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### Neurocognitive effects of acute choline supplementation in low, medium and high performer healthy volunteers 2

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#### 1. Introduction 40

### ABSTRACT

Novel pharmacological treatments targeting alpha 7 nicotinic acetylcholine receptor ( $\alpha$ 7 nAChR) hypofunction 23 in schizophrenia have shown mixed success in ameliorating cognitive impairments associated with this disorder. 24 Choline, a selective agonist at  $\alpha$ 7 receptors is increased with oral administration of cytidine 5'-diphosphocholine 25 (CDP-choline), the cognitive effects of which were assessed in healthy volunteers. Using the CogState test battery, 26 behavioral performance in schizophrenia-relevant cognitive domains was assessed in 24 male participants 27 following a single low (500 mg) and moderate (1000 mg) dose of CDP-choline. Relative to placebo, CDP- 28 choline improved processing speed, working memory, verbal learning, verbal memory, and executive function 29 in low baseline performers, while exerting no effects in medium baseline performers, and diminishing cognition 30 in high baseline performers. Dose effects varied with cognitive domain but were evident with both the 500 mg 31 and 1000 mg doses. These preliminary findings of cognitive enhancement in relatively impaired performers 32 are consistent with the  $\alpha$ 7 receptor mechanism and support further trials with CDP-choline as a potential pro- 33 cognitive strategy for cognitive impairment in schizophrenia. 34

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2010), and discovering effective treatments remains a pressing chal- 56 lenge in psychopharmacology. Improving treatment of cognitive impairments in SZ to alleviate 58

Considered to be major determinants of functional disability (Green, 1996; Green et al., 2000, 2004), cognitive defects in schizophrenia (SZ) disease burden was the initiative of the Measurement and Treatment 59 patients - reflected in their neuropsychological test performance Research to Improve Cognition in Schizophrenia (MATRICS) project, 60 scores, which typically are in the order of 1-2 standard deviations which facilitated the development of guidelines for clinical trials of 61 below the normal population (Dickinson et al., 2007; Fioravanti et al., cognitive enhancing drugs for SZ (Buchanan et al., 2011), created the 62 MATRICS Consensus Cognitive Battery (MCCB) for measuring treatment 63 2005), are core features of the disorder. These cognitive deficits emerge before the onset of psychiatric symptoms (Brewer et al., 2006; Simon outcome on six fundamental dimensions (processing speed, attention/ 64 et al., 2007), are stable over time and continue to be present after vigilance, working memory [verbal and nonverbal], verbal learning 65 remission of psychosis (Albus et al., 2002), and receive little benefit and memory, visual learning and memory, reasoning and problem 66 from first- and second-generation dopamine receptor antagonist antisolving) of cognitive deficit in SZ (Kern et al., 2008; Nuechterlein et al., 67 psychotic drugs (Keefe et al., 2007). Although the use of add-on 2008), and identified 9 classes of agents that hold promise for the treat- 68 pharmacotherapies modulating specific neurotransmitter systems ment of impaired cognition in SZ (Marder, 2006). The molecular targets 69 thought to be involved in the pharmacology of cognitive functions of these pharmacologic strategies included dopamine receptors in the 70 may be a valuable treatment approach, effective cognitive enhancing prefrontal cortex, various serotonin receptors, the glutamatergic excit-71 augmentation therapies have yet to be approved for SZ (Zink et al., atory synapse, the  $\gamma$ -aminobutyric acid (GABA) system, and muscarinic 72 and nicotinic acetylcholine receptors (Gray and Roth, 2007). 73

Among the prioritized acetylcholinergic targets is the alpha 7 neuro-74 nal nicotinic receptor ( $\alpha$ 7 nAChR). Known to play an integral role in a 75 range of normal cognitive processes ranging from pre-attentive (sensory) 76 and attentive states, as well as working memory and executive functions 77 (Leiser et al., 2009),  $\alpha$ 7 nAChR deficits have been implicated in the 78

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pathophysiology and cognitive symptomatology of SZ. The  $\alpha$ 7 nAChR 79 80 "hypofunction" hypothesis of SZ is based on evidence showing: a) linkage of SZ, nicotine (the prototypical nAChR agonist) use in SZ, 81 82 and sensory gating deficits in SZ to the gene (CHRNA7: chromosome locus 15q14) encoding the  $\alpha$ 7 receptor subunit (for review, see 83 Freedman et al., 2003); b) diminished rates and amount of expression 84 of structurally intact  $\alpha$ 7 nAChRs in post-mortem brains of patients with 85 86 SZ, specifically in the frontal lobe, cingulate cortex, reticular nucleus of 87 the thalamus, and the hippocampus, with reductions in the latter region 88 being linked to the degree of global cognitive dysfunction in these 89 patients (for review, see Young and Geyer, 2013); and c) a higher propor-90 tion of nicotine (tobacco) users in the SZ (40–90%) compared to the 91general population (15-20%) and increased smoking intensity in 92SZ (i.e., patients select higher nicotine yield cigarettes and extract more nicotine per cigarette) which, when combined with findings of 93 nicotine-enhanced sensory gating (de la Salle et al., 2013; Knott 94 et al., 2010, 2013) and cognition in healthy volunteers (for meta-95 96 analysis see Heishman et al., 2010) and SZ patients (for review, see Mackowick et al., 2013), have fuelled the hypothesis that smoking in 97 SZ may be a form of self-medication in an implicit attempt to activate 98 the  $\alpha$ 7 nAChR and treat underlying biological pathology (for reviews, 99 see Evans and Drobes, 2009; Gehricke et al., 2007; Kumari and 100 101 Postma, 2005; Leonard et al., 2007; Ochoa and Lasalde-Dominicci, 102 2007; Wing et al., 2012; Winterer, 2010).

As nicotine is a suboptimal treatment, being associated with health 103 risks (nausea, abuse liability), non-selective nAChR agonist actions, 104 and rapid desensitizing effects on nAChRs, the past two decades have 105106 seen the development of selective  $\alpha$ 7 nicotinic receptor agonists as putative treatments for cognitive dysfunction. Numerous novel agents 107targeting  $\alpha$ 7 nicotinic neurotransmission have exhibited cognitive 108 enhancing properties in preclinical rodent models (for reviews, see 109Olincy and Stevens, 2007; Thomsen et al., 2010), and although there 110 111 have been early signs of clinical efficacy on sensory gating and specific cognitive domains (see reviews by Adams and Stevens, 2007; 112 AhnAllen, 2012; Freedman, 2014; Martin and Freedman, 2007; Olincy 07 and Freedman, 2012; Simosky et al., 2002), proof-of-concept studies 114 so far have not shown clear unequivocal cognitive benefit (Geerts, 115 2012; Hurst et al., 2012; Wallace and Bertrand, 2013a). 116

Evidencing enhanced neuronal functioning related to sensory gating 117 in  $\alpha$ 7 receptor deficient DBA/2 mice, the  $\alpha$ 7 partial agonist DMXB-A 118 (aka GTS-21) was shown to improve sensory gating and cognition 119 120 (measured with the Repeatable Battery of Assessment of Neurophysiological Status [RBAMMS]) in SZ patients when administered as acute 121 doses (Olincy et al., 2006) but failed to affect MCCB-indexed cognition 122 123 in these patients when administered during a chronic (4-week) dosing 124regimen (Freedman et al., 2008). An 8-week trial with the  $\alpha$ 7 partial ag-125onist RG3487 (formerly MEM3454) in SZ patients also showed negative effects on MCCB measured cognitive symptoms (Umbricht et al., 2014). 126Ten days of treatment of non-smoking SZ patients with tropisetron, also 127a partial agonist at the  $\alpha$ 7 nAChR, resulted in improvements in sensory 128gating, which were correlated with enhanced RBAMNS cognitive scores 129130(Zhang et al., 2012), and similar gating and cognitive improvements 131(assessed with the Cambridge Neuropsychological Automated Test Battery: CANTAB), together with increased quality of life ratings, were 132found in a subsequent 8-week treatment trial with tropisetron (Shiina 133et al., 2010). Cognitive enhancement in SZ assessed with the CogState 134135Schizophrenia Battery (Pietrzak et al., 2009) was also seen with the  $\alpha7$  partial agonists TC-5619 (Lieberman et al., 2013) and EVP-6124 136 (Hurst et al., 2012), with 3 weeks of treatment with the latter agent 137 also improving CogState measures of non-verbal learning, memory 138 and executive function in SZ patients (Preskorn et al., 2014). Although 139encouraging results from these and other  $\alpha$ 7 molecules under various 140 stages of testing suggest that development of compounds targeting  $\alpha 7$ 141 nAChRs is a promising add-on pharmacotherapeutic strategy for miti-142 gating cognitive symptoms associated with SZ (Wallace and Bertrand, 143 144 2013a), this requires a better understanding of the basic brain functions and cognitive processes regulated by the  $\alpha$ 7 nAChR system (Bencherif 145 et al., 2012; Geerts, 2012; Wallace and Bertrand, 2013a; Young and 146 Geyer, 2013). 147

Neuronal  $\alpha$ 7 nAChRs have two effective endogenous agonists - 148 acetylcholine, which activates all nAChR subtypes, and choline (the 149 metabolite and precursor of acetylcholine), which has been shown 150 by electrophysiological studies to act as a full agonist at  $\alpha$ 7 nAChRs, 151 but not other nicotinic receptor subtypes (Albuquerque et al., 1998; 152 Alkondon et al., 1997, 1999; Fayuk and Yakel, 2004; Papke et al., 153 1996). Electrophysiological responses evoked by choline from single 154 cells or hippocampal slices have been shown to be blocked by either 155 methyllycaconitine or  $\alpha$  bungarotoxin (BTX), selective  $\alpha$ 7 antagonists 156 (Albuquerque et al., 1998; Alkondon et al., 1997; Fayuk and Yakel, 157 2004). Supplementing diet with choline results in selective increases 158 in the density of  $\alpha$ 7 nAChRs (i.e., evidenced by the concentration of 159 specifically bound BXT) in multiple brain regions, consistent with the 160 upregulatory actions of a nicotinic cholinergic agonist (Coutcher et al., 161 1992; Guseva et al., 2006; Morley et al., 2006). Indications of the poten- Q8 tial importance of choline (vs. acetylcholine) as a signaling molecule in 163 the brain stems in part from findings of unique kinetic properties of 164 activation and desensitization (e.g. choline disassociates faster than 165 acetylcholine from the receptor and exhibits a faster recovery from de- 166 sensitization) on the  $\alpha$ 7 nAChRs in the hippocampus (Mike et al., 2000), 167 which is a key brain region for memory and learning that also exhibits, 168 with  $\alpha$ 7 receptor activation, increases in the inhibitory neurotransmit- 169 ter GABA (Arnaiz-Cot et al., 2008), and increased levels of glutamate 170 (Gray et al., 1996; Le Maqueresse et al., 2006; Mansvelder and 171 McGehee, 2000), an excitatory neurotransmitter essential to long- 172 term potentiation required for cognitive enhancement (Lynch et al., 173 2014). Free choline concentrations in plasma are relatively low (Klein 174 et al., 1992) and unlike with high nicotinic agonist concentrations, 175 which are associated with rapid  $\alpha$ 7 receptor desensitization, low 176 concentrations of choline result in small and sustained  $\alpha$ 7 receptor 177 activation (Alkondon and Albuquerque, 1993; Zhang et al., 1994). 178

In animal models, deletion of the  $\alpha$ 7 nAChR has resulted in cognitive 179 impairment (Keller et al., 2005) and selective activation of the  $\alpha7$  180 nAChR has been shown to improve sensory processing and cognition 181 (Levin et al., 1999). Cytidine-5'-diphosphate choline is an endogenous 182 compound normally produced by the body, and in its pharmaceutical 183 form as a dietary supplement (also known as CDP-choline and 184 citicoline), serves as a choline source (Alvarez-Sabin and Roman, 185 2011; Davalos et al., 2012; Fioravante and Buckley, 2006; Garcia- 186 Cobos et al., 2010; Saver, 2008; Secades, 2011, 2012; Secades and 187 Lorenzo, 2006). In addition to its possible clinical utility for the treat- 188 ment of vascular cognitive impairment (Cotroneo et al., 2013), CDP- 189 choline has shown promise of efficacy for brain injuries and in elderly 190 patients with cognitive deficits, inefficient memory, and early-stage 191 Alzheimer's disease (Conant and Schauss, 2004). In these clinical condi- 192 tions, because CDP-choline is a key intermediary in the biosynthesis of 193 phosphatidylcholine - an important phospholipid present in neuronal 194 membranes, the mechanism of action underlying cognitive improve- 195 ments is believed to be linked to restorative effects on phospholipid 196 synthesis which enhances membrane maintenance and repair (Weiss, 197 1995; Zeisel, 1993, 2000a,b; Zeisel and Blusztujn, 1994). 198

In SZ patients, a 16-week trial with near-maximum clinically recommended doses of CDP-choline (2000 mg/day) plus galantamine, an acetylcholinesterase inhibitor and a positive allosteric modulator of nAChRs, failed to alter clinical symptoms or the majority of MCCBindexed cognitive deficits in SZ patients, but the treatment did improve performance on a test of verbal memory and increased overall functional outcome of patients (Deutsch et al., 2013). However, nAChR agonist effects often display an inverted U-shaped dose response curve, with maximal responses being observed at low and ultra low doses (Castner et al., 2011; Prickaerts et al., 2012; Werkheiser et al., 2011; 208 Hahn et al., 2002). Adopting a "less is more" approach recently advocated for nicotinic agonist treatment in SZ (Buchanan and Schwarcz, 2011), 210

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