

RESEARCH MONOGRAPH . COMPOUND PROFILE

PPAP-HCl

A selegiline-derived catecholaminergic activity enhancer that potentiates impulse-dependent dopamine and norepinephrine release in the brain without monoamine oxidase inhibition, distinguished from classical psychostimulants by a broad therapeutic dose window and absence of uncontrolled monoamine efflux.

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AUTHOR	Kodiac bioLabs Research
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ABSTRACT

PPAP-HCl, the hydrochloride salt of (-)-(R)-1-phenyl-2-propylaminopentane, is an experimental catecholaminergic activity enhancer (CAE) compound originally synthesized by Jozsef Knoll and colleagues at Semmelweis University in Budapest in the late 1980s as a structural derivative of selegiline (L-deprenyl) designed to retain the catecholaminergic enhancer activity of the parent compound while eliminating its monoamine oxidase (MAO) inhibitory property. The compound occupies a mechanistically distinct position in the catecholaminergic pharmacology space: at low-to-moderate concentrations, PPAP potentiates the impulse-propagation-mediated (action-potential-dependent) release of dopamine and norepinephrine from catecholaminergic nerve terminals without producing the uncontrolled, impulse-independent monoamine efflux characteristic of amphetamine and methamphetamine. This "enhancer" mechanism, first formally described by Knoll in 1992 and subsequently elaborated in a series of publications through 2005, operates independently of MAO inhibition, presynaptic autoreceptor blockade, and classical reuptake inhibition, and instead potentiates the vesicular exocytotic release event coupled to the arriving action potential. Recent pharmacological characterization reported in 2025 has expanded the mechanistic profile by demonstrating that PPAP also acts as a potent dopamine transporter (DAT) reuptake inhibitor with an IC₅₀ of 57.5 nM, a norepinephrine transporter (NET) inhibitor at 571 nM, and a weak serotonin transporter (SERT) inhibitor at 19,000 nM, placing it in a dual-mechanism category that combines enhancer activity with catecholamine reuptake inhibition. Additional

evidence suggests that PPAP and related synthetic enhancer compounds may exert their catecholaminergic effects through agonism at trace amine-associated receptor 1 (TAAR1), an intracellular G-protein-coupled receptor that modulates vesicular dopamine release through protein kinase C (PKC)-mediated phosphorylation of exocytotic machinery.

In preclinical behavioral pharmacology, PPAP facilitates learning and retention in shuttle-box avoidance paradigms, potentially antagonizes tetrabenazine-induced behavioral depression, reduces immobility in the forced swimming test, and increases locomotor activity across a broad dose range (2 to 50 mg/kg in rodents) without the narrow therapeutic window and stereotypy induction that characterize amphetamine-class stimulants. The therapeutic index in animal models exceeds that of amphetamine. Structure-activity relationship studies identified the (R)-enantiomer as the pharmacologically active form, while the racemic mixture (designated MK-306) retains partial activity. PPAP served as the reference catecholaminergic activity enhancer compound in the Knoll laboratory and led directly to the development of the more potent and serotonergically active successor compound BPAP [(-)-1-(benzofuran-2-yl)-2-propylaminopentane] in 1999. PPAP has been proposed as a candidate for clinical development in depression, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), and Alzheimer's disease, though no human clinical trials have been completed or published. The compound is not approved by any regulatory authority for therapeutic use and is available exclusively as a research-grade preparation. This monograph reviews the chemistry, synthesis, and stereochemistry of PPAP-HCl; the dual enhancer and reuptake-inhibitor pharmacology; the preclinical behavioral and neurochemical evidence base; the comparative assessment of five

catecholaminergic and monoaminergic enhancer or stimulant candidates against PPAP on five competency standards; and the sourcing, reconstitution, and handling considerations for laboratory work.

1. Compound Identification

1.1 Names, synonyms, and registry identifiers

Common name: PPAP; PPAP-HCl (hydrochloride salt).

Systematic chemical name: (R)-1-Phenyl-2-(propylamino)pentane hydrochloride. The compound is also referenced in the literature under the full expansion 1-phenyl-2-propylaminopentane and by the alternative systematic name (R)-alpha,N-dipropylphenethylamine hydrochloride.

Synonyms: (-)-PPAP, (R)-(-)-PPAP, (-)-1-phenyl-2-propylaminopentane, alpha,N-dipropylphenethylamine (DPPEA), alpha-desmethyl-alpha,N-dipropylamphetamine.

Development code: MK-306 (racemic mixture, Knoll laboratory designation).

Chemical Abstracts Service registry numbers: 132017-86-8 ((R)-(-)-PPAP free base); 784118-64-5 (PPAP hydrochloride salt). The racemic free base carries a separate CAS number.

International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry name: (2R)-N-propyl-1-phenylpentan-2-amine hydrochloride.

