Trace metals in the brain: allosteric modulators of ligand-gated receptor channels, the case of ATP-gated P2X receptors

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Abstract Zinc and copper are indispensable trace metals for life with a recognized role as catalysts in enzyme actions. We now review evidence supporting the role of trace metals as novel allosteric modulators of ionotropic receptors: a new and fundamental physiological role for zinc and copper in neuronal and brain excitability. The review is focussed on ionotropic receptor channels including nucleotide receptors, in particular the P2X receptor family. Since zinc and copper are stored within synaptic vesicles in selected brain regions, and released to the synaptic cleft upon electrical nerve ending depolarization, it is plausible that zinc and copper reach concentrations in the synapse that profoundly affect ligand-gated ionic channels, including the ATP-gated currents of P2X receptors. The identification of key P2X receptor amino acids that act as ligands for trace metal coordination, carves the structural determinants underlying the allosteric nature of the trace metal modulation. The recognition that the identified key residues such as histidines, aspartic and glutamic acids or cysteines in the extracellular domain are different for each P2X receptor subtype and may be different for each metal, highlights the notion that each P2X receptor subtype evolved independent strategies for metal coordination, which form upon the proper three-dimensional folding of the receptor channels. The understanding of the molecular mechanism of allosteric modulation of ligand-operated ionic channels by trace metals is a new contribution to metallo-neurobiology.

Keywords Zinc · Copper · Nucleotide receptors · P2X receptors · Trace metal modulation · Ionic channel gating

Metallo-biology: from nutritional studies to understanding the three-dimensional topology of structural complexes of proteins and trace metals

During the last century, scientists recognized the indispensable nature of minor concentrations of iron, iodine, zinc, cobalt and copper as components of hormones, prosthetic enzyme groups, transport proteins and vitamins. Other metals like manganese, selenium and molybdenum were also incorporated in the list of essential nutrients although their role has been less intensively investigated. Since the blood concentrations of these elements are about 4-5 orders of magnitude less than that of sodium, potassium, chlorine, calcium or phosphorous, collectively these nutrients have been termed trace metals, referring to their low concentrations in blood and tissues. In support of the body requirements of these metals, a variety of well-controlled nutritional studies have established that animal diets deficient in these metals cause characteristic syndromes for each essential nutrient. If metal deprivation was persistent, death invariably followed, highlighting their essential role for life.

The molecular significance and the essential role of trace metals in life, has been clarified within the past 50 years. It was recognized that trace elements are obligatory components of a variety of enzymes and vitamins. For example, iron is a necessary element for a multiplicity of heme-proteins such as hemoglobin, the electron transport system of

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the mitochondria, microsomal enzymes involved in drug metabolism, and a variety of other enzymes with or without a prosthetic heme group, as in nitrogenase (Nelson and Cox 2005). In the brain, zinc and copper are metal catalysts required for the action of various enzymes, including superoxide dismutase, tyrosine and tryptophan hydroxylases, alcohol dehydrogenase among other CNS enzymes (Jornvall 1994; Richardson et al. 1975). Moreover, zinc plays a role in the regulation of gene expression by binding to extended DNA sequences through bonding to the famous zinc-finger motifs in proteins (Miller et al. 1985; Nelson and Cox 2005). Other zinc-containing enzymes are of paramount interest for tissue growth, development, and maintenance of the nervous system (Cho et al. 1994; Freemont 1993; Somers et al. 1994). In addition, zinc and copper are stored in nerve termini, apparently playing a role as atypical brain messengers.

Essential metal nutrients, including iodine and cobalt are required for the synthesis of thyroxine and vitamin B_{12} , respectively. While most trace metals such as iron, zinc, copper and molybdenum, are loosely bonded to proteins through electrostatic interactions, forming classical metal-coordination complexes, cobalt, iodine and selenium are amongst the few trace metals covalently linked to organic molecules. Cobalt is bound to the four pyrrole nitrogens of cobalamin, and via a C–C bond to the 5'-deoxyadenosyl unit of the corrin core of vitamin B_{12} ; iodine is bonded to the aromatic ring of tyrosine to form tri- and tetraiodothyronine; and selenium is covalently attached to glutathione peroxidase.

Over the past 20 years, structural biologists have provided convincing three-dimensional maps of protein domains for trace metal binding sites of brain related proteins, establishing a solid structural basis for the action of trace metals in neuronal excitability. The use of sophisticated techniques based on studies of the physico-chemical properties of metal-protein interactions has allowed solid progress in this area, establishing the field of metallo-neurobiology. Several speakers at the Metals and Membranes in Neuroscience Symposium (Barnham, Grobner, Hill and Separovic) focused on β -amyloid and prion proteins due to their special interest in two major neurodegenerative diseases, and showed impressive progress in the determination of metal actions at the molecular and structural level. The modeling of the interaction of trace metals with these proteins received special attention; we believe that this area of research has benefited from the rapid progress in physical/ chemical instrumentation. In this regard, our interest and contribution to understanding the role of trace metals as allosteric modulators of ionic channels is relevant to this Special Issue, highlighting the contribution of our laboratory to metallo-neurobiology. This review is centered to a large extent on the modulator role of trace metals, and particularly zinc and copper, in brain ionic channels. Within the vast family of ligand-gated ion channels, we have limited our efforts to the understanding of the role of trace metals in the biology of purinergic P2X receptors, as endogenous allosteric modulators of these channels.

Zinc and copper homeostasis in the brain

Zinc and copper are indispensable elements for brain excitability; zinc is the second most abundant trace metal in the body after iron. In the brain, zinc concentrations range from 100 to 150 μM, most of which is associated with zinc metalloenzymes, transcription factors and metallothionein proteins, a set of small proteins rich in cysteines with high capacity to chelate trace metals (Cousins 1983). Copper ranks as the third most abundant trace metal in the body; although present at low levels in a variety of neurons and peripheral tissues, its highest concentration is found in the liver. There are increasing and compelling arguments in favor of the notion that both zinc or copper can also function as novel signalling molecules, with evidence of release from synaptic terminals and a measured action on a wide range of membrane proteins, including ionic channels. As such, these ions may be predicted to have relevant modulator roles in neuronal circuits and, therefore, alter brain excitability.

