrane Ca²⁺-ATPase (PMCA, see Page S219) and sarcoplasmic/endoplasmic reticulum Ca²⁺-ATPase (SERCA, see Page S219), as well as the sodium/potassium/calcium exchangers (NKCX, SLC24 family, see Page S255), NCX allow recovery of intracellular calcium back to basal levels after cellular stimulation. When intracellular sodium ion levels rise, for example, following depolarisation, these transporters can operate in the reverse direction to allow calcium influx and sodium efflux, as an electrogenic mechanism. Structural modelling suggests the presence of 9 TM segments, with a large intracellular loop between the fifth and sixth TM segments.

Nomenclature Sodium/calcium exchanger 1 Sodium/calcium exchanger 2 Sodium/calcium exchanger 3 SLC8A1 SLC8A2 SLC8A3 Systematic name Preferred abbreviation NCX1 NCX2 NCX3 **Ensembl ID** ENSG00000183023 ENSG00000118160 ENSG00000100678 Stoichiometry 3 Na+ (in): 1 Ca2+ (out) or 4 Na+ (in): 1 Ca2+ (out) (Dong et al., 2002) Reverse mode 1 Ca²⁺ (in): 1 Na⁺ (out)

Although subtype-selective inhibitors of NCX function are not widely available, 3,4-dichlorobenzamil and CBDMB act as non-selective NCX inhibitors, while SEA0400, KB-R7943 and SN6 act to inhibit NCX function selectively in the reverse mode.

Abbreviations: CBDMB, 3-amino-6-chloro-5-[(4-chlorophenyl)methylamino]-N-[[2-[(2,4-dimethylphenyl)methyl]hydrazinyl]methylidene] pyrazine-2-carboxamide; KB-R7943, methanesulfonic acid; 2-[4-[(4-nitrophenyl)methoxy]phenyl]ethylcarbamimidothioate; SEA0400, 2-[4- $\label{lem:condition} \hbox{$[(2,5-difluor opheny l) methoxy]$phenoxy]-5-ethoxy an iline; $\textbf{SN6}, N-[4-[(1-methyl pyridin-1-ium-4-yl) amino] phenyl]-4-[(1-methyl quinolin-1-ium-4-yl) amino] phenyl amino] ph$ 4-yl)amino]benzamide, also known as SN6999

Further Reading

Annunziato L, Pignataro G, Di Renzo GF (2004). Pharmacology of brain Na⁺/Ca²⁺ exchanger: from molecular biology to therapeutic perspectives. Pharmacol Rev 56: 633-654.

Gabellini N (2004). Transcriptional regulation by cAMP and Ca²⁺ links the Na⁺/Ca²⁺ exchanger 3 to memory and sensory pathways. Mol Neurobiol 30: 91-116.

Lytton J (2007). Na⁺/Ca²⁺ exchangers: three mammalian gene families control Ca²⁺ transport. Biochem J 406: 365–382.

Quednau BD, Nicoll DA, Philipson KD (2004). The sodium/calcium exchanger family-SLC8. Pflugers Arch 447: 543-548.

Watanabe Y, Koide Y, Kimura J (2006). Topics on the Na⁺/Ca²⁺ exchanger: pharmacological characterization of Na⁺/Ca²⁺ exchanger inhibitors. J Pharmacol Sci 102: 7-16.

Zhang YH, Hancox JC (2009). Regulation of cardiac Na⁺-Ca²⁺ exchanger activity by protein kinase phosphorylation – still a paradox? Cell Calcium 45: 1-10.

Reference

Dong H et al. (2002). Biophys J 82: 1943-1952.

SLC9 family of sodium/hydrogen exchangers

Overview: sodium/hydrogen exchangers or sodium/proton antiports are a family of transporters that maintain cellular pH by utilising the sodium gradient across the plasma membrane to extrude protons produced by metabolism, in a stoichiometry of 1 Na⁺ (in): 1 H⁺ (out). Several isoforms, NHE6, NHE7, NHE8 and NHE9 appear to locate on intracellular membranes (Miyazaki et al., 2001; Numata and Orlowski, 2001; Nakamura *et al.*, 2005). Li⁺ and NH_4^+ , but not K^+ , ions may also be transported by some isoforms. Modelling of the topology of these transporters indicates 12 TM regions with an extended intracellular C-terminus containing multiple regulatory sites.

NHE1 is considered to be a ubiquitously-expressed 'housekeeping' transporter. NHE2 and NHE3 are highly expressed in the intestine and kidneys and regulate sodium movements in those tissues. NHE10 is present in sperm (Wang *et al.*, 2003) and osteoclasts (Lee *et al.*, 2008); gene disruption results in infertile male mice (Wang *et al.*, 2003).

Nomenclature	Systematic name	Common abbreviation	Ensembl ID	Other names
Sodium/hydrogen exchanger 1	SLC9A1	NHE1	ENSG00000090020	Na ⁺ /H ⁺ antiporter, amiloride-sensitive, APNH
Sodium/hydrogen exchanger 2	SLC9A2	NHE2	ENSG00000115616	
Sodium/hydrogen exchanger 3	SLC9A3	NHE3	ENSG00000066230	
Sodium/hydrogen exchanger 4	SLC9A4	NHE4	ENSG00000180251	
Sodium/hydrogen exchanger 5	SLC9A5	NHE5	ENSG00000135740	
Sodium/hydrogen exchanger 6	SLC9A6	NHE6	ENSG00000198689	
Sodium/hydrogen exchanger 7	SLC9A7	NHE7	ENSG00000065923	
Sodium/hydrogen exchanger 8	SLC9A8	NHE8	ENSG00000197818	
Sodium/hydrogen exchanger 9	SLC9A9	NHE9	ENSG00000181804	
Sodium/hydrogen exchanger 10	SLC9A10	NHE10	ENSG00000172139	Sperm-specific Na ⁺ /H ⁺ exchanger, sNHE
Sodium/hydrogen exchanger 11	SLC9A11	NHE11	ENSG00000162753	

Analogues of the non-selective cation transport inhibitor amiloride appear to inhibit NHE function through competitive inhibition of the extracellular Na^+ binding site. The more selective amiloride analogues MPA and EIPA exhibit a rank order of affinity of inhibition of NHE1 > NHE2 > NHE3 (Counillon *et al.*, 1993; Tse *et al.*, 1993a, 1993b).

 $\label{lem:higher_absolute} \textbf{Abbreviations:} \quad EIPA, \quad 3\text{-amino-6-chloro-N-(diaminomethylidene)-5-[ethyl(propan-2-yl)amino]pyrazine-2-carboxamide;} \quad \textbf{MPA}, \quad 3\text{-amino-6-chloro-N-(diaminomethylidene)-5-[methyl(propyl)amino]pyrazine-2-carboxamide}$

Further Reading

Casey JR, Grinstein S, Orlowski J (2010). Sensors and regulators of intracellular pH. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol* 11: 50–61. Kato A, Romero MF (2011). Regulation of electroneutral NaCl absorption by the small intestine. *Annu Rev Physiol* 73: 261–281. Kemp G, Young H, Fliegel L (2008). Structure and function of the human Na⁺/H⁺ exchanger isoform 1. *Channels (Austin)* 2: 329–336. Orlowski J, Grinstein S (2004). Diversity of the mammalian sodium/proton exchanger SLC9 gene family. *Pflugers Arch* 447: 549–565. Slepkov ER, Rainey JK, Sykes BD, Fliegel L (2007). Structural and functional analysis of the Na⁺/H⁺ exchanger. *Biochem J* 401: 623–633.

References

Counillon L et al. (1993). Mol Pharmacol 44: 1041–1045. Lee SH et al. (2008). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 369: 320–326. Miyazaki E et al. (2001). J Biol Chem 276: 49221–49227. Nakamura N et al. (2005). J Biol Chem 280: 1561–1572. Numata M, Orlowski J (2001). *J Biol Chem* **276**: 17387–17394. Tse CM *et al.* (1993a). *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **90**: 9110–9114. Tse CM *et al.* (1993b). *J Biol Chem* **268**: 11917–11924. Wang D *et al.* (2003). *Nat Cell Biol* **5**: 1117–1122.

SLC10 family of sodium-bile acid co-transporters

Overview: the SLC10 family transport bile acids and their derivatives in a sodium-dependent manner. Along with members of the ABC transporter family (MDR1/ABCB1; BSEP/ABCB11; and MRP2/ABCC2) and the organic solute transporter obligate heterodimer OST α :OST β , these transporters allow enterohepatic circulation of bile acids (see Dawson *et al.*, 2009; Klaassen and Aleksunes, 2010).

The SLC10 family appear to be monomeric with external N-termini and cytoplasmic C-termini and seven TM segments (Hallen *et al.*, 1999; Banerjee and Swaan, 2006).

Systematic name	SLC10A1	SLC10A2	SLC10A6
Common abbreviation	NTCP	ASBT	SOAT
Nomenclature	Sodium/bile acid cotransporter 1	Sodium/bile acid cotransporter 2	Sodium/bile acid cotransporter 6
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000100652	ENSG00000125255	ENSG00000145283
Other names	Sodium/bile acid cotransporter, Na ⁺ /taurocholate transport protein, cell growth-inhibiting gene 29 protein	Apical sodium-dependent bile acid transporter, ileal sodium/bile acid cotransporter, ISBT, IBAT	Sodium-dependent organic anion transporter
Substrates	TUDA, TCA, TCDCA > GCA > CA (Meier et al., 1997) Thyroid hormone (Friesema et al., 1999; Visser et al., 2010)	GDCA > GUDCA, GCDA > TCA > CA (Craddock <i>et al.</i> , 1998)	Estrone-3-sulphate, DHEAS (Geyer <i>et al.</i> , 2004), TLCA, PREGS (Geyer <i>et al.</i> , 2007)
Inhibitors	Cyclosporin, propranolol (Kim et al., 1999)	-	-
Probes	Chenodeoxycholyl- <i>N</i> ^e -nitrobenzoxadiazollysine (Weinman <i>et al.</i> , 1998)	[³ H]-Taurocholate (Craddock et al., 1998)	-
Stoichiometry	2 Na⁺: 1 bile acid (Hagenbuch and Meier, 1996; Weinman, 1997)	>1 Na ⁺ : 1 bile acid (Craddock et al., 1998)	-

Systematic name	SLC10A3	SLC10A4	SLC10A5	SLC10A7
Common abbreviation	Р3	P4	P5	P7
Nomenclature	Sodium/bile acid cotransporter 3	Sodium/bile acid cotransporter 4	Sodium/bile acid cotransporter 5	Sodium/bile acid cotransporter 7
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000126903	ENSG00000145248	ENSG00000205184	ENSG00000120519
Other names	P3 protein	-	_	C4orf13

Heterologously expressed SLC10A4 (Gever et al., 2008) or SLC10A7 (Godoy et al., 2007) failed to exhibit significant transport of TCA, PREGS, DHEAS or choline. SLC10A4 has recently been suggested to associate with neuronal vesicles (Burger et al., 2011).

Abbreviations: CA, cholic acid; CDCA, chenodeoxycholic acid; DCA, deoxycholic acid; DHEAS, dehydroepiandrosterone sulphate; GCA, glychocholic acid; GCDA, glycochenodeoxycholic acid; GDCA, glycodeoxycholic acid; GUDCA, glycoursodeoxycholate; PREGS, pregnenolone sulphate; TCA, taurocholic acid; TCDCA, taurochenodeoxycholate; TLCA, taurolithocholic acid; TUDA, tauroursodeoxycholic acid

Further Reading

Alrefai WA, Gill RK (2007). Bile acid transporters: structure, function, regulation and pathophysiological implications. Pharm Res 24: 1803–1823. Dawson PA, Lan T, Rao A (2009). Bile acid transporters. J Lipid Res 50: 2340-2357.

Geyer J, Wilke T, Petzinger E (2006). The solute carrier family SLC10: more than a family of bile acid transporters regarding function and phylogenetic relationships. Naunyn Schmiedebergs Arch Pharmacol 372: 413–431.

Hagenbuch B, Dawson P (2004). The sodium bile salt cotransport family SLC10. Pflugers Arch 447: 566-570.

Klaassen CD, Aleksunes LM (2010). Xenobiotic, bile acid, and cholesterol transporters: function and regulation. Pharmacol Rev 62: 1–96. Kosters A, Karpen SJ (2008). Bile acid transporters in health and disease. Xenobiotica 38: 1043–1071.

References

Banerjee A, Swaan PW (2006). Biochemistry 45: 943-953. Burger S et al. (2011). Neuroscience 193: 109-21.

Craddock AL et al. (1998). Am J Physiol Gastrointest Liver Physiol 274: G157-G169.

Friesema EC et al. (1999). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 254: 497-501. Geyer J et al. (2004). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 316: 300-306. Geyer J et al. (2007). J Biol Chem 282: 19728-19741. Geyer J et al. (2008). Neuroscience 152: 990-1005.

Godoy JR et al. (2007). Eur J Cell Biol 86: 445-460. Hagenbuch B. Meier PI (1996). Semin Liver Dis 16: 129-136. Hallen S et al. (1999). Biochemistry 38: 11379-11388. Kim RB et al. (1999). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 291: 1204-1209. Meier PJ et al. (1997). Hepatology 26: 1667-1677. Visser WE et al. (2010). Mol Cell Endocrinol 315: 138-145. Weinman SA (1997). Yale J Biol Med 70: 331-340. Weinman SA et al. (1998). J Biol Chem 273: 34691-34695.

SLC11 family of proton-coupled metal ion transporters

Overview: the family of proton-coupled metal ion transporters are responsible for movements of divalent cations, particularly ferrous and manganese ions, across the cell membrane (DMT1) and across endosomal (DMT1) or lysosomal/phagosomal membranes (NRAMP1), dependent on proton transport. Both proteins appear to have 12 TM regions and cytoplasmic N- and C- termini. NRAMP1 is involved in antimicrobial action in macrophages, although it's precise mechanism is undefined. Facilitated diffusion of divalent cations into phagosomes may increase intravesicular free radicals to damage the pathogen. Alternatively, export of divalent cations from the phagosome may deprive the pathogen of essential enzyme cofactors. DMT1 is more widely expressed and appears to assist in divalent cation assimilation from the diet, as well as in phagocytotic cells.

Systematic name

SLC11A1

SLC11A2

Preferred abbreviation

NRAMP1

Nomenclature

Ensembl ID

ENSG0000018280

ENSG00000110911

Other names

Natural resistance-associated macrophage protein 1

Natural resistance-associated macrophage protein 2, NRAMP2, DCT1

Mn²⁺, Fe²⁺ Fe²⁺, Cd²⁺, Co²⁺, Cu²⁺, Mn²⁺

Stoichiometry $1 H^+: 1 Fe^{2+}$ (out) or $1 H^+: 1 Fe^{2+}$ (out) (Gunshin *et al.*, 1997)

1 Fe²⁺ (in); 1 H⁺ (out)

Loss-of-function mutations in NRAMP1 are associated with increased susceptibility to microbial infection. Loss-of-function mutations in DMT1 are associated with microcytic anemia.

Further Reading

Endogenous substrates

Li X, Yang Y, Zhou F, Zhang Y, Lu H, Jin Q et al. (2011). SLC11A1 (NRAMP1) polymorphisms and tuberculosis susceptibility: updated systematic review and meta-analysis. PLoS One 6: e15831.

Mackenzie B, Hediger MA (2004). SLC11 family of H⁺-coupled metal-ion transporters NRAMP1 and DMT1. *Pflugers Arch* **447**: 571–579. Nevo Y, Nelson N (2006). The NRAMP family of metal-ion transporters. *Biochim Biophys Acta* **1763**: 609–620.

Reference

Gunshin H et al. (1997). Nature 388: 482-488.

SLC12 family of cation-coupled chloride transporters

Overview: the SLC12 family of chloride transporters contribute to ion fluxes across a variety of tissues. Within this family, further subfamilies are identifiable: NKCC1, NKCC2 and NCC constitute a group of therapeutically-relevant transporters, targets for loop and thiazide diuretics. These 12 TM proteins exhibit cytoplasmic termini and an extended extracellular loop at TM7/8 and are kidney-specific (NKCC2 and NCC) or show a more widespread distribution (NKCC1). A second family, the K-Cl co-transporters are also 12 TM domain proteins with cytoplasmic termini, but with an extended extracellular loop at TM 5/6. CCC6 exhibits structural similarities with the K-Cl co-transporters, while CCC9 is divergent, with 11 TM domains and a cytoplasmic N-terminus and extracellular C-terminus.

Systematic name	SLC12A1	SLC12A2	SLC12A3
Preferred abbreviation	NKCC2	NKCC1	NCC
Nomenclature	Kidney-specific Na-K-Cl symporter	Basolateral Na-K-Cl symporter	Na-Cl symporter
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000074803	ENSG00000064651	ENSG00000070915
Other names	Bumetanide-sensitive sodium-(potassium)-chloride cotransporter 2, BSC2	Bumetanide-sensitive sodium-(potassium)-chloride cotransporter 1, BSC1	Thiazide-sensitive sodium-chloride cotransporter, TSC
Inhibitors	Bumetanide, piretanide, frusemide (Hannaert <i>et al.</i> , 2002)	Bumetanide, piretanide, frusemide (Hannaert <i>et al.</i> , 2002)	Hydrochlorothiazide, chlorothiazide, metolazone
Stoichiometry	1 Na ⁺ : 1 K ⁺ : 2 Cl ⁻ (in)	1 Na ⁺ : 1 K ⁺ : 2 Cl ⁻ (in)	1 Na ⁺ : 1 Cl ⁻ (in)

Systematic name	SLC12A4	SLC12A5	SLC12A6	SLC12A7
Preferred abbreviation	KCC1	KCC2	KCC3	KCC4
Nomenclature	K-Cl cotransporter 1	K-Cl cotransporter 2	K-Cl cotransporter 3	K-Cl cotransporter 4
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000124067	ENSG00000124140	ENSG00000140199	ENSG00000113504
Other names	Electroneutral potassium-chloride cotransporter 1, erythroid K-Cl cotransporter 1	Electroneutral potassium-chloride cotransporter 2, erythroid K-Cl cotransporter 2	Electroneutral potassium-chloride cotransporter 3	Electroneutral potassium-chloride cotransporter 4
Inhibitors	DIOA	VU0240551 (Delpire <i>et al.,</i> 2009), DIOA	DIOA	DIOA
Stoichiometry	1 K ⁺ : 1 Cl ⁻ (out)	1 K ⁺ : 1 Cl ⁻ (out)	1 K ⁺ : 1 Cl ⁻ (out)	1 K ⁺ : 1 Cl ⁻ (out)

Systematic name	SLC12A8	SLC12A9
Preferred abbreviation	CCC9	CCC6
Nomenclature	Cation-chloride cotransporter 9	Cation-chloride cotransporter 6
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000221955	ENSG00000146828
Other names	_	Potassium-chloride transporter 9, CCC-interacting protein 1
Substrates	Spermine, spermidine, glutamate, aspartate (Daigle et al., 2009)	-
Stoichiometry	Unknown	-

CCC6 is regarded as an orphan transporter.

DIOA is able to differentiate KCC isoforms from NKCC and NCC transporters, but also inhibits CFTR (Ito et al., 2001).

Abbreviations: DIOA, 2-[(2-butyl-6,7-dichloro-2-cyclopentyl-1-oxo-3H-inden-5-yl)oxy]acetic acid; VU0240551, N-(4-methyl-1,3-thiazol-2-yl)-2-(6-phenylpyridazin-3-yl)sulfanylacetamide

Further Reading

Castrop H, Schnermann J (2008). Isoforms of renal Na-K-2Cl cotransporter NKCC2: expression and functional significance. Am J Physiol Renal Physiol 295: F859-F866.

Gamba G, Friedman PA (2009). Thick ascending limb: the Na⁺:K⁺:2Cl⁻ co-transporter, NKCC2, and the calcium-sensing receptor, CaSR. Pflugers Arch 458: 61-76.

Hebert SC, Mount DB, Gamba G (2004). Molecular physiology of cation-coupled Cl⁻ cotransport: the SLC12 family. *Pflugers Arch* 447: 580–593. Kahle KT, Staley KJ, Nahed BV, Gamba G, Hebert SC, Lifton RP et al. (2008). Roles of the cation-chloride cotransporters in neurological disease. Nat Clin Pract Neurol 4: 490-503.

Kahle KT, Rinehart J, Lifton RP (2010). Phosphoregulation of the Na-K-2Cl and K-Cl cotransporters by the WNK kinases. Biochim Biophys Acta **1802**: 1150–1158.

Lang F, Vallon V, Knipper M, Wangemann P (2007). Functional significance of channels and transporters expressed in the inner ear and kidney. Am J Physiol Cell Physiol 293: C1187-C1208.

Lionetto MG, Schettino T (2006). The Na⁺-K⁺-2Cl⁻ cotransporter and the osmotic stress response in a model salt transport epithelium. Acta Physiol (Oxf) 187: 115-124.

Wagner CA, Devuyst O, Bourgeois S, Mohebbi N (2009). Regulated acid-base transport in the collecting duct. Pflugers Arch 458: 137–156.

References

Daigle ND et al. (2009). J Cell Physiol 220: 680-689. Delpire E et al. (2009). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 106: 5383-5388. Hannaert P et al. (2002). Naunyn Schmiedebergs Arch Pharmacol 365: 193-199. Ito Y et al. (2001). Eur J Pharmacol 426: 175-178.

SLC13 family of sodium-dependent sulphate/ carboxylate transporters

Overview: within the SLC13 family, two groups of transporters may be differentiated on the basis of the substrates transported: NaS1 and NaS2 convey sulphate, while NaC1-3 transport carboxylates. NaS1 and NaS2 transporters are made up of 13 TM domains, with an intracellular N terminus and are electrogenic with physiological roles in the intestine, kidney and placenta. NaC1, NaC2 and NaC3 are made up of 11 TM domains with an intracellular N terminus and are electrogenic, with physiological roles in the kidney and liver.

SLC13A2 Systematic name SLC13A1 SLC13A3 Preferred abbreviation NaC1 NaC3 NaS1 Nomenclature Na⁺/dicarboxylate cotransporter 1 Na⁺/dicarboxylate cotransporter 3 Na⁺/sulfate cotransporter Renal sodium/dicarboxylate Other names Renal sodium/sulfate Sodium-dependent high-affinity cotransporter, NaDC1 dicarboxylate transporter 2, NaDC3 cotransporter, NaSi-1 ENSG00000007216 ENSG00000158296 Ensembl ID FNSG00000081800 **Endogenous substrates** Sulphate, thiosulphate, selenate Succinate, citrate Succinate, citrate Stoichiometry $3 \text{ Na}^+: 1 \text{ SO}_4^{2-} \text{ (in)}$ 3 Na+: 1 dicarboxylate2- (in) Unknown

SIC13A4 SIC13A5 Systematic name Preferred abbreviation

Nomenclature Na+/sulfate cotransporter Na⁺/citrate cotransporter

Other names Sodium-coupled citrate transporter, sodium-dependent citrate transporter, NaCT

Ensembl ID ENSG00000164707 ENSG00000141485 Endogenous substrates Sulphate Citrate, pyruvate Stoichiometry 3 Na+ : SO₄2- (in) Unknown

Further Reading

Lee A, Dawson PA, Markovich D (2005). NaSi-1 and Sat-1: structure, function and transcriptional regulation of two genes encoding renal proximal tubular sulfate transporters. Int J Biochem Cell Biol 37: 1350-1356.

Markovich D (2011). Physiological roles of renal anion transporters NaS1 and Sat1. Am J Physiol Renal Physiol 300: F1267-F1270.

Markovich D, Murer H (2004). The SLC13 gene family of sodium sulphate/carboxylate cotransporters. Pflugers Arch 447: 594–602.

Markovich D, Aronson PS (2007). Specificity and regulation of renal sulfate transporters. Annu Rev Physiol 69: 361-375.

SLC14 family of facilitative urea transporters

Overview: as a product of protein catabolism, urea is moved around the body and through the kidneys for excretion. Although there is experimental evidence for concentrative urea transporters, these have not been defined at the molecular level. The SLC14 family are facilitative transporters, allowing urea movement down it's concentration gradient. Multiple splice variants of these transporters have been identified; for UT-A transporters, in particular, there is evidence for cell-specific expression of these variants with functional impact (see Stewart, 2011). Topographical modelling suggests that the majority of the variants of SLC14 transporters have 10 TM domains, with a glycosylated extracellular loop at TM5/6, and intracellular C- and N-termini. The UT-A1 splice variant, exceptionally, has 20 TM domains, equivalent to a combination of the UT-A2 and UT-A3 splice variants.

Systematic name SLC14A1 SLC14A2 Preferred abbreviation UT-A Nomenclature Erythrocyte urea transporter Kidney urea transporter ENSG00000141469 Ensembl ID ENSG00000132874 Other names Endogenous substrates Urea, formamide, ammonium carbonate (Zhao et al., 2007) Urea (Maciver et al., 2008) Acetamide, methylurea, methylformamide, acrylamide (Zhao et al., 2007) Synthetic substrates

Stoichiometry Equilibrative Equilibrative

Further Reading

Bagnasco SM (2005). Role and regulation of urea transporters. Pflugers Arch 450: 217-226.

Bagnasco SM (2006). The erythrocyte urea transporter UT-B. J Membr Biol 212: 133-138.

Fenton RA (2009). Essential role of vasopressin-regulated urea transport processes in the mammalian kidney. Pflugers Arch 458: 169–177. Shayakul C, Hediger MA (2004). The SLC14 gene family of urea transporters. Pflugers Arch 447: 603-609.

Smith CP (2009). Mammalian urea transporters. Exp Physiol 94: 180-185.

Smith CP, Fenton RA (2006). Genomic organization of the mammalian SLC14a2 urea transporter genes. J Membr Biol 212: 109-117.

Stewart G (2011). The emerging physiological roles of the SLC14A family of urea transporters. Br J Pharmacol in press.

Yang B, Bankir L (2005). Urea and urine concentrating ability: new insights from studies in mice. Am J Physiol Renal Physiol 288: F881–F896.

References

Maciver B et al. (2008). Am J Physiol Renal Physiol 294: F956-F964. Zhao D et al. (2007). Biochim Biophys Acta 1768: 1815-1821.

SLC15 family of peptide transporters

Overview: the SLC15 family of peptide transporters may be divided on the basis of structural and functional differences into two subfamilies: SLC15A1 (PepT1) and SLC15A2 (PepT2) transport di- and tripeptides, but not amino acids, whereas SLC15A3 (PHT2) and SLC15A4 (PHT1) transport histidine and some di- and tripeptides (see Daniel and Kottra, 2004). The transporters are 12 TM proteins with intracellular termini and an extended extracellular loop at TM 9/10. The crystal structure of PepT_{so} (a prokaryote homologue of PepT1 and PepT2 from Shewanella oneidensis) confirms many of the predicted structural features of mammalian PepT1 and PepT2 (Newstead et al., 2011).

PHT1 has been suggested to be intracellular (Romano et al., 2010), while PHT2 protein is located on lysosomes in transfected cells (Botka et al., 2000: Sakata et al., 2001: Herrera-Ruiz and Knipp, 2003), PHT1 is hypothesised to mediate efflux of bacterial-derived peptides into the cytosol perhaps in the colon where SLC15A4 mRNA expression is increased in inflammatory bowel disease (Lee et al., 2009). Transport via PHT1 may be important in immune responses as both Toll-like receptor- and NOD1-mediated responses are reduced in PHT1 knockout mice or mouse strains expressing mutations in PHT1 (Blasius et al., 2010; Sasawatari et al., 2011).

Systematic name	SLC15A1	SLC15A2	SLC15A3	SLC15A4
Preferred abbreviation	PepT1	PepT2	PHT2	PHT1
Nomenclature	Peptide transporter 1	Peptide transporter 2	Peptide transporter 3	Peptide transporter 4
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000088386	ENSG00000163406	ENSG00000110446	ENSG00000139370
Other names	Intestinal H ⁺ /peptide cotransporter, low affinity peptide transporter	Kidney H ⁺ /peptide cotransporter, high affinity peptide transporter	Peptide/histidine transporter 2, osteoclast transporter, peptide transporter 3, PTR3, cAMP-inducible 1 protein	Peptide/histidine transporter 1, peptide transporter 4, PTR4
Endogenous substrates	Dipeptides, tripeptides, 5-aminolevulinic acid (Doring <i>et al.</i> , 1998)	Dipeptides, tripeptides, 5-aminolevulinic acid	Dipeptides, tripeptides, histidine, carnosine	Dipeptides, tripeptides histidine, carnosine
Synthetic substrates	Cyclacillin, cefadroxil (Ganapathy et al., 1995), enalapril, captopril (Temple and Boyd, 1998), muramyl dipeptide (Vavricka et al., 2004), fMLP (Merlin et al., 1998)	Cyclacillin, cefadroxil (Ganapathy <i>et al.</i> , 1995)	-	Valacyclovir (Bhardwa et al., 2006)
Inhibitors	Lys[Z(NO ₂)]-Pro (Knutter <i>et al.</i> , 2001), 4-AMBA (Darcel <i>et al.</i> , 2005)	Lys[Z(NO ₂)]-Pro, Lys[Z(NO ₂)]-Lys[Z(NO ₂)] (Theis <i>et al.</i> , 2002; Biegel <i>et al.</i> , 2006)		
Probes	[³H]-, [¹¹C]- or [¹⁴C]-GlySar	[³H]-, [¹¹C]- or [¹⁴C]-GlySar	[³ H]-or [¹⁴ C]-Histidine	[³ H]-or [¹⁴ C]-Histidine
Stoichiometry	2 H ⁺ : 1 zwitterionic peptide (in)	2 H ⁺ : 1 zwitterionic peptide (in)	Unknown	Unknown

The PepT1 and PepT2 transporters are particularly promiscuous in the transport of dipeptides and tripeptides of any sequence from the endogenous amino acids, as well as some D-amino acid containing peptides. PepT1 has also been exploited to allow delivery of therapeutic pro-drugs, such as those for zidovudine (Han et al., 1998), sulpiride (Watanabe et al., 2002) and cytarabine (Sun et al., 2009).

D-Ala-Lys-AMCA has been used as a fluorescent probe to identify transport via both PepT1 and PepT2 (Rubio-Aliaga and Daniel, 2008).

Abbreviations: d-Ala-Lys-AMCA, d-Ala-Lys-Ng-7-amino-4-methyl-coumarin-3-acetic acid; 4-AMBA, 4-(aminomethyl)benzoic acid; fMLP, formyl-Met-Leu-Phe

Further Reading

Anderson CMH, Thwaites DT (2010). Hijacking solute carriers for proton-coupled drug transport. Physiology 25: 364–377.

Biegel A, Knutter I, Hartrodt B, Gebauer S, Theis S, Luckner P et al. (2006). The renal type H⁺/peptide symporter PEPT2: structure-affinity relationships. Amino Acids 31: 137-156.

Brandsch M (2009). Transport of drugs by proton-coupled peptide transporters: pearls and pitfalls. Expert Opin Drug Metab Toxicol 5: 887-905. Brandsch M, Knutter I, Leibach FH (2004). The intestinal H⁺/peptide symporter PEPT1: structure-affinity relationships. Eur J Pharm Sci 21: 53–60.

Charrier L, Merlin D (2006). The oligopeptide transporter hPepT1: gateway to the innate immune response. *Lab Invest* **86**: 538–546. Daniel H (2004). Molecular and integrative physiology of intestinal peptide transport. *Annu Rev Physiol* **66**: 361–384.

Daniel H, Kottra G (2004). The proton oligopeptide cotransporter family SLC15 in physiology and pharmacology. *Pflügers Arch* **447**: 610–618. Kamal MA, Keep RF, Smith DE (2008). Role and relevance of PEPT2 in drug disposition, dynamics, and toxicity. *Drug Metab Pharmacokinet* **23**: 236–242.

Meredith D, Price RA (2006). Molecular modeling of PepT1-towards a structure. J Membr Biol 213: 79-88.

Rubio-Aliaga I, Daniel H (2008). Peptide transporters and their roles in physiological processes and drug disposition. *Xenobiotica* **38**: 1022–1042. Terada T, Inui K (2007). Gene expression and regulation of drug transporters in the intestine and kidney. *Biochem Pharmacol* **73**: 440–449. Thwaites DT, Anderson CMH (2007). H*-coupled nutrient, micronutrient and drug transporters in the mammalian small intestine. *Exp Physiol*

92: 603–619.

References

Bhardwaj RK et al. (2006). Eur J Pharm Sci 27: 533–542.
Biegel A et al. (2006). Amino Acids 31: 137–156.
Blasius AL et al. (2010). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 107: 19973–19978.
Botka CW et al. (2000). AAPS PharmSci 2: E16.
Darcel NP et al. (2005). J Nutr 135: 1491–1495.
Doring F et al. (1998). J Clin Invest 101: 2761–2767.
Ganapathy ME et al. (1995). J Biol Chem 270: 25672–25677.
Han H et al. (1998). Pharm Res 15: 1154–1159.
Herrera-Ruiz D, Knipp GT (2003). J Pharm Sci 92: 691–714.
Knutter I et al. (2001). Biochemistry 40: 4454–4458.
Lee J et al. (2009). J Biol Chem 284: 23818–23829.

Merlin D et al. (1998). J Clin Invest 102: 2011–2018. Newstead S et al. (2011). EMBO J 30: 417–426. Romano A et al. (2010). Mol Cell Endocrinol 315: 174–181. Sakata K et al. (2001). Biochem J 356: 53–60. Sasawatari S et al. (2011). Gastroenterology 140: 1513–1525. Sun Y et al. (2009). Mol Pharm 6: 315–325. Temple CS, Boyd CA (1998). Biochim Biophys Acta 1373: 277–281. Theis S et al. (2002). Mol Pharmacol 61: 214–221. Vavricka SR et al. (2004). Gastroenterology 127: 1401–1409. Watanabe K et al. (2002). Biol Pharm Bull 25: 885–890.

SLC16 family of monocarboxylate transporters

Overview: members of the SLC16 family may be divided into subfamilies on the basis of substrate selectivities, particularly lactate, pyruvate and ketone bodies, as well as aromatic amino acids. Topology modelling suggests 12 TM domains, with intracellular termini and an extended loop at TM 6/7.

The proton-coupled monocarboxylate transporters allow transport of the products of cellular metabolism, principally lactate and pyruvate.

Systematic name	SLC16A1	SLC16A3	SLC16A7	SLC16A8
Preferred abbreviation	MCT1	MCT4	MCT2	MCT3
Nomenclature	Monocarboxylate transporter 1	Monocarboxylate transporter 4	Monocarboxylate transporter 2	Monocarboxylate transporter 3
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000155380	ENSG00000141526	ENSG00000118596	ENSG00000100156
Other names	_	Monocarboxylate transporter 3, MCT 3	-	REMP
Endogenous substrates	Lactate, pyruvate, β-hydroxybutyrate	Lactate, pyruvate	Lactate, pyruvate	Lactate
Synthetic substrates	GHB (Wang et al., 2006)	-	_	-
Stoichiometry	1 H ⁺ : 1 monocarboxylate ⁻ (out)	1 H ⁺ : 1 monocarboxylate ⁻ (out)	1 H ⁺ : 1 monocarboxylate ⁻ (out)	1 H ⁺ : 1 monocarboxylate ⁻ (out)

MCT1 and MCT2, but not MCT3 and MCT4, are inhibited by CHC, which also inhibits members of the mitochondrial transporter family, SLC25 (see Page S256).

Systematic name	SLC16A2	SLC16A10
Preferred abbreviation	MCT8	TAT1
Nomenclature	Monocarboxylate transporter 8	Monocarboxylate transporter 10
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000147100	ENSG00000112394
Other names	Monocarboxylate transporter 7, MCT 7, X-linked PEST-containing transporter	T-type amino acid transporter 1, aromatic amino acid transporter 1, MCT10
Endogenous substrates	T3, T4 (Friesema et al., 2006)	L-Tryptophan, L-phenylalanine, L-tyrosine, L-DOPA
Stoichiometry	Unknown	Unknown
1		

Systematic name	SLC16A4	SLC16A5	SLC16A6	SLC16A9
Preferred abbreviation	MCT5	MCT6	MCT7	МСТ9
Nomenclature	Monocarboxylate transporter 5	Monocarboxylate transporter 6	Monocarboxylate transporter 7	Monocarboxylate transporter 9
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000168679	ENSG00000170190	ENSG00000108932	ENSG00000165449
Other names	Monocarboxylate transporter 4, MCT 4	Monocarboxylate transporter 5, MCT 5	Monocarboxylate transporter 6, MCT 6	_
Stoichiometry	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown

MCT6 has been reported to transport bumetamide, but not short chain fatty acids (Murakami et al., 2005).

Systematic name	SLC16A11	SLC16A12	SLC16A13	SLC16A14
Preferred abbreviation	MCT11	MCT12	MCT13	MCT14
Nomenclature	Monocarboxylate transporter 11	Monocarboxylate transporter 12	Monocarboxylate transporter 13	Monocarboxylate transporter 14
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000174326	ENSG00000152779	ENSG00000174327	ENSG00000163053
Stoichiometry	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown

MCT5-MCT7, MCT9 and MCT11-14 are regarded as orphan transporters.

Abbreviations: CHC, (E)-2-cyano-3-(4-hydroxyphenyl)prop-2-enoic acid; GHB, gamma-hydroxybutyrate; T3, (2S)-2-amino-3-[4-(4-hydroxy-3-hydroxy-3-hydroxy-3 iodophenoxy)-3,5-diiodophenyl]propanoic acid, also known as triiodothyronine; T4, thyroxine

Further Reading

Anderson CM, Thwaites DT (2010). Hijacking solute carriers for proton-coupled drug transport. Physiology (Bethesda) 25: 364–377.

Braun D, Wirth EK, Schweizer U (2010). Thyroid hormone transporters in the brain. Rev Neurosci 21: 173-186.

van der Deure WM, Peeters RP, Visser TJ (2010). Molecular aspects of thyroid hormone transporters, including MCT8, MCT10, and OATPs, and the effects of genetic variation in these transporters. J Mol Endocrinol 44: 1-11.

Friesema EC, Visser WE, Visser TJ (2010). Genetics and phenomics of thyroid hormone transport by MCT8. Mol Cell Endocrinol 322: 107-113. Halestrap AP, Meredith D (2004). The SLC16 gene family-from monocarboxylate transporters (MCTs) to aromatic amino acid transporters and beyond. Pflugers Arch 447: 619-628.

Heuer H, Visser TJ (2009). Pathophysiological importance of thyroid hormone transporters. Endocrinology 150: 1078–1083.

Jansen J, Friesema EC, Milici C, Visser TJ (2005). Thyroid hormone transporters in health and disease. Thyroid 15: 757–768.

Meredith D, Christian HC (2008). The SLC16 monocaboxylate transporter family. Xenobiotica 38: 1072-1106.

Morris ME, Felmlee MA (2008). Overview of the proton-coupled MCT (SLC16A) family of transporters: characterization, function and role in the transport of the drug of abuse γ -hydroxybutyric acid. AAPS J 10: 311–321.

Visser TJ (2007). Thyroid hormone transporters. Horm Res 68 (Suppl. 5): 28-30.

Visser WE, Friesema EC, Jansen J, Visser TJ (2008). Thyroid hormone transport in and out of cells. Trends Endocrinol Metab 19: 50-56.

References

Friesema EC et al. (2006). Mol Endocrinol 20: 2761-2772. Murakami Y et al. (2005). Drug Metab Dispos 33: 1845-1851. Wang Q et al. (2006). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 318: 751-761.

SLC17 phosphate and organic anion transporter family

Overview: The SLC17 family are sometimes referred to as Type I sodium-phosphate co-transporters, alongside Type II (SLC34 family, see Page S265) and Type III (SLC20 family, see Page S251) transporters. Within the SLC17 family, however, further subgroups of organic anion transporters may be defined, allowing the accumulation of sialic acid in the endoplasmic reticulum and glutamate or nucleotides in synaptic and secretory vesicles. Topology modelling suggests 12 TM domains.

Systematic name	SLC17A1	SLC17A2	SLC17A3	SLC17A4
Preferred abbreviation	NPT1	NPT3	NPT4	_
Nomenclature	Sodium/phosphate cotransporter 1	Sodium/phosphate cotransporter 3	Sodium/phosphate cotransporter 4	-
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000124568	ENSG00000112337	ENSG00000124564	ENSG00000146039
Other names	NaPi-1, renal sodium-dependent phosphate transport protein 1	-	-	Putative small intestine sodium-dependent phosphate transport protein
Substrates	Phosphate, organic acids, chloride, urate (Iharada <i>et al.</i> , 2010)	-	-	-
Synthetic substrates	Probenecid, penicillin (Busch et al., 1996)	-	-	
Stoichiometry	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown

The sialic acid transporter is expressed on both lysosomes and synaptic vesicles, where it appears to allow export of sialic acid and accumulation of acidic amino acids, respectively (Miyaji *et al.*, 2011), driven by proton gradients. In lysosomes, degradation of glycoproteins generates amino acids and sugar residues, which are metabolized further following export from the lysosome.

Systematic name	SLC17A5
Preferred abbreviation	AST
Nomenclature	Sialin
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000119899
Other names	Sodium/sialic acid cotransporter, membrane glycoprotein HP59
Endogenous substrates	Sialic acid, lactate, glucuronic acid, gluconate (out) Aspartate, glutamate (in) (Miyaji <i>et al.</i> , 2011)
Stoichiometry	1 H ⁺ : 1 sialic acid (out)

Loss-of-function mutations in sialin are associated with Salla disease, an autosomal recessive neurodegenerative disorder associated with sialic acid storage disease (Verheijen *et al.*, 1999).

Vesicular glutamate transporters (VGLUTs) allow accumulation of glutamate into synaptic vesicles, as well as secretory vesicles in endocrine tissues. The roles of VGLUTs in kidney and liver are unclear. These transporters appear to utilize the proton gradient and also express a chloride conductance (Bellocchio *et al.*, 2000).

Systematic name	SLC17A7	SLC17A6	SLC17A8
Preferred abbreviation	VGLUT1	VGLUT2	VGLUT3
Nomenclature	Vesicular glutamate transporter 1	Vesicular glutamate transporter 2	Vesicular glutamate transporter 3
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000104888	ENSG00000091664	ENSG00000179520
Other names	Brain-specific Na ⁺ -dependent inorganic phosphate cotransporter, BNPI	Differentiation-associated Na†-dependent inorganic phosphate cotransporter, differentiation-associated BNPI	-
Endogenous substrates	L-glutamate > D-glutamate	L-glutamate > D-glutamate	L-glutamate > D-glutamate
Stoichiometry	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown

Endogenous ketoacids produced during fasting have been proposed to regulate VGLUT function through blocking chloride ion-mediated allosteric enhancement of transporter function (Juge et al., 2010).

