

## Review

# Adenosine Type A<sub>2A</sub> Receptor in Peripheral Cell from Patients with Alzheimer's Disease, Vascular Dementia, and Idiopathic Normal Pressure Hydrocephalus: A New/Old Potential Target

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**Abstract.** As the European population gets older, the incidence of neurological disorders increases with significant impact on social costs. Despite differences in disease etiology, several brain disorders in the elderly (e.g., Alzheimer's disease, vascular dementia, normal pressure hydrocephalus) share dementia as a common clinical feature. The current treatment for the majority of these diseases is merely symptomatic and does not modify the course of the illness. Symptoms of normal pressure hydrocephalus are the only ones that can be modified if they are recognized in time and treated appropriately. Therefore, an important clinical strategy may be disclosed by pathogenic pathways that can be modified and to find drugs that can slow down or even arrest disease progression. Possibly a way to answer this question could be by re-examining all the molecules which have so far succeeded in improving many aspects of cognitive deterioration in some neurodegenerative conditions, that were not considered because of controversial opinions. The main purpose of this summary is to further substantiate the hypothesis that the pathway of adenosine type A<sub>2A</sub> receptor could be used as a potential target to develop new/old therapeutic strategies.

**Keywords:** Adenosine, adenosine receptors, elderly, neurodegeneration

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Up to one billion people worldwide suffer from brain diseases, which include neurological disorders. In Europe, brain disease represents 35% of all diseases affecting 179 million patients and costing more than 800 billion euro per annum, which is more

cardiovascular disease and cancer combined [1]. As the European population gets older, the incidence of neurological disorders increases creating an enormous problem for social costs. Despite differences in disease etiology, several brain disorders in the elderly [e.g., Alzheimer's disease (AD), vascular dementia (VaD), normal pressure hydrocephalus (NPH)] share dementia as common clinical symptom [2]. This leads us to believe that there could be a common pathological pathway in different brain diseases.

The current treatment for the majority of these diseases is merely symptomatic and does not modify the course of the illness. NPH symptoms are the only ones that we can modify if they are recognized in time and treated appropriately [3].

Therefore, it is crucial to find pathogenic pathways that can be modified and to be able to test drugs that can slow down or even arrest disease progression.

Possibly a way to answer this question could be by re-examining all the molecules which have so far succeeded in improving many aspects of cognitive deterioration in some neuropathological conditions that were not considered because of controversial opinions.

## ADENOSINE

Many epidemiological studies showed that the usual consumption of moderate quantities of caffeine produces long-lasting benefits to memory function in healthy brains [4]. Such benefits include the reduction of both memory decline caused by aging and the risk of developing dementia and AD, suggesting a potential therapeutic use of caffeine. But where do the beneficial effects of caffeine come from?

Currently, the beneficial effects triggered on the brain by methylxanthine caffeine (1,3,7-trimethylxanthine) seems to be related to structural similarities between the compound itself and an endogenously produced molecule known as adenosine.

ATP (adenosine triphosphate) is not only the principal and universal cellular energetic compound, but it can also be released into the extracellular medium where it acts as a signaling molecule [5]. Almost every synaptic and secretory vesicle contains ATP, which can be stored with other classic neurotransmitters such as GABA or glutamate, or alone in ATP-only vesicles. ATP levels are usually very low in extracellular medium, but they rapidly increase during pathological conditions such as inflammation or cell

death. ATP can act as either sole transmitter or as co-transmitter.

ATP can be released from neurons and glial cells in an uncontrolled manner or via vesicular release. After its release, ATP is rapidly degraded into adenosine 5'-diphosphate (ADP), adenosine 5'-monophosphate (AMP), and adenosine (Ado) [5, 6].

## ADENOSINE RECEPTORS

The physiological responses to Ado take place through the binding and the activation of one or more of the trans-membrane high-affinity A<sub>1</sub> (A<sub>1</sub>R) or A<sub>2A</sub> (A<sub>2A</sub>R), low-affinity A<sub>2B</sub>, or low-abundance A<sub>3</sub> receptors [7].

