

# Occupancy of dopamine D<sub>1</sub>, D<sub>2</sub> and serotonin<sub>2A</sub> receptors in schizophrenic patients treated with flupentixol in comparison with risperidone and haloperidol

M. Reimold · C. Solbach · S. Noda · J.-E. Schaefer ·  
M. Bartels · M. Beneke · H.-J. Machulla · R. Bares ·  
T. Glaser · H. Wormstall

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## Abstract

**Rationale** Flupentixol (FLX) has been used as a neuroleptic for nearly 4 decades. In vitro data show comparable affinity to dopamine D<sub>2</sub>, D<sub>1</sub> and 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> receptors and recently, FLX showed to be not inferior to risperidone in schizophrenic patients with predominant negative symptomatology, which was implicated with flupentixol's interaction with 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> and/or D<sub>1</sub> receptors.

**Objectives** To assess in vivo receptor occupancy (RO) in patients clinically treated with FLX ( $n=13$ ,  $5.7\pm 1.4$  mg/day) in comparison with risperidone (RIS,  $n=11$ ,  $3.6\pm 1.3$  mg/day) and haloperidol (HAL,  $n=11$ ,  $8.5\pm 5.5$  mg/day).

**Materials and methods** Each patient underwent two PET scans with 3-*N*-[<sup>11</sup>C]methylspiperone (target: frontal 5-HT<sub>2A</sub>), [<sup>11</sup>C]SCH23390 (striatal D<sub>1</sub>) or [<sup>11</sup>C]raclopride

(striatal D<sub>2</sub>). RO was calculated as the percentage reduction of specific binding in comparison with healthy controls.

**Results** D<sub>2</sub>-RO under FLX was between 50% and 70%, indicating an ED<sub>50</sub> of about 0.7 ng/ml serum. 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> and D<sub>1</sub>-RO was  $20\pm 10\%$  and  $20\pm 5\%$  (mean, SEM). Under HAL, D<sub>1</sub>-RO was  $14\pm 6\%$  and under RIS not significantly different from zero.

**Conclusions** We were able to demonstrate a moderate 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> and D<sub>1</sub> occupancy under clinically relevant doses of flupentixol, albeit lower than expected from in vitro data and clearly below saturation. Therefore, if flupentixol's efficacy on negative symptoms is based on its interaction with 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> and/or D<sub>1</sub> receptors, it should be highly dependent on serum concentration and thus on dosage and metabolism. However, these data suggest that mechanisms other than D<sub>1</sub> or 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> antagonism may contribute to flupentixol's efficacy on negative symptoms.

M. Reimold · R. Bares  
Department of Nuclear Medicine/PET Center,  
University of Tuebingen,  
Tuebingen, Germany

S. Noda · J.-E. Schaefer · M. Bartels · H. Wormstall  
Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy,  
University of Tuebingen,  
Tuebingen, Germany

C. Solbach · H.-J. Machulla  
Radiopharmacy, University of Tuebingen,  
Tuebingen, Germany

M. Beneke · T. Glaser  
Bayer Vital GmbH,  
Leverkusen, Germany

M. Reimold (✉)  
PET Center,  
Roentgenweg 15,  
72076 Tuebingen, Germany  
e-mail: matthias.reimold@uni-tuebingen.de

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## Introduction

There is a large body of evidence that the neurotransmitter dopamine and serotonin (5-HT) play an important role in schizophrenia and in the action of antipsychotic drugs. Several receptor subtypes for these neurotransmitter seem to be involved herein. It is generally accepted that for antipsychotic activity (with respect to positive symptoms), a blockade of mesolimbic dopaminergic transmission with D<sub>2</sub> receptor antagonists is an essential prerequisite. This

hypothesis is, among numerous other findings, based on the fact that all currently available antipsychotics are more or less potent dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptor blockers. Positron emission tomography (PET) and single photon emission computed tomography (SPECT) have been used for more than 15 years to assess the in vivo occupancy of various receptor systems under neuroleptic treatment. Receptor occupancy is defined as the percentage of binding sites occupied by medication, assessed by means of percentage reduction of binding potential of a certain receptor system. The first and most frequently investigated receptor system under neuroleptic treatment is the dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptor (Farde et al. 1986), many studies of the D<sub>1</sub> receptor and the serotonergic system followed. PET and SPECT are especially useful to investigate the relation between occupancy and clinical effects, and can therefore be used to make dose suggestions (Nyberg et al. 1999). Several PET and SPECT studies have come to the conclusion that for antipsychotic efficacy a blockade of 65–70% of dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptors is necessary and sufficient, whereas a blockade of >80% leads to an increased risk of extrapyramidal symptoms (EPS) (Nordstrom et al. 1993; Nyberg et al. 1995; Kapur et al. 2000a; but also see Gründer et al. 2003). This “therapeutic window” seems to apply for many different neuroleptics. However, for some “atypical” compounds, e.g. clozapine or quetiapine, lower D<sub>2</sub>-RO values were observed under clinically effective doses (Kapur et al. 2000b; Tauscher et al. 2004).

