

ENaC, renal sodium excretion and extracellular ATP

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Abstract Sodium balance determines the extracellular fluid volume and sets arterial blood pressure (BP). Chronically raised BP (hypertension) represents a major health risk in Western societies. The relationship between BP and renal sodium excretion (the pressure/natriuresis relationship) represents the key element in defining the BP homeostatic set point. The renin–angiotensin–aldosterone system (RAAS) makes major adjustments to the rates of renal sodium secretion, but this system works slowly over a period of hours to days. More rapid adjustments can be made by the sympathetic nervous system, although the kidney can function well without sympathetic nerves. Attention has now focussed on regulatory mechanisms within the kidney, including extracellular nucleotides and the P2 receptor system. Here, we discuss how extracellular ATP can control renal sodium excretion by altering the activity of epithelial sodium channels (ENaC) present in the apical membrane of principal cells. There remains consid-

erable controversy over the molecular targets for released ATP, although the P2Y₂ receptor has received much attention. We review the available data and reflect on our own findings in which ATP-activated P2Y and P2X receptors make adjustments to ENaC activity and therefore sodium excretion.

Keywords P2X₄ receptor · P2Y₂ receptor · Amiloride-sensitive currents · ATP · Nucleotide · Kidney · Blood pressure

Introduction

Epithelial sodium channels (ENaC) in the apical membrane of kidney cells, in tandem with sodium pumps (Na/K-ATPase) in the basolateral membrane, form an efficient pathway for sodium reclamation in the distal nephron. Adjustments to this salvage pathway come under the control of the renin–angiotensin–aldosterone system (RAAS) and, for many years, researchers working on sodium balance have mainly focussed on this powerful hormonal system. However, within the kidney, a new “intracrine” system has emerged and involves the local release of the energy molecule, ATP, by epithelial cells. This new focus of attention has led us, and others, to propose that ATP-activated P2 receptors (P2Rs) fine tune the activity of ENaC channels in the distal nephron and adjust the rate of sodium excretion by the kidney. Extracellular ATP-based regulation of sodium excretion is not only found in the kidney but also occurs in other hollow organs where sodium ions can be reclaimed (lungs, gastrointestinal tract, pancreatic duct, hepatic and biliary ducts and eccrine sweat ducts). The pharmacological manipulation of P2R populations linked to ENaC may have therapeutic potential in helping to correct a

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number of disease states, such as cystic fibrosis [1, 2], polycystic kidney disease [3] (and see article by Turner *et al.* [4] in this Special Issue) and vascular hypertension associated with salt-retention [5–7]. Here, we review this new body of work on P2R/ENaC interactions in renal epithelia and address the role of ATP regulatory mechanisms in controlling the sodium balance in the extracellular fluid.

ENaC in epithelial transport

ENaC comprises three non-identical, yet homologous subunits (α , β and γ subunits) [8]. Each of these structurally different subunits folds and twists in the same way, which results in two hydrophobic regions embedded in the cell membrane and bridged by a large extracellular loop containing >80% of the subunit protein [8]. Relatively short cytoplasmic amino and carboxyl termini project from these two transmembrane spanning regions and extend into the cytoplasm of the epithelial cell [8]. By coincidence, this pattern of folding is also used in processing the protein subunits that form ATP-gated homotrimeric ion channels [9]. ENaC exists as heterotetrameric assemblies, principally involving two α -subunits, one β -subunit and one γ -subunit ($\alpha_2\beta\gamma$)—although other stoichiometries, including homomeric assemblies, do occur, but with lower frequency and function poorly as ion channels [10]. The $\alpha_2\beta\gamma$ assemblies form highly selective and constitutively opened sodium channels which can be blocked by the diuretic compound, amiloride. Amiloride is generally viewed as a specific inhibitor of ENaC, but this drug can also block other membrane transport pathways (including: Na^+/H^+ and $\text{Na}^+/\text{Ca}^{2+}$ exchangers and the Na^+/K^+ pump) [11]. At low micromolar concentrations, amiloride inhibits ENaC far more effectively than other types of ion channels [11] and, when used at such low concentrations, any observed reduction in membrane current is typically attributed to a reduction in sodium influx through ENaC. Fortunately, amiloride and its related analogues do not block inward sodium currents carried by ATP-gated P2R ion channels [12].