These G-protein coupled receptors regulate the second messenger cAMP in opposite directions; while A<sub>1</sub> and A<sub>3</sub> receptors are inhibitory G<sub>i</sub>-coupled, A<sub>2A</sub> and A<sub>2B</sub> receptors are excitatory G<sub>s</sub>-coupled, thereby decreasing and increasing cAMP levels, respectively [8, 9]. The activation of these receptors can also modulate Ca<sup>2+</sup> channels and the phospholipase C pathway.

Through these actions and by modulating both the release and the uptake of different neurotransmitters, the balance between the activation of adenosine A<sub>1</sub>R and A<sub>2A</sub>R allows the fine-tuning of synaptic transmission and plasticity in the hippocampus [9].

In particular, we can find A<sub>2A</sub>R in a wide variety of tissues, including the nervous system and the peripheral immune system, where they are expressed at different levels: from significantly high levels in neurons and peripheral cells (lymphocytes and neutrophils) to lower levels in glial cells [7].

The different levels of expression of A<sub>2A</sub>R in different tissues are consistent with the sophisticated, multifaceted neurochemical, and molecular effects of the Ado system. On the basis of *in vitro* [10, 11] and *in vivo* [12] studies, it has become clear that A<sub>2A</sub>R, through complex mechanisms which are still poorly understood [13–15], plays a critical role in the modulation of inflammatory reactions, influencing functional outcome in a wide spectrum of pathologies including brain diseases [16, 17].

Considering data of gene expression and receptor densities obtained by our group [18–20], the main purpose of this summary is to further substantiate the hypothesis that the pathway of A<sub>2A</sub>R could be used to help stratify elderly patients and as a potential target to develop new/old therapeutic strategies.

## *A<sub>2A</sub>R in brain diseases*

A<sub>2A</sub>R could play a key role in different pathological conditions; in particular we decided to focus on AD, VaD, and idiopathic NPH (iNPH) because these are the most frequently encountered in our clinical practice.

### *a) Alzheimer's disease*

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is the most common age related progressive neurodegenerative disorder and the primary cause of dementia in the elderly [21].

The characteristic clinical presentation of AD is a progressive loss of memory and specific cognitive function, ultimately leading to the loss of independence and death. The hallmark neuropathological changes in AD are neuritic plaques (amyloid- $\beta$  (A $\beta$ ) deposition), neurofibrillary tangles (tauopathy), and neuronal loss most prominent in specific temporal, parietal, and frontal regions of the brain. Numerous studies support the hypothesis that AD pathology is more complex than A $\beta$  and tau accumulation, indicating the involvement of inflammation [22, 23], prionopathy [24], oxidative stress [25], and metabolic abnormalities [26, 27] in the brain.

The blockade of adenosine A<sub>2A</sub>R affords neuroprotection against chronic noxious brain insults [28].

It was also recently shown that A<sub>2A</sub> receptor antagonists can prevent memory impairment in animal models of aging [29] and AD [30, 31].

Indeed, several longitudinal studies support the inverse relationship between caffeine consumption and both decreased memory impairment associated with aging [32] as well as reduced risk of developing AD [33, 34] and generally dementia [35], showing also an improvement in psychomotor speed and verbal memory performance in non demented elderly population [36, 37], less decline in verbal retrieval and visuospatial memory [38], and less neuropathological lesions at death [39].

Interestingly subjects with plasma caffeine level greater than 1200 ng/ml at onset were associated with stable MCI and no conversion to dementia during the 2–4 years follow-up examination [35].

Several studies suggest that adenosine receptors change their pattern of localization and density in affected brain regions. Postmortem analyses of the frontal cortex of AD patients showed that the total number and levels of A<sub>2A</sub>R, but also A<sub>1</sub>R, are significantly increased in either early or advanced stages of the disease.

In particular, the blockade of adenosine A<sub>2A</sub>R receptors, which have a synaptic localization in the hippocampus [40], prevents A $\beta$  induced amnesia, as well as A<sub>2A</sub>R antagonists prevent A $\beta$ -induced toxicity in cultured neurons [41]. In addition, oral administration of a selective A<sub>2A</sub>R antagonist improves spatial memory and reduces tau hyperphosphorylation in tau mice. These findings support the concept of direct effects of A<sub>2A</sub>R on neurons to control their susceptibility to neurotoxic stimuli.

