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## Treating enhanced GABAergic inhibition in Down syndrome: use of GABA alpha5-selective inverse agonists

Carmen Martinez-Cué, B. Delatour, M. C. Potier

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2 **Title:** Treating enhanced GABAergic inhibition in Down syndrome: use of GABA  $\alpha$ 5-selective  
3 inverse agonists.  
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7 **Authors:** Carmen Martínez-Cué<sup>1</sup>, Benoît Delatour<sup>2</sup>, and Marie-Claude Potier<sup>2\*</sup>  
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15 **Affiliations:** <sup>1</sup>Department of Physiology and Pharmacology, Faculty of Medicine, University of  
16 Cantabria, Santander, Spain; <sup>2</sup>Centre de Recherche de l'Institut du Cerveau et de Moelle  
17 Epinière, CNRS UMR7225, INSERM UMRS 975, UPMC, ICM, Hôpital Pitié-Salpêtrière,  
18 Paris, France.  
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24 **\*Corresponding author:**

25 Dr. Marie-Claude POTIER

26 ICM

27 Hôpital Pitié-Salpêtrière

28 CNRS UMR7225, INSERM UMRS975, UPMC

29 47, Bd de l'Hôpital

30 75013 PARIS, FRANCE

31 +33157274519

32 marie-claude.potier@upmc.fr  
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## ABSTRACT

Excess inhibition in the brain of individuals carrying an extra copy of chromosome 21 could be responsible for cognitive deficits observed throughout their lives. A change in the excitatory/inhibitory balance in adulthood would alter synaptic plasticity, potentially triggering learning and memory deficits.  $\gamma$ -aminobutyric acid (GABA) is the major inhibitory neurotransmitter in the mature central nervous system and binds to GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors, opens a chloride channel, and reduces neuronal excitability. In this review we discuss methods to alleviate neuronal inhibition in a mouse model of Down syndrome, the Ts65Dn mouse, using either an antagonist (pentylentetrazol) or two different inverse agonists selective for the  $\alpha$ 5-subunit containing receptor. Both inverse agonists, which reduce inhibitory GABAergic transmission, could rescue learning and memory deficits in Ts65Dn mice. We also discuss safety issues since modulation of the excitatory-inhibitory balance to improve cognition without inducing seizures remains particularly difficult when using GABA antagonists.

Key words: Down syndrome,  $\gamma$ -aminobutyric acid, inverse agonist,  $\alpha$ 5-subunit containing GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor, convulsion, behavior.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Down syndrome (DS), resulting from trisomy of chromosome 21, is the most common genetic cause of intellectual disability (Lejeune *et al.*, 1959; Bittles *et al.*, 2007; Sherman *et al.*, 2007).

This disorder is associated with neurological complications including cognitive deficits that lead to mild to profound impairment in intellectual functioning (Lott & Dierssen, 2010).

Some cognitive deficits have been alleviated by advances in teaching methods and educational mainstreaming, but these approaches are not sufficient to counteract all cognitive deficits (Wishart, 2007). Treatments aimed at enhancing cognitive skills to provide higher autonomy remain necessary. However, pharmacological treatments were dismissed as unlikely to improve cognition in DS because many neurotransmitter systems and brain circuits are affected from early developmental stages in this disorder.

Several murine models of DS have been developed in recent years. Studies of these models have provided significant insight on the neurobiological mechanisms underlying cognitive deficits in DS. In addition, they have proven to be useful in testing new pharmacological approaches to reduce DS-related cognitive impairments (Bartesaghi *et al.*, 2011; Rueda *et al.*, 2012). Indeed, recent studies in mouse models have suggested that affected brain circuits could be potential targets of pharmacotherapies to enhance cognitive deficits in the DS population (Fernandez *et al.*, 2007; Costa *et al.*, 2008; Rueda *et al.*, 2008; Salehi *et al.*, 2009; Faizi *et al.*, 2011). In this way, mouse models can provide the pre-clinical basis for new treatments to emerge.

The best-characterized and most widely used model of DS is the Ts65Dn mouse. Ts65Dn has segmental trisomy of murine chromosome 16, containing 92 human orthologs between *Mrp139* and *Znf295* (Sturgeon & Gardiner, 2011). This murine model recapitulates several fundamental features of DS including cognitive deficits and alterations in brain morphology and function (Bartesaghi *et al.*, 2011; Haydar & Reeves, 2012; Rueda *et al.*, 2012). At the behavioral level Ts65Dn mice are hyperactive (Escorihuela *et al.*, 1995; Reeves *et al.*, 1995; Holtzman *et al.*,

1996), have developmental delay (Holtzman *et al.*, 1996), and exhibit alterations in processes involved in learning and memory, such as spatial reference and working memory, as well as reduced attention (Escorihuela *et al.*, 1998; Driscoll *et al.*, 2004; Martinez-Cue *et al.*, 2006; Rueda *et al.*, 2012; Martinez-Cue *et al.*, 2013). These cognitive deficits likely result, in part, from various neuromorphological alterations including changes in 1) the size, morphology, and cellular density of different brain areas; 2) pre- and post-natal neurogenesis; 3) dendritic structure; and 4) the morphology of synapses and spines (Bartesaghi *et al.*, 2011; Rueda *et al.*, 2012). Finally, abnormal synaptic plasticity, as shown by the reduction in long-term potentiation (LTP) in the hippocampal CA1 and dentate gyrus (DG) areas, also compromises the cognition of Ts65Dn mice (Siarey *et al.*, 1999; Kleschevnikov *et al.*, 2004).

## 2. EXCESSIVE INHIBITION: A MAJOR FEATURE OF DS

### 2.1. Over-inhibition in DS

One major functional defect observed in the brains of both individuals with DS and the Ts65Dn mouse model appears to be an imbalance between excitatory and inhibitory neurotransmission. In particular, excessive inhibition has been proposed as one of the underlying causes of the cognitive deficits in DS. Overinhibition can result from increased  $\gamma$ -aminobutyric acid (GABA) concentration at the synapse. Interestingly, however, several studies have shown either a decrease or no change in GABA concentration in individuals with DS compared with euploid individuals. Specifically, 60% less GABA was detected in the frontal cortex of fetuses with DS (Whittle *et al.*, 2007). Similarly, decreased GABA was observed in temporal lobes, but not frontal lobes, of children with DS between 3 and 17 years old using *in vivo* magnetic resonance spectroscopy (MRS) (Smigielska-Kuzia & Sobaniec, 2007; Smigielska-Kuzia *et al.*, 2010). Further, the only MRS study of Ts65Dn mouse brain published to date could not identify the resonance peak corresponding to GABA (Huang *et al.*, 2000).

