

FIGURE 3. Average (n=10) percentage of unchanged  $^{11}\text{C-MNPA}$  in plasma vs. time. Bars indicate SD.

the 2 regions might affect the BP<sub>ND</sub> calculated by the SRTM and transient equilibrium methods. Furthermore, changes in  $K_1$  due to changes in CBF might be caused by neurologic or psychiatric diseases. The  $K_1$  value for <sup>11</sup>C-MNPA was about 0.44 mL/cm³/min in gray matter. When the CBF value in gray matter is assumed to be 0.50 mL/cm³/min (29), the first-pass extraction fraction of <sup>11</sup>C-MNPA is 88%. The capillary permeability–surface area product (PS) value, using this extraction fraction and a  $K_1$  value of 0.44 mL/cm³/min, was calculated (30,31). With the PS value of 1.06 mL/cm³/min, the  $K_1$  range of 0.20–0.60 mL/cm³/min corresponds to the CBF range of 0.20–0.85 mL/cm³/min (28).

# **RESULTS**

All 10 subjects participated in the study according to the protocol. Representative summated PET images (60–90 [Fig. 1] min) and T1-weighted MR images are shown in Figure 1, and the corresponding regional time-activity curves are [Fig. 2] shown in Figure 2. Regional radioactivity was highest in the putamen and lower in the caudate and thalamus. The average percentage of unchanged <sup>11</sup>C-MNPA in plasma was 95.1% ± 2.1% at 3 min, decreasing to 25.1% ± 12.0% [Fig. 3] at 90 min (i.e., at the end of PET data acquisition) (Fig. 3).

Other than MNPA, there were no more lipophilic-labeled metabolites in the plasma.

After an intravenous injection of  $^{11}$ C-MNPA, total radioactivity in the brain peaked at 6.7  $\pm$  1.2 min (range, 4.5–9.0 min), and the fraction of uptake in the brain was 6.0%  $\pm$  1.0% (range, 4.3%–7.3%) of the injected radioactivity.

The blood volume and rate constants for each brain region obtained by conventional nonlinear least-squares fit of the 2-compartment model are shown in Table 1. The [Table 1] BP<sub>ND</sub> values of the putamen, caudate, and thalamus calculated by the 3 different methods are shown in Table 2. [Table 2] Specific binding, as defined by the transient equilibrium method, reached a peak within 60 min in the putamen, caudate, and thalamus (Table 2).

 $BP_{ND}$  values determined by the SRTM method on the basis of data acquired for 90 and 60 min and those determined by the transient equilibrium method were compared with values calculated by the indirect kinetic method.  $BP_{ND}$  values obtained by the SRTM method were in good agreement with those obtained by the indirect kinetic method with data obtained for 90 and 60 min (Fig. 4), and [Fig. 4]  $BP_{ND}$  values obtained by the transient equilibrium method were in good agreement with those obtained by the indirect kinetic method with data for 90 min (Fig. 5). The highest [Fig. 5] coefficient of correlation was observed between the SRTM and the indirect kinetic methods with data acquired for 90 min (r = 0.98, P < 0.001).

When BP<sub>ND</sub> values determined by the indirect kinetic and SRTM methods with 60-min data were compared with values determined by the same 2 methods with 90-min data, good agreement was observed (r = 0.99, r = 0.92, P < 0.001) (Fig. 6).

[Fig. 6]

To estimate the sensitivity of the SRTM and transient equilibrium methods for rate constants (indirect blood flow) over an interval with values lower and higher than average, a simulation study was performed. BP<sub>ND</sub> values determined by the indirect kinetic method with data acquired for 60 and 90 min were compared with BP<sub>ND</sub> values determined by the SRTM and transient equilibrium methods with data acquired for 60 and 90 min from simulated time–activity curves. The error in BP<sub>ND</sub> calculated by the SRTM method with data acquired for 90 min was smallest (-24.8% to 1.5%; mean, -4.3%), and the difference in  $K_1$  between the brain region and cerebellum had only a minor effect on

		Rate constant				
Region	Blood volume	K <sub>1</sub> (mL/cm³/min)	k <sub>2</sub> (min <sup>-1</sup> )	k <sub>3</sub> (min <sup>-1</sup> )	k <sub>4</sub> (min <sup>-1</sup> )	
Putamen	$0.07 \pm 0.02$	$0.44 \pm 0.05$	$0.07 \pm 0.01$	$0.15 \pm 0.06$	$0.19 \pm 0.07$	
Caudate	$0.06 \pm 0.02$	$0.39 \pm 0.05$	$0.06 \pm 0.01$	$0.11 \pm 0.06$	$0.20 \pm 0.11$	
Thalamus	$0.07 \pm 0.02$	$0.43 \pm 0.05$	$0.07 \pm 0.01$	0.03 ± 0.01	$0.13 \pm 0.06$	
Cerebellum (1TCM)	$0.07 \pm 0.02$	0.41 ± 0.03	$0.06 \pm 0.01$			

706 THE JOURNAL OF NUCLEAR MEDICINE • Vol. 50 • No. 5 • May 2009

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Indirect kinetic me		etic method	nethod SRTM method		Transient equilibrium method	
Region	90 min	60 min	90 min	60 min	BP <sub>ND</sub>	Time (min)*
Putamen	$0.82 \pm 0.09$	$0.83 \pm 0.09$	$0.78 \pm 0.07$	$0.79 \pm 0.08$	$0.76 \pm 0.07$	$36.4 \pm 4.5$
Caudate	0.59 ± 0.11	$0.59 \pm 0.10$	$0.55 \pm 0.09$	$0.56 \pm 0.13$	$0.60 \pm 0.09$	$39.6 \pm 5.7$
Thalamus	0.28 ± 0.06	0.28 ± 0.05	0.24 ± 0.04	0.31 ± 0.18	0.23 ± 0.05	29.2 ± 11.3

 $BP_{ND}$ . The error in  $BP_{ND}$  calculated by the transient equilibrium method was smallest when the  $K_1$  value was 0.44, but  $BP_{ND}$  was overestimated when the  $K_1$  value was lower than 0.36 and was underestimated when it was higher [Fig. 7] than 0.52 (Fig. 7).

#### DISCUSSION

Studies using agonist radioligands such as <sup>11</sup>C-PHNO to examine the high-affinity state of the dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptor in the human brain have been reported previously (32). Our study describes the first, to our knowledge, PET examination using the agonist radioligand <sup>11</sup>C-MNPA to visualize binding to G-protein-coupled receptors in the human brain. After the intravenous injection of <sup>11</sup>C-MNPA, radioactivity appeared rapidly in the brain and was washed out in a fashion similar to that previously reported in nonhuman primates (20). Radioactivity was highest in the putamen and slightly lower in the caudate, moderate in the thalamus, and lowest in the cerebellum. This regional distribution is similar to that shown in nonhuman primates with <sup>11</sup>C-MNPA (20,21) and is in accordance with the known distribution of dopamine D2 receptors, as demonstrated with antagonist radioligands such as 11C-raclopride in the human brain (33). Finnema also reported blocking data with a dopamine D<sub>2</sub> antagonist in nonhuman primates (20). The pretreatment with raclopride, compared with the baseline condition, demonstrated high specific binding of the dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptor by reducing the striatum-to-cerebellum ratio. The striatal BP<sub>ND</sub> values of <sup>11</sup>C-MNPA were about one third of those in previous studies with the antagonist radioligand <sup>11</sup>C-raclopride (33). The K<sub>d</sub> value of <sup>11</sup>C-raclopride in the human brain in vivo has been reported to be 9.1 nM (34), and the K<sub>d</sub> value of <sup>11</sup>C-MNPA in the monkey brain in vivo has been reported to be 11.6 nM (35). Because the K<sub>d</sub> values of <sup>11</sup>C-MNPA and <sup>11</sup>C-raclopride are similar in vitro, the difference in striatal BP<sub>ND</sub> between <sup>11</sup>C-MNPA and <sup>11</sup>C-raclopride may reflect a difference in the density of available receptors (B<sub>max</sub>) of the 2 radioligands. This interpretation is in line with the view that an agonist radioligand labels only the receptors in the high-affinity state, whereas an antagonist radioligand labels both high- and low-affinity-state dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptors (21,35).

