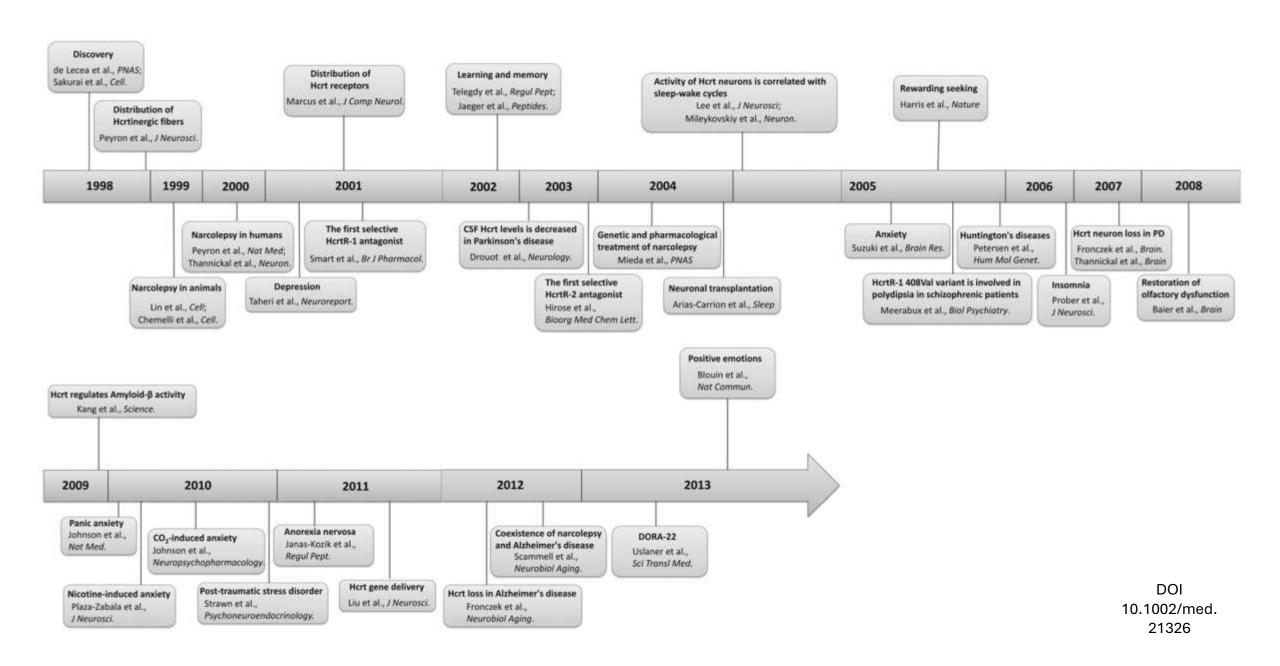
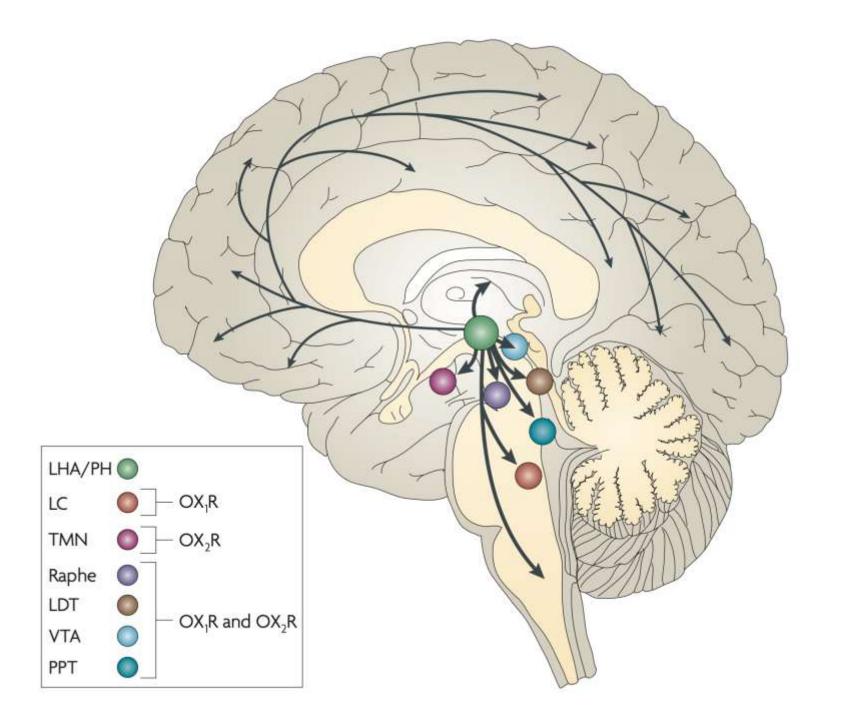
The Orexinergic System in Psychiatry

Dr. Malay Dave

07.08.2025

- Orexins or hypocretins excitatory neuropeptides, discovered in the late 1990s
- The Sakurai group (1998) "orexins" (OrxA and OrxB), from the Greek word "orexis", meaning "appetite", due to their ability to stimulate food intake and control the metabolism
- de Lecea and colleagues (1998) "hypocretins" (Hcrt1 and Hcrt2) since they are secreted from the hypothalamus and due to their significant amino acid homology with the member of the incretin family, the gut hormone secretin (glucagon/vasoactive intestinal polypeptide/secretin)





- Originate in the lateral hypothalamic area (LHA) and posterior hypothalamus (PH)
- Maintenance of arousal
 - Projections to the entire CNS, excluding the cerebellum
 - Dense projections to
 - Locus Coeruleus (LC NA)
 - Tubero-Mammillary Nucleus (TMN Histamine)
 - Raphe Nuclei (Raphe Serotonin)
 - Latero-Dorsal / Pedunculo-Pontine Tegmental nuclei (LDT / PPT ACh)
- Links with the reward system VTA
- Links with hypothalamic nuclei that stimulate feeding behaviour

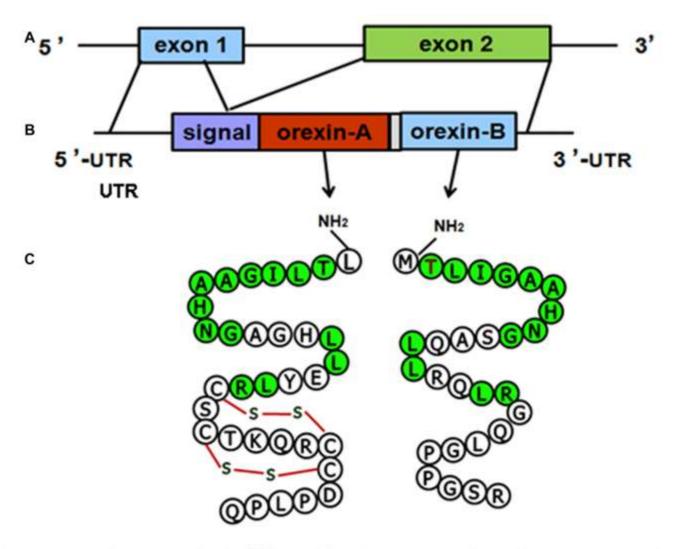


FIGURE 1 | Molecular structures of orexin precursor and orexins. (A) Genomic DNA of human prepro-orexin containing two exons and one intron. (B) The mRNA of human orexin, including the 5' untranslated region (UTR), signal peptide, open reading frame (ORF) encoding orexin-A (OA) or orexin-B (OB), and 3' UTR. (C) Amino acid sequences of OA (33 aa) and OB (28 aa). Green labels indicate amino acids that are identical in both OA and OB.