1.2 Structural class and chemistry

PPAP is a substituted phenethylamine and amphetamine derivative. Structurally, it is related to propylamphetamine (N-propylamphetamine; NPA; PAL-424) but carries an alpha-propyl chain in place of the alpha-methyl group of amphetamine, giving a longer aliphatic side chain at the alpha carbon. The compound is a secondary amine bearing an N-propyl substituent and an alpha-propyl chain branching from the phenethylamine core. This structural modification from the parent compound selegiline (N-methyl-N-propargyl-amphetamine) eliminates the propargyl moiety responsible for irreversible MAO-B inhibition while retaining the catecholaminergic enhancer pharmacophore [1, 2].

Molecular formula: C₁₄H₂₃N (free base); C₁₄H₂₄ClN (hydrochloride salt).

Exact mass: 205.18 g/mol (free base, monoisotopic).

Molecular weight: 205.34 g/mol (free base); 241.80 g/mol (hydrochloride salt).

Physical properties: The hydrochloride salt is a white to off-white crystalline powder. The racemic hydrochloride salt has a melting point of 122 to 124 degrees Celsius. The compound is soluble in water (as the hydrochloride salt), methanol, and ethanol; sparingly soluble in apolar organic solvents. The free base is an oil at room temperature.

Stereochemistry: PPAP contains one stereocenter at carbon 2 of the pentane chain (the alpha carbon of the phenethylamine core). The pharmacologically active enantiomer is the (R)-configuration, designated (-)-PPAP on the basis of optical rotation. The (S)-(+)-enantiomer has been studied for comparative pharmacology but lacks the catecholaminergic enhancer activity of the (R)-form. The racemic mixture (designated MK-306) was the first form described in the literature (1988); subsequent pharmacological characterization by Knoll focused on the (R)-enantiomer. Investigators acquiring PPAP-HCl for research should confirm enantiomeric purity by chiral high-performance liquid chromatography or by polarimetry against a reference standard.

1.3 Synthesis

The published synthesis of PPAP proceeds by reductive amination of 1-phenylpentan-2-one (benzyl propyl ketone) with n-propylamine [1, 3]. The initial step forms a ketimine intermediate between the carbonyl of the ketone and the primary amine. Reduction is accomplished by sodium borohydride in methanol (laboratory scale) or by catalytic hydrogenation with palladium on carbon under 7 to 10 atmospheres of hydrogen pressure (preparative scale). The product is purified by vacuum distillation (112 to 120 degrees Celsius at 7 mmHg) or, more commonly, by conversion to the hydrochloride salt with stoichiometric hydrogen chloride in diethyl ether followed by recrystallization from ethanol or ethanol-diethyl ether mixtures. The racemic product is the initial synthetic product; the (R)-enantiomer is obtained by chiral resolution (classical diastereomeric salt formation with a chiral acid such as di-p-toluoyl-D-tartaric acid, or by chiral chromatography) or by asymmetric synthesis employing chiral catalysts or chiral auxiliaries in the reductive amination step. The synthesis was developed at the Department of Pharmacology, Semmelweis University of Medicine, Budapest, and first described by Knoll and colleagues in the late 1980s [1].

2. Abstract

PPAP-HCl, the hydrochloride salt of (-)-1-phenyl-2-propylaminopentane, is a catecholaminergic activity enhancer (CAE) compound that potentiates the action-potential-dependent release of dopamine and norepinephrine from catecholaminergic neurons without producing the uncontrolled monoamine efflux and pronounced stereotypy characteristic of classical amphetamine psychostimulants [1, 2, 4]. The compound was synthesized by Jozsef Knoll at Semmelweis University in Budapest as a structural derivative of selegiline (L-deprenyl) and was first described in racemic form (MK-306) in 1988 and in a comprehensive pharmacological characterization in 1992 [1]. The design rationale was to isolate the catecholaminergic enhancer property of selegiline from its irreversible MAO-B inhibitory activity; PPAP achieves this separation completely, possessing no detectable MAO-A or MAO-B inhibitory activity at pharmacologically relevant concentrations [1, 2].

The "enhancer" mechanism represents a fundamentally distinct mode of catecholaminergic modulation. Classical psychostimulants such as amphetamine and methamphetamine produce monoamine release through reversal of vesicular and plasma membrane transporters in a manner that is largely independent of neuronal firing rate. In contrast, PPAP increases the quantity of dopamine and norepinephrine released per action potential without altering baseline (non-stimulated) release [2, 4]. The net effect is amplification of phasic catecholaminergic signaling while preserving the temporal and spatial specificity of endogenous neurotransmission. Recent characterization (2025) has added a second mechanism: potent dopamine transporter reuptake inhibition (IC₅₀ 57.5 nM at DAT, 571 nM at NET, 19,000 nM at SERT), placing PPAP in a dual-mechanism category [5]. Evidence from the TAAR1 (trace amine-associated receptor 1) literature further suggests that the enhancer effect may be mediated by TAAR1 agonism, which activates PKC-dependent phosphorylation of exocytotic proteins to potentiate vesicular dopamine release [6, 7].

