Neuroprotection in stroke: is it time to consider large-molecule drugs?



'More than a dozen neurotrophin drugs could enter clinical trials for stroke if these largemolecule pharmaceuticals can be made transportable through the blood-brain barrier.'

William M. Pardridge, Department of Medicine, UCLA School of Medicine

The American Heart Association (Dallas, TX, USA) estimates that there are >500,000 strokes per year in the USA alone, and that 30% of these events result in death. Of the survivors in the USA, there are now approximately three million people in stroke rehabilitation, costing in excess of US\$40 billion per year in medical costs. In 1996, thrombolytic therapy for stroke was introduced as the first advance in stroke therapy for decades. However, thrombolytic therapy only dissolves the thrombus that forms at brain arteries, and does not result in neuronal protection.

There have been extensive efforts worldwide to develop small-molecule neuroprotectants for the treatment of acute stroke. Clinical trials have failed with such uniformity that there is the risk of a developed perception that neuroprotection is not possible in stroke. There are several reasons why small-molecule neuroprotective agents have failed in human trials, but a principal cause is the poor transport of these agents across the blood-brain barrier (BBB).

The latest failure in stroke therapy is the Glycine Antagonism in Neuroprotection (GAIN) trial using gavestinel¹. The failure of the GAIN trial is consistent with the poor BBB transport of gavestinel², particularly because this drug is >99% plasma-protein bound in the systemic circulation³. YM872 is an AMPA (α -amino-3-hydroxy-5-methylisoxazole-4-propionic acid) receptor antagonist that is considered a possible small-molecule neuroprotective agent⁴. However, YM872 is a highly polar molecule of reduced lipid solubility, and these properties eliminate

significant free diffusion through the BBB *in vivo*. The BBB is intact in the first three hours after a stroke⁵, when there is an opportunity for neuroprotection. Therefore, a drug that does not cross the BBB would not be expected to be an effective neuroprotective agent in clinical trials. Drugs that do not cross the BBB could still be neuroprotective in preclinical studies if the BBB is disrupted in animals subjected to experimental stroke. BBB disruption can be caused by either excessive electro-coagulation of the middle cerebral artery² or hyperglycemia, which causes vasculopathy and breakdown of the BBB in ischemic stroke⁶.

Safety of small-molecule drugs

Apart from the problem of poor BBB transport, many small-molecule neuroprotective agents have poor safety profiles² because of the lack of receptor specificity of small molecules. Protein-based therapeutics, such as the neurotrophins, are receptor-specific and would be expected to have improved safety profiles in the brain. There are >30 neurotrophins produced in the brain⁷ and, therefore, the number of neurotrophin drug candidates is expected to increase in the near future with the application of genomicsbased gene discovery. Many of the neurotrophins are highly neuroprotective in stroke models when the protein is injected directly into the brain. Intracerebral administration is required because the neurotrophins do not cross the BBB and are generally not neuroprotective following intravenous administration. Because of this, current neurotrophin drug development is aimed at the discovery of small molecules that increase production of neurotrophins in the brain8. However, such molecules must be administered before the ischemic insult, and this is not practical in the treatment of human stroke.

Neurotrophin drug development

The most direct approach to neurotrophin drug development is to use the naturally occurring neurotrophins as large-molecule neuropharmaceuticals. However, because the neurotrophins do not cross the BBB, there must be a merger of neurotrophin drug discovery with BBB drugtargeting technology; this is illustrated in the case of brainderived neurotrophic factor (BDNF). This neurotrophin was cloned in the 1980s⁹ and failed in the 1990s as a

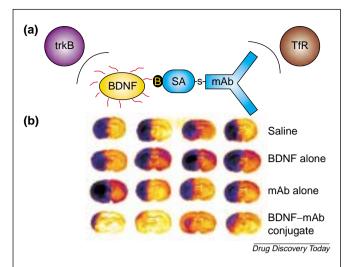


Figure 1. (a) Brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) is conjugated with 2000 Dalton strands of polyethylene glycol (PEG) and the pegylated BDNF homodimer contains a single biotin residue (denoted as 'B' in the figure) at the tip of one of the PEG strands. This BDNF-PEG²⁰⁰⁰-biotin is then mixed with a thio-ether (-S-) conjugate of streptavidin (SA) and an antitransferrin receptor (TfR) monoclonal antibody (mAb) to form the BDNF-mAb conjugate shown in the figure. The conjugate forms instantaneously and is injected intravenously into rats subjected to the permanent middle-cerebral-artery occlusion (MCAO) stroke model. (trkB is the BDNF receptor.) (b) The middle cerebral artery was occluded in adult rats, and 5-50 µg per rat doses of BDNF chimeric peptide were administered intravenously for up to 2 h after arterial occlusion. Controls included the intravenous administration of BDNF alone or mAb alone. The BDNF-mAb conjugate reduced the stroke volume by 65%, from 350 ± 21 mm³ to 121 ± 23 mm³ [mean ± SD, p<0.01 by analysis of variance with Bonferroni correction (ANOVA)]12. There was no reduction in stroke volume following the intravenous administration of either the unconjugated BDNF, unconjugated mAb, or saline. The brain was removed 24 h after MCAO, and brain sections were treated with 2,3,5triphenyltetrazolium chloride (TTC). TTC stains viable brain tissue, which appears yellow after visualization of the image. Infarcted brain is unstained by TTC, which appears blue. A coronal section from the brain of four different rats in each of the four treatment groups is shown.

treatment of amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS) in Phase III trials¹⁰. BDNF does not cross the BBB, either in the brain or spinal cord, and the peripheral administration of native BDNF would not be expected to cause neuroprotection in the brain, because this large molecule does not cross the BBB. However, recent work has shown that if BDNF is conjugated to a BBB-drug targeting system, then this neurotrophin is neuroprotective in either global¹¹ or regional¹² brain ischemia following the delayed intravenous administration of low doses of the drug. The BDNF is conjugated to a BBB drug-targeting vector, which is a ligand transported by a receptor-mediated transcytosis (RMT) system localized within the BBB. This BDNF-vector conjugate is called a

chimeric peptide. One suitable transport vector is a peptidomimetic monoclonal antibody (mAb) that is transported by an endogenous BBB-RMT system, such as the transferrin receptor (TfR). The mAb undergoes receptormediated transcytosis across the BBB via the endogenous transferrin-receptor transport system, and carries any drug attached to the mAb across the BBB. The BDNF is conjugated to the mAb with avidin-biotin technology, as shown in Fig. 1a. Alternatively, a BDNF-mAb fusion gene and fusion protein could be produced. In either case, it is necessary that the bifunctionality of the chimeric peptide be maintained so that the drug binds both to the TfR to enable transport across the BBB, and to the neuronal trkB BDNF receptor to cause neuroprotection subsequent to transport (Fig. 1a). The delayed intravenous administration of BDNF chimeric peptide at doses as low as 5 ug per rat, results in 45-65% reduction in stroke volume in the middle-cerebral-artery occlusion model (Fig. 1b). By contrast, the intravenous administration of the unconjugated BDNF has no neuroprotective effect (Fig. 1b), because the neurotrophin does not cross the BBB.

There is an inherent amplification in the overall drug-development process once a BBB drug-targeting technology is developed. A single brain drug-targeting technology can be applied to the drug development of many neurotrophins that can be individually developed as neuroprotective agents for the treatment of acute stroke. In addition, such drugs could also prove to be beneficial in the long-term treatment of various brain disorders, including Alzheimer's disease, Parkinson's disease and other neurodegenerative diseases. However, large-molecule drugs cannot be put to work in human disorders without the application of a BBB drug-targeting technology. Given the inability to develop small-molecule drugs as neuroprotective agents, now might be the time to direct efforts towards large-molecule neurotrophin drug development.

References

- 1 Lees, K.R. et al. (2000) Glycine antagonist (gavestinel) in neuroprotection (GAIN International) in patients with acute stroke: a randomised controlled trial. Lancet 355, 1949–1954
- 2 Dawson, D.A. et al. (2001) A comparative assessment of the efficacy and side-effect liability of neuroprotective compounds in experimental stroke. Brain Res. 892, 344–350
- 3 Lees, K.R. (2000) Advances in neuroprotection trials. Eur. Neurol. 45, 6–10
- 4 Takahashi, M. et al. (1998) YM872, a novel selective α-amino-3-hydroxy-5-methylisoxazole-4-propionic acid receptor antagonist, reduces brain damage after permanent focal cerebral ischemia in cats. J. Pharmacol. Exp. Ther. 284, 467–473
- 5 Albayrak, S. et al. (1997) Effect of transient focal ischemia on blood-brain barrier permeability in the rat: correlation to cell injury. Acta Neuropathol. 94, 158–163
- 6 Kawai, N. et al. (1997) Hyperglycemia and the vascular effects of cerebral ischemia. Stroke 28, 149–154

- 7 Hefti, F. (1997) Pharmacology of neurotrophic factors. *Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol.* 37, 239–267
- 8 Semkova, I. and Krieglstein, J. (1999) Neuroprotection mediated via neurotrophic factors and induction of neurotrophic factors. *Brain Res. Rev.* 30, 176–188
- 9 Leibrock, J. et al. (1989) Molecular cloning and expression of brainderived neurotrophic factor. Nature 341, 149–152
- 10 The BDNF Study Group (1999) A controlled trial of recombinant methionyl human BDNF trials in ALS (Phase III). Neurology 52, 1427–1433
- 11 Wu, D. and Pardridge, W.M. (1999) Neuroprotection with non-invasive neurotrophin delivery to brain. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* 96, 254–259

12 Zhang, Y. and Pardridge, W.M. (2001) Conjugation of brain-derived neurotrophic factor to a blood-brain barrier drug targeting system enables neuroprotection in regional brain ischemia following intravenous injection of the neurotrophin. *Brain Res.* 889, 49–56

William M. Pardridge

UCLA, Warren Hall 13-164 900 Veteran Avenue, Los Angeles, CA 90024, USA tel: +1 310 825 8858 fax: +1 310 206 5163 e-mail: wpardridge@mednet.ucla.edu

Recent articles in the field of genomics from our sister *Trends* journals include:

Mills, A.A. and Bradley, A. (2001) From mouse to man: generating megabase chromosome rearrangements. *Trends Genet.* 17, 331–339

Richards, R.I. (2001) Fragile and unstable chromosomes in cancer: causes and consequences. *Trends Genet.* 17, 339–345

Trede, N.S. et al. (2001) Fishing for lymphoid genes. Trends Immunol. 22, 302-307

Ben-Ari, Y. (2001) Developing networks play a similar melody. Trends Neurosci. 24, 353–360

Emahazion, T. et al. (2001) SNP association studies in Alzheimer's disease highlight problems for complex disease analysis. *Trends Genet.* 17, 407–413

Karlin, S. (2001) Detecting anomalous gene clusters and pathogenicity islands in diverse bacterial genomes. *Trends Microbiol.* 9, 335–343

Kalaria, R.N. (2001) Advances in molecular genetics and pathology of cerebrovascular disorders. *Trends Neurosci.* 24, 392–400

Spear, B.B. et al. (2001) Clinical application of pharmacogenetics. Trends Mol. Med. 7, 201–204

Conference reports

Drug Discovery Today is pleased to publish the highlights from international conferences. Conference participants who wish to cover a particular meeting should contact:

Dr Joanna Owens, *Drug Discovery Today*, 84 Theobald's Road, London, UK WC1X 8RR tel: +44 (0)20 7611 4365, fax: +44 (0)20 7611 4485 e-mail: joanna.owens@drugdiscoverytoday.com