Ginovart et al. reported that <sup>11</sup>C-PHNO and <sup>11</sup>C-NPA in the cat were more sensitive to amphetamine-induced dopamine release than was <sup>11</sup>C-raclopride (36). The observation that <sup>11</sup>C-MNPA in nonhuman primates is also more sensitive to amphetamine-induced dopamine release than is <sup>11</sup>C-raclopride (21) has been taken as evidence for selective labeling of D<sub>2</sub> receptors in the high-affinity state. The relatively low BP<sub>ND</sub> in the present study corroborates this view.

In this study, the indirect kinetic method with arterial blood sampling was used as the gold standard (25). Because arterial blood sampling is invasive, we examined the accuracy of the SRTM and transient equilibrium methods

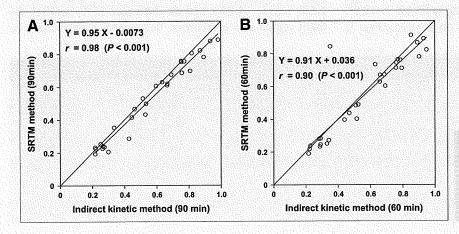
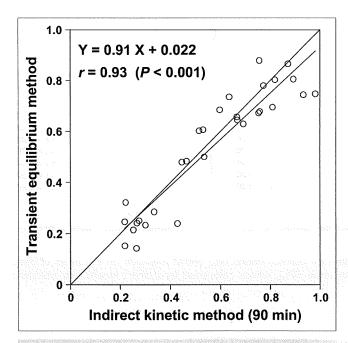


FIGURE 4. Comparison of BP<sub>ND</sub> values in 3 regions (putamen, caudate, and thalamus) of 10 control subjects calculated by indirect kinetic and SRTM methods on the basis of data acquired over 90 (A) and 60 min (B).

Quantification of <sup>11</sup>C-MNPA • Otsuka et al.



**FIGURE 5.** Comparison of BP $_{\rm ND}$  values in 3 regions (putamen, caudate, and thalamus) in 10 control subjects calculated by indirect kinetic and transient equilibrium methods.

for quantifying <sup>11</sup>C-MNPA binding using the cerebellum as the reference brain region. The SRTM and transient equilibrium methods had previously been validated for antagonist radioligands such as <sup>11</sup>C-raclopride and <sup>11</sup>C-FLB457 (15,25,28). In the present study, BP<sub>ND</sub> of <sup>11</sup>C-MNPA obtained by the SRTM method was in good agreement with that obtained by the indirect kinetic method with data acquired for 60 and 90 min. The BP<sub>ND</sub> value obtained by the transient equilibrium method was also in good agreement with the value obtained by the indirect kinetic method with data acquired for 90 min. Thus, it should be possible to use simplified protocols with no arterial blood sampling in applied clinical studies in humans.

In the simulation study,  $BP_{ND}$  calculated by the SRTM method was in good agreement with that calculated by the

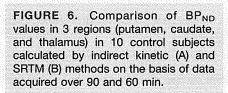
indirect kinetic method, although BP<sub>ND</sub> was slightly overestimated. These results demonstrate the validity of the SRTM method for quantitating  $^{11}$ C-MNPA binding also when blood flow and rate constants might be deviant. The present observation is in line with an  $^{11}$ C-FLB457 study showing that the BP<sub>ND</sub> value calculated by the SRTM method was not greatly affected by differences in  $K_1$  between the brain regions and the cerebellum (25). Thus, the SRTM method is suitable for quantifying  $^{11}$ C-MNPA binding when using a reference brain region without arterial blood sampling.

BP<sub>ND</sub> calculated by the transient equilibrium method was not in good agreement with that calculated by the indirect kinetic method in the simulation study when the  $K_1$  value in the brain region was small. The errors in BP<sub>ND</sub> calculated by the transient equilibrium method were within the range of -15% to +15% when the  $K_1$  value was 0.44 and 0.52 mL/cm<sup>3</sup>/min, corresponding to 0.5–0.65 mL/cm<sup>3</sup>/min of CBF. Although the transient equilibrium method might not be suitable for determining BP<sub>ND</sub> in patients with low CBF, it is still a useful method for determining BP<sub>ND</sub> without arterial blood sampling.

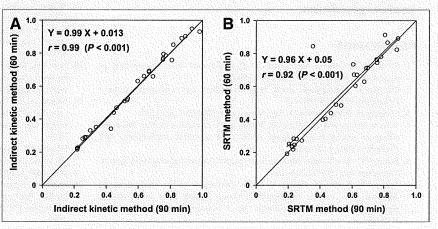
For clinical research, a short scanning time is preferred. In the present study, the  $BP_{ND}$  values calculated by the SRTM method with data acquired for 90 min were in good agreement with those obtained with data acquired for 60 min. In the simulation study, the  $BP_{ND}$  values obtained by the SRTM method with data acquired for 60 min were in good agreement with  $BP_{ND}$  values obtained by the indirect kinetic method, except with extremely low  $K_1$ . These results suggest that the SRTM method with data acquired for 60 min is valid for clinical studies in patients with neuropsychiatric disorders such as schizophrenia and depression.

#### CONCLUSION

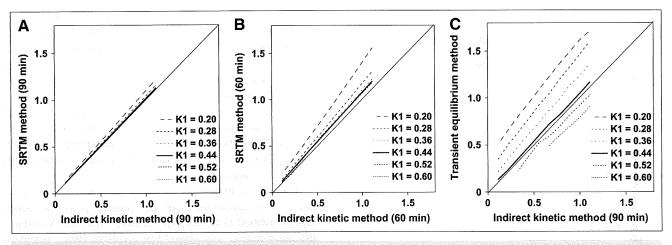
The regional distribution of <sup>11</sup>C-MNPA was in good agreement with previous PET studies of dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptors in the human brain using antagonist radioligands such as <sup>11</sup>C-raclopride and <sup>11</sup>C-FLB457. The BP<sub>ND</sub> values



708



The Journal of Nuclear Medicine • Vol. 50 • No. 5 • May 2009



**FIGURE 7.** Comparison of simulated BP<sub>ND</sub> values calculated by indirect kinetic and SRTM methods on the basis of data acquired over 90 (A) and 60 min (B). (C) Comparison of simulated BP<sub>ND</sub> values calculated by indirect kinetic and transient equilibrium methods.

measured by the indirect kinetic model were in good agreement with those measured by the SRTM method with data acquired for 60 and 90 min. The BP<sub>ND</sub> values measured by the transient equilibrium method also corresponded well with those measured by the indirect kinetic model with data acquired for 90 min. Simulation studies showed that errors in BP<sub>ND</sub> measured by the SRTM method were small. The SRTM method with data acquired for 60 and 90 min is suitable for estimation of dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptor bindings using <sup>11</sup>C-MNPA.

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QUANTIFICATION OF <sup>11</sup>C-MNPA • Otsuka et al.

709

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710 THE JOURNAL OF NUCLEAR MEDICINE • Vol. 50 • No. 5 • May 2009

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# Increase in thalamic binding of [11C]PE2I in patients with schizophrenia: A positron emission tomography study of dopamine transporter

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#### ABSTRACT

Previous *in vivo* imaging studies reported no difference in dopamine transporter (DAT) bindings in the striatum between control subjects and patients with schizophrenia. However, as the signals of radioligands with moderate affinity were insufficient for allowing the evaluation of small amounts of DAT, DAT binding in extrastriatal regions has not been determined. Positron emission tomography scanning using [ $^{11}$ C]PE2I was performed on eight patients with schizophrenia and twelve normal control subjects. Binding potential (BP<sub>ND</sub>) for DAT in the caudate, putamen, thalamus and substantia nigra was calculated, using the cerebellum as reference region. In patients with schizophrenia, clinical symptoms were evaluated by Positive and Negative Syndrome Scale (PANSS). BP<sub>ND</sub> in the thalamus of patients with schizophrenia was significantly higher than in control subjects (P = 0.044). In patients with schizophrenia, there were significantly positive correlations between BP<sub>ND</sub> in the thalamus and total (r = 0.75), positive (r = 0.78) and negative PANSS scores (r = 0.82). Altered DAT in the thalamus might be related to the pathophysiology and clinical symptoms of schizophrenia.