In preclinical behavioral pharmacology, PPAP facilitates learning and retention in shuttle-box avoidance tasks, antagonizes tetrabenazine-induced behavioral depression with high potency, reduces immobility in the forced swimming test, and increases locomotor activity across a dose range of 2 to 50 mg/kg in rats [1]. The therapeutic index is substantially wider than that of amphetamine: PPAP improves

cognitive and motor performance over a broad dose range, whereas amphetamine produces facilitation only in a narrow range of low doses before inducing stereotypy and performance decrement [1]. The compound has been proposed for clinical development in depression, ADHD, and Alzheimer's disease on the basis of preclinical efficacy, but no human clinical trial data have been published. PPAP served as the reference catecholaminergic enhancer in the Knoll laboratory and led directly to the synthesis of the more potent and serotonergically active successor BPAP in 1999 [8].

3. Discovery and Development History

3.1 Origin and rationale

The development of PPAP emerged from Jozsef Knoll's long-term investigation of the catecholaminergic enhancer properties of selegiline (L-deprenyl), which began at the Department of Pharmacology, Semmelweis University of Medicine, Budapest, in the 1960s and 1970s [9, 10]. Knoll had observed that selegiline, beyond its well-characterized selective irreversible inhibition of MAO-B, produced a separate pharmacological effect: potentiation of the impulse-propagation-mediated release of catecholamines from noradrenergic and dopaminergic neurons in the brain. This "enhancer" effect was measurable in vitro in isolated brain tissue preparations and in vivo in behavioral paradigms at doses that did not fully inhibit MAO-B, suggesting a mechanism independent of monoamine oxidase inhibition [9].

To dissect the enhancer mechanism from MAO inhibition, Knoll initiated a structure-activity relationship program in the 1980s aiming to develop derivatives of the selegiline scaffold that would retain catecholaminergic enhancer activity while lacking the propargyl moiety responsible for MAO-B suicide inhibition [1]. The key structural modification was replacement of the N-methyl-N-propargyl substitution of selegiline with an N-propyl group and extension of the alpha-methyl group of the amphetamine backbone to an alpha-propyl chain. This yielded 1-phenyl-2-propylaminopentane (PPAP), which was devoid of MAO inhibitory activity at any tested concentration while retaining the full catecholaminergic enhancer profile [1, 2].

3.2 Initial characterization (1988 to 1992)

Racemic PPAP (MK-306) was first described in the scientific literature in 1988 in a preliminary communication. The first comprehensive pharmacological characterization was published by Knoll et al. in 1992 in *Archives internationales de pharmacodynamie et de therapie* [1]. This seminal paper established the behavioral pharmacology of PPAP across multiple paradigms (shuttle-box avoidance learning, tetrabenazine-induced depression, forced swimming test, locomotor activity, stereotypy assessment) and demonstrated the critical distinction between PPAP

and classical amphetamine-class stimulants: a broad therapeutic dose window, absence of stereotypy at moderate doses, and facilitation of learning across a dose range rather than only at a narrow low-dose window [1].

3.3 Mechanistic elaboration (1996 to 2005)

The 1996 publication by Knoll et al. in *Life Sciences* provided the mechanistic foundation for the enhancer concept, demonstrating that (-)-deprenyl (selegiline) and (-)-PPAP act primarily as potent stimulants of action-potential-transmitter-release coupling in catecholaminergic neurons [2]. The study employed isolated rat brain preparations with electrical field stimulation and radiolabeled neurotransmitter release measurements to show that both compounds enhanced stimulation-evoked [3H]dopamine and [3H]norepinephrine release without affecting basal (unstimulated) release and without the monoamine-releasing properties of amphetamine [2]. The enhancer effect was shown to be unrelated to MAO inhibition, presynaptic autoreceptor blockade, uptake inhibition, or direct monoamine release [2].

Knoll subsequently published a comprehensive review of the enhancer concept in *Pharmacology and Toxicology* in 1998, placing PPAP and selegiline within a broader framework of "catecholaminergic activity enhancer (CAE) substances" and proposing that endogenous trace amines (beta-phenylethylamine, tryptamine) serve as physiological enhancer substances in the brain [9]. This framework was elaborated in a 2003 review in *Neurochemical Research* [11] and in a 2005 monograph that summarized 36 years of research on enhancer-sensitive brain regulations [12].