The vesicular nucleotide transporter is the most recent member of the SLC17 family to have an assigned function. Uptake of ATP was independent of pH, but dependent on chloride ions and membrane potential (Sawada et al., 2008).

Systematic name SIC17A9 Preferred abbreviation VNUT

Nomenclature Vesicular nucleotide transporter

Ensembl ID ENSC00000101194

Other names Uncharacterized MFS-type transporter C20orf59

ATP, GTP, GDP (Sawada et al., 2008) **Endogenous substrates**

Stoichiometry Unknown

VGLUTs and VNUT can be inhibited by DIDS and Evans blue dye.

Abbreviations: DIDS, 5-isothiocyanato-2-[(E)-2-(4-isothiocyanato-2-sulfophenyl)ethenyl]benzenesulfonic acid

Further Reading

El Mestikawy S, Wallen-Mackenzie A, Fortin GM, Descarries L, Trudeau LE (2011). From glutamate co-release to vesicular synergy: vesicular glutamate transporters. Nat Rev Neurosci 12: 204-216.

Erickson JD, De GS, Varoqui H, Schafer MK, Weihe E (2006). Activity-dependent regulation of vesicular glutamate and GABA transporters: a means to scale quantal size. Neurochem Int 48: 643-649.

Fei H, Grygoruk A, Brooks ES, Chen A, Krantz DE (2008). Trafficking of vesicular neurotransmitter transporters. Traffic 9: 1425-1436.

Moriyama Y, Omote H (2008). Vesicular glutamate transporter acts as a metabolic regulator. Biol Pharm Bull 31: 1844–1846.

Omote H, Miyaji T, Juge N, Moriyama Y (2011). Vesicular neurotransmitter transporter: bioenergetics and regulation of glutamate transport. Biochemistry 50: 5558-5565.

Reimer RJ, Edwards RH (2004). Organic anion transport is the primary function of the SLC17/type I phosphate transporter family. Pflugers Arch 447: 629-635.

Santos MS, Li H, Voglmaier SM (2009). Synaptic vesicle protein trafficking at the glutamate synapse. Neuroscience 158: 189–203.

Shigeri Y, Seal RP, Shimamoto K (2004). Molecular pharmacology of glutamate transporters, EAATs and VGLUTs. Brain Res Brain Res Rev 45: 250-265.

References

Bellocchio EE et al. (2000). Science 289: 957-960. Busch AE et al. (1996). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 93: 5347-5351. Iharada M et al. (2010). J Biol Chem 285: 26107-26113. Juge N et al. (2010). Neuron 68: 99-112.

Miyaji T et al. (2011). J Neurochem 119: 1-5. Sawada K et al. (2008). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 105: 5683-5686. Verheijen FW et al. (1999). Nat Genet 23: 462-465.

SLC18 family of vesicular amine transporters

Overview: The vesicular amine transporters (VATs) are putative 12 TM domain proteins that function to transport singly positively charged amine neurotransmitters and hormones from the cytoplasm and concentrate them within secretory vesicles. They function as amine/proton antiporters driven by secondary active transport utilizing the proton gradient established by a multi-subunit vacuolar ATPase (see Page S218) that acidifies secretory vesicles (reviewed by Eiden et al., 2004). The vesicular acetylcholine transporter (VAChT; Erickson et al., 1994) localizes to cholinergic neurons, but non-neuronal expression has also been claimed (Schirmer et al., 2011). Vesicular monoamine transporter 1 (VMAT1, Erickson and Eiden, 1993) is mainly expressed in peripheral neuroendocrine cells, but most likely not in the CNS, whereas VMAT2 (Erickson et al., 1996) distributes between both central and peripheral sympathetic monoaminergic neurones (Eiden and Weihe, 2011).

Common abbreviation	VMAT1	VMAT2	VAChT
Systematic name	SLC18A1	SLC18A2	SLC18A3
Nomenclature	Vesicular monoamine transporter 1	Vesicular monoamine transporter 2	Vesicular acetylcholine transporter
Other names	Chromaffin granule amine transporter (CGAT), VAT1, MAT	Synaptic vesicular amine transporter (SVAT), SVMT, VAT2	(VAChT)
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000036565	ENSG00000165646	ENSG00000187714
Endogenous substrates (p <i>K_M/pKî</i>)	5-HT (5.8), dopamine (5.4), adrenaline (5.3), noradrenaline (4.9), histamine (2.3) (Erickson et al., 1996)	5-HT (6.0), dopamine (5.9), adrenaline (5.7), noradrenaline (5.5), histamine (3.8) (Erickson et al., 1996)	Acetylcholine (3.1), choline (2.3) (Bravo <i>et al.</i> , 2004; Khare <i>et al.</i> , 2010)
Synthetic substrates (p <i>K_M/pKi</i>)	Fenfluramine (5.5), MDMA (4.7), D-am-phetamine (4.3), MPP+ (4.2), phenyl-ethylamine (4.5) (Erickson <i>et al.</i> , 1996)	D-amphetamine (5.7), phenyethylamine (5.4), fenfluramine (5.3), MDMA (5.2), MPP+ (5.1) (Erickson et al., 1996)	TPP ⁻ , N-methyl-pyridinium-2-aldoxime, N-(4'-pentanonyl)-4-(4"-dimethylamino styryl)pyridinium, ethididium (Bravo <i>et al.</i> , 2005)
Inhibitors (p <i>K_i</i>)	Reserpine (7.45), ketanserin (5.8), TBZ (>4.7) (Erickson et al., 1996)	Reserpine (7.9), TBZ (7.0), ketanserin (6.3) (Erickson et al., 1996)	Vesamicol (8.7), aminobenzovesamicol (10.9), (Efange <i>et al.</i> , 1995)
Probes (K _d)		[³ H]-TBZOH (6.6 nM, Varoqui and Erickson, 1996), [¹²⁵ I]-iodovinyl-TBZ (8.2 nM, Kung <i>et al.</i> , 1994); [¹²⁵ I]-8-azido-3-iodoketanserine (photoaffinity ligand), [¹¹ C]-DTBZ (PET ligand)	[³ H]-vesamicol (4.1 nM, Varoqui and Erickson, 1996), [¹²³ l]-iodobenzovesamicol (SPECT ligand)
Stoichiometry	1 amine (in): 2H ⁺ (out)	1 amine (in): 2H ⁺ (out)	1 amine (in): 2H ⁺ (out)

pKi values for endogenous and synthetic substrate inhibitors of human VMAT1 and VMAT2 are for inhibition of [³H]-5-HT uptake in transfected and permeabilised CV-1 cells as detailed by Erickson *et al.* (1996). In addition to the monoamines listed in the table, the trace amines tyramine and phenylethylamine are probable substrates for VMAT2 (Eiden and Weihe, 2011). Probes listed in the table are those currently employed; additional agents have been synthesized (*e.g.*, Zhu *et al.*, 2009).

Abbreviations: DTBZ, dihydrotetrabenazine; MDMA, 3,4-methylenedioxymethamphetamine; MPP $^+$, 1-methyl-4-phenylpyridinium; TBZ, tetrabenazine; TBZOH, α -[O-methyl- 3 H]dihydrotetrabenazine; TPP $^+$, tetraphenylphosphonium

Further Reading

Chaudhry FA, Edwards RH, Fonnum F (2008). Vesicular neurotransmitter transporters as targets for endogenous and exogenous toxic substances. Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol 48: 277–301.

Eiden LE, Weihe E (2011). VMAT2: a dynamic regulator of brain monoaminergic neuronal function interacting with drugs of abuse. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* **1216**: 86–98.

Eiden LE, Schafer MK, Weihe E, Schutz B (2004). The vesicular amine transporter family (SLC18): amine/proton antiporters required for vesicular accumulation and regulated exocytotic secretion of monoamines and acetylcholine. *Pflugers Arch* 447: 636–640.

Fei H, Grygoruk A, Brooks ES, Chen A, Krantz DE (2008). Trafficking of vesicular neurotransmitter transporters. *Traffic* 9: 1425–1436.

Fleckenstein AE, Volz TJ, Riddle EL, Gibb JW, Hanson GR (2007). New insights into the mechanism of action of amphetamines. *Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol* 47: 681–698.

Fleckenstein AE, Volz TJ, Hanson GR (2009). Psychostimulant-induced alterations in vesicular monoamine transporter-2 function: neurotoxic and therapeutic implications. *Neuropharmacology* **56** (Suppl. 1): 133–138.

Giboureau N, Som IM, Boucher-Arnold A, Guilloteau D, Kassiou M (2010). PET Radioligands for the Vesicular Acetylcholine Transporter (VAChT). Curr Top Med Chem 10: 1569–1583.

Guillot TS, Miller GW (2009). Protective actions of the vesicular monoamine transporter 2 (VMAT2) in monoaminergic neurons. *Mol Neurobiol* 39: 149–170.

Khare P, White AR, Mulakaluri A, Parsons SM (2010). Equilibrium binding and transport by vesicular acetylcholine transporter. *Methods Mol Biol* 637: 181–219.

Parsons SM (2000). Transport mechanisms in acetylcholine and monoamine storage. FASEB J 14: 2423-2434.

Schuldiner S, Shirvan A, Linial M (1995). Vesicular neurotransmitter transporters: from bacteria to humans. Physiol Rev 75: 369-392.

Van der Kloot W (2003). Loading and recycling of synaptic vesicles in the *Torpedo* electric organ and the vertebrate neuromuscular junction. *Prog Neurobiol* 71: 269–303.

Zheng G, Dwoskin LP, Crooks PA (2006). Vesicular monoamine transporter 2: role as a novel target for drug development. AAPS J 8: E682–E692.

References

Bravo DT et al. (2004). J Neurochem 91: 766-768. Bravo DT et al. (2005). Neurochem Int 47: 243-247. Efange SMN et al. (1995). Biochem Pharm 49: 791-797. Erickson JD, Eiden LE (1993). J Neurochem 61: 2314-2317. Erickson JD et al. (1994). J Biol Chem 269: 21929-21932. Erickson JD et al. (1996). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 93: 5166-5171. Khare P et al. (2010). Biochemistry 49: 3049-3059. Kung MP et al. (1994). Synapse 18: 225-232. Schirmer S et al. (2011). Reproduction 142: 157-166. Varoqui H, Erickson JD. (1996). J Biol Chem 271: 27229-27232. Zhu L et al. (2009). Bioorg Med Chem Lett 19: 5026-5028.

SLC19 family of vitamin transporters

Overview: the B vitamins folate and thiamine are transported across the cell membrane, particularly in the intestine, kidneys and placenta, using pH differences as driving forces. Topological modelling suggests the transporters have 12 TM domains.

Systematic name	SLC19A1	SLC19A2	SLC19A3
Nomenclature	Folate transporter 1	Thiamine transporter 1	Thiamine transporter 2
Common abbreviation	FOLT	ThTr1	ThTr2
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000173638	ENSG00000117479	ENSG00000135917
Other names	Reduced folate carrier protein, RFC1, intestinal folate carrier, IFC1, placental folate transporter	Thiamine carrier 1, TC1	
Endogenous substrates	Tetrahydrofolate, N ⁵ -methylfolate, folate (Prasad <i>et al.</i> , 1995), thiamine monophosphate (Zhao <i>et al.</i> , 2002)	Thiamine	Thiamine
Synthetic substrates	Methotrexate, folinic acid	_	_
Probes	[³ H]-Folate, [³ H]-methotrexate (Assaraf et al., 1998)	[³ H]-Thiamine (Dutta <i>et al.</i> , 1999)	[³ H]-Thiamine (Rajgopal <i>et al.</i> , 2001)
Stoichiometry	1 Folate (in) : 1 OH ⁻ (out)	1 Thiamine (in) : 1 H ⁺ (out)	1 Thiamine (in) : 1 H ⁺ (out)

Loss-of-function mutations in ThTr1 underlie thiamine-responsive megaloblastic anemia syndrome (Diaz et al., 1999).

Further Reading

Ganapathy V, Smith SB, Prasad PD (2004). SLC19: the folate/thiamine transporter family. Pflugers Arch 447: 641-646. Yuasa H, Inoue K, Hayashi Y (2009). Molecular and functional characteristics of proton-coupled folate transporter. J Pharm Sci 98: 1608–1616.

References

Assaraf YG et al. (1998). J Biol Chem 273: 8106-8111. Diaz GA et al. (1999). Nat Genet 22: 309-312. Dutta B et al. (1999). J Biol Chem 274: 31925-31929.

Prasad PD et al. (1995). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 206: 681-687. Rajgopal A et al. (2001). Biochim Biophys Acta 1537: 175-178. Zhao R et al. (2002). Am J Physiol Cell Physiol 282: C1512-C1517.

SLC20 family of sodium-dependent phosphate transporters

Overview: the SLC20 family is looked upon not only as ion transporters, but also as retroviral receptors. As ion transporters, they are sometimes referred to as Type III sodium-phosphate co-transporters, alongside Type I (SLC17 family, see Page S247) and Type II (SLC34 family, see Page S265). PiTs are cell-surface transporters, composed of ten TM domains with cytoplasmic C- and N-termini. PiT1 is a focus for dietary phosphate and vitamin D (see Page S188) regulation of parathyroid hormone secretion from the parathyroid gland. PiT2 appears to be involved in intestinal absorption of dietary phosphate.

SLC20A1 SLC20A2 Systematic name Preferred abbreviation PiT1 PiT2 Nomenclature Sodium-dependent phosphate transporter 1 Sodium-dependent phosphate transporter 2 **Ensembl ID** ENSG00000144136 ENSG00000168575 Gibbon ape leukemia virus receptor 1, GLVR-1 Gibbon ape leukemia virus receptor 2, GLVR-2 Other names Phosphate, arsenate (Ravera et al., 2007) Phosphate (Ravera et al., 2007) Substrates Stoichiometry >1 Na⁺ : 1 HPO₄²⁻ (in) $>1 \text{ Na}^+: 1 \text{ HPO}_4^{2-} \text{ (in)}$

Further Reading

Collins JF, Bai L, Ghishan FK (2004). The SLC20 family of proteins: dual functions as sodium-phosphate cotransporters and viral receptors. *Pflugers Arch* **447**: 647–652.

Virkki LV, Biber J, Murer H, Forster IC (2007). Phosphate transporters: a tale of two solute carrier families. Am J Physiol Renal Physiol 293: F643–F654.

Reference

Ravera S et al. (2007). Am J Physiol Cell Physiol 293: C606-C620.

SLC22 family of organic cation and anion transporters

Overview: the SLC22 family of transporters is mostly composed of non-selective transporters, which are expressed highly in liver, kidney and intestine, playing a major role in drug disposition. The family may be divided into three subfamilies based on the nature of the substrate transported: organic cations (OCTs), organic anions (OATs) and organic zwiterrion/cations (OCTN). Membrane topology is predicted to contain 12 TM domains with intracellular termini, and an extended extracellular loop at TM 1/2.

Organic cation transporters (OCT) are electrogenic, Na⁺-independent and reversible.

Systematic name	SLC22A1	SLC22A2	SLC22A3
Preferred abbreviation	OCT1	OCT2	OCT3
Nomenclature	Organic cation transporter 1	Organic cation transporter 2	Organic cation transporter 3
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000175003	ENSG00000112499	ENSG00000146477
Other names	-	-	Extraneuronal monoamine transporter EMT
Endogenous substrates	Choline, 5HT, PGE ₂ , PGF _{2α}	Dopamine, histamine (Grundemann et al., 1999), PGE ₂ (Kimura et al., 2002)	5HT, noradrenaline, dopamine (Zhu et al., 2010)
Synthetic substrates	TEA, MPP, desipramine, acyclovir, metformin	MPP, TEA, d-tubocurarine, pancuronium (Gorboulev <i>et al.,</i> 1997)	MPP, TEA, quinidine
Stoichiometry	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown

Corticosterone and quinine are able to inhibit all three organic cation transporters.

Organic zwitterion/cation transporters (OCTN) function as organic cation uniporters, organic cation/proton exchangers or sodium/carnitine co-transporters.

Systematic name	SLC22A4	SLC22A5	SLC22A16
Preferred abbreviation	OCTN1	OCTN2	CT2
Nomenclature	Organic cation/carnitine transporter 1	Organic cation/carnitine transporter 2	Carnitine transporter 2
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000197208	ENSG00000197375	ENSG0000004809
Other names	Ergothioneine transporter, ET	High-affinity sodium-dependent carnitine cotransporter, CT1	Organic cation/carnitine transporter 6, OCT6, organic cation transporter OKB1, Fly-like putative transporter 2, Flipt 2
Endogenous substrates	L-Carnitine	L-Carnitine, acetyl-L-carnitine	L-Carnitine
Synthetic substrates	TEA, MPP, mepyramine, verapamil	TEA, MPP, mepyramine, verapamil	_
Stoichiometry	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown

Organic anion transporters (OATs) are non-selective transporters prominent in the kidney and intestine.

ystematic name	SLC22A6	SLC22A7	SLC22A8	SLC22A9	SLC22A10	SLC22A11
referred bbreviation	OAT1	OAT2	OAT3	OAT4	OAT5	
Nomenclature	Organic anion transporter 1	Organic anion transporter 2	Organic anion transporter 3	Organic anion transporter 4	Organic anion transporter 5	Organic anion transporter 4
nsembl ID	ENSG00000197901	ENSG00000137204	ENSG00000149452	ENSG00000149742	ENSG00000184999	ENSG00000168065
Other names	Renal organic anion transporter 1, hROAT1, PAH transporter, hPAHT	Novel liver transporter	-	UST3	-	OAT4
ynthetic ubstrates	PAH, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs	PAH, PGE ₂ , non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs	PAH, ochratoxin A, estrone sulphate, cimetidine (Kusuhara <i>et al.</i> , 1999)	-	Ochratoxin A (Youngblood and Sweet, 2004))	Estrone sulphate, dehydroepiandrosteron sulphate, ochratoxin A (Cha <i>et al.</i> , 2000)
toichiometry	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown

Urate transporter.

Systematic name SLC22A12 Preferred abbreviation URAT1 Nomenclature Urate anion exchanger 1 Ensembl ID ENSG00000197891 Other names Renal-specific transporter, RST, organic anion transporter 4-like protein **Endogenous substrates** Urate, orotate (Enomoto et al., 2002) Stoichiometry Unknown

Orphan or poorly characterized family members.

Systematic name	Preferred abbreviation	Nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names
SLC22A13	ORCTL3	Organic cation transporter-like 3	ENSG00000172940	
SLC22A14	ORCTL4	Organic cation transporter-like 4	ENSG00000144671	
SLC22A15	FLIPT1	Fly-like putative transporter 1	ENSG00000163393	
SLC22A17	BOIT	Brain-type organic cation transporter	ENSG00000092096	ВОСТ
SLC22A18	ORCTL2	Organic cation transporter-like 2	ENSG00000110628	Imprinted multi-membrane spanning polyspecific transporter-related protein 1, efflux transporter-like protein, tumor-suppressing subchromosomal transferable fragment candidate gene 5 protein, tumor-suppressing STF cDNA 5 protein, Beckwith-Wiedemann syndrome chromosomal region 1 candidate gene A protein
SLC22A20			ENSG00000197847	S22AK_HUMAN Isoform 2 of A6NK97
SLC22A23			ENSG00000137266	
SLC22A24			ENSG00000197658	
SLC22A25			ENSG00000196600	Organic anion transporter UST6

Abbreviations: MPP, 1-methyl-4-phenylpyridin-1-ium; PAH, p-aminohippurate; TEA, tetraethylammonium

Further Reading

Anderson CM, Thwaites DT (2010). Hijacking solute carriers for proton-coupled drug transport. Physiology (Bethesda) 25: 364–377.

Duan P, You G (2010). Short-term regulation of organic anion transporters. Pharmacol Ther 125: 55-61.

Koepsell H, Endou H (2004). The SLC22 drug transporter family. Pflugers Arch 447: 666-676.

Koepsell H, Lips K, Volk C (2007). Polyspecific organic cation transporters: structure, function, physiological roles, and biopharmaceutical implications. *Pharm Res* 24: 1227–1251.

Miyazaki H, Sekine T, Endou H (2004). The multispecific organic anion transporter family: properties and pharmacological significance. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 25: 654–662.

Nigam SK, Bush KT, Bhatnagar V (2007). Drug and toxicant handling by the OAT organic anion transporters in the kidney and other tissues. *Nat Clin Pract Nephrol* 3: 443–448.

Saito H (2010). Pathophysiological regulation of renal SLC22A organic ion transporters in acute kidney injury: pharmacological and toxicological implications. *Pharmacol Ther* 125: 79–91.

Sekine T, Miyazaki H, Endou H (2006). Molecular physiology of renal organic anion transporters. *Am J Physiol Renal Physiol* **290**: F251–F261. Zhou F, You G (2007). Molecular insights into the structure-function relationship of organic anion transporters OATs. *Pharm Res* **24**: 28–36.

References

Cha SH *et al.* (2000). *J Biol Chem* **275**: 4507–4512. Enomoto A *et al.* (2002). *Nature* **417**: 447–452. Gorboulev V *et al.* (1997). *DNA Cell Biol* **16**: 871–881. Grundemann D *et al.* (1999). *Mol Pharmacol* **56**: 1–10. Kimura H *et al.* (2002). *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* **301**: 293–298. Kusuhara H *et al.* (1999). *J Biol Chem* **274**: 13675–13680. Youngblood GL, Sweet DH (2004). *Am J Physiol Renal Physiol* **287**: F236–F244. Zhu HJ *et al.* (2010). *J Neurochem* **114**: 142–149.

SLC23 family of ascorbic acid transporters

Overview: predicted to be 12 TM segment proteins, members of this family transport the reduced form of ascorbic acid (while the oxidized form may be handled by members of the SLC2 family (GLUT1/SLC2A1, GLUT3/SLC2A3 and GLUT4/SLC2A4, see Page S226).

Systematic name	SLC23A1	SLC23A2	SLC23A3	SLC23A4
Preferred abbreviation	SVCT1	SVCT2	SVCT3	SNBT1
Nomenclature	Sodium-dependent vitamin C transporter 1	Sodium-dependent vitamin C transporter 2	Sodium-dependent vitamin C transporter 3	Sodium-dependent nucleobase transporter
Other names	Yolk sac permease-like molecule 3	Na*/L-ascorbic acid transporter 2, yolk sac permease-like molecule 2, nucleobase transporter-like 1 protein	Yolk sac permease-like molecule 1	-
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000170482	ENSG00000089057	ENSG00000213901	ENSRNOG00000026919
Substrates	L-Ascorbic acid > D-ascorbic acid > dehydroascorbic acid (Tsukaguchi <i>et al.</i> , 1999)	L-Ascorbic acid > D-ascorbic acid > dehydroascorbic acid (Tsukaguchi <i>et al.,</i> 1999)	-	Uracil > thymine > guanine, hypoxanthine > xanthine, uridine (Yamamoto <i>et al.</i> , 2010
Synthetic substrates	-	_	-	5-Fluorouracil (Yamamoto <i>et al.</i> , 2010
Inhibitors	Phloretin (Tsukaguchi et al., 1999)	-	-	
Probes	[14C]-Ascorbic acid	[14C]-Ascorbic acid	-	
Stoichiometry	2 Na ⁺ : 1 ascorbic acid (in) (Tsukaguchi <i>et al.,</i> 1999)	2 Na ⁺ : 1 ascorbic acid (in) (Tsukaguchi <i>et al.,</i> 1999)	_	1 Na ⁺ : 1 uracil (in) (Yamamoto <i>et al.,</i> 2010

SLC23A3 does not transport ascorbic acid and remains an orphan transporter. SLC23A4/SNBT1 is found in rodents and non-human primates, but the sequence is truncated in the human genome.

Further Reading

Rivas CI, Zuniga FA, Salas-Burgos A, Mardones L, Ormazabal V, Vera JC (2008). Vitamin C transporters. J Physiol Biochem 64: 357–375. Savini I, Rossi A, Pierro C, Avigliano L, Catani MV (2008). SVCT1 and SVCT2: key proteins for vitamin C uptake. Amino Acids 34: 347-355. Takanaga H, Mackenzie B, Hediger MA (2004). Sodium-dependent ascorbic acid transporter family SLC23. Pflugers Arch 447: 677-682.

References

Tsukaguchi H et al. (1999). Nature 399: 70-75. Yamamoto S et al. (2010). J Biol Chem 285: 6522-6531.

SLC24 family of sodium/potassium/calcium exchangers

Overview: The sodium/potassium/calcium exchange family of transporters utilize the extracellular sodium gradient to drive calcium and potassium co-transport out of the cell. As is the case for NCX transporters (SLC8A family, see page S239), NKCX transporters are thought to be bidirectional, with the possibility of calcium influx following depolarization of the plasma membrane. Topological modeling suggests the presence of 10 TM domains, with a large intracellular loop between the fifth and sixth TM regions.

Systematic name	SLC24A1	SLC24A2	SLC24A3
Preferred abbreviation	NKCX1	NKCX2	NKCX3
Nomenclature	Sodium/potassium/calcium exchanger 1	Sodium/potassium/calcium exchanger 2	Sodium/potassium/calcium exchanger 3
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000074621	ENSG00000155886	ENSG00000185052
Other names	Retinal rod Na-Ca+K exchanger	Retinal cone Na-Ca+K exchanger	_
Stoichiometry	4 Na^+ :($1\text{Ca}^{2+} + 1\text{K}^+$)	-	-

Systematic name	SLC24A4	SLC24A5	SLC24A6
Preferred abbreviation	NKCX4	NKCX5	NKCX6
Nomenclature	Sodium/potassium/calcium exchanger 4	Sodium/potassium/calcium exchanger 5	Sodium/potassium/calcium exchanger 6
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000140090	ENSG00000188467	ENSG00000089060

NKCX6 exhibits sufficient structural diversity for it's function as a NKCX to be questioned (see Altimimi and Schnetkamp, 2007).

To date, there are no agents selective for this family of transporters.

Further Reading

Altimimi HF, Schnetkamp PP (2007). Na^+/Ca^{2^+} - K^+ exchangers (NCKX): functional properties and physiological roles. *Channels (Austin)* 1: 62–69. Schnetkamp PP (2004). The SLC24 Na^+/Ca^{2^+} - K^+ exchanger family: vision and beyond. *Pflugers Arch* 447: 683–688.

SLC25 family of mitochondrial transporters

Overview: mitochondrial transporters are nuclear-encoded proteins, which convey solutes across the inner mitochondrial membrane. Topological modelling suggests homodimeric transporters, each with six TM segments and termini in the cytosol.

Mitochondrial di- and tri-carboxylic acid transporters are grouped on the basis of commonality of substrates and include the citrate transporter which facititates citrate export from the mitochondria to allow the generation of oxaloacetate and acetylCoA through the action of ATP:citrate lyase.

Systematic name	SLC25A1	SLC25A10	SLC25A11
Common abbreviation	CIC	DIC	OGC
Nomenclature	Mitochondrial citrate transporter	Mitochondrial dicarboxylate transporter	Mitochondrial oxoglutarate carrier
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000100075	ENSG00000183048	ENSG00000108528
Other names	Citrate transport protein, CTP, tricarboxylate carrier protein, citrate isocitrate carrier		
Substrates	Citrate, malate, PEP	Malate, phosphate, succinate, sulphate, thiosulphate	Oxoglutarate, malate
Inhibitors	1,2,3-Benzenetricarboxylate		-
Stoichiometry	Malate ²⁻ (in): H-citrate ²⁻ (out)	PO_3^{4-} (in) : malate ²⁻ (out)	Malate ²⁻ (in) : oxoglutarate ²⁻ (out)

Systematic name	SLC25A12	SLC25A13	SLC25A18	SLC25A21	SLC25A22
Common abbreviation	AGC1	AGC2	GC2	OXC	GC1
Nomenclature	Aralar	Citrin	Mitochondrial glutamate carrier 2	Mitochondrial oxodicarboxylate carrier	Mitochondrial glutamate carrier 1
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000115840	ENSG00000004864	ENSG00000182902	ENSG00000183032	ENSG00000177542
Substrates	Aspartate, glutamate, cysteinesulphinate	Aspartate, glutamate, cysteinesulphinate	Glutamate	Oxoadipate, oxoglutarate	Glutamate
Stoichiometry	Aspartate : glutamate H ⁺ (bidirectional)	Aspartate : glutamate H ⁺ (bidirectional)	Glutamate : H ⁺ (bidirectional)	Oxoadipate (in) : oxoglutarate (out)	Glutamate : H ⁺ (bidirectional)

Mitochondrial ornithine transporters play a role in the urea cycle by exchanging cytosolic ornithine for mitochondrial citrulline in equimolar amounts.

Systematic name	SLC25A2	SLC25A15
Common abbreviation	ORC2	ORC1
Nomenclature	Mitochondrial ornithine transporter 2	Mitochondrial ornithine transporter 1
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000120329	ENSG00000102743
Substrates	Ornithine, citrulline, lysine, arginine, histidine (Fiermonte <i>et al.</i> , 2003)	L-Ornithine, L-citrulline, L-lysine, L-arginine (Fiermonte <i>et al.</i> , 2003)
Stoichiometry	1 Ornithine (in) :1 citrulline : 1 H ⁺ (out)	1 Ornithine (in) :1 citrulline : 1 H ⁺ (out)

Both transporters are inhibited by the polyamine spermine (Fiermonte et al., 2003). Loss-of-function mutations in these genes are associated with hyperornithinemia-hyperammonemia-homocitrullinuria.

Mitochondrial phosphate transporters allow the import of inorganic phosphate for ATP production

Systematic name	SLC25A3
Common abbreviation	PHC
Nomenclature	Mitochondrial phosphate carrier
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000075415
Other names	Phosphate transport protein, PTP, PiC
Stoichiometry	PO_3^{4-} (in) : OH^- (out) or PO_3^{4-} : H^+ (in)

Mitochondrial adenine nucleotide translocator family, under conditions of aerobic metabolism, allow coupling between mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation and cytosolic energy consumption by exchanging cytosolic ADP for mitochondrial ATP.

Systematic name	SLC25A4	SLC25A5	SLC25A6	SLC25A31
Common abbreviation	ANT1	ANT2	ANT3	ANT4
Nomenclature	Mitochondrial adenine nucleotide translocator 1	Mitochondrial adenine nucleotide translocator 2	Mitochondrial adenine nucleotide translocator 3	Mitochondrial adenine nucleotide translocator 4
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000151729	ENSG00000005022	ENSG00000169100	ENSG00000151475
Other names	Adenine nucleotide translocator 1, ADP,ATP carrier protein 1, ADP,ATP carrier protein, heart/ skeletal muscle isoform T1	Adenine nucleotide translocator 2, ADP,ATP carrier protein 2, ADP,ATP carrier protein, fibroblast isoform	Adenine nucleotide translocator 2, ADP,ATP carrier protein 3, ADP,ATP carrier protein, isoform T2	Sperm flagellar energy carrier protein
Inhibitors	CATR, BKA	-	-	
Stoichiometry	ADP^{3-} (in) : ATP^{4-} (out)	ADP^{3-} (in) : ATP^{4-} (out)	ADP^{3-} (in) : ATP^{4-} (out)	ADP ³⁻ (in) : ATP ⁴⁻ (out)

Mitochondrial uncoupling proteins allow dissipation of the mitochondrial proton gradient associated with thermogenesis and regulation of radical formation.

Systematic name	SLC25A7	SLC25A8	SLC25A9	SLC25A27	SLC25A14
Common abbreviation	UCP1	UCP2	UCP3	UCP4	UCP5
Nomenclature	Uncoupling protein 1	Uncoupling protein 2	Uncoupling protein 3		
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000109424	ENSG00000175567	ENSG00000175564	ENSG00000153291	ENSG00000102078
Other names	Thermogenin	-	-	-	Brain mitochondrial carrier
Stoichiometry	H ⁺ (in)	H ⁺ (in)	H ⁺ (in)	H ⁺ (in)	H ⁺ (in)

Mitochondrial nucleotide transporters convey nucleotides and their derivatives

Systematic name	SLC25A16	SLC25A17	SLC25A19	SLC25A26	SLC25A42
Common abbreviation	GDC	PMP34	DNC1	SAMC	
Nomenclature	Graves disease carrier	Peroxisomal membrane protein	Deoxynucleotide carrier 1	S-Adenosylmethionine carrier	
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000122912	ENSG00000100372	ENSG00000125454	ENSG00000144741	ENSG00000181035
Other names	Graves disease autoantigen	-	Mitochondrial thiamine pyrophosphate carrier	-	-
Substrates	CoA and congeners	atp, adp, amp	dNDPs, dNTPs, NDPs, ddNTPs	S-Adenosylmethionine	ADP, Co A (Fiermonte <i>et al.</i> , 2009)
Stoichiometry	CoA (in)	ATP (in)	dNDP (in) : ATP (out)		

Miscellaneous: many of the transporters identified below have yet to be assigned functions and are currently regarded as orphans.

Systematic name	Common abbreviation	Nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Comments
SLC25A20	CAC	Carnitine/acylcarnitine carrier	ENSG00000178537	Exchanges cytosolic acylcarnitine for mitochondrial carnitine
SLC25A24	APC1	Mitochondrial phosphate carrier 1	ENSG00000085491	
SLC25A23	APC2	mitochondrial phosphate carrier 2	ENSG00000125648	
SLC25A25	APC3	mitochondrial phosphate carrier 3	ENSG00000148339	
SLC25A28		Mitoferrin2	ENSG00000155287	
SLC25A29	ORNT3		ENSG00000197119	
SLC25A30			ENSG00000174032	
SLC25A32	MFTC		ENSG00000164933	
SLC25A33			ENSG00000171612	
SLC25A34			ENSG00000162461	
SLC25A35			ENSG00000125434	
SLC25A36			ENSG00000114120	
SLC25A37		Mitoferrin1	ENSG00000147454	
SLC25A38			ENSG00000144659	
SLC25A39			ENSG00000013306	
SLC25A40			ENSG00000181240	
SLC25A41			ENSG00000181240	
SLC25A43			ENSG00000077713	
SLC25A44			ENSG00000160785	
SLC25A45			ENSG00000162241	
SLC25A46			ENSG00000164209	

Further relevant information on tabular data. For example, whether agent selectivity is less than 100-fold, whether evidence exists for further subtypes lacking molecular correlates or overlap with other transporter families; relationship with a common genetic disorder.

Abbreviations: BKA, bongkrekic acid; CATR, carboxyatractyloside; PEP, phosphonenolpyruvate

Further Reading

Cioffi F, Senese R, de Lange P, Goglia F, Lanni A, Lombardi A (2009). Uncoupling proteins: a complex journey to function discovery. *Biofactors* 35: 417–428.

Gnoni GV, Priore P, Geelen MJ, Siculella L (2009). The mitochondrial citrate carrier: metabolic role and regulation of its activity and expression. *IUBMB Life* 61: 987–994.

Halestrap AP (2009). What is the mitochondrial permeability transition pore? J Mol Cell Cardiol 46: 821-831.

Jezek P, Jaburek M, Garlid KD (2010). Channel character of uncoupling protein-mediated transport. FEBS Lett 584: 2135–2141.

Leung AW, Halestrap AP (2008). Recent progress in elucidating the molecular mechanism of the mitochondrial permeability transition pore. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1777: 946–952.

Palmieri F (2004). The mitochondrial transporter family (SLC25): physiological and pathological implications. Pflugers Arch 447: 689–709.

References

Fiermonte G et al. (2003). J Biol Chem 278: 32778–32783. Fiermonte G et al. (2009). J Biol Chem 284: 18152-18159.

SLC26 family of anion exchangers

Overview: along with the SLC4 family, the SLC26 family acts to allow movement of monovalent and divalent anions across cell membranes. The predicted topology is of 8-14 TM domains with intracellular C- and N-termini, probably existing as dimers. Within the family, subgroups may be identified on the basis of functional differences.

Selective sulphate transporters

SLC26A2 Systematic name SLC26A1 Common nomenclature Sat-1 **DTDST Ensembl ID** ENSG00000145217 ENSG00000155850 Other names SO₄²⁻, oxalate²⁻ SO_4^{2-} Substrates SO₄²⁻ (in): anion (out) $1 SO_4^{2-}$ (in) : $2 Cl^-$ (out) Stoichiometry

Chloride/bicarbonate exchangers

Systematic name SLC26A3 SLC26A4 SLC26A6 Common nomenclature Pendrin PAT-1 Ensembl ID ENSG00000091138 ENSG00000091137 ENSG00000225697 Other names CLD Substrates Cl-, I-, OH-, HCO₃-, HCOO-SO₄²⁻, oxalate²⁻, Cl⁻, l⁻, OH⁻, HCO₃⁻, HCOO⁻ Stoichiometry 2 Cl⁻ (in) : 1 HCO₃⁻ (out) or Unknown $1 SO_4^{2-}$ (in) : $2 HCO_3^{-}$ (out) or 2 Cl⁻ (in): 1 OH⁻ (out) 1 Cl⁻ (in) : 2 HCO₃⁻ (out)

Anion channels

Systematic name SLC26A7 SLC26A9 **Ensembl ID** ENSG00000147606 ENSG00000174502 Ion selectivity $NO_3^- >> CI^- = Br^- = I^- > SO_4^{2-} = GIu^ I^- > Br^- > NO_3^- > CI^- > Glu^-$ **Functional characteristics** Voltage- and time-independent current, linear I-V Voltage- and time-independent current, linear I-V relationship (Kim et al., 2005) relationship (Dorwart et al., 2007)

SLC26A9 has been suggested to operate in two additional modes as a $Cl^-+HCO_3^-$ exchanger and as a Na^+ -anion cotransporter (Chang et al., 2009).

Other

Systematic name	SLC26A5	SLC26A8	SLC26A10	SLC26A11
Common nomenclature	Prestin	Tat1	_	-
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000170615	ENSG00000112053	ENSG00000135502	ENSG00000181045
Substrates	Cl ⁻ , HCO ₃ ⁻	SO ₄ ²⁻ , oxalate ²⁻ , Cl ⁻		HSO ₄ ⁻
Stoichiometry	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown

SLC26A5 has been suggested to function as a molecular motor, rather than a transporter, while SLC26A10 is a possible pseudogene.

Further Reading

Dorwart MR, Shcheynikov N, Yang D, Muallem S (2008). The solute carrier 26 family of proteins in epithelial ion transport. Physiology (Bethesda) 23: 104-114.

Kato A, Romero MF (2011). Regulation of electroneutral NaCl absorption by the small intestine. *Annu Rev Physiol* **73**: 261–281. Mount DB, Romero MF (2004). The SLC26 gene family of multifunctional anion exchangers. *Pflugers Arch* **447**: 710–721. Ohana E, Yang D, Shcheynikov N, Muallem S (2009). Diverse transport modes by the solute carrier 26 family of anion transporters. *J Physiol* **587**: 2179–2185.

References

Chang MH *et al.* (2009). *J Membr Biol* **228**: 125–140. Dorwart MR *et al.* (2007). *J Physiol* **584**: 333–345. Kim KH *et al.* (2005). *J Biol Chem* **280**: 6463–6470.

SLC27 family of fatty acid transporters

Overview: Fatty acid transporters are a family of at least one, and possibly six (Schaffer and Lodish, 1994), -TM segment proteins, predicted on the basis of structural similarities to form dimers. These transporters are unusual in that they appear to express intrinsic very long-chain acyl-CoA synthetase (EC 6.2.1.-, EC 6.2.1.7) enzyme activity as well as an intracellular AMP-binding domain. Within the cell, these transporters may associate with plasma and peroxisomal membranes.

Nomenclature	Fatty acid transport protein 1	Fatty acid transport protein 2	Fatty acid transport protein 3
Systematic name	SLC27A1	SLC27A2	SLC27A3
Preferred abbreviation	FATP1	FATP2	FATP3
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000130304	ENSG00000140284	ENSG00000143554
Other names	Long-chain fatty acid transport protein 1	Very-long-chain acyl-CoA synthetase, very-long- chain-fatty-acid-CoA ligase, THCA-CoA ligase, fatty-acid- coenzyme A ligase, very long-chain 1	Long-chain fatty acid transport protein 3, very long-chain acyl-CoA synthetase homolog 3, VLCS-3
Endogenous substrates	C20:4 > C16 > C18:1 > C4 (Schaffer and Lodish, 1994); C16:0 > C18:1 > C18:3 > C8 (Gimeno et al., 2003)	-	-

Nomenclature	Fatty acid transport protein 4	Fatty acid transport protein 5	Fatty acid transport protein 6
Systematic name	SLC27A4	SLC27A5	SLC27A6
Preferred abbreviation	FATP4	FATP5	FATP6
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000167114	ENSG00000083807	ENSG00000113396
Other names	ACSVL4	Bile acyl-CoA synthetase, BACS, bile acid CoA ligase, BAL, cholate-CoA ligase, very long-chain acyl-CoA synthetase homolog 2, VLCSH2	Long-chain fatty acid transport protein 6, very long-chain acyl-CoA synthetase homolog 1, VLCSH1
Endogenous substrates	C16:0 > C18:1 > C4, C18:3 > C20:4 (Stahl <i>et al.</i> , 1999); C16:0, C18:1 > C18:3 > C8 (Gimeno <i>et al.</i> , 2003)		C16:0 > C18:1 > C18:3 > C8 (Gimeno <i>et al.</i> , 2003)

Although the stoichiometry of fatty acid transport is unclear, it has been proposed to be facilitated by the coupling of fatty acid transport to conjugation with CoA to form fatty acyl CoA esters. Small molecule inhibitors of FATP2 (Sandoval *et al.*, 2010) and FATP4 (Blackburn *et al.*, 2006) have been described; analysis of the mechanism of action of some of these inhibitors suggests that transport may be selectively inhibited without altering enzymatic activity of the FATP.

C1-BODIPY-C12 accumulation has been used as a non-selective index of fatty acid transporter activity.