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#### 1. Introduction

One of the most accepted hypotheses concerning the pathophysiology of schizophrenia are the hyperactivity of dopaminergic neurotransmission. This 'dopamine hypothesis' is supported by the facts that antipsychotic effects are mainly related to dopamine  $D_2$  receptor antagonism and that dopamine stimulating agents can cause psychotic symptoms such as hallucination or delusion. Dopamine transporter (DAT) plays a role in the reuptake of dopamine into pre-synaptic nerves and regulates dopaminergic transmission in the synaptic cleft. DAT inhibitors such as cocaine increase dopamine concentration in the synaptic cleft (Schlaepfer et al., 1997) and worsen the clinical course of schizophrenia, e.g., exacerbating positive and negative symptoms, increasing the risk of relapse, or hospitalization (Green, 2005).

Previous *in vivo* imaging studies using positron emission tomography (PET) or single photon emission computed tomography (SPECT) reported no difference in DAT bindings between control subjects and patients with schizophrenia (Hsiao et al., 2003; Laakso et al., 2000; Laruelle et al., 2000; Lavalaye et al., 2001; Schmitt et al., 2005, 2006, 2008; Yang et al., 2004) except for one study

reporting lower binding in patients with schizophrenia as com-

#### 2. Materials and methods

#### 2.1. Subjects

Eight patients (age range  $25-52 \, \mathrm{yr}$ , mean  $\pm \, \mathrm{SD}$ :  $36.5 \pm 9.5 \, \mathrm{yr}$ ) diagnosed with schizophrenia or schizophreniform disorder according to DSM-IV criteria participated in this study. Four patients with schizophreniform disorder met the criteria for schizophrenia at six month follow-up. Exclusion criteria were current

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pared with controls (Mateos et al., 2007). However, those studies evaluated DAT binding only in the striatum, as DAT density in extrastriatal regions is very low (in a postmortem human study, [ $^{125}$ I]PE2I binding in the thalamus was reported to be 15% of that in the striatum and negligible in the cortex) (Hall et al., 1999). The recent development of [ $^{11}$ C]PE2I, which has high affinity ( $K_i$  = 17 nM) and selectivity (more than 30-fold for other monoamine transporters) for DAT, allows the evaluation of extrastiatal DAT bindings (Halldin et al., 2003; Hirvonen et al., 2008; Jucaite et al., 2006). In this study, we evaluated DAT binding in the striatal and extrastriatal regions of patients with schizophrenia using [ $^{11}$ C]PE2I.

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 Table 1

 Demographic and clinical characteristics.

			Controls	Patients
N			12	8
Age (years)			33.2 ± 12.0	36.5 ± 9.5
Gender (M/F)			10/2	6/2
Naïve/free				6/2
Duration of illne	ess (month	s)		32.1 ± 42.8
PANSS (total)				77.8 ± 18.8
Positive				17.8 ± 4.8
Negative.				18.9 ± 6.5
General				41.1 ± 10.8

Values are mean ± SD.

or past substance abuse, organic brain disease, or epilepsy. Demographic and clinical data are shown in Table 1. Six of the patients were antipsychotic naïve and two had been antipsychotic-free for at least six months before the PET scan. Three patients had taken benzodiazepines the night before the PET scan.

Psychopathological symptoms were assessed by three experienced psychiatrists on the same day as the PET scans using the Positive and Negative Syndrome Scale (PANSS), and consensus ratings were used. PANSS scores used were total score and subscores for positive symptom, negative symptom and general symptom.

Twelve normal control subjects (age range  $23-56 \, \text{yr}$ , mean  $\pm$  SD:  $33.2 \pm 12.0 \, \text{yr}$ ) also participated. None of them had a history of psychiatric or neurological disorders, brain injury, chronic somatic illness, or substance abuse. None had taken any drugs within two weeks before the PET scan.

After complete description of this study, written informed consent was obtained from all subjects. The study was approved by the Ethics and Radiation Safety Committee of the National Institute of Radiological Sciences, Chiba, Japan. Data were collected from 4/2003 to 8/2006.

#### 2.2. PET procedure

A PET scanner system, ECAT EXACT HR+(CTI-Siemens, Knoxville, TN, USA), was used for all measurements. A head fixation device was used to minimize head movement. A transmission scan for attenuation correction was performed using a  $^{68}\text{Ge}-^{68}\text{Ga}$  source before each scan. A dynamic PET scan was performed for 90 min (20 s  $\times$  9, 1 min  $\times$  5, 2 min  $\times$  4, 4 min  $\times$  11, 5 min  $\times$  6) after intravenous bolus injection of 214.7  $\pm$  13.7 MBq (mean  $\pm$  SD) of [ $^{11}\text{C}$ ]PE2I. The specific radioactivity of [ $^{11}\text{C}$ ]PE2I was 344.5  $\pm$  355.3 MBq/nmol. Injected dose and specific radioactivity

between the control and patient groups were not significantly different (two-tailed t-test; P = 0.15 and P = 0.16, respectively). Since two previous quantitative studies of [ $^{11}$ C]PE2I had reported good reliability with scan times of 63 and 69 min, the scan time of 90 min was considered sufficient for estimation of DAT bindings especially in extrastriatal regions (Hirvonen et al., 2008; Jucaite et al., 2006). Magnetic resonance (MR) images of the brain were acquired with a 1.5 Tesla MR imaging system, Gyroscan NT (Philips Medical Systems, Best, Netherlands). T1-weighted images were obtained at 1 mm slices. All subjects were free of organic brain lesions.

# 2.3. Data analysis

All MR images were coregistered to the PET images using the statistical parametric mapping (SPM2) system. MR images were transformed into the standard brain size and shape by SPM2 (anatomic standardization). All PET images were also transformed into the standard brain size and shape using the same parameters as the MR image standardization. Thus, brain images of all subjects had the same anatomic format (Ito et al., 2008). Motion corrections were not made.

Regions of interest (ROIs) were drawn on all anatomically standardized PET images with reference to the T1-weighted MR images. ROIs were defined for the cerebellar cortex, caudate head, putamen, substantia nigra and thalamus (Fig. 1).

Binding potential (BP<sub>ND</sub>) was calculated by the simplified reference tissue model (SRTM) method. The cerebellum was used as reference region because of its negligible density of DAT (Hall et al., 1999). In this study, the software package PMOD (PMOD Technologies, Zurich, Switzerland) was used to calculate BP<sub>ND</sub>.

#### 2.4. Statistics

Statistical analysis concerning the difference of  $BP_{ND}$  for each ROI between patients and controls was performed by two-tailed t-test. Correlations between  $BP_{ND}$  of patients with schizophrenia and age, duration of illness, and PANSS scores were evaluated using Pearson's correlation coefficient. In all analyses, P < 0.05 was considered significant.

## 3. Results

The  $BP_{ND}$  values of control subjects and patients with schizophrenia are shown in Table 2. The  $BP_{ND}$  value in the thalamus was significant higher in patients with schizophrenia than in con-

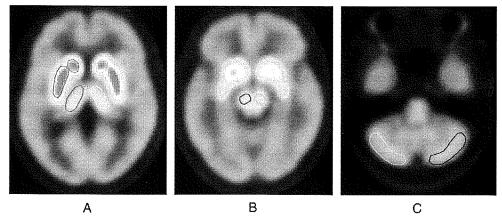


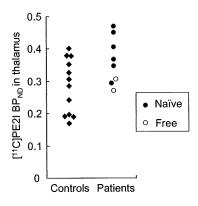
Fig. 1. Summated images of [11C]PE2I with regions of interest. Average normalized images of twelve control subjects are shown at the level of caudate, putamen and thalamus (A), substantia nigra (B) and cerebellum (C).