3.4 Development of BPAP and subsequent research

In 1999, Knoll reported the synthesis and characterization of (-)-1-(benzofuran-2-yl)-2-propylaminopentane (BPAP), a structural analog of PPAP in which the phenyl ring is replaced by a benzofuran moiety [8]. BPAP proved to be substantially more potent than PPAP as a catecholaminergic enhancer (active at 0.05 to 10 mg/kg in vivo versus 1 to 5 mg/kg for PPAP) and, critically, also enhanced serotonergic transmission, a property absent from both PPAP and selegiline [8]. BPAP subsequently became the primary research tool for the enhancer mechanism, though PPAP retained its position as the reference compound for catecholaminergic-selective enhancement.

3.5 TAAR1 mechanism and reuptake inhibition (2022 to 2025)

Beginning in the early 2020s, the Bhatt laboratory and collaborators provided evidence that the enhancer effect of synthetic MAE compounds (selegiline, PPAP, BPAP) is mediated by agonism at trace amine-associated receptor 1 (TAAR1), an intracellular Gs-protein-coupled receptor expressed on catecholaminergic neurons [6, 7]. The evidence included demonstration that the TAAR1 antagonist EPPTB reversed the enhancer effects of BPAP on electrically stimulated dopamine release in rat striatal slices and that the downstream signaling involved PKC-mediated phosphorylation of exocytotic proteins [6, 7]. Separately, a 2025 pharmacological characterization reported that PPAP acts as a potent dopamine transporter reuptake inhibitor (IC₅₀ 57.5 nM at DAT), a moderate norepinephrine transporter inhibitor (IC₅₀ 571 nM at NET), and a weak serotonin transporter inhibitor (IC₅₀ 19,000 nM at SERT) [5]. This finding added a second, classical pharmacological mechanism to the enhancer profile and placed PPAP in a dual-mechanism category.

3.6 Clinical development status

PPAP has not been advanced to human clinical trials in any published form. The compound has been proposed as a candidate for clinical development in depression, ADHD, and Alzheimer's disease on the basis of preclinical efficacy, the favorable therapeutic index relative to amphetamine, and the mechanistically attractive combination of enhancer activity with reuptake inhibition [1, 13]. No investigational new drug application or equivalent regulatory filing is known to have been submitted. The compound remains an experimental research tool, available from research chemical suppliers as the hydrochloride salt.

4. Mechanism of Action

PPAP is a multi-mechanism agent. Its principal molecular activities, characterized in isolated tissue preparations, brain slice electrophysiology, in vivo microdialysis, and behavioral pharmacology, are catecholaminergic activity enhancement (potentiation of impulse-dependent dopamine and norepinephrine release), dopamine and norepinephrine transporter reuptake inhibition, and putative TAAR1 agonism. These activities contribute differentially to the observed behavioral effects in pre-clinical models.

4.1 Catecholaminergic activity enhancement

The defining pharmacological property of PPAP is potentiation of the action-potential-dependent release of catecholamines from noradrenergic and dopaminergic nerve terminals in the brain [1, 2, 4]. In isolated rat brain tissue preparations with electrical field stimulation, PPAP increases the quantity of [3H]dopamine and [3H]norepinephrine released per stimulus pulse without affecting basal (unstimulated) release [2]. The mechanism is fundamentally distinct from the monoamine-releasing action of amphetamine, which produces transporter-mediated efflux of cytoplasmic monoamines independent of neuronal firing. PPAP does not release monoamines from unstimulated preparations, does not reverse the vesicular monoamine transporter (VMAT2), and does not deplete vesicular stores [2, 4].

The enhancer effect was demonstrated to be independent of four classical monoaminergic mechanisms: (a) inhibition of monoamine oxidase (PPAP has no detectable MAO-A or MAO-B inhibitory activity); (b) inhibition of presynaptic catecholamine autoreceptors (alpha-2 adrenergic and D2 dopamine receptors); (c) inhibition of catecholamine reuptake (at the time of the original characterization, though this has been revised by 2025 data); and (d) direct release of catecholamines from vesicular stores [2]. The net functional consequence is selective amplification of phasic catecholaminergic signaling: neurons that are actively firing release more neurotransmitter per impulse, while quiescent neurons are unaffected. This preserves the temporal and spatial coding of catecholaminergic circuits, a property that distinguishes the enhancer mechanism from the pharmacologically cruder amplification produced by amphetamine or by nonselective reuptake inhibition.

The effective concentration range for the enhancer effect in isolated tissue is approximately 1 to 100 micromolar, with maximal enhancement typically observed at 10 to 30 micromolar in striatal and cortical preparations [2, 4].

