

Current Topics in Neurotoxicity 10

Micaela Morelli  
Nicola Simola  
Jadwiga Wardas *Editors*

# The Adenosinergic System

A Non-Dopaminergic Target in  
Parkinson's Disease

 Springer

# **Current Topics in Neurotoxicity**

Volume 10

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Micaela Morelli • Nicola Simola • Jadwiga Wardas  
Editors

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in Parkinson's Disease

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ISSN 2363-9563

Current Topics in Neurotoxicity

ISBN 978-3-319-20272-3

DOI 10.1007/978-3-319-20273-0

ISSN 2363-9571 (electronic)

ISBN 978-3-319-20273-0 (eBook)

Library of Congress Control Number: 2015947498

Springer Cham Heidelberg New York Dordrecht London

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# Preface

Parkinson's disease is the second most common neurodegenerative disorder after Alzheimer's disease, and affects more than 5 million people worldwide. Today, the clinical management of Parkinson's disease chiefly relies on the use of the so called "dopamine replacement therapy" in order to re-establish the function of the dopaminergic system, which is affected by the neurodegeneration underlying the disease. While this approach effectively counteracts the motor deficits featuring Parkinson's disease, the chronic use of dopamine replacement therapy eventually leads to the emergence of motor complications (e.g., dyskinesia and motor fluctuations) that greatly limit its therapeutic potential. Moreover, dopamine replacement therapy has no apparent beneficial effects on the progression of dopaminergic degeneration featuring Parkinson's disease. Based on these considerations, there is a need for the development of alternative therapies that could help to overcome these limitations.

In these years, drugs acting as antagonists of the adenosine  $A_{2A}$  receptors have emerged as new promising candidates for the therapy of Parkinson's disease. When evaluated in experimental animal models of the disease, these drugs counteract motor deficits and amplify the beneficial effects of dopaminergic drugs without worsening their dyskinetic effect. Moreover, experimental evidence also indicates that adenosine  $A_{2A}$  receptor antagonists might slow down or arrest the dopaminergic degeneration that underlies Parkinson's disease. Building on this evidence, the research in this field has recently made significant progress, leading to the approval of the first  $A_{2A}$  receptor antagonist for clinical use as adjunct to L-DOPA (istradefylline, marketed under the name of NOURIAST®), and the ongoing clinical evaluation of other promising drugs (e.g., tozadenant).

This book covers basic biological aspects of the adenosine system relevant to Parkinson's disease, and also discusses recent experimental findings at both the preclinical and clinical level. Attention is dedicated to the localization and function of adenosine  $A_{2A}$  receptors, to their interaction with dopaminergic and non-dopaminergic receptors in the brain, and to the development of novel molecules that may target  $A_{2A}$  receptors. The critical role of the adenosine system in the regulation of neurotrophic factors, neuroinflammation, and neurotoxicity is also covered, and the relevance of these phenomena to the etiology of Parkinson's disease discussed. Moreover, the book thoroughly describes the effects of adenosine  $A_{2A}$  receptor

antagonists observed in experimental models of Parkinson's disease on both motor (akinesia, dyskinesia, tremor) and non-motor (cognition, peripheral functions, sleep) symptoms. Finally, attention is dedicated to the clinical relevance of the adenosinergic system, by describing the development of the first ever approved adenosine  $A_{2A}$  receptor antagonist (istradefylline), the most advanced clinical trials with these drugs, the use of  $A_{2A}$  receptor antagonist in neuroimaging, and the epidemiological evidence that links the adenosine system with the onset and progression of Parkinson's disease.

By gathering updated and high-quality chapters written by world-leading experts in the field, this book provides essential information to preclinical and clinical researchers interested in the development of new therapies against Parkinson's disease and related neurodegenerative disorders.

Cagliari, Italy  
Cagliari, Italy  
Krakow, Poland

Micaela Morelli  
Nicola Simola  
Jadwiga Wardas

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# Chapter 1

## Adenosine A<sub>2A</sub> Receptors: Localization and Function

Nicola Simola and Jadwiga Wardas

**Abstract** Adenosine is an endogenous purine nucleoside present in all mammalian tissues, that originates from the breakdown of ATP. By binding to its four receptor subtypes (A<sub>1</sub>, A<sub>2A</sub>, A<sub>2B</sub>, and A<sub>3</sub>), adenosine regulates several important physiological functions at both the central and peripheral levels. Therefore, ligands for the different adenosine receptors are attracting increasing attention as new potential drugs to be used in the treatment of several diseases.

This chapter is aimed at providing an overview of adenosine metabolism, adenosine receptors localization and their signal transduction pathways. Particular attention will be paid to the biochemistry and pharmacology of A<sub>2A</sub> receptors, since antagonists of these receptors have emerged as promising new drugs for the treatment of Parkinson's disease. The interactions of A<sub>2A</sub> receptors with other non-adenosinergic receptors, and the effects of the pharmacological manipulation of A<sub>2A</sub> receptors on different body organs will be discussed, together with the usefulness of A<sub>2A</sub> receptor antagonists for the treatment of Parkinson's disease and the potential adverse effects of these drugs.

**Keywords** Adenylate cyclase · Basal ganglia · Dopamine · G protein-coupled receptors · Heteromeric complexes · Nucleoside · Purine · Striatonigral · Striatopallidal

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M. Morelli et al. (eds.), *The Adenosinergic System*, Current Topics in Neurotoxicity 10,  
DOI 10.1007/978-3-319-20273-0\_1

## Introduction

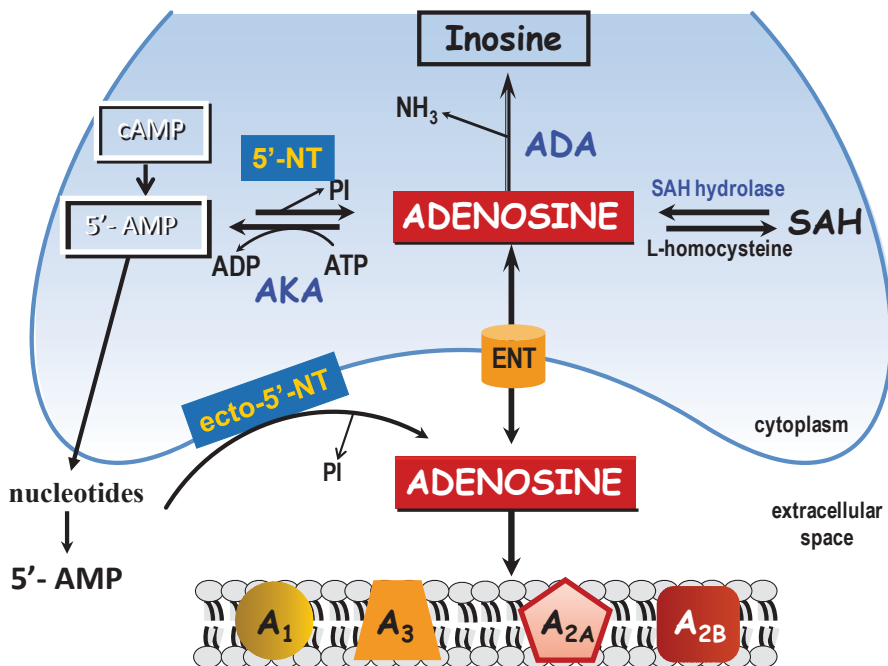
The concept of purinergic neurotransmission was first introduced by Burnstock in 1972 and subsequently adenosine 5' triphosphate (ATP) was shown to act either as a transmitter or a co-transmitter in most nerves in both the peripheral and central nervous system (CNS) (Abbracchio and Burnstock 1998; Abbracchio et al. 2008; Burnstock 1972, 2013). At present, it is known that ATP acts as a fast excitatory neurotransmitter or neuromodulator, and has a potent long-term trophic role in cell proliferation, growth and development as well as in disease and cytotoxicity (Abbracchio and Burnstock 1998; Abbracchio et al. 2008; Burnstock 2013).

ATP and other nucleotides are stored in secretory and synaptic vesicles, and exocytotic vesicular release of ATP from neurons and astrocytes is well established (Abbracchio et al. 2008; Bowser and Khakh 2007; Burnstock 2013; Pankratov et al. 2006, 2007). There are also evidences indicating additional mechanisms of the release of this nucleotide, including ATP-cassette transporters, connexin or pannexin hemichannels, plasmalemmal voltage-dependent anion channels and the ATP-sensitive P2X7 receptors (Abbracchio et al. 2008; Burnstock 2013). After release, ATP and other nucleotides undergo rapid enzymatic degradation to adenosine by ectonucleotidases (Bonan 2012; Kovacs et al. 2013; Yegutkin 2008; Zimmermann 2006).

## Adenosine Metabolism

Adenosine, an endogenous purine ribonucleoside present in all mammalian tissues, modulates a variety of important synaptic processes and signaling pathways, and regulates the functions of several neurotransmitters in the CNS. Adenosine is considered to be a neuromodulator rather than a neurotransmitter, since it is not stored in synaptic vesicles, and is not released from nerve terminals by exocytosis. Adenosine affects neural activity through multiple mechanisms; presynaptically by controlling neurotransmitter release, postsynaptically by hyperpolarizing or depolarizing neurons, and non-synaptically mainly via regulatory effects on glial cells (Boison et al. 2010; Dare et al. 2007; Fredholm et al. 2005). Although adenosine is generally known to be produced by the ectoenzymatic breakdown of ATP, there might be a subpopulation of neurons and/or astrocytes that release adenosine directly in an activity-dependent manner (Wall and Dale 2007).

It is well established that adenosine may be formed in the CNS either intracellularly, after degradation of ATP to cyclic-adenosine monophosphate (cAMP) and 5'-AMP, and then transported by nucleotide transporters to the synapse, or extracellularly from nucleotides released into the synaptic cleft (Fig. 1.1). Thus, the formation of adenosine is dependent on the availability of oxygen and energetic compounds as well as on the rate of synthesis and degradation of ATP, released from both neuronal and glial cells. However, it is the release of ATP from astrocytes,



**Fig. 1.1** Adenosine synthesis and metabolic pathways. Adenosine is formed both *intracellularly* from 5'-AMP by the cytosolic 5'-NT, and *extracellularly* in the metabolism of nucleotides (*ATP*, *ADP*, *AMP*) released from the cell, through the action of ecto-5'-nucleotidase. Another intracellular source of adenosine may be the hydrolysis of SAH by SAH hydrolase. Hence, adenosine formation depends on ATP breakdown and synthesis. Extracellular adenosine is primarily inactivated by uptake through the transporters (*ENT*), which are mainly bidirectional, followed by either phosphorylation to AMP by AKA (under physiological conditions), or, to a lesser degree, deamination to inosine by ADA. Another possible catabolic pathway of adenosine, though of minor significance, is a reversible reaction catalysed by SAH hydrolase, leading to formation of SAH from adenosine and L-homocysteine (*for more details see the text, and Abbracchio et al. 2008; Burnstock 2013; Latini and Pedata 2001; Sperlagh and Vizi 2011*). *ADA* adenosine deaminase, *AKA* adenosine kinase, *ADP* adenosine diphosphate, *AMP* adenosine monophosphate, *ATP* adenosine 5'-triphosphate, *A<sub>1</sub>*, *A<sub>2A</sub>*, *A<sub>2B</sub>* and *A<sub>3</sub>*—adenosine receptors, *ecto-5'-NT* ecto-5'-nucleotidase, *ENT* nucleoside transporter, *5'-NT* 5'-nucleotidase, *SAH* S-adenosylhomocysteine

either vesicular (Pascual et al. 2005) or via secretion through hemichannels, that is the major source of synaptic adenosine (Kang et al. 2008; Kawamura et al. 2010). Moreover, adenosine can be directly released by nucleoside transporters from astrocytes when its intracellular level is augmented in response to a variety of physiological and pathological stimuli (e.g. increased cellular activity, hypoxia/hypoglycemia, ischemia). Then, adenosine may function as a nonsynaptic signalling molecule that diffuses far away from the site of origin and tonically influences neurotransmission, inflammation, and immune responses, as described below (Bours et al. 2006; Dare et al. 2007; Geiger and Fyda 1991; Sperlagh and Vizi 2011).



### ***Intracellular Formation of Adenosine***

In the cell, adenosine may be formed in the process of adenosine monophosphate (AMP) hydrolysis catalyzed by 5'-nucleotidase, which belongs to the family of enzymes called ectonucleotidases (Fig. 1.1, Kovacs et al. 2013; Yegutkin 2008). Seven types of 5'-nucleotidases have been cloned, characterized and demonstrated in various tissues, including brain tissue (Hunsucker et al. 2005; Kovacs et al. 2013). This pathway of adenosine formation via the cytosolic ATP catabolism seems to represent a very sensitive signal of increased metabolic rate or metabolic stress (Latini and Pedata 2001).

Another intracellular source of adenosine may be the hydrolysis of S-adenosyl-homocysteine (SAH) by SAH hydrolase (Fig. 1.1), an enzyme present in brain areas, such as the neocortex, hippocampus, and cerebellum (Latini and Pedata 2001). However, this pathway is not strictly dependent upon the energetic state of the cells, and it does not significantly contribute to adenosine production in the brain under either physiological or ischemic conditions (Latini and Pedata 2001).

### ***Extracellular Formation of Adenosine***

The extracellular nucleotide and nucleoside levels in the synaptic cleft are controlled by a cascade of enzymes, belonging to the family of ectonucleotidases. There are four major families of ectonucleotidases, namely ectonucleoside triphosphate diphosphohydrolases (E-NTPDases), ectonucleotide pyrophosphatase/phosphodiesterases (E-NPPs), alkaline phosphatases, and ecto-5'-nucleotidase (ecto-5'-NT) (Bonan 2012; Kovacs et al. 2013; Yegutkin 2008; Zimmerman 2006).

The first step of ATP inactivation is mediated by the family of E-NTPDases, which are able to hydrolyse ATP and adenosine diphosphate (ADP) to AMP (Zimmermann 2006). Moreover, ATP can be dephosphorylated by E-NPPs and alkaline phosphatases which, like E-NTPDases, have widespread distribution in the CNS (Wang and Guidotti 1998; Zimmerman 2006). The next step of extracellular ATP inactivation involves the hydrolysis of AMP to adenosine and phosphate by the ecto-5'-NT, also known as CD73 (Fig. 1.1), which is attached via a GPI anchor to the outer surface of the plasma membrane. Ecto-5'-NT, which is the rate-limiting step in the formation of adenosine (Sperlagh 1996; Sperlagh and Vizi 2007), is also widely expressed in the brain (e.g. in hippocampal and striatal nerve terminals), and it is predominantly associated with glial cells (Cunha et al. 1992; Hunsucker et al. 2005; James and Richardson 1993; Kovacs et al. 2013; Schoen et al. 1987).

Another pathway of extracellular adenosine formation may originate from the cAMP or 5'-AMP released into the synapse. Both these nucleotides are responsible for the slow change in the adenosine concentration. The cAMP can be released through non-specific energy-dependent transporters and then, when in the synapse, it can first be converted to 5'-AMP by ecto-phosphodiesterases and then to adenosine by ecto-5'-NT. Another possibility also exists that the cAMP can be converted to 5'-AMP inside the cell and then 5'-AMP can be released into the synaptic

cleft, becoming a source of adenosine (e.g. after the NMDA (N-methyl-D-aspartate) stimulation in cortical sections) (Latini and Pedata 2001; Sperlagh and Vizi 2011).

The process of extracellular adenosine formation is very fast, and occurs within seconds (Dunwiddie et al. 1997). Adenosine is normally present in a concentration between 30–300 nM, but under hypoxic or ischemic conditions adenosine concentrations in the hippocampus can reach 20–30 μM (Dunwiddie et al. 1997; Latini et al. 1999). It seems that *in vivo* a large part of adenosine present in the synapse under basal conditions comes from the extracellular metabolism of nucleotides (Latini and Pedata 2001; Sperlagh and Vizi 2011). In contrast, numerous studies have suggested that in conditions of hypoxia or ischemia adenosine is mainly formed intracellularly and released to the synaptic space by transporters (Latini and Pedata 2001; Sperlagh and Vizi 2011).

### ***Nucleoside Transporters***

The level of extracellular adenosine is regulated by the process of bidirectional transport of nucleosides, which allows for rapid exchange between extra and intracellular adenosine. In contrast to conventional neurotransmitters, the reuptake of adenosine does not depend on energy-driven transporter-mediated systems. This transport is driven by chemical gradients and by unidirectional concentrative processes, regulated by sodium electrochemical gradient (Dos Santos-Rodrigues et al. 2014; Parkinson et al. 2011). There are two functionally distinct types of nucleoside transporters:

1. equilibrative nucleoside transporters (ENT), which predominate in the CNS, and carry both purine and pyrimidine nucleosides in both directions across cell membranes, depending on their concentration gradient. Four types of ENT transporters have been characterized: ENT1-2-3-4; type 1 and 2 appear to be present in all cell types, including neurons and glia (Baldwin et al. 2004; Dos Santos-Rodrigues et al. 2014; King et al. 2006; Parkinson et al. 2011).
2. concentrative nucleoside transporters (CNT, sodium-dependent) which mediate the influx of nucleosides under the force of transmembrane sodium gradient (Dos Santos-Rodrigues et al. 2014; Latini and Pedata 2001; Parkinson et al. 2011). Five subtypes of these transporters have been identified, and two types of CNT were cloned and detected in the rat brain, mainly in the posterior hypothalamus, superior colliculus, brainstem, striatum, hippocampus, cerebellum and cortex (Anderson et al. 1996; Dos Santos-Rodrigues et al. 2014; Latini and Pedata 2001; Parkinson et al. 2011).

Since the ENT transporters, which seem to dominate in the CNS, are bi-directional, they can not only increase the flow of adenosine into the cell when its extracellular level exceeds its intracellular one, but they may mediate the efflux of adenosine from the cell, when its intracellular level increases. On the other hand, when the Na<sup>+</sup> gradient is reversed, also the concentrative nucleoside transporters can release adenosine from the cell (Dos Santos-Rodrigues et al. 2014; Latini and Pedata 2001; Parkinson et al. 2011).