

## ORIGINAL INVESTIGATION

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## Positive allosteric modulators of the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor: differential interaction of benzodiazepines and neuroactive steroids with ethanol

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**Abstract** Endogenous pregnane steroids, such as allopregnanolone (3 $\alpha$ -hydroxy-5 $\alpha$ -pregnan-20-one; 3 $\alpha$ , 5 $\alpha$ -P) and pregnanolone (3 $\alpha$ -hydroxy-5 $\beta$ -pregnan-20-one; 3 $\alpha$ ,5 $\beta$ -P), allosterically modulate GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor function and exhibit behavioral effects similar to benzodiazepines, though acting at a distinct recognition site. Inasmuch as some positive allosteric modulators of GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor function exhibit profound interactions with ethanol, the effects of 3 $\alpha$ ,5 $\alpha$ -P and 3 $\alpha$ ,5 $\beta$ -P were compared to those of two benzodiazepines, triazolam and diazepam, on the motor function of mice and rats when administered either alone or in combination with ethanol. All four test compounds exhibited dose-related impairment of motor function in the horizontal wire task in mice and the rotorod task in rats. Ethanol caused a marked enhancement of triazolam- and diazepam-induced motor impairment. In contrast, ethanol enhanced to a lesser extent the motor impairment induced by both neurosteroids in mice and not at all in rats. All four compounds increased ethanol-induced behavioral sleep time in mice, although the benzodiazepines did so at a much smaller fraction of their ataxic doses as compared to the neurosteroids. As one of the undesired side-effects of therapeutic use of benzodiazepines is their interaction with ethanol, development of neuroactive steroids as drugs may offer therapeutic advantages.

**Key words** Allopregnanolone · Pregnanolone · Neurosteroid · Neuroactive steroid · Motor behavior · Ethanol interaction · Benzodiazepine · Triazolam · Diazepam

### Introduction

Neuroactive steroids are positive modulators of the  $\gamma$ -aminobutyric acid<sub>A</sub> (GABA<sub>A</sub>) Cl<sup>-</sup> channel receptor complex (Paul and Purdy 1992; Gee et al. 1995) that selectively interact with a unique binding site on the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor complex to potentiate inhibitory neurotransmission in the central nervous system (CNS). The neuroactive steroids pregnanolone (3 $\alpha$ -hydroxy-5 $\beta$ -pregnan-20-one; 3 $\alpha$ ,5 $\beta$ -P) and allopregnanolone (3 $\alpha$ -hydroxy-5 $\alpha$ -pregnan-20-one; 3 $\alpha$ ,5 $\alpha$ -P) are endogenous metabolites of progesterone. In humans, progesterone is metabolically reduced to 3 $\alpha$ ,5 $\beta$ -P by 5 $\beta$ -reductase and to 3 $\alpha$ ,5 $\alpha$ -P by 5 $\alpha$ -reductase. Combined with the action of 3 $\alpha$ -oxidoreductase, this metabolic pathway causes the loss of genomic activity and gain of CNS receptor mediated activity.

Many behavioral effects of neuroactive steroids are attributed to positive modulation of GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors. Specifically, pregnanolone and allopregnanolone exhibit anticonvulsant, anxiolytic and sedative behavioral effects (Belelli et al. 1989; Bitran et al. 1991; Wieland et al. 1991, 1995; Zimmerberg et al. 1994). These effects are similar to those exhibited by other positive allosteric modulators of the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor complex such as benzodiazepines (Colpaert et al. 1976; Harvey 1985; Saano 1987). Further, benzodiazepines and neuroactive steroids have been demonstrated to share discriminative stimulus effects (Ator et al. 1993; Vanover 1997).