4.2 Dopamine and norepinephrine transporter reuptake inhibition

A 2025 pharmacological characterization using standard monoamine transporter uptake inhibition assays reported that PPAP acts as a potent inhibitor of the dopamine transporter (DAT) with an IC₅₀ of 57.5 nM, a moderate inhibitor of the norepinephrine transporter (NET) with an IC₅₀ of 571 nM, and a weak inhibitor of the serotonin transporter (SERT) with an IC₅₀ of 19,000 nM [5]. The DAT potency is approximately 7-fold greater than that of mephedrone and approximately 1.3-fold greater than that of amphetamine, though 41-fold less potent than MDPV. The DAT/NET selectivity ratio (approximately 10:1) and the near-absence of SERT activity produce a catecholamine-selective reuptake inhibition profile.

This finding revises the earlier characterization that excluded reuptake inhibition as a mechanism of PPAP action. The original Knoll et al. (1996) conclusion that the enhancer effect was "unrelated to the inhibition of the uptake of catecholamines" was based on the observation that the enhancer effect persisted in experimental conditions designed to control for reuptake inhibition, and on the functional dissimilarity between PPAP and classical reuptake inhibitors in behavioral paradigms [2]. The 2025 transporter binding data indicate that reuptake inhibition coexists with the enhancer mechanism, and the relative contribution of each mechanism to the in vivo behavioral profile remains an active area of investigation.

4.3 Putative TAAR1 agonism

Evidence from the early 2020s suggests that the enhancer effect of synthetic CAE compounds, including PPAP, selegiline, and BPAP, is mediated at least in part by agonism at trace amine-associated receptor 1 (TAAR1) [6, 7]. TAAR1 is an intracellularly located Gs-protein-coupled metabotropic receptor activated by endogenous trace amines (beta-phenylethylamine, tyramine, tryptamine) and by synthetic amphetamine-class compounds. Activation of TAAR1 increases intracellular cAMP production through Gs-adenylyl cyclase coupling, leading to protein kinase A (PKA) and protein kinase C (PKC) activation.

The evidence for TAAR1 involvement in the PPAP/BPAP enhancer effect includes: (a) the TAAR1 antagonist EPPTB reversed the enhancer effect of BPAP on electrically stimulated dopamine release in rat striatal slices [6]; (b) the downstream signaling involved PKC-mediated phosphorylation of proteins participating in vesicular exocytosis [6, 7]; (c) the enhancer effect produced bell-shaped concentration-response curves consistent with TAAR1 agonism followed by receptor desensitization or heterodimerization with dopamine D2 receptors at higher concentrations [7]; and (d) the structural relationship between PPAP and known TAAR1 agonists (phenylethylamine, amphetamine) supports the pharmacophore overlap.

The TAAR1 mechanism provides a molecular basis for the enhancer effect that was absent from the original Knoll characterization: TAAR1 activation on catecholaminergic nerve terminals leads to PKC-dependent phosphorylation of synaptic vesicle proteins (synapsin, Munc18, SNAP-25) and plasma membrane SNARE complex components, increasing the probability of vesicular fusion in response to calcium influx during the action potential. This mechanism would selectively potentiate impulse-dependent release without affecting basal release, consistent with the observed pharmacology [6, 7].

4.4 Absence of monoamine oxidase inhibition

A critical distinguishing feature of PPAP relative to its parent compound selegiline is the complete absence of monoamine oxidase inhibitory activity [1, 2]. Selegiline produces irreversible, selective inhibition of MAO-B through covalent binding of the propargyl moiety to the flavin adenine dinucleotide cofactor of the enzyme. The structural modification from propargylamine to propylamine in PPAP eliminates this mechanism entirely. PPAP shows no inhibition of MAO-A or MAO-B at concentrations up to 1 millimolar in standard enzyme activity assays [1]. This property eliminates the tyramine-potentialiation ("cheese effect") risk associated with MAO inhibitors and eliminates the drug-drug interactions mediated by MAO inhibition that complicate selegiline pharmacology.

4.5 Composite pharmacology

The composite mechanism of PPAP at pharmacologically relevant concentrations is therefore: (a) catecholaminergic activity enhancement through TAAR1-mediated potentiation of vesicular exocytosis in response to action potentials; (b) potent DAT and moderate NET reuptake inhibition that prolongs the synaptic residence time of

released catecholamines; and (c) absence of MAO inhibition, absence of serotonergic activity, and absence of the transporter-reversal monoamine release characteristic of amphetamine. The functional consequence is selective, temporally coded amplification of catecholaminergic neurotransmission: dopaminergic and noradrenergic signals are amplified both at the release step (enhancer) and at the clearance step (reuptake inhibition), while the temporal structure of signaling is preserved because both mechanisms are dependent on ongoing neuronal activity rather than producing tonic monoamine elevation.

5. Pharmacokinetics and Routes of Administration

5.1 Absorption and bioavailability

Formal pharmacokinetic studies of PPAP in human subjects have not been published. The available pharmacokinetic data are derived from rodent studies and from inference based on the structural class (substituted phenethylamine, secondary amine with alpha-branching).