Alternatively, A<sub>2A</sub>R might control the apoptotic machinery in neurons and other types of cells in the brain, in a manner similar to the control by A<sub>2A</sub>R of apoptosis in PC12 cells or in neutrophils [28].

Of interest, there are currently five concurring hypothesis to explain the robust neuroprotective effects afforded by A<sub>2A</sub>R in noxious brain conditions in adult animals: (1) presynaptic control of glutamate release; (2) control of astrocytosis and of glutamate uptake and release by astrocytes; (3) direct control of neuronal viability by interference with pathways of cell death; (4) control of microglia reactivity; (5) control of the reactivity of infiltrating lymphoid cells [28].

It is now well established that especially during the earliest phases of AD, inflammation is a predominant event, and that activation of the adenosine system through A<sub>2A</sub>R agonism can lead to the downregulation of the inflammatory response [42] as well as the prevention of A $\beta$ -induced synaptotoxicity by promoting the release of interleukin-10 (IL-10), the major anti-inflammatory cytokine, by resident cells. Another critical aspect pointing to the use of adenosine receptor agonists is that AD patients show impaired signaling by the neurotrophin molecule brain derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF), and that A<sub>2A</sub>R activation is critical for both BDNF-dependent and independent hippocampal synaptic transmission, plasticity, and long term potentiation. Based on the "bidirectional effect" of A<sub>2A</sub>R activation and inhibition proposed by Dai and Zhou [43], different stages of the pathological process as well as the route of administration may significantly impact the efficacy of treatment with either agonists or antagonists for adenosine receptors. The apparently paradoxical use of two oppositely acting ligands to treat the same neurodegenerative condition suggests that factors such as dosage, drug delivery method, state of disease progression, and extracellular concentrations of potential excitotoxic transmitters might determine similar cellular responses to opposite pharmacological treatments. More specifically, it seems that the

230 protection afforded by A<sub>2A</sub>R agonists against AD  
231 is transient but effective during the earliest phases  
232 of the disease, and it is mainly achieved through  
233 a stimulatory effect on the release and production  
234 of anti-inflammatory cytokines by resident glial and  
235 peripheral immune cells. Conversely, both prophylactic  
236 and long-term neuroprotective effects of caffeine  
237 and/or A<sub>2A</sub>R antagonists are for the most attributable  
238 to inhibition of reactive oxygen species activity, tau  
239 pathology and A $\beta$  production by neuronal cells [44].

240 Moreover, the role of A<sub>2A</sub>R as a neuromodulator  
241 as well as homeostatic control in the brain to  
242 integrate dopamine, glutamate and BDNF signaling  
243 and to modulate synaptic plasticity in brain regions  
244 relevant to learning and memory, provides the molecular  
245 and cellular bases for A<sub>2A</sub>R control of cognition  
246 [45].

#### 247 *b) Vascular dementia*

248 In elderly patients there is an increased likelihood  
249 of other neuropathological abnormalities including  
250 cerebrovascular lesions [46–48]. Over the last years,  
251 there has been increasing evidence that the previously  
252 held sharp distinction between AD and VaD may not  
253 be so clear-cut, especially in old age [2].

254 VaD is the second most common cause of dementia  
255 after AD. The diagnosis of VaD is based on a number  
256 of criteria: cognitive deficits, history of stroke and/or  
257 focal vascular neurological deficits, and temporal  
258 association between stroke and onset of dementia  
259 [49]. VaD arises as a consequence of ischemic insults  
260 such as hemorrhage and hypoperfusion that trigger  
261 neurodegeneration by depriving nerve cells of oxygen  
262 and glucose [50, 51]. Such deprivation results in  
263 the depletion of nerve cell energy supplies, leading to  
264 membrane depolarization, followed by an excessive  
265 release of glutamate which activates the N-methyl-D-  
266 aspartate receptor (NMDAR). This allows the influx  
267 of toxic levels of Ca<sup>2+</sup> into nerve cells, which, in turn,  
268 activates intracellular calcium-dependent enzymes  
269 [52, 53].

270 One of the main adaptive mechanisms in response  
271 to hypoxia/ischemia is the cellular activation of  
272 adenosine A<sub>1</sub>R which inhibits excessive excitatory  
273 synaptic transmission. On the contrary, adenosine  
274 A<sub>2A</sub>R contributes to excessive excitotoxicity.