Zinc bioavailability and brain uptake

Since these trace metals are incorporated into the body from the diet, selective transporters participate in their absorption from the gastro intestinal tract to the blood, and from the blood into the brain (Frederickson et al. 2000, 2005). In the blood plasma, the circulating concentration of these metals is around 15 µM; almost all the zinc is loosely bound to plasma proteins, including albumin and free amino acids such as L-histidine. Following metal uptake to the blood, its passage through the brain barrier and cerebrospinal fluid is unrestricted; neuronal uptake relies and depends on the functioning of metal transporters. The brain has the highest zinc content of the body, approx 100-150 µM, a value about 10fold higher than that found in the plasma (Choi and Koh 1998; Frederickson 1989; Kozma et al. 1981). The zinc content varies within the different brain areas, which might be interpreted to indicate selective regional expression of these metal transporters (Frederickson et al. 2000). In the nervous system, the most relevant zinc transporters are ZnT3 and ZnT4 (Palmiter and Huang 2004). These proteins are involved in the metal transport into synaptic vesicles; the metal storage site relevant and consistent with its putative role as a neuronal messenger and a modulator of synaptic activity and neuronal excitability. In the brain, 90% of the



total zinc is bound to metalloproteins; only approximately 10% of the metal is stored in synaptic vesicles, where the metal is found either loosely bound or free. Several studies have illustrated that the vesicle-stored metal may be released upon nerve terminal electrical depolarization (Aniksztejn et al. 1987; Assaf and Chung 1984; Howell et al. 1984), which has been interpreted in favor of its role as a novel and atypical brain messenger.

Copper absorption and brain levels

Less is known about the biological life cycle of copper and its brain bioavailability, although it is generally assumed that the mechanisms that govern the biology of zinc and copper are much alike. Like zinc, copper accumulates in the brain after its absorption from the distal small intestine as a dietary component. The oral metal absorption varies considerably depending on a variety of factors, including the form of copper in the diet, and other constituents of the diet. In the plasma, roughly 80-95% of copper is bound to ceruloplasmin, a blood protein with high affinity and selective sites for copper binding (Hellman and Gitlin 2002). The metal passage from the blood to the brain implies crossing the brain hemato encephalic barrier, a process that likely involves metal transporters. The copper concentration in the cerebrospinal fluid is around 70 µM; much of this copper is protein bound, with only a minor 10% available for storage in nerve intracellular compartments. Copper transporters were initially identified in yeasts, since these cells were used as a paradigm to understand copper homeostasis (Dancis et al. 1994; Zhou and Thiele 2001). Subsequently, a putative transmembrane transport protein for copper was identified in mammalian and human cells, termed hCtr1 (Zhou and Gitschier 1997). Moreover, from the protein databank a second copper transport protein, designated hCtr2, was also identified (Zhou and Gitschier 1997). In mammals, the copper-transporting ATPases, ATP7A and ATP7B, play a key role in copper regulation, a process that is essential for central nervous system development, liver function, connective tissue formation and many other physiological processes, and the malfunction of these proteins is associated with Menkes and Wilson diseases (Lutsenko et al. 2007). In contrast to zinc, an oxido-redox system is associated with copper transport since, at least in yeast, the transporter operates with Cu(I), while Cu(II) is the active form of copper participating as a modulator of neuronal activity, which implies that Cu(I) must be oxidized to Cu(II) to have a meaningful biological role in enzymes or channels.

The extracellular copper content that may equilibrate with neurons and nerve endings is in the range of $0.2-2~\mu\text{M}$. However, and in keeping with the analogy to the bioavailability of brain zinc, the concentration of copper is

remarkably larger in the synaptic cleft where copper may reach concentrations bordering 200–300 μ M. As with zinc, these values may be even more elevated in pathology, like neurodegenerative diseases.

Great progress has been achieved in the understanding of the intracellular handling of copper. A series of proteins were identified to be involved in the transfer of copper from the cell surface to their intracellular targets; these proteins were named "chaperones", since they bind copper that had been transferred across the plasma membrane and transfer it to the copper intracellular targets, denoting their protective function. Although these chaperones were initially identified and sequenced from yeast, their mammalian counterparts soon emerged. Three main mammalian chaperones have been identified. The chaperone ATX₁ is a yeast protein that delivers copper to a Cu-ATPase in the Golgi apparatus (Lin et al. 1997). COX17 is a phylogenetically conserved protein that transfers copper to cytochrome oxidase in the mitochondria (Glerum et al. 1996). Finally, a third chaperone is involved in the delivery of copper to superoxide dismutase (Culotta et al. 1997). Altogether, this information indicates that the intracellular copper concentration is largely protein bound with only a minuscule fraction of the metal in its free form, suggesting that the free metal does not exceed the attomolar range (Rae et al. 1999).

An atypical role of trace metals in synapses: metal release from brain nerve endings

A range of experimental techniques ranging from histochemical staining, imaging of zinc by fluorescent dyes, electron microscopy and atomic absorption spectroscopy, concur to unambiguously demonstrate the presence of zinc atoms in the brain. There is consensus that the metal is not uniformly distributed, for example, the grey mater has a denser concentration of the metal compared to the white matter. Histochemical staining of zinc in the brain showed that the highest concentration of the metal is detected in forebrain regions including the hippocampus, amygdala, striatum and neocortex (Slomianka et al. 1990).