Abbreviations: C12.; C16:0, palmitic acid; C18:0, stearic acid; C18:1, oleic acid; C18:2, linoleic acid; C18:3,n-6, γ-linolenic acid; C20:4, arachidonic acid; C20:5,n-3, 5z,8z,11z,14z,17z-eicosapentaenoic acid, EPA; C22:6,n-3, 4z,7z,10z,13z,16z,19z-docosahexaenoic acid, DHA; C3, propionic acid; C4, butyric acid; C5, valeric acid; C8, octanoic acid

Further Reading

Gimeno RE (2007). Fatty acid transport proteins. Curr Opin Lipidol 18: 271-276. Stahl A (2004). A current review of fatty acid transport proteins (SLC27). Pflugers Arch 447: 722-727. Watkins PA (2008). Very-long-chain acyl-CoA synthetases. J Biol Chem 283: 1773–1777.

References

Blackburn C et al. (2006). Bioorg Med Chem Lett 16: 3504-

Gimeno RE et al. (2003). J Biol Chem 278: 16039-16044.

Sandoval A et al. (2010). Biochem Pharmacol 79: 990-999. Schaffer JE, Lodish HF (1994). Cell 79: 427-436. Stahl A et al. (1999). Mol Cell 4: 299-308.

SLC28 and SLC29 families of nucleoside transporters

Overview: Nucleoside transporters are divided into two families, the sodium-dependent, solute carrier family 28 (SLC28) and the equilibrative, solute carrier family 29 (SLC29), where the endogenous substrates are nucleosides.

SLC28 family members have 13 TM segments with cytoplasmic N-termini and extracellular C-termini.

Systematic name	SLC28A1	SLC28A2	SLC28A3
Common abbreviation	CNT1	CNT2	CNT3
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000156222	ENSG00000137860	ENSG00000099118
Other names	N2/cit, concentrative nucleoside transporter 1	N1/cif, SPNT, concentrative nucleoside transporter 2	N3/cib, concentrative nucleoside transporter 3
Endogenous substrates	Uridine, cytidine, thymidine, adenosine	Adenosine, guanosine, inosine, thymidine	Uridine, cytidine, thymidine, adenosine, guanosine, inosine
Synthetic substrates	AZT, zalcitabine, gemcitabine	Formycin B, cladribine, fludarabine, vidarabine, didanosine	AZT, zalcitabine, didanosine, formycin B, 5-fluorouridine, 5-fluoro-2'-deoxyuridine, zebularine, gemcitabine, cladribine, fludarabine
Predicted stoichiometry	1 Na ⁺ : 1 nucleoside (in)	1 Na ⁺ : 1 nucleoside (in)	2 Na ⁺ : 1 nucleoside (in)

A further two Na*-dependent (stoichiometry 1 Na*: 1 nucleoside (in)) nucleoside transporters have been defined on the basis of substrate and inhibitor selectivity: CNT4 (N4/cit, which transports uridine, thymidine and guanosine) and CNT5 (N5/csg, which transports guanosine and adenosine, and may be inhibited by NBTI).

SLC29 family members appear to be composed of 11 TM segments with cytoplasmic N-termini and extracellular C-termini. ENT1 and ENT2 are cell-surface transporters, while ENT3 is intracellular, possibly lysosomal (Baldwin et al., 2005). ENT1-3 are described as broad-spectrum nucleoside transporters. Ahas been reported to be intracellular purine nucleoside transporters

PMAT also transports adenosine at acidic pH (Barnes et al., 2006; Zhou et al., 2007).

The affinities of draflazine, dilazep, KF24345 and dipyridamole at ENT1 transporters are species dependent, exhibiting lower affinity at rat transporters than at human transporters (Sundaram *et al.*, 1998; Hammond and Archer, 2004).

Abbreviations: 5HT, 5-hydroxytryptamine; AZT, 3'-azido-3'-deoxythymidine; MPP⁺, 1-methyl-4-phenylpyridin-1-ium; NBTI, nitrobenzylthioinosine (also known as NBMPR); NBTGR, nitrobenzylthioguanosine; KF24345, 3-(1-[6,7-diethoxy-2-morpholinoquinazolin-4-yl]piperidin-4-yl)-1,6-dimethyl-2,4(1*H*,3*H*)-quinazolinedione hydrochloride

Further Reading

Baldwin SA, Beal PR, Yao SY, King AE, Cass CE, Young JD (2004). The equilibrative nucleoside transporter family, SLC29. *Pflugers Arch* 447: 735–743.

Baldwin SA, McConkey GA, Cass CE, Young JD (2007). Nucleoside transport as a potential target for chemotherapy in malaria. *Curr Pharm Des* 13: 569–580.

Daws LC (2009). Unfaithful neurotransmitter transporters: focus on serotonin uptake and implications for antidepressant efficacy. *Pharmacol Ther* **121**: 89–99.

Errasti-Murugarren E, Pastor-Anglada M (2010). Drug transporter pharmacogenetics in nucleoside-based therapies. *Pharmacogenomics* 11: 800–841

Gray JH, Owen RP, Giacomini KM (2004). The concentrative nucleoside transporter family, SLC28. Pflugers Arch 447: 728-734.

King AE, Ackley MA, Cass CE, Young JD, Baldwin SA (2006). Nucleoside transporters: from scavengers to novel therapeutic targets. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 27: 416–425.

Pastor-Anglada M, Cano-Soldado P, Errasti-Murugarren E, Casado FJ (2008). SLC28 genes and concentrative nucleoside transporter (CNT) proteins. *Xenobiotica* 38: 972–994.

References

Baldwin SA *et al.* (2005). *J Biol Chem* 280: 15880–15887.
Barnes K *et al.* (2006). *Circ Res* 99: 510–519.
Engel K, Wang J (2005). *Mol Pharmacol* 68: 1397–1407.
Hammond JR, Archer RGE (2004). *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* 308: 1083–1093.

Sundaram M *et al.* (1998). *J Biol Chem* **273**: 21519–21525. Yao SY *et al.* (2011). *J Biol Chem* **286**: 32552–32562. Zhou M *et al.* (2007). *J Biol Chem* **282**: 3188–3195.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA SLC30 zinc transporter family \$263

SLC30 zinc transporter family

Overview: Along with the SLC39 family (see Page S270), SLC30 transporters regulate the movement of zinc ions around the cell. In particular, these transporters remove zinc ions from the cytosol, allowing accumulation into intracellular compartments or efflux through the plasma membrane. ZNT1 is thought to be placed on the plasma membrane extruding zinc, while ZNT3 is associated with synaptic vesicles and ZNT4 and ZNT5 are linked with secretory granules. Membrane topology predictions suggest a multimeric assembly with subunits having six TM domains, with both termini being cytoplasmic. Dityrosine covalent linking has been suggested as a mechanism for dimerisation, particularly for ZNT3 (Salazar *et al.*, 2009). The mechanism for zinc transport is unknown.

Systematic name	Common abbreviation	Nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names
SLC30A1	ZNT1	Zinc transporter 1	ENSG00000170385	
SLC30A2	ZNT2	Zinc transporter 2	ENSG00000158014	
SLC30A3	ZNT3	Zinc transporter 3	ENSG00000115194	
SLC30A4	ZNT4	Zinc transporter 4	ENSG00000104154	
SLC30A5	ZNT5	Zinc transporter 5	ENSG00000145740	
SLC30A6	ZNT6	Zinc transporter 6	ENSG00000152683	
SLC30A7	ZNT7	Zinc transporter 7	ENSG00000162695	
SLC30A8	ZNT8	Zinc transporter 8	ENSG00000164756	
SLC30A9	ZNT9	Zinc transporter 9	ENSG00000014824	Human embryonic lung protein, HUEL
SLC30A10	ZNT10	Zinc transporter 10	ENSG00000196660	

SLC30A8 is described as a type 2 diabetes susceptibility gene.

Zinc fluxes may be monitored through the use of radioisotopic Zn-65 or the fluorescent dye FluoZin 3.

Further Reading

Palmiter RD, Huang L (2004). Efflux and compartmentalization of zinc by members of the SLC30 family of solute carriers. *Pflugers Arch* **447**: 744–751.

Rungby J (2010). Zinc, zinc transporters and diabetes. Diabetologia 53: 1549-1551.

Reference

Salazar G et al. (2009). PLoS One 4: e5896.

SLC31 family of copper transporters

Overview: SLC31 family members, alongside the Cu-ATPases (see Page S219) are involved in the regulation of cellular copper levels. The CTR1 transporter is a cell-surface transporter to allow monovalent copper accumulation into cells, while CTR2 appears to be a vacuolar/vesicular transporter (Rees *et al.*, 2004). Functional copper transporters appear to be trimeric with each subunit having three TM regions and an extracellular N-terminus. CTR1 is considered to be a higher affinity copper transporter compared to CTR2. The stoichiometry of copper accumulation is unclear, but appears to be energy-independent (Lee *et al.*, 2002).

Systematic name	SLC31A1	SLC31A2
Preferred abbreviation	CTR1	CTR2
Nomenclature	Copper transporter 1	Copper transporter 2
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000136868	ENSG00000136867
Other names	COPT1	COPT2

Copper accumulation through CTR1 is sensitive to silver ions, but not divalent cations (Lee *et al.*, 2002). The CTR1 and CTR2 transporters regulate the cellular levels of the anticancer drug cisplatin (Ishida *et al.*, 2002, Blair *et al.*, 2009).

Further Reading

De Feo CJ, Aller SG, Unger VM (2007). A structural perspective on copper uptake in eukaryotes. *Biometals* **20**: 705–716. Howell SB, Safaei R, Larson CA, Sailor MJ (2010). Copper transporters and the cellular pharmacology of the platinum-containing cancer drugs. *Mol Pharmacol* **77**: 887–894.

Maryon EB, Molloy SA, Zimnicka AM, Kaplan JH (2007). Copper entry into human cells: progress and unanswered questions. *Biometals* 20: 355–364.

Nose Y, Rees EM, Thiele DJ (2006). Structure of the Ctr1 copper trans'PORE'ter reveals novel architecture. *Trends Biochem Sci* **31**: 604–607. Petris MJ (2004). The SLC31 (Ctr) copper transporter family. *Pflugers Arch* **447**: 752–755.

References

Blair BG *et al.* (2009). *Clin Cancer Res* **15**: 4312–4321. Ishida S *et al.* (2002). *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **99**: 14298–14302. Lee J *et al.* (2002). *J Biol Chem* **277**: 4380–4387. Rees EM *et al.* (2004). *J Biol Chem* **279**: 54221–54229.

SLC32 vesicular inhibitory amino acid transporter

Overview: The vesicular inhibitory amino acid transporter, VIAAT (also termed the vesicular GABA transporter VGAT), which is the sole representative of the SLC32 family, transports GABA, or glycine, into synaptic vesicles (Gasnier, 2000, 2004). VIAAT was originally suggested to be composed of 10 TM segments with cytoplasmic N- and C-termini (McIntire *et al.*, 1997; Sagne *et al.*, 1997). However, an alternative 9TM structure with the N terminus facing the cytoplasm and the C terminus residing in the synaptic vesicle lumen has subsequently been reported (Martens *et al.*, 2008). VIAAT acts as an antiporter for inhibitory amino acids and protons. The accumulation of GABA and glycine within vesicles is driven by both the chemical (Δ PH) and electrical (Δ W) components of the proton electrochemical gradient (Δ PH+) established by a vacuolar H⁺-ATPase (McIntire *et al.*, 1997). However, Juge *et al.* (2009) have presented evidence that VIAAT is instead a Cl⁻/GABA co-transporter. VIAAT co-exists with VGLUT1 (SLC17A7), or VGLUT2 (SLC17A6), in the synaptic vesicles of selected nerve terminals (Fattorini *et al.*, 2009; Zander *et al.*, 2010). VIAAT knock out mice die between embryonic day 18.5 and birth (Wojcik *et al.*, 2006). In cultures of spinal cord neurones established from earlier embryos, the co-release of of GABA and glycine from synaptic vesicles is drastically reduced, providing direct evidence for the role of VIAAT in the sequestration of both transmitters (Wojcik *et al.*, 2006; Saito *et al.*, 2010).

Common abbreviation VIAAT

Systematic name SLC32A1

Nomenclature Vesicular inhibitory amino acid transporter

Other names VGAT (vesicular GABA transporter)

Ensembl ID ENSG00000101438

Endogenous substrates (K_m) GABA (5 mM; McIntire et al., 1997), glycine, β -alanine, γ -hydroxybutyrate

Synthetic substrates

Inhibitors (IC₅₀) Vigabatrin (7.5 mM; McIntire et al., 1997)

Probes –

Stoichiometry 1 amino acid (in): 1 H⁺ (out) (Gasnier, 2004) or 1 amino acid: 2Cl⁻ (in) (Juge et al., 2009)

Further Reading

Erickson JD, De Gois S, Varoqui H, Schafer MK, Weihe E (2006). Activity-dependent regulation of vesicular glutamate and GABA transporters: a means to scale quantal size. *Neurochem Int* **48**: 643–649.

Gasnier B (2000). The loading of neurotransmitters into synaptic vesicles. Biochimie 82: 327-337.

Gasnier B (2004). The SLC32 transporter, a key protein for the synaptic release of inhibitory amino acids. Pflugers Arch 447: 756-759.

References

Fattorini G et al. (2009). J Neurochem 110: 1538–1546. Juge N et al. (2009). J Biol Chem 284: 35073–35078. Martens HJ et al. (2008). J Neurosci 28: 13125–13131. McIntire SL et al. (1997). Nature 389: 870–876.

Sagne C *et al.* (1997). *FEBS Lett* **417**: 177–183. Saito K *et al.* (2010). *Mol Brain* **3**: 40. Wojcik SM *et al.* (2006). *Neuron* **50**: 575–587. Zander JF *et al.* (2010). *J Neurosci* **30**: 7634–7645.

SLC33 acetylCoA transporter

Overview: acetylation of proteins is a post-translational modification mediated by specific acetyltransferases, using the donor acetylCoA. SLC33A1/AT1 is a putative 11 TM transporter present on the endoplasmic reticulum, expressed in all tissues, but particularly abundant in the pancreas (Kanamori *et al.*, 1997), which imports cytosolic acetylCoA into these intracellular organelles.

Systematic name SLC33A1 Preferred abbreviation AT1 Nomenclature AcetylCoA transporter Ensembl ID ENSG00000169359 Other names **ACATN Endogenous substrates** AcetylCoA Probes [14C]-AcetylCoA Stoichiometry Unknown

In heterologous expression studies, acetylCoA transport through AT1 was inhibited by CoA, but not acetate, ATP or UDP-galactose (Jonas et al., 2010). A loss-of-function mutation in SLC33A1 has been associated with spastic paraplegia (SPG42, Lin et al., 2008), although this observation could not be replicated in a subsequent study (Schlipf et al., 2010).

Abbreviations: CoA [[(2R,3S,4R,5R)-5-(6-aminopurin-9-yl)-4-hydroxy-3-phosphonooxyoxolan-2-yl]methoxyhydroxyphosphoryl][(3R)-3-hydroxy-2,2-dimethyl-4-oxo-4-[[3-oxo-3-(2-sulfanylethylamino)propyl]amino|butyl]hydrogen phosphate.

Further Reading

Hirabayashi Y, Kanamori A, Nomura KH, Nomura K (2004). The acetyl-CoA transporter family SLC33. Pflugers Arch 447: 760–762.

References

Jonas MC et al. (2010). J Cell Sci 123: 3378-3388. Kanamori A et al. (1997). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 94: 2897-2902. Lin P et al. (2008). Am I Hum Genet 83: 752-759. Schlipf NA et al. (2010). Eur J Hum Genet 18: 1065-1067.

SLC34 family of sodium phosphate co-transporters

Overview: The SLC34 family are sometimes referred to as Type II sodium-phosphate co-transporters, alongside Type I (SLC17 family, see Page S247) and Type III (SLC20 family, see Page S251) transporters. Topological modelling suggests eight TM domains with C- and N- termini in the cytoplasm, and a re-entrant loop at TM5/6. SLC34 family members are expressed on the apical surfaces of epithelia in the intestine and kidneys to regulate body phosphate levels, principally NaPi-IIa and NaPi-IIb, respectively. NaPi-IIa and NaPi-IIb are electrogenic, while NaPiIIc is electrogenic (Andrini et al., 2008).

Systematic name	SLC34A1	SLC34A2	SLC34A3
Common abbreviation	NaPi-IIa	NaPi-IIb	NaPi-IIc
Nomenclature	Sodium phosphate 1	Sodium phosphate 2	Sodium phosphate 3
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000131183	ENSG00000157765	ENSG00000198569
Other names	NAPI-3, NPT2, NPTIIa, SLC11, SLC17A2	NAPI-3B	NPTIIc
Stoichiometry	3 Na ⁺ : 1 HPO ₄ ²⁻ (in) (Forster <i>et al.</i> , 1999)	3 Na ⁺ : 1 HPO ₄ ²⁻ (in) (Andrini <i>et al.</i> , 2008)	2 Na ⁺ : 1 HPO ₄ ²⁻ (in) (Andrini <i>et al.</i> , 2008)

These transporters can be inhibited by PFA, in contrast to type III sodium-phosphate cotransporters, the SLC20 family (see Page S251).

Abbreviations: PFA, phosphonoformic acid

Further Reading

Murer H, Forster I, Biber J (2004). The sodium phosphate cotransporter family SLC34. Pflugers Arch 447: 763–767.

References

Andrini O et al. (2008). Channels (Austin) 2: 346-357. Forster IC et al. (1999). Am J Physiol 276: F644-F649.

SLC35 family of nucleotide sugar transporters

Overview: glycoprotein formation in the Golgi and endoplasmic reticulum relies on the accumulation of nucleotide-conjugated sugars via the SLC35 family of transporters. These transporters have a predicted topology of 10 TM domains, with cytoplasmic termini, and function as exchangers, swopping nucleoside monophosphates for the corresponding nucleoside diphosphate conjugated sugar. Five subfamilies of transporters have been identified on the basis of sequence similarity.

Systematic name	SLC35A1	SLC35A2	SLC35A3	SLC35A4	SLC35A5
Nomenclature	CMP-sialic acid transporter	UDP-galactose transporter	UDP-N-acetylglucosamine transporter	-	-
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000164414	ENSG00000102100	ENSG00000117620	ENSG00000176087	ENSG00000138459
Other names	CMPST, hCST	UGALT, UGAT, UGT, UGT1, UGT2, UGTL	-	-	-
Substrates	CMP-sialic acid (Ishida <i>et al.,</i> 1998)	UDP-galactose, UDP-N- acetylglucosamine (Ishida <i>et al.</i> , 1996; Miura <i>et al.</i> , 1996)	UDP-N-acetylglucosamine (Ishida <i>et al.</i> , 1999)	-	-

1					
	Systematic name	SLC35B1	SLC35B2	SLC35B3	SLC35B4
ı	Nomenclature	_	PAPS transporter 1	PAPS transporter 2	-
ı	Ensembl ID	ENSG00000121073	ENSG00000157593	ENSG00000124786	ENSG00000205060
	Other names	HUT-1	PAPST1, SLL, UGTrel4	PAPST2, C6orf196, CGI-19, dJ453H5.1	YEA4
	Substrates	-	PAPS (Kamiyama et al., 2003)	PAPS (Kamiyama et al., 2006)	UDP-xylose, UDP-N-acetylglucosamine (Ashikov <i>et al.</i> , 2005)

Systematic name	SLC35C1	SLC35C2
Nomenclature	GDP-Fucose transporter	-
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000181830	ENSG0000080189
Other names	FUCT1	-
Substrates	GDP-fucose (Luhn et al., 2001)	-

Systematic name	SLC35D1	SLC35D2	SLC35D3
Nomenclature	UDP-glucuronic acid/ UDP-N-acetylgalactosamine dual transporter	-	-
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000116704	ENSG00000130958	ENSG00000182747
Other names	UDP-galactose transporter-related 7	SQV7-like protein, UDP-galactose transporter-related 8	FRCL1
Substrates	UDP-glucuronic acid, UDP-N-acetylgalactosamine (Muraoka <i>et al.</i> , 2001)	UDP-N-acetylgalactosamine (Ishida et al., 2005)	-

Orphan transporters

Systematic name	SLC35E1	SLC35E2	SLC35E3	SLC35E4
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000127526	ENSG00000175782	ENSG00000215790	ENSG00000100036

Systematic name	SLC35F1	SLC35F2	SLC35F3	SLC35F4	SLC35F5	
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000196376	ENSG00000110660	ENSG00000183780	ENSG00000151812	ENSG00000115084	

Abbreviations: PAPS, [(2R,3S,4R,5R)-5-(6-aminopurin-9-yl)-4-hydroxy-2-[[oxido(sulfonatooxy)phosphoryl]oxymethyl]oxolan-3-yl] phosphate

Further Reading

Ishida N, Kawakita M (2004). Molecular physiology and pathology of the nucleotide sugar transporter family (SLC35). Pflugers Arch 447: 768–775.

References

Ashikov A et al. (2005). J Biol Chem 280: 27230-27235. Kamiyama S et al. (2003). J Biol Chem 278: 25958-25963. Ishida N et al. (1996). J Biochem 120: 1074-1078. Kamiyama S et al. (2006). J Biol Chem 281: 10945-10953. Ishida N et al. (1998). J Biochem 124: 171-178. Luhn K et al. (2001). Nat Genet 28: 69-72. Ishida N et al. (1999). J Biochem 126: 68-77. Miura N et al. (1996). J Biochem 120: 236-241. Ishida N et al. (2005). Genomics 85: 106-116. Muraoka M et al. (2001). FEBS Lett 495: 87-93.

SLC36 family of proton-coupled amino acid transporters

Overview: the SLC36 family of proton-coupled amino acid transporters (or PAT) is highly expressed in the intestine and kidney, having roles in the disposition of amino acids (see Thwaites and Anderson, 2011). PAT1 is found predominantly in lysosomal membranes where it likely functions as an efflux mechanism for amino acids produced during intralysosomal proteolysis (Sagné et al., 2001; Agulhon et al., 2003). PAT2 is found mainly in the endoplasmic reticulum and, to a lesser extent, in other cellular compartments including the plasma membrane (Rubio-Aliaga et al., 2004). PAT1 and PAT2 are predicted to have 11 TM domains with intracellular termini.

Systematic name	SLC36A1	SLC36A2	SLC36A3	SLC36A4
Preferred abbreviation	PAT1	PAT2	PAT3	PAT4
Nomenclature	Proton-coupled Amino acid Transporter 1	Proton-coupled Amino acid Transporter 2	Proton-coupled Amino acid Transporter 3	Proton-coupled Amino acid Transporter 4
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000123643	ENSG00000186335	ENSG00000186334	ENSG00000180773
Other names	LYAAT-1, LYsosomal Amino Acid Transporter 1, imino acid carrier, Tramdorin-3	Tramdorin-1	Tramdorin-2	LYAAT-2
Substrates	GABA, L- and D-proline, glycine, L- and D-alanine, β-alanine, taurine, D-serine, D-cysteine, sarcosine, trans-4-hydroxy-proline, betaine, 5-aminolevulinic acid, β-guanidinopropionic acid	Glycine, proline, alanine, sarcosine, <i>trans</i> -4-hydroxy-proline	_	Proline, tryptophan (Pillai and Meredith, 2011)
Synthetic substrates	MeAIB (Chen <i>et al.,</i> 2003a), vigabatrin, THPO, gaboxadol (Larsen <i>et al.,</i> 2009)	MeAIB (Chen <i>et al.,</i> 2003b)	-	-
Inhibitors	L-Tryptophan, tryptamine, 5-hydroxy-L-tryptophan, serotonin, indole-3-propionic acid (Metzner <i>et al.</i> , 2005)	5-Hydroxy-L-tryptophan, α-methyl-D,L-tryptophan (Edwards <i>et al.</i> , 2011)	-	-
Probes	[³ H] or [¹⁴ C] substrates as listed above	[³ H] or [¹⁴ C] substrates as listed above	-	-
Stoichiometry	1 H ⁺ : 1 amino acid (in)	1 H+: 1 amino acid (in)	Unknown	Unknown

Both PAT1 and PAT2 can also function as an electroneutral transport system for H⁺ and fatty acids including acetate, propionate and butyrate (Foltz *et al.*, 2005).

Loss-of-function mutations in PAT2 lead to iminoglycinuria and hyperglycinuria in man (see Bröer, 2008b).

Abbreviations: MeAIB, α - or 2-(methylamino)isobutyric acid; THPO, 4,5,6,7-tetrahydroisoxazolo[4,5-c]pyridin-3-ol

Further Reading

Anderson CMH, Thwaites DT (2010). Hijacking solute carriers for proton-coupled drug transport. Physiology 25: 364-377.

Bermingham JR, Pennington J (2004). Organization and expression of the SLC36 cluster of amino acid transporter genes. *Mamm Genome* 14: 114–125.

Boll M, Daniel H, Gasnier B (2004). The SLC36 family: proton-coupled transporters for the absorption of selected amino acids from extracellular and intracellular proteolysis. *Pflugers Arch* **447**: 776–779.

Bröer S (2008a). Amino acid transport across mammalian intestinal and renal epithelia. Physiol Rev 88: 249-286.

Bröer S (2008b). Apical transporters for neutral amino acids: physiology and pathophysiology. Physiology 23: 95–103.

Thwaites DT, Anderson CMH (2007). H⁺-coupled nutrient, micronutrient and drug transporters in the mammalian small intestine. *Exp Physiol* 92: 603–619.

Thwaites DT, Anderson CMH (2007). Deciphering the mechanisms of intestinal imino (and amino) acid transport: the redemption of SLC36A1. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1768: 179–197.

Thwaites DT, Anderson CMH (2011). The SLC36 family of proton-coupled amino acid transporters and their potential role in drug transport. *Br J Pharmacol* in press.

References

Agulhon C *et al.* (2003). *J Comp Neurol* **462**: 71–89. Chen Z *et al.* (2003a). *J Physiol* **546**: 349–361. Chen Z *et al.* (2003b). *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* **304**: 747–754. Edwards N *et al.* (2011). *Biochim Biophys Acta* **1808**: 260–270. Foltz M *et al.* (2005). *Biochem J* **386**: 607–616.

Larsen M et al. 2009). Br J Pharmacol 157: 1380–1389. Metzner L et al. (2005). FASEB J 19: 1468–1473. Pillai SM, Meredith D (2011). J Biol Chem 286: 2455–2460. Rubio-Aliaga I et al. (2004). J Biol Chem 279: 2754–2760. Sagné C et al. (2001). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 98: 7206–7211.

SLC37 family of phosphosugar/phosphate exchangers

Overview: the family of sugar-phosphate exchangers pass particular phosphorylated sugars across intracellular membranes, exchanging for inorganic phosphate. Of the family of sugar phosphate transporters, most information is available on SPX4, the glucose-6-phosphate transporter. This is a 10 TM domain protein with cytoplasmic termini and is associated with the endoplasmic reticulum, with tissue-specific splice variation. The SPX1 glycerol 3-phosphate transporter is predicted to be expressed on mitochondria.

SPX2 phosphate	SPX3	SPX4 Glucose-6-phosphate transporter
•		
1 (0100		
160190 ENSG00000134955	5 ENSG000015780	0 ENSG0000137700
cAMP-inducible ger	ne 2, cl2 –	G6PT1
ohosphate –	_	Glucose 6-phosphate
Unknown	Unknown	Unknown
	phosphate –	shosphate – – –

Multiple polymorphisms have been described for the SLC37A4 gene, some of which associate with a glycogen storage disease (Almqvist et al., 2004).

Further Reading

Bartoloni L, Antonarakis SE (2004). The human sugar-phosphate/phosphate exchanger family SLC37. Pflugers Arch 447: 780-783.

Reference

Almqvist J et al. (2004). Biochemistry 43: 9289-9297.

SLC38 family of sodium-dependent neutral amino acid transporters

Overview: the SLC38 family of transporters appears to be responsible for the functionally-defined system A and system N mechanisms of amino acid transport and are mostly expressed in the CNS. Two distinct subfamilies are identifiable within the SLC38 transporters. SNAT1, SNAT2 and SNAT4 appear to resemble system A transporters in accumulating neutral amino acids under the influence of the sodium gradient. SNAT3 and SNAT5 appear to resemble system N transporters in utilizing proton co-transport to accumulate amino acids. The predicted membrane topology is of 11 TM domains with an extracellular N-terminus and intracellular C-terminus.

System A-like transporters

Systematic name	SLC38A1	SLC38A2	SLC38A4
Preferred abbreviation	SNAT1	SNAT2	SNAT4
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000111371	ENSG00000134294	ENSG00000139209
Other names	Amino acid transporter system A, member 1, ATA1, N-system amino acid transporter 2, NAT2, glutamine transporter	Amino acid transporter system A, member 2, ATA2, SA1, SAT2	Amino acid transporter A3; ATA3, neutral amino acid transporter 3, NAT3, N-system amino acid transporter 3
Substrates	Ala > Ser, Gln, Asn, His, Cys, Met > Gly, Thr, Pro, Tyr, Val (Albers <i>et al.</i> , 2001)	Ala, Met > Asn, Gln, Ser, Pro, Gly > Thr, Leu, Phe (Hatanaka <i>et al.</i> , 2000)	His > Arg, Ala, Asn, Lys > Gly, Gln, Ser, Pro, Leu, Phe (Hatanaka <i>et al</i> ., 2001)
Synthetic substrates	MeAIB	MeAIB	MeAIB
Probes	[³ H] or [¹⁴ C]-Alanine	[³ H] or [¹⁴ C]-Alanine	[³H] or [¹⁴C]-Alanine, [³H] or [¹⁴C]-glycine
Stoichiometry	1 Na $^+$: 1 amino acid (in) (Albers et al., 2001)	1 Na $^+$: 1 amino acid (in) (Hatanaka et al., 2000)	1 Na ⁺ : 1 neutral amino acid (in) (Hatanaka <i>et al.,</i> 2001)

Transport of cationic amino acids by SNAT4 was sodium-independent (Hatanaka et al., 2001).

System N-like transporters

Systematic name	SLC38A3	SLC38A5
Preferred abbreviation	SNAT3	SNAT5
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000188338	ENSG00000017483
Other names	Transport system N protein 1, SN1, G17, N-system amino acid transporter 1; NAT1	Transport system N protein 2, SN2
Substrates	His, Gln > Asn, Ala > Glu (Fei et al., 2000)	Asn, Ser, His, Gln > Gly, Ala (Nakanishi et al., 2001)
Synthetic substrates	MeAIB	-
Probes	[³ H] or [¹⁴ C]-Glutamine	[³ H] or [¹⁴ C]-Histidine
Stoichiometry	1 Na ⁺ : 1 amino acid (in) : 1 H ⁺ (out) Broer <i>et al.</i> , 2002)	1 Na^+ : 1 amino acid (in) : 1 H^+ (out) (Nakanishi <i>et al.</i> , 2001)

Orphan transporters

Systematic name	SLC38A6	SLC38A7	SLC38A8	SLC38A9	SLC38A10	SLC38A11
Preferred abbreviation	SNAT6	SNAT7	-	-	-	-
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000139974	ENSG00000103042	ENSG00000166558	ENSG00000177058	ENSG00000157637	ENSG00000169507

SNAT7/SLC38A7 has recently been described to be a system N-like transporter allowing preferential accumulation of glutamine, histidine and asparagine (Hagglund et al., 2011).

Abbreviations: MeAIB, 3-amino-2,2-dimethylpropanoic acid

Further Reading

Broer S, Palacin M (2011). The role of amino acid transporters in inherited and acquired diseases. Biochem J 436: 193-211.

Mackenzie B, Erickson JD (2004). Sodium-coupled neutral amino acid (System N/A) transporters of the SLC38 gene family. *Pflugers Arch* **447**: 784–795.

Sundberg BE, Waag E, Jacobsson JA, Stephansson O, Rumaks J, Svirskis S *et al.* (2008). The evolutionary history and tissue mapping of amino acid transporters belonging to solute carrier families SLC32, SLC36, and SLC38. *J Mol Neurosci* 35: 179–193.

References

Albers A *et al.* (2001). *Pflugers Arch* **443**: 92–101. Broer A *et al.* (2002). *J Physiol* **539**: 3–14. Fei YJ *et al.* (2000). *J Biol Chem* **275**: 23707–23717. Hagglund MG *et al.* (2011). *J Biol Chem* **286**: 20500–20511. Hatanaka T et al. (2000). Biochim Biophys Acta 1467: 1–6. Hatanaka T et al. (2001). Biochim Biophys Acta 1510: 10–17. Nakanishi T et al. (2001). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 281: 1343–1348.

SLC39 family of metal ion transporters

Overview: along with the SLC30 family (see Page S263), SLC39 family members regulate zinc movement in cells. SLC39 metal ion transporters accumulate zinc into the cytosol. Membrane topology modelling suggests the presence of eight TM regions with both termini extracellular. The mechanism for zinc transport for many members is unknown but appears to involve co-transport of bicarbonate ions (Girijashanker *et al.*, 2008, Liu *et al.*, 2008).

Systematic name	SLC39A1	SLC39A2	SLC39A3	SLC39A4	SLC39A5
Common abbreviation	ZIP1	ZIP2	ZIP3	ZIP4	ZIP5
Nomenclature	Zinc transporter 1	Zinc transporter 2	Zinc transporter 3	Zinc transporter 4	metal ion transporter 5
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000143570	ENSG00000165794	ENSG00000141873	ENSG00000206288	ENSG00000139540
Other names	Zinc/iron-regulated transporter-like; ZIRTL, ZRT- and IRT-like protein 1	ZRT- and IRT-like protein 2	ZRT- and IRT-like protein 3	ZRT- and IRT-like protein 4	Metal ion transporter 5

Systematic name	SLC39A6	SLC39A7	SLC39A8	SLC39A9	SLC39A10
Common abbreviation	ZIP6	ZIP7	ZIP8	ZIP9	ZIP10
Nomenclature	Zinc transporter 6	Zinc transporter 7	Zinc transporter 8	Zinc transporter 9	Zinc transporter 10
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000141424	ENSG00000224399; ENSG00000226614; ENSG00000229802; ENSG00000227402; ENSG00000112473	ENSG00000138821	ENSG00000029364	ENSG00000196950
Other names	LIV1	HKE4	BIGM103	-	KIAA1265
Other substrates	-	-	Cadmium (Dalton et al., 2005, Liu et al., 2008)	-	-
Stoichiometry	-	-	1 Zn ²⁺ (in) : 2 HCO ₃ ⁻ (in) (Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2008)	-	-

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA SLC40 iron transporter S271

Systematic name	SLC39A11	SLC39A12	SLC39A13	SLC39A14
Common abbreviation	ZIP11	ZIP12	ZIP13	ZIP14
Nomenclature	Zinc transporter 11	Zinc transporter 12	Zinc transporter 13	Zinc transporter 14
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000133195	ENSG00000148482	ENSG00000165915	ENSG00000104635
Other names	Metal ion transporter 11	-	-	-
Other substrates	-	-	-	Iron (Liuzzi <i>et al.</i> , 2006), cadmium, manganese (Girijashanker <i>et al.</i> , 2008)

Zinc fluxes may be monitored through the use of radioisotopic Zn-65 or the fluorescent dye FluoZin 3.

The bicarbonate transport inhibitor DIDS has been reported to inhibit cation accumulation through ZIP14 (Girijashanker K et al., 2008).

Abbreviations: DIDS, 5-isothiocyanato-2-[(E)-2-(4-isothiocyanato-2-sulfophenyl)ethenyl]benzenesulfonic acid

Further Reading

Eide DJ (2004). The SLC39 family of metal ion transporters. Pflugers Arch 447: 796-800.

Himeno S, Yanagiya T, Fujishiro H (2009). The role of Zinc transporters in cadmium and manganese transport in mammalian cells. *Biochimie* 91: 1218–1222.

Rungby J (2010). Zinc, Zinc transporters and diabetes. Diabetologia 53: 1549–1551.

Thevenod F (2010). Catch me if you can! Novel aspects of cadmium transport in mammalian cells. Biometals 23: 857-875.

References

Dalton TP et al. (2005). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 102: 3401–3406. Girijashanker K et al. (2008). Mol Pharmacol 73: 1413–1423. Liu Z et al. (2008). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 365: 814–820. Liuzzi JP et al. (2006). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 103: 13612–13617.

SLC40 iron transporter

Overview: alongside the SLC11 family (see Page S242) of proton-coupled metal transporters, IREG allows the accumulation of iron from the diet on the basolateral side of the enterocyte, as well as regulating macrophage and placental iron levels. The predicted topology is of nine TM domains, with an intracellular N-terminus and extracellular C-terminus, with the functional transporter is suggested to be a dimeric arrangement (Aguirre *et al.*, 2005; De Domenico *et al.*, 2007).

Systematic name SLC40A1
Preferred abbreviation IREG1

Nomenclature Iron-regulated transporter Ensembl ID ENSG00000138449

Other names Ferroportin, metal transporter protein, MTP1, SLC11A3, FPN1, HFE4

Endogenous substrates Fe²⁺
Stoichiometry Unknown

Hepcidin (HAMP, ENSG00000105697), a small protein that increases upon inflammation, binds to ferroportin to regulate it's cellular distribution and degradation. Gene disruption in mice results in embryonic lethality (Donovan *et al.*, 2005), while loss-of-function mutations in man are associated with haemochromatosis (De Domenico *et al.*, 2005).

Further Reading

McKie AT, Barlow DJ (2004). The SLC40 basolateral iron transporter family (IREG1/ferroportin/MTP1). Pflugers Arch 447: 801-806.

References

Aguirre P et al. (2005). BMC Neurosci 6: 3. De Domenico I et al. (2005). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 102: 8955–8960. De Domenico I et al. (2007). Blood 109: 2205–2209. Donovan A et al. (2005). Cell Metab 1: 191–200.

SLC41 family of divalent cation transporters

Overview: by analogy with bacterial orthologues, this family is probably magnesium transporters. The prokaryote orthologue, MgtE, is responsible for uptake of divalent cations, while the heterologous expression studies of mammalian proteins suggest Mg²⁺ efflux. Topological modelling suggests 10 TM domains with cytoplasmic C- and N- termini.

Systematic name SLC41A1 SLC41A2 SLC41A3

Substrates Mg^{2+} , Sr^{2+} , Zn^{2+} , Cu^{2+} , Fe^{2+} , Co^{2+} , Ba^{2+} , Cd^{2+} (Goytain Mg^{2+} , Ba^{2+} , Ni^{2+} , Co^{2+} , Fe^{2+} , Mn^{2+} (Goytain -

and Quamme, 2005a) and Quamme, 2005b)

Stoichiometry Unknown Unknown Unknown Unknown

Further Reading

Moomaw AS, Maguire ME (2008). The unique nature of Mg²⁺ channels. *Physiology (Bethesda)* 23: 275–285. Quamme GA (2010). Molecular identification of ancient and modern mammalian magnesium transporters. *Am J Physiol -Cell Physiol* 298: C407–C429.

References

Goytain A, Quamme GA (2005a). *Physiol Genomics* 21: 337–342. Goytain A, Quamme GA (2005b). *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 330: 701–705.

SLC42 family of non-erythroid Rhesus glycoprotein ammonium transporters

Overview: Rhesus is commonly defined as a 'factor' that determines, in part, blood type, and whether neonates suffer from haemolytic disease of the newborn. These glycoprotein antigens derive from two genes, RHCE (ENSG00000188672) and RHD (ENSG00000187010) expressed on the surface of erythrocytes. On erythrocytes, RhAG associates with these antigens and functions as an ammonium transporter. RhBG and RhBG are non-erythroid related sequences associated with epithelia. Topological modelling suggests the presence of 12TM with cytoplasmic N- and C-termini. The majority of information on these transporters derives from orthologues in yeast, plants and bacteria. More recent evidence points to family members being permeable to carbon dioxide, leading to the term gas channels.

Systematic name	SLC42A1	SLC42A2	SLC42A3
Preferred abbreviation	RhAG	RhBG	RhCG
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000112077	ENSG00000132677	ENSG00000140519
Other names	CD241, RH50A	_	C15orf6, PDRC2, RHGK
Substrates	NH_3 (Ripoche et al., 2004), NH_4^+ (Westhoff et al., 2002), CO_2 (Endeward et al., 2008)		NH₃ (Zidi-Yahiaoui <i>et al.,</i> 2009)
Probes	[¹⁴ C]-Methylamine	_	[¹⁴ C]-Methylamine
Stoichiometry	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown

RhBG is a possible pseudogene in man.

Further Reading

Huang CH, Ye M (2010). The Rh protein family: gene evolution, membrane biology, and disease association. *Cell Mol Life Sci* 67: 1203–1218. Nakhoul NL, Hamm LL (2004). Non-erythroid Rh glycoproteins: a putative new family of mammalian ammonium transporters. *Pflugers Arch* 447: 807–812.

Weiner ID, Verlander JW (2011). Role of NH₃ and NH₄⁺ transporters in renal acid-base transport. Am J Physiol -Renal Physiol 300: F11-F23.

References

Endeward V *et al.* (2008). *FASEB J* **22**: 64–73. Ripoche P *et al.* (2004). *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **101**: 17222–17227. Westhoff CM *et al.* (2002). *J Biol Chem* **277**: 12499–12502. Zidi-Yahiaoui N *et al.* (2009). *Am J Physiol Cell Physiol* **297**: C537–C547.

SLC43 family of large neutral amino acid transporters

Overview: LAT3 (SLC43A1) and LAT4 (SLC43A2) are transporters with system L amino acid transporter activity, along with the structurally and functionally distinct transporters LAT1 and LAT2 that are members of the SLC7 family (see Page \$227). LAT3 and LAT4 contain 12 putative TM domains with both N and \bar{C} termini located intracellularly. They transport neutral amino acids in a manner independent of Na⁺ and $\bar{C}l^-$ and with two kinetic components (Babu et al., 2003; Bodoy et al., 2005). LAT3/SLC43A1 is expressed in human tissues at high levels in the pancreas, liver, skeletal muscle and fetal liver (Babu et al., 2003) whereas LAT4/SLC43A2 is primarily expressed in the placenta, kidney and peripheral blood leukocytes (Bodoy et al., 2005). SLC43A3 is expressed in vascular endothelial cells (Wallgard et al., 2008) but remains to be characterised.

Systematic name	SLC43A1	SLC43A2	SLC43A3
Preferred abbreviation	LAT3	LAT4	_
Nomenclature	L-type amino acid transporter 3	L-type amino acid transporter 4	-
Other names	Large neutral amino acids transporter 1, prostate cancer overexpressed gene 1, POV1	-	-
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000149150	ENSG00000167703	ENSG00000134802
Substrates	L-leucine, L-isoleucine, L-valine, L-phenylalanine, L-methionine	L-leucine, L-isoleucine, L-valine, L-phenylalanine, L-methionine	-
Synthetic substrates	L-leucinol, L-valinol, L-phenylalaninol	L-leucinol, L-valinol	-
Stoichiometry	Operates by facilitative diffusion	Operates by facilitative diffusion	-

Covalent modification of LAT3 by N-ethylmaleimide inhibits its function (Babu et al., 2003) and at LAT4 inhibits the low-, but not high-affinity component of transport (Bodoy et al., 2005).