275 A<sub>2A</sub>R antagonists are protective against ischemic  
276 damage in different animal model of ischemia administered  
277 both preischemia and after hypoxia/ischemia.

278 This ability is largely attributed to the control of  
279 excessive glutamatergic transmission and of the ensuing  
280 acute excitotoxicity after ischemia [54].

281 A further mechanism by which A<sub>2A</sub>R antagonism  
282 is protective may be due to the capability of  
283 increasing GABA extracellular concentration during  
284 ischemia. The major part of excitatory glutamatergic  
285 innervation is modulated by inhibitory GABA  
286 releasing interneurons. Potentiation of GABAergic  
287 synaptic transmission has neuroprotective effects in  
288 several experimental models of cerebral ischemia  
289 [55] and evidence shows that selective A<sub>2A</sub>R stimulation  
290 decreases ischemia-evoked GABA outflow  
291 [56, 57] and enhances GABA transport into nerve  
292 terminals.

293 Neuroprotective strategies with antagonists of  
294 adenosine A<sub>2A</sub>R are aimed at targeting the brain  
295 parenchyma to antagonize excitotoxicity and ensuing  
296 production of harmful molecular events responsible  
297 for acute brain damage. The limit of such strategies  
298 is that these drugs are effective if administered in the  
299 first 4 hours after ischemia (in about the same time-  
300 window offered by clot removing therapies) [54].

301 In an apparent paradoxical manner, also adenosine  
302 A<sub>2A</sub>R agonists were found protective under  
303 hypoxia/ischemia.

304 In the hours and days after ischemia, adenosine  
305 A<sub>2A</sub>R located on vascular and blood cells may be the  
306 targets of agonist drugs aimed at dampening vascular  
307 adhesion signals and neuroinflammation [54].

308 Indeed, adenosine acting on A<sub>2A</sub>R on endothelial  
309 cells of brain vessels is implicated in cerebral blood  
310 flow regulation as a vasodilator agent, thus adenosine  
311 A<sub>2A</sub>R agonists might favor brain reperfusion after  
312 ischemia [58].

313 Moreover, a bulk of evidences indicates that  
314 peripheral effects on A<sub>2A</sub>R located on blood cells  
315 greatly account for protective effects of adenosine  
316 A<sub>2A</sub>R agonists after ischemia. In fact, the A<sub>2A</sub>R  
317 is expressed both on cells of innate (microglia,  
318 macrophages, mast cells, monocytes, dendritic cells,  
319 neutrophils) and on adaptive (lymphocytes) immunity  
320 [59].

321 Finally, A<sub>2A</sub>R activation is known to reduce  
322 ischemia-induced rolling, adhesion, and transmigration  
323 of various peripheral inflammatory cells (such as  
324 lymphocytes, neutrophils) [59].

#### 325 *c) Idiopathic normal pressure hydrocephalus*

326 iNPH may be considered a treatable neurodegenerative  
327 disease, affecting predominately elderly people.  
328 It is caused by altered cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) reabsorption  
329 and metabolism affecting brain homeostasis. Increased CSF  
330 volume can result in the damage of brain tissue and several  
331 brain disturbances. iNPH is

332 manifested clinically as gait instability, urinary incon- 384  
333 tinence, and dementia [60]. It is important to mention 385  
334 that iNPH is the reason of about 5% of all dementia 386  
335 cases [60]. 387

336 The degenerative changes accompanying iNPH 388  
337 may be reversible if they are recognized early and 389  
338 treated properly. The early diagnosis of iNPH is dif- 390  
339 ficult because of various disease manifestations and 391  
340 overlap with other neurological disorders, which may 392  
341 also present the above-mentioned symptoms com- 393  
342 mon in elderly. It could be easily mistaken for other 394  
343 neurodegenerative disorders, which makes iNPH one 395  
344 of the important misdiagnosed diseases worldwide 396  
345 [61, 62].