Table 2 BP<sub>ND</sub> in all regions.

	BP <sub>ND</sub> <sup>a</sup>		t-test
Region	Controls	Patients	% Change <sup>b</sup> Effect size t P
Caudate	7.54 ± 1.22	8.21 ± 1.38	8.9 ± 18.4 (-6.5-24.2)% 0.55 1.14 0.27
Putamen	7.54 ± 1.25	8.23 ± 0.71	9.2 ± 9.4 (1.3–17.0)% 0.55 1.41 0.18
Thalamus	0.28 ± 0.08	0.36 ± 0.07	27.9 ± 25.8 (6.3–49.5)% 1.0 2.16 0.044*
Substantia nigra	1.09 ± 0.16	1.13 ± 0.12	4.1 ± 11.3 (-5.3-13.6)% 0.25 0.66 0.52

a Values are mean ± SD.

P < 0.05.

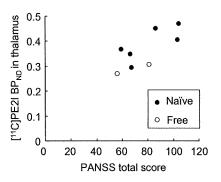


**Fig. 2.** BP<sub>ND</sub> in the thalamus of normal controls and patients with schizophrenia. BP<sub>ND</sub> of patients with schizophrenia was significantly higher than that of the control group (df = 18, t = 2.16, P = 0.044).

trols (df = 18, t = 2.16, P = 0.044) (Table 2, Fig. 2). There were no significant differences in BP<sub>ND</sub> between the two groups in the caudate, putamen or substantia nigra. In patients with schizophrenia, there were significant positive correlations between BP<sub>ND</sub> in the thalamus and total PANSS score (r = 0.75, P = 0.032), positive (r = 0.78, P = 0.023) and negative PANSS scores (r = 0.82, P = 0.014), but no correlation was observed with the general PANSS score (Table 3, Fig. 3). There was no significant correlation between BP<sub>ND</sub> in other regions and clinical symptoms. There was also no significant correlation between BP<sub>ND</sub> in each region and age or duration of illness.

#### 4. Discussion

The *in vivo* evaluation of thalamic DAT had not been previously performed in detail due to its very low density as compared to that in the striatum (Hall et al., 1999). [ $^{11}$ C]PE2I allows the estimation of specific binding in low density regions because of its high affinity and selectivity for DAT (Halldin et al., 2003; Hirvonen et al., 2008; Jucaite et al., 2006). In this study, BP<sub>ND</sub> in the thalamus of patients with schizophrenia was significantly higher than that of control subjects and was positively correlated with clinical symptoms. There was no significant difference in the area under the time activity curves of the cerebellum between controls and the patient group (two-tailed *t*-test; P = 0.37), suggesting that the higher DAT



**Fig. 3.** Relationship between BP<sub>ND</sub> in the thalamus of patients with schizophrenia and total PANSS score. There were significantly positive correlations between BP<sub>ND</sub> and total PANSS score (r = 0.75, P = 0.032).

bindings were not due to cerebellar difference. An effect of endogenous dopamine on [\$^{11}\$C]PE2I binding has not been reported. However, as [\$^{11}\$C]PE2I is a high-affinity radioligand ( $K_i$  = 17 nM), it is reasonable to expect such an effect based on the result from a high-affinity ralioligand for serotonin transporter, [\$^{11}\$C]DASB ( $K_i$  = 1.1 nM) (Wilson et al., 2000). [ $^{11}$ C]DASB binding did not change by manipulation of endogenous serotonin in human brain (Praschak-Rieder et al., 2005; Talbot et al., 2005). Although these results may not apply directly to [ $^{11}$ C]PE2I binding, high [ $^{11}$ C]PE2I binding can nevertheless be interpreted as high DAT density.

The thalamus has been considered as the key brain structure of processing or integrating sensory information related to emotional or cognitive functions (Clinton and Meador-Woodruff, 2004). Several studies have reported morphological abnormalities of the thalamus in patients with schizophrenia using MR imaging or postmortem studies (Clinton and Meador-Woodruff, 2004). Regarding dopaminergic transmission, increased dopamine concentrations in the thalamus of patients with schizophrenia were reported in a postmortem study (Oke and Adams, 1987). The distribution of dopaminergic innervation in the thalamus was reported recently using immunohistochemistry in monkey (Melchitzky and Lewis, 2001) and human brain (Garcia-Cabezas et al., 2007). These studies reported that thalamic dopamine or DAT was relatively higher in the midline and mediodorsal nuclei. In patients

**Table 3**Correlation between regional BP<sub>ND</sub> and PANSS scores.

	Total		Positive		Negative		General	
Region	r	P	r	P	r	P	r	P
Caudate	-0.04	0.93	0.03	0,95	0,10	0.81	-0.14	0.74
Putamen	-0.44	0.28	-0.42	0,31	-0.03	0.93	-0.55	0.15
Thalamus	0.75	0.032*	0.78	0.023	0.82	0.014	0.47	0.24
Substantia nigra	0.04	0.93	0.26	0.53	0.03	0.94	-0.07	0.86

<sup>•</sup> P < 0.05.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup> Values are mean ± SD and 95% confidence interval.

with schizophrenia, lower dopamine D2 receptor binding was observed in the thalamus using PET with [11C]FLB457 (Buchsbaum et al., 2006; Talvik et al., 2003; Yasuno et al., 2004) and [11C]raclopride (Talvik et al., 2006). Significant differences in calcyon and spinophilin, dopamine receptor-associated intracellular proteins, and no difference in vesicular monoamine transporter (VMAT) binding of the thalamus were reported in a postmortem study of patients with schizophrenia and controls (Clinton et al., 2005). Assuming that low dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptor binding is related to the disruption of the feedback system of dopamine release mediated by GABA interneuron (Takahashi et al., 2006), a high turnover of dopamine at the synapse would exist as a hyper-dopaminergic state. Although the function of DAT in the thalamus has remained unclear, high DAT bindings may suggest a hyper-dopaminergic state of pre-synaptic dopamine function in patients with schizophrenia.

Most of the previous PET and SPECT studies reported that DAT binding in the striatum did not differ between subjects and patients with schizophrenia (Hsiao et al., 2003; Laakso et al., 2000; Laruelle et al., 2000; Lavalaye et al., 2001; Schmitt et al., 2005, 2006, 2008; Yang et al., 2004), and our present results were in line with these reports. DAT binding in the substantia nigra also showed no difference between control subjects and patients with schizophrenia. However, BP<sub>ND</sub> in the striatum using SRTM can be underestimated as compared to the values by kinetic model analyses with arterial blood sampling (Hirvonen et al., 2008; Jucaite et al., 2006). This might affect the results in the striatum.

In this study, the number of subjects was small, and in the statistical analysis we did not perform multiple comparisons regarding group differences of  $BP_{ND}$  between patients and controls to avoid type II error. Moreover, two of the eight patients were in a drug-free state, not drug-naïve state. Nonetheless, even when the two drug-free patients were excluded, the group difference of  $BP_{ND}$  in the thalamus was still observed (two-tailed t-test; P = 0.018). Further study with larger numbers of subjects in a drug-naïve state will be needed.

In conclusion, [11C]PE2I binding in the thalamus of patients with schizophrenia was significantly higher than in control subjects and was correlated with clinical symptoms. Altered DAT in the thalamus might be related to the pathophysiology and clinical symptoms of schizophrenia.

#### **Conflict of interest**

All authors have no conflicts of interest.