As an adverse side-effect, benzodiazepines have shown a great propensity for interaction with ethanol, producing marked decrements in psychomotor performance in both animals (Chan 1984; Hu et al. 1986; Barnhill et al. 1991) and humans (Sellers and Busto 1982; Chan 1984). Indeed, ethanol-induced motor impairment has been shown to be mediated via a GABAergic mechanism (Frye and Breese 1982; Liljequist and Engel 1982; Martz et al. 1983) and ethanol has been demonstrated to interact with the

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GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor complex at the molecular level (Ticku et al. 1983; Ticku 1989; Buck and Harris 1990a,b). Thus, it is reasonable to speculate that other GABAergic positive modulators might enhance the effects of ethanol similar to the enhancement observed with benzodiazepines. Indeed, 3 $\alpha$ ,5 $\beta$ -P has been shown to enhance motor impairment, hypothermia, and hypnosis induced by ethanol in mice (Melchoir and Allen 1992). Further, evidence suggests that the interaction between ethanol and neuroactive steroids is mediated via the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor (Majewska 1988). The purpose of the present study was to compare the magnitude of the interaction of neuroactive steroids and benzodiazepines with ethanol. The motor function of mice and rats treated with the neurosteroids, 3 $\alpha$ ,5 $\alpha$ -P or 3 $\alpha$ ,5 $\beta$ -P, or the benzodiazepines, triazolam or diazepam, was evaluated alone and in the presence of ethanol. In addition, the extent of potentiation of ethanol-induced behavioral sleep by the benzodiazepines and neuroactive steroids was evaluated.

## Materials and methods

### Animals

Naive male rats (Sprague-Dawley) weighing 200–225 g and naive male mice (NSA) weighing 20–25 g were obtained from Harlan Sprague-Dawley, Inc. (San Diego, Calif., USA). Animals were housed in polycarbonate cages (two rats per cage; four mice per cage) containing sterilized bedding material (Sani-Chips; P.J. Murray, Montville, N.J., USA) and were kept in a room maintained at 23.0°C ( $\pm$ 2.5°C) and on a 12 h:12 h light:dark cycle. Food (LM 485, Harlan Teklad, Orange, Calif., USA) and water were freely available. Animals were acclimated to housing conditions for a minimum of 4 days prior to experimentation. The "Principles of laboratory animal care" were followed in our AAALAC-accredited facilities for all experiments.

### Apparatus and procedure

The rotarod test used a custom-built apparatus that consisted of an elevated drum (7.62 cm diameter) of textured surface that rotated at a constant speed (8 rpm). The height of the drum from the floor of the test apparatus was approximately 30 cm. Prior to administration of test substance, rats were trained to walk continuously on the drum for a period of 90 s. During testing, rats were given three opportunities to remain on the apparatus continuously for 1 min. Remaining on the apparatus was scored as a pass. Test drugs and ethanol were administered 30 min prior to testing.

The horizontal wire test also used a custom-built apparatus that consisted of a metal wire (2 mm diameter) suspended horizontally above a padded surface (25 cm). After the appropriate pretreatment interval following drug administration, mice were held by the base of the tail, their forepaws placed in contact with the wire, and then released. Mice were required to bring at least one hindpaw in contact with the wire within 10 s in order to be scored as a pass. Test drugs and ethanol were administered 30 min prior to testing.

Loss-of-righting reflex (LRR) was evaluated in mice following administration of a hypnotic dose of ethanol (3.0 g/kg, IP). Once animals were unable to right themselves twice within 30 s when placed on their backs on the bench-top, the time was recorded and mice were observed until the ability to right returned, whereupon

the time was again noted. Righting was defined as two consecutive successful attempts within a 30-s period to stand on four paws when placed on their backs by the experimenter. Test drugs were administered concurrently with ethanol.

### Data analysis

Results from rotarod and horizontal wire assays were treated quantitatively. To determine whether ethanol enhanced the motor impairment of benzodiazepines and neuroactive steroids, dose-response functions ( $n = 15$ – $16$ /dose) of the benzodiazepines and neuroactive steroids were determined alone and in the presence of ethanol (1.0 g/kg for rats, 1.5 g/kg for mice). Each determination was based on two separate experiments ( $n = 7$ – $8$ /dose) conducted on different days and the results summed. A dose which caused behavioral toxicity in half the animals (toxic dose; TD<sub>50</sub>) was calculated based on the combined dose-response function by the method of Litchfield and Wilcoxon using PHARM/PCS version 4.2 software (Springer-Verlag, New York, USA). In addition, the 95% confidence intervals were calculated around each TD<sub>50</sub>.