Upon closer ultra structural examination of the metal location, high zinc concentrations were located almost exclusively within nerve ending vesicles where the metal is accumulated by the metal ZnT3 transporter (Palmiter and Huang 2004). This observation gave rise to the notion that a pool of free or loosely bound zinc may be stored within the synapse in vesicles as if it were ready for neuronal release. In support for the vesicular storage of zinc, several authors concluded that zinc is co-stored with either glutamate or GABA (Beaulieu et al. 1992; Frederickson 1989; Wang et al. 2002), the main brain excitatory or inhibitory transmitter,



respectively. The putative co-localization of glutamate and zinc gave rise to the term "gluzinergic" neurons (Frederickson et al. 2000), highlighting that both the transmitter plus the nutrient may be the transmitter messengers acting at these synapses. In analogy to zinc, copper is also differentially distributed in the brain with a high preference for certain brain nuclei such as the hippocampus, olfactory bulb and locus coeruleus (Ono and Cherian 1999; Sato et al. 1994). Since in these neurons copper is associated with glutamate or catecholamines, the term "glucupergic" neurons was coined to parallel the gluzinergic nerve endings (Mathie et al. 2006).

The finding of zinc in glycinergic brain synapses (Birinyi et al. 2001) is intriguing. It broadens the distribution of zinc to include the transmission mediated by glycine, suggesting that the glycine receptor might also be under metal modulation. This raises the question of whether presynaptic ZnT3 transporters accumulate the metal in glycine nerve terminals or, alternatively, the overflow of zinc released from neighboring glutamatergic synapses may contribute as a source of zinc stored presynaptically. Experiments with transgenic mice lacking these transporters (ZnT3^{-/-}) will help to clarify this and related questions on the homeostasis of zinc by different nerve terminals.

The synaptic terminations of the mossy fiber terminals in the hippocampus contain high concentrations of zinc in synaptic vesicles. The extracellular release of zinc occurs from small presynaptic vesicles upon drug-induced seizures, electrical depolarization or neuronal activity (Takeda et al. 2003). Moreover, the releasable pool of zinc depends on the extracellular content of calcium (Assaf and Chung 1984; Howell et al. 1984), matching the criterion that zinc is released to the synaptic cleft in a calcium-dependent manner.

There is general consensus that glutamatergic, GABA and even glycine nerve terminals may contain high concentrations of zinc in their synaptic vesicles. Since trace metals modulate the several ionic channels operated by these transmitters, the hypothesis was raised that the stored metals in synaptic vesicles could act as novel and atypical neural messengers (Barañano et al. 2001). Nitric oxide or carbon monoxide gases are also included in this list due to their atypical properties. In contrast to classical transmitters, these gases are not stored in vesicles and appear to act on demand, depending on their synthesis availability (Barañano et al. 2001). In addition, further physiological relevance is assigned to nitric oxide and carbon monoxide since these compounds do not act through traditional receptors on postsynaptic membranes but on post-junctional enzymes to alter neuronal metabolism, including the synthesis of cGMP (Boehning and Snyder 2003; Dawson and Snyder 1994). Based on these findings, it has been therefore assumed for some time that synaptic zinc is loosely bound and readily released during nerve activity to act as a post-junctional synaptic modulator. Recent investigations, using fluorometric imaging, has been interpreted to indicate that the presynaptically stored zinc is not in a free-form, but bound tighter to macromolecules in the vesicles (Kay 2006). This novel finding has prompted alternative roles for the synaptic zinc. We hope further developments will resolve these issues and temper the release hypothesis with novel proposals accounting for the kinetics of presynaptic metal release.

Trace metals are allosteric modulators of ligand-gated ionic channels

Proteins are well known trace metals targets. Zinc and copper may directly bind target proteins via ionic bond interactions with amino acid residues such as the sulfhydryl group of cysteines, the imidazole of histidines, carboxylic acid residues of aspartate or glutamic acid residues. Copper, but not zinc, in addition to electrostatic bonding, may oxidize sulfhydryl groups or generate free radicals, which can profoundly alter protein structure and function (Ali et al. 2003). Therefore, the modulator role of copper is more complex than zinc and may involve additional mechanisms of action.

This review focused on the modulator role of trace metals on ligand-gated ionic channels, with particular reference to the P2X nucleotide receptor family. Therefore, we will limit its scope only to ligand-gated ionic channels, although it is well recognized that trace metals also affect other membrane channels, including most specially the family of voltage-gated channels. The interaction of trace metals with these channels is purposely omitted; recent and well-documented reviews are devoted to these channels (Mathie et al. 2006). Trace metals also modulate G protein-coupled receptors; only a brief review of these receptors will be included since they have been less studied in this respect than the ionic receptors.

Glutamate receptors

There is consensus that glutamate is the main excitatory brain transmitter. Two major families of membrane ionic channels are activated by glutamate: the NMDA and the AMPA/kainate receptors. Both receptors are permeable to sodium and in varying degrees also to calcium. Twenty years ago, a first study demonstrated that zinc potently modulated gluatamate-gated currents at either type of receptors. The action of zinc at the NMDA receptor is apparently related to the metal interaction with two separate mechanism(s), each attributed to different metal binding sites on the receptor subunits that form the NMDA ionic



channel (Legendre and Westbrook 1990; Williams 1996). Zinc inhibits NMDA-evoked currents, acting at a voltage-independent site on the NR2A subunit and at a voltage-dependent site on the NR2B subunit (Paoletti et al. 1997). By contrast, the action of zinc at the AMPA/kainate receptors is biphasic, while micromolar concentrations increase the receptor activity, millimolar concentrations decrease it (Rassendren et al. 1990). Minor variations to this general picture have recently emerged in view of the description of a zinc-insensitive population of AMPA/kainate receptors, a finding possibly attributed to the varying subunit composition expressed by individual receptors.

Copper also inhibits the NMDA and AMPA/kainate receptors with affinities of 30 and 5 μ M, respectively (Trombley and Shepherd 1996; Weiser and Wienrich 1996).