PPAP-HCl is expected to be well absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract on the basis of its physicochemical properties (molecular weight 241.80, moderate lipophilicity, no ionizable groups other than the secondary amine). Oral bioavailability in rodents has not been quantified in published studies, though the behavioral activity observed at oral and intraperitoneal doses of 1 to 5 mg/kg in rats indicates adequate systemic exposure by these routes [1]. For the structurally related compound BPAP, pharmacokinetic studies in rats demonstrated rapid absorption (Tmax approximately 15 to 30 minutes after oral dosing) and moderate oral bioavailability [14].

5.2 Distribution

The volume of distribution of PPAP has not been formally determined. On the basis of its lipophilicity and the phenethylamine structural class, PPAP is expected to distribute extensively into tissue compartments, including the central nervous system. The behavioral activity of PPAP at moderate systemic doses (facilitating learning, antagonizing tetrabenazine-induced depression) confirms central nervous system penetration [1]. Plasma protein binding has not been characterized.

5.3 Metabolism

The metabolic fate of PPAP has not been fully characterized in published studies. By analogy with structurally related substituted amphetamines and phenethylamines, the predicted principal metabolic pathways include: (a) N-dealkylation (removal of the N-propyl group) by hepatic cytochrome P450 enzymes (CYP2D6,

CYP3A4); (b) alpha-carbon hydroxylation; (c) aromatic ring hydroxylation at the para position; and (d) subsequent conjugation (glucuronidation, sulfation) of hydroxylated metabolites. The compound does not contain a propargyl moiety and therefore does not produce the methamphetamine and amphetamine metabolites that characterize selegiline metabolism.

For the structurally related BPAP, metabolic studies in rats identified N-dealkylation and ring hydroxylation as the principal biotransformation pathways [14].

5.4 Elimination

Elimination data for PPAP are not available from published sources. By analogy with the structural class, elimination is expected to be predominantly metabolic (hepatic biotransformation) with renal excretion of conjugated metabolites. The plasma elimination half-life has not been determined in any species in published form.

5.5 Routes of administration

In the published preclinical literature, PPAP has been administered by the intraperitoneal route (the standard rodent research route) at doses of 1 to 50 mg/kg [1, 2]. Oral administration has been used in some behavioral studies. The hydrochloride salt is freely soluble in water, supporting subcutaneous, intraperitoneal, intravenous, and oral routes of administration in animal studies. The compound has been applied directly to isolated brain tissue preparations in concentrations of 1 to 100 micromolar for in vitro enhancer characterization [2, 4].

For research applications outside of in vitro assays, the intraperitoneal route in rodents at 1 to 5 mg/kg is the best-characterized dosing paradigm. Investigators should note that no human pharmacokinetic data are available and that all dose extrapolations from rodent models should be treated with appropriate caution regarding interspecies allometric scaling.

6. Preclinical Pharmacology

6.1 Learning and memory facilitation

In the 1992 characterization, PPAP facilitated learning and retention in the shuttle-box avoidance paradigm in rats [1]. The compound was effective across a dose range of approximately 1 to 10 mg/kg intraperitoneal, with a broad dose-response relationship that contrasted sharply with amphetamine, which facilitated performance only in a narrow range of low doses (0.25 to 0.5 mg/kg) before producing performance decrement at higher doses [1]. The broader effective dose range of PPAP was interpreted as evidence of a qualitatively different mechanism of cognitive facilitation, consistent with the enhancer hypothesis: amplification of ongoing catecholaminergic signaling rather than indiscriminate monoamine flood.

6.2 Antidepressant-like activity

PPAP was highly effective in two standard rodent models of antidepressant activity: the tetrabenazine-induced behavioral depression model and the forced swimming test (Porsolt test) [1]. In the tetrabenazine model, PPAP potently antagonized the behavioral suppression produced by the vesicular monoamine transporter inhibitor tetrabenazine (which depletes presynaptic monoamine stores). In the forced swimming test, PPAP reduced immobility time at doses of 2 to 10 mg/kg intraperitoneally, consistent with antidepressant-like activity [1].

6.3 Locomotor activity and stereotypy

PPAP increased locomotor activity in rats beginning at approximately 2 mg/kg intraperitoneally and, in contrast to amphetamine, did not produce inhibition of locomotion through stereotypy until very high doses (approximately 50 mg/kg) [1]. Amphetamine and methamphetamine characteristically convert from locomotor stimulation to focused stereotypy (repetitive sniffing, gnawing, head movements) at moderate doses, a transition that reflects excessive dopaminergic stimulation in the basal ganglia. PPAP was substantially less effective in inducing stereotyped be-

havior than either amphetamine or methamphetamine at equimolar doses, further supporting the mechanistic distinction between enhancer-mediated catecholaminergic amplification and amphetamine-type monoamine release [1].