In the loss-of-righting assay, the number of animals exhibiting LRR, as well as the induction time and duration of LRR for each animal, were recorded. For the animals exhibiting LRR, the durations were averaged and the SEM were calculated and graphed. The minimum dose of a drug that, in combination with ethanol, exceeded twice the vehicle mean duration of ethanol-induced LRR was considered to be the minimum effective dose (MED) for enhancement of ethanol-induced behavioral sleep time.

### Drugs

A vehicle of 50% hydroxypropyl- $\beta$ -cyclodextrin (in saline) was used to dissolve 3 $\alpha$ ,5 $\beta$ -P, synthesized by AKZO-Diosynth (Oss, The Netherlands), 3 $\alpha$ ,5 $\alpha$ -P, synthesized by CoCensys, Inc. (Irvine, Calif., USA), triazolam, generously supplied by Upjohn (Kalamazoo, Mich., USA), and diazepam, purchased from Sigma Chemical Company (St Louis, Mo., USA). Ethanol was purchased from Spectrum Chemical (Gardena, Calif., USA) and diluted with deionized water. All drugs were administered IP.

## Results

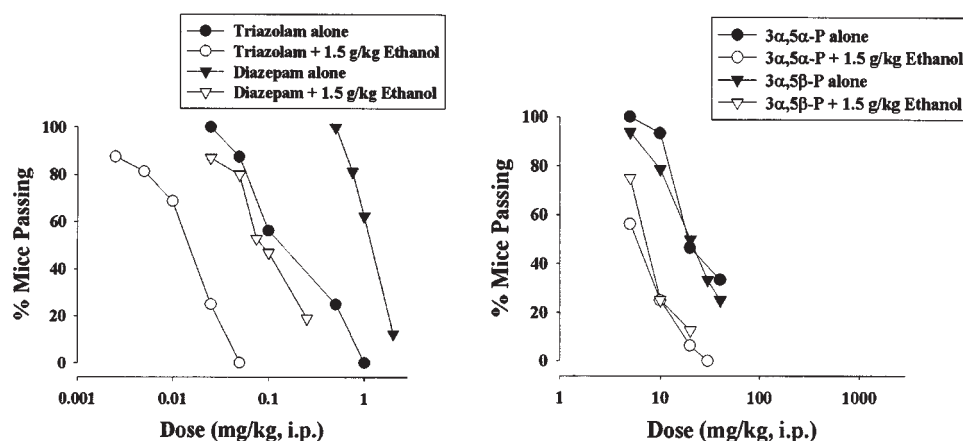
The dose-response functions of the neuroactive steroids and benzodiazepines, alone and in combination with ethanol, in mice are shown in Fig. 1. Mice treated with 3 $\alpha$ ,5 $\alpha$ -P and 3 $\alpha$ ,5 $\beta$ -P exhibited motor impairment in the horizontal wire assay with a TD<sub>50</sub> of 24.7 mg/kg (95% CI: 16.7–36.7) and 20.3 mg/kg (14.3–28.9), respectively. The neurosteroids administered in combination with 1.5 g/kg ethanol showed greater motor incoordination with a TD<sub>50</sub> of 5.8 mg/kg (3.9–8.5) for 3 $\alpha$ ,5 $\alpha$ -P and 7.7 mg/kg (5.0–11.9) for 3 $\alpha$ ,5 $\beta$ -P, resulting in an ethanol potentiation ratio (TD<sub>50</sub> alone/TD<sub>50</sub> + ethanol) of 4 for 3 $\alpha$ ,5 $\alpha$ -P and 3 for 3 $\alpha$ ,5 $\beta$ -P (Table 1). The benzodiazepines showed a similar, but even greater potentiation by ethanol (Table 1). Diazepam exhibited a TD<sub>50</sub> of 1.2 mg/kg (0.9–1.5) administered alone and 0.10 mg/kg (0.07–0.14) administered in combination with ethanol, resulting in an ethanol potentiation ratio of 12. Further, triazolam

