



The adenosine A_{2B} G protein-coupled receptor: Recent advances and therapeutic implications

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ABSTRACT

The adenosine A_{2B} receptor (A_{2B}AR) is one of four adenosine receptor subtypes belonging to the Class A family of G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs). Until recently, the A_{2B}AR remained poorly characterised, in part due to its relatively low affinity for the endogenous agonist adenosine and therefore presumed minor physiological significance. However, the substantial increase in extracellular adenosine concentration, the sensitisation of the receptor and the upregulation of A_{2B}AR expression under conditions of hypoxia and inflammation, suggest the A_{2B}AR as an exciting therapeutic target in a variety of pathological disease states. Here we discuss the pharmacology of the A_{2B}AR and outline its role in pathophysiology including ischaemia-reperfusion injury, fibrosis, inflammation and cancer.

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Contents

1. Introduction	20
2. Adenosine A _{2B} receptor: distribution, regulation, pharmacology	21
3. Role of adenosine A _{2B} receptors in pathophysiology	24
4. Emerging therapeutic opportunities and conclusions.	29
Conflict of interest statement	29
Acknowledgement	29
References	30

Abbreviations: AC, adenylyl cyclase; ADA, adenosine deaminase; AR, adenosine receptor; A₁AR, adenosine A₁ receptor; A_{2A}AR, adenosine A_{2A} receptor; A_{2B}AR, adenosine A_{2B} receptor; A₃AR, adenosine A₃ receptor; αSMA, alpha-smooth muscle actin; BAY60-6583, 2-((6-amino-3,5-dicyano-4-(4-(cyclopropylmethoxy)phenyl)-2-pyridinyl)thio)acetamide; cAMP, cyclic adenosine monophosphate; COPD, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; CTGF, connective tissue growth factor; CVT-6883 (GS-6201), 3-ethyl-1-propyl-8-[1-[3-(trifluoromethyl)phenyl]methyl]pyrazol-4-yl]-7H-purine-2,6-dione; DAG, diacylglycerol; DPCPX, 8-cyclopentyl-1,3-dipropylxanthine; EPAC, exchange factor directly activated by cAMP; ERK1/2, extracellular signal-regulated protein kinase 1 and 2; Fra-1, Fos-related antigen-1; GPCR, G protein-coupled receptor; GRK, G protein-coupled receptor kinases; HEK, human embryonic kidney cells; HIF-1α, hypoxia-inducible factor 1α; IFN, interferon; IL, interleukin; IP₃, inositol triphosphate; IRI, ischaemia-reperfusion injury; JNK, c-Jun N-terminal kinase; MAPK, mitogen-activated protein kinase; MEK, mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase; mRNA, messenger ribonucleic acid; MRS1754, N-(4-cyanophenyl)-2-[4-(2,6-dioxo-1,3-dipropyl-7H-purin-8-yl)phenoxy]acetamide; NECA, 5'-N-ethylcarboxamidoadenosine; NF-κB, nuclear factor-kappa B; Nox4, NADPH oxidase 4; OSIP 333931, N-[2-[[2-phenyl-6-[4-(3-phenylpropyl)piperazine-1-carbonyl]-7H-pyrrolo[2,3-d]pyrimidin-4-yl]amino]ethyl]acetamide; PDE1C, phosphodiesterase type 1C; Per2, circadian rhythm protein period 2; PI3K, phosphoinositide 3-kinase; PIP₂, phosphatidylinositol (4,5)-bisphosphate; PKA, protein kinase A; PKC, protein kinase C; PLC, phospholipase C; PSB-1115, 4-(2,6-dioxo-1-propyl-3,7-dihydropurin-8-yl)benzenesulfonic acid; PSB-603, 8-[4-[4-(4-chlorophenyl)piperazin-1-yl]sulfonylphenyl]-1-propyl-3,7-dihydropurine-2,6-dione; SNARE, soluble N-ethylmaleimide-sensitive factor activating protein receptor; TGF-β1, transforming growth factor beta 1; TNF-α, tumour necrosis factor alpha; VCP746, 4-(5-amino-4-benzoyl-3-(3-(trifluoromethyl)phenyl)thiophen-2-yl)-N-(6-(9-((2R,3R,4S,5R)-3,4-dihydroxy-5-(hydroxymethyl)tetrahydro-furan-2-yl)-9H-purin-6-ylamino)hexyl)benzamide; VEGF, vascular endothelial growth factor; ZM241385, 4-[2-[[7-amino-2-(furan-2-yl)-[1,2,4]triazol[1,5-a][1,3,5]triazin-5-yl]amino]ethyl]phenol.

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1. Introduction

Adenosine is an endogenous purine nucleoside present both intracellularly and extracellularly in living cells. It is comprised of an adenine group attached to a ribose sugar by a glycosidic bond. Adenosine as both a precursor and metabolite of adenine nucleotides, provides the structural building block of adenosine triphosphate and thus plays a central role in the basic energy transfer of all living organisms (Fredholm, 2007; Layland, Carrick, Lee, Oldroyd, & Berry, 2014). Adenosine also acts as a ubiquitous extracellular signalling molecule to exert a plethora of physiological actions throughout the body. It is often described as a 'retaliatory metabolite' owing to the fact that adenosine reduces cellular work and restores energy balance in the very same cells within which it is produced (Newby, 1984; Shyrock & Belardinelli, 1997). Adenosine was first identified as a modulator of coronary vascular tone, heart rate and blood pressure in 1929 (Drury & Szent-Györgyi, 1929) and is still used as mainstay clinical therapy for patients with supraventricular tachycardia today (Eltzschig, 2009). Much of the early understanding of the physiological role of adenosine comes from the cardiovascular system, however it has since been recognised to have critical roles in nearly every organ system and tissue. This includes as a regulator of the; i) central nervous system (Dunwiddie & Masino, 2001; Fredholm, Chen, Masino, & Vaugeois, 2005), ii) inflammatory and immune response (Fredholm, 2007; Haskó, Linden, Cronstein, & Pacher, 2008), iii) endocrine system (Dong, Ginsberg, & Erlanger, 2001; Figler et al., 2011), and as an endogenous modulator of; i) pain (Sawynok, 2016; Zylka, 2011), ii) lung function (Wilson et al., 2009; Zhou, Schneider, & Blackburn, 2009) and iii) kidney function (Roberts, Cowan, Alexander, Robson, & Dwyer, 2014).

Despite being recognised as an endogenous regulator of the cardiovascular system in 1929 (Drury & Szent-Györgyi, 1929), it took some 40 years of scientific discovery before it was postulated that the actions of adenosine were due to occupancy of specific cell surface receptors (Sattin & Rall, 1970). Today it is recognised that adenosine mediates a myriad of physiological (and pathological) actions via activation of adenosine receptors, which belong to the superfamily of G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs).

1.1. Classification of adenosine receptors

Adenosine is the endogenous agonist for 4 GPCRs; the adenosine A₁ receptor (A₁AR), the adenosine A_{2A} receptor (A_{2A}AR), the adenosine A_{2B} receptor (A_{2B}AR) and the adenosine A₃ receptor (A₃AR) (Fredholm et al., 2000). Adenosine receptors were originally classified based on the effects of receptor stimulation to either inhibit (A₁ or R_i) or stimulate (A₂ or R_s) the activity of adenylyl cyclase (AC) (van Calker, Müller, & Hamprecht, 1979; Londos, Cooper, & Wolff, 1980). Adenosine A₂ receptors were subdivided based on the capacity of low (0.5 μM) or high (>10 μM) concentrations of 2'-chloroadenosine, an adenosine analogue, to stimulate cAMP accumulation in the rat brain (Daly, Butts-Lamb, & Padgett, 1983) and were subsequently defined as the A_{2A}AR and A_{2B}AR respectively (Bruns, Lu, & Pugsley, 1986). The most recently discovered subtype, the A₃AR, was identified from its sequence homology to other adenosine receptors during molecular cloning from rat testis (Zhou et al., 1992). All four adenosine receptors have since been cloned in humans (and many other species) with the greatest similarity between the A₁AR and A₃ARs (49% sequence homology) and the A_{2A}AR and A_{2B}ARs (59% sequence identity) (Fredholm et al., 2000; Fredholm, IJzerman, Jacobson, Klotz, & Linden, 2001; Jacobson & Gao, 2006). Given the widening appreciation of the role of the A_{2B}AR in physiology and pathophysiology, the purpose of this review is to highlight the recent advances in the understanding of A_{2B}AR pharmacology and how this adenosine receptor subtype may be therapeutically targeted in disease.

