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Early evolutionary history (from bacteria to hemichordata) of the omnipresent purinergic signalling: A tribute to Geoff Burnstock inquisitive mind

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Abstract

Purines and pyrimidines are indispensable molecules of life; they are fundamental for genetic code and bioenergetics. From the very early life forms purines have acquired the meaning of damage-associated extracellular signaller and purinergic receptors emerged in unicellular organisms. Ancestral purinoceptors are P2X-like ionotropic ligand-gated cationic channels ionotropic P2X receptors showing 20 – 40% of homology with vertebrate P2X receptors; genes encoding ancestral P2X receptors have been detected in Protozoa, Algae, fungi and sponges; they are also present in some invertebrates, but are absent from the genome of insects, nematodes, and higher plants. Plants nevertheless evolved a sophisticated and widespread purinergic signalling system relying on the idiosyncratic purinoceptor P2K1/DORN1 linked to intracellular Ca^{2+} signalling. The advance of metabotropic purinoceptors starts later in evolution with adenosine receptors preceding the emergence of P2Y nucleotide and P0 adenine receptors. In vertebrates and mammals the purinergic signalling system reaches the summit and operates throughout all tissues and systems without anatomical or functional segregation.

Key words: Purinergic signalling, Evolution, ATP, P2X receptors, P2Y receptors, adenosine receptors

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“If you can look into the seeds of time,
And say which grain will grow and which
will not”

William Shakespeare, *Macbeth*, Act 1,
Scene 3.

1. The concept of omnipresent purinergic signalling

The saga of ATP as a neurotransmitter began in early 1960 from experiments carried by Geoffrey Burnstock and his colleagues on *teania coli* [1-3]. These experiments revealed the new type of transmission mediated neither by adrenaline nor by acetylcholine (non-adrenergic, non-cholinergic or NANC transmission); which was quite revolutionary in the days when neurotransmitters were limited to these two substances. By 1970 it became apparent that the transmitter in question is ATP, and hence the concept of purinergic nerves and purinergic neurotransmission has been born [4]; the early history of purinergic research is narrated in [5]. The concept of ATP as chemical neurotransmitter has not been accepted readily; to the contrary, several decades were needed before worldwide acknowledgement [6]. This, however, did not preclude Geoff from contemplating the ATP as ubiquitous neurotransmitter not only in autonomic, but also in the central nervous system; this led him to the next fundamental concept of co-transmission [7]. Again, these were the days when Dale's principle (one neurone – one neurotransmitter), supported by all might of John Eccles, stood unassailable; yet co-transmission proved its worth and today the concept of multiple neurotransmitters secreted by an individual neurone or even from individual synaptic terminal is universally accepted.

The concept of purinergic signalling continued to evolve and by early 2000 it became clear that purinoceptors and purinergic mechanisms are operative outside the nervous system; as a matter of fact it turned out that almost every cell type possesses some kind of purinoceptors, and that ATP acts as intercellular signalling molecule literally in all tissues and organs: in blood cells, in bones, in kidney, in the skin, in the reproductive and in the immune system [8]; it is difficult to name a tissue devoid of purinergic signalling [9]. Purinoceptors contribute to regulation of a wide range of processes from oocyte fertilisation to cell proliferation, cell differentiation and cell death [9-11] while malfunction of purinergic signalling accompanies multiple diseases [12-17].

The ubiquity and universality of purinergic signalling led Geoff's inquisitive brain into evolutionary trends behind; in 2005 he presented the view of ATP as the most ancient chemical intercellular transmitter to the public (at the Ciba Foundation symposium). Indeed, the pyrophosphate bonds, phosphorylation of nucleosides and ATP itself appeared on earth in a prebiotic period (there are even speculations for extraterrestrial origin of ATP that arrived to Earth riding the meteorite [18]). Wherever this origin lies, phosphorylated nucleosides define the life as we know it; they are the backbone for RNA/DNA [19], while ATP is an indispensable element of bioenergetics [20]. The choice of ATP as an energy substrate was only possible at low (sub-micromolar) concentrations of ionised Ca^{2+} and hence the cells developed

1 sophisticated Ca^{2+} homeostatic machinery that is also used as the major intracellular
2 signalling platform [21]. Based on all these considerations, Geoff suggested that ATP
3 was, in early evolution, the first molecule to communicate messages to other cells. He
4 contemplated that primitive cells, which all contained high levels of ATP inside, may
5 release it as an extracellular signaller; and indeed the very first role for ATP could
6 have been a damage signal, because cell damage invariably triggers massive ATP
7 excretion; coincidentally ATP remained the *bona fide* damage-associated molecular
8 pattern (DAMP) throughout most of life forms from protozoa and plants to mammals.
9 This led Geoff to pay substantial attention to evolutionary trends behind purinergic
10 signalling [22-25]. In this essay I shall present the brief overview of the early
11 evolution of purinergic transmission.
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14 **2. Evolution of chemical transmission between cells**