GABA_A receptors

GABA is a main brain inhibitory transmitter; the GABA_A receptor is chloride selective ion channel that in adult neurons causes membrane hyperpolarization due to the entrance of chloride ions into neurons. A major drawback in the understanding of the action of trace metals with this receptor is related to the heterogeneity of receptor channel subunit composition; different GABAA receptor subunit combinations have varying sensitivities to the inhibitor modulation by trace metals. For example, the $\alpha_1\beta_3$ variant of the receptor, which is not the most abundant brain receptor population, is much more sensitive to zinc inhibitor modulation, while other subunit receptor combinations are remarkably less sensitive to the zinc inhibitor modulation. The most abundant brain GABA_A receptors contain in addition γ subunits; however, this receptor combination is markedly less sensitive to the modulator action of zinc. Moreover, copper has proved to inhibit the activity of GABA_A receptors; its half maximal inhibition (IC₅₀) is 20 μM (Trombley and Shepherd 1996). Therefore, both trace metals, although with varying affinities, are inhibitor modulators of the various brain combinations of the GABA_A receptor.

Glycine receptors

This is also a CNS inhibitory receptor closely related to the $GABA_A$ receptor channel, which is permeable to chloride ions. Glycine receptors are modulated in a biphasic manner by zinc. Low micromolar metal concentrations facilitate the glycine-evoked currents, while larger concentrations result in inhibition of the glycine-gated currents (Bloomenthal et al. 1994). Site-directed mutagenesis has helped to identify key amino acid residues responsible for both the zincinduced potentiation and inhibition (Harvey et al. 1999; Laube et al. 2000).

Nicotinic receptors

As with the GABA_A receptors, zinc has different actions on the nicotinic ionic channels, depending on the subunit composition of heteromeric nicotinic receptors; for example, zinc exerts a biphasic modulation of nicotinic receptors composed of $\alpha_2\beta_2$, $\alpha_2\beta_4$, $\alpha_3\beta_4$, $\alpha_4\beta_2$, and $\alpha_4\beta_4$ receptors, while inhibiting the currents mediated by $\alpha_3\beta_2$ receptors (Hsiao et al. 2001). The homomeric α_7 receptor, the predominant CNS receptor involved in the psychotropic action of nicotine, is inhibited by zinc in a concentration-dependent and voltage-independent manner, suggesting an allosteric action by the metal (Palma et al. 1998).

G protein coupled receptors

Trace metal modulation of metabotropric receptors has been studied to less extent than for ionotropic receptors. In despite of this, a zinc-induced inhibition has been described in the A1 adenosine receptor (Rosati and Traversa 1999). The same effect for zinc has been demonstrated in the purinergic $P2Y_2$ receptor, whereas the $P2Y_4$ receptor is resistant to this metal (Wildman et al. 2003). In the case of the $P2Y_1$ receptor, copper inhibits the activity of this receptor at concentrations >30 μ M, while zinc has no effect (see Fig. 1). The $\beta 2$ adrenergic receptor is also modulated by zinc, a histidine residue has been identified as critical for zinc modulation (Swaminath et al. 2003). In the 5-HT_{2A} serotonin receptor, copper slightly inhibits the receptor activity, while zinc has no effect (Huidobro-Toro and Acuña 1998).

Nucleotide receptors as effectors for extracellular purines and pyrimidines

The recognition that extracellular nucleotides, such as adenosine 5'-triphosphate (ATP) and related compounds including UTP, ADP, UDP, CTP and most recently sugar nucleotides such as UDP-glucose and UDP-galactose, are signalling molecules (Abbracchio et al. 2003; Burnstock 2006; Chambers et al. 2000) has prompted increased interest in understanding their roles in physiology and pathology. Cell signalling mediated by nucleotides is exerted by a set of at least 15 distinct cell membrane receptors, which bind selectively either purines or pyrimidines and trigger different intracellular cascades to account for their physiological actions. During the past 20 years, the receptors for this extended family of ligands have been classified into two main groups: the adenosine and the nucleotide receptor families (Ralevic and Burnstock 1998). While the former recognizes both natural and synthetic adenosine nucleosides, the latter receptors are activated exclusively by di- or



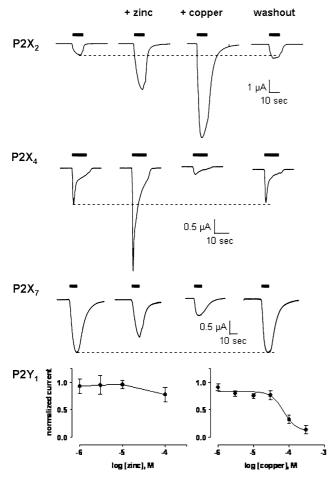
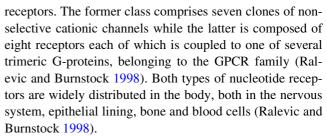


Fig. 1 Representative ATP-gated currents elicited by the P2X₂, P2X₄, P2X₇ or the P2Y₁ receptors and their modulation by zinc or copper. Separate Xenopus laevis oocytes were injected with cDNA coding for each P2X receptor subtypes or the P2Y₁ receptor; 48 h later, currents were measured by the two electrode voltage-clamp technique; using the ATP EC₅₀ for each receptor (solid line on top of the recording: 30 μ M for P2X₂, 10 μ M for P2X₄ and 600 μ M for P2X₇ receptor). The receptor-gated currents were examined by a 10-s application of ATP alone or in oocytes preincubated for 1 min with either 10 µM zinc or 10 μM copper. The modulator effect of each metal is reversible as indicated by the recordings following extensive metal washout. While the P2X receptors are markedly modulated by these metals, the lower panel shows that the activation of the $P2Y_1$ receptor with 1 μM ATP is essentially insensitive up to 100 µM zinc. Copper exhibits a concentration-dependent inhibition with a half-inhibitor potency of $70.2 \pm$ 20.4 µM. The current amplitudes were normalized against the current obtained with 1 μM ATP without metals. Symbols indicate mean values; bars, the S.E.M. $(n = 4-6 \text{ per data point in the } P2Y_1 \text{ receptor})$

tri-phosphorylated nucleotides derived from adenosine, uridine, cytosine or synthetic products bearing a bi- or triphosphorylated chain (Ralevic and Burnstock 1998). Three subtypes of adenosine receptors are known, one bearing a splice variant, termed the adenosine A_{2A} and A_{2B} receptors (Collis and Hourani 1993; Stone 1991). The nucleotide receptors belong to two major classes: the P2X and the P2Y



Nucleotides, but particularly, purine nucleotides have been recognized to play increasing roles in brain excitability, sensory signalling and a variety of peripheral actions such as pain transmission, urinary voiding, platelet aggregation, vasodilatation, fertility, bronchial airway inflammation and sensory modulation including taste. Transgenic mice lacking nucleotide receptors are available (Cockayne et al. 2000; 2005; Mulryan et al. 2000; Sim et al. 2006; Solle et al. 2001) opening novel opportunities to study the involvement of these extracellular signals in cellular processes, unveiling their participation in animal physiology in health and disease.

