

REVIEW ARTICLE

Adenosine Receptors as Novel Targets for the Treatment of Various Cancers

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Abstract: Adenosine is a ubiquitous signaling nucleoside molecule, released from different cells within the body to act on vasculature and immunoescape. The physiological action on the proliferation of tumour cell has been reported by the presence of high concentration of adenosine within the tumour microenvironment, which results in the progression of the tumour, even leading to metastases. The activity of adenosine exclusively depends upon the interaction with four subtypes of heterodimeric G-protein-coupled adenosine receptors (AR), A₁, A_{2A}, A_{2B}, and A₃-ARs on the cell surface. Research evidence supports that the activation of those receptors via specific agonist or antagonist can modulate the proliferation of tumour cells. The first category of AR, A₁ is known to play an antitumour activity via tumour-associated microglial cells to prevent the development of glioblastomas. A_{2A}AR are found in melanoma, lung, and breast cancer cells, where tumour proliferation is stimulated due to inhibition of the immune response via inhibition of natural killer cells cytotoxicity, T cell activity, and tumour-specific CD4+/CD8+ activity. Alternatively, A_{2B}AR helps in the development of tumour upon activation via upregulation of angiogenin factor in the microvascular endothelial cells, inhibition of MAPK and ERK 1/2 phosphorylation activity. Lastly, A₃AR is expressed in low levels in normal cells whereas the expression is upregulated in tumour cells, however, agonists to this receptor inhibit tumour proliferation through modulation of Wnt and NF-κB signaling pathways. Several researchers are in search for potential agents to modulate the overexpressed ARs to control cancer. Active components of A_{2A}AR antagonists and A₃AR agonists have already entered in Phase-I clinical research to prove their safety in human. This review focused on novel research targets towards the prevention of cancer progression through stimulation of the overexpressed ARs with the hope to protect lives and advance human health.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Specific target proteins that are mostly expressed in tumour cells as compared to normal cells have been studied in the last few decades. Among these targets, purine nucleoside adenosine is found at a sufficient concentration in the interstitial fluid of tumour microenvironment that can modulate the tumour growth. These physiological effects of adenosine are determined by the four adenosine receptors (ARs) whose expression is altered in tumour cells as compared to the normal cells. Adenosine is released from almost all cells and is ubiquitously generated by the ATP breakdown by ectoenzymes [1]. Intracellular adenosine formation is dependent on the hydrolysis of AMP or S-adenosylhomocysteine [2]. Metabolically unfavourable conditions increase the availability of adenosine, for example, ATP breakdown in hypoxia leads to the generation of excessive adenosine. Adenosine was identified as the major autacoid that regulates the cellular functions in the absence of energy and meets the cellular energy demand. It can condition the cells to meet the metabolic demand with less/lack of energy, therefore it has earned the name of "retaliatory metabolite" in 1980 [3]. Extracellular adenosine released in these unfavourable conditions restores the cellular function by its cytoprotective mechanism. It protects cells by increasing the oxygen supply, prevents ischaemic damage by cell preconditioning, and promotes anti-inflammatory

responses and angiogenesis [4]. All these cellular responses of adenosine are strictly regulated by its receptors. There are four subtypes of the ARs (A₁, A_{2A}, A_{2B} and A₃) are the GPCRs and are expressed transcellularly. The cellular distribution and pharmacological responses of these receptors are different and unique. Out of these four receptors, A₁ and A₃ share 49% of similarity whereas, A_{2A} and A_{2B} share 59% of sequence similarity [5]. The selective modulators of these receptors are widely studied for several pathological conditions such as inflammation, neurodegeneration, ischaemia, cardiovascular disorders and cancer. However, their therapeutic application is still elusive. In this review, the association between the AR subtypes and tumour development are discussed extensively. Furthermore, the possibilities of these receptor subtypes as the novel therapeutic target against cancer are discussed.

2. ADENOSINE RECEPTORS AND SIGNALLING PATHWAYS

ARs are classified under GPCRs and their signalling is associated with the activation/inhibition of adenylyl cyclase. In addition, other pathways of PLC, MAPKs and alteration of intracellular Ca²⁺ concentration are also involved. A₁AR and A₃AR share a similar signal transduction process. Activation of A₁AR and A₃AR receptors inhibit adenylyl cyclase through pertussis toxin-sensitive Gi proteins activation and increased PLC activity via Gq proteins [6]. Inhibition of adenylyl cyclase leads to a decreased cAMP concentration in cells which further modulates the PKA that phosphorylates MAPK and protein kinase B/Akt signalling pathways [7,8]. Induction of signalling cascade with increased intracellular calcium concentration, PLC and PLD activation leads to the cellular proliferation and apoptosis [9]. A_{2A} and A_{2B} receptor activation increases adenylyl cyclase activity through Gs proteins. Gs activation is the

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primary mechanism of A_{2A} ARs, whereas, A_{2B} triggers PLC activity through Gq protein. The principal functions of A_{2B} ARs are demonstrated by Gq activation and increase in inositol phosphate formation. The other signal transduction process by A_{2A} ARs activation involves inositol phosphate formation and increased intracellular calcium concentration that further activates protein kinase C via pertussis toxin-insensitive $G\alpha_{15}$ and $G\alpha_{16}$ proteins [10,11].