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16 The intercellular communications are probably as old as life itself, whichever are the
17 life origins – terrestrial, from Haldane-Oparin primordial soup [26; 27], or
18 Panspermic from comets carrying fragments of DNA or viruses or even seeds and
19 fertilised ova [28]. Life on Earth appeared about 3.8 – 4.2 billion years ago [29] with
20 the oldest forms being filamentous microorganisms in seafloor-hydrothermal vent-
21 related precipitates, from the Nuvvuagittuq belt in Quebec, Canada. Already these
22 organisms were in need of perceiving their environment and hence they were likely to
23 possess some sort of receptive systems. Arguably, the very first receptors were
24 associated with ions as indeed most of environmental stresses experienced by
25 primordial organisms were linked to changes in osmotic pressure of their extracellular
26 milieu due to evaporation (under the sun) or dilution (due to the rain). These changes
27 affect the ion concentrations in the water, which inevitably influences intracellular
28 ions too: the antediluvian receptors were most likely ion channels. Indeed bacteria and
29 archaea, which probably are the most ancient life forms, contain several types of non-
30 proteinaceous [30; 31] and proteinaceous ion channels (for example single-domain
31 Ca^{2+} channels, Na^+ permeable bacterial Na^+ channels NaChBac, Ca^{2+} -dependent K^+
32 channels or CLC chloride channels) permeable to Na^+ , K^+ , Ca^{2+} and Cl^- [32-35].
33 Environment-related fluctuations in intracellular ions made them the very first
34 intracellular signalling system that operates in all living forms [36; 37]. At the same
35 time intercellular ions must be controlled and evolution selected for a system of
36 pumps and exchangers that may rapidly redress ionic changes associated with cellular
37 responses to stimulation. In essence, cells balance the need for intracellular ionic
38 homeostasis (which, when sabotaged, triggers death) and the need to generate
39 intracellular ion signals to control cell physiology.
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47 Some of ion channels present in ancient unicellular life forms acquired ability to sense
48 extracellular molecules, which are associated with environmental changes and most
49 importantly with danger signals. Those danger signals probably represent the most
50 ancient form of intercellular signalling and are, arguably, mediated by simple
51 molecules, such as, for example, protons or aminoacids released by dying organisms.
52 Thus bacteria appropriated the pentameric ionotropic receptor, which, in its most
53 ancestral form, operated as a H^+ -gated channel [38; 39] and the tetrameric K^+ -
54 selective glutamate ionotropic receptors in a form of iGluR0 and its analogues [40;
55 41]. When, around 3.5 billion year ago [42], eukaryotes appear on the scene a
56 seriously diverse set of channels and some receptors have already been in place.
57 Further evolution made three types of ionotropic receptors (Fig. 1), the already
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1 mentioned pentameric and tetrameric and a new class of trimetric receptors. The tetra-
2 and trimeric receptors are, from the earliest times, faithful to their appropriate ligands,
3 respectively to glutamate and ATP; conversely the pentameric receptors are
4 promiscuous and in different species are activated by quite different molecules,
5 including acetylcholine, GABA, glycine and serotonin in mammals, and Zn^{2+} ,
6 histamine or H^+ in invertebrates [43]. All these ionotropic receptors are in operation in
7 unicellular protozoa and algae.
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10 The evolution of the second, and the major class of membrane receptors, the G-
11 protein coupled (GPCR) or metabotropic receptors is associated with eukaryotes [44].
12 The family of GPCRs is extended and diverse; in the human genome 2.4% of all
13 genes are encoding for ~900 receptors that are responsible for most of
14 neurotransmitters and hormone signalling as well as for special senses such as vision,
15 olfaction and taste [45-47]. All metabotropic receptors are serpentine polypeptides
16 that traverse the plasma membrane seven times (hence they are also known as 7-TM
17 receptors). These peptides are in contact with heterotrimeric G-proteins; the latter act
18 as signal transducers upon GPCRs activation [45]. Quite often, activation of
19 metabotropic receptors translates into intracellular Ca^{2+} signals; this signalling system
20 is conserved throughout evolution [48]. Bacteria and archaea are in a possession of
21 distant relatives of GPCRs, known as bacteriorhodopsins, which, however, are not
22 known to act as true receptors [49]; in contrast all eukaryotes from protozoa and fungi
23 to plants and mammals employ metabotropic receptors [50; 51].
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28 The first neurones emerge in hydra (Cnidaria) and comb jellies (Ctenophora) in a
29 form of a diffused nervous system with neuronal net being homogeneously dispersed
30 throughout the animal body. This neuronal network is functionally connected through
31 chemical synapses; the molecular and structural elements of which were likely to
32 evolve earlier, probably already in unicellular organisms [52; 53]. The evolutionary
33 roots of the first neurones are under debate with some evidence favouring the unique
34 evolutionary origin of Ctenophorian nerve cells [54]; while other arguing for the
35 existence of a common secretory cell/neurone precursor [55]. The neurotransmitter
36 landscape in these two earliest forms of nervous system is very different: the hydras
37 use neuropeptides which directly open Na^+ channels [56] (the Hydra sodium channels,
38 HyNaC 1-4, which are somewhat similar to acid-sensing ion channels, ASICs, and
39 epithelial Na^+ channels ENaC), whereas comb jellies use glutamate and express 14
40 types of ionotropic glutamate receptors segregated between different cell types and
41 mediating interneuronal and neuromuscular transmission [54]. Some of these iGluRs
42 are activated by glycine [57], in this distantly resembling the NMDA receptors of
43 mammals. Another interesting peculiarity of intercellular signalling in Cnidaria is
44 associated with wide presence of electrical synapses mediated by innexin-based gap
45 junctions [54]. Genomic analysis of the sea anemone *Nematostella vectensis*,
46 however, revealed a surprising number of orthologues of various receptors, including
47 nicotinic acetylcholine receptors, purinoceptors, adenosine receptors, glutamate
48 receptors as well as many neurotransmitter transporters [58]; which may indicate a
49 more complex neurotransmitter landscape. All in all, the most ancient nervous
50 systems seem to rely chiefly upon ionotropic receptors and ionic signalling, with no
51 proven role for GPCRs.
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58 The next fundamental step in evolution of the nervous system was the centralisation
59 and cephalisation which led to an appearance of neuronal masses, first in the form of
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1 ganglia, which further evolved into multiganglionic brain in insects, crustaceans and
2 such intelligent molluscs as octopodes [59]. Emergence of vertebrates coincided (or
3 was prompted?) by a revolutionary invention of the radial glia, which underlies the
4 emergence of the new, layers based, architecture of the central nervous system [60;
5 61]. Further evolution of the nervous system led to significant specialisation and
6 appearance of many types of neurones and glia that utilise numerous
7 neurotransmitters for synaptic and diffuse (volume) intercellular signalling.
8