ENaC has a variety of physiological functions. Foremost, it is important in controlling whole-body sodium balance via regulated sodium uptake in the distal nephron [13]. There are secondary roles for ENaC which can modify the volume and composition of secreted fluids. In turn, these adjustments to epithelial secretions can affect ancillary physiological functions such as the rate of mucociliary clearance in the lungs [14]. At these sites and elsewhere, ENaC activity is determined by the rates of channel synthesis, ER-maturation, ER-trafficking, membrane insertion, endocytosis and ion channel open probability [6, 15, 16]. ENaC activity is tightly controlled by hormones (principally aldosterone) but, to varying degrees, it is also

modulated by extracellular ATP acting on its surface receptors (P2Rs) [17].

ATP and its surface receptors

Coincident with the molecular isolation of two extended families of surface receptors for extracellular nucleotides, researchers worldwide have expressed a growing interest in extracellular ATP as a physiological regulator of kidney function. ATP, and other signalling nucleotides, are now known to be released from epithelial cells in measured amounts, and in a polarised manner, in response to such diverse stimuli as mechanical stimulation (*e.g.* stretch and osmotic swelling), local acidosis and hypoxia [18–21] (and see article by Praetorius and Leipziger [22] in this Special Issue). The process of ATP release involves a number of complementary pathways that include transport via ATP-binding-cassette (ABC) proteins [23], connexin hemichannels [24], large-diameter anion channels [25] and exocytotic vesicular release [26]. It is now widely accepted that released ATP can act as a local hormone on both sides of the kidney tubule, where this molecule has ample choices for molecular targets. The presence of almost all of the molecularly identified subtypes of ionotropic (P2X) and metabotropic (P2Y) receptors for ATP has been demonstrated in the apical and/or basolateral membranes of native epithelial cells and immortalised epithelial cell lines [7, 17, 27–29]. Ionotropic P2X receptors are represented by homomeric assemblies ($\text{P2X}_{1,2,3,4,5,6,7}$) and heteromeric assemblies ($\text{P2X}_{1/2}$, $\text{P2X}_{1/4}$, $\text{P2X}_{1/5}$, $\text{P2X}_{2/3}$, $\text{P2X}_{2/6}$, $\text{P2X}_{4/6}$, $\text{P2X}_{4/7}$). This provides a lengthy list of molecular targets; fortunately, kidney cells are endowed with only a few of these P2X receptor subtypes (primarily P2X_4 and P2X_6 subunits) and not the entire complement. The localisation of P2X receptor subtypes has been reported as highly regional, occasionally overlapping and sometimes discrete, but never ubiquitous. Metabotropic P2Y receptors are also represented by many of the known subtypes (chiefly P2Y_1 , P2Y_2 , P2Y_4 , P2Y_6 , P2Y_{11} , but not yet P2Y_{12} , P2Y_{13} and P2Y_{14}), which again may be found in overlapping regional distributions, but never ubiquitously distributed [7, 17, 28, 29].

ENaC modulation by P2Rs in the kidney

Although the early investigations of ENaC channel modulation/regulation focussed on epithelial cells outside the kidney (see Table 1), most modern studies have shifted attention to renal targets and specifically principal cells (PCs) of the collecting duct (CD) and PC-derived cell lines where ENaC is naturally concentrated. A schematic model summarising all proposed mechanisms of P2R-mediated