*Post-mortem* studies of adults with DS and Alzheimer's disease (AD) neuropathology using radioassay chromatography showed that levels of GABA were globally unchanged in

1 individuals with DS and AD (Seidl *et al.*, 2001). However, a significant deficit of GABA was  
2 detected in the hippocampus and the temporal cortex of individuals with DS and neocortical  
3 neurofibrillary tangles. These results are consistent with losses of cortical neurons containing  
4 these neurotransmitters (Reynolds & Warner, 1988). Together, these studies showing either a  
5 decrease or no change in GABA levels in fetuses, children, and adults with DS make it unlikely  
6 that over-inhibition in the brain of individuals with DS results from increased GABA  
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17 Another potential explanation for altered inhibition in individuals with DS has been postulated.  
18 Brains of individuals with DS have fewer small, granular, (presumably) GABAergic neurons in  
19 layers II and IV of the cortex (Ross *et al.*, 1984). In addition, microarray studies of human  
20 neural progenitor cells (hNPCs) in DS revealed gene expression changes indicative of defects in  
21 interneuron progenitor development that may lead to decreased GABAergic interneuron  
22 neurogenesis (Bhattacharyya *et al.*, 2009).  
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33 Further information may be gained from ongoing studies aiming at quantifying the expression  
34 of GABA receptors. Positron Emission Tomography (PET) studies using either [<sup>11</sup>C]Ro15 4513  
35 or [<sup>11</sup>C]flumazenil help measure *in vivo* GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor subtype occupancy, particularly for  
36 those containing the  $\alpha 5$  subtype (Lingford-Hughes *et al.*, 2002; Eng *et al.*, 2010). A molecular  
37 and functional brain imaging study is ongoing in individuals with DS (NCT01667367).  
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## 49 2.2. Over-inhibition in Ts65Dn mice

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51 Many studies have shown that cognitive impairment in the Ts65Dn mouse model is associated  
52 with excessive levels of neuronal inhibition. In particular, a recent study identified an increased  
53 number of inhibitory neurons in the forebrains of newborn Ts65Dn mice, paralleled by an  
54 increase in spontaneous inhibitory postsynaptic currents in the pyramidal neurons of the CA1  
55 region due to overexpression of *Olig1* and *Olig2* (Chakrabarti *et al.*, 2010). These mice also  
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1 display fewer asymmetric synapses that mediate excitatory transmission in the temporal cortex  
2 and dentate gyrus (DG) (Kurt *et al.*, 2004) and synaptic structural abnormalities in the  
3 hippocampus and cortex, including a selective reorganization of the inhibitory input  
4 (Belichenko *et al.*, 2004; Perez-Cremades *et al.*, 2010).  
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9 However, while overinhibition has been observed in some brain regions, the phenomenon may  
10 not represent all brain areas and may vary between cells and with age. Increases in GABA<sub>A</sub>  
11 receptor-mediated synaptic transmission occurs in CA1 neuron subtypes at specific times. Mitra  
12 *et al.* found that hippocampal neurons from Ts65Dn mice have significantly larger inhibitory  
13 responses when compared to age-matched controls at the end of the second postnatal week  
14 (P14-P16), but there was no significant difference in the amplitude of stimulus-evoked  
15 monosynaptic inhibitory post-synaptic potentials (IPSPs) at the end of the first (P8-P10) and  
16 third (P19-P21) postnatal weeks (Mitra *et al.*, 2012). This transient change in evoked inhibition  
17 was observed only when stimulating the strata radiatum and pyramidale but not in the stratum  
18 oriens. In addition, hippocampal CA3 pyramidal neurons of newborn (P5) Ts65Dn mice have  
19 reduced inhibitory GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor-mediated synaptic input and no impairment in LTP  
20 (Hanson *et al.*, 2007). Thus, while interneuron activity resulting from excitatory network  
21 impingement on interneurons is undiminished, intrinsic activity of interneurons in the absence  
22 of this excitatory drive is significantly reduced in Ts65Dn mice. Finally, in contrast to increased  
23 GABAergic inhibition in dentate granule cells and CA1 pyramidal neurons of Ts65Dn  
24 hippocampi, cerebellar granule cells show smaller tonic GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor currents (Szemes *et*  
25 *al.*, 2013).  
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50 Gene expression profiles from the hippocampus revealed that GABA synthesis enzymes  
51 glutamate decarboxylase *Gad-65* and *Gad67* are expressed similarly in Ts65Dn mice and  
52 euploid controls (Braudeau *et al.*, 2011a). However, increased levels of these synaptic proteins  
53 at hippocampal and cortical inhibitory synapses have been found. GAD65, GAD67, and the  
54 vesicular GABA transporter (VGAT) are increased in the brains of Ts65Dn mice (Perez-  
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Cremades *et al.*, 2010; Martinez-Cue *et al.*, 2013). Moreover, a significant increase in colocalization of GAD65 and the vesicular GABA transporter was reported in the fascia dentate of Ts65Dn mice (Belichenko *et al.*, 2009).

A wide array of studies has shown that the Ts65Dn mouse presents enhanced GABA<sub>A</sub> and GABA<sub>B</sub> mediated transmission. Specifically, overexpression of the *Girk2* gene leads to a significant increase in GABA<sub>B</sub>-mediated GIRK currents in hippocampal neuron cultures, which affects the balance between excitatory and inhibitory transmission (Best *et al.*, 2007; Best *et al.*, 2012). Recent studies demonstrated positive effects of GABA<sub>B</sub> receptor modulation for the treatment of cognitive impairments in DS (Kleschevnikov *et al.*, 2012a; Kleschevnikov *et al.*, 2012b). However, the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor family is the predominant type in the brain and has a long history for modulating learning and memory functions.

Altogether these studies strongly suggest that GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors represent an important potential target in the population with DS.

### 3. FIRST PHARMACOLOGICAL APPROACHES TO REDUCE INHIBITION

The GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor system plays an important role in cognition. Non-selective positive allosteric modulators (PAM) of the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor disrupt learning and memory processes (Lister, 1985; Cole, 1986; Ghoneim & Mewaldt, 1990). In contrast, non-selective negative allosteric modulators (NAM) improve cognitive processes (Jensen *et al.*, 1987; Venault *et al.*, 1987; Sarter *et al.*, 2001; Venault & Chapouthier, 2007). In addition, non-selective GABA<sub>A</sub> inverse agonists like DMCM increase LTP (Seabrook *et al.*, 1997), while non-selective GABA<sub>A</sub> agonists (e.g., diazepam) impair LTP (del Cerro *et al.*, 1992). Given the alterations of GABA-mediated transmission in individuals with DS, pharmacological manipulation of this system has been applied in DS mouse models toward mitigating cognitive phenotypes.