- Orexin A and Orexin B are cleaved from pre-pro-orexin
- OX1R OA >>>>> OB (5X to 100X)
- OX2R OA ~ OB
- Dimerization OX1R + OX2R, OX(1/2)R + CB(1/2)R
- Activation of OX1R / OX2R transition of sleep states to wakefulness

OX ₁ R Expression Site
Nucleus of the Solitary Tract (NT

Nucleus of the Solitary Tract (NTS)
Pedunculopontine/Latero-Dorsal Tegmental Nucleus
(PPT/LDT)

Locus Coeruleus (LC)

Ventral Tegmental Area (VTA)

Dorsal Raphe Nucleus (DRN)

Anterior Hypothalamus

Bed Nucleus of the Stria Terminalis (BNST)

Basal Forebrain (BF)

Paraventricular Thalamus (PVT)

Paraventricular Nucleus (PVN)

Preoptic Area (POA)

Hippocampus (CA1 And CA2)

Dentate Gyrus (DG)

Amygdala

Ventral Pallidum (VP)

Olfactory Bulb (OB)

Prefrontal and Infralimbic Cortex (IL)

Insular Cortex (IC)

OX₂R Expression Site

Nucleus of the Solitary Tract (NTS)

Arcuate Nucleus (ARC)

Pedunculopontine/Latero-Dorsal Tegmental Nucleus (PPT/LDT)

Locus Coeruleus (LC)

Ventral Tegmental Area (VTA)

Dorsal Raphe Nucleus (DRN)

Paraventricular Thalamus (PVT)

Paraventricular Nucleus (PVN)

Preoptic Area (POA)

Lateral Hypothalamus (LH)

Basal Forebrain (BF)

Bed Nucleus of the Stria Terminalis (BNST)

Dorsomedial Hypothalamic Nucleus (DMH)

Tuberomammillary Nucleus (TMN)

Hippocampus (CA3)

Dentate Gyrus (DG)

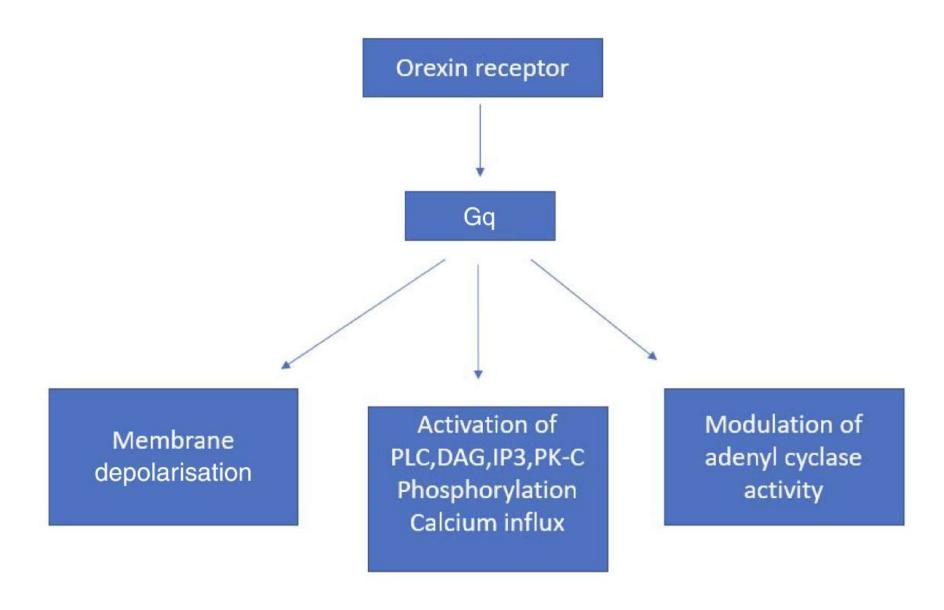
Amygdala

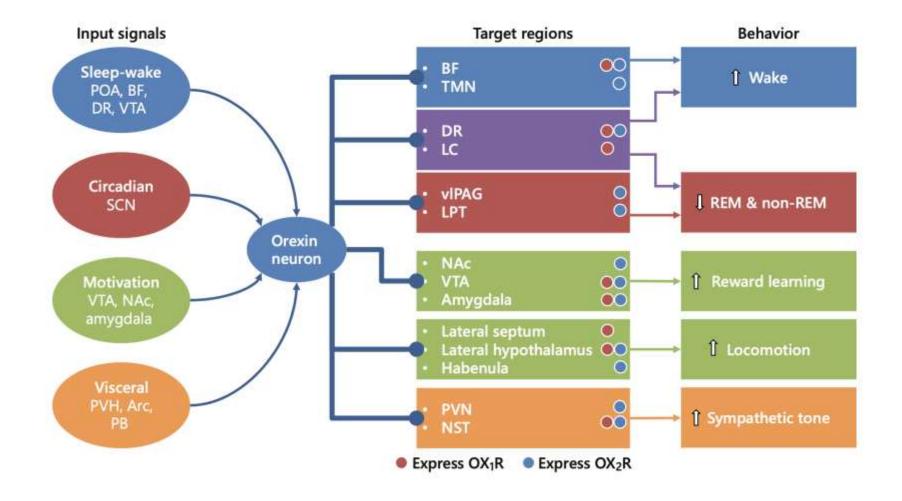
Nucleus Accumbens (NAC)

Lateral Septum (LS)

Medial Septum (MS)

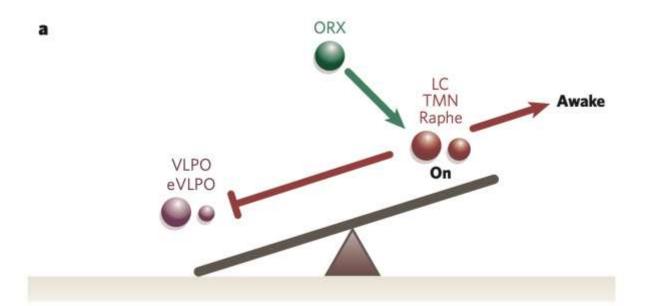
Anterior Commissure (AC)

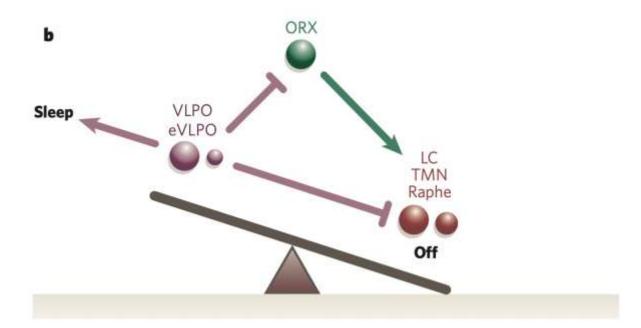




Afferents	Efferent	Functions
Sleep:Preoptic areaDorsal raphe	 Cortex Tuberomamillary nucleus Periaqueductal gray matter 	↑ Wakefulness ✓ Attention
 Stress, Emotions: Amygdala Periaqueductal gray matter Motivation: Nucleus accumbens 	 Nucleus accumbens Substantia nigra Ventral tegmental area 	✓ Motivation ✓ Reward ✓ Feeding
Hunger:Arcuate nucleusIncreased Ghrelin	 Nucleus tractus solitarus Ventrolateral medulla 	↑ ✓ Sympathetic tone ✓ Feeding

Table 1 Factors that influence the a	Receptor involved	References
Excitatory	Receptor involved	References
Glutamate	AMDAD NIMDADCL-D-	11.70
	AMPAR, NMDAR, mGluRs	11,70
Ghrelin	GHSR	71
Cholecystokinin	CCK-A	74
Neurotensin	ND	74
Vasopressin	V1a	74
Oxytocin	V1a	74
Glucagon-like peptide 1	ND	105
CRF	CRFR1	69
mACh (effect in 27% of orexin neurons)	M3	14
ATP	P2X	106
Inhibitory		
Glucose	Unknown	11
GABA	GABA _A , GABA _B	11,70,89
Serotonin	5-HT _{1A}	71,91
Noradrenaline	$\alpha_{_2}$	71,72
Dopamine	$\alpha_{_2}$	71
Neuropeptide Y	Y ₁	107
Leptin	OB-R	11
mACh (effect in 6% of orexin neurons)	ND	14,71
Adenosine	A _i	75





During wakefulness

- the monoaminergic nuclei (red) inhibit the ventrolateral preoptic nucleus (VLPO; purple)
- relieving the inhibition of the monoaminergic cells, and that of the orexin (ORX) neurons (green), and the cholinergic pedunculopontine (PPT) and laterodorsal tegmental nuclei (LDT; yellow)

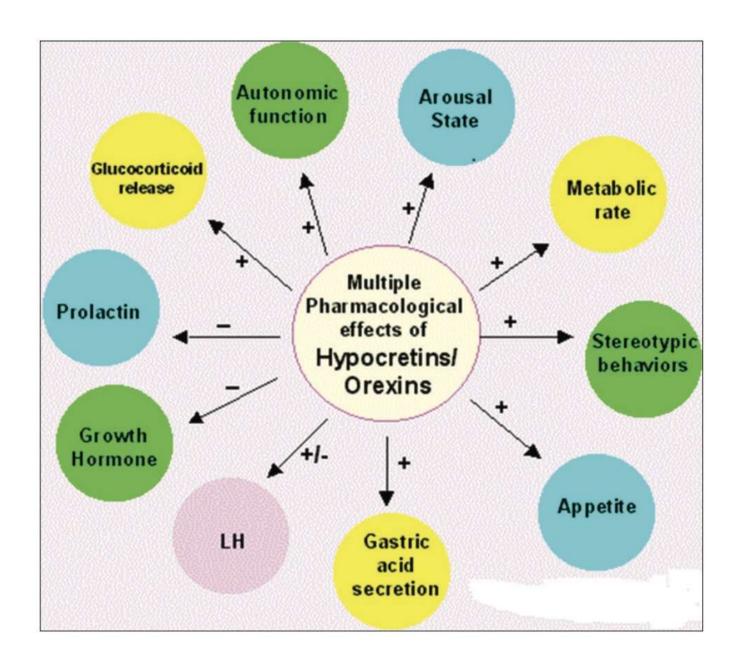
VLPO neurons do not have orexin receptors