Table 1 P2R actions on ENaC

Epithelia	Species	P2R involved (localisation)	Effect on I_{am-s}	Mechanism	Ref. #(s)
Leech integument	<i>Hirudo medicinalis</i>	P2X, P2Y (ap., baso.)	Potentiate	–	[54]
Frog skin	<i>Rana temporaria</i>	P2Y ₂ (baso.)	Potentiate	↑[Ca ²⁺] _{int} , PKC	[43]
Respiratory epithelium					
Nasal	Human	P2Y ₂ (ap.)	Inhibits	↑[Ca ²⁺] _{int}	[14]
Nasal, bronchial	Rabbit	P2X, P2Y (ap.)	Inhibits	↑[Ca ²⁺] _{int}	[55]
Bronchial 1° cultures	Human	P2Y ₂ (ap.)	Inhibits	↑[Ca ²⁺] _{int}	[56]
Trachea	Mouse	P2Y ₂ (ap.)	Inhibits	PLC, ↓[Cl ⁻] _{int} , ↓PIP ₂ , MAPK, ↓open prob.	[2, 35, 57–60]
Trachea	Pig	P2Y ₂ (ap.)	Inhibits	↑[Ca ²⁺] _{int}	[61]
Trachea	Rabbit	P2Y ₂ (ap.)	Inhibits	–	[62]
Distal bronchi 1° cultures	Pig	P2Y ₂ (ap.)	Inhibits	↑[Ca ²⁺] _{int}	[63]
Bronchoalveolar	Mouse	P2Y (ap.)	Inhibits	–	[64]
Alveolar	<i>Xenopus</i>	P2X, P2Y (ap.)	Potentiate	–	[65]
Distal foetal lung	Rat	P2Y ₂ (ap.)	Inhibits	–	[66]
Colon					
Distal colon	Mouse	P2Y ₂ (ap.)	Inhibits	–	[59, 60, 67]
Distal colon	Guinea-pig	P2Y ₂ (ap.)	Inhibits	–	[68]
Uterus					
Endometrium	Mouse	P2Y ₄ (ap.)	Inhibits	↑[Ca ²⁺] _{int} , ↓[Cl ⁻] _{int}	[69]
Thyroid epithelium	Pig	P2Y ₄ (ap.)	Inhibits	–	[70]
Kidney					
CCD	Mouse	P2Y ₂ (ap., baso.)	Inhibits	–	[32]
CD	Rat	P2X ₄ -like (ap.)	Inhibits	–	[49]
CCD/OMCD	Rat	P2Y ₂ /P2Y ₄ (ap.)	Inhibits	PKC	[7]
		P2X ₄ /P2X _{4/6} (ap.)	Inhibits or Potentiate	? or PI3K	[7]
M1 cell line	Mouse	P2Y ₂ (ap., baso.)	Inhibits	↑[H ⁺] _{int}	[31, 33]
A6 cell line	<i>Xenopus</i>	P2Y ₂ (ap.)	Inhibits	PLC, ↓PIP ₂ , ↓open prob.	[34]
		P2X ₄ -like (baso.)	Potentiate	PI3K, ↑open prob.	[45]
CCD 1° cultures	Rabbit	P2Y ₂ -like (ap., baso.)	Inhibits	PLC, PKC	[30]
mIMCD-K2 cell line	Mouse	P2X ₃ , P2X ₄ , P2Y ₁ , P2Y ₂ (ap.)	Inhibits	–	[37]

A summary of the effects of P2R activation on ENaC activity

I_{am-s} amiloride-sensitive current (*i.e.* ENaC-mediated current), *ap.*, apical membrane, *baso.* basolateral membrane ↑ increase, ↓ decrease, PKC protein kinase C, PLC phospholipase C, PI3K phosphoinositide 3-kinase, PIP₂ phosphatidylinositol biphosphate, MAPK mitogen-activated protein kinase, 1° primary cell cultures, *open prob.* single channel opening probability, CCD cortical collecting duct, OMCD outer medullary collecting duct

modulation of ENaC in PCs of the CD is shown in Fig. 1, and discussed below.