In the Ts65Dn mouse, the marked reduction in LTP in the CA1 and DG areas of the hippocampus has been associated with enhanced GABA-mediated inhibition (Siarey *et al.*, 1997; Belichenko *et al.*, 2004; Kleschevnikov *et al.*, 2004; Costa & Grybko, 2005; Fernandez *et*



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*al.*, 2007; Belichenko *et al.*, 2009; Kleschevnikov *et al.*, 2012a; Kleschevnikov *et al.*, 2012b): impaired synaptic plasticity can be restored in the Ts65Dn mouse by administering the GABA<sub>A</sub> antagonist, picrotoxin (Kleschevnikov *et al.*, 2004; Fernandez *et al.*, 2007). In line with these findings, reducing inhibitory neurotransmission by chronic administration of non-selective GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor antagonists picrotoxin, bilobalide, or pentylentetrazole (PTZ) reverses the deficits in LTP and hippocampal-mediated memory of Ts65Dn mice (Fernandez *et al.*, 2007). A two-week daily regimen of these GABA<sub>A</sub> antagonists (picrotoxin, bilobalide, or PTZ) at low doses normalizes memory performance of 6-month-old Ts65Dn mice in the novel object recognition (NOR) task when they were tested either one week or 2 months after drug treatment. However, acute administration of PTZ (3 mg/Kg per os) did not improve cognitive performance in Ts65Dn mice. Further, pro-cognitive effects of chronic treatment (7 weeks) with PTZ in 4-month-old Ts65Dn mice were demonstrated in another hippocampal-dependent task: the Morris water maze (MWM), a spatial reference memory task (Rueda *et al.*, 2008).

Such findings have led to further investigation of the efficacy of PTZ in mouse models. A recent study demonstrated that chronic, short-term, low-dose administration of PTZ elicits long-lasting (over 1 week) normalization of cognitive function, assessed in the NOR test, in young (2-3 months) and aged (12-15-month-old) Ts65Dn mice (Colas *et al.*, 2013). Further, the treatment produces power normalization of the EEG anomalies found in untreated Ts65Dn mice (Colas *et al.*, 2008). Altogether, these studies suggest that chronic PTZ administration (from 2 to 7 weeks) has a pro-cognitive effect in Ts65Dn mice at different ages.

Some contradictory findings on the effects of PTZ administration in Ts65Dn mice have been reported. Colas *et al.* stated that the efficacy of PTZ is associated with nycthemeral contingencies (Colas *et al.*, 2013). In that study, Ts65Dn mice performed better in the NOR task when PTZ was delivered during the light (inactive) phase, not during the dark (active) phase. However, in our study, PTZ was administered one hour before all behavioral tests, which were performed in the middle of the active phase (Rueda *et al.*, 2008). Under these conditions,

1 cognitive deficits of Ts65Dn mice were completely rescued (as measured by MWM). These  
2 contradictory results might reflect the differences in tasks used to assess cognitive performance,  
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4 or may indicate cognition enhancement by two different, non-exclusive mechanisms. While  
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6 Colas *et al.* trained the animals for two weeks and tested their cognitive abilities one week later,  
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8 we tested mice one hour after each administration of PTZ. Therefore, the differential effects  
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10 found in both studies when the drug was administered during the dark phase of the cycle  
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12 suggest that the pro-cognitive effect of this GABA<sub>A</sub> antagonist might be symptomatic (with PTZ  
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14 having direct pro-cognitive effects when present at the receptor, regardless of time of the day in  
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16 which it was administered) and/or might induce a long-lasting reorganization of different  
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18 neuronal circuits, in which the time of the day might be determinant (Colas *et al.*, 2013). (See  
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20 below for a discussion between symptomatic vs. long-lasting effects). Notably, PTZ treatment  
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22 did not induce any significant pro-cognitive effect in control mice, although a trend was found  
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24 after long-term evaluation (Fernandez *et al.*, 2007).  
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31 Despite the apparent pro-cognitive effect of PTZ in different experimental conditions in DS  
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33 models, this drug has not been an adequate candidate for the treatment of learning impairments  
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35 in the DS population because of its known liabilities. Although GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor antagonists  
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37 and NAMs show beneficial activity against impaired cognition, further clinical development of  
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39 these compounds has been prevented by anxiogenic or pro-convulsive side effects (Dorow *et al.*  
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41 *et al.*, 1983; Petersen *et al.*, 1983; Little *et al.*, 1984; Jensen *et al.*, 1987; Venault *et al.*, 1987;  
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43 McNamara *et al.*, 1993; Duka *et al.*, 1996; Venault & Chapouthier, 2007). However, the recent  
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45 study by Colas *et al.* (2013) suggests that PTZ administration can be safe at cognitive-enhancing  
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47 doses. Though convulsive at high doses (>30 mg/Kg in mice), such doses are 10–1000-fold  
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49 higher than those required for successful pharmacotherapy in Ts65Dn mice (0.03-3 mg/kg-1).  
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51 However, individuals with DS are more prone to convulsions (Menendez, 2005); seizures may  
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53 affect as much as 6-17% of the population (Veall, 1974), with a triphasic distribution of seizure  
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55 onset depending on age (infancy, early adulthood, and late onset) (Pueschel *et al.*, 1991). The  
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1 ongoing clinical trial (<http://compose21.com/study.htm>) that assesses the safety and potential  
2 efficacy of PTZ in people with DS will clarify this point.  
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6 Importantly, Ts65Dn mice do not have an increased susceptibility to convulsions (Braudeau *et*  
7 *al.*, 2011b); therefore, this model may not be most suitable for analyzing the putative pro-  
8 convulsant effects of this drug. Future studies should assess whether other mouse models of DS  
9 present the phenotype of increased seizure susceptibility and evaluate the pro-convulsant effects  
10 of PTZ in these animals. Further, anxiogenic effects need to be closely investigated under  
11 conditions of chronic treatment with PTZ, to ensure its safety particularly for the DS population.  
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#### 22 4. THERAPEUTIC APPROACHES TARGETING $\alpha$ 5-SUBUNIT-CONTAINING GABA<sub>A</sub> 23 RECEPTORS 24