9 **3. Evolutionary perspective of purinergic signalling**

10 Direct tracing of the early evolution of chemical transmitters and receptors is of
11 course impossible; fossils do not preserve relevant evidence. To delineate
12 evolutionary trends we have to study living representatives of phylogenetic ladder.
13 The classic purinergic system has three major components: the system for regulated
14 secretion of purinergic signalling molecules, the purinergic receptors and the system
15 for degrading these signalling molecules [43; 62] and here I shall present a concise
16 account of these systems in various phyla from bacteria to early vertebrates.
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18 **3.1. Bacteria**

19 Bacteria do not have *bona fide* receptors to purines; excessive search of microbial
20 genomes RefSeq database covering 3595 bacterial species revealed no homologues of any
21 purinoceptors [63]. Despite the absence of identifiable receptors, bacteria are sensitive to
22 environmental purines and pyrimidines. Out of the multitude of evidence on this
23 subject a few examples may be selected. Adenosine, for instance, suppresses growth
24 of unicellular insect parasite *Crithidia fasciculata* [64] and of several pathogenic
25 bacteria such as *Staphylococcus aureus* [65] and *Micrococcus sodonensis* [66].
26 Extracellular ATP affects proliferation and differentiation of *Streptomyces coelicolor*
27 A3(2) in concentration-dependent manner stimulating at 3 μM and inhibiting at 100
28 μM [67]; as well, ATP inhibits formation of pigment prodigiosin in gram-negative
29 bacteria *Serratia marcescens* [68]. ATP inhibits growth of many bacteria including
30 *Staphylococcus*, *Pseudomonas* and mycobacteria; it has been postulated that release
31 of ATP from macrophages may exert direct anti-microbial effect [69]. Both purines
32 and pyrimidines instigate sporulation in *Bacillus subtilis* [70; 71], while inhibiting
33 spore germination in *Streptomyces galilaeus* [72]. Regulation of sporulation in
34 *Bacillus subtilis* involves interaction of ATP with SpollAB protein, while ADP
35 stimulates binding of SpollAB protein to SpollAA protein. Both Spoll proteins in turn
36 interact with the transcription factor σ^F [73]. Adenosine has profound effects on
37 *Escherichia coli* growth, gene expression and adherence to host cells [74]. What are
38 the molecular mechanisms of purines action on bacteria remains generally unknown;
39 as mentioned before bacteria do not have true purinoceptors. A high affinity binding
40 site for adenine has been discovered in *Achromobacter xylosoxidans* [75], which may
41 possibly reflect an adenine receptor; yet it is very different from adenine receptors
42 described in mammals [76].
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44 Although being devoid of purinoceptors, bacteria are in possession of two other
45 components of purinergic signalling system. First, many bacterial species (such as *E.*
46 *coli*, *Salmonella* and *Staphylococcus*) release ATP; the intensity of this release
47 depends on the phase of proliferative cycle, while increase of extracellular ATP
48 supported bacteria survival [77]. Moreover this bacterial release of ATP was reported
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1 to be regulated by an increase in Ca^{2+} concentration in the cytosol of *E. coli* [78].
2 Thus ATP secreted by bacteria may act as a signalling molecule for bacteria-bacteria
3 or bacteria-host interactions.

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5 Finally, bacteria express the ATP-degrading system. The halophilic bacterium, *Vibrio*
6 *parahaemolyticus* is in a possession of membrane-bound 5'-nucleotidase [79];
7 membrane-linked ATPases have been also purified from archaeobacteria
8 *Holobacterium salinarium* and *Methanosarcina barkeri* [80]. Classical ATP-
9 degrading enzymes of the nucleoside triphosphate diphosphohydrolase (NTPDases)
10 family were identified in *Legionella pneumophila* [81].

13 **3.2. Protozoa**

14 *3.2.1. Social amoeba Dictyostelium discoideum*

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18 The social amoeba *D. discoideum* seemingly possesses all components of purinergic
19 signalling system. First, ATP is detected in the media containing suspensions of *D.*
20 *discoideum* at 0.1 – 0.8 μM , suggesting ATP release pathway(s) [82]; the ATP release
21 is stimulated by changes in cell volume [83]. Second, *D. discoideum* (as well as other
22 amoebae) express ecto-ATPases to degrade and probably protect against excessive
23 extracellular ATP [82; 84]. Finally, *D. discoideum* is endowed with a surprisingly rich
24 repertoire of purinoceptors. First, the genome of social amoeba has five ionotropic
25 ATP receptors which have certain homology with mammalian P2X receptors. These
26 receptors (labelled as P2XA-E) are cationic channels with Ca^{2+} permeability; they are
27 localised at the membrane of intracellular organelles, the vacuoles [85-87]. These
28 intracellular P2X receptors contribute to osmoregulation and may act as intracellular
29 Ca^{2+} release channels [88]. At the same time extracellular administration of ATP to *D.*
30 *discoideum* triggers cytoplasmic Ca^{2+} signals and cell depolarisation; these reflect
31 plasmalemmal Ca^{2+} influx sensitive to Gd^{3+} [89]. This ATP response is mediated
32 through transient receptor potential channel TRPP homologous to human TRPP1
33 channel (it is also known as polycystin-2). The TRPP channel in *D. discoideum* is
34 either directly gated by ATP (thus being a purinoceptor) or it is linked to yet unknown
35 plasmalemmal ATP receptor [90]. Finally, amoebae also express plasmalemmal
36 metabotropic receptors activated by cAMP and designated as cAR1 – 4 [89; 91].
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42 *3.2.2. Choanoflagellate*

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45 The genome of the choanoflagellate *Monosiga brevicollis* contains a gene encoding
46 ionotropic P2X-like receptor; expression of the protein in HEK293 cells led to a
47 formation of ATP-gated cationic channel [92].
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49 *3.2.3. Ciliates*

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52 The ciliates, *Paramecium* and *Tetrahymena thermophila*, are sensitive to exposure to
53 the nucleotides ATP and GTP, which both trigger avoiding reactions [93] associated
54 with activation of Na^+ and Mg^{2+} currents, membrane depolarization and Ca^{2+} influx
55 through voltage-gated channels [94-96]. It seems that effects of ATP and GTP on
56 ciliates are mediated through plasmalemmal metabotropic receptors of yet unknown
57 molecular nature [97]. The ATP-degrading system, represented by ectoATPases has
58 been identified in *T. thermophila* and in *Paramecium* [98; 99].
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3.2.4. *Trypanosoma*

Radioligand binding identified two high-affinity plasmalemmal ATP receptors in *Trypanosoma cruzi*; the molecular nature of these receptors remains unknown [97]. Ecto-nucleotidases activity was detected in *Trypanosoma* [100], as well as in another member of the family, *Leishmania* [101].