**Table 1** Effects of neurosteroids and benzodiazepines in the horizontal wire assay in mice

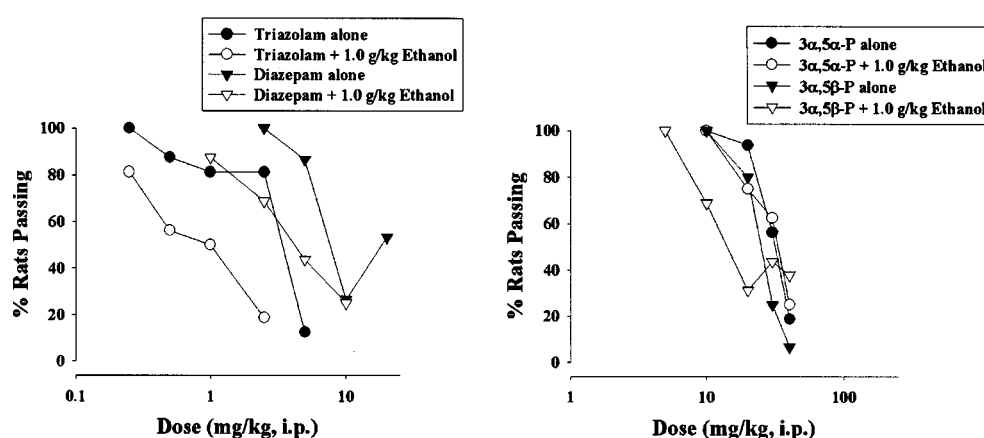
Drug	TD <sub>50</sub> <sup>a</sup> alone	TD <sub>50</sub> <sup>a</sup> + 1.5 g/kg ETOH	Ratio TD <sub>50</sub> alone/TD <sub>50</sub> + ETOH)
3 $\alpha$ ,5 $\alpha$ -P	24.7 (16.7–36.7)	5.8 (3.9–8.5)	4
3 $\alpha$ ,5 $\beta$ -P	20.3 (14.3–28.9)	7.7 (5.0–11.9)	3
Diazepam	1.2 (0.9–1.5)	0.10 (0.07–0.14)	12
Triazolam	0.21 (0.06–0.76)	0.01 (0.007–0.02)	21

<sup>a</sup>TD<sub>50</sub> expressed as mg/kg (95%CI)

**Fig. 1** Benzodiazepine- and neuroactive steroid-induced deficits alone and in combination with ethanol in the horizontal wire assay in mice. Percent mice passing is shown as a function of dose. Each point represents the data from 15–16 mice



**Fig. 2** Benzodiazepine- and neuroactive steroid-induced deficits alone and in combination with ethanol in the rotorod assay in rats. Percent rats passing is shown as a function of dose. Each point represents the data from 15–16 rats



exhibited a TD<sub>50</sub> of 0.21 mg/kg (0.06–0.76) administered alone and 0.01 mg/kg (0.007–0.02) administered in combination with ethanol, resulting in an ethanol potentiation ratio of 21.