• the orexin neurons serve primarily to reinforce the monoaminergic tone, rather than directly inhibiting the VLPO on their own

During sleep

- the firing of the VLPO neurons inhibits the monoaminergic cell groups, thereby relieving their own inhibition
- inhibit the orexin neurons, further preventing monoaminergic activation that might interrupt sleep
- **Direct mutual inhibition** between the VLPO and the monoaminergic cell groups forms a classic flip-flop switch, which produces sharp transitions in state, but is relatively unstable
 - addition of the orexin neurons stabilizes the switch

 Orexin-A levels are higher in patients with insomnia and correlate with age and insomnia severity



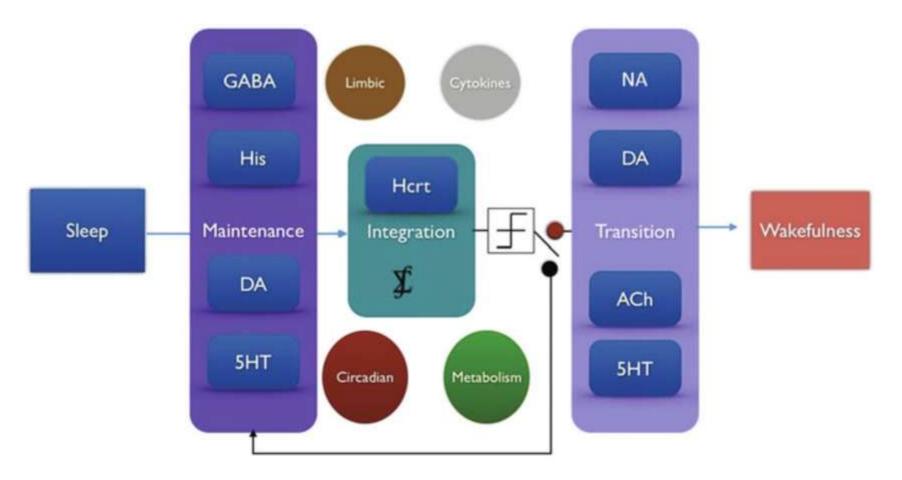
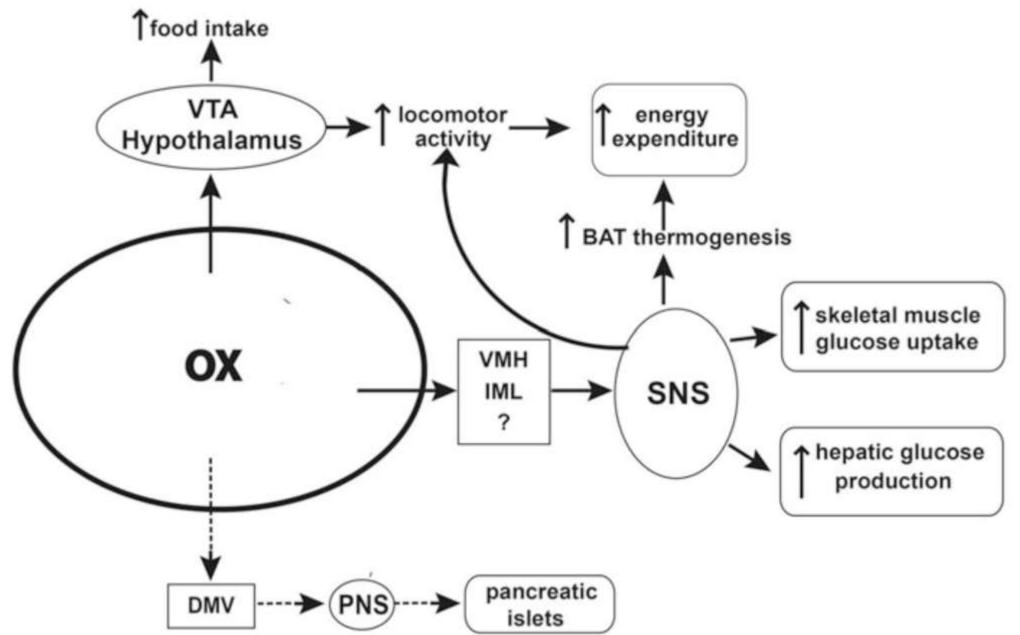
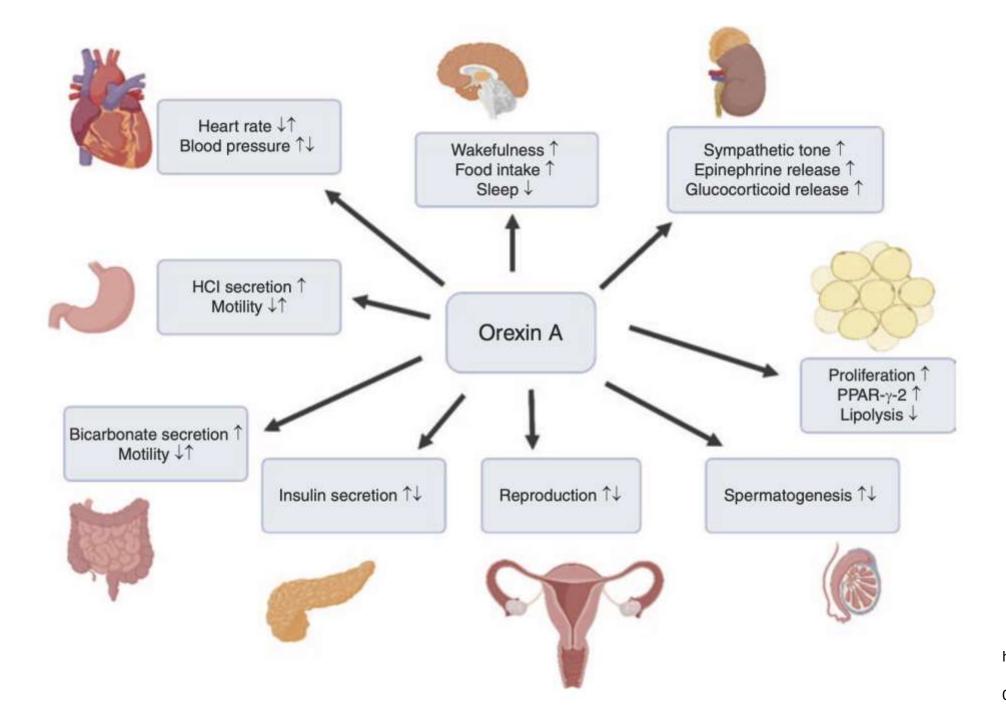


Fig. 1 Hert neurons integrate the inputs from the circadian, metabolic, limbic, and cytokine systems. The integration of the activities of these systems either leads to maintenance of sleep, in which the GABAergic, histaminergic, dopaminergic, and serotonergic systems are involved, or triggers the transition to arousal, in which the noradrenergic, dopaminergic, cholinergic, and serotonergic systems are implicated. Depending on the integrated signals arriving in Hert neurons, sleep will either be maintained or will transition into wakefulness

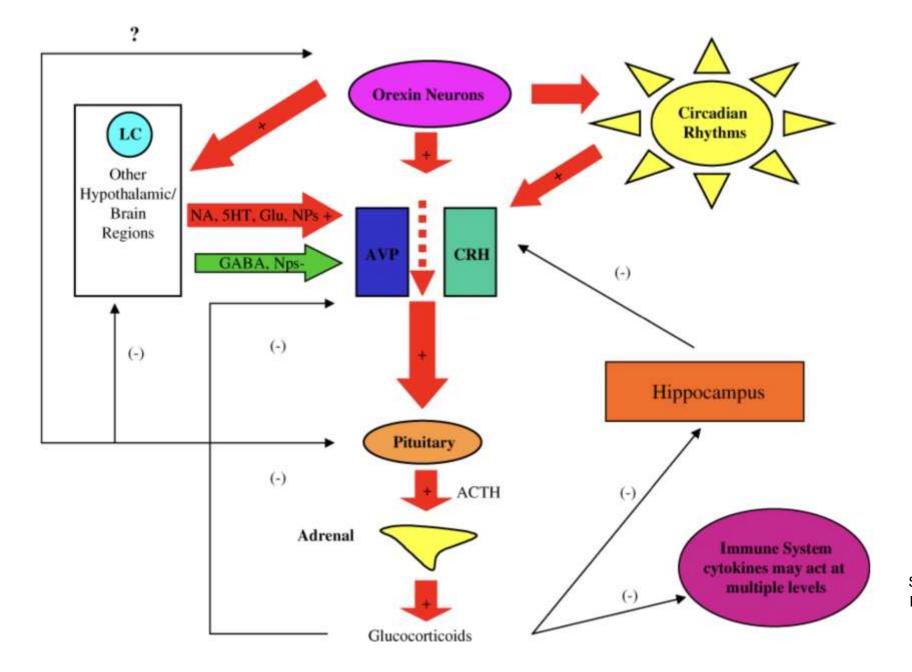


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Fig. 2 Pathways of OX-dependent regulation of energy balance. OX signaling increases feeding at least in part by acting in the VTA and at several hypothalamic sites, including the LH and ARC, to increase food-seeking. OX also promotes energy expenditure in part via the VTA, NAc, and hypothalamus and the control of locomotor activity, as well as by acting via sites (potentially including the VMH and IML, among others) to increase SNS activity, which increases activity and basal metabolic rate. OX-mediated activation of the SNS also increases hepatic glucose production and skeletal muscle glucose uptake. Modulation of the PNS by OX (potentially via the DMV) may contribute to the control of pancreatic hormone secretion. Abbreviations: VTA ventral tegmental area, VMH ventromedial hypothalamus, LH lateral hypothalamus, NAc nucleus accumbens, ARC arcuate nucleus, IML intermediolateral nucleus, SNS sympathetic nervous system, PNS parasympathetic nervous system, BAT brown adipose tissue