2. Adenosine A_{2B} receptor: distribution, regulation, pharmacology

The A_{2B}AR is a GPCR of 332 amino acid length with a molecular weight of approximately 36 kDa (Stehle et al., 1992). At the time of its discovery, the A_{2B}AR was distinguished from the A_{2A}AR based on its ability to stimulate cAMP production at higher (>10 μM) 2'-chloroadenosine concentrations (Daly et al., 1983). The A_{2B}AR was subsequently classified as a low-affinity receptor due to its modest-to-negligible activation by adenosine and prototypical agonists (Beukers, Dulk den, van Tilburg, Brouwer, & IJzerman, 2000; Feoktistov & Biaggioni, 1997; Fredholm, Irenius, Kull, & Schulte, 2001). It was not until the development of subtype-selective ligands (in particular antagonists) that the A_{2B}AR was shown to couple to diverse intracellular signalling pathways and exert different physiological effects. Today, the A_{2B}AR is increasingly being recognised as an important target in numerous pathologies, including ischaemia-reperfusion injury (Eltzschig, Bonney, & Eckle, 2013; Hart, Jacobi, Schittenhelm, Henn, & Eltzschig, 2009), fibrosis (Dubey, Gillespie, & Jackson, 1998), inflammation and the immune response (Ham & Rees, 2008), sickle-cell anaemia (Zhang et al., 2011), diabetes (Merighi, Borea, & Gessi, 2015) and cancer (Cekic et al., 2011; Ma et al., 2010; Wei, Costanzi, Balasubramanian, Gao, & Jacobson, 2013).

2.1. Tissue distribution of adenosine A_{2B} receptors

Efforts to elucidate A_{2B}AR tissue expression were for a long time hampered by the lack of selective and useful radioligands or antibodies and as such, much of the early work on A_{2B}AR distribution relied on the expression data of the corresponding mRNA (Feoktistov & Biaggioni, 1997). The A_{2B}AR was first cloned from the rat hypothalamus and human brain in 1992 (Pierce, Furlong, Selbie, & Shine, 1992; Rivkees & Reppert, 1992) and was demonstrated to be present in the caecum, large intestine and bladder. Lower levels were also demonstrated in the brain, spinal cord, lung, vas deferens and pituitary (Stehle et al., 1992). Later it was shown to have a fairly ubiquitous distribution with A_{2B}AR mRNA detected at various levels, though generally low abundance, in all rat tissues studied (Dixon, Gubitza, Sirinathsinghji, Richardson, & Freeman, 1996). The more recent development of an A_{2B}AR-knockout/reporter gene-knock-in mouse provided a valuable tool that enabled the determination of A_{2B}AR tissue distribution *in vivo* (Yang et al., 2006). The A_{2B}AR was demonstrated to be extensively distributed throughout the vasculature of most organs including, heart, lung, brain, pancreas, retina, reproductive organs, liver, kidney and large intestine as well as patchy expression in smooth muscle and endothelial cells (St Hilaire, Carroll, Chen, & Ravid, 2009; Yang et al., 2006). Furthermore, many studies have shown the A_{2B}AR is widely expressed in many diverse cell types including taste cells, mast cells, neutrophils, macrophages, lymphocytes, neurons, glial cells, epithelial cells, myocardial cells and fibroblasts (Reviewed in: Feoktistov & Biaggioni, 1997; Sun & Huang, 2016). The functional expression of the A_{2B}AR in such a wide array of tissues and cell types, which can be further regulated by various environmental stimuli, highlights the physiological and pathological importance of this receptor subtype.

2.2. Regulation of adenosine A_{2B} receptor expression

A_{2B}AR expression is influenced by changes in the cellular microenvironment and is induced in response to inflammation, ischaemia-reperfusion injury and hypoxia (Fredholm, 2007; Ham & Rees, 2008; Haskó, Csóka, Németh, Vizi, & Pacher, 2009). Hypoxia directly increases the expression of the A_{2B}AR mRNA via a canonical hypoxia-inducible factor 1α (HIF-1α) binding site in the promoter (Feoktistov et al., 2004; Kong, Westerman, Faigle, Eltzschig, & Colgan, 2006). There is also a positive feedback mechanism whereby the A_{2B}AR increases HIF-1α through stabilisation of the circadian rhythm protein period 2 (Per2) (Eckle et al., 2012). Factors present in an inflammatory

environment such as the pro-inflammatory cytokines; tumour necrosis factor (TNF)- α (Kolachala et al., 2005), interferon (IFN)- γ (Xaus et al., 1999), interleukin (IL)-1 β (Khoa, Montesinos, Williams, Kelly, & Cronstein, 2003), and the reactive oxygen species-generating enzyme Nox4 (St Hilaire, Koupenova, Carroll, Smith, & Ravid, 2008) also upregulate $A_{2B}AR$ expression at the mRNA and protein level. In addition, the endogenous agonist adenosine has been demonstrated to recruit intracellular pools of $A_{2B}AR$ to the plasma membrane on intestinal epithelial cells (Sitaraman et al., 2002; Lixin Wang et al., 2004) and may represent a more general mechanism of regulating $A_{2B}AR$ expression at the cell-surface. Evidence for intracellular localisation of the $A_{2B}AR$ has been further supported by fluorescence techniques which suggests the $A_{2B}AR$ resides at the mitochondria rather than the sarcolemma in isolated cardiomyocytes (Grube et al., 2011).

2.3. Adenosine A_{2B} receptor binding partners/interacting proteins

The $A_{2B}AR$ interacts with a number of proteins and binding partners that appear to have important roles in modulating receptor function (Sun & Huang, 2016). Adenosine deaminase (ADA), in addition to degrading extracellular adenosine, has been suggested to anchor to the cell surface and independent of enzymatic activity, increase the binding affinity of the $A_{2B}AR$ for a non-selective adenosine receptor agonist NECA (Herrera et al., 2001). ADA was later shown to co-localise with the $A_{2B}AR$ on dendritic cells and this co-localisation markedly increased the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines (Pacheco et al., 2005). Similarly, intracellular protein kinase C (PKC) increases the sensitivity of the $A_{2B}AR$ and potentiates agonist activation of the pro-survival kinases, phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K) and extracellular signal-regulated protein kinases 1 and 2 (ERK1/2) which contributes to ischaemic preconditioning in the heart (Kuno et al., 2007). Co-expression with the $A_{2A}AR$ appears to alter receptor pharmacology through heterodimeric $A_{2A}AR$ - $A_{2B}AR$ interactions (Hinz et al., 2018), and improves the cell-surface expression of the $A_{2B}AR$, presumably by providing the dominant forward-transport signal for export from the endoplasmic reticulum (Moriyama & Sitkovsky, 2010). Other proteins that have been implicated in the translocation of the $A_{2B}AR$ to the plasma membrane include the scaffold-based regulatory proteins E3KARP and ezrin and the trafficking soluble N-ethylmaleimide-sensitive factor activating protein receptor (SNARE) proteins (Sitaraman et al., 2002; Lixin Wang et al., 2004). These proteins may help to transport and stabilise the receptor in a signalling complex at the plasma membrane, possibly through interaction with a PDZ-binding motif on the C-terminal end of the $A_{2B}AR$ (Sitaraman et al., 2002). The PDZ-binding domain of the $A_{2B}AR$ also interacts with the cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator, leading to enhanced $A_{2B}AR$ expression and agonist-mediated cAMP production which results in enhanced signalling of the innate lung defence system (Watson et al., 2011; Watson et al., 2016). In addition, the C-terminus of the $A_{2B}AR$ is involved in complexing with the actin-filament-crosslinking protein, α -actinin-1, which stabilises the receptor's global and cell-surface expression (Sun et al., 2016). Functional interactions of the $A_{2B}AR$ with phosphodiesterase type 1C (PDE1C) have recently been implicated in the cardioprotective actions of PDE1C inhibition and may be involved in the regulation and compartmentalisation of protective cAMP signalling within the heart (Hashimoto et al., 2018; Zhang, Knight, Chen, Mohan, & Yan, 2018). Like many GPCRs, the agonist-activated $A_{2B}AR$ undergoes desensitisation to limit the duration and magnitude of receptor activation. This is evidenced by significantly reduced cAMP production following pre-treatment with the non-selective adenosine receptor agonist NECA in a variety of $A_{2B}AR$ -endogenously expressing cells including; COS7 (Peters, Gies, Gelb, & Peterfreund, 1998), neuroblastoma-hybrid NG108-15 (Mundell & Kelly, 1998) and isolated rat pulmonary arterial smooth muscle cells (Haynes, Obiako, Babal, & Stevens, 1999). It is proposed that desensitisation of the $A_{2B}AR$ occurs via recruitment of G protein-coupled receptor kinases (GRKs) and β -arrestins

(Klaasse, IJzerman, Grip, & Beukers, 2007). GRKs phosphorylate the agonist bound receptor, which then promotes recruitment of β -arrestin1 and/or β -arrestin2 to sterically impede further G protein receptor engagement, thus acting to terminate G protein-signalling (See reviews: Pitcher, Freedman, & Lefkowitz, 1998; Lefkowitz, Rajagopal, & Whalen, 2006). Both GRK2 and GRK5 have been implicated in $A_{2B}AR$ desensitisation (Mundell & Kelly, 1998; Nash et al., 2018). The subsequent internalisation and recycling of the $A_{2B}AR$ via β -arrestins is dependent on a serine residue close to the COOH-terminus (Matharu, Mundell, Benovic, & Kelly, 2001) and requires the presence of the Type II PDZ-domain in the C-terminal tail of the receptor (Mundell et al., 2010). From changes in receptor trafficking and stabilisation, signalling pathways and desensitisation, it is clear these binding partners and protein complexes have the potential to alter $A_{2B}AR$ pharmacology and contribute to the contrasting effects observed downstream of the $A_{2B}AR$.

2.4. Signal transduction pathways of adenosine A_{2B} receptors

The $A_{2B}AR$ has been shown to activate adenylyl cyclase via interaction with G_s proteins in many different cell types (Feoktistov & Biaggioni, 1997). Further, it is now appreciated that additional intracellular signalling pathways are functionally coupled to the $A_{2B}AR$ (Fig. 1). The $A_{2B}AR$ has been proposed to interact with G_q proteins to activate phospholipase C (PLC) leading to increased PKC activation and elevations of inositol triphosphate (IP₃) and intracellular calcium (Linden, Thai, Figler, Jin, & Robeva, 1999). Ca²⁺ can also be mobilised via direct activation of calcium channels through a cholera toxin-sensitive mechanism likely downstream of $G\beta\gamma$ (Feoktistov, Murray, & Biaggioni, 1994) or indirectly via activation of PKA (Mogul, Adams, & Fox, 1993). The $A_{2B}AR$ also stimulates ERK1/2, c-Jun N-terminal Kinase (JNK) and p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) signalling (Feoktistov, Goldstein, & Biaggioni, 1999; Gao, Chen, Weber, & Linden, 1999; Schulte & Fredholm, 2003), however there is ongoing debate as to which G protein is upstream of these intracellular second messengers (Aherne, Kewley, & Eltzhig, 2011). In addition to G_s and G_q coupling, the $A_{2B}AR$ is also proposed to interact with inhibitory $G_{i/o}$ proteins (Gao, Inoue, & Jacobson, 2018; Yang et al., 2011). A proportion of ERK1/2 phosphorylation (pERK1/2) was shown to be pertussis toxin-sensitive in endogenously expressing and $A_{2B}AR$ -transfected HEK293 cells; where pertussis toxin selectively uncouples G_i and G_o proteins from receptor activation (Gao et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2011). In T24 bladder cancer cells, NECA-stimulated pERK1/2 was completely blocked by pertussis toxin and significantly enhanced in the presence of G_s -inhibitory cholera toxin, which highlights the interplay of multiple G protein-signalling pathways for the generation of ERK1/2 in this cell type (Gao et al., 2018). Preferential G protein-coupling and intracellular signalling appears to be largely cell background dependent, which may account for the plasticity of $A_{2B}AR$ signalling and the differential actions of the $A_{2B}AR$.

2.5. Adenosine A_{2B} receptor ligands

The pharmacological characterisation of the $A_{2B}AR$ had languished behind the other adenosine receptor subtypes due to the paucity of potent and selective $A_{2B}AR$ ligands (Fredholm, IJzerman, et al., 2001). However, an improved understanding of the $A_{2B}AR$ in recent years has followed with the development of new pharmacological tools, in particular high affinity antagonists.

2.5.1. Adenosine A_{2B} receptor antagonists

$A_{2B}AR$ antagonists can be broadly divided into two classes, xanthines and non-xanthine derivatives. Xanthines are based on the structure of the classic non-selective adenosine receptor antagonists caffeine (Table 1), with theophylline and many of the current high affinity $A_{2B}AR$ antagonists possessing this same core structure (Baraldi et al.,

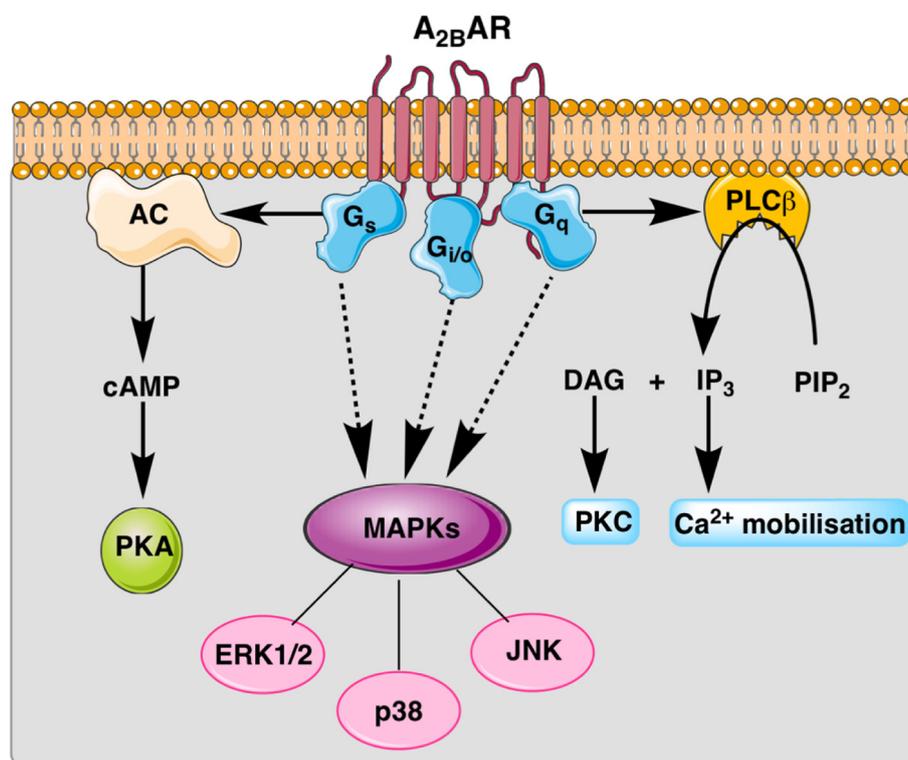


Fig. 1. General signalling pathways mediated by the A_{2B}AR. Figure created using the Servier Medical Art resource (<https://smart.servier.com>).

2006; Kalla & Zablocki, 2009). One of the first discovered derivatives was DPCPX; (Table 1) which showed good affinity at the A_{2B}AR but had higher affinity at the A₁AR (Ortore & Martinelli, 2010). Lengthening of the alkyl substituents in the 1,3-positions or 1,8-disubstitution generated the first high-affinity A_{2B}AR-selective antagonists, MRS1754 (Kim, Ji, Melman, Linden, & Jacobson, 2000) and PSB-1115 (Hayallah et al., 2002) (Table 1). Further modification generated PSB-603 (Table 1), which shows high affinity and selectivity not only in humans but also in rodents. It is commonly used as a pharmacological tool to study the A_{2B}AR due to its sub-nanomolar affinity (Borrmann et al., 2009). Modification of xanthines at the 8-position with certain aryl groups has given rise to high-affinity A_{2B}AR antagonists that have progressed as preclinical candidates. For example CVT-6883 (also known as GS-6201; Table 1) has been investigated for the treatment of asthma (Elzein et al., 2008). More recently, a fluorescently labelled A_{2B}AR antagonist, which combined an 8-substituted xanthine pharmacophore with a BODIPY derivative (PSB-12105) was developed as a novel tool to probe further probe A_{2B}AR pharmacology that has nanomolar affinity and significant subtype selectivity (Köse et al., 2018). Non-xanthine derivatives include ZM241385 (initially characterised as an A_{2A}AR-selective antagonist) and OSIP 339391 (Table 1; Ji & Jacobson, 1999; Stewart et al., 2004). Computational approaches using pharmacophore based virtual screening, recently identified a structurally unique pyrimidine derivative (Z1139491704) that has potent anti-sickling activity and low cytotoxicity and thus may represent a novel therapeutic agent for patients with sickle cell anaemia (Paz, de Jesus Pinheiro, do Espirito Santo, Villarreal, & Castilho, 2017).

2.5.2. Adenosine A_{2B} receptor agonists

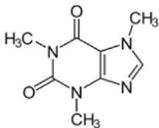
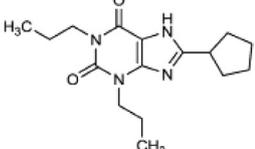
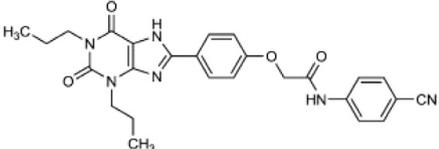
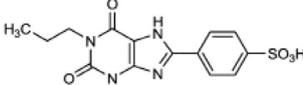
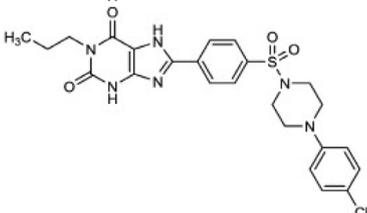
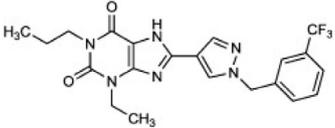
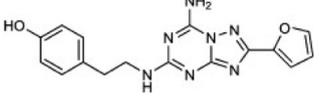
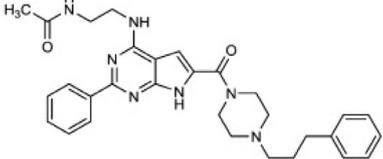
The goal of attaining subtype selectivity for A_{2B}AR agonists has been even more challenging than for antagonists, however progress has been made in recent years (Feoktistov & Biaggioni, 2011). Agonists can be classified as adenosine-like or non-adenosine ligands based on the presence or absence of a nucleoside-like core respectively (Baraldi, Tabrizi, Frutterolo, & Romagnoli, 2009). Adenosine modifications focusing on the N⁶ and C² positions of the purine heterocycle have generated

agonists with increased potency for the A_{2B}AR and include the non-selective N⁶-modified adenosine derivative, 5'-N-ethylcarboxamidoadenosine (NECA; Table 2) (de Zwart, Link, Kunzela, et al., 1998). Despite being non-selective across all adenosine receptor subtypes, NECA is still widely used as one of the most potent A_{2B}AR agonists (EC₅₀ ≈ 150 nM) (Baraldi et al., 2009). Further modifications at the N⁶ position yielded a novel series of NECA derivatives with higher potency but again low A_{2B}AR-selectivity (Baraldi et al., 2007). In pursuit of enhanced subtype-selectivity, drug discovery efforts shifted to the development of non-nucleoside agonists. A patent describing 2-aminopyridine-3,5-dicarbonitrile derivatives as adenosine receptor ligands identified 2-((6-amino-3,5-dicyano-4-(4-(cyclopropylmethoxy)phenyl)-2-pyridinyl)thio)acetamide (BAY60-6583; Table 2) as an A_{2B}AR agonist with potency in the low nanomolar range and high selectivity versus the other adenosine receptors (Rosentreter et al., 2001). BAY60-6583 has since been widely used in animal studies for the pharmacological characterisation of the role of the A_{2B}AR, however it has recently been identified as a partial agonist (Hinze, Lacher, Seibt, & Müller, 2014). A further series of 2-amino-4-phenyl-6-phenylsulfanylpyridine-3,5-dicarbonitriles identified agonists with enhanced A_{2B}AR activity, one of which behaved as a partial agonist (LUF5845) and another as a potent full agonist with an EC₅₀ of 10 nM (LUF5835) (Beukers, Chang, Künzel, et al., 2004). None of the compounds were as selective for the A_{2B}AR as BAY 60-6583, however one derivative LUF5834 was proposed to be of particular interest thanks to its high potency at the A_{2B}AR (EC₅₀ = 12 nM) and significant selectivity versus the A₃AR making it a useful tool to distinguish the contributions of these two receptor subtypes in mast cells (Baraldi et al., 2009; Beukers et al., 2004).

2.5.3. Biased ligands

In recent years it has become evident that structurally-distinct ligands occupying the same GPCR in the same cellular background can generate different functional outcomes in a manner that cannot be explained by simple differences in stimulus-response coupling (Luttrel, Maudsley, & Bohn, 2015; Shonberg et al., 2014). The ability of a ligand to stabilise unique receptor conformations to selectively activate a

Table 1
Structure and binding affinity of A_{2B} AR antagonists.

Name	Chemical Structure	hA_{2B} AR Affinity pK_i (K_i nM)	References
Caffeine		4.69 - 4.98 (10,400-20,500)	(Bertarelli et al., 2006; Kim et al., 2002)
DPCPX		7.19 - 7.29 (51-64)	(Kim et al., 2002; Weyler et al., 2006)
MRS1754		8.84 (1.45)	(Ji, Kim, Ahern, Linden, & Jacobson, 2001)
PSB-1115		7.28 (53)	(Hayallah et al., 2002)
PSB-603		9.26 (0.55)	(Borrmann et al., 2009)
CVT-6883 (GS-6201)		7.66 (22)	(Elzein et al., 2008)
ZM241385		6.84 (145)	(Ji et al., 2001)
OSIP 339391		9.39 (0.41)	(Stewart et al., 2004)

pK_i denotes the negative logarithm of the ligand equilibrium dissociation constant

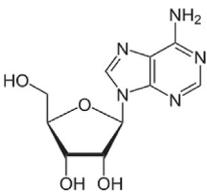
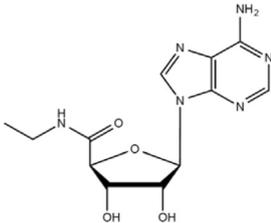
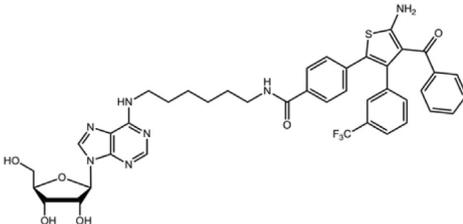
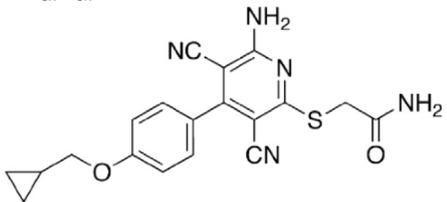
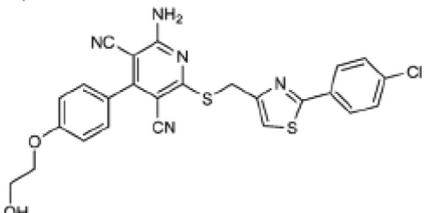
subset of intracellular signalling pathways is termed 'functional selectivity' or 'biased agonism' (Kenakin & Christopoulos, 2013). Biased agonism has significant clinical potential, enabling the rational design of drugs that activate therapeutic signalling whilst eschewing on-target adverse effects (Violin, Crombie, Soergel, & Lark, 2014). Recent studies at the A_{2B} AR have identified that BAY60-6583 is a biased A_{2B} AR agonist with a unique signalling profile, even acting as an A_{2B} AR antagonist in low expressing MIN-6 mouse pancreatic β cells (Gao, Balasubramanian, Kiselev, Wei, & Jacobson, 2014). Further, compounds previously characterised as A_1 AR agonists, capadenoson (Baltos et al., 2017; Table 2) and VCP746 (Vecchio et al., 2016; Table 2) were shown to stimulate A_{2B} AR-biased agonism. Of note, VCP746 had a higher affinity than NECA or BAY60-6583 and was a potent activator of all G protein signalling pathways relative to the reference ligand NECA (Vecchio, Chuo, et al., 2016). Capadenoson and VCP746 both have desirable activity profiles within cardiac cells which is proposed to be as consequence of their ability to stimulate

potent A_{2B} AR-mediated cAMP accumulation (Baltos et al., 2017; Vecchio, Chuo, et al., 2016; Vecchio, White, & May, 2017). The continued understanding of beneficial signalling pathways in pathophysiology alongside agonist structure activity relationships should facilitate the future development of therapeutically efficacious biased A_{2B} AR ligands.

3. Role of adenosine A_{2B} receptors in pathophysiology

The A_{2B} AR is a low affinity receptor that until recently, was regarded as having minor physiological importance (Feoktistov & Biaggioni, 1997). However as illustrated below, the A_{2B} AR is upregulated and activated in numerous pathological conditions that are often associated with elevated adenosine levels. It provides protection against ischaemia-reperfusion injury, promotes cancer growth and metastasis, modulates the fibrotic response in a variety of organs and tissues and is an important regulator of the immune and inflammatory response.

Table 2
Structure and binding affinity of A_{2B} AR agonists.

Name	Chemical Structure	hA_{2B} AR Affinity pK_i (K_i , nM)	References
Adenosine		4.62 (24,000)	(Yan, Burbiel, Maaß, & Müller, 2003)
NECA		6.48 (330)	(Linden et al., 1999)
VCP746		7.26 (55)	(Vecchio, Chuo, et al., 2016)
BAY 60-6583		6.67 (212)	(Hinz et al., 2014)
Capadenoson		5.49 (3240)	(Baltos et al., 2017)

pK_i denotes the negative logarithm of the ligand equilibrium dissociation constant

This section will review the literature for the role of the A_{2B} AR and outline some of the controversies that still remain regarding A_{2B} AR signalling in pathophysiology.

3.1. Ischaemia-reperfusion injury

During an ischaemic event the disruption or reduction in blood flow results in tissues being deprived of oxygen and nutrients, stimulating a series of biochemical and metabolic changes which contribute to cellular death. Therapy is aimed at restoring blood flow to the ischaemic area, however this unfortunately can elicit further tissue damage, collectively termed ischaemia-reperfusion injury (IRI) (Frank et al., 2012; Pantazi, Bejaoui, Folch-Puy, Adam, & Roselló-Catafau, 2016). Extracellular adenosine concentrations rapidly rise with ischaemic insult and this functions as an endogenous distress signal (Headrick, Hack, & Ashton, 2003; Headrick & Willis, 1988). Adenosine represents one of the most powerful and well-studied cytoprotective agents, particularly in the area of cardioprotection, with A_{2B} AR activation increasingly being implicated as an important modulator against IRI (Eltzschig, Rivera-Nieves, & Colgan, 2009; Sommerschild & Kirkeboen, 2000).

3.1.1. A_{2B} AR in myocardial ischaemia-reperfusion injury

Stimulation of adenosine receptors prior to ischaemia and at the time of reperfusion, has long been acknowledged to protect the myocardium from IRI in a variety of animal models (McIntosh & Lasley, 2012). It has provided an attractive therapeutic target for myocardial IRI that has been pursued in human clinical trials without fruition, in part due to the dose-limiting haemodynamic effects on heart rate and blood pressure (Kloner et al., 2006; Kopecky et al., 2003; Ross, Gibbons, Stone, Kloner, & Alexander, 2005). The A_{2B} AR has been identified as a novel modulator of myocardial cell survival by enhancing ischaemic tolerance (Chen, Eltzschig, & Fredholm, 2013; Eltzschig et al., 2013). The cardioprotective effects of the A_{2B} AR were first demonstrated after the A_{2B} AR-selective antagonist MRS1754 was shown to block the infarct-sparing action of the non-selective adenosine receptor agonist NECA in rabbit hearts (Philipp et al., 2006). This study also demonstrated ischaemic postconditioning, which involves brief cycles of reperfusion/occlusion at the end of the ischaemic phase, is cardioprotective via a PKC- A_{2B} AR-dependent pathway. Work from the same group suggested PKC phosphorylates the A_{2B} AR and raises the sensitivity of the heart to adenosine such that endogenous adenosine can promote protective Akt and ERK signalling via A_{2B} AR activation (Kuno et al., 2007, 2008). The cardioprotective actions of the A_{2B} AR were further demonstrated with

the A_{2B}AR-selective agonist, BAY60-6583, which was shown to reduce myocardial infarct size in isolated rabbit and rat hearts and intact mice when administered prior to, or at the onset of reperfusion (Grube et al., 2011; Kuno et al., 2007; Methner, Schmidt, Cohen, Downey, & Krieg, 2010; Xi et al., 2009). These effects were not observed in the hearts of A_{2B}AR knock out mice (Eckle et al., 2007). Most often, this A_{2B}AR-mediated reduction in infarct size was associated with concomitant stimulation of the A_{2A}AR (Busse et al., 2016; Lasley, Kristo, Keith, & Mentzer, 2006; Methner et al., 2010; Xi et al., 2009). A requirement for cooperative activation of adenosine receptors has also been observed for A₁AR-mediated cardioprotection (Urmaliya et al., 2009; Urmaliya, Pouton, Ledent, Short, & White, 2010; Zhan, McIntosh, & Lasley, 2011), suggesting both A₁AR and A₂AR subtypes are needed for the full effects of adenosine in protecting the heart against IRI.

A_{2B}AR-mediated cardioprotection has been suggested to involve a novel mechanism for improving oxygen-efficient metabolism through the stabilisation of the circadian rhythm protein Per2. Per2 mediates a metabolic switch that enhances myocardial glycolytic capacity, thereby providing enhanced ischaemic tolerance (Eckle et al., 2012). In addition to direct effects on the myocardium, A_{2B}AR reduction of IRI in the heart has been demonstrated to also involve modulation of the inflammatory response. *In vivo* studies using selective A_{2B}AR deletion on immune cells (Seo et al., 2015) or transplantation of wild-type bone marrow into A_{2B}AR knock out mice (Koeppen et al., 2012), demonstrated the A_{2B}AR dampens myocardial IRI via signalling on inflammatory cells. This appears to involve promotion of anti-inflammatory macrophage differentiation downstream of PI3K/Akt activation (Tian, Piras, Kron, French, & Yang, 2015) and inhibition of cardiomyocyte superoxide production, interestingly by a pertussis toxin sensitive G_{i/o}/ERK/PI3K pathway (Yang et al., 2011). The A_{2B}AR therefore represents an important modulator of adenosine-mediated cardioprotection against IRI. This is achieved via complex signalling on the myocardium and immune cells that possibly involves interplay with proteins such as Per2 and other adenosine receptor subtypes.

3.1.2. A_{2B}AR in ischaemia-reperfusion injury of other organs

The A_{2B}AR has also been implicated as an important modulator of IRI in other organs and tissues, though these effects have not been as widely studied as in the heart. Acute gastrointestinal IRI caused by surgery, organ transplantation, sepsis or haemorrhagic shock frequently results in bowel necrosis and is associated with a high mortality (Eltzschig et al., 2009). A protective role of the A_{2B}AR was initially suggested after mucosal scrapings following murine gastrointestinal IRI showed selective induction of A_{2B}AR expression (Hart et al., 2009). Pharmacological inhibition or targeted deletion of the A_{2B}AR enhanced intestinal inflammation and injury during ischaemia-reperfusion, whereas activation of the A_{2B}AR with the selective agonist BAY60-6583 was protective (Hart et al., 2009). The A_{2B}AR was further demonstrated to modulate intestinal barrier function (Yang et al., 2014) which may contribute to a protective role of the A_{2B}AR in gastrointestinal IRI. Similarly, using genetic and pharmacological manipulation, adenosine signalling was demonstrated to be protective against renal ischaemia via activation of the A_{2B}AR (Grenz et al., 2008). This study used A_{2B}AR bone marrow chimeric mice to elucidate that A_{2B}AR signalling on the reno-vasculature rather than haematopoietic cells was responsible for the renal protection conferred by ischaemic preconditioning (Grenz et al., 2008). Vascular A_{2B}AR activation has also been shown to promote endothelial barrier function to protect against hypoxia induced-vascular injury (Eckle, Faigle, Grenz, Laucher, & Thompson, 2008). Likewise, a model of acute mechanical vascular injury demonstrated a key role for the A_{2B}AR but this time showed bone marrow-derived A_{2B}ARs significantly contributed to tissue protection (Yang et al., 2008). In contrast, evidence in the lung suggests A_{2B}AR blockade significantly improves lung function and attenuates pro-inflammatory cytokine production following ischaemia-reperfusion, pointing at a detrimental effect of A_{2B}AR activation in lung IRI (Anvari et al., 2010; Huerter et al.,

2016). Compared to peripheral organs, the role of the A_{2B}AR in cerebral IRI is not as well defined. Contrasting reports have suggested both A_{2B}AR agonism *in vivo* (Li et al., 2017) and antagonism *in vitro* (Fusco et al., 2018) provide a novel neuroprotective strategy for stroke. Collectively, these studies suggest a more widespread mechanism for A_{2B}AR-mediated protection from IRI throughout the body, with the exception perhaps of the lung and brain, though the precise signalling mechanisms still need to be elucidated.

3.2. Fibrosis

Fibrosis, characterised by the accumulation of extracellular matrix molecules that make up scar tissue, is a common feature of chronic tissue injury. Fibrosis underlies the pathology of many diseases including heart failure, idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis, scleroderma, hepatic cirrhosis and chronic kidney disease, which collectively represent a large disease burden with a huge unmet clinical need (Friedman, Sheppard, Duffield, & Violette, 2013). Adenosine, acting via the A_{2B}AR, has been identified as an important modulator of fibroblast homeostasis with both pro- and anti-fibrotic actions attributed to A_{2B}AR activation (Chan & Cronstein, 2009; Cronstein, 2011; Karmouty-Quintana, Xia, & Blackburn, 2013; Vecchio et al., 2017). As discussed in the following section, divergent signal transduction highlights both the complexity and ensuing challenges faced when targeting A_{2B}AR for the treatment of fibrosis.

3.2.1. Anti-fibrotic role of the A_{2B}AR

The A_{2B}AR was first proposed as a novel modulator of fibrosis within the heart some 20 years ago (Dubey et al., 1998; Dubey, Gillespie, Mi, & Jackson, 1997) and has subsequently been investigated in *in vitro* and *in vivo* models of cardiac fibrosis. Pharmacological targeting and genetic manipulation of the A_{2B}AR revealed that A_{2B}AR signal transduction inhibited proliferation and collagen synthesis in isolated cardiac fibroblasts (Chen et al., 2004; Dubey et al., 1998; Dubey, Gillespie, Zacharia, Mi, & Jackson, 2001). The expression of pro-fibrotic gene markers including collagen I and connective tissue growth factor (CTGF) was also inhibited in the presence of a novel A_{2B}AR agonist (Vecchio, Chuo, et al., 2016). In addition, activation of the A_{2B}AR attenuated endothelin-1- (Phosri et al., 2017), and angiotensin II- (Phosri, Bunrukchai, Parichatikanond, Sato, & Mangmool, 2018) stimulated expression of the myofibroblast marker α -smooth muscle actin (α -SMA), indicating the A_{2B}AR prevents conversion of fibroblasts to the pro-fibrogenic myofibroblast phenotype. The inhibitory activity on collagen synthesis and α -SMA expression is mediated by the second messenger cAMP and subsequent activation of an exchange protein directly activated by cAMP (EPAC) and PI3K dependent pathway (Fig. 2) (Epperson, Brunton, Ramirez-Sanchez, & Villarreal, 2009; Phosri et al., 2017; Villarreal, Epperson, Ramirez-Sanchez, Yamazaki, & Brunton, 2009). An anti-fibrotic role of the A_{2B}AR has been further supported by an *in vivo* study which demonstrated the selective A_{2B}AR antagonist MRS1754 was able to block an adenosine analogue (2-chloroadenosine)-mediated inhibition of collagen volume fraction and matrix metalloproteinase gene expression in a model of permanent coronary artery ligation (Wakeno et al., 2006). Additionally it is proposed that capadenoson, a partial A₁AR agonist that also stimulates A_{2B}AR cAMP signalling (Baltos et al., 2017), may reduce left ventricular interstitial fibrosis in dogs with advanced heart failure via an A_{2B}AR-dependent mechanism (Sabbah et al., 2013).

3.2.2. Pro-fibrotic role of the A_{2B}AR

In contrast to the majority of *in vitro* studies which identify an anti-fibrotic role for the A_{2B}AR, there are some *in vivo* models of cardiac fibrosis and remodelling that suggest a detrimental role of A_{2B}AR signalling. Blockade of the A_{2B}AR with a highly selective antagonist, GS-6201 significantly enhanced cardiac function and decreased fibrosis in the non-infarct and border zones in a model of myocardial IRI (Zhang

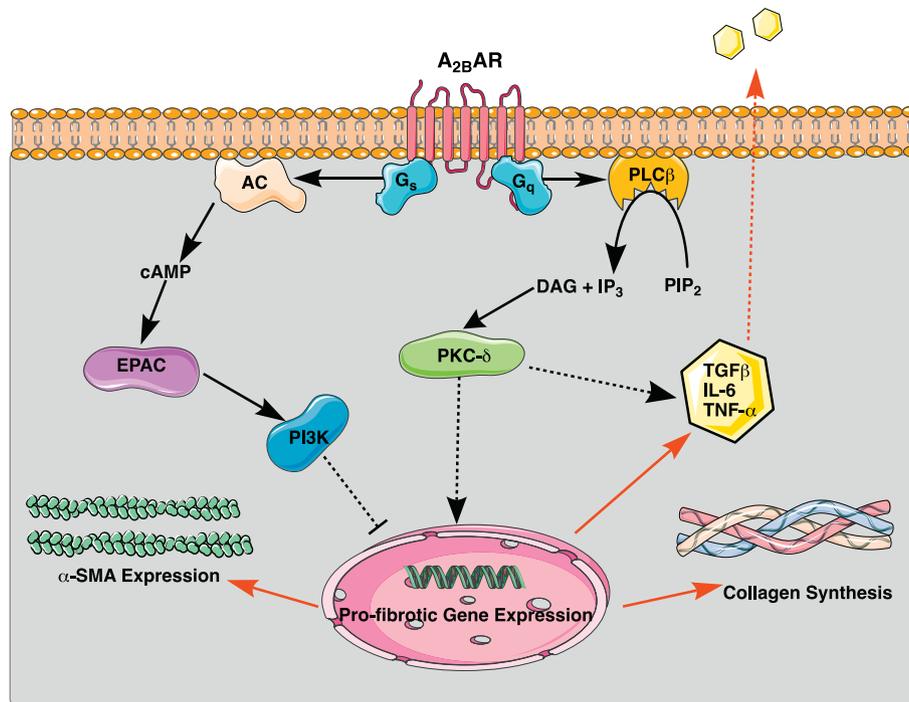


Fig. 2. Proposed A_{2B}AR-mediated signalling pathways involved in the regulation of fibrosis. Figure created using the Servier Medical Art resource (<https://smart.servier.com>).

et al., 2014). In agreement, a study in A_{2B}AR knock-out mice showed they had a similar infarct size but significantly reduced interstitial fibrosis and improved end diastolic pressure when compared to wild type mice 8 weeks after permanent left coronary ligation (Maas, Koupenova, Ravid, & Auchampach, 2008). Blockade of the A_{2B}AR inhibits pro-inflammatory leukocyte infiltration and caspase-1 activity (Toldo et al., 2012) and reduces secretion of transforming growth factor beta 1 (TGF-β1), TNF-α and IL-6, likely via a G_q/PKC-δ pathway in the heart, which suggests modulation of inflammatory mediators contributes to A_{2B}AR-mediated cardiac fibrosis (Feng, Song, Chen, Lu, & Zhang, 2009; Toldo et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2014). A pro-fibrotic role of A_{2B}AR activation is also observed in other organ systems. In the lung, elevated adenosine levels are found in patients with asthma, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) and idiopathic fibrosis and contributes to airway hyper-responsiveness, pulmonary inflammation, remodelling and fibrosis (Chan & Cronstein, 2009; Karmouty-Quintana et al., 2013). The A_{2B}AR has been shown to be critical for the action of adenosine in these chronic lung diseases (Sun et al., 2006). HIF-1α upregulation of the A_{2B}AR and subsequent receptor activation promotes the differentiation of human lung fibroblasts to myofibroblasts (Zhong, Belardinelli, Maa, & Zeng, 2005) and contributes to the progression of bleomycin-induced pulmonary fibrosis (Philip et al., 2017). Blockade with a highly selective A_{2B}AR antagonist CVT-6883 (also known as GS-6201) attenuates airway collagen deposition and pro-fibrotic gene expression and reduces myofibroblast number in ADA deficient and bleomycin-treated mice (Sun et al., 2006). Interestingly, genetic ablation of the A_{2B}AR had no effect on collagen levels or the extent of fibrosis in acute bleomycin-induced lung injury, but did significantly reduce fibrosis in a chronic bleomycin injury model (Zhou et al., 2011). It was further established that deletion of A_{2B}AR in myeloid cells protects mouse lung from chronic bleomycin exposure (Karmouty-Quintana et al., 2014), which suggests a pro-inflammatory role of the A_{2B}AR in the progression of pulmonary fibrosis. This is further supported by studies demonstrating the A_{2B}AR activates macrophages and stimulates IL-6 release from bronchial smooth muscle cells and lung fibroblasts (Zhong et al., 2004, 2005). Similarly, in the kidney, abrogation of A_{2B}AR signalling is beneficial in the setting of chronic kidney disease. In an ADA-deficient or angiotensin II-infusion mouse model of