3.3. *Algae*

Ostreococcus tauri is primitive green algae, which appeared about 1 billion years ago, and it is related to the evolutionary origin of photosynthetic plants [102]. The genome of *O. tauri* contains a gene for ionotropic P2X-like receptor. This gene, *OtP2X* encodes a protein of 387 amino-acid residues with a molecular weight ~ 42 KDa. This protein has ~23% homology to P2X receptor of *D. discoideum* and ~28% of homology to human P2X receptors [92]. The *OtP2X* protein, when expressed in heterologous system, forms a functional ATP-gated cationic channel with ATP EC₅₀ ~247 mM and rather low Ca²⁺ permeability (P_{Ca}/P_{Na} ~ 0.39) [92]. Possible functional role for this receptor in the life of *O. tauri* remains unknown [103].

3.4. *Fungi*

The orthologues of P2X receptors have been identified in the genome of three basal fungi *Allomyces macrogynus*, *Spizellomyces punctatus*, and *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis*; these receptors have significant sequence similarity with animal P2X receptors [104]. Neither biophysical properties, nor functional significance of these receptors has been studied yet. Some fungi (for instance *Candida albicans*) were reported to release ATP possibly by diffusion through plasmalemmal channels [105].

3.5. *Sponges*

The orthologue of P2X receptor was found in the genome of sea sponge (*Amphimedon queenslandica*) [104]; whether it exists in other sponges and how it functions remains unknown. Curiously, a tripyridine alkaloid niphatoxin C isolated from the Australian marine sponge *Callyspongia sp* at 10 – 100 μM concentrations inhibited mammalian P2X₇ receptors [106]. Similarly several ianterans isolated from the marine sponge *Ianthella quadrangulata* appeared to be potent (EC₅₀ ~ 1 μM) and selective inhibitors of mammalian P2Y₁₁ receptors [107].

3.6. *Plants*

Effects of ATP on plants are many: ATP regulates numerous function including growth, development and regeneration [108; 109]; furthermore ATP triggers cytosolic Ca²⁺ signalling in roots of *Arabidopsis* plants [110], suggesting the existence of classical receptor system. This system has been identified in recent years as DORN1 (Does not Respond to Nucleotides 1 according to the name of *Aradiposis* mutant [111]); this receptor has been subsequently named P2K1 to align it with general classification of purinoceptors. Molecularly the P2K1/DORN1 receptor is a plasma membrane-spanning legume-like lectin serine–threonine receptor kinase, which binds ATP with K_D ~ 45 nM and upon binding triggers intracellular Ca²⁺ signals [111; 112].

These Ca^{2+} signals in turn activate numerous downstream signalling pathways (such as for example NO signalling) and induces transcriptional responses [113; 114].

Plant cells release ATP to the apoplast by several pathways. First, ATP was found to be exocytotically secreted at the sites of active growth [115]. Second, ATP can be released by the plasmalemmal transporters such as ABC cassette transporter AtPGP1 or nucleotide transporter PM-ANT1 [116; 117]. Finally, ATP is massively released in response to damage, be this mechanical wounding such as herbivore attack or pathogen-triggered necrosis; such damage-induce ATP release was found to increase extracellular concentration of the latter to 80 nM in the damaged *Arabidopsis* roots [118] and to 80 μM in the plant leaves [119]. Several stressors, such as, for example, osmotic stress, L-glutamate, stress related hormone abscisic acid or pathogen-derived molecules such as yeast extract or mycotoxinbeauvericin, trigger ATP release from plant cells [118-122]. All these facts agree with the classical role of ATP as a DAMP; and indeed in plants ATP acts as a widespread DAMP [122]. Treating plant cells with ATP triggers massive activation of genes associated with wounding [111]. At the same time plant cells secrete ATP in physiological settings: mild mechanical stimulation of plant roots compatible with that experienced during normal growth through the soil evokes release of nanomolar ATP concentrations [123]. This of course indicates that purinergic signalling is utilised in intercellular communications in plants. This signalling seems to be particularly important at the growing roots; these regions of growth shows both the highest degree of physiological ATP release and the highest expression of ectonucleotidases AtAPY1 and AtAPY2 [109].

3.7. Placozoa

Placozoa are the most primitive multicellular animals having only four types of somatic cells and devoid of the nervous system; these phylum is not placed at the very base of the animal kingdom [124]. The homologues of the P2X receptors were identified in the genome and subsequently cloned from *Trichoplax adhaerens* (TaadP2XB receptor); expression of these receptors in HEK293 cells, however, did not result in an assembly of ATP-gated channel [125]. Nonetheless, the role for ATP as a signalling molecule in *Trichoplax adhaerens* has been suggested [126; 127].

3.8. Cnidaria

The genome of cnidarian starlet sea anemone *Nematostella vectensis* contains two orthologues of P2X receptors with 54% residue identity with vertebrate P2X₄ receptors; in addition four orthologues of adenosine metabotropic receptors (albeit with rather low ~20% homology to vertebrate ones) have been revealed [58]. The P2X receptors sequence was also identified in the genome of another Cnidarian, in *Hydra*; this receptor was 48% homologous to the receptor of the sea anemone [58]. The P2X receptor analogue (aepP2X receptor) was identified and cloned from *Hydra vulgaris*; expression of this receptor in HEK293 cells resulted in an appearance of ATP-gated cationic channel [125]. Sensory neurones of the hair bundle of sea anemone were reported to contain ATP-reach storing organelles which possibly may indicate ATP release [128]. Nonetheless functional purinergic transmission is yet to be demonstrated.