Koster *et al.* were the first to report that ENaC activity and thus transcellular sodium transport were inhibited by

nucleotide activation of renal P2Rs, via a downstream mechanism involving intracellular signalling pathways [30]. Using primary cultures of rabbit CD cells grown to confluence on permeable filters, these investigators dem-

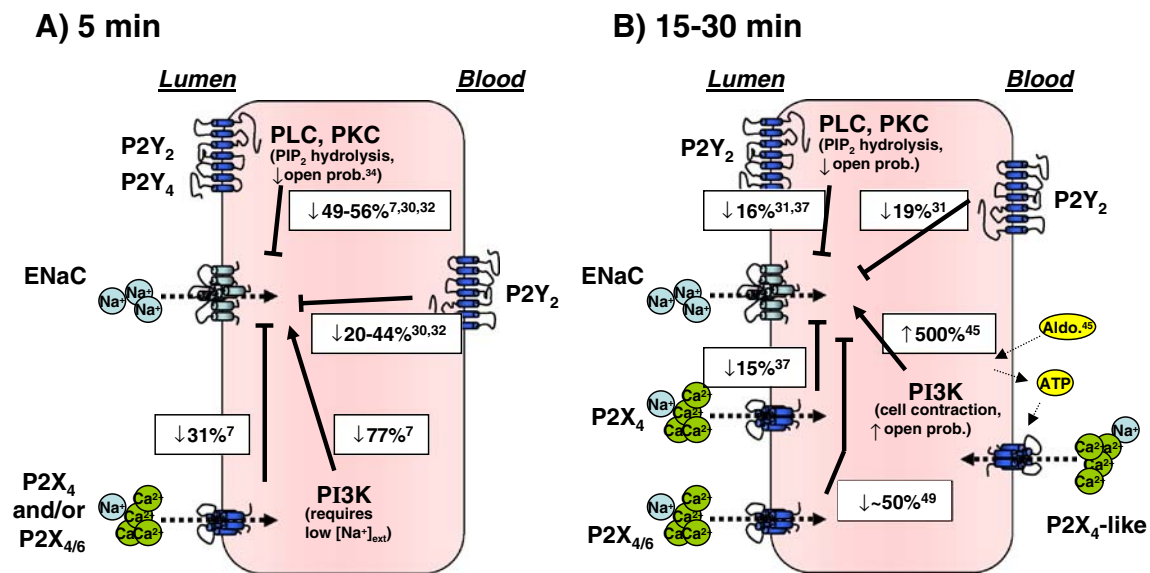


Fig. 1 A summary of known effects of P2R activation on ENaC activity taken from experiments using renal principal cells (PCs) or distal nephron-derived cell lines. Relevant references are superscripted. In **a**, effects where 5 min or less are left between P2R activation and measurements of ENaC activity. All but apical P2X_{4/6} activation decrease the activity of ENaC. Apical P2X_{4/6} has the ability to inhibit or potentiate ENaC activity depending on the concentration of luminal Na⁺. Noteworthy is that basolaterally expressed P2X₄

receptors have not been reported to affect ENaC activity. In **b**, effects where 15–30 min are left between P2R activation and measurement of ENaC activity. All apically expressed P2Rs inhibit ENaC, although the ability of P2Y receptors to inhibit ENaC is less than that in **a** (from 49–56% to 16%). The potentiating effect of apical P2X_{4/6} receptors (when luminal Na⁺ is low) has not been investigated over a 30-min period, but a potentiating effect of basolaterally expressed P2X₄-like receptors has been reported

onstrated that either apically or basolaterally applied UTP (100 μM) inhibited amiloride-sensitive sodium transport across cell monolayers. Here, maximal inhibition (56% by apical UTP and 44% by basolateral UTP) occurred within 10 min. The IC₅₀ value for UTP inhibition was 500 nM, a concentration that matches the extracellular levels of ATP estimated in tubular fluid [18]. Of note, the proposed P2R subtype responsible for this inhibition was equally sensitive to UTP and ATP. On this basis, inhibition of ENaC was attributed to the activation of metabotropic P2Y₂-like receptors. These P2Y₂-like receptors coupled downstream to PLC, and their activation by UTP (or ATP) led to a rise in intracellular calcium ([Ca²⁺]_{int}). In turn, raised [Ca²⁺]_{int} resulted in the activation of PKC which was proposed to mediate the inhibition of ENaC in rabbit CD cells. UTP inhibition of sodium transport was also confirmed in the mouse M1 collecting duct (CD) cell line [31] and in mouse-isolated CDs [32]. Curiously, the early data of Cuffe *et al.* [31] stand apart from other early studies inasmuch as ATP (100 μM) evoked only a modest degree of inhibition (16–19%), probably attributable to the long (30 min) period between P2R activation and assessment of its effects on ENaC activity (see Fig. 1).

The P2Y₂-based model of ENaC inhibition proposed by Koster *et al.* [30] has been re-evaluated in an extensive series of derivative studies. Leipziger *et al.*, who used M1 cells, confirmed that P2Y₂ receptors do exert an inhibitory

effect on ENaC, but notably without the involvement of PKC [33]. Ma *et al.* next showed that evoked release of extracellular ATP from the apical membrane of *Xenopus*-derived A6 distal nephron cells in response to cell stretch (of itself, an interesting observation) inhibited sodium transport principally through a PLC-dependent pathway that decreased the open probability of ENaC [34]. Here, it was proposed that PLC activation reduces the PIP₂ concentration in the inner face of the cell membrane and that membrane PIP₂ normally binds to the N-terminus of the β-ENaC subunit to increase the open probability of ENaC [35]. Accordingly, ENaC activity falls when P2Y₂ receptors are stimulated by extracellular UTP and when PIP₂ is scavenged by PLC to form soluble IP₃ and DAG. Unsurprisingly, P2Y₂^{-/-} gene deletion results in a facilitated Na⁺ reabsorption in the kidney but, unexpectedly, it mainly involves a novel compensatory mechanism that increases the expression of Na–K–2Cl cotransporters in mouse thick ascending limb (TAL) epithelial cells, with only a marginal facilitation of ENaC activity and no significant change in ENaC number [36]. In some ways, such latent compensatory mechanisms have hindered progress in understanding P2R function in the kidney.

The work of McCoy *et al.* next stands out in the debate of ENaC regulation by extracellular ATP. These investigators were the first to propose that ENaC inhibition involved not only P2Y receptors but also P2X receptors,

in the immortalised K2-cell line from mouse inner medullary CD (mIMCD) [37]. Here, ATP or UTP (100 μ M) caused only a modest reduction (~15%). However, ENaC inhibition was just as pronounced following P2XR activation with $\alpha\beta$ meATP as by P2YR activation with UTP and, of note, only apically applied nucleotides inhibited ENaC activity. On the basis of RT-PCR data, McCoy *et al.* further suggested that ENaC inhibition in mIMCD-K2 cells was via P2X₃ and P2X₄ receptor subtypes expressed on the apical membrane. The activation of epithelial P2X receptors not only inhibited ENaC but also activated chloride currents—a phenomenon better associated with P2Y receptor function in epithelial studies. However, epithelial P2X receptors can generate chloride currents in several ways. For example, calcium influx through P2X receptors can lead to the activation of Ca²⁺-dependent chloride currents, which can be prevented either by substituting extracellular calcium with equimolar barium or by adding chloride channel blockers (such as DIDS or NPPB) to the bathing medium. Additionally, some P2X receptors (notably, human P2X₅) lose their selectivity for cations with time and become increasingly permeable to chloride [38].