25 The GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor contains an intrinsic ligand-gated Cl<sup>-</sup> channel, formed by the pentameric  
26 assembly of different subunits ( $\alpha$ 1-6,  $\beta$ 1-4,  $\gamma$ 1-3,  $\delta$ ,  $\epsilon$ ,  $\theta$ , and  $\pi$  subunits) (Olsen *et al.*, 1990;  
27 Macdonald & Olsen, 1994; Rabow *et al.*, 1995; Mohler *et al.*, 1996; Bonnert *et al.*, 1999;  
28 Whiting *et al.*, 1999). The identification of different functions of GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor subtypes  
29 over the last decade suggests that receptor subtype-selective compounds could avoid the  
30 limitations of classical modulators of the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor.  
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42 Among the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor subtypes, GABA<sub>A</sub>  $\alpha$ 5 subunit-containing receptors have been  
43 shown to play a modulatory role in cognition.  $\alpha$ 5 subunit-containing GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors are  
44 predominantly expressed in the hippocampus both in rodents and humans (Laurie *et al.*, 1992;  
45 Fritschy & Mohler, 1995; Lingford-Hughes *et al.*, 2002; Klausberger, 2009; Olsen & Sieghart,  
46 2009). They are concentrated in the dendrites of hippocampal CA1 pyramidal neurons and play  
47 a role in regulating tonic inhibition through extrasynaptic receptors (Caraiscos *et al.*, 2004);  
48 They have also been detected at GABAergic synapses on the dendrites of hippocampal  
49 pyramidal neurons where they could modulate phasic GABAergic inhibition (Serwanski *et al.*,  
50 2006). The role of these receptors in cognition has been demonstrated using mutant mice and  
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1 subtype-selective ligands (Collinson *et al.*, 2006; Dawson *et al.*, 2006; Ballard *et al.*, 2009) . In  
2 particular, mice with a partial deficit of  $\alpha 5$ -containing GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors in the hippocampus  
3 display an improved performance in trace fear conditioning (Crestani *et al.*, 2002; Yee *et al.*,  
4 2004), and mice lacking the  $\alpha 5$  subunit ( $\alpha 5^{-/-}$ ) show an improved performance in the Morris  
5 water maze (Collinson *et al.*, 2002).  
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12 These results generated the hypothesis that  $\alpha 5$ -containing GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors may represent a  
13 valuable target for memory-enhancing drugs, and several pharmaceutical companies developed  
14  $\alpha 5$ -selective NAMs. Among these novel  $\alpha 5$ -selective NAMs are PWZ-029 (Savic *et al.*, 2008),  
15 a triazolophthalazines  $\alpha 5$  inverse agonist ( $\alpha 5IA$ ) from Merck laboratories (Chambers *et al.*, 2004;  
16 Sternfeld *et al.*, 2004; Collinson *et al.*, 2006; Dawson *et al.*, 2006), and the  
17 triazolobenzodiazepine RO4938581/RG1662, from Hoffmann-La Roche (Ballard *et al.*, 2009).  
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28 The  $\alpha 5IA$  (3-(5-Methylisoxazol-3-yl)6[(1-methyl-1,2,3-triazol-yl)methyl-oxy]-1,2,4-  
29 triazolo[3,4,-  $\alpha$ ]fthalazine) molecule is a negative allosteric modulator of GABAergic  
30 transmission. It has a higher efficacy at the  $\alpha 5$  subunit as compared to the  $\alpha 1$  subunit and is a  
31 weak positive allosteric modulator of the  $\alpha 2$  and the  $\alpha 3$  subunit-containing receptors; binding  
32 affinities are very similar for all subunits (Table 1) (Sternfeld *et al.*, 2004). Chronic  
33 administration of  $\alpha 5IA$  increases hippocampal LTP and cognition in the MWM without  
34 producing anxiogenic or pro-convulsant effects in rodents (Dawson *et al.*, 2006). Interestingly,  
35  $\alpha 5IA$  was able to reverse memory deficits induced by alcohol consumption in a small study  
36 involving human volunteers without showing signs of angiogenesis (Nutt *et al.*, 2007; Atack,  
37 2010). Braudeau *et al.* failed to find any anatomopathological alterations in various organs from  
38 chronically-treated  $\alpha 5IA$  mice at high dosage (Braudeau *et al.*, 2011b). Additionally, no  
39 apparent toxicity was reported in monkeys and humans (Atack, 2010). However, the  
40 hydroxylated metabolite M1 detected in rat kidneys was insoluble in *in vitro* tests when the  
41 metabolite was added to human urine as a powder. Although this is the only report to date, the  
42 authors concluded that there is a “significant overlap between urine concentration of M1 *in vivo*  
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1 following the highest oral administration of the parent drug and M1 solubility measured *in*  
2 *vitro*” and that this metabolite might induce nephrotoxicity at very high doses (Merschman *et*  
3 *al.*, 2005). Administration of  $\alpha 5$ IA to humans over prolonged periods of time therefore remains  
4 difficult to justify (Mohler, 2012).  
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10 In contrast, RO4938581 (3-bromo-10-(difluoromethyl)-9H-benzo[f]imidazo[1,5-  
11 a][1,2,4]triazolo[1,5-d][1,4]diazepine) has a higher affinity for the  $\alpha 5$ -containing GABA<sub>A</sub>  
12 receptors than for the  $\alpha 1$ ,  $\alpha 2$ , and  $\alpha 3$ -containing GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors and is a NAM of  $\alpha 5$ -  
13 containing GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors only (Ballard *et al.*, 2009) . The dual binding and functional  
14 selectivity of RO4938581 confer an ideal profile for cognition-enhancing effects without the  
15 unwanted side effects associated with activity at other GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor subtypes (Table 1).  
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24 In rodents, chronic RO4938581 treatment reverses scopolamine-induced working memory  
25 impairment in the delayed matched to position (DMTP) task and diazepam-induced spatial  
26 learning impairment in the MWM (Ballard *et al.*, 2009). In addition, RO4938581 improves  
27 prefrontal-mediated executive function (object retrieval task) in cynomolgus macaques (Ballard  
28 *et al.*, 2009). Importantly, RO4938581 did not show any anxiogenic or pro-convulsant activity.  
29  
30 In addition, in rat hippocampal slices, RO4938581 modulated GABAergic inhibition of CA1  
31 pyramidal cells and induced early LTP from a subthreshold tetanic stimulation paradigm in  
32 mouse hippocampal slices (Ballard *et al.*, 2009) .  
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44 Consistent with the behavioral phenotype of  $\alpha 5^{-/-}$  mice (Collinson *et al.*, 2002), both selective  
45 GABA<sub>A</sub>  $\alpha 5$  NAMs have cognition-enhancing effects without anxiogenic or pro-convulsant side  
46 effects associated with the activity of other subtypes of GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors (Chambers *et al.*,  
47 2004; Sternfeld *et al.*, 2004; Atack *et al.*, 2006; Collinson *et al.*, 2006; Dawson *et al.*, 2006;  
48 Rudolph & Mohler, 2006; Nutt *et al.*, 2007; Ballard *et al.*, 2009; Braudeau *et al.*, 2011b). A  
49 comparison of the two lead compounds ( $\alpha 5$ IA and RO4938581) in the same paradigms would  
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2 MRK-016, a derivative of  $\alpha$ 5IA that could not be hydroxylated, functions as a cognition  
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4 enhancer without any pro-convulsant or anxiogenic effects in animals (Atack, 2010).  
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6 Unfortunately, the pharmacokinetics of this backup compound were not optimal, and the whole  
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8 program was stopped by Merck before a new lead compound could be identified.  
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11 A further delineation of the role of  $\alpha$ 5-containing GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors in cognitive processes in  
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13 humans is needed.  
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#### 16 17 18 4.1. Effects of $\alpha$ 5-selective NAMS in Ts65Dn mice