P2X receptors: general principles of allosteric modulation

A recurrent theme, common to other ionic channel receptors, refers to the mode of action of zinc or copper as modulators since their action depends to a large extent on the P2X receptor subunit composition and to a lesser extent on the metal concentration. There are two main effects of these metals: either potentiation or inhibition of the ATP-evoked currents, effects observed in concentrations ranging from 0.3 to 100 µM. For example, while zinc inhibited in a concentration-dependent manner the P2X₁ receptor activity (Wildman et al. 1999), zinc or copper potentiated the P2X₂ receptor activity (Lorca et al. 2005; Xiong et al. 1999). The P2X₃ receptor is also potentiated by zinc (Wildman et al. 1999), whereas no information is available for copper on this receptor. However, contrary to the observations in the P2X₂ or P2X₃ receptors, both zinc and copper inhibit the P2X₇ receptor-gated currents (Virginio et al. 1997). An exceptionally interesting case is the P2X₄ receptor since this purinoceptor is potentiated by zinc but inhibited by copper (Acuña-Castillo et al. 2000; Soto et al. 1996), demonstrating a more complex pattern of modulation.

A representative set of electrophysiological tracings obtained from *Xenopus laevis* oocytes injected with different P2X receptors show the selective and reversible modulator action of zinc and copper and highlights the actions of these metals on the best characterized P2X receptors (Fig. 1). The tracings also show that each P2X receptor subtype has different electrophysiological properties including the ATP potency and desensitization rate. Consonant with



the effects shown for a single metal concentration (Fig. 1), we consistently have observed that the facilitator mode of zinc action in the P2X2 and P2X4 receptors is due to a reversible and parallel leftward displacement of the ATP concentration-response curve (Acuña-Castillo et al. 2000; Coddou et al. 2003; Lorca et al. 2005). The zinc mode of action suggests that the binding of this metal to the facilitator site increases the receptor affinity for ATP. The allosteric modulation must somehow change the receptor conformation resulting in a larger channel conductance. The inhibitor modulator role of copper, at least in the P2X₄ and P2X₇ receptors follows the pattern of a non-competitive inhibition, suggesting that the allosteric binding of copper alters the receptor conformation in such a way that as a final result it reduces the receptor efficacy for ATP, which is ultimately linked to a decreased channel-evoked current (Acuña-Castillo et al. 2000; 2007). The copper-induced inhibition of the P2X₄ receptor activity is mediated by Cu(II) since the challenge with reduced copper (Cu(I)), using ascorbic acid as a reducing agent, failed to inhibit the ATP-evoked currents. While 5 μM Cu(II) inhibited the 10 μM ATP-induced current 48.3 \pm 6.7%, the application of 5 μ M Cu(I) resulted in 5.5 \pm 6.6% inhibition (n = 7, P < 0.01; R. A. Lorca, unpublished work).

To examine and identify the role of critical amino acid residues on trace metal modulation of P2X receptors, site-directed mutagenesis has proved an extraordinarily useful tool. This molecular biology strategy makes possible to generate single amino acid mutants, which can be expressed in a heterologous systems as *Xenopus* oocytes (see recordings in Fig. 1) or HEK cells and the metal modulation can be measured using electrophysiological techniques and hence is possible to determine the importance of the particular residue that has been mutated. Using this approach we have identified specific amino acids that exert a key role on metal modulation, concluding that these residues are part of specific allosteric sites that coordinate trace metals, rather than an indirect effect resulting for the possible interaction between trace metals and ATP.

The P2X₂ receptor

Since both zinc and copper facilitate the ATP-gated currents in a similar manner, the hypothesis was raised that both trace metals may interact at a common metal binding site on the extracellular domain of this receptor. Therefore, it was anticipated that receptor mutants that modified the zinc effect should likewise modify in a similar manner the effect of copper. This appeared to be the case, since with rare exceptions most of the mutants examined showed parallelism between the receptor activity with zinc or copper. Because imidazole groups are commonly involved in the coordination of zinc or copper, we reasoned that single

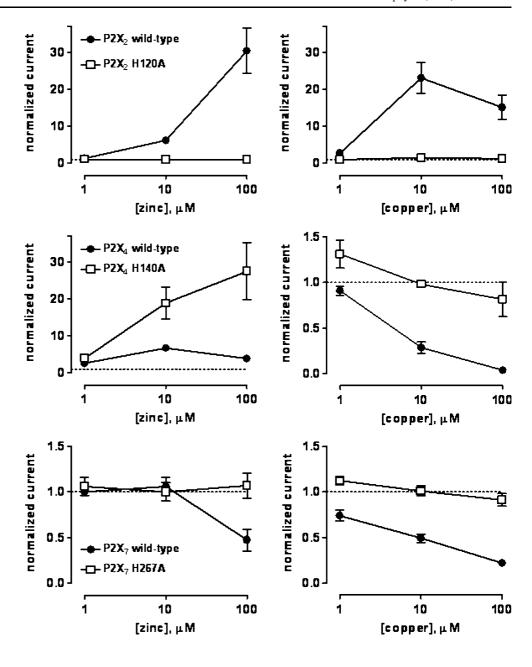
mutations of extracellular histidines should help us to identify which of the nine histidines are indispensable for modulation by the two metals. Out of the nine extracellular histidines, His-120 and His-213 were reported as playing a key role for the modulator action of both zinc and copper potentiation (Fig. 2); the single substitution of each of these two histidine residues rendered the respective receptor mutants resistant to the action of both metals altogether (Clyne et al. 2002; Lorca et al. 2005). Moreover, most recent reports indicate that these two residues are supposedly in close contact between adjacent subunits of the receptor trimer, forming an intersubunit binding site for zinc, and probably also for copper (Nagaya et al. 2005). Intersubunit metal binding sites had been previously demonstrated for the cyclic nucleotide channel (Gordon and Zagotta 1995). Additional to His-120 and His-213, several residues have been implicated in copper and zinc modulation. These residues (His-192, His-245 and His-319) seem to be only partially involved in metal modulation, indicating a role in stabilization of the metal binding site (Lorca et al. 2005).