3.9. Ecdysozoa

1 A protostome superphylum *Ecdysozoa* includes nematodes, arthropods, insects,
 2 chelicerata, crustaceans, myriapods, tardigrades, and some other smaller phyla.
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4 3.9.1. Nematodes

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 7 There is no evidence for expression of purinoceptors in nematodes; the search for the
 8 relevant genome sequences fail to identify anything relevant in several nematode
 9 species including *Caenorhabditis elegans* and *Caenorhabditis briggsae*, as well as in
 10 37 members of *Ascaridomorpha*, *Spiruromorpha*, *Trihcnellida*, *Dorylaimida*,
 11 *Cephalobomorpha*, *Tylenchomorpha*, *Stongyloidea*, *Rhabditoidea*,
 12 *Diplogasteromorpha* and *Panagrolaimomorpha* [129; 130].
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15 3.9.2. Tardigrades

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 18 The tardigrades (the “slow walkers”) as they were christened by Lazzaro Spallanzani
 19 in 1777; although when initially discovered by Johann August Ephraim Goeze in
 20 1773 they received the name of *kleiner Wasserbär* or “little water bears”, are the
 21 most unique microscopic animals. Their are about 0.2 – 1 mm in length, they have
 22 segmented body with eight legs and they live everywhere from hot springs to the deep
 23 sea or summits of Himalayas and from African desert to the North pole. These are the
 24 most resilient animals, which can even survive the unprotected raid on the outer skin
 25 of the cosmic satellite orbiting at ~250 km above Earth for 10 days [131]. There are
 26 some conjectures (which are perceived by many as a fantasy) about extraterrestrial
 27 origin of these remarkable species [28].
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 32 Be this all is it may, the genome of one of the member of the phylum, the tardigrade
 33 *Hypsibius dujardini*, contains the sequence encoding the P2X-like ionotropic receptor
 34 designated as *HdP2X*; this sequence is 480 amino acids long and has ~38% homology
 35 with P2X receptors of vertebrates. Expression of *HdP2X* protein in HEK293 cells
 36 resulted in a formation of a functional ionotropic receptors sensitive to classical
 37 agonists ATP Bz-ATP and α,β -meATP at concentrations ~ 10 - 100 μ M as well as to
 38 the broad-spectrum purinergic receptor antagonists PPADS and suramin [132].
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41 3.9.3. Arthropoda

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 44 The subphylum of *Crustacea* covers a large group of animals represented by crabs,
 45 lobsters, crayfish, shrimp, krill and barnacles. Both ionotropic and metabotropic
 46 purinoceptors are operational in many representatives of this subphylum. In particular
 47 two P2X receptor paralogues have been identified in the genome of the freshwater
 48 crustacean *Daphnia pulex*; these receptors were designated *DpuP2XA* and *DpuP2XB*.
 49 When expressed in HEK293 cells, these proteins assembled into ATP-gated channel,
 50 Stimulation of these channels with ATP in mM concentrations evoked non-
 51 desensitising, inwardly rectifying cationic current with reversal potential ~ 8 mV;
 52 other purinergic agonists ADP, α,β -meATP or β,γ -meATP were ineffective [133].
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 57 *Crustacea* possess quite an elaborated set of metabotropic adenosine and ATP
 58 receptors, which act as chemosensors in olfactory and gustatory systems. Several
 59 subpopulations of purinoceptors with distinct sensitivity to AMP, ADP and ATP are
 60 present in the olfactory system of spiny lobsters *Panulirus argus* and *Panulirus*
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1 *interruptus* [134; 135]. Lobsters' sensilla, located in the antennae and antennules, are
 2 endowed with two types of receptors sensitive to adenosine (resembling adenosine
 3 receptors by their agonist profile) and to nucleotides (which, pharmacologically,
 4 resemble P2Y receptors); activation of these receptors induces various forms of
 5 feeding behaviours [135-137]. The ability to sense ATP in the sea water allows
 6 crustaceans (who mostly feed on wounded or recently killed animals) to perceive the
 7 "freshness" of the prey – ATP, which is released from dying animal, signals fresh
 8 flesh, whereas products of ATP degradation (by nucleotidases of picoplankton [138])
 9 indicate tissue that is dead for a while [139]. The ATP chemosensors of California
 10 spiny lobster, *Panulirus interruptus*, show exceptional sensitivity: lobsters can be
 11 attracted by ATP in nanomolar concentrations [140]. Olfactory purinoceptors have
 12 been detected in the shrimp *Palaemonetes pugio* and in the blue crab *Callinectes*
 13 *sapidus* [141]. Of note, in decapod crustaceans the organs of olfaction and gustation
 14 are anatomically segregated, the former localised on the antennules, the latter on the
 15 walking legs, maxillipeds and mouthparts. Sensilla of the walking legs of the spiny
 16 lobster, *Panulirus argus*, have special cells sensitive to ATP and AMP [142].

20 Another arthropod, the Arachnida *Boophilus microplus* (also known as *Rhipicephalus*
 21 *microplus* or Asian blue tick) is also in a possession of the P2X receptor homologue
 22 classified as *Bmp2X* [143]. This protein comprises 414 amino acids with 44% of
 23 homology with human P2X₄ receptor. Expression of *Bmp2X* in *Xenopus* oocytes
 24 resulted in ATP-gated (EC₅₀ ~70 μM) channel with slow activation (time to peak ~5
 25 s) and inactivation (50% of decay in 5 min in the continuous presence of ATP)
 26 kinetics. The *Bmp2X* currents are potentiated by a drug amitraz used for treating
 27 cattle infested by the tick [143].

31 3.9.4. Insects

32 Analysis of genome of several insects such as *Drosophila melanogaster*, *Apis*
 33 *mellifera* and *Anopheles gambiae* did not identify any homologues of P2X receptors
 34 [25; 144]. Nonetheless insects do have sensitive to purines and pyrimidines and
 35 apparently do express some metabotropic purinoceptors.

