

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN METABOTROPIC GLUTAMATE RECEPTORS AS NOVEL DRUG TARGETS

M.J. O'Neill¹, M.J. Fell², K.A. Svensson², J.M. Witkin² and S.N. Mitchell¹

¹Eli Lilly and Co., Ltd., Lilly Research Centre, Erl Wood Manor, Windlesham, Surrey GU20 6PH, UK; ²Eli Lilly and Company, Lilly Corporate Center, Indianapolis, IN 46285-0510, USA

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SUMMARY

Glutamate is the major excitatory neurotransmitter in the mammalian central nervous system, activating ionotropic (iGlu) and metabotropic (mGlu) glutamate receptors. Targeting iGlu receptors has proven difficult, as these receptors play such a critical role in fast synaptic transmission. In recent years, there has been a switch in the focus of the pharmaceutical industry to target mGlu receptors, as these receptors have a more modulatory role in the brain. Eight subtypes of the G protein-coupled mGlu receptors have been cloned and classified into three groups according to their second messenger association, sequence homology and agonist selectivity. Group I (mGlu₁ and mGlu₅) receptors are positively coupled to phosphatidylinositol (PI) hydrolysis, while group II (mGlu₂ and mGlu₃) and group III (mGlu₄, mGlu₆, mGlu₇ and mGlu₈) receptors are negatively coupled to adenylate cyclase and thought to act as presynaptic autoreceptors, regulating glutamate transmission. There has been rapid progress in understanding the biology of mGlu receptors and their function in the central nervous system (CNS), and the field now has highly potent and selective ligands for many of the mGlu receptor subtypes. Pharmacological tools include both orthosteric and allosteric agonists and antagonists. These molecules have been explored across a range of CNS conditions, the findings of which will be discussed briefly in this review. Recently, some of the most promising molecules have progressed into clinical trials (mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonists for the treatment of anxiety and schizophre-

nia and mGlu₅ receptor antagonists for acute migraine and L-DOPA-induced dyskinesia) and achieved proof of concept. These encouraging results suggest mGlu receptors as novel drug targets with application in a range of psychiatric and neurological conditions.

INTRODUCTION

Glutamate is the key excitatory amino acid in the brain. Glutamate acts on a number of receptors to control several physiological functions under normal conditions and can contribute to several pathological processes under abnormal or disease situations (Fig. 1). Glutamate has been studied for several decades, and after the "excitotoxicity" hypothesis was proposed, the initial focus of many drug discovery efforts in the 1980s and 1990s was to inhibit ionotropic glutamate (iGlu) receptors (see 1, 2 for review). The major iGlu receptors include NMDA, AMPA and kainate receptors, and these have been reviewed in detail elsewhere (3). Inhibition of NMDA receptors in particular was thought to prevent excitotoxicity and potentially be a treatment for epilepsy, stroke and traumatic brain injury, with additional possible applications in anxiety. Current evidence provides strong support for a role for NMDA receptor antagonists in mood disorders (4, 5). However, as these iGlu receptors play a key role in fast synaptic transmission, many of the earlier compounds also had side effects such as ataxia, psychotomimetic effects and memory impairment. While later drug discovery efforts aimed to target subtypes of the NMDA receptor (NR2B) or use low-affinity compounds (such as memantine) that do not block the ion channel for long periods, the progress in the field has been slow. Conversely, in certain central nervous system (CNS) diseases, there is evidence for reduced glutamate function, and therefore there has also been some focus on trying to enhance glutamatergic neurotransmission in the brain to overcome the deficits. For example, enhancing plasticity with AMPA receptor potentiators has been studied extensively in recent years (6-8).

In addition to its rapid action at iGlu receptors, glutamate also acts on metabotropic glutamate (mGlu) receptors, which are G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs). This action at mGlu receptors appears to have a modulatory role on various synapses and circuits in the brain (Fig. 1). The discrete localization of these receptors has allowed distinct brain regions to be targeted, which is often an attractive approach for the treatment of CNS diseases. In this review we will

Correspondence: : Dr. Michael J. O'Neill, Eli Lilly & Co., Ltd., Lilly Research Centre, Erl Wood Manor, Windlesham, Surrey GU20 6PH, UK. E-mail: Oneill_Michael_J@Lilly.com.

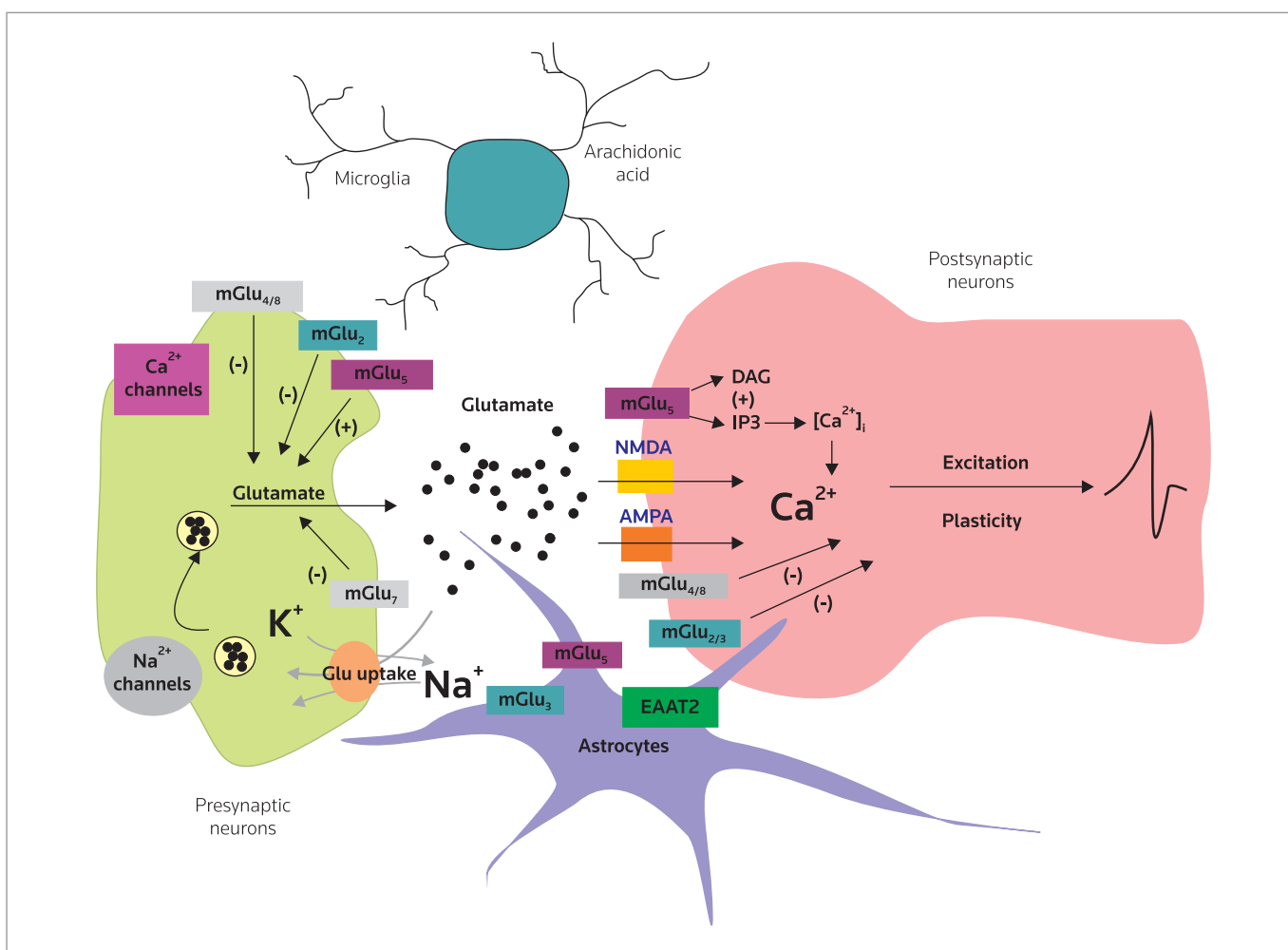


Figure 1. Illustrates some of the localizations and potential sites of action of drugs that modulate mGlu receptors. mGlu receptors are localized presynaptically, postsynaptically and on glial cells. Some are positively (+) or negatively (-) coupled to various intracellular signaling messengers. The specific localizations and signaling pathways allow modulation of mGlu receptors to increase or decrease neurotransmitter release and postsynaptic functions such as excitation or plasticity. In addition, glutamate release and uptake and glial neuronal signaling can be modulated through pharmacological manipulation of various mGlu receptors.

summarize the basic biology of mGlu receptors and illustrate some of the key CNS diseases that might be targeted with mGlu receptor-selective drugs. We will also highlight recent progress in the clinic with mGlu₅ receptor antagonists for acute dental anxiety, migraine and dyskinesia, and with mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonists for anxiety and schizophrenia. The specific areas we will cover are summarized in Table I.

BIOLOGY AND BASIC PHARMACOLOGY OF mGlu RECEPTORS

The metabotropic family of glutamate receptors are G protein-linked receptors. In the late 1990s, a number of new ligands for these receptors were described (9, 10), allowing further investigation of the proposed role of mGlu receptors in aspects of CNS function and disease. It is possible that drugs acting on these receptors would be devoid of many of the side effects that plagued iGlu receptor ligands.

To date, eight subtypes of mGlu receptors have been cloned and classified into three groups according to their second messenger association, sequence homology and agonist selectivity (10, 11). Group I (mGlu₁ and mGlu₅) receptors are positively coupled to phosphatidylinositol (PI) hydrolysis. Group II (mGlu₂ and mGlu₃) and group III (mGlu₄, mGlu₆, mGlu₇ and mGlu₈) receptors are negatively coupled to adenylate cyclase and thought to act as presynaptic autoreceptors, regulating glutamate transmission (12). Several lines of evidence indicate that mGlu₃ receptors are also expressed by astrocytes and glia (13). However, in general, mGlu receptors (of all groups) are expressed to some degree on multiple cell types, such as astrocytes, microglia, oligodendrocytes and some non-CNS cell types (see 14 for review).

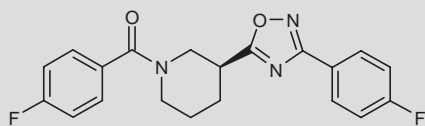
GROUP I mGlu RECEPTORS AS DRUG TARGETS

The predominant area of research to date has focused on the development of selective mGlu₁ receptor antagonists for pain (15, 16) and

Table I: Summary of mGlu receptor subtypes and disease indications covered in this review.

Group	mGlu subtype	Second messenger coupling	Type of intervention at receptor	Diseases indications covered here	Other disease indications	Pharmacological tools	References
Group I	mGlu ₁	(+) PI hydrolysis	Blockade	Pain		<i>mGlu₁ antagonists</i>	
						JNJ-16259685	21, 22
						LY456236	23
						A-841720	36
						JNJ-16567083	38
	mGlu ₅	(+) PI hydrolysis	Blockade	Depression and anxiety, Parkinson's disease	GERD, fragile X, migraine	<i>mGlu₅ antagonists</i>	
						MPEP	24-26
						MTEP	27-29
						AFQ-056	
						<i>mGlu₅ PAM</i>	
Group II	mGlu ₂	(–) cAMP	Activation with agonists or PAMs	Schizophrenia	Anxiety, panic	ADX-47273	18
						<i>Mixed mGlu_{2/3} agonists</i>	
						LY354740	9, 94-97,
						LY379268	105-111, 121
						LY404039	
			Blockade	Depression	Cognition	<i>mGlu₂-selective PAMs</i>	
						LY487379	128, 129
						CBiPES	
						BINA	131, 132
						<i>Mixed mGlu_{2/3} antagonists</i>	
	mGlu ₃	(–) cAMP	Activation	Schizophrenia ?	Anxiety	LY341495	93, 152
						MGS-0039	153, 154, 159,
							161, 164, 171
			Blockade	Depression	Cognition	<i>Mixed mGlu_{2/3} agonists</i>	
						LY354740	9, 94-97,
						LY379268	105-111, 121
						LY404039	
						<i>Mixed mGlu_{2/3} antagonists</i>	
						LY341495	93, 152
						MGS-0039	153, 154, 159,
Group III	mGlu ₄	(–) cAMP	Activation	Parkinson's disease	Anxiety	PHCCC	79, 184
						VU-0155041	186
	mGlu ₆	(–) cAMP					
	mGlu ₇	(–) cAMP	Activation	Parkinson's disease	Anxiety, depression	AMN-082	178
	mGlu ₈	(–) cAMP			Anxiety		

PI, phosphatidylinositol; PAM, positive allosteric modulator; CIAS, cognitive impairment associated with schizophrenia; GERD, gastroesophageal reflux disease.



ADX-47273

mGlu₅ receptor antagonists for a variety of disease states, including anxiety/depression, migraine and Parkinson's disease (PD) (17). However, more recently, positive allosteric modulators (PAMs) of mGlu₅ have been reported, and this area is looking promising for future drug development. For example, **ADX-47273** was recently identified as a potent and selective mGlu₅ PAM. In models sensitive to antipsychotic drug treatment, ADX-47273 reduced conditioned avoidance responding of rats and decreased apomorphine-induced climbing in mice, with little effect on stereotypy or catalepsy. Furthermore, ADX-47273 blocked phencyclidine-, apomorphine- and amphetamine-induced increases in locomotor activity in mice and decreased extracellular levels of dopamine in the nucleus accumbens, but not in the striatum, in rats. In cognition models, ADX-47273 increased novel object recognition and reduced impulsivity in the five-choice serial reaction time task in rats (18). More recent studies have reported that ADX-47273 (3 and 10 mg/kg i.p.), the typical antipsychotic haloperidol (0.1 and 0.2 mg/kg i.p.) and the atypical antipsychotics aripiprazole (1.25-5 mg/kg i.p.) and olanzapine (2.5 and 5 mg/kg i.p.) all reduced amphetamine-induced hyperlocomotion in Sprague-Dawley rats (19). Finally, a recent report indicated that ADX-47273 (100 mg/kg) and various clinically used neuroleptics (haloperidol, olanzapine and aripiprazole) attenuated conditioned avoidance responding behavior in rats. However, ADX-47273 and aripiprazole failed to reduce the phencyclidine (PCP)-induced hyperlocomotion (20). Taken together, these effects are consistent with the hypothesis that allosteric potentiation of mGlu₅ might provide a novel approach for the development of antipsychotic agents where cognitive deficiencies are currently not

well treated, as well as a host of other diseases in which cognitive impairment is not controlled (e.g., depression, Alzheimer's disease).

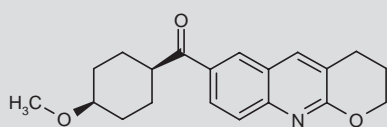
In the present article, we will focus our discussion on group I mGlu receptor antagonists. The rapid progress on the pharmacology of these agents has been greatly helped by the availability of selective and systemically active molecules (see Table I). For example, mGlu₁ receptor antagonists such as **JNJ-16259685** (21, 22) and **LY456236** (20), and mGlu₅ receptor antagonists such as **MPEP** (24-26) and **MTEP** (27-29) allowed scientists to rapidly elucidate some of the functions of these receptors that might underlie various CNS disorders.

mGlu₁ receptor antagonists for pain

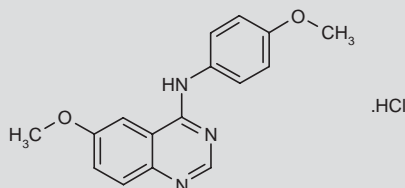
The role of glutamate and various mGlu receptors in pain states has been documented. In particular, group I receptors (15, 16) and mGlu₁ receptor antagonists have been studied intensively (30). Glutamate is released from primary afferent neurons and might thereby contribute to the persistent activation of spinal nerves and increased sensitivity to painful stimuli.

mGlu₁ receptors are present at several sites (spinal, peripheral) that are known to be involved in nociceptive neurotransmission. Pharmacological studies have shown that mGlu₁ receptor agonists can induce spontaneous pain and mGlu₁ receptor antagonists can both block these effects of mGlu₁ receptor agonists and also prevent pain states elicited by other stimuli (31, 32).

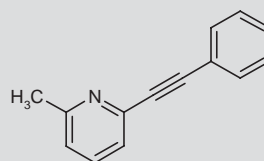
Intrathecal (i.t.) administration of selective mGlu₁ receptor antibodies was assessed in a model of persistent pain induced by intrathecal administration of the mGlu_{1/5} receptor agonist dihydroxyphenylglycine (DHPG), as well as in models of heat pain (plantar test), chemical pain (formalin test) and neuropathic pain (constriction injury of the sciatic nerve). DHPG-induced spontaneous nociceptive behavior was significantly attenuated by treatment with either anti-mGlu₁ immunoglobulin G (IgG) at 30 µg or anti-mGlu₅ IgG (10 and 30 µg). Interestingly, neither antibody (30 µg) significantly reduced formalin pain scores as compared to control IgG. Whether these data reflect differences in the various pain states and models or



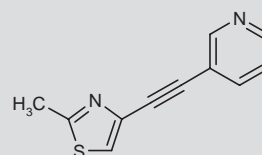
JNJ-16259685



LY456236



MPEP



MTEP

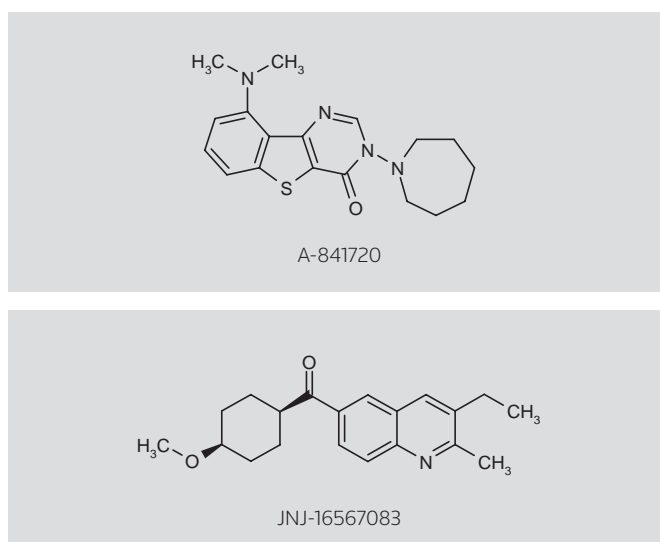
technical differences is unknown. However, i.t. treatment with anti-mGlu₁ IgG (30 µg) or anti-mGlu₅ IgG (30 µg) significantly reduced cold hypersensitivity exhibited 8 days after constriction injury of the sciatic nerve, supporting the contention that group I mGlu receptors play a role in the development of neuropathic pain. The authors conclude that because these antibodies were effective against neuropathic pain, and not acute heat or chemical noxious stimuli, the results suggest that mGlu receptors are involved in nociceptive processing in chronic pain states rather than signaling acute noxious stimuli, and that DHPG-induced pain may be mediated by similar mechanisms as neuropathic pain (33).

Rats treated with an mGlu₁ antisense oligonucleotide reagent delivered continuously to the intrathecal space of the lumbar spinal cord developed marked analgesia, as measured by an increase in the latency to tail flick (55 °C) over a period of 4-7 days. This correlated with a selective reduction in mGlu₁, but not mGlu₅, immunoreactivity in the superficial dorsal horn compared with untreated control rats (34). Heat-related hyperalgesia and mechanical allodynia following chronic constrictive injury of the sciatic nerve have been reduced using antisense oligonucleotide knockdown of spinal mGlu₁ receptors (35).

The majority of the evidence cited above and in the literature has supported a role for mGlu₁ in inflammatory or neuropathic pain states. However, a recent study from Abbott explored the role of mGlu₁ receptors in postoperative pain (36). In this study, the effects of the potent and selective mGlu₁ receptor antagonists **A-841720**, A-794282, A-794278 and A-850002 were evaluated in a skin incision-induced postoperative pain model in rats. In this model, all the mGlu₁ receptor antagonists induced significant attenuation of spontaneous postoperative pain behaviors (37).

Direct comparisons between various group I antagonists have been carried out in pain models. The systemic administration of the mGlu₅ receptor antagonists MPEP and MTEP and the mGlu₁ receptor antagonist LY456236 has been shown to reduce hyperalgesia induced by formalin and mechanical allodynia following spinal nerve ligation (37). However, only the mGlu₁ receptor antagonist LY456236 completely reversed the allodynia. In another study, the effects of the mGlu₁ receptor antagonist **JNJ-16567083** (1.25-5 mg/kg) were compared to MPEP or MTEP (2.5-10 mg/kg) to explore the possible interaction between mGlu₁ and mGlu₅ receptor antagonists and whether tolerance develops to the analgesic effects of these antagonists after prolonged treatment (38). JNJ-16567083, MTEP and MPEP significantly reduced the manifestation of both phases of the formalin response, but none of these mGlu receptor antagonists affected the withdrawal latencies in a model of acute pain (Hargreaves test), which has a different underlying mechanism than the formalin response. The suppressive effect on formalin-induced pain behavior was much stronger when mGlu₁ and mGlu₅ receptor antagonists were coinjected compared to administration of a single antagonist. The study also provided the first direct in vivo evidence that prolonged administration of MTEP (5 mg/kg) over 7 days leads to the development of tolerance to its antinociceptive effects.

Despite the consistent reports of efficacy with mGlu₁ receptor antagonists in pain states, there have also been several reports of liabili-



ties with mGlu₁ receptor antagonists. mGlu₁ receptors are highly expressed in the cerebellum, and inhibition can lead to motor impairment and a disruption of balance and coordination. Targeted deletion of the mGlu₁ receptor gene can cause defects in development and function in the cerebellum. These effects can be rescued by introduction of the mGlu₁ receptor alpha transgene into mGlu₁-null mutant (*mGlu1*^{-/-}) mice with a Purkinje cell-specific promoter (39). Other reports have suggested that inhibition of mGlu₁ can block acquisition of certain cognitive tasks in rodents. For example, one study reported that the analgesic effects of the selective mGlu₁ receptor antagonist A-841720 are associated with motor and cognitive (Y-maze and the water maze tests) side effects (40). The authors concluded that the lack of separation between efficacy and side effects in preclinical models indicates that mGlu₁ receptor antagonism may not provide an adequate therapeutic window for the development of such antagonists as novel analgesic agents in humans. Taken together, these effects have slowed the progression of mGlu₁ receptor antagonists into human pain trials. Several new potent and selective mGlu₁ receptor antagonists based on alternative chemical scaffolds have been reported in the patent literature and we will wait to see if these newer molecules will have sufficient margin to take forward into clinical development.

mGlu₅ receptor antagonists for anxiety/depression

Several pharmaceutical companies (Roche, Lilly, Merck & Co., Novartis, Schering-Plough) and academic labs have consistently reported efficacy with MPEP, MTEP and other novel mGlu₅ receptor antagonists in various preclinical models of anxiety. Furthermore, it has also been reported that mGlu₅ receptor knockout mice displayed a significant attenuation of the hyperthermic response to stress compared to littermate wild-type control mice (41, 42).

The discovery of the mGlu₅ receptor antagonist MPEP (17, 24-26) provided investigators with the tools needed to evaluate the behavioral effects of inhibiting mGlu₅ receptors. Early studies from Novartis reported that MPEP had anxiolytic-like actions in animal models (26), and these data were quickly confirmed by other groups

(28, 43). Merck & Co. subsequently reported that a related compound, MTEP, significantly reduced fear-potentiated startle and increased punished responding in a modified Geller–Seifter conflict model, consistent with an anxiolytic-like profile. In both models, the magnitude of the anxiolytic-like response was similar to that seen with diazepam (44, 45). Varty et al. from Schering-Plough (37) compared the effects of mGlu₅ and mGlu₁ receptor antagonists in the Vogel and conditioned lick suppression models of anxiety. MPEP (3–30 mg/kg), MTEP (3–10 mg/kg) and LY456236 (10–30 mg/kg) produced anxiolytic-like effects similar to the benzodiazepine and chlordiazepoxide (CDP, 6 mg/kg). However, only MPEP and MTEP were able to produce a level of anxiolysis comparable to CDP. In another report from Roche, MPEP had a significant anxiolytic-like effect, comparable in magnitude to diazepam, at 10–30 mg/kg in the two conflict and conditioned emotive response tasks (46).

Fenobam is an atypical anxiolytic agent that has anxiolytic-like activity in rodents and anxiolytic effects in humans (47). Porter and colleagues at Roche (48) reported that fenobam was a selective and potent mGlu₅ receptor antagonist acting at an allosteric modulatory site shared with MPEP. Fenobam exhibits anxiolytic-like activity in the stress-induced hyperthermia model, Vogel conflict test, Geller–Seifter conflict test and conditioned emotional response, with a minimum effective dose of 10–30 mg/kg p.o.

There is also evidence that mGlu₅ receptor antagonists may have antidepressant-like efficacy. Early studies with MPEP (1–20 mg/kg) reported that the compound shortened the immobility time in the tail suspension test (TST) in mice, although it was inactive in the forced-swim test (FST) in rats (44). Further studies reported antidepressant-like effects for MPEP in olfactory bulbectomized (OB) rats (49). Likewise, MTEP (0.3–3 mg/kg) produced a significant, dose-dependent decrease in the immobility time of mice in the TST; however, at doses of 1 or 10 mg/kg it did not influence the behavior of rats in the FST (50). The lack of response and variability in the early FST studies may have been due to the research protocols employed. Moreover, the repeated administration of MTEP (1 mg/kg) attenuated the OB-related hyperactivity of rats in the open field test, in a manner similar to that seen following chronic (but not acute) treatment with typical antidepressant drugs.

Studies conducted at Lilly reported antidepressant-like activity for MPEP and MTEP in a mouse FST (51). In addition, the authors demonstrated that the antidepressant-like effects were mediated via mGlu₅ receptors, since the antidepressant-like effects of MPEP were not observed in mGlu₅ receptor knockout mice, whereas comparable effects of the tricyclic antidepressant imipramine persisted in the mutant mice (51). Another recent study reported antidepressant-like effects in behavioral despair tests in rats and mice with both mGlu₁ and mGlu₅ receptor antagonists (52).

Addex Pharmaceuticals recently completed a proof-of-concept study with a novel mGlu₅ antagonist, ADX-10059, in acute dental anxiety. This compound has demonstrated activity in several preclinical models for detecting anxiolytic agents (Vogel test, elevated plus maze, light–dark box). Despite this preclinical evidence, the compound failed to show activity in the acute dental anxiety paradigm (Charlotte Keyword, BPS Meeting, Edinburgh, July 2009). However, it is not known what level of target inhibition (receptor occupancy) was achieved in this proof-of-concept study. There are several PET

ligands available for mGlu₅ receptors and one of these ligands ([¹¹C]-ABP-688) has recently been used in human volunteers (53). It will therefore be possible to use ligands such as this to determine the degree of receptor occupancy achieved by a ligand in future clinical studies. It is also possible that the use of acute dental anxiety might not be the most appropriate clinical paradigm. The neural substrates and downstream biochemical pathways may be quite different between acute dental anxiety and other common anxiety conditions (e.g., generalized anxiety disorder, panic disorder, social anxiety, etc.) and thus further clinical studies in this area are warranted.

mGlu₅ receptor antagonists and Parkinson's disease

There has been much interest in the role of mGlu₅ receptors in PD for most of the last decade. It was well known that dopaminergic and glutamatergic systems of the basal ganglia are reciprocally involved in the complex circuitry controlling motor behavior (54). Glutamate may play a central role in the disruption of normal basal ganglia function and may be important in driving neurodegeneration in PD (55). Earlier work from Greenamyre and coworkers focused on central infusion or systemic administration of NMDA receptor antagonists (56). However, it was later recognized that mGlu₅ receptors are also expressed in key regions of the basal ganglia, such as the subthalamic nucleus (STN) and substantia nigra (SN) zona reticulata, and contribute to glutamatergic transmission in basal ganglia (54, 57). mGlu₅ receptors activate directly and indirectly (via potentiation of NMDA currents) neurons in the STN and may contribute to burst firing in the STN, a characteristic of parkinsonian status (58, 59). More recent data indicate that mGlu₅ receptor expression is increased in the basal ganglia of monkeys following MPTP treatment (60). In addition, bilateral MPTP-lesioned monkeys showed an increase in [³H]-ABP-688 or [³H]-MPEP in the putamen that was enhanced in dyskinetic animals as opposed to the monkeys which did not develop dyskinesia (60). Therefore, the molecular target appears to be upregulated during the emergence of unwanted motor effects, suggesting that antagonism of mGlu₅ receptors could have beneficial effects on motor function. It is also possible that in addition to potential motor benefits, blocking mGlu₅ receptors might also help treat the ongoing pathological changes of the disease by inhibiting excitatory drive onto the vulnerable SN pars compacta cells. The availability of tool compounds such as MPEP and MTEP allowed both of these hypotheses to be tested and both symptomatic and neuroprotective effects have been shown in preclinical rodent models of PD.

Symptomatic effects

During the initial behavioral profiling of MPEP, it was shown that the compound increased ipsiversive rotations in unilateral 6-hydroxydopamine (6-OHDA)-lesioned rats (25), and this provided some early evidence that pharmacological manipulation of mGlu₅ receptors had effects on the lesioned basal ganglia. Further studies indicated that chronic (not acute) treatment with MPEP at 1.5–6 mg/kg i.p. was able to normalize deficits in a conditional reaction time task model following bilateral 6-OHDA lesion of the rat dorsal striatum (61). In a follow-up study, the same group found that MPEP was also able to provide some reversal of 6-OHDA-induced changes in neu-

roanatomical markers (cytochrome oxidase subunit 1 in STN and glutamate decarboxylase 67 mRNA in SN zona reticulata), which supported the behavioral findings (62).

In order to study the site of action of these effects, Philips et al. examined whether the STN and its output structures mediated such an effect using a unilateral rat model of PD (63). A battery of simple behavioral tests, sensitive to dopamine depletion, was applied consecutively: 1) prior to surgery; 2) 3 weeks following unilateral 6-OHDA lesion of the SN pars compacta; and 3) at 1 h, 24 h and 4 days following a microinjection of MPEP via an indwelling cannula into the STN, entopeduncular nucleus (EP) or SN zona reticulata. Unilaterally dopamine-depleted animals typically had severe motor and sensorimotor asymmetries 3 weeks following surgery. Microinjection of 25 nmol MPEP into the STN of these animals significantly attenuated these asymmetries relative to vehicle. In contrast, microinjection of MPEP into either the EP or SN zona reticulata was without effect. These data suggest that one of the major sites of action of mGlu₅ receptor antagonists in 6-OHDA-treated rats is at the level of the STN.

Studies in reserpine-treated rats suggested that there are complex changes in mGlu receptor expression (64). In situ hybridization demonstrated that acute reserpine treatment caused a significant decrease in the expression of mGlu₅ receptor mRNA in the rostral and caudal parts of the rat striatum. At the same time, [³H]-MPEP ligand binding experiments detected a significant increase in the total number of mGlu₅ receptors in the same region of the motor loop. Therefore, mGlu₅ receptor turnover is downregulated in reserpinized rats, due possibly to an imbalance in the rates of synthesis/insertion and internalization/degradation of the receptor.

More recently, several reports have used microPET to study changes in dopamine transporter and mGlu₅ receptors in 6-OHDA-lesioned rats (65, 66). These studies have reported enhanced mGlu₅ receptor binding in the lesioned striatum and in the ipsilateral hippocampus and cortex, and also that glutamatergic neurotransmission might have a complementary role in dopaminergic degeneration, which can be evaluated by in vivo PET imaging.

MPEP (67) and MTEP (68, 69) have also been reported to inhibit haloperidol-induced muscle rigidity and catalepsy. Data from a series of studies have shown robust antidyskinetic effects with mGlu₅ receptor antagonists (69–71). In many of these studies a unilateral medial forebrain bundle 6-OHDA lesion (90–100% depletion of tyrosine hydroxylase) was used. One study demonstrated that MTEP 5 mg/kg i.p. (at the same time as L-DOPA) for 3 weeks was able to attenuate L-DOPA-mediated abnormal involuntary movements (AIMs) and associated molecular changes (prodynorphin mRNA) in the striatum (70). In another study, MPEP 1.5 mg/kg i.p. (30 min prior to L-DOPA) for 3 weeks blocked L-DOPA-induced AIMs and increased FosB/ΔFosB staining in striatum (71). The addition of molecular markers to these studies suggested that there are clear anatomical substrates underlying the behavioral effects (70, 71). There is also evidence that MPEP and MTEP block L-DOPA-mediated AIMs, with minimal effects on the beneficial motor actions produced by L-DOPA (72). An interesting study from Gravius et al. (73) evaluated if there was tolerance to learning, anxiety and levodopa-induced dyskinesia in rats following subchronic blockade of mGlu₅ receptors by MTEP. Results indicated that tolerance does not devel-

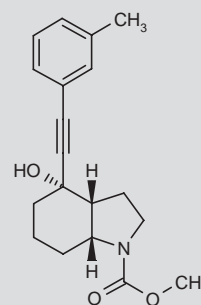
op to the anxiolytic-like and antidyskinetic effects of MTEP, at least at the doses and mode of administration used. In addition, there was no tolerance to the memory-impairing effect of MTEP in these studies (73).

A study in MPTP-treated monkeys reported that L-DOPA-induced dyskinesias (LIDs) were associated with an increase of mGlu₅ receptor-specific binding in the posterior putamen and pallidum (+41% and +56%, respectively) compared to controls (74). In contrast, prevention of dyskinesias was associated with an important decrease of mGlu₅ receptor-specific binding in these areas (–37% and –48%, respectively) compared with dyskinetic animals. Moreover, an upregulation (+34%) of mGlu₅ receptor binding was seen in the anterior caudate nucleus of saline-treated MPTP monkeys. This study was the first to provide evidence that enhanced mGlu₅ receptor-specific binding in the posterior putamen and pallidum may contribute to the pathogenesis of LIDs in PD.

A more recent study evaluated the dose–response of MPEP and MTEP (1.5–30 mg/kg) administered 15 and 30 min, respectively, prior to L-DOPA in monkeys (75). In general, treatment with mGlu₅ receptor antagonists had no effect on the antiparkinsonian activity of L-DOPA. Interestingly, the mean dyskinesia score during the duration of the L-DOPA motor effect, the 1-h peak period dyskinesia scores and the maximal dyskinesia scores were dose-dependently reduced with both drugs, reaching statistical significance at 10 and 30 mg/kg. In 2008, an mGlu₅ receptor antagonist from Novartis AG, **AFQ-056**, achieved clinical proof of concept in PD/L-DOPA-induced dyskinesia (<http://www.novartis.com/newsroom/media-releases/en/2008/1271207.shtml>). This compound was also reported to have antidyskinetic effects in monkeys (Theresa di Paolo et al., MDS Congress, Chicago, 2008).

Neuroprotective effects

Several studies have also reported neuroprotective actions for mGlu₅ receptor antagonism in various neurotoxin models of PD. The first studies reported that MPEP (five doses of 5 mg/kg i.p.) when administered prior to methamphetamine (5 x 10 mg/kg s.c. at 2 h) was able to attenuate the decreased levels of dopamine and its metabolites DOPAC (3,4-dihydroxyphenylacetic acid) and HVA (homovanillic acid) (76). Follow-on studies reported that MPEP (30 mg/kg) was able to protect against striatal and nigral degeneration produced by



AFQ-056

MPTP. Of interest, MPEP produced a good level of protection against lower doses of MPTP, but only a mild level of protection against the higher doses of MPTP. These authors also reported that mGlu₅ knockout mice were more resistant to MPTP neurotoxicity (77).

Several other studies have reported that MPEP can protect against 6-OHDA-mediated nigrostriatal degeneration (78-80). In some of these published studies, intranigral infusion of MPEP prior to infusion of 6-OHDA provided 20-30% protection, as assessed by the number of TH-positive nigral cells (79, 80). Another study demonstrated that systemic treatment with MPEP (minipump infusion of 1.5 or 3 mg/kg s.c. starting after intrastriatal infusion of 6-OHDA) was able to significantly protect tyrosine hydroxylase-positive SN cells (80). In the same study, MPEP also completely blocked the 6-OHDA-induced increase in metabolic activity in the STN.

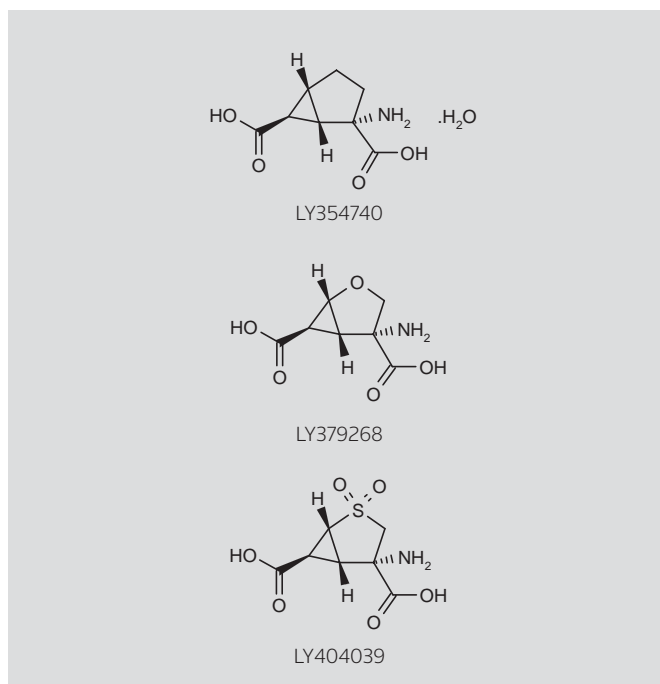
GROUP II mGlu RECEPTORS AS DRUG TARGETS

Group II mGlu receptor agonists for schizophrenia

Pathological glutamate release or altered glutamate receptor activity has been implicated in the pathophysiology of many psychiatric conditions, including schizophrenia (81-83). The glutamate hypothesis of schizophrenia is based largely on the observation that the noncompetitive NMDA receptor channel-blocking antagonists, such as PCP, ketamine and MK-801 (84), induce a psychotic state in healthy humans and can exacerbate pre-existing symptoms in patients with schizophrenia (85). Further evidence for a role of glutamate in schizophrenia comes from the finding that noncompetitive NMDA receptor antagonists increase excitability in limbic brain regions such as the prefrontal cortex (as measured by increases in cerebral blood flow and metabolic rates), and these effects are positively correlated to the induction of psychosis (86-88). Accordingly, a drug that can correct or modulate dysfunctional glutamatergic hyperexcitation in limbic cortical regions may have potential in the treatment of schizophrenia (86).

Group II mGlu (mGlu₂ and mGlu₃) receptors are structurally related and function to modulate glutamate and GABA release as presynaptic autoreceptors on glutamatergic terminals, as presynaptic heteroreceptors (89, 90) or via modulatory actions on glial cells (91, 92). The mGlu₂ and mGlu₃ receptor subtypes are highly expressed in forebrain and limbic brain areas, including regions which are known to be involved in the pathophysiology of schizophrenia (e.g., prefrontal cortex, dorsal and ventral striatum, thalamus, hippocampus and amygdala) (93). Thus, the anatomical distribution of group II mGlu receptors, combined with their ability to modulate neuronal excitation, and in particular glutamatergic neurotransmission, has led to the concept that group II mGlu receptors may be potential novel targets for therapeutic intervention in schizophrenia. Recent progress in this area of drug discovery has resulted in compounds with promising potential therapeutic efficacy, with the possibility for an improved side effect profile compared to conventional antipsychotic drugs.

Over the past decade, a series of orthosteric agonists for group II mGlu receptors have been identified (9, 94-98). These conformationally constrained glutamic acid analogues include **LY354740**, **LY379268** and **LY404039**. The compounds are highly selective for



group II mGlu receptors but do not discriminate between the mGlu₂ and mGlu₃ receptor subtypes (compounds which selectively potentiate mGlu₂ receptors have been described and are discussed below). Importantly, orthosteric mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonists have no appreciable affinity for group I or group III mGlu receptors, iGlu receptors, glutamate transporters or monoaminergic receptors such as dopamine or serotonin (5-HT), which are the targets of all current antipsychotic medications (99). To date, the actions of multiple mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonists have been explored in a variety of animal models predictive of antipsychotic efficacy. Notably, selective mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonists attenuate many of the behavioral and neurochemical effects of the major psychotomimetic drugs used to model psychosis. The effects of mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonists in these models and evidence for antipsychotic efficacy are discussed in subsequent sections.

In rodents, subanesthetic doses of NMDA receptor antagonists selectively increase brain excitation in limbic brain regions (medial prefrontal cortex [mPFC], hippocampus, cingulate cortex) and areas directly connected to them (thalamus, nucleus accumbens) (100). Behaviorally, these actions manifest as increases in locomotor activity and stereotypies (101, 102), and impairments in cognitive function and attentional behaviors (103, 104). Like atypical antipsychotic drugs, mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonists (LY379268, LY354740 and LY404039) block many of these behaviors (105-111). NMDA receptor antagonists also increase the efflux of various neurotransmitters in limbic brain regions and this can be attenuated by the administration of mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonists. For example, the mGlu_{2/3} agonists LY379268 and LY354740 attenuate PCP- or ketamine-evoked increases in glutamate efflux in the mPFC (105). mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonists also attenuate NMDA receptor antagonist-evoked increases in dopamine and norepinephrine efflux in the nucleus accumbens and hippocampus, respectively (110, 112, 113), and LY379268 attenuates

ates ketamine-induced increases in dialysate histamine levels in the mPFC, ventral hippocampus and nucleus accumbens shell (114). Thus, it appears that antipsychotic-like actions of mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonists involve not only reductions in glutamatergic neurotransmission, but may also indirectly involve the modulation of monoaminergic transmission including dopamine, norepinephrine and histamine. LY354740 also blocks PCP-induced increases in brain activation, as measured by pharmacomagnetic resonance imaging (phMRI) (115). It should be noted, however, that this mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonist does not block all the effects of NMDA receptor antagonists. For example, LY-354740 had no effect on PCP-induced disruption of prepulse inhibition (PPI) (116), nor did it attenuate the discriminative stimulus effects of PCP in rats (117).

Amphetamine-induced motor activation is commonly used to model acute psychosis or the positive symptoms of schizophrenia, and the behavioral effects of amphetamine have been attributed to increased dopaminergic and noradrenergic activity in mesolimbic brain regions, including the nucleus accumbens (118). All clinically effective antipsychotics reverse the locomotor-stimulating effects of amphetamine, and this property has been ascribed to their antagonism of mesolimbic dopamine receptors (119). When administered to rodents, mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonists also attenuate certain behaviors (increase in ambulations and rearing behavior but not fine movements) induced by amphetamines (106, 120). As in the PCP model, these effects of mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonists are reversed by pretreatment with the selective mGlu_{2/3} receptor antagonist **LY341495** in a dose-related manner (106). The mechanisms which underlie these effects of mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonists on amphetamine-induced hyperactivity are not clear, but could include decreases in the release of glutamate and other neurotransmitters. In contrast to typical dopamine receptors (121), glutamatergic neurons are, however, important regulators of dopaminergic tone in the nucleus accumbens (122). Thus, mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonists may reduce glutamate release in the nucleus accumbens and thereby indirectly modulate dopamine neurotransmission.

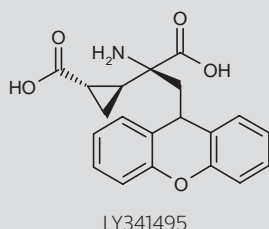
Atypical antipsychotics such as clozapine and olanzapine block 5-HT_{2A} receptors and this action has been linked to improvements in the control of negative and cognitive symptoms (123). Although mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonists do not directly interact with 5-HT receptors, in electrophysiological experiments mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonists (LY354740, LY379268 and LY404039) block both 5-HT_{2A} receptor-mediated and electrically evoked excitatory postsynaptic currents in the prefrontal cortex of rats (99, 124). These actions of mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonists are blocked by the mGlu_{2/3} receptor antagonist LY341495. The administration of mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonists also

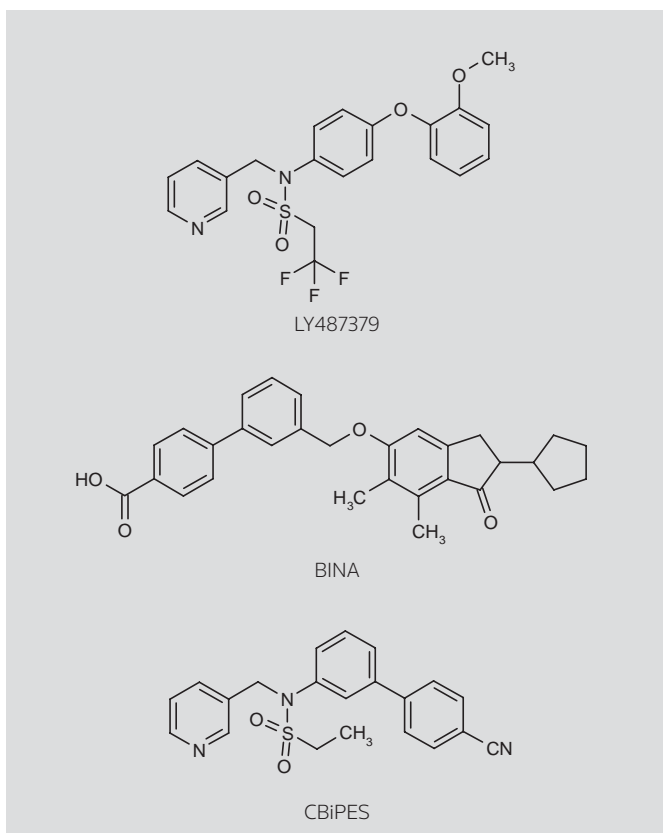
blocks behavioral (headshakes) and neurochemical effects (increased mPFC c-fos expression) of serotonergic psychotogens which act through 5-HT_{2A} receptor activation (e.g., 1-[2,5-dimethoxy-4-iodophenyl]-2-aminopropane, or DOI) (125, 126). Interestingly, these findings suggest a common mechanism of action shared by clinically effective atypical antipsychotic drugs and mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonists.

In addition to effects in psychostimulant models of psychosis, a number of other behavioral and neurochemical effects of mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonists suggest their antipsychotic potential. For instance, the mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonist LY379268 significantly increases extracellular levels of dopamine, 5-HT and their major metabolites (DOPAC, HVA and 5-HIAA [5-hydroxyindoleacetic acid]) in the prefrontal cortex (111, 127). Increases in central monoamine levels in this brain area have been suggested to underlie the beneficial effects of atypical antipsychotics on the negative and cognitive symptoms of schizophrenia (125). Furthermore, the mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonist LY404039 has been shown to block conditioned avoidance responding without altering escape responses (a model predictive of antipsychotic efficacy) and to produce minimal disruption of rotarod behavior (111). Thus, mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonists show similar efficacy as therapeutically used antipsychotic drugs in these preclinical screens, but with evidence of a lower liability for motor side effects.

In addition to orthosteric mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonists, several allosteric potentiators of mGlu₂ receptors have been described. In contrast to mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonists which act directly at the glutamate (orthosteric) site, these allosteric modulators act at a site within the seven-transmembrane domain and induce a leftward shift in the glutamate concentration–response curve. Unlike orthosteric mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonists, these PAMs are selective for mGlu₂ and do not potentiate responses to the activation of mGlu₃ or other mGlu receptor subtypes. A number of structural classes have been published during the past years and are typified by **LY487379** (128, 129) and **BINA** (130, 131). Many of these mGlu₂ PAMs have been shown to have efficacy in animal models predictive of antipsychotic efficacy. For example, **CBIPES** and LY487379 reverse PCP-induced hyperlocomotor activity in mice. Similarly, BINA also blocks PCP- (but not amphetamine) induced hyperlocomotor activity and disruptions in PPI in mice (132). A recent study also suggests that BINA can reverse the increase in BOLD functional MRI (fMRI) signal in the rat brain induced by PCP (133). Together these data demonstrate that, like orthosteric agonists of mGlu_{2/3} receptors, selective PAMs of mGlu₂ receptors have efficacy in animal models of psychosis and may be useful as a novel approach for the treatment of schizophrenia. In addition, the mechanism of allosteric modulation could potentially offer advantages in terms of improved tolerability without the development of tolerance when compared to classical orthosteric agonists.

Although mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonists demonstrate activity in preclinical models in which atypical antipsychotics are also effective, recent evidence suggests that the antipsychotic-like effects of mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonists are mechanistically distinct from current antipsychotic medications, which primarily target dopaminergic and 5-HT receptor subtypes. For example, studies carried out in transgenic mice reveal that the antipsychotic actions of the mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonists LY404039, LY379268 and LY314582 in the PCP and





amphetamine hyperlocomotor models are lost in mice with selective deletions of mGlu₂ and mGlu_{2/3} receptors, but not mGlu₃ receptors (132-136). In marked contrast, the ability of atypical antipsychotics (e.g., clozapine, risperidone and olanzapine) to prevent psychostimulant-evoked increases in locomotor activity are unaffected by the loss of mGlu_{2/3} receptors. Additionally, the effects of mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonists in animal models are readily blocked by pretreatment with the mGlu_{2/3} receptor antagonist LY341495 (106, 111). A dominant role for mGlu₂ receptors in the antipsychotic-like effects of mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonists is further supported by the finding that the effects of orthosteric mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonists can be mimicked by selective allosteric potentiators of mGlu₂ receptors. Together with the studies described previously, these data suggest that orthosteric mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonists and/or selective mGlu₂ receptor potentiators may provide a novel approach to the treatment of schizophrenia that is mechanistically distinct from current antipsychotic medications.

Consistent with the predictions from preclinical animal studies, a recent 4-week phase II proof-of-concept study in patients with schizophrenia demonstrated antipsychotic activity with LY2140023 monohydrate, the oral prodrug of the mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonist LY404039 (137). LY2140023-treated patients showed statistically significant improvements in the Positive and Negative Symptom Scale (PANSS) total scores by the end of the first week of treatment compared to placebo, and similar improvements were observed in the Clinical Global Impression-Severity (CGI-S), PANSS negative and PANSS positive subscores. Unlike currently available antipsychotic

medications, adverse events such as dyskinesia, akathisia, parkinsonism or increased serum prolactin were not reported in patients receiving the mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonist. Encouragingly, in contrast to some antipsychotic medications which may have negative metabolic side effects, LY2140023 treatment resulted in a mean 0.51-kg weight reduction. This initial proof-of-concept study by Patil et al. provides evidence that the activation of mGlu_{2/3} receptors might be an effective novel approach for treating both the positive and negative symptoms of schizophrenia. Another recent clinical trial to replicate the findings failed to meet the primary endpoint, as there was a large placebo response in the study (the active comparator olanzapine also failed to separate from placebo in this trial). Therefore, additional trials will be required to determine the safety of these mGlu compounds after long-term treatment, as well as efficacy in other symptom domains such as cognitive function, which remains a major unmet therapeutic need in schizophrenia.

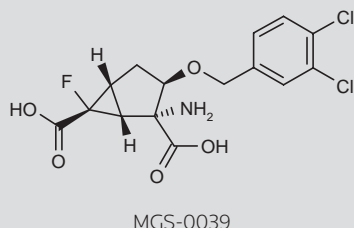
Dampening of glutamatergic tone with group II mGlu receptor agonists may also be a useful approach for the treatment of anxiety/stress disorders. Indeed, clinical proof of concept for mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonists in the treatment of affective disorders has also been achieved (138, 139).

Group II mGlu receptor antagonists as potential antidepressant agents

Evidence supporting a prominent role for pathophysiological regulation of glutamate in major depressive disorders is accumulating (140-143). A major hypothesis derived from convergent preclinical and clinical findings, put simplistically, is that an upregulation of glutamate neurotransmission through AMPA receptor signaling (143, 144) and a downregulation of NMDA receptor function (4, 145) is the driving force of the machinery necessary for homeostatic mood functioning. There are a host of biological targets that can be engaged by small molecules to modify this system, including direct interaction of molecules with AMPA or NMDA receptors, regulatory sites for glutamate release that include transporters, other neurotransmitter regulators (e.g., GABA, dopamine) and the mGlu receptors. Three groups of mGlu receptors have been defined and all have been associated to a greater or lesser extent with the regulation of mood. The present brief overview and discussion will focus on the group II receptors, which include mGlu₂ and mGlu₃ receptors (142, 145, 146).

Evidence supporting a role for blockade of mGlu₂ and/or mGlu₃ receptors as a potential novel antidepressant strategy comes from a number of sources: 1) receptor localization; 2) receptor physiology; 3) antidepressant-like behavioral effects of mGlu_{2/3} receptor antagonists; 4) antidepressant-like biochemical effects of mGlu_{2/3} receptor antagonists; 5) impact of mGlu_{2/3} receptor antagonists on AMPA receptor function; and 6) commonalities in the antidepressant efficacy of ketamine and conventional antidepressants (e.g., fluoxetine, desipramine) in humans to the mechanisms underlying effects of mGlu_{2/3} receptor antagonists. In summary, convergent evidence provides a cogent reason to anticipate that mGlu_{2/3} receptor blockade in humans could deliver an antidepressant effect.

mGlu₂ and mGlu₃ receptors are well positioned both anatomically and physiologically to regulate glutamate and other neurotransmitters within the CNS in the control of mood. High levels of expression



of mGlu₂ mRNA are identified in neurons of the accessory and external regions of the anterior olfactory bulb, pyramidal neurons in the entorhinal and parasubicular cortical regions, and granule cells of the dentate gyrus (147). mGlu₃ mRNA is highly expressed in neuronal cells of the cerebral cortex and the caudate putamen, and in granule cells of the dentate gyrus (148). Unlike other mGlu receptors, mGlu₃ mRNA is highly expressed in glial cells throughout the brain (149), where recent focus in relation to mood disorders has been placed (150). mGlu₂ receptors are mainly localized presynaptically as an autoreceptor or heteroreceptor, and are found in preterminal rather than terminal portions of axons (150). mGlu₃ receptors have a prominent localization at postsynaptic sites, as well as on glial cells (151).

Understanding the role of mGlu_{2/3} receptors in mood disorders has been aided by the discovery of selective pharmacological tools. LY341495 displays nanomolar affinity for mGlu₂ and mGlu₃ receptors, with mGlu₈ receptors as the closest selectivity target (> 100-fold) (152). A glutamate analogue, **MGS-0039**, has recently been reported to have nanomolar affinity at mGlu₂ and mGlu₃ receptors, but the affinity at mGlu₅ and mGlu₈ receptors has not yet been reported (153, 154). Due to the limited oral bioavailability of MGS-0039, ester prodrugs have been constructed that are designed to deliver MGS-0039 after oral dosing through hydrolytic release of the parent compound, and oral activity has been disclosed (155, 156). In addition to these two molecules that act at the orthosteric (glutamate) site of the mGlu_{2/3} receptors, negative allosteric modulators of mGlu_{2/3} receptors have also been identified and characterized to some extent (157, 158).

mGlu_{2/3} receptors also influence the release and synaptic availability of glutamate and other neurotransmitters known to regulate mood, such as GABA and monoamine neurotransmitters (89, 90). MGS-0039 and LY341495 increased firing rates of the serotonergic dorsal raphe neurons (159), and MGS-0039 increased 5-HT levels in extracellular compartments of the mPFC (160; see 146 for comparable findings with LY341495). MGS-0039 has also been shown to modulate dopaminergic tone (160), a finding that has been linked to mGlu₂ receptors, as defined by mice lacking mGlu₂ receptors (161). Hippocampal neurogenesis is one of the mechanisms associated with antidepressant activity (see 162-164 for review). Subchronic dosing with MGS-0039 (14 days) increased progenitor cell proliferation in the dentate gyrus (165).

Robust antidepressant-like behavioral effects have been reported for MGS-0039 and LY341495. Efficacy has been observed in the FST in both mice and rats, in the TST in mice (144, 153, 166) and in the

learned helplessness test (167). LY341495 attenuated reward deficits observed in nicotine-dependent rats, as evaluated by intracranial self-stimulation (168), indicating that blockade of mGlu_{2/3} receptors opposes anhedonic effects. The AMPA receptor antagonist NBQX precipitated withdrawal-like elevations in threshold in nicotine-treated rats (168), showing an involvement of AMPA receptors. In addition to models predictive of efficacy in mood disorders, MGS-0039 showed anxiolytic-like effects in some anxiety models (142).

Although full examination of this issue is not possible here, it is important to mention that mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonists have also been reported to help accelerate the biochemical processing of antidepressant-like effects. Chronic imipramine administration decreased the ability of mGlu_{2/3} receptor agonists to inhibit forskolin-stimulated cAMP formation, although there was an increase in the group II mGlu receptor-mediated phosphoinositol responses (169, 170).

The mechanisms underlying the biochemical and behavioral effects of mGlu_{2/3} receptor antagonists have been shown to be related to the functional amplification of AMPA receptor function. Increased 5-HT release in the mPFC by MGS-0039 was attenuated by NBQX, an AMPA receptor antagonist. NBQX also prevented the antidepressant-like effects of MGS-0039 in the TST (171). The downstream action of mGlu_{2/3} receptor antagonism on AMPA receptors is compelling, given data implicating AMPA receptor enhancements as a core mechanism involved in the action of antidepressants; indeed, AMPA receptor potentiators have been suggested as putative antidepressants (6, 143, 144, 145, 172, 173).

If mGlu_{2/3} receptor antagonists are antidepressant in humans, the question remains whether such novel antidepressants would provide value beyond that of conventional or monoamine-based antidepressants. Furthermore, what side effect liabilities might be anticipated with this mechanism? As for the efficacy question, additional impact upon cognition and fatigue/wake states is anticipated (142). As for the question of side effects, the potential for reduced sexual dysfunction and treatment-emergent weight gain is not anticipated given this is a non-selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor (SSRI) mechanism of action.

GROUP III MGLU RECEPTORS AS DRUG TARGETS

There has also been a huge increase of interest in the role of the various group III mGlu receptors in CNS disorders. The area has been hampered by poor pharmacological tools. However, recently some newer molecules have emerged. In particular, mGlu₄ and mGlu₇ agonists and PAMs have been reported (174-176). Although much of the focus with mGlu₇ and mGlu₈ (primarily receptor knockout data) receptors has been on their role in anxiety and depression (91, 145, 177, 178), in this review we will focus on the role of mGlu₄ and mGlu₇ receptors in PD, where the science has been most advanced.

mGlu₄ and mGlu₇ receptor agonists or PAMs for PD

The group III mGlu receptors (mGlu₄, mGlu₆, mGlu₇ and mGlu₈) are coupled to G_{i/o} proteins and are predominantly expressed presynaptically, where they regulate the release of both glutamate and GABA (91). It is well established that group III mGlu receptors are localized in the basal ganglia (179, 180), a group of interconnected subcortical nuclei involved in the control of motor function. In particular, group

III mGlu receptors are localized presynaptically on a number of projection pathways within the basal ganglia, including striatopallidal, striatonigral and subthalamonigral projections, and consequently are potential targets for the treatment of neurodegenerative diseases like PD.

In PD, degeneration of the nigrostriatal dopaminergic system leads to an imbalance between dopaminergic and glutamatergic transmission in the basal ganglia and this excessive activity in the basal ganglia disrupts motor control. Moreover, alterations in the activity of the basal ganglia, in particular hyperactivity of subthalamic nucleus output pathways, have been hypothesized to contribute towards degeneration of the nigrostriatal system through pathological increases in glutamate release at the subthalamonigral synapse (181). Consequently, administration of group III mGlu receptor agonists may ameliorate some of the motor symptoms associated with PD, but also interfere with the ongoing neurodegenerative processes underlying the progressive loss of nigral neurons.

A potential role for group III mGlu receptors in the control of motor function relevant to PD was first shown by the ability of the non-selective group III agonists L-(+)-2-amino-4-phosphonobutyric acid (L-AP4) or L-serine-O-phosphate (L-SOP), when administered directly into the globus pallidus, substantia nigra or by the intracerebroventricular route, to relieve motor symptoms in animal models of parkinsonism, including haloperidol-induced catalepsy (182) and reserpine-induced akinesia (183). Moreover, L-AP4 was found to be as effective as L-DOPA in decreasing forelimb asymmetry in rats unilaterally lesioned with 6-OHDA (182). The action of group III mGlu receptor agonists on reserpine-induced akinesia was also mimicked by administration of **PHCCC**, which behaves as a selective allosteric potentiator of mGlu₄ receptors (184, 185), and more recently, on both reserpine-induced akinesia and haloperidol-induced catalepsy by **VU-0155041**, a more potent mGlu₄ receptor allosteric modulator than PHCCC (186).

The symptomatic activity of L-AP4 and PHCCC is thought to be mediated by activation of presynaptic mGlu₄ receptors localized on

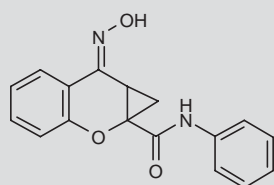
GABAergic fibers projecting from the neostriatum to the external globus pallidus. Support for this hypothesis emanates from the fact that, within the basal ganglia, the highest level of mGlu₄ receptor immunoreactivity is found in the globus pallidus (179), and activation of mGlu₄ receptors in this region mimics the action of dopamine in reducing GABA release (182, 187). Electrophysiological investigations using rat brain slices have revealed that activation of group III mGlu receptors with L-AP4 inhibits striatal-evoked GABA_A-mediated inhibitory postsynaptic currents in the globus pallidus (182, 187). Importantly, the response to L-AP4 was absent in mGlu₄ receptor knockout mice and enhanced by administration of PHCCC (182), confirming the role of mGlu₄ receptors in the regulation of striatopallidal transmission and suggesting that the resulting mGlu₄ receptor-mediated disinhibition of thalamocortical neurons may result in an improvement in parkinsonian symptoms.

As mentioned previously, loss of dopaminergic transmission in the nigrostriatal system produces a shift in the balance in activity of the basal ganglia from the direct to the indirect pathway, with the resulting hyperactivity of the subthalamic nucleus and consequent hypokinesia. In addition, hyperactivity of subthalamic nucleus output pathways may also contribute towards degeneration of the nigrostriatal system (181). A role for mGlu₄ receptors in the control of excitatory transmission in the SN pars compacta has emerged from in vitro studies showing that activation of group III mGlu receptors with L-AP4 inhibited evoked excitatory postsynaptic currents (188, 189) and that these effects were potentiated by coadministration of PHCCC (189). In addition, both L-AP4 and PHCCC have also been shown to be neuroprotective in experimental models of PD in vivo. In studies utilizing intranigral administration of 6-OHDA, L-AP4 produced significant protection of the nigrostriatal system following nigral administration (79, 190), while systemic administration of PHCCC, or administration directly into the external globus pallidus, also prevented MPTP-induced deficits in the dopamine system (191). Furthermore, the failure of PHCCC to prevent MPTP-induced toxicity in mGlu₄ receptor knockout mice supported a role for mGlu₄ receptors in the degeneration of the nigrostriatal system in experimental PD, and as a potential target for the treatment of PD.

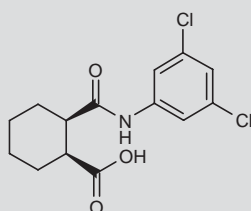
The preclinical evaluation of mGlu₄ receptor ligands –including orthosteric agonists and PAMs– has been hampered by their poor solubility, lack of selectivity (over other group II mGlu receptors) or deficient brain penetration. More recently, a number of groups have developed new tools that may address some of these issues (174, 192, 193). In particular, Buerrier et al. described a selective and brain-penetrant orthosteric agonist that modulates basal ganglia transmission in vitro and reverses haloperidol-induced catalepsy when given systemically (193), reinforcing the potential role of the mGlu₄ receptor as a therapeutic target for the treatment of PD.

CONCLUSIONS

There has been huge progress in our understanding of mGlu receptors and their role in CNS diseases. There are now good preclinical data supporting that certain subtypes of these receptors may be important in pain, schizophrenia, depression, anxiety and PD. Several pharmaceutical companies are actively working in the area and we expect to see new compounds entering clinical trials in the coming years.



PHCCC



VU-0155041

DISCLOSURES

All the authors are employees of Eli Lilly & Co.

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