### **Contributors**

R. Arakawa, T. Ichimiya, A. Takano, F. Yasuno, and T. Suhara designed the study and wrote the protocol. R. Arakawa, T. Ichimiya, A. Takano, M. Okumura, H. Takahashi, H. Takano, F. Yasuno, M. Kato, and Y. Okubo recruited the patients and made psychiatric evaluations. R. Arakawa, H. Ito, M. Okumura, H. Takahashi, and H. Takano participated in the data analysis. R. Arakawa wrote the first draft of the manuscript. R. Arakawa, H. Ito, H. Takahashi, H. Takano, M. Kato, Y. Okubo, and T. Suhara had discussions and corrected the manuscript. All authors contributed to and have approved the final manuscript.

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# No regional difference in dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptor occupancy by the second-generation antipsychotic drug risperidone in humans: a positron emission tomography study



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#### Abstract

The effects of antipsychotic drugs have generally been considered to be mediated by blockade of dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptors. The concept of limbic and cortical selectivity of second-generation antipsychotics, i.e. higher dopamine D2 receptor occupancy in the cerebral cortices than in the striatum, has been suggested to explain their clinical efficacy with lower incidence of extrapyramidal side-effects. In this study, regional distribution of dopamine D2 receptor occupancy by risperidone was determined in order to elucidate the limbic and cortical selectivity of second-generation antipsychotics. Striatal and extrastriatal dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptor binding at baseline and after oral administration of 2 mg risperidone were measured in ten healthy men by positron emission tomography (PET) using different tracers with different affinity for the receptors, [11C]raclopride and [11C]FLB 457, respectively. Striatal and extrastriatal occupancies of dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptors were calculated for each brain region. Occupancies of dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptors were about 70% and 60% in the striatum and extrastriatum, respectively. A simulation study showed that nonnegligible specific binding in the reference region (cerebellum), could cause systemic underestimation of occupancy in [11C]FLB 457 PET studies, indicating that occupancies in both the striatum and extrastriatum may not have differed. Among the extrastriatal regions including limbic and neocortical regions, no significant regional differences in dopamine  $D_2$  receptor occupancy were observed. Thus, limbic and cortical selectivity was not observed by one of the second-generation antipsychotics, risperidone.

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Key words: Antipsychotics, dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptor, occupancy, PET, risperidone.

#### Introduction

The effects of antipsychotic drugs have been widely considered to be mediated by blockade of dopamine  $D_2$  receptors (Carlsson and Lindqvist, 1963; Creese et al., 1976; Seeman et al., 1976). This hypothesis has been supported by positron emission tomography (PET) studies to determine dopamine  $D_2$  receptor occupancy in patients with schizophrenia treated

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with typical antipsychotics, so-called first-generation antipsychotics, e.g. haloperidol (Baron et al., 1989; Farde et al., 1988). Atypical antipsychotics, so-called second-generation antipsychotics, e.g. clozapine, risperidone, and olanzapine, which show lower risk of drug-induced extrapyramidal side-effects than first-generation antipsychotics (Gerlach, 1991; Meltzer et al., 1989), have been broadly used in the treatment of schizophrenia in recent years. To explain the clinical properties of second-generation antipsychotics, several hypotheses have been proposed. Blockade of neuroreceptors other than dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptors, in particular 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> receptors, has been suggested to reduce extrapyramidal side-effects (Balsara et al., 1979; Hicks, 1990; Korsgaard et al., 1985). Fast dissociation

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from dopamine  $D_2$  receptors has been suggested to explain the lower incidence of extrapyramidal side-effects in some second-generation antipsychotics (Kapur and Seeman, 2001). The concept of limbic and cortical selectivity of second-generation antipsychotics, i.e. higher dopamine  $D_2$  receptor occupancy in the cerebral cortices than in the striatum, has also been suggested to explain their clinical efficacy with few extrapyramidal side-effects (Pilowsky et al., 1997).

Limbic and cortical selectivity was originally observed in dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptor occupancy by clozapine in patients with schizophrenia using [123] epidepride (Pilowsky et al., 1997), [76Br]FLB 457 (Xiberas et al., 2001) and [18F]fallypride (Grunder et al., 2006; Kessler et al., 2006). Limbic and cortical selectivity was also reported in other second-generation antipsychotics, e.g. risperidone using [76Br]FLB 457 (Xiberas et al., 2001) and [123I]epidepride (Bressan et al., 2003), olanzapine using [76Br]FLB 457 (Xiberas et al., 2001), and quetiapine using [18F]fallypride (Kessler et al., 2006) in patients with schizophrenia. On the other hand, no differences in occupancy of dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptors between the cerebral cortices and striatum were observed in patients with schizophrenia taking clozapine (Talvik et al., 2001) or 9-hydroxyrisperidone (paliperidone) (Arakawa et al., 2008). In those studies, binding to receptors in striatal and extrastriatal regions, in which densities of dopamine D2 receptors were quite different (Hall et al., 1994), were determined by [11C]raclopride and [11C]FLB 457, respectively. In addition, limbic and cortical selectivity was not supported using [18F]fallypride with olanzapine in patients with schizophrenia (Kessler et al., 2005) and with clozapine and risperidone in animals (Mukherjee et al., 2001). However, in most studies concerning the regional selectivity of dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptor occupancy in patients with schizophrenia, baseline binding to receptors for the calculation of occupancy were binding of other healthy subjects, not the binding of the neuroleptic naive state of the same patients.

In the present study, to elucidate the regional difference in dopamine  $D_2$  receptor occupancy by second-generation antipsychotics, regional occupancy by risperidone was determined in healthy human subjects. Striatal and extrastriatal dopamine  $D_2$  receptor binding at baseline and after oral administration of drug were measured in the same subjects by PET. Because dopamine  $D_2$  receptor density is quite different between the striatal and extrastriatal regions (Hall et al., 1994, 1996), striatal and extrastriatal dopamine  $D_2$  receptor binding were measured by different

tracers with different affinity for the receptors, [11C]raclopride and [11C]FLB 457, respectively (Farde et al., 1995; Suhara et al., 1999).

#### Materials and methods

#### Subjects

The study was approved by the Ethics and Radiation Safety Committees of the National Institute of Radiological Sciences, Chiba, Japan. Ten healthy men  $[20–37~\rm yr, 26.9\pm5.6~\rm (mean\pm s.p.)]$  were recruited and written informed consent was obtained. The subjects were free of somatic, neurological or psychiatric disorders on the basis of their medical history and magnetic resonance (MR) imaging of the brain. They had no history of current or previous drug abuse.

#### PET procedures

All PET studies were performed with a Siemens ECAT Exact HR+ system, which provides 63 sections with an axial field of view of 15.5 cm (Brix et al., 1997). The intrinsic spatial resolution was 4.3 mm in-plane and 4.2 mm full-width at half maximum (FWHM) axially. With a Hanning filter (cut-off frequency: 0.4 cycle/pixel), the reconstructed in-plane resolution was 7.5 mm FWHM. Data were acquired in three-dimensional mode. Scatter was corrected (Watson et al., 1996). A 10-min transmission scan using a <sup>68</sup>Ge-<sup>68</sup>Ga line source was performed for correction of attenuation. A head fixation device with thermoplastic attachments for individual fit minimized head movement during PET measurements.

PET studies were performed under resting condition (baseline study) and oral administration of risperidone (drug challenge study) on separate days. The interval between the two studies was 7 d in six subjects, 21 d in two subjects, 28 d in one subject, and 4 months in one subject. In each study, both PET scans with [11C]raclopride and [11C]FLB 457 were performed sequentially. After intravenous rapid bolus injection of [11C]raclopride dynamic PET scanning was performed for 60 min. One hour after the end of [11C]raclopride PET measurement, dynamic PET scanning was performed for 90 min after intravenous rapid bolus injection of [11C]FLB 457. The frame sequence consisted of twelve 20-s frames, sixteen 1-min frames, and ten 4-min frames for [11C]raclopride, and nine 20-s frames, five 1-min frames, four 2-min frames, eleven 4-min frames, and six 5-min frames for [11C]FLB 457. The radioactivity injected was 190-238 MBq and 195-263 MBq in baseline studies, and 187-233 MBq and 188-234 MBq in drug challenge studies for [11C]raclopride

and [ $^{11}$ C]FLB 457, respectively. The specific radioactivity was 114–297 GBq/ $\mu$ mol and 149–GBq/ $\mu$ mol in baseline studies, and 86–241 GBq/ $\mu$ mol and 141–230 GBq/ $\mu$ mol in drug challenge studies for [ $^{11}$ C]raclopride and [ $^{11}$ C]FLB 457, respectively. The injected mass of raclopride and FLB 457 was 0.74–1.82 nmol and 0.87–1.37 nmol in baseline studies, and 0.87–2.66 nmol and 0.98–1.61 nmol in drug challenge studies, respectively.