Moreover, single channel recordings of the P2X₂ receptors expressed in stably transfected HEK 293 cells demonstrated that copper increased P2X2 channel-receptor gating in a cooperative manner (E. Leiva-Salcedo, personal communication). A plausible interpretation of this result suggested that the action of trace metals might be exerted at several levels of the receptor topology. The simplest interaction might only involve each subunit, implying that the trace metals may bind at a metal site within each subunit, or through an intra subunit interaction as depicted in Fig. 3. A second level of interaction might occur within the receptor subunits or, as shown in Fig. 3, inter subunits. But the most attractive possibility refers to inter-channel interactions, as showed diagrammatically in Fig. 3, accounting for the cooperativity of the P2X2 receptor channel, an interaction that appeared to be greatly favoured by copper or zinc. This last challenging possibility remains to be further examined experimentally, but there is evidence showing cooperative interaction between P2X2 receptors when activated by ATP (Ding and Sachs 2002).

To assess the specificity of the receptor metal binding site and to characterize whether other metals might also interact at the trace metals modulator site, other divalent metals were also examined. The $P2X_2$ receptor activity is potentiated by cadmium, mercury, nickel, palladium and cobalt in concentrations ranging from 10 to 100 μ M; platinum had no effect on the $P2X_2$ receptor (Lorca et al. 2005), revealing some degree of metal specificity for the $P2X_2$ receptor. Moreover, the magnitude of the ATP-current potentiation was also different for each metal, with copper being the most effective, since 10 μ M elicited up to a 25-fold increase in the 10 μ M ATP evoked currents.



Fig. 2 Zinc and copper concentration-response curves in wild-type and selected receptor mutants of the $P2X_2$, P2X₄ and P2X₇ receptors. Comparative trace metal concentration-response curves in wild-type and receptor mutants with marked effects on the modulator action of either zinc or copper. Each of the mutants selected replaced an extracellular histidine for an alanine and obliterated the action of zinc and copper, or strongly increased the zinc-potentiation as in the case of the mutant H140A for the P2X₄ receptor. The current amplitudes were normalized against the current obtained with ATP without metals



The study of mercury, a metal that causes permanent deterioration of cognitive brain function, was of particular interest, because the inhibitory modulation of mercury was not abrogated in several receptor mutants rendered insensitive to copper. We therefore reasoned that copper and mercury must act at separate and distinct sites. On the way to better define the action of mercury, we examined chimeric $P2X_{4/2a}$ or $P2X_{4/2b}$ receptors (J. P. Huidobro-Toro, unpublished work). The extracellular domains of these receptors chimera corresponded to the $P2X_4$ receptor, while the transmembrane and intracellular domains are of $P2X_2$ receptor phenotype. Moreover, there is a splice variant of the $P2X_2$ receptor, which lacks a 69 amino acid segment towards the carboxy terminal end of the receptor.

Preliminary data showed that mercury interacts and labels an intracellular cysteine of the $P2X_{2a}$ splice variant of the $P2X_{2}$ receptor. Apparently the sulfhydryl group of Cys-430 of the $P2X_{2a}$ receptor acts as an intracellular redox sensor since hydrogen peroxide increases the ATP-gated currents in a concentration-dependent manner. Consistent with an intracellular site for mercury and the peroxide, the action of both mercury and hydrogen peroxide was abrogated in the $P2X_{2}$ mutant C430A, an indication that an intracellular cysteine must be involved in the mercury inhibitory modulation (C. Coddou, unpublished work), allowing us to propose that the intracellular Cys-430 plays a pivotal role in receptor activity, acting likely as an intracellular redox sensor.



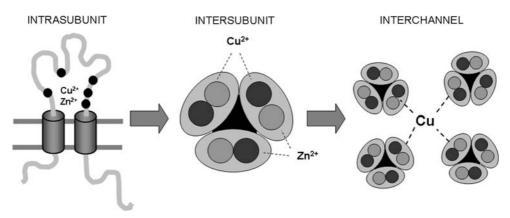


Fig. 3 Schematic representations of different putative levels of trace metal interactions with the P2X receptors. Heuristic diagrams show three theoretical possibilities on the mode of zinc or copper interactions to modulate P2X receptor activity. The simplest interaction might only imply metal binding to ligand receptor amino acid residues forming metal modulator sites restricted to each of the subunits comprising the functional receptor channel trimer. A second plausible type of interaction might consider metal binding sites with amino acid ligands within the different subunits of the functional trimer receptor channel. Finally, a third possible mode of interaction of these metals could imply metal coordination with amino acid residues of adjacent channels,

implying cooperative interactions between functional channels in the cell membrane surface, as might occur in metal-triggered receptor clustering. Obviously, these models also suggest alternative intermediate possibilities implying multiple modes of trace metal interactions with the identified amino acid, which act as ligands for either zinc and/ or copper binding at their modulator sites. In these schemes, *circles* represent each receptor subunit membrane domain, referring to the two transmembrane domains of the P2X receptor subunits; *ovals* represent the receptor subunit. The functional receptor channel is represented by a *trimer*

The P2X₄ receptor

As mentioned previously, the $P2X_4$ receptor is exceptionally interesting and different from the rest of the P2X receptor members since zinc and copper have opposite effects on the ATP-gated currents (Acuña-Castillo et al. 2000), a feature that denotes it as an ideal candidate to dissect whether the receptor contains two separate allosteric sites for zinc and copper. Alternatively, these metals might act in a different mode at a common allosteric metal recognition site.

