ARTICLE IN PRESS

YNBDI-03048; No. of pages: 17; 4C: 4

Neurobiology of Disease xxx (2013) xxx-xxx



Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Neurobiology of Disease

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/ynbdi



1 Review

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Development of allosteric modulators of GPCRs for treatment of

3 CNS disorders

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ARTICLE INFO

ARTICLE INTO

9 Article history:10 Received 25 July 2013

- Revised 13 September 2013
- 12 Accepted 17 September 2013
- 13 Available online xxxx
- 16 _____

Keywords:

- 18 Allosteric modulator
- 19 CNS

17

- 20 Drug discovery
- 21 GPCR
- 22 Metabotropic glutamate receptor
- 23 Muscarinic acetylcholine receptor

ABSTRACT

The discovery of allosteric modulators of G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) provides a promising new strategy 24 with potential for developing novel treatments for a variety of central nervous system (CNS) disorders. Tradition- 25 aldrug discovery efforts targeting GPCRs have focused on developing ligands for orthosteric sites which bind endogenous ligands. Allosteric modulators target a site separate from the orthosteric site to modulate receptor 27 function. These allosteric agents can either potentiate (positive allosteric modulator, PAM) or inhibit (negative 28 allosteric modulator, NAM) the receptor response and often provide much greater subtype selectivity than 29 orthosteric ligands do for the same receptors. Experimental evidence has revealed more nuanced pharmacological modes of action of allosteric modulators, with some PAMs showing allosteric agonism in combination with 31 positive allosteric modulation in response to endogenous ligand (ago-potentiators) as well as "bitopic" ligands 32 that interact with both the allosteric and orthosteric sites. Drugs targeting the allosteric site allow for increased 33 drug selectivity and potentially decreased adverse side effects. Promising evidence has demonstrated potential 34 utility of a number of allosteric modulators of GPCRs in multiple CNS disorders, including neurodegenerative diseases such as Alzheimer's disease, Parkinson's disease, and Huntington's disease, as well as psychiatric or neurobehavioral diseases such as anxiety, schizophrenia, and addiction.

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Abbreviations: 5MPEP, 5-methyl-6-(phenylethynyl)-pyridine; 6-OHDA, 6-hydroxydopamine; 7TMR, seven transmembrane receptor; 77-LH-28-1, 1-[3-(4-butyl-1-piperidinyl)propyl]-3,4dihydro-2(1H)-quinolinone; AC-42, 4-n-butyl-1-[4-(2-methylphenyl)-4-oxo-1-butyl]-piperidine; AChE, acetylcholinesterase; ACPT-1, (1S,3R,4S)-1-aminocyclo-pentane-1,3,4-tricarboxylic acid; AD, Alzheimer's disease; ADX71743, (+)-6-(2,4-dimethylphenyl)-2-ethyl-6,7-dihydrobenzo[d]oxazol-4(5H)-one; AFQ056, (3aS,5S,7aR)-methyl 5-hydroxy-5-(m-tolylethynyl) octahydro-1H-indole-1-carboxylate; APP, amyloid precursor protein; BINA, potassium 30-([(2-cyclopentyl-6-7-dimethyl-1-oxo-2,3-dihydro-1H-inden-5yl)oxy]methyl)biphenyl 1-4carboxylate; BQCA, benzylquinolone carboxylic acid; CDPPB, 3-cyano-N-(1,3-diphenyl-1H-pyrazol-5-yl)benzamide; CFMMC, 3-cyclohexyl-5-fluoro-6-methyl-7-(2-morpholin-4-ylethoxy)-4H-chromen-4-one; CNS, central nervous system; CPPHA, N-[4-chloro-2](1,3-dioxo-1,3-dihydro-2H-isoindol-2-yl)methyl]phenyl]-2-hydrobenzamide; CTEP, 2-chloro-4-((2,5-dimethyl-1-4-dipydrobenzamide) CTEP, 2-chloro-4-(1,2-dipydrobenzamide) CTEP, 2-chl (4-(trifluoromethoxy)phenyl)-1Himidazol-4-yl)ethynyl)pyridine; DA, dopamine; DFB, [(3-fluorophenyl)methylene]hydrazone-3-fluorobenzaldehyde; DHPG, dihydroxyphenylglycine; ERK1/2, extracellular signal-regulated kinase 1/2; FMRP, fragile X mental retardation protein; FTIDC, 4-[1-(2-fluoropyridin-3-yl)-5-methyl-1H-1,2,3-triazol-4-yl]-N-isopropyl-N-methyl-3,6dihydropyridine-1(2H)-carboxamide; FXS, Fragile X syndrome; GABA, γ-aminobutyric acid; JNJ16259685, (3,4-dihydro-2H-pyrano[2,3]b quinolin-7-yl)(cis-4-methoxycyclohexyl) methanone; L-AP4, L-(+)-2-amino-4-phosphonobutyric acid; L-DOPA, L-3,4-dihydroxyphenylalanine; Lu AF21934, (1S,2S)-N¹-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)cyclohexane-1,2-dicarboxamide; Lu AF32615, 4-((E)-styryl)-pyrimidin-2-ylamine; mGlu, metabotropic glutamate receptor; M-5MPEP, 2-(2-(3-methoxyphenyl)ethynyl)-5-methylpyridine; MMPIP, 6-(4-methoxyphenyl)-5methyl-3-(4-pyridinyl)-isoxazolo[4,5-c]pyridin-4(5H)-one; MPEP, 2-methyl-6-(phenylethynyl)-pyridine; MPTP, 1-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine; MTEP, 3[(2-methyl-1,3-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine; MPEP, 3-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine; MPEP, 3-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine; MPEP, 3-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine; MPEP, 3-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine; MPEP, 3-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine; MPEP, 3-methyl-4-phenyl-1,3,6-tetrahydropyridine; MPEP, 3-methyl-4thiazol-4-yl)ethylnyl]pyridine; NAM, negative allosteric modulator; NMDA, N-methyl-p-aspartate; PAM, positive allosteric modulator; PCP, phencyclidine; PD, Parkinson's disease; PD-LID, Parkinson's disease levodopa-induced dyskinesia; PET, positron emission tomography; PHCCC, N-phenyl-7-(hydroxylimino)cyclopropa[b]chromen-1a-carboxamide; PQCA, (1-(4-cyano-4-(pyridine-2-yl)piperidine-1-yl)methyl-4-oxo-4 H-quinolizine-3-carboxylic acid); SAM, silent allosteric modulator; SIB-1757, 6-methyl-2-(phenylazo)-3-pyridinol; SIB-1893, 2-methyl-6-(2phenylethenyl)pyridine; TBPB, 1-(1'-(2-methylbenzyl)-1,4'-bipiperidin-4-yl)-1H-benzo[d]imidazol-2(3H)-one.

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Available online on ScienceDirect (www.sciencedirect.com).

0969-9961/\$ – see front matter © 2013 Published by Elsevier Inc. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.nbd.2013.09.013

Please cite this article as: Nickols, H.H., Conn, P.J., Development of allosteric modulators of GPCRs for treatment of CNS disorders, Neurobiol. Dis. (2013), http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.nbd.2013.09.013

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There is an urgent need for the development of new therapeutic agents for the treatment of debilitating CNS diseases, which affect millions of people worldwide. While the discovery and development of new therapeutic agents are challenging for all therapeutic areas, CNS drug discovery efforts have been especially challenging and have a very high attrition rate (Kola and Landis, 2004). The GPCRs have been among the most fruitful targets for developing drugs for the treatment of CNS disorders, as well as range of other human disease states. Many current clinical therapeutic agents act by targeting this important receptor class and downstream signaling pathways (Allen and Roth, 2011; Fang et al., 2003; Melancon et al., 2012). However, some major subfamilies of GPCRs have proven intractable in drug discovery efforts because of a difficulty in achieving high subtype selectivity and drug-like properties, including high CNS exposure, that are critical for advancing novel agents for the treatment of neurological and psychiatric disorders. Historically, drug discovery efforts targeting GPCRs have focused on the development of traditional agonists and antagonists that interact with the orthosteric neurotransmitter binding site to either mimic or block the action of the endogenous neurotransmitter or agonist. While this has been fruitful, there are many instances where the high conservation of the orthosteric binding site across related receptors prevents the development of subtype selective agents. Also, developing drug candidates based on the chemical scaffolds of the endogenous ligand may raise challenges in establishing appropriate profiles in terms of pharmacokinetic properties or brain exposure.

In recent years, advances in the development of allosteric modulators of GPCRs have emerged as a promising new approach for developing therapeutic agents that may be useful for the treatment of CNS disorders. Allosteric modulators of GPCRs bind to sites that are separate from the orthosteric binding site of the endogenous ligand and are often less highly conserved than the orthosteric site (Conn et al., 2009a). For some GPCRs, this has allowed optimization of allosteric modulators that achieve much greater subtype selectivity than is possible with traditional orthosteric ligands. In addition, allosteric modulators have other potential advantages, including ability to develop agents that have functional selectivity, allowing for potential targeting of select downstream signaling pathways, and a greater diversity of chemical scaffolds that can facilitate efforts to optimize pharmacokinetic and other drug-like properties of potential drug candidates. The surge in the development of allosteric agents has revealed a varied repertoire of drug activities, including PAMs and NAMs as well as agents with combined allosteric agonist and PAM activity and neutral ligands, termed silent allosteric modulators (SAMs) that bind to the allosteric site but do not potentiate or inhibit responses to the endogenous agonist (see Conn et al., 2009a; Melancon et al., 2012; Niswender and Conn, 2010 for reviews). In addition, allosteric agonists with a bitopic binding mode (binds to both the allosteric site and the orthosteric site) have 113 been identified (Digby et al., 2012a; Lebon et al., 2009; Spalding et al., 114 2002). These varied modes of action provide tools for experimental investigation into GPCR structure and function. To date, there is a wide variety of allosteric modulators that are showing promise for potential 117 treatment of CNS diseases (Conn et al., 2009d). Among these, some of Q9 the most advanced and well understood include allosteric modulators 119 of the metabotropic glutamate (mGlu) receptors and the muscarinic 120 acetylcholine receptors (mAChRs). For instance, allosteric modulators 121 of specific subtypes of mGlu receptors have potential utility in the treatment of schizophrenia, autistic spectrum disorders, and Parkinson's 123 disease (Morin et al., 2013b). Positive allosteric modulators of the M₁ 124 and M₄ muscarinic receptors show promising applications in both 125 Alzheimer's disease and schizophrenia. This is an exciting time in CNS 126 drug discovery with several allosteric modulator candidates moving 127 from preclinical models into clinical development. 128

Allosteric modulators of GPCRs

GPCRs, also called seven transmembrane spanning receptors 130 (7TMRs), represent the largest family of cell surface receptors and are 131 the targets of intense drug discovery efforts. While a number of avail- 132 able drugs on the market target GPCR signaling pathways, overall less 133 than 20% of GPCRs are targeted (Allen and Roth, 2011). Ubiquitous 134 receptors, these seven transmembrane-spanning proteins transduce 135 extracellular signals for ligands as diverse as ions, photons of light, odor- 136 ants and peptides into intracellular signaling cascades. Over 800 human 137 GPCRs have been identified to date with five major families (and multiple subfamilies) based on their amino acid sequences (Katritch et al., 139 2013). Despite intense drug discovery and development efforts, clinically useful drugs do not exist for the large majority of these receptors. 141 As noted above, the orthosteric binding site within GPCR subfamilies 142 is often highly conserved, making the development of subtype specific 143 ligands difficult. Of the orthosteric ligands developed, many of those 144 with the highest subtype selectivity are antagonists.

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Discovery and optimization of novel highly selective allosteric modulators of GPCRs have opened exciting new opportunities for the development of highly selective drug candidates for specific GPCR subtypes 148
that were intractable using traditional approaches. While the major 149
advances in the discovery of allosteric modulators of GPCRs have only 150
occurred over the past decade, the principle of targeting allosteric sites 151
on neurotransmitter receptors that act as ligand-gated ion channels 152
has a long history and has been highly successful in developing agents 153
for the treatment of CNS disorders (Melancon et al., 2012). The classic 154
example of an allosteric modulator is the benzodiazepine class, which 155
are positive allosteric modulators at the GABAA receptors (Mohler 156
et al., 2002). These agents provide effective treatment of anxiety, 157
sleep, and seizure disorders without inducing the adverse side effects

Please cite this article as: Nickols, H.H., Conn, P.J., Development of allosteric modulators of GPCRs for treatment of CNS disorders, Neurobiol. Dis. (2013), http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.nbd.2013.09.013

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