6.4 Drug interaction with classical stimulants

A two-sided antagonism in the motility-increasing effect was detected between PPAP and amphetamine, and more pronouncedly between PPAP and mazindol (a DAT/NET reuptake inhibitor) [1]. This pharmacological antagonism suggests that the enhancer mechanism and the classical stimulant/reuptake inhibitor mechanisms interact in a non-additive, partially antagonistic manner at the level of catecholaminergic neurotransmission, possibly through ceiling effects on dopamine release or through differential effects on tonic versus phasic dopamine signaling.

6.5 Neurochemical effects

In isolated rat brain preparations with electrical field stimulation, PPAP at concentrations of 1 to 100 micromolar enhanced the stimulation-evoked release of [3H]dopamine from striatal tissue and [3H]norepinephrine from cortical tissue without affecting basal release [2, 4]. The enhancer effect was observed in both striatal (nigrostriatal dopaminergic pathway) and cortical (mesocortical and locus coeruleus noradrenergic pathway) preparations, indicating broad catecholaminergic enhancer activity across brain regions [2].

For the related compound BPAP, *in vivo* microdialysis studies demonstrated that systemic administration maximally increased extracellular dopamine levels in the striatum by approximately 44 percent [7]. A comparable or slightly smaller increase is expected for PPAP, consistent with its lower potency relative to BPAP.

6.6 Serotonin effects on peripheral cells

A 2004 study by Csaba and Pallinger examined the acute and delayed effects of (-)-deprenyl (selegiline) and (-)-PPAP on the serotonin content of peritoneal cells (white blood cells and mast cells) [15]. This study provided evidence of peripheral immunomodulatory effects of enhancer substances, though the significance for central nervous system pharmacology is uncertain.

7. Clinical Evidence Base

7.1 Human clinical trials

No human clinical trials of PPAP have been completed or published in the peer-reviewed literature. The compound has not entered Phase 1 safety and pharmacokinetic studies in any disclosed regulatory program. All efficacy and safety data are derived from preclinical animal models.

7.2 Proposed clinical applications

On the basis of the preclinical pharmacological profile, three clinical applications have been proposed for PPAP:

Depression. The antidepressant-like activity in the forced swimming test and the tetrabenazine model, combined with the catecholaminergic-selective enhancer mechanism, supports a rationale for investigation in major depressive disorder. The catecholaminergic selectivity (dopamine and norepinephrine enhancement without serotonergic activity) would position PPAP as mechanistically complementary to serotonergic antidepressants (SSRIs, SNRIs) [1, 13].

Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD). The facilitation of learning and retention in shuttle-box avoidance paradigms, the broad therapeutic dose window, and the DAT reuptake inhibition (IC₅₀ 57.5 nM) support a rationale for investigation in ADHD. The dual mechanism (enhancer plus reuptake inhibition) and the absence of amphetamine-type stereotypy and narrow dose window could offer a therapeutic advantage over existing psychostimulant treatments [1, 5, 13].

Alzheimer's disease and neurodegenerative cognitive decline. The catecholaminergic enhancer mechanism and the demonstrated facilitation of learning and memory in animal models support investigation in age-related and neurodegenerative cognitive decline. The Knoll laboratory's broader program of enhancer substances was motivated in part by the hypothesis that age-related decline in catecholaminergic enhancer-sensitive brain regulations contributes to cognitive aging [12].

7.3 Evidence limitations

The absence of human pharmacokinetic, safety, and efficacy data is the principal limitation of the PPAP evidence base. The proposed clinical applications are extrapolations from preclinical models and have not been validated in human studies. The preclinical models employed (shuttle-box avoidance, forced swimming test, tetrabenazine antagonism) have face validity for the proposed indications but limited predictive validity for clinical outcomes. The 2025 finding that PPAP is a potent DAT reuptake inhibitor adds a concern about abuse liability that was not present in the original enhancer-only characterization, as DAT inhibition is a pharmacological property shared with reinforcing stimulants (cocaine, methylphenidate, MDPV) [5].

8. Sourcing and Quality Verification

Research-grade PPAP-HCl is available from specialized research chemical suppliers, including nootropic-focused vendors and chemical supply companies. The compound is not available as a pharmaceutical preparation; no regulatory authority has approved PPAP for therapeutic use.

Suppliers currently offering PPAP-HCl include specialized research chemical vendors providing the compound at stated purities of greater than 98 percent by HPLC. The compound is supplied as the hydrochloride salt, typically in quantities of 250 mg to 5 grams, at prices in the range of \$30 to \$150 per gram depending on quantity and vendor.

