

.....

HOT TOPICS

- Li B, Piriz J, Mirrione M, Prulx CD, Schulz D, Henn F et al (2011). Synaptic potentiation onto habenula neurons in the learned helpless model of depression. *Nature* **470**: 535–539.
- Matsumoto M, Hikosaka O (2009). Representation of negative motivational value in the primate lateral habenula. *Nat Neurosci* **12**: 77–84.
- Roiser JP, Levy J, Fromm SJ, Nugent AC, Talagala SI, Hasler G *et al* (2009). The effects of tryptophan depletion on neural responses to emotional words in remitted depression. *Biol Psych* **66**: 441–450.
- Sartorius A, Kiening KL, Kirsch P, von Gall CC, Haberkorn U, Unterberg AW *et al* (2010). Remission of major depression under deep brain stimulation of the lateral habenula in a therapy refractory patient. *Biol Psych* **67**: 9–11.
- Wang RY, Aghajanian GK (1997). Physiological evidence for habenula as major link between forebrain and midbrain raphe. *Science* **197**: 89–91.
- Zink M, Vollmayr B, Gebieke-Harter DJ, Henn FA (2010). Reduced expression of vGLUT, EAAT2 and EAAT4 in learned helpless rats an animal model of depression. *Neuropharmaclogy* **58**: 465–73.

Neuropsychopharmacology Reviews (2012) **37,** 307–308; doi:10.1038/npp.2011.193

Figure 1. Principal inputs and outputs of the I. habenula crossroad in the circuit mediating depression.

1997), which feed back further increasing l. habenular activity. The l. habenula receives strong inputs from both the limbic system, through the basal nucleus of the stria terminalis, which carries information from the amygdala related to anxiety and from the mPFC, which may be related to the cognitive aspects of depression (Li *et al*, 2011) and sends its output to the midbrain aminergic nuclei.

Because it appears the l. habenula functions as a control center that regulates the reward center, modulating cortical, and limbic areas, it might be an ideal target for deep brain stimulation in cases of intractable, treatment-resistant depression. This has been utilized for a single patient and resulted in a total remission (Sartorius et al, 2010) that rapidly reversed when the stimulator was disconnected and returned after the stimulation was reinstated. The time course for the remission after initiating stimulation is slow, weeks for full remission, suggesting that structural changes underlie this effect. High frequency and high voltage stimulation inhibit l. habenula slice activity (Li et al, 2011) supporting the concept that inhibition occurs through DBS and this may well be the mechanism through which DBS acts (Figure 1).

Glutaminergic over activity in the mPFC drives the over activation of the l. habenula (Li et al, 2011) in the chronically helpless line of animals, allowing the development of a depressive state mediated, in part, by altered monoaminergic function. Excess cortical glutamate in the mPFC, resulting from stress, leads to decreases in cortical synapses, a well-documented effect that can be reversed by ketamine. Chronically helpless animals show a 40% loss of synapses, suggesting enhanced stress sensitivity. The excess glutamate appears to be sustained through decreased astrocytic glutamate transporter in these learned helpless animals (Zink et al, 2010), suggesting that astrocytic dysfunction may be a fundamental step in the pathophysiology of depression.

Fritz A Henn¹

¹Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, NY, USA E-mail: fhenn@cshl.edu

DISCLOSURE F Henn serves as a consultant to Astra Zeneca and is funded by the Simon's Foundation.

Update on Corticotropin-Releasing Factor Pharmacotherapy for Psychiatric Disorders: A Revisionist View

The identification of corticotropinreleasing factor (CRF) in 1981 was followed by the discovery of three CRF paralogs (urocortins 1, 2, and 3) and two CRF/urocortin receptors (CRF₁, CRF₂; Bale and Vale, 2004). Because preclinical studies showed that CRF1 receptors mediate endocrine, behavioral, and autonomic responses to stress, the pharmaceutical industry developed blood-brain barrier-penetrating CRF₁ receptor antagonists. We and others previously surveyed the pharmacology of non-peptide CRF1 receptor antagonists and the therapeutic rationale of CRF₁ antagonists for major depression, anxiety disorders, and addiction (see Koob and Zorrilla, 2010; Zorrilla and Koob, 2010, for references). Yet, CRF₁ antagonists have still not yielded positive Phase III clinical trials, prompting the current revisionist view of the

neurotherapeutic potential of CRF_1 antagonists. Our hypothesis is that CRF antagonists may be valuable in specific psychiatric disorders in which stress is a dynamic rather than chronic condition. More explicitly, we suggest that CRF_1 antagonists in psychiatry may particularly be useful in post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), panic disorder, and addiction.

Non-peptide CRF1 antagonists consistently produce anxiolytic-like effects in certain animal models, such as conditioned freezing, defensive burying, acoustic startle responding, the open field, the elevated plus maze, the light-dark box, the defensive withdrawal test, and the social interaction test. A CRF1 antagonist (R317573/JNJ19567470/CRA5626) also recently showed activity in rodent (Shekhar et al, 2011) and human (Bailey et al, 2011) panic models. These models reflect a dynamic, active response to an acute stressor and, from a face validity perspective, may reflect more the symptoms of specific subtypes of anxiety disorders rather than of generalized anxiety disorder. Indeed, CRF1 antagonists exhibited weak activity in punished drinking and punished crossing conflict models, unlike γ -aminobutyric acid anxiolytics. Despite initial positive results, small-molecule CRF1 antagonists have not consistently shown efficacy in animal models of antidepressant activity (Zorrilla and Koob, 2010).

CRF₁ antagonists also reduce the activation of brain stress systems in models of addiction, supporting the therapeutic potential of CRF1 antagonists for drug dependence. Hypothalamic-pituitary adrenl-axis and extrahypothalamic CRF systems are activated during acute withdrawal from all major substances of abuse in animals. CRF antagonists blocked anxiogenic-like responses to withdrawal from cocaine, alcohol, nicotine, cannabinoids, and palatable food and blocked the development of or reduced already escalated drug selfadministration in addiction models (for details and references, see Koob and Zorrilla, 2010; Boyson *et al*, 2011). CRF₁ antagonists also blocked stressinduced reinstatement of heroin-, cocaine-, nicotine-, alcohol-, and palatable food-seeking behavior and stress-induced reactivation of conditioned place preference for opioids and cocaine (Koob and Zorrilla, 2010).

No CRF1 antagonist has successfully completed a Phase III trial. R121919 and PF-00572778 were abandoned due to liver enzyme elevations (NCT00580190). The development of ONO-2333 Ms (NCT00514865) and CP-316,311 were halted because of negative efficacy in double-blind, placebo-controlled trials for major depression (Zorrilla and Koob, 2010). Verucerfont (GSK561679) also lacked efficacy in a major depression trial (Protocol # CRS106139). Pexacerfont (BMS-562086) was ineffective against generalized anxiety disorder (Coric et al, 2010). Trials of verucerfont and emicerfont for social anxiety disorder have been completed with undisclosed results (NCT00555139). Relevant to the hypothesis proposed herein, Glaxo SmithKline and NIH are currently evaluating verucerfont against startle in healthy women (NCT01059227), in women with PTSD (NCT01018992), and against stress-induced alcohol craving in anxious women (NCT 01187511). A trial for pexacerfont has likewise been initiated in anxious alcoholics by Bristol Myers Squibb and NIAAA (NCT01227980). Several other candidates are earlier in the pipeline, or their status has not been publicly updated by the pharmaceutical industry (eg, GSK586529 [NCT01059227], SSR125543 [NCT01034995], antalarmin). Should results from these trials concur that CRF1 antagonists are ineffective for chronic anxiety and depression, a re-evaluation should be considered with emphasis on certain anxiety disorders, such as PTSD and possibly panic disorder, and on addiction disorders.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This study was supported by the Pearson Center for Alcoholism and

Addiction Research and National Institutes of Health grants DK26741 from the National Institute of Diabetes, Digestive and Kidney Diseases and AA06420 from the National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism.

George F Koob¹ and Eric P Zorrilla¹

¹Committee on the Neurobiology of Addictive Disorders, The Scripps Research Institute, La Jolla, CA, USA E-mail: gkoob@scripps.edu

DISCLOSURE

GFK consults for Addex Pharmaceuticals, Alkermes, Arkeo Pharmaceuticals, Embera Neurotherapeutics, GlaxoSmithKline, Lilly, and Psychogenics. GFK and EPZ are co-inventors on US patent no. 60/972,409, "MPZP: A Small Molecule Corticotropin-Releasing Factor Type 1 Receptor (CRF₁) Antagonist."

- Bailey JE, Papadopoulos A, Diaper A, Phillips S, Schmidt ME, van der Ark P et al (2011). Preliminary evidence of anxiolytic effects of the CRF1 receptor antagonist R317573 in the 7.5% CO2 proof-ofconcept experimental model of human anxiety. J Psychopharmacol; e-pub ahead of print 9 May 2011.
- Bale TL, Vale WW (2004). CRF and CRF receptors: role in stress responsivity and other behaviors. *Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol* **44**: 525–557.
- Boyson CO, Miguel TT, Quadros IM, Debold JF, Miczek KA (2011). Prevention of social stressescalated cocaine self-administration by CRF-R1 antagonist in the rat VTA. *Psychopharmacology* (*Berl*); e-pub ahead of print 9 May 2011.
- Coric V, Feldman HH, Oren DA, Shekhar A, Pultz J, Dockens RC *et al* (2010). Multicenter, randomized, double-blind, active comparator and placebo-controlled trial of a corticotropin-releasing factor receptor-1 antagonist in generalized anxiety disorder. *Depress Anxiety* **27**: 417–425.
- Koob GF, Zorrilla EP (2010). Neurobiological mechanisms of addiction: focus on corticotropin-releasing factor. *Curr Opin Invest Drugs* **11**: 63–71.
- Shekhar A, Johnson PL, Fitz SD, Nakazato A, Chaki S, Steckler T *et al* (2011). A selective, non-peptide CRF receptor 1 antagonist prevents sodium lactate-induced acute panic-like responses. *Int J Neuropsychopharmacol* **14**: 355–365.
- Zorrilla EP, Koob GF (2010). Progress in corticotropinreleasing factor-1 antagonist development. *Drug Discov Today* **15**: 371–383.

Neuropsychopharmacology Reviews (2012) **37**, 308–309; doi:10.1038/npp.2011.213

Update on Omega-3 Polyunsaturated Fatty Acids in Early-Stage Psychotic Disorders

Polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs) are the major constituents of cell membrane phospholipids. As such, they have