Using a split-tubule preparation of rat distal CDs, our own experiments reveal that PCs possess both apical P2Y and P2X receptors, and that each receptor subclass regulates ENaC activity [7]. We have located at least two types of P2Y receptor (P2Y₂ and P2Y₄ subtypes) on the apical border, identified immunohistochemically in the cell membrane and by real time-PCR within the CD. In rodents, these two P2Y subtypes are notoriously difficult to distinguish pharmacologically because their profiles are so alike and differ only in minor ways [39]. Activation of this mixed P2Y receptor population with 10 μ M UTP inhibited ENaC activity by ~50% within 3 min, by an effect involving a PLC-dependent pathway and inhibited by U73122. P2X₄ and P2X₆ subunits are also present in the apical membrane of rat CD; again, their proteins were localised by immunohistochemistry and their transcripts identified by real time-PCR. Depending on the concentration of luminal sodium, activation of P2X₄ receptors (and possibly P2X_{4/6} receptor complexes) with 2meSATP (10 μ M) either inhibited or potentiated ENaC activity. When luminal sodium was low (50 mM; which is considered “normal” for the CD), ENaC activity was potentiated by 80% (within 3 min) after P2X receptor activation, and this effect involved a PI3K-dependent pathway which was inhibited by wortmannin. When luminal sodium was high (145 mM; which is the concentration typically used in electrophysiology experiments), ENaC activity was inhibited by 30% when P2X receptors were activated. These findings have led us to propose that P2X₄ and P2X_{4/6} receptors might act as

apically expressed sodium sensors for the rapid and local regulation of ENaC activity in the rat CD [7]. Additionally, these findings show that close attention must be paid to the composition of bathing fluids, which should be biased towards the composition of the luminal fluid in the distal tubule rather than typical representations of extracellular fluid, such as Ringer's, Tyrodes or Krebs solution.

In earlier experiments, we had shown that a single (once-only) activation of P2X₄ and P2X_{4/6} receptors resulted in the persistent inhibition of sodium influx in cells co-expressing ENaC [40]. We had failed to observe any potentiation of recombinant ENaC activity, but we did not reduce extracellular sodium to low levels (50 mM). However, it is notable that the probability of channel opening and the magnitude of inward currents carried by P2X₄-like receptors in airway epithelia can be enhanced when extracellular sodium concentrations are very low [41, 42]. How such enhancements of P2X₄-like receptor function might lead to a potentiation of renal ENaC activity is still to be resolved, but a hint comes from a series of interconnected findings. First, McCoy *et al.* reported that ATP responses in mIMCD-K2 cells were biphasic and comprised an initial reduction in sodium transport, followed by a small secondary rise [37]. Second, similar biphasic responses to serosally applied ATP were observed in frog skin epithelium, where the initial reduction in sodium transport occurred at the same time as a transient elevation in intracellular calcium, but the secondary rise in sodium transport was associated with the apical insertion of new sodium channels [43]. The initial reduction in ENaC activity was attributed to the activation of a P2X receptor and, subsequently, a P2X₅-like receptor was cloned from frog skin [44]. These findings are put into perspective by the final observation that activation of a basolateral P2X receptor in *Xenopus* renal A6 epithelial cells alters cell shape by a rearrangement of the cytoskeleton, which results in increased sodium transport [45] brought about by the unruffling of the apical membrane and insertion of ENaC [46]. The basolateral P2X receptors in renal A6 cells were identified pharmacologically as P2X₄-like [45], although their precise molecular identity could conceivably involve heteromeric assemblies of P2X₄-like and P2X₅-like subunits—to better fit with the above findings in frog skin [44]. Whatever the final identity, a causal link has been established between P2X activation, the apical insertion of ENaC and enhancement of sodium transport. This link might have some bearing on our findings that activation of apical P2X receptors under conditions of low extracellular sodium can potentiate sodium uptake and transport.

The apical stimulation of P2X and P2Y receptors upon reduction of extracellular sodium cannot be addressed in the renal A6 cell model, because this cell membrane is water-impermeable and the cells do not swell in response to

apical perfusion of hypo-osmotic solutions [47]. However, this system remains noteworthy because it shows a robust response to changes in tonicity at the basolateral membrane. Here, hypo-osmotic solutions (140 mOsmol; Na^+ , 70 mM) evoke a pronounced biphasic pattern of ATP release [48]. The first phase was transient and occurred with cell swelling and was replaced by a later tonic phase of sustained ATP release. This first phase of ATP release coincided with a transient increase in $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{int}}$ which, of itself, was inhibited by suramin and suggested that suramin-sensitive P2Rs were involved. The magnitude of the increase in $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{int}}$ also correlated linearly with the rate of ATP release and, surprisingly, a reciprocal correlation between the concentration of extracellular ATP ($[\text{ATP}]_{\text{ext}}$) and $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{int}}$ was noted. Thus, a feed-forward system may occur in renal A6 cells, which is triggered by basolateral hypotonicity and causes a surge of ATP release. In turn, ATP stimulates suramin-sensitive P2Rs to increase $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{int}}$ and evoke further ATP release. It was proposed that an ATP plateau was reached only when the rate of ATP release was balanced by the rate of ATP consumption by ectoATPases [48].

The presence of a similar feed-forward system in the apical membrane of other CD-like cell lines, or the intact CD itself, would have interesting consequences for the regulation of sodium transport. This topic was addressed by microperfusion studies of rat CD, *in vivo* [49]. In rats maintained on a low sodium diet to enhance ENaC activity, late distal tubular perfusion of the stable analogue ATP γ S significantly increased ^{22}Na recovery in the urine (measured after 15 min), by a calculated 50% reduction in ENaC-mediated sodium reabsorption—based on corresponding reductions evoked by perfused amiloride. Tubular perfusion of the P2Y receptor stimulants Ap $_4$ A, Cp $_4$ U and BzATP had no significant effect on ^{22}Na recovery, suggesting that P2Y $_2$ and P2Y $_4$ receptors were not primarily involved. However, recombinant P2X $_4$ and P2X $_{4/6}$ receptors can be activated by ATP γ S, but not by Ap $_4$ A, nor Cp $_4$ U, and only weakly by BzATP [50]. These complementary experiments indicate that the apical P2X $_4$ -like receptors identified in rat CD [7] might represent the most likely molecular target for ATP γ S perfusions *in vivo*. A debatable point to this *in vivo* study was the use of high ATP γ S concentrations (1 mM) to elicit changes in ^{22}Na recovery. However, each CD receives luminal fluid from up to ten distal tubules and, by a tenfold dilution, the maximal concentration would approximate ~ 100 μM , a concentration sufficient to maximally stimulate P2X $_4$ receptors at pH 7.4 but below the maximum effective concentration if luminal fluid was acidic ($< \text{pH}$ 7.0) [51]. Of note, the maximum effective concentration to stimulate P2X receptors in principal cells of the split-tubule rat CD was ~ 100 μM (pH 7.4 and Na^+ 50 mM) [7].

P2 receptor density dependent on ENaC expression

While much of this review has focussed on the role of P2Rs in adjusting the activity of ENaC, evidence is gradually accruing for a reciprocal arrangement whereby ENaC affects the membrane density of P2Rs. Holbird *et al.* first demonstrated that aldosterone treatment (~ 60 h) upregulated P2X receptor-evoked short circuit currents across the bullfrog skin—a model where P2X $_5$ -like receptors can either inhibit or potentiate ENaC activity and sodium transport [52]. In a similar vein, we have demonstrated that mRNA levels for P2X $_4$ and P2X $_6$ receptors; and for the P2Y $_4$ receptor, are markedly elevated in PCs of rat CD [7] in animals maintained on a low sodium diet for 10 days to elevate the circulatory levels of aldosterone and ENaC expression. Using the *Xenopus* oocyte expression system, we have also shown that the maximal currents evoked by stimulating different P2X assemblies (P2X $_2$, P2X $_{2/6}$, P2X $_5$) were significantly increased if these P2X receptors were co-expressed with functional ENaC [40]. This increased functionality was attributed to an increased P2X receptor density in the cell membrane, with larger amounts of detectable P2X protein found in membrane fractions of cell homogenates. This observation suggested that ENaC either affected the rates of P2X receptor insertion into, or restricted the rates of P2X receptor retrieval from, the cell membrane. The outcome of experiments using Brefeldin A to inhibit the insertion of new P2X receptors pointed to a reduced retrieval of P2X receptors as the likely cause of ENaC-induced upregulation of P2X receptor function. Based on these observations, we have postulated that protein–protein interactions may occur between P2X and ENaC assemblies to delay P2X receptor internalisation. This likelihood is supported by already-proven examples of intracellular cross-talk and physical interactions between P2X receptors and other ligand-gated ion channels such as serotonin-gated 5-HT $_3$ receptors, acetylcholine-gated nAChR complexes ($\alpha_4\beta_2$) and GABA $_C$ complexes [53].