References

Babu E et al. (2003). J Biol Chem 278: 43838-43845. Bodoy S et al. (2005). J Biol Chem 280: 12002. Wallgard E et al. (2008). Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol 28: 1469–1476.

SLC44 family of choline transporters

Overview: Members of the choline transporter-like family are encoded by five genes (CTL1-CTL5) with further diversity occurring through alternative splicing of CTL1, 4 and 5 (Traiffort et al., 2005). CTL family members are putative 10TM domain proteins that mediate Na⁺independent transport of choline with an affinity that is intermediate to that of the high affinity choline transporter CHT1 (SLCSA7) and the low affinity organic-cation transporters [OCT1 (SLC22A1) and OCT2 (SLC22A2)] (Michel et al., 2006). CLT1 is expressed almost ubiquitously in human tissues (Wille et al., 2001) and mediates choline transport across the plasma and mitochondrial membranes (Michel and Bakovic, 2009). Transport of choline by CTL2, which in rodents is expressed as two isoforms (CTL2P1 and CLTP2; Kommareddi et al., 2010) in lung, colon, inner ear and spleen and to a lesser extent in brain, tongue, liver, and kidney, has only recently been demonstrated (Kommareddi et al., 2010; Nakamura et al., 2010). CTL3-5 remain to be characterized functionally.

S274 SLC45 orphans Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Common name	CTL1	CTL2	CTL3	CTL4	CTL5
Systematic name	SLC44A1	SLC44A2	SLC44A3	SLC44A4	SLC44A5
Nomenclature	Choline transporter- like 1	Choline transporter- like 2	Choline transporter- like 3	Choline transporter- like 4	Choline transporter- like 5
Other names	CHTL1, CDW92	_	_	_	_
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000070214	ENSG00000129353	ENSG00000143036	ENSG00000204385	ENSG00000137968
Substrates	Choline	Choline	_	_	_
Synthetic substrates	-	_	_	_	_
Inhibitors (pKi)	HC-3 (4.5-5.3)	_	_	_	_
Stoichiometry	Unknown: uptake enhanced in the absence of extracellular Na ⁺ , reduced by membrane depolarization, extracellular acidification and collapse of plasma membrane H ⁺ electrochemical gradient	-	-	_	-

Data tabulated are features observed for CLT1 endogenous to: rat astrocytes (Inazu et al., 2005); rat renal tubule epithelial cells (Yabuki et al., 2009); human colon carcinoma cells (Kouji et al., 2009); human keratinocytes (Uchida et al., 2009) and human neuroblastoma cells (Yamada et al., 2011). Choline uptake by CLT1 is inhibited by numerous organic cations (e.g. Inazu et al., 2005; Yabuki et al., 2009; Yamada et al., 2011). In the guinea-pig, CTL2 is a target for antibody-induced hearing loss (Nair et al., 2004) and in man a polymorphism in CTL2 constitutes the human neutrophil alloantigen-3a (HNA-3a; Greinacher et al., 2010).

Abbreviations: HC-3, hemicholinium 3

Further Reading

Lockman PR, Allen DD (2002). The transport of choline. *Drug Dev Ind Pharm* 28: 749–771. Michel V, Yuan Z, Ramsubir S, Bakovic M (2006). Choline transport for phospholipid synthesis. *Exp Biol Med (Maywood)* 231: 490–504.

References

Greinacher A et al. (2010). Nat Med 16: 45–48. Inazu M et al. (2005). J Neurochem 94: 1427–1437. Kommareddi PK et al. (2010). Protein J 29: 417–426. Kouji H et al. (2009). Arch Biochem Biophys 483: 90–98. Nair TS et al. (2004). J Neurosci 24: 1772–1779. Nakamura T et al. (2010). Biol Pharm Bull 33: 691–696. Michel V, Bakovic M (2009). FASEB J 23: 2749–2758. Traiffort E et al. (2005). J Neurochem 92: 1116–1125. Uchida Y et al. (2009). J Pharmacol Sci 109: 102–109. Wille S et al. (2001). J Immunol 167: 5795–5804. Yabuki M et al. (2009). Arch Biochem Biophys 485: 88–96. Yamada T et al. (2011). Neurochem Int 58: 354–365.

SLC45 orphans

Overview: Members of the SLC45 family remain to be functionally characterised. However, the *SLC45A2* gene is thought to encode a transporter protein that mediates melanin synthesis. Mutations in *SLC45A2* are a cause of oculocutaneous albinism type 4 (*e.g.* Newton *et al.*, 2001), and polymorphisms in this gene are associated with variations in skin and hair color (*e.g.* Graf *et al.*, 2005).

Systematic name	SLC45A1	SLC45A2	SLC45A3	SLC45A4
Other names	DNB5	Melanin associated transporter protein (MATP), AIM1	Prostate cancer associated protein 6 (PCANAP6), prostein (PRST)	-
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000162426	ENSG00000164175	ENSG00000158715	ENSG00000022567

References

SLC46 family of folate transporters

Overview: Based on the prototypical member of this family, PCFT, this family are proton-driven transporters with 11 TM segments. SLC46A1 has been described to act as an intestinal proton-coupled high-affinity folate transporter (Oiu et al., 2006), with lower affinity for haem, Folate accumulation is independent of Na⁺ or K⁺ ion concentrations, but driven by extracellular protons with an as-yet undefined stoichiometry.

Systematic name	SLC46A1	SLC46A2	SLC46A3
Preferred abbreviation	PCFT	TSCOT	_
Nomenclature	Proton-coupled folate transporter	Thymic stromal co-transporter	_
Ensembl ID	ENSG0000076351	ENSG00000119457	ENSG00000139508
Other names	Heme carrier protein-1, HCP-1	_	_
Substrates	Folate (1.3 μM) > haem (>100 μM, Nakai <i>et al.</i> , 2007)	_	_
Synthetic substrates	Methotrexate (Qiu et al., 2006), folinic acid (Nakai et al., 2007)	-	-
Inhibitors	Sulfasalazine (60 μM, Qiu <i>et al.</i> , 2006), indomethacin (~200 μM, Qiu <i>et al.</i> , 2006)	-	_
Probes	[³H]-folate, [³H]-methotrexate	-	-

Loss-of-function mutations in PCFT (SLC46A1) are associated with hereditary folate maladsorption.

Further Reading

Anderson CM, Thwaites DT (2010). Hijacking solute carriers for proton-coupled drug transport. Physiology (Bethesda) 25: 364-377. Krishnamurthy P, Xie T, Schuetz JD (2007). The role of transporters in cellular heme and porphyrin homeostasis. *Pharmacol Ther* 114: 345–358. Latunde-Dada GO, Simpson RJ, McKie AT (2006). Recent advances in mammalian haem transport. Trends Biochem Sci 31: 182–188. Thwaites DT, Anderson CM (2007). H*-coupled nutrient, micronutrient and drug transporters in the mammalian small intestine. Exp Physiol 92: 603 - 619

Wolf G (2007). Identification of proton-coupled high-affinity human intestinal folate transporter mutated in human hereditary familial folate malabsorption. Nutr Rev 65: 554-557.

Yuasa H, Inoue K, Hayashi Y (2009). Molecular and functional characteristics of proton-coupled folate transporter. J Pharm Sci 98: 1608–1616.

References

Nakai Y et al. (2007). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 322: 469-476. Qiu A et al. (2006). Cell 127: 917-928.

SLC47 family of multidrug and toxin extrusion transporters

Overview: these proton:organic cation exchangers are predicted to have 13 TM segments (Zhang and Wright, 2009) and are suggested to be responsible for excretion of many drugs in the liver and kidneys.

Systematic name SLC47A1 SLC47A2 Preferred abbreviation MATE1 MATE2-K Nomenclature Multi antimicrobial extrusion protein Other names Multidrug and toxin extrusion protein 1 Ensembl ID ENSG00000142494 ENSG00000180638 Synthetic substrates Cimetidine (Ohta et al., 2006), cephalexin, cephadrine, Cimetidine, 1-methyl-4-phenylpyridinium, procainamide, quinidine (Tanihara et al., 2007), paraquat (Chen et al., metformin, N¹-methylnicotinamide (Masuda et al., 2006), quanidine, acyclovir (Tanihara et al., 2007) Inhibitors Pyrimethamine (0.15 µM, Ito et al., 2010) **Probes** [14C]-TEA (Otsuka et al., 2005), [14C]-metformin [14C]-TEA (Tanihara et al., 2007) (Tanihara et al., 2007)

DAPI has been used to allow quantification of MATE1 and MATE2-mediated transport activity (Yasujima et al., 2010).

Abbreviations: DAPI, 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole; MPP, 1-methyl-4-phenylpyridinium

S276 SLC48 haem transporter Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Further Reading

Terada T, Inui K (2008). Physiological and pharmacokinetic roles of H⁺/organic cation antiporters (MATE/SLC47A). *Biochem Pharmacol* 75: 1689–1696.

Yonezawa A, Inui KI (2011). Importance of the Multidrug and Toxin Extrusion MATE/SLC47A Family to Pharmacokinetics, Pharmacodynamics/ Toxicodynamics and Pharmacogenomics. *Br J Pharmacol* in press.

References

Chen Y et al. (2007). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 322: 695–700. Ito S et al. (2010). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 333: 341–350. Masuda S et al. (2006). J Am Soc Nephrol 17: 2127–2135. Ohta KY et al. (2006). Drug Metab Dispos 34: 1868–1874. Otsuka M et al. (2005). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 102: 17923–17928. Tanihara Y et al. (2007). Biochem Pharmacol 74: 359–371. Yasujima T et al. (2010). Drug Metab Dispos 38: 715–721. Zhang X, Wright SH (2009). Am J Physiol -Renal Physiol 297: F263–F271.

SLC48 haem transporter

Overview: although identified as a heme transporter (Rajagopal *et al.*, 2008), subsequent evidence suggests this 4TM-containing protein associates with the V-type ATPase (see Page S218) in lysosomes for haem degradation (O'Callaghan *et al.*, 2010). As yet, this transporter awaits characterization.

Systematic name SLC48A1

Preferred abbreviation HRG1

Nomenclature Heme transporter
Ensembl ID ENSG0000211584

Heme-responsive gene 1, hHRG-1

References

Other names

O'Callaghan KM *et al.* (2010). *J Biol Chem* **285**: 381–391. Rajagopal A *et al.* (2008). *Nature* **453**: 1127–1131.

SLCO family of organic anion transporting polypeptides

Overview: The SLCO superfamily is comprised of the organic anion transporting polypeptides (OATPs). The 11 human OATPs are divided into 6 families and ten subfamilies based on amino acid identity. These proteins are located on the plasma membrane of cells throughout the body. They have 12 TM domains and intracellular termini, with multiple putative glycosylation sites. OATPs mediate the sodium-independent uptake of a wide range of amphiphilic substrates, including many drugs and toxins. Due to the multispecificity of these proteins, this guide lists classes of substrates and inhibitors for each family member. More comprehensive lists of substrates, inhibitors, and their relative affinities may be found in the review articles listed below.

Nomenclature	OATP1A2	OATP1B1	OATP1B3	OATP1C1
HGNC nomenclature	SLCO1A2	SLCO1B1	SLCO1B3	SLCO1C1
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000084453	ENSG00000134538	ENSG00000111700	ENSG00000139155
Other names	OATP, OATP-A, SLC21A3	OATP-C, OATP2, LST-1, SLC21A6	OATP8, LST-2, SLC21A8	OATP-F, OATP1, SLC21A14, OATP14
Endogenous substrates	Bile acids, bilirubin, BSP, steroid conjugates, thyroid hormones	Bile acids, bilirubin, BSP, leukotrienes, steroid conjugates, thyroid hormones	Bile acids, bilirubin, BSP, CCK-8, leukotriene C4, steroid conjugates, thyroid hormones	Thyroid hormones, steroid conjugates, BSP
Exogenous substrates	Antibiotics, anticancer drugs, beta blockers, deltorphin II, fexofenadine, fluoroquinolones, HIV protease inhibitors, microcystin, ouabain, rosuvastatin, talinolol	ACE inhibitors, anticancer drugs, antifungals, β-lactam antibiotics, bile acid derivatives and conjugates, endothelin receptor antagonists, fexofenadine, HIV protease inhibitors, opioids, rifampicin, sartans, statins	Amanitin, anticancer drugs, β-lactam antibiotics, bile acid derivatives and conjugates, digoxin, erythromycin, fexofenadine, opiods, ouabain, phalloidin, rifampicin, saquinavir, sartans, statins	Statins
Inhibitors	Naringin, rifampicin, rifamycin SV	Cyclosporine A, fibrates, flavonoids, gemfibrozil, glitazones, glycyrrhizin, indocyanine green, macrolide antibiotics rifampicin, rifamycin SV, sildenafil	Cyclosporine A, gemfibrozil, glitazones, glycyrrhizin, HIV protease inhibitors, macrolide antibiotics, rifampicin, rifamycin SV, sildenafil	Probenicid, taurocholate, DPDPE
Common probes	[³ H]-BSP, [³ H]-DPDPE, [³ H]-estrone-3-sulfate	[³H]-estradiol-17β-glucuronide, [³H]-estrone-3-sulfate, pravastatin	[³H]-BSP, [³H]-CCK-8, [³H]-estradiol-17β- glucuronide	[¹²⁵]]-thyroxine, [³ H]-BSP, [³ H]-estrone-3-sulfate

Nomenclature	OATP2A1	OATP2B1	OATP3A1
Nomenciature	OATPZAT	OATPZBT	OAIP3AI
HGNC nomenclature	SLCO2A1	SLCO2B1	SLCO3A1
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000174640	ENSG00000137491	ENSG00000176463
Other names	PGT, SLC21A2	OATP-B, SLC21A9	OATP-D, SLC21A11
Endogenous substrates	Prostaglandins, eicosanoids	BSP, DHEAS, estrone-3-sulfate, thyroxine	Prostaglandins, thyroid hormones, BQ123, vasopressin
Exogenous substrates	Synthetic prostaglandin derivatives	Aliskiren, amiodarone, bosentan, fexofenadine, glibenclamide, statins, talinolol, telmisartan	-
Inhibitors	Bromocresol green, BSP, NSAIDs	Citrus juices, gemfibrozil, glitazones, glyburide, rifamycin SV, rifampicin	-
Common probes	[³H]-prostaglandin E₂	[³H]-BSP, [³H]-estrone-3-sulfate	[³H]-estrone-3-sulfate, [³H]-prostaglandin E₂

Nomenclature	OATP4A1	OATP4C1	OATP5A1	OATP6A1
HGNC nomenclature	SLCO4A1	SLCO4C1	SLCO5A1	SLCO6A1
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000101187	ENSG00000173930	ENSG00000137571	ENSG00000205359
Other names	OATP-E, SLC21A12	SLC21A20, OATPX, OATP-H, OATP-M1	OATPRP4, OATP-J	OATPY, MGC26949, OATP-I, gonad specific transporter
Endogenous substrates	Steroid conjugates, thyroid hormones, prostaglandins, bile acids	Thyroid hormones, steroid conjugates, cAMP	-	-
Exogenous substrates	Benzylpenicillin	Cardiac glycosides, anticancer drugs, dipeptidyl peptidase-4 inhibitors	-	-
Common probes	[³ H]-estrone-3-sulfate	[³H]-digoxin	-	-

Abbreviations: BSP, bromosulfophthalein; CCK-8, Cholecystokinin octapeptide; DHEAS, dehydroepiandrosterone-3-sulfate; DPDPE, [d-Pen2,d-Pen5]-Enkephalin; PGT, prostaglandin transporter

Further Reading

Hagenbuch B (2010). Drug uptake systems in liver and kidney: a historic perspective. Clin Pharmacol Ther 87: 39-47.

Hagenbuch B, Meier PJ (2004). Organic anion transporting polypeptides of the OATP/ SLC21 family: phylogenetic classification as OATP/ SLCO superfamily, new nomenclature and molecular/functional properties. *Pflugers Arch* 447: 653–665.

Konig J (2011). Uptake transporters of the human OATP family: molecular characteristics, substrates, their role in drug-drug interactions, and functional consequences of polymorphisms. *Handb Exp Pharmacol* 1–28.

Niemi M, Pasanen MK, Neuvonen PJ (2011). Organic anion transporting polypeptide 1B1: a genetically polymorphic transporter of major importance for hepatic drug uptake. *Pharmacol Rev* 63: 157–181.

ENZYMES

Enzymes are protein catalysts facilitating the conversion of substrates into products. The Nomenclature Committee of the International Union of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology (NC-IUBMB) classifies enzymes into families, using a four number code, on the basis of the reactions they catalyse. There are six main families: EC 1.-.-- Oxidoreductases; EC 2.-.-- Transferases; EC 3.-.-- Hydrolases; EC 4.-.-- Lyases; EC 5.-.-- Isomerases; EC 6.-.-- Ligases.

Many enzymes require additional entities for functional activity. Some of these are used in the catalytic steps, while others promote a particular conformational change. Co-factors are tightly bound to the enzyme and include metal ions and heme groups. Co-enymes are typically small molecules which accept or donate functional groups to assist in the enzymatic reaction. Examples include ATP, NAD, NADP and S-adenosylmethionine, as well as a number of vitamins, such as riboflavin (vitamin B1) and thiamine (vitamin B2).

The majority of drugs which act on enzymes act as inhibitors; one exception is metformin, which appears to stimulate activity of AMP-activated protein kinase, albeit through an imprecisely-defined mechanism. Kinetic assays allow discrimination of competitive, non-competitive and un-competitive inhibitors. The majority of inhibitors are competitive (acting at the enzyme's ligand recognition site), non-competitive (acting at a distinct site; potentially interfering with co-factor or co-enzyme binding) or of mixed type. One rare example of an uncompetitive inhibitor is lithium ions, which are effective inhibitors at inositol monophosphatase only in the presence of high substrate concentrations. Some inhibitors are irreversible, including a group known as suicide substrates, which bind to the ligand recognition site and then couple covalently to the enzyme.

Although there are many more enzymes than receptors in biology, and many drugs that target prokaryotic enzymes are effective medicines, overall the number of enzyme drug targets is relatively small (Overington et al., 2006), which is not to say that they are of modest importance.

Further Reading

Overington JP, Al-Lazikani B, Hopkins AL (2006). How many drug targets are there? *Nat Rev Drug Discovery* 5: 993–996. http://www.chem.qmul.ac.uk/iubmb/

S280 Adenosine turnover

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Adenosine turnover

Overview: Adenosine is a multifunctional, ubiquitous molecule that acts at cell-surface G protein-coupled receptors, as well as numerous enzymes, including protein kinases and adenylyl cyclase. Extracellular adenosine is thought to be produced either by export or by metabolism, predominantly through ecto-5'-nucleotidase activity (also producing inorganic phosphate). It is inactivated either by extracellular metabolism *via* adenosine deaminase (also producing ammonia) or, following uptake by nucleoside transporters, *via* adenosine deaminase or adenosine kinase (requiring ATP as co-substrate). Intracellular adenosine may be produced by cytosolic 5'-nucleotidases or through S-adenosylhomocysteine hydrolase (also producing homocysteine).

Nomenclature	Adenosine deaminase	Adenosine kinase	Ecto-5'-Nucleotidase	S-Adenosylhomocysteine hydrolase
E.C.	3.5.4.4	2.7.1.20	3.1.3.5	3.3.1.1
Preferred abbreviation	ADA	ADK	NT5E	SAHH
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000196839	ENSG00000156110	ENSG00000135318	ENSG00000101444
Other names	Adenosine aminohydrolase, ADA1	-	CD73, 5'-NT	Adenosylhomocysteinase
Rank order of affinity	$2'$ -Deoxyadenosine \geq adenosine	Adenosine	5'-AMP, 5'-GMP, 5'-IMP, 5'-UMP > 5'-dAMP, 5'-dGMP	S-Adenosylhomocysteine
Nucleoside products	2'-Deoxyinosine, inosine	5'-AMP	Adenosine, guanine, inosine, uridine	Adenosine
Selective inhibitors $(p C_{50})$	EHNA, 2'-deoxycoformycin	A134974 (10.2, McGaraughty <i>et al.</i> , 2001), ABT702 (8.8, Jarvis <i>et al.</i> , 2000)	lphaeta-methyleneADP	3-Deazaadenosine (8.5, Guranowski <i>et al.</i> , 1981)

An extracellular adenosine deaminase activity, termed ADA2 or adenosine deaminase growth factor (ADGF, CECR1, ENSG00000093072) has been identified (see Maier *et al.*, 2005), which is insensitive to EHNA (Zavialov *et al.*, 2010). Other forms of adenosine deaminase act on ribonucleic acids and may be divided into two families: ADAT1 (ENSG00000065457) deaminates transfer RNA; ADAR (EC 3.5.4.-, ENSG00000160710, also known as 136 kDa double-stranded RNA-binding protein, P136, K88DSRBP, Interferon-inducible protein 4); ADARB1 (EC 3.5.-.-, ENSG00000197381, also known as dsRNA adenosine deaminase) and ADARB2 (EC 3.5.-.-, ENSG00000185736, also known as dsRNA adenosine deaminase B2, RNA-dependent adenosine deaminase 3) act on double-stranded RNA. Particular polymorphisms of the ADA gene result in loss-of-function and severe combined immunodeficiency syndrome. Adenosine deaminase is able to complex with dipeptidyl peptidase IV (EC 3.4.14.5, ENSG00000197635, also known as T-cell activation antigen CD26, TP103, adenosine deaminase complexing protein 2) to form a cell-surface activity (Kameoka *et al.*, 1993).

Other 5'-nucleotidases

		1
Nomenclature	HGNC nomenclature	Ensembl ID
IA	NT5C1A	ENSG00000116981
IB	NT5C1B	ENSG00000185013
II	NT5C2	ENSG0000076685
III	NT5C3	ENSG00000122643
5'(3')-nucleotidases	NT5C	ENSG00000125458
Mitochondrial	NT5M	ENSG00000205309
1		

Abbreviations: 5'-AMP, adenosine 5'-monophosphate; 5'NT, 5'-nucleotidase; A134974, N⁷-[(1'R,2'S,3' R,4'S)-2',3'-dihydroxy-4'-aminocyclopentyl]-4-amino-5-iodopyrrolopyrimidine; ABT702, 4-amino-5-(3-bromophenyl)-7-(6-morpholinopyridin-3-yl)pyrido[2,3-d]pyrimidine; ADA, adenosine deaminase; ADK, adenosine kinase, EHNA, erythro-9-(2-hydroxy-3-nonyl)adenine hydrochloride;

Further Reading

Aiuti A, Cattaneo F, Galimberti S et al. (2009). Gene therapy for immunodeficiency due to adenosine deaminase deficiency. N Engl J Med 360: 447-458.

Blackburn MR, Kellems RE (2005). Adenosine deaminase deficiency: metabolic basis of immune deficiency and pulmonary inflammation. *Adv Immunol* 86: 1–41.

Boison D (2006). Adenosine kinase, epilepsy and stroke: mechanisms and therapies. Trends Pharmacol Sci 27: 652-658.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Adenosine turnover S281

Cristalli G, Costanzi S, Lambertucci C, Lupidi G, Vittori S, Volpini R et al. (2001). Adenosine deaminase: functional implications and different classes of inhibitors. Med Res Rev 21: 105–128.

Hershfield MS (2005). New insights into adenosine-receptor-mediated immunosuppression and the role of adenosine in causing the immuno-deficiency associated with adenosine deaminase deficiency. *Eur J Immunol* 35: 25–30.

Hunsucker SA, Mitchell BS, Spychala J (2005). The 5'-nucleotidases as regulators of nucleotide and drug metabolism. *Pharmacol Ther* **107**: 1–30. Kloor D, Osswald H (2004). S-Adenosylhomocysteine hydrolase as a target for intracellular adenosine action. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* **25**: 294–297. Maier SA, Galellis JR, McDermid HE (2005). Phylogenetic analysis reveals a novel protein family closely related to adenosine deaminase. *J Mol Evol* **61**: 776–794.

References

Guranowski A et al. (1981). Biochemistry 20: 110–115. Jarvis MF et al. (2000). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 295: 1156–1164. Kameoka J et al. (1993). Science 261: 466–469. McGaraughty S et al. (2001). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 296: 501–509. Zavialov AV et al. (2010). J Biol Chem 285: 12367–12377.

Amino acid hydroxylases (E.C.1.14.16.-)

Overview: The amino acid hydroxylases (monooxygenases) are iron-containing enzymes which utilise molecular oxygen and tetrahydrobiopterin as co-substrate and co-factor, respectively.

Nomenclature L-Phenylalanine hydroxylase L-Tryptophan hydroxylase L-Tyrosine hydroxylase

E.C. 1.14.16.1 1.14.16.4 1.14.16.2 Preferred abbreviation PH TPH TH

Ensembl ID ENSG00000171759 TPH1 ENSG00000129167; ENSG00000180176

TPH2 ENSG00000139287

Other names Phenylalanine 4-monooxygenase Tryptophan 5-monooxygenase Tyrosine 3-monooxygenase

Product Tyrosine 5-Hydroxytryptophan DOPA

Selective inhibitors α -Methylphenylalanine (Greengard Fenfluramine, PCPA, 3-Chlorotyrosine, 3-iodotyrosine,

et al., 1976), PCPA α-propyldopacetamide, α-methyltyrosine,

6-fluorotryptophan (Nicholson and lpha-propyldopacetamide Wright, 1981)

Abbreviations: DOPA, 3,4-dihydroxyphenylalanine; PCPA, 4-chlorophenylalanine

Further Reading

Daubner SC, Le T, Wang S (2011). Tyrosine hydroxylase and regulation of dopamine synthesis. Arch Biochem Biophys 508: 1-12.

Lehmann IT, Bobrovskaya L, Gordon SL, Dunkley PR, Dickson PW (2006). Differential regulation of the human tyrosine hydroxylase isoforms via hierarchical phosphorylation. *J Biol Chem* 281: 17644–17651.

Matthes S, Mosienko V, Bashammakh S, Alenina N, Bader M (2010). Tryptophan hydroxylase as novel target for the treatment of depressive disorders. *Pharmacology* 85: 95–109.

Waider J, Araragi N, Gutknecht L, Lesch KP (2011). Tryptophan hydroxylase-2 (TPH2) in disorders of cognitive control and emotion regulation: a perspective. *Psychoneuroendocrinology* 36: 393–405.

Zhang X, Beaulieu JM, Gainetdinov RR, Caron MG (2006). Functional polymorphisms of the brain serotonin synthesizing enzyme tryptophan hydroxylase-2. *Cell Mol Life Sci* 63: 6–11.

References

Greengard O et al. (1976). Science 192: 1007–1008. Nicholson AN, Wright CM (1981). Neuropharmacology 20: 335–339. Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

L-Arginine turnover \$283

L-Arginine turnover

Overview: L-arginine is a basic amino acid with a guanidino sidechain. As an amino acid, metabolism of L-arginine to form L-ornithine, catalysed by arginase, forms the last step of the urea production cycle. L-Ornithine may be utilised as a precursor of polyamines (see Carboxylases and Decarboxylases, Page S286) or recycled via L-arginosuccinate to L-arginine. L-Arginine may itself be decarboxylated (see Page S286) to form agmatine, although the prominence of this pathway in human tissues is uncertain. L-Arginine may be used as a precursor for guanidinoacetate formation in the creatine synthesis pathway under the influence of arginine:glycine amidinotransferase with L-ornithine as a byproduct. Nitric oxide synthase uses L-arginine to generate nitric oxide, with L-citrulline also as a byproduct.

L-Arginine in proteins may be subject to post-translational modification through methylation, catalysed by protein arginine methyl-transferases. Subsequent proteolysis can liberate asymmetric N^G , N^G -dimethyl-L-arginine (ADMA), which is an endogenous inhibitor of nitric oxide synthase activities. ADMA is hydrolysed by dimethylarginine dimethylhydrolase activities to generate L-citrulline and dimethylamine.

Arginase (EC 3.5.3.1) are manganese-containing isoforms, which appear to show differential distribution, where the ARG1 isoform predominates in the liver and erythrocytes, while ARG2 is associated more with the kidney.

NomenclatureArginase IArginase IIPreferred abbreviationARG1ARG2Ensembl IDENSG00000118520ENSG0000081181Other namesLiver arginase, cytosolic arginaseMitochondrial arginase

 N° -Hydroxyarginine, an intermediate in NOS metabolism of L-arginine acts as a weak inhibitor and may function as a physiological regulator of arginase activity. Although isoform-selective inhibitors of arginase are not available, examples of inhibitors selective for arginase compared to NOS are N° -hydroxy-nor-L-arginine (Tenu *et al.*, 1999), S-(2-boronoethyl)-L-cysteine (Colleluori and Ash, 2001; Kim *et al.*, 2001) and 2(S)-amino-6-boronohexanoic acid (Baggio *et al.*, 1999; Colleluori and Ash, 2001).

Arginine:glycine amidinotransferase (AGAT, E.C. 2.1.4.1)

Nomenclature Arginine:glycine amidinotransferase

Preferred abbreviation AGAT

Ensembl ID ENSG00000171766

Other names GATM, glycine amidinotransferase

Dimethylarginine dimethylaminohydrolases (DDAH, EC 3.5.3.18) are cytoplasmic enzymes which hydrolyse N^G , N^G -dimethyl-L-arginine to form dimethylamine and L-citrulline.

Nomenclature N^G, N^G-Dimethylarginine dimethylaminohydrolase 1 N^G,N^G-Dimethylarginine dimethylaminohydrolase 2 DDAH1 DDAH2 Preferred abbreviation Ensembl ID ENSG00000153904 ENSG00000213722 Dimethylarginine dimethylaminohydrolase 2, DDAHII, Dimethylarginine dimethylaminohydrolase 1, DDAHI, Other names dimethylargininase-1 dimethylargininase-2, S-phase protein, protein G6a 7n² Cofactor

Nitric oxide synthases (NOS, E.C. 1.14.13.39) utilise L-arginine (not D-arginine) and molecular oxygen to generate nitric oxide and L-citrulline. The nomenclature suggested by NC-IUPHAR of NOS I, II and III (see Moncada *et al.*, 1997) has not gained wide acceptance. eNOS and nNOS isoforms are activated at concentrations of calcium greater than 100 nM, while iNOS shows higher affinity for Ca^{2+} /calmodulin and thus appears to be constitutively active. All the three isoforms are homodimers and require tetrahydrobiopterin, flavin adenine dinucleotide, flavin mononucleotide and NADPH for catalytic activity. L-NAME is an inhibitor of all three isoforms, with an IC_{50} value in the micromolar range.

\$284 L-Arginine turnover

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

	Nomenclature	Endothelial NOS	Inducible NOS	Neuronal NOS
	Preferred abbreviation	eNOS	iNOS	nNOS
1	Ensembl ID	ENSG00000164867	ENSG0000007171	ENSG00000089250
1	Other names	NOS III, NOS-3, ecNOS	NOS II, NOS-2	NOS I, NOS-1, brain NOS
	Selective inhibitors	-	1400W (8.2, Garvey et al., 1997), 2-amino-4-methylpyridine (7.4, Faraci et al., 1996), PIBTU (7.3, Garvey et al., 1994), NIL (5.5, Moore et al., 1994), aminoguanidine (Corbett and McDaniel, 1992)	3-Bromo-7NI (6.1-6.5, Bland-Ward and Moore, 1995), 7NI (5.3, Babbedge <i>et al.</i> , 1993)

The reductase domain of NOS catalyses the reduction of cytochrome c and other redox-active dyes (Mayer and Hemmens, 1997). NADPH:O₂ oxidoreductase catalyses the formation of superoxide anion/H₂O₂ in the absence of arginine and tetrahydrobiopterin.

Protein arginine *N*-methyltransferases (PRMT, EC 2.1.1.-) encompass histone arginine *N*-methyltransferases (PRMT4, PRMT7, EC 2.1.1.125) and myelin basic protein *N*-methyltransferases (PRMT7, EC 2.1.1.126). They are dimeric or tetrameric enzymes which use S-adenosyl-L-methionine as a methyl donor, generating S-adenosyl-L-homocysteine as a by-product. They generate both mono-methylated and di-methylated products; these may be symmetric (SDMA) or asymmetric (ADMA) versions, where both guanidine nitrogens are monomethylated or one of the two is dimethylated, respectively.

Nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names
PRMT1	ENSG00000126457	Interferon receptor 1-bound protein 4, ANM1, HCP1, HRMT1L2
PRMT2	ENSG00000160310	-
PRMT3	ENSG00000185238	Heterogeneous nuclear ribonucleoprotein methyltransferase-like protein 3
PRMT4	ENSG00000142453	Histone-arginine methyltransferase CARM1, coactivator-associated arginine methyltransferase 1
PRMT5	ENSG00000100462	Histone-arginine N-methyltransferase, Shk1 kinase-binding protein 1 homolog, SKB1Hs, Jak-binding protein 1, 72 kDa ICln-binding protein
PRMT6	ENSG00000198890	Heterogeneous nuclear ribonucleoprotein methyltransferase-like protein 6
PRMT7	ENSG00000132600	Histone-arginine N-methyltransferase, myelin basic protein-arginine N-methyltransferase
PRMT8	ENSG00000111218	Heterogeneous nuclear ribonucleoprotein methyltransferase-like protein 4
PRMT9	ENSG00000138081	FBXO11, F-box only protein 11, vitiligo-associated protein 1, VIT-1
PRMT10	ENSG00000164169	TPR repeat-containing protein LOC90826

A related gene has been described, CARM1L (Coactivator associated arginine methyltransferase 1-like fragment, ENSG00000227835).

Abbreviations: 1400W, *N*-(3-(aminomethyl) benzyl)acetamidine; ADMA, asymmetric dimethylarginine; DDAH, dimethylarginine dimethylaminohydrolase; NADPH, reduced nicotinamide adenosine dinucleotide phosphate; 7NI, 7-nitroindazole; NIL, L-*N*⁶-(1-iminoethyl)lysine; NOS, nitric oxide synthase; PIBTU, 13-phenylen-bis(1,2-ethanediyl)bis-thiourea; PRMT, protein arginine methyltransferase; SDMA, symmetric dimethylarginine

Further Reading

Bedford MT, Clarke SG (2009). Protein arginine methylation in mammals: who, what, and why. Mol Cell 33: 1-13.

Heemskerk S, Masereeuw R, Russel FG, Pickkers P (2009). Selective iNOS inhibition for the treatment of sepsis-induced acute kidney injury. *Nat Rev Nephrol* 5: 629–640.

Huang PL (2009). eNOS, metabolic syndrome and cardiovascular disease. Trends Endocrinol Metab 20: 295-302.

Krause CD, Yang ZH, Kim YS, Lee JH, Cook JR, Pestka S (2007). Protein arginine methyltransferases: evolution and assessment of their pharmacological and therapeutic potential. *Pharmacol Ther* 113: 50–87.

Kukreja RC, Xi L (2007). eNOS phosphorylation: a pivotal molecular switch in vasodilation and cardioprotection? *J Mol Cell Cardiol* **42**: 280–282. Leiper J, Nandi M (2011). The therapeutic potential of targeting endogenous inhibitors of nitric oxide synthesis. *Nat Rev Drug Discov* **10**: 277–291. Lundberg JO, Weitzberg E (2010). NO-synthase independent NO generation in mammals. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* **396**: 39–45.

Maarsingh H, Pera T, Meurs H (2008). Arginase and pulmonary diseases. Naunyn Schmiedebergs Arch Pharmacol 378: 171-184.

Maarsingh H, Zaagsma J, Meurs H (2009). Arginase: a key enzyme in the pathophysiology of allergic asthma opening novel therapeutic perspectives. *Br J Pharmacol* **158**: 652–664.

Melikian N, Seddon MD, Casadei B, Chowienczyk PJ, Shah AM (2009). Neuronal nitric oxide synthase and human vascular regulation. *Trends Cardiovasc Med* 19: 256–262.

Moncada S, Higgs A, Furchgott R (1997). International Union of Pharmacology Nomenclature in Nitric Oxide Research. *Pharmacol Rev* 49: 137–142.

Morris SM Jr. (2009). Recent advances in arginine metabolism: roles and regulation of the arginases. Br J Pharmacol 157: 922-930.

Mount PF, Kemp BE, Power DA (2007). Regulation of endothelial and myocardial NO synthesis by multi-site eNOS phosphorylation. *J Mol Cell Cardiol* 42: 271–279.

Munder M (2009). Arginase: an emerging key player in the mammalian immune system. Br J Pharmacol 158: 638-651.

Palm F, Onozato ML, Luo Z, Wilcox CS (2007). Dimethylarginine dimethylaminohydrolase (DDAH): expression, regulation, and function in the cardiovascular and renal systems. *Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol* 293: H3227–H3245.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

L-Arginine turnover \$285

Teyssier C, Le Romancer M, Sentis S, Jalaguier S, Corbo L, Cavailles V (2010). Protein arginine methylation in estrogen signaling and estrogen-related cancers. *Trends Endocrinol Metab* 21: 181–189.

Toda N, Ayajiki K, Okamura T (2009). Cerebral blood flow regulation by nitric oxide: recent advances. Pharmacol Rev 61: 62–97.

Tousoulis D, Boger RH, Antoniades C, Siasos G, Stefanadi E, Stefanadis C (2007). Mechanisms of disease: L-arginine in coronary atherosclerosis–a clinical perspective. *Nat Clin Pract Cardiovasc Med* 4: 274–283.

Tsutsui M, Shimokawa H, Otsuji Y, Yanagihara N (2010). Pathophysiological relevance of NO signaling in the cardiovascular system: novel insight from mice lacking all NO synthases. *Pharmacol Ther* **128**: 499–508.

References

Babbedge RC *et al.* (1993). *Br J Pharmacol* **110**: 225–228. Baggio R *et al.* (1999). *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* **290**: 1409–1416. Bland-Ward PA, Moore PK (1995). *Life Sci* **57**: PL131–PL135. Colleluori DM, Ash DE (2001). *Biochemistry* **40**: 9356–9362. Corbett JA, McDaniel ML (1992). *Diabetes* **41**: 897–903. Faraci WS *et al.* (1996). *Br J Pharmacol* **119**: 1101–1108.

Garvey EP et al. (1994). J Biol Chem 269: 26669–26676. Garvey EP et al. (1997). J Biol Chem 272: 4959–4963. Kim NN et al. (2001). Biochemistry 40: 2678–2688. Mayer B, Hemmens B (1997). Trends Biochem Sci 22: 477–481. Moore WM et al. (1994). J Med Chem 37: 3886–3888. Tenu JP et al. (1999). Nitric Oxide 3: 427–438.

Carboxylases and decarboxylases

Carboxylases: The carboxylases allow the production of new carbon-carbon bonds by introducing HCO_3^- or CO_2 into target molecules. Two groups of carboxylase activities, some of which are bidirectional, can be defined on the basis of the cofactor requirement, making use of biotin (EC 6.4.1.-) or vitamin K (EC 4.1.1.-).

Nomenclature	Pyruvate carboxylase	Acetyl-CoA carboxylase	Propionyl-CoA carboxylase	γ-Glutamyl carboxylas
E.C.	6.4.1.1	6.4.1.2	6.4.1.3	4.1.1.90
Preferred abbreviation	PC	ACC1, ACC2	PCCA, PCCB	GGCX
Ensembl ID	ENSG0000017359	ENSG00000132142,	ENSG00000175198	ENSG00000115486
		ENSG00000076555	ENSG00000114054	
Other names	PCB	ACACA, ACCα;	ΡССα,	- .
		ACACB, ACCβ	РССβ	
Cofactors	Biotin	Biotin	Biotin	Vitamin K, NADPH
Substrate(s)	Pyruvate, ATP	Acetyl-CoA, ATP	Propionyl-CoA, ATP	Glutamyl peptides
Product(s)	Oxaloacetate, ADP, P _i	Malonyl-CoA, ADP, P _i	Methylmalonyl-CoA, ADP, P _i	Carboxyglutamyl (Gla peptides
Selective inhibitors	_	TOFA (Loftus et al., 2000)	_	_

Citrate and other dicarboxylic acids are able to activate ACC1/ACC2 activity allosterically. PCC is able to function in forward and reverse modes as a ligase (carboxylase) or lyase (decarboxylase) activity, respectively. Loss-of-function mutations in GGCX are associated with clotting disorders.

Decarboxylases: The decarboxylases generate CO₂ and the indicated products from acidic substrates, requiring pyridoxal phosphate (ADC, AADC, GAD, HDC, ODC and PSDC) or pyruvate (SAMDC and PSDC) as a co-factor.

Nomenclature	S-Adenosylmethionine decarboxylase	L-Arginine decarboxylase	L-Aromatic amino-acid decarboxylase	Glutamic acid decarboxylase
E.C.	4.1.1.50	4.1.1.19	4.1.1.28	4.1.1.15
Preferred abbreviation	SAMDC	ADC	AADC	GAD
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000123505	ENSG00000142920	ENSG00000132437	ENSG00000128683, ENSG00000136750
Other names	-	Ornithine decarboxylase- like protein (Zhu <i>et al.,</i> 2004)	DOPA decarboxylase (DDC), 5-hydroxytryptophan decarboxylase	GAD1 (GAD65), GAD2 (GAD67)
Substrate(s)	S-Adenosylmethionine	L-Arginine	DOPA, L-tryptophan, 5-hydroxy-L-tryptophan	L-Glutamate, L-aspartate
Product(s)	5'-Deoxyadenosyl-(3-aminopropyl) methylsulfonium	Agmatine	5-Hydroxytryptophan, dopamine	GABA

The presence of a functional ADC activity in human tissues has been questioned (Coleman et al., 2004). s-Allylglycine is also an inhibitor of SAMDC (Pajunen et al., 1979).