Rats tested in the rotorod assay showed motor impairment by the neurosteroids and benzodiazepines similar to that observed in mice (Fig. 2). Administered alone, triazolam was the most potent, with a TD<sub>50</sub> of 3.3 mg/kg (1.9–5.5), followed by diazepam [TD<sub>50</sub> = 12.5 mg/kg (8.3–18.7)], 3 $\alpha$ ,5 $\beta$ -P [TD<sub>50</sub> = 23.3 mg/kg (17.2–31.6)], and 3 $\alpha$ ,5 $\alpha$ -P [TD<sub>50</sub> = 32.5 mg/kg (26.6–39.8)]. In combination with 1.0 g/kg ethanol, the TD<sub>50</sub> of triazolam was 0.8 mg/kg (0.5–1.3) and the TD<sub>50</sub> of diazepam was 4.4 mg/kg (2.7–7.1), resulting in ethanol potentiation ratios of 4 and 3, respectively (Table 2). In contrast, ethanol failed to

potentiate the motor impairment induced by 3 $\alpha$ ,5 $\alpha$ -P or 3 $\alpha$ ,5 $\beta$ -P in rats (Table 2). In combination with 1.0 g/kg ethanol, 3 $\alpha$ ,5 $\alpha$ -P resulted in a TD<sub>50</sub> of 33.0 mg/kg (25.7–42.7) and 3 $\alpha$ ,5 $\beta$ -P resulted in a TD<sub>50</sub> of 22.8 mg/kg (16.1–32.4).

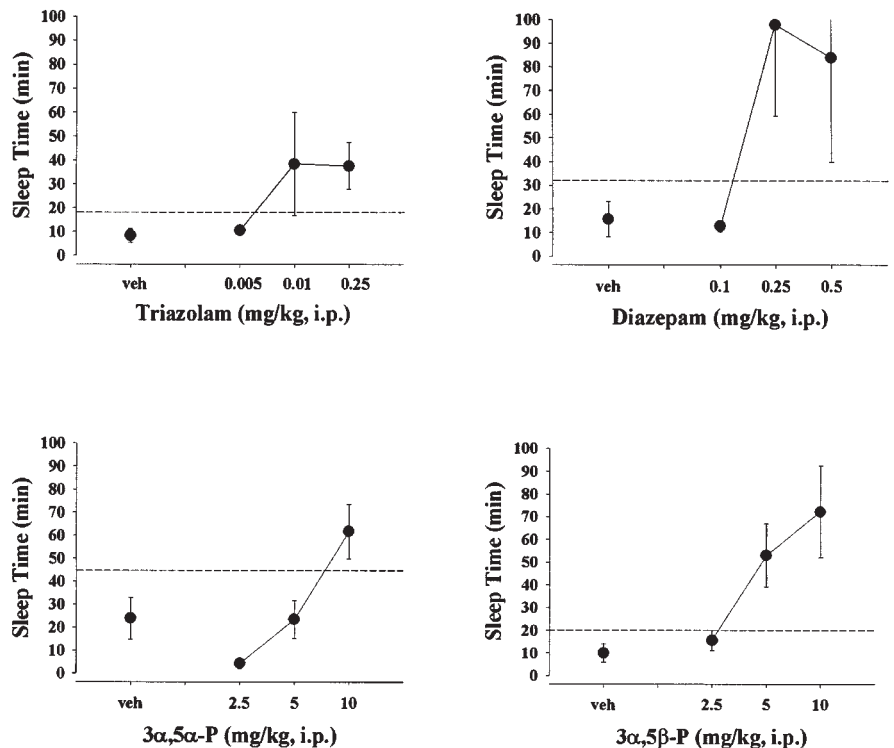
Ethanol (3.0 g/kg, IP, *n* = 9–10 mice/group) caused three to nine mice/group to lose the righting reflex (Fig. 3). For the mice exhibiting LRR, the mean duration of behavioral sleep ranged from 8.3 min ( $\pm$ 2.9, SEM) to 24.0 min ( $\pm$ 9.1) for the four vehicle control groups. The MED of triazolam (0.005–0.025 mg/kg, IP) to enhance ethanol-induced behavioral sleep was 0.01 mg/kg, IP. At this dose combination (0.01 mg/kg triazolam with 3.0 g/kg ethanol), six of nine mice slept for an average of 38.4 min ( $\pm$ 21.6). Diazepam (0.1–0.5 mg/kg, IP) enhanced ethanol with its MED