3. ADENOSINE RECEPTORS AND THEIR ROLE IN CANCER

3.1. A_1 Adenosine Receptors in Cancer

The A_1 ARs are monomeric glycoproteins of approximately 36-kDa [12]. They couple to several effectors such as adenylate cyclase, guanylate cyclase and various ion channels including Ca^{2+} , Cl^- and K^+ channels. Furthermore, they are coupled to guanine nucleotide regulatory proteins or G proteins leading to the activation of G-protein and are involved in the physiological regulation of nucleotide adenosine. Overproduction of adenosine from ATP by both immune and cancerous cells correlates with cancer progression [13]. It acts as an immunosuppressive metabolite and enables tumour cells to overcome anti-tumour immune mechanisms [14]. The dual effects of A_1 AR, either anti-inflammatory or pro-inflammatory have been observed [15]. A_1 AR induced phagocytic function of neutrophils [16] and the formation of giant cells by monocytes [17]. Conversely, anti-inflammatory activities of A_1 AR have been reported in various diseases or tissue injuries [18–21]. In addition, through the binding with agonists, A_1 AR causes the inhibition of ADCY which catalyses the production of cAMP from ATP, resulting in reduced levels of cAMP [22]. cAMP produced through ADCY catalysis, subsequently induced CREB phosphorylation through the cAMP/PKA signalling pathway [23]. Several reports have suggested the roles of ADCY, cAMP and CREB in carcinogenesis and tumorigenesis [24–28]. Overexpression of ADCY3 found in human gastric cancer cell lines and tissues promotes cancer progression. Increased levels of cAMP, phosphorylated CREB, MMP2 and MMP9 were also observed in HEK293 cells overexpressing ADCY3 (transfected with pAcGFP-ADCY3) [28]. ADCY3 silencing suppressed tumorigenesis and cell proliferation. Moreover, ADCY2 was reported as a marker for poor prognosis in colorectal cancer [27]. These observations are consistent with the inhibitory effects of A_1 AR agonists on the proliferation of Sertoli-like TM4 cells [29] as well as glioblastoma growth in the presence of microglial cells [30]. Furthermore, adenosine was shown to reduce microglial proliferation in the presence of A_1 AR agonist while A_1 AR deletion resulted in high density of microglia surrounding tumour [30]. However, stimulation of microglial proliferation by adenosine via cooperative interactions between ARs A_1 and A_2 , was also reported [31]. In another report, A_1 AR antagonist was shown to inhibit adenosine-induced apoptosis while the A_1 AR agonist induced cell death in human colonic cancer (CW2) cells suggesting the involvement of A_1 AR in the tumour suppressive roles of adenosine [32]. Adenosine was shown to induce apoptosis through a series of caspase activation. Interestingly, A_1 AR was reported to exert a protective effect against cisplatin-associated ototoxicity through its anti-apoptotic and anti-inflammatory activities [33].

Overexpression of A_1 AR in cancers might result from the increased levels of adenosine within the tumour microenvironment possibly due to hypoxia or oxygen deficiency [14,34,35]. In Jurkat cells or human leukemia cells, A_1 AR was simultaneously expressed together with A_{2A} , A_{2B} and A_3 to facilitate the activation of various pathways by the selective adenosine [36]. Up-regulation of A_1 AR expression was also recorded in the human colorectal adenocarcinomas and breast tumour tissues when compared to normal tissues [37,38]. The tumorigenic roles of A_1 AR were demonstrated by down-regulation of A_1 AR in breast [38] and renal carcinomas [39] via RNA interference and A_1 AR antagonist (DPCPX) respec-

tively. In addition to its ability to induce apoptosis in breast cancer cells, A_1 AR siRNA inhibited tumour growth and caused cell arrest at G₂/M phase with reduced cell population at the S phase [38]. This incident might be due to the overexpression of p27 protein and downregulation of CDK4 protein. It was observed that A_1 AR antagonist (DPCPX) could inhibit cell proliferation and promote cell migration the regulation of MMP expressions in renal cancer cells [39]. Furthermore, DPCPX upregulated the levels of p53 and caspases that led to apoptosis in MCF-7 cells [40]. In other studies, A_1 AR demonstrated metastatic role by regulating adenosine-induced motility in the melanoma cells [41] and promoted angiogenesis by inducing the release of VEGF from monocytes [42]. Angiogenesis is critical for tumour progression and VEGF plays an important role as its activator by inducing the formation of blood vessels surrounding tumours as the source of nutrients and oxygen [43].

3.2. A_2 Adenosine Receptors in Cancer

The two genes – ADORA_{2A} and ADORA_{2B} were found encoded in A_2 receptors, to express A_{2A} AR and A_{2B} AR, respectively, where these A_2 receptors are attached to G_s subunit of G_α proteins. It has been reported that the affinity of adenosine towards ARs is as follows: A_1 (100 nM) > A_3 AR (290 nM) > A_{2A} AR (310 nM) > A_{2B} AR (K_i=15,000 nM). Activation of these A_2 receptors releases G_s subunit for the dimers ($G_{\beta\gamma}$) in order to activate adenylyl cyclases. Activation of adenylyl cyclase promotes the conversion of cellular ATP to cAMP [44]. Because of increased cAMP level, it activates PKA as depicted in Fig. 1 *via* formation of the consecutive complex between two cAMP molecules and regulatory subunits, which releases active catalytic monomer to phosphorylate other substrates [44,45].

Activated PKA isoform, gets , affixed to the TCR in T-cell. Therefore, phosphorylation of proximal C-terminal Src kinase of the TCR inhibits activation of Fyn and Lck tyrosine kinases, which prevents the signalling pathway of TCR [45]. Thus, at an elevated level of cAMP, it has been established that these regulatory T cells, specialized T cells that suppress the immune response, facilitates the progression of cancer [46]. Evasion into the immune system is also a well-accepted platform for cancer. Therefore, increased level of cAMP caused by the action of adenosine correspondingly dampens the immune system, where the cAMP-PKA signalling phosphorylates nuclear factor of activated T-cells and transcription factor CREB, thereby decreasing the formation of type I cytokines, IFN- γ [45,47].

Alternatively, an increased level of cAMP independently activates guanine exchange factor, which is responsible to control the cellular functions [45,48]. Thus, activation of guanine exchange factor, Epac further acts on small GTP_{ases}, Rap1 and Rap2 and activates them. Activation of Epac regulates several cellular functions, viz. adhesion, differentiation, proliferation and secretion [49]. Additionally, due to Rho members of the Ras superfamily, these Rap1 and Rap2 facilitate MAPK signalling [50]. Furthermore, increased Rap1 activation decreases IL-2 gene transcription, which is a common consequence of T-cell functions following stimulation of TCR [51]. Therefore, increased level of cAMP can act and suppress T-cells in both PKA-dependent and independent manner to promote disease states including cancer.

ARs are identified for their inflammatory responses in various inflammatory diseased conditions *via* modulation of pro-inflammatory activities [52]. It has also been postulated that matured dendritic cells upregulate the expression of A_{2A} and A_{2B} AR, whereas activation of A_{2B} ARs in the absence of toll-like receptors induces chronic inflammation *via* Th17 polarization of CD4⁺ T-cells and release of the pro-inflammatory cytokine, IL-6 [53]. As discussed earlier, for the low affinity of A_{2B} ARs towards adenosine, activation of A_{2B} ARs requires accumulation of adenosine at the disease site, such as cancer [54]. Further, these dendritic cells and