kidney disease, administration of either polyethylene glycol-modified ADA or the A_{2B}AR selective antagonist PSB-1115 attenuated renal dysfunction and fibrosis (Dai et al., 2011). A_{2B}AR mRNA expression was significantly enhanced in mice subjected to angiotensin II-infusion or unilateral ureteral obstruction and this was associated with elevated collagen content and expression of fibrotic gene markers in particular the pro-inflammatory cytokine IL-6 (Dai et al., 2011). Renal fibrosis in these mouse models could be reduced with either pharmacological or genetic abrogation of the A_{2B}AR (Dai et al., 2011). A_{2B}AR expression was also shown to be positively correlated with the degree of interstitial fibrosis in renal tissue in a mouse model of kidney IRI (Roberts, Lu, Dwyer, & Cowan, 2014) and in patients with chronic kidney disease (Zhang et al., 2013). A further study in a rat renal fibroblast cell line NRK-49F demonstrated activation of the A_{2B}AR induces a pro-fibrotic fibroblast phenotype associated with increased expression of the fibrotic markers α-SMA, fibronectin, TGF-β1 and CTGF (Wilkinson, Farrell, Morel, Law, & Murphy, 2016). Elevated adenosine concentrations and subsequent signalling via the A_{2B}AR have also been shown to contribute to dermal (Karmouty-Quintana et al., 2018) and penile (Wen et al., 2010) fibrosis.

3.3. Cancer

A growing body of evidence suggests the A_{2B}AR may provide a novel therapeutic target for the treatment of cancer, for which the A_{2B}AR appears to play an important pathological role. The A_{2B}AR is upregulated by HIF-1α (Kong et al., 2006), so is often highly expressed in the cells and tissues from the hypoxic microenvironment of many solid tumours including colon carcinomas (Ma et al., 2010), prostate cancer (Mousavi, Panjehpour, Izadpanahi, & Aghaei, 2015; Wei et al., 2013), oral squamous cell carcinomas (Kasama et al., 2015), lung adenocarcinoma (Li, Huang, & Peng, 2005; Ryzhov et al., 2008) and breast cancer (Mittal et al., 2016). The overexpression of the A_{2B}AR in different cancers relative to normal tissue, combined with the increase in adenosine concentrations in the tumour microenvironment, suggests a role in disease progression and highlights the therapeutic potential of A_{2B}AR antagonists as adjuvants in cancer therapy (Kazemi et al., 2017; Sepúlveda, Palomo, & Fuentes, 2016).

3.3.1. $A_{2B}AR$ and cancer cell proliferation and tumour growth

One of the key roles of the $A_{2B}AR$ in cancer pathophysiology is the promotion of cancer cell proliferation and tumour growth. Activation of the $A_{2B}AR$ with the subtype-selective agonist BAY 60-6583 increased tumour growth in a mouse model of melanoma (Iannone, Miele, Maiolino, Pinto, & Morello, 2013). Conversely application of an $A_{2B}AR$ -selective antagonist decreased proliferation of prostate cancer cell lines (Vecchio et al., 2016; Wei et al., 2013), and colon cancer cells (Ma et al., 2010) and reduced tumour volume of bladder cancer, breast cancer (Cekic et al., 2011) and melanoma in mice (Iannone et al., 2013). These results in could be recapitulated with genetic knockdown or knockout of the $A_{2B}AR$ in various models of solid tumours (Cekic et al., 2011; Kasama et al., 2015; Ryzhov et al., 2008), confirming the role of this receptor subtype in cancer cell proliferation and growth. This likely involves G_s -mediated stimulation of cAMP and ERK1/2 phosphorylation as these pathways are known to be involved in $A_{2B}AR$ -mediated proliferation of non-cancerous endothelial cells (Fang & Olah, 2007; Grant et al., 2001). In addition, increases in cAMP have been demonstrated to promote proliferation of various cells, including progression of prostate cancer (Flacke et al., 2013; Merkle & Hoffmann, 2011), which would support the role of $A_{2B}AR$ - G_s signalling in mediating cancer cell growth in the general sense. A recent study with bladder urothelial carcinoma further suggests the ERK1/2, p38 and JNK MAPKs to be important in $A_{2B}AR$ -mediated tumour progression (Fig. 3) (Zhou et al., 2017).

3.3.2. $A_{2B}AR$ and metastasis

The $A_{2B}AR$ also modulates the ability of cancer cells to metastasise and migrate which contributes to disease progression (Sepúlveda et al., 2016; Sun & Huang, 2016). The $A_{2B}AR$ has higher expression in metastatic versus non-metastatic derived colorectal cancer cell lines (Futschik et al., 2002). It has also been shown to promote tumour-cell chemotaxis *in vitro* and enhance lung metastasis in *in vivo* models of breast cancer and melanoma resulting in poorer prognosis (Cekic

et al., 2011; Mittal et al., 2016; Stagg et al., 2010). Recent data also shows that experimental and spontaneous lung metastasis could be suppressed by the use of an $A_{2B}AR$ -selective antagonist or genetic knockdown with shRNA (Desmet et al., 2013; Mittal et al., 2016). The enhanced metastasis may involve $A_{2B}AR$ -increased gene expression of a key metastatic transcription factor, Fos-related antigen-1 (Fra-1) (Desmet et al., 2013), and the suppression of Rap1 protein activity which has been associated with reduced cell adhesion and increased tumour cell migration through a PKA-dependent mechanism (Ntantie et al., 2013). Hence the $A_{2B}AR$ appears to enhance tumour cell metastasis by promoting migration and induction of an invasive, metastatic phenotype.

3.3.3. $A_{2B}AR$ and angiogenesis

Tumour growth is also enhanced by the $A_{2B}AR$ via promotion of angiogenesis. The $A_{2B}AR$ induces vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) (Feoktistov, 2002; Ryzhov et al., 2008; 2013) and IL-8 production in human endothelial and cancer cells (Merighi et al., 2007, 2009), which are essential for tumour angiogenesis. Stimulation of adenosine receptors has been shown to increase VEGF production five-fold in tumour-associated CD45⁺ immune cells, an effect that is not observed in CD45⁺ cells from $A_{2B}AR$ knockout mice (Ryzhov et al., 2008). Unlike the effects on cancer cell proliferation, the induction of pro-angiogenic factors via the $A_{2B}AR$ appear to be largely mediated through PLC downstream of G_q -coupling (Feoktistov, 2002). VEGF in particular appears to be stimulated by a mechanism involving the transcription factor JunB downstream of $A_{2B}AR$ -mediated PLC-Rap1-MEK activation (Fig. 3) (Ryzhov et al., 2013).

In addition to direct effects on metastasis, proliferation and angiogenesis, the $A_{2B}AR$ can have an indirect role on cancer progression via modulation of the immune system (discussed in Section 3.4). Together, this highlights the importance of the $A_{2B}AR$ in cancer pathophysiology

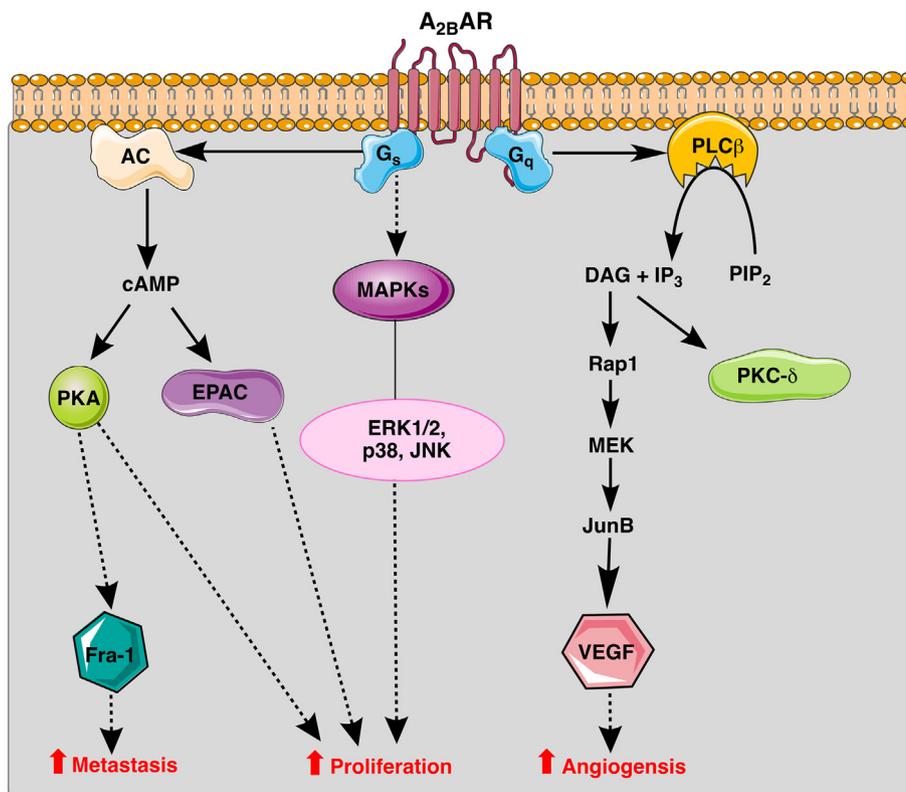


Fig. 3. Involvement of $A_{2B}AR$ signalling in regulating cancer cell proliferation, metastasis and angiogenesis. Figure created using the Servier Medical Art resource (<https://smart.servier.com>).

and reveals the therapeutic potential of $A_{2B}AR$ antagonists in the treatment of cancer, particularly solid tumours.