##### 19 20 4.1.1. Cognitive-enhancing effects

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22 Recently, two studies have evaluated the effects of  $\alpha$ 5IA and RO4938581 on the cognitive  
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24 deficits of Ts65Dn mice. Braudeau *et al.* showed that acute treatment (single 5 mg/kg i.p. dose,  
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26 30 minutes before each training session) with  $\alpha$ 5IA restores learning and memory deficits of  
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28 Ts65Dn mice in the MWM (Braudeau *et al.*, 2011b). In this experimental setting where mice  
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30 were trained for 6 days,  $\alpha$ 5IA enhanced learning during the acquisition sessions, as well as  
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32 reduced thigmotactic behavior, indicating an improvement in platform searching strategy.  
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34 However,  $\alpha$ 5IA did not rescue the altered retention of the platform position shown by Ts65Dn  
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36 mice during the probe trial. In this study,  $\alpha$ 5IA also rescued recognition memory in the novel  
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38 object paradigm (Table 2).  
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45 Chronic oral administration of RO4938581 (20 mg/kg) has also been recently shown to have  
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47 promnesic effects in the MWM (Martinez-Cue *et al.*, 2013). These authors used two different  
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49 protocols to assess working and reference spatial learning. During the first 8 sessions the  
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51 platform position was changed every day to assess trial-dependent learning (i.e., spatial working  
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53 memory). In sessions 9 to 12, the platform was placed in the same location (standard protocol)  
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55 to assess trial-independent spatial learning. After the last acquisition session, a probe trial was  
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57 performed to evaluate memory of the platform position (spatial memory). Chronic treatment  
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59 with RO4938581 significantly improved Ts65Dn mouse performance in the acquisition  
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1 sessions, indicating rescue of both working and reference spatial learning. In contrast to the  
2 aforementioned study with  $\alpha$ 5IA, RO4938581 also rescued memory of the platform position.  
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4 These differential effects are likely due to differences in the training protocols between studies.  
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6 In the RO4938581 study, mice performed a larger number of trials per day (8, vs. 2 trials per  
7 day in the  $\alpha$ 5IA study). However, differences in the relative efficacy of both NAMs in restoring  
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9 different cognitive processes cannot be excluded. Finally, consistent with the thigmotactic-  
10 reducing effect of  $\alpha$ 5IA (Braudeau *et al.*, 2011b), RO4938581 also reduced the enhanced  
11 thigmotaxis displayed by Ts65Dn mice in the hidden and visible platform tasks of the MWM,  
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13 indicating that both drug treatments improved navigation strategies (Table 2).  
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22 Notably, both studies showed the ability of the two NAMs to improve the cognitive  
23 performance of euploid mice, with some variations depending on the drug used. RO4938581  
24 failed to improve the cognitive performance of euploid mice in the MWM. These results are in  
25 agreement with another study (Ballard *et al.*, 2009), which did not find any improvement in  
26 working memory in control rats in the DMTP task or in the MWM after chronic RO4938581  
27 treatment.  $\alpha$ 5IA also failed to improve the cognitive performance of euploid mice during the  
28 acquisition sessions of the MWM (Braudeau *et al.*, 2011b). The lack of effect of both NAMs on  
29 the performance of euploid animals in the different versions of the MWM might be attributable  
30 to a ceiling effect. Interestingly, RO4938581 improved performance of cognitively typical  
31 monkeys in the object retrieval task. These animals were exposed to the task infrequently to  
32 prevent asymptotic performance, thus allowing a window for improvement (Ballard *et al.*,  
33 2009).  
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51 In contrast to RO4938581,  $\alpha$ 5IA increased cognitive performances in the DMTP task in normal  
52 rats (Dawson *et al.*, 2006). Consistent with these results, Braudeau *et al.* showed a cognitive-  
53 enhancing effect of 5 mg/kg of  $\alpha$ 5IA in the DMTP task and in the NOR test in euploid animals  
54 (Braudeau *et al.*, 2011b). Testing RO4938581 in the NOR task is an important next step to  
55 compare “side by side” the behavioral profile of both molecules. Also, to get a complete  
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1 overview of the rescuing effects of NAMs in behaviorally-impaired Ts65Dn mice, it might be  
2 informative to evaluate the efficacy of the two drugs in non-spatial, hippocampal-dependent  
3 tasks such as fear contextual conditioning (Contestabile *et al.*, 2012) and, more generally, in a  
4 standardized neuropsychological battery assessing various memory systems and related  
5 behavioural functions (Faizi *et al.*, 2011).  
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12 Overall, data from the literature indicate that  $\alpha 5$ -selective NAMs can, to some extent, enhance  
13 cognition in euploid animals and can also rescue numerous compromised phenotypes in  
14 cognitively-impaired Ts65Dn mice. Therefore, these compounds warrant further investigation.  
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#### 22 4.1.2. Side effects

##### 23 4.1.2.1. Convulsions

24 Braudeau *et al.* (2011b) demonstrated that  $\alpha 5$ IA has neither convulsant nor pro-convulsant  
25 activity in euploid or Ts65Dn mice. Similarly, RO4938581 did not induce convulsions in euploid  
26 or Ts65Dn mice after chronic treatment or when administered at a dose 3-fold higher than that  
27 used in the chronic study (Martinez-Cue *et al.*, 2013).  
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##### 38 4.1.2.2. Hyperactivity

39 Consistent with earlier studies that demonstrated hyperactivity in Ts65Dn mice (Escorihuela *et al.*  
40 *et al.*, 1995; Coussons-Read & Crnic, 1996), increased locomotor activity of the Ts65Dn mouse in  
41 the open-field test was not modified after RO4938581 or  $\alpha 5$ IA treatment (Braudeau *et al.*,  
42 2011b; Martinez-Cue *et al.*, 2013). However, RO4938581 reduced Ts65Dn mouse hyperactivity  
43 in the plus-maze and hole-board tests (Table 2). It has been proposed that the hyperactivity  
44 shown by Ts65Dn mice in situations that usually require caution/risk assessment and  
45 concomitant suppression of activity (Escorihuela *et al.*, 1995; Coussons-Read & Crnic, 1996;  
46 Martinez-Cue *et al.*, 2006) is attributable to a reduced attention to potentially dangerous stimuli.  
47 Therefore, the reduced hyperactivity induced by  $\alpha 5$ IA and RO4938581 presumably ameliorated  
48 the attention deficits observed in Ts65Dn mice.  
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#### 1 2 4.1.2.3. Anxiety 3