346 The most frequent therapeutic approach to iNPH 397  
347 is the ventriculoperitoneal shunt insertion, connect- 398  
348 ing the brain ventricles to abdominal cavity, where 399  
349 the excessive CSF volume can be absorbed [63, 64]. 400  
350 CSF shunting can lead to partial or complete amelior- 401  
351 ation of the patient's state with full or partial return 402  
352 to pre-morbid social and health condition. Unfortun- 403  
353 ately, the effect of the shunt is not durable. Recent 404  
354 data showed that nearly half of the initially well 405  
355 treated iNPH patients eventually developed iNPH- 406  
356 related dementia within a 4.7 years median follow 407  
357 up. iNPH-related degenerative changes of the brain 408  
358 appear usually early in the course of the disease, 409  
359 stressing the role of timely diagnostics [65]. Diagn- 410  
360 osis at the early stage gives patients high probability of 411  
361 all symptoms disappearing after shunt insertion [64, 412  
362 66].

363 It has been hypothesized that cerebrovascular dis- 413  
364 eases could have a role in etiology of chronic 414  
365 hydrocephalus [67]. Moreover, many studies show a 415  
366 significantly increased prevalence of cardiovascular 416  
367 diseases and risk factors for vascular diseases in iNPH 417  
368 compared to healthy subjects [68]. So far contrasting 418  
369 data have been reported on inflammatory involvement 419  
370 in iNPH patients. Some studies suggest an alteration 420  
371 of immune system in this pathology [69], but other 421  
372 authors deny it [70]. 422

373 Since Ado system plays an important role 423  
374 both in vascular protection and in modulation of 424  
375 inflammatory reactions and neuroinflammation, it 425  
376 could be involved in the pathophysiology of iNPH 426  
377 disease. 427

378 It is interesting to note that the levels of many 428  
379 inflammatory molecules are different in iNPH 429  
380 than healthy subjects. Altered CSF levels of IL- 430  
381 4 and IL-10 [69], transforming growth factor 431  
382 (TGF)- $\beta$ 1, TGF- $\beta$  type II receptor, leucine-rich  $\alpha$ -2- 432  
383 glycoprotein [70], monocyte chemotactic protein-1 433

[69] and tumor necrosis factor- $\alpha$  were reported in 384  
iNPH patients. 385

In particular, elevated levels of CSF IL-10 were 386  
found in patients with iNPH [71], contrasting pub- 387  
lished lower levels in AD [72]. 388

IL-10 level decreases after shunt insertion and 389  
stabilizes at levels lower than 0.5 pg/ml for two years 390  
[71]. 391

Interestingly, activation of A<sub>2A</sub>R on both glial cells 392  
[73] and neurons [74] has been shown to increase 393  
IL-10 production. 394

## 395 PERIPHERAL CELLS TO STUDY BRAIN 396 397 DISORDERS

397 Nowadays we need to find a reliable, minimally 398  
398 invasive, and inexpensive biomarker for dementia. 399  
Given the limited availability of brain tissue, we need 400  
to find putative dementia biomarkers and genetic risk 401  
alleles from blood tests and CSF samples [75, 76]. 402

402 In particular peripheral blood mononuclear cells 403  
403 (PBMCs) reflect inflammatory mechanisms in a 404  
404 more specific way compared to the serum/plasma 405  
405 since these blood cells are a critical component of 406  
406 the immune system which provide defense against 407  
407 infection and respond to intruders. The lymphocyte 408  
408 population consists of CD4+ and CD8+ T cells, 409  
409 B cells and natural killer cells, CD14+ monocytes, 410  
410 basophils, neutrophils, eosinophils, and dendritic 411  
411 cells. PBMCs offer the advantage to study the molec- 412  
412 ular events associated with dementia development 413  
413 in the different stages of the disease, while stud- 414  
414 ies on post-mortem brain samples offer a picture 415  
415 of the end results of these processes, which do not 416  
416 necessarily reflect the mechanisms underlying dis- 417  
417 ease development. Moreover, PBMCs share much of 418  
418 the non-synaptic biochemical environment of neu- 419  
419 rons and contain the full complement of epigenetic 420  
420 enzymes and machinery, which are found in both neu- 421  
421 rons and peripheral nucleated cells, as in most other 422  
422 tissues. 423

423 Several differences have been shown in PBMCs 424  
424 from patients affected by dementia compared to 425  
425 sex- and age-matched PBMCs from normal indi- 426  
426 viduals. The differences include immunophenotype 427  
427 combined with pro-inflammatory cytokine produc- 428  
428 tion [77], transcriptional and epigenetic mechanisms 429  
429 [78, 79], and global DNA methylation [80]. These 430  
430 substantial evidences are in favor of the notion that 431  
431 PBMCs seem to directly participate to neuropatho- 432  
432 logical processes and provide a window into the 433  
433 central nervous system [76].

## A<sub>2A</sub>R IN PBMCS FROM PATIENTS WITH DIFFERENT BRAIN DISEASES

In light of these considerations, our group has investigated the A<sub>2A</sub>R pathway in PBMCS of AD, VaD, iNPH, and mild cognitive impairment (MCI), a stage in which patients have a greater cognitive decline than expected for their age and educational level [81]. MCI could be amnesic (aMCI), considered the preclinical state of AD, and multiple cognitive domain (mcdMCI) types.

Indeed, we analyzed the gene expression and receptor density of A<sub>2A</sub>R in PBMCS from above mentioned patients comparing to non-demented age- and gender-matched healthy controls with similar educational levels.

Interestingly, in PBMCS we found a significant linear increase in A<sub>2A</sub>R gene expression from iNPH, which showed the lowest values, to aMCI, which showed the highest values. Similarly, protein density was lower in mcdMCI, VaD, and iNPH than controls while a similar density was showed in aMCI, AD, and controls.

The lack of a strict correlation between mRNA levels and receptor densities could be due to the fact that we measured the steady state level of A<sub>2A</sub>R mRNA as well as the steady state level of receptor densities. We did not take into consideration the mechanisms that regulate these processes.

There could be some miRNAs-dependent mechanisms that could lead to a reduction of the translational levels of mRNAs [82]. At post-translational level the discrepancy observed between gene and protein expression could be explained by a quick protein degradation, preceded by some post-translational modifications, in order to have a transitory effect in response to a certain stimulus [83].

Moreover, A<sub>2A</sub>R is upregulated in the preclinical stage and in overt AD than controls. In particular we found higher A<sub>2A</sub>R levels in aMCI than AD supporting an involvement of the Ado system mainly in the early stages of this disease. These results seem to fit in with a previous demonstration that the increased expressions of A<sub>2A</sub>R in the brain cortex are mainly an early event in AD [84]. In aMCI, the highest A<sub>2A</sub>R levels could counterbalance the existing inflammation. Indeed, the activation of A<sub>2A</sub>R by agonists can lead to the downregulation of the inflammatory response [42], to reduce production of pro-inflammatory cytokines and chemokines and to increase production of the anti-inflammatory cytokines [85].

We also showed that A<sub>2A</sub>R expression is lower in VaD, mcdMCI, and in particular in iNPH than controls [19, 20]. This downregulation of A<sub>2A</sub>R may depend on the brain vascular alterations occurred in VaD and iNPH patients [20]. Indeed, the inhibition of A<sub>2A</sub>R by antagonists is protective against ischemic damage in different animal model of ischemia [54] and decreases infarct volumes after cerebral ischemia [86–90]. However, contrasting data have been reported so far on the beneficial/detrimental effects of A<sub>2A</sub>R on brain cells, indeed also the agonists of A<sub>2A</sub>R can protect the central nervous system against ischemia [17, 91].

Ultimately determining A<sub>2A</sub>R expression in PBMCS could contribute to the recognition of cases of aMCI among the heterogeneous group of MCI patients [18] and to the identification of VaD patients with moderate degree of sensitivity and specificity from a heterogeneous group composed of VaD and AD patients.

These results highlight the possible role of A<sub>2A</sub>R in differentiating a particular preclinical state of dementia and in distinguishing AD and VaD pathologies that are often closely associated in the elderly [19].

It can be concluded that A<sub>2A</sub>R may play an important and distinctive role in the onset of dementia in the elderly especially if similar differences will be confirmed in other neurological diseases.

Considering that there are already drugs active on adenosine receptors both in use in clinical practice and under development, we could speculate that A<sub>2A</sub>R may be a suitable target to study novel compounds with higher selectivity, oral bioavailability, stability *in vivo*, longer half-life, and better capability to cross the blood-brain barrier.

## DISCLOSURE STATEMENT

Authors' disclosures available online (<http://www.j-alz.com/manuscript-disclosures/16-0324r1>).

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