

CXCR2 chemokine receptor -a master regulator in cancer and physiology

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22 ABSTRACT

The understanding of the roles of chemokine receptor CXCR2 and its ligands in cancer, 23 inflammation and immunity has been strongly modified by recent findings. The contribution 24 of tissue-specific knockout of this receptor shows that it is involved in, among other things, 25 cancer, central nervous system function, metabolism, reproduction, Covid-19, and response 26 27 to circadian cycles. Moreover, the involvement of CXCR2 in neutrophil function has been revisited not only in physiology, but also for its major contribution to cancers. The recent 28 unfolding of a role for CXCR2 in numerous cancers has led to an extensive evaluation of 29 multiple CXCR2 antagonists in preclinical and clinical studies. In this review, we discuss the 30 potential of targeting CXCR2 for cancer treatment. 31

32

33 KEYWORDS

34 CXCR2, chemokine receptor, neutrophil, inflammation, cancer, glycosaminoglycan

35 Recent developments about CXCR2 function

Chemokines (see glossary), a large family of more than 40 members, are classified into four subfamilies according to the presence of cysteine residues in their N-terminal region (CCL, CXCL, XCL and CX3CL), which are acting through seven transmembrane G-coupled chemokine receptors (CXCR, CCR, XCR, CX3CR). Chemokines are involved in the communication between cells, both in paracrine and distant ways as they can travel through the circulation and cross tissue barriers. Chemokines can have both homeostatic and inflammatory functions [1, 2].

Among them, the chemokine receptor CXCR2 is expressed in diverse cell types - including 42 43 mainly neutrophils, and to a lesser extent, endothelial cells, macrophages, oligodendrocytes, neurons, neural crest-derived cells, and some cancer cells. It binds several ligands, which 44 45 allows some redundancy, but recent studies indicate that the phenotype of each chemokine is distinct and finetunes cellular responses that are also coupled to CXCR1 (see box 1 and Fig. 46 47 1 for basics about CXCR2). CXCR2 plays diverse roles in pathophysiology from combating bacterial and viral infections to development, blood vessel narrowing, diseases of several 48 organs including the heart, lung, liver and the brain, and in several cancer etiologies [2-5]. 49 50 The main functions described earlier focused on its pro-angiogenic role and its critical 51 function of chemotaxis of neutrophils. CXCR2 field has attracted recently a considerable 52 attention, leading to a major breakthrough in the understanding of the function of this 53 receptor, far beyond the initial expectations. In this review, we will summarize the recent 54 advances concerning CXCR2 function, including its novel physiological roles based on whole or tissue-specific knockout of Cxcr2, its involvement in neutrophil and hematopoietic stem 55 cell (HSC) action, in Covid-19 and in cancer, the latter being the most active field concerning 56 57 CXCR2. Finally, we discuss the latest advances in structure and function of CXCR2, and finish with the main achievements in targeting CXCR2. 58

59

60 Recent findings with KO of CXCR2 in physiology

In this section, we will summarize the major advances in CXCR2 function in physiology (Fig. 2, Key figure), based on whole and tissue specific *Cxcr2* KO animals, which are mainly related to central nervous system (CNS), pituitary, reproductive function and metabolism. The involvement of CXCR2 in cancer will be covered later. In mice, in addition to high expression in neutrophils, CXCR2 is differentially expressed in other cell types. Therefore, determining the exact role of CXCR2 in any specific tissue or cell compartment from *Cxcr2* knock-out mouse

or CXCR2 inhibitor experiments remains a challenge. It is also important to point out that Crelines intended to target specific cells are frequently less specific than expected and lead to unwanted deletion in other cell types, which requires caution with the interpretations in some models. A breakthrough came when Ransohoff's laboratory developed the *Cxcr2*^{fl/fl} mouse crossed with Mx-Cre mice, allowing induction of Cre-recombinase with polyinosinicpolycytidylic acid (poly I:C), and targeted disruption of Cxcr2 in neutrophils, leading to a defective migration of neutrophils in sterile peritonitis [6].

In the CNS, earlier work had shown that CXCR2 was mainly expressed in oligodendrocytes and 74 neutrophils. Cell-specific knock-out of *Cxcr2* in oligodendrocytes (PLP-CreER - *Cxcr2^{fl/fl}* mice) 75 enabled a better remyelination after induced experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis 76 (EAE) [7]. Interestingly, with the same model, there was no effect on the clinical severity of 77 78 multiple sclerosis (MS) symptoms after viral infection with the JHM strain of mouse hepatitis 79 virus [8]. However, mice with *Cxcr2* loss in oligodendroglia exhibited increased remyelination. Khaw et al. also reported that the targeted deletion of Cxcr2 in neutrophils (MRP8-CRE-80 *Cxcr2^{fl/fl}* orCxcr2 cKO mice) could protect against CNS neurodegeneration from heat-81 killed Mycobacterium tuberculosis and MOG35-55 peptide induced EAE [9]. Targeted deletion 82 of Cxcr2 in CD4+ T cells leads to reduced effects of type-B EAE, due to diminished CD4+ T- cell 83 migration into the spinal cord gray matter [10]. 84

The pituitary has been recently shown to be a site of CXCR2 action. This was discovered 85 following the observation that challenging Cxcr2-KO animals to chronic infections leads to 86 major reproductive defects in females including, alterations of mammary gland development, 87 reduced uterus size and altered functionality of the ovary with the absence of corpus luteum 88 [11]. Cxcr2-KO females are unable to cycle in these conditions due to altered levels of 89 90 circulating steroid hormones as well as pituitary hormones such as LH, FSH and PRL, resulting from a complete modification of the transcriptome of the pituitary gland that mimics 91 autoimmune hypophysitis, an inflammatory pituitary disease. 92

As with other types of infections, there are emerging studies concerning the link between
Covid-19 and CXCR2, which are described in Box 2.

The role of CXCR2 in regulating metabolism has been revisited using cell specific *Cxcr2 KO* mice. Initial reports had shown that *Cxcr2^{-/-}* mice are protected against obesity-induced insulin resistance and that antibodies against CXCL5, a CXCR2 ligand had the same effect [12].

98 Baragetti et al. showed that loss of Cxcr2 in neutrophils resulted in improved insulin response, 99 less weight gain, and reduced homing of neutrophils to the liver [13]. Mice with neutrophilspecific loss of Cxcr2 were protected from high-fat diet mediated aging. Cxcr2 is also acting 100 101 directly on adipose tissue, as Cxcr2 KO leads to a thinner skin in females but not males, due to 102 a reduced subcutaneous adipose layer and smaller adipocytes [14]. Adipocytes themselves express CXCR2 and this expression is higher than in pre-adipocytes. Moreover, in contrast to 103 the down regulation of CXCL5 observed during adipocyte differentiation [12], Kusuyama et al. 104 observed an up-regulation and a promoting effect of CXCL3 during the differentiation [15]. 105 106 CXCL3 promotes differentiation through an ERK (Extracellular signal-regulated kinase) and JNK 107 (c-Jun N-terminal kinase) activation of C/EBP β and δ .

108

109 The involvement of CXCR2 and its ligands in Cancer

110 CXCR2 has been demonstrated to play a key role in tumorigenesis through several routes: 1)

111 recruitment of myeloid-derived suppressor cells (MDSC) and tumor associated neutrophils

(TANs) into the pre-metastatic niche or into the tissues undergoing tumor initiation and
 progression; 2) direct autocrine effects on tumor growth; 3) effects on angiogenesis.

Here, we will summarize the main recent findings in each type of cancer. For reference to

earlier work on CXCR2 and its ligands in cancer, refer to the following reviews [2, 5].

Among all cell types, expression of CXCR2 is highest in neutrophils in both mice and human. As neutrophils have been shown to be essential in many of the recent studies involving CXCR2 in cancer, we have also covered the latest discoveries concerning the function of CXCR2 in neutrophils (Box 3) and hematopoietic stem cells (Box 4) in a non-cancer context, which are crucial to understand how this receptor can also act in cancer.

121

122 Breast cancer (BCa)

Early work had shown that aggressive **triple negative breast cancers (TNBC)** were expressing higher levels of CXCR2 ligands compared to luminal tumors and that breast epithelial tumor cells themselves produced high levels of CXCR2 ligands, including in particular CXCL1, CXCL2, CXCL5 and CXCL8. This overexpression of CXCR2 ligands in TNBC was due to the location of their genes in a narrow genomic cluster in 4q21 and leads to increased proliferation, metastasis and chemoresistance [16-18]. Interestingly, CXCR2 itself is mainly expressed by

129 neutrophils found in the tumor and is associated with more aggressive breast tumors, in 130 particular TNBC [19]. It is worth mentioning that to date, this is the only study that tested in parallel several anti-CXCR2 antibodies and correlated these results with in situ hybridization 131 (ISH) experiments, confirming a staining of granulocytes and not of tumor cells in BCa. There 132 is a general issue on the development of specific antibodies against chemokine receptors, and 133 unfortunately, the number of correctly validated antibodies, with adequate controls such as 134 knock out or knock in cells and combination with RNA data, remains low. Similarly, Rot et al. 135 have recently highlighted this issue concerning the decoy chemokine receptor ACKR1 and 136 137 additional controls were essential to confirm the lack of specificity of some antibodies [20].

The prognostic value of CXCR2 in BCa remains controversial. Boissière-Michot et al. showed 138 that low CXCR2 levels correlate with reduced immune infiltrate and poorer overall survival. In 139 contrast, TNBCs with higher CXCR2 levels are characterized by an increased immune infiltrate 140 141 and a better prognosis [21]. Other studies have shown that CXCR2 correlates with high grade BCa and worst prognosis, but the anti-CXCR2 antibody used was different and stained mostly 142 tumor cells [22], whereas other studies show that tumor cells express only low levels of CXCR2 143 144 RNA and protein [19]. However, the expression and activation of CXCR2 on breast cancer 145 tumor cells has been associated with increased stemness of the breast cancer cells [23].

Hadadi et al. showed in mixed model background FVB/C57BL/6 of Polyoma middle tumor
antigen (*PyMT*) mice, that exposing mice to jetlag increases cancer cell dissemination and lung
metastasis [24], reminding the potential of circadian cycle on neutrophils function. Though
the lung neutrophil levels in jetlagged compared to control mice were similar, lung metastasis
could be reduced by treating mice with the CXCR2 inhibitor SB265610.

151 Using a targeted *Cxcr2* deletion in myeloid cells in a C57BL/6 background (*Cxcr2 Mye*^{Δ/Δ} mice or LysM-Cre –Cxcr2^{fl/fl}), Yang et al. observed a significant reduction in orthotopic tumor growth 152 153 and outgrowth of BCa cells in a lung metastasis model compared to WT mice [25]. Tumors growing in $Cxcr2Mye^{\Delta/\Delta}$ mice exhibited significantly reduced MDSCs and increased 154 intratumoral CXCL11, which was shown to come from an increase in tumor infiltrating B1b 155 cells. The increased CXCL11 expression enhanced infiltration and activation of effector CD8+ 156 157 T cells. Interestingly, treatment of tumor-bearing mice with a CXCR1/CXCR2 antagonist (SX-158 682) also inhibited tumor growth, reduced intratumoral MDSCs, increased B1b and CD8+T cells in the TME, and in addition, enhanced the response to anti-PD-1 to reduce tumor growth. 159

160 In a different model of BCa, the transgenic mice PyMT, which spontaneously develop 161 mammary tumors, Timaxian et al. showed an increase in CXCR2 ligand in the mammary gland, and an increase of neutrophils in the tumor, the spleen and the circulation [26]. When PyMT 162 mice on FVB background were crossed with Pan-Cxcr2-KO mice (PyMT/ Cxcr2^{-/-} mice), 163 mammary tumor weight increased, as well as of lung metastasis [26]. Interestingly, they 164 observed a strong increase in the number of TANs in the mammary gland of PyMT/Cxcr2-/-165 mice compared to PyMT/Cxcr2 WT mice. RNAseq data revealed that mammary Cxcr2^{-/-} TAN 166 had a more pronounced TAN2 profile compared to WT TANs. In addition, Cxcr2^{-/-} TANs had 167 lost the ability to kill tumor cells, suggesting that Cxcr2^{-/-} TANs are favoring tumor growth. 168 Acharyya et al. did not observe an effective inhibition of lung metastasis when using CXCR2 169 170 inhibitor SB265610 with human BCa xenografts in athymic mice [27]. However, studies by Sharma showed that silencing CXCR2 in mouse breast cancer cell lines in a xenograft model 171 172 enhances tumor growth and metastasis [28]. The study by Romero-Moreno using the *PyMT*/FVB model, in an *ex vivo* setting [18], demonstrated that injection of the *PyMT* cells into 173 ex vivo bone cultures resulted in an increase of CXCL5 production that stimulates cancer cell 174 175 production and this could be reduced by treatment with the CXCR2 inhibitor SB225002 [18]. An additional link between CXCR2 and neutrophils in cancer has been proposed by Teijeira et 176 177 al. who showed that the treatment of neutrophils from healthy donors or of granulocytic-MDSCs isolated from the blood of cancer patients, with CXCR2 ligands induces **NETosis** [29]. 178 179 Mice xenografted with murine 4T1 breast cells show a strong splenomegaly with an increased 180 presence of CD11b⁺ Ly6G⁺ neutrophils in the tumor and in the circulation. There was also an 181 increased number of NETs in Ly6G⁺ stained areas of the tumor, but this was less evident in the 182 spleen. These data suggest that NETosis could reduce cytotoxic immunity mediated by CD8 T lymphocytes and natural killer cells (NK), by protecting tumor cells. These authors also show 183 184 that dual CXCR1/CXCR2 inhibitor repertaxin reduces NETs in the tumor.

The differences in terms of CXCR2 action between various BCa studies might be related to models themselves: targeted *Cxcr2* KO vs pan *Cxcr2* KO, mouse strain used (C57BI/6 versus FVB) and differences in *in vivo* model recapitulating the complete tumor onset in the mammary gland vs injection of various types of tumor cells in the tail vein leading to lung metastasis. Compared to other cancers, BCa might represent a unique case in which neutrophil CXCR2 is rather protective against primary tumor progression, but not lung metastasis, but the pro or anti-tumoral action of CXCR2 remains a matter of debate.

193 Prostate Cancer (PCa)

The major issue of PCa remains its hormone escape from anti-androgen-based therapies, even 194 with recently developed novel drugs and thus the appearance of castration-resistant (CR) 195 196 prostate cancers. Early work had shown that more aggressive prostate tumors produce higher levels of CXCR2 ligands such as CXCL5 and CXCL8 [30]. Lopez-Bujanda et al. showed that CXCL8 197 198 RNA levels decreased upon treating the androgen responsive LNCaP cell line with dihydrotestosterone, whereas it increased by the anti-androgen enzalutamide [31]. 199 200 Moreover, when comparing castration sensitive (CS) and resistant (CR) human prostate cell lines, they observed a higher production of CXCL8 by CR cell lines. In a setting of castration 201 resistance, they observed an increased recruitment of PMN-MDSCs that could be blocked with 202 an anti-CXCR2 antibody. However, CXCR2 blockade alone was ineffective for tumor growth, 203 204 but it could synergistically increase the potential of the immune checkpoint inhibitor anti-CTLA4 to delay the onset of castration resistance. 205

PCa patients with high CXCR2 or CXCR1 in tumors exhibit accelerated biochemical recurrence 206 207 (BCR). Ionizing radiations (IR) increase CXCL8 levels only in PTEN deficient PCa cells in vitro, whereas CXCR1 and CXCR2 were induced by IR, independently of PTEN status [32]. Silencing 208 209 of CXCR2 or CXCR1 alone had minimal effect of cell growth in vitro, whereas double silencing of CXCR1 and CXCR2 decrease the viability of PTEN-deficient tumor cells exposed to IR. In a 210 211 PCa xenograft model with the PTEN-deficient castration resistant C4-2 cell line, the CXCR2 212 inhibitor AZD5069 could reduce tumor growth, both in the absence and the presence of IR 213 treatment.

Li et al. have reported that the subunit of the SWI/SNF chromatin remodeling complex Arid1A levels were decreased in tumors of Pten^{pc-/-} compared to WT prostate [33]. The KO of *Arid1a* gene in *Pten^{pc-/-}* was sufficient to decrease survival and increase tumor growth in mice. PCa patients with low levels of ARID1A in the tumor displayed shorter recurrence free survival and higher levels of intra-tumoral CXCL2 and CXCL3. Blocking CXCR2 with SB225002 antagonist could abolish the enhanced growth of *Pten^{pc-/-} Arid1a^{pc-/-}* tumors as well as the elevation of PMN-MDSCs in tumors.

