

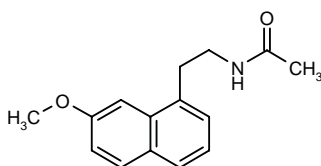
# Agomelatine

Prop INN

*Antidepressant  
Treatment of Bipolar Disorder  
Melatonin Agonist/5-HT<sub>2C</sub> Antagonist*

S-20098

N-[2-(7-Methoxy-1-naphthyl)ethyl]acetamide



C<sub>15</sub>H<sub>17</sub>NO<sub>2</sub>

Mol wt: 243.3043

CAS: 138112-76-2

EN: 193166

## Abstract

Agomelatine is a metabolically stable analogue of melatonin that is known to act as a selective and specific agonist at melatonin receptor sites in the hypothalamus. Agomelatine has also been shown to act as a competitive antagonist at serotonin receptors, giving it the novel pharmacological profile of a MASSA (Melatonin Agonist and Selective Serotonin Antagonist). Its ability to mimic the action of melatonin means that it is a potential candidate for the treatment of disorders characterized by dysfunction of biological rhythms (e.g., sleep disorders/depression). A recent randomized, controlled trial has shown that agomelatine 25 mg/day is as effective as paroxetine in the treatment of patients with major depressive disorder and bipolar disorder, yet exhibits a more favorable tolerability profile than the traditional antidepressant in this group. Agomelatine, therefore, holds great promise for use as an antidepressant drug with a unique mode of action and is currently undergoing further clinical investigation.

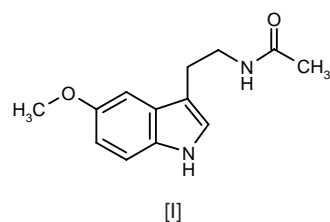
## Synthesis

Reformatskii reaction between 7-methoxy-1-tetralone (I) and the organozinc reagent generated from ethyl bromoacetate, followed by dehydration of the intermediate carbinol in the presence of P<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> gives 2-(7-methoxy-

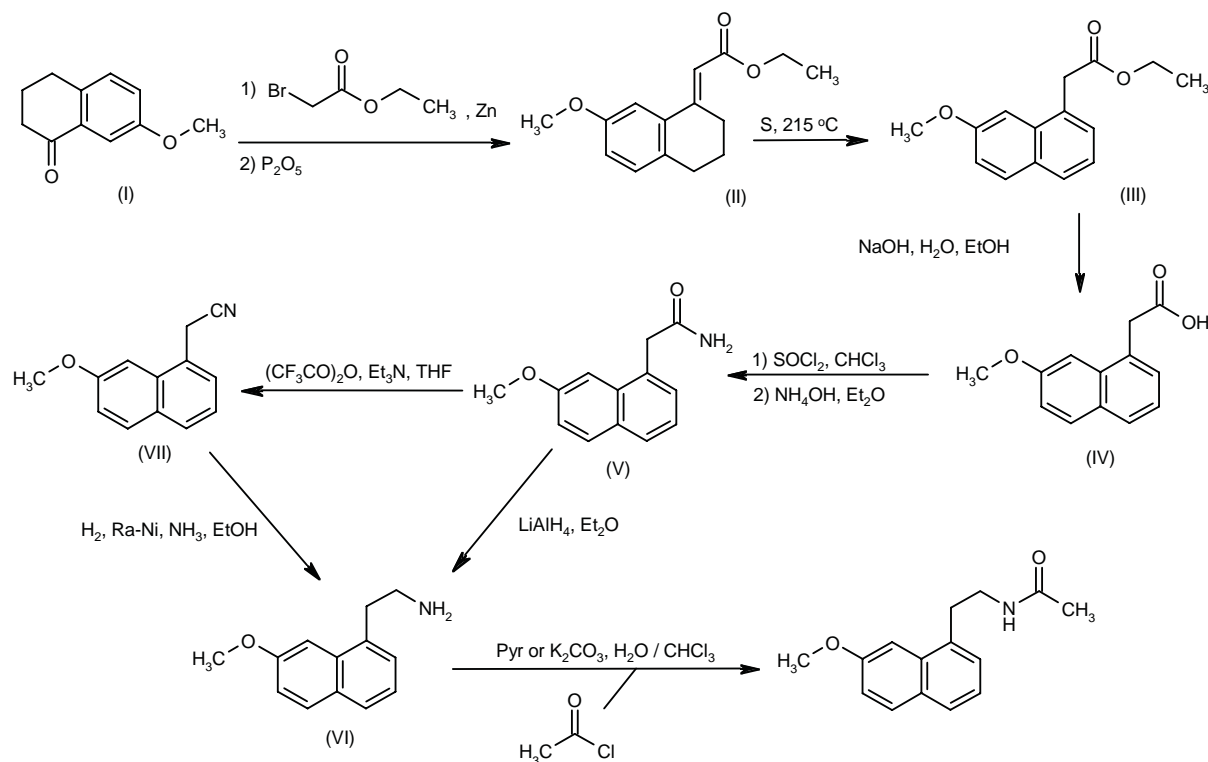
1,2,3,4-tetrahydro-1-naphthylidene)acetic acid ethyl ester (II). Aromatization of compound (II) by heating with sulfur at 215 °C results in the corresponding naphthalene derivative (III), which is submitted to basic hydrolysis of the ethyl ester group (III) to provide 2-(7-methoxy-1-naphthyl)acetic acid (IV) (1). After activation of (IV) with SOCl<sub>2</sub>, the crude acid chloride is treated with ammonium hydroxide to produce amide (V), which by direct reduction with LiAlH<sub>4</sub> furnishes amine (VI) in low yields (2, 3). An alternative procedure consists of the dehydration of amide (V) with trifluoroacetic anhydride to afford nitrile (VII), which is then reduced to the desired amine (VI) by catalytic hydrogenation (1-4). Finally, agomelatine is obtained by reaction of amine (VI) with acetyl chloride in pyridine (1) or in a biphasic medium (H<sub>2</sub>O-CHCl<sub>3</sub>) under Schotten-Baumann conditions (2-4). Scheme 1.

## Introduction

Melatonin [I] is an endogenous neurohormone involved in the regulation of circadian rhythms in both humans and mammals. It is produced exclusively at night by the pineal gland, and acts at melatonin receptors concentrated in the suprachiasmatic nuclei (SCN) of the hypothalamus. The hypothalamus is responsible for the control and execution of circadian rhythm patterns. It receives neural inputs from SCN neurons, whose firing rates are determined by melatonin levels. Melatonin therefore has a chronobiotic function in that it works to alter the timing of physiological and behavioral processes through its action and its hypothalamic binding sites.



Scheme 1: Synthesis of Agomelatine



Melatonin is known as an internal time-keeper, as it has been shown to reset the biological clock normally regulated externally via the light-dark cycle. This ability to alter circadian rhythm synchronization implies its potential use in the treatment of conditions associated with problems in this area. Use of melatonin in the treatment of disorders characterized by circadian rhythm dysfunction has been limited, however, due to its associated short half-life (consequent to a high catabolism rate) and poor selectivity at melatonin receptor sites in the SCN (3, 5).

A number of melatonin analogues have been strategically designed to overcome the problems associated with melatonin administration. Molecular modeling studies identified the indole ring as the structural site of catabolic inactivation, making it an ideal candidate for isosteric modification. Agomelatine is the naphthalenic bioisostere of melatonin, as it has a naphthalene nucleus substituted for the indole ring, rendering it more metabolically stable when compared with melatonin (4, 6, 7).

Disruption of circadian rhythm patterns has been implicated as an etiological factor in the pathophysiology of depression. This disorganization of internal rhythms is said to be characteristic of mood variation. Therefore, the normalization of such impairments has been heralded as a potential new therapeutic target for the treatment of depression.

Tricyclic antidepressants, while effective in treating mild to severe forms of depression, are associated with an extensive tolerability profile, making them a nonviable option to many patients. The newer selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) are better tolerated when compared with their tricyclic predecessors, and have recently become the most widely used antidepressant agents. However, problems with specific side effects (particularly affecting sexual function) have compromised treatment compliance in some patients. There is also evidence to suggest that while SSRIs are effective in mild to moderate forms of depression, they may not be as effective in patients exhibiting very severe forms of the disease. Therefore, research efforts are still being directed towards finding new antidepressant agents that are effective in all forms of depression and that are associated with a reduced side effect profile. Agomelatine has been proposed as one such candidate for antidepressant therapy.

### Pharmacological Actions

Agomelatine is a potent and specific agonist at melatonin receptor sites in the hypothalamus. Cloning studies identified two distinct groups of melatonin receptors in the SCN, namely high-affinity  $\text{ML}_1$  and low-affinity  $\text{ML}_2$  receptors. High-affinity  $\text{ML}_1$  receptors have been further

Table 1: *In vitro* pharmacological profile of agomelatine compared to other selected melatonin receptor agonists (from Prous Science Integrity®).

Compound	Melatonin receptor affinity pK <sub>i</sub>		Agonistic activity - cAMP assay pIC <sub>50</sub>	
	MT <sub>1</sub>	MT <sub>2</sub>	MT <sub>1</sub>	MT <sub>2</sub>
Agomelatine	10.4	10.5	9.38	10.3
GR-196429	9.85	9.79	7.98	9.06
Melatonin	10.1	9.72	9.53	9.74

Receptor affinities (pK<sub>i</sub>) evaluated on human cloned melatonin MT<sub>1</sub> and MT<sub>2</sub> receptors by displacement of [<sup>3</sup>H]-melatonin. Agonism potency (pIC<sub>50</sub>) evaluated by the inhibition of forskolin-induced cAMP production in cells transfected with human melatonin MT<sub>1</sub> or MT<sub>2</sub> receptors (original data from refs. 9, 44).

classified into mt<sub>1</sub> and MT<sub>2</sub> subtypes, which are responsible for melatonin's circadian rhythm function and retinal function effects, respectively. Both mt<sub>1</sub> and MT<sub>2</sub> receptor subtypes belong to the family of G-protein-coupled receptors mediated by their inhibitory action on adenylate cyclase. SCN neurons themselves exhibit a circadian rhythm in their discharge activity *in vitro*, which is attuned to the light-dark cycle representative of circadian rhythm function. Agomelatine has been shown to bind specifically and selectively to mt<sub>1</sub> and MT<sub>2</sub> sites in a number of *in vitro* and *in vivo* animal studies (8, 9) (Table 1).

Melatonin acts to downregulate mt<sub>1</sub> receptor density following selective binding to these receptors in the SCN. Research has shown this effect of receptor downregulation in the pars tuberalis of the rat. A similar decrease in mt<sub>1</sub> receptor density was observed following agomelatine administration, providing further support for its action as a full agonist at this receptor subtype (10).

Melatonin also acts to decrease firing of hypothalamic SCN cells. The effects of agomelatine administration on the firing rates of light-sensitive SCN cells have been assessed. *In vivo* analysis showed that intraperitoneal injection of agomelatine in male Syrian hamsters produced a dose-dependent decrease in SCN firing similar to that following melatonin administration (ED<sub>50</sub> = 0.91 and 1.15 mg/kg, respectively). Time to suppression was also comparable between groups, although time to recovery was significantly longer in the agomelatine-treated hamsters, implicating a longer duration of action following agomelatine administration. Similarly, *in vitro* analysis showed that ionophoretic application of agomelatine had a comparable action to melatonin in its ability to reduce SCN neuronal firing (11, 12). Chronic treatment does not appear to alter the sensitivity of SCN neurons to agomelatine exposure, with no change being observed following both *in vitro* and *in vivo* analysis (13).

Agomelatine's classification as a chronobiotic drug also comes from research showing its ability to mimic the action of melatonin in the synchronization of circadian rhythm patterns. This has most often been shown by way of behavioral studies in rodents, where daily patterns of

locomotor activity, running wheel activity and fluctuations in body temperature have been shown to be altered by both melatonin and agomelatine (14, 15).

Agomelatine administration has been shown to alter these measures of circadian rhythm function in three ways. Firstly, agomelatine can entrain free-running rhythms by setting up a circadian pattern in animals after external time-keepers are removed (*i.e.*, after exposure to constant darkness). This ability to synchronize rest-activity rhythms in free-running animals is dose-dependent, and requires the integrity of the SCN (*i.e.*, SCN-lesioned rats do not entrain following either agomelatine or melatonin, lending further support here for its action at melatonin receptors). The pineal gland appears not to be involved, however, as pinealectomized rats retain the ability to entrain circadian rhythm function. These observations applied to orally administered as well as peripherally injected rodents (16-19).

Secondly, agomelatine can reset a preexisting circadian rhythm following a phase shift. Behavioral studies show that agomelatine has the ability to reentrain rats following an 8-h phase advance of the light-dark cycle *in vivo*. While these effects are dose-dependent, the action of agomelatine has been shown to have a ceiling effect, with injection of 1 mg/kg obtaining maximal reentrainment in a rodent model. Agomelatine has also been shown to reentrain circadian rhythms in an *in vitro* model, with similar changes to SCN firing rates being reported following an 8-h phase advance (20-23).

Finally, agomelatine can correct age-related changes to environmental stimulus response. Age is associated with a decline in responsiveness to the circadian clock, in particular to the phase shifting effects of activity-inducing stimuli. Long-term treatment with agomelatine has been shown to reduce the time taken for reentrainment following a phase advance in the light-dark cycle. Agomelatine administration can therefore be used to restore resynchronization ability in animals that have reduced circadian rhythm responsiveness. This effect was once again shown to be dose-dependent, and was reversed after discontinuation of the drug (24, 25).

Agomelatine does not always mimic the action of melatonin, however, in that it has separate effects to those elicited in the hypothalamus that are not achieved with melatonin administration. Further to its classification as a selective melatonin receptor agonist, recent research has identified a separate mode of action of this drug. It seems as though agomelatine's effects are also mediated via its function as a competitive antagonist at the 5-HT<sub>2C</sub> receptor.

Agomelatine was shown to antagonize the penile erections normally induced by serotonin receptor activation in Wistar rats. Penile erections were induced by administration of mCPP and Ro-60-0175 (selective 5-HT<sub>2C</sub> receptor agonists), then were diminished dose-dependently following addition of agomelatine. Melatonin administration had no effect in this paradigm. As agomelatine mimics the effects of melatonin at the melatonin receptor site, it was concluded that the effects of

melatonin here were distinct from its melatonin agonist properties, and were instead due to 5-HT<sub>2C</sub> receptor antagonism (26).

Recent results from receptor binding studies gave further support to this notion of a secondary mode of action for agomelatine. *In vitro* analysis of receptor binding in CHO cells showed that agomelatine acts as an antagonist at the 5-HT<sub>2C</sub> receptor subtype ( $pK_i$  and  $pK_b$  = 6.2 and 5.9, respectively). Agomelatine displayed competitive antagonism properties here, displacing 5-HT agonist activation at 5-HT<sub>2C</sub> receptor sites without producing an independent action. Agomelatine also worked as an antagonist at the 5-HT<sub>2B</sub> receptor ( $pK_i$  and  $pK_b$  = 6.5 and 6.6, respectively) as well as exhibiting low-affinity binding at 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> sites ( $pK_i$  < 6). Serotonergic binding activity was only observed at doses higher than would normally be given to activate melatonergic receptors (27).

Agomelatine has, therefore, been shown to have a unique pharmacological profile, as it elicits its effects by binding to hypothalamic M<sub>1</sub> and M<sub>2</sub> receptors, as well as by blocking the 5-HT<sub>2C</sub> receptor. The compound has become known as a Melatonin Agonist and Selective Serotonin Antagonist (MASSA).

There has been some evidence to suggest that the differing mechanisms of action of agomelatine may be dependent on the timing of administration of the drug, with evening dosing being similar to its action at the melatonin receptors, while morning administration is attributable to its serotonergic properties. Furthermore, only the morning activity and not the nighttime activity of agomelatine was able to be blocked with the melatonin receptor antagonist S-22153 (27, 28).

Interest in agomelatine has increased dramatically in recent times due to its prospective use as a novel antidepressant agent. Interest grew following the presentation of results of a number of animal studies demonstrating agomelatine to be an effective antidepressant in a series of well-validated animal models of depression.

The effects of agomelatine were initially studied in olfactory bulbectomized rats compared with control rats (undergoing a sham operation). Results were compared with administration of the typical antidepressant therapy, imipramine. Ambulation scores were statistically similar among animals treated with agomelatine (10 or 50 mg/kg) and imipramine (10 mg/kg); however, control rats showed a significantly higher level of ambulation when compared with vehicle-treated animals. These findings supported the potential use of agomelatine as an antidepressant in humans (29).

The antidepressant efficacy of agomelatine was further tested in a number of experiments. Chronic i.p. administration of agomelatine (10 and 50 mg/kg) was compared with melatonin (10 and 50 mg) and the typical antidepressants imipramine (10 mg/kg) and fluoxetine (10 mg/kg), in a chronic mild stress model of depression. Agomelatine reversed chronic mild stress-induced anhedonia, with a magnitude and time course similar to that of the traditional antidepressant drugs, independent of the time of administration. Agomelatine was shown to be a

potent and rapidly-acting antidepressant in this model (28, 30).

Results from the learned-helplessness model of depression also heralded agomelatine as an effective antidepressant. In this study, oral administration of agomelatine (2, 10, 50 and 100 mg/kg) was compared with melatonin (2, 10 and 50 mg/kg) and imipramine (64 mg/kg) in rats subjected to an uncontrollable aversive stimulus. Results were compared with those obtained from helpless control animals, and non-helpless control animals. Agomelatine was shown to be equivalent to imipramine in its ability to reverse the learning deficit caused by exposure to aversive stimuli. Once-daily administration was superior to twice-daily administration of agomelatine, with the most significant antidepressant effects being noted with the 10 mg/kg dose (31).

Finally, the antidepressant efficacy of agomelatine was tested using the forced swim test. Here investigators showed that acute and repeated-dose treatment with agomelatine (2, 10 and 50 mg/kg) had an antidepressant effect in Wistar rats and Swiss mice, as demonstrated by a significantly reduced duration of mobility at all doses tested. Results following agomelatine were comparable to those attributable to imipramine and fluoxetine administration, whereas treatment with melatonin showed no effect (32, 33). It should be noted, however, that results from a separate group published 4 years previous to the aforementioned trials showed null results with agomelatine administration in a forced swim test. Investigators claimed that agomelatine had no antidepressant effect in this setting (34).

Rats and rhesus monkeys did not self-administer agomelatine in a preclinical evaluation of its effects at the GABA receptor. These results were important in that they suggested that while agomelatine might exhibit antidepressant effects, it was not associated with self-administration in animals, which has been shown to be similar to the propensity for recreational abuse in humans. The authors concluded that, although agomelatine shares some properties of CNS depressant agents, the potential for intoxication and abuse is limited, making it an even more ideal candidate for use as an antidepressant (35, 36).

## Clinical Studies

Results from preclinical trials prompted investigators to carry out a pilot dose-finding study in patients with major depressive disorder. A double-blind randomized study was undertaken in order to find a dose applicable for antidepressant use in this population. A total of 28 inpatients were administered agomelatine at doses of 5 or 100 mg/day for 28-56 days. Groups were comparable at baseline. Antidepressive efficacy was shown at both doses, although the 5 mg/day group of patients showed more benefits as compared to the 100 mg/day group. The tolerability profile was comparable between groups, although there were a greater number of severe

Table II: Clinical studies of agomelatine (from Prous Science Integrity®).

Indication	Design	Treatments	n	Conclusions	Ref.
Major depression	Randomized, double-blind	Agomelatine, 5 mg x 4-8 wk Agomelatine, 10 mg x 4-8 wk	28	Both agomelatine doses significantly benefitted patients, with a slightly better reduction in MADRS scores in the 5 mg group. Both doses were also safe, although adverse events were more common in the higher dose group	37
Bipolar II disorder, depression	Randomized, double-blind, multicenter	Agomelatine, 1 mg po od x 8 wk (n=141) Agomelatine, 5 mg po od x 8 wk (n=147) Agomelatine, 25 mg po od x 8 wk (n=137) Paroxetine, 20 mg po od x 8 wk (n=147) Placebo (n=139)	711	In patients with severe major depression or bipolar II disorder, agomelatine at a dose of 25 mg was safe and more effective than placebo in all individual depression scores, including retardation, anxiety and insomnia	38

adverse events reported by the 100 mg/day patients. It was concluded that agomelatine was an effective antidepressant agent in inpatients with major depressive disorder. Oral administration of 5 mg/day had comparable efficacy and was better tolerated than 100 mg/day, making it a more suitable candidate for a dosing target in future trials (37).

A multinational group of researchers recently reported that agomelatine was as effective as the traditional antidepressant paroxetine in the treatment of depression (38). Investigators from France, Belgium and the U.K. published results from their recently conducted randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial in 711 patients aged 18-65 years with a DSM-IV diagnosis of major depressive disorder (n=698) or bipolar disorder (n=13). Patients were randomized to receive agomelatine 1, 5 or 25 mg/day or paroxetine 20 mg/day in the evening for an 8-week period. All patients underwent a placebo run-in period for 1 week. Patients who responded to this placebo run-in were excluded from further analysis. Antidepressant efficacy was measured on the 17-item Hamilton Rating Scale for Depression (HAM-D), the Montgomery-Asberg Depression Rating Scale and the Clinical Global Impression-Severity of Illness scale. The anxiety associated with depression was also measured on the Hamilton Anxiety Scale.

Efficacy analysis showed that agomelatine 25 mg/day was as effective as paroxetine in its ability to improve depression scores. Analysis of individual scores showed that agomelatine 25 mg/day improved all depressive symptoms in relation to placebo-treated patients ( $p < 0.05$  for all symptoms). Time to first response was also significantly reduced in agomelatine patients compared with patients receiving paroxetine (2 vs. 4 weeks, respectively;  $p < 0.05$ ). There was a dose-dependent effect seen here, although patients treated with agomelatine 1 and 5 mg/day showed no improvement in depression score or response rate when compared with placebo (39).

Tolerability data showed that agomelatine was better tolerated than paroxetine in this population. The adverse event rate was comparable between placebo and agomelatine patients at all doses. However, paroxetine-treated

patients experienced a significantly higher rate of adverse events compared with the other groups (66% vs. 55% and 51% for placebo and agomelatine 25 mg, respectively). The majority (85%) of all events reported were mild to moderate in severity, with the most commonly experienced side effects being gastrointestinal in nature. Withdrawals due to adverse events were comparable between groups (40).

Secondary analysis of the effect of agomelatine on the anxiety associated with depression showed that the compound also displays an anxiolytic effect in these patients. It is common for patients to experience anxiety symptoms in combination with depressive symptomatology. Agomelatine 25 mg/day significantly reduced Hamilton Anxiety Rating Scale (HARS) scores when compared with placebo. This finding was confirmed by analysis of a subgroup of patients who were never users of anxiolytics prior to study onset. Paroxetine administration had a similar effect (41).

Another secondary analysis of efficacy in patients with severe depression (*i.e.*, patients with HAM-D scores  $> 25$  at baseline) showed that agomelatine 25 mg/day was superior to paroxetine in the treatment of these patients when compared with placebo. These findings imply the potential specific use of agomelatine in difficult-to-treat, or severely depressed patients (42).

Finally, remission rates were shown to significantly increase with agomelatine 25 mg/day (30% of patients) as compared to placebo (15% of patients) and were comparable to rates following paroxetine administration (26% of patients). Investigators concluded that a higher remission rate was indicative of the long-term efficacy of agomelatine in patients with depression (43).

The results of these 2 studies are summarized in Table II.

## Conclusions

Agomelatine is a novel antidepressant drug candidate exhibiting a unique pharmacological profile.



Administration of agomelatine 25 mg/day has been shown to be as effective as paroxetine in the treatment of major depressive disorder and bipolar disorder, yet is associated with a more favorable tolerability profile. Agomelatine is especially effective in the treatment of severely depressed patients, an effect that was not observed in patients undergoing paroxetine therapy. Secondary analysis showed that agomelatine is also effective in treating anxiety symptoms associated with depression. Agomelatine, therefore, shows great promise as a new antidepressant agent and is currently in phase III clinical trials for this indication.

## Source

Servier Laboratoires (FR).

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