4 RO4938581 did not induce anxiety in the open-field and plus-maze tasks. On the contrary,  
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6 chronic treatment with this compound had an anxiolytic-like effect as it increased the number of  
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8 crossings performed by euploid mice in the center of the open field. In the plus maze, while  
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10 RO4938581 did not affect the motor components of anxiety, it reduced the cognitive  
11  
12 components of anxiety as indicated by the lower number of risk assessment behaviors  
13  
14 performed by chronically-treated Ts65Dn and euploid mice, indicating that this NAM has a  
15  
16 slight anxiolytic effect (Martinez-Cue *et al.*, 2013).  
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22 Vehicle-treated Ts65Dn mice spent more time in the open arms of the plus-maze, underlining  
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24 some hypo-anxious/disinhibition traits and/or attention deficits in the Ts65Dn mice (Braudeau  
25  
26 *et al.*, 2011b). After administering a single dose of  $\alpha 5$ IA (15 mg/kg, 3-fold higher than the  
27  
28 active dose in MWM or NOR), Ts65Dn and euploid mice performed equally, indicating that  
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30  $\alpha 5$ IA does not induce anxiogenic activity but rather normalizes the performance of Ts65Dn  
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32 mice in the elevated plus-maze. In addition, chronic injection of  $\alpha 5$ IA (5 mg/kg) 5 times a week  
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34 did not induce any effects on anxiety-related behaviors in euploid and Ts65Dn mice. Moreover,  
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36  $\alpha 5$ IA was shown to induce no anxiogenic effects in a phase 1 study in humans at 2 mg/kg,  
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38 corresponding to 50% occupancy of  $\alpha 5$ -containing GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors (Atack, 2010; Eng *et al.*,  
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40 2010) (Table 2).  
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#### 46 4.1.2.4. Other side effects 47

48 RO4938581 did not modify the sensorimotor abilities, motor coordination in the rotarod, or the  
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50 amount of spontaneous activity in Ts65Dn or euploid mice. These results agree with a report  
51  
52 (Ballard *et al.*, 2009) showing that RO4938581 did not induce CNS side effects, differentiating  
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54 it from non-selective negative modulators that are known to have a poor side effect profile  
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56 (Dorow *et al.*, 1983). Although  $\alpha 5$ IA has not been assessed for motor coordination deficits in  
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1 Ts65Dn mice, it did not induce any side effects on motor coordination in euploid mice (Dawson  
2 *et al.*, 2006).

## 3 4 5 6 4.2. Mechanisms involved in NAM-induced enhanced cognition

### 7 4.2.1. Rescue of synaptic plasticity

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10 Hippocampal-mediated cognitive processes involve long-term changes in synaptic efficacy such  
11 as LTP. Chronic treatment with RO4938581 completely rescued the LTP deficit of Ts65Dn  
12 mice and also tended to enhance the induction of LTP in euploid mice. Previous studies showed  
13 that RO4938581 and  $\alpha 5$ IA enhanced LTP after acute treatment of mouse hippocampal slices  
14 (Collinson *et al.*, 2006; Dawson *et al.*, 2006; Ballard *et al.*, 2009).  $\alpha 5$  subunit-containing  
15 GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors, predominantly localized extrasynaptically, mediate tonic inhibition (Glykys  
16 & Mody, 2006) and regulate the excitability of hippocampal pyramidal neurons by influencing  
17 the strength of depolarization required to generate an action potential (Bonin *et al.*, 2007). These  
18 results provide further evidence for a major role of GABA<sub>A</sub>  $\alpha 5$  receptors in the modulation of  
19 long-term synaptic plasticity and suggest that this may be a mechanism whereby RO4938581  
20 treatment rescues cognitive deficits in Ts65Dn mice.  
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### 38 4.2.2. Neurogenesis

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40 Alterations in hippocampal morphology, such as reductions in granule cell density and  
41 hippocampal neurogenesis, have been implicated in the cognitive deficits of Ts65Dn mice  
42 (Insausti *et al.*, 1998; Rueda *et al.*, 2005; Clark *et al.*, 2006; Bianchi *et al.*, 2010a; Bianchi *et al.*,  
43 2010b).

44  
45 Because GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor activity is known to regulate neuronal proliferation, migration,  
46 differentiation, and integration of newly generated neurons (Tozuka *et al.*, 2005; Ge *et al.*, 2006;  
47 Earnheart *et al.*, 2007), normalization of GABAergic activity after NAM administration could  
48 reduce these neuromorphological alterations and, thereby, enhance cognition.  
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Chronic administration of RO4938581 fully restored the density of both proliferating cells and of mature granule cells in the dentate gyrus of Ts65Dn mice. Since both newborn and mature neurons are implicated in hippocampus-dependent learning and memory, the restoration of proliferation and of the density of mature neurons likely contribute to the cognition-enhancing effects of RO4938581 in Ts65Dn mice. A recent study showed that restoring neurogenesis by early treatment with fluoxetine or lithium is indeed accompanied by a recovery in the cognitive alterations found in Ts65Dn mice (Bianchi *et al.*, 2010a; Contestabile *et al.*, 2012).

#### 4.2.3. GABAergic synapses

In line with enhanced GABA-mediated inhibition observed in Ts65Dn mice, Martínez-Cué *et al.* found that the increased density of the GABAergic synapse markers GAD65, GAD67, and VGAT in the molecular layer of the hippocampus of Ts65Dn mice was normalized by chronic RO4938581 administration (Martinez-Cue *et al.*, 2013). Increased immunoreactivity of proteins associated with GABAergic synapses including GAD67, VGAT, GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor-associated protein (GABARAP), and neuroligin 2 was measured previously in the neocortex and hippocampus of Ts65Dn mice (Belichenko *et al.*, 2009; Perez-Cremades *et al.*, 2010). Because several studies have shown that Ts65Dn mice display morphological and functional alterations in inhibitory circuitries in the hippocampus and cerebral cortex (Belichenko *et al.*, 2004; Belichenko *et al.*, 2009; Chakrabarti *et al.*, 2010; Perez-Cremades *et al.*, 2010; Begenisic *et al.*, 2011), it is possible that RO4938581 rescues cognitive deficits in Ts65Dn mice by normalizing the number and/or function of inhibitory synapses and, therefore, re-establishes circuit inhibitory/excitatory balance and neuroplasticity.