Nomenclature	Histidine decarboxylase	Malonyl-CoA decarboxylase	Ornithine decarboxylase	Phosphatidylserine decarboxylase
E.C.	4.1.1.22	4.1.1.9	4.1.1.17	4.1.1.65
Preferred abbreviation	HDC	MLYCD	ODC	PSDC
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000140287	ENSG00000103150	ENSG00000115758	ENSG00000100141
Substrate(s)	L-Histidine	Malonyl-CoA	L-Ornithine	Phosphatidylserine
Product	Histamine	Acetyl-CoA	Putrescine	Phosphatidylethanolamine
Selective inhibitors	FMH (Garbarg <i>et al.,</i> 1980)	AMP-activated protein kinase-evoked phosphorylation (Saha et al., 2000)	DFMO, APA	-
Selective inhibitors	SAM486A (8.0; Stanek et al., 1993), AMA	-	Benserazide, carbidopa, 3-hydroxybenzylhydrazine, L-α-methyldopa	S-Allylglycine

The activity of ODC is regulated by the presence of an antizyme (ENSF00000002504) and an ODC antizyme inhibitor (ENSF00000002504).

Abbreviations: AMA, S-(5'-deoxy-5'-adenosyl)-methylthioethyl-hydroxylamine; APA, 1-aminooxy-3-aminopropane; DFMO, α-difluoromethyl-L-ornithine, also known as effornithine; FMH, α-fluoromethylhistidine; SAM, S-adenosylmethionine; SAM486A, 1-guanidinoimino-2,3dihydroindene-4-carboximidamide, also known as CGP48664; TOFA, 5-(tetradecyloxy)-2-furancarboxylic acid

Further Reading

Akbarian S, Huang HS (2006). Molecular and cellular mechanisms of altered GAD1/GAD67 expression in schizophrenia and related disorders. Brain Res Rev 52: 293-304.

Bale S, Ealick SE (2010). Structural biology of S-adenosylmethionine decarboxylase. Amino Acids 38: 451-460.

Brownsey RW, Boone AN, Elliott JE, Kulpa JE, Lee WM (2006). Regulation of acetyl-CoA carboxylase. Biochem Soc Trans 34: 223-227.

Elmets CA, Athar M (2010). Targeting ornithine decarboxylase for the prevention of nonmelanoma skin cancer in humans. Cancer Prev Res (Phila)

Jitrapakdee S, St MM, Rayment I, Cleland WW, Wallace JC, Attwood PV (2008). Structure, mechanism and regulation of pyruvate carboxylase. Biochem J 413: 369-387.

Jitrapakdee S, Vidal-Puig A, Wallace JC (2006). Anaplerotic roles of pyruvate carboxylase in mammalian tissues. Cell Mol Life Sci 63: 843–854. Marin-Valencia I, Roe CR, Pascual JM (2010). Pyruvate carboxylase deficiency: mechanisms, mimics and anaplerosis. Mol Genet Metab 101: 9–17. Moya-Garcia AA, Pino-Angeles A, Gil-Redondo R, Morreale A, Sanchez-Jimenez F (2009). Structural features of mammalian histidine decarboxylase reveal the basis for specific inhibition. Br J Pharmacol 157: 4–13.

Pegg AE (2006). Regulation of ornithine decarboxylase. J Biol Chem 281: 14529–14532.

Pegg AE (2009). S-Adenosylmethionine decarboxylase. Essays Biochem 46: 25–45.

Saggerson D (2008). Malonyl-CoA, a key signaling molecule in mammalian cells. Annu Rev Nutr 28: 253-272.

Smith KJ, Skelton H (2006). α-Difluoromethylornithine, a polyamine inhibitor: its potential role in controlling hair growth and in cancer treatment and chemo-prevention. Int J Dermatol 45: 337-344.

Tong L, Harwood HJ Jr. (2006). Acetyl-coenzyme A carboxylases: versatile targets for drug discovery. J Cell Biochem 99: 1476–1488. Wolfgang MJ, Lane MD (2006). The role of hypothalamic malonyl-CoA in energy homeostasis. J Biol Chem 281: 37265–37269.

References

Coleman CS et al. (2004). Biochem I 379: 849-855. Garbarg M et al. (1980). J Neurochem 35: 1045-1052. Loftus TM et al. (2000). Science 288: 2379-2381. Pajunen AE et al. (1979). J Neurochem 32: 1401-1408. Saha AK et al. (2000). I Biol Chem 275: 24279-24283. Stanek J et al. (1993). J Med Chem 36: 2168-2171. Zhu MY et al. (2004). Biochim Biophys Acta 1670: 156-164. S288 Cyclic nucleotide turnover

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Cyclic nucleotide turnover

Overview: cyclic nucleotides are second messengers generated by cyclase enzymes from precursor triphosphates and hydrolysed by phosphodiesterases. The cellular actions of these cyclic nucleotides are mediated through activation of protein kinases (cAMP- and cGMP-dependent protein kinases, see page S310), ion channels (cyclic nucleotide-gated, CNG, and hyperpolarization and cyclic nucleotide-gated, HCN, see Pages S153 & S156) and guanine nucleotide exchange factors (GEFs, Epac).

Adenylyl cyclases (E.C. 4.6.1.1)

Overview: Adenylyl cyclase (ENSF00000000188) converts 5'-ATP to 3',5'-adenosine monophosphate and pyrophosphate. Mammalian membrane-bound adenylyl cyclases are typically made up of two clusters of six TM domains separating two intracellular, overlapping catalytic domains that are the target for the nonselective activators forskolin, NKH477 (except AC9, Premont *et al.*, 1996) and $G\alpha_s$ (the stimulatory G protein α subunit, see Page S5). Adenosine and its derivatives (e.g. 2',5'-dideoxyadenosine), acting through the P-site, appear to be physiological inhibitors of adenylyl cyclase activity (Tesmer *et al.*, 2000). Three families of adenylyl cyclase are distinguishable: Ca²⁺/CaM-stimulated (AC1, AC3 and AC8), Ca²⁺-inhibitable (AC5 and AC6) and Ca²⁺-insensitive (AC2, AC4 and AC7) forms.

Nomenclature	AC1	AC2	AC3	AC4	AC5
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000164742	ENSG00000078295	ENSG00000138031	ENSG00000129467	ENSG00000173175
Other names	AC I	AC II, HBCA2	AC III, olfactory type	AC IV	AC V
Endogenous activators	Ca ²⁺ /CaM (Tang et al., 1991), PKC-evoked phosphorylation (Jacobowitz et al., 1993)	Gβγ (Taussig <i>et al.</i> , 1993), PKC-evoked phosphorylation (Chen and Iyengar, 1993; Lustig <i>et al.</i> , 1993)	Ca ²⁺ /CaM (Choi et al., 1992), PKC-evoked phosphorylation (Jacobowitz et al., 1993)	Gβγ (Gao and Gilman, 1991)	PKC-evoked phosphorylation (Kawabe <i>et al.,</i> 1994)
Endogenous inhibitors	$Gα_i$ (Taussig et al., 1994), $Gα_o$ (Taussig et al., 1994), $Gβγ$ (Taussig et al., 1993)	-	$G\alpha_i$ (Taussig et al., 1994), RGS2 (Sinnarajah et al., 2001), CaM kinase II-evoked phosphorylation (Wayman et al., 1995)	PKC-evoked phosphorylation (Zimmermann and Taussig, 1996)	Gα _i (Taussig <i>et al.</i> , 1994), Ca ²⁺ (Ishikawa <i>et al.</i> , 1992), PKA-evoked phosphorylation (Iwami <i>et al.</i> , 1995)
Selective inhibitors	-	_	-	_	NKY80 (Onda <i>et al.,</i> 2001)

Nomenclature	AC6	AC7	AC8	AC9
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000174233	ENSG00000121281	ENSG00000155897	ENSG00000162104
Other names	AC VI, Ca ²⁺ -inhibitable cyclase	AC VII	AC VIII	AC IX
Endogenous activators	-	PKC-evoked phosphorylation (Watson <i>et al.</i> , 1994)	Ca ²⁺ (Cali et al., 1994)	-
Endogenous inhibitors	Gα, (Taussig <i>et al.</i> , 1994), Ca ²⁺ (Yoshimura and Cooper, 1992), PKA-evoked phosphorylation (Chen <i>et al.</i> , 1997), PKC-evoked phosphorylation (Lai <i>et al.</i> , 1999)	-	-	Ca ²⁺ /calcineurin (Paterson <i>et al.,</i> 2000)

Nitric oxide has been proposed to inhibit AC5 and AC6 selectively (Hill *et al.*, 2000), although it is unclear whether this phenomenon is of physiological significance. A soluble adenylyl cyclase has been described (ENSG00000143199, Buck *et al.*, 1999), unaffected by either $G\alpha$ or $G\beta\gamma$ subunits, which has been suggested to be a cytoplasmic bicarbonate (pH-insensitive) sensor (Chen *et al.*, 2000).

Soluble guanylyl cyclase (E.C. 4.6.1.2)

Overview: Soluble guanylyl cyclase (GTP diphosphate-lyase (cyclising)) is a heterodimer comprising α and β chains, both of which have two subtypes in man (predominantly α 1 β 1; see Zabel *et al.*, 1998). A haem group is associated with the β chain and is the target for the endogenous ligand nitric oxide (NO•), and, potentially, carbon monoxide (Friebe *et al.*, 1996). The enzyme converts guanosine-5′-triphosphate (GTP) to the intracellular second messenger 3′,5′-guanosine monophosphate (cGMP).

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Cyclic nucleotide turnover \$289

Nomenclature Soluble guanylyl cyclase

Preferred abbreviation sGC

Ensembl ID α1 ENSG00000164116; α2 ENSG00000152402; β1 ENSG00000061918; β2 ENSG00000123201

Selective activators NO•, YC1 (Friebe et al., 1996), BAY412272 (Stasch et al., 2001), cinaciguat (Stasch et al., 2002), riociguat (Stasch

et al., 2002), ataciquat (Schindler et al., 2006)

Selective inhibitors ODQ (7.5; Garthwaite et al., 1995)

ODQ also shows activity at other haem-containing proteins (Feelisch *et al.*, 1999), while YC1 may also inhibit cGMP-hydrolysing phosphodiesterases (Friebe *et al.*, 1998; Galle *et al.*, 1999).

Exchange protein activated by cyclic AMP (Epac)

Overview: Epacs are members of a family of guanine nucleotide exchange factors (ENSFM00250000000899), which also includes RapGEF5 (GFR, KIAA0277, MR-GEF, ENSG00000136237) and RapGEFL1 (Link-GEFII, ENSG00000108352). They are activated endogenously by cyclic AMP and with some pharmacological selectivity by 8-pCPT-2'-O-Me-cAMP (Enserink *et al.*, 2002). Once activated, Epacs induce an enhanced activity of the monomeric G proteins, Rap1 and Rap2 by facilitating binding of GTP in place of GDP, leading to activation of phospholipase C (Schmidt *et al.*, 2001) (see Page S302).

Nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names
Epac1	ENSG00000079337	RapGEF3, bcm910, cAMP-GEFI
Epac2	ENSG00000091428	RapGEF4, cAMP-GEFII, CGEF2

Phosphodiesterases, 3',5'-cyclic nucleotide (E.C.3.1.4.17)

Overview: 3',5'-Cyclic nucleotide phosphodiesterases (PDEs, 3',5'-cyclic-nucleotide 5'-nucleotidohydrolase) catalyse the hydrolysis of a 3',5'-cyclic nucleotide (usually cyclic AMP or cyclic GMP). IBMX is a nonselective inhibitor with an IC_{50} value in the millimolar range for all isoforms except PDE 8A, 8B and 9A. A 2',3'-cyclic nucleotide 3'-phosphodiesterase (E.C. 3.1.4.37 CNPase) activity is associated with myelin formation in the development of the CNS.

Nomenclature	PDE1A	PDE1B	PDE1C	PDE2A
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000115252	ENSG00000123360	ENSG00000154678	SwissProt O00408
Other names	PDE I	PDE I	PDE I	PDE II, cGMP- stimulated cAMP-PDE, CGS-PDE
Rank order of affinity	cGMP > cAMP	cGMP > cAMP	cGMP = cAMP	cAMP >> cGMP
Activators	Ca ²⁺ /CaM	Ca ²⁺ /CaM	Ca ²⁺ /CaM	cGMP
Selective inhibitors	SCH51866 (7.2, Vemulapalli <i>et al.</i> , 1996), vinpocetine (5.1, Loughney <i>et al.</i> , 1996)	SCH51866 (7.2, Vemulapalli <i>et al.,</i> 1996)	SCH51866 (7.2, Vemulapalli <i>et al.</i> , 1996), vinpocetine (4.3, Loughney <i>et al.</i> , 1996)	BAY607550 (8.3–8.8, Boess <i>et al.</i> , 2004), EHNA (5.3, Michie <i>et al.</i> , 1996)

PDE1A, 1B and 1C appear to act as soluble homodimers, while PDE2A is a membrane-bound homodimer. EHNA is also an inhibitor of adenosine deaminase (E.C. 3.5.4.4) (see Page S280).

ı			
l	Nomenclature	PDE3A	PDE3B
l	Ensembl ID	ENSG00000172572	ENSG00000152270
١	Other names	PDE III, cGMP-inhibited cAMP-PDE, CGI-PDE A	PDE III, cGMP-inhibited cAMP-PDE, CGI-PDE B
	Selective inhibitors	Cilostamide (7.5, Sudo <i>et al.</i> , 2000), milrinone (6.3, Sudo <i>et al.</i> , 2000), cGMP	Cilostamide (7.3, Sudo <i>et al.</i> , 2000), milrinone (6.0, Sudo <i>et al.</i> , 2000), cGMP

S290 Cyclic nucleotide turnover

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Nomenclature	PDE4A	PDE4B	PDE4C	PDE4D
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000065989	ENSG00000184588	ENSG00000105650	ENSG00000113448
Other names	PDE IV	PDE IV	PDE IV	PDE IV
Rank order of affinity	cAMP >> cGMP	cAMP >> cGMP	cAMP >> cGMP	cAMP >> cGMP
Activators	-	-	-	PKA-mediated phosphorylation (Houslay and Adams, 2003)
Selective inhibitors	Rolipram (9.0, Wang et al., 1997), YM976 (8.3, Aoki et al., 2000), Ro201724 (6.5, Wang et al., 1997)	Rolipram (9.0, Wang et al., 1997), Ro201724 (6.4, Wang et al., 1997)	Rolipram (6.5, Wang et al., 1997), Ro201724 (5.4, Wang et al., 1997)	Rolipram (7.2, Wang et al., 1997), Ro201724 (6.2, Wang et al., 1997

PDE4 isoforms are essentially cAMP specific. The potency of YM976 at other members of the PDE4 family has not been reported. PDE4B–D long forms are inhibited by extracellular signal-regulated kinase (ERK)-mediated phosphorylation (Hoffmann *et al.*, 1998; Hoffmann *et al.*, 1999). PDE4A–D splice variants can be membrane-bound or cytosolic (Houslay and Adams, 2003). PDE4 isoforms may be labelled with [³H]-rolipram.

Nomenclature	PDE5A	PDE7A	PDE7B	PDE8A	PDE8B
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000138735	ENSG00000104732	ENSG00000171408	ENSG00000073417	ENSG00000113231
Other names	PDE V, cGMP-specific PDE	HCP1	-	High-affinity cAMP- specific and IBMX- insensitive PDE	-
Rank order of affinity	cGMP > cAMP	cAMP >> cGMP (Michaeli <i>et al.</i> , 1993)	cAMP >> cGMP (Gardner <i>et al.</i> , 2000)	cAMP >> cGMP (Fisher et al., 1998a)	cAMP >> cGMP (Hayashi <i>et al.</i> , 1998)
Activators	PKA (Corbin <i>et al.,</i> 2000), PKG (Corbin <i>et al.,</i> 2000)	-	-	-	-
Selective inhibitors	T0156 (9.5, Mochida et al., 2002), sildenafil (9.0, Turko et al., 1999), SCH51866 (7.2, Vemulapalli et al., 1996), zaprinast (6.8, Turko et al., 1999)	BRL50481 (6.7, Smith et al., 2004)	Dipyridamole (5.7–6.0, Gardner <i>et al.</i> , 2000; Sasaki <i>et al.</i> , 2000), SCH51866 (5.8, Sasaki <i>et al.</i> , 2000)	Dipyridamole (5.1, Fisher <i>et al.</i> , 1998a)	Dipyridamole (4.3, Hayashi <i>et al.</i> , 1998)

PDE7A appears to be membrane-bound or soluble for PDE7A1 and 7A2 splice variants, respectively. BRL50481 appears not to have been examined as an inhibitor of PDE7B.

Nomenclature F	PDE9A	PDE10A	PDE11A
Ensembl ID E	ENSG00000160191	ENSG00000112541	ENSG00000128655
Substrate specificity of	cGMP >> cAMP (Fisher et al., 1998b)	cAMP, cGMP (Fujishige et al., 1999)	cAMP, cGMP (Fawcett et al., 2000)
1	SCH51866 (5.8, Fisher <i>et al.</i> , 1998b), zaprinast (4.5, Fisher <i>et al.</i> , 1998b)	-	-

Nomenclature	PDE6A	PDE6B	PDE6C	PDE6D	PDE6G	PDE6H
Nomenciature	PDE6A	PDEOD	PDE6C	PDE6D	PDE6G	PDEOR
Ensembl ID Other names	ENSG00000132915 cGMP-PDE α , PDE V-b1	ENSG00000133256 cGMP-PDE β	ENSG00000095464 cGMP-PDE α , PDEA2	ENSG00000156973 cGMP-PDE δ	ENSG00000185527 cGMP-PDE γ	ENSG00000139053 cGMP-PDE γ

PDE6 is a membrane-bound tetramer composed of two catalytic chains (PDE6A or PDE6C and PDE6B), an inhibitory chain (PDE6G or PDE6H) and the PDE6D chain. The enzyme is essentially cGMP specific and is activated by the α -subunit of transducin ($G\alpha_t$, see Page S5) and inhibited by sildenafil, zaprinast and dipyridamole with potencies lower than those observed for PDE5A. Defects in PDE6B are a cause of retinitis pigmentosa and congenital stationary night blindness.

Abbreviations: BAY412272, 5-cyclopropyl-2-[1-(2-fluoro-benzyl)-1*H*-pyrazolo[3,4-*b*]pyridin-3-yl]-pyrimidin-4-ylamine); BAY607550, 2-(3,4-dimethoxybenzyl)-7-{(1R)-1-[(1R)-1-hydroxyethyl]-4-phenylbutyl}-5-methylimidazo[5,1-f][1,2,4]triazin-4(3*H*)-one; BRL50481, 5-nitro-2,*N*,*N*-trimethylbenzenesulfonamide; CaM, calmodulin; EHNA, *erythro*-9-(2-hydroxy-3-nonyl)adenine; NKH477, 6-(3-dimethylaminopropionyl) forskolin hydrochloride; NKY80, 2-amino-7-(2-furanyl)-7,8-dihydro-5(6*H*)-quinazolinone; ODQ, 1*H*-[1,2,4]oxadiazolo[4,3-*a*]quinoxalin-1-one;

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Cyclic nucleotide turnover S291

PKA, protein kinase A or cyclic AMP-dependent protein kinase; PKC, protein kinase C; PKG, protein kinase G or cyclic GMP-dependent protein kinase; RGS2, Regulator of G-protein signalling 2 (ENSG00000116741); Ro201724, 4-(3-butoxy-4-methoxyphenyl)methyl-2-imidazolidone; SCH51866, cis-5,6a,7,8,9,9a-hexahydro-2-(4-[trifluoromethyl]phenylmethyl)-5-methyl-cyclopent[4,5]imidazo[2,1-b]purin-4(3H)-one; YC1, 3-(5'-hydroxymethyl-2'-furyl)-1-benzylindazole; YM976, (4-[3-chlorophenyl]-1,7-diethylpyrido[2,3-d]pyrimidin-2(1H)-one);

Further Reading

Borland G, Smith BO, Yarwood SJ (2009). EPAC proteins transduce diverse cellular actions of cAMP. Br J Pharmacol 158: 70–86.

Cerra MC, Pellegrino D (2007). Cardiovascular cGMP-generating systems in physiological and pathological conditions. *Curr Med Chem* **14**: 585–599.

Cheng X, Ji Z, Tsalkova T, Mei F (2008). Epac and PKA: a tale of two intracellular cAMP receptors. *Acta Biochim Biophys Sin (Shanghai)* **40**: 651–662. Feldman RD, Gros R (2007). New insights into the regulation of cAMP synthesis beyond GPCR/G protein activation: implications in cardio-vascular regulation. *Life Sci* **81**: 267–271.

Gloerich M, Bos JL (2010). Epac: defining a new mechanism for cAMP action. Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol 50: 355-375.

Grandoch M, Roscioni SS, Schmidt M (2010). The role of Epac proteins, novel cAMP mediators, in the regulation of immune, lung and neuronal function. *Br J Pharmacol* **159**: 265–284.

Holz GG, Chepurny OG, Schwede F (2008). Epac-selective cAMP analogs: new tools with which to evaluate the signal transduction properties of cAMP-regulated guanine nucleotide exchange factors. *Cell Signal* 20: 10–20.

Jackson EB, Mukhopadhyay S, Tulis DA (2007). Pharmacologic modulators of soluble guanylate cyclase/cyclic guanosine monophosphate in the vascular system – from bench top to bedside. *Curr Vasc Pharmacol* 5: 1–14.

Metrich M, Berthouze M, Morel E, Crozatier B, Gomez AM, Lezoualc'h F (2010). Role of the cAMP-binding protein Epac in cardiovascular physiology and pathophysiology. *Pflugers Arch* **459**: 535–546.

Roscioni SS, Elzinga CRS, Schmidt M (2008). Epac: effectors and biological functions. *Naunyn-Schmiedebergs Arch Pharmacol* 377: 345–357. Schmidt M, Sand C, Jakobs KH, Michel MC, Oude Weernink PA (2007). Epac and the cardiovascular system. *Curr Opin Pharmacol* 7: 193–200. Willoughby D, Cooper DMF (2007). Organization and Ca2+ regulation of adenylyl cyclases in cAMP microdomains. *Physiol Rev* 87: 965–1010.

References

Aoki M et al. (2000). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 295: 255-260. Boess FG et al. (2004). Neuropharmacology 47: 1081-1092. Buck J et al. (1999). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 96: 79-84. Cali JJ et al. (1994). J Biol Chem 269: 12190-12195. Chen JQ, Iyengar R (1993). J Biol Chem 268: 12253-12256. Chen Y et al. (1997). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 94: 14100-14104. Chen Y et al. (2000). Science 289: 625-628. Choi EJ et al. (1992). Biochemistry 31: 6492-6498. Corbin JD et al. (2000). Eur J Biochem 267: 2760-2767. Enserink JM et al. (2002). Nat Cell Biol 4: 901-906. Fawcett L et al. (2000). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 97: 3702-3707. Feelisch M et al. (1999). Mol Pharmacol 56: 243-253. Fisher DA et al. (1998a). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 246: 570-577. Fisher DA et al. (1998b). J Biol Chem 273: 15559-15564. Friebe A et al. (1996). EMBO J 15: 6863-6868. Friebe A et al. (1998). Mol Pharmacol 54: 962-967. Fujishige K et al. (1999). J Biol Chem 274: 18438-18445. Galle J et al. (1999). Br J Pharmacol 127: 195-203. Gao BN, Gilman AG (1991). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 88: 10178-10182. Gardner C et al. (2000). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 272: 186-192. Garthwaite J et al. (1995). Mol Pharmacol 48: 184-188. Hayashi M et al. (1998). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 250: 751-756. Hill J et al. (2000). Cell Signal 12: 233-237. Hoffmann R et al. (1998). Biochem J 333: 139-149. Hoffmann R et al. (1999). EMBO J 18: 893-903. Houslay MD, Adams DR (2003). Biochem J 370: 1-18. Ishikawa Y et al. (1992). J Biol Chem 267: 13553-13557. Iwami G et al. (1995). J Biol Chem 270: 12481-12484. Jacobowitz O et al. (1993). J Biol Chem 268: 3829-3832. Kawabe J-I et al. (1994). J Biol Chem 269: 16554-16558.

Loughney K et al. (1996). J Biol Chem 271: 796-806. Lustig KD et al. (1993). I Biol Chem 268: 13900-13905. Michaeli T et al. (1993). J Biol Chem 268: 12925-12932. Michie AM et al. (1996). Cell Signal 8: 97-110. Mochida H et al. (2002). Eur J Pharmacol 456: 91-98. Onda T et al. (2001). J Biol Chem 276: 47785-47793. Paterson JM et al. (2000). J Neurochem 75: 1358-1367. Premont RT et al. (1996). J Biol Chem 271: 13900-13907. Sasaki T et al. (2000). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 271: 575-583. Schindler U et al. (2006). Mol Pharmacol 69: 1260-1268. Schmidt M et al. (2001). Nat Cell Biol 3: 1020-1024. Sinnarajah S et al. (2001). Nature 409: 1051-1055. Smith SJ et al. (2004). Mol Pharmacol 66: 1679-1689. Stasch JP et al. (2001). Nature 410: 212-215. Stasch JP et al. (2002). Br J Pharmacol 136: 773-783. Sudo T et al. (2000). Biochem Pharmacol 59: 347-356. Tang WJ et al. (1991). J Biol Chem 266: 8595-8603. Taussig R et al. (1993). J Biol Chem 268: 9-12. Taussig R et al. (1994). J Biol Chem 269: 6093-6100. Tesmer JJ et al. (2000). Biochemistry 39: 14464-14471. Turko IV et al. (1999). Mol Pharmacol 56: 124-130. Vemulapalli S et al. (1996). J Cardiovasc Pharmacol 28: 862-869. Wang P et al. (1997). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 234: 320-324. Watson PA et al. (1994). J Biol Chem 269: 28893-28898. Wayman GA et al. (1995). J Biol Chem 270: 21480-21486. Yoshimura M, Cooper DM (1992). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 89: 6716-6720. Zabel U (1998). Biochem J 335: 51-57.

Zimmermann G, Taussig R (1996). J Biol Chem 271: 27161-27166.

Lai H-L et al. (1999). Mol Pharmacol 56: 644-650.

Cytochrome P450 (E.C. 1.14.-.-)

Overview: the cytochrome P450 enzyme family (CYP450) were originally defined by their strong absorbance at 450 nm due to the reduced carbon monoxide-complexed haem component of the cytochromes. They are an extensive family of haem-containing monooxygenases with a huge range of both endogenous and exogenous substrates. Listed below are the human enzymes; their relationship with rodent CYP450 enzyme activities is obscure in that the species orthologue may not mediate metabolism of the same substrates. Although the majority of CYP450 enzyme activities are concentrated in the liver, the extrahepatic enzyme activities also contribute to patho/physiological processes. Genetic variation of CYP450 isoforms is widespread and likely underlies a significant proportion of the individual variation to drug administration.

CYP1 family (ENSFM0025000000349) (E.C. 1.14.1.1)

Nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names	Comments
CYP1A1	ENSG00000140465	Aryl hydrocarbon hydroxylase, CP11, CYP1, P1-450, P450-C, P450DX	-
CYP1A2	ENSG00000140505	Phenacetin O-deethylase, CP12, P3-450	-
CYP1B1	ENSG00000138061	CP1B, GLC3A	Mutations have been associated with primary congenital glaucoma (Stoilov <i>et al.</i> , 1997)

CYP2 family (ENSFM0040000131704, ENSFM0040000131705, ENSFM00550000747662)

Nomenclature	EC	Ensembl ID	Other names	Comments
CYP2A6/2A7	1.14.14.1	ENSG00000198077	Coumarin 7-hydroxylase, CPA6, CYP2A, CYP2A3, CYP2A, CYPIIA7, P450-IIA4	Metabolises nicotine
CYP2A13	1.14.14.1	ENSG00000197838	CYPIIA13	_
CYP2B6	1.14.14.1	ENSG00000197408	CYPIIB6, P450 IIB1	_
CYP2C8	1.14.14.1	ENSG00000138115	CYPIIC8, P450 form 1, P450 MP-12/ MP-20, P450 IIC2, S-mephenytoin 4-hydroxylase	-
CYP2C9	1.14.13.80, 1.14.13.48, 1.14.13.49	ENSG00000138109	(R)-Limonene 6-monooxygenase, (S)-limonene 6-monooxygenase, (S)-limonene 7-monooxygenase, CYPIIC9, P450 PB-1, P450 MP-4/MP-8, S-mephenytoin 4-hydroxylase, P-450MP	-
CYP2C18	1.14.14.1	ENSG00000108242	CYPIIC18, P450-6B/29C	_
CYP2C19	1.14.13.80, 1.14.13.48, 1.14.13.49	ENSG00000165841	(R)-limonene 6-monooxygenase, (S)-limonene 6-monooxygenase, (S)-limonene 7-monooxygenase, CYPIIC19, P450-11A, mephenytoin 4-hydroxylase, CYPIIC17, P450-254C	-
CYP2D6	1.14.14.1	ENSG00000100197	Debrisoquine 4-hydroxylase, CYPIID6, P450-DB1	-
CYP2E1	1.14.14.1	ENSG00000130649	CYPIIE1, P450-J	-
CYP2F1	1.14.14.1	ENSG00000197446	CYPIIF1	-
CYP2J2	1.14.14.1	ENSG00000134716	Arachidonic acid epoxygenase, CYPIIJ2	-
CYP2R1	1.14.13.15	ENSG00000186104	Vitamin D 25-hydroxylase	-
CYP2S1	1.14.14.1	ENSG00000167600	CYPIIS1	-
CYP2U1	1.14.14.1	ENSG00000155016		
CYP2W1	1.14.14	ENSG00000073067	CYPIIW1	_

 $\label{eq:cyp2A7P1} CYP2A7P1 \ (ENSG00000213908), \ CYP2D7P1 \ (ENSG00000205702), \ CYP2G1P \ (ENSG00000130612) \ and \ AC008537.5-2 \ (ENSG00000198251, fragment) \ are uncharacterized potential pseudogenes from the same families.$

CYP3 family (ENSFM00310000088994)

Nomenclature	EC	Ensembl ID	Other names	Comments
CYP3A4	1.14.13.67, 1.14.13.97, 1.14.13.32	ENSG00000160868	Quinine 3-monooxygenase, CYPIIIA4, Nifedipine oxidase, CYP4503A3, CYPIIIA3, HLp, taurochenodeoxycholate 6-α-hydroxylase, NF-25, P450-PCN1, albendazole monooxygenase, albendazole sulfoxidase	Metabolises a vast range of xenobiotics, including antidepressants, benzodiazepines, calcium channel blockers, and chemotherapeutic agents
CYP3A5	1.14.14.1	ENSG00000106258	CYPIIIA5, P450-PCN3, HLp2	-
CYP3A7	1.14.14.1	ENSG00000160870	CYPIIIA7, P450-HFLA	_
CYP3A43	1.14.14.1	ENSG00000021461	Cytochrome P450 3A43	-

CYP4 family (ENSFM0040000131716, ENSFM0040000131707)

Nomenclature	EC	Ensembl ID	Other names	Comments
CYP4A11	1.14.15.3	ENSG00000187048	CYPIVA11, lauric acid ω-hydroxylase, fatty acid ω-hydroxylase, P-450 HK ω, CYP4AII, P450-HL-ω, 20-hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acid synthase, 20-HETE synthase	-
CYP4A22	1.14.15.3	ENSG00000162365	CYPIVA22, lauric acid ω-hydroxylase, fatty acid ω-hydroxylase	-
CYP4B1	1.14.14.1	ENSG00000142973	CYPIVB1, P450-HP	_
CYP4F2	1.14.13.30	ENSG00000186115	Leukotriene B ₄ 20-monooxygenase 1, leukotriene B ₄ ω-hydroxylase 1, CYPIVF2, cytochrome P450-LTB-ω	Responsible for ω -hydroxylation of leukotriene B ₄ , lipoxin B ₄ (Mizukami <i>et al.</i> , 1993) and tocopherols, including vitamin E (Sontag and Parker, 2002)
CYP4F3	1.14.13.30	ENSG00000186529	Leukotriene B ₄ 20-monooxygenase 2, leukotriene B ₄ ω-hydroxylase 2, CYPIVF3, cytochrome P450-LTB-ω	Responsible for ω -hydroxylation of leukotriene B ₄ , lipoxin B ₄ (Mizukami et al., 1993) and polyunsaturated fatt acids (Harmon et al., 2006; Fer et al., 2008)
CYP4F8	1.14.14.1	ENSG00000186526	CYPIVF8	_
CYP4F11	1.14.14.1	ENSG00000171903	CYPIVF11	_
CYP4F12	1.14.14.1	ENSG00000186204	CYPIVF12	_
CYP4F22	1.14.14	ENSG00000171954		_
CYP4V2	1.14	ENSG00000145476		_
CYP4X1	1.14.14.1	ENSG00000186377	CYPIVX1	_
CYP4Z1	1.14.14.1	ENSG00000186160	CYPIVZ1	_

AC004597.1 (ENSG00000225607) is described as being highly similar to CYP4F12.

CYP5, CYP7 and CYP8 families (ENSFM00250000001362)

Nomenclature	EC	Ensembl ID	Other names	Comments
CYP5A1	5.3.99.5	ENSG00000059377	Thromboxane synthase, TXA synthase, TBXAS1, CYP5, THAS, TS, TXAS, TXS, TXS	Converts prostaglandin H ₂ to thromboxane A ₂ . Inhibited by dazoxiben (Randall <i>et al.</i> , 1981) and camonagrel (Gryglewski <i>et al.</i> , 1995)
CYP7A1	1.14.13.17	ENSG00000167910	Cholesterol 7- α -monooxygenase, cholesterol 7- α -hydroxylase, CYPVII	-
CYP7B1	1.14.13.100	ENSG00000172817	Oxysterol 7-α-hydroxylase, 25-hydroxycholesterol 7-α-hydroxylase	-

Nomenclature	EC	Ensembl ID	Other names	Comments
CYP8A1	5.3.99.4	ENSG00000124212	Prostaglandin l ₂ synthase, PTGIS	Inhibited by tranylcypromine (Gryglewski <i>et al.</i> , 1976)
CYP8B1	1.14.13.95	ENSG00000180432	$7-\alpha$ -Hydroxycholest-4-en-3-one 12- α -hydroxylase, CYPVIIIB1, 7- α -hydroxy-4-cholesten-3-one 12- α -hydroxylase, sterol 12- α -hydroxylase	-

CYP11 (ENSFM00500000269868), CYP17, CYP19, CYP20 and CYP21 families

Nomenclature	EC	Ensembl ID	Other names	Comments
CYP11A1	1.14.15.6	ENSG00000140459	Cholesterol side-chain cleavage enzyme, cholesterol desmolase, CYPXIA1, P450 _{scc}	Converts cholesterol to pregnenolone
CYP11B1	1.14.15.4	ENSG00000160882	Steroid 11β-hydroxylase, CYPXIB1, P450C11, P-450c11	Converts deoxycortisone and 11-deoxycortisol to cortisone and cortisol, respectively. Loss-of-function mutations are associated with familial adrenal hyperplasia and hypertension. Inhibited by metyrapone (Watanuki et al., 1978)
CYP11B2	1.14.15.4, 1.14.15.5	ENSG00000179142	Aldosterone synthase, ALDOS, CYPXIB2, P-450Aldo, aldosterone-synthesizing enzyme, steroid 18-hydroxylase, P-450C18	Converts corticosterone to aldosterone
CYP17A1	1.14.99.9	ENSG00000148795	Steroid 17-α-hydroxylase/17,20 lyase, CYPXVII, P450-C17, P450c17, steroid 17-α-monooxygenase	Converts pregnenolone and progesterone to 17α-hydroxypregnenolone and 17α-hydroxyprogesterone, respectively. Converts 17α-hydroxypregnenolone and 17α-hydroxyprogesterone to dehydroepiandrostandione and androstenedione, respectively. Converts corticosterone to cortisol
CYP19A1	1.14.14.1	ENSG00000137869	Aromatase, estrogen synthetase, P-450AROM, CYPXIX	Converts androstenedione and testosterone to estrone and estradiol, respectively. Inhibited by anastrazole (Plourde <i>et al.</i> , 1994) and letrozole (Bhatnagar <i>et al.</i> , 1990)
CYP20A1	1.14	ENSG00000119004	CYP-M	-
CYP21A2	1.14.99.10	ENSG00000198457	Steroid 21-hydroxylase, cytochrome P450 XXI, 21-OHase, P450-C21, P-450c21, P450-C21B	Converts progesterone and 17α-hydroxyprogesterone to deoxycortisone and 11-deoxycortisone, respectively

CYP24, CYP26 and CYP27 families (ENSFM00500000269772, ENSFM00250000002048)

Nomenclature	EC	Ensembl ID	Other names	Comments
CYP24A1	1.14.13.n4	ENSG00000019186	1,25-Dihydroxyvitamin D_3 24-hydroxylase, vitamin D_3 24-hydroxylase, 24-OHase, P450-CC24	_
CYP26A1	1.14	ENSG00000095596	Retinoic acid-metabolizing cytochrome, P450 retinoic acid-inactivating 1, P450RAI, retinoic acid 4-hydroxylase	Inhibited by liarozole
CYP26B1	1.14	ENSG00000003137	Retinoic acid-metabolizing cytochrome, P450 retinoic acid-inactivating 2, P450RAI-2, P450 26A2	_
CYP26C1	1.14	ENSG00000187553	-	-
CYP27A1	1.14.13.15	ENSG00000135929	Sterol 26-hydroxylase, cytochrome P-450C27/25, sterol 27-hydroxylase, vitamin D_3 25-hydroxylase, 5- β -cholestane-3- α ,7- α ,12- α -triol 27-hydroxylase	-

lomenclature	EC	Ensembl ID	Other names	Comments
CYP27B1	1.14.13.13	ENSG00000111012	25-hydroxyvitamin D-1 α hydroxylase, cytochrome P450 subfamily XXVIIB polypeptide 1, calcidiol 1-monooxygenase, 25-OHD-1 α -hydroxylase, 25-hydroxyvitamin D $_3$ 1- α -hydroxylase, VD3 1A hydroxylase, P450C1 α , P450VD1- α	-
CYP27C1	1.14	ENSG00000186684	_	_

CYP39, CYP46 and CYP51 families

Nomenclature	EC	Ensembl ID	Other names
CYP39A1	1.14.13.99	ENSG00000146233	Oxysterol 7-α-hydroxylase, 24-hydroxycholesterol 7-α-hydroxylase
CYP46A1	1.14.13.98	ENSG00000036530	Cholesterol 24-hydroxylase, CH24H
CYP51A1		ENSG00000001630	Lanosterol 14- α -demethylase, leucine-rich repeat and death domain-containing protein LOC401387, CP51, CYP51, CYPL1, LDM, P450-14 DM, P450L1

Further Reading

Cipollone F, Cicolini G, Bucci M (2008). Cyclooxygenase and prostaglandin synthases in atherosclerosis: recent insights and future perspectives. *Pharmacol Ther* 118: 161–180.

Fleming I (2008). Vascular cytochrome P450 enzymes: physiology and pathophysiology. Trends Cardiovasc Med 18: 20-25.

Haining RL, Nichols-Haining M (2007). Cytochrome P450-catalyzed pathways in human brain: metabolism meets pharmacology or old drugs with new mechanism of action? *Pharmacol Ther* 113: 537–545.

Hisaka A, Ohno Y, Yamamoto T, Suzuki H (2010). Prediction of pharmacokinetic drug-drug interaction caused by changes in cytochrome P450 activity using in vivo information. *Pharmacol Ther* 125: 230–248.

Ingelman-Sundberg M, Sim SC, Gomez A, Rodriguez-Antona C (2007). Influence of cytochrome P450 polymorphisms on drug therapies: pharmacogenetic, pharmacoepigenetic and clinical aspects. *Pharmacol Ther* 116: 496–526.

Johnson WW (2008). Cytochrome P450 inactivation by pharmaceuticals and phytochemicals: therapeutic relevance. *Drug Metab Rev* 40: 101–147.

Johnston JB, Ouellet H, Podust LM, Ortiz de Montellano PR (2011). Structural control of cytochrome P450-catalyzed ω-hydroxylation. *Arch Biochem Biophys* **507**: 86–94.

Kirchheiner J, Seeringer A (2007). Clinical implications of pharmacogenetics of cytochrome P450 drug metabolizing enzymes. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1770: 489–494.

Laursen T, Jensen K, Moller BL (2011). Conformational changes of the NADPH-dependent cytochrome P450 reductase in the course of electron transfer to cytochromes P450. *Biochim Biophys Acta* **1814**: 132–138.

Omura T (2010). Structural diversity of cytochrome P450 enzyme system. J Biochem 147: 297–306.

Ortiz de Montellano PR (2010). Hydrocarbon hydroxylation by cytochrome P450 enzymes. Chem Rev 110: 932-948.

Pelkonen O, Turpeinen M, Hakkola J, Honkakoski P, Hukkanen J, Raunio H (2008). Inhibition and induction of human cytochrome P450 enzymes: current status. *Arch Toxicol* 82: 667–715.

Rezen T, Contreras JA, Rozman D (2007). Functional genomics approaches to studies of the cytochrome P450 superfamily. *Drug Metab Rev* 39: 389–399.

Schuster I (2011). Cytochromes P450 are essential players in the vitamin D signaling system. Biochim Biophys Acta 1814: 186–199.

Shaik S, Cohen S, Wang Y, Chen H, Kumar D, Thiel W (2010). P450 enzymes: their structure, reactivity, and selectivity-modeled by QM/MM calculations. *Chem Rev* 110: 949–1017.

Wijnen PA, Op den Buijsch RA, Drent M, Kuijpers PM, Neef C, Bast A, Bekers O, Koek GH (2007). The prevalence and clinical relevance of cytochrome P450 polymorphisms. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 26 (Suppl. 2): 211–219.

Zanger UM, Turpeinen M, Klein K, Schwab M (2008). Functional pharmacogenetics/genomics of human cytochromes P450 involved in drug biotransformation. *Anal Bioanal Chem* **392**: 1093–1108.

References

Bhatnagar AS et al. (1990). J Steroid Biochem Mol Biol 37: 1021–1027. Fer M et al. (2008). J Lipid Res 49: 2379–2389. Gryglewski RJ et al. (1976). Prostaglandins 12: 685–713. Gryglewski RJ et al. (1995). Wien Klin Wochenschr 107: 283–289. Harmon SD et al. (2006). Prostaglandins Leukot Essent Fatty Acids 75: 169–177.

Mizukami Y et al. (1993). Biochim Biophys Acta 1168: 87–93. Plourde PV et al. (1994). Breast Cancer Res Treat 30: 103–111. Randall MJ et al. (1981). Thromb Res 23: 145–162. Sontag TJ, Parker RS (2002). J Biol Chem 277: 25290–25296. Stoilov I et al. (1997). Hum Mol Genet 6: 641–647. Watanuki M et al. (1978). Biochemistry 17: 127–130.

\$296 Eicosanoid turnover

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Eicosanoid turnover

Eicosanoids are 20-carbon fatty acids, where the usual focus is the polyunsaturated analogue arachidonic acid and it's metabolites. Arachidonic acid is thought primarily to derive from phospholipase A₂ action on membrane phosphatidylcholine (see Page S302), and may be re-cycled to form phospholipid through conjugation with coenzyme A and subsequently glycerol derivatives. Oxidative metabolism of arachidonic acid is conducted through three major enzymatic routes: cyclooxygenases; lipoxygenases and cytochrome P450-like epoxygenases, particularly CYP2J2 (see Page S293). Isoprostanes are structural analogues of the prostanoids (hence the nomenclature D-, E-, F-isoprostanes and isothromboxanes), which are produced in the presence of elevated free radicals in a non-enzymatic manner, leading to suggestions for their use as biomarkers of oxidative stress. Molecular targets for their action have yet to be defined.

Cyclooxygenase (E.C. 1.14.99.1)

Overview: Prostaglandin (PG) G/H synthase, most commonly referred to as cyclooxygenase (COX, (5Z,8Z,11Z,14Z)-icosa-5,8,11,14-tetraenoate, hydrogen-donor: oxygen oxidoreductase) activity, catalyses the formation of PG G_2 from arachidonic acid. Hydroperoxidase activity inherent in the enzyme catalyses the formation of PGH $_2$ from PGG $_2$. COX-1 and -2 can be nonselectively inhibited by ibuprofen, haproxen, indometacin and paracetamol (acetaminophen). PGH $_2$ may then be metabolised to prostaglandins and thromboxanes by various prostaglandin synthases in an apparently tissue-dependent manner.

Nomenclature	COX-1	COX-2
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000095303	ENSG00000073756
Other names	Prostaglandin G ₂ /H ₂ synthase-1	Prostaglandin G ₂ /H ₂ synthase-2
Substrates	Arachidonic acid	Arachidonic acid, docosahexaenoic acid (see Smith, 2008)
Selective inhibitors	FR122047 (7.5, Ochi <i>et al.</i> , 2000), valeroylsalicylate (Bhattacharyya <i>et al.</i> , 1995)	Diclofenac (6.7), celecoxib (5.1), rofecoxib (4.3), valdecoxib, parecoxib, etoricoxib, lumiracoxib

Prostaglandin synthases

Subsequent to the formation of PGH₂, the cytochrome P450 activities (see Page S293) thromboxane synthase (CYP5A1, EC 5.3.99.5, ENSG00000059377) and prostacyclin synthase (CYP8A1, EC 5.3.99.4, ENSG00000124212) generate thromboxane A_2 and prostacyclin (PGI₂), respectively. Additionally, multiple enzyme activities are able to generate prostaglandin E_2 , prostaglandin E_2 and prostaglandin E_3 (see tables).

Nomenclature	EC	Ensembl ID	Other names
mPGES1	5.3.99.3	ENSG00000148344	Prostaglandin E synthase, microsomal glutathione S-transferase 1-like 1, MGST1-L1, p53-induced gene 12 protein, p53-induced gene 12; PIG12
mPGES2	5.3.99.3	ENSG00000148334	Prostaglandin E synthase 2, microsomal prostaglandin E synthase 2, mPGES-2
cPGES	5.3.99.3	ENSG00000110958	Cytosolic prostaglandin $\rm E_2$ synthase, prostaglandin E synthase 3, telomerase-binding protein p23, hsp90 co-chaperone, progesterone receptor complex p23
L-PGDS	5.3.99.2	ENSG00000107317	Lipocalin-type prostaglandin-D synthase, prostaglandin D_2 synthase, prostaglandin H_2 D-isomerase, glutathione-independent PGD synthetase, β -trace protein, cerebrin-28
H-PGDS	5.3.99.2	ENSG00000163106	Hematopoietic prostaglandin D synthase, glutathione-requiring prostaglandin D synthase, glutathione-dependent PGD synthetase, prostaglandin- H_2 D-isomerase

YS121 has been reported to inhibit mPGES1 and 5-LOX with a pIC50 value of 5.5 (Koeberle et al., 2008).

Prostaglandin D_2 can be metabolised to 9α , 11β -prostaglandin $F_{2\alpha}$ through the multifunctional enzyme activity AKR1C3. Prostaglandin E_2 can be metabolised to 9α , 11α -prostaglandin $F_{2\alpha}$ through the 9-ketoreductase activity of CBR1. Conversion of the 15-hydroxyeicosanoids, including prostaglandins, lipoxins and leukotrienes to their keto derivatives by the NAD-dependent enzyme HPGD leads to a reduction in their biological activity.

Nomenclature	AKR1C3	CBR1	HPGD
EC	1.1.1.188, 1.3.1.20, 1.1.1.213, 1.1.1.63, 1.1.1.64	1.1.1.197, 1.1.1.184, 1.1.1.189	1.1.1.141
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000196139	ENSG00000159228	ENSG00000164120

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Eicosanoid turnover \$297

Nomenclature	AKR1C3	CBR1	HPGD
Other names	Aldo-keto reductase family 1 member C3, prostaglandin F synthase, PGFS, trans-1,2-dihydrobenzene-1,2-diol dehydrogenase, 3α-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase type 2, 3α-HSD type 2, testosterone 17β-dehydrogenase 5, 17β-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase type 5, 17β-HSD 5, dihydrodiol dehydrogenase type I, dihydrodiol dehydrogenase 3, chlordecone reductase homolog HAKRb, HA1753	Carbonyl reductase [NADPH] 1, prostaglandin E ₂ 9-reductase, prostaglandin 9-ketoreductase, NADPH-dependent carbonyl reductase 1, 15-hydroxyprostaglandin dehydrogenase [NADP+]	15-hydroxyprostaglandii dehydrogenase (NAD)
Inhibitors	Flufenamic acid, indometacin (Matsuura <i>et al.</i> , 1998), flavonoids (Skarydova <i>et al.</i> , 2009)	-	-

Lipoxygenases (E.C. 1.13.11.-)

Overview: The lipoxygenases (LOXs) are a structurally related family of non-haem iron dioxygenases that function in the production, and in some cases metabolism, of fatty acid hydroperoxides. For arachidonic acid as substrate, these products are hydroperoxyeicosatetraenoic acids (HPETEs). In humans there are five lipoxygenases, the 5S-(arachidonate: oxygen 5-oxidoreductase), 12R-(arachidonate: 12-lipoxygenase, 12R-type), 12S-(arachidonate: oxygen 12-oxidoreductase), and two distinct 15s-(arachidonate: oxygen 15-oxidoreductase) LOXs that oxygenate arachidonic acid in different positions along the carbon chain and form the corresponding 5S-, 12S-, 12R-, or 15S-hydroperoxides, respectively. The sixth lipoxygenase member, epidermal lipoxygenase 3 (E-LOX), metabolises the product from the 12R-lipoxygenase (12R-HPETE) to a specific epoxyalcohol compound (Yu et al., 2003).

Nomenclature	5-LOX	12R-LOX	12S-LOX
E.C.	1.13.11.34	1.13.11	1.13.11.31
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000012779	ENSG00000179477	ENSG00000108839
Other names	ALOX5	ALOX12B	ALOX12, platelet-type 12-lipoxygenase
Substrates	Arachidonic acid	Methyl arachidonate	Arachidonic acid
Activators	FLAP	_	-
Selective inhibitors	Zileuton, CJ13610 (Fischer et al., 2004)	_	-

FLAP activity can be inhibited by MK886 (Dixon et al., 1990) and BAY-X1005 (Hatzelmann et al., 1993) leading to a selective inhibition of 5-LOX activity.

Nomenclature	15-LOX-1	15-LOX-2	E-LOX
E.C.	1.13.11.33	1.13.11.33	1.13.11
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000161905	ENSG00000179593	ENSG00000179148
Other names	ALOX15, arachidonate ω -6 lipoxygenase	ALOX15B	Epidermis type LOX 3
Substrates	Linoleic acid, arachidonic acid	Arachidonic acid	12 <i>R</i> -HPETE

An 8-LOX (EC 1.13.11.40, arachidonate:oxygen 8-oxidoreductase) may be the mouse orthologue of 15-LOX-2 (Furstenberger *et al.*, 2002). Some general LOX inhibitors are NDGA and esculetin. Zileuton and caffeic acid are used as 5-lipoxygenase inhibitors, while baicalein and CDC are 12-lipoxygenase inhibitors. The specificity of these inhibitors has not been rigorously assessed with all LOX forms: baicalein, along with other flavonoids, such as fisetin and luteolin, also inhibits 15-LOX-1 (Sadik *et al.*, 2003).

Leukotriene and lipoxin metabolism

Leukotriene A_4 , produced by 5-LOX activity, and lipoxins may be subject to further oxidative metabolism; ω -hydroxylation is mediated by CYP4F2 and CYP4F3 (see Page S293), while β -oxidation in mitochondria and peroxisomes proceeds in a manner dependent on coenzyme A conjugation. Conjugation of LTA $_4$ at the 6 position with reduced glutathione to generate LTC $_4$ occurs under the influence of leukotriene C_4 synthase, with the subsequent formation of LTD $_4$ and LTE $_4$, all three of which are agonists at CysLT receptors (see Page S74). LTD $_4$ formation is

\$298 Eicosanoid turnover

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

catalysed by γ -glutamyltransferase, and subsequently dipeptidase 2 removes the terminal glycine from LTD₄ to generate LTE₄. Leukotriene A₄ hydrolase converts the 5,6-epoxide LTA₄ to the 5-hydroxylated LTB₄, an agonist for BLT receptors (see Page S74). LTA₄ is also acted upon by 12S-LOX to produce the trihydroxyeicosatetraenoic acids lipoxins LXA₄ and LXB₄. Treatment with an LTA₄ hydrolase inhibitor in a murine model of allergic airway inflammation increased LXA₄ levels, in addition to reducing LTB₄, in lung lavage fluid (Rao *et al.*, 2010)

LTA₄ hydrolase is also involved in biosynthesis of resolvin Es (see Page S74). Aspirin has been reported to increase endogenous formation of 18S-hydroxyeicosapentaenoate (18S-HEPE) compared with 18R-HEPE, a resolvin precursor. Both enantiomers may be metabolised by human recombinant 5-LOX; recombinant LTA₄ hydrolase converted chiral 5S(6)-epoxide-containing intermediates to resolvin E1 and 18S-resolvin E1 (Oh *et al.*, 2011).

Nomenclature	Leukotriene C ₄ synthase	γ-Glutamyltransferase	Dipeptidase 1	Dipeptidase 2	Leukotriene A ₄ hydrolase
E.C.	4.4.1.20	2.3.2.2	2.3.2	2.3.2	3.3.2.6
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000213316	ENSG00000006625	ENSG00000015413	ENSG00000167261	ENSG00000111144
Other names	LTC4S	GGT	DPEP1	DPEP2	LTA4H
Inhibitors	-	-	Cilastatin (Koller et al., 1985)	-	Bestatin (Orning et al., 1991)

LTA4H is a member of a family of arginyl aminopeptidases (ENSFM00250000001675), which also includes aminopeptidase B (RNPEP, ENSG00000176393) and aminopeptidase B-like 1 (RNPEPL1, ENSG00000142327). Dipeptidase 1 and 2 are members of a family of membrane dipeptidases (ENSFM00250000001170), which also includes DPEP3 (ENSG00000141096) for which LTD $_4$ appears not to be a substrate.

Abbreviations: CDC, cinnamyl-3,4-dihydroxy-α-cyanocinnamate; CJ13610, 1-carboxamido-1-(3-S-[4-{2-methylimididazole}-thiophenyl])-4-cyclopentylether; esculetin, 6,7-dihydroxycoumarin; FR122047, 1-([4,5-bis{methoxyphenyl}-2-thazoyl]carbonyl)-4-methyl)piperazine hydrochloride; 12*R*-HPETE, 12*R*-hydroperoxyeicosatetraenoic acid; FLAP, 5-lipoxygenase-activating protein, also known as MK-886-binding protein (ENSG00000132965); NDGA, nordihydroguaiaretic acid

Further Reading

Austen KF (2007). Additional functions for the cysteinyl leukotrienes recognized through studies of inflammatory processes in null strains. Prostaglandins Other Lipid Mediat 83: 182–187.

Blobaum AL, Marnett LJ (2007). Structural and functional basis of cyclooxygenase inhibition. J Med Chem 50: 1425–1441.

Cha YI, DuBois RN (2007). NSAIDs and cancer prevention: targets downstream of COX-2. Annu Rev Med 58: 239–252.

Choi SH, Aid S, Bosetti F (2009). The distinct roles of cyclooxygenase-1 and -2 in neuroinflammation: implications for translational research. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 30: 174–181.

Clarke DL, Dakshinamurti S, Larsson AK, Ward JE, Yamasaki A (2009). Lipid metabolites as regulators of airway smooth muscle function. *Pulm Pharmacol Ther* 22: 426–435.

Durand T, Bultel-Ponce V, Guy A, El FS, Rossi JC, Galano JM (2011). Isoprostanes and phytoprostanes: bioactive lipids. *Biochimie* 93: 52–60. Eisinger AL, Prescott SM, Jones DA, Stafforini DM (2007). The role of cyclooxygenase-2 and prostaglandins in colon cancer. *Prostaglandins Other Lipid Mediat* 82: 147–154.

Fornai M, Antonioli L, Colucci R, Bernardini N, Ghisu N, Tuccori M *et al.* (2010). Emerging role of cyclooxygenase isoforms in the control of gastrointestinal neuromuscular functions. *Pharmacol Ther* 125: 62–78.

Furstenberger G, Epp N, Eckl KM, Hennies HC, Jorgensen C, Hallenborg P et al. (2007). Role of epidermis-type lipoxygenases for skin barrier function and adipocyte differentiation. *Prostaglandins Other Lipid Mediat* 82: 128–134.

Kang YJ, Mbonye UR, DeLong CJ, Wada M, Smith WL (2007). Regulation of intracellular cyclooxygenase levels by gene transcription and protein degradation. *Prog Lipid Res* 46: 108–125.

Murphy RC, Gijón MA (2007). Biosynthesis and metabolism of leukotrienes. Biochem J 405: 379-395.

Nikolaidis MG, Kyparos A, Vrabas IS (2011). F-isoprostane formation, measurement and interpretation: the role of exercise. *Prog Lipid Res* 50:

O'Banion MK (2010). Prostaglandin E₂ synthases in neurologic homeostasis and disease. Prostaglandins Other Lipid Mediat 91: 113–117.

Osher E, Weisinger G, Limor R, Tordjman K, Stern N (2006). The 5 lipoxygenase system in the vasculature: emerging role in health and disease. *Mol Cell Endocrinol* **252**: 201–206.

Poeckel D, Funk CD (2010). The 5-lipoxygenase/leukotriene pathway in preclinical models of cardiovascular disease. *Cardiovasc Res* **86**: 243–253. Radmark O, Samuelsson B (2007). 5-lipoxygenase: regulation and possible involvement in atherosclerosis. *Prostaglandins Other Lipid Mediat* **83**: 162–174.

Radmark O, Samuelsson B (2010). Regulation of the activity of 5-lipoxygenase, a key enzyme in leukotriene biosynthesis. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 396: 105–110.

Rinaldo-Matthis A, Haeggstrom JZ (2010). Structures and mechanisms of enzymes in the leukotriene cascade. Biochimie 92: 676-681.

Rubin P, Mollison KW (2007). Pharmacotherapy of diseases mediated by 5-lipoxygenase pathway eicosanoids. *Prostaglandins Other Lipid Mediat* 83: 188–197.

Samuelsson B, Morgenstern R, Jakobsson PJ (2007). Membrane prostaglandin E synthase-1: a novel therapeutic target. *Pharmacol Rev* **59**: 207–224. Sarkar FH, Adsule S, Li Y, Padhye S (2007). Back to the future: COX-2 inhibitors for chemoprevention and cancer therapy. *Mini Rev Med Chem* **7**: 500–608

Smith WL (2008). Nutritionally essential fatty acids and biologically indispensable cyclooxygenases. Trends Biochem Sci 33: 27-37.

Smyth EM, Grosser T, Wang M, Yu Y, FitzGerald GA (2009). Prostanoids in health and disease. J Lipid Res 50 (Suppl.), S423-S428.

Tai HH, Tong M, Ding Y (2007). 15-hydroxyprostaglandin dehydrogenase (15-PGDH) and lung cancer. *Prostaglandins Other Lipid Mediat* 83: 203–208.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Eicosanoid turnover S299

References

Bhattacharyya DK et al. (1995). Arch Biochem Biophys 317: 19–24. Dixon RA et al. (1990). Nature 343: 282-284. Fischer L et al. (2004). Br J Pharmacol 142: 861-868. Furstenberger G et al. (2002). Prostaglandins Other Lipid Mediat 68-69: 235-243.

Hatzelmann A et al. (1993). Biochem Pharmacol 45: 101–111. Koeberle A et al. (2008). J Med Chem 51: 8068-8076. Koller M et al. (1985). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 131: 974-979.

Matsuura K et al. (1998). J Biochem 124: 940–946. Ochi T et al. (2000). Eur J Pharmacol 391: 49-54. Oh SF et al. (2011). J Clin Invest 121: 569-581. Orning L et al. (1991). J Biol Chem 266: 1375-1378. Rao NL et al. (2010). Am J Respir Crit Care Med 181: 899-907. Sadik CD et al. (2003). Biochem Pharmacol 65: 773-781. Skarydova L et al. (2009). Chem Biol Interact 178: 138-144. Yu Z et al. (2003). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 100: 9162-9167.

\$300 Endocannabinoid turnover Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Endocannabinoid turnover

Overview: the principle endocannabinoids are 2-arachidonoylglycerol (2AG) and anandamide (*N*-arachidonoylethanolamine, AEA), thought to be generated on demand rather than stored. For 2AG, the key enzyme involved is diacylglycerol lipase (DGL), whilst several routes for AEA synthesis have been described, the best characterized of which involves *N*-acylphosphatidylethanolamine-phospholipase D (NAPE-PLD, see Simon and Cravatt, 2010). Inactivation of these endocannabinoids appears to occur predominantly through monoacylglycerol lipase (MGL) and fatty acid amide hydrolase (FAAH) for 2AG and AEA, respectively. *In vitro* experiments indicate that the endocannabinoids are also substrates for oxidative metabolism via cyclooxygenase, lipoxygenase and cytochrome P450 enzyme activities (see Alexander and Kendall, 2007; Fowler, 2007, Snider *et al.*, 2010).

Nomenclature	Diacylglycerol lipase α	Diacylglycerol lipase β	N-Acylphosphatidylethanolamine-phospholipase D
Preferred abbreviation	DGLlpha	DGLβ	NAPE-PLD
E.C.	3.1.1	3.1.1	_
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000134780	ENSG00000164535	ENSG00000161048
Other names	Neural stem cell-derived dendrite regulator	KCCR13L	-
Selective inhibitors (pIC₅₀)	Tetrahydrolipstatin (7.2, Bisogno <i>et al.</i> , 2003), RHC80267	Tetrahydrolipstatin (7.0, Bisogno <i>et al.</i> , 2003), RHC80267	-

NAPE-PLD activity appears to be enhanced by polyamines in the physiological range (Liu *et al.*, 2002), but fails to transphosphatidylate with alcohols (Petersen and Hansen, 1999) unlike phosphatidylcholine-specific phospholipase D.

Nomenclature	Monoacylglycerol lipase	Fatty acid amide hydrolase-1	Fatty acid amide hydrolase-2	N-Acylethanolamine acid amidase
Preferred abbreviation	MGL	FAAH	FAAH2	NAAA
E.C.	3.1.1.23	3.5.1	3.5.1	3.5.1
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000074416	ENSG00000117480	ENSG00000165591	ENSG00000138744
Other names	HU-K5, lysophospholipase homolog	Oleamide hydrolase, anandamide hydrolase, FAAH1	-	Acid ceramidase-like protein, <i>N</i> -acylsphingosine amidohydrolase-like, N-palmitoylethanolamine acid amidase
Substrate potency order	2OG = 2AG >> AEA (Ghafouri <i>et al.</i> , 2004)	AEA > ODA > OEA > PEA (Wei <i>et al.,</i> 2006)	ODA > OEA > AEA > PEA (Wei <i>et al.,</i> 2006)	PEA > MEA > SEA \geq OEA > AEA (Ueda <i>et al.</i> , 2001)
Selective inhibitors (pIC_{50})	JZL184 (8.1, Long <i>et al.</i> , 2009)	PF3845 (6.6, Ahn et al., 2009), PF750 (6.3-7.8, Ahn et al., 2007), JNJ1661010 (7.8, Keith et al., 2008), URB597 (6.3-7.0, Wei et al., 2006), OL135 (7.4, Wei et al., 2006)	URB597 (7.5-8.3, Wei et al., 2006), OL135 (7.9, Wei et al., 2006)	CCP (5.3, Tsuboi <i>et al.</i> , 2004)

Many of the compounds described as inhibitors are irreversible and so potency estimates will vary with incubation time. FAAH2 is not found in rodents (Wei *et al.*, 2006). 2AG has been reported to be hydrolysed by multiple enzyme activities from neural preparations, including ABHD6 (ENSG00000163686, Blankman *et al.*, 2007), ABHD12 (ENSG00000100997, Blankman *et al.*, 2007), neuropathy target esterase (PNPLA6, ENSG00000032444, Marrs *et al.*, 2010) and carboxylesterase 1 (CES1, ENSG00000198848, Xie *et al.*, 2010). Although these have been incompletely defined, WWL70 has been described to inhibit ABHD6 selectively with a pIC_{50} value of 7.2 (Li *et al.*, 2007).

Abbreviations: 2AG, 2-arachidonoylglycerol; 2OG, 2-oleoylglycerol; AEA, anandamide; CCP, N-cyclohexylcarbonylpentadecylamine; DGL, diacylglycerol lipase; FAAH, fatty acid amide hydrolase; JNJ1661010, 4-(3-phenyl-[1,2,4] thiadiazol-5-yl)-piperazine-1-carboxylic acid phenylamide; JZL184, 4-nitrophenyl 4-(dibenzo[d][1,3]dioxol-5-yl(hydroxy)methyl)piperidine-1-carboxylate; MGL, monoacylglycerol lipase; MEA, N-myristoylethanolamine; NAAA, N-acylethanolamine acid amidase; NAPE-PLD, N-acylphosphatidylethanolamine-phospholipase D; ODA, octadec(9,10z)enamide; OEA, N-oleoylethanolamine OL135, 1-oxo-1-[5-(2-pyridyl)oxazol-2-yl]-7-phenylheptane; PEA, N-palmitoylethanolamine; PF3845, 4-(3-[5-{trifluoromethyl}pyridin-2-yloxy]benzyl)-N-(pyridin-3-yl)piperidine-1-carboxamide; PF750, N-stearoylethanolamine; URB597, cyclohexyl carbamic acid 3'-carbamoyl-biphenyl-3-yl ester; WWL70, 4'-carbamoylbiphenyl-4-yl methyl(3-(pyridin-4-yl)benzyl)carbamate

Further Reading

Alexander SPH, Kendall DA (2007). The complications of promiscuity: endocannabinoid action and metabolism. *Br J Pharmacol* **152**: 602–623. Bisogno T (2008). Endogenous cannabinoids: structure and metabolism. *J Neuroendocrinol* **20**: 1–9.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Endocannabinoid turnover \$301

Di Marzo V, Bisogno T, De Petrocellis L (2007). Endocannabinoids and related compounds: walking back and forth between plant natural products and animal physiology. *Chem Biol* 14: 741–756.

Di Marzo V, Petrosino S (2007). Endocannabinoids and the regulation of their levels in health and disease. *Curr Opin Lipidol* 18: 129–140. Farrell EK, Merkler DJ (2008). Biosynthesis, degradation and pharmacological importance of the fatty acid amides. *Drug Discov Today* 13: 558–568.

Fowler CJ (2007). The contribution of cyclooxygenase-2 to endocannabinoid metabolism and action. Br J Pharmacol 152: 594-601.

Fowler CJ, Naidu PS, Lichtman A, Onnis V (2009). The case for the development of novel analgesic agents targeting both fatty acid amide hydrolase and either cyclooxygenase or TRPV1. *Br J Pharmacol* **156**: 412–419.

Hwang J, Adamson C, Butler D, Janero DR, Makriyannis A, Bahr BA (2010). Enhancement of endocannabinoid signaling by fatty acid amide hydrolase inhibition: a neuroprotective therapeutic modality. *Life Sci* 86: 615–623.

Savinainen JR, Saario SM, Laitinen JT (2011). The serine hydrolases MAGL, ABHD6 and ABHD12 as guardians of 2-arachidonoylglycerol signalling through cannabinoid receptors. *Acta Physiol (Oxf)* in press.

Simon GM, Cravatt BF (2010). Characterization of mice lacking candidate *N*-acyl ethanolamine biosynthetic enzymes provides evidence for multiple pathways that contribute to endocannabinoid production *in vivo*. *Mol Biosyst* 6: 1411–1418.

Snider NT, Walker VJ, Hollenberg PF (2010). Oxidation of the endogenous cannabinoid arachidonoyl ethanolamide by the cytochrome P450 monooxygenases: physiological and pharmacological implications. *Pharmacol Rev* **62**: 136–154.

Wang J, Ueda N (2009). Biology of endocannabinoid synthesis system. Prostaglandins Other Lipid Mediat 89: 112-119.

Yates ML, Barker EL (2009). Inactivation and biotransformation of the endogenous cannabinoids anandamide and 2-arachidonoylglycerol. *Mol Pharmacol* 76: 11–17.

References

Ahn K et al. (2007). Biochemistry 46: 13019–13030. Ahn K et al. (2009). Chem Biol 16: 411–420. Bisogno T et al. (2003). J Cell Biol 163: 463–468. Blankman JL et al. (2007). Chem Biol 14: 1347–1356. Ghafouri N et al. (2004). Br J Pharmacol 143: 774–784. Keith JM et al. (2008). Bioorg Med Chem Lett 18: 4838–4843. Li W et al. (2007). J Am Chem Soc 129: 9594–9595. Liu Q et al. (2002). Chem Phys Lipids 115: 77–84. Long JZ et al. (2009). Nat Chem Biol 5: 37–44. Marrs WR et al. (2010). Nat Neurosci 13: 951–957. Petersen G, Hansen HS (1999). FEBS Lett 455: 41–44. Tsuboi K et al. (2004). Biochem J 379: 99–106. Ueda N et al. (2001). J Biol Chem 276: 35552–35557. Wei BQ et al. (2006). J Biol Chem 281: 36569–36578. Xie SQ et al. (2010). Chem Res Toxicol 23: 1890–1904.

Glycerophospholipid turnover

Overview: phospholipids are the basic barrier components of membranes in eukaryotic cells divided into glycerophospholipids (phosphatidic acid, phosphatidylethanolamine, phosphatidylcholine, phosphatidylserine, phosphatidylinositol and it's phosphorylated derivatives) and sphingolipids (ceramide phosphorylcholine and ceramide phosphorylethanolamine).

Phosphoinositide-specific phospholipase C (E.C. 3.1.4.11)

Overview: Phosphoinositide-specific phospholipase C (PLC) catalyses the hydrolysis of phosphatidylinositol 4,5-bisphosphate to inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate and 1,2-diacylglycerol, each of which have major second messenger functions. Two domains, X and Y, essential for catalytic activity, are conserved in the different forms of PLC. Isoforms of PLC-β (ENSF00000000466) are activated primarily by G protein-coupled receptors through members of the $G_{q/11}$ family of G proteins. The receptor-mediated activation of PLC- γ involves their phosphorylation by receptor tyrosine kinases (RTK, see Page S203) in response to activation of a variety of growth factor receptors and immune system receptors. PLC- $\varepsilon 1$ may represent a point of convergence of signalling via both G protein-coupled and catalytic receptors. Ca²⁺ ions are required for catalytic activity of PLC isoforms and have been suggested to be the major physiological form of regulation of PLC- δ activity. PLC has been suggested to be activated non-selectively by the small molecule m-3M3FBS (Bae et al., 2003), although this mechanism of action has been questioned (Krjukova et al., 2004). The aminosteroid U73122 has been described as an inhibitor of phosphoinositide-specific PLC (Smith et al., 1990), although its selectivity among the isoforms is untested and it has been reported to occupy the H₁ histamine receptor (Hughes et al., 2000).

					ı
Nomenclature	PLC <i>β</i> 1	PLC <i>β</i> 2	$PLC\beta3$	PLC <i>β</i> 4	l
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000182621	ENSG00000137841	ENSG00000149782	ENSG00000101333	l
Other names	PLC-I, PLC-154, KIAA0581	_	_	-	l
Endogenous activators	$G\alpha q$ (Smrcka <i>et al.</i> , 1991; Hepler <i>et al.</i> , 1993), $G\alpha 11$ (Hepler <i>et al.</i> , 1993), $G\beta \gamma$ (Park <i>et al.</i> , 1993)	G α 16 (Lee <i>et al.</i> , 1992), G $\beta\gamma$ (Camps <i>et al.</i> , 1992; Park <i>et al.</i> , 1993), rac2 (Illenberger <i>et al.</i> , 2003a,b)	Gαq (Lee et al., 1992), G $βγ$ (Carozzi et al., 1993; Park et al., 1993)	Gαq (Jhon <i>et al.</i> , 1993)	

Nomenclature	PLCγ1	PLCγ2	PLC δ 1	PLC <i>δ</i> 3	PLC <i>δ</i> 4
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000124181	ENSG00000197943	ENSG00000187091	ENSG00000161714	ENSG00000115556
Other names	PLC-II, PLC-148	PLC-IV	PLC-III	-	-
Endogenous activators	PIP ₃ (Bae <i>et al.,</i> 1998)	PIP ₃ (Bae <i>et al.</i> , 1998)	Transglutaminase II (Murthy et al., 1999), p122-RhoGAP (Homma and Emori, 1995), spermine (Haber et al., 1991), $G\beta\gamma$ (Park et al., 1993)	-	-
Inhibitors	-	Rac1, rac2, rac3 (Piechulek <i>et al.</i> , 2005; Walliser <i>et al.</i> , 2008)	Sphingomyelin (Pawelczyk and Lowenstein, 1992)	-	-

PLC-δ2 has been cloned from bovine sources (Meldrum et al., 1991).

П					
١	Nomenclature	PLC <i>ε</i> 1	PLC <i>ζ</i> 1	PLCη1	PLCη2
١	Ensembl ID	ENSG00000138193	ENSG00000139151	ENSG00000114805	ENSG00000149527
	Other names	Pancreas-enriched PLC	Testis-development protein NYD-SP27	_	-
	Endogenous activators	Ras (Song <i>et al.</i> , 2001), Rho (Wing <i>et al.</i> , 2003)	-	-	Gβγ (Zhou <i>et al.</i> , 2005)

A series of PLC-like proteins (PLCL1 ENSG00000115896; PLCL2 ENSG00000154822 and PLCL3 ENSG00000114805) form a family (ENSF0000000386) with PLC δ and PLC ζ 1 isoforms, but appear to lack catalytic activity.

Phospholipase A₂ (E.C. 3.1.1.4)

Overview: Phospholipase A_2 (PLA₂) cleaves the sn-2 fatty acid of glycero phospholipids, primarily phosphatidylcholine, to generate lysophosphatidylcholine and arachidonic acid. Most commonly-used inhibitors (e.g. BEL, ATFMK or MAFP) are either non-selective within the family of phospholipase A_2 enzymes or have activity against other eicosanoid-metabolising enzymes.

Secreted or extracellular forms

Nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names
sPLA ₂ -1B	ENSG00000170890	GIB, pancreatic PLA ₂
sPLA ₂ -2A	ENSG00000188257	GIIA, GIIC sPLA2, non-pancreatic secretory phospholipase A2, NPS-PLA2, synovial PLA2
sPLA ₂ -2D	ENSG00000117215	GIID, GIID sPLA ₂ , secretory-type PLA ₂ , stroma-associated homolog
sPLA ₂ -2E	ENSG00000188784	GIIE, GIIE sPLA ₂
sPLA ₂ -2F	ENSG00000158786	GIIF, GIIF sPLA ₂
sPLA ₂ -3	ENSG00000100078	GIII, GIII sPLA ₂
sPLA ₂ -10	ENSG00000069764	GX, GX sPLA2
sPLA ₂ -12A	ENSG00000123739	GXIIA, GXII sPLA2

PLA₂-2C (ENSG00000187980) may be a pseudogene, while PLA₂-12B (GXIIB, GXIII sPLA₂-like, ENSG00000138308) appears to be catalytically inactive (Rouault *et al.*, 2003). A further fragment has been identified with sequence similarities to Group II PLA₂ members (ENSG00000187980).

A binding protein for secretory phospholipase A_2 has been identified (ENSG00000153246) which shows modest selectivity for sPLA₂-1B over sPLA₂-2A, and also binds snake toxin phospholipase A_2 (Ancian *et al.*, 1995). The binding protein appears to have clearance function for circulating secretory phospholipase A_2 , as well as signalling functions, and is a candidate antigen for idiopathic membraneous nephropathy (Beck *et al.*, 2009).

Cytosolic, calcium-dependent forms

Nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names
cPLA ₂ -4A	ENSG00000116711	GIVA, Calcium-dependent PLA2, cytosolic phospholipase A2 α
cPLA ₂ -4B	ENSG00000168970	GIVB, cytosolic phospholipase A_2 β
cPLA ₂ -4C	ENSG00000105499	GIVC, cytosolic phospholipase A_2 γ
cPLA ₂ -4D	ENSG00000159337	GIVD, cytosolic phospholipase A_2 δ
cPLA ₂ -4E	ENSG00000188089	GIVE, cytosolic phospholipase A_2 ϵ
cPLA ₂ -4F	ENSG00000168907	GIVF, cytosolic phospholipase A_2 ζ

cPLA₂-4A also expresses lysophospholipase (EC 3.1.1.5) activity (Sharp et al., 1994).

Other forms

Nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names
PLA ₂ -G5	ENSG00000127472	GV, PLA ₂ -10
iPLA ₂ -G6	ENSG00000184381	GVI, 85 kDa Ca ²⁺ -independent, iPLA ₂ , PNPLA9
PLA ₂ -G7	ENSG00000146070	GVII, LDL-associated phospholipase A ₂

 PLA_2 -G7 and a close homologue (HSD-PLA2, also known as serine-dependent phospholipase A2, PAFAH2, ENSG00000158006) also express platelet-activating factor acetylhydrolase activity (EC 3.1.1.47). Otoconin 90 (OC90, ENSG00000132297) shows sequence homology to PLA_2 -G10.

Phosphatidylcholine-specific phospholipase D (E.C. 3.1.4.4)

Overview: Phosphatidylcholine-specific phospholipase D (PLD, ENSF00000001451) catalyses the formation of phosphatidic acid from phosphatidylcholine. In addition, the enzyme can make use of alcohols, such as butanol in a transphosphatidylation reaction (Randall *et al.*, 1990).

- 1			
	Nomenclature	PLD1	PLD2
-	Ensembl ID	ENSG00000075651	ENSG00000129219
١	Other names	Choline phosphatase 1	Choline phosphatase 2
	Endogenous activators	ARF, PIP ₂ , RhoA, PKC-evoked phosphorylation (Hammond <i>et al.</i> , 1997), RalA (Luo <i>et al.</i> , 1997)	ARF, PIP ₂ (Lopez et al., 1998), oleic acid (Sarri et al., 2003)
١	Endogenous inhibitors	Gβγ (Preininger <i>et al.</i> , 2006)	Gβγ (Preininger <i>et al.</i> , 2006)
	Selective inhibitors	-	VU0364739 (pIC ₅₀ 7.7, Lavieri <i>et al.</i> , 2010)

A lysophospholipase D activity (ENPP2, ENSG00000136960, also known as ectonucleotide pyrophosphatase/phosphodiesterase 2, phosphodiesterase I, nucleotide pyrophosphatase 2, autotaxin) has been described, which not only catalyses the production of lysophosphatidic acid from lysophosphatidylcholine, but also cleaves ATP (see Goding *et al.*, 2003). Additionally, an *N*-acylethanolamine-specific phospholipase D (NAPE-PLD, ENSG00000161048) has been characterized, which appears to have a role in the generation of endocannabinoids/endovanilloids (see Page S300), including anandamide (Okamoto *et al.*, 2004). This enzyme activity appears to be enhanced by polyamines in the physiological range (Liu *et al.*, 2002) and fails to transphosphatidylate with alcohols (Petersen and Hansen, 1999).

Lipid phosphate phosphatases (E.C. 3.1.3.4)

Overview: Lipid phosphate phosphatases, divided into phosphatidic acid phosphatases (ENSFM00260000050433) or lipins (ENSFM00250000001227), catalyse the dephosphorylation of phosphatidic acid to generate inorganic phosphate and diacylglycerol.

Nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names
Lipin1	ENSG00000134324	-
Lipin2	ENSG00000101577	-
Lipin3	ENSG00000132793	SMP2
PPA2A	ENSG00000067113	LPP1
PPA2B	ENSG00000162407	LPP3
PPA3A	ENSG00000141934	LPP2

Abbreviations: m-3M3FBS, 2,4,6-trimethyl-N-(meta-3-trifluoromethylphenyl)-benzenesulphonamide; ARF, ADP-ribosylation factor; ATFMK, arachidonoyltrifluoromethylketone; BEL, bromoenolactone; MAFP, methylarachidonoylflurophosphonate; NAPE-PLD, N-acylethanolamine-specific phospholipase D; PIP₂, phosphatidylinositol 4,5-bisphosphate; PIP₃, phosphatidylinositol 3,4,5-trisphosphate; PKC, protein kinase C; U73122, 1-(6-[{(17 β)-3-methoxyestra-1,3,5[10]-trien-17-yl}amino]hexyl)-1H-pyrrole-2,5-dione; VU0364739, N-[2-[4-(3-fluorophenyl)-1-oxo-2,4,8-triazaspiro[4.5]decan-8-yl]ethyl]naphthalene-2-carboxamide;

Further Reading

Bader MF, Vitale N (2009). Phospholipase D in calcium-regulated exocytosis: lessons from chromaffin cells. *Biochim Biophys Acta* **1791**: 936–941. Balla T (2009). Regulation of Ca²⁺ entry by inositol lipids in mammalian cells by multiple mechanisms. *Cell Calcium* **45**: 527–534. Berridge MJ (2009). Inositol trisphosphate and calcium signalling mechanisms. *Biochim Biophys Acta* **1793**: 933–940.

Birts CN, Barton CH, Wilton DC (2010). Catalytic and non-catalytic functions of human IIA phospholipase A₂. *Trends Biochem Sci* **35**: 28–35. van den Bout I, Divecha N (2009). PIP5K-driven PtdIns(4,5)P₂ synthesis: regulation and cellular functions. *J Cell Sci* **122**: 3837–3850.

Brindley DN, Pilquil C (2009). Lipid phosphate phosphatases and signaling. J Lipid Res 50: S225-S230.

Brindley DN, Pilquil C, Sariahmetoglu M, Reue K (2009). Phosphatidate degradation: phosphatidate phosphatases (lipins) and lipid phosphate phosphatases. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1791: 956–961.

Bunney TD, Baxendale RW, Katan M (2009). Regulatory links between PLC enzymes and Ras superfamily GTPases: signalling via PLCE. Adv Enzyme Regul 49: 54–58.

Bunney TD, Katan M (2010). Phosphoinositide signalling in cancer: beyond PI3K and PTEN. Nat Rev Cancer 10: 342-352.

Burke JE, Dennis EA (2009). Phospholipase A2 structure/function, mechanism, and signaling. J Lipid Res 50 (Suppl.): S237–S242.

Cocco L, Faenza I, Follo MY, Billi AM, Ramazzotti G, Papa V et al. (2009). Nuclear inositides: PI-PLC signaling in cell growth, differentiation and pathology. Adv Enzyme Regul 49: 2–10.

Donaldson JG (2009). Phospholipase D in endocytosis and endosomal recycling pathways. Biochim Biophys Acta 1791: 845-849.

Drin G, Scarlata S (2007). Stimulation of phospholipase $C\beta$ by membrane interactions, interdomain movement, and G protein binding. How many ways can you activate an enzyme? *Cell Signal* 19: 1383–1392.

Falkenburger BH, Jensen JB, Dickson EJ, Suh BC, Hille B (2010). Phosphoinositides: lipid regulators of membrane proteins. *J Physiol* 588: 3179–3185.

Fukami K, Inanobe S, Kanemaru K, Nakamura Y (2010). Phospholipase C is a key enzyme regulating intracellular calcium and modulating the phosphoinositide balance. *Prog Lipid Res* **49**: 429–437.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Glycerophospholipid turnover \$305

Harden TK, Hicks SN, Sondek J (2009). Phospholipase C isozymes as effectors of Ras superfamily GTPases. *J Lipid Res* **50**: S243–S248. Hooks SB, Cummings BS (2008). Role of Ca²⁺-independent phospholipase A₂ in cell growth and signaling. *Biochem Pharmacol* **76**: 1059–1067. Khalil MB, Blais A, Figeys D, Yao Z (2010). Lipin – The bridge between hepatic glycerolipid biosynthesis and lipoprotein metabolism. *Biochim Biophys Acta* **1801**: 1249–1259.

Lambeau G, Gelb MH (2008). Biochemistry and physiology of mammalian secreted phospholipases A2. Annu Rev Biochem 77: 495-520.

Lee JC, Simonyi A, Sun AY, Sun GY (2011). Phospholipases A₂ and neural membrane dynamics: implications for Alzheimer's disease. *J Neurochem* 116: 813–819.

Mallat Z, Lambeau G, Tedgui A (2010). Lipoprotein-associated and secreted phospholipases A₂ in cardiovascular disease: roles as biological effectors and biomarkers. *Circulation* 122: 2183–2200.

Mansfeld J, Ulbrich-Hofmann R (2009). Modulation of phospholipase D activity in vitro. Biochim Biophys Acta 1791: 913-926.

Nevalainen TJ, Graham GG, Scott KF (2008). Antibacterial actions of secreted phospholipases A₂. Biochim Biophys Acta 1781: 1-9.

Oude Weernink PA, Han L, Jakobs KH, Schmidt M (2007). Dynamic phospholipid signaling by G protein-coupled receptors. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1768: 888–900.

Oude Weernink PA, de Lopez JM, Schmidt M (2007). Phospholipase D signaling: orchestration by PIP₂ and small GTPases. *Naunyn Schmiedebergs Arch Pharmacol* **374**: 399–411.