**Table 2** Effects of neurosteroids and benzodiazepines in the rotarod assay in rats

Drug	TD <sub>50</sub> <sup>a</sup> alone	TD <sub>50</sub> <sup>a</sup> + 1.0 g/kg ETOH	Ratio (TD <sub>50</sub> alone/TD <sub>50</sub> + ETOH)
3 $\alpha$ ,5 $\alpha$ -P	32.5 (26.6–39.8)	33.0 (25.7–42.7)	1
3 $\alpha$ ,5 $\beta$ -P	23.3 (17.2–31.6)	22.8 (16.1–32.4)	1
Diazepam	12.5 (8.3–18.7)	4.4 (2.7–7.1)	3
Triazolam	3.3 (1.9–5.5)	0.8 (0.5–1.3)	4

<sup>a</sup>TD<sub>50</sub> expressed as mg/kg (95% CI)

**Fig. 3** Potentiation of ethanol-induced loss-of-righting by benzodiazepines and neuroactive steroids in mice. Sleep time (min) is shown as a function of dose of benzodiazepine or neuroactive steroid in combination with 3 g/kg ethanol. Each point represents the mean from a group of three to nine mice. Standard errors of the mean are shown by the vertical lines. The horizontal dashed line represents the criterion for enhancement of ethanol-induced sleep time (i.e., twice the vehicle mean duration)



of 0.25 mg/kg causing five of ten mice to exhibit LRR for an average sleep time of 97.9 min ( $\pm$  38.65). The MEDs for 3 $\alpha$ ,5 $\alpha$ -P (2.5–10.0 mg/kg, IP) and 3 $\alpha$ ,5 $\beta$ -P (2.5–10.0 mg/kg, IP) to enhance ethanol-induced behavioral sleep were 10.0 mg/kg and 5.0 mg/kg, respectively. The dose of 10.0 mg/kg 3 $\alpha$ ,5 $\alpha$ -P together with 3.0 g/kg ethanol caused all nine mice injected to sleep an average of 61.8 min ( $\pm$  11.95), whereas 5.0 mg/kg 3 $\alpha$ ,5 $\beta$ -P with the ethanol caused nine of ten mice to sleep an average of 53.0 min ( $\pm$  13.9).

## Discussion

The present study confirms previous demonstrations of motor impairment induced by these neuroactive steroids and benzodiazepines in rodents (Facklam et al. 1992; Wieland et al. 1995). In both mice and rats, the benzodiazepines were more potent in motor impairment than the neuroactive steroids, triazolam being the most potent compound overall. The benzodiazepines appeared to be more potent in mice as compared to

rats, whereas the neuroactive steroids exhibited similar potency in both species.

As measured by the horizontal wire assay in the mice, motor impairment induced by all four allosteric positive modulators studied was enhanced by co-administration of ethanol. These results are consistent with reports in the literature of ethanol enhancement of benzodiazepine- and neuroactive steroid-induced motor impairment in rodents (Hu et al. 1986; Melchoir and Allen 1992). However, ethanol had a greater effect on the benzodiazepines than on the neuroactive steroids in this assay. The effects of triazolam on horizontal wire performance were enhanced to the largest degree, with more than a 20-fold difference between its TD<sub>50</sub>s in the presence and absence of ethanol. For diazepam alone, the TD<sub>50</sub> was 12 times that in the presence of ethanol. In contrast, 3 $\alpha$ ,5 $\alpha$ -P and 3 $\alpha$ ,5 $\beta$ -P showed less than a 5-fold enhancement of motor decrement produced by ethanol in mice.

The motor impairment induced by the benzodiazepines on rotarod performance in rats was also enhanced by ethanol. Of the drugs tested, triazolam



remained the most sensitive to ethanol interaction, with a 4-fold enhancement of motor impairment, followed by diazepam, with about a 3-fold enhancement. Ethanol had no effect on the rotorod deficits induced by  $3\alpha,5\alpha$ -P and  $3\alpha,5\beta$ -P in rats. These results are consistent with previous reports of a lack of interaction with ethanol by the putative sedative-hypnotic neuroactive steroid CCD 3693 (Edgar et al. 1997) and a less than 2-fold enhancement of ethanol-induced motor impairment by the putative anxiolytic neuroactive steroid Co 6-0549 (Carter et al. 1995).

Overall, rats were less sensitive than mice regarding motor incoordination induced by GABA<sub>A</sub> positive modulators and enhancement by ethanol. Although it is possible that a difference in assay rather than species may underlie the differences observed between rats and mice in the present study, unpublished data suggest that TD<sub>50</sub>s in mice measured by rotorod and horizontal wire assays are similar. Also, a previous study examining ethanol interactions with pentobarbital and phencyclidine reported a species difference between mice and rats (Wessinger and Balster 1987). The mechanism underlying such a species difference is unclear.

The duration of ethanol-induced behavioral sleep in mice was enhanced by each of the compounds tested. A comparison of the minimum dose of compound to enhance ethanol-induced sleep time and its ataxic dose provides an evaluation of the intensity of a compound's interaction with ethanol.  $3\alpha,5\alpha$ -P exhibited a MED of 10.0 mg/kg with respect to enhancement of ethanol-induced sleep time, a dose approximately one-third its TD<sub>50</sub> (24.7 mg/kg) in mice. Similarly, the MED of  $3\alpha,5\beta$ -P to enhance ethanol sleep time was 5.0 mg/kg, one-fourth its TD<sub>50</sub> of 20.3 mg/kg. In contrast, the benzodiazepines enhanced ethanol-induced behavioral sleep time at much smaller fractions of their TD<sub>50</sub>s. Diazepam enhanced ethanol with a MED of 0.25 mg/kg, a dose that was one-fifth its TD<sub>50</sub> of 1.2 mg/kg. Triazolam exhibited the most robust interaction with ethanol, with a MED of 0.01 mg/kg, a dose that was 1/20th its ataxic TD<sub>50</sub> of 0.21 mg/kg.

Neuroactive steroids bind to molecular sites on the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor complex distinct from the benzodiazepine and barbiturate sites (Gee et al. 1988; Turner et al. 1989; Paul and Purdy 1992). The present results are consistent with the notion that, although modulation at the different sites causes some shared behavioral effects, the behavioral profiles resulting from differential modulation of the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor complex are not identical. Indeed, previous investigations have demonstrated marked differences in the interaction of benzodiazepines and neuroactive steroids with the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor following cessation of chronic ethanol consumption. Whereas ethanol withdrawal results in cross-tolerance to the anticonvulsant actions of diazepam, it produces sensitization to the anticonvulsant effects of  $3\alpha,5\alpha$ -P (Devaud et al. 1996). In a similar manner, chronic ethanol administration has

been shown to reduce thiopental-, but enhance  $3\alpha,5\alpha$ -P-modulation of muscimol binding in rat brain (Negro et al. 1993). The present study suggests that ethanol also differentially modulates the interaction of benzodiazepines and neuroactive steroids with GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors following acute administration. Differential effects across GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor subunits by neuroactive steroids have been shown (Lan et al. 1991), and these effects may underlie the differential interaction of ethanol with neuroactive steroids compared to benzodiazepines.

Due to the endogenous nature of neurosteroids and the potential therapeutic usefulness of these and other, synthetic, neuroactive steroids (Gee et al. 1995), it is important thoroughly to understand the pharmacology of this class of compounds. Neuroactive steroids are currently being evaluated for therapeutic efficacy for the treatment of migraine, epilepsy, insomnia and anxiety disorders (Carter et al. 1995, 1997; Abrol et al. 1997; Edgar et al. 1997). The present study furthers the pharmacological characterization of neuroactive steroids by demonstrating a reduced propensity to interact with ethanol as compared with benzodiazepines. Clinically effective neuroactive steroids, therefore, may exhibit an improved side-effect profile over that of benzodiazepines.

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