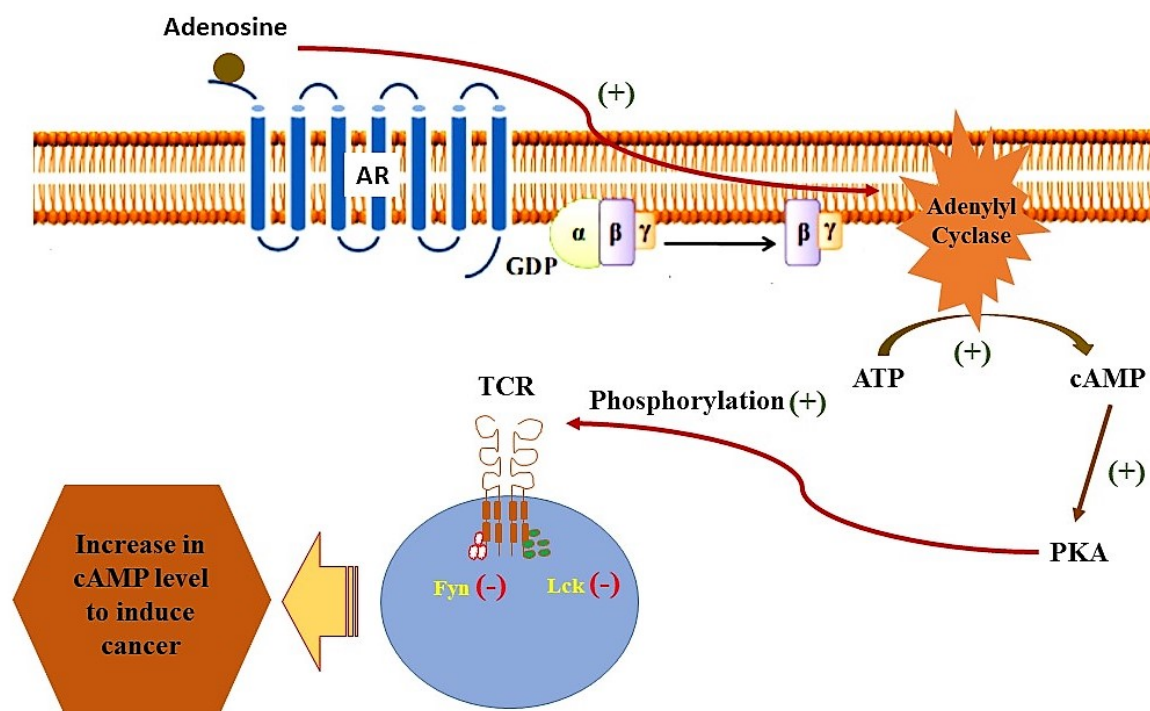


Fig. (1). Activation pathway of adenosine receptor to inhibit the activation of T-cell receptors and induce diseases like cancer.

macrophages are found to be sensitive towards adenosine. Exposure of these cells to adenosine has shown to decrease TNF α and IL-12 secretion, Th1 polarization of naïve CD4⁺ T-cells, and an increase in anti-inflammatory IL-10 formation [55,56]. Therapeutic consequences of A_{2A} and A_{2B}ARs will be discussed in the connecting sections.

3.2.1. A_{2A} Adenosine Receptors in Cancer

The purine nucleoside, adenosine, shows high specificity towards the A_{2A}AR, which is expressed at different levels in different body tissues. Normally, the existence of A_{2A}AR has been reported in blood platelets, leukocytes, thymus, spleen, and brain at a higher degree, where expression of this receptor in blood vessels, lung and heart is intermediate [57,58]. However, overexpression of A_{2A}ARs has a direct relationship with cancer, as adenosine helps to regulate all cancer developmental phases, angiogenesis, cell proliferation, immunoescape and metastasis. Therefore, it is presumed that the overexpression of A_{2A}ARs is a common phenomenon in cancer microenvironment for the uncontrolled growth of cells [59,60].

Alternatively, as discussed earlier, the recognition of the cancerous cells by immune cells, such as by the cytotoxic T cells, is also affected by the overexpression of A_{2A}ARs [61–63]. Such actions usually result from the depression of the immune cells by the effect of adenosine in A_{2A}ARs, which progress to increase in hypoxic tumour cell survival and immunoescape. Attention towards overcoming such immunosuppression due to the action of adenosine on A_{2A}ARs resulted in with several research outputs with resolving inflammatory responses, engagement of TCR on CD4⁺ T-cells inhibiting IFN- γ production, increased propagation of antigen-activated CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T-cells in experimental animal models [54,64,65]. Therefore, decreased expression of A_{2A}ARs in experimental mice with particular genetic deletion of A_{2A}ARs could be reflected by intense cellular immunity—particularly antitumour immunity, and prolonged survival of the animals with the rejection of established immunogenic tumours. Interestingly, it has also been proposed that accumulated cAMP in the regulatory T-cells due to

activation of A_{2A}ARs was transferred to the effector T-cells through GAP junctions [54,64,65]. Furthermore, angiogenesis property of the A_{2A}ARs promotes wound healing along with the promotion of breast cancer and melanoma cells proliferation [66–69]. Expression of CD73 is known to cause metastasis of the cancer cells during stimulation of A_{2A}ARs, whereas metastasis can be prevented in A_{2A} genetic deleted mice. Several other studies on the blockade of A_{2A}ARs have revealed inhibition of tumour growth, as well as metastasis [54,70,71]. Thus, it can be concluded that an inhibitor of A_{2A}ARs could attenuate the cancerous condition and can lead to increased survival.

3.2.2. A_{2B} Adenosine Receptors in Cancer

Specificity of adenosine towards the A_{2B}AR is very low, which is also expressed in a variety of body tissues, such as intestine, brain, vasculature, immune-cells (e.g., macrophages, dendritic cells, neutrophils, mast cells and lymphocytes), neurons, astrocytes and endothelial cells [72]. Overexpression of this receptor subtypes is also reflected in various diseases, like acute and chronic lung disease, vascular disorders, renal complications, diabetes including cancer [45,72]. Pro-tumourigenic role of A_{2B}AR has been reflected by decreased TNF α - and chemotherapy-induced cancer cell deaths in A_{2B}AR overexpressed prostate cancer cell [73].

Progression of tumour growth by A_{2B}ARs is caused through various mechanisms. In addition to the general mechanism of cAMP accumulation, stimulation of phospholipase-C- β via Gq protein attached to A_{2B}ARs ensues by the activation of the receptor, thereby leading to PKC activation or mobilization of second messenger (calcium) in an IP₃-dependent manner [45]. Thus, the potential to trigger the A_{2B}ARs has two discrete signalling cascades.

Tumour progression mechanisms via A_{2B}ARs can be promoted by many ways through the action of adenosine and it has been represented in Fig. 2. As discussed earlier, the common mechanism for A_{2A} and A_{2B}ARs via activation of cAMP-PKA signalling hampers the activation of T-cell by inhibiting TCR proximal kinases (Fyn and Lck). Simultaneously, activation of Epac by the raised cAMP level diminishes MAPK signalling downstream of TCR stimulation,

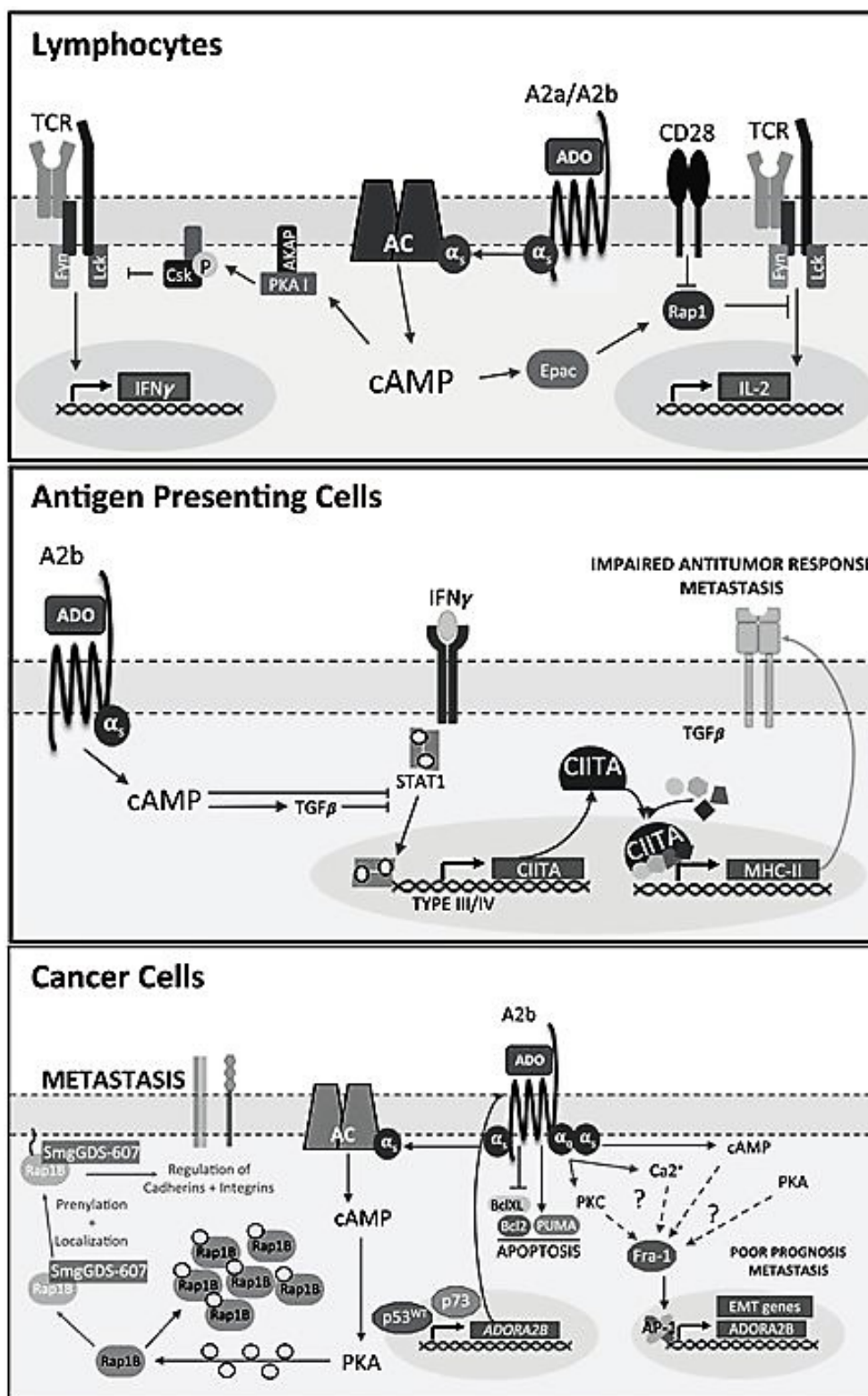


Fig. (2). A_{2B} adenosine receptor is a cancer target [45].

and thus hinders T-cell differentiation and proliferation *via* the small GTPase Rap1. Additionally, diffusion of cAMP from the GAP junction of the regulatory T-cells, and other implications on cancer cell signalling are noticeable.

Early events of metastatic function, i.e., cell motility and migration of cancer cells, are promoted *via* the stimulation of A_{2B}ARs.

This receptor is the special AR, which activates MAPK signalling pathways to promote metastasis. Thus, all the three components of MAPK family, the JNK, the stress-activated protein kinases p38, and the ERK 1/2, are coupled to A_{2B}ARs [74]. As depicted in figure 2, stress in cell stimulates expression of A_{2B}ARs in a p53-dependent manner. At the same time, A_{2B}ARs potentiates p53-

mediated cell death in normal cells. Lack of such pro-apoptotic response, apoptotic process discontinues in cancer cells. In due course of action, A_{2B}ARs hinders Rap1B localization on the cell surface, thereby leading to initial steps of cancer metastasis because the cells start scattering. Phosphorylation of Rap1B is a consequence of A_{2B}ARs stimulation, which prevents localization at the cell membrane [75]. Therefore, prevention of the phosphorylation process of Rap1B can be targeted to prevent cell scattering during tumour metastasis.

Similarly, expression of A_{2B}ARs on the cancer cell surface is induced by the pro-metastatic Fra-1 transcription factor, where antagonising the overexpressed receptors by selective antagonist resulted in the inhibition of metastasis in Fra-1-expressing cells [76]. Expression of Fra-1 reflected by motility, proliferation, invasiveness and metastasis [77], and inhibition of A_{2B}ARs showed a comparable effect to Fra-1 depletion in terms of metastasis growth, development of filopodia and membrane protrusion [76]. Finally, the presentation of abnormal cells as antigen is impaired by the expression of A_{2B}ARs, which actually interferes with the expression of MHC on the cell surface. Expression of A_{2B}ARs on cancer cell suppresses class-II trans-activator (CIITA), which in turn harms MHC class-II transcription in IFN- γ -stimulated cells [78]. The mechanism behind such action can be explained by the decreased phosphorylation of STAT1 due to A_{2B}ARs induced accumulation of cAMP, because of which binding of phosphorylated-STAT1 to CIITA is impaired. Consecutively, the situation boosts the synthesis of TGF- β which antagonizes MCH II transactivation [78,79]. Thus, as an effect of overexpressed A_{2B}ARs on the cancer cell surface, there is a decreased level of MHC class II and CIITA during metastasis [80]. Thus, blockade of overexpressed A_{2B}ARs can reverse the apoptotic potential and immunity of the cancer cells, therefore growth of the cancer cells can be controlled. There are several reports available in the literature, e.g., agonistic action of BAY 60-6583 on A_{2B}ARs reflected by *in vitro* proliferation and migration of breast cancer cells and production of IL-10 [81,82], whereas selective antagonist to A_{2B}ARs, ATL801, has shown to decrease the *in vivo* proliferation rate of 4T1 breast tumour and MB49 bladder cancer cells [83].

3.3. A₃ Adenosine Receptors in Cancer

The gene coding for A₃AR was located at 1p13.3 on the human chromosome [84]. It is widely expressed in various tissues including brain, heart, lung and liver although with different degrees of expression intensity as well as in various glial and immune cells [85]. A₃AR has promising roles as a cancer marker and therapeutic target as its overexpression was recorded in a wide range of cancer cells and tissues [85,86]. Both positive and negative effects on cell proliferation and apoptosis were observed with A₃AR in cancers possibly due to various factors including agonist concentration, cell type, simultaneous AR interactions and tumour microenvironment [85]. Simultaneous involvement of both ARs, A_{2B} and A₃ in human mast cells, was found to induce angiogenesis [87]. Stimulation of A₃AR was reported to increase the levels of MMP-9 in human glioblastoma cells via the activation of ERK 1/2 and AKT/PKB pathways resulting in enhanced cell invasiveness [88]. In addition, adenosine-induced the expression of VEGF through the upregulation of HIF-1 by A₃AR [89]. An elevated level of HIF-1 is implicated in high cancer mortality rate and its inhibition reduced angiogenesis and tumour progression [90]. Silencing of A₃AR via siRNA approach and the use of A₃AR antagonists reduced chemoresistance to paclitaxel, thus enhancing apoptosis in glioblastoma cells [91].

Conversely, agonist 1-deoxy-1-[6-[(3-iodophenyl)-methyl]amino]-9H-purine-9-yl]-N-methyl- β -D-ribofuranuronamide (IB-MECA) activation of G-protein-coupled A₃AR regulated tumour growth suppressive mechanisms in melanoma which involved receptor internalisation, resynthesis and externalization as well as

deregulation of Wnt pathways [92]. Like A₁AR, activation of A₃AR negatively regulates ADCY activity resulting in the reduction of cAMP and PKA levels [36]. In the presence of adenosine, high levels of cAMP were observed in the A₃AR knock-out mice [93]. Activated A₃AR inhibited PKA activities and prevented the subsequent phosphorylation or inactivation of GSK-3 β . The active GSK-3 β induced the phosphorylation or inactivation of β -catenin which resulted in reduced levels of c-Myc and cyclin D1, thus reducing proliferation of melanoma cells (Fig. 3). In another study, A₃AR activation was reported to inhibit PKA-mediated ERK 1/2 activation and subsequent NADPH oxidase activities in prostate cancer cells, thus resulting in reduced cell proliferation and invasiveness [94]. Alternatively, A₃AR could reduce cell proliferation by down-regulating the Akt/NF- κ B signalling pathway [95]. A₃AR agonist (CF102) was found to demonstrate protective effects against liver inflammation by decreasing the serum levels of glutamic oxaloacetic transaminase and glutamic pyruvic transaminase as well as the levels of NF- κ B and TNF- α which are possibly due to the reduced levels of phosphorylated GSK-3 β [96]. Moreover, CF102 exhibited anti-cancer activities by inducing apoptosis through the up-regulation of pro-apoptotic genes and caspase activation. In addition, induction of apoptosis by A₃AR agonists was demonstrated in malignant mesothelioma [95] and leukaemia cells [97]. The agonist 2-chloro-N⁶-(3-iodobenzyl)-adenosine-5'-N-methyl-uronamide (CI-IB-MECA) induced apoptosis and cell cycle arrest at G₀/G₁, but reduced telomeric signal and suppressed metastasis in melanoma [98]. Adenosine at low concentrations (5-25 μ M) prevented the growth of lymphoma cells via A₃AR in the similar cytostatic pathway [99].

4. PERSPECTIVES OF ADENOSINE RECEPTOR MODULATORS TOWARDS ANTICANCER ACTIVITY

Under physiological and pathological conditions, adenosine acts as a modulator for cells and attenuates the stress response in cells [100,101]. Thus therapeutic applications of ARs agonist and antagonists were studied extensively. A number of molecules targeting these receptors were synthesized which are selective agonists or antagonists for these receptors. Therapeutic applications of agonists based on their selectivity towards receptor subtypes are reported to have neuroprotective (A_{2A}) [102], cardioprotective (A₁, A₃ and A_{2B}ARs)[103], renoprotective (A₁)[104], cerebroprotective (A₁ and A₃) [105], anti-inflammatory (A_{2A} and A₃) [100], and a wide range of autoimmune inflammatory conditions (A₃AR) [106–108]. Similarly, some adenosine antagonists have therapeutic potential to treat neurodegenerative diseases [109], although KW6002 (Istradefylline), an A_{2A}AR antagonist was not approved by FDA for the treatment of Parkinson's disease [110]. Selective agonists and antagonists were studied for their anticancer activity by many researchers and significant response against cancer cell lines was reported.

The role of four ARs in the progression of tumour growth and metastasis has been discussed so far. This section of the article will focus on different modulators on the ARs to improve the condition of various cancers. Several researches are ongoing to synthesize potential candidate to modulate the functionalities of ARs [111–116]. A₁AR modulators have shown good potential in fighting cancer growth. For example, Hosseinzadeh and team had reported that the A₁AR agonists have a potential inhibitory effect on cancer cell proliferation. In due course of their experiments, the authors tested CHA or R-PIA, two A₁AR agonists [117], on different *in vitro* cancer cells, where they observed that these A₁AR agonists are responsible for the inhibitory effect on tumour cell proliferation [118]. Interestingly, the action of these A₁AR agonists was too specific to the cancer cells and could not act on normal human cell lines, e.g., fibroblast cells. The authors also presented that such inhibitory effects are diminished by the presence of A₁AR antagonists [118]. In contrast, various researchers have pointed out reverse reports on the role of A₁AR in relation to the pathogenesis of cancer. For ex-

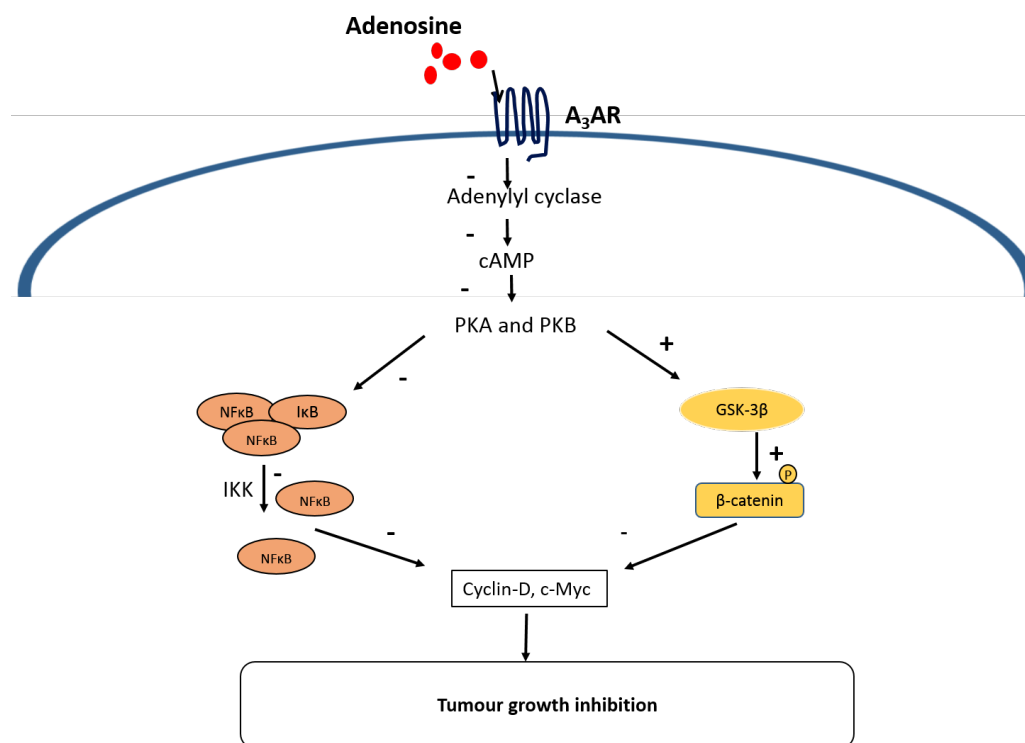


Fig. (3). Tumour growth inhibition by A₃AR activation.

+: stimulation; -: inhibition; PKA: Protein kinase A; PKB: Protein kinase B; GSK-3β: glycogen synthase kinase- 3β; NFκB: Nuclear factor kappa B; IKK : IκB kinase

Table 1. Adenosine receptors and their link to different cancers.

Adenosine Receptors	Cancers
A ₁ ARs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase the cell growth and cell proliferation • Human colorectal adenocarcinomas, Breast tumour, Melanoma, Cervical cancer, Human leukemia, Human melanoma
A _{2A} ARs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase the endothelial cell proliferation, angiogenesis, erythropoietin (EPO) production • Hepatocellular carcinoma, Breast cancer
A _{2B} ARs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase the endothelial cell proliferation, angiogenesis • Colon cancer, Glioblastoma, Melanoma
A ₃ ARs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mediates cell cycle progression and proliferation • Lymphoma, Leukemia, Mesothelioma, Colon cancer, Prostate cancer, Breast cancer, Glioblastoma, Melanoma, small-cell lung carcinoma, pancreatic carcinoma, hepatocellular carcinoma

ample, agonistic action of N⁶-cyclopentyladenosine (CPA) on A₁AR revealed the downregulation of mRNA expression for caspases 3, 8 and 9 and p53, which ultimately lead to increased viability of breast cancer cells with reduced apoptotic potential [40,119]. Similarly, Lin and co-workers demonstrated the effect of specific A₁AR antagonists, 1,3-dipropyl-8-cyclopentylxanthine (DPCPX), on breast cancer cell growth [120]. The authors revealed the dual role of DPCPX to target estradiol/ERα and to regulate ERα transcriptional activity. They showed that the knockdown of A₁AR by siRNA ablation in ERα-positive breast cancer cells reduced cell proliferation, whereas overexpression of the receptors in ERα-negative cells induced proliferation [120]. Similar research on breast cancer cell line (MCF-7) with DPCPX has recently revealed that the antagonistic action induced the expression of p53 and caspase 3, 8 and 9 in the breast cancer cells, and thus promoted

cancer cell apoptosis [40,119]. An extension of research with DPCPX had also reported the inhibition of *in vitro* cancer cell proliferation in A₁AR upregulated renal cell carcinoma cells and decreased *in vivo* growth of the developed tumour. Therefore, the effects of A₁AR on different cancer cells may have multiple effects. The exploration of novel targets with an understanding of the actual A₁AR conformation could help the researchers to fit or accommodate allosteric and orthosteric ligands in order to achieve successive modulatory action [121] towards the improvement of cancer therapy as discussed so far.

The presence of elevated level of extracellular adenosine in the tumour microenvironment plays a potential role in tumour growth, immune-escaping and metastasis. Higher expression of A_{2A}AR had attracted research focus towards the improvement of survival and

quality of life. Competitive antagonism of the A_{2A} AR antagonists requires a higher level of dosage to completely inhibit the target receptors. To develop increased affinity of the compound towards targeted receptor, Houthuys and team developed a novel potent compound that is effective at sub-nanomolar K_i and IC_{50} . This new generation compound, iTeos, was found to reverse cAMP-mediated suppression of T-cell, agonist-induced reduction in the production of TNF α , and improve CD8 T-cell cytotoxicity, offering a potential compound in immune-oncology [122]. Similarly, another highly selective antagonist with high affinity towards A_{2A} AR, 2-(2-furanyl)-N5-(2-methoxybenzyl)[1,3]thiazolo[5,4-d]pyrimidine-5,7-diamine (TP455), was analysed by Gessi and team [63]. This specific antagonist was found to revert the cell proliferative action of A_{2A} AR agonist, CGS21680, in MRMT1, A549, and A375 cancer cells. On evaluation, TP455 counteracted the action of CGS21680 in terms of Akt, ERK 1/2, and JNK in cancer cells [63].

With the same concept, another highly A_{2A} AR specific antagonist PBF-509 was investigated in both *in vitro* and *in vivo* models to evaluate lung metastasis. With satisfactory outcomes of the reported investigations, the authors also revealed increased expression of A_{2A} AR in CD4+ cells in freshly resected tumour-infiltrating lymphocytes, whereas, in CD4+ cells, the expression was variable. Co-treatment of anti-PD-L1 or anti-PD-1 with PBF-509 revealed synergistic inhibition of tumour growth in *ex vivo* experiments [123]. Activation of A_{2A} AR is associated with cell growth in MCF-7 breast, A375 melanoma and A549 lung carcinoma [124]. A_{2A} AR antagonists showed a direct increase in the apoptotic effect in A549 cell line [125]. In a recent study by Gessi et al., A_{2A} AR activation was linked to the modulation of cell proliferation in A375 melanoma, A549 lung and MRMT-1 breast carcinoma. In all the three cancer cell lines, A_{2A} AR are expressed with an order of A375 > A549 > MRMT-1. A selective A_{2A} AR agonist treatment resulted in a significant increase in cell proliferation in MRMT-1 cells which is due to PLC and PKC-d stimulation. The mechanism of cell proliferation through A_{2A} AR was linked to the phosphorylation of ERK 1/2, JNK $_{1/2}$, and AKT that is dependent on PLC and PKC-d stimulation [63]. Further, Gessi et al reported that the tumourigenic effect is activated by A_{2A} AR agonists, whereas the effect is reversed by A_{2A} AR antagonist ZM241385. Another antagonist TP455 is able to block A_{2A} AR induced cancer cell proliferation [63]. Interestingly, this class of compounds is already under clinical phase due to its anti-Parkinson effects and is well-tolerated and safe [126,127].

Being the vital checkpoint of immune responses, increased adenosine level in the tumour microenvironment is due to specialized metabolism of tumour cells, A_{2A} AR inhibitors are proposed for immunotherapy. Another A_{2A} AR antagonist, CPI-444, which was investigated by Leone and team had projected towards improved immunologic responses. The authors mentioned that blockade of the receptor by CPI-444 decreases the expression of lymphocyte-activation gene-3 and check-point inhibitor-PD-1, on both FoxP3+ CD4+ regulatory T-cells and CD8+ effector T-cells in tumour bearing mice. However, the action was not shown in A_{2A} AR knockout model. This concept opens up a new avenue to design novel immunotherapy regimens [128]. In a separate study, CPI-444 was shown to inhibit tumour growth (MC38 cells) in a dose-dependent manner, where co-treatment of anti-PD-L1 revealed synergistic inhibition of tumour growth, even 90% of treated animals were completely treated from cancer [129]. Re-challenging the cured mice with MC38 cells had shown systemic anti-tumour immune memory to stop the tumour growth completely. In addition to this, the authors also reported that the immune-checkpoints were also modulated by treatment with CPI-444, including LAG3, GITR, OX40 on circulating T-cells and tumour infiltrating lymphocytes [129]. Therefore the previous two reports demonstrated the extensive role for adenosine-mediated immunosuppression *via* A_{2A} AR. Accordingly, experiments on A_{2B} ARs antagonist, CPI-444, crossed the laboratory barriers and reached the bedside of the pa-

tients. The affinity of CPI-444 towards A_{2B} ARs showed 50 fold higher selectivity over other ARs, and with a K_i of 3.5 nM [130]. A phase 1/1b multi-centre, open label clinical trial has been registered to evaluate the efficacy of CPI-444 in various solid tumour patients as a single agent and in combination with a PD-L1 inhibitor, atezolizumab [131]. However, the outcome of the study is yet to be published [131].

Consideration of potential side effects caused by the A_{2A} AR antagonist [132] is also an important parameter to be considered when treating cancer because these cancer cells can be accompanied by augmented auto-immunity if the treatment collides with sub-threshold auto-immunity or acute inflammatory condition [133]. So far, there is a scarcity of well-characterized, highly specific A_{2A} AR antagonists, which has attracted the attention of the researchers which could be facilitated by the available molecular structure of the receptor [133]. It can also be inferred that these A_{2A} AR antagonists could provide a potential platform for immunotherapeutic strategies in the treatment of cancer.

A number of reports on A_{2B} ARs antagonists, alone or in combination, for the investigation of therapeutic potential against tumour growth and metastasis are available in the literature. Researchers have shown the expression of a high level of A_{2B} ARs in MBA-MD-231 (estrogen-receptor negative breast cancer cell line) for a suitable human AR model [134]. Recent research had revealed that agonistic stimulation of A_{2B} ARs in MBA-MD-231 breast cancer cells resulted in decreased phosphorylation state of ERK 1/2 [135]. This could be targeted to control the growth in A_{2B} ARs over-expressed cancer cells. In continuation of the previous explanation on agonistic action of BAY 60-6583 on A_{2B} ARs in melanoma had revealed increased growth of melanoma lesion in an experimental murine model [82]. Such action of the agonists was explained by the increased level of IL-10 and monocyte chemoattractant protein 1. at the same time, there was accumulation of cancer-associated CD11b (+ve) Gr1 (+ve) cells, myeloid-derived suppressor cells [82]. The action of BAY 60-6583 was reported to be reversed in melanoma by the application of specific antagonist to the A_{2B} ARs, PSB1115. Further, the authors also reported that the antitumour activity of dacarbazine was enhanced by the co-application of PSB1115 in melanoma. Thus, antagonists of A_{2B} ARs could provide synergistic action if delivered with chemotherapeutic agents in order to control the disease an improved way [82]. With a similar target, the effect of PSB1115 was investigated with immune check-point inhibitors, and the authors concluded that the combined effect of the two provides synergistic action towards the reduction of tumour growth and reversal of immune-suppression in myeloid-derived suppressor cells [136].

Antagonistic action of PSB-603 on A_{2B} ARs had shown to alter cellular redox potential without affecting the viability of the cells *via* the promotion of oxidative phosphorylation. The action was further explained by AR-independent activity; however actual mechanistic role needs to be established. Further, PSB-603 enhanced reactive oxygen species within the colorectal cancer cells, where the agent acted synergistically with chemotherapy cocktail, oxaliplatin and 5-fluorouracil to enhance cancer cell death [137].

Another recent research was presented with a novel series of selective and potent dual inhibitors, A_{2A} ARs and A_{2B} ARs [138]. The activities of the compounds depicted a dose-dependent restoration of functional activities of CD4+ and CD8+ human T-lymphocytes, when adenosine impaired the functionality. The compounds also relieved suppressive action of adenosine agonists in NK cells cytotoxicity. The research has been extended to compounds with an improved pharmacological profile that are targeted to the A_{2A} ARs in clinical research [138].

Decades of research has brought to the conclusion that along with A_{2A} AR antagonists, A_3 AR agonists are also a promising platform for drug development against cancer. Expression of A_3 ARs at

a high level in various cancers, from lymphoma and leukemia to mesothelioma, colon cancer, prostate cancer, breast cancer, glioblastoma and melanoma projected towards research to find a novel therapy [88,89,94,139–143]. Research had revealed the action of pulsed electromagnetic fields, which showed an improved anti-tumour effect against neural cancer and glioblastoma cells *via* A₃AR [144]. The action was achieved by a reduction of cell proliferation and NF-κB transcription factor level. Consequently, activation of A₃AR and application of pulsed electromagnetic field resulted in an increased p53 level with increase in apoptotic death and cytotoxicity of cancer cells [144]. Dual activities of A₃AR agonists in normal and cancerous cells have attracted researchers to explore further [145]. However, these A₃AR agonists displayed activation of granulocyte colony-stimulating factor by peripheral blood mononuclear cells to induce immunosuppressive effects in solid tumour cells, because of which proliferation of murine bone marrow cell occurred [143,146]. On evaluation, it had been established that stimulation of NF-κB, PKB/Akt, and PI3K/IKK signalling pathways is the possible consequence of such action [147,148]. In addition to that, activation of A₃AR increases the activity of natural killer cells which simultaneously reduced the tumour cells by damaging them [149,150]. Alternatively, A₃AR agonist in CD8⁺ lymphocytes in experimental mice model produced anticancer activity through increased production of TNF-α [151].

Experiment on A₃AR agonists (IB-MECA and CI-IB-MECA) has been extended in various animal models of different cancers, where stable oral administration of the compounds showed good bioavailability [152,153]. Subsequent research outcomes of CI-IB-MECA had shown blockade of lung metastasis of the melanoma-bearing mice, synergistic research outcomes with cyclophosphamide for the control of tumour with the prevention of myelotoxic effect [139,147]. The role of IB-MECA had also been evaluated for the control of prostate cancer in a xenograft model [139]. The role of IB-MECA (CF101) against expansion of primary colon cancer in syngeneic model showed the prevention of liver metastasis of the colon cancer cells by increasing the activity of NK cells and enhancing the release of IL-12, whereas administration of IB-MECA with 5-fluorouracil in xenograft models showed synergistic anti-cancer activity with the prevention of myelotoxicity of 5-fluorouracil [149,154]. Inhibition of colon cancer growth in mouse models had been ascribed by the involvement of key proteins NF-κB and GSK-3β. The action of CI-IB-MECA compound was also found to be positive against the hepatocellular tumour, liver inflammation, rat bone-residing breast cancer, and its associated pain [96,141,155]. Positive results in several pre-clinical experiments with CI-IB-MECA (Namodenoson, CF102) reached the bedside of the patients for advanced hepatocellular carcinoma therapy. The Phase-I/II clinical trial (NCT00790218) reported the compound as safe, efficacious and well tolerated, to increase the survival time of the patients by 7.8 months [156]. The phase II trial of the compound is ongoing to have the data from the patients for improved therapy against cancer [157]. Relative higher expression of A₃AR in tumour cells has been reported as compared to the normal cells, thus ligands targeting A₃AR have potential application in tumour growth [86]. In a transgenic mouse model, overexpression of A₃AR resulted in embryonic lethality [158], which suggests its use in cancer therapy. In both *in vitro* and *in vivo* models, A₃AR activation resulted in tumour growth inhibition [98]. A₃AR agonists have the property of induction or inhibition of apoptosis in human eosinophils and human promyelocytic HL-60 cells based on their concentration [97,159]. CI-IB-MECA induces apoptosis at higher concentration, whereas, IB-MECA inhibits apoptosis in RBL-2H3 cells induced by ultraviolet irradiation [160]. Besides its effect on apoptosis, it downregulates estrogen receptors in human breast cancer cell lines and completely blocks the cell growth [161]. Thio-CI-IB-MECA, a highly specific A₃AR agonist increased apoptosis via deregulation of the Wnt signaling pathway in lung cancer cells

and HL-60 promyelocytic leukemia cells. Further, the levels of phosphorylated forms of GSK-3β, β-catenin and Akt were down-regulated upon treatment with thio-CI-IB-MECA in a time-dependent manner [97,162]. It is worth mentioning that currently various innovative computer aided drug design strategies are emerging for rational design and discovery of novel molecules targeting adenosine receptors as possible anticancer agents [163-168].

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, adenosine is an endogenous ligand that is released in a stressed environment and elicits a protective effect on the organ or tissue. This protective effect of adenosine is exerted by its four ARs which are expressed in almost all cell types in the body. Extracellular adenosine concentration is tremendously elevated in tumour microenvironment that provokes the ARs to exert their anticancer activity. The anticancer activity of these four AR subtypes is extensively discussed in this review. Based on the literature related to the AR subtypes, all the receptor subtypes play a pivotal role in cancer which is confirmed in *in vitro* and *in vivo* experiments. Thus, all four AR subtypes are considered to be putative targets for the development of novel therapeutic approaches in cancer treatment. In recent decades, many synthetic analogues were developed as selective agonist and antagonist to AR subtypes. Some of these selective agonists have been studied in clinical phases for the treatment of pain, neuropathy, inflammatory conditions, and cancer. Similarly, selective antagonists were studied in clinical trials for the treatment of Parkinson's disease and heart failure. However, the development of a therapeutic molecule for cancer treatment is still elusive. With the advancement in adenosine research, it is expected that agents having less undesirable and more efficacious effects will be developed soon.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

A ₁ AR	=	A ₁ adenosine receptors
A _{2A} AR	=	A _{2A} adenosine receptors
A _{2B} AR	=	A _{2B} adenosine receptors
A ₃ AR	=	A ₃ adenosine receptors
ADCY	=	Adenylate cyclases
ADCY2	=	Adenylate cyclases 2
ADCY3	=	Adenylate cyclases 3
AMP	=	Adenosine monophosphate
ATP	=	Adenosine triphosphate
cAMP	=	cyclic adenosine-3',5'-monophosphate
CIITA	=	Class-II trans-activator
CREB	=	cAMP response element binding protein
ER-α	=	Estrogen receptor-α
ERK 1/2	=	Extracellular signal-regulated kinases 1/2
GPCRs	=	G-protein coupled receptors
GSK-3β	=	glycogen synthase kinase- 3β
HIF-1	=	Hypoxia-inducible factor-1
IKK	=	IκB kinase
IL-2	=	Interleukin 2
IL-6	=	Interleukin 6
IL-10	=	Interleukin 10
IL-12	=	Interleukin 10
INFγ	=	Interferon γ
IP ₃	=	Inositol triphosphate
JNK	=	c-jun N-terminal kinase
MAPK	=	Mitogen-activated protein kinase

MHC	=	Major histocompatibility complex
MMP2	=	Matrix metalloproteinases 2
MMP9	=	Matrix metalloproteinases 9
NADPH	=	Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate
NF- κ B	=	Nuclear factor κ B
NK κ B	=	Nuclear factor kappa B
PKA	=	Protein kinase A
PKB/Akt	=	Protein kinase B
PKC	=	Protein kinase C
PLC	=	Phospholipase C
PLD	=	Phospholipase D
STAT1	=	Signal transducer and activator of transcription 1
TCR	=	T-cell receptor
TGF- β	=	Transforming growth factor β
TNF α	=	Tumour necrosis factor α
VEGF	=	Vascular endothelial growth factor

CONSENT FOR PUBLICATION

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflict of interest, financial or otherwise.

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