

OLD, NEW AND NOT YET EXPLOITED PURINERGIC VASOMECHANISMS OF THE PULMONARY CIRCULATION

Haroutioun M. Hassessian

Department of Molecular Physiology and Biophysics, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, Texas, USA.

SUMMARY

- *In the pulmonary circulation, the ultimate role of liberated adenosine-5'-triphosphate (ATP) is to influence vascular tone.*

Extracellular ATP may be derived from sympathetic or purinergic nerves impinging on blood vessels, in addition to vascular endothelial cells, erythrocytes, thrombocytes and mast cells. Purinergic innervation is more marked on the arterial side than the venous, and produces vasoconstriction through P_{2X} purinoceptors although there is a newly discovered non-P^A purinoceptor mediated vasoconstriction produced by ATP which remains to be characterized. Agonists as well as flow derived shear stress have been shown to release ATP from endothelial cells, which in turn act on either the same cell in an autoregulatory manner, or the ATP may travel short distances in the blood to act on endothelial cells downstream. Activation of endothelial P_{2Y} purinoceptors by ATP produces nitric oxide release and vasodilation. There are also P_{2Y} purinoceptors on pulmonary vascular smooth muscle, and it appears that the number of P_{2Y} purinoceptors located on the smooth muscle is inversely proportional to vessel size.

Unlike other sources of ATP, erythrocytes as well as

mast cells are relatively mobile and the magnitude of their effect can change due to alterations in their number. Thrombocyte derived ATP can be released by episodes of hypoxia, and the P_{2T} purinoceptor on thrombocytes may have an autoregulatory function. The P_{2Z} purinoceptor is activated by ATP^A and has been shown to inhibit the activity of natural killer cells as well as macrophages in addition to producing degranulation of mast cells.

It is likely that together with unique features of pulmonary vascular smooth muscle, a combination of purinoceptor mediated mechanisms contributes to the unusual characteristics of the pulmonary circulation. Such a varied and essential role of purinergic regulatory mechanisms in the pulmonary circulation makes purinoceptors sensible targets for therapeutic strategies.

INTRODUCTION

- When lungs evolved in animals, more primitive organisms were already using adenosine-5'-triphosphate (ATP) as a signal transmitter (1-4). Hence it appears that in addition to its intracellular roles in the pulmonary circulation, ATP has survived years of evolutionary selection as a transmitter, and it has maintained such a role in the lungs. The pulmonary circulation is highly unusual in sev-

eral respects. Almost the entire systemic blood volume passes through this fjed, yet it has vascular pressure of about 15mmHg, one sixth that of the systemic circulation (5,6). It has the largest capillary bed in the body, where vessels are exposed to 140 percent changes in oxygen tension during each cardiac cycle, and perhaps the most intriguing characteristic of the pulmonary circulation is that its vessels vasoconstrictin response to hypoxia (6,7). These adaptations optimize ventilation with regard to perfusion.

PURINOCEPTORS

• Based on differential rank orders of agonist potency, pharmacologic antagonism, transduction mechanism and now cloning, adenosine receptors are classified as P₁₅ of which the A₁, A₂ and A₃ are subtypes, whereas ATP receptors are classified as P₂ (8-10). P₂purinoceptors are subclassified into P[^], P_{2Y}, P_{2U} (P[^]), P_{2T}, P[^] and P_m (Table 1) (10-12). The

P[^] purinoceptor is a ligand gated cation changnel (13,14). The P_{2Y} purinoceptors are coupled to G-proteins (11), they activate phospholipase C, leading to augmented hydrolysis of phosphoinosrtides which then produce liberation of intracellular calcium and activation of protein kinase C (10-12). Recombinant P_{2Y}purinoceptors when expressed in *Xenopus* oocytes and stimulated with agonist, activate a Ca²⁺-dependent Cl⁻ channel producing slow oscillatory inward currents, that are characteristic of G-protein coupled receptors (15,16). P_{2Y} purinoceptors have subtle differences and have been further classified into P_{2Y1}, P_{2Y2} and P_{2Y3} receptors based on pharmacological differences between cloned P_{2Y} purinoceptors (10,11) (Fig. 1A). P_{2Z} purinoceptors are believed to be activated by ATP⁴⁺. They mediate permeabilization of the plasmalemma of mast cells and other cells which are found in blood (10,17). P_{2T} purinoceptors, for which the principal agonist is ADP while ATP is a competitive antagonist, are found predominantly

Table 1. *P purinoceptor characteristics.*

RECEPTOR	P _{2X}	P _{2Y}	P _{2U} (P _{2N})	P _{2T}	P _{2Z}	P _{2D}
TYPE	Intrinsic ion channel (Na ⁺ ,K ⁺ ,Ca ⁺)	G-Protein coupled (IP ³ /Ca ²⁺ /DAG)	G-Protein coupled (IP ³ /Ca ²⁺ /DAG)	G-Protein coupled (IP ³ /Ca ²⁺ /DAG/cAMP)	non-selective pore	G-Protein coupled (IP ³ /Ca ²⁺ /DAG)
AGONIST PROFILE	i)ATP>ATPyS>2meSATP 2meSATP	>2meSATP>>ATP >>α,βmeATP	UTP ≥ATP>> α,βmeATP	2-ADP	ATP ⁴⁺	AP _x A
	ii)α,βmeATP> β,γ meATP> ATP>2meSATP					
ANTAGONIST	Desensitization by α,βmeATP. Blocked by suramin, ANAPP ₃ and PPADS.	Blocked by suramin, reactive blue-2		ATP	Oxidized ATP	

Abbreviations used: IP₃ - inositol -1,4,5-triphosphate, DAG - diacylglycerol, UTP - uridine-S'-triphosphate; ATPyS - non-hydrolyzable analogue of ATP; a,pmeATP - a,p methylene ATP.

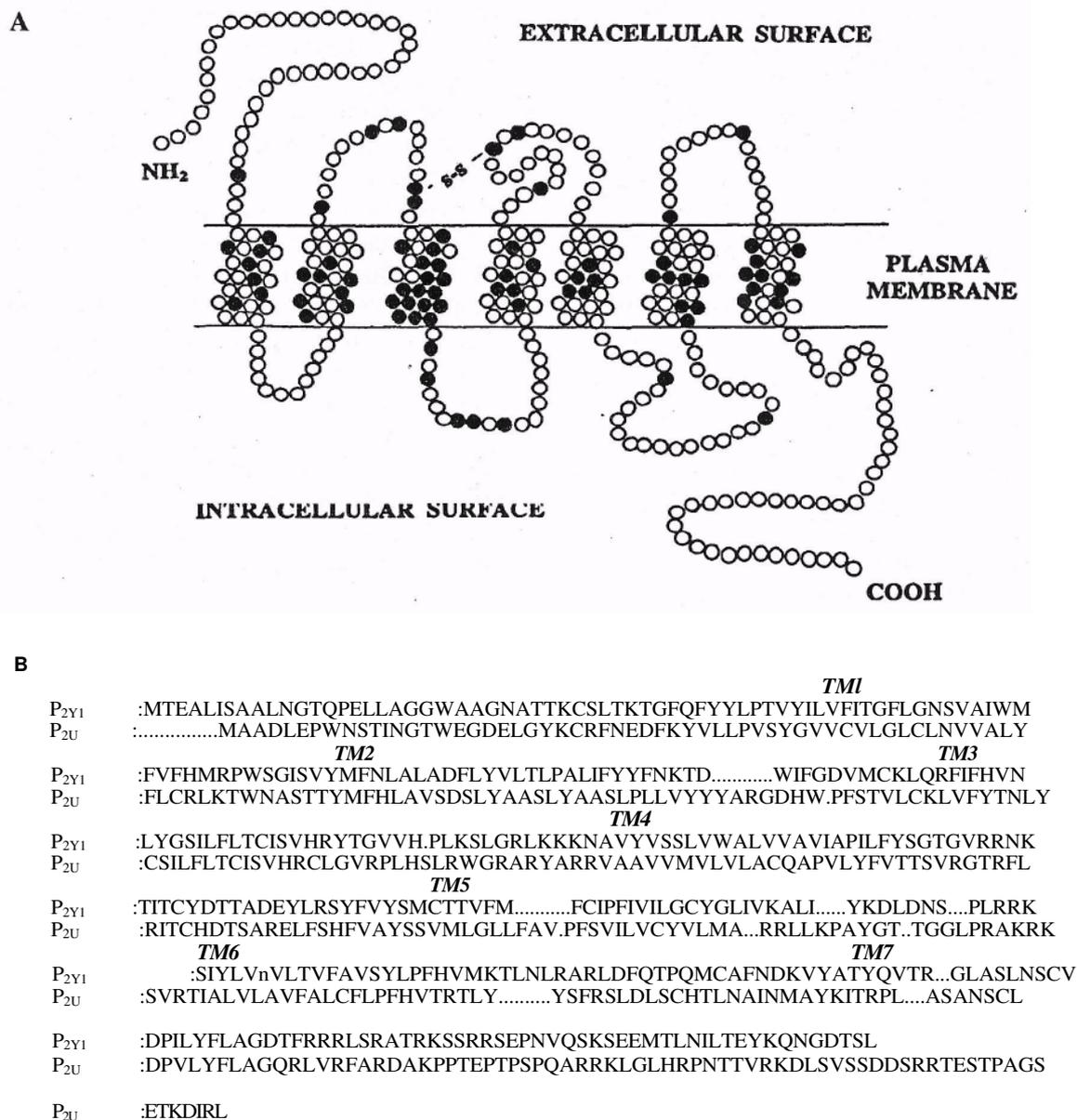


Figure 1. Representation of the amino acid sequence for P_m, P_{2Y}, P^A P_{2U} purinoceptors. A) Schematic diagram comparing the amino acid sequence of P_m, P_{2Y}, and P_{2Y3} receptors, and showing putative membrane spanning domains. The shaded circles depict amino acid residues that are conserved between the three receptors. The open circles represent non-conserved residues, and the filled circles show residues that are known to be important in the function of other G-protein coupled receptors. Subclassification of the P_{2Y}-G-protein linked purinoceptor family into P_m, P_{2Y2} and P_{2Y3} is based on the following clones: P_{2Y1} (Clone 803; see Ref. 16) and P_{2Y2} (Clone P2R; see Ref. 15). Another recombinant brain derived receptor (see Ref. 11) when expressed, responds to agonists with yet another activity series and has a strong preference for ADP. Northern hybridization revealed the presence of mRNA for this receptor in the brain and in several peripheral tissues. It has been designated P_{2Y3}. B) The amino acid sequence for P_{2Y1} and P_{2U} purinoceptors derived from cDNA and aligned for maximum homology. The chicken P_m purinoceptor has 362 amino acids (see Ref. 7), and the mouse P_{2U} purinoceptor has 373 amino acids (see Ref. 25). The likely start positions of the transmembrane helices, as deduced from hydrophathy plots, are shown by the symbols TM1 to TM7.

on platelets and their megakaryocyte progenitors (18,19). P_{2U} purinoceptors are also coupled to phospholipase C via G-proteins (20,21), but unlike P_{2Y} purinoceptors they are activated by UTP as well as ATP (22,23). There is a high degree of sequence homology between P_{2Y1} and P_{2U} purinoceptors (Fig. IB). Other subclasses of P₂ purinoceptors have been proposed, such as P₃, P[^], and P[^] (24-27), for which clearly delineated differences have not yet been shown. The P_{i:2N} subtype may be synonymous with P_{2U} purinoceptors (10,12), and it may be best to consider them as a subclass of P_{2Y} purinoceptors due to their coupling with G-proteins.

PURINERGIC MECHANISMS OF THE PULMONARY CIRCULATION

- Pulmonary vascular smooth muscles possess K⁺ channels which are directly inhibited by hypoxia, producing depolarization and consequently vasoconstriction (28-30). Other factors can contribute to the increase in pulmonary pressure produced by hypoxia through additional vasoconstriction or withdrawal of vasodilation. Perivascular nerves, endothelial cells and blood born cells are the three major sources from which ATP may be released in the mammalian lung. ATP has a vasodilator effect via P_{2Y} purinoceptors (31-33) of a type similar to P_{2Y2} (15), or via P[^] purinoceptors, a vasoconstrictor effect (31, 33-35). In other vascular beds, sensory neurons are known to release ATP and in this way produce vasomotor effects (4), although to date there has not been any such report with regard to the pulmonary circulation. A combination of mechanisms, including purinergic, provide the basis for the normal physiology of the pulmonary circulation, the focus of this review will be on mechanisms where ATP is the transmitter... acting on P₂ purinoceptors.

PURINERGIC VASOCONSTRICTION

Perivascular nerves which release ATP

In the pulmonary circulation, there is a large variation in the distribution and density of innervation dependent on species (5,36) as well as development

tal stage (6,37). The adrenergic system is understood with considerable depth (5,38,39), whereas appreciation of the purinergic system is more recent (40). Although ATP can potentially be released from sympathetic nerves as a cotransmitter along with noradrenaline and neuropeptide Y, to date visualization of non-sympathetic-purinergic innervation to pulmonary vessels has not been reported. There are quinacrine sensitive paratracheal neurones (Belai and Burnstock, personal communication) which need to be studied more closely to establish their identity and potential function. Quinacrine is a fluorescent acridine dye, which binds nucleotides with some selectivity for ATP, and can be used to label cells where ATP is concentrated (41-43). Quinacrine, sometimes in combination with strategic neurotoxins, has been successfully used in non-pulmonary tissues where purinergic innervation is known to exist (44,45).

Vasoconstriction by P_{2X} purinoceptors

With [³H] a,p-meATP as a high affinity ligand for autoradiographic localization of P[^] purinoceptors, together with non-radiolabelled purinoceptor ligands, in cat as well as in human tissue, was found that all vessels in the pulmonary circulation could be labelled (46). However, both medium and small-sized arteries had a higher density of specific binding sites than the large elastic arteries or veins. It was concluded that both P[^] and P_{2Y} purinoceptors are present in small intrapulmonary arteries and that the purinergic innervation is more marked on the arterial side than the venous. In the rat, investigation with intracellular recording from small intrapulmonary arteries of 100-200 μm external diameter revealed an excitatory junctional potential which was resistant to sympathectomy (40) produced by either guanethidine, 6-hydroxydopamine or reserpine (47). Using a,p-meATP, the potent and slowly degradable P[^] purinoceptor agonist (48) to desensitize P[^] purinoceptors, Inoue and Kannan (40) showed that the magnitude of excitatory junctional potentials produced by electrical stimulation could be significantly attenuated without changing the membrane potential by the desensitization procedure. Furthermore, the membrane depolarization induced by ATP was significantly reduced, but not

completely inhibited by α, β -meATP produced desensitization, while the depolarization induced by noradrenaline or serotonin was not affected (40). Such studies are supported by others using isolated vessels and the vascular bed, which showed that pulmonary vessels of various species contain P^A purinoceptors which produce vasoconstriction when stimulated (33,34,49).

In some tissues, the P^A purinoceptor is coupled to prostaglandin synthesis (10,51,52). Furthermore, it is known that ATP is sequentially broken down to adenosine by ectoenzymes (53-55). In this regard it was shown that ATP produces vasoconstriction in the pulmonary vascular circulation in part by a direct effect and in part indirectly following metabolism of ATP to adenosine (34). An A^1 -like receptor coupled to a phospholipase is activated by adenosine, to produce the release of thromboxane A_2 . The direct effect of ATP through the P^A purinoceptor is not

coupled to a phospholipase (34). Observations such as these prompted examination of the role of P^A purinoceptors in the vasoconstriction evoked by acute hypoxia (50). Desensitization of the P_M purinoceptor with repeated application of α, β -meATP blocked vasoconstriction in response to α, β -meATP, a P^A purinoceptor selective agonist, but did not affect the vasoconstriction in response to hypoxia (50).

• A novel vasoconstrictor mechanism

In the presence of 100 μ M N^G -nitro-L-arginine-methyl-ester (L-NAME) and under basal tone, the vasoconstriction evoked by ATP injected into the Krebs perfusate of the rat pulmonary circulation does not change following desensitization of P^A purinoceptors with α, β -meATP (Fig. 2) (35). Since desensitization of P^A purinoceptors on isolated pulmonary vascular smooth muscle by α, β -meATP

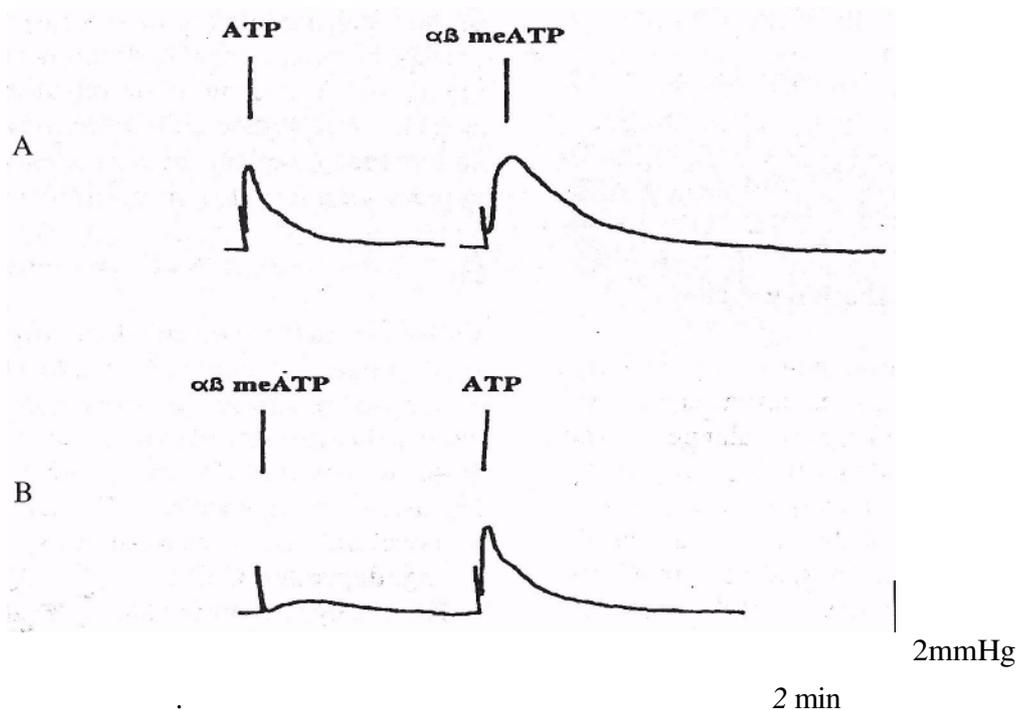


Figure 2. Polygraph traces showing responses of the pulmonary vascular pressure to purinergic agonists. **A)** The response to 1.0 μ mole ATP and 0.001 μ mole α, β -meATP before desensitization of P^A purinoceptors. The P^A purinoceptor was desensitized using multiple injections of α, β -meATP without shifting the basal vascular pressure. **B)** Following P^A purinoceptor desensitization ATP is still capable of evoking vasoconstriction, demonstrating the presence of vasoconstrictor P_2 purinoceptors in addition to those of the P^A subtype.

significantly reduces ATP evoked depolarization (40), the above described observation may indicate that ATP, injected into the vascular lumen, produces the release of a vasoconstrictor from endothelium. Another possibility is that exogenous ATP is stimulating P₂U purinoceptors on vascular smooth muscle. Hence, there exist at least two exciting possibilities which need to be verified before the source of this newly discovered vasoconstriction can be established.

This ATP evoked vasoconstriction through the non-P^A purinoceptor mechanism is not sensitive to indomethacin, although in this preparation the vasoconstriction evoked by adenosine or a.p-meATP is¹ attenuated after inhibition of prostaglandin synthesis (35). Furthermore, glibenclamide will attenuate P₂X purinoceptor mediated vasoconstriction in [lie rat pulmonary circulation but not that mediated by the non-P^A, purinoceptor mechanism. The location, cellular mechanism, and role of these non-P₂V purinoceptors which are activated by ATP remains to be established. Hence, there exists in the rat pulmonary circulation two ATP mediated vasoconstrictor mechanisms that can be distinguished from each other in at least three ways. These exciting new observations put purine nucleotides back into contention as a mediator of hypoxic pulmonary vasoconstriction.

- **Integrator role of the innervation**

Well over half of the total pulmonary vascular resistance lies in vessels under neural control (5, 56). thus ATP released from perivascular nerves can participate in the control of a sizeable portion of the pulmonary circulation. In this respect, it was shown that hypoxic stimulation of the carotid and aortic chemoreceptors reflexly decreased the compliance of the large pulmonary arteries over the entire vascular bed (57,58).

However, alveolar hypoxia increases predominantly the resistance of intrapulmonary arteries (7,57), and vasoconstriction in response to hypoxia is resistant to sympathectomy (59-61). There is still much to be learned regarding the physiological implications of pulmonary blood vessel innervation (5) and thus the

role of ATP released from perivascular nerves. Whether or not nerve mediated regulation enhances alveolar-capillary gas exchange by redirecting pulmonary blood flow is entirely speculative (7,57,62), a more likely function of the neuronal input is to maintain a proper balance between the resistance and compliance characteristics of the pulmonary circulation to ensure compartment between the output of the right and left ventricles (5,63).

PURINERGIC VASODILATOR MECHANISMS

Releasable ATP of endothelium

Endothelial cells play an important role as the inactivator of circulating vasoactive substances, and ectoenzymes on their plasma membrane are responsible for the degradation of purines (8,53-55). Adenosine is taken up by an active mechanism and subsequently synthesized into ATP (64,65). Vasoactive agents are differentially released in response to various stimuli and in this way play a major role in the local modulation of the circulation (56,66). Furthermore, endothelial cells are heterogeneous with regard to their content of releasable vasoactive agents as well as their cell surface receptors (66-69), and this may explain the characteristic reaction to various stimuli of different vascular beds.

2 Liberation of ATP from endothelial cells

Various stimuli have been demonstrated to release ATP from endothelial cells (66,70,71). The release of vasoactive substances from endothelial cells is likely to involve K⁺ efflux and Ca²⁺ influx in addition to the liberation of Ca²⁺ from intracellular stores by inositol-1,4,5-triphosphate (72-74). As with other non-excitabile cells, endothelial cells do not have voltage dependent Ca²⁺ channels (74,76). The efflux of K⁺ will hyperpolarize the cell and thus increase the driving force for Ca²⁺ entry. In addition to agonist evoked ATP release from endothelial cells (75, Bodin and Burnstock, personal communication), we found that increased flow derived shear stress will also evoke release of ATP in the pulmonary circulation (76). Pulmonary vascular flow increases as much as 100 fold during the cardiac cycle (37), therefore, ATP is constantly being released by in-

creases in flow which occur during each systole (74). We have found ibatsuramin, the P₂ purinoceptor antagonist (77-79), will raise pulmonary vascular pressure under condition of increasing flow and flow derived shear stress (78). The ATP release in response to increased flow could be blocked by glibenclamide (76), a blocker of intracellular ATP sensitive K⁺ channels (80) although the ability of glibenclamide to block Ca²⁺ regulated K⁺ channels has also been demonstrated (81,82). We concluded that flow evoked ATP release would also be functional under hypoxic condition (76), where shear stress would increase due to vasoconstriction (7,83,84). The ATP that released from pulmonary endothelial cells could either act on the same endothelial cell in an autoregulatory mechanism, or travel short distances in the blood to act on endothelial P_{2Y} purinoceptors downstream in an autocrine manner (56, 66, 85).

pH related effects on ATP release

During hypoxic conditions, lactic may be released to the extracellular space (86), and ATP liberation (87, 88), as well as the nitric oxide released by ATP, is dependent on a rise in [Ca²⁺], which in part is due to Ca²⁺ influx (75,89). Although there is evidence that Ca²⁺ binding to cell membranes is pH dependent (90,91), and alkalization of extracellular buffer enhances agonist-induced Ca²⁺ influx in bovine aortic endothelial cells (92-94), how, if at all, variations in pH affect endothelium in relation to purinergetic mechanism is an important question which has not yet been addressed.

• Vasodilation evoked by endothelial ATP

There is evidence for a vasodilator function of ATP which is released from endothelial cells in response to increased flow (Fig. 3). Furthermore, endothelial ATP may function to counter vasoconstriction during hypoxia. In some species, the vasodilation evoked by P_{2Y} purinoceptors is endothelium dependent (31), and blocked by inhibition of nitric oxide synthesis with L-NAME (33), demonstrating that activation of pulmonary endothelial P_{2Y} purinoceptors by ATP evoked release of nitric oxide.

Endothelial P_{2Y} purinoceptors are coupled to a phos-

pholipase C by a GPT-binding protein such that activation of the P_{2Y} purinoceptor induces a rapid and transient rise of inositol-1,4,5-triphosphate in endothelial cells (84,95,96). In the pulmonary circulation, the vasodilator effect of P_{2Y} purinoceptor stimulation is not dependent on the release of vasodilator prostaglandins (32,97). Similarly, the vasodilation effect of ATP in the pulmonary vascular bed is not mediated by adenosine (32,98).

Endothelium independent vasodilation

After confirming that endothelium was removed by showing the absence of a vasodilator response to acetylcholine, Liu and colleagues (31) found a persistent vasodilation by human small pulmonary arteries in response to ATP. Such a vasodilation was also produced by non-hydrolyzable analogues of ATP, therefore degradation of ATP to adenosine and A, purinoceptor mediated vasodilation could be excluded. The same group has found P_{2Y} purinoceptors to be on endothelium of only large (2-4mm) human pulmonary arteries (49,99), and they have concluded that P_{2Y} purinoceptor localization differs between big and small pulmonary arteries such that the number of P_{2Y} purinoceptors located on the smooth muscle are inversely proportional to the size of the vessel. From these studies it is logical to postulate that the big arterioles which have a large number of P_{2Y} purinoceptors on their endothelial surfaces would show a more marked effect on endothelial cell damage than the small arterioles.

B Regulation of vascular tone by endothelium

More and more it is becoming clear that vascular smooth muscle is situated between two opposing regulators. A vasoconstrictor innervation adjusts vascular tone relative to the perfusion requirement of the whole animal, and a vasodilator endothelium adjusts vascular tone relative to the local milieu (100,101). Following endothelium cell damage, P⁺ purinoceptor derived vasoconstriction could produce vasospasms, and if the endothelial cell damage is more extensive hypertension may ensue (6). In view of this, the smooth muscle P_{2Y} purinoceptors have particular importance in the therapeutic use of

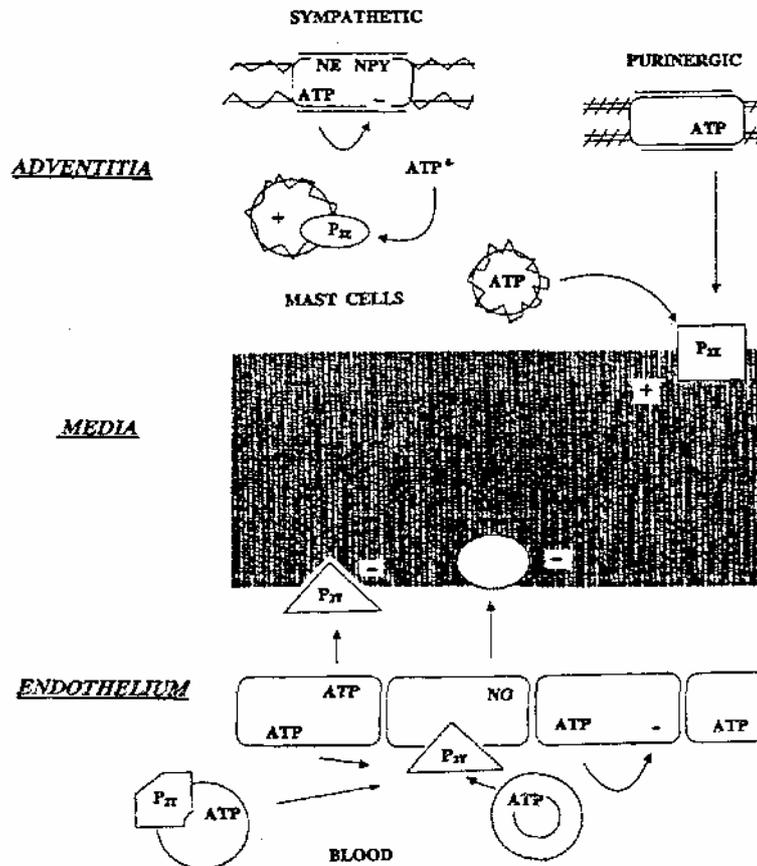


Figure 3. A schematic diagram representing the purinergic components of the vasoactive mechanisms in the pulmonary circulation discussed in the text. Stimuli acting on purinergic nerves, endothelial cells, mast cells or erythrocytes will produce the release of ATP. Depicted are the P_2U purinoceptors of vascular smooth muscle, and the P_2Y purinoceptors of endothelial cells. Also shown are the mobile thrombocytes and mast cells with respectively P_2U purinoceptors and P_2Y purinoceptors. The vasoconstrictor P_2U purinoceptors that are active even after a, β -meATP produced desensitization are not placed since their location remains to be established.

purines for pulmonary vasodilation.

PURINERGIC MECHANISMS OF BLOOD BORN CELLS

• Constituents of blood which release ATP

In addition to neurons and endothelial cells of the pulmonary circulation, erythrocytes and mast cells release ATP in response to various stimuli (5,102-107). Unlike other sources of ATP, these cells are relatively mobile and the magnitude of their effect can change due to alterations in their number (Fig. 3). Thus an increase in hematocrit following chronic alveolar hypoxia (6,108) would alter purine mediated effects in the lungs.

• Vasoactive ATP released from erythrocytes and thrombocytes

Kivity and Soutirada (107) reported that vasoconstriction in response to hypoxia was stronger in 100% plasma than in artificial perfusates composed of dextran or albumin, and they found that the presence of thrombocytes (platelets) in the perfusate led to a potentiation of the hypoxic response. Furthermore, repeating the hypoxic challenge with plasma as perfusate led to a noticeable increase in the size of the vasoconstriction in response to hypoxia with each repetition. Kivity and Soutirada (107) suggest that the mechanism for the apparent

increase with repeated challenges may be due to the lack of the protective adenosine which is initially released to vasodilate. In light of the fact that ATP has been shown to be released from erythrocytes by episodes of hypoxia (105), and that lumenderived ATP vasodilated the pulmonary vascular bed by evoking nitric oxide release (33), the role of the erythrocyte derived ATP as a protector agent during hypoxia can not be excluded. The function of thrombocyte derived ATP is even less clear.

• Mast cell derived vasoactive ATP

Mast cells are plentiful in the walls and lumen of the airways, and periairway mast cells (5,6,108) constitute another source of ATP with a potential vascular role (Fig. 3). The P² purinoceptor is activated by ATP (10,12,18) and mediates degranulation of mast cells (17,109-112) as well as the inhibition of the activity of natural killer cells and macrophages (113,114). It has been shown that in response to acute hypoxia lung mast cells degranulate (6,11-117) releasing substances which can increase plasma extravasation as during inflammation, and it is reported that mast cell number increases in response to conditions of chronic hypoxia (6,118). Some studies have found a lack of correlation between mast cell concentration in the lungs of various species and the vigor of the pulmonary pressor response to hypoxia (5,6). The question of whether changes in mast cell number in animals exposed to chronic condition of hypoxia is the cause or the result of hypertension is still an open question, and the role of ATP in relation to mast cells is understood even less.

CONCLUSION

• Recognition of purinerbic vasomechanisms have opened significant new avenues to our understanding of how pulmonary vascular tone is maintained and regulated. The finding of a novel P² purinoceptor evoked vasoconstriction puts ATP back into contention as a mediator of hypoxic pulmonary vasoconstriction, and although appreciation of this non-adrenergic and non-cholinergic system is relatively recent, the studies show promise that drugs targeted to purinerbic vasomechanisms will have therapeutic use in pulmonary vascular medicine

(119,120).

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Address for correspondence:

Haroun M. Hassessian

Department of Molecular Physiology and Biophysics.

One Baylor Plaza,

Baylor College of Medicine

Houston, Texas 77030

USA

Tel: (713) 798-5710

Fax: (713) 798-3475

Email: hassessian@phy.bcm.tmc.edu