

## Review

# The tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor in the brain: pharmacology and putative functions

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## Abstract

After its discovery in 1931, substance P (SP) remained the only mammalian member of the family of tachykinin peptides for several decades. Tachykinins thus refer to peptides sharing the common C-terminal amino acid sequence Phe–X–Gly–Leu–Met · NH<sub>2</sub>. In recent years the family of mammalian tachykinins has grown with the isolation of two novel peptides from bovine and porcine central nervous system (CNS), neurokinin A and neurokinin B. In parallel with the identification of multiple endogenous tachykinins several classes of tachykinin receptors were discovered. The receptors described so far are named tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor, tachykinin NK<sub>2</sub> receptor and tachykinin NK<sub>3</sub> receptor, respectively. The present review focuses on the pharmacology and putative function of tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptors in brain. The natural ligand with the highest affinity for the tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor is SP itself. The C-terminal sequence is essential for activity, the minimum length of a fragment with reasonable affinity for the tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor is the C-terminal hexapeptide. A rapid advance of knowledge was caused by development of non-peptidic tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonists. This area is under rapid development and a variety of different chemical classes of compounds are involved. Species-dependent affinities of tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonists reveal two clusters of compounds, targeting the tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor subtype found in guinea pig, human or ferret or the one in rat or mouse, respectively. The most recently developed compounds are highly selective, enter the brain and are orally bioavailable. Distinct behavioural effects in experimental animals suggest the involvement of tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptors in nociceptive transmission, basal ganglia function or anxiety and depression. Recent clinical trials in man showed that tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonists are effective in treating depression and chemotherapy-induced emesis. Therefore, it is well possible that tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonists will be clinically used for treatment of specific CNS disorders within a short period of time. © 1999 Elsevier Science B.V. All rights reserved.

**Keywords:** Tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor; Tachykinin; Neurokinin; Brain; Basal ganglia; Anxiety; Depression; Emesis; Non-peptidic antagonist

## 1. Introduction

After its discovery in 1931, substance P (SP) remained the only mammalian member of the family of tachykinin peptides for several decades. Tachykinins thus refer to peptides sharing the common C-terminal amino acid sequence Phe–X–Gly–Leu–Met · NH<sub>2</sub> (Table 1). In recent years the family of mammalian tachykinins has grown with the isolation of two novel peptides from bovine and porcine central nervous system (CNS), neurokinin A and neurokinin B (McLean, 1996). In parallel with the identification of multiple endogenous tachykinins several classes of tachykinin receptors were discovered. It has been ob-

served that SP and the non-mammalian tachykinins eleodisin and kassinin exhibited different agonist potencies depending on the used bioassay system (McLean, 1996). Iversen et al. (see Lee et al., 1986; McLean, 1996), identified two distinct tachykinin potency profiles in smooth muscle preparations and proposed the existence of SP-P and SP-E receptors. Evidence for the existence of the two pharmacologically distinguishable sites was further provided by binding experiments with peptide radioligands (Beaujouan et al., 1986; Danks et al., 1986). With the discovery of a third binding site (Laufer et al., 1986) and the isolation of novel mammalian tachykinins, some by several groups in parallel, the nomenclature of tachykinins and their receptors became completely confusing. In 1984, at the tachykinin symposium in Montreal the following nomenclature was proposed (McLean, 1996). The endogenous mammalian tachykinins were designated as neu-

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Table 1  
Mammalian and non-mammalian tachykinins

Tachykinin	Sequence
Substance P	Arg–Pro–Lys–Pro–Gln–Gln– <b>Phe</b> –Phe–Gly– <b>Leu–Met–NH<sub>2</sub></b>
Neurokinin A	His–Lys–Thr–Asp–Ser– <b>Phe</b> –Val– <b>Gly–Leu–Met–NH<sub>2</sub></b>
Neurokinin B	Asp–Met–His–Asp–Phe– <b>Phe</b> –Val– <b>Gly–Leu–Met–NH<sub>2</sub></b>
Eledoisin	pGlu–Pro–Ser–Lys–Asp–Ala– <b>Phe</b> –Ile– <b>Gly–Leu–Met–NH<sub>2</sub></b>
Kassinin	Asp–Val–Pro–Lys–Ser–Asp–Gln– <b>Phe</b> –Val– <b>Gly–Leu–Met–NH<sub>2</sub></b>

rokinin A (previously also referred to as neurokinin  $\alpha$ , neuromedin L or substance K) and neurokinin B (previously also named neurokinin  $\beta$  or neuromedin K). Furthermore, the receptors would be referred to as tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor (previously SP-P), tachykinin NK<sub>2</sub> receptor (previously SP-E, SP-K, NK-A) and NK<sub>3</sub> (previously also SP-E, SP-N, NK-B). SP is the most potent tachykinin for the tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor, whereas neurokinin A exhibits the highest affinity for the tachykinin NK<sub>2</sub> receptor and neurokinin B for the tachykinin NK<sub>3</sub> receptor, respectively. It has, however, to be pointed out clearly that all mammalian tachykinins have limited selectivity for a particular neurokinin receptor. Table 2 summarizes this limited selectivity. It is important to note that despite the early evidence for a cross-talk between different tachykinins at the different receptors, the tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor was de facto considered to be the SP receptor and, in other words, SP to be the physiological ligand for the tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor. In accordance, similar conclusions were applied to neurokinin A and the tachykinin NK<sub>2</sub> receptor, and neurokinin B and the tachykinin NK<sub>3</sub> receptor (Maggi and Schwartz, 1997). This dogma was so well established that homologous binding experiments using the ‘wrong’ tachykinin were not performed on the cloned receptors until recently (Maggi and Schwartz, 1997). With this in mind, it seems extremely difficult to sort out a particular function for one of the tachykinin peptides. Thus, it seems more rational to focus on the distribution and pharmacology of particular tachykinin receptors. Due to the more abundant distribution of tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptors

(Quartara and Maggi, 1998) and the variety of available synthetic agonists and antagonists for this tachykinin receptor (McLean, 1996; Maggi and Schwartz, 1997; Quartara and Maggi, 1997, 1998), this review predominantly describes tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor pharmacology. The distribution and putative function of tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptors in the peripheral nervous system and in the gut has been recently discussed extensively in several reviews (McLean, 1996; Quartara and Maggi, 1997, 1998). The present review therefore focuses on the pharmacology and putative function of tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptors in the CNS.

## 2. Distribution of tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptors in the CNS

The distribution of tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptors in the mammalian CNS has been investigated by autoradiography (Dam and Quirion, 1986; Danks et al., 1986; Saffroy et al., 1988), by studying the expression of messenger ribonucleic acid (mRNA) encoding for the receptor (Sivam and Krause, 1992; Aubry et al., 1994; Whitty et al., 1995; Whitty et al., 1997) and by immunohistochemistry (Shigemoto et al., 1993). Basically, the different approaches revealed comparable results and have provided evidence for a wide, but distinct distribution of receptors in various brain areas. Particularly rich in tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptors are the striatum, the nucleus accumbens, the hippocampus, the lateral nucleus of the hypothalamus, the habenula, the interpeduncular nucleus, the nucleus of the tractus solitarius, the raphe nuclei and the medulla oblongata (Otsuka and Yoshioka, 1993). The expression of the mRNA encoding for the tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor undergoes marked postnatal changes in the immature rat brain, supporting a possible role in the synaptic plasticity associated with morphological and functional CNS development (Herkenham, 1987). An interesting aspect is an apparent mismatch between the distribution of SP and tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptors in the CNS (Herkenham, 1987). Such mismatches involve either the presence of SP immunoreactive nerve endings in areas which are tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor-negative (e.g., substantia nigra) or the presence of such receptors in CNS regions that are apparently not innervated by SP-containing nerves (hilus of dentate gyrus). Reasons for this mismatch could be technical factors, as in fact some tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptors were very recently described by refined methods in substantia nigra

Table 2  
Ligand–receptor interactions among mammalian tachykinins and receptors (from Maggi and Schwartz, 1997)

	NK <sub>1</sub>	NK <sub>2</sub>	NK <sub>3A</sub>	NK <sub>3B</sub>
SP	0.05–0.5	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
NKA	0.5	0.8	n.a.	n.a.
NKB	0.5	n.a.	1.1	0.8

The indicated affinities for substance P (SP) and neurokinin (NK) A are based on homologous radioligand-binding experiments. For the tachykinin NK<sub>3</sub> receptors, indicated affinities are based on EC<sub>50</sub> values for the stimulation of phosphatidyl inositol turnover in transfected cells (data concerning binding of neurokinin B in homologous radioligand-binding experiments are not available). The first tachykinin NK<sub>3</sub> receptor to be recognized is termed NK<sub>3A</sub> (Maggi and Schwartz, 1997), the highly homologous, recently identified, tachykinin receptor NK<sub>3B</sub> (Krause et al., 1997).

(Bannon and Whitty, 1995; Futami et al., 1998). In addition, the extensive cross-talk discussed above might be another reason for an apparent mismatch that could be no mismatch at all.

### 3. Properties of the tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor

The pharmacological criteria to define a tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor originate from the analyses of the rank order of potencies of natural mammalian and non-mammalian tachykinins and their fragments on binding and various bioassays, preferably in vitro, but in some instances also in vivo (Maggi et al., 1987; Regoli et al., 1987, 1988, 1989; Regoli and Nantel, 1991; Quartara and Maggi, 1997). The tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor has been cloned from several species including man (Yokota et al., 1989; Hershey and Krause, 1990; Maggi et al., 1993; Regoli et al., 1994). Species-related variations exist in the primary sequence of the tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor. Interestingly, these variations do not affect the potency or efficacy of agonists, but severely influence the potency of non-peptide antagonists in different species (see below).

### 4. Ligands for the tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor

The natural ligand with the highest affinity for the tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor is SP itself. The C-terminal sequence is essential for activity, the minimum length of a fragment with reasonable affinity for the tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor is the C-terminal hexapeptide (see Table 1). As discussed above, neurokinin A and neurokinin B do possess considerable affinity for the tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor as well. Therefore, synthesis of more selective ligands targeting one of the tachykinin receptor subtypes was successfully attempted (Quartara and Maggi, 1997). Such more selective agonists served to further characterize tachykinin receptor subtypes pharmacologically. In the early 1980s, modification of the peptide sequences of tachykinins were performed to produce tachykinin antagonists. Among several, one of the early useful compounds was Spantide (Maggi et al., 1991). The use of these compounds provided evidence for the involvement of endogenous neurokinin-receptor ligands in peripheral inflammation in the skin and airways (Lundberg et al., 1983; Lundberg et al., 1984; Saria, 1984; Lundberg and Saria, 1987). More potent peptidergic compounds possessing tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonistic activity have been reported more recently (Lavielle et al., 1994). Many of the peptidic antagonists suffered, however, from poor potency, poor selectivity among neurokinin receptors, neurotoxicity at higher concentrations, and other problems associated with peptides, i.e., poor penetration into specific compartments, especially the CNS, and metabolic stability.

### 5. Non-peptide tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonists

The story of non-peptide antagonists for the tachykinin receptors started in 1991, when several different groups almost at the same time reported compounds possessing tachykinin receptor-antagonistic properties (Maggi et al., 1993; Regoli et al., 1994). As this area is under rapid development and a variety of different chemical classes of compounds are involved, such substances may be classified by basic structures. Basically, the first of the antagonists were found by screening of chemical collections of compounds, e.g., at pharmaceutical companies such as Pfizer (CP 96345) (Snider et al., 1991) or Rhône-Poulenc (RP67580) (Garret et al., 1991). Among the chemical classes involved are steroids, perhydroisoindolones, benzylamino and benzylether quinuclidines, benzylamino piperidines, benzylether piperidines, other piperidine-based structures and tryptophan-based structures (Quartara and Maggi, 1997). The review by Quartara and Maggi (1997) lists 38 non-peptidic compounds with tachykinin-antagonistic properties with a detailed description. Additional new compounds with even improved pharmacological properties have recently been published (Iyengar et al., 1997; Hosoki et al., 1998; Kramer et al., 1998; Walpole et al., 1998a,b). Therefore, this review emphasizes the key features only and those compounds that have been used to obtain important data relevant to the reviewed issues of the CNS.

### 6. Species-dependent affinities of tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> antagonists reveal two clusters of compounds

The cloned human and rat tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptors show about 95% homology, i.e. 21 out of 407 amino acid residues differ between these two species. The majority of these residues is localized at the C- and N-terminal ends of the receptor protein. When analyzing the transmembrane segments 1–7, only six amino acids differ between these two species. With one exception (266 in transmembrane segment 6, i.e., valine in rat and isoleucine in mouse) the mouse and rat tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor have the identical amino acid sequence in transmembrane segments (Sundelin et al., 1992). In contrast, the guinea pig tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor is 97% homologous to the human tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor and 100% identical in transmembrane segments 1–7 (Gorbulev et al., 1992). In fact, clustering of various species (guinea pig and man vs. rat and mouse) related to heterogeneity in amino acid sequence of transmembrane segments 1–7 exactly matches the clustering of species-related differences in the affinities of non-peptidic tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonists (Table 3). Finally, it has been shown that the species-related affinities of *cis*-3-(2-methoxybenzyl-amino-2-benzhydrylquinuclidine (CP 96345) (rat/mouse type) and 7,7-diphenyl-2 [1-imino-2

Table 3

Species selectivity in binding to tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptors

Compound	<i>K<sub>i</sub></i> (nM)		
	Human tachykinin NK <sub>1</sub> receptor	Rat tachykinin NK <sub>1</sub> receptor	Ca <sup>2+</sup> channels
CP 96,345	0.25	27	27
CP 99,994	0.25	136	3010
(±) RP 67,580	83	4	200
SR 140333	0.9	0.027	–
WIN 51708	> 25,000	21	–
L 709,210	0.7	–	190
L 760,735 <sup>a</sup>	0.3–0.5	–	–
MK869 <sup>a</sup>	0.3–0.5	–	–
SDZ NKT 343 <sup>b</sup>	0.62	451	–

Antagonists also differ in their affinity of the rat Ca<sup>2+</sup> channel. Data from McLean (1996), <sup>a</sup>Kramer et al. (1998) and <sup>b</sup>Walpole et al. (1998b).

SR 140333 = (S)-1-(2-[3-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-1-(3-isopropoxyphenylacetyl)piperidine-3-yl]ethyl)-4-phenyl-1-azoniabicyclo[2.2.2]octane chloride. Chemical names of other compounds are given in the text.

(2-methoxy-phenyl)-ethyl] perhydroisoindol-4-one (3*aR*, 7*aR*) (RP 67580) (human/guinea pig type) are linked to discrete positions of the tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor protein. These positions are amino acid positions 116 and 290 which contain (Val) and (Ile) in the human receptor and (Leu) and (Ser), respectively, in the rat/mouse receptor (Fong et al., 1992; Sachais et al., 1993). In addition, replacing the respective amino acids of the human receptor by the corresponding ones of the rat receptor, and vice versa, switched the affinities of CP 96345 and RP 67580 as expected (Fong et al., 1992; Sachais et al., 1993). In these mutant receptors, the affinity of SP remained unchanged, indicating that the variant amino acid residues are not crucial for the agonist binding. This also explains why these species-related subtypes had not been discovered earlier in a variety of bioassays in rat or guinea pig using all kinds of tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor agonists. Studies with other antagonists such as *N*<sup>2</sup>-[(4*R*)-4-hydroxy-1-(1-methyl-1 *H*-indol-3-yl)carbonyl-L-prolyl]-*N*-phenylmethyl-3-(2-naphthyl)-L-alaninamide (FK 888), 17-beta-hydroxy-17  $\alpha$ -ethynyl-5  $\alpha$ -androstanol [3,2*b*] pyrimido[1,2*a*] benzimidazole (WIN 51708) confirmed this conclusion, further demonstrating that the described amino acid residues determine the species selectivity of compounds with entirely different chemical nature (Sachais and Krause, 1994; Jensen et al., 1994; Pradier et al., 1995).

## 7. Signal transduction coupling of the tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor

It is well established that the binding of tachykinin receptor agonists is regulated by guanine nucleotides indicating coupling to G-proteins (Guard and Watson, 1991). More recent findings from desoxyribonucleic acid cloning and functional expression experiments of all three tachykinin receptors provide clear evidence for this view (Macdonald and Boyd, 1989; Kwatra et al., 1993; Mochizuki et al., 1994; Macdonald et al., 1996). The

stimulation of tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptors activates several second messenger systems that are stimulation of phosphatidyl inositol turnover via phospholipase C, arachidonic acid mobilization via phospholipase A<sub>2</sub> and cyclic adenosine monophosphate accumulation via adenylyl cyclase (Nakajima et al., 1992; Mitsuhashi et al., 1992; Takeda et al., 1992; Seabrook and Fong, 1993; Garcia et al., 1994; Mochizuki et al., 1994).

## 8. Tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptors in the spinal cord and their involvement in nociception

Originally, the newly developed non-peptidic tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonists were tested for putative antinociceptive effects as SP has repeatedly been proposed as a 'pain transmitter'. However, the situation turned out to be extremely complicated and the efficacy of different tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonists as antinociceptive compounds has been found to be poor in some instances. This review does not go into details of this complex issue, but refers to some recent reviews that extensively cover the problem of neurokinins and tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonists in nociception (Longmore et al., 1997; Maggi, 1997; Quartara and Maggi, 1998).

As summarized by Quartara and Maggi (1998), evidence for the involvement of tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptors in nociceptive transmission can be listed as follows: (1) tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptors are expressed at appropriate anatomical locations to be considered for involvement in the processing of afferent noxious input in the spinal cord. Second order sensory neurons receiving a nociceptive input preferentially express tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptors as compared to neurons receiving a non-noxious input. (2) Spinal cord tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor expression undergoes regulation after noxious manipulation. (3) The signal transmitted by activation of tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptors is a slowly developing sustained depolarization, while the fast synaptic input to second order sensory neurons is mediated

by excitatory amino acids. (4) Functional or biochemical responses of second order sensory neurons to tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor activation are enhanced by peripheral tissue injury or inflammation. (5) Tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonists act synergistically to inhibition of *N*-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA)-mediated nociceptive transmission. (6) Tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonists exhibit weak potency (Radhakrishnan et al., 1998) in acute pain, whereas antinociception can only be observed in nociceptive behavioural paradigms after induction of a persistent peripheral inflammation, i.e., models of 'chronic pain'. (7) This view has been confirmed recently with the new and even more selective compound 2-nitrophenylcarbonyl-(*S*)-prolyl-(*S*)-3-(2-naphthyl)alanyl-*N*-benzyl-*N*-methylamide (SDZ NKT 343) (Walpole et al., 1998a). Several neuropeptides are simultaneously released from spinal cord after nociceptive stimulation (Hua et al., 1986; Saria et al., 1986) and this release is modified by tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonists (Malcangio and Bowery, 1994). Although data are still preliminary, some effects of tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonists in dural inflammation suggest a putative role of tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptors in migraine (McLean, 1996; Phebus et al., 1997). However, this view could not be confirmed in a clinical study using one particular tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonist (Lanepitant) (Goldstein et al., 1997).

## 9. Tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor agonists and behaviour

The abundant distribution of tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptors in brain is reflected by a wide variety of behavioural changes after central administration of SP or selective tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor agonists. Locomotion, grooming, wet-dog shakes, hind paw tapping, in some instances species related, have been observed after central administration of tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor agonists, probably related to the release of other transmitters such as dopamine, serotonin, or acetylcholine (Elliott and Iversen, 1986; Elliott et al., 1992; Bristow and Young, 1994; Stoessl et al., 1995; Piot et al., 1995). Although these behavioural studies with agonists indicate some distinct pharmacological effects of tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor activation, physiological or pathophysiological roles are difficult to conclude from these data.

## 10. Conclusions from tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor knockout mice

Investigation of behaviour of mice after targeted disruption of the gene for the tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor revealed further insight into putative functions (De et al., 1998). Interestingly, in these mice the behavioural responses to acute nociceptive thermal, mechanical or chemical stimuli (hot plate, tail flick, tail pinch, and writhing test) appear to

be normal. A minor effect (30% decrease of the behavioural response to the second phase of the formalin paw test) could be detected. This is in line with the pharmacological data discussed above that the tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor has probably little importance in acute pain. Furthermore, the tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor knockout mice exhibited a lack of amplification mechanisms of noxious stimuli, as determined by electrophysiology. Additionally, a reduction of central inhibition (increased excitability of withdrawal reflexes) and a hyperalgesia in the contralateral paw after induction of inflammation and a reduction of stress-induced analgesia have been observed.

## 11. Behavioural and other central effects of tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonists

An even more detailed picture of the putative physiological and pathophysiological roles of the tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor in brain can be obtained from the experiments with tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonists. There have been several drawbacks of earlier compounds due to unspecific side effects, poor solubility and poor penetration into the CNS after systemic administration. However, the compounds developed more recently seem to be not only highly specific, but also penetrating the CNS and, as for the most recent human/guinea pig tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor preferring bis(trifluoromethyl) morpholine compound (MK-869), also long lasting and orally bioavailable (Kramer et al., 1998). Jacoby et al. (1997) have even proposed a way of designing water-soluble structures with tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonistic properties. Generally, more firm data relating the putative functions of tachykinins in brain originate from pharmacological (i.e., behavioural) effects of the recent generation of potent and selective tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonists. Trying to summarize the data available from experiments with different compounds, different routes of administration and different behavioural tests, it seems that blockade of tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptors does not cause dramatic changes in gross behaviour of experimental animals (Quartara and Maggi, 1998). However, distinct changes in more refined behavioural paradigms have been reported and will be reviewed further below.

## 12. Basal ganglia-related effects and mechanisms

The basal ganglia represent a brain area where high concentrations of both tachykinins and neuropeptides can be detected. As a result, many studies have been performed in this area and attempts were made to relate mechanisms involving tachykinins and tachykinin receptors to extrapyramidal motor diseases such as Parkinson's disease and Chorea Huntington. Interactions between the meso-striatal dopamine system and tachykinins have been

observed with a number of interdisciplinary approaches. Lesions of striato-nigral  $\gamma$ -aminobutyric acid neurons containing SP lead to an upregulation of tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor mRNA in the substantia nigra (Whitty et al., 1995). Chronic treatment of rats with antipsychotic agents with extrapyramidal side effects leads to an upregulation of the genes encoding for tachykinins as well as for tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptors (Bannon et al., 1986, 1987; Haverstick et al., 1989; Sivam et al., 1989; Humpel et al., 1990; Marksteiner et al., 1992, 1993). Clozapine, an antipsychotic agent lacking extrapyramidal side effects, in contrast, did not modify basal ganglia tachykinin expression (Humpel et al., 1990), indicating that the alterations in gene expression of tachykinins reflect the extrapyramidal motor effects of neuroleptic drugs. In agreement with this view, it has been reported that stimulation of oral movements after intranigral injection of a tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor agonist is enhanced in rats after chronic treatment with neuroleptics (Liminga and Gunne, 1993). This increase in agonist sensitivity may suggest that tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonists may be useful in treating dyskinesia accompanied with treatment of humans with neuroleptic drugs. In fact, in animal experiments, the catalepsy induced by administration of a dopamine D<sub>2</sub> antagonist in rats could be inhibited by the tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonist CP 99994, presumably by inhibiting striatal acetylcholine release (Anderson et al., 1995). Indirect support for this hypothesis comes from a study investigating SP on activity of midbrain dopamine neurons that has been found to act opposite of antipsychotic agents (Minabe et al., 1996). Although a direct involvement of tachykinins in the pathophysiology of Parkinson's disease was suggested for about 10 years, and a large amount of data was collected to provide circumstantial evidence (Barker, 1986, 1990, 1991, 1996), no firm conclusions can be made from these data and the evidence for such a contribution still remains poor.

### 13. Anxiety and depression

Recent studies with non-peptidic tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonists suggested a putative anxiolytic effect (Teixeira et al., 1996; File, 1997) although this could not be demonstrated earlier possibly due to the sedative and motor impairing effect of one of the early compounds (Zernig et al., 1992, 1993; Saria et al., 1993). The recent data are compatible with the anxiogenic profile of centrally administered SP on the elevated plus maze (Elliott and Iversen, 1986). A significant step forward concerning the involvement of tachykinins in anxiety and depression is represented by the recent publication of Kramer et al. (1998). In this paper, evidence has been provided that a new, specific, long-lasting and orally bioavailable tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonist, MK-869 reduces vocalization in guinea pig pups after maternal separation. It is established that this behavioural response is sensitive to

psychotropic drugs that alleviate not only symptoms of anxiety and depression in humans, but also stress-induced vocalizations in mammals (see Kramer et al., 1998). In the guinea pig model, a selective tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor agonist caused vocalizations which were inhibited by tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonists, as well as by antidepressant agents such as imipramine and fluoxetine, but not by anxiolytics like diazepam. Interestingly, MK-869 has also been reported to be an effective antidepressant in a double-blind, placebo-controlled clinical study in humans, with similar efficacy as paroxetine (Kramer et al., 1998). This in fact represents the first promising clinical trial with a NK<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonist on a rather large scale. The mechanism of MK-869 is different from that of clinically used antidepressant drugs and may involve the integration of emotional responses to stress by the amygdala or related brain areas.

### 14. Emesis

Tachykinins are localized in the brainstem not only of rodents, but also in the ferret in areas that are assumed to be involved in nausea and emesis. Ferrets provide a useful experimental model for studying emesis induced by various agents. As ferrets express the human/guinea pig subtype of tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptors, proper compounds with tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonism have been studied in this model (Watson et al., 1995). Centrally acting (+)-2*S*,3*S*-3-(2-methoxybenzylamino)-2-phenylpiperidine (CP 99994) and [(2-benzofuran)-CH<sub>2</sub>OCO]-(*R*)- $\alpha$ -MeTrp-(*S*)-NHCH(CH<sub>3</sub>)P (PD 154075) have been reported to inhibit emesis induced by apomorphine and loperimidine, two compounds that act through central mechanisms, and by peripherally acting agents such as copper sulfate and cisplatin, a cytotoxic, 'chemotherapeutic' agent (Bountra et al., 1993; Tattersall et al., 1993, 1994, 1996; Watson et al., 1995; Gonsalves et al., 1996; Rudd et al., 1996; Kris et al., 1997; Singh et al., 1997). The efficacy of particular compounds is significantly dependent on brain penetration indicating a central action of tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonists and the need of brain penetrating compounds for putative therapeutic use (Rupniak et al., 1997). Interestingly, tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonists act differently from 5-HT<sub>3</sub> receptor antagonists in a sense that the latter do not inhibit emesis elicited by central stimuli such as apomorphine (McLean, 1996). Therefore, tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonists represent not only a new group of compounds for treatment of emesis, but may also have a wider spectrum of efficacy compared with 5-HT<sub>3</sub> receptor antagonists (Tavorath and Hesketh, 1996). Confirming these assumptions, very recently in a phase II clinical study with 2-(*R*)-(1-(*R*)-3, 5-bis(trifluoromethyl)phenylethoxy)-3-(*S*)-(4-fluorophenyl)-4-(3-oxo-1,2,4-triazol-5-yl)methylmorpholine (L-754,030) involving 159 patients a preven-

tion of delayed emesis after treatment with cisplatin was reported. A combination of L-754,030 with granisetron plus dexamethasone even improved the prevention of acute emesis (Navari et al., 1999).

### 15. Other effects of tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonists in brain

Few additional studies provide evidence for discrete functions in brain. Intracerebroventricular injection of RP 67580 attenuates some symptoms of the responses to morphine withdrawal in rats (Maldonado et al., 1993). Furthermore, tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptors are involved in stress-induced activation of ascending central pathways in the locus coeruleus (McLean et al., 1993). The involvement of tachykinins in central control of stress responses has been shown with tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonists by Culman et al. (1997). Tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonists also affect the footshock-induced sensitization of the acoustic startle response in caudate pontine reticular neurons (Krase et al., 1994) and in the facilitation of defensive rage behaviour in cats induced by stimulation of the amygdala (Shaikh et al., 1993), as revealed by using either CP 96345 or CP 99994.

Tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor agonists inhibit AngII-induced drinking in rats which can be reversed with a tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonist (Polidori et al., 1998). Recently, by electrophysiological investigations, SP was found to enhance NMDA channel function in hippocampal dentate gyrus granule cells, an effect blocked by CP 99994 (Lieberman and Mody, 1998). Another compound has been found to influence circadian rhythm of locomotor activity in hamsters (Challet et al., 1998). An interesting aspect is the reduction of infarct volume in a rat model of cerebral ischemia by Yu et al. (1997), pointing to a putative potential of tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonists in certain neurological disorders. In cat, CP 99994 has been described to be an antitussive agent with a central site of action (Bolser et al., 1997).

In conclusion, the pharmacological, behavioural and molecular investigations of tachykinin NK<sub>1</sub> receptors have advanced remarkably the knowledge of neuropeptide receptors and function in general, and tachykinins in particular. This knowledge has led to development of new compounds with potential clinical interest and development has reached phase II clinical studies in some examples of disturbed brain function, i.e., emesis or depression.

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