36 In particular these receptors are involved in olfactory and gustatory sensations. For
 37 example, apical sensilla of the labrum of *Culex pipiens* have functional ATP receptors
 38 contributing to the blood feeding behaviour [145]. Some of insect chemoceptors have
 39 a remarkable sensitivity: the ED₅₀ for ATP for *Glossina palpalis palpalis* females is
 40 0.5 μM nM, while for males it is 1.5 μM [146]; this means that even tiny amounts of
 41 ATP which are much smaller than 1 mM of ATP present in the plasma, can initiate
 42 gorging reflex. The gender difference in receptors sensitivity also explains why
 43 female mosquitoes are more ferocious than males. The rank of agonist potencies for
 44 these chemoceptors is ATP ≥ ADP = 2deoxyADP > AMP-PNP > AMP-PCP >>
 45 AMP, which is similar to some P2Y receptors [146]. A similar order of potency for
 46 gorging stimulants was found in *Rhodnius prolixus* [147]. The P2Y-like receptors
 47 contribute to feeding initiation in mosquitoes *Culex pipiens* and *Culiseta inornata*,
 48 which is again suggested the agonist potency order: ADP > ATP = AMP > β,γ-
 49 meATP for *C. pipiens* and ADP > ATP > β,γ-meATP >> AMP for *C. inornata* [148].
 50 The molecular nature of insects P2Y-pike receptors are yet to be revealed, although
 51 *Drosophila* genome does contain some orthologues of P2Y receptor family [149].
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1 Drosophila gene *CG9753* encodes the adenosine receptor (designated as *DmAdoR*),
 2 which shows ~38% of homology to the human A_{2A} receptor [150; 151]. Expression of
 3 *DmAdoR* in Chinese hamster ovary cell line results in a functional receptors;
 4 stimulation of this receptors with adenosine evokes synthesis of cAMP and triggers
 5 cytoplasmic Ca²⁺ signalling [150; 151]. The transcripts of *G9753* were identified in
 6 the brain, imaginal discs, ring gland and salivary glands of *Drosophila* larvae,
 7 suggesting their functional relevance [150]. Expression of loss of function mutant
 8 *DmAdoR* in adult flies causes deficient synaptic transmission and impaired associative
 9 learning [152]. In the larvae of the *Calliphora vicina*, the blowfly, adenosine
 10 decreases amplitude and frequency of nerve-evoked postsynaptic currents; these
 11 effects were simulated by A₂ receptor agonist and suppressed by A₂ receptor
 12 antagonist suggesting functional expression of adenosine receptors [153].
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15 **3.10. Lophotrochozoa**

16 **3.10.1. Platyhelminthes**

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 21 Ionotropic ATP receptor cloned from the trematode *Schistosoma mansoni* [129; 154]
 22 was classified as *SchP2X* [129] or *SmP2X* [154]. This receptor shares 25 – 36%
 23 homology with human P2X receptors, being most similar to P2X₄ and P2X₅ receptors
 24 [129; 154]. Expression of recombinant *SchP2X* in *Xenopus* oocytes, resulted in
 25 functional ATP-gated channel. Exposure to ATP and Bz-ATP evoked inward currents
 26 with EC₅₀ of 22 μM and 3.6 μM respectively; AMP-CPP, ADP, UTP, UDP, GTP and
 27 ITP were ineffective. Current carried by *SchP2X* channels were blocked by PPADS,
 28 suramin, and TNP-ATP, these currents were also potentiated by a modulator of
 29 human P2X₄ receptors ivermectin [103; 129; 154]. In the presence of ATP *SchP2X*
 30 receptors demonstrate pore dilation [154], a phenomenon well known for human P2X₂,
 31 P2X₄ and P2X₇ receptors [155].
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35 **3.10.2. Planaria**

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 38 The homologue of P2X receptors was characterised in the freshwater planarian
 39 *Dugesia japonica* and designated *DjP2X-A* [156]. This gene is specifically expressed
 40 in planaria stem cells (neoblasts), it encodes a membrane protein and it controls
 41 normal proliferation of these neoblasts. The biophysical characterisation of this P2X-
 42 like protein is yet to be achieved.
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45 **3.10.3. Molluscs**

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 47 The phylum of Molluscs includes into cephalopods (squid, cuttlefish and octopus) and
 48 gastropods (snails and slugs).
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 50

51 The P2X receptor, designated as *LymP2X* has been cloned from the pond snail
 52 *Limnea stagnalis*. This receptor has 435 amino acids and is 31 – 46% identical to the
 53 human P2X receptors with maximal homology with P2X₄ receptors [157]. Being
 54 expressed in *Xenopus* oocytes the *LymP2X* acts as a ligand-gated channel which can
 55 be activated with ATP, BzATP and α,β-methylene-ATP; the EC₅₀ for ATP and Bz-
 56 ATP are 6 μM and 2 μM, respectively. Currents mediated by *LymP2X* are inhibited
 57 by PPADS and suramin [157]. The *LymP2X* receptors are expressed in all parts of *L.*
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1 *stagnalis* CNS. Snail neural cells are capable of secreting ATP [158], which may
2 contribute to excitatory neurotransmission.

3
4 *Aplysia californica* or California sea hare has a single P2X receptor which appears in
5 two isoforms. These receptors, classified as *AcP2X*, form, when expressed in *Xenopus*
6 oocytes, ligand-gated cationic channels activated by ATP with K_D of 306 μM [159].
7 The *AcP2X* receptors are also activated by Bz-ATP and are inhibited by PPADS and
8 suramin. This type of P2X receptors was expressed in chemosensory structures of
9 *Aplysia* and in peripheral organs; in the CNS *AcP2X* are localised to the insulin-
10 containing neurosecretory cells of the cervical ganglia which are involved in control
11 of growth and reproduction [159].
12

13
14 Molluscs are also in possession of metabotropic purinoceptors. For example
15 adenosine was reported to modulate electrical activity of neurones in the
16 suboesophageal ganglion of the snail, *Helix aspersa*, through A_1 and A_2 adenosine
17 receptors [160]. Adenosine receptor-like proteins and related signalling transduction
18 pathways regulate haemocyte adhesion in abalone, *Haliotis diversicolor* [161].
19

20
21 The AMP receptors are used for chemoception by the common octopus, *Octopus*
22 *vulgaris*. These receptors are localised in sensory organs in the arms of the animal and
23 AMP appears to be the most potent chemoattractant, which triggers a locomotor
24 response directing the arms towards the meal [162].
25

26 3.10.4. Annelida

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28 Main purinergic agonists ATP, ADP, AMP trigger inward cationic current and
29 depolarise noxious and touch cells located in neuronal ganglia of medicinal leech
30 *Hirudo medicinalis* [163], indicating expression of P2X-like receptors. Glial cells of
31 the leech also express metabotropic P2Y-like receptors linked to activation of Na^+
32 channels and generation of Ca^{2+} signals mediated by InsP_3 ; in addition these glial
33 cells contain adenosine receptors regulating hyperpolarising K^+ channels [164].
34 Metabotropic P2Y receptors also activate mechanosensitive channels in the growth
35 cones of leech neurones [165] while ATP is the primary activator of microglia in the
36 leech nervous system [166]. Metabotropic purinoceptors were also found to regulate
37 transepithelial Cl^- secretion and Na^+ absorption across the integument of the
38 medicinal leech. It turned out that ATP, applied from either apical or basolateral sides
39 stimulates Na^+ uptake, whereas adenosine stimulated non- Na^+ currents and acted only
40 from the basolateral side [167].
41

42 3.11. Echinoderms

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44 The Hemichordata (Acorn worms) and Echinodermata (e.g. sea urchin, starfishes,
45 brittle stars, feather stars, sea cucumber) are currently considered to be a sister phyla
46 of Chordata; it is still unclear whether they represent a parallel evolutionary trait or
47 are related to Chordata. Purines and pyrimidines exert multiple effects on various
48 systems of echinoderms with pharmacology similar to that of adenosine and P2Y
49 purinoceptors of the vertebrates [168-170].
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51 3.12. Recapitulation

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1 The purinergic signalling system emerged at the very dawn of evolution: it is
2 operational in unicellular organisms. Although the purinoceptors have not been
3 detected in Bacteria, there are examples of ATP sensitivity compatible with its broad
4 role as a damage-associated signal. The very first purinoceptors are represented by
5 ionotropic P2X receptors showing 20 – 40% of homology with vertebrate P2X
6 receptors (Fig. 2). Genes encoding these ancestral P2X receptors have been detected
7 in Protozoa, Algae, fungi and sponges; they are also present in some invertebrates, but
8 are absent from the genome of insects, nematodes, and higher plants (for cladograms
9 and detailed descriptions see [104; 159; 171]). Plants have a sophisticated and
10 widespread purinergic signalling system and plant developed the idiosyncratic
11 purinoceptor P2K1/DORN1 linked to intracellular Ca^{2+} signalling (Fig. 2). The
12 advance of metabotropic purinoceptors started later in evolution with adenosine
13 receptors preceding the emergence of P2Y nucleotide and P0 adenine receptors (Fig.
14 2). In vertebrates and mammals the purinergic signalling system reaches the summit
15 and operates throughout all tissues and systems without anatomical or functional
16 segregation.
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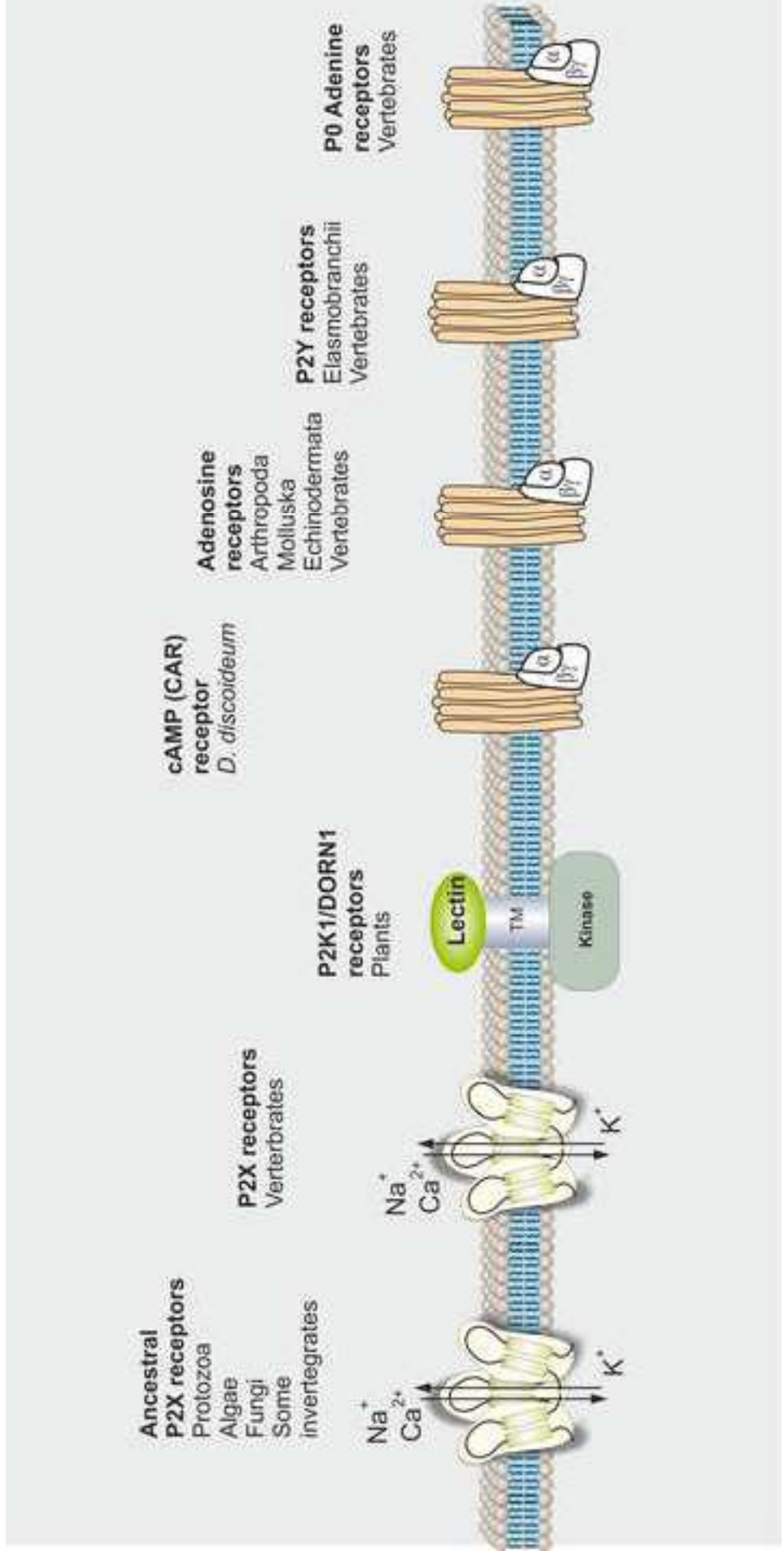
Figure legends

Figure 1. Three classes of ionotropic receptors.

Purinoceptors (trimeric P2X receptors; every subunit is assembled from 2 transmembrane (TM) domains), glutamate receptors (tetrameric AMPA, kainate, KA and NMDA receptors; each subunit is assembled of 3 TM domains), and pentameric receptor channels for acetylcholine (ACh), GABA, glycine and serotonin (each subunit is composed of 4 TM domains). Vertebrate P2X and ionotropic glutamate receptors are non-selective cation channels, whereas pentameric receptors are either non-selective cation channels (nicotinic ACh receptors, serotonin receptors) or chloride channels (GABA_A, glycine_A receptors). The existence of Zn²⁺-gated pentameric cation channels is still a matter of speculation. Invertebrate tissues express a range of pentameric channels with unusual properties.

Modified from [172] with permission.

Figure 2. Evolutionary history of purinoceptors.



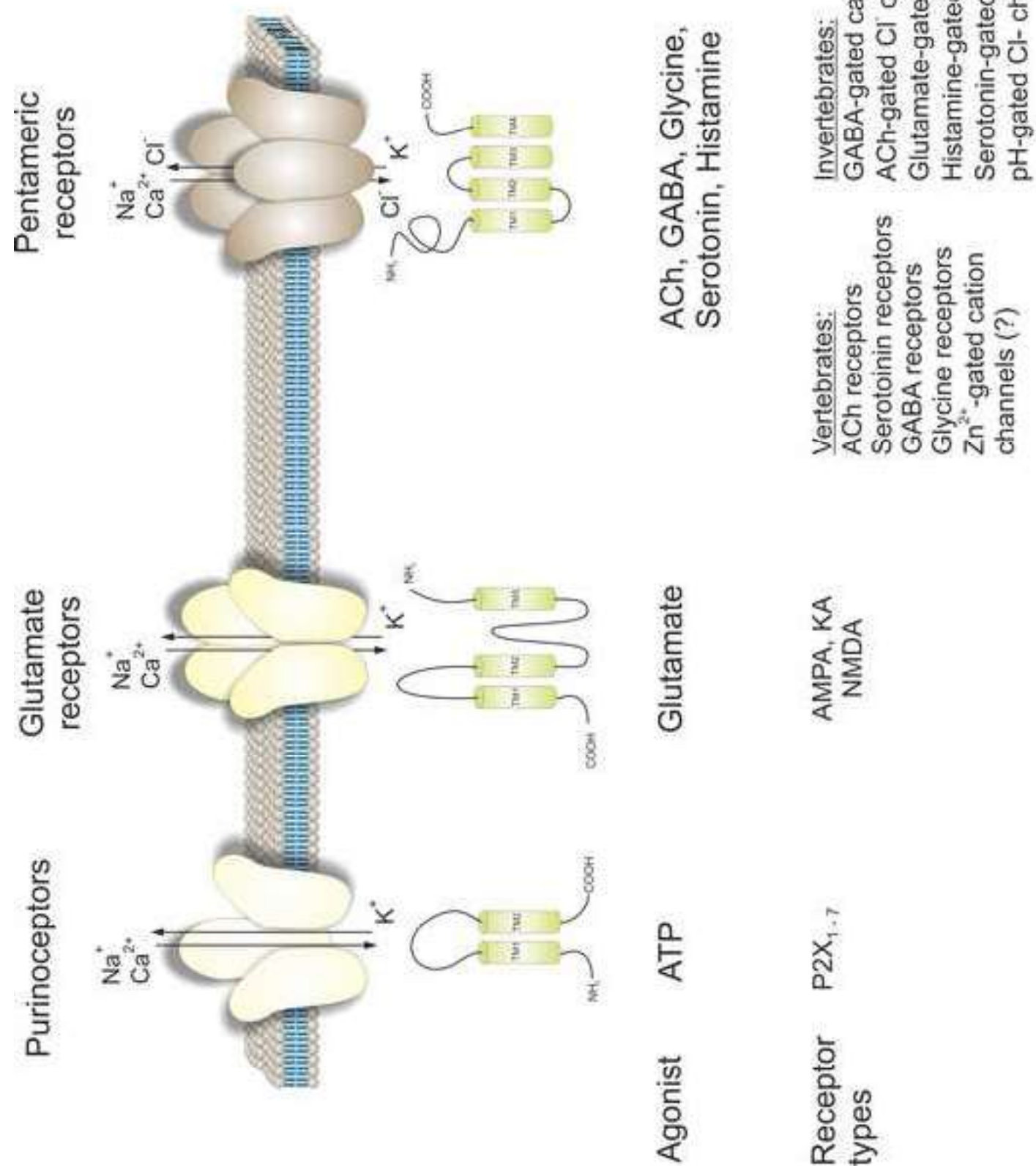


Fig. 1.