Conclusions

The internal renal mechanisms that help to control sodium uptake from the distal nephron and sodium loss into the urine are complex and still poorly understood. However, inroads have been made by investigators in number of laboratories towards understanding the role of extracellular ATP in this process.

We have used expressions systems to study many types of P2Rs in isolation and, latterly, co-expressed these P2Rs with ENaC. Next, our data from molecular modelling of P2R/ENaC interactions have been tested against data from split-tubule work on rat CDs. Thus far, we have avoided the

use of CD-derived cell lines although we do acknowledge that there is considerable value to their use. We have carried out extensive surveys of the distribution of P2Rs along the nephron, cross-correlated with the presence of transcripts for P2X and P2Y receptor subtypes in PCs. Additionally, our colleagues have worked with us on related studies of single microperfused renal tubules, *in vivo*.

Our developing understanding of this internal renal system is that ATP released from either the apical membrane alone, or from the basolateral border alone, cannot conveniently explain how ENaC activity is regulated. It requires polarised ATP transport on both sides of the epithelial cell, where there are several key molecular targets for this released nucleotide. The initial focus on P2Y₂ receptors must be carefully reassessed, partly because it is still inordinately difficult to distinguish the rat isoform of the P2Y₂ subtype from the P2Y₄. Both P2Y₂ and P2Y₄ receptors are expressed in PCs in the CD, and separating their functions will probably require the development of selective agonists and antagonists.

In addition to these P2Y subtypes, P2X receptors make a contribution to ENaC turnover and activity. Here, the problem becomes more confusing because the efficiency of P2X receptors as ion channels is highly dependent on extracellular levels of H⁺ and Na⁺ ions. Scant attention has been paid to the composition of luminal fluid as a determinant of P2R function. The P2X₄ receptor is emerging as a key player in the control of ENaC. This P2X subtype is also difficult to manipulate, with limited pharmacological tools available and little understanding of its operational profile *in vivo*. Additionally, the P2X₄ subunit may polymerise with the P2X₆ subunit also found in kidney cells, to generate a new type of P2X receptor with divergent properties.

To fully understand this intrarenal and autocrine/paracrine system, it is important to study how the RAAS system affects the expression of P2X and P2Y receptor subtypes as well as ENaC activity and how ENaC itself interacts with these signalling proteins. Preliminary data show that P2R and ENaC do not ignore each other, but can alter the fate of the other. Understanding the cellular mechanisms through which cross-talk occurs is a major undertaking.

A major challenge for the future is understanding how the ATP-based “intracrine” system of the kidney affects long-term BP and the aetiology of hypertension. On a superficial level, hypertension is a noted feature of P2Y₂^{-/-}, P2Y₄^{-/-} and P2X₄^{-/-} gene knockout mice although the underlying causes need not necessarily rest with the kidney. Also, the incidence of polymorphisms in the P2Y subtypes and occurrence of alternatively spliced P2X₄ and P2X₆ transcripts may yet feature in this debate. All these possibilities provide fertile ground for a field of investigation that has been barely explored. We look forward to updating this

review in the near future, as these questions and others are addressed by the research community.

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