Pyne S, Lee SC, Long J, Pyne NJ (2009). Role of sphingosine kinases and lipid phosphate phosphatases in regulating spatial sphingosine 1-phosphate signalling in health and disease. *Cell Signal* 21: 14–21.

Qin H, Zheng X, Zhong X, Shetty AK, Elias PM, Bollag WB (2011). Aquaporin-3 in keratinocytes and skin: its role and interaction with phospholipase D2. *Arch Biochem Biophys* 508: 138–143.

Rosa AO, Rapoport SI (2009). Intracellular- and extracellular-derived Ca²⁺ influence phospholipase A₂-mediated fatty acid release from brain phospholipids. *Biochim Biophys Acta* **1791**: 697–705.

Samadi N, Bekele R, Capatos D, Venkatraman G, Sariahmetoglu M, Brindley DN (2011). Regulation of lysophosphatidate signaling by autotaxin and lipid phosphate phosphatases with respect to tumor progression, angiogenesis, metastasis and chemo-resistance. *Biochimie* 93: 61–70.

Scott SA, Selvy PE, Buck JR et al (2009). Design of isoform-selective phospholipase D inhibitors that modulate cancer cell invasiveness. *Nat Chem Biol* 5: 108–117.

Shayman JA, Kelly R, Kollmeyer J, He Y, Abe A (2011). Group XV phospholipase A₂, a lysosomal phospholipase A. *Prog Lipid Res* **50**: 1–13. Su W, Yeku O, Olepu S et al (2009). 5-Fluoro-2-indolyl des-chlorohalopemide (FIPI), a phospholipase D pharmacological inhibitor that alters cell spreading and inhibits chemotaxis. *Mol Pharmacol* **75**: 437–446.

Suh PG, Park JI, Manzoli L et al (2008). Multiple roles of phosphoinositide-specific phospholipase C isozymes. BMB Rep 41: 415–434.

Tsui MM, York JD (2010). Roles of inositol phosphates and inositol pyrophosphates in development, cell signaling and nuclear processes. *Adv Enzyme Regul* **50**: 324–337.

Zhang Y, Du G (2009). Phosphatidic acid signaling regulation of Ras superfamily of small guanosine triphosphatases. *Biochim Biophys Acta* **1791**: 850–855

Zhao Y, Natarajan V (2009). Lysophosphatidic acid signaling in airway epithelium: role in airway inflammation and remodeling. *Cell Signal* 21: 367–377.

References

Ancian P et al. (1995). Biochemistry 34: 13146–13151.
Bae YS et al. (1998). J Biol Chem 273: 4465–4469.
Bae YS et al. (2003). Mol Pharmacol 63: 1043.
Beck LH et al. (2009). N Engl J Med 361: 11–21.
Camps M et al. (1992). Nature 360: 684–686.
Carozzi A et al. (1993). FEBS Lett 315: 340–342.
Goding JW et al. (2003). Biochim Biophys Acta 1638: 1–19.
Haber MT et al. (1991). Arch Biochem Biophys 288: 243–249.
Hammond SM et al. (1997). J Biol Chem 272: 3860–3868.
Hepler JR et al. (1993). J Biol Chem 268: 14367–14375.
Homma Y, Emori Y (1995). EMBO J 14: 286–291.
Hughes SA et al. (2000). Naunyn-Schmiedeberg's Arch Pharmacol 362: 555–558.
Illenberger D et al. (2003a). J Biol Chem 278: 3006–3014.

Illenberger D et al. (2003a). J Biol Chem 278: 3006–3014. Illenberger D et al. (2003b). J Biol Chem 278: 8645–8652. Jhon D-Y et al. (1993). J Biol Chem 268: 6654–6661. Krjukova J et al. (2004). Br J Pharmacol 143: 3–7. Lavieri RR et al. (2010). J Med Chem 53: 6706–6719. Lee CH et al. (1992). J Biol Chem 267: 16044–16047. Liu Q et al. (2002). Chem Phys Lipids 115: 77–84. Lopez I et al. (1998). J Biol Chem 273: 12846–12852.

Luo JQ et al. (1997). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 235: 854–859. Meldrum E et al. (1991). Eur J Biochem 196: 159–165. Murthy SNP et al. (1999). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 96: 11815–11819. Okamoto Y et al. (2004). J Biol Chem 279: 5298–5305. Park D et al. (1993). J Biol Chem 268: 4573–4576. Pawelczyk T, Lowenstein JM (1992). Arch Biochem Biophys 297: 328–333.

Petersen G, Hansen HS (1999). FEBS Lett 455: 41–44. Piechulek T et al. (2005). J Biol Chem 280: 38923–38931. Preininger AM et al. (2006). Mol Pharmacol 70: 311–318. Randall RW et al. (1990). FEBS Lett 264: 87–90. Rouault M et al. (2003). Biochemistry 42: 11494–11503. Sarri E et al. (2003). Biochem J 369: 319–329. Sharp JD et al. (1994). J Biol Chem 269: 23250–23254. Smith RJ et al. (1990). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 253: 688–697. Smrcka AV et al. (1991). Science 251: 804–807. Song C et al. (2001). J Biol Chem 276: 2752–2757. Walliser C et al (2008). J Biol Chem 283: 30351–30362. Wing MR et al. (2003). Mol Interv 3: 273–280.

Zhou Y et al. (2005). Biochem J 391: 667-676.

Haem oxygenase (EC 1.14.99.3)

Overview: Haem oxygenase (heme,hydrogen-donor:oxygen oxidoreductase (α -methene-oxidizing, hydroxylating)) converts haem into biliverdin and carbon monoxide, utilizing NADPH as cofactor.

Nomenclature Haem oxygenase 1 Haem oxygenase 2

Preferred abbreviation HO1 HO2

Ensembl IDENSG00000100292ENSG00000103415Other namesInducible form, HMOX1, hsp32Constitutive form, HMOX2

The existence of a third non-catalytic version of haem oxygenase, HO3, has been proposed, although this has been suggested to be a pseudogene (Havashi *et al.*, 2004).

Tin protoporphyrin IX acts as a haem oxygenase inhibitor in rat liver with an IC₅₀ value of 11 nM (Drummond and Kappas, 1981).

Further Reading

Abraham NG, Kappas A (2008). Pharmacological and clinical aspects of heme oxygenase. Pharmacol Rev 60: 79-127.

Bilban M, Haschemi A, Wegiel B et al (2008). Heme oxygenase and carbon monoxide initiate homeostatic signaling. *J Mol Med* 86: 267–279. Chan KH, Ng MK, Stocker R (2011). Haem oxygenase-1 and cardiovascular disease: mechanisms and therapeutic potential. *Clin Sci (Lond)* 120: 493–504.

Dulak J, Deshane J, Jozkowicz A, Agarwal A (2008). Heme oxygenase-1 and carbon monoxide in vascular pathobiology: focus on angiogenesis. *Circulation* 117: 231–241.

Gozzelino R, Jeney V, Soares MP (2010). Mechanisms of cell protection by heme oxygenase-1. Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol 50: 323-354.

Kim HP, Pae HO, Back SH, Chung SW, Woo JM, Son Y et al. (2011). Heme oxygenase-1 comes back to endoplasmic reticulum. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 404: 1–5.

Larsen K, Cheng C, Duckers HJ (2010). Regulation of vulnerable plaque development by the heme oxygenase/carbon monoxide system. *Trends Cardiovasc Med* 20: 58–65.

Paine A, Eiz-Vesper B, Blasczyk R, Immenschuh S (2010). Signaling to heme oxygenase-1 and its anti-inflammatory therapeutic potential. *Biochem Pharmacol* 80: 1895–1903.

Soares MP, Marguti I, Cunha A, Larsen R (2009). Immunoregulatory effects of HO-1: how does it work? *Curr Opin Pharmacol* 9: 482–489. Syapin PJ (2008). Regulation of haeme oxygenase-1 for treatment of neuroinflammation and brain disorders. *Br J Pharmacol* 155: 623–640.

Zhu Y, Silverman RB (2008). Revisiting heme mechanisms. A perspective on the mechanisms of nitric oxide synthase (NOS), Heme oxygenase (HO), and cytochrome P450s (CYP450s). *Biochemistry* 47: 2231–2243.

References

Drummond GS, Kappas A (1981). *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **78**: 6466–6470. Hayashi S *et al* (2004). *Gene* **336**: 241–250.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Hydrogen sulphide synthesis S307

Hydrogen sulphide synthesis

Overview: Hydrogen sulfide is a putative gasotransmitter, with similarities to nitric oxide and carbon monoxide. Although the enzymes indicated have multiple enzymatic activities, the focus of this table is the generation of hydrogen sulfide and the enzymatic characteristics are described accordingly.

Nomenclature	Cystathionine β-synthase	Cystathionine γ-lyase	L-Cysteine:2-oxoglutarate aminotransferase	3-Mercaptopyruvate sulfurtransferase
Preferred abbreviation	CBS	CSE	CAT	MPST
EC number	4.2.1.22	4.4.1.1	4.4.1.13	2.8.1.2
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000160200	ENSG00000116761	ENSG00000171097	ENSG00000128309
Other names	Serine sulfhydrase, β-thionase	CGL, γ-cystathioninase, CTH	Kynurenine:2-oxoglutarate transaminase (EC 2.6.1.7), glutamine-phnylpyruvate transaminase (EC 2.6.1.64), cysteine transaminase, cysteine aminotransferase	-
Cofactor/s	Pyridoxal phosphate	Pyridoxal phosphate	Pyridoxal phosphate	Zinc
Substrates (K _m)	Cysteine (6 mM, Chen et al., 2004), homocysteine	Cysteine	Cysteine	3-Mercaptopyruvate (1.2 mM,Nagahara <i>et al.,</i> 1995)
Products Inhibitors	Cystathionine Aminooxyacetic acid	Pyruvate, ammonia Propargylglycine	Pyruvate, ammonia	Pyruvate

Further Reading

d'Emmanuele di Villa Bianca R, Sorrentino R, Mirone V, Cirino G (2011). Hydrogen sulfide and erectile function: a novel therapeutic target. *Nat Rev Urol* 8: 286–289.

Kimura H (2011). Hydrogen sulfide: its production, release and functions. Amino Acids 41: 113-121.

- Li L, Moore PK (2008). Putative biological roles of hydrogen sulfide in health and disease: a breath of not so fresh air? *Trends Pharmacol Sci* **29**: 84–90.
- Li L, Hsu A, Moore PK (2009). Actions and interactions of nitric oxide, carbon monoxide and hydrogen sulphide in the cardiovascular system and in inflammation a tale of three gases! *Pharmacol Ther* 123: 386–400.
- Li L, Rose P, Moore PK (2011). Hydrogen sulfide and cell signaling. Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol 51: 169-187.
- Mancardi D, Penna C, Merlino A, del Soldato P, Wink DA, Pagliaro P (2009). Physiological and pharmacological features of the novel gasotransmitter: hydrogen sulfide. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1787: 864–872.
- Martelli A, Testai L, Breschi MC, Blandizzi C, Virdis A, Taddei S et al. (2010). Hydrogen sulphide: novel opportunity for drug discovery. *Med Res Rev* in press.
- Mustafa AK, Gadalla MM, Snyder SH (2009). Signaling by gasotransmitters. Sci Signal 2: re2.
- Olson KR (2009). Is hydrogen sulfide a circulating 'gasotransmitter' in vertebrate blood? Biochim Biophys Acta 1787: 856-863.
- Olson KR (2011). The therapeutic potential of hydrogen sulfide: separating hype from hope. Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol 301: R297–R312.

References

Chen X *et al.* (2004). *J Biol Chem* **279**: 52082–52086. Nagahara N *et al.* (1995). *J Biol Chem* **270**: 16230–16235.

Inositol phosphate turnover

Overview: the sugar alcohol D-myo-inositol is a component of the phosphatidylinositol signalling cycle (see Page S302), where the principal second messenger is inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate, IP₃, which acts at intracellular ligand-gated ion channels, IP₃ receptors (see Page S157) to elevate intracellular calcium. IP₃ is recycled to inositol by phosphatases or phosphorylated to form other active inositol polyphosphates. Inositol produced from dephosphorylation of IP₃ is recycled into membrane phospholipid under the influence of phosphatidyinositol synthase activity (CDP-diacylglycerol-inositol 3-phosphatidyltransferase [EC 2.7.8.11]).

Inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate 3-kinases (E.C. 2.7.1.127, ENSFM00250000001260) catalyse the generation of inositol 1,3,4,5-tetrakisphosphate (IP₄) from IP₃. IP₃ kinase activity is enhanced in the presence of calcium/calmodulin (Conigrave and Roufogalis, 1989).

Nomenclature	IP ₃ kinase A	IP ₃ kinase B	IP ₃ kinase C
HGNC nomenclature	ITPKA	ITPKB	ITPKC
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000137825	ENSG00000143772	ENSG00000086544
Other names	IP3-3KC, IP3KA	IP3-3KB, IP3KB	IP3-3KC, IP3KC

Inositol polyphosphate phosphatases: members of this family exhibit phosphatase activity towards IP₃, as well as towards other inositol derivatives, including the phospholipids PIP₂ and PIP₃. With 1,4,5-IP₃ as substrate, 1-phosphatase (EC 3.1.3.57) generates 4,5-IP₂, 4-phosphatases (EC 3.1.3.66, ENSFM00250000001432) generate 1,5-IP₂ and 5-phosphatases (E.C. 3.1.3.36 or 3.1.3.56) generate 1,4-IP₂.

Nomenclature	HGNC nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names
nositol polyphosphate 1-phosphatase	INPP1	ENSG00000151689	-
nositol polyphosphate 4-phosphatases	INPP4A; INPP4B	ENSG00000040933; ENSG00000109452	Type I, 107 kDa INPP4; Type II, 105 kDa INPP4
nositol polyphosphate 5-phosphatases	INPP5A; INPP5B; INPP5D; INPP5E; INPP5J; INPP5K; INPPL1 OCRL; SYNJ1; SYNJ2	ENSG00000068383; ENSG00000204084; ENSG00000168918; ENSG00000148384; ENSG00000132376; ENSG00000165458 ENSG00000122126; ENSG00000159082; ENSG00000078269	SPTASE; 75 kDa inositol polyphosphate-5-phosphatase hp51CN, SHIP; CORS1, JBTS1, PPI5PIV; — SKIP; SHIP2, SH2-containing inositol phosphatase 2 Oculocerebrorenal syndrome of Lowe, OCSL; Synaptojanin 1; Synaptojanin 2

In vitro analysis suggested IP_3 and IP_4 were poor substrates for SKIP, synaptojanin 1 and synaptojanin 2, but suggested that PIP_2 and PIP_3 were more efficiently hydrolysed (Schmid et al., 2004).

Inositol monophosphatase (E.C.3.1.3.25, IMPase, myo-inositol-1(or 4)-phosphate phosphohydrolase) is a magnesium-dependent homodimer which hydrolyses myo-inositol monophosphate to generate myo-inositol and phosphate. Glycerol may be a physiological phosphate acceptor. Lithium is a nonselective un-competitive inhibitor more potent at IMPase 1 (pK_i ca. 3.5, McAllister et al., 1992; pIC $_{50}$ 3.2, Ohnishi et al., 2007) than IMPase 2 (pIC $_{50}$ 1.8-2.1, Ohnishi et al., 2007). IMPase activity may be inhibited competitively by L690330 (pK_i 5.5, McAllister et al., 1992), although the enzyme selectivity is not yet established.

Nomencla	ature Ensembl ID	Other names	Substrate rank order
IMPase 1	ENSG00000133731	IMPA1	Inositol 4-phosphate>inositol 3-phosphate>inositol 1-phosphate (McAllister et al., 1992)
IMPase 2	ENSG00000141401	IMPA2	-

Polymorphisms in either of the genes encoding these enzymes have been linked with bipolar disorder (Sjoholt *et al.*, 1997; 2000; Yoshikawa *et al.*, 1997). Disruption of the gene encoding IMPase 1, but not IMPase 2, appears to mimic the effects of lithium in mice (Cryns *et al.*, 2007; 2008).

Abbreviations: IP₃, inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate; L690330, 1-(4-hydroxyphenoxy)ethane-1,1-bisphosphonate; PIP₂, phosphatidylinositol-4,5,-bisphosphate; PIP₃, phosphatidylinositol-3,4,5,-trisphosphate

Further Reading

Leung WH, Tarasenko T, Bolland S (2009). Differential roles for the inositol phosphatase SHIP in the regulation of macrophages and lymphocytes. *Immunol Res* 43: 243–251.

Liu Y, Bankaitis VA (2010). Phosphoinositide phosphatases in cell biology and disease. Prog Lipid Res 49: 201–217.

Miller DJ, Allemann RK (2007). myo-Inositol monophosphatase: a challenging target for mood stabilising drugs. Mini Rev Med Chem 7: 107-113.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Inositol phosphate turnover \$309

Ooms LM, Horan KA, Rahman P, Seaton G, Gurung R, Kethesparan DS et al. (2009). The role of the inositol polyphosphate 5-phosphatases in cellular function and human disease. *Biochem J* 419: 29–49.

Parry RV, Harris SJ, Ward SG (2010). Fine tuning T lymphocytes: a role for the lipid phosphatase SHIP-1. *Biochim Biophys Acta* **1804**: 592–597. Pasquali L, Busceti CL, Fulceri F, Paparelli A, Fornai F (2010). Intracellular pathways underlying the effects of lithium. *Behav Pharmacol* **21**: 473–492.

Schell MJ (2010). Inositol trisphosphate 3-kinases: focus on immune and neuronal signaling. Cell Mol Life Sci 67: 1755–1778.

References

Conigrave AD, Roufogalis BD (1989). *Cell Calcium* **10**: 543–550. Cryns K *et al* (2007). *Neuropsychopharmacology* **32**: 881–891. Cryns K *et al* (2008). *Neuropsychopharmacology* **33**: 674–684. McAllister G *et al*. (1992). *Biochem J* **284**: 749–754. Ohnishi T *et al* (2007). *J Biol Chem* **282**: 637–646.

Schmid AC *et al.* (2004). *FEBS Lett* **576**: 9–13. Sjoholt G *et al.* (1997). *Genomics* **45**: 113–122. Sjoholt G *et al.* (2000). *Mol Psychiatry* **5**: 172–180. Yoshikawa T *et al.* (1997). *Mol Psychiatry* **2**: 393–397.

Protein serine/threonine kinases (E.C. 2.7.1.-)

Overview: Protein serine/threonine kinases use the co-substrate ATP to phosphorylate serine and/or threonine residues on target proteins. Analysis of the human genome suggests the presence of 518 protein kinases in man, with over 100 protein kinase-like pseudogenes (see Manning *et al.*, 2002). It is beyond the scope of the Guide to list all these protein kinase activities; this summary focusses on AGC protein kinases associated with GPCR signalling, which may be divided into 15 subfamilies in man.

Most inhibitors of these enzymes have been assessed in cell-free investigations and so may appear to 'lose' potency and selectivity in intact cell assays. In particular, ambient ATP concentrations may be influential in responses to inhibitors, since the majority are directed at the ATP binding site (Davies *et al.*, 2000).

G protein coupled receptor kinases

G protein-coupled receptor kinases, epitomized by β ARK, are involved in the rapid phosphorylation and desensitization of GPCR. Classically, high concentrations of β_2 -adrenoceptor agonists (see Page S26) binding to the receptor lead to the consequent activation and dissociation of the heterotrimeric G protein G_s . G_s , activates adenylyl cyclase activity (see Page S288), while G_s subunits perform other functions, one of which is to recruit β ARK to phosphorylate serine/threonine residues in the cytoplasmic tail of the β_2 -adrenoceptor. The phosphorylated receptor binds, with high affinity, a member of the arrestin family (ENSFM0025000000572), which prevents further signalling through the G protein (uncoupling) and may allow interaction with scaffolding proteins, such as clathrin, with the possible consequence of internalization and/or degradation.

Systematic nomenclature	Preferred abbreviation	Ensembl ID	Other names	Comment
GRK1	RHOK	ENSG00000185974	Rhodopsin kinase, G protein-coupled receptor kinase 1, GPRK1, RK	-
GRK2	βARK	ENSG00000173020	β-Adrenergic receptor kinase, ADRBK1	Protein kinase C-mediated phosphorylation increases membrane association (Chuang <i>et al.</i> , 1995; Winstel <i>et al.</i> , 1996)
GRK3	βARK2	ENSG00000100077	β-Adrenergic receptor kinase 2, ADRBK2	_
GRK4	_	ENSG00000125388	G protein-coupled receptor kinase 4, GPRK2L	Inhibited by Ca ²⁺ /calmodulin (Sallese et al., 1997)
GRK5	_	ENSG00000198873	G protein-coupled receptor kinase 5	Phosphorylated and inhibited by protein kinase C (Pronin and Benovic, 1997)
GRK6	_	ENSG00000198055	G protein-coupled receptor kinase 6	_
GRK7	-	ENSG00000114124	G protein-coupled receptor kinase 7	_

Loss-of-function mutations in RHOK or retinal and pineal gland arrestin (ENSG00000130561) are associated with Oguchi disease, a form of congenital stationary night blindness.

Protein kinase A (PKA)

Cyclic AMP-mediated signalling involves regulation of ion channels (see Page S153 and S156), members of the Rap guanine nucleotide exchange family (Epac, ENSFM00250000000899, see Page S288) and activation of protein kinase A (PKA, also known as cyclic AMP-dependent protein kinase). PKA is a heterotetrameric enzyme composed of two regulatory and two catalytic subunits, which can be distinguished from Epac (exchange protein directly activated by cAMP, de Rooij *et al.*, 1998) by differential activation by N⁶-benzyl-cAMP (see Table) and CPT-2'OMe-cAMP, respectively (Kang *et al.*, 2005).

Nomenclature	Regulatory subunits	Catalytic subunits:
Ensembl ID	PRKAR1A (ENSG0000108946); PRKAR1B (ENSG00000188191); PRKAR2A (ENSG00000114302); PRKAR2B (ENSG0000005249);	PRKACA (ENSG00000072062); PRKACB (ENSG00000142875); PRKACG (ENSG00000165059)
Selective activator	N ⁶ -Benzyl-cAMP (Christensen et al., 2003)	-
Selective inhibitor	Rp-cAMPS	-
Probe	[³H]-cAMP	-

Other members of the PKA family are PRKX (X-linked protein kinase, PKX1, ENSG00000183943) and PRKY (Y-linked protein kinase, ENSG00000099725). PRKX and PRKY are expressed on X and Y chromosomes, respectively, and appear to interchange in some XX males and XY females (Schiebel *et al.*, 1997).

Protein kinase B (PKB)

The action of phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3K), a downstream kinase activated by receptor tyrosine kinases (see Page S203), produces a series of phosphorylated phosphoinositides, which recruit 3-phosphoinositide-dependent kinase (PDK1, see below) activity to the plasma membrane, leading to activation of PKB (also known as Akt, Rac serine/threonine protein kinase, v-akt murine thymoma viral oncogene). PKB may be activated by PIP₃, PDK1-mediated phosphorylation (Alessi et al., 1997) and mTORC2-mediated phosphorylation (Hresko and Mueckler, 2005, Sarbassov et al., 2005).

Nomenclature	PKB1	PKB2	PKB2
HGNC nomenclature	AKT1	AKT2	AKT3
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000142208	ENSG00000105221	ENSG0000117020
Other names	РКВα	РКВβ	РКВγ
Selective inhibitor	GSK690693 (Heerding et al.,	2008)	

Protein kinase C

Protein kinase C is the target for the tumour-promoting phorbol esters, such as tetradecanoyl-β-phorbol acetate (TPA, also known as PMA).

Classical protein kinase C isoforms: Members of the classical protein kinase C family are activated by Ca²⁺ and diacylglycerol, and may be inhibited by GF109203X, calphostin C, Gö6983, chelerythrine and Ro318220.

Nomenclature	ΡΚCα	РКСβ	РКСγ
HGNC nomenclature	PRKCA	PRKCB	PRKCG
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000154229	ENSG00000166501	ENSG00000126583
Selective inhibitors	_	Ruboxistaurin (8.3, Jirousek <i>et al.</i> , 1996), CGP53353 (6.4, Chalfant <i>et al.</i> , 1996)	-

Novel protein kinase C isoforms: Members of the classical protein kinase C family are activated by diacylglycerol and may be inhibited by calphostin C, Gö6983 and chelerythrine.

Nomenclature	ΡΚСδ	ΡΚϹε	РКСη	РКСθ	РКСμ
HGNC nomenclature	PRKCD	PRKCE	PRKCH	PRKCQ	PRKD1
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000163932	ENSG00000171132	ENSG00000027075	ENSG00000065675	ENSG00000184304
Other names	-	-	-	-	PKCM, PRKCM, protein kinase D, PKD

Atypical protein kinase C isoforms

Nomenclature	PKCı	ΡΚСζ
HGNC nomenclature	PRKCI	PRKCZ
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000163558	ENSG00000067606
Other names	PKC λ in rodents	-
Endogenous activators	_	Arachidonic acid

Protein kinase G (PKG)

Cyclic GMP-dependent protein kinase is a dimeric enzyme activated by cGMP generated by particulate guanylyl cyclases (see Page S195) or soluble guanylyl cyclases (see Page S288).

Preferred abbreviation	PKG1	PKG2
HGNC nomenclature	PRKG1	PRKG2
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000185532	ENSG0000138669
Selective inhibitors	Rp-8-CPT-cGMPS (Butt et al., 1994)	

Mitogen-activated protein kinases (MAP kinases)

MAP kinases (CMGC kinases, ENSF00000000137) may be divided into three major families: ERK, JNK and p38 MAP kinases.

ERK may be activated by phosphorylation by the dual specificity mitogen-activated kinase kinases, MAP2K1 (also known as MEK1, ENSG00000169032) and MAP2K2 (also known as MEK2, ENSG00000126934). The inhibitors PD98059 (Alessi *et al.*, 1995; Dudley *et al.*, 1995) and U0126 (Duncia *et al.*, 1998; Favata *et al.*, 1998) act to inhibit these enzymes (Davies *et al.*, 2000), and are used to inhibit ERK1 and ERK2.

Nomenclature	HGNC nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names
ERK1	MAPK3	ENSG00000102882	Insulin-stimulated MAP2 kinase, ERT2, p44-MAPK, microtubule-associated protein-2 kinase
ERK2	MAPK1	ENSG00000100030	Mitogen-activated protein kinase 2, p42-MAPK, ERT1

JNK may be activated by phosphorylation by the dual specificity mitogen-activated kinase kinases, MAP2K4 (also known as JNKK1, ENSG00000065559) and MAP2K7 (also known as JNKK2, ENSG00000076984).

Nomenclature H	HGNC nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names
JNK1 N	MAPK8	ENSG00000107643	SAPK1, c-Jun N-terminal kinase 1, JNK-46
JNK2	MAPK9	ENSG00000050748	c-Jun N-terminal kinase 2, JNK-55
JNK3	MAPK10	ENSG00000109339	c-Jun N-terminal kinase 3, MAP kinase p49 3F12

SP600125 is able to inhibit all three isoforms of JNK with pIC₅₀ values of 6.7 (Bennett et al., 2001).

p38 may be activated by phosphorylation by the dual specificity mitogen-activated kinase kinases, MAP2K3 (also known as MEK3, ENSG00000034152) and MAP2K6 (also known as SAPKK3, ENSG00000108984).

Nomenclature	HGNC nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names
p38α	MAPK14	ENSG00000112062	Cytokine suppressive anti-inflammatory drug binding protein, MAX-interacting protein 2
p38β	MAPK11	ENSG00000185386	p38-2, SAPK2
p38γ	MAPK12	ENSG00000188130	ERK-6, ERK5, SAPK3
ρ38δ	MAPK13	ENSG00000156711	SAPK4

SB203580 has been reported to inhibit p38 α and p38 β with pIC₅₀ values of 8.0 and 7.0, respectively (Eyers *et al.*, 1998). SB202190 inhibits p38 β (Lee *et al.*, 1994).

Rho kinase

Rho kinase (also known as P160ROCK, Rho-activated kinase) is activated by members of the Rho small G protein family (ENSFM00500000269651), which are activated by GTP exchange factors, such as ARHGEF1 (p115-RhoGEF, ENSG00000076928), which in turn may be activated by $G\alpha_{12/13}$ subunits (Kozasa *et al.*, 1998).

Nomenclature	HGNC nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names
Rho kinase 1	ROCK1	ENSG00000067900	p160ROCK
Rho kinase 2	ROCK2	ENSG00000134318	-

Rho kinase may be inhibited selectively by Y27362 (Uehata et al., 1997) or fasudil (Asano et al., 1989).

Other AGC kinases

For many of these remaining protein kinases, there is less information about the regulation and substrate specificity, as well as a paucity of pharmacological data.

Subfamily	Nomenclature	HGNC nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names	Comment
DMPK	DMPK	DMPK	ENSG00000104936	Dystrophia myotonica-protein kinase, myotonin-protein kinase	Reduced expression of DMPK is associated with myotonic dystrophy 1 (see Kaliman and Llagostera 2008)
	DMPK2	CDC42BPG	ENSG00000171219	Myotonic dystrophy kinase-related CDC42 binding protein kinase γ, HSMDPKIN, kappa-200, MRCKγ	
	MRCKα	CDC42BPA	ENSG00000143776	MRCKA, myotonic dystrophy kinase-related CDC42-binding protein kinase α	Reported to have a role in cellular iron regulation (Cmejla et al., 2010)
	MRCKβ	CDC42BPB	ENSG00000198752	MRCKB, myotonic dystrophy kinase-related CDC42-binding protein kinase β	Reported to be involved in cell migration (Huo <i>et al.</i> , 2011)
	CRIK	CIT	ENSG00000122966	Citron Rho-interacting kinase, serine/threonine-protein kinase 21	Shares structural homology with the Rho kinases
MAST	MAST1	MAST1	ENSG00000105613	Syntrophin-associated protein kinase	Members of the microtubule-associated serine/
	MAST2	MAST2	ENSG00000086015	-	threonine kinase family appear
	MAST3	MAST3	ENSG00000099308	_	to have a role in platelet production (Johnson <i>et al.</i> ,
	MAST4	MAST4	ENSG00000069020	_	2009) and inflammatory bowel
	MASTL	MASTL	ENSG00000120539	Microtubule associated serine/ threonine kinase-like, greatwall, GWL	disease (Labbe et al., 2008).
NDR	LATS1	LATS1	ENSG00000131023	Large tumor suppressor homologue 1, WARTS	The large tumour suppressor protein kinases are phosphorylated and activated
	LATS2	LATS2	ENSG00000150457	Large tumor suppressor homologue 2, KPM	by MST2 kinase (serine/ threonine kinase 3, ENSG00000104375, Chan et al., 2005)
	NDR1	STK38	ENSG00000112079	Serine/threonine kinase 38, nuclear Dbf2-related kinase 1	
	NDR2	STK38L	ENSG00000211455	Serine/threonine kinase 38 like, nuclear Dbf2-related kinase 2	
PKB	PDK1	PDPK1	ENSG00000140992	3-Phosphoinositide-dependent protein kinase 1	

Subfamily	Nomenclature	HGNC nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names	Comment
PKN	PKN1	PKN1	ENSG00000123143	Protein kinase N1, protein kinase C-related kinase 1, PAK1, PKN, PRK1, PRKCL1	PKN family members are activated by Rho, PIP₃ and PDK1 (Dong <i>et al.</i> , 2000)
	PKN2	PKN2	ENSG00000065243	Protein kinase N2, pak-2, PRK2, PRKCL2	
	PKN3	PKN3	ENSG00000160447	Protein kinase N3, PKNβ	
RSK	MSK1	RPS6KA5	ENSG00000100784	Ribosomal protein S6 kinase α5, nuclear mitogen- and stress-activated protein kinase 1, RSK-like protein kinase	The mitogen- and stress-acted protein kinases are activated by phosphorylation evoked by MAP kinases and appear to be
	MSK2	RPS6KA4	ENSG00000162302	Ribosomal protein S6 kinase α4, nuclear mitogen- and stress-activated protein kinase 2, ribosomal protein kinase B	central to that pathway of cAMP response element-binding protein phosphorylation (Wiggin <i>et al.</i> , 2002)
	S6K1	RPS6KB1	ENSG00000108443	S6Kβ1	Ribosomal S6 kinases 70 kDa, also known as p70 ^{rsk} , are
	S6K2	RPS6KB2	ENSG00000175634	S6Kβ, S6Kβ2	activated by MAP kinase-mediated phosphorylation
	RSK1	RPS6KA1	ENSG00000117676	MAPKAPK1A, RSKα1	Ribosomal S6 kinase 90 kDa serine/threonine kinases, also known as p90 ^{rsk} or
	RSK2	RPS6KA3	ENSG00000177189	MAPKAPK1B, RSKα3, ISPK1	MAPK-activated protein kinase-1 (MAPKAP-K1), are activated by MAP kinase -mediated phosphorylation.
	RSK3	RPS6KA2	ENSG00000071242	MAPKAPK1C, RSKα2	RSK protein kinases are also activated by phosphorylation by TORC1 (Hara <i>et al.</i> , 2002; Kim <i>et al.</i> , 2002) and PDK1
	RSK4	RPS6KA6	ENSG00000072133	RSKα6	(Jensen <i>et al.</i> , 1999). Substrates include ribosomal S6 protein (ENSG00000137154), GSK3β
	SGK494	-	ENSG00000167524	AC005726.6	(ENSG00000082701, Sutherland et al., 1993) and the $5HT_{2A}$ receptor (Strachan et al., 2009).
RSKL		RPS6KC1	ENSG00000136643	52 kDa ribosomal protein S6 kinase, RPK118, humS6PKh1	
		RPS6KL1	ENSG00000198208	ribosomal protein S6 kinase-like 1	
SGK	SGK1	SGK1	ENSG00000118515	SGK	Serum- and glucocorticoid-inducible kinases are regulated at the
	SGK2	SGK2	ENSG00000101049	-	transcriptional level by serum and glucocorticoids. SGK1 has been reported to be
	SGK3	SGK3	ENSG00000104205	SGK2, SGKL	phosphorylated and activated by mTORC2 (Garcia-Martinez and Alessi, 2008)
YANK	YANK1	STK32A	ENSG00000169302		
	YANK2	STK32B	ENSG00000152953	STK32, STKG6	
	YANK3	STK32C	ENSG00000165752	PKE	

Selected non-AGC protein kinase activities

Nomenclature	AMP kinase	Casein kinase 2	Myosin light chain kinase	Calmodulin-dependent kinase II
Preferred abbreviation	AMPK	CK2	MLCK1 (smooth muscle and non-muscle isoform),	CaMKII
			MLCK2 (skeletal muscle isoform)	
Ensembl ID	α1 (ENSG00000132356); α2 (ENSG00000162409); β1 (ENSG00000111725); β2 (ENSG00000131791); γ1 (ENSG00000181929), γ2 (ENSG00000106617); γ3 (ENSG00000115592)	α ENSG00000101266; α' ENSG00000070770; β ENSG00000204435	MLCK1 ENSG00000065534; MLCK2 ENSG00000101306	α (ENSG0000070808); β (ENSG00000058404); γ (ENSG00000148660); δ (ENSG00000145349)
Other names	_	_	MYLK	_
Endogenous activator	AMP	_	Ca ²⁺ -calmodulin	Ca ²⁺ -calmodulin
Selective activators	AICA-riboside (Corton <i>et al.</i> , 1995)	_	-	-
Selective inhibitors	Dorsomorphin (Zhou et al., 2001)	DRB (Zandomeni <i>et al.,</i> 1986)	-	K252a (Hashimoto <i>et al.</i> 1991)

AMP-activated protein kinase is a heterotrimeric protein kinase, made up of α , β and γ subunits, while casein kinase 2 is a heterotetrameric protein kinase, made up of 2 β subunits with two other subunits of α and/or α' composition. STO609 is an inhibitor of calmodulin kinase kinase (ENSFM00250000001201, Tokumitsu et al., 2002), an upstream activator of calmodulin-dependent kinase.

Abbreviations: AICA-riboside, 5-aminoimidazole-4-carboxamide-1-β-riboside, also known as acadesine; API2, 1,5-dihydro-5-methyl-1-β-Dribofuranosyl-1,4,5,6,8-pentaazaacennaphthylen-3-amine, also known as triciribine; CGP53353, 5,6-bis([4-fluorophenyl]amino)-2H-isoindole-1,3-dione; CPT-2'-OMe-cAMP, 8-(4-chlorophenylthio)-2'-O-methyladenosine 3',5'-cyclic monophosphate monosodium hydrate; DRB, 5,6dichloro-1-β-D-ribofuranosylbenzimidazole; fasudil, 1-(5-isoquinolinylsulfonyl)homopiperazine dihydrochloride, also known as HA1077; 4-[2-(4-amino-1,2,5-oxadiazol-3-yl)-1-ethyl-7-[[(3S)-piperidin-3-yl]methoxy] imidazo[4,5-c]pyridin-4-yl]-2-methylbut-3-yn-2-ol;PD98059, 2-(2-amino-3-methoxy-phenyl)chromen-4-one; PDK1, phosphoinositide-dependent protein kinase 1 (ENSG00000140992); Rp-8-CPT-cGMPS, Rp-8-[(4-chlorophenyl)thio]-guanosine-cyclic 3',5'-hydrogen phosphorothioate; ruboxistaurin, (s)-13-[(dimethylamino)methyl]-10,11,14,15-tetrahydro-4,9:16,21-dimetheno-1H,13H-dibenzo [e,k]pyrrolo [3,4-h][1,4,13] oxadiazacyclohexadecene-1,3(2H)-dione, also known as LY333531; SB203580, 4-(5-[4-fluorophenyl]-2-[4-methylsulfinylphenyl]-3H-imidazol-4-yl)pyridine; SP600125, anthra[1,9-cd]pyrazol-6(2H)-one; STO609, trans-4-[(1R)-1-aminoethyl]-N-4-pyridinyl-cyclohexane carboxamide (Y-27632), and 7-oxo-7H-benzimidazo (2,1a) benz (de) isoquinoline-3-carboxy acid acetate

Further Reading

Akritopoulou-Zanze I, Hajduk PJ (2009). Kinase-targeted libraries: the design and synthesis of novel, potent, and selective kinase inhibitors. Drug Discov Today 14: 291-297.

Bayascas JR (2008). Dissecting the role of the 3-phosphoinositide-dependent protein kinase-1 (PDK1) signalling pathways. Cell Cycle 7: 2978-2982.

Borders AS, de AL, Van Eldik LJ, Watterson DM (2008). The p38alpha mitogen-activated protein kinase as a central nervous system drug discovery target, BMC Neurosci 9: \$12.

Boutros T, Chevet E, Metrakos P (2008). Mitogen-activated protein (MAP) kinase/MAP kinase phosphatase regulation: roles in cell growth, death, and cancer. Pharmacol Rev 60: 261-310.

Brown MD, Sacks DB (2009). Protein scaffolds in MAP kinase signalling. Cell Signal 21: 462-469.

Chene P (2008). Challenges in design of biochemical assays for the identification of small molecules to target multiple conformations of protein kinases. Drug Discov Today 13: 522-529.

Duronio V (2008). The life of a cell: apoptosis regulation by the PI3K/PKB pathway. Biochem J 415: 333-344.

Goldstein DM, Gray NS, Zarrinkar PP (2008). High-throughput kinase profiling as a platform for drug discovery. Nat Rev Drug Discov 7: 391–397. Hofmann F, Bernhard D, Lukowski R, Weinmeister P (2009). cGMP regulated protein kinases (cGK). Handb Exp Pharmacol 137-162.

Johnson L (2007). Protein kinases and their therapeutic exploitation. Biochem Soc Trans 35: 7-11.

Kaliman P, Llagostera E (2008). Myotonic dystrophy protein kinase (DMPK) and its role in the pathogenesis of myotonic dystrophy 1. Cell Signal 20: 1935-1941.

Kelly E, Bailey CP, Henderson G (2007). Agonist-selective mechanisms of GPCR desensitization. Br J Pharmacol 153: S379-S388.

Kondoh K, Nishida E (2007). Regulation of MAP kinases by MAP kinase phosphatases. Biochim Biophys Acta 1773: 1227-1237.

Krishna M, Narang H (2008). The complexity of mitogen-activated protein kinases (MAPKs) made simple. Cell Mol Life Sci 65: 3525-3544. Lang F, Strutz-Seebohm N, Seebohm G, Lang UE (2010). Significance of SGK1 in the regulation of neuronal function. J Physiol 588: 3349–3354.

Lawrence MC, Jivan A, Shao C, Duan L, Goad D, Zaganjor E et al. (2008). The roles of MAPKs in disease. Cell Res 18: 436-442. Liao JJ (2007). Molecular recognition of protein kinase binding pockets for design of potent and selective kinase inhibitors. J Med Chem 50: 409-424.

Malemud CJ (2007). Inhibitors of stress-activated protein/mitogen-activated protein kinase pathways. Curr Opin Pharmacol 7: 339–343.

Manning BD, Cantley LC (2007). AKT/PKB signaling: navigating downstream. Cell 129: 1261-1274.

Manning G, Whyte DB, Martinez R, Hunter T, Sudarsanam S (2002). The protein kinase complement of the human genome. Science 298: 1912-1934.

May LT, Hill SJ (2008). ERK phosphorylation: spatial and temporal regulation by G protein-coupled receptors. *Int J Biochem Cell Biol* 40: 2013–2017.

Meloche S, Pouyssegur J (2007). The ERK1/2 mitogen-activated protein kinase pathway as a master regulator of the G1- to S-phase transition. *Oncogene* 26: 3227–3239.

Pearce LR, Komander D, Alessi DR (2010). The nuts and bolts of AGC protein kinases. Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol 11: 9-22.

Premont RT, Gainetdinov RR (2007). Physiological roles of G protein-coupled receptor kinases and arrestins. Annu Rev Physiol 69: 511-534.

Prudent R, Cochet C (2009). New protein kinase CK2 inhibitors: jumping out of the catalytic box. Chem Biol 16: 112-120.

Roberts PJ, Der CJ (2007). Targeting the Raf-MEK-ERK mitogen-activated protein kinase cascade for the treatment of cancer. *Oncogene* 26: 3291–3310.

Rozengurt E (2007). Mitogenic signaling pathways induced by G protein-coupled receptors. J Cell Physiol 213: 589-602.

Sale EM, Sale GJ (2008). Protein kinase B: signalling roles and therapeutic targeting. Cell Mol Life Sci 65: 113-127.