3.4. Inflammation & the immune response

The $A_{2B}AR$ is increasingly recognised as an important mediator of the immune response and the inflammatory cascade, which contributes to the pathophysiology of the above discussed ischaemia-reperfusion injury, fibrosis, cancer and other disease states such as asthma, inflammatory bowel disease and diabetes (Haskó et al., 2009; Sun & Huang, 2016). The $A_{2B}AR$ is expressed on various cells of haematopoietic origin including macrophages, mast cells, lymphocytes, dendritic cells and neutrophils (Feoktistov & Biaggioni, 2011; Gessi et al., 2005; Mirabet et al., 1999; Novitskiy et al., 2008). As outlined previously, adenosine levels and $A_{2B}AR$ expression are markedly upregulated during hypoxia and cell injury. Multiple mediators of the inflammatory response have also been demonstrated to increase $A_{2B}AR$ expression in numerous immune cell types, including bacterial product lipopolysaccharide, pro-inflammatory cytokines TNF- α , IL-1 β , and IFN- γ and the prostaglandin E2 (Reviewed in Haskó et al., 2009; Aherne et al., 2011). The expression and upregulation on immune cells therefore suggests the $A_{2B}AR$ as an important therapeutic target in treating immune system dysfunction and inflammation.

3.4.1. $A_{2B}AR$ anti-inflammatory signalling

The $A_{2B}AR$ was suggested to dampen the immune response after an $A_{2B}AR$ knockout mouse model showed increases in vasculature leukocyte adhesion and the augmentation of pro-inflammatory cytokines, TNF- α and IL-6, accompanied by decreases in the plasma level of the anti-inflammatory IL-10, compared to wild-type mice (Yang et al., 2006). An anti-inflammatory role for the $A_{2B}AR$ was further demonstrated after stimulation of the $A_{2B}AR$ was shown to increase the production of IL-10 from lipopolysaccharide-activated macrophages (Németh et al., 2005) and inhibit superoxide generation by neutrophils (van der Hoeven et al., 2011). In addition, studies have also shown that the $A_{2B}AR$ limits leukocyte vascular permeability and neutrophil infiltration (Eckle et al., 2008; Haskó et al., 2009) and stimulates alternative macrophage activation (Csóka et al., 2012). This promotes an anti-inflammatory phenotype that protects against tissue injury and promotes tissue restitution (Haskó et al., 2009). The loss of $A_{2B}AR$ on non-haematopoietic cells has also been shown to increase pro-inflammatory cytokines TNF- α , IL-1 β and IL-6 and NF- κ B activation, suggesting the $A_{2B}AR$ had a role in preventing sepsis-induced mortality (Csóka et al., 2010). After myocardial infarction, expression of the $A_{2B}AR$ was significantly upregulated on cells of the adaptive immune system, in particular T helper and cytotoxic T cells and suppressed secretion of the pro-inflammatory IFN γ (Borg et al., 2017). Likewise, the immunosuppressive actions of adenosine, acting via the $A_{2B}AR$, provide a protective role in a model of type I diabetes mellitus (Németh et al., 2007). However, these same $A_{2B}AR$ -mediated anti-inflammatory effects may help tumour cells evade natural defences and promote tumour growth (Sepúlveda et al., 2016). For example, in addition to the variety of immunomodulatory actions discussed above, $A_{2B}AR$ activation on dendritic cells induces expression of pro-angiogenic and immunosuppressant factors such as VEGF which promotes tumour growth and vascularisation (Novitskiy et al., 2008).

3.4.2. $A_{2B}AR$ pro-inflammatory signalling

In addition to anti-inflammatory effects, a pro-inflammatory role of the $A_{2B}AR$ has also been demonstrated. $A_{2B}AR$ activation leads to increased IL-6 cytokine release by bronchial smooth muscle cells (Zhong et al., 2004), primary murine alveolar macrophages (Pedroza et al., 2011) and lung fibroblasts (Zhong et al., 2005). The $A_{2B}AR$ via a PLC-PKC-p38 pathway, also stimulates IL-6 production in microglial cells, thus contributes to neuro-inflammation (Merighi et al., 2016). In mast cells, primarily through coupling to G_q , stimulation of the $A_{2B}AR$ induces

degranulation and release of pro-inflammatory cytokines IL-4, IL-8 and IL-13, which in turn promotes immunoglobulin E synthesis by B lymphocytes (Auchampach, Jin, Wan, Caughey, & Linden, 1997; Feoktistov et al., 1999; Ryzhov, Goldstein, Biaggioni, & Feoktistov, 2006). These actions contribute to chronic inflammatory lung pathology and rationalise the use of $A_{2B}AR$ antagonists in the treatment of asthma and COPD (Wilson et al., 2009). Similarly, in intestinal epithelial cells, the $A_{2B}AR$ increases IL-6 and keratinocyte-derived chemokine concentrations and contributes to murine colitis, suggesting $A_{2B}AR$ blockade may be an effective strategy to treat inflammatory bowel disease (Kolachala et al., 2008; Sitaraman et al., 2001). Sustained elevated adenosine concentrations and subsequent activation of the $A_{2B}AR$ on myeloid cells stimulate soluble IL-6 receptor signalling and nociceptor hyperexcitability, highlighting the role of the $A_{2B}AR$ in promoting chronic pain through neuro-immune interaction. (Hu et al., 2016).

4. Emerging therapeutic opportunities and conclusions

The expanding knowledge of $A_{2B}AR$ pharmacology and the continued efforts to uncover subtype selective ligands has repositioned the $A_{2B}AR$ as a target with great biological importance. Alongside fibrosis, IRI, cancer and inflammation, the $A_{2B}AR$ is currently being investigated for the treatment of diabetes (Figler et al., 2011; Merighi et al., 2015), pulmonary hypertension (Bessa-Gonçalves, Bragança, Martins-Dias, Correia-de-Sá, & Fontes-Sousa, 2018; Mertens et al., 2018), sickle cell anaemia (Paz et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2011), and bone diseases (Daniele et al., 2017; Trincavelli et al., 2014). An $A_{2B}AR$ antagonist has completed Phase I clinical trials for investigation in the prophylaxis and treatment of asthma (Kalla & Zablocki, 2009) and a dual $A_{2A}AR/A_{2B}AR$ antagonist is currently entering Phase I clinical trial for patients with advanced malignancies (Vijayan, Young, Teng, & Smyth, 2017). While great progress has been made, complexities regarding how the $A_{2B}AR$ can promote both beneficial and detrimental outcomes, sometimes even within the same tissue or organ, requires further elucidation. Most notably, there appears a temporal relationship between $A_{2B}AR$ activation (or inactivation) and pathological outcome. Acute $A_{2B}AR$ stimulation is largely protective in the setting of IRI as the receptor acts to dampen down inflammation and fibrosis in response to an acute insult. This is contrasted by the pro-inflammatory, pro-fibrotic role from the pathological overproduction of adenosine and prolonged $A_{2B}AR$ activation in chronic models of disease such as sickle cell anaemia, asthma/COPD, inflammatory bowel disease, chronic kidney disease or within the microenvironment of tumours (Eisenstein, Patterson, & Ravid, 2015; Feoktistov & Biaggioni, 2011; Karmouty-Quintana et al., 2013). These opposing effects may reflect temporal changes in intracellular G protein/ β -arrestin coupling or differential interplay of signalling mediators between the immune and tissue cells that change with disease progression (Aherne et al., 2011; Cohen, Yang, & Downey, 2010). It is hoped therefore that ever-developing genetic and pharmacological tools will delineate the differential $A_{2B}AR$ effects and enable the therapeutic potential of the $A_{2B}AR$ to be realised.

Conflict of interest statement

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest

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