#### 4.2.4. Receptors

Similar density and distribution of GABA<sub>A</sub>  $\alpha$ 5 receptors are found in Ts65Dn and euploid mice (Martinez-Cue *et al.*, 2013). In addition, levels of GABA<sub>A</sub>  $\alpha$ 5 receptor occupancy do not differ in the hippocampus of RO4938581-treated Ts65Dn and euploid mice. Expression of GABA<sub>A</sub>  $\alpha$ 5 receptors as well as *in vivo* binding of RO4938581 to GABA<sub>A</sub>  $\alpha$ 5 receptors in Ts65Dn

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2 versus euploid mice were analyzed by *ex vivo* autoradiography performed after intravenous  
3 injection of the well-characterized GABA<sub>A</sub> α5 subtype preferring radioligand [<sup>3</sup>H]-RO0154513  
4 (Sieghart *et al.*, 1987). The quantitative analysis of the *ex vivo* autoradiograms for the baseline  
5 condition did not give any indication of different levels of GABA<sub>A</sub> α5 expression in Ts65Dn  
6 mice compared to controls (Martinez-Cue *et al.*, 2013).  
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12 The expression of three GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors subunits is altered in neural progenitor cells from  
13 individuals with DS: α2 is up-regulated, while α5 and β3 subunits are down-regulated  
14 (Bhattacharyya *et al.*, 2009). Other published microarray data did not reveal changes in GABA<sub>A</sub>  
15 receptor subunit expression (Saran *et al.*, 2003; Braudeau *et al.*, 2011a). Recently, Szemes *et al.*  
16 (2013) found a specific decrease of the β3 GABA<sub>A</sub> subunit transcripts in granule cells of the  
17 cerebellum using single-cell reverse-transcription PCR.  
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29 In the Ts65Dn mouse, a significant decrease in expression of the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor β2/3 subunit  
30 has been reported in the DG early in development; this phenomenon is followed by a significant  
31 increase in months 3-8. Although no significant changes have been found for the β1 subunit, an  
32 alteration in the ratio of β2/3 to α1 is evident in the hippocampus of 3-month-old Ts65Dn mice  
33 (Belichenko *et al.*, 2009), suggesting an increase in inhibitory neurotransmission with aging. In  
34 another recently published study, no change in GABA<sub>A</sub> and GABA<sub>B</sub> receptors could be  
35 identified (Kleschevnikov *et al.*, 2012b); however, a 20% decrease in GABA<sub>A</sub> β2 and β3  
36 proteins is observed in the DG of adult Ts65Dn mice (Belichenko *et al.*, 2009).  
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49 Together, these findings suggest that changes in GABA<sub>A</sub> α5 receptor density or occupancy after  
50 RO4938581 treatment are unlikely to be implicated in the cognitive enhancing effects of this  
51 drug.  
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#### 58 4.2.5. Changes in gene expression after chronic treatment with α5IA

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1 To gain insight into the mode of action of  $\alpha 5$ IA, Braudeau *et al.* investigated the expression of  
2 the fos protein, the product of an immediate early gene (IEG) activated following behavioral  
3 stimulation (Braudeau *et al.*, 2011a; Braudeau *et al.*, 2011b). The fos protein is classically used  
4 to map evoked neuronal activity (Tischmeyer & Grimm, 1999; Guzowski *et al.*, 2005). They  
5 showed that, in both Ts65Dn and euploid mice, fos translation triggered by a behavioral episode  
6 (exploration of a new environment) is strongly increased after treatment with  $\alpha 5$ IA in the cortex  
7 and the CA1 region of the hippocampus but not in the DG, which lacks a high density of  $\alpha 5$ -  
8 containing GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors. They then established gene expression profiles of Ts65Dn and  
9 euploid hippocampi collected after chronic treatment (12 days) with  $\alpha 5$ IA and compared  
10 expression levels to vehicle-treated mice. Three triplicated genes were found to be differentially  
11 expressed between Ts65Dn and euploid mice; among them, the superoxide dismutase 1 (*Sod1*)  
12 gene has been shown to contribute to several clinical features of DS (Braudeau *et al.*, 2011a).  
13 Interestingly,  $\alpha 5$ IA treatments corrected the elevated levels of *Sod1* seen in Ts65Dn mice.  
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31 In euploid mice, chronic treatment with  $\alpha 5$ IA increased IEG expression, particularly of *c-Fos*  
32 and the activity-regulated cytoskeleton-associated protein (*Arc*) genes. In Ts65Dn mice, deficits  
33 in IEG activation, particularly of *c-Fos* and early growth response 2 (*Egr2*), were rescued after  
34 treatment with  $\alpha 5$ IA but did not reach the levels obtained after  $\alpha 5$ IA treatment in euploid mice.  
35 At the protein level no deficits of fos basal levels were identified between Ts65Dn and euploid  
36 mice.  
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#### 54 4.2.6. Symptomatic vs. long-term effects

55 To understand the mechanisms by which the different non-selective and  $\alpha 5$ -selective NAMs of  
56 the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors exert their pro-cognitive action, it is crucial to unravel whether their  
57 effects are short-term symptomatic (i.e., these drugs compensate the imbalance between  
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excitation and inhibition acutely) and/or whether long-term changes in neuronal circuits are exerted. Numerous studies have shown that enhancing effects of GABA<sub>A</sub> antagonists (including PTZ) on memory in rodents requires that the drug be administered shortly before or after training (Krivanek & McGaugh, 1968; Krivanek, 1971). Colas *et al.* (2013) found that the acute doses of PTZ administered 10 min before training enhanced long-term memory in young Ts65Dn mice but that this effect was not long-lasting. However, they did not find a pro-cognitive effect of an acute single dose of PTZ given one day before training (Fernandez *et al.*, 2007). Rueda *et al.* showed a cognitive-enhancing effect of PTZ administered 1 hour before testing in Ts65Dn mice; however, these authors did not test whether the changes were long-lasting (Rueda *et al.*, 2008).

Similar results have been reported using  $\alpha 5$ -selective NAMs.  $\alpha 5$ IA facilitates memory performance during encoding but not during consolidation (i.e., between acquisition and retrieval) (Collinson *et al.*, 2006). An acute treatment with  $\alpha 5$ IA before training improved recognition memory in Ts65Dn mice (Braudeau *et al.*, 2011b). In addition, chronic treatment with RO4938581 (administered 1 hour before daily training sessions) also rescued the learning deficits of Ts65Dn mice (Martinez-Cue *et al.*, 2013). However, none of these studies evaluated whether the cognitive enhancing effect was maintained after the discontinuation of the drug administration.

Pro-cognitive effects of PTZ have been reported for Ts65Dn mice up to two months after discontinuation of the drug administration (Fernandez *et al.*, 2007; Colas *et al.*, 2013). Because this drug half-life is less than five hours, these authors propose that chronic PTZ therapy leads to a long-lasting circuit adaptation or reduced the GABA sensitivity of key circuits involved in learning and memory. Analysis of the putative mechanisms involved in this promnesic effect of the  $\alpha 5$ -selective NAMs in Ts65Dn mice indicates that morphological and plasticity changes (i.e., normalization of LTP, neurogenesis, granule cell density, of GABAergic synapse markers, and changes in IEGs expression) indeed occur after treatment. Thus, it remains possible that

1 GABA<sub>A</sub> antagonists and NAMs exert their pro-cognitive effects by two mechanisms:  
2 compensating the imbalance between excitation and inhibition when administered acutely, and  
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4 inducing long-term reorganization of circuits or the restoration of different neuromorphological  
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6 anomalies found in Ts65Dnmice when chronically administered. Importantly, it remains to be  
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8 shown whether morphological and neurogenesis changes are found after acute treatment with  
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10 NAMs.

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12 The deficit in GABA-mediated synaptic plasticity can contribute to different structural and  
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14 morphological changes since neuronal proliferation and development (migration, differentiation,  
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16 and integration of newly generated neurons) is regulated by GABA<sub>A</sub> (Tozuka *et al.*, 2005; Ge *et*  
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18 *al.*, 2006; Earnheart *et al.*, 2007; Bortone & Polleux, 2009). Therefore, restoring GABA activity  
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20 might normalize neurogenesis and different neuromorphological anomalies of the Ts65Dnbrain,  
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22 leading to more efficient learning (Martinez-Cue *et al.*, 2013).  
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## 28 5. CONCLUDING REMARKS

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30 There is an unmet need to develop pharmacotherapies to improve the cognitive deficits and the  
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32 quality of life of individuals with DS. Numerous studies in mouse models of DS have identified  
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34 several potential targets for treatment. The demonstration of the role of GABA-mediated  
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36 inhibition in the Ts65Dn mouse model of DS led to studies testing different antagonists that  
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38 proved to be promnesic but might induce significant side effects.  
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44 Recent advances in the understanding of the physiology of the different GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor  
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46 subunits have demonstrated the important modulatory role of GABA<sub>A</sub>  $\alpha$ 5 subunit-containing  
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48 receptors in cognition (Collinson *et al.*, 2002; Crestani *et al.*, 2002; Rudolph & Knoflach, 2011),  
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50 without inducing the unwanted effects produced by the activity of other subunits, which  
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52 suggested the potential use of selective GABA<sub>A</sub>  $\alpha$ 5 NAMs to enhance cognition in DS  
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54 individuals. Different studies have recently demonstrated that diminishing GABA<sub>A</sub> inhibition in  
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56 DS with NAMs selective for the  $\alpha$ 5-containing GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors appears to be a sensible  
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58 strategy since two molecules of this class have already proven to be efficient for correcting  
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cognitive deficits in DS mouse models and one is currently being tested in individuals with DS (Mohler, 2012) (<http://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT01436955?term=rg1662&rank=3>).

Advances in teaching methods and education mainstreaming have proven beneficial for individuals with DS; however, these advances are not sufficient to improve all cognitive abilities. Interestingly, several studies in Ts65Dn mice have demonstrated the value of environmental enrichment in enhancing cognition (Martinez-Cue *et al.*, 2002; Begenisic *et al.*, 2011), hippocampal neurogenesis (Chakrabarti *et al.*, 2010), and synaptic plasticity and decreasing GABAergic inhibition (Begenisic *et al.*, 2011). Thus, a promising strategy would be to combine behavioral and pharmacological therapeutic strategies to try to maximize their benefits. In addition, several drugs have been shown to enhance cognition in the Ts65Dn mouse [i.e., fluoxetine (Bianchi *et al.*, 2010b), lithium (Contestabile *et al.*, 2012), different GABA<sub>B</sub> antagonists (Kleschevnikov *et al.*, 2004; Kleschevnikov *et al.*, 2012a; Kleschevnikov *et al.*, 2012b), Shh agonists (Das *et al.*, 2013), DYRK1a inhibitors, and melatonin (Altafaj *et al.*, 2013; Corrales *et al.*, 2013), among others]. Therefore, another strategy that should be explored is the efficacy of combining two or more of these drugs. In sum, these recent studies indicate the potential for development of new treatments to improve cognition in individuals with DS.

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	$\alpha 1$	$\alpha 2$	$\alpha 3$	$\alpha 4$	$\alpha 5$	$\alpha 6$
<b>K<sub>i</sub></b>						
$\alpha 5IA$	0.88 nM	0.58 nM	0.61 nM	60 nM	0.66 nM	418 nM
RO493858	174 nM	185 nM	80 nM	ND	4.6 nM	ND
<b>% GABA response (EC<sub>20</sub>)</b>						
$\alpha 5IA$ 30 nM						
rat	-4	+12	+4	ND	-2	ND
human	-5		+15	ND	-29	ND
RO4938581 10 nM	0 to -10	0 to -10	0 to -10	ND	-30	ND

Table 1: Specificity profile of the NAMs  $\alpha 5IA$  and RO4938581 for the various GABA<sub>A</sub> subunits.

**K<sub>i</sub>**: inhibition of [<sup>3</sup>H]flumazenil binding in mouse L(tk-) fibroblasts ( $\alpha 5IA$ ) or HEK293 cells (RO4938581) expressing the  $\alpha_x\beta_3\gamma_2$  ( $\alpha 5IA$ ) or the  $\alpha_1\beta_2\gamma_2$ ,  $\alpha_2\beta_3\gamma_2$ ,  $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma_2$  or  $\alpha_5\beta_3\gamma_2$  (RO493858) subunits of GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors.  $K_i = IC_{50}/(1+([radioligand]/KD))$ . Modulation of the GABA EC<sub>20</sub>-evoked current in different subtypes of recombinant human and rat GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors in HEK293 cells (both compounds) (Sternfeld *et al.*, 2004; Ballard *et al.*, 2009).

	$\alpha$ 5IA	RO4938581
<b>Cognitive-enhancing effects</b>		
MWM acquisition	↗	↗
MWM retention	=	↗
MWM thigmotaxis	↘	↘
<b>Side effects</b>		
Anxiety in the open field	=	↘
Anxiety in the plus-maze	↘	↘
Hyperactivity in the hole board	ND	↘
Hyperactivity in the plus-maze	↘	↘

Table 2: Promnesiant and side effects of the NAMs  $\alpha$ 5IA and RO4938581 in Ts65Dn mice (Braudeau *et al.*, 2011; Martinez-Cue *et al.*, 2013). ND: not determined; = no effect; ↗ and ↘ of performances, respectively.