Sharma V, Wang Q, Lawrence DS (2008). Peptide-based fluorescent sensors of protein kinase activity: design and applications. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1784: 94–99.

Shaul YD, Seger R (2007). The MEK/ERK cascade: from signaling specificity to diverse functions. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1773: 1213–1226.

Steinberg GR, Jorgensen SB (2007). The AMP-activated protein kinase: role in regulation of skeletal muscle metabolism and insulin sensitivity. *Mini Rev Med Chem* 7: 519–526.

Tarrant MK, Cole PA (2009). The chemical biology of protein phosphorylation. Annu Rev Biochem 78: 797-825.

Towler MC, Hardie DG (2007). AMP-activated protein kinase in metabolic control and insulin signaling. Circ Res 100: 328-341.

Turk BE (2008). Understanding and exploiting substrate recognition by protein kinases. Curr Opin Chem Biol 12: 4-10.

Ubersax JA, Ferrell JE (2007). Mechanisms of specificity in protein phosphorylation. Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol 8: 530-541.

Wagner EF, Nebreda AR (2009). Signal integration by JNK and p38 MAPK pathways in cancer development. Nat Rev Cancer 9: 537-549.

Witczak CA, Sharoff CG, Goodyear LJ (2008). AMP-activated protein kinase in skeletal muscle: from structure and localization to its role as a master regulator of cellular metabolism. *Cell Mol Life Sci* 65: 3737–3755.

Zhang J, Yang PL, Gray NS (2009). Targeting cancer with small molecule kinase inhibitors. Nat Rev Cancer 9: 28–39.

Zhang Y, Dong C (2007). Regulatory mechanisms of mitogen-activated kinase signaling. Cell Mol Life Sci 64: 2771–2789.

http://www.kinase.com/human/kinome/

References

Alessi DR et al. (1995). J Biol Chem 270: 27489-27494. Alessi DR et al. (1997). Curr Biol 7: 261-269. Asano T et al. (1989). Br J Pharmacol 98: 1091-1100. Bennett BL et al. (2001). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 98: 13681-13686. Butt E et al. (1994). Eur J Pharmacol 269: 265-268. Chalfant CE et al. (1996). Mol Endocrinol 10: 1273-1281. Chan EH et al. (2005). Oncogene 24: 2076-2086. Christensen AE et al. (2003). J Biol Chem 278: 35394-35402. Chuang TT et al. (1995). J Biol Chem 270: 18660-18665. Cmejla R et al. (2010). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 395: 163-167. Corton JM et al. (1995). Eur J Biochem 229: 558-565. Davies SP et al. (2000). Biochem J 351: 95-105. Dong LQ et al. (2000). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 97: 5089-5094. Dudley DT et al. (1995). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 92: 7686-7689. Duncia JV et al. (1998). Bioorg Med Chem Lett 8: 2839-2844. Eyers PA et al. (1998). Chem Biol 5: 321-328. Favata MF et al. (1998). J Biol Chem 273: 18623-18632. Garcia-Martinez IM. Alessi DR (2008). Biochem I 416: 375-385. Hara K et al. (2002). Cell 110: 177-189. Hashimoto Y et al. (1991). Biochem Biophys Res Commun 181: 423-429. Heerding DA et al. (2008). J Med Chem 51: 5663-5679. Hresko RC, Mueckler M (2005). J Biol Chem 280: 40406-40416.

Huo L et al. (2011). EMBO J 30: 665-678. Jensen CJ et al. (1999). J Biol Chem 274: 27168-27176. Jirousek MR et al. (1996). J Med Chem 39: 2664-2671. Johnson HJ et al. (2009). Exp Hematol 37: 901-908. Kang G et al. (2005). J Physiol 566: 173-188. Kim DH et al. (2002). Cell 110: 163-175. Kozasa T et al. (1998). Science 280: 2109-2111. Labbe C et al. (2008). Genes Immun 9: 602-612. Lee JC et al. (1994). Nature 372: 739-746. Pronin AN, Benovic JL (1997). J Biol Chem 272: 3806-3812. de Rooij J et al. (1998). Nature 396: 474-477. Sallese M et al. (1997). J Biol Chem 272:10188–10195. Sarbassov DD et al. (2005). Science 307: 1098-1101. Schiebel K et al. (1997). Hum Mol Genet 6: 1985-1989. Strachan RT et al. (2009). J Biol Chem 284: 5557-5573. Sutherland C et al. (1993). Biochem J 296: 15-19. Tokumitsu H et al. (2002). J Biol Chem 277: 15813-15818. Uehata M et al. (1997). Nature 389: 990-994. Wiggin GR et al. (2002). Mol Cell Biol 22: 2871-2881. Winstel R et al. (1996). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 93: 2105-2109. Zandomeni R et al. (1986). J Biol Chem 261: 3414-3419.

Zhou G et al. (2001). J Clin Invest 108: 1167-1174.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Protein turnover \$317

Protein turnover

Overview: peptidases and proteinases hydrolyse peptide bonds, and can be simply divided on the basis of whether terminal peptide bonds are cleaved (exopeptidases and exoproteinases) at the amino terminus (aminopeptidases) or carboxy terminus (carboxypeptidases). Non-terminal peptide bonds are cleaved by endopeptidases and endoproteinases, which are divided into serine endopeptidases (EC 3.4.21.-), cysteine endopeptidases (EC 3.4.22.-), aspartate endopeptidases (EC 3.4.23.-), metalloendopeptidases (EC 3.4.24.-) and threonine endopeptidases (EC 3.4.25.-).

It is beyond the scope of the Guide to list all peptidase and proteinase activities; this summary focusses on selected enzymes of significant pharmacological interest.

Aminopeptidases (E.C. 3.4.11.-)

Nomenclature	HGNC nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names	Comments
Aminopeptidase A	DNPEP	ENSG00000123992	Aspartyl aminopeptidase, ASPEP, DAP	Hydrolyses CCK-8 (Migaud et al., 1996); angiotensin-Il (Zini et al., 1996), neurokinin B, chromogranin A, kallidin (Goto et al., 2006)
Aminopeptidase N	ANPEP	ENSG00000166825	Alanyl aminopeptidase, microsomal aminopeptidase, gp150, myeloid plasma membrane glycoprotein CD13	-
Aminopeptidase O	C9orf3	ENSG00000148120	AOPEP	
Aminopeptidase Q	_	ENSG00000172901	Laeverin, AC010282.1	
Aminopeptidase-like 1	NPEPL1	ENSG00000215440	-	
Arginyl aminopeptidase	RNPEP	ENSG00000176393	Aminopeptidase B	
Arginyl aminopeptidase-like 1	RNPEPL1	ENSG00000142327	Aminopeptidase B-like	
Endoplasmic reticulum aminopeptidase 1	ERAP1	ENSG00000164307	Adipocyte-derived leucine aminopeptidase, puromycin-insensitive leucyl-specific aminopeptidase, type 1 tumor necrosis factor receptor shedding aminopeptidase regulator	
Endoplasmic reticulum aminopeptidase 2	ERAP2	ENSG00000164308	Leukocyte-derived arginine aminopeptidase	-
Glutamyl aminopeptidase	ENPEP	ENSG00000138792	EAP, aminopeptidase A, differentiation antigen gp160, CD249 antigen	-
Leucine aminopeptidase 3	LAP3	ENSG00000002549	LAP, LAPEP	
Leucyl-cysteinyl aminopeptidase	LNPEP	ENSG00000113441	Oxytocinase, OTase, insulin-regulated membrane aminopeptidase, insulin-responsive aminopeptidase, IRAP, placental leucine aminopeptidase, P-LAP	Hydrolyses vasopressin, oxytocin, kallidin, met-enkephalin, dynorphin A
Leukotriene A4 hydrolase	LTA4H	ENSG00000111144	_	Hydrolyses leukotriene A ₄ (see Page S296)
Methionyl aminopeptidase 1	METAP1	ENSG00000164024	MAP1A	-
Methionyl aminopeptidase 2	METAP2	ENSG00000111142	_	_
Methionyl aminopeptidase type 1D (mitochondrial)	METAP1D	ENSG00000172878	MAP1D	-
Puromycin-sensitive aminopeptidase	NPEPPS	ENSG00000141279	Aminopeptidase puromycin sensitive	-

S318 Protein turnover

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Nomenclature	HGNC nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names	Comments
Puromycin-sensitive aminopeptidase-like protein	-	ENSG00000174093	RP11-1407O15.2	-
TRH-specific aminopeptidase	TRHDE	ENSG00000072657	Thyrotropin-releasing hormone-degrading ectoenzyme, thyroliberinase, pyroglutamyl-peptidase II, PAP-II	-
X-prolyl aminopeptidase 1	XPNPEP1	ENSG00000108039	Aminopeptidase P 1, soluble X-prolyl aminopeptidase	-
X-prolyl aminopeptidase 2	XPNPEP2	ENSG00000122121	Aminopeptidase P 2, membrane-bound X-prolyl aminopeptidase	-
X-prolyl aminopeptidase 3	XPNPEP3	ENSG00000196236	Aminopeptidase P 3, APP3, NPHPL1	-

Serine-type carboxypeptidases (3.4.16.-)

Nomenclature	HGNC nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names
Cathepsin A	CTSA	ENSG00000064601	GSL, PPGB, carboxypeptidase C
Carboxypeptidase D	CPD	ENSG00000108582	-
Vitellogenic carboxypeptidase-like protein	CPVL	ENSG00000106066	-
Prolylcarboxypeptidase	PRCP	ENSG00000137509	Angiotensinase C, HUMPCP, PCP, lysosomal Pro-X carboxypeptidase
Serine carboxypeptidase 1	SCPEP1	ENSG00000121064	RISC

Metallocarboxypeptidases (3.4.17.-)

Nomenclature	HGNC nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names
AE binding protein 1	AEBP1	ENSG00000106624	Aortic carboxypeptidase-like protein ACL
Carboxypeptidase A1 (pancreatic)	CPA1	ENSG00000091704	_
Carboxypeptidase A2 (pancreatic)	CPA2	ENSG00000158516	-
Carboxypeptidase A3 (mast cell)	CPA3	ENSG00000163751	_
Carboxypeptidase A4	CPA4	ENSG00000128510	-
Carboxypeptidase A5	CPA5	ENSG00000158525	-
Carboxypeptidase A6	CPA6	ENSG00000165078	CPAH
Carboxypeptidase B1 (tissue)	CPB1	ENSG00000153002	-
Carboxypeptidase B2 (plasma)	CPB2	ENSG00000080618	CPU, PCPB, TAFI
Carboxypeptidase E	CPE	ENSG00000109472	
Carboxypeptidase M	CPM	ENSG00000135678	
Carboxypeptidase N, polypeptide 1	CPN1	ENSG00000120054	Carboxypeptidase N, polypeptide 1
Carboxypeptidase N, polypeptide 2	CPN2	ENSG00000178772	ACBP
Carboxypeptidase O	CPO	ENSG00000144410	
Carboxypeptidase X (M14 family), member 1	CPXM1	ENSG00000088882	CPX-1, CPX1, CPXM
Carboxypeptidase X (M14 family), member 2	CPXM2	ENSG00000121898	
Carboxypeptidase Z	CPZ	ENSG00000109625	
Carnosine dipeptidase 1 (metallopeptidase M20 family)	CNDP1	ENSG00000150656	Glutamate carboxypeptidase-like protein
Carnosine dipeptidase 2	CNDP2	ENSG00000133313	HsT2298, PEPA
Dipeptidyl-peptidase 7	DPP7	ENSG00000176978	DPPII

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Protein turnover \$319

Nomenclature	HGNC nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names
Folate hydrolase (prostate-specific membrane antigen) 1	FOLH1	ENSG00000086205	GCP2, GCPII, NAALAD1, NAALAdase, PSM, PSMA
Folate hydrolase 1B	FOLH1B	ENSG00000134612	FOLH2, FOLHP, GCPIII, PSMAL
N-Acetylated $lpha$ -linked acidic dipeptidase-like 1	NAALADL1	ENSG00000168060	-
N-Acetylated α -linked acidic dipeptidase 2	NAALAD2	ENSG00000077616	_
Plasma glutamate carboxypeptidase	-	ENSG00000104324	AC010859.1

Endopeptidases

Nomenclature	Neutral endopeptidase	Dipeptidyl peptidase IV
E.C.	3.4.24.11	3.4.14.5
HGNC nomenclature	MME	DPP4
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000196549	ENSG00000197635
Other names	Enkephalinase, neprilysin, NEP	CD26, adenosine deaminase complexing protein-2
Endogenous substrates	Enkephalins	GLP1
Selective inhibitors	Thiorphan	-

Nomenclature	Angiotensin-converting enzyme 1	Angiotensin-converting enzyme 2	Endothelin-converting enzyme 1	Endothelin-converting enzyme 2
E.C.	3.4.15.1	3.4.15.1	3.4.24.71	3.4.24.71
HGNC nomenclature	ACE	ACE2	ECE1	ECE2
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000159640	ENSG00000130234	ENSG00000117298	ENSG00000145194
Other names	Dipeptidyl carboxypeptidase I, Kininase II, CD143	-	-	-
Endogenous substrates	Angiotensin I > angiotensin II	Angiotensin I > angiotensin I-9 (Donoghue <i>et al.</i> , 2000)	Endothelin-1, -2, -3	Endothelin-1, -2, -3
Selective inhibitors	Captopril	Captopril	SM19712 (Umekawa <i>et al.,</i> 2000)	
Probes	Hip-His Leu	Abz-Ser-Pro-Tyr(NO ₂)-OH	-	_

ACE1 appears to express a distinct GPI hydrolase activity (Kondoh et al. 2005).

Caspases (E.C. 3.4.22.-)

Overview: Caspases, which derive their name from Cysteine ASPartate-specific proteASES, include at least two families; initiator caspases (caspases 2, 8, 9 and 10), which are able to hydrolyse and activate a second family of effector caspases (caspases 3, 6 and 7), which themselves are able to hydrolyse further cellular proteins to bring about programmed cell death. Caspases are heterotetrameric, being made up of two pairs of subunits, generated by a single gene product, which is proteolysed to form the mature protein. Members of the mammalian inhibitors of apoptosis proteins (IAP) are able to bind the procaspases, thereby preventing maturation to active proteinases.

Nomenclature	Caspase 1	Caspase 2	Caspase 3	Caspase 4
EC Ensembl ID	3.4.22.36 ENSG00000137752	3.4.22.55 ENSG00000106144	3.4.22.56 ENSG00000164305	3.4.22.57 ENSG00000196954
Other names	CASP1, interleukin-1β convertase, IL-1BC, interleukin-1 β-converting enzyme, IL-1 β-converting enzyme, ICE, p45	CASP2, ICH-1 protease, neural precursor cell expressed developmentally down-regulated protein 2, NEDD-2	CASP3, apopain, cysteine protease CPP32, Yama protein, SREBP cleavage activity 1, SCA-1	CASP4, ICH-2 protease, TX protease, ICE(rel)-II,
Subunits	Caspase-1 subunit p20; caspase-1 subunit p10	Caspase-2 subunit p18; caspase-2 subunit p13; caspase-2 subunit p12	Caspase-3 subunit p17; caspase-3 subunit p12	Caspase-4 subunit 1; caspase-4 subunit 2

S320 Protein turnover Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Nomenclature	Caspase 1	Caspase 2	Caspase 3	Caspase 4
Substrates	Pro-caspase 4, pro-interleukin-1β, D4-GD1, parkin		Pro-caspase 7, caspase 3, PARP, ICAD, Rb, PKCδ, Huntingtin	Pro-caspase 1
Endogenous activators	-	-	Caspase 8, caspase 9, caspase 10, GrB	-
Activators	-	-	PAC1 (Putt <i>et al.</i> , 2006), PETCM (Jiang <i>et al.</i> , 2003)	-
Selective inhibitors	Z-YVAD-FMK (Avivi-Green et al., 2002)	Z-VDVAD-FMK (Gamen et al., 2000)	AZ10417808 (Scott et al., 2003), Z-DEVD-FMK (Brockstedt et al., 1998), Z-DQMD-FMK (Izban et al., 2001)	-

 $CARD16 \ (Caspase \ recruitment \ domain-containing \ protein \ 16, \ caspase-1 \ inhibitor \ COP, \ CARD \ only \ domain-containing \ protein \ 1, \ pseudointerleukin-1\beta \ converting \ enzyme, \ pseudo-ICE, \ ENSG00000204397) \ shares \ sequence \ similarity \ with \ some \ of \ the \ caspases.$

Nomenclature	Caspase 5	Caspase 6	Caspase 7	Caspase 8
EC	3.4.22.58	3.4.22.59	3.4.22.60	3.4.22.61
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000137757	ENSG00000138794	ENSG00000165806	ENSG00000064012
Other names	CASP5, ICH-3 protease, TY protease, ICE(rel)-III	CASP6, apoptotic protease Mch-2	CASP7, ICE-like apoptotic protease 3, ICE-LAP3, apoptotic protease Mch-3, CMH-1	CASP8, CE-like apoptotic protease 5, MORT1-associated CED-3 homolog, MACH, FADD-homologous ICE/CED-3-like protease, FADD-like ICE, FLICE, apoptotic cysteine protease, apoptotic protease Mch-5, CAP4
Subunits	Caspase-5 subunit p20; caspase-5 subunit p10	Caspase-6 subunit p18; caspase-6 subunit p11	Caspase-7 subunit p20; caspase-7 subunit p11	Caspase-8 subunit p18; caspase-8 subunit p10
Substrates	-	-	Pro-caspase 7, caspase 3, PARP, ICAD, Rb, PKCδ, Huntingtin	Pro-caspase 3, pro-caspase 7, caspase 8, Bid, FLIP, pro-caspase 6
Endogenous activators		-Caspase 8, caspase 9, caspase 10, GrB	Caspase 8, caspase 9, caspase 10, GrB	DISC
Selective inhibitors	Z-WEHD-FMK (Naito et al., 2002)	Z-VEID-FMK (Ruchaud et al., 2002)	-	Z-IETD-FMK (Gregoli and Bondurant, 1999)

Nomenclature	Caspase 9	Caspase 10	Caspase 14
EC	3.4.22.62	3.4.22.63	3.4.22
Ensembl ID	ENSG00000132906	ENSG00000003400	ENSG00000105141
Other names	CASP, ICE-like apoptotic protease 6, ICE-LAP6, apoptotic protease Mch-6, apoptotic protease-activating factor 3, APAF-3	CASP10, ICE-like apoptotic protease 4, apoptotic protease Mch-4, FAS-associated death domain protein interleukin-1B-converting enzyme 2, FLICE2	CASP14
Subunits	Caspase-9 subunit p35; caspase-9 subunit p10	Caspase-10 subunit p23/17; caspase-10 subunit p12	Caspase-14 subunit p19; caspase-14 subunit p10
Substrates	Pro-caspase 3, pro-caspase 7, caspase 9, pro-caspase 6, PARP	Pro-caspase 3, pro-caspase 7, caspase 10, pro-caspase 6	-
Endogenous activators	_	DISC	
Selective inhibitors	Z-LEHD-FMK (Mocanu et al., 2000)	_	_

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA Protein turnover \$321

Cell-surface protein and extracellular matrix metalloproteinases (E.C. 3.4.24.-)

Matrix metalloproteinases (MMP) are calcium- and zinc-dependent proteinases regulating the extracellular matrix and are often divided (e.g. Verma and Hansch, 2007) on functional and structural bases into gelatinases, collagenases, stromyelinases and matrilysins, as well as membrane type-MMP (MT-MMP).

Nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names	Selective inhibitors
MMP1	ENSG00000196611	Collagenase-1, interstitial collagenase, fibroblast collagenase	
MMP2	ENSG00000087245	Gelatinase-A, 72 kDa type IV collagenase precursor, TBE- 1	ARP100 (Tuccinardi et al., 2006)
MMP3	ENSG00000149968	Stromelysin-1, transin-1	
MMP7	ENSG00000137673	Matrilysin, PUMP-1 protease, uterine metalloproteinase, matrin	
MMP8	ENSG00000118113	Neutrophil collagenase, PMNL collagenase	
MMP9	ENSG00000100985	Gelatinases-B, 92 kDa type IV collagenase, GELB	
MMP10	ENSG00000166670	Stromelysin-2, transin-2	
MMP11	ENSG00000099953	Stromelysin-3	
MMP12	ENSG00000110347	Macrophage metalloelastase, macrophage elastase, HME	
MMP13	ENSG00000137745	Collagenase-3	CL82198, WAY170523 (Chen et al., 200
MMP14	ENSG00000157227	MT1-MMP, MMP- X1	
MMP15	ENSG00000102996	MT2-MMP, SMCP- 2	
MMP16	ENSG00000156103	MT3-MMP, MMP- X2	
MMP17	ENSG00000198598	MT4-MMP	
MMP19	ENSG00000123342	Matrix metalloproteinase RASI, MMP18	
MMP20	ENSG00000137674	Enamelysin, enamel metalloproteinase	
MMP21	ENSG00000154485	-	
MMP23	ENSG00000189409	Matrix metallopeptidase 21, MMP-21, matrix metalloprotease 22, MMP-22, Femalysin, MIFR-1	
MMP24	ENSG00000125966	MT5-MMP	
MMP25	ENSG00000008516	MT6-MMP, leukolysin	
MMP26	ENSG00000167346	Matrilysin-2, endometase	
MMP27	ENSG00000137675	_	
MMP28	ENSG00000129270	Epilysin	

A number of small molecule 'broad spectrum' inhibitors of MMP have been described, including marimastat and batimastat.

Tissue inhibitors of metalloproteinase (TIMP) proteins are endogenous inhibitors acting to chelate MMP proteins.

Nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names
TIMP1	ENSG00000102265	Tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinases 1, metalloproteinase inhibitor 1, erythroid-potentiating activity, EPA, fibroblast collagenase inhibitor, collagenase inhibitor
TIMP2	ENSG00000035862	CSC-21K
TIMP3	ENSG00000100234	Tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinases 3, metalloproteinase inhibitor 3 Precursor , MIG-5
TIMP4	ENSG00000157150	Tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinases 4, metalloproteinase inhibitor 4

ADAM (A Disintegrin And Metalloproteinase domain containing proteins) and ADAMTS (with thrombospondin motifs) metalloproteinases cleave cell-surface or transmembrane proteins to generate soluble and membrane-limited products.

Nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names
ADAM2	ENSG00000104755	Fertilin subunit β , PH30 β , cancer/testis antigen 15, CT15
ADAM3	ENSG00000197475	ADAM3A, cyritestin 1, CYRN1, tMDCI
ADAM5	ENSG00000196115	Transmembrane metalloproteinase-like, disintegrin-like, and cysteine-rich protein II, tMDC II
ADAM6	ENSG00000233988	C14orf96, tMDCIV

S322 Protein turnover Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Nomenclature	Ensembl ID	Other names
ADAM7	ENSG00000069206	Sperm maturation-related glycoprotein GP-83
ADAM8	ENSG00000151651	Cell surface antigen MS2, CD156a antigen
ADAM9	ENSG00000168615	Metalloprotease/disintegrin/cysteine-rich protein 9, myeloma cell metalloproteinase, meltrin γ , cellular disintegrin-related protein
ADAM10	ENSG00000137845	Mammalian disintegrin-metalloprotease, Kuzbanian protein homolog, CDw156, CD156c antigen
ADAM11	ENSG00000073670	Metalloproteinase-like, disintegrin-like, and cysteine-rich protein, MDC
ADAM12	ENSG00000148848	Meltrin α
ADAM15	ENSG00000143537	Metalloproteinase-like, disintegrin-like, and cysteine-rich protein 15, MDC-15, Metalloprotease RGD disintegrin protein, metargidin
ADAM17	ENSG00000151694	TNF α -converting enzyme, TNF α convertase, snake venom-like protease, CD156b antiger
ADAM18	ENSG00000168619	Transmembrane metalloproteinase-like, disintegrin-like, and cysteine-rich protein III, tMDC III, ADAM27
ADAM19	ENSG00000135074	Meltrin β , metalloprotease and disintegrin dendritic antigen marker, MADDAM
ADAM20	ENSG00000134007	-
ADAM21	ENSG00000139985	ADAM21P, ADAM31
ADAM22	ENSG00000008277	Metalloproteinase-like, disintegrin-like, and cysteine-rich protein 2, metalloproteinase-disintegrin ADAM22-3
ADAM23	ENSG00000114948	Metalloproteinase-like, disintegrin-like, and cysteine-rich protein 3, MDC-3
ADAM28	ENSG00000042980	Metalloproteinase-like, disintegrin-like, and cysteine-rich protein L, MDC-L, epididymial metalloproteinase-like, disintegrin-like, and cysteine-rich protein II, eMDC II
ADAM29	ENSG00000168594	Cancer/testis antigen 73, CT73
ADAM30	ENSG00000134249	-
ADAM32	ENSG00000197140	-
ADAM33	ENSG00000149451	_

 $Additional\ family\ members\ include\ AC123767.2\ (cDNA\ FLJ58962,\ moderately\ similar\ to\ mouse\ ADAM3,\ ENSG00000231168),\ AL160191.3\ (ADAM21-like\ protein,\ ENSG00000235812),\ AC136428.3-2\ (ENSG00000185520)\ and\ ADAMDEC1\ (decysin\ 1,\ ENSG00000134028).$

ADAMTS family

Nomenclature	EC	Ensembl ID	Other names	Comment
ADAMTS1		ENSG00000154734	METH-1	
ADAMTS2	3.4.24.14	ENSG00000087116	Procollagen I/II amino propeptide-processing enzyme, procollagen I N-proteinase, PC I-NP, procollagen <i>N</i> -endopeptidase, pNPI	
ADAMTS3		ENSG00000156140	Procollagen II amino propeptide-processing enzyme, procollagen II N-proteinase, PC II-NP	
ADAMTS4	3.4.24.82	ENSG00000158859	Aggrecanase-1, ADMP-1	
ADAMTS5		ENSG00000154736	Aggrecanase-2, ADMP-2, ADAMTS11	
ADAMTS6		ENSG00000049192	-	
ADAMTS7		ENSG00000136378	COMPase	
ADAMTS8		ENSG00000134917	METH-2, METH-8	
ADAMTS9		ENSG00000163638	_	
ADAMTS10		ENSG00000142303	_	
ADAMTS12		ENSG00000151388	-	
ADAMTS13		ENSG00000160323	von Willebrand factor-cleaving protease, vWF-CP	Loss-of-function mutations of autoimmun antibodies are associated with thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura
ADAMTS14		ENSG00000138316	_	
ADAMTS15		ENSG00000166106	_	
ADAMTS16		ENSG00000145536	_	
ADAMTS17		ENSG00000140470	_	

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA

Protein turnover \$323

Nomenclature	EC	Ensembl ID	Other names	Comment
ADAMTS18		ENSG00000140873	ADAMTS21	
ADAMTS19		ENSG00000145808	_	
ADAMTS20		ENSG00000173157	_	
PAPLN		ENSG00000100767	Papilin	

Other family members include AC104758.12-5 (FLJ00317 protein Fragment ENSG00000231463), AC139425.3-1 (ENSG00000225577), and AC126339.6-1 (ENSG00000225734).

2-([{1,1'-biphenyl}-4-ylsulfonyl]-[1-methylethoxy]amino)-N-hydroxyacetamide, Abbreviations: ARP100, AZ10417808. dichlorophenyl]amino)-1,4-dihydro-6-nitro-4-oxo-N-2-propenyl-8-quinazolinecarboxamide; N-(4-[4-morpholinyl]butyl)-2-CL82189. benzofurancarboxamide hydrochloride; PAC1, 4-(phenylmethyl)-1-piperazineacetic acid ([2-hydroxy-3-{2-propenyl}phenyl] methylene)hydrazide; PETCM. 1-(trichloromethyl)-2-(4-pyridine)ethanol; WAY170523, $N-(2-[4-{([2-{(hydroxyamino)carbonyl}-4,6$ dimethylphenyl) (phenylmethyl) amino|sulfonyl} phenoxy|ethyl)-2-benzofurancarboxamide; Z-DEVD-FMK, benzyloxycarbonyl-Asp(OMe)-Glu(OMe)-Val-Asp(OMe)-fluoromethylketone; Z-DQMD-FMK, benzyloxycarbonyl-Asp(OMe)-Gln-Met-Asp(OMe)-fluoromethylketone; Z-LEHD-FMK, benzyloxycarbonyl-Leu-Glu(OMe)-His-Asp(OMe)-fluoromethylketone; Z-VDVAD-FMK, benzyloxycarbonyl-Val-Asp(OMe)-Val-Ala-Asp benzyloxycarbonyl-Val-Glu(OMe)-Ile-Asp(OMe)-fluoromethylketone; (OMe)-fluoromethylketone: 7-VFID-FMK Z-VVAD-FMK benzyloxycarbonyl-Tyr-Val-Ala-Asp(OMe)-fluoromethylketone; Z-WEHD-FMK, benzyloxycarbonyl-Trp-Glu(OMe)-His-Asp(OMe)fluoromethylketone

Further Reading

Aiken A, Khokha R (2010). Unraveling metalloproteinase function in skeletal biology and disease using genetically altered mice. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1803: 121–132.

Bindom SM, Lazartigues E (2009). The sweeter side of ACE2: physiological evidence for a role in diabetes. *Mol Cell Endocrinol* **302**: 193–202. Catania JM, Chen G, Parrish AR (2007). Role of matrix metalloproteinases in renal pathophysiologies. *Am J Physiol -Renal Physiol* **292**: F905–F911. Charrier-Hisamuddin L, Laboisse CL, Merlin D (2008). ADAM-15: a metalloprotease that mediates inflammation. *FASEB J* **22**: 641–653.

Clark IM, Swingler TE, Sampieri CL, Edwards DR (2008). The regulation of matrix metalloproteinases and their inhibitors. *Int J Biochem Cell Biol* 40: 1362–1378.

Danser AH, Batenburg WW, van den Meiracker AH, Danilov SM (2007). ACE phenotyping as a first step toward personalized medicine for ACE inhibitors. Why does ACE genotyping not predict the therapeutic efficacy of ACE inhibition? *Pharmacol Ther* 113: 607–618.

DasGupta S, Murumkar PR, Giridhar R, Yadav MR (2009). Current perspective of TACE inhibitors: a review. *Bioorg Med Chem* 17: 444–459. Datta B (2009). Roles of P67/MetAP2 as a tumor suppressor. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1796: 281–292.

Deiteren K, Hendriks D, Scharpe S, Lambeir AM (2009). Carboxypeptidase M: multiple alliances and unknown partners. *Clin Chim Acta* 399: 24–39.

Demon D, Van DP, Vanden Berghe T, Vandekerckhove J, Declercq W, Gevaert K et al. (2009). Caspase substrates: easily caught in deep waters? Trends Biotechnol 27: 680–688.

Devel L, Czarny B, Beau F, Georgiadis D, Stura E, Dive V (2010). Third generation of matrix metalloprotease inhibitors: gain in selectivity by targeting the depth of the S1' cavity. *Biochimie* 92: 1501–1508.

Drucker DJ (2007). The role of gut hormones in glucose homeostasis. J Clin Invest 117: 24–32.

van Endert P (2011). Post-proteasomal and proteasome-independent generation of MHC class I ligands. Cell Mol Life Sci 68: 1553–1567.

Ferrario CM, Varagic J (2010). The ANG-(1-7)/ACE2/mas axis in the regulation of nephron function. *Am J Physiol Renal Physiol* **298**: F1297–F1305. Ferrario CM (2011). ACE2: more of Ang-(1-7) or less Ang II? *Curr Opin Nephrol Hypertens* **20**: 1–6.

Franchi L, Eigenbrod T, Munoz-Planillo R, Nunez G (2009). The inflammasome: a caspase-1-activation platform that regulates immune responses and disease pathogenesis. *Nat Immunol* 10: 241–247.

Gingras D, Beliveau R (2010). Emerging concepts in the regulation of membrane-type 1 matrix metalloproteinase activity. *Biochim Biophys Acta* **1803**: 142–150.

Greenlee KJ, Werb Z, Kheradmand F (2007). Matrix metalloproteinases in lung: multiple, multifarious, and multifaceted. *Physiol Rev* 87: 69–98. Gupta SP (2007). Quantitative structure-activity relationship studies on zinc-containing metalloproteinase inhibitors. *Chem Rev* 107: 3042–3087. Gyrd-Hansen M, Meier P (2010). IAPs: from caspase inhibitors to modulators of NF-kappaB, inflammation and cancer. *Nat Rev Cancer* 10: 561–574. Hadler-Olsen E, Fadnes B, Sylte I, Uhlin-Hansen L, Winberg JO (2011). Regulation of matrix metalloproteinase activity in health and disease. *FEBS J* 278: 28–45.

Haroon N, Inman RD (2010). Endoplasmic reticulum aminopeptidases: biology and pathogenic potential. *Nat Rev Rheumatol* 6: 461–467. Hu J, Van den Steen PE, Sang QX, Opdenakker G (2007). Matrix metalloproteinase inhibitors as therapy for inflammatory and vascular diseases. *Nat Rev Drug Discovery* 6: 480–498.

Hui KS (2007). Brain-specific aminopeptidase: from enkephalinase to protector against neurodegeneration. *Neurochem Res* **32**: 2062–2071. Imai Y, Kuba K, Penninger JM (2007). Angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 in acute respiratory distress syndrome. *Cell Mol Life Sci* **64**: 2006–2012. Janecka A, Staniszewska R, Gach K, Fichna J (2008). Enzymatic degradation of endomorphins. *Peptides* **29**: 2066–2073.

Kantari C, Walczak H (2011). Caspase-8 and bid: caught in the act between death receptors and mitochondria. *Biochim Biophys Acta* **1813**: 558–563. Kawanabe Y, Nauli SM (2011). Endothelin. *Cell Mol Life Sci* **68**: 195–203.

Kirby M, Yu DM, O'Connor S, Gorrell MD (2010). Inhibitor selectivity in the clinical application of dipeptidyl peptidase-4 inhibition. *Clin Sci* (*Lond*) 118: 31–41.

Kirkby NS, Hadoke PW, Bagnall AJ, Webb DJ (2008). The endothelin system as a therapeutic target in cardiovascular disease: great expectations or bleak house? *Br J Pharmacol* **153**: 1105–1119.

Kuba K, Imai Y, Ohto-Nakanishi T, Penninger JM (2010). Trilogy of ACE2: a peptidase in the renin-angiotensin system, a SARS receptor, and a partner for amino acid transporters. *Pharmacol Ther* **128**: 119–128.

Lambert DW, Hooper NM, Turner AJ (2008). Angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 and new insights into the renin-angiotensin system. *Biochem Pharmacol* 75: 781–786.

Lambert DW, Clarke NE, Turner AJ (2010). Not just angiotensinases: new roles for the angiotensin-converting enzymes. *Cell Mol Life Sci* 67: 89–98. Lopez-Otin C, Matrisian LM (2007). Emerging roles of proteases in tumour suppression. *Nat Rev Cancer* 7: 800–808.

MacFadyen RJ (2007). Can matrix metalloproteinase inhibitors provide a realistic therapy in cardiovascular medicine? *Curr Opin Pharmacol* 7: 171–178.

Mastroianni CM, Liuzzi GM (2007). Matrix metalloproteinase dysregulation in HIV infection: implications for therapeutic strategies. *Trends Mol Med* 13: 449–459.

Mogk A, Schmidt R, Bukau B (2007). The N-end rule pathway for regulated proteolysis: prokaryotic and eukaryotic strategies. *Trends Cell Biol* 17: 165–172.

Mucha A, Drag M, Dalton JP, Kafarski P (2010). Metallo-aminopeptidase inhibitors. Biochimie 92: 1509-1529.

Murphy G (2008). The ADAMs: signalling scissors in the tumour microenvironment. Nat Rev Cancer 8: 929–941.

Murphy G, Nagase H (2011). Localizing matrix metalloproteinase activities in the pericellular environment. FEBS J 278: 2-15.

Norton GR, Brooksbank R, Woodiwiss AJ (2010). Gene variants of the renin-angiotensin system and hypertension: from a trough of disillusionment to a welcome phase of enlightenment? Clin Sci (Lond) 118: 487–506.

O'Brien P, O'Connor BF (2008). Seprase: an overview of an important matrix serine protease. Biochim Biophys Acta 1784: 1130-1145.

Ohnuma K, Dang NH, Morimoto C (2008). Revisiting an old acquaintance: CD26 and its molecular mechanisms in T cell function. *Trends Immunol* 29: 295–301.

Okun I, Balakin KV, Tkachenko SE, Ivachtchenko AV (2008). Caspase activity modulators as anticancer agents. *Anticancer Agents Med Chem* 8: 322–341.

Page-McCaw A, Ewald AJ, Werb Z (2007). Matrix metalloproteinases and the regulation of tissue remodelling. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol* 8: 221–233. Pejler G, Knight SD, Henningsson F, Wernersson S (2009). Novel insights into the biological function of mast cell carboxypeptidase A. *Trends Immunol* 30: 401–408.

Pirard B (2007). Insight into the structural determinants for selective inhibition of matrix metalloproteinases. *Drug Discov Today* 12: 640–646. Pradelli LA, Beneteau M, Ricci JE (2010). Mitochondrial control of caspase-dependent and -independent cell death. *Cell Mol Life Sci* 67: 1589–1597. Raizada MK, Ferreira AJ (2007). ACE2: a new target for cardiovascular disease therapeutics. *J Cardiovasc Pharmacol* 50: 112–119.

Ramos-Fernandez M, Bellolio MF, Stead LG (2011). Matrix metalloproteinase-9 as a marker for acute ischemic stroke: a systematic review. *J Stroke Cerebrovasc Dis* 20: 47–54.

Rengel Y, Ospelt C, Gay S (2007). Proteinases in the joint: clinical relevance of proteinases in joint destruction. Arthritis Res Ther 9: 221.

Rocks N, Paulissen G, El Hour M et al (2008). Emerging roles of ADAM and ADAMTS metalloproteinases in cancer. Biochimie 90: 369–379.

Rosell A, Lo EH (2008). Multiphasic roles for matrix metalloproteinases after stroke. Curr Opin Pharmacol 8: 82-89.

Rosenberg GA (2009). Matrix metalloproteinases and their multiple roles in neurodegenerative diseases. Lancet Neurol 8: 205-216.

Rudnicki M, Mayer G (2009). Significance of genetic polymorphisms of the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system in cardiovascular and renal disease. *Pharmacogenomics* **10**: 463–476.

Schrader K, Huai J, Jockel L, Oberle C, Borner C (2010). Non-caspase proteases: triggers or amplifiers of apoptosis? *Cell Mol Life Sci* **67**: 1607–1618. Schulz R (2007). Intracellular targets of matrix metalloproteinase-2 in cardiac disease: rationale and therapeutic approaches. *Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol* **47**: 211–242.

Shi L, Mao C, Xu Z, Zhang L (2010). Angiotensin-converting enzymes and drug discovery in cardiovascular diseases. *Drug Discov Today* **15**: 332–341. Shi YB, Fu L, Hasebe T, Ishizuya-Oka A (2007). Regulation of extracellular matrix remodeling and cell fate determination by matrix metalloproteinase stromelysin-3 during thyroid hormone-dependent post-embryonic development. *Pharmacol Ther* **116**: 391–400.

Taylor RC, Cullen SP, Martin SJ (2008). Apoptosis: controlled demolition at the cellular level. Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol 9: 231-241.

Tsukamoto T, Wozniak KM, Slusher BS (2007). Progress in the discovery and development of glutamate carboxypeptidase II inhibitors. *Drug Discov Today* 12: 767–776.

Tveita A, Rekvig OP, Zykova SN (2008). Glomerular matrix metalloproteinases and their regulators in the pathogenesis of lupus nephritis. *Arthritis Res Ther* 10: 229.

Vakifahmetoglu-Norberg H, Zhivotovsky B (2010). The unpredictable caspase-2: what can it do? Trends Cell Biol 20: 150-159.

Verma RP, Hansch C (2007). Matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs): chemical-biological functions and (Q)SARs. *Bioorg Med Chem* 15: 2223–2268. Vincenti MP, Brinckerhoff CE (2007). Signal transduction and cell-type specific regulation of matrix metalloproteinase gene expression: can MMPs be good for you? *J Cell Physiol* 213: 355–364.

Wilson TJ, Singh RK (2008). Proteases as modulators of tumor-stromal interaction: primary tumors to bone metastases. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1785: 85–95.

Wolfe MS (2009). Intramembrane proteolysis. Chem Rev 109: 1599–1612.

Xu P, Sriramula S, Lazartigues E (2011). ACE2/ANG-(1-7)/Mas pathway in the brain: the axis of good. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol* **300**: R804–R817.

Yan C, Boyd DD (2007). Regulation of matrix metalloproteinase gene expression. J Cell Physiol 211: 19–26.

Yazbeck R, Howarth GS, Abbott CA (2009). Dipeptidyl peptidase inhibitors, an emerging drug class for inflammatory disease? *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 30: 600–607.

Zolkiewska A (2008). ADAM proteases: ligand processing and modulation of the Notch pathway. Cell Mol Life Sci 65: 2056–2068.

References

Avivi-Green C et al. (2002). J Nutr 132: 1812–1818.
Brockstedt E et al. (1998). J Biol Chem 273: 28057–28064.
Chen JM et al. (2000). J Am Chem Soc 122: 9648–9654.
Donoghue M et al. (2000). Circ Res 87: E1–E9.
Gamen S et al. (2000). Exp Cell Res 258: 223–235.
Goto Y et al. (2006). J Biol Chem 281: 23503–23513.
Gregoli PA, Bondurant MC (1999). J Cell Physiol 178: 133–143.
Izban KF et al. (2001). Mod Pathol 14: 297–310.
Jiang X et al. (2003). Science 299: 223–226.
Kondoh G et al. (2005). Nat Med 11: 160–166.

Migaud M et al. (1996). Peptides 17: 601–607.

Mocanu MM et al. (2000). Br J Pharmacol 130: 197–200.

Naito T et al. (2002). Nucleic Acids Res Suppl 2: 241–242.

Putt KS et al (2006). Nat Chem Biol 2: 543–550.

Ruchaud S et al. (2002). EMBO J 21: 1967–1977.

Scott CW et al. (2003). J Pharmacol Exp Ther 304: 433–440.

Tuccinardi T et al. (2006). Bioorg Med Chem 14: 4260–4276.

Umekawa K et al. (2000). Jpn J Pharmacol 84: 7–15.

Zini S et al. (1996). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 93: 11968–11973.