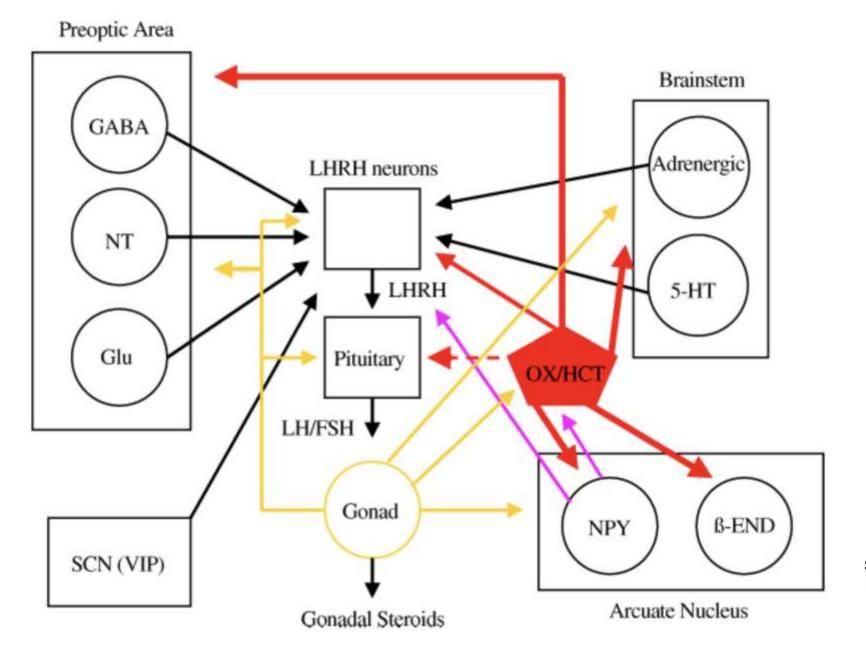


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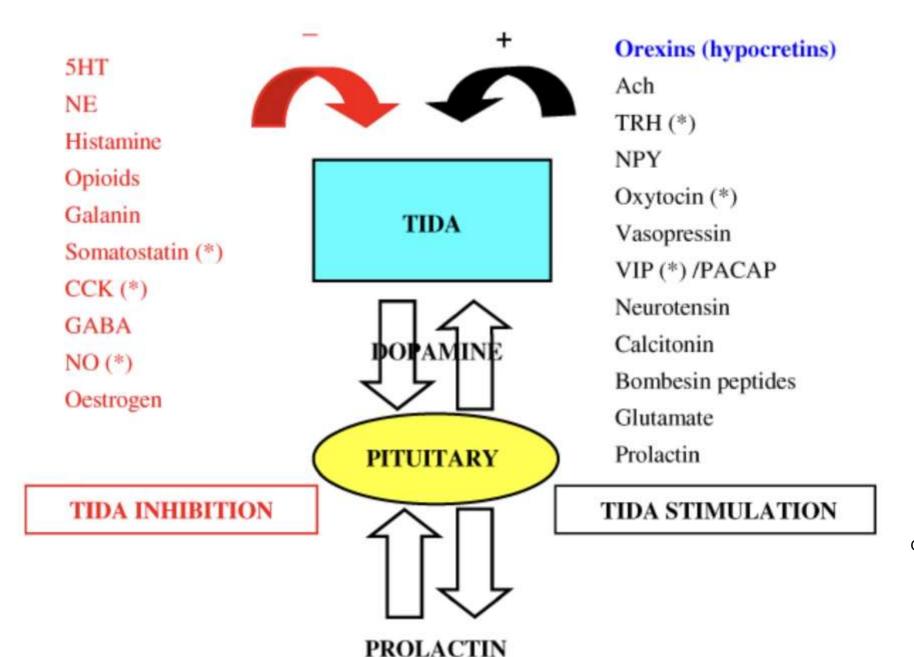


Contemporary Clinical Neuroscience: The Orexin/Hypocretin System: Physiology and Pathophysiology Edited by: S. Nishino and T. Sakurai

Fig. 4. Control of the hypothalamo-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis and the role of the orexins. Corticotropin-releasing hormone (CRH) and arginine vasopressin (AVP) neurons release their hormones into the portal circulation. CRH and AVP then stimulate adrenocorticotropic hormone (ACTH) secretion by pituitary corticotrophs, which, in turn, stimulates adrenocortical glucocorticoid secretion. Glucocorticoids feed back at pituitary and hypothalamic levels to reduce ACTH, and CRH and AVP secretion respectively. Glucocorticoids also act on the hippocampus, which acts on the hypothalamus to reduce CRH and AVP. Other influences include stimulation by noradrenergic (NA), serotoninergic (5HT), and glutamatergic (Glu) inputs. Inhibition occurs via γ-aminobutyric (GABA) ergic inputs. A number of neuropeptides may stimulate or inhibit HPA axis activity. The orexins may influence HPA activity directly or indirectly via brainstem (e.g., locus coeruleus [LC] noradrenergic) and hypothalamic (e.g., NPY) circuits, and/or via altering the circadian influences on HPA axis activity. The role of negative feedback onto orexin neurons by glucocorticoids is not completely determined. The immune system can influence the stress axis at multiple junctions.

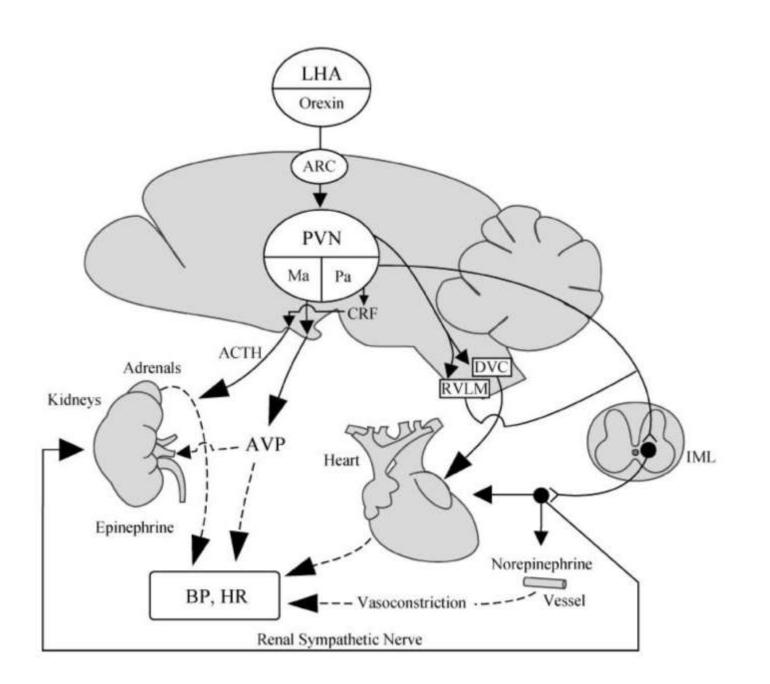


Contemporary Clinical Neuroscience: The Orexin/Hypocretin System: Physiology and Pathophysiology Edited by: S. Nishino and T. Sakurai **Fig. 2.** Control of the hypothalamo-pituitary-gonadal (HPG) axis. The control of the HPG axis is complex and involves multiple neuronal circuits. The orexins may influence luteinizing hormone-releasing hormone (LHRH) secretion directly or indirectly via other neural pathways. These peptides may also act at the pituitary levels. Gonadal steroids are able to regulate orexin neurotransmission as orexin-A immunoreactivity changes throughout the estrous cycle and is altered by gonadal hormone manipulation. OX/HCT, orexin/hypocretin; SCN, suprachiasmatic nucleus; VIP, vasoactive intestinal peptide; NT, neurotensin; GABA, γ-aminobutyric acid; Glu, glutamate; 5-HT, serotonin; NPY, neuropeptide tyrosine (Y); β-END, β-endorphin.