Investigators should confirm compound identity and purity on every research-grade lot through:

- High-performance liquid chromatography area-percent purity, ideally greater than 98 percent
- Mass spectrometry confirmation of molecular weight (206.19 plus or minus 0.01 for the protonated free base $[M+H]^+$, or 242.17 for the hydrochloride)
- Chiral HPLC or polarimetry confirmation of enantiomeric purity if the (R)-enantiomer is specified (greater than 95 percent enantiomeric excess)
- Nuclear magnetic resonance (1H -NMR and ^{13}C -NMR) spectroscopy for structural confirmation
- Residual solvent analysis (gas chromatography for common synthesis solvents)
- Karl Fischer or loss-on-drying analysis for residual water content

Third-party analytical laboratories (Janoshik Analytical, others) provide independent confirmation of vendor certificates of analysis. Because PPAP is a niche research compound with a small market, lot-to-lot variability and the possibility of misidentified or adulterated material are real concerns. On-receipt analytical confirmation is strongly recommended for any investigation where dose-response or mechanism-of-action precision is required.

9. Reconstitution and Handling

PPAP-HCl is soluble in water at room temperature and in common polar organic solvents (methanol, ethanol, dimethyl sulfoxide). For in vitro research applications, stock solutions are typically prepared at 10 to 100 mM in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), with working dilutions prepared in assay buffer immediately before use. The final DMSO concentration in assay wells should be maintained below 0.1 percent to avoid solvent effects on cellular assays.

For in vivo research applications (intraperitoneal, subcutaneous, or oral administration in rodents), the hydrochloride salt is dissolved in sterile normal saline (0.9 percent sodium chloride) or in sterile water for injection at concentrations appropriate to the target dose and injection volume (typically 1 to 10 mg/mL for intraperitoneal injection at 1 to 10 mg/kg in a 0.1 to 0.2 mL injection volume per 20 g mouse).

Storage: The solid hydrochloride salt should be stored desiccated at minus 20 degrees Celsius for long-term storage or at 2 to 8 degrees Celsius for short-term storage (weeks to months). Aqueous stock solutions should be prepared fresh or aliquoted and stored at minus 20 degrees Celsius for no more than 30 days. DMSO stock solutions are stable at minus 20 degrees Celsius for at least 6 months. Light protection is not specifically required but is reasonable practice for any amine-containing research compound. Repeated freeze-thaw cycles of stock solutions should be minimized; single-use aliquots are recommended.

Handling precautions: PPAP-HCl is not classified as a controlled substance in most jurisdictions. Investigators should handle the compound with standard laboratory safety precautions for research chemicals (gloves, laboratory coat, eye protection, fume hood for weighing). The compound is pharmacologically active and should not be ingested, inhaled, or applied to skin or mucous membranes.

10. Stack Interactions and Combinations

PPAP interacts with several drug classes through its dual catecholaminergic enhancer and reuptake inhibitor mechanisms. Investigators conducting research with PPAP, particularly in combination pharmacology studies, should consider:

Monoamine oxidase inhibitors (MAOIs). Although PPAP itself lacks MAO inhibitory activity, concurrent administration with MAO-A or MAO-B inhibitors (selegiline, rasagiline, phenelzine, tranylcypromine, moclobemide) is expected to produce additive or synergistic catecholaminergic effects and carries a theoretical risk of hypertensive crisis through potentiation of catecholamine-mediated sympathetic activation. The combination of PPAP with selegiline is of particular pharmacological interest given their shared enhancer mechanism but should be approached with caution in *in vivo* research.

Classical psychostimulants (amphetamine, methamphetamine, methylphenidate). PPAP and amphetamine have demonstrated two-sided antagonism in locomotor activity paradigms, suggesting non-additive pharmacological interactions [1]. Concurrent administration may produce unpredictable behavioral effects and is not recommended without careful dose-response characterization.

Dopamine and norepinephrine reuptake inhibitors. Given the 2025 finding that PPAP itself is a potent DAT inhibitor (IC₅₀ 57.5 nM), concurrent administration with other DAT inhibitors (methylphenidate, bupropion, nomifensine, modafinil) is expected to produce additive reuptake inhibition and potentially excessive dopaminergic stimulation. The combination should be investigated with caution.

Serotonergic agents. PPAP has minimal serotonergic activity (SERT IC₅₀ 19,000 nM) and is not expected to produce pharmacologically significant serotonergic interactions at standard research doses. Concurrent use with SSRIs, SNRIs, or serotonin releasers (MDMA) is unlikely to produce serotonin syndrome through PPAP-mediated mechanisms, though investigators should remain alert to any unexpected serotonergic signals.

TAAR1 ligands. If the enhancer effect of PPAP is indeed mediated by TAAR1 agonism, concurrent administration with other TAAR1 agonists (ulotaront, ralmitaront, SEP-363856) would produce additive receptor activation and potentially alter the bell-shaped concentration-response curve observed for enhancer substances. The combination is a productive area for fundamental pharmacology research.

CYP2D6 inhibitors and inducers. Although the specific CYP enzymes responsible for PPAP metabolism have not been formally identified, the structural class (substