

# $\beta_3$ -Adrenoceptor agonists: potential, pitfalls and progress

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## Abstract

$\beta_3$ -Adrenoceptor agonists are very effective thermogenic anti-obesity and insulin-sensitising agents in rodents. Their main sites of action are white and brown adipose tissue, and muscle.  $\beta_3$ -Adrenoceptor mRNA levels are lower in human than in rodent adipose tissue, and adult humans have little brown adipose tissue. Nevertheless,  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptors are expressed in human white as well as brown adipose tissue and in skeletal muscle, and they play a role in the regulation of energy balance and glucose homeostasis. It is difficult to identify  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonist drugs because the pharmacology of both  $\beta_3$ - and  $\beta_1$ -adrenoceptors can vary; near absolute selectivity is needed to avoid  $\beta_{1/2}$ -adrenoceptor-mediated side effects and selective agonists tend to have poor oral bioavailability. All weight loss is lipid and lean may actually increase, so reducing weight loss relative to energy loss.  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonists have a more rapid insulin-sensitising than anti-obesity effect, possibly because stimulation of lipid oxidation rapidly lowers intracellular long-chain fatty acyl CoA and diacylglycerol levels. This may deactivate those protein kinase C isoenzymes that inhibit insulin signalling. © 2002 Elsevier Science B.V. All rights reserved.

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## 1. Introduction

Although the  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor was not cloned until 1989 (Emorine et al., 1989), it had already been apparent for 5 or 6 years that agonists of this receptor might have potential in the treatment of obesity and Type 2 diabetes (Arch and Ainsworth, 1983; Arch et al., 1984a). Early evidence for the  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor stemmed from the discovery that  $\beta_1$ - and  $\beta_2$ -adrenoceptor antagonists lacked potency in various gut preparations and as antagonists of  $\beta$ -adrenoceptor agonist-driven lipolysis. Then in the early 1980s, novel  $\beta$ -adrenoceptor agonists were discovered to be more potent as stimulants of rat white or brown adipocyte lipolysis than as stimulants of atrial contraction, or tracheal or uterine relaxation (Arch et al., 1984a). These compounds were found to stimulate metabolic rate and to have anti-obesity and anti-diabetic (insulin-sensitising) activity in rats and mice (Arch et al., 1984b; Meier et al., 1984; Yen et al., 1984; Cawthorne et al., 1984).

Since that time, numerous studies have produced similar results in rodents for other  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonists (e.g.

Umekawa et al., 1997; Kiso et al., 1999); the  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor and  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonists have been reviewed regularly (Arch and Kaumann, 1993; Arch, 2001; Dow, 1997; Weyer and de Souza, 2000), and there have been two books on the subject (Goldberg and Frishman, 1995; Strosberg, 2000). No  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonist has, however, advanced beyond Phase II clinical studies. In this brief review, I shall describe the status and discuss the potential of  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonists for the treatment of obesity, touching also upon Type 2 diabetes. First though, I shall describe some of the problems of identifying  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonists suitable for development as drugs.

## 2. Identification of $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonists for development

### 2.1. Rodent vs. human receptors

The first generation  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonists were identified largely from studies in vivo in rats and mice. These compounds were therefore optimised for selectivity at the rodent  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor. When the human  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor was cloned and expressed by Strosberg et al. (Emorine et al., 1989), one of the first generation compounds [(RR+SS)-( $\pm$ )-4-[2-(2-(3-chlorophenyl)-2-hydroxyethyl)amino]pro-

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pyl]phenoxyacetate (BRL-37344)] was shown to be a potent stimulant of cyclic AMP synthesis. It was subsequently realised, however, that the first generation agonists have poor efficacy at the human  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor (Wilson et al., 1996; comment in introduction of Fisher et al., 1998): their efficacy may be sufficient to stimulate adenylyl cyclase in cells transfected with high numbers of the  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor, but in human white adipocytes, they elicit either little or no response, or a response mediated via the  $\beta_1$ - or  $\beta_2$ -adrenoceptor (Hoffstedt et al., 1996).

To resolve this problem, a number of pharmaceutical companies have used human cloned  $\beta$ -adrenoceptors to identify agonists with increased efficacy and potency at the  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor, and reduced efficacy and potency at the  $\beta_1$ - and  $\beta_2$ -adrenoceptors. Our own experience suggests that any efficacy at  $\beta_1$ - or  $\beta_2$ -adrenoceptors is a liability. For example, the  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonist (*RR*)-5-{2-[2-(3,4-dihydroxyphenyl)-2-hydroxyethylamino]propyl}-1,3-benzodioxole-2,2-dicarboxylate (SB-220646) had little or no agonist activity at cloned  $\beta_1$ - and  $\beta_2$ -adrenoceptors, and yet, its stimulation of human white adipocyte lipolysis was antagonised by nadolol at a concentration that blocks  $\beta_1$ - and  $\beta_2$ -, but not  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptors. Moreover, SB-220646 was a full agonist of the force of contraction of human right atrial appendage, and studies with selective antagonists showed that both the  $\beta_1$ - and  $\beta_2$ -adrenoceptors were involved (Sennitt et al., 1998). The explanation for such findings is presumably that human tissues possess many  $\beta_1$ - or  $\beta_2$ -adrenoceptors and very few  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptors (Strosberg and Gerhardt, 2000; Chamberlain et al., 1999). It is, nevertheless, possible to stimulate lipolysis exclusively via the  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor in human white adipocytes using a suitably selective agonist, such as (*S*)-4-{2-[2-hydroxy-3-(4-hydroxyphenoxy)propylamino]ethyl}phenoxyethylcyclohexylphosphonic acid lithium salt (SB-226552) (Sennitt et al., 1998) or 4-{1-[2-(*S*)-hydroxy-3-(4-hydroxyphenoxy)-propylamino]cyclopentylmethyl}phenoxyethylphenyl-phosphonic acid lithium salt (SB-251023) (Arch et al., 1999).

Thus, the challenge of identifying highly selective and effective  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonists to selectively stimulate the low numbers of  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptors in human tissues is compounded by differences in pharmacology between the rodent and human  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptors, making *in vivo* studies in rodents potentially misleading. Not only do agonists display significant differences in efficacy and potency between rodent and human  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptors, but antagonist potencies may also vary. The  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor is often described as being blocked by the selective  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor antagonist (3-(2-ethyl-phenoxy)-1-[(1*S*)-1,2,3,4-tetrahydronaphth-1-ylamino]-(2*S*)-2-propanol oxalate (SR-59230A). However, while this compound may be a selective antagonist of the rodent  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor (Manara et al., 1996; Kubo et al., 1997 but see Kaumann and Molenaar, 1996), its utility as a selective antagonist of the human  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor is less certain (Arch, 2000). Recently, two selective antagonists of the human cloned  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor, (*S*)-*N*-[4-[2-[[3-(ami-

nosulphonyl)phenoxy]-2-hydroxypropyl]-amino]ethyl]phenyl]benzenesulfonamide (L-748328) and (*S*)-*N*-[4-[2-[[3-(acetamidomethyl)phenoxy]-2-hydroxypropyl]amino]ethyl]phenyl]benzenesulfonamide (L-748337), have been described, but these compounds do not bind to the rodent  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor (Candelore et al., 1999).

## 2.2. The “ $\beta_4$ ”-adrenoceptor

$\beta_3$ -Adrenoceptor agonists fall into two main chemical classes: aryloethanolamines and aryloxypropanolamines (a third class is the trimetoquinols). The aryloxypropanolamine structure is typical of  $\beta$ -adrenoceptor antagonists, and some  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonists [e.g. (*S*)-6-(4-(2-((3-(9*H*-carbazol-4-yl)oxy)-2-hydroxypropyl) amino)-2-methylpropyl)phenoxy]-3-pyridinecarboxamide monohydrochloride (LY-377604)], but not others (e.g. SB-226552; SB-251023), retain significant  $\beta_{1/2}$ -adrenoceptor antagonist potency (Miller et al., 1999; Sennitt et al., 1998). There are other, highly potent  $\beta_{1/2}$ -adrenoceptor antagonists [e.g. cyanopindolol; ( $\pm$ )-4-(3-*t*-butylamino-2-hydroxypropoxy)benzimidazol-2-one (CGP-12177)] which are  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonists at higher concentrations than those which block the  $\beta_1$ - or  $\beta_2$ -adrenoceptor. The problem with these latter compounds, notably CGP-12177, is that in tissue studies, they also display a pharmacology that has been ascribed to a “ $\beta_4$ ”-adrenoceptor. This pharmacology (Table 1) has been elucidated mainly by Kaumann, Molenaar and colleagues (Kaumann, 1997) using animal and human cardiac tissue, but a similar pharmacology has been reported for CGP-12177 in human white adipocytes (Galitzky et al., 1997). Like  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptors, “ $\beta_4$ ”-adrenoceptors are insensitive to standard  $\beta_{1/2}$ -adrenoceptor antagonists.

The “ $\beta_4$ ”-adrenoceptor has never been cloned despite serious attempts to do so (Strosberg and Arch, 2000), and now that the full human genome is known, it is clear that it is not a distinct molecular entity, but rather a form of the  $\beta_1$ -

Table 1  
Comparison of  $\beta_1$ -,  $\beta_3$ - and  $\beta_4$ -adrenoceptor pharmacology in tissues and human cloned  $\beta$ -adrenoceptors

	Tissues		Cloned receptors		
	$\beta_3$	$\beta_4$	$\beta_3$	$\beta_4$	$\beta_1$
<i>Agonist pEC<sub>50</sub></i>					
CGP-12177	5.2 <sup>a</sup> ; 6–8	7–7.5	7.1	7.9	antag
<i>Antagonist pK<sub>B</sub></i>					
(–)-Propranolol	6–7	<5.7	7.0	7.1	8.0
CGP-20712A	4.8–5.6	6.3–6.4	4.8	7.4	8.4

Antagonists pK<sub>B</sub> values were obtained using CGP-12177 as the agonist for  $\beta_4$ -adrenoceptor pharmacology, and isoprenaline or  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonists for  $\beta_1$ - and  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor pharmacology. Sources are Konkar et al. (2000b) for cloned  $\beta_1$ - and “ $\beta_4$ ”-adrenoceptor, Kaumann (1997) and Arch and Kaumann (1993) for tissues and Arch (2000) for the cloned  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor.

<sup>a</sup> Human ventricle.

adrenoceptor. Konkar et al. have shown that the human cloned  $\beta_1$ -adrenoceptor is activated by CGP-12177 and this activation is less sensitive than is activation by isoprenaline to blockade by selective and nonselective  $\beta_{1/2}$ -adrenoceptor antagonists (Table 1). This evidence is not conclusive because  $pK_B$  values for cloned  $\beta_1$ -adrenoceptors showing “ $\beta_4$ ”-adrenoceptor pharmacology are higher than those for tissue “ $\beta_4$ ”-adrenoceptor pharmacology. Studies using tissues from knockout mice are compelling, however. CGP-12177 stimulated adenylyl cyclase in brown adipose tissue membranes from wild-type mice via high and low affinity sites. The low affinity site was absent in mice lacking the  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor, whereas the high affinity site was absent in mice lacking the  $\beta_1$ -adrenoceptor. Although it was clearly a  $\beta_1$ -adrenoceptor, the high affinity site displayed resistance to propranolol and greater sensitivity than the  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor to the  $\beta_1$ -adrenoceptor antagonist ( $\pm$ )-[2-(3-aminocarbamoyl-4-hydroxyphenoxy)ethylamino]-3-[4-(1-methyl-4-trifluoromethyl-2-imidazolyl)phenoxy]-2-propanol hydrochloride (CGP-20712A) (Konkar et al., 2000a), which is typical of “ $\beta_4$ ”-adrenoceptor pharmacology (Table 1). Subsequent work showed that another aryloxypropanolamine, 6-(4-{2-[(S)-2-hydroxy-3-(2-oxo-2,3-dihydro-1H-benzoimidazol-4-yloxy)-propylamino]-2-methyl-propyl}-phenoxy)-nicotinamide (LY-362884), displayed similar properties to CGP-12177 in human and rat cloned  $\beta_1$ -adrenoceptors. By contrast, SB-251023 does not appear to activate the “ $\beta_4$ ”-adrenoceptor conformation of the  $\beta_1$ -adrenoceptor (Konkar et al., 2000b), consistent with it failing to stimulate human right atrial appendage contractility via the “ $\beta_4$ ”-adrenoceptor (Sennitt et al., 1998). SB-251023 is also an aryloxypropanolamine, so this structural type is not necessarily associated with “ $\beta_4$ ”-adrenoceptor agonism. Recently, Kaumann et al. (2001) have also concluded that the “ $\beta_4$ ”-adrenoceptor is an atypical state of the  $\beta_1$ -adrenoceptor. They found that (–)-CGP-12177 was a cardiac stimulant in atria from  $\beta_2$ -adrenoceptor knockout but not  $\beta_{1/2}$ -adrenoceptor double knockout mice (Kaumann et al., 2001).

Kompa and Summers (1999) had predicted that the  $\beta_4$ -adrenoceptor was a form of the  $\beta_1$ -adrenoceptor because responses displaying the two pharmacologies desensitised and resensitised in parallel in a rat model of cardiac failure (Kompa and Summers, 1999). There is a recent report, however, that  $\beta_1$ - but not  $\beta_4$ -adrenoceptor-mediated responses desensitise in response to foot shock stress (Santos and Spadari-Bratfisch, 2001). It therefore appears that these two pharmacological manifestations of the same molecular entity can be differentially regulated.

Since most of the evidence for functional  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptors in human tissues is derived from studies using CGP-12177, these findings raise the question of whether there really are functional  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptors in man. But while studies using CGP-12177 must be interpreted with caution, there is other evidence that the  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor mediates lipolysis in human white adipocytes. Disodium (RR)-5-[2-

[[2-(3-chlorophenyl)-2-hydroxyethyl]-amino]propyl]-1,3-benzodioxazole-2,2-dicarboxylate (CL-316243), SB-262552 and SB-251023, which have no  $\beta_1$ -adrenoceptor agonist activity and, in contrast to “ $\beta_4$ ”-adrenoceptor agonists, do not stimulate atrial tissue, each stimulate human white adipocyte lipolysis via non- $\beta_{1/2}$ -adrenoceptors (Hoffstedt et al., 1996; Sennitt et al., 1998; Arch et al., 1999). Non-“ $\beta_4$ ”-adrenoceptor agonists have also been used to demonstrate the presence of functional  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptors in other human tissues (Igawa et al., 1999; Gauthier et al., 2000).

### 2.3. Whole cell, membrane and binding assays

Most pharmaceutical companies have evaluated their  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonists by measuring cyclic AMP accumulation in whole cells transfected with the human  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor. Workers at SmithKline Beecham, by contrast, used membranes isolated from such cells to measure cyclic AMP production by adenylyl cyclase (Sennitt et al., 1998). Not only are the agonists usually more potent in the whole cell assay, but relative potencies differ between the two assays, the aryloxypropanolamine being more potent relative to the aryloxypropanolamine in the whole cells compared to the membrane assay. Moreover, in binding assays employing [ $^{125}$ I]-iodocyanopindolol as the labelled ligand, the relative potencies of a series of agonists were almost the complete opposite of their relative potencies as stimulants of cyclic AMP accumulation (Table 2).

Kenakin (1997) has highlighted a problem in comparing functional and binding affinities. This is that the labelled antagonist binds to the receptor whatever G protein the receptor is linked to; consequently, binding reflects the interaction of the unlabelled agonist with all the states of the receptor. Functional studies, on the other hand, may reflect the interaction of the agonist with the receptor when it is bound to only one G protein—in the present case, that which links it to adenylyl cyclase. This cannot explain the different results in the two functional assays (whole cell cyclic AMP accumulation and membrane adenylyl cyclase),

Table 2  
Relative affinities of agonists at human cloned  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptors vary with assay

	Function: $K_a$		Binding: $K_i$
	cAMP cells	Cyclase membranes	vs. [ $^{125}$ I]ICYP membranes
(–)-Isoprenaline ( $\mu$ M)	0.014	3.9	30
Relative $K_{a/i}$ values			
(–)-Isoprenaline	(1)	(1)	(1)
(–)-Noradrenaline	7.9	2.4	5.0
BRL-37344	14	0.43	0.22
CGP-12177	101	1.2	0.017
Cyanopindolol	229	1.5	0.0027

Data are taken from Wilson et al. (1996).

however. To attempt to explain the latter finding, one might argue that relative potencies of agonists can vary between functional assays if the agonists vary in efficacy: high affinity/low efficacy compounds (e.g. BRL-37344?) rank better in assays where receptor number or coupling is high (whole cells?), whereas high efficacy/low affinity compounds (e.g. cyanopindolol: CGP-12177) rank better in assays where receptor number or coupling is low (membranes) (Kenakin, 1984). This does not appear to explain the data shown in Table 2, however, since although BRL-37344 had a lower intrinsic activity (and presumably lower efficacy) than cyanopindolol or CGP-12177 in the membrane assay, this was not so in the whole cell assay (Wilson et al., 1996).

An alternative explanation for these findings is that  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonists can bind to the  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor in (at least) two ways. One conformation is favoured by the aryethanolamines and predominates in whole cells; the other conformation, favoured by aryloxypropanolamines, is more common in membranes. In the membrane binding assay, the labelled aryloxypropanolamine iodocyanopindolol will bind almost exclusively to the conformation of the  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor that is more common in membranes and preferred by aryloxypropanolamines. The ability of an unlabelled ligand to displace the labelled iodocyanopindolol will then depend only on its affinity for this one form of the receptor, though it might have a very different affinity for the other form. The “ $\beta_4$ ”-adrenoceptor story may have a similar explanation:  $\beta$ -adrenoceptor ligands may bind to the  $\beta_1$ -adrenoceptor in two ways, the site with lower affinity for aryloxypropanolamines such as CGP-12177 producing a cellular signal (Fig. 1).

Although in this explanation, I have used the concept of binding affinity as though it is distinct from efficacy, it is important to recognise that binding depends not only on the affinity of the initial binding step, but also on the extent to which the conformation of the receptor changes once the ligand becomes bound (Colquhoun, 2001). Therefore, the argument could be rephrased in terms of compounds having differing efficacies for the two forms of each receptor. As discussed above, it does appear that BRL-37344 has a lower efficacy than CGP-12177 in the membrane but not the whole cell assay.

These findings raise the question of which assay is most predictive of  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonist activity in human tissues. One might expect that a whole cell assay would be more predictive than a membrane assay, but potencies in the membrane assay are in general the more predictive of potencies in human white adipocyte lipolysis experiments (Sennitt, unpublished). Moreover, the blood levels and doses of  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonists reported to stimulate metabolic rate in man seem high in relation to the  $EC_{50}$  values for the same compounds in whole cell assays (Arch, 2000; Miller et al., 1999; Van Baak et al., 2000; Mathvink et al., 2000). While it may seem from the discussion above that the nature of the assay is only an issue when comparing

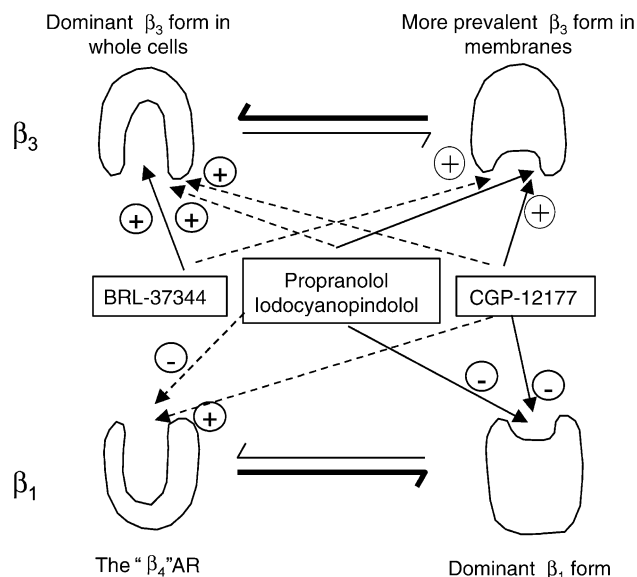


Fig. 1.  $\beta_3$ - and  $\beta_1$ -adrenoceptors display at least two pharmacologies: a speculative explanation. Two extreme conformations of the  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor and the  $\beta_1$ -adrenoceptor are illustrated, together with the relative affinities (dashed lines indicate lower affinity) of ligands for these conformations as agonists (+) or antagonists (-). BRL-37344 is an example of an aryethanolamine agonist, and CGP-12177 is shown as an example of an aryloxypropanolamine agonist of the  $\beta_3$ - and “ $\beta_4$ ”-adrenoceptors. Propranolol and iodocyanopindolol are aryloxypropanolamines that are usually viewed as antagonists, but propranolol at least has some agonist activity at the  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor expressed in intact cells (see Arch, 2000). Since the  $\beta_1$ - and  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptors have different primary structures, the balance of the two conformations differs between them. The difference in primary structures also results in BRL-37344 having little affinity for either form of the  $\beta_1$ -adrenoceptor. This hypothesis builds on ideas in the discussion of Konkar et al. (2000b).  $\beta_3$ - and  $\beta_1$ -adrenoceptors display at least two pharmacologies: a speculative explanation.

aryethanolamines and aryloxypropanolamines, our recent experience is that the relative potencies of even a group of structurally similar compounds can vary markedly according to the assay used (Miller and Chambers, unpublished).

#### 2.4. Oral bioavailability

The identification of a selective agonist or antagonist of a receptor is a long way from the synthesis of a compound that might become a drug. Issues of metabolism, clearance, drug interactions and toxicity have to be addressed. In the case of  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonists—at least those designed for the human receptor—oral bioavailability has proved to be a particular problem. Workers from Pfizer and Bristol Myers Squibb have reported on the poor oral bioavailability of their compounds (see Arch, 2000) and Merck produced a number of papers describing compounds with poor oral bioavailability before identifying a selective  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonist suitable for oral administration to man (Mathvink et al., 2000). LY-377604 from Eli Lilly, which has been administered to man (Miller et al., 1999), has been described as having 20% oral bioavailability in preclinical studies (Shuker et al., 1999).

### 3. Expectations of a $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonist

#### 3.1. Role of the $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor in man

The key sites of action for  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonists appear to be skeletal muscle (Astrup et al., 1985), brown adipose tissue (Foster and Frydman, 1978) and (not as a site of thermogenesis but as a source of fuel) white adipose tissue (Schiffelers et al., 1998; Havel et al., 1964). For a fuller discussion, see Arch (2001).  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor mRNA is expressed in lower amounts in human than in rodent adipose tissue and the promoter for the human  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor appears to drive expression of the mRNA predominantly in brown adipose tissue (Ito et al., 1998). Since there is relatively little brown adipose tissue in adult humans, one would not expect as marked effects of  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonists in humans as in rodents. There are, nevertheless, a number of arguments that suggest that  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonists might be of value in the treatment of human obesity and Type 2 diabetes.

Firstly, much of the thermogenic response to  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonists does not take place in brown adipose tissue, even in rodents. The thermogenic effect of the  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonist CL-316243 in mice that lacked brown adipose tissue was still 50% of that in wild-type mice (Lowell et al., 1993), and in warm-acclimated rats, most of the thermogenic response to  $(RR+SS)-(\pm)-4-[2-(2\text{-hydroxy-2-phenyl-ethylamino})\text{-propyl}]\text{-benzoic acid}$  (BRL-28410) seemed to occur in skeletal muscle rather than brown adipose tissue (Thurlby and Ellis, 1986). Secondly, although  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor mRNA is detected primarily in adipose tissue, immunohistochemical studies have demonstrated the presence of  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor protein in a number of other human tissues, including skeletal muscle (Chamberlain et al., 1999).

Thirdly, the Trp64Arg polymorphism of the  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor gene has been linked with a predisposition to obesity and diabetes in a number of studies. The link is subtle and a similar number of studies have failed to detect any link (Allison et al., 1998; Fujisawa et al., 1998), but given that the polymorphism has only a small effect on function (Umekawa et al., 1999; Hoffstedt et al., 1999; Pietri-Rouxel and Strosberg, 1995) and that there are probably a number of genes that contribute to the genetic component of obesity, it is remarkable that any link has been detected.

Fourthly, there is some evidence that the thermogenic effects in humans of non- $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor-selective sympathomimetic agents (isoprenaline and ephedrine) is partially (40%) insensitive to a dose of nadolol that blocks  $\beta_1$ - and  $\beta_2$ -adrenoceptors (Wheeldon et al., 1993; Liu et al., 1995), though conflicting evidence has also been described (Schiffelers et al., 2000).

For further evidence of the potential of  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonists in humans, one must turn to the effects that these compounds have actually elicited in humans and other primates.

#### 3.2. Effects of $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonists in humans and monkeys

Some of the first generation  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonists stimulated metabolic rate in humans, but they also had  $\beta_1$ - or  $\beta_2$ -adrenoceptor-mediated side effects, raising the possibility that their thermogenic activity was mediated via these receptors (see Clapham et al., 2001). More recently, LY-377604 (120 mg), which is a  $\beta_1$ - and  $\beta_2$ -adrenoceptor antagonist, was reported to stimulate oxygen consumption by 17.5% in normal weight to moderately obese men (Miller et al., 1999).  $N$ -{4-[2-((*R*)-2-hydroxy-2-pyridin-3-yl-ethyl-amino)-ethyl]-phenyl}-4-[4-(4-trifluoromethyl-phenyl)-thiazol-2-yl]-benzenesulfonamide (L-796568) (1000 mg) from Merck had a much smaller effect in obese men (no more than 5%) and at a lower dose (250 mg), it was ineffective (Van Baak et al., 2000). Another Merck compound, 4-(3-hexyl-ureido)- $N$ -(4-{2-[(*S*)-2-hydroxy-3-(4-hydroxy-phenoxy)-propylamino]-ethyl}-phenyl)-benzenesulfonamide (L-755507), has been demonstrated to raise metabolic rate and serum glycerol levels when infused i.v. in rhesus monkeys at lower dose levels than those which raise heart rate. Isoprenaline, by contrast, was more potent as a stimulant of heart rate than of lipolysis (Fisher et al., 1998). These results clearly indicate the presence of functional  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptors in this species.

Only the first generation compound  $(RR+SS)-(\pm)$ -methyl 4-[2-[(2-hydroxy-2-phenylethyl)amino]propyl]-benzoate, (*E*)-2-butenedioate (2:1) salt (BRL-26830A) has been reported to enhance weight loss in man (Zed et al., 1985; Connacher et al., 1988). Not all anti-obesity studies on this compound showed weight loss (Chapman et al., 1987), however, and since BRL-26830A also elicited the  $\beta_2$ -adrenoceptor-mediated side effect of tremor, one cannot be certain that weight loss, when it occurred, was due to  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor stimulation. In rodents, all the weight loss elicited by  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonists is fat and when the

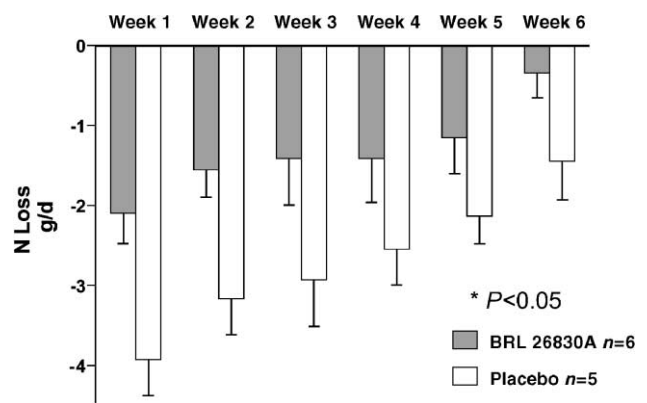


Fig. 2. BRL-26830 restricts protein loss in obese men. Subjects were strictly observed in a hospital ward and fed on a liquid diet that gave 8375 kJ less than required for weight maintenance with a 42% decrease in protein intake during weight maintenance. The dose of BRL-26830A was 100 mg qds (Abraham et al., 1987). BRL-26830 restricted protein loss in obese men.

Table 3

Drugs that produce the same energy loss may have very different effects on body weight

		"Pure" anorectic agent (15% lean tissue)	Lipid loss only	Protein preservation <sup>a</sup>
Lean tissue (1 kcal/g)	g/week	– 37	0	+ 175
	kcal/week	– 37	0	+ 175
Adipose <sup>b</sup> (7 kcal/g)	g/week	– 212	– 217	– 242
	kcal/week	– 1484	– 1521	– 1696
Body weight	g/week	– 250 <sup>c</sup>	– 217	– 67
	kcal/week	– 1521	– 1521	– 1521

<sup>a</sup> Preservation of protein from Abraham et al. (1987).<sup>b</sup> Since weight loss is exclusively lipid and not even the non-lipid component of adipose tissue appears to be lost, it may be more appropriate to replace adipose (7 kcal/g) by lipid (9 kcal/g), which would produce even greater differences in weight loss for the three columns.<sup>c</sup> Average weekly weight loss due to anorectic drugs (Kolanowski, 1999).

compound is given with food, there may actually be an increase in lean tissue (Arch et al., 1989). In man, BRL-26830A similarly reduced the loss of nitrogen in obese subjects on a liquid, low calorie diet (Abraham et al., 1987) (Fig. 2). Again, this might be a  $\beta_2$ -adrenoceptor-mediated effect.

This selective action on lipid has implications for the rate of weight loss that one might expect to achieve with a  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonist. Restriction of energy intake results in weight loss that is about 15% lean tissue (Durrant et al., 1980), and lean tissue (being 75% water) has an energy content of only about 1 kcal/g, whereas adipose tissue, with its low water content, contains 7 kcal/g. Therefore, for the same effect on energy balance, a drug that selectively stimulates lipid oxidation will have only 87% of the effect on body weight as one that solely reduces food intake. Moreover, if protein is retained to the extent found in the study on BRL-26830 (Fig. 2), this percentage falls to 27% (Table 3). Presumably, protein retention cannot continue indefinitely and the benefit of  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonists may be seen in the longer term.

A number of groups have reported that  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonists improve insulin sensitivity in rodents at dose levels or over time periods that do not affect body weight (Cawthorne et al., 1992; Bryson et al., 1999; Largis et al., 1994; Kiso et al., 1999; Williams et al., 1999). In rhesus monkeys,

(4-[(*R*)-2-(3-chloro-phenyl)-2-hydroxy-ethylamino]-propylamino)-2,3-difluoro-phenyl)-acetic acid (GR-265261-X) reduced insulin (and triglyceride) levels without affecting body weight (Hansen, 2000). Similarly in humans, 10-day treatment with *RR* + *SS*-( $\pm$ )-methyl-4-[2-[2-hydroxy-2-(3-chlorophenyl)ethylamino]-propyl]-phenoxyacetate hydrobromide (BRL-35135) improved insulin sensitivity in obese diabetic subjects without affecting body weight (Smith et al., 1990). BRL-35135 causes tremor, so its effect may have been mediated by the  $\beta_2$ -adrenoceptor. Studies on CL-316243 are easier to interpret since it has no  $\beta_1$ - or  $\beta_2$ -adrenoceptor-mediated side effects in man. CL-316243 enhanced insulin action (at 4 weeks) and reduced respiratory quotient (at 8 weeks) in healthy lean men without affecting body weight (Weyer et al., 1998). L-796568 given for 28 days reduced plasma triglycerides in man without affecting body weight or eliciting  $\beta_1$ - or  $\beta_2$ -adrenoceptor-mediated side effects, but changes in insulin and glucose were not reported (Larsen et al., 2000).

It is not surprising that an insulin-sensitising effect is more easily detectable than an anti-obesity effect. Stimulation of fat oxidation may rapidly lower the intracellular concentration of metabolites, such as fatty acyl CoA and diacylglycerol that modulate insulin signalling (Laybutt et al., 1999; Idris et al., 2001). The anti-obesity effect, by contrast, must develop gradually as large stores of fat are oxidized (Fig. 3).

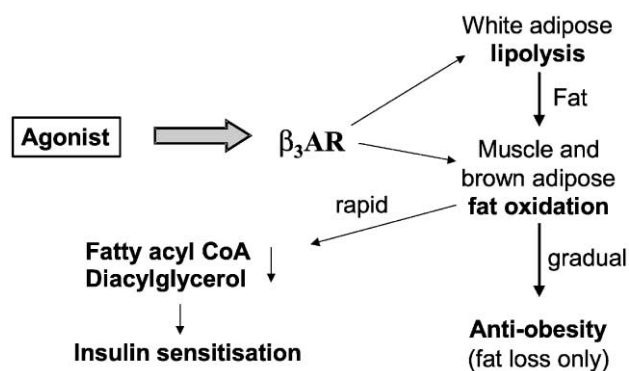


Fig. 3. Why does the insulin-sensitising effect of a  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonist appear before the anti-obesity effect?

#### 4. Status report

The attraction of  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonists as potential drugs for the treatment of obesity and Type 2 diabetes is plain to see. The difficulties of producing a compound with good efficacy, selectivity and pharmacokinetic properties suitable for stimulation of the small numbers of  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor present in man have, however, defeated a number of pharmaceutical companies. Recent interest has been evident from Merck, from where there have been a number of publications, but an abstract describing the failure of L-796568 to stimulate metabolic rate after 28 days dosing suggests that this compound has been abandoned (Larsen et al., 2000).

Meanwhile, Eli Lilly has presented encouraging Phase 1 data on LY-377604 (Miller et al., 1999) and are believed to be active with this or another compound. Other companies known to have compounds in the clinic are Takeda with the Dianippon compound 2-(3-(7-carboxymethoxyindol-3-yl)-(2*R*)-2-propylamino)-(1*R*)-1-(3-chloro-phenyl)ethanol (AD-9677) (Kato et al., 1998) and GlaxoSmithKline. We must hope that one of these compounds fulfills the promise shown by  $\beta_3$ -adrenoceptor agonists in rodents.

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