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Fig. 3. Central factors that either stimulate or inhibit prolactin release via the tuberoinfundibular dopamine (TIDA) system. Pituitary prolactin release is under tonic inhibition from TIDA dopamine. (*) indicates independent effects at the pituitary levels that may be opposite to central effects. To date, direct innervation of the TIDA has not been reported. The inhibition of prolactin secretion by the orexins is not entirely reversed by the administration of the D₂ antagonist domperidone, suggesting that other pathways are involved. Orexins may affect multiple conflicting pathways. For example, they densely innervate adrenergic, histaminergic, and serotoninergic neurons that can increase prolactin secretion via the TIDA, while acting on neuropeptide Y (NPY) neurons may stimulate the TIDA and thus decrease prolactin secretion. Orexins may stimulate prolactin-inhibitory factors (PIFs) or inhibit prolactin-releasing factors (PRFs) that are independent of the TIDA. 5HT, serotonin; NE, norepinephrine; CCK, cholecystokinin; GABA, γ-aminobutyric acid; NO, nitric oxide; Ach, acetylcholine; TRH, thyroid-releasing hormone; VIP, vasoactive intestinal peptide; PACAP, pituitary adenylate cyclaseactivating peptide.



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Fig. 6. Schematic diagram of possible mechanisms for the action of central orexins in cardiovascular, neuroendocrine, and sympathetic outflows. Orexins bind to their receptors of the magnocellular or parvocellular neurons of the hypothalamic paraventricular nucleus, or arcuate nucleus neurons, causing their depolarization. Excitation of magnocellular neurons induces secretion of arginine vasopressin (AVP) from the posterior pituitary, antidiuresis, and vasoconstriction. Conversely, parvocellular neurons activate autonomic centers in the brainstem and spinal cord, increasing the heart rate (HR) and blood pressure (BP), or causing the release of corticotropin-releasing factor (CRF). Secretion of adrenocorticotropic hormone (ACTH) from the anterior pituitary is controlled by CRF and AVP, synthesized by the parvocellular neurons. The right lower vessel indicates that norepinephrine released from the sympathetic nerve ending induces vasoconstriction. Activation of the renal sympathetic nerve induces antidiuresis and secretion of renin. The solid lines indicate a neural or humoral pathway. The dotted lines indicate a functional influence. ARC, arcuate nucleus; DVC, dorsal vagal complex; IML, intermediolateral cell column; LHA, lateral hypothalamus; PVN, paraventricular nucleus; Ma, magnocellular neuron; Pa, parvocellular neuron; RVLM, rostral ventrolateral medulla. (Reprinted from ref. 36.)

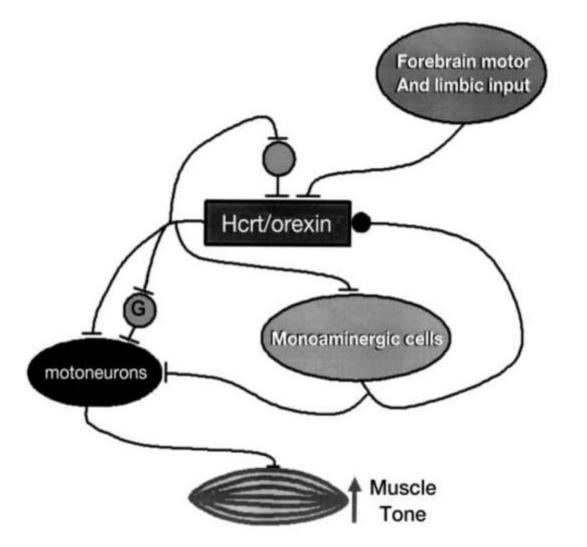
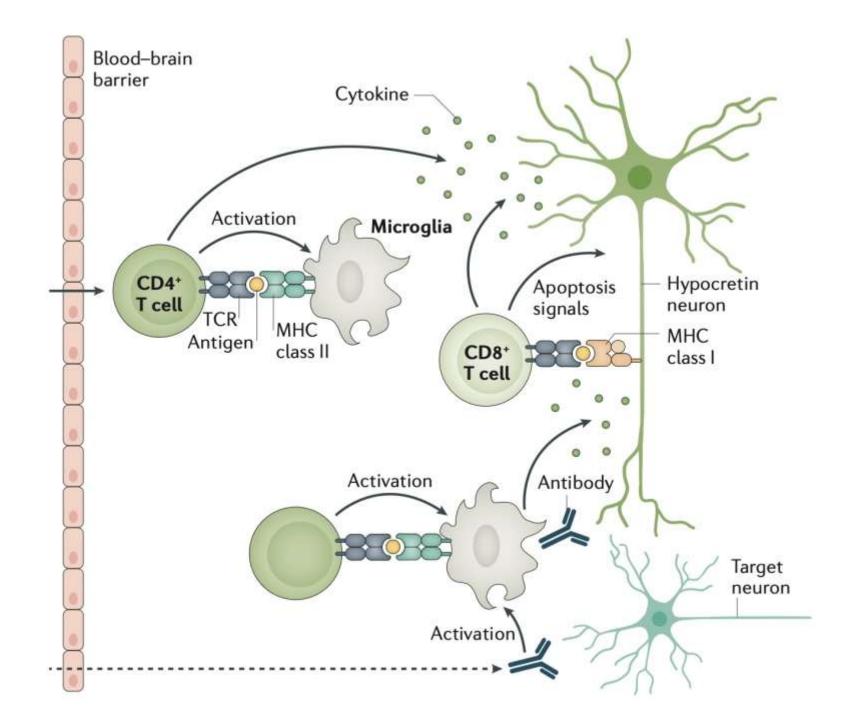
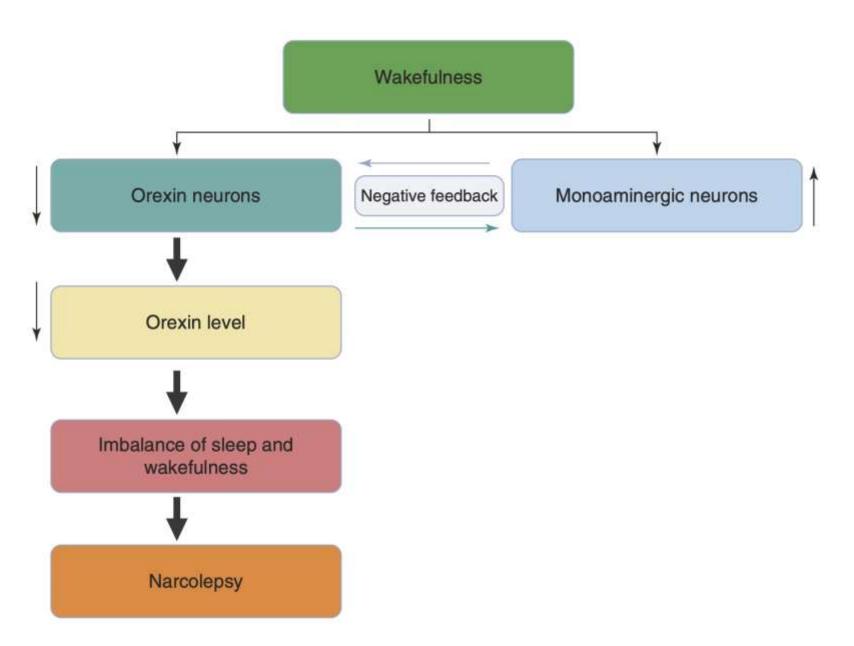


Fig. 9. Hypocretin (Hcrt/orexin) can increase muscle tone by direct action on motoneurons, but more potently by indirect action mediated by glutamate-and monoamine-containing cells. Simplified model of connections between hypocretin neurons and motoneurons. G indicates glutamate cells.