It was hypothesized that both superior effectiveness and better tolerability of the prototypical atypical antipsychotic drug clozapine is at least in part due to its additional interaction with dopamine D<sub>1</sub> and 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> receptors (Farde and Nordstrom 1992; Farde et al. 1992; Meltzer 1992; Lundberg et al. 1996). Consequently, during the past years various so-called atypical or second generation antipsychotics with a combined action on both dopamine D<sub>2</sub> and 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> receptors were developed for the treatment of schizophrenia. The first of them was risperidone, which leads to a 5-HT<sub>2A</sub>-RO that is even higher than that of dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptors (Nyberg et al. 1993, 1996). Similar findings were also reported for most of the other atypical antipsychotics (Seeman 2002; Nyberg et al. 1998). Those data support the hypothesis put forward by Meltzer et al. (1989) that the atypicality of antipsychotic drugs may be related to the ratio of their affinities for 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> and dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptors (5-HT<sub>2A</sub>/D<sub>2</sub> ratio). There is some evidence that the benefit from 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> receptor antagonism is based on interactions between the serotonergic and the dopaminergic system (Lieberman et al. 1998; Ichikawa et al. 2001) resulting in increased dopaminergic activity. It is interesting to note that the relevance of mesocortical dopaminergic activity in schizophrenic patients for cognitive functions could be demonstrated with PET. Abi-

Dargham et al. (2002) showed that increased prefrontal D<sub>1</sub> availability, presumably secondary to deficient dopaminergic function, is a strong predictor of poor performance at the n-back task, a test of working memory. Still, the role of 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> receptor antagonism for neuroleptic treatment remains controversial and other possible criteria for “atypicality” were described (Kapur and Seeman 2001; Gründer et al. 2003).

Among the classical neuroleptic drugs there are also compounds with combined dopamine D<sub>2</sub> and 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> receptors activities. One of those is the thioxanthene derivative flupentixol, which has now been marketed as a neuroleptic for nearly 4 decades. The pharmacological receptor profile of flupentixol is characterized by high affinity interactions with dopamine D<sub>1</sub>, D<sub>2</sub> and 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> receptors in vitro (Hyttel et al. 1985; Glaser and Soyka 1998). Corresponding human data were generated only in very few schizophrenic patients by PET measurements (Farde et al. 1992; Nyberg et al. 1996; Lundberg et al. 1996). Based on recent preclinical and clinical studies, a partial atypical profile of flupentixol was proposed (Glaser and Soyka 1998; Kuehn et al. 2000). In line with this profile are the results of a recent double-blind head to head trial with risperidone, which showed flupentixol being not inferior to risperidone in 153 schizophrenic patients with predominant negative symptomatology (Philipp et al. 2002, Philipp et al. 2003). In a recent double-blind study with 28 patients (Gattaz et al. 2004), the efficacy of flupentixol was not significantly different from that of olanzapine, whereas the side effects profile differed in that patients receiving flupentixol experienced more EPS, but less weight gain.

The goal of the present trial was to assess the occupancies of dopamine D<sub>1</sub>, D<sub>2</sub> and 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> receptors in clinically stable schizophrenic patients treated with flupentixol and to compare the occupancy profile of flupentixol with that observed under risperidone and haloperidol under comparable clinical conditions.

## Materials and methods

This was a monocenter, randomized, open-label study conducted with patients routinely treated as inpatients or outpatients with one of the three antipsychotic drugs under study. Approvals were obtained from the local Ethics Committee and from the Bundesinstitut für Strahlenschutz (BfS). Subjects gave their written informed consent after a detailed description of the study.

### Patients and control subjects

Eligible for the study were patients with the diagnosis of schizophrenia or schizoaffective psychosis according to the

ICD-10 criteria in stable remission, treated in steady state (i.e. at least for 14 days) with flupentixol (4–10 mg/day or a corresponding dose of flupentixol decanoate), haloperidol (5–10 mg/day) or risperidone (2–6 mg/day) with no history of substance abuse and no severe somatic disorder (e.g. stroke, parkinsonism, neurodegenerative disorder). At the time of the PET scan, the patients had to be free of any other psychotropic medication, the required drug-free interval was chosen upon clearance (minimum 3 days, 5 weeks for SSRI, short-term treatment with benzodiazepines and anticholinergic drugs allowed).

A total of 35 patients (Table 1) were enrolled (“intent to treat” population:  $n=13$  flupentixol,  $n=11$  haloperidol,  $n=11$  risperidone), 32 of which underwent two PET scans within 2 weeks, randomly assigned to two of the three tracers [ $^{11}\text{C}$ ]raclopride (RAC; for assessment of striatal  $\text{D}_2$  occupancy), 3- $N$ -[ $^{11}\text{C}$ ]methylspiperone (NMS; for assessment of frontal 5-HT $_{2A}$  occupancy) and [ $^{11}\text{C}$ ]SCH 23390 (SCH; for assessment of striatal  $\text{D}_1$  occupancy). Three patients underwent only one PET scan with one of the abovementioned tracers. In five patients, the urine test at the day of the first PET scan revealed additional psychotropic medication or drugs. Patients that completed both PET scans without a positive drug urine test and without any other protocol violation formed the “per protocol” population. In three of these patients, serum drug concentration was very low (flupentixol: two patients with levels below the detection limit; risperidone: one patient with 0.1 ng/ml), presumably due to non-compliance, and their PET scans were not included in the statistical analysis.

As drug-free controls, 26 age-matched healthy controls (HC) were recruited after completing a health screening questionnaire and a urine drug test. Each control subject underwent one PET scan. (RAC: 9, NMS: 9, SCH: 8).

**Table 1** Number of patients and PET scans

	Flupentixol	Risperidone	Haloperidol
Total (intent to treat)	13	11	11
Dropouts <sup>a</sup>	2	1	–
Patients <sup>b</sup> with			
Two scans			
$\text{D}_1$ and $\text{D}_2$	3	3=2+1 <sup>d</sup>	3
$\text{D}_1$ and 5-HT $_{2A}$	3	4=3+1 <sup>d</sup>	3
$\text{D}_2$ and 5-HT $_{2A}$	4=2+2 <sup>d</sup>	3	3
One scan			
$\text{D}_1$ <sup>c</sup>	1		1 <sup>d</sup>
5-HT $_{2A}$ <sup>c</sup>			1

<sup>a</sup> Serum level negligible

<sup>b</sup> All patients except those with negligible serum level

<sup>c</sup> Consent withdrawn/protocol violation after the first PET scan

<sup>d</sup> Positive drug urine test

## Preparation of $^{11}\text{C}$ -ligands

RAC, NMS and SCH were synthesized by alkylation of  $S$ -(+)- $O$ -demethyl-raclopride, spiperone and demethyl-SCH23390 using [ $^{11}\text{C}$ ]methyl iodide (Ehrin et al. 1987; Dannals et al. 1986; Halldin et al. 1986). High specific activity [ $^{11}\text{C}$ ]CH $_3\text{I}$  was prepared using an automated module (MeI Microlab, General Electric Medical Systems, Uppsala, Sweden). Radiolabeling was performed in a PET tracer synthesizer for  $^{11}\text{C}$ -methylations from Nuclear Interface (Muenster, Germany). After purification and formulation, the three radiotracers were obtained in radiochemical yields of 25–50% calculated on produced [ $^{11}\text{C}$ ]CH $_3\text{I}$ . The total synthesis times were 50–60 min from the end of bombardment. The specific activities were in the range of 30–50 GBq/ $\mu\text{mol}$  at the end of synthesis. The radiochemical purities of the final formulated product solutions were >95% as determined by radio-HPLC.

## Clinical assessments

At the day of each PET scan, patients had to undergo clinical ratings of their psychopathology by means of the positive and negative syndrome scale (PANSS; Kay et al. 1987), EPS (Simpson-Angus scale developed in 1970) and clinical assessment (clinical global impression, CGI). In all patients, a urine drug test was performed at the day of the PET scan.

## Determination of drug plasma levels

Venous blood samples were collected directly before injection of the radioligand, centrifuged and frozen. The serum drug concentration in all samples was determined centrally by MDS Pharma Services, Fehraltorf, Switzerland, using standard analytical techniques.

## PET data acquisition

In total, 93 PET scans were conducted (67 in patients, cf. Table 1 and 26 in healthy controls). The two PET scans of each patient were conducted at two visits, which were 2–14 days apart from each other.

During the PET scan, the patients head was fixed in an elastic mould with adhesive stripes. Three fiducial markers were attached to the skull to support image realignment. After intravenous bolus injection of 700 MBq RAC (<13.2  $\mu\text{g}$ ), NMS (<15.4  $\mu\text{g}$ ) or SCH (<10.8  $\mu\text{g}$ ), the cerebral radioactivity distribution was measured with a GE Advance PET scanner (GE-Medical Systems, Milwaukee, USA, axial field view of 15 cm) in two-dimension acquisition mode, followed by a transmission scan with 500,000 kilo counts.

## Image reconstruction and ROI analysis

We used filtered backprojection ( $128 \times 128$  pixel = 30 cm) with a Hanning filter (cutoff 4.6 mm) to reconstruct our images. For realignment and for a coarse anatomical normalization before ROI analysis, we used SPM99 with the standard SPM perfusion template and early summation images (0–5 min p.i.) of each PET-scan with non-linear transformations being disabled. Time–activity curves were derived from standardized three-dimensional regions of interest (ROI) locally established at the PET Center Tuebingen for the putamen ( $2 \times 0.7$  ml), the frontal cortex ( $2 \times 2.0$  ml, BA10) and the cerebellum ( $2 \times 10$  ml), manually placed on summation images 0–5 min p.i. Due to the coarse spatial pre-normalization, we were able to apply these ROI without modifications to size or shape.

## Modelling and calculation of receptor occupancy (RO)

For each type of receptor, we assessed the availability of binding sites with the measure  $k_3/k_4 = f_2 \times B_{\max}/K_D$ , in the literature also denoted  $V_3''$  (Laruelle et al. 1994) or binding potential  $BP_2$  with  $k_3$  and  $k_4$  being the transfer rate constants between the first and the second tissue compartment,  $f_2$  the free fraction of the tracer in the first tissue compartment,  $B_{\max}$  the density of available (i.e. not occupied) binding sites and  $K_D$  the equilibrium dissociation constant of the radiotracer. The  $BP_2$  of  $D_2$ -like receptors (RAC) was calculated with the simplified reference tissue method (SRTM, Lammertsma and Hume 1996). The  $BP_2$  of 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> receptors was calculated from  $BP_2 = VR - 1$  with VR being the distribution volume ratio obtained as slope of the linearization proposed by Logan et al. 1996, assuming a washout from the reference tissue  $k_2' = 0.06 \text{ min}^{-1}$ . This washout constant was estimated with the SRTM from inter-individually averaged time–activity curves of the control

subjects (cf. Fig. 1). Logan's linearization was also applied to the SCH data, here we used an estimated  $k_2' = 0.14 \text{ min}^{-1}$ . The corresponding linearizations of inter-individually averaged data from NMS are shown in Fig. 1 to demonstrate approximately mono-exponential behavior during the chosen regression interval.

The RO was assessed by means of the percentage reduction of specific binding in the striatum (RAC, SCH) and the frontal cortex (NMS). Since no individual baseline PET (i.e. without neuroleptic treatment) was available, the mean  $BP_2$  (age corrected) of the control group was used instead ( $RO = 100\% - BP_2/BP_{\text{mean}}$ ), thus values of RO below 0% are possible due to baseline variability. For age correction, a mono-exponential function was fitted to  $BP_2$  in healthy controls in a least square sense. Since our control group was age-matched, this age correction had only a small effect on the calculated mean occupancy, however, it allowed for reducing the baseline variance (expressed as  $\hat{\sigma}_\varepsilon^2$ , see Eq. (2) below) and thus to obtain smaller confidence intervals.

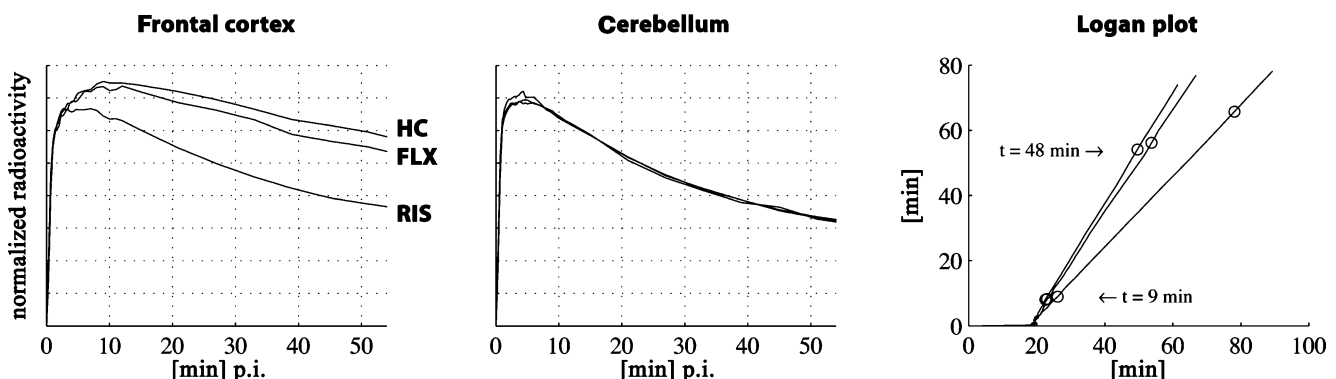
## Saturation analysis, statistics

The synaptic concentration of the neuroleptic drug was assumed to be proportional to the serum concentration, which allows determining the plasma concentration equivalent to 50% occupancy ( $ED_{50}$ ) from a non-linear fit of the saturation curve:

$$RO = RO_{\max} \times C_{\text{serum}} / (C_{\text{serum}} + ED_{50}) \quad (1)$$

with an assumed  $RO_{\max} = 100\%$ .

With the given sample sizes, this equation allows to reliably estimate  $ED_{50}$  only for higher values of RO, as of  $D_2$  receptors. Therefore, the occupancy of striatal  $D_1$  and frontal 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> receptors was not compared with serum drug concentration, instead a mean level of occupancy was



**Fig. 1** Frontal NMS binding: time–activity curves and quantification. Mean time–activity curves of NMS in the frontal cortex (left) and the cerebellum (middle). The Logan plot (right) shows straight lines for all groups, data from the haloperidol group is not shown (no 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> occupancy). NMS is known to bind irreversibly to other receptors (especially  $D_2$ ) and the linearity of the Logan plot therefore assures

that  $D_2$  density in the frontal cortex is small enough to allow for reliable quantification of 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> binding. The slopes are 1.69 (HC=healthy controls), 1.56 (FLX=flupentixol,  $n=5$ ) and 1.08 (RIS=risperidone,  $n=6$ ), which corresponds to a reduction of specific binding by 19% in flupentixol patients



statistically assessed after excluding a few patients, which had very low level of serum drug concentration, presumably due to non-compliance. The total standard error of the estimated mean occupancy  $\sigma_{\overline{RO}}$ , which includes the uncertainty from baseline variability, was calculated from:

$$\sigma_{\overline{RO}}^2 = \hat{\sigma}_{\overline{RO}}^2 + (1 - \overline{RO}/100\%)^2 \hat{\sigma}_{\varepsilon}^2 \quad (2)$$

with  $\hat{\sigma}_{\overline{RO}}$  being the standard error of the mean calculated RO,  $\hat{\sigma}_{\varepsilon}^2$  the standard error of the “apparent RO” of the control subjects (i.e. the residual from the age correction expressed in percent) and  $\overline{RO}$  the mean receptor occupancy. The 95% confidence intervals were plotted as diamonds ranging from  $-2\sigma$  to  $+2\sigma$ . For groups with patients having a positive drug urine test, we calculated  $\overline{RO}$  twice: once including and once excluding these patients.

For validation, we also calculated the mean receptor occupancy of frontal 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> and striatal D<sub>1</sub> receptors of each group from inter-individually averaged time–activity curves as described previously (Reimold et al. 2004).

The inference statistical analysis was conducted as an exploratory evaluation because no reasonable sample size calculation could be made beforehand. The analysis was based on a balanced 3×3 split-plot-factorial design (three receptors and three treatments) with block confounding, i.e. subjects were only exposed to two out of three possible treatments. The analysis of the all psychopathological rating scales was based on descriptive statistics using measures of central tendency and spread.

## Results

The clinical data of all patients are given in Table 2. The patient groups were widely comparable, however, the duration of neuroleptic treatment was shorter in the risperidone group (mean: 6.4 years) than in the flupentixol (10.3 years) and the haloperidol groups (11.2 years). The mean daily dosages of 5.7 mg flupentixol, 8.51 mg haloperidol and 3.59 mg risperidone corresponded to those usually administered in long-term treatment. Two patients in the flupentixol group and one patient in the risperidone group had a very low or zero drug serum concentration, presumably due to non-compliance, therefore these patients were not used to calculate the mean 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> and D<sub>1</sub> receptor occupancy. Psychopathology and EPS ratings at study entry by means of the PANSS subscales and the Simpson-Angus scale, respectively, revealed only marginal if any differences in the corresponding mean scores (Table 2). Changes between visit 1 and visit 2 were negligible. According to the CGI scale, 70–80% of patients in each group were mildly to moderately ill at visit 1. Only

**Table 2** Patient characteristics

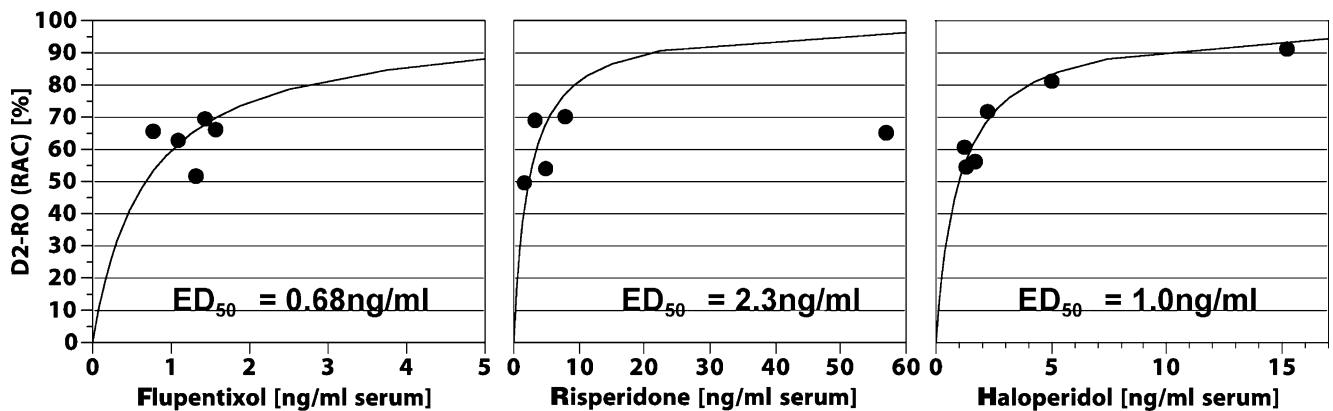
	Flupentixol (n=13)	Risperidone (n=11)	Haloperidol (n=11)
Age [years]	40.4±5.6	39.4±11.2	41.0±9.2
Male/female [n]	5/8	7/4	8/3
Weight [kg]	76.9±18.2	80.8±7.4	76.8±23.7
BMI [kg/m <sup>2</sup> ]	26.1±5.6	26.6±3.2	26.1±6.5
Diagnosis [n]			
Paranoid schizophrenia	7	6	9
Katatonic schizophrenia	1	–	–
Residual schizophrenia	–	2	1
Schizophrenia simplex	1	–	–
Schizoaffective disorder	1	2	–
Mixed schizoaffective-disorder	3	1	1
Intake of antipsychotics since [years]	10.3±6.3	6.4±7.3	11.2±6.3
Dose/day [mg/day]	5.7±1.4	3.6±1.3	8.5±5.5
Serum concentration: mean (median) [ng/ml]	1.47 (0.97)	10.0 (3.0)	3.8 (1.9)
Range [ng/ml]	0.0–6.0	0.1–77.3	0.6–18.1
Serum variability [%] (mean relative difference between both days)	30	33	13
PANSS <sub>tot</sub>	53.1±8.9	46.8±11.9	50.2±9.8
PANSS <sub>pos</sub>	10.7±2.4	9.7±3.0	11.1±3.3
PANSS <sub>neg</sub>	14.2±3.6	12.8±4.7	13.6±3.6
PANSS <sub>glob</sub>	28.2±5.8	24.3±5.9	25.6±4.6
EPS	0.15±0.18	0.15±0.29	0.24±0.26

one (risperidone), two (flupentixol) and three (haloperidol) patients were judged as markedly ill.

Time–activity curves of NMS in the frontal cortex and the reference region are plotted in Fig. 1. Patients with flupentixol treatment exhibited slightly faster washout than the control subjects, the fastest washout was found in patients receiving risperidone treatment. Time–activity curves in the reference tissue showed only negligible group differences (mean time–activity curves being visually identical). The corresponding Logan linearization is shown in Fig. 1 and demonstrates mono-exponential pharmacokinetic behaviour during the chosen regression interval.

D<sub>2</sub> receptor occupancy after flupentixol treatment was below 70% in all patients (Fig. 2), corresponding to an ED<sub>50</sub> of 0.68 ng/ml (serum concentration). The calculated ED<sub>50</sub> of risperidone and haloperidol were 2.3 ng/ml and 1.0 ng/ml, respectively. It is interesting to note that the patient with by far the highest risperidone serum concentration (57 ng/ml) presented a considerably lower RO (65%) than predicted from the saturation curve (>95%).

Figure 3 shows the individual RO of all patients. Patients treated with flupentixol displayed the highest occupancy of D<sub>1</sub> receptors (19.9%). With the estimated standard error of 5.4% (including baseline uncertainty), this means that the



**Fig. 2** D<sub>2</sub> receptor occupancy. *Left:* therapeutic doses of flupentixol lead to a D<sub>2</sub> occupancy of 50–70%, the fitted saturation hyperbola corresponds to a  $ED_{50}$ =0.68 ng/ml. *Middle and right:* corresponding

saturation curves for risperidone (not including 9-OH risperidone) and haloperidol

mean D<sub>1</sub>-RO is higher than 11% at  $\alpha=0.05$  (unilateral). D<sub>1</sub> occupancy of haloperidol patients was lower ( $14.0\pm5.6\%$ ; including the patient with a positive drug urine test: 13.0%) and also significantly different from zero. In the risperidone group, we observed no significant D<sub>1</sub> occupancy.

Mean 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> receptor occupancy under flupentixol treatment was 19.5% (23.6% in females, 13.4% in the two male subjects; including both subjects with a positive drug urine test: 22.9%) with a standard error of 10.0%, which corresponds to a mean RO>3% at  $\alpha=0.05$  (unilateral). Patients of the risperidone group had a much higher RO ( $87.9\pm4.3\%$ , including the subject with a positive drug urine test: 88.4%), whereas 5-HT<sub>2A</sub>-RO under haloperidol was not significantly different from zero ( $3.8\pm13.2\%$ ). It is interesting to note that the variance of frontal NMS binding was much higher in the haloperidol group (SD 33.3%) than in the controls (11.4%), which might be explained with a higher baseline variability in this group.

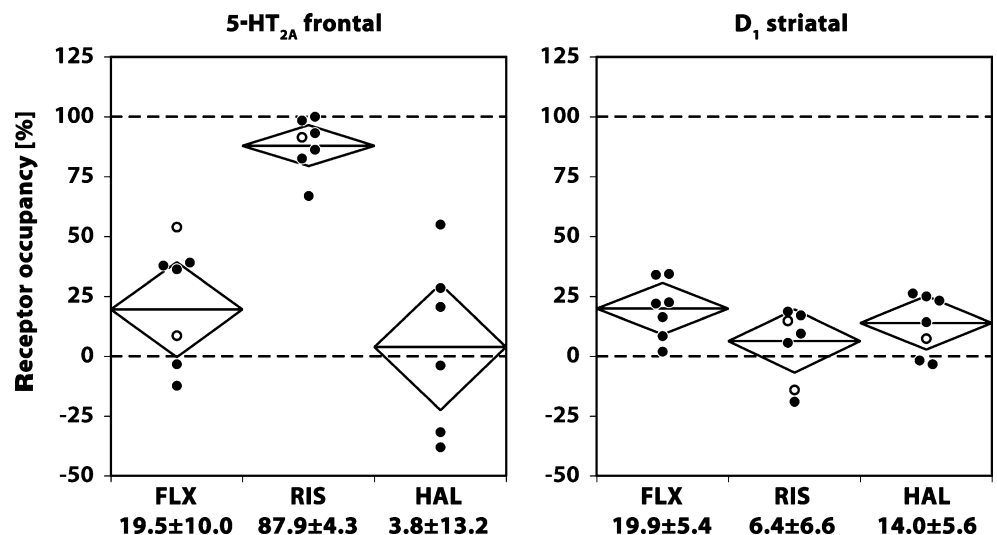
The three patients that had been excluded due to likely non-compliance displayed occupancy values close to or

even below zero in line with their negligible serum concentrations, except one patient from the flupentixol group with 5-HT<sub>2A</sub>-RO of 24%.

## Discussion

To our knowledge, this is the first study that reports about the in vivo binding profile of flupentixol in a larger number of subjects. As expected from in vitro data, schizophrenic patients clinically treated with flupentixol exhibited reduced D<sub>1</sub> and 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> receptor availability. The corresponding mean occupancy (20% for both D<sub>1</sub> and 5-HT<sub>2A</sub>) was significantly lower than that of D<sub>2</sub> receptors (63%). While in a recent clinical trial, it was shown that flupentixol is as efficacious against negative symptoms as risperidone (Philipp et al. 2002) and olanzapin (Gattaz et al. 2004), our data show that 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> occupancy under flupentixol is much lower than that under risperidone. Thus, this study raises the question whether flupentixol's efficacy against

**Fig. 3** 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> and D<sub>1</sub> receptor occupancy. Frontal 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> and striatal dopamine D<sub>1</sub> receptor occupancy of patients treated with flupentixol, risperidone or haloperidol. Numbers reflect the mean receptor occupancy in [%] and the standard error of mean, including the uncertainty from variable baseline conditions. The corresponding 95% confidence interval is shown by diamonds. Open circles refer to the dropout patients (positive drug urine test) and were not used to calculate the mean occupancy



negative symptoms is based on interactions with other receptor sites than 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> or if a therapeutically relevant interaction with 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> receptors does not require high levels of occupation. If the rather low 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> and/or D<sub>1</sub> occupancy was to mediate the therapeutic efficacy against negative symptoms, one would expect a dependency on dosage and serum levels, as the saturation curve has a higher slope for RO=20% than for occupancy levels near saturation.

While a D<sub>1</sub> and 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> occupancy lower than that of D<sub>2</sub> receptors is in agreement with in vitro data and with PET results reported for a small number of subjects (D<sub>1</sub> vs D<sub>2</sub>: Farde et al. 1992, two subjects; 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> vs D<sub>2</sub>: Nyberg et al. 1996, one subject), we expected the absolute level of D<sub>1</sub> and 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> occupancy to be higher. In vitro data (Glaser and Soyka 1998) suggested K<sub>i</sub> values for D<sub>1</sub> and 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> receptors to be in the same order of magnitude as those for D<sub>2</sub>-like receptors (D<sub>1</sub>, 3.8±3.1 nM; 5-HT<sub>2A</sub>, 4.3±1.2 nM; D<sub>2S</sub>, 3.6±1.2 nM; D<sub>3</sub>, 2.5±0.1 nM). Assuming the intra-individual non-specific pharmacokinetic behavior of a psychotropic drug to be uniform across the investigated brain regions and transmitter systems, K<sub>i</sub>-ratios are frequently used equivalent to ED<sub>50</sub>-ratios to characterize the pharmacological profile of antipsychotics. With the given K<sub>i</sub>-ratios (5-HT<sub>2A</sub> over D<sub>2</sub>=1.2; D<sub>1</sub> over D<sub>2</sub>=1.06) and a D<sub>2</sub>-ED<sub>50</sub> of 0.68 ng/ml (cf. Fig. 2), Eq. (1) yields for our patients a predicted occupancy of 65% for 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> and 66% for D<sub>1</sub> receptors, which is more than threefold higher than measured. This discrepancy is one example that emphasizes the need of in vivo PET imaging to confirm in vitro data. But, although the assessment of receptor occupancy with PET is well-established, it is not without methodological uncertainties, which may have lead to an underestimation of D<sub>1</sub> and 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> occupancy in the present study. Specific binding of the radioligand to another type of binding sites may result in a false low apparent occupancy if these binding sites are occupied at a lower level. This applies to different receptor subtypes (e.g. 5-HT<sub>2C</sub> receptors to which NMS also binds) and to different cellular locations of the same type of receptor. The latter was discussed to be the reason why NMS and SCH are apparently not being displaced by the endogenous ligand or exhibit even paradoxical behaviour (for review, see Laruelle 2000). In general, “specific” binding that is not blocked by medication leads to an underestimation of receptor occupancy. Usually it is corrected for by defining a maximum “occupancy” RO<sub>max</sub> below 100% (Eq. (1)). Using MDL 100907, a highly selective 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> antagonist, Andree et al. (1998) report about a maximum reduction of specific binding of NMS by 77%, so one might want to correct the observed RO by a factor of 100/77 to obtain the “true” 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> occupancy under flupentixol (26% instead of 20%). Little was published that would allow to draw reliable

conclusions about the maximum reduction of specific binding of SCH achievable in vivo with a *selective* D<sub>1</sub> antagonist. To our knowledge, the maximum reduction observed in patients was in the range of 50–60% (e.g. apparent occupancy under clozapine=55±15%, Tauscher et al. 2004), therefore the “true” D<sub>1</sub> occupancy under flupentixol may well be above the observed 20%. Another possible source of error comes from estimating the individual baseline binding potential from healthy controls, e.g. a hypothetical compensatory upregulation, due to either diagnosis or treatment (Huang et al. 1997; Schröder et al. 1998), would lead to an underestimation of occupancy. This is usually ignored because several SPECT/PET studies failed to detect significant baseline differences, in spite of altered dopaminergic transmission (Abi-Dargham et al. 1998). No baseline differences were found with NMS and SCH either (Okubo et al. 2000; Karlsson et al. 2002), however, one has to keep in mind that such a baseline shift may induce a rather small error for high levels of occupancy, but not for lower levels (at 80% true occupancy, a hypothetical upregulation by 25% would result in an apparent occupancy of 75%; at 40% true occupancy, the same baseline shift would result in 25% apparent occupancy). Furthermore, the fact that no significant baseline differences were observed after a certain drug-free interval does not generally exclude an altered baseline status under neuroleptic treatment, especially since different neuroleptics may interact differently with the receptor (Weiner et al. 2001; Gründer et al. 2003). The PET ligands SCH and NMS were used in the literature with reference tissue methods without experimental validation against full kinetic modelling (including arterial plasma samples, metabolite correction and plasma protein binding), however, we are confident that the chosen methods of quantification do not introduce further relevant uncertainties to the calculated occupancy values. The chosen beginning of the regression interval to obtain the slope of the Logan plot had only negligible impact on the calculated binding potential (data not shown). A noise-dependent bias, a particular drawback from Logan’s method, and the bias that might result from a variability of non-specific binding in the reference region was ruled out by demonstrating that between-subject averaging (Reimold et al. 2004) had only negligible impact on the calculated mean binding potential (difference <2% in all groups, cf. Fig. 1).

Our data from patients under treatment with risperidone are in good agreement with other PET studies, which also showed a 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> occupancy higher than that of D<sub>2</sub> receptors (Nyberg et al. 1999; Kapur et al. 1999). It is interesting to note that we have not observed a significant occupancy of D<sub>1</sub> receptors under risperidone, which is in agreement with in vitro data, but differs from Tauscher et al. (2004) who previously reported a 25% reduction of

specific binding of SCH under 4.3 mg risperidone per day (which is only little more than the 3.6 mg per day in our patients).

In the haloperidol group,  $D_2$  occupancy was closely related to the serum concentration. In two patients, the occupancy was higher than the threshold suggested to be critical for EPS. The observed  $D_1$  occupancy (14%, significantly different from zero) is in agreement with in vitro data, as was the negligible 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> occupancy. To our knowledge, this is the first study that reports about the  $D_1$  occupancy under haloperidol in a larger number of subjects.

The focus of this study was to characterize the receptor profile of flupentixol in a typical clinical setting that was comparable to that for the two reference neuroleptics. A limitation of such a design is that estimation of the ED<sub>50</sub> may be slightly biased because the dosage of the neuroleptic is not randomized.

## Conclusion

With respect to  $D_2$  occupancy, our data indicate an ED<sub>50</sub> of flupentixol of about 0.7 ng/ml serum. The occupancy profile of flupentixol with respect to 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> and dopamine  $D_1$  receptors differs from both risperidone and haloperidol. In schizophrenic patients clinically treated with stable doses of flupentixol, the average specific binding of NMS and SCH to frontal 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> and striatal  $D_1$  receptors was reduced by 20% corresponding to a moderate  $D_1$  and 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> occupancy below the level of  $D_2$  occupancy and clearly below saturation. Flupentixol's affinity to dopamine  $D_1$  receptors was not high enough to allow for a clear delineation from haloperidol with respect to  $D_1$  blockade, but among the investigated compounds, the highest dopamine  $D_1$  occupancy was indeed observed under flupentixol. In summary, we were able to demonstrate a moderate 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> and  $D_1$  occupancy under clinical treatment with flupentixol. However, 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> occupancy under flupentixol lies clearly below that of atypical compounds, suggesting that other mechanisms than  $D_1$  and 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> antagonism might contribute to flupentixol's efficacy on negative symptoms. We assume the serotonergic effects of flupentixol and effects from  $D_1$  blockade to highly depend on serum level and thus on dosage and metabolism.

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