Several studies have also highlighted the potential role of CXCR2 in macrophage function of PCa. Di Mitri et al. observed that the tumors of murine prostate cancer model *Pten^{pc-/-} Trp53^{pc-}* /- mice were infiltrated by CD11b⁺ Ly6G⁻ F4/80⁺ TAMs that expressed CXCR2 at similar levels

224 as CD11b⁺ Ly6G⁺ F4/80⁻ TANs and their presence increased during tumor progression [34]. In 225 addition, there was an increase of CXCL1, CXCL2 and CXCL5 levels in the tumor. The treatment of BM derived macrophages with CXCL2 polarized them towards anti-inflammatory 226 macrophages characterized by high expression of arginase and CD206 and the ability to 227 suppress CD8⁺ T lymphocytes proliferation. In addition, CXCR2 levels were increased in BM 228 derived macrophages activated by IL4/IL13. The anti-inflammatory state driven by IL4/IL13 229 treatment could be reverted by the CXCR2 antagonists SB2205002 and SB265610. Treatment 230 of *Pten^{pc-/-} Trp53^{pc-/-}* animals with the CXCR2 antagonist AZD5069 reduced tumor growth and 231 increased the expression of senescence markers, without affecting epithelial cell viability. 232 AZD5069 reduced the pro-angiogenic F4/80⁺ CD11c^{+/-} CD206⁺ macrophages levels in favor of 233 pro-inflammatory F4/80⁺ CD11c⁺ CD206⁻ macrophages that secrete TNF α , leading to a re-234 235 education of TAMs. Surprisingly, CXCR2 blockade did not affect the recruitment of CD11b⁺ Ly6G⁺ F4/80⁻ TANs in *Pten^{pc-/-} Trp53^{pc-/-}* tumors. Injection of *Cxcr2*-KO BM derived 236 macrophages into Ptenpc-/- Trp53pc-/- animals led to the recruitment of infiltrating TAMs 237 polarized towards a pro-inflammatory phenotype, which secreted TNF α , leading to tumor 238 growth inhibition, and induction of senescence and DNA damage. 239

Another study has shown the importance and CAFs in the EMT of PCa cells through a CXCR2dependent mechanism. Using a spontaneous mouse model of PCa (*dCKO: PB-CRE-Pten*^{fl/fl} *Hic1* $f^{l/fl}$ mice), Wu et al. reported a strong infiltration of M2 TAMs upon secretion of TGF β by PCa epithelial tumor cells deprived of Hic1 [35]. TGF β promoted the polarization of M2 TAMs and expression of CXCR4. TGF β also induced the production of CXCL12 by CAFs, which in turn stimulated the production of CXCL5 by M2 macrophages. Finally, CXCL5 produced by TAMs was able to promote the EMT of PCa cancer cells through a CXCR2 dependent mechanism.

Most of luminal PCa cells express the androgen receptor (AR) and the prostate specific antigen 247 (KLK3) but not CXCR2. However, about 1% of tumor cells are quiescent neuroendocrine (NE) 248 cells devoid of AR and KLK3, but expressing CXCL8 and CXCR2 [36]. As PCa tumors progress to 249 high grade tumors, there is an increase in the number of CXCR2⁺ NE cells. Purified CXCR2⁺ NE 250 cells from PCA tumors, compared to CXCR2⁻ luminal PCa cells, have enriched signatures for 251 252 stem cell, EMT, extracellular organization tumorigenesis and angiogenesis. Moreover, CXCR2⁺ NE had a higher capability to form spheroids compared to CXCR2⁻ luminal cells. In addition, CR 253 cell line C4-2B cultured in the presence of the anti-androgen enzalutamide showed an increase 254 in CXCR2⁺ cell numbers. Similarly, forced expression of CXCR2 in LNCaP luminal PCa cells, led 255

to resistance to enzalutamide and transformation to a more basal, EMT and neural phenotype.
Inversely, knockout of *CXCR2* in enzalutamide-resistant C4-2B/MDVR cells, which display a NE
feature, increased their expression of luminal and epithelial markers. Delivery of the
CXCR1/CXCR2 inhibitor navarixin (SCH 527123) or knockout of *CXCR2* in C4-2B/MDVR reduced
tumor growth. CXCR2⁺ NE cells create a niche for AR⁺ CXCR2⁻ luminal leading to hormone
resistance.

262

263 Pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma (PDAC)

The role of CXCR2 in PDAC depends on the studies and the models used and the results are currently subject to discussion.

Chen et al. showed that PDAC tumor progression and suppression of anti-tumor immunity was enhanced when collagen 1 (Col1) is deleted in myofibroblast [37]. Reduced Col1 expression in myofibroblasts led to Sox9-mediated up-regulation of CXCL5 in cancer cells, which in turn increased the recruitment of CD206⁺ F4/80⁺ Arg1⁺ MDSCs. Co-inhibition of CXCR2 and CCR2 reversed the tumor progression events arising when Col1 is deleted in myofibroblasts.

271 Bianchi et al. reported that CXCL1 levels were increased in Kras-Tp53 tumors [38]. The source 272 of CXCL1 was tumor cells themselves, whereas CXCR2 was nearly exclusively present on PMN-273 MDSCs. Clusters of CXCL1 Pan-CK⁺ tumor cells also contained CD11b⁺ CD15⁺ CXCR2⁺ PMN-MDSCs and CD68⁺ CD163⁺ M2-like macrophages but lacked CD8⁺ T cells [38]. Knocking down 274 275 CXCL1 in cancer cells strongly reduced tumor growth. Tumor Necrosis Factor- α (TNF α) production by PMN-MDSCs up-regulated CXCL1 in tumor cells through CREB induction. In 276 addition, PMN-MDSCs polarized CAFs into pro-inflammatory CAFs (iCAFs) with an activated IL-277 6/STAT3 signaling pathway. 278

Knock down of Lysine (K)-specific demethylase 6A (KDM6A) in the pancreas led to an increase in the number of TANs in the tumor of *LSL-Kras^{G12D/+} LSL-p53^{R712H/+}/ Kdm6A^{f1/f1}* mice [39]. Loss of KDM6A in pancreatic tumor cells results in increased CXCL1 transcription, neutrophil recruitment, NET formation and enhanced tumor growth [39].

In the KPC orthotopic model of PDAC, Evrard et al. observed an increase in the number of both immature (Ly6G^{lo/+} CXCR2⁻ CD101⁻) and mature (Ly6G⁺ CXCR2⁺ CD101⁺) neutrophils in the **bone marrow (BM)** and blood of KPC mice compared to naïve mice [40]. However, an increase in immature neutrophils (Ly6G^{lo/+} CXCR2⁻ CD101⁻) in the circulation and tumor was linked to tumor burden, suggesting that immature neutrophils favor tumor growth.

Using the inducible *Kras/p53* transgenic model, Gulhati et al. were able to identify five myeloid cell clusters (myeloid_c1-5), with myeloid_c2 and myeloid_c3 displaying high levels of CXCR2 and Ly6G [41]. Interestingly, while the combined PD1+ CTLA4 therapy targeting immune checkpoint proteins had no effect on the survival of tumor-bearing mice, targeting neutrophils with a Gr-1 antibody or with the CXCR1/CXCR2 inhibitor, SX-682, was sufficient to greatly enhance survival. In addition, the combination of PD1+ CTLA4 with SX682 treatment further increased the survival of the animals compared to SX682 alone -treated animals.

295

296 Hepatocellular cancer

In patients with primary sclerosing cholangitis or colitis, Gram-negative bacteria can activate TLR4-mediated induction of CXCL1 expression in the liver, which recruits CXCR2⁺ polymorphonuclear myeloid-derived suppressor cells (PMN-MDSC) and promotes tumor growth [42]. Antibiotic treatment blocked bacterial-induced CXCL1 expression and accumulation of PMN-MDSCs. Antibody neutralization of CXCL1 as well as CXCR2 inhibition by treatment with SB225002 blocked also MDSC recruitment and reduced tumor burden and progression in a DSS-colitis mouse model.

304

305 Melanoma

Yang et al. recently addressed how CXCR2 regulates melanoma tumor growth by co-targeting 306 Cxcr2 at the same time that expression of mutant Braf^{V600E} and loss of Pten were initiated in 307 melanocytes [43]. In a second model, Cxcr2 was deleted in melanocytes coincident with the 308 309 induction of Nras^{Q61R} expression and *Ink4a* deletion. Loss of *Cxcr2* expression during tumor 310 induction reduced tumor growth and/or incidence, reprogrammed the transcriptome of tumor cells and the tumor microenvironment, and increased anti-tumor immunity. Induction 311 312 of the transcription factor TFCP2L1 coincided with reduced expression of growth-related genes and increased expression of tumor suppressors. Moreover, in a second model where 313 314 CXCR2 is deleted in myeloid cells, there is a consequential inhibition of recruitment of MDSCs into the TME and an increase in CD8⁺ T effector cell activity, resulting in a more anti-tumor 315 316 immune microenvironment and inhibition of melanoma tumor growth [25]. Inhibitors of 317 CXCR2 also inhibit melanoma tumor growth [44] and can enhance response to immune checkpoint inhibitors [25, 43]. Both a small molecule antagonist of both CXCR1 and CXCR2, 318 (SX682), and a humanized antibody to CXCL8 (BMS-986253) shown to inhibit solid tumor 319

growth [45] are currently in clinical trials in combination with anti-PD1 for treatment of anti PD1 resistant metastatic melanoma.

322

323 Lung Cancer

In a study of patients with lung adenocarcinoma (LUAD) and patients with lung squamous cell 324 carcinoma (NSCLC), CXCR2 was shown to be upregulated in lung tumor cells as well as in 325 326 stromal cells and high CXCR2 expression correlated with poorer survival [46]. Mouse models of lung cancer cells showed that these tumors express elevated CXCL1, CXCL2, CXCL5 levels in 327 328 comparison to normal lung tissue. Inhibition of CXCR2 with SB225002 in vitro stimulates apoptosis, senescence, EMT and impair tumor cell proliferation. In mouse models, blockade 329 330 of CXCR2 reduces tumor growth and the infiltration of neutrophils into the tumor, enhanced CD8⁺ T cell activation and increased the sensitivity to cisplatin. 331

Overactivation of RAS/ERK pathway in lung is frequent and involves SHP2. Using the SHP2 inhibitor SHP099, Tang et al showed that it was effective on mice intravenously injected with *Kras^{G12D} Trp53^{-/-}* NSCLC [47]. Moreover, they observed that SHP099 induced the expression of CXCL1 and CXCL5 mainly in tumor cells, two potent chemoattractant of PMN-MDSCs. Treatment of animals with SHP099 or the CXCR1/CXCR2 inhibitor SX682 partially reduced tumor growth, whereas the combination of SHP099 and SX682 suppressed tumor growth and prolonged survival.

339 Using mouse models of lung metastasis with subcutaneous injection of LLC lung cancer cells, Lu et al. observed that early after primary tumor resection, LLC tumor cells are not yet present 340 341 in the lung, while CD11b⁺ GR1⁺ MDSCs are already there [48]. Moreover, the transfer of 342 monocytic MDSCs (CD11b⁺ Ly6C^{hi} Ly6G⁻) from the BM of mice xenografted with LLC lung cancer cells, led to an increase of lung metastasis, whereas the transfer of PMN-MDSCs (CD11b⁺ 343 344 Ly6C^{low} Ly6G⁺) had no effect, suggesting that monocytes MDSCs are the major drivers of lung metastasis. The treatment of mice with low doses of histone deacetylase inhibitors, which do 345 not affect primary tumor growth, could decrease the number of MDSCs in the lung, as well as 346 metastasis. Histone deacetylase inhibitors reduced the expression of the chemokine receptor 347 348 CCR2 in lung and BM monocytic MDSCs, while inhibiting CXCR2 expression in the lung and BM 349 PMN-MDSCs.

In a urethane-induced model of inflammation driven lung cancer, TNFα induces the expression
 of both MHCII and CXCR2 on alveolar type-II (AT-II) lung cells [49]. Consequently, there is an

associated expansion of Treg cells in an MHC-II-dependent manner. Blocking TNFα reversed the urethane mediated lung inflammation and down-regulated MHCII as well as blocked expansion of the Treg population of CD4+ T cells. Ablation of CXCR2 activity also eliminates the induction of MHC-II and the expansion of Treg cells. In summary, TNFα induces CXCR2 which when activated by its ligands induces NF-κB and the MAPK-ERK/JNK pathways which in turn induces MHC-II expression and Tregs.

358

359 Glioblastoma

Two thirds of glioblastoma (GBM) tumors show an amplification of EGFR and many of them express the constitutively active in frame deletion mutant EGFRvIII. GBM expressing EGFRvIII secrete CXCL1/2/3 and accumulate more PMN-MDSCs than GBM expressing wild type EGFR [50]. As a result, there is resistance to anti-PD-1 and CTLA-4 therapy. Inhibition of CXCR2 with AZD5069 resulted in reduction in PNM-MDSCs, increased intratumoral cytotoxic CD8+ T cells, and improved response to immune checkpoint inhibitors in mice with EGFRvIII expressing GBM.

367

368 Thyroid cancer

A common genetic mutation of BRAF (BRAF^{V600E}) is found in 40-80% of papillary thyroid 369 cancers (PTC), leading to MAPK signaling activation and to a higher cancer recurrence. 370 Moreover, T-box transcription factor 3 (TBX3) expression is up-regulated by BRAF^{V600E} 371 induction of the MAPK pathway. Zhang et al. used the PTC TPO-Cre; LSL-BRAF^{V600E} (mPTC mice) 372 mouse model to show that targeted deletion of Tbx3 in PTC cells decreased incidence of 373 374 tumors [51]. There was a strong decrease of CXCL1, CXCL2 and CXCL3 in mPTC-Tbx3^{-/-} 375 compared to *mPTC* tumors, and inhibition of IKK β /NF- κ B signaling reversed TBX3-mediated induction of CXCL1-3. In addition, the knock-down of TLR2, an upstream regulator factor of 376 IKK β /NF- κ B pathway, prevented the induction of CXCR2 ligands by TBX3. Ectopic expression 377 of CXCL1 or CXCL2 could restore tumor growth of xenografted human PTC cells silenced with 378 TBX3. In mPTC-Tbx3^{-/-} tumors, there was a decrease of PMN-MDSCs, but not of monocytic 379 MDSCs. Finally, treatment of mPTC-Tbx3^{-/-} mice with the CXCR2 inhibitor SB265610 was 380 sufficient to reduce tumor growth. 381

382

383 Bone Cancer

Single cell sequencing of CD34⁺ HSPC from patients with myeloproliferative neoplasm (MPN) revealed an hyperactivation TNF α /NF κ B pathways, along with higher levels of CXCL1, CXCL3 and CXCL8 in patients with high fibrosis [52]. In the *hMPL^{W515L}* adoptive mouse transfer model of fibrosis, when cKit+ murine BM cells were stimulated with CXCL8, there was enhanced pERK and pSTAT3 signaling that was lost in *Cxcr2^{-/-}* bone marrow cells. Mice transplanted with hMPL^{W515L} *Cxcr2^{-/-}* expressing cells displayed reductions in white blood cells and reduced numbers of neutrophils, megakaryocytes, and reduced bone marrow and spleen fibrosis.

- A summary of the different factors contributing to the regulation of the expression of CXCR2
 and its ligands in the different types of cancers is presented in Fig. 3.
- 393

394 Effectiveness of drugs targeting CXCR2

Targeting chemokine receptors remains a challenge and so far only two drugs have been approved by FDA: AMD3100 (CXCR4 antagonist) used for peripheral blood stem cell transplantation and Maraviroc (CCR5 antagonist) for preventing HIV infection [53]. To understand the action of CXCR2 and its ligands, it is also essential to have a better knowledge of signaling activities of each ligand that bind to the receptor and how their function is regulated by binding to **glycosaminoglycans** (see box 5).

401 We already mentioned some CXCR2 drugs used in preclinical models, and we will restrict this part to those tested clinically recently. A large number of high-affinity small molecule CXCR2 402 403 inhibitors with a nanomolar (nM) affinity are now available [4, 5, 54]. Two main strategies have been used: 1) targeting the receptor itself with non-competitive allosteric or reversible 404 antagonists 2) targeting the ligands of CXCR2 and in particular CXCL8 with antibodies. Of 405 particular note, some of CXCR2 inhibitors also antagonize CXCR1 (dual antagonists), which 406 407 can make the interpretation of the results sometimes difficult. Current CXCR2 antagonists 408 tested in clinical trials are summarized in Table 1.

409 Over the years, several CXCR2 inhibitors, discovered through the pharma drug pipeline, have 410 undergone and/or are currently undergoing phase-I and phase-II clinical trials for diseases 411 from COPD, asthma, cystic fibrosis, pancreatic islet transplantation, reperfusion injury, 412 coronary heart disease, influenza, pancreatitis, and several cancers [45, 55-66]. The only trial 413 that advanced to phase-III for pancreatic islet transplantation in type I diabetes failed to show 414 efficacy compared to the control group [60]. A few clinical studies that also used antibodies

415 to target CXCL8 and treat COPD, COVID-19 or metastatic tumors have shown partial efficacy
416 or are currently undergoing [45, 67].

CXCR2 inhibitors have either shown limited efficacy in clinical trials despite showing promise 417 in clinical models, or are still under current evaluation. It is thus too early to draw conclusions. 418 419 Among the issues that could delay drug development, is the fact that CXCR2 is activated by several chemokines, and at least two of them can also act on CXCR1. Moreover, we are 420 421 lacking mechanistic insights on how inhibition of CXCR2 signaling effects multiple cell types in the clinical context. One specific cell target is certainly the neutrophil, which represents 422 423 the cell expressing the highest level of CXCR2 and for which many novel roles have been discovered recently (Box 3). In response to infection and injury, CXCR2 comes into play for 424 425 rapidly mobilizing neutrophils to the insult site. However, CXCR2 is rapidly internalized on exposure to chemokine, and while the receptor can rapidly recycle, high levels of chemokine 426 427 can lead to receptor trafficking to the lysosomes for degradation [68]. Considering that the phenotype of blood and recruited neutrophils in terms of their ability to inflict tissue damage 428 varies, it is important to know whether the drug should inhibit neutrophil or MDSC trafficking 429 430 to the tissue or dampen the activity of primed and activated neutrophils or MDSCs that are 431 already in the tissue. Therefore, the mode of administration could impact the outcome, and 432 for instance, targeted local administration such as using a nebulizer rather than systemic administration for lung pathologies could be more effective. 433

434 Most clinical studies measure only blood neutrophil levels and a few studies have characterized CXCR2 levels and/or report neutrophil activity such as chemotaxis as to define 435 its phenotype compared to a healthy cohort. These data could be limiting and not sufficient 436 437 to fully understand CXCR2 function in the disease context, and a more comprehensive characterization including those of tissue neutrophil CXCR2 levels and of neutrophil 438 439 phenotype (such as pro-inflammatory, primed, or exhausted; mature or immature) similar to animal model studies are necessary for better design of clinical trials and dosage regimen. 440 Furthermore, most clinical trials have focused on the efficacy of the CXCR2 inhibitor for 441 chronic diseases, and more trials that test the efficacy for acute inflammatory diseases as 442 443 well as cancers are needed.

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447 Concluding remarks

448 The knowledge of CXCR2 and its ligands has widely increased in the last years far beyond its initial roles in angiogenesis and inflammation. Unsuspected functions of CXCR2 have been 449 discovered in physiopathology including its action in CNS, pituitary, metabolism, circadian 450 rhythm or viral pathologies such as Covid-19. Moreover, the cancer field has been the major 451 area of investigation of the potential of CXCR2 and its ligands, revealing a crucial involvement 452 of tumor microenvironment affecting neutrophils, macrophages, MDSCs, CAFs as well as 453 tumor cells. The pro- or anti-tumoral role of CXCR2 may be dependent on the type of cancer 454 and its stage of progression. However, preclinical studies have raised a very strong interest in 455 using antagonists to target CXCR2, and a number of clinical trials with CXCR2 antagonists or 456 antibodies against CXCL8 in cancers are ongoing (see Table 1 and clinician's corner). Future 457 questions to be addressed concerning the roles of CXCR2 and its ligands are summarized in 458 459 the Outstanding questions box. This challenging area, like what is observed when targeting other chemokine receptors, will definitely require a better knowledge of CXCR2 expression in 460 various cell populations and its action, which will inform clinical trial design. The possibility of 461 462 targeting CXCR2 in combination with immune checkpoint inhibitors and other disease driving pathways, will be interesting to achieve efficient control of CXCR2 action and maximize the 463 464 response to therapy. The recent discoveries on CXCR2 function have widened the spectrum of its actions in many diseases and it remains many questions to answer, to achieve a better 465 466 targeting of this receptor and its ligands in clinics.

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472 Box 1: CXCR1 and CXCR2 basics

In humans, seven chemokines characterized by the conserved N-terminal 'ELR' motif – CXCL1, 473 CXCL2, CXCL3, CXCL5, CXCL6, CXCL7, and CXCL8 – are agonists for the CXCR2 receptor (Fig. 474 475 1). For human CXCR1, CXCL8 alone is a high affinity agonist and all other CXCR2 ligands, including CXCL6, are low-affinity agonists. At a cellular level, CXCR2 activation triggers 476 trimeric G-protein and β -arrestin-mediated signaling cascades including in particular 477 PI3K/Akt and MAPK/ERK pathways, which play dual roles in directed cell migration and 478 molecular processes required for eliminating invading pathogens, initiating tissue repair, 479 480 modulating angiogenesis, growth, and other functions at the target site [69]. ELR-chemokines are selectively and differentially expressed by different cell types and tissues for normal 481 482 homeostatic functions and in different disease conditions [70-72], indicating in vivo CXCR2 signaling activity and phenotype cannot be simply correlated to in vitro CXCR2 activity 483 determined from cellular assays, and that the context is critical. As CXCR1 and CXCR2 share 484 some common ligands, there could be an overlap in their functions, but several studies have 485 shown that they trigger different responses, in particular the ability of CXCR1 to stimulate 486 487 phospholipase D activation [73]. Moreover, they display distinct patterns of expression in 488 humans and mice [74]. For instance, in mouse neutrophils, the main receptor expressed is CXCR2, whereas in humans, both CXCR1 and CXCR2 are playing major roles. Cxcr1 and Cxcr2 489 490 KO mouse models are also revealing distinct phenotypes [75].

ELR-chemokines share similar structures, exist as monomers and dimers and interact with tissue glycosaminoglycans (GAGs) [76, 77]. Structural, biophysical, and animal model studies indicate that these properties are intimately coupled, and that they act in concert to regulate CXCR2 activation that is uniquely tailored for each chemokine [78, 79]. Therefore, understanding CXCR2 function and phenotype in the context of *in vivo* milieu is dependent on understanding of the shared and distinct properties of its ligands and how they are shaped by the local environment that is highly context dependent.

498

499 Box 2: CXCR2 and Covid-19

500 SARS-CoV-2 pandemic has highlighted the major adverse effect of massive uncontrolled 501 inflammation in the outcome of infected patients, with a "cytokine storm" leading to tissue 502 damage [80, 81]. Elevated counts of circulating neutrophils have been reported for patients in

503 critical condition [82]. The role of CXCR2 and its ligands in the severity of the disease is 504 emerging and could explain the differences between individuals, in ability to overcome the infection. In particular, the mortality of male patients is higher than female patients [81] and 505 this is correlated with higher CXCL8 and IL-18 levels in male subjects [83]. By using 506 transcriptomic data from nasopharyngeal swabs of SARS-CoV-2 patients, Freire et al. found a 507 508 network of dysregulated genes. This includes neutrophil related genes such as CXCR2, CXCR1, *IL-1* β , *S100A9*, *ITGAM* and *DNBL*, which were down-regulated in females compared to males 509 and could account for the better outcome for females [84]. In the same line, Black/African 510 American (AA) SARS-CoV-2 patients showed a higher mortality compared to other ethnic 511 512 groups and this involves the infiltration of the lung by CXCR2⁺ mature neutrophils from the 513 blood, which once in the lung, were reprogrammed to produce higher levels of inflammatory molecules, including CXCL8 and IL-1 β [85]. 514

Recent work based on cytometry and proteomic approaches, has shown that SARS-CoV-2 patients with severe disease display a subpopulation of immature neutrophils with a hyperactive state [86]. Circulating neutrophils of patients with severe symptoms displayed low levels of CD62L (a marker of primed neutrophils) as well as high expression of CD66b and CD63 (secondary and primary granule markers, respectively) and high expression of CXCR2, confirming the activated state of such neutrophils.

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523 Box 3: Role of CXCR2 in tissue-specific heterogeneity of neutrophils

524 Until recently, the precise role of CXCR2 in neutrophils had been relatively poorly addressed 525 and novel findings are summarized in Fig. I. In zebrafish, both *cxcr1* and *cxcr2* promote the 526 motility of neutrophils, *cxcr1* stimulated the clustering of neutrophils, whereas *cxcr2* favored 527 the dispersion [87].

Cxcr2-KO mice displayed diminished maturation of splenic neutrophils, based on CD101 and Ly6G expression and RNAseq profiling of neutrophils [88], while there was an increase of aged CD62L^{lo} CXCR4^{hi} neutrophils in the spleen. *Cxcr2*-KO splenic neutrophils were less phagocytic compared to WT neutrophils, with decreased production of **reactive oxygen species (ROS)** and F-actin, but this was in contrast to bone marrow (BM) *Cxcr2*-KO neutrophils [88]. Similarly, single cell RNA sequencing (scRNAseq) showed that in contrast to blood neutrophils, which are Ly6G+ CXCR2⁺, BM neutrophils were heterogeneous, with immature

neutrophils characterized by a Ly6G^{lo/+} CXCR2⁻ CD101⁻ phenotype, whereas mature neutrophils were Ly6G⁺ CXCR2⁺ CD101⁺ [40]. Moreover, BM proliferating CXCR4⁺ ckit⁺ CD62L^{lo} Ly6G^{lo} CXCR2⁻ neutrophils were distinct from CXCR4^{lo} ckit^{lo} CD62^{hi} Ly6G⁺ CXCR2⁺ nonproliferating neutrophils. Another scRNAseq study of BM, peripheral and spleen mouse neutrophils enabled the identification of 8 neutrophil clusters with varying maturation [89]. Among these populations, CXCR2^{hi} neutrophils defined by Evrard et al. corresponded to G4, G5a, G5b and G5c clusters, the most mature found in peripheral tissues [89].

A major recent breakthrough has been the discovery that neutrophil function is closely 542 543 correlated to the circadian clock. To characterize circadian rhythm, the notion of Zeitgeber time (ZT) has been introduced (see glossary for more details). It was shown an active release 544 of neutrophils from the BM between ZT17 and 5 and a clearance between ZT5 and 13 [90]. 545 Aged neutrophils (CXCR4^{hi} CD62L^{lo}) display a peak of accumulation at ZT5 (dark) and these 546 547 neutrophils display higher levels of circadian genes Bmal1 and Clock and a decrease of CD621 and CXCR2. The situation is the opposite at ZT13 (light), with a decreased expression of 548 Bmal1. Knock-out of Cxcr2 or Cxcr4 in neutrophils prevents the decreased expression of 549 550 Bmal1 observed at ZT13. Bmal1 can bind to *Cxcl2* promoter, which is required for aging and 551 up-regulation of CD62I.

In humans, CXCL8 can trigger both chemotaxis, NETosis (see glossary) and ROS production [91]. However, only high concentrations of CXCL8 enhanced NETosis, whereas motility stimulation was achieved at lower concentrations. Pharmacological inhibition of CXCR2 reduced NETosis and chemotaxis and inhibition of CXCR1 decreased NETosis.

556

557 Box 4: CXCR2 and hematopoietic stem cells

Recent work provide compelling evidence that CXCR2 plays an important role in mobilizing 558 559 hematopoietic stem cell (HSC) from the BM. Karpova et al. showed that the cotreatment of mice with the very late antigen 4 (VLA4) inhibitor CWHM-823 and CXCR2 agonist CXCL2 560 synergistically enhance HSC mobilization from the BM, and that endothelial CXCR2 plays a 561 role in this process by using targeted deletion of Cxcr2 in endothelial cells [92]. In the same 562 line, Capitano et al. showed that the secreted nuclear protein DEK increases cytokine-induced 563 564 HSC expansion to regulate hematopoiesis in vivo [93]. Interestingly DEK displays an ELR (Glu-Leu-Arg) motif, similar to other CXCR2 ligands and acts extracellularly presumably through 565 CXCR2 binding, as *Cxcr2* KO prevents DEK action [93]. 566

568 **Box 5: CXCR2 and glycosaminoglycans interactions and ligand binding**

CXCR2-driven cell trafficking is mediated by chemokine gradients achieved by GAG 569 interactions [94], with an essential role of endothelial GAGs [95, 96]. Chemokines bind to GAGs 570 heparan sulfate, chondroitin sulfate, and dermatan sulfate. ELR-chemokines are basic 571 proteins, and lysine residues dominate at the GAG-binding interface. Lysine sidechains are 572 highly dynamic, suggesting structural plasticity plays an important role in chemokine-GAG 573 574 interactions [69, 97]. Recent studies show that the chemokine dimer binds GAGs with higher 575 affinity, conserved basic residues and those that are unique to a given chemokine mediate binding, and GAG binding surfaces among chemokines and binding interfaces for a given 576 chemokine for different GAGs can vary significantly [69, 78, 98]. Animal studies show that i) 577 the recruitment activity of the chemokine monomer and dimer are distinctly different, (ii) 578 579 monomer-dimer equilibrium regulates recruitment, (iii) recruitment profiles vary between chemokines and tissues, (iv) despite lower receptor activity, the dimer can recruit more 580 neutrophils than the monomer, indicating GAG interactions promote high local 581 582 concentrations of chemokine that are needed for activating signaling pathways for migration, and (v) GAG interactions also indirectly regulate surface receptor density and thereby 583 trafficking, as the chemokine, in addition to signaling, also induces receptor endocytosis [76]. 584 ELR-chemokines also form heterodimers and their GAG interactions are distinctly different 585 from those of homodimers [99-101]. Considering ELR-chemokines dimerize at micromolar 586 587 concentrations but activate CXCR2 at nanomolar concentrations, this makes a compelling case that the *in vivo* chemokine concentration, and by extension monomer to dimer ratio, can vary 588 significantly. This can be attributed to different GAG interactions and to small local volumes 589 in the proximity of the cell surface compared to the center of the vessel along the migration 590 591 path. GAG-bound chemokine can directly bind the receptor or GAG interactions can indirectly determine the chemokine levels available for CXCR2 signaling. The CXCR2 N-terminal domain 592 593 (N-domain) is a critical ligand binding site, and structural studies show that several ELRchemokine residues are involved in binding to both the CXCR2 N-domain and GAGs and that 594 the GAG-bound monomers are unable to bind the N-domain [68, 70]. Structures of a ternary 595 596 complex of CXCR2 bound to CXCL8 dimer and CXCL8 monomer reveal that only one monomer 597 of the dimer is involved in receptor interactions with the second monomer pointed away,

indicating that it is available for GAG interactions [75]. Whether receptor-bound dimer can
bind GAGs especially in the context of *in vivo* milieu needs to be determined.

600

601 Clinician's corner

So far, the use of specific drugs, inhibitors and antibodies targeting chemokine 602 receptors has shown very little success in clinic. This also applies to CXCR2 inhibitors 603 as treatment for chronic inflammatory diseases. There are several potential issues in 604 correlating preclinical studies with clinical trials: 1) the fact that CXCR1 and CXCR2 605 level of expression by varying cell types and functions may be different in mouse versus 606 607 human; 2) an inhibitor that targets both CXCR2 and CXCR1 could provide different results in mouse versus human and an inhibitor specific for CXCR2 may show promise 608 609 in mice but be less effective in humans where more CXCR1 is expressed; 3) accessibility of the receptor to the inhibitors that directly bind the receptor in part due to ligand 610 611 induced receptor internalization and recycling and also to GAG interactions with 612 receptors.

- To achieve a significant response in clinics, it will be important to know what cell types are expressing CXCR2, the level of expression, the activation of the receptor and the expression of other ligand competing receptors. Moreover, the recent advent of scRNAseq and CITE-seq analyses have provided new tools to dissect the expression of CXCR2 in a tissue environment at the single cell level [102].
- Many studies have focused on inhibiting CXCR2 in neutrophils, but neutrophils do not constitute a homogeneous population of cells, but rather a continuum of adapting cells with different degrees of differentiation, activation, and chemokine receptor expression. Some neutrophils do not express CXCR2. This heterogeneity also differs between tissues. Thus, targeting such cells as a whole might be illusory and explain some of the issues observed in clinical trials.
- Clinical trials combining CXCR2 antagonists with other drugs as well as checkpoint inhibitors are ongoing, and the results will be interesting. In cancers, it may be necessary to target CXCR2 and at the same time target genetic tumor drivers and inhibitors of CD8 T cell function. In inflammatory diseases, it may be necessary to target more than one chemokine or G protein- coupled receptor, as CXCR2 can

- 629 crosstalk with other G-coupled receptors. We will learn from each trial how to better
- 630 design these approaches.

632 Figure Legends

633

Fig. I (embedded in box 3): A central action of CXCR2 in neutrophils in a non-cancer
 situation

Neutrophils are subjected to circadian rhythm with an increased number of neutrophils 636 during daytime compared to nighttime. This goes along with increased aging, increased 637 expression of CXCR4 and decreased expression of CD62L. Neutrophil CXCR2 levels are lower 638 in daytime and are less able to inhibit aging. Mechanistically, Bmal1 binds to Cxcl2 promoter, 639 640 increases its production, which in turn activates CXCR2. CXCR2 has multiple actions including enhancing maturation of neutrophils with elevated levels of CD101 and Ly6G. CXCR2 will also 641 inhibit the proliferation of neutrophils, while increasing ROS production, which in turn 642 increases NETosis and phagocytosis. The figure was made manually in Adobe illustrator. 643

644

645 Fig. 1: CXCR1 and CXCR2 ligands

646 **Upper panel**: In humans, CXCR2 ligands are CXCL1 (MGSA/GRO α), CXCL2 (GRO β), CXCL3 (GRO_γ), CXCL5 (ENA-78), CXCL6 (GCP-2), CXCL7 (NAP-2) and CXCL8 (IL-8). For human CXCR1, 647 CXCL8 alone is a high affinity agonist and all others are low-affinity agonists. In mice, there is 648 649 a drop in redundancy, with only five ligands: CXCL1 (KC), CXCL2 (MIP-2), CXCL3 (DCIP), CXCL5/6 (LIX) and CXCL7 (NAP-2). The former names of these ligands given before the unified 650 nomenclature [103] are also indicated in parenthesis. CXCR2 ligands exhibit a N-terminal motif 651 'glu-leu-arg (ELR)' which is absolutely critical for CXCR2 activation. Lower panel: The main 652 CXCR2 and dual (CXCR1/2) inhibitors are indicated here. The figure was made manually in 653 Adobe illustrator. 654

655

Fig. 2 (Key Figure): Novel roles of CXCR2 in physiology in a non-cancer situation

CXCR2 has been recently shown to worsen the severity of Sars-CoV-2 infections through the recruitment of neutrophils. CXCR2 promotes EAE and preventing remyelination in CNS. CXCR2 is also acting in the control of the hypothalamus-pituitary-gonad axis through pituitary, ovary, uterus and mammary gland, in the context of chronic infections. Finally, CXCR2 promotes obesity-induced insulin resistance by acting in particular in neutrophils and macrophages in adipose tissue and liver. The figure was made manually in Adobe illustrator.

665 Fig.3: A diversity of signals regulating CXCR2 and its ligands in cancer cells

This scheme summarizes some of the factors regulating the expression of CXCR2 and its 666 ligands in different types of cancer cells. These factors can be specific of a particular type of 667 cancer and should not be taken as a valid view for all cases. Black signs represent inhibition 668 669 signals, whereas red arrows represent stimulation signals. ARID1a: AT-rich interaction 670 domain 1A, HDAC: Histone deacetylase, KDM6a: lysine demethylase 6a, PTEN: phosphatase 671 and tensin homolog, SHP2: Src homology 2-containing protein tyrosine phosphatase 2, SOX9: SRY-box transcription factor 9, TBX3: T-box transcription factor 3, TLR4: Toll Like Receptor 4, 672 TNF α : Tumor necrosis factor-alpha. The figure was made manually in Adobe illustrator. 673 674

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- 681

682 **Declaration of interests**

- 683 The authors declare no competing interests.
- 684

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- 913

Table 1 : Inhibitors of CXCR2 tested in clinical studies.

Compound	Specificity	Supplier	Activity	Reference
Monoclonal	CXCL8	Abgenix, Inc.	Improves dyspnoea,	[67]
antibody to	800mg IV		but not lung	
CXCL8	infusion at		function or health	
	month 0		status	
	followed by			
	400mg monthly			
AZD-5069	CXCR2	Astrazeneca	Uncontrolled	[56]
	selective		persistent asthma—	
	reversible		without positive	
	antagonist		outcome	
	IC50= 0.79 nM			[104]
	5, 15, 45 mg		Suppresses hepatic	
	Twice daily		neutrophil	
			recruitment and in	
			concert with anti-	
			PD-1 suppresses	
			non-alcoholic	
			steatobenatitis-HCC	NCT02/993281
			tumor growth	NC102433328
			Phase I/II for PDAC.	
			metastatic nead	NCT03177187"
			and neck cancer	
			Phase I/II in	
			combination with	
			enzalutamide in	
			natients with	
			metastatic	
			castration resistant	
			nrostate cancer	
AZD-8039	CXCR2	Astrazeneca	Control of airway	NCT00860821 ^{III}
			inflammation	
BMS-986253	CXCL8	BMS	Phase I/II ongoing	[45]
	monoclonal Ab		clinical trials in	NCT03400332 ^{IV}
	to CXCL8		metastatic or	NCT02451982 ^v
			unresectable solid	NCT03026140 ^{VI}
	Doses:		tumors	NCT04572451 ^{VII}
	4 8 16 or 32			NCT04123379 ^{VIII}
	mg/kg IV every			NCT03400332 ^{IX}
	2 weeks for 52			NCT04848116 ^X
	weeks			NCT03689699 ^{XI}

	1			
				NCT04050462 ^{xII}
				NCT05148234 ^{XIII}
				NCT04347226 ^{xiv}
			Trials for COVID	
<u> </u>	01/072	0.01/		[405]
Danirixin	CXCR2	GSK	Breast cancer	[105]
(GK1325756)	Selective		metastasis	
	reversible		suppression and	
	antagonist		renewal of breast	
	IC 50=12.5nM		cancer stem cell	
			suppression	[106]
	15 mg BID			
			Unfavorable for	
	5mg/kg in mico			
	Jing/kg in file			
			(NC105250069	
	(
	/5mg/ BID		(NC103034967***	
			completed)	
			(NCT03136380 ^{XVII} :	
			completed)	
			(NCT02130193 ^{XVIII} :	
			completed)	
			(NCT01006616 ^{XIX} :	
			terminated)	
			Uncomplicated	
			influenza well	
			tolorotod but no	
			difference in viral	
			load in Phase IIa	
			study	
			(NCT02927431 ^{XX} :	
			terminated)	
Ladarixin	CXCR1/CXCR2	DOMPE	Treatment of new-	PipelinReview.com
(DF2156A)	non-		onset Type I	NCT04628481 ^{XXI}
, ,	competitive		Diabetes- in Phase	Maria De Pizzol.
	dual allosteric		III Clinical Trial	
	antagonist			
	1C50=0.7 NIVI			
				[107]
	400mg bid for			
	patients-3		Newly diagnosed	NCT02814838 ^{xx} "
	cycles of 14		type I diabetes	
	days on/14		patients showed no	
	days off		improvement in	

Navarixin	CXCR2/CXCR1 Allosteric	Merck and	preserving beta cell function (Phase 2 trial) Post-hoc analysis of a Phase 2 multicenter trial show it may be useful for HIGH- daily insulin requirement baseline patients Phase II for NSCLC, castration resistant	[108] NCT00688467 ^{XXIII} NCT00632502 ^{XXIV}
(SCH 527123 or MK-7123)	antagonist IC 50 =2.6 nM and 36nM, respectively	Pharmaceuticals	prostate cancer and colorectal cancer and also for asthma, psoriasis	NCT03473925 ^{xxv} NCT00684593 ^{xxvi}
	70mg/kg In patients, 50mg		Anti-inflammatory for COPD (NCT 01006616 ^{XXVII})- results showed improved FEV Evaluated as anti- inflammatory for adults hospitalized with influenza combined with oseltamivir- inconclusive outcome-but safe	[55]
QBM076	CXCR2 25 – 150 mg bid/8 weeks	Novartis	COPD	NCT 01972776 ^{xxviii} (terminated)
Reparixin (Repertaxin)	CXCR1/2 noncompetitive allosteric inhibitor IC 50 =1 nM and 100nM, respectively	DOMPE	Phase II for TNBC tested for improved transplant outcome following intra- hepatic infusion of pancreatic islets in	[64] NCT01817959 ^{xxix} [60]

			patients with Type 1 diabetes Phase III: no efficacy	
RIST4721	CXCR2	Aristea Therapeutics	Inflammatory Response in Healthy Male Subjects Using a Standardized Blister Model Discontinued for safety reasons	NCT04105959 ^{xxx}
SX-682	CXCR1/ CXCR2 allosteric dual inhibitor IC50= 42 nm and 20 nM respectively	Syntrix	Ongoing Phase I and Phase II clinical trials for melanoma, PDAC, MDS, CRC, NSCLC, metastatic cancer, Myelodysplastic Syndrome	[109] NCT04477343 ^{XXXI} NCT04245397 ^{XXXII} NCT03161431 ^{XXIII} NCT04599140 ^{XXXIV} NCT04574583 ^{XXXV}

918 Footnotes

919 Ihttps://classic.clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT02499328

920 ^{II}https://classic.clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT03177187

921 ^{III}https://classic.clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT00860821

922 ^{IV}https://clinicaltrials.gov/study/NCT03400332?a=20

923 Vhttps://classic.clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT02451982

924 VIhttps://classic.clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT03026140

925 VIIhttps://classic.clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT04572451

^{VIII}<u>https://classic.clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT04123379</u>
 ^{IX}<u>https://clinicaltrials.gov/study/NCT03400332?a=20</u>

927 ^{IX}<u>https://clinicaltrials.gov/study/NCT03400332?a=20</u>
 928 ^Xhttps://classic.clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT04848116

- 929 X^{II}https://classic.clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT04649110
- 930 XIIhttps://classic.clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT04050462
- 931 XIIIhttps://classic.clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT05148234

932 XIVhttps://classic.clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT04347226

933 ^{XV}https://classic.clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT03250689

- 934 xvihttps://classic.clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT03034967
- 935 XVII<u>https://clinicaltrials.gov/study/NCT03136380</u>
- 936 XVIII https://classic.clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT02130193
- 937 XIX<u>https://classic.clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT01006616</u>

938 ^{XX}https://classic.clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT02927431

- 939 XXI<u>https://classic.clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT04628481</u>
- 940 XXII <u>https://classic.clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT02814838</u>
 941 XXIII <u>https://classic.clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT00688467</u>
- 942 XXIV https://classic.clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT00632502
- 943 xxv<u>https://classic.clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT03473925</u>
- 944 XXVIhttps://clinicaltrials.gov/study/NCT00684593

945 XXVII https://classic.clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT01006616

- 946 XXVII<u>https://classic.clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT01972776</u>
- 947 XXIX<u>https://classic.clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT01817959</u>
- 948 XXXhttps://classic.clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT04105959
- 949 XXXIhttps://classic.clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT04477343
- 950 XXXII<u>https://classic.clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT04245397</u>
 951 XXXIIIhttps://classic.clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT03161431

- 952 XXXIV<u>https://classic.clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT04599140</u>
 953 XXXV<u>https://classic.clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT04574583</u>
 954
- 955 All trials are registered to clinicaltrials.gov
- 956 957

958 Glossary

959

Bone marrow (BM): Spongy tissue of some bones comprising hematopoietic cells, adipose tissue and
 stromal cells and involved in the production of blood cells.

962 Chemokines: Chemokines (Chemotactic cytokines) are small basic proteins (molecular weight ~ 8 to
 963 10 kDa) that share the following characteristics – reversibly exist as monomers and dimers, activate

receptors that belong to the G protein-coupled receptor (GPCR) class, and bind glycosaminoglycans

965 that regulate receptor signaling and function.

Experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis (EAE): EAE is an experimental model for the
 inflammatory demyelinating disease, multiple sclerosis. EAE is mediated by myelin-specific T cells,
 which are initially activated at the peripheral lymphoid organs and then reach the CNS.

969 **Glycosaminoglycan (GAG)**: GAGs are linear polysaccharides and their chemical complexity arises due

to differences in backbone structure and sulfation pattern. GAGs are selectively expressed by most cell

types including the endothelium and epithelium, and are also present in the extracellular matrix (ECM)

972 and the glycocalyx that forms a formidable barrier between the vasculature and the tissue.

973 Myeloid-derived suppressor cells (MDSCs): These are myeloid cells with the ability to inhibit immune

974 response. They are divided in PMN-MDSC or Granulocitic-MDSCs (G-MDSCs) with a phenotype related
975 to neutrophils or M-MDSC with a phenotype related to monocytes.

976 **NETosis**: Formation of neutrophil extracellular traps, which corresponds to the release in the 977 microenvironment of modified chromatin decorated with bactericidal proteins from granules and 978 cytoplasm by neutrophils. These structures will trap and kill microbes.

Polyoma middle tumor-antigen (PyMT): PyMT refers in this article to a particular transgenic mouse in
which the PyMT gene is under the control of the mammary-specific promoter (mouse mammary tumor

virus) leading to the development of tumors in the mammary gland.

982 Reactive oxygen species (ROS): Derivatives of the molecular oxygen that are generated by NADPH 983 pathway in neutrophil-mediated killing of microbes in the phagosomes and are also released to the 984 extracellular milieu. ROS are also produced in the mitochondria due to oxidative phosphorylation.

Tumor associated neutrophils (TANs): TANs are neutrophils that can be found in tumors and can have
either pro- (TAN2) or anti-tumoral (TAN1) properties.

- Triple negative breast cancer (TNBC): This refers to a particular type of breast cancer that does not
 express estrogen receptor (ER), progesterone receptor (PR) and exhibit amplification of the oncogene
 Her-2 in contrast to luminal (ER⁺ PR⁺) breast cancers and Her-2⁺ breast cancers.
- 990 Zeitgeber time (ZT): This notion defines the external signals that define the physiological periodicity of
- 991 24h and the endogenous clock that will condition the circadian rhythm. It is divided into a light phase
- and dark phase. In mice, dark phase correspond to Zeitgeber times (ZT) 12 to 24, whereas the light
- phase is between ZTO and 12. The circadian clock is shifted by 12h in humans compared to mice as
- 994 mice are more active in the dark compared to the light period.

- Recent studies indicate CXCR2 plays diverse and novel roles in several cancers and basic physiology, viral infection such as Covid-19 that goes beyond its widely accepted role in bacterial infections. The pro or anti-tumoral action of CXCR2 may vary depending on which cells are expressing the receptor and this remains a subject of debate.
- CXCR2 is expressed by multiple cell types including neutrophils, endothelial, immune, stromal and some epithelial cells but recently developed single cell technologies are needed to validate this expression at the protein and RNA levels. The tissue-specific heterogeneity in CXCR2 expression and function in neutrophils has been clarified with respect to maturation, aging and circadian rhythm. Such studies in other cell types may reveal underlying complexity for CXCR2 function in tissues.
- CXCR2 ligands show diverse glycosaminoglycan interactions, suggesting that the phenotype of each chemokine is distinct and plays non-overlapping roles in the physiological context.
- Recent availability of structures of CXCR2 bound to ligands or antagonists and the analysis of downstream effectors of CXCR2 should facilitate designing more potent drugs and better understanding of CXCR2 signaling function in pathophysiology.

"Outstanding questions"

- What is the role of CXCR2 in acute vs. chronic diseases?
- How does CXCR2 signaling vary in response to different ligands?
- What novel strategies could be used to design drugs and antibodies against CXCR2 in cancer?
- What are the roles of CXCR2 in changes in endothelial GAGs in cancer microvessels?

<u>Im</u> ΙM ſΜ ίm CXCR1 CXCR2 CXCR1 CXCR2 inn inn w tuun CXCL6 CXCL5/6 CXCL1 CXCL1 Ligands CXCL8 CXCL2 CXCL2 CXCL3 CXCL3 CXCL5 CXCL5/6 CXCL6 CXCL7 CXCL7

CXCL8

Drugs	CXCR2-specific	Dual (CXCR1/2)
	AZD5059	Navarixin (SCH527123)
	Danirixin (GSK1325756)	Reparixin (Repertaxin)
	DF2156A	SX-682
	SB225002	
	SB265610	
	SC656933	

Mouse Cells



Fig. 2





Fig. 4