In the drug challenge study, 2 mg risperidone was orally administered at 2 h before the start of PET scanning with [11C]raclopride. To estimate the plasma concentration of risperidone and its active metabolite (9-hydroxy-risperidone), venous blood samplings were performed at the start and end of each PET scanning. The plasma concentrations of risperidone and 9-hydroxy-risperidone were determined by a validated liquid chromatography coupled to mass spectrometry/mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) method. Since risperidone and 9-hydroxy-risperidone have similar binding profiles to neuroreceptors (Leysen et al., 1994), the sum of their plasma concentrations was used as the plasma concentration of antipsychotic drug in the present study.

All MR imaging studies were performed with a 1.5-T MR scanner (Philips Medical Systems, Best, The Netherlands). Three-dimensional volumetric acquisition of a  $T_1$ -weighted gradient echo sequence produced a gapless series of thin transverse sections (TE 9.2 ms; TR 21 ms; flip angle 30°; field of view 256 mm; acquisition matrix 256 × 256; slice thickness 1 mm).

# Regions of interest (ROIs)

The MR images were co-registered to each of summation images of all frames of dynamic PET scans for a subject with the statistical parametric mapping (SPM2) system (Friston et al., 1990). ROIs were drawn on co-registered MR images and transferred to the PET images. ROIs were defined for the cerebellar cortex, midbrain, thalamus, caudate head, putamen, parahippocampal gyrus including amygdala, anterior part of the cingulate gyrus, frontal cortex, temporal cortex, and parietal cortex. Each ROI was drawn in three adjacent sections and data were pooled to obtain the average radioactivity concentration for the whole volume of interest. To obtain regional time–activity curves, regional radioactivity was calculated for each frame, corrected for decay, and plotted vs. time.

# Calculation of dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptor occupancy

For both PET studies with [\frac{11}{2}C]raclopride and [\frac{11}{2}C]FLB 457, the binding potential (BP<sub>ND</sub>) was

calculated by the reference tissue model method (Lammertsma et al., 1996; Lammertsma and Hume, 1996). With this method, the time-activity curve in the brain region is described by that in the reference region with no specific binding, assuming that both regions have the same level of non-displaceable radioligand binding:

$$C_{i}(t) = R_{I}C_{r}(t) + \{k_{2} - R_{I}k_{2}/(1 + BP_{ND})\}$$

$$\times C_{r}(t) \otimes \exp\{-k_{2}t/(1 + BP_{ND})\},$$
(1)

where  $C_i$  is the radioactivity concentration in a brain region,  $C_r(t)$  is the radioactivity concentration in the reference region,  $R_I$  is the ratio of  $K_1/K_1'$  ( $K_1$ , influx rate constant for the brain region;  $K_1'$ , influx rate constant for the reference region),  $k_2$  is the efflux rate constant for the brain region, and  $\otimes$  denotes the convolution integral. In this analysis, three parameters (BP<sub>ND</sub>,  $R_I$ , and  $k_2$ ) were estimated by nonlinear least-squares curve fitting. The cerebellum was used as reference region. Dopamine  $D_2$  receptor occupancy by risperidone was calculated as follows:

Occupancy (%) =

$$100 \times (BP_{ND, baseline} - BP_{ND, drug})/BP_{ND, baseline}$$
 (2)

where  $BP_{ND,baseline}$  is  $BP_{ND}$  in the baseline study, and  $BP_{ND,drug}$  is  $BP_{ND}$  in the drug challenge study.

The relation between the plasma concentration of antipsychotic drug and dopamine  $D_2$  receptor occupancy can be expressed as follows (Kapur and Remington, 1996; Takano et al., 2004):

Occupancy (%) = 
$$100 \times C/(ED_{50} + C)$$
, (3)

where C is the sum of plasma concentrations of risperidone and 9-hydroxy-risperidone, and  $ED_{50}$  is the plasma concentration required to induce 50% occupancy.

#### Anatomic standardization

The analysis using ROI does not allow evaluation of data throughout the brain. For visualization of regional differences in dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptor occupancy, inter-subject averaging of occupancy images, which requires transformation of brain images of individual subjects into a standard brain shape and size in three dimensions (anatomical standardization), was performed (Fox et al., 1988). BP<sub>ND</sub> images of [<sup>11</sup>C]raclopride and [<sup>11</sup>C]FLB 457 were calculated on a voxel-by-voxel basis by the reference tissue model (Lammertsma et al., 1996; Lammertsma and Hume, 1996) with the basis function method (Gunn et al., 1997). Images of dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptor occupancy were also calculated on a voxel-by-voxel basis. All MR

images that were co-registered to the PET images were transformed into the standard brain size and shape by linear and nonlinear parameters with SPM2 (Friston et al., 1990). The brain templates used in SPM2 for the anatomical standardization were  $T_1$  templates for MR images. All PET images were also transformed into the standard brain size and shape by the use of same parameters as MR images. Thus, brain images of all subjects had the same anatomical format. Average images for BP<sub>ND</sub> and dopamine  $D_2$  receptor occupancy were calculated on a voxel-by-voxel basis.

#### Simulation study

Although specific [ $^{11}$ C]FLB 457 binding in the cerebellum was not supported statistically in previous studies (Olsson et al., 1999; Suhara et al., 1999), the BP<sub>ND</sub> value for the cerebellum has been reported to be small but not zero (Ito et al., 2001). It has recently been reported that a non-negligible density of dopamine  $D_2$  receptors in the cerebellum led to the underestimation of BP<sub>ND</sub> in a brain region as well as errors in dopamine  $D_2$  receptor occupancy in [ $^{11}$ C]FLB 457 PET studies (Asselin et al., 2007). To estimate such errors in the occupancy of receptors calculated by methods using data of the reference region, i.e. cerebellum, in a [ $^{11}$ C]FLB 457 PET study, a simulation study was performed.

For the baseline study, the total distribution volume  $V_{\rm T}$  in the reference region was calculated from the distribution volume for non-displaceable binding  $(V_{\rm ND})$  of 3 ml/ml and BP<sub>ND</sub> of 0.1–0.5 in five steps as  $V_{\rm T} = V_{\rm ND}(1+{\rm BP}_{\rm ND})$  (Ito et al., 2001).  $V_{\rm T}$  in the target region was also calculated with  $V_{\rm ND} = 3$  ml/ml and BP<sub>ND</sub> = 3.  $V_{\rm T}$  in the drug challenge study for both the target and reference regions was calculated with BP<sub>ND</sub> that was varied with occupancy of 0–100% and equal across regions. From the total distribution volume ratio (DVR) of the target region to the reference region, the estimated dopamine  $D_2$  receptor occupancy was calculated as follows:

Occupancy (%) = 
$$\frac{100 \times \{(DVR_{baseline} - 1) - (DVR_{drug} - 1)\}}{(DVR_{baseline} - 1)}$$
 (4)

These estimated occupancy values were compared with the assumed values which were occupancy values varied in the target brain region without consideration of specific binding in the cerebellum.

#### Results

Striatal and extrastriatal  $BP_{ND}$  values and dopamine  $D_2$  receptor occupancy are shown in Tables 1 and 2.

**Table 1.** Striatal binding potential ( $BP_{ND}$ ) values and dopamine  $D_2$  receptor occupancy in [ $^{11}C$ ]raclopride PET studies

	BP <sub>ND</sub>	Occupancy	
Region	Baseline	Drug challenge	(%)
Caudate head Putamen	$2.64 \pm 0.26$ $3.41 \pm 0.38$	$0.65 \pm 0.16$ $0.98 \pm 0.24$	76±4 71±4

Values are mean  $\pm$  s.d.

The ranges of dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptor occupancy are 71-76% and 56-60% for the striatum and extrastriatum without the midbrain, respectively. No druginduced extrapyramidal side-effects were observed in any of subjects. Although direct comparisons of dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptor occupancy between striatal and extrastriatal regions may not be appropriate due to systematic errors in occupancy for [11C]FLB 457 studies as mentioned below, dopamine D2 receptor occupancy in the caudate head was significantly higher than that in midbrain, thalamus, anterior cingulate, and parietal cortex after correction of multiple comparisons (p < 0.05). Dopamine  $D_2$  receptor occupancy in the putamen was significantly higher than that in the thalamus. No significant differences in the radioactivity injected, specific radioactivity, and injected mass were observed between baseline and drug challenge studies for both [11C]raclopride and [11C]FLB 457.

Average images of BP<sub>ND</sub> at baseline condition and after administration of risperidone, and dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptor occupancy for [<sup>11</sup>C]raclopride and [<sup>11</sup>C]FLB 457 are shown in Figures 1 and 2. The visualization of regional differences in dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptor occupancy throughout the brain was allowed by intersubject averaging of images. Among extrastriatal regions, no obvious regional differences in dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptor occupancy were observed. In the striatum, no obvious regional differences in occupancy were also observed.

The sum of the plasma concentrations of risperidone and 9-hydroxy-risperidone during [ $^{11}$ C]raclopride and [ $^{11}$ C]FLB 457 PET studies, averaged between the start and end of each scanning, was 17.5 $\pm$ 5.2 ng/ml and 14.5 $\pm$ 4.2 ng/ml (mean $\pm$ s.D.), respectively. The ED<sub>50</sub> values were 5.1–6.4 ng/ml for the striatum and 9.0–10.9 ng/ml for the cerebral cortical regions.

Relation between the assumed and estimated dopamine  $D_2$  receptor occupancy for [ $^{11}$ C]FLB 457 in simulation studies is shown in Figure 3. Systematic

Table 2. Extrastriatal binding potential ( $BP_{ND}$ ) values and dopamine  $D_2$  receptor occupancy in [ $^{11}C$ ]FLB 457 PET studies

	$BP_{ND}$	Occupancy	
Region	Baseline	seline Drug challenge	
Midbrain	$1.57 \pm 0.46$	$0.82 \pm 0.21$	$44 \pm 20$
Thalamus	$3.40 \pm 0.37$	$1.41\pm0.17$	$58 \pm 5$
Parahippocampal gyrus	$2.52 \pm 0.88$	$1.00 \pm 0.20$	$57 \pm 14$
Anterior cingulate	$1.27 \pm 0.12$	$0.51 \pm 0.09$	59±9
Frontal cortex	$1.11 \pm 0.23$	$0.46 \pm 0.09$	$58 \pm 11$
Temporal cortex	$1.95 \pm 0.39$	$0.76 \pm 0.18$	$60 \pm 8$
Parietal cortex	$1.32\pm0.42$	$0.57 \pm 0.17$	56±9

Values are mean  $\pm$  s.d.

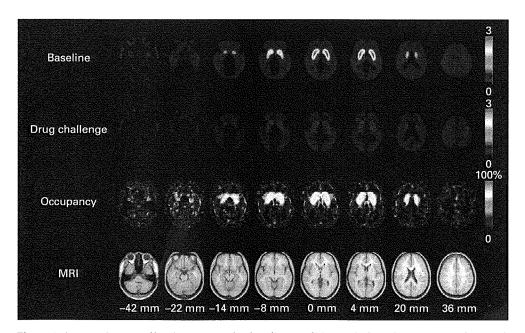


Figure 1. Average images of binding potential at baseline condition and after administration of risperidone, dopamine  $D_2$  receptor occupancy for [ $^{11}$ C]raclopride, and  $T_1$ -weighted images. In the striatum, no obvious regional differences in dopamine  $D_2$  receptor occupancy were observed.

underestimation in estimated occupancy was caused by specific binding in the reference region.

#### Discussion

The concept of limbic and cortical selectivity of second-generation antipsychotics, namely, higher dopamine  $D_2$  receptor occupancy in the cerebral cortices than in the striatum, has been suggested (Pilowsky et al., 1997), and limbic and cortical selectivity was reported in risperidone using [76Br]FLB 457 (Xiberas et al., 2001) and [123I]epidepride (Bressan et al., 2003).

In the present study, dopamine  $D_2$  receptor occupancy in the striatum was higher than that in the cerebral cortices. The ED $_{50}$  values were also lower in the striatum than in the cerebral cortices corresponding with previous reports that ED $_{50}$  of risperidone was 6.87 ng/ml in the striatum (Nyberg et al., 1999) and 7.43 ng/ml in the cerebral cortices (Yasuno et al., 2001) measured using [ $^{11}$ C]raclopride and [ $^{11}$ C]FLB 457, respectively. A simulation study showed that non-negligible specific binding in the cerebellum could cause an underestimation of 8% in dopamine  $D_2$  receptor occupancy measured by [ $^{11}$ C]FLB 457 PET when BP $_{ND}$  in the

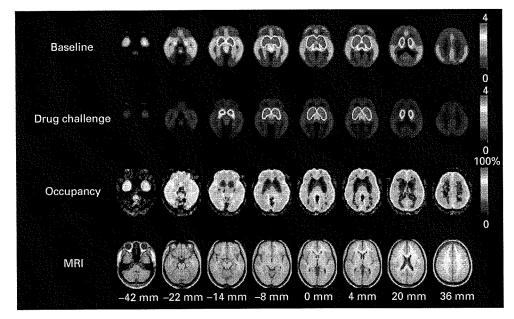


Figure 2. Average images of binding potential at baseline condition and after administration of risperidone, dopamine  $D_2$  receptor occupancy for [ $^{11}$ C]FLB 457, and  $T_1$ -weighted images. Among extrastriatal regions, no obvious regional differences in dopamine  $D_2$  receptor occupancy were observed.

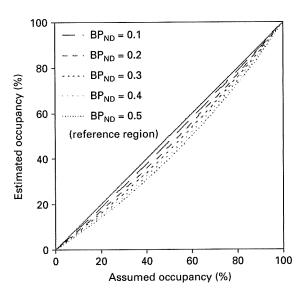


Figure 3. Relation between the assumed and estimated occupancies of dopamine  $D_2$  receptors for [ $^{11}$ C]FLB 457 in simulation studies. Binding potential (BP $_{ND}$ ) in the reference region was varied from 0.1 to 0.5. Systematic underestimation in estimated occupancy was caused by specific binding in the reference region.

cerebellum was 0.3 (Ito et al., 2001) and assumed occupancy was 70%. This indicates that the occupancies of dopamine  $D_2$  receptors in both the striatum and extrastriatum may not have differed. In the present

study, [11C]FLB 457 PET studies were begun 2 h after the start of [11C]raclopride PET studies, and therefore, the sum of the plasma concentrations of risperidone and 9-hydroxy-risperidone was slightly lower during [ $^{11}$ C]FLB 457 studies (14.5  $\pm$  4.2 ng/ml) than during [ $^{11}$ C]raclopride studies (17.5  $\pm$  5.2 ng/ml). When ED<sub>50</sub> is 6 ng/ml, 17.5 and 14.5 ng/ml of the sum of plasma concentrations of risperidone and 9-hydroxyrisperidone reveal 74% and 71% of dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptor occupancy, respectively [eqn (3)]. This might be able to partially explain higher dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptor occupancy in the [11C]raclopride studies than in the [11C]FLB 457 studies. In addition, it has been reported that the half-life of the sum of plasma concentrations of risperidone and 9-hydroxy-risperidone was about 18 h, and that high dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptor occupancy was sustained (Takano et al., 2004), indicating that the effects of differences in plasma concentrations of risperidone and 9-hydroxy-risperidone between [11C]raclopride and [11C]FLB 457 studies on the occupancies of dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptors might be very small.

Several mechanisms for the limbic and cortical selectivity in dopamine  $D_2$  receptor occupancy by the second-generation antipsychotic risperidone have been proposed (Bressan et al., 2003). One possible mechanism was that risperidone also bound to dopamine  $D_3$  receptors (Arnt and Skarsfeldt, 1998), which were highly expressed in limbic regions (Joyce, 2001).

However, the occupancies of dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptors by risperidone in both the striatum and extrastriatum may not have differed in the present study. Because dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptor density is quite different between the striatal and extrastriatal regions (Hall et al., 1994, 1996), it should be appropriate to determine striatal and extrastriatal binding by different tracers with different affinity for receptors whereas both striatal and extrastriatal binding were determined by same tracer in previous reports supporting limbic and cortical selectivity of risperidone (Bressan et al., 2003; Xiberas et al., 2001). The dissociation constant  $K_{D}$ , indicating affinity for receptors in the living human brain was quite different between [11C]raclopride and [11C]FLB 457, i.e. about 10 nm with the former (Farde et al., 1995) and 1 nm with the latter (Suhara et al., 1999). Talvik and colleagues stated that a simple ratio approach using a high-affinity radioligand such as [123I]epidepride without validation of equilibrium conditions might yield an underestimation of D2 receptor occupancy in the striatum in comparison with the D<sub>2</sub> receptor occupancy in the extrastriatal regions (Talvik et al., 2001). Although non-negligible specific binding in the cerebellum and differences in plasma concentrations of risperidone and 9-hydroxyrisperidone between studies cause systematic errors in occupancy, the use of two tracers with different affinities, [11C]raclopride and [11C]FLB 457, must be superior compared with the use of one tracer to determine the occupancy in both the striatum and extrastriatum. Erlandsson et al. (2003) reported that too short a data acquisition time in [11C]FLB 457 PET studies could cause an underestimation of occupancy in extrastriatal regions. However, the accuracy of estimation of extrastriatal BPND and occupancy in [11C]FLB 457 studies with a data acquisition time of over 60 min was confirmed (Ito et al., 2001; Olsson and Farde, 2001; Olsson et al., 1999; Sudo et al., 2001). The accuracy of estimation of striatal BP<sub>ND</sub> using [11C]raclopride was also confirmed (Ito et al., 1998; Lammertsma et al., 1996). Although direct comparisons of dopamine D2 receptor occupancy between striatal and extrastriatal regions determined by different tracers may not be appropriate due to systematic errors in occupancy for [11C]FLB 457 studies as mentioned above (Kessler and Meltzer, 2002), limbic and cortical selectivity of risperidone was not supported in the present study with healthy subjects.

Among extrastriatal regions including limbic and neocortical regions, no significant regional differences in dopamine  $D_2$  receptor occupancy by risperidone were observed. In the striatum, no obvious regional differences in occupancy were also observed.

Although the density of dopamine  $D_2$  receptors varies in these regions (Ito et al., 2008), dopamine  $D_2$  receptor occupancy by antipsychotics is independent of receptor density. These data indicate that the concentrations of risperidone and 9-hydroxy-risperidone in tissue may be uniform throughout the brain. If the dissociation constant of antipsychotic drug to dopamine  $D_2$  receptors would regionally change in patients, the occupancy by antipsychotic drug would be regionally changed. However, to our knowledge, there are no reports about regional changes in dissociation constant of antipsychotic drugs in patients.

Second-generation antipsychotics have been suggested to have clinical efficacy with few extrapyramidal side-effects compared with first-generation antipsychotics (Balsara et al., 1979; Hicks, 1990; Kapur and Seeman, 2001; Korsgaard et al., 1985; Pilowsky et al., 1997). However, a recent randomized controlled trial has shown no differences in the effects on the quality of life between first- and second-generation antipsychotics (Jones et al., 2006). For antipsychotic therapy with less extrapyramidal side-effects, the determination of adequate clinical dosage of antipsychotics by measuring dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptor occupancy using PET may be important whether for first- or second-generation antipsychotics (Farde et al., 1992; Takano et al., 2006).

In conclusion, striatal and extrastriatal occupancies of dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptors after oral administration of a second-generation antipsychotic drug, risperidone, were measured in healthy subjects by PET with ["C]raclopride and ["C]FLB 457, respectively. Higher dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptor occupancy in the cerebral cortices than in the striatum was not observed, and the concept of limbic and cortical selectivity of the second-generation antipsychotic drug risperidone was not supported in the present study.

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#### Statement of Interest

None.

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#### ORIGINAL PAPER

# Extrastriatal dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptor occupancy in olanzapine-treated patients with schizophrenia

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Abstract Olanzapine is described as a multi-acting receptor-targeted antipsychotic agent. Although regional differences of dopamine D2 receptor occupancy, i.e., limbic selectivity, were reported for olanzapine, contradictory results were also reported. We measured dopamine D2 receptor occupancy of olanzapine in extrastriatal regions in patients with schizophrenia using positron-emission tomography with [11C]FLB457 and the plasma concentrations of olanzapine. Ten patients with schizophrenia taking 5-20 mg/day of olanzapine participated. Dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptor occupancy in the temporal cortex ranged from 61.1 to 85.8%, and plasma concentration was from 12.7 to 115.4 ng/ml. The ED<sub>50</sub> value was 3.4 mg/day for dose and 10.5 ng/ml for plasma concentration. The ED<sub>50</sub> values obtained in this study were quite similar to those previously reported in the striatum. In conclusion, although the subjects and methods were different from previous striatal occupancy studies, these results suggest that limbic occupancy by olanzapine may not be so different from that in the striatum.

 $\begin{array}{lll} \textbf{Keywords} & \text{Dopamine } D_2 \text{ receptor occupancy} \\ \text{Extrastriatum} & \cdot \text{Olanzapine} & \cdot \text{Positron-emission} \\ \text{tomography} & \cdot \text{Schizophrenia} \\ \end{array}$ 

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#### Introduction

Olanzapine is a second-generation antipsychotic drug that is widely used in the treatment of schizophrenia [7]. Most second-generation antipsychotic drugs, such as clozapine, risperidone, olanzapine and quetiapine, have high affinity for several kinds of neuroreceptors in addition to dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptors [6]. Olanzapine has high affinity for dopamine  $D_2$  receptors (Ki = 11 nM) as well as for other receptors, i.e., serotonin 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> (4 nM), 5-HT<sub>2C</sub> (11 nM), muscarine  $m_1$ - $m_5$  (1.9-25 nM), adrenaline  $\alpha_1$  (19 nM) and histamine H<sub>1</sub> (7 nM) receptors [6]. The pharmacological profile is similar to that of clozapine, described as a multi-acting receptor-targeted antipsychotic agent. The difference in occupancy of dopamine D2 receptors with clozapine between striatal and extrastriatal regions has been reported as 'limbic selectivity' [23]. This feature was considered one of the reasons for the low risk of extrapyramidal symptoms and a possible effect for negative symptoms [23].

Some animal studies reported greater effects on dopamine  $D_2$  receptors by olanzapine in the extrastriatum than in the striatum [24, 27]. In human studies, higher occupancy in the temporal cortex than in the striatum was also reported for olanzapine [3, 34]. On the other hand, in another human study using olanzapine, no difference in dopamine  $D_2$  receptor occupancies between the striatum and extrastriatum was also reported [16]. In those studies, occupancies in the striatum and extrastriatum were measured from the same data, despite their quite different receptor densities [15].

In the present study, dopamine D<sub>2</sub> receptor occupancy in extrastriatal regions by olanzapine was measured in patients with schizophrenia using positron-emission tomography (PET) with [<sup>11</sup>C]FLB 457, an optimized