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Narcolepsy Hcrt neurons↓ Hypothalamus

Perifornical area

Hcrts↓ Frontal cortex

and pons

CSF

Normal Herts Plasma

Frontal cortex

and pons

Normal Hcrt Hypothalamus

neurons

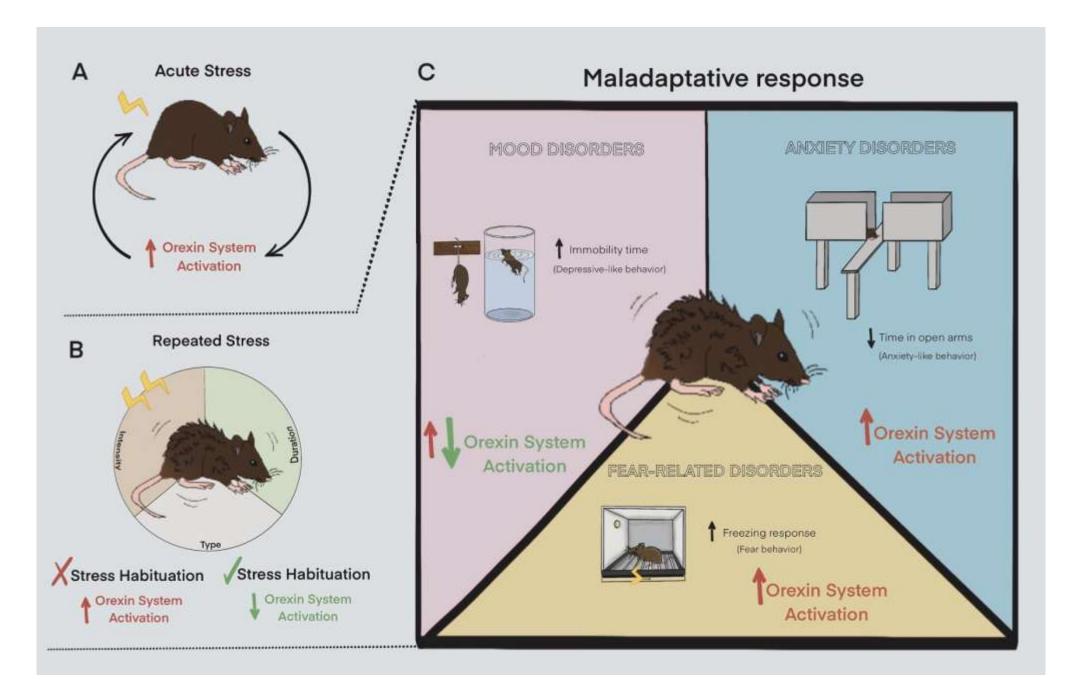
Normal Serum

antibodies to prepro-Hcrts,

Hcrts,

HcrtRs

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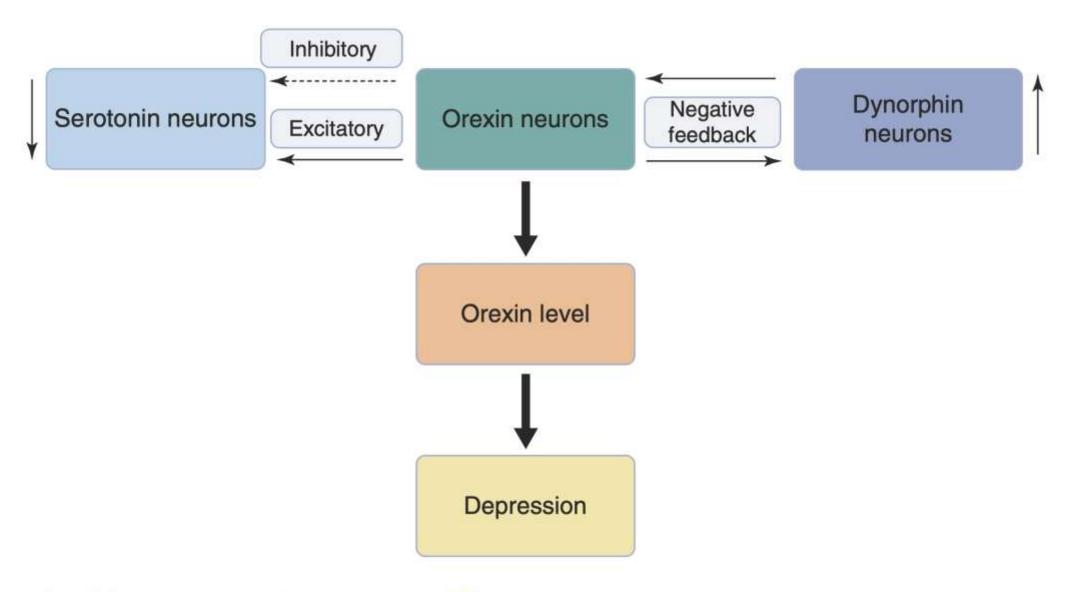
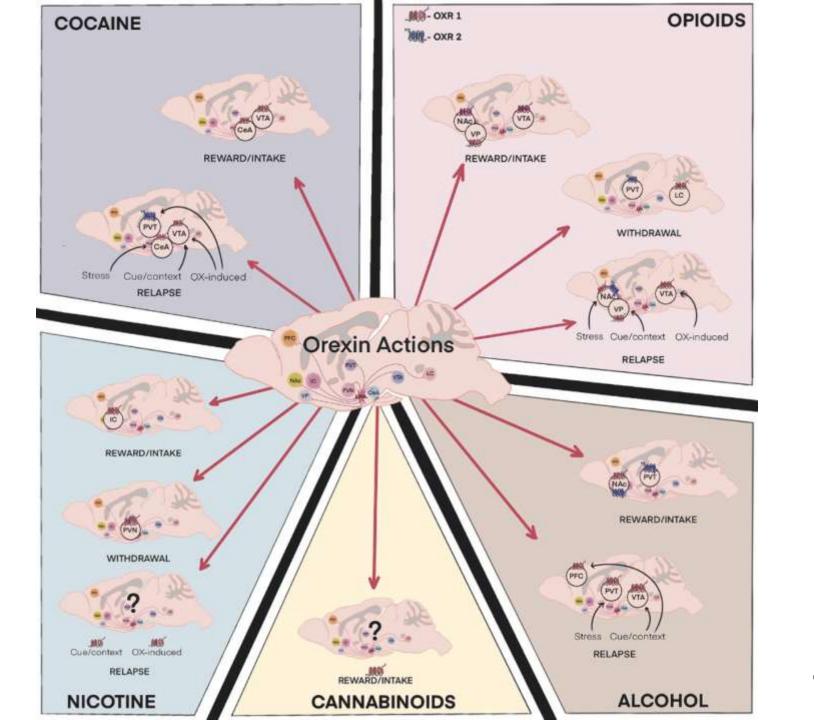
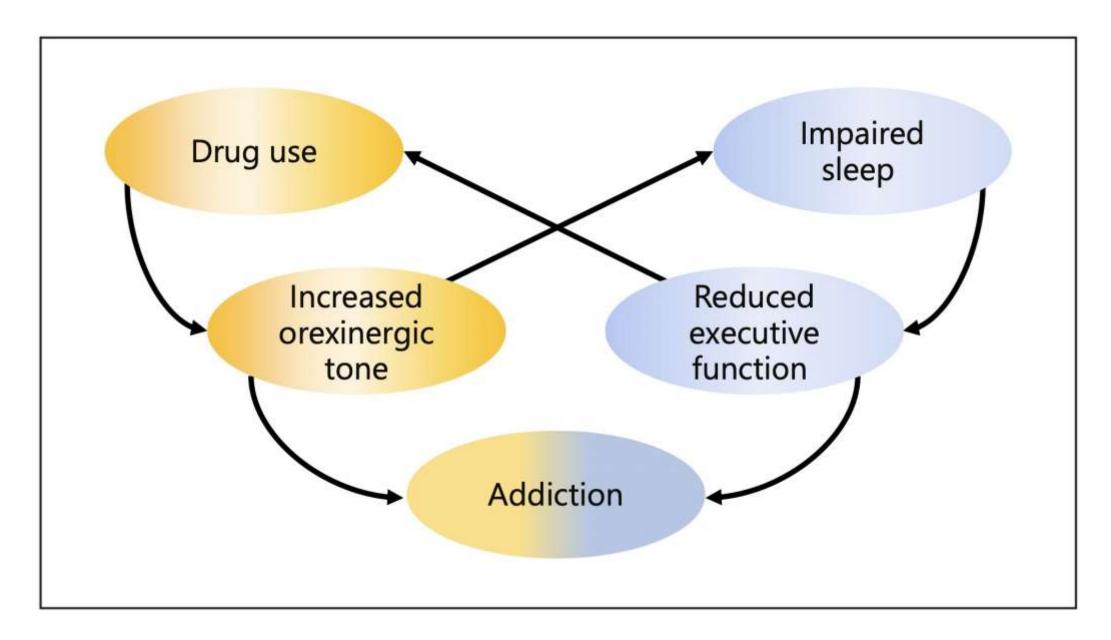


Fig. 10.9 Role of Orexin in depression [26]

Depression Hcrt neurons↓ Hypothalamus Neural size↓ Hcrt neurons↑ Hcrt-1↓ **CSF** Hcrt-1 Blood mRNA↓ Promotermethylation Neuronal **DMH-PFA** activation HcrtR-2↓ Thalamus and hypothalamus Hcrt-1↑ **CSF** Fluctuation \ **DMH-PFA** Anxiety Neuronal activation

DOI 10.1002/med. 21326 PTSD Hcrt-1↓ CSF, plasma
Anorexia Hcrt-1↓ Plasma
nervosa Hcrt-1↑ Plasma



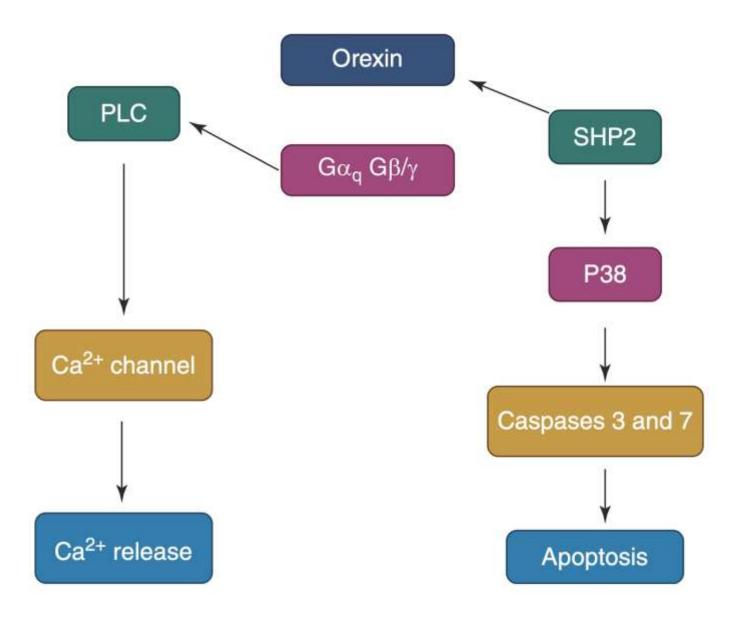


- Chronic use of alcohol and opioid associated with greater number of orexin neurons
- Opioid withdrawal increase activity of orexin neurons
- Appears to be mediated through OX₁R

Table 1. Clinical trials of orexin receptor antagonists for the treatment of substance abuse disorders

Title of trial	Status	Conditions	ClinicalTrials.gov Identifier
Medication Development in Alcoholism: Suvorexant versus Placebo	Not yet recruiting	Alcohol use disorder	NCT04229095
Suvorexant in the Management Comorbid Sleep Disorder and Alcohol Dependence	Recruiting	Alcohol use disorder	NCT03897062
Suvorexant and Cocaine	Recruiting	Cocaine use disorder	NCT03937986
Role of the Orexin Receptor System in Stress, Sleep and Cocaine Use	Completed	Cocaine use disorder/ Anxiety	NCT02785406
Medical Management of Sleep Disturbance During Opioid Tapering	Recruiting	Opioid use disorder	NCT03789214
Examining the Role of the Orexin System in Sleep and Stress in Persons with Opioid Use Disorder	Recruiting	Opioid use disorder	NCT04287062
Dual-Orexin Antagonism as a Mechanism for Improving Sleep and Drug Abstinence in Opioid Use Disorder	Recruiting	Opioid use disorder	NCT04262193
The Efficacy of Suvorexant in Treatment of Patients with Substance Use Disorder and Insomnia: A Pilot Open Trial	Enrolling by invitation	Opioid use disorder Alcohol use disorder	NCT03412591
Suvorexant to Reduce Symptoms of Nicotine Use	Not yet recruiting	Nicotine dependence	NCT04234997
Targeting Orexin to Treat Nicotine Dependence	Recruiting	Nicotine dependence	NCT03999099

Fig. 10.10 Proapoptotic signaling pathway induced by orexins [163]



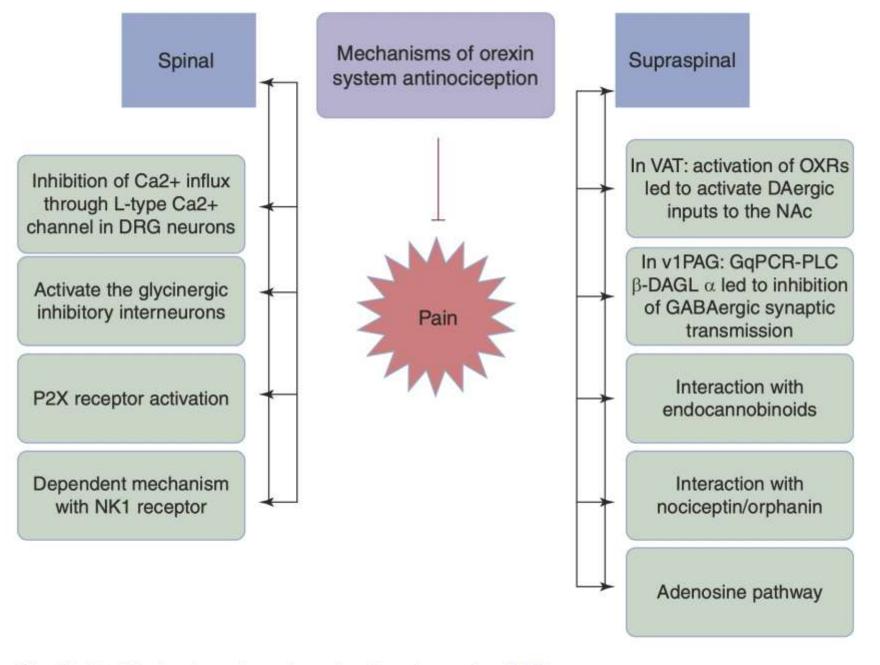


Fig. 10.12 Mechanism of orexin antinociception action [185]

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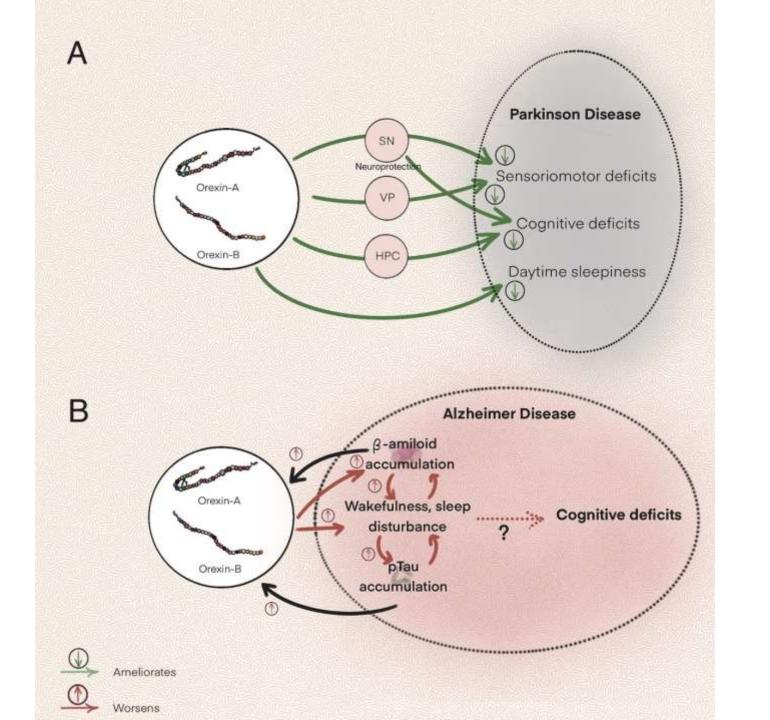


Fig. 4. Orexins are a potential therapeutic target for Parkinson Disease (PD) and Alzheimer Disease (AD). (A) Orexins may exert beneficial effects on PD symptoms by neuroprotecting dopaminergic neurons within the substantia nigra and through other brain regions. (B) In contrast, high orexin levels in AD may increase β -amyloid and tau accumulation by promoting wakefulness among other mechanisms, which in turn increases or exin levels in a positive feedback loop. The consequences for cognitive decline are still unclear. HPC, hippocampus; SN, substantia nigra; VP, ventral pallidum.

- Ageing and Neurogenesis
- AD, PD reduction
- Orexin hippocampal neurogenesis enhancer memory and learning processes
 - Ability to discriminate familiar from new conspecifics and remember them - social memory
- Physical activity increases plasma orexin levels can enhance hippocampal neurogenesis and function, improve cognition, and regulate mood

AD	Hcrt neurons ↓ Hcrt↓ Hcrt↑ Normal Hcrt	Hypothalamus CSF CSF Left temporal cortex CSF
HD	Hcrt neurons ↓ and atrophy	Hypothalamus
	Hcrt neurons ↑ and atrophy	Hypothalamus
	Hcrt-1↓ Normal Hcrt-1	PFC CSF

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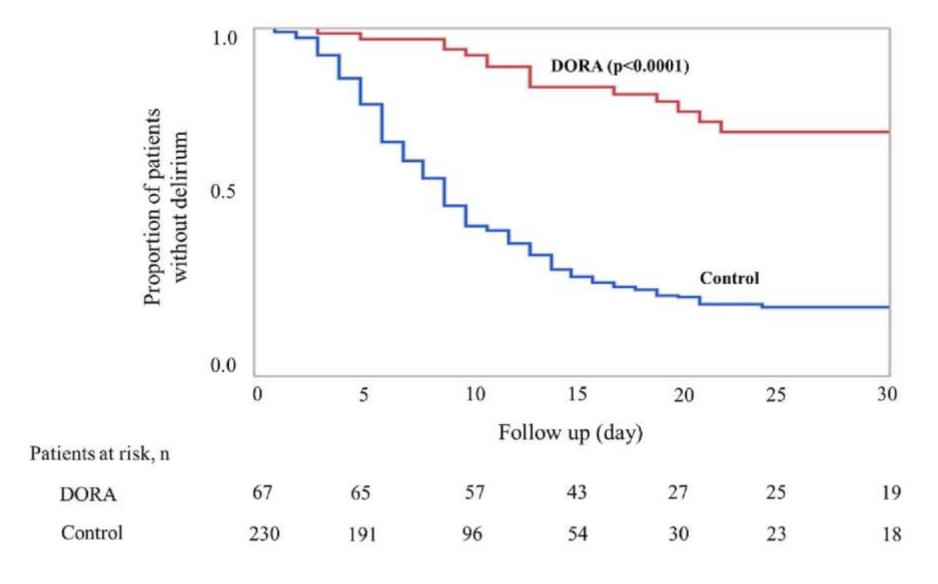
Poststroke Cognitive Depression Inflammation dysfunction Modulation of Regulation of Increase of neurotransmitter's immune cell's function **BDNF** production secretion Promotion of Increase of long-term potential Regulation of neurogenesis cytokines Orexin

Prader-Willi Hcrt-1↓ CSF
syndrome Normal Hcrt Hypothalamus
neurons
Schizophrenia Normal Hcrt-1 CSF
PD Hcrt neurons↓ Hypothalamus

Hcrt-1↓ CSF

Normal Hcrt-1 CSF

- 297 patients: 67 DORA group; 50 Suvorexant and 17 Lemborexant
- DORA group lower incidence of delirium than the control group
- Risk of delirium lower in the DORA group compared the control group
- Risk of developing delirium was lower with suvorexant (HR 0.22; 95% CI 0.11–0.41) and lemborexant (HR 0.25; 95% CI 0.08–0.81)



OREXIN RECEPTOR TARGETING

Anxiety Disorders

Fear-related Disorders

Addictive Disorders

Eating Disorders

ANTAGONISM



Alzheimer Disease

Insomnia

AGONISM



Mood Disorders

Parkinson Disease

Narcolepsy

Drug group	Compounds	Target nuclei
Orexin-1 receptor antagonist	SB-334867 SB-408124 SB-674042 ACT-335827	Dorsal raphe Locus coeruleus Laterodorsal tegmental nucleus Pedunculopontine tegmental nucleus
Orexin-2 receptor antagonist	TCS-OX2-29 JNJ-10397049 EMPA	Dorsal raphe Tuberomammillary nucleus
Duel orexin receptor antagonist	Almorexant SB-649868 Suvorexant MK-6096	Dorsal raphe Locus coeruleus Laterodorsal tegmental nucleus Tuberomammillary nucleus Pedunculopontine tegmental nucleus

Pharmacokinetics:

- Lemborexant reached peak concentration in ~1 to 3 hours
- The effective half-life of Lemborexant 5 mg and 10 mg is 17 and 19 hours, respectively

Drug (examples)	Recommendation		
CYP3A Inhibitors			
Weak (chlorzoxazone, ranitidine)	The maximum recommended dose of Lemborexant is 5 mg no more than once per night when co-administered with weak CYP3A inhibitors		
Moderate (fluconazole, verapamil)	Avoid concomitant use of Lemborexant with moderate or strong CYP3A inhibitors		
Strong (itraconazole, clarithromycin)			
CYP3A Inducers			
Moderate (bosentan, efavirenz, etravirine, modafinil)	Avoid concomitant use of Lemborexant with moderate or strong CYP3A inducers		
Strong (rifampin, carbamazepine, St John's wort)			
Alcohol	Avoid alcohol consumption with Lemborexant		
CYP2B6 Substrates (bupropion, methadone)	Patients receiving Lemborexant and CYP2B6 substrates concurrently should be monitored for adequate clinical response. Increasing the doses of CYP2B6 substrates be considered as needed		

Dosage and Administration

- Recommended proven starting dose of Lemborexant is 5 mg
- Maximum recommended dose is 10 mg, based on clinical response and tolerability
- Taken immediately before going to bed and with at least 7 hours remaining before the planned time of awakening
- Lemborexant should not be taken more than once per night
- Time to sleep onset may be delayed if taken with, or soon after, a meal

Dosage and Administration

- No need for dose adjustment based on age, sex, and BMI
- Exercise caution when using 10 mg in patients ≥65 years of age
- No dosage adjustments needed in Mild, Moderate or Severe Renal Impairment is needed
- No dosage adjustment needed in Mild Hepatic Impairment; 5 mg dosage in recommended in Moderate Hepatic Impairment while it has not been studied in Severe Hepatic Impairment and not recommended

Full study period (combined Period 1 and Period 2)	LEM5 $(n = 61)$	LEM10 $(n = 58)$
Category, n (%)		2000 - 100 - 200 - 200
Any TEAE	27 (44.3)	33 (56.9)
Any treatment-related TEAE	9 (14.8)	12 (20.7)
Any severe TEAE	2 (3.3)	0
Any serious TEAE	2 (3.3)	0
TEAE leading to study drug withdrawal	2 (3.3)	2 (3.4)
TEAEs with incidence >4% in any active treatment group, n (%)		
Nasopharyngitis	8 (13.1)	14 (24.1)
Somnolence	6 (9.8)	9 (15.5)
Influenza	2 (3.3)	4 (6.9)
Headache	3 (4.9)	2 (3.4)

Rebound Insomnia and Withdrawal Effects

- No rebound insomnia following treatment discontinuation
- No evidence of withdrawal effects following discontinuation at either dose

Special Safety Assessments

Postural Stability Study:

 No clinically significant impact on postural stability was observed with Lemborexant (5 mg or 10 mg) upon Morning Awakening (post 8 hours of dose)

Driving Performance Study:

• Lemborexant (5 mg or 10 mg) did not cause statistically significant impairment in morning driving performance of healthy volunteers vs those taking placebo

Abuse Potential Studies:

Not associated with physical dependence, or reinforcing effects

Additional Safety Studies

- Respiratory Safety
 - Lemborexant did not decrease the SpO₂ Healthy / OSA
- Co-administered Alcohol
 - No impact on postural stability
 - An additive negative effect on cognitive performance
- Drug Abuse Potential
 - Negative results

Table III. Orexin System Targeted Therapeutic Strategies

Strategies	Agents	Brain areas/delivery methods	Subjects	Effects
Gene delivery	Prepro-orexin	Whole brain	Mice	Cataplexy↓↓
	종			REM sleep abnormality
		Zona incerta	Mice	Cataplexy↓
		LH		CSF orexin-A↑
		Dorsolateral pons	Mice	Cataplexy↓Wake maintenance↑
	Hertr1	Mediobasal hypothalamus	Mice	Wakefulness ↑ fragmented sleep↓
		Tuberomammillary nucleus	Mice	Wake maintenance↑
		Posterior hypothalamus		200 C - 100 C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C
Agonist	Orexin-A	ICV	Mice	Cataplexy↓
				Wakefulness†
		IV	Canines	Cataplexy↓
				Waking, activity level↑
			7525 W	REM sleep↓
		ICV/IV	Canines	No effects
		Intranasal administration	Humans	REM sleep↓↓
				Wake to REM transitions
		Intranasal administration	Humans	Olfactory dysfunction is improved
OX ₁ receptor antagonist	SB334867	ICV	Rats	Food intake, active behaviors↓ Resting↑
OX2 receptor antagonist	EMPA	IP	Mice	Hyperlocomotion↓↓
1 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2			Rats	Spontaneous locomotor activity
	TCS-OX2-29	ICV	Rats	Wakefulness↓
				REM sleep↑
Dual receptor antagonists	Almorexant	ICV	Mices	Sleep↑
	Remitteensmaa	21570.A		Orexin-induced locomotion.
		Oral administration	Rats	Sleep↑
			Canines	Somnolence and REM sleep↑
			Humans	Subjective and objective sleep↑
	Suvorexant	Oral administration	Rats	Sleep↑
			Canines	Locomotor activity↓
			Rhesus monkeys	2000
		Oral administration	Humans	Sleep efficiency ↑
		O'lai adililiistiation	AMILIANO	Sleep induction, maintenance↑
		Oral administration	Humans	Sleep latency ↓
		Oral administration	Trumans	Sleep efficiency
	DORA-22	Oral administration	Rats	Sleep ↑
	DOMPEZ	Oral administration	Rhesus monkeys	Cognition is not impaired
Cell transplantation	Posterior hypothalamic cells		Rats	Orexin-immunoreactive neurons†
Cen transplantation	r osterior hypothalainic cens		Nats	Greatil-initiatioreactive neurons

^{↑,} increased; ↓, decreased; IV, intravenous injection; IP, intraperitoneal injection; DORA, dual orexin receptor antagonist.

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Thank You