Regarding extracellular histidines, a key amino acid as a ligand for both zinc and copper at the P2X₂ receptor, this receptor contains only three extracellular imidazole groups. Of these three imidazoles, only His-140 has demonstrated to be critical for the copper-induced inhibition (Fig. 2; Coddou et al. 2003). In addition to the copper-resistance of the H140A mutant, a significant increase of zinc-potentiation was observed changing the metal concentration-response curve from a bell shape in the wild-type receptor to a sigmoidal curve. A plausible interpretation of these results implies that the P2X₄ receptor has two separate and distinct allosteric sites for metal modulation. One is an inhibitor site that binds copper with high affinity and zinc at concentrations above 10 µM. The other allosteric site is a facilitator site that accounts for the zinc-induced potentiation. Since zinc binds to both sites with different affinities, the final effect observed at the wild-type P2X4 receptor is a biphasic bell-shaped curve. Recent findings from our laboratory confirmed the existence of these two distinct and independent allosteric sites within the P2X₄ receptor. A cysteine (Cys-132) very

close and in the vicinity of His-140, is key for zinc potentiation and therefore must be part of the facilitator site. Moreover, the C132A mutant was resistant to the metal-induced potentiation, but instead was consistently inhibited by zinc. These results were not observed in the C126A mutant, confirming the specificity of Cys-132 for zinc potentitation and suggest that this residue might have its sulfyhydryl group in a free form to account for the zinc effects. We also identified an additional residue (Asp-138) that is part of the inhibitory site (C. Coddou, unpublished work). The P2X4 receptor may have a third allosteric site for divalent metals in addition to the extracellular facilitator and inhibitory sites, since mercury, a metal that mimics the action and potency of copper in this receptor, strongly inhibits the copper-resistant H140A mutant (Coddou et al. 2005). The localization of this putative third allosteric site remains unknown.

As with the $P2X_2$ receptor, we also examined whether other metals also interacted at the two modulator sites of the $P2X_4$ receptor. We observed that cadmium mimicked the action of zinc, while mercury elicited a copper-like inhibition, although its action was not related to His-140 (Coddou et al. 2005). Cobalt also augmented the ATP-evoked current in an irreversible manner, while manganese, barium, lead and nickel had no effect on the $P2X_4$ receptor activity (Acuña-Castillo et al. 2000; Coddou et al. 2005).

The P2X₇ receptor

Like other members of the P2X family, the $P2X_7$ receptor is modulated by divalent cations, including calcium and



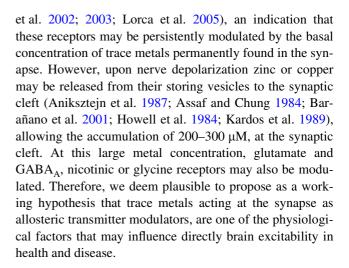
magnesium (North 2002). In contrast to other family members, the P2X₇ receptor is inhibited by copper and zinc (Coddou et al. 2002; Virginio et al. 1997; Watano et al. 2002); copper being at least 20-fold more potent than zinc (Acuña-Castillo et al. 2007). Protons also modulate this receptor (Acuña-Castillo et al. 2007; Virginio et al. 1997), a feature in common with other P2X receptors that will not be covered in this review. Keeping in mind that extracellular histidines are ligands for trace metals and, therefore, essential for trace metal coordination, we addressed the relevance of the extracellular histidines for the action of zinc or copper. Out of the six histidines of the extracellular P2X₇ receptor domain, three were identified as part of the copper and zinc modulator sites. Of these residues, His-267 plays a pivotal role for both copper and zinc modulation (Fig. 2; Acuña-Castillo et al. 2007). In contrast, His-130 is involved only in copper inhibition while His-219 plays a more preponderant role for zinc but not for copper modulation (Acuña-Castillo et al. 2007).

Of particular relevance, was to address the mechanism by which magnesium inhibits the $P2X_7$ receptor function, an issue considered a hallmark in the physiology of this receptor. His-130 together with His-201 proved essential for the inhibitor modulator role of this divalent metal (Acuña-Castillo et al. 2007). Magnesium inhibition was previously attributed to the complexation of ATP with magnesium to form ATP^{4-} , which was supposed to be the $P2X_7$ receptor agonist. However, in our view, the lack of magnesium inhibition in the H130A and the H201A mutants evidenced unambiguously that this metal binds to an allosteric site in the receptor extracellular domain and not to ATP itself (Acuña-Castillo et al. 2007).

Therefore, we hypothesized that the action of magnesium is due to its recognition of a novel allosteric metal binding site, which includes His-130 and His-201 as key amino acids.

Physiological implications for the role of trace metals as allosteric modulators of multiple ionic channels

Altogether, the previous section concurs to indicate that the concentration of zinc and copper that markedly modulate ATP-gated responses, at least in-vitro, are within the range of physiological concentrations that may be found within the synapse. This conclusion is of particular relevance for $P2X_2$, $P2X_4$ and $P2X_7$ nucleotide receptors subtypes, which as summarized, are amongst the most sensitive receptor channels to trace metal modulation since they require the lowest metal concentrations to profoundly modify the ATP-evoked currents. We have repeatedly reported that zinc or copper within 1–10 μ M, notoriously modify P2X receptor-evoked currents (Acuña-Castillo et al. 2000; 2007; Coddou



Structural consequences

Independent of the precise identification of all the amino acids involved as ligands for divalent metals in the P2X family of receptors, the current experimental evidences allows us to draw conclusions on whether the trace metal coordination sites are conserved in the primary sequence of the P2X receptor family. We hope that this feature will be completed within a few years in an effort to encompass the research led by several laboratories contributing to metalloneurobiology. The identification and comparison of the postulated amino acid residues involved in trace metal binding are key to understanding the structural determinants required for trace metal coordination at the P2X₂, P2X₄ and P2X₇ receptor. Figure 4 represents a schematic diagram comparing key amino acids identified for trace metal binding. We conclude on the paramount, but not unique, role played by extracellular histidines in these proteins to bind zinc and particularly copper. These residues are not all evolutionary conserved in the primary sequences of the P2X receptor members (North 2002), in contrast to the well conserved 10 cysteines present in all P2X receptors, which apparently play a structural role in receptor channel conformation. The variations in the amino acids observed to participate in trace metal modulation might indicate separate adaptations to trace metals depending on the tissue selectivity for regional subunit receptor expression.

A most remarkable example of this condition is exemplified by the mode of zinc binding to the $P2X_2$ versus the $P2X_4$ receptor. While the histidine imidazole groups are required as zinc ligands at the $P2X_2$ and $P2X_7$ receptors, no imidazole groups are involved as zinc ligands at the $P2X_4$ receptor (Coddou et al. 2003). Instead, we raised the proposal that Cys-132 is key as a zinc ligand but is not indispensable for copper coordination (C. Coddou, unpublished



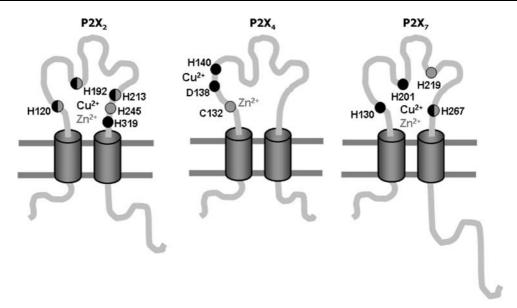


Fig. 4 Schematic comparative topology maps depicting identified key amino acids indispensable for metal binding sites in the P2X₂, P2X₄ and P2X₇ receptors. Linear schematic representation of P2X receptors depicting essential amino acids involved in the modulator site(s), which contribute to the metal coordination. It is obvious that in spite of the 40–50% identity in their primary amino acid sequences, the metal binding site(s) particularly, for zinc, is not evolutionary conserved. For example, while the P2X₂ receptors binds zinc by two imidazole groups identified as His-120 and His-213, this metal does not require imidaz-

ole groups for zinc binding at the $P2X_4$ receptor, but a sulfhydryl group contributed by Cys-132. For the $P2X_4$ receptor a single extracellular histidine is critically required for the binding of copper, while in the $P2X_2$ and $P2X_7$ receptor, at least two histidines are involved in copper coordination. *Black circles* represent critical amino acids identified in the coordination of copper; *grey circles* denote amino acids involved in zinc coordination. *Half black and grey circles* represent amino acids that bind both metals

work). Likewise, and consonant with these findings for trace metals, the extracellular histidines sensitive to changes in pH are different from those involved in copper coordination, an observation common for the $P2X_2$, $P2X_4$ and $P2X_7$ receptors. Therefore, it might be expected that the several P2X receptors evolved different binding pockets for trace metal coordination, each involving the interaction with separate and independent amino acids. Until the three-dimensional protein folding is firmly established, it is as yet not possible to assess whether amino acids in separate receptor subunits or even different functional channels are involved in trace metal action.

Perspectives and future developments

A challenging feature that is urgently required demands the development of in vivo studies replacing the current in vitro protocols by more physiological meaningful approaches using either neuronal cell cultures or brain slices. These experiments should assess whether our observations in *Xenopus laevis* oocytes are relevant to neuronal excitability. In this regard, a most interesting avenue is the recent report of transgenic mice lacking the zinc modulator sites of a mutant glycine receptor channel (Laube et al. 2000). These animals develop a characteristic phenotype, evidenc-

ing the critical role of trace metals in neuronal excitability and, therefore, in behavior. The mutations identified as critical for trace metal modulation in vitro provide a range of possible targets to develop transgenic mice to assess the modulator role of zinc or copper in purinergic brain neurotransmission.

A second issue critically relevant to underscore the role of trace metals is the quantification of trace metals released from brain synaptic vesicles. Even though the literature is plagued with reports assuming the relevant role of trace metals to neuronal events, recent reports cast doubts on the interpretation that significant concentrations of zinc are released to the synapse upon electrical nerve ending depolarization. The measurement of the metals using fluorescent dyes and physical techniques to image the metal indicate that only a minuscule fraction of the stored metal might be released. Moreover, the fraction of zinc released is not in a free form since apparently the metal might be complexed with an as yet unidentified macromolecule (Kay and Toth 2006). Altogether, considerable research is urgently required to resolve the question of synaptic zinc mobilization and its synaptic role. Even more challenging are parallel experiments assessing the role and mobilization of synaptic copper.

A further clinically relevant aspect refers to the functional significance of trace metals in diseased states



characterized by dietary deficits in zinc or copper. Animal studies with dietary deficiencies, conditioning therefore reduced brain uptake and particularly the storage of synaptic trace metals, are urgently required. Carefully controlled animal studies, linking behavior to brain levels of zinc or copper will serve to better define the functional role of these metals at the cellular and molecular levels. Studies using brain slices, particularly assessing the role of these metals in long-term potentiation (Doreulee et al. 1997; Goldschmith et al. 2005; Vogt et al. 2000), will also provide useful models to better analyze the molecular basis of trace metal action at the synapse and their influence in brain excitability. The recent work of R. A. Lorca (unpublished work) highlights the potential of dissecting the role of purinergic mechanisms in long-term potentiation responses by using zinc or copper as brain transmitter modulators. Brain compensatory mechanisms adjusting to the dietary deficiency in these metals, will also provide relevant information about the molecular basis of brain homeostasis to trace metal depletion and their molecular consequences at the synapse.

Final remarks

The role of zinc or copper as novel and atypical brain messengers and transmitter modulators of ligand-gated receptor channels, is an exciting and fruitful field of neuroscience that will grow with the revolutionary success of molecular biology, electrophysiology and neurochemistry to understand brain functioning. The metallo-neuroscience of zinc and copper, although as yet imperfect and incomplete, will mature within a few years to provide spectacular new avenues to understand how a broad variety of dietary components regulate and participate in the intricate mechanisms of the brain and behavior.

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