# Pharmacological Characterisation of Novel Adenosine Receptor $A_{3}$ R Antagonists 

Kerry Barkan ${ }^{1}$, Panagiotis Lagarias ${ }^{2}$, Eleni Vrontaki², Dimitrios Stamatis ${ }^{2}$, Sam Hoare ${ }^{3}$, KarlNorbert Klotz ${ }^{4}$, Antonios Kolocouris ${ }^{2 *}$ and Graham Ladds ${ }^{1 *}$<br>Running Title: Novel antagonists of the $A_{3} R$.<br>${ }^{1}$ Department of Pharmacology, University of Cambridge, Tennis Court Road, Cambridge, CB2 1PD, UK.<br>${ }^{2}$ Section of Pharmaceutical Chemistry, Department of Pharmacy, School of Health Sciences, National and Kapodistrian University of Athens, Panepistimiopolis-Zografou, Athens, 15771, Greece.<br>${ }^{3}$ Pharmechanics LLC, 14 Sunnyside Drive South, Owego, NY 13827, USA<br>${ }^{4}$ Institute of Pharmacology and Toxicology, University of Würzburg, Versbacher Str. 997078 Würzburg, Germany

## Address for correspondence:

Dr Graham Ladds, Department of Pharmacology, University of Cambridge, Tennis Court Road, Cambridge, CB2 1PD Tel; +44 (0) 1223 334020. Email: grl30@cam.ac.uk.

Dr Antonios Kolocouris, Department of Medicinal Chemistry, Faculty of Pharmacy, National and Kapodistrian University of Athens, Panepistimioupolis Zografou, Athens, 15 771. Tel: 210-727-4834, Email: ankol@pharm.uoa.gr.

## Author Contributions:

KB, AK and GL conceived and designed the research; KB performed the mammalian assays; KK conducted radioligand binding experiments, PL, DS, EV and AK performed the molecular dynamic simulations; SH derived the equations for the 'Rapid competitor dissociation kinetics' model; KB, GL and AK analysed data; KB and GL wrote manuscript, AK revised and edited the manuscript.

## Summary

## Background and Purpose

The adenosine $A_{3}$ receptor ( $A_{3} R$ ) belongs to a family of four adenosine receptor (AR) subtypes which all play distinct roles throughout the body. $A_{3} R$ antagonists have been described as potential treatments for numerous diseases including asthma. Given the similarity between ARs orthosteric binding sites, obtaining highly selective receptor antagonists is a challenging but critical task.

## Experimental approach

39 potential $A_{3} R$, antagonists were screened using agonist-induced inhibition of cAMP. Positive hits were assessed for AR subtype selectivity through cAMP accumulation assays. The antagonist affinity was determined using Schild analysis ( $\mathrm{pA}_{2}$ values) and fluorescent ligand binding. Further, a likely binding pose of the most potent antagonist (K18) was determined through molecular dynamics (MD) simulations and consistent calculated binding
free energy differences between K18 and congeners, using a homology model of $\mathrm{A}_{3} R$, combined with mutagenesis studies.

## Key Results

We demonstrate that K18, which contains a 3-(dichlorophenyl)-isoxazole group connected through carbonyloxycarboximidamide fragment with a 1,3-thiazole ring, is a specific $A_{3} R(<1$ $\mu \mathrm{M}$ ) competitive antagonist. Structure-activity relationship investigations revealed that loss of the 3-(dichlorophenyl)-isoxazole group significantly attenuated K18 antagonistic potency. Mutagenic studies supported by MD simulations identified the residues important for binding in the $A_{3} R$ orthosteric site. Finally, we introduce a model that enables estimates of the equilibrium binding affinity for rapidly disassociating compounds from real-time fluorescent ligand-binding studies.

## Conclusions and Implications

These results demonstrate the pharmacological characterisation of a selective competitive $A_{3} R$ antagonist and the description of its orthosteric binding mode.

Word count: 241

## Keywords:

Adenosine $\mathrm{A}_{3}$ receptor, antagonist, GPCR, mutagenesis studies, functional assay, cAMP, molecular dynamics, competitive antagonist, Schild analysis

## Conflict of Interest

None for any author

## Abbreviations

$A R$, adenosine receptor; $A_{1} R, A 1$ adenosine receptor; $A_{2 A} R, A_{2 A}$ adenosine receptor; $A_{2 B} R$, $A_{2 B}$ adenosine receptor; $A_{3} R, A_{3}$ adenosine receptor; CA200645, fluoresent xanthine amine congener; cAMP, adenosine $3^{\prime}, 5^{\prime}$ cyclic monophosphate; CHO, Chinese hamster ovary, DMSO, dimethyl sulfoxide; DPCPX, 8-cyclopentyl-1,3-dipropylxanthine; ERK, extracellular signal-regulated kinase; IB-MECA (1-deoxy-1-[6-[[(3-iodophenyl)methyl]amino]-9H-purin-9-yl]-N-methyl- $\beta$-D-ribofuranuronamide), HEMADO, 2-hexyn-1-yl-N ${ }^{6}$-methyladenosine (HEMADO); MRS 1220, $\quad N$-[9-chloro-2-(furan-2-yl)-[1,2,4]triazolo[1,5-c]quinazolin-5-yl]-2phenylacetamide; NECA ( $5^{\prime}$-( $N$-ethylcarboxamido)adenosine); Nluc, Nano-luciferase; Nluc$A_{3} R$, Nanoluc-labelled $A_{3}$ adenosine receptor; PMA (Phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate); MD; molecular dynamic; MM-PBSA; Molecular Mechanics-Poisson Boltzmann Surface Area

## INTRODUCTION

The adenosine $A_{3}$ receptor ( $A_{3} R$ ), belongs to a family of four adenosine receptor (AR) subtypes ( $A_{1} R, A_{2 A} R, A_{2 B} R$ and $A_{3} R$ ), and is involved in a range of pathologies including cardiovascular, neurological and tumour-related diseases. In particular, mast cell regulation and myocardial preconditioning are key physiological processes regulated by the $A_{3} R$ (Fredholm et al., 2011). Unsurprisingly therefore, $A_{3} R$ is a pharmaceutical target. Interestingly, the $A_{3} R$ has been described as enigmatic, whereby many of the effects attributed to $A_{3} R s$ are contradictory (Gessi et al., 2008). Despite this, $A_{3} R$ antagonists having been described as potential treatments of asthma, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) and glaucoma (Miwatashi et al., 2008, Okamura et al., 2004, Haeusler et al., 2015), to name a few, and continuous research into both agonists and antagonists at the $\mathrm{A}_{3} \mathrm{R}$ are warranted. One of the challenges associated with the druggability of the AR family has been the targeting of individual subtypes with sufficient specificity to limit off-target side effects (Chen et al., 2013). In silico screening of vast compound libraries against receptor structures, known as structuralbased drug design, offers huge potential in the development of highly selective ligands.

Although all AR members are activated by the endogenous agonist adenosine, the $A_{2 A} R$ and $A_{2 B} R$ are predominantly $G_{s}$-coupled whereas $A_{1} R$ and $A_{3} R$ generally couple to $G_{i / o}$. This classical pathway following $A_{3} R$ activation and $G_{i / 0}$ coupling is the inhibition of adenylate cyclase (AC) resulting in a decrease in cAMP levels. Extracellular signal-regulated kinase 1/2 (ERK1/2) activation has also been described as downstream of $A_{3} R$ and is reported to be dependent on $\beta \gamma$-subunits released from pertussis toxin (PTX)-sensitive $\mathrm{G}_{\mathrm{i} / 0}$ proteins, phosphatidylinostitol-3-kinase (PI3K), the small GTP binding protein Ras, and MAP/ERK kinase (MEK) (Schulte and Fredholm, 2002). In addition to $G_{i / 0}, A_{3} R$ has also been reported to couple to $\mathrm{G}_{\mathrm{q}}$, leading to phospholipase C (PLC) activation and ultimately elevation of intracellular inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate ( $\mathrm{IP}_{3}$ ) and calcium ( $\mathrm{Ca}^{2+}$ ) levels (Gessi et al., 2008).

The $A_{2 A} R$ is one of the best structurally characterised G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs), with multiple crystal structures (both active and inactive) available including that bound to an engineered $G$ protein (Carpenter et al., 2016) and the $A_{2 A} R$ bound to the agonists ( $5^{\prime}$-( N ethylcarboxamido)adenosine) (NECA) and adenosine (Lebon et al., 2011), CGS 21689 (Lebon et al., 2015), UK-432097 (Xu et al., 2011) and the antagonists ZM241385 (Liu et al., 2012, Doré et al., 2011, Jaakola et al., 2008), PSB36, caffeine and theophylline (Cheng et al., 2017). Although the remaining AR subtypes have proven more difficult to crystallise with the $A_{3} R$ structure yet to be resolved, there are a number of $A_{1} R$ structures published including the adenosine-bound $\mathrm{A}_{1}$ R-G complex (Draper-Joyce et al., 2018) and antagonist bound structures; DU172 (Glukhova et al., 2017) and PSB36 (Cheng et al., 2017). Thus, structuralbased drug design offers huge potential in the development of highly selective ligands (Carlsson et al., 2010, Katritch et al., 2010, Lenselink et al., 2016, Lagarias et al., 2018). The limited availability of diverse high-resolution structures of the remaining AR subtypes bound to pharmacologically distinct ligands has meant there is a discrepancy between the capability to predict compound binding versus pharmacological behaviour; partial agonism, inverse agonism, biased agonist, antagonism, allosteric modulation etc (Sexton and Christopoulos, 2018). With this in mind, the potential antagonists (K1-K25, K28 and K35) identified in our previously published virtual screening investigation and binding experiments (Lagarias et al., 2018) and some newly identified potential antagonists (K26, K27, K29-K34 and K36-K39)
were pharmacologically characterised using cAMP accumulation and ERK1/2 phorphorylation assays. We were able to identify a potent and selective $A_{3} R$ antagonist, K18 (O4-\{[3-(2,6-dichlorophenyl)-5-methylisoxazol-4-yl]carbonyl\}-2-methyl-1,3-thiazole-4-
carbohydroximamide) and, using molecular dynamic (MD) simulations combined with sitedirected mutagenesis, elude to the potential binding site. Binding free energy calculations of similar in structure analogs of K18 were consistent with the proposed $A_{3} R$ orthosteric binding area. Kinetic binding experiments of K5, K17 and K18 using a bioluminescence resonance energy transfer (BRET) method combined with functional assays led to the identification of important structural features of K18 for binding and activity. Further evaluation of this compound (and structurally related analogues) may afford a novel therapeutic benefit in pathologies such as inflammation and asthma.

## RESULTS

## Identification of $A_{3} R$ selective antagonists

We set out to conduct a functional screen of 39 compounds for the identification of $A_{3} R$ antagonists, some of which have previously been identified to bind one of the three AR subtypes; $A_{1} R, A_{3} R$ or $A_{2 A} R$ (Lagarias et al., 2018). Our screen was conducted using $A_{3} R$ expressing Flp-ln ${ }^{T M}$-Chinese hamster ovary (CHO) cells where cAMP accumulation was detected following a combined stimulation of $1 \mu \mathrm{M}$ forskolin (to allow $\mathrm{A}_{3} R$ mediated $\mathrm{G}_{i / 0}$ response to be observed), $1 \mu \mathrm{M}$ tested compound and the predetermined $\mathrm{IC}_{80}$ concentration of NECA ( 3.16 nM ). This initial screen was blinded with each compound numbered without the corresponding name or chemical structure (K1-39). Compound K1-39 were identified by unblinding (Table 1 and Supplementary Table 1) but are hereinafter referred to as their denoted ' $K$ ' number. For the purpose of structure-activity relationships studies, the new compounds (K26, K27, K29-K34 and K36-K39), were tested through this functional assay and radioligand binding (Supplementary Table 1). As expected, co-stimulation with $10 \mu \mathrm{M}$ of both forskolin and NECA reduced the cAMP accumulation when compared to $10 \mu \mathrm{M}$ forskolin alone and this was reversed with the known $\mathrm{A}_{3} R$ antagonist MRS 1220 (Table 1 and Supplementary Fig 1). Compounds K1, K10, K11, K17, K18, K20, K23, K25 and K32 were identified as potential antagonists at the $A_{3} R$ through their ability to elevate cAMP accumulation when compared to forskolin and NECA co-stimulation. Of the nine potential $A_{3} R$ antagonists, eight (K1, K10, K17, K18, K20, K23, K25 and K32) were confirmed as antagonists at the tested concentration of $1 \mu \mathrm{M}$ (Supplementary Fig. 2 and Supplementary Table 2). K8, despite showing no binding at any AR subtype (Lagarias et al., 2018), showed a reduced cAMP accumulation. We tested K8 for agonist activity at the $A_{3} R$ but was found to be no different to DMSO (Supplementary Fig. 3).

A number of compounds previously documented (K5, K9, K21, K22 and K24; Lagarias et al., 2018) or determined in this study (K26, K27 and K34) to have micromolar binding affinity for $A_{3} R$ showed no activity in our functional screen (Table 1, Supplementary Table 1). These compounds, with a $\mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{i}}$ in the low micromolar range, were further tested to ensure our functional screen was robust. In addition, compound K11 with a previously determined low micromolar $\mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{i}}$ and a similar structure to the active K10 and K32 was also tested at the higher concentration. Full inhibition curves of NECA in the presence or absence of tested compounds ( $1 \mu \mathrm{M}$ or $10 \mu \mathrm{M}$ ) were determined in $\mathrm{A}_{3} \mathrm{R}$ Flp-In CHO cells (Supplementary Fig. 4,

Supplementary Table. 3). All nine compounds (K5, K9, K11, K21, K22, K24, K26, K27 and K34) reduced the NECA potency at the highest tested concentration ( $10 \mu \mathrm{M}$ ) but showed no effect at $1 \mu \mathrm{M}$ and thus appear to be low potency antagonists at the $\mathrm{A}_{3} R$.

## AR subtype selectivity and specificity

Stimulation of $A_{3} R$ Flp-In CHO or CHO-K1 cells expressing one of the remaining AR subtypes ( $A_{1} R, A_{2 A} R$ or $A_{2 B} R$ ) with a single high concentration of antagonist ( $10 \mu \mathrm{M}$ ) and increasing concentrations of NECA identified K10, K17, K18 and K25 as $\mathrm{A}_{3}$ R selective antagonists, with no apparent antagonism at the remaining AR subtypes (Fig. 1). K20 and K23 were antagonists at both the $A_{1} R$ and $A_{3} R$ (Fig. 1 and Table 2). K1, K20 and K23 showed weak antagonism of the $A_{2 A} R$ and $K 32$ was the only tested antagonist which showed any $A_{2 B} R$ activity. These selectivity findings agree with our previously published radioligand binding data (Lagarias et al., 2018) and are summarised in Table 2.

## Characterisation of competitive antagonists at the $A_{3} R$

All eight $A_{3} R$ antagonists were confirmed to antagonise IB-MECA agonism (Fig. 2 and Table 3) and NECA agonism (Supplementary Fig. 5 and Supplementrary Table 4) in a concentrationdependent manner. Schild analysis of the antagonism of both NECA or IB-MECA stimulated cAMP inhibition characterised K10, K17, K18, K20, K23 and K32 as competitive antagonists at the $A_{3} R$ with a slope not significantly different from unity (Supplementary Fig. 5 and Fig. 2). Interestingly, the slope deviated from unity for K1 (in experiments looking at competition with NECA but not IB-MECA) and K25 suggesting a more complicated mechanism of antagonism at the $A_{3} R$ is in play. K20 and K23 were also characterised as competitive antagonists at the $A_{1} R$ with a Schild slope not significantly different from unity (Supplementary Fig. 6 and Supplementary Table 5).

When comparing the activity of $A_{3} R$ selective antagonists (K10, K17, K18 and K25), K18 was the most potent, showed $A_{3} R$ specificity and greater $A_{3} R$ binding affinity (Table 2). It should be noted however, that the original competition binding experiments that identified the panel of antagonist was performed using [ $\left.{ }^{3} \mathrm{H}\right]$ HEMADO (Lagarias et al., 2018). To ensure that the different ligand used in our studies was not influencing our characterisation of the compounds we assessed the ability of K18 to antagonise cAMP inhibition by HEMADO at the $A_{3} R$ and compared its potency to K17(Supplementary Fig. 7 and Table 6). As we observed for both NECA and IB-MECA, K18 remained the most potent antagonist at the $A_{3} R$ and we propose it as our lead compound.

We wanted to determine if our lead $A_{3} R$ antagonist, K18, could also reduce the potency of IBMECA when an alternative downstream signalling component was measured; ERK1/2 phosphorylation (Fig. 3). In line with previously reported findings (Schulte and Fredholm, 2002), agonists at the $A_{3} R$ caused an increase in ERK1/2 phosphorylation after 5 minutes, with IB-MECA 10 -fold more potent than NECA (Supplementary Fig. 8). As previously reported (Graham et al., 2001, Schulte and Fredholm, 2002), this was entirely $\mathrm{G}_{\mathrm{il} o}$-mediated, as demonstrated by the abolished pERK1/2 level in PTX treated $\mathrm{A}_{3} \mathrm{R}$ FIp- $\mathrm{In}^{\text {TM }}-\mathrm{CHO}$ stimulated with NECA/IB-MECA (Supplementary Fig. 8). The pERK1/2 level following Phorbol 12myristate 13-acetate (PMA) stimulation was entirely unaffected by PTX treatment (Supplementary Fig. 8). Perhaps unsurprisingly, K18 was able to antagonise $\mathrm{A}_{3}$ R-mediated
phosphorylation of ERK1/2 with the antagonist potency ( $\mathrm{pA}_{2}$ values) not significantly different compared to the cAMP-inhibition assay (Fig. 3C).

## $A_{3} R$ constitutive activity and inverse agonism

A number of GPCRs have been described to have constitutive activity whereby the receptor is active in the absence of agonist: existing at equilibrium in an active ( $R^{*}$ ) and an inactive ( $R$ ) state, i.e the two-state model of agonism. These findings alter the classical concept of competitive antagonism giving rise to the term inverse agonist: ligands/compounds which preferably bind to the R state, decreasing the level of constitutive activity (Giraldo et al., 2007). The $\mathrm{A}_{3} \mathrm{R}$, when expressed in Flp- $\mathrm{In}^{\mathrm{TM}}$ - CHO cells, displays constitutive activity; as demonstrated by a reduction in $10 \mu \mathrm{M}$ forskolin stimulated cAMP accumulation when compared to Flp-In ${ }^{T M}$ - CHO cells (Supplementary Fig. 9). All eight characterised $\mathrm{A}_{3} \mathrm{R}$ antagonists showed a concentration dependent inverse agonism of the $A_{3} R$ when compared to DMSO control (Fig. 2). This was also found to be the case for DPCPX, K20 and K23 at the $\mathrm{A}_{1}$ R (Supplementary Fig. 10). Notably, DMSO showed a concentration-dependent elevation in cAMP accumulation above that of forskolin alone.

## MD simulation of the binding mode of K18 at $A_{3} R$

We next sought to investigate the potential binding pose of K18 within the $A_{3} R$ orthosteric site. Building upon our previous studies where we have generated a homology model of the $A_{3} R$, K18 was docked into the orthosteric site of the $\mathrm{A}_{3} \mathrm{R}$ using the GoldScore scoring function and the highest scoring pose was inserted in a hydrated POPE bilayer. The complex was subjected to MD simulations in the orthosteric binding site of $A_{3} R$ with Amber14ff for 100 ns and the trajectory analyzed for protein-ligand interactions. We identified a potential binding pose of K18 within the established orthosteric $A_{3} R$ binding pocket (Fig. 4). A number of residues were identified as potentially important in binding of K18 within the orthosteric binding site and
 The MD simulations showed that K18 forms hydrogen bonds, van der Waals and m-m interactions inside the orthosteric binding site of $A_{3} R$ (Fig. 4A). More specifically, MD simulations showed that the 3 -(dichlorophenyl) group can be positioned close to V1695.30, $\mathrm{M} 177^{5.40}, \mathrm{I} 249^{6.54}$ and $\mathrm{L} 264^{7.34}$ of the $\mathrm{A}_{3} \mathrm{R}$ orthosteric binding site forming attractive vdW interactions. The isoxazole ring is engaged in an aromatic $\pi-\pi$ stacking interaction with the phenyl group of F168 ${ }^{5.29}$ (Fig. 4A). The thiazole ring is oriented deeper into the receptor favoring interactions with $\mathrm{L} 246^{6.51}$, $\mathrm{L} 90^{3.32}$ and $\mathrm{I} 268^{7.39}$. Hydrogen bonding interactions can be formed between: (a) the amino group of the carbonyloxycarboximidamide molecular segment and the amide side chain of $\mathrm{N} 250^{6.55}$; (b) the nitrogen or the sulfur atom of the thiazole ring and $\mathrm{N} 250^{6.55}$ side chain (Fig. 4A). For structural comparison and insight, we also modelled K5 and K17 binding at the $A_{3} R$ given the structural similarity: $K 5$ when compared to $K 17$ and K18 possess one and two chlorine atoms attached to the phenyl ring, respectively (Fig. 4B and C).

## Molecular Mechanics-Poisson Boltzmann Surface Area (MM-PBSA) calculations validate binding pose of K18

We observed the order of potency and binding affinity of the three related compounds K5, K17 and K18, which differ in the number of chlorine atoms connected with the phenyl ring of the phenyl-isoxazole system ( $0 \mathrm{Cl}<1 \mathrm{Cl}<2 \mathrm{Cl}$, respectively), as K5 < K17 < K18. The MD simulations for 100 ns showed that these compounds adopted a similar binding position at the $A_{3} R$ orthosteric binding site (Fig. 4, A-C). The MM-PBSA method was applied in the MD simulation trajectories of the compounds to calculate their binding free energies ( $\Delta G_{\text {eff }}$ ) and
evaluate the energetic contributions for their binding (Table 4). The calculated ranking in the binding free energies were in agreement with experimental differences in potencies. Binding free energies $\left(\Delta G_{\text {eff }}\right)$ is calculated as the difference in energetic components between the complex, the apoprotein and the ligand. These components include the difference in electrostatic energy of binding interactions ( $E_{\text {elec }}$ ), the difference in the van der Waals energy of binding interactions ( $E_{\text {vdW }}$ ) and the difference in the solvation energy ( $\Delta \mathrm{G}_{\text {solv }}$ ) (Table 4). The calculations suggested that the major difference between the energetic components of $\Delta G_{\text {eff }}$ values for K5, K17 and K18 is on the solvation energies. The two chlorine atoms make K18 more lipophilic and reduce the energy required to transfer the compound from solution to the binding area, increasing the free energy of binding and activity compared to K17 and K5. Interestingly, following MD simulations of the unpublised compounds (K26, K27, K29-K34 and K36-K39) we observed that compounds K26, with a o-diphenylcarbonyl, had low micromolar $A_{3} R$ binding affinities (Supplementary Table 1) and according to the MD simulations of K26 in complex with $A_{3} R$ (Supplementary Fig. 11) had a similar binding pose to that of K18 (Fig. 4). However, in our functional assays, K26 (and K34, which also had a o-diphenylcarbonyl and low micromolar binding) showed weak antagonistic potency below the concentration of $1 \mu \mathrm{M}$ (Supplementary Fig. 3) suggesting a more complex binding mode is present. We observed that the p-substitution in compounds K29 and K36-38 was not favorable for binding at all since this led to a loss of the van der Waals interaction with the hydrophobic area of the $A_{3} R$ towards TM5 and TM6; as was demonstrated in MD simulations for K36 (Supplementary Fig. 11).

Finally, we also examined how the activity was affected when the 4-thiazolyl in the mid-range antagonist K17 was changed to 2 -,3- or 4 -pyridyl in compounds K32, K10, K11 which bind to $A_{3} R$ (Table 1). We found antagonistic activity only for compounds K32 and K10; compared to K11, in compounds K32 and K10 the pyridine nitrogen can interact with $\mathrm{N} 250^{6.55}$ due to their proximate positions in binding conformation (see Fig. 4B for K17). This interaction appears to be preserved with both the 2-,3-pyridyl groups but lost when the nitrogen is in the 4-position. Thus, while we have been able to identify compounds that are structurally able to mimic some of the features of compound K18 (and its derivaties K17 and K5), K18 remains the most potent antagonist present within this study.

## Experimental evaluation of the binding mode of K18 at $A_{3} R$

The potential binding site of our lead $A_{3} R$ selective antagonist, K18, was investigated through the use of point mutations as an experimental approach to give insight into structure-function relationships. The determination of critical residues for antagonist binding becomes particularly difficult in the case of competitive antagonists whereby important amino acids are likely overlapping with those for agonist binding. Through performing Schild analysis, whereby the $\mathrm{pA}_{2}$ is independent of agonist, we were able to experimentally determine the effect of receptor mutation on antagonist binding. Whereas an increase in the $\mathrm{pA}_{2}$ for a particular mutant when compared to WT suggested the antagonist was more potent, a decrease indicated a reduced potency. Of the identified residues predicted to mediate an interaction between K18 and the $\mathrm{A}_{3}$ R, the ones which showed (according to the MD simulations) the most frequent and the most important contacts were chosen for investigation and included amino acids $\mathrm{L} 90^{3.32}, \mathrm{~F} 168^{5.29}, \mathrm{~V} 169^{5.30}, \mathrm{M} 177^{5.40}, \mathrm{~L} 246^{6.51}, \mathrm{I} 249^{6.54}, \mathrm{~N} 250^{6.55}$, $\mathrm{L} 264^{7.34}$ and $\mathrm{I} 268^{7.39}$ (Fig. 4). Site-directed mutagenesis was performed replacing each residue with an alanine and expressed then in the Flp-In-CHO ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ cells lines. Each mutant was then screened for their ability to supress forskolin-induced cAMP accumulation in response to NECA/IB MECA stimulation in the presence and absence of K18.

Mutation of residues $\mathrm{F} 168^{5.29}$, $\mathrm{L} 246^{6.51}$, $\mathrm{N} 250^{6.55}$ and $1268^{7.39}$ abolished agonist induced suppression of forskolin-induced cAMP accumulation and were discontinued in this study (Stamatis et al., 2019, in preparation). Both L90A ${ }^{3.32}$ and M177A ${ }^{5.40}$ showed a significantly decreased NECA and IB-MECA potency. L264A ${ }^{7.34}$ showed a slight decrease in IB-MECA potency whereas the potency of NECA was similar to WT. Whereas the NECA stimulated cAMP inhibition in V169A ${ }^{5.30}$ or I249A ${ }^{6.54}$ expressing FIp-In CHOs was comparable to WT, the IB-MECA stimulated cAMP inhibition was enhanced in potency (Table 5). Mutation of V1695.30 to glutamate, the amino acid present in the remaining three AR subtypes, enhanced both NECA and IB-MECA potency.

## Schild analysis of K18 at WT and mutant $A_{3} R$

The $\mathrm{pA}_{2}$ values obtained through conducting Schild analysis of K18 at WT and mutant $\mathrm{A}_{3} R$ were compared in order to determine the potential antagonist binding site (Fig. 5, Table 5). The $p A_{2}$ value for $1249 A^{6.54} A_{3} R$ was similar to $W T$, whereas $M 177 A^{5.40}$ and $V 169 A^{5.30}$ were significantly smaller. Interestingly we found an increase in the $\mathrm{pA}_{2}$ for L90A ${ }^{3.32}$ and L264A ${ }^{7.34}$ when compared to WT, suggesting an enhanced ability of K18 to act as an antagonist. Our confidence in the obtained $\mathrm{pA}_{2}$ values for K18 was enhanced by testing with NECA and IBMECA at an $A_{3} R$ mutant which caused enhanced activity (L90A ${ }^{3.32}$ ). As would be expected, the $\mathrm{pA}_{2}$ values for this mutant was not significantly different between agonists, confirming agonist independence (Supplementary Fig. 12). These experimental findings are reflected in our final binding pose of K18 at the WT $A_{3} R$ (Fig. 4).

## Kinetics of $A_{3} R$ antagonists determined through BRET

BRET techniques have been successfully used to determine the real time kinetics of ligand binding to GPCRs (Stoddart et al., 2018, Sykes et al., 2019). In BRET ligand-binding experiments, we investigated the ability of the selective $A_{3} R$ antagonist MRS 1220, K5, K17 or K18 to inhibit specific binding of the fluorescent $A_{3} R$ antagonist CA200645 to Nluc- $A_{3} R$. The kinetic parameters for CA200645 at Nluc-A ${ }_{3} R$ were initially determined as $\mathrm{K}_{\text {on }}\left(k_{1}\right)=2.86 \pm$ $0.89 \times 10^{7} \mathrm{M}^{-1}, \mathrm{~K}_{\text {off }}\left(k_{2}\right)=0.4397 \pm 0.014 \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ with a $\mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{D}}$ of $17.92 \pm 4.45 \mathrm{nM}$. (Supplementary Fig 13). Our MRS 1220 kinetic data was fit with the original 'kinetic of competitive binding' model (Motulsky and Mahan, 1984; built into GraphPad Prism 8.0) with a determined $\mathrm{K}_{\text {on }}\left(k_{3}\right)$ and $\mathrm{K}_{\text {off }}\left(k_{4}\right)$ rate of $3.25 \pm 0.28 \times 10^{8} \mathrm{M}^{-1} \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ and $0.0248 \pm 0.005 \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$, respectively. This gave a residence time (RT) ( $R T=1 / K_{\text {off }}$ ) of 40.32 min . It was noticed in the analysis for K5, K17 and K18 that the fit in some cases was ambiguous (Regression with Prism 8: "Ambiguous", 2019) and/or the fitted value of the compound dissociation rate constant was high ( $k_{4}>1 \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$, corresponding to a dissociation $t_{1 / 2}$ of $<42 \mathrm{sec}$ ). In order to determine the reliability of the fitted $k_{4}$ value, data were also analysed using an equation that assumes compound dissociation is too rapid for the dissociation rate constant to be determined reliably and the fits to the two equations compared ("Kinetics of competitive binding, rapid competitor dissociation", derived in the Appendix I). This model allowed estimate of the equilibrium binding affinity of the compound $\left(K_{\mathrm{i}}\right)$ but not the binding kinetics of K5, K17 and K18 (Supplementary Fig. 14 and Table 4). These pKi values were found to be similar to those calculated through fitting the Cheng-Prusoff equation (Cheng and Prusoff, 1973) and notably, the order of affinity for K5, K17 and K18 reflected that determined through Schild analysis and previously published radioligand binding (Table 4).

## DISCUSSION

In silico structure-based drug design efforts in ligand discovery, using molecular docking calculations, have proven to be highly successful (Meng et al., 2011). The broad and similar orthosteric binding site of ARs makes the determination of AR subtype selective compound a challenging task. Indeed, given the similarity between ARs orthosteric binding sites, the search for an AR subtype specific compound often leads to compounds active at more than one of the AR subtypes (Kolb et al., 2012). Given that AR subtypes play distinct roles throughout the body, obtaining highly specific receptor antagonists and agonists is crucial. Here, we presented the pharmacological characterisation of eight $A_{3} R$ antagonists determined though virtual screening. Of these eight compounds, K10, K17, K18, K20, K23 and K32 were determined to be competitive. Whereas K20 and K23 were antagonists at both the $\mathrm{A}_{1} \mathrm{R}$ and $A_{3} R, K 10, K 17, K 18$ and $K 25$ were $A_{3} R$ selective antagonists. Indeed, we found no functional activity, or indeed binding affinity ( $<30 \mu \mathrm{M}$ ), at the other AR subtypes.

K1, K20 and K23 showed weak antagonism of the $A_{2 A} R$ and $K 32$ was the only tested antagonist which showed $A_{2 B} R$ antagonisitc potency. These selectivity findings were in agreement with our radioligand binding data (presented here and in Lagarias et al., 2018 for K1-25, K28 and K35). However, a number of compounds previously determined to have micromolar binding affinity for $A_{3} R(K 5, K 9, K 21, K 22, K 24, K 26, K 27$ and K34), showed no antagonistic potency in our initial functional screen. Further testing confirmed that these compounds were low potency antagonists and, although supporting the previously published radioligand binding data, confirmed the need for functional testing: not all compounds with binding affinity showed high functional potency.

We showed the $A_{3} R$, when expressed in Flp- $\mathrm{n}^{\mathrm{TM}}$ - CHO cells, displays constitutive activity. Compounds which preferably bind to the inactive ( R ) state, decreasing the level of constitutive activity (Giraldo et al., 2007) and in the case of a $\mathrm{G}_{\mathrm{ijo}}$-coupled GPCR leading to an elevated cAMP, are referred to as inverse agonists. All eight characterised $A_{3} R$ antagonists and both characterised $A_{1} R$ antagonists (K20 and K23) were found to act as inverse agonists. We also reported an elevation in cAMP accumulation when cells were stimulated with DMSO, which was concentration-dependent. Given that even low concentrations of DMSO has been reported to interfere with important cellular processes (Tunçer et al., 2018), the interpretation of this data should be made with caution. The initial virtual screening described in Lagarias et al., 2018 was carried out using a combination of a ligand-based and structure-based strategy and the experimental structure of $A_{2 A} R$ in complex with the antagonist ZM241385 (PDB ID 3EML) (Jaakola et al., 2008), described as $A_{2 A} R$ selective antagonist and inverse agonist (Lebon et al., 2011). Our high hit rate for $A_{3} R$ selective antagonist appears counter-intuitive since the ligand-based virtual screening tool Rapid Overlay of Chemical Structures (ROCS) was used to predict structures similar to ZM241385 (Lagarias et al., 2018). Indeed, ZM241385 has little affinity for $A_{3} R$ and 500 - to 1000 -fold selectivity for $A_{2 A} R$ over $A_{1} R$. However, as has been previously reported, the search for an AR subtype specific compound often leads to compounds active at multiple AR subtypes (Kolb et al., 2012), likely due to their similar binding site.

We hypothesize that the presence of a chloro substituent in the phenyl ring of 3-phenylisoxazole favors $A_{3} R$ affinity and activity, as following $0 \mathrm{Cl}<1 \mathrm{Cl}<2 \mathrm{Cl}$ i.e. $\mathrm{K} 5<\mathrm{K} 17<\mathrm{K} 18$.

This theory is supported by both our radioligand binding, NanoBRET ligand-binding and functional data which determine the relative potency and affinity of the three related compounds K5, K17 and K18 as K5 < K17 < K18. The MD simulations showed that these compounds adopted a similar binding mode at the $A_{3} R$ orthosteric binding site, but the freeenergy calculations showed that the two chlorine atoms in K18 increases its lipophilicity, thus allowing it to more efficiently leave the solution state and enter the highly lipophilic binding area.

For the first time, we demonstrate the utilisation of a new model which expands on the 'Kinetic of competitive binding' model (Motulsky and Mahan, 1984; built into Prism) for fitting fast kinetics data obtained from NanoBRET experiments and assumes the unlabelled ligand rapidly equilibrates with the free receptor. Very rapid competitor dissociation can lead to failure of the fit, eliciting either an ambiguous fit (Regression with Prism 8: "Ambiguous", 2019) or unrealistically large K3 and K4 values. Whereas we were able to successfully fit the MRS 1220 kinetic data with the Motulsky and Mahan model due to its slow dissociation, fitting of K5, K17 and K18 kinetic data with this model often resulted in an ambiguous fit. Our new model, assuming fast compound dissociation, successfully fit the data and allowed the determination of binding affinity. In the cases where the data was able to fit the Motulsky and Mahan model, the dissociation constant was higher (of the order of $1 \mathrm{~min}-1$ ), indicating rapid dissociation. Although we found nearly a 10-fold differences in determined binding affinity for MRS 1220, K5, K17 and K18 between BRET ligand binding and radioligand binding assays, we demonstrate the order of affinity remains consistent. Indeed, this was seen across all three experimental approached: Schild analysis, NanoBRET ligand-binding assay and radioligand binding.

Our MD simulations showed the potential binding site of K 18 , our most potent and selective $A_{3} R$ antagonist, within the $A_{3} R$ orthosteric binding area (Fig. 4A). Here, K18 is stabilised through hydrogen bonding interactions between the amino group and thiazole ring of the ligand and the amide side chain of $\mathrm{N} 250^{6.55}$. In addition, the dichloro-phenyl ring can be oriented to the unique lipophilic area of $\mathrm{A}_{3} \mathrm{R}$ including V169 ${ }^{5.30}$, M177 ${ }^{5.40}, \mathrm{I} 249^{6.54}$ and L264 ${ }^{7.34}$ stabilized in that cleft through attractive van der Waals interactions; K18 is further stabilized through $\pi-\pi$ aromatic stacking interactions between isoxazole ring and the phenyl group of F168 ${ }^{5.29}$ and the thiazole group is oriented deeper into the receptor favoring interactions with $\mathrm{L} 246^{6.51}$ and L90 ${ }^{3.32}$ and possibly with $\mathrm{I} 268^{7.39}$. In combination with our mutagenesis data, the final binding pose of K18 appears to be within the orthosteric binding site, involving residues previously described to be involved in binding of $\mathrm{A}_{3} \mathrm{R}$ compounds (Arruda et al., 2017). We reported no detectable $\mathrm{G}_{\mathrm{i} \circ}$ response following co-stimulation with forskolin and NECA or IBMECA for $A_{3} R$ mutants $F 168 A^{5.29}$, L246A ${ }^{6.51}$, $N 250 A^{6.55}$ and I268A ${ }^{7.39}$ (Stamatis et al., 2019, in preparation). These findings are in line with previous mutagenesis studies investigating residues important for agonist and antagonist binding at the human $A_{3} R$ (Gao et al., 2002, May et al., 2012). L90A ${ }^{3.32}$, V169A ${ }^{5.30}$, M177A ${ }^{5.40}, ~ 1249 A^{6.54}$ and L264A ${ }^{7.34} A_{3} R$ all showed a detectable $\mathrm{G}_{i / 0}$ response when stimulated with agonists (Stamatis et al., 2019).

Through performing Schild analysis, we were able to experimentally determine the effect of receptor mutation on antagonist affinity for L90A ${ }^{3.32}$, V169A/E ${ }^{5.30}$, M177A ${ }^{5.40}, ~ I 249 A^{6.54}$ and L264A ${ }^{7.34} A_{3} R$. The $\mathrm{pA}_{2}$ value for $1249 \mathrm{~A}^{6.54} \mathrm{~A}_{3} R$ was similar to $W T$, whereas $\mathrm{M}_{177} \mathrm{~A}^{5.40}$ and V169A ${ }^{5.30}$ were significantly smaller suggesting these residues appear to be involved in K18 binding. Interestingly we found an increase in the $\mathrm{pA}_{2}$ for $\mathrm{L9OA}^{3.32}$ and L264A ${ }^{7.34}$ when
compared to WT, suggesting an enhanced ability of K18 to act as an antagonist. Further evidence was provided by the MM-PBSA calculations which were in agreement, based on the proposed binding model, between the calculated binding free energy by congeners of K18 having one or no chlorine atoms, i.e. compounds K17 and K5, and binding affinities and antagonistic potency. Importantly, substitution of the 1,3-thiazole ring in K17 with either a 2pyridyl ring (K32) or a 3 -pyridyl ring (K10) but not a 4 --pyridyl ring (K11) maintained $\mathrm{A}_{3} \mathrm{R}$ antagonistic potency. Although we have not directly determined the effects of similar pyridyl ring subsitutions on the higher affinity antagonist K18, we suspect there would be no significant increase in the potency of K18 given the small changes we observed for K17.

In conclusion, through pharmacological characterisation of a number of potential $A_{3} R$ antagonists, this study has determined K 18 as a specific ( $<1 \mu \mathrm{M}$ ) $\mathrm{A}_{3}$ R competitive antagonist. Our mutagenic studies, supported by MD simulations, identified the residues important for K18 binding are located within the orthosteric site of the $A_{3}$ R. Importantly, the absence of a chloro substituent, as is the case in K5, led to affinity loss. We suggest that the high affinity subtype selectivity of K18 makes it a molecule to begin detailed SAR and represents a useful tool compound that warrants further assessment for its therapeutic potential.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

## Cell culture and Transfection

Cell lines were maintained using standard subculturing routines as guided by the European Collection of Cell Culture (ECACC) and checked annually for mycoplasma infection using an EZ-PCR mycoplasma test kit from Biological Industries (Kibbutz Beit-Haemek, Israel). All procedures were performed in a sterile tissue culture hood using aseptic technique and solutions used in the propagation of each cell line were sterile and pre-warmed to $37^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. All cells were maintained at $37^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ with $5 \% \mathrm{CO}_{2}$, in a humidified atmosphere. CHO-K1-A R or CHO-K1-A3R cells were routinely cultured in Hams F-12 nutrient mix (21765029, Thermo Fisher Scientific) supplemented with 10\% Foetal bovine serum (FBS) (F9665, Sigma-Aldrich). Flp-In-CHO cells purchased from Thermo Fisher Scientific (R75807) were maintained in Hams F-12 nutrient mix supplemented with $10 \%$ FBS containing $100 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mL}$ Zeocin ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ Selection Antibiotic (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

Stable Fip-In-CHO cell lines were generated through co-transfection of the pcDNA5/FRT expression vector (Thermo Fisher Scientific) containing the gene of interest and the Flp recombinase expressing plasmid, pOG44 (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Transfection of cells seeded in a T25 flask at a confluency of $\geq 80 \%$ was performed using TransIT®-CHO Transfection Kit (MIR 2174, Mirus Bio), in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions. Here, a total of $6 \mu \mathrm{~g}$ of DNA (receptor to pOG44 ratio of 1:9) was transfected per flask at a DNA:Mirus reagent ratio of $1: 3(\mathrm{w} / \mathrm{v}) .48$ hours post-transfection, selection using $600 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mL}$ hygromycin B (Thermo Fisher Scientific), concentration determined through preforming a kill curve, was performed for two days prior to transferring the cells into a fresh T25 flask. Stable Flp-In-CHO cell lines expressing the receptor of interest were selected using $600 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mL}$ hygromycin B whereby the media was changed every two days. Successful mutant cell line generation for non-signalling mutants were confirmed by Zeocin ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ sensitivity ( $100 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mL}$ ).

## Constructs

The human $A_{3} R$ originally in pcDNA3.1+ (ADRA3000000, cdna.org) was cloned into the pcDNA5/FRT expression vector and co-transfected with pOG44 to generate a stable FIp-InCHO cell line. Mutations within the $A_{3} R$ were made using the QuikChange Lightening SiteDirected Mutagenesis Kit (Agilent Technologies) in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions. All oligonucleotides used for mutagenesis were designed using the online Agilent Genomics 'QuikChange Primer Design' tool (Supplementary Table 7) and purchased from Merck. All constructs were confirmed by in-house Sanger sequencing.

## Compounds

Adenosine, NECA (5'-(N-ethylcarboxamido)adenosine), IB-MECA (1-deoxy-1-[6-[[(3-iodophenyl)methyl]amino]-9H-purin-9-yl]-N-methyl- $\beta$-D-ribofuranuronamide), 2-(1-hexynyl)-$\mathrm{N}^{6}$-methyladenosine (HEMADO), 8-cyclopentyl-1,3-dipropylxanthine (DPCPX) and MRS 1220 (N-[9-chloro-2-(furan-2-yl)-[1,2,4]triazolo[1,5-c]quinazolin-5-yl]-2-phenylacetamide) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and dissolved in dimethyl-sulphoxide (DMSO). PMA was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Compounds under investigation were purchased from emolecules and dissolved in DMSO.

## cAMP accumulation assay

For cAMP accumulation ( $A_{2 A} R$ and $A_{2 B} R$ ) or inhibition ( $A_{1} R$ or $A_{3} R$ ) experiments, cells were harvested and re-suspended in stimulation buffer (PBS containing $0.1 \%$ BSA and $25 \mu \mathrm{M}$ rolipram) and seeded at a density of 2,000 cells per well of a white 384 -well Optiplate and stimulated for 30 minutes with a range of agonist concentrations. In order to allow the $A_{1} R / A_{3} R$ mediated $\mathrm{G}_{\mathrm{ilo}}$ response to be determined, co-stimulation with forskolin, an activator of AC (Zhang et al., 1997), at the indicated concentration (depending on cell line) was performed. For testing of potential antagonists, cells received a co-stimulation stimulated with forskolin, agonist and compound/DMSO control. cAMP levels were then determined using a LANCE® cAMP kit as described previously (Knight et al, 2016). In order to reduce evaporation of small volumes, the plate was sealed with a ThermalSeal® film (EXCEL Scientific) at all stages.

## Phospho-ERK assay

ERK1/2 phosphorylation was measured using the homogeneous time resolved fluorescence (HTRF)® Phospho-ERK (T202/Y204) Cellular Assay Kit (Cisbio Bioassays, Codolet, France) two-plate format in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions. $A_{3} R$ expressing Flp-InCHO were seeded at a density of 2,000 cells per well of a white 384 -well Optiplate and stimulated with agonist and test compounds for 5 minutes at $37^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. Plate reading was conducted using a Mithras LB 940 (Berthold technology). All results were normalised to 5 minutes stimulation with $1 \mu \mathrm{M} \mathrm{PMA}$, a direct protein kinase C (PKC) activator (Jiang and Fleet, 2012). To determine if the measured pERK1/2 level was $\mathrm{G}_{i}$-mediated, we treated cells with Pertussis toxin (PTX) (Tocris Biosciences) for 16 hours at $100 \mathrm{ng} / \mathrm{mL}$ prior to pERK assay.

## Radioligand Binding

All pharmacological methods followed the procedures as described in the literature (Klotz et al., 1998). In brief, membranes for radioligand binding were prepared from CHO cells stably transfected with hAR subtypes in a two-step procedure. In the first step, cell fragments and nuclei were removed at 1000 xg and then the crude membrane fraction was sedimented from the supernatant at 100000 xg . The membrane pellet was resuspended in the buffer used for the respective binding experiments and it was frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at $-80^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. For radioligand binding at the $A_{1} R, 1 \mathrm{nM}\left[{ }^{3} \mathrm{H}\right] \mathrm{CCPA}$ was used, for $\mathrm{A}_{2 A} \mathrm{R} 10 \mathrm{nM}\left[{ }^{3} \mathrm{H}\right] \mathrm{NECA}$ and
for $\mathrm{A}_{3} \mathrm{R} 1 \mathrm{nM}\left[{ }^{3} \mathrm{H}\right] \mathrm{HEMADO}$. Non-specific binding of $\left[{ }^{3} \mathrm{H}\right]$ CCPA was determined in the presence of 1 mM theophylline and in the case of $\left.{ }^{3} \mathrm{H}\right]$ NECA and ${ }^{3} \mathrm{H}$ H]HEMADO $100 \mu \mathrm{M}$ R-PIA was used. $K_{i}$ values from competition experiments were calculated using Prism (GraphPad Software, La Jolla, CA, U.S.A.) assuming competitive interaction with a single binding site. The curve fitting results (see Fig. 8 in Lagarias et al. 2018) showed $R^{2}$ values $\geq 0.99$ for all compounds and receptors, indicating that the used one-site competition model assuming a Hill slope of $n=1$ was appropriate.

## Determining $K_{\text {on }}$ and $K_{\text {off }}$ rates of $A_{3} R$ antagonists

Through the use of NanoBRET, real-time quantitative pharmacology of ligand-receptor interactions can be investigated in living cells. CA200645, a high affinity AR xanthine amine congener (XAC) derivative containing a polyamide linker connected to the BY630 fluorophore, acts as a fluorescent antagonist at both $A_{1} R$ and $A_{3} R$ with a slow off-rate (Stoddart et al., 2012). Using an N -terminally NanoLuc (Nluc)-tagged $\mathrm{A}_{3} R$ expressing cell line, competition binding assays were conducted. The kinetic data was fitted with the 'kinetic of competitive binding' model (Motulsky and Mahan, 1984; built into Prism) to determine affinity ( $\mathrm{pK}_{\mathrm{i}}$ ) values and the association rate constant ( $\mathrm{K}_{\text {on }}$ ) and dissociation rates ( $\mathrm{K}_{\text {off }}$ ) for unlabelled $\mathrm{A}_{3} \mathrm{R}$ antagonists. This model resulted in several cases in an ambiguous fit (Regression with Prism 8: "Ambiguous", 2019). We developed a new model which expands on the 'kinetic of competitive binding' model to accommodate very rapid competitor dissociation, assuming the unlabelled ligand rapidly equilibrates with the free receptor. This method allows determination of compound affinity $\left(\mathrm{pK}_{\mathrm{i}}\right)$ from the kinetic data.

Filtered light emission at 450 nm and > 610 nm (640-685 nm band pass filter) was measured using a Mithras LB 940 and the raw BRET ratio calculated by dividing the 610 nm emission with the 450 nm emission. Here, Nluc on the N -terminus of $\mathrm{A}_{3} \mathrm{R}$ acted as the BRET donor (luciferase oxidizing its substrate) and CA200645 acted as the fluorescent acceptor. CA200645 was used at 25 nM , as previously reported (Stoddart et al., 2015). BRET was measured following the addition of the Nluc substrate, furimazine ( $0.1 \mu \mathrm{M}$ ). Nonspecific binding was determined using a high concentration of unlabelled antagonist, MRS 1220 (10 $n M$ ), for Nluc- $A_{3} R$.

## Receptor binding kinetics data analysis

Specific binding of tracer vs time data was analysed using the Motulsky and Mahan method (Motulsky and Mahan, 1984; built into Prism) to determine the test compound association rate constant and dissociation rate constant. Data were fit to the "Kinetics of competitive binding" equation in Prism 8.0 (GraphPad Software Inc, San Diego, CA):

$$
[R L]_{t}=\frac{N[L] k_{1}}{K_{F}-K_{S}}\left[\frac{k_{4}\left(K_{F}-K_{S}\right)}{K_{F} K_{S}}-\frac{k_{4}-K_{S}}{K_{S}} e^{-K_{S} t}+\frac{k_{4}-K_{F}}{K_{F}} e^{-K_{F} t}\right]
$$

where,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& K_{F}=0.5\left\{K_{A}+K_{B}+\sqrt{\left(K_{A}-K_{B}\right)^{2}+4[L][I] k_{1} k_{3}}\right\} \\
& K_{S}=0.5\left\{K_{A}+K_{B}-\sqrt{\left(K_{A}-K_{B}\right)^{2}+4[L][I] k_{1} k_{3}}\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
K_{A} & =[L] k_{1}+k_{2} \\
K_{B} & =[I] k_{3}+k_{4}
\end{aligned}
$$

$[R L]_{t}$ is specific binding at time $t, N$ the $\mathrm{B}_{\max },[L]$ the tracer concentration, $[/]$ the unlabelled competitor compound concentration, $k_{1}$ the tracer association rate constant, $k_{2}$ the tracer dissociation rate constant, $k_{3}$ the compound association rate constant and $k_{4}$ the compound dissociation rate constant.

Data were also analysed using an equation that assumes compound dissociation is too rapid for the dissociation rate constant to be determined reliably and the fits to the two equations compared ("Kinetics of competitive binding, rapid competitor dissociation", derived in the Appendix I, Supplementary material). This equation assumes rapid equilibration between compound and receptor and consequently provides an estimate of the equilibrium binding affinity of the compound ( $K_{\mathrm{i}}$ ) but not the binding kinetics of the compound. The equation is,

$$
[R L]_{t}=\frac{N[L] k_{1}\left(1-\rho_{I}\right)}{k_{o b s,+I}}\left(1-e^{-k_{o b s,+1 t} t}\right)
$$

where $\rho_{l}$ is fractional occupancy of receptors not bound by $L$ :

$$
\rho_{I}=\frac{[I]}{K_{I}+[I]}
$$

and $k_{\text {obs },+1}$ is the observed association rate of tracer in the presence of competitor, defined as,

$$
k_{o b s,+I}=[L] k_{1}\left(1-\rho_{I}\right)+k_{2}
$$

The fits to the two equations were compared statistically using a partial F-test in Prism 8 (Motulsky, 2019).

## Data and Statistical analysis

All in vitro assay data was analysed using Prism 8.0 (GraphPad software, San Diego, CA), with all dose-inhibition or response curves being fitted using a 3-parameter logistic equation to calculate response range or $\mathrm{E}_{\max }$ and $\mathrm{IC} / \mathrm{EC}_{50}$. Dose-inhibition/dose-response curves were normalised to either forskolin response or forskolin inhibition ( $A_{1} R$ and $A_{3} R$ ), relative to NECA/IB-MECA. In the case of pERK1/2 response, normalisation was performed to PMA.

Schild analysis was performed to obtain $\mathrm{pA}_{2}$ values (the negative logarithm to base 10 of the molar concentration of an antagonist that makes it necessary to double the concentration of the agonist to elicit the original submaximal response obtained by agonist alone (Schild, 1947)) for the potential antagonists. In cases where the Schild slope did not differ significantly from unity, the slope was constrained to unity giving an estimate of antagonist affinity ( $\mathrm{p} K_{\mathrm{B}}$ ). $\mathrm{pA}_{2}$ and $\mathrm{p} K_{B}$ coincide when the slope is exactly unity. The $\mathrm{pA}_{2}$ values obtained through conducting Schild analysis of K18 at WT and mutant $\mathrm{A}_{3} R$ were compared in order to indicate important residues involved in K18 binding.

The data and statistical analysis comply with the recommendations on experimental design and analysis in pharmacology (Curtis et al., 2018). Statistical significance ( ${ }^{*}, p<0.05$; ${ }^{* *}$, $p<0.01$; ***, $p<0.001$; ****, $p<0.0001$ ) was calculated using a one-way ANOVA with a Dunnett's post-test for multiple comparisons or Students' t-test, as appropriate. Compounds taken forwards for further experiments after initial screening were identified as having the highest statistical significance (P value of $0.001\left(^{* * *}\right)$ or $<0.0001\left(^{(* * *}\right)$ ). All statistical analysis was performed using Prism 8.0 on data which were acquired from experiments performed a minimum of five times, conducted in duplicate.

## Computational biochemistry

## MD simulations

Preparation of the complexes between $\mathrm{A}_{3} \mathrm{R}$ and $\mathrm{K} 5, \mathrm{~K} 17$ or K 18 was based on a homology model of $A_{2 A} R$ (see Appendix II in Supplementary material). Each ligand-protein complex was embedded in hydrated POPE bilayers. A simulation box of the protein-ligand complexes in POPE lipids, water and ions was built using the System Builder utility of Desmond (Desmond Molecular Dynamics System, version 3.0; D.E. Shaw Res. New York, 2011; Maest. Interoperability Tools, 3.1; Schrodinger Res. New York, 2012.). A buffered orthorhombic system in $10 \AA$ distance from the solute atoms with periodic boundary conditions was constructed for all the complexes. The MD simulations were performed with Amber14 and each complex-bilayer system was processed by the LEaP module in AmberTools14 under the AMBER14 software package (Case et al., 2014). Amber ff14SB force field parameters (Maier et al., 2015) were applied to the protein, lipid14 to the lipids (Dickson et al., 2014), GAFF to the ligands (Wang et al., 2004) and TIP3P (Jorgensen et al., 1983) to the water molecules for the calculation of bonded, vdW parameters and electrostatic interactions. Atomic charges were computed according to the RESP procedure (Bayly et al., 1993) using Gaussian03 (Frisch et al., 2003) and antechamber of AmberTools14 (Case et al., 2014). The temperature of 310 K was used in MD simulations in order to ensure that the membrane state is above the main phase transition temperature of 298 K for POPE bilayers (Koynova and Caffrey, 1998). In the production phase, the relaxed systems were simulated in the NPT ensemble conditions for 100 ns . The visualization of produced trajectories and structures was performed using the programs Chimera (Pettersen et al., 2004) and VMD (Humphrey et al., 1996). All the MD simulations were run on GTX 1060 GPUs in lab workstations or on the ARIS Supercomputer.

## MM-PBSA calculations

Relative binding free energies of the complexes between K5, K17 and K18 and $A_{3} R$ was estimated by the 1-trajectory MM-PBSA approach (Massova and Kollman, 2000). Effective binding energies ( $\Delta G_{\text {eff }}$ ) were computed considering the gas phase energy and solvation free energy contributions to binding. For this, structural ensembles were extracted in intervals of 50 ps from the last 50 ns of the production simulations for each complex. Prior to the calculations all water molecules, ions, and lipids were removed, and the structures were positioned such that the geometric center of each complex was located at the coordinate origin. The polar part of the solvation free energy was determined by calculations using Poisson-Boltzmann (PB) calculations (Homeyer and Gohike, 2013). In these calculations, a dielectric constant of $\varepsilon_{\text {solute }}=1$ was assigned to the binding area and $\varepsilon_{\text {solute }}=80$ for water. Using an implicit solvent representation for the calculation of the effective binding energy is
an approximation to reduce the computational cost of the calculations. The binding free energy for each complex was calculated using equation (1)

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta G_{\text {eff }}=\Delta E_{\mathrm{MM}}+\Delta G_{\text {sol }} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

In equation (1) $\Delta G_{\text {eff }}$ is the binding free energy for each calculated complex neglecting the effect of entropic contributions or assuming to be similar for the complexes studied. $\Delta E_{\text {мм }}$ defines the interaction energy between the complex, the protein and the ligand as calculated by molecular mechanics in the gas phase. $\Delta G_{\text {so }}$ is the desolvation free energy for transferring the ligand from water in the binding area calculated using the PBSA model. The terms for each complex $\Delta E_{\text {мм }}$ and $\Delta G_{\text {sol }}$ are calculated using equations (2) and (3)

$$
\begin{align*}
& \Delta E_{\mathrm{MM}}=\Delta E_{\mathrm{elec}}+\Delta E_{\mathrm{vdW}}  \tag{2}\\
& \Delta G_{\mathrm{sol}}=\Delta G_{\mathrm{P}}+\Delta G_{\mathrm{NP}} \tag{3}
\end{align*}
$$

In equation (2) $\Delta E_{\text {elec }}$ and $\Delta E_{\text {val }}$ are the electrostatic and the van der Waals interaction energies, respectively. In equation (3) $\Delta G_{p}$ is the electrostatic or polar contribution to free energy of solvation and the term $\Delta G_{\mathrm{Np}}$ is the non-polar or hydrophobic contribution to solvation free energy. Molecular mechanics energies and the non-polar contribution to the solvation free energy were calculated with the mmpbsa.pl module (Miller et al., 2012) of Amber14 (Case et al., 2014).

## Nomenclature of Targets and Ligands

Key protein targets and ligands in this article are hyperlinked to corresponding entries in http://www.guidetopharmacology.org, the common portal for data from the IUPHAR/BPS Guide to PHARMACOLOGY (Harding et al., 2018), and are permanently archived in the Concise Guide to PHARMACOLOGY 2017/18 (Alexander et al., 2017).

## Acknowledgments

We gratefully acknowledge the support of the Leverhulme Trust (KB and GL) and the BBSRC (GL). This research represents part of the Ph.D work of P.L. We thank Chiesi Hellas which supported this research (SARG No 10354) and the State Scholarships Foundation (IKY) for providing a Ph.D fellowship to P.L. (MIS 5000432, NSRF 2014-2020). The work of E.V. is implemented through IKY scholarships programme and co-financed by the European Union (European Social Fund - ESF) and Greek national funds through the action entitled "Reinforcement of Postdoctoral Researchers", in the framework of the Operational Program "Human Resources Development Program, Education and Lifelong Learning" of the National Strategic Reference Framework (NSRF) 2014 - 2020. This work was supported by computational time granted from the Greek Research \& Technology Network (GRNET) in the National HPC facility - ARIS - under project IDs pr005010. We would like to thank Stephen Hill, Stephen Briddon and Mark Soave (University of Nottingham) for gifting the Nluc-A ${ }_{3}$ R cell line and their technical advice. We are also grateful to Sonja Kachler for her technical assistance.

Table 1. Mean cAMP accumulation as measured in Flp-In CHO cells stably expressing $A_{3} R$ following stimulation with $10 \mu M$ forskolin only (DMSO) or $10 \mu \mathrm{M}$ forskolin, NECA at the predetermined $\mathrm{IC}_{80}$ concentration and $1 \mu \mathrm{M}$ test compound/MRS $1220 / D M S O$ control. Binding affinities were obtained through radioligand binding assays against the $A_{1} R, A_{2 A} R$ and $A_{3} R$.


| K8 | KM03338 ${ }^{1}$ |  | $47.13 \pm 2.09^{* *}$ | 12.69 | >100 | >100 | >100 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| K10 | STK300529¹ |  | $87.73 \pm 2.78^{* * * *}$ | -27.91 | 4.49 | >60 | >60 |
| K11 | SKT323144 ${ }^{1}$ |  | $72.88 \pm 3.24 * *$ | -13.07 | 5.15 | >60 | 30 |
| K17 | SPB02734 ${ }^{1}$ |  | $88.11 \pm 2.75^{* * * *}$ | -28.30 | 4.16 | >30 | >60 |
| K18 | SPB02735 ${ }^{1}$ |  | $103.8 \pm 1.24^{* * * *}$ | -43.94 | 0.89 | >100 | >100 |
| K20 | GK03725 ${ }^{1}$ |  | $97.95 \pm 1.39^{* * * *}$ | -38.13 | 0.91 | 1.09 | 7.29 |


| K23 | GK01176 ${ }^{1}$ |  | $92.27 \pm 2.62^{* * * *}$ | -32.46 | 1.65 | 1.18 | 4.69 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| K25 | GK01513 ${ }^{1}$ |  | $85.99 \pm 1.61^{* * * *}$ | -26.17 | 1.55 | >100 | >100 |
| K32 | STK323544 |  | $86.66 \pm 2.78^{* * * *}$ | -26.85 | 2.40 | >100 | >100 |

${ }^{1}$ Indicates previously published in Lagarias et al., 2018
${ }^{a}$ cAMP accumulation mean $\pm$ SEM expressed as $\% 10 \mu \mathrm{M}$ forskolin response where $n \geq 3$ independent experimental repeats, conducted in duplicate. Statistical significance in comparison to co-stimulation with $10 \mu \mathrm{M}$ forskolin and NECA ('NECA') was determined using oneway analysis of variance with Dunnett's post-test
${ }^{\text {b }}$ Difference between the mean cAMP accumulation between 'NECA' and each compound expressed as $\% 10 \mu \mathrm{M}$ forskolin response ${ }^{\text {c }}$ Binding affinity measured in three independent experiments and where indicated, previously published in Lagarias et al., 2018. Bold denotes binding affinity $<10 \mu \mathrm{M}$.

|  | $\mathrm{A}_{3} \mathrm{R}$ | A $\mathbf{R}^{\text {R }}$ | $\mathrm{A}_{2 A} \mathrm{R}$ | $\mathrm{A}_{28} \mathrm{R}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\overline{\underline{x}}$ |  |  |  |  |
| $\frac{0}{x}$ |  |  |  |  |
| $\stackrel{N}{\bar{y}}$ |  |  |  |  |
| $\frac{\infty}{\bar{y}}$ |  |  |  |  |


| ¢ |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\xrightarrow{N}$ |  |  |  |  |
| $\xrightarrow{2}$ |  |  |  |  |
| $\xrightarrow{\sim}$ |  |  |  |  |

Figure 1. Characterisation of $A_{3} R$ antagonist at all AR subtypes. $A_{3} R$ Flp-ln CHO cells or CHO-K1 cells ( 2000 cells/well) stably expressing one of the remaining AR subtypes were exposed to forskolin in the case of G-coupled $A_{1} R$ and $A_{3} R(1 \mu M$ or $10 \mu M$, respectively) or DMSO control in the case of $G_{s}$-coupled $A_{2 A} R$ and $A_{2 B} R$, NECA and test compound ( $10 \mu \mathrm{M}$ ) for 30 min and $c A M P$ accumulation detected. All values are mean $\pm$ SEM expressed as percentage forskolin inhibition ( $A_{1} R$ and $A_{3} R$ ) or stimulation ( $A_{2 A} R$ and $A_{2 B} R$ ), relative to NECA. $n \geq 3$ independent experimental repeats, conducted in duplicate.

Table 2. Potency of NECA stimulated cAMP inhibition or accumulation as determined in FIp-In CHO or CHO-K1 cells expressing one of four ARs subtype ( $A_{3} R, A_{1} R, A_{2 A} R$ or $A_{2 B} R$ ) and corresponding binding affinity of potential antagonists. Cells stably expressing $A_{3} R, A_{1} R, A_{2 A} R$ or $A_{2 B} R$ were stimulated with forskolin, $10 \mu M$ tested compound/DMSO and increasing concentrations of NECA. Binding affinities were obtained through radioligand binding assays as detailed in Lagarias et al., 2018.

|  | $\mathrm{pIC}_{50} / \mathrm{pEC} \mathrm{C}_{5}{ }^{\text {a }}$ |  |  |  | Ki ( $\mu \mathrm{M})^{\text {b }}$ |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\mathrm{A}_{3} \mathrm{R}$ | $\mathbf{A}_{1} \mathbf{R}$ | $\mathrm{A}_{24} \mathrm{R}$ | $\mathrm{A}_{2 \mathrm{~B}} \mathrm{R}$ | $\mathrm{A}_{3} \mathrm{R}$ | $\mathrm{A}_{1} \mathbf{R}$ | $\mathrm{A}_{2 A} \mathrm{R}$ | $\mathrm{A}_{2 \mathrm{~B}} \mathrm{R}$ |
| NECA only | $8.94 \pm 0.1$ | $9.00 \pm 0.1$ | $8.80 \pm 0.1$ | $8.18 \pm 0.1$ | ND | ND | ND | ND |
| K1 | $7.80 \pm 0.1^{* * * *}$ | $9.07 \pm 0.2$ | $7.75 \pm 0.1^{* *}$ | $8.36 \pm 0.2$ | 3.10 | >100 | 2.67 | ND |
| K10 | $7.15 \pm 0.1^{* * * *}$ | $8.90 \pm 0.1$ | $8.64 \pm 0.1$ | $8.45 \pm 0.2$ | 4.49 | $>60$ | $>60$ | ND |
| K17 | $7.43 \pm 0.1^{* * * *}$ | $8.80 \pm 0.2$ | $8.48 \pm 0.1$ | $8.40 \pm 0.2$ | 4.16 | $>30$ | $>60$ | ND |
| K18 | $6.61 \pm 0.1^{* * * *}$ | $8.81 \pm 0.2$ | $8.37 \pm 0.2$ | $8.67 \pm 0.2$ | 0.89 | >100 | >100 | ND |
| K20 | $6.68 \pm 0.1^{* * * *}$ | $7.38 \pm 0.1^{* * * *}$ | $7.88 \pm 0.1^{* *}$ | $8.14 \pm 0.2$ | 0.91 | 1.09 | 7.29 | ND |
| K23 | $7.35 \pm 0.1^{* * * *}$ | $7.49 \pm 0.1^{* * * *}$ | $7.94 \pm 0.1^{* *}$ | $8.36 \pm 0.2$ | 1.65 | 1.18 | 4.69 | ND |
| K25 | $7.54 \pm 0.2^{* * * *}$ | $9.01 \pm 0.2$ | $8.68 \pm 0.1$ | $8.38 \pm 0.1$ | 1.55 | >100 | >100 | ND |
| K32 | $7.54 \pm 0.2^{* * * *}$ | $8.86 \pm 0.1$ | $8.65 \pm 0.1$ | $7.38 \pm 0.1$ * | 2.4 | >100 | >100 | ND |

${ }^{a}$ Negative logarithm of NECA concentration required to produce a half-maximal response in the absence (NECA only) or presence of $1 \mu \mathrm{M}$ compound at each AR subtype
${ }^{\mathrm{b}}$ Binding affinity of potential antagonists as previously determined (Lagarias et al., 2018)
Statistical significance compared to NECA only stimulation was determined by one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's post-test.
ND indicates not determined.
Statistical significance ( ${ }^{*}, p<0.05 ;{ }^{* *}, p<0.01$; ${ }^{* * *}, p<0.001 ;{ }^{* * * *}, p<0.0001$ ) compared to NECA only stimulation was determined by one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's post-test.


Figure 2. IB-MECA stimulated cAMP inhibition at WT $A_{3}$ R: activity of MRS 1220 and potential antagonists. Flp-In-CHO cells ( 2000 cells/well) stably expressing WT $\mathrm{A}_{3} \mathrm{R}$ were exposed to forskolin $10 \mu \mathrm{M}$, IB-MECA and test compound/MRS 1220/DMSO control for 30 min and cAMP accumulation detected. A) Representative dose response curves are shown as mean $\pm$ SEM expressed as percentage forskolin inhibition ( $10 \mu \mathrm{M}$ ) relative to IB-MECA. Key indicated in K1 is identical for all ' K ' test compounds shown. B) pIC ${ }_{50}$ values for individual repeats including half-log concentration are shown as mean $\pm$ SEM C) Schild analysis of data represented in A/B. A slope of 1 indicates a competitive antagonist. The x -axis is expressed as -log (molar concentration of antagonist) giving a negative Schild slope. D) Inverse agonism at the $A_{3} R$. cAMP accumulation following a 30 -minute stimulation with forskolin $(10 \mu \mathrm{M})$ and increasing concentrations of antagonist/DMSO control was determined in WT A3 $R$ expressing Flp-In-CHO cells. Representative dose response curves are shown as mean $\pm$ SEM expressed as percentage forskolin ( $10 \mu \mathrm{M}$ ), relative to IB-MECA.

Table 3. IB-MECA stimulated cAMP inhibition at WT A ${ }_{3}$ R: activity of MRS 1220 and potential antagonists. Forskolin stimulated cAMP inhibition was measured in Flp-In-CHO stably expressing $\mathrm{A}_{3} \mathrm{R}$ following stimulation with $10 \mu \mathrm{M}$ forskolin, compound at the indicated concentration and varying concentrations of IB-MECA.

|  |  | WT A3R Flp-In-CHO |  |  |  |  | $\begin{gathered} \begin{array}{c} \text { Inverse } \\ \text { agonism } \end{array} \\ \text { pEC }_{50}{ }^{\mathrm{f}} \end{gathered}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | pIC ${ }_{50}{ }^{\text {a }}$ | $E_{\text {min }}{ }^{\text {b }}$ | Basal ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | True Basal ${ }^{\text {d }}$ | Span ${ }^{\text {e }}$ |  |
| IB-MECA only |  | $10.64 \pm 0.1$ | -10.2 $\pm 4.1$ | $109.8 \pm 2.3$ | $100.6 \pm 2.4$ | $110.9 \pm 2.8$ | $9.21 \pm 0.2$ |
| MRS 1220 | 0.1 nM | $10.61 \pm 0.1$ | $5.3 \pm 4.3$ | $104.4 \pm 4.6$ | $106.3 \pm 3.3$ | $99.2 \pm 6.0$ |  |
|  | 1 nM | $9.85 \pm 0.1^{* * * *}$ | $13.6 \pm 4.6$ * | $135.4 \pm 3.7^{* *}$ | $125.3 \pm 6.0^{* * *}$ | $121.8 \pm 5.7$ |  |
|  | 10 nM | $8.45 \pm 0.1^{* * * *}$ | $46.4 \pm 7.3^{* * * *}$ | $143.0 \pm 3.0^{* * *}$ | $135.2 \pm 3.8^{* * * *}$ | $96.6 \pm 7.6$ |  |
| K1 | $0.1 \mu \mathrm{M}$ | $10.52 \pm 0.1$ | $-4.2 \pm 9.4$ | $118.2 \pm 7.4$ | $104.5 \pm 6.0$ | $113.0 \pm 1.3$ | $4.93 \pm 0.1$ |
|  | $1 \mu \mathrm{M}$ | $10.18 \pm 0.1$ * | $21.9 \pm 7.0$ | $141.9 \pm 10.1^{* * *}$ | $127.6 \pm 8.9$ * | $117.5 \pm 6.4$ |  |
|  | $10 \mu \mathrm{M}$ | $9.44 \pm 0.1^{* * * *}$ | $36.3 \pm 7.9$ ** | $170.7 \pm 4.6^{* * * *}$ | $161.0 \pm 6.8^{* * * *}$ | $121.2 \pm 6.2$ |  |
| K10 | $0.1 \mu \mathrm{M}$ | $10.60 \pm 0.1$ | $-4.0 \pm 8.2$ | $132.1 \pm 6.0^{* *}$ | $125.9 \pm 6.2^{* * *}$ | $128.2 \pm 0.9$ | $5.81 \pm 0.1$ |
|  | $1 \mu \mathrm{M}$ | $10.14 \pm 0.1$ | $-2.0 \pm 7.6$ | $152.9 \pm 6.2^{* * * *}$ | $143.9 \pm 3.8^{* * * *}$ | $137.5 \pm 4.8^{*}$ |  |
|  | $10 \mu \mathrm{M}$ | $9.20 \pm 0.1^{* * * *}$ | $15.4 \pm 10.0$ | $169.8 \pm 9.5^{* * * *}$ | $156.2 \pm 7.0^{* * * *}$ | $145.3 \pm 4.9^{* * *}$ |  |
| K17 | $0.1 \mu \mathrm{M}$ | $10.45 \pm 0.1$ | $-5.4 \pm 8.7$ | $121.1 \pm 9.3$ | $120.4 \pm 6.2^{*}$ | $108.6 \pm 7.6$ | $6.24 \pm 0.2$ |
|  | $1 \mu \mathrm{M}$ | $10.02 \pm 0.1^{* *}$ | $2.5 \pm 6.6$ | $160.7 \pm 7.3^{* * * *}$ | $143.1 \pm 7.6^{* * * *}$ | $138.3 \pm 5.8^{* *}$ |  |
|  | $10 \mu \mathrm{M}$ | $9.12 \pm 0.1^{* * * *}$ | $21.8 \pm 9.3$ * | $173.4 \pm 8.1^{* * * *}$ | $164.5 \pm 7.6^{* * * *}$ | $147.5 \pm 6.6^{* * *}$ |  |
| K18 | $0.1 \mu \mathrm{M}$ | $10.61 \pm 0.1$ | $8.4 \pm 4.0$ | $117.7 \pm 3.7$ | $107.5 \pm 4.9$ | $109.3 \pm 5.2$ | $6.84 \pm 0.2$ |
|  | $1 \mu \mathrm{M}$ | $9.43 \pm 0.1^{* * * *}$ | $13.6 \pm 5.7$ | $142.0 \pm 3.4^{* * * *}$ | $130.7 \pm 5.0^{* * * *}$ | $111.1 \pm 3.6$ |  |
|  | $10 \mu \mathrm{M}$ | $8.25 \pm 0.1^{* * * *}$ | $43.0 \pm 6.7^{* * * *}$ | $148.8 \pm 2.3^{* * * *}$ | $138.6 \pm 2.4^{* * * *}$ | $118.5 \pm 6.2$ |  |
| K20 | $0.1 \mu \mathrm{M}$ | $10.46 \pm 0.2$ | $-8.4 \pm 9.9$ | $124.3 \pm 2.1$ | $113.6 \pm 4.1$ | $115.4 \pm 9.8$ | $6.96 \pm 0.2$ |
|  | $1 \mu \mathrm{M}$ | $9.52 \pm 0.1^{* * * *}$ | $14.1 \pm 10.3$ * | $168.3 \pm 3.1^{* * * *}$ | $141.2 \pm 9.8^{* * * *}$ | $118.1 \pm 8.7$ |  |
|  | $10 \mu \mathrm{M}$ | $8.62 \pm 0.1^{* * * *}$ | $35.0 \pm 9.6^{* *}$ | $142.6 \pm 11.8^{* * *}$ | $130.4 \pm 12.5^{* *}$ | $106.4 \pm 5.3$ |  |
| K23 | $0.1 \mu \mathrm{M}$ | $10.42 \pm 0.1$ | $-1.9 \pm 6.3$ | $137.6 \pm 5.5^{* * * *}$ | $130.3 \pm 7.7^{* * *}$ | $123.6 \pm 5.7$ | $5.83 \pm 0.2$ |
|  | $1 \mu \mathrm{M}$ | $9.75 \pm 0.1^{* * * *}$ | $8.7 \pm 8.6$ | $165.9 \pm 2.5^{* * * *}$ | $159.2 \pm 2.8^{* * * *}$ | $125.6 \pm 1.2$ |  |
|  | $10 \mu \mathrm{M}$ | $9.48 \pm 0.1^{* * * *}$ | $33.0 \pm 6.5^{* * *}$ | $167.9 \pm 7.1^{* * * *}$ | $167.9 \pm 7.9^{* * * *}$ | $135.1 \pm 8.5^{* *}$ |  |
| K25 | $0.1 \mu \mathrm{M}$ | $10.67 \pm 0.1$ | $9.9 \pm 4.2$ | $106.8 \pm 6.8$ | $99.1 \pm 6.7$ | $107.1 \pm 4.7$ | $6.01 \pm 0.1$ |
|  | $1 \mu \mathrm{M}$ | $9.69 \pm 0.1^{* * * *}$ | $9.0 \pm 5.9$ | $125.8 \pm 2.3^{*}$ | $120.0 \pm 7.5$ | $118.0 \pm 3.8$ |  |


| $10 \mu \mathrm{M}$ | $9.46 \pm 0.1^{* * * *}$ | $31.1 \pm 9.0^{* *}$ | $135.1 \pm 5.2^{* * *}$ | $121.7 \pm 6.3^{*}$ | $108.0 \pm 3.8$ |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $0.1 \mu \mathrm{M}$ | $10.54 \pm 0.1$ | $19.3 \pm 7.2$ | $121.7 \pm 5.9$ | $94.8 \pm 3.0$ | $141.0 \pm 8.9^{* * *}$ | $6.79 \pm 0.2$ |
| $1 \mu \mathrm{M}$ | $9.70 \pm 0.2^{* * * *}$ | $-17.8 \pm 6.5$ | $140.0 \pm 3.9^{* * * *}$ | $117.4 \pm 3.5$ | $157.8 \pm 7.2^{* * * *}$ |  |
| $10 \mu \mathrm{M}$ | $9.04 \pm 0.1^{* * * *}$ | $17.9 \pm 8.5$ | $145.6 \pm 5.1^{* * * *}$ | $128.8 \pm 7.7^{*}$ | $127.7 \pm 9.5$ |  |

${ }^{\text {a }}$ Negative logarithm of IB-MECA concentration required to produce a half-maximal response in the absence (IB-MECA only) or presence of 0.1 , 1 or $10 \mu \mathrm{M}$ compound
${ }^{\text {b }}$ Minimum cAMP accumulation of IB-MECA as $\% 10 \mu \mathrm{M}$ forskolin response relative to IB-MECA only; the lower plateau of the fitted sigmoidal dose response curve
${ }^{\text {c }}$ The upper plateau of the fitted sigmoidal dose response curve corresponding to $\% 10 \mu \mathrm{M}$ forskolin inhibition, relative to IB-MECA
${ }^{\mathrm{d}}$ The cAMP accumulation when stimulated with compound at the indicated concentration and $10 \mu \mathrm{M}$ forskolin stimulation only
${ }^{\text {e}}$ The difference between $\mathrm{E}_{\text {min }}$ and basal signaling
${ }^{\text {f }}$ Value reported to determine inverse agonism: Negative logarithm of compound concentration required to produce a halfmaximal response
Statistical significance ( ${ }^{*}, p<0.05 ;{ }^{* *}, p<0.01 ;{ }^{* * *}, p<0.001 ;{ }^{* * * *}, p<0.0001$ ) compared to 'IB-MECA only' was determined by one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's post-test.


Figure 3. K18 also reduced levels of agonist stimulated ERK1/2 phosphorylation. pERK1/2 was detected in Flp-In-CHO cells stably expressing $\mathrm{A}_{3} \mathrm{R}$ ( 2000 cells/well) stimulated for 5 minutes with IB-MECA, with or without K18. A) Representative dose response curves for IB-MECA with K18 at the indicated concentration or DMSO control shown as mean $\pm$ SEM expressed as $\% 1 \mu \mathrm{M}$ PMA response. B) $\mathrm{pEC}{ }_{50}$ values for individual repeats are shown as mean $\pm$ SEM. C) Schild analysis of data represented in A/B.


Figure 4. Orthosteric binding area average structure of WT $A_{3} R$ in complex with K5, K17 and K18 from MD simulations with Amber14ff. Side (A), top (D) view of K5 complex; side (B), top (E) view of K17 complex; side (C), top (F) view of K18 complex. Side chains of critical residues for binding indicated from the MD simulations are shown in sticks. Residues L90 ${ }^{3.32}$, $\mathrm{V} 169^{5.30}, \mathrm{M} 177^{5.40}, \mathrm{I} 249^{6.54}$ and $\mathrm{L} 264^{7.34}$, in which carbon atoms are shown in grey, were confirmed experimentally; in residues $\mathrm{F} 168^{5.29}, \mathrm{~L} 246^{6.51}, \mathrm{I} 268^{7.39}$ and $\mathrm{N} 250^{6.55}$ carbon atoms are shown in magenta; nitrogen, oxygen and sulfur atoms are shown in blue, red and yellow respectively.

Table 4. Effective binding energies ( $\Delta G_{\text {eff }}$ ) and energy components ( $E_{\text {vaw, }}, E_{E L}, \Delta G_{\text {solv }}$ ) in $\mathrm{kcal}^{-1} \mathrm{~mol}^{-1}$ calculated using the MM-PBSA method for binding of K5, K17 and K18 to the $\mathrm{A}_{3} \mathrm{R}$ orthosteric binding area.

|  | Evaw ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | $E$ EL ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | $\Delta G_{\text {solv }}{ }^{\text {c }}$ | $\Delta G_{\text {eff }}{ }^{\text {d }}$ | $p K_{B} / \mathbf{p} K_{i}^{e}$ |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  | Schild analysis ${ }^{\dagger}$ | NanoBRET ${ }^{\text {9 }}$ | Radioligand binding ${ }^{\text {h }}$ |
| MRS 1220 |  |  |  |  | 10.07 | $9.99 \pm 0.04$ | 8.2-9.2 |
| K5 | $-42.0 \pm 2.7$ | $-9.6 \pm 5.2$ | $30.8 \pm 4.3$ | $-20.8 \pm 4.3$ | ND | $6.06 \pm 0.09$ | 5.02 |
| K17 | $--47.0 \pm 2.4$ | $-8.8 \pm 2.7$ | $29.8 \pm 2.9$ | $-25.9 \pm 3.6$ | 6.35 | $6.33 \pm 0.03$ | 5.38 |
| K18 | $-46.3 \pm 2.9$ | $-7.5 \pm 2.4$ | $26.9 \pm 3.1$ | $-26.9 \pm 2.7$ | 7.20 | $6.92 \pm 0.10$ | 6.05 |

${ }^{a} v d W$ energy of binding calculated using molecular mechanics
${ }^{\text {b }}$ Electrostatic energy of binding calculated using molecular mechanics
${ }^{\text {c Difference }}$ in solvation energy between the complex, the protein and the ligand, i.e. $G_{\text {complex, solv }}$ - ( $G_{\text {protein, solv }}+$ $G_{\text {igand, solv) }}$
${ }^{d}$ Effective binding free energy calculated as $\Delta G_{\text {eff }}=\Delta E_{\text {MM }}+\Delta G_{\text {sol }}$; in Table 4, $\Delta E_{\text {MM }}=E_{\text {vaw }}{ }^{+} E_{E L}$ (see Materials and Methods)
${ }^{e}$ Equilibrium dissociation constant of MRS 1220, K5, K17 and K18 as determined through three independent experimental approaches: Schild analysis $\left(\mathrm{pK}_{\mathrm{B}}\right)$, $\operatorname{NanoBRET}\left(\mathrm{pK}_{\mathrm{i}}\right)$ or radioligand binding $\left(\mathrm{pK}_{\mathrm{i}}\right)$
${ }^{f} p K_{B}$ obtained through Schild analysis in $A_{3} R$ stably expressing Flp-In CHO cells
${ }^{9} \mathrm{pK}_{\mathrm{i}}$ (mean $\pm$ SEM) obtained in NanoBRET binding assays using Nluc-A $\mathrm{A}_{3}$ R stably expressing HEK 293 cells and determined through fitting our "Kinetics of competitive binding, rapid competitor dissociation" model or in the case of MRS 1220 through fitting with the 'Kinetics of competitive binding' model with a determined $\mathrm{K}_{\text {on }}\left(k_{3}\right)$ and $\mathrm{K}_{\text {off }}\left(k_{4}\right)$ rate of $3.25 \pm 0.28 \times 10^{8} \mathrm{M}^{-1} \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ and $0.0248 \pm 0.005 \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$, respectively ${ }^{h}$ pK K values previously published for K5, K17 and K18 (Lagarias et al., 2018) or MRS 1220 (Stoddart et al., 2015) through radioligand binding assays.


Figure 5. IB-MECA stimulated cAMP inhibition at WT or mutant $A_{3} R$ with increasing concentrations of K18. Flp-In-CHO cells ( 2000 cells/well) stably expressing WT or mutant $A_{3} R$ were exposed to forskolin $10 \mu \mathrm{M}$, IB-MECA and K18 at varying concentrations for 30 min and cAMP accumulation detected. A) Representative dose response curves are shown as mean $\pm$ SEM expressed as percentage maximum forskolin response (100 $\mu \mathrm{M})$. B) $\mathrm{plC}_{50}$ values for individual repeats including half-log concentration are shown as mean $\pm$ SEM C) Schild analysis of data represented in A/B.

Table 5. Antagonistic potency of K18 at $A_{3} R$ mutants. cAMP accumulation as measured in Flp-InCHO cells stably expressing WT or mutant $\mathrm{A}_{3} \mathrm{R}$ following stimulation with $10 \mu \mathrm{M}$ forskolin, varying concentrations of IB-MECA and +/-K18 at the indicated concentration.

|  | + DMSO |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\mathrm{plC}_{50}{ }^{\text {a }}$ | $\mathrm{E}_{\text {min }}{ }^{\text {b }}$ | Basal ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | True Basal ${ }^{\text {d }}$ | Span ${ }^{\text {e }}$ |
| WT | $10.64 \pm 0.1$ | $33.5 \pm 2.0$ | $64.7 \pm 1.8$ | $58.7 \pm 0.5$ | $31.2 \pm 2.6$ |
| L90A | $8.67 \pm 0.1^{* * * *}$ | $36.8 \pm 1.8$ | $69.5 \pm 1.7$ | $67.8 \pm 1.5^{* * * *}$ | $32.8 \pm 2.4$ |
| V169A | $11.23 \pm 0.1^{* * * *}$ | $29.5 \pm 1.6$ | $57.0 \pm 1.4^{* *}$ | $53.8 \pm 1.5^{* *}$ | $27.5 \pm 2.0$ |
| M177A | $7.64 \pm 0.1^{* * * *}$ | $38.0 \pm 2.2$ | $70.1 \pm 1.5$ | $66.7 \pm 1.3^{* * * *}$ | $32.1 \pm 2.6$ |
| 1249A | $10.67 \pm 0.1$ | $32.9 \pm 1.9$ | $61.0 \pm 1.6$ | $61.2 \pm 1.0$ | $32.4 \pm 1.6$ |
| L264A | $10.29 \pm 0.1^{*}$ | $38.4 \pm 1.7$ | $64.8 \pm 1.6$ | $68.8 \pm 1.3^{* * * *}$ | $26.5 \pm 2.2$ |
| V169E | $11.48 \pm 0.1^{* * * *}$ | $38.1 \pm 1.5$ | $66.1 \pm 2.1$ | $67.4 \pm 1.6^{* * *}$ | $28.1 \pm 2.4$ |
| + $0.1 \mu \mathrm{M} \mathrm{K18}$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| WT | $10.65 \pm 0.1$ | $38.7 \pm 0.9$ | $65.1 \pm 0.9$ | $64.2 \pm 0.9$ | $26.4 \pm 1.2$ |
| L90A | $8.00 \pm 0.2^{* * * *}$ | $49.1 \pm 1.6^{* * *}$ | $74.6 \pm 1.4^{* * * *}$ | $72.0 \pm 2.6$ | $25.5 \pm 2.1$ |
| V169A | $11.07 \pm 0.1$ ** | $29.6 \pm 1.3^{* * *}$ | $56.4 \pm 1.2^{* * *}$ | $54.1 \pm 2.3^{* *}$ | $26.8 \pm 1.7$ |
| M177A | $7.81 \pm 0.2^{* * * *}$ | $40.6 \pm 2.7$ | $71.9 \pm 1.9^{* *}$ | $70.9 \pm 3.4$ | $31.2 \pm 3.3$ |
| 1249A | $10.52 \pm 0.1$ | $31.1 \pm 1.8^{* *}$ | $62.6 \pm 1.3$ | $65.5 \pm 1.4$ | $31.5 \pm 2.1$ |
| L264A | $9.87 \pm 0.1^{* * * *}$ | $48.2 \pm 1.2^{* * *}$ | $79.1 \pm 0.9^{* * * *}$ | $77.3 \pm 2.2^{* * *}$ | $31.0 \pm 1.5$ |
| V169E | $11.21 \pm 0.1^{* * * *}$ | $39.7 \pm 1.0$ | $74.7 \pm 1.3^{* * * *}$ | $73.7 \pm 1.6^{*}$ | $35.0 \pm 1.6$ * |
| + 1 ¢M K18 |  |  |  |  |  |
| WT | $9.50 \pm 0.1$ | $42.4 \pm 1.1$ | $70.1 \pm 0.9$ | $64.4 \pm 1.5$ | $27.7 \pm 1.4$ |
| L90A | $6.80 \pm 0.2^{* * * *}$ | $49.6 \pm 2.6^{*}$ | $72.7 \pm 1.4$ | $69.5 \pm 3.0$ | $23.2 \pm 2.8$ |
| V169A | $10.49 \pm 0.1^{* * * *}$ | $30.4 \pm 1.1^{* * * *}$ | $67.4 \pm 1.0$ | $65.4 \pm 1.3$ | $37.1 \pm 1.3^{*}$ |
| M177A | $7.36 \pm 0.2^{* * * *}$ | $38.1 \pm 3.0$ | $71.1 \pm 1.9$ | $65.1 \pm 2.9$ | $33.0 \pm 3.4$ |
| 1249A | $9.86 \pm 0.1$ * | $30.9 \pm 1.7^{* * *}$ | $68.8 \pm 1.4$ | $71.9 \pm 2.4$ | $37.9 \pm 2.1^{* *}$ |
| L264A | $8.83 \pm 0.1^{* * * *}$ | $49.1 \pm 1.7$ | $83.1 \pm 0.9^{* * * *}$ | $79.3 \pm 2.0^{* * * *}$ | $34.0 \pm 1.9$ |
| V169E | $10.49 \pm 0.1^{* * * *}$ | $43.4 \pm 1.0$ | $81.1 \pm 0.9^{* * * *}$ | $78.8 \pm 1.2^{* * * *}$ | $37.7 \pm 1.4^{* *}$ |
| +10 $\mu \mathrm{M} \mathrm{K} 18$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| WT | $8.33 \pm 0.2$ | $45.8 \pm 1.6$ | $72.1 \pm 1.1$ | $68.8 \pm 1.5$ | $26.3 \pm 1.8$ |
| L90A | $5.58 \pm 0.4^{* * * *}$ | $55.4 \pm 6.8$ | $80.4 \pm 1.3^{* * *}$ | $73.6 \pm 2.1$ | $25.0 \pm 6.7$ |
| V169A | $9.55 \pm 0.1^{* * * *}$ | $32.6 \pm 1.0$ * | $71.1 \pm 0.7$ | $68.6 \pm 0.7$ | $38.6 \pm 1.1^{*}$ |
| M177A | $6.31 \pm 0.3^{* * * *}$ | $44.7 \pm 4.0$ | $72.0 \pm 1.5$ | $67.7 \pm 2.5$ | $27.4 \pm 4.1$ |
| 1249A | $8.69 \pm 0.2^{*}$ | $36.1 \pm 2.3$ | $69.3 \pm 2.5$ | $72.9 \pm 1.2$ | $33.2 \pm 2.5$ |
| L264A | $7.94 \pm 0.1$ | $52.6 \pm 1.7$ | $87.1 \pm 1.1^{* * * *}$ | $81.5 \pm 2.6^{* * *}$ | $34.5 \pm 1.9$ |
| V169E | $9.23 \pm 0.1^{* * *}$ | $43.9 \pm 1.1$ | $83.1 \pm 0.8^{* * * *}$ | $80.4 \pm 1.6^{* *}$ | $39.2 \pm 1.3^{*}$ |

${ }^{\text {a }}$ Negative logarithm of IB-MECA concentration required to produce a half-maximal response
${ }^{\mathrm{b}}$ Minimum cAMP accumulation of IB-MECA as $\% 100 \mu \mathrm{M}$ forskolin. The lower plateau of the fitted sigmoidal dose response curve
${ }^{\text {c }}$ The upper plateau of the fitted sigmoidal dose response curve corresponding $\% 100 \mu \mathrm{M}$ forskolin
${ }^{d}$ The cAMP accumulation when stimulated with $10 \mu \mathrm{M}$ forskolin only + DMSO/K18 at the indicated concentration
${ }^{\text {e}}$ The difference between $\mathrm{E}_{\text {min }}$ and basal signalling
Statistical significance ( ${ }^{*}, p<0.05$; ${ }^{* *}, p<0.01$; ${ }^{* * *}, p<0.001$; ${ }^{* * * *}, p<0.0001$ ) compared to WT IB-MECA stimulation $+/-$ K18 at each indicated concentration was determined by one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's post-test.

## References

Alexander, S.P., Kelly, E., Marrion, N.V., Peters, J.A., Faccenda, E., Harding, S.D., et al. (2017). THE CONCISE GUIDE TO PHARMACOLOGY 2017/18: Overview. British Journal of Pharmacology 174 Suppl 1: S1-S16.

Arruda, M.A., Stoddart, L.A., Gherbi, K., Briddon, S.J., Kellam, B., and Hill, S.J. (2017). A Nonimaging High Throughput Approach to Chemical Library Screening at the Unmodified Adenosine-A3 Receptor in Living Cells. Front Pharmacol 8: 908.

Bayly, C.I., Cieplak, P., Cornell, W.D., and Kollman, P.A. (1993). A Well-Behaved Electrostatic Potential Based Method Using Charge Restraints for Deriving Atomic Charges - the Resp Model. Journal of Physical Chemistry 97: 10269-10280.

Berendsen, H.J.C., Postma, J.P.M., van Gunsteren, W.F., DiNola, A., and Haak, J.R. (1984). Molecular dynamics with coupling to an external bath. Journal of Chemical Physics 81: 3684.

Carlsson, J., Yoo, L., Gao, Z.-G., Irwin, J.J., Shoichet, B.K., and Jacobson, K.A. (2010). Structure-based discovery of A2A adenosine receptor ligands. J. Med. Chem. 53: 3748-3755.

Carpenter, B., Nehmé, R., Warne, T., Leslie, A.G.W., and Tate, C.G. (2016). Structure of the adenosine $\mathrm{A}(2 \mathrm{~A})$ receptor bound to an engineered $G$ protein. Nature 536: 104-107.

Case, D.A., Babin, V., Berryman, J.T., Betz, R.M., Cai, Q., Cerutti, D.S., et al. (2014). AMBER 14 (University of California, San Francisco).

Chen, J.-F., Eltzschig, H.K., and Fredholm, B.B. (2013). Adenosine receptors as drug targets - what are the challenges? Nat Rev Drug Discov 12: 265-286.

Cheng, R.K.Y., Segala, E., Robertson, N., Deflorian, F., Dore, A.S., Errey, J.C., et al. (2017). Structures of Human A1 and A2A Adenosine Receptors with Xanthines Reveal Determinants of Selectivity. Structure 25: 1275-1285.e4.

Cheng, Y., and Prusoff, W.H. (1973). Relationship between the inhibition constant (K1) and the concentration of inhibitor which causes 50 per cent inhibition (150) of an enzymatic reaction. Biochem. Pharmacol. 22: 3099-3108.

Curtis, M.J., Alexander, S., Cirino, G., Docherty, J.R., George, C.H., Giembycz, M.A., et al. (2018). Experimental design and analysis and their reporting II: updated and simplified guidance for authors and peer reviewers. British Journal of Pharmacology 175: 987-993.

Darden, T., York, D., and Pedersen, L. (1993). Particle mesh Ewald: An N•log(N) method for Ewald sums in large systems. Journal of Chemical Physics 98: 10089.

Dickson, C.J., Madej, B.D., Skjevik, A.A., Betz, R.M., Teigen, K., Gould, I.R., et al. (2014). Lipid14: The Amber Lipid Force Field. J Chem Theory Comput 10: 865-879.

Dore, A.S., Robertson, N., Errey, J.C., Ng, I., Hollenstein, K., Tehan, B., et al. (2011). Structure of the adenosine $A(2 A)$ receptor in complex with ZM241385 and the xanthines XAC and caffeine. Structure 19: 1283-1293.

Draper-Joyce, C.J., Khoshouei, M., Thal, D.M., Liang, Y.-L., Nguyen, A.T.N., Furness, S.G.B., et al. (2018). Structure of the adenosine-bound human adenosine A1 receptor-Gi complex. Nature 558: 559-563.

Eldridge, M.D., Murray, C.W., Auton, T.R., Paolini, G.V., and Mee, R.P. (1997). Empirical scoring functions: I. The development of a fast empirical scoring function to estimate the binding affinity of ligands in receptor complexes. J. Comput. Aided Mol. Des. 11: 425-445.

Essmann, U., Lalith Perera, Berkowitz, M.L., Darden, T., Lee, H., and Pedersen, L.G. (1995). A smooth particle mesh Ewald method. Journal of Chemical Physics 103: 8577.

Floris, M., Sabbadin, D., Medda, R., Bulfone, A., and Moro, S. (2012). Adenosiland: walking through adenosine receptors landscape. Eur J Med Chem 58: 248-257.

Fredholm, B.B., Ijzerman, A.P., Jacobson, K.A., Linden, J., and Mueller, C.E. (2011). International Union of Basic and Clinical Pharmacology. LXXXI. Nomenclature and Classification of Adenosine Receptors-An Update. Pharmacol. Rev. 63: 1-34.

Frisch, M.J., Trucks, G.W., Schlegel, H.B., Scuseria, G.E., Rob, M.A., and Pople, J.A. (2003). Gaussian 03 (Wallingford, CT).

Gao, Z.-G., Chen, A., Barak, D., Kim, S.-K., Müller, C.E., and Jacobson, K.A. (2002). Identification by site-directed mutagenesis of residues involved in ligand recognition and activation of the human A3 adenosine receptor. J. Biol. Chem. 277: 19056-19063.

Gessi, S., Merighi, S., Varani, K., Leung, E., Mac Lennan, S., and Borea, P.A. (2008). The A3 adenosine receptor: an enigmatic player in cell biology. Pharmacol. Ther. 117: 123-140.

Giraldo, J., Serra, J., Roche, D., and Rovira, X. (2007). Assessing receptor affinity for inverse agonists: Schild and Cheng-Prusoff methods revisited. Curr Drug Targets 8: 197-202.

Glukhova, A., Thal, D.M., Nguyen, A.T., Vecchio, E.A., Jörg, M., Scammells, P.J., et al. (2017). Structure of the Adenosine A1 Receptor Reveals the Basis for Subtype Selectivity. Cell 168: 867-877.e13.

Graham, S., Combes, P., Crumiere, M., Klotz, K.N., and Dickenson, J.M. (2001). Regulation of $\mathrm{p} 42 / \mathrm{p} 44$ mitogen-activated protein kinase by the human adenosine $\mathrm{A}(3)$ receptor in transfected CHO cells. Eur. J. Pharmacol. 420: 19-26.

Haeusler, D., Grassinger, L., Fuchshuber, F., Hoerleinsberger, W.J., Hoftberger, R., Leisser, I., et al. (2015). Hide and seek: a comparative autoradiographic in vitro investigation of the adenosine A3 receptor. Eur. J. Nucl. Med. Mol. Imaging 42: 928-939.

Harding, S.D., Sharman, J.L., Faccenda, E., Southan, C., Pawson, A.J., Ireland, S., et al. (2018). The IUPHAR/BPS Guide to PHARMACOLOGY in 2018: updates and expansion to encompass the new guide to IMMUNOPHARMACOLOGY. Nucleic Acids Res. 46: D1091D1106.

Homeyer, N., and Gohlke, H. (2013). FEW: A workflow tool for free energy calculations of ligand binding. J Comput Chem 34: 965-973.

Humphrey, W., Dalke, A., and Schulten, K. (1996). VMD: Visual molecular dynamics. Journal of Molecular Graphics \& Modelling 14: 33-38.

Jaakola, V.-P., Griffith, M.T., Hanson, M.A., Cherezov, V., Chien, E.Y.T., Lane, J.R., et al. (2008). The 2.6 angstrom crystal structure of a human A2A adenosine receptor bound to an antagonist. Science 322: 1211-1217.

Jones, G., Willett, P., Glen, R.C., Leach, A.R., and Taylor, R. (1997). Development and validation of a genetic algorithm for flexible docking. J. Mol. Biol. 267: 727-748.

Jorgensen, W.L., Chandrasekhar, J., Madura, J.D., Impey, R.W., and Klein, M.L. (1983). Comparison of Simple Potential Functions for Simulating Liquid Water. Journal of Chemical Physics 79: 926-935.

Katritch, V., Jaakola, V.-P., Lane, J.R., Lin, J., ljzerman, A.P., Yeager, M., et al. (2010). Structure-Based Discovery of Novel Chemotypes for Adenosine A(2A) Receptor Antagonists. J. Med. Chem. 53: 1799-1809.

Klotz, K.N., Hessling, J., Hegler, J., Owman, C., Kull, B., Fredholm, B.B., et al. (1998). Comparative pharmacology of human adenosine receptor subtypes - characterization of stably transfected receptors in CHO cells. Naunyn Schmiedebergs Arch. Pharmacol. 357: 19.

Knight, A., Hemmings, J.L., Winfield, I., Leuenberger, M., Frattini, E., Frenguelli, B.G., et al. (2016). Discovery of Novel Adenosine Receptor Agonists That Exhibit Subtype Selectivity. J. Med. Chem. 59: 947-964.

Kolb, P., Phan, K., Gao, Z.-G., Marko, A.C., Sali, A., and Jacobson, K.A. (2012). Limits of Ligand Selectivity from Docking to Models: In Silico Screening for A(1) Adenosine Receptor Antagonists. PLoS ONE 7(11): e49910

Koynova, R., and Caffrey, M. (1998a). Phases and phase transitions of the phosphatidylcholines. Biochim. Biophys. Acta 1376: 91-145.

Lagarias, P., Vrontaki, E., Lambrinidis, G., Stamatis, D., Convertino, M., Ortore, G., et al. (2018). Discovery of Novel Adenosine Receptor Antagonists through a Combined Structureand Ligand-Based Approach Followed by Molecular Dynamics Investigation of Ligand Binding Mode. J Chem Inf Model 58: 794-815.

Lebon, G., Edwards, P.C., Leslie, A.G.W., and Tate, C.G. (2015). Molecular Determinants of CGS21680 Binding to the Human Adenosine A2A Receptor. Mol. Pharmacol. 87: 907-915.

Lebon, G., Warne, T., Edwards, P.C., Bennett, K., Langmead, C.J., Leslie, A.G.W., et al. (2011). Agonist-bound adenosine A2A receptor structures reveal common features of GPCR activation. Nature 474: 521-525.

Lenselink, E.B., Beuming, T., van Veen, C., Massink, A., Sherman, W., van Vlijmen, H.W.T., et al. (2016). In search of novel ligands using a structure-based approach: a case study on the adenosine A2A receptor. J. Comput. Aided Mol. Des. 30: 863-874.

Liu, W., Chun, E., Thompson, A.A., Chubukov, P., Xu, F., Katritch, V., et al. (2012). Structural basis for allosteric regulation of GPCRs by sodium ions. Science 337: 232-236.

Maier, J.A., Martinez, C., Kasavajhala, K., Wickstrom, L., Hauser, K.E., and Simmerling, C. (2015). ff14SB: Improving the Accuracy of Protein Side Chain and Backbone Parameters from ff99SB. J Chem Theory Comput 11: 3696-3713.

Massova, I., and Kollman, P.A. (2000). Combined molecular mechanical and continuum solvent approach (MM-PBSA/GBSA) to predict ligand binding. Perspectives in Drug Discovery and Design 18: 113-135.

May, L.T., Bridge, L.J., Stoddart, L.A., Briddon, S.J., and Hill, S.J. (2011). Allosteric interactions across native adenosine-A3 receptor homodimers: quantification using single- cell ligand-binding kinetics. Faseb J. 25: 3465-3476.

Meng, X.-Y., Zhang, H.-X., Mezei, M., and Cui, M. (2011). Molecular Docking: A Powerful Approach for Structure-Based Drug Discovery. Curr Comput Aided Drug Des 7: 146-157.

Miller, B.R.I., McGee, T.D.J., Swails, J.M., Homeyer, N., Gohlke, H., and Roitberg, A.E. (2012). MMPBSA.py: An Efficient Program for End-State Free Energy Calculations. J Chem Theory Comput 8 : 3314-3321.

Miwatashi, S., Arikawa, Y., Matsumoto, T., Uga, K., Kanzaki, N., Imai, Y.N., et al. (2008). Synthesis and biological activities of 4-phenyl-5-pyridyl-1,3-thiazole derivatives as selective adenosine A3 antagonists. Chem. Pharm. Bull. 56: 1126-1137.

Motulsky, H.J. Interpreting the extra sum-of squares $F$ test. https://www.graphpad.com/guides/prism/7/curvefitting/index.htm?reg_interpreting_comparison_of_mod_2.htm

Motulsky, H.J., and Mahan, L.C. (1984). The Kinetics of Competitive Radioligand Binding Predicted by the Law of Mass-Action. Mol. Pharmacol. 25: 1-9.

Okamura, T., Kurogi, Y., Hashimoto, K., Sato, S., Nishikawa, H., Kiryu, K., et al. (2004). Structure-activity relationships of adenosine A3 receptor ligands: new potential therapy for the treatment of glaucoma. Bioorg. Med. Chem. Lett. 14: 3775-3779.

Pettersen, E.F., Goddard, T.D., Huang, C.C., Couch, G.S., Greenblatt, D.M., Meng, E.C., et al. (2004). UCSF chimera - A visualization system for exploratory research and analysis. J Comput Chem 25: 1605-1612.

Ryckaert, J.-P., Ciccotti, G., and Berendsen, H.J.C. (1977). Numerical integration of the Cartesian Equations of Motion of a System with Constraints: Molecular Dynamics of nAlkanes. Journal of Computational Physics 23: 327-341.

Schild, H.O. (1947). pA, a new scale for the measurement of drug antagonism. Br J Pharmacol Chemother 2: 189-206.

Schulte, G., and Fredholm, B.B. (2002). Signaling pathway from the human adenosine A(3) receptor expressed in Chinese hamster ovary cells to the extracellular signal-regulated kinase 1/2. Mol. Pharmacol. 62: 1137-1146.

Sexton, P.M., and Christopoulos, A. (2018). To Bind or Not to Bind: Unravelling GPCR Polypharmacology. Cell 172: 636-638.

Stamatis, D, Lagarias, P, Barkan, K, Vrontaki, E, Ladds G and Antonios Kolocouris. Structural Characterization of Agonist Binding to A3 Adenosine Receptor through Biomolecular Simulations and Mutagenesis Experiments. Submitted to J. Med. Chem

Stoddart, L.A., Johnstone, E.K.M., Wheal, A.J., Goulding, J., Robers, M.B., Machleidt, T., et al. (2015). Application of BRET to monitor ligand binding to GPCRs. Nat. Methods 12: 661663.

Stoddart, L.A., Kilpatrick, L.E., and Hill, S.J. (2018). NanoBRET Approaches to Study Ligand Binding to GPCRs and RTKs. Trends Pharmacol. Sci. 39: 136-147.

Stoddart, L.A., Vernall, A.J., Denman, J.L., Briddon, S.J., Kellam, B., and Hill, S.J. (2012). Fragment screening at adenosine-A(3) receptors in living cells using a fluorescence-based binding assay. Chem. Biol. 19: 1105-1115.

Sykes, D.A., Stoddart, L.A., Kilpatrick, L.E., and Hill, S.J. (2019). Binding kinetics of ligands acting at GPCRs. Mol. Cell. Endocrinol. 485: 9-19.

Tunçer, S., Gurbanov, R., Sheraj, I., Solel, E., Esenturk, O., and Banerjee, S. (2018). Low dose dimethyl sulfoxide driven gross molecular changes have the potential to interfere with various cellular processes. Sci Rep 8: 14828.

Verdonk, M.L., Chessari, G., Cole, J.C., Hartshorn, M.J., Murray, C.W., Nissink, J.W.M., et al. (2005). Modeling water molecules in protein-ligand docking using GOLD. J. Med. Chem. 48: 6504-6515.

Wang, J.M., Wolf, R.M., Caldwell, J.W., Kollman, P.A., and Case, D.A. (2004). Development and testing of a general amber force field. J Comput Chem 25: 1157-1174.

Xu, F., Wu, H., Katritch, V., Han, G.W., Jacobson, K.A., Gao, Z.-G., et al. (2011). Structure of an agonist-bound human A2A adenosine receptor. Science 332: 322-327.

Zhang, G., Liu, Y., Ruoho, A.E., and Hurley, J.H. (1997). Structure of the adenylyl cyclase catalytic core. Nature 386: 247-253.

Regression with Prism 8: ‘Ambiguous’. https://www.graphpad.com/guides/prism/8/curvefitting/reg_analysischeck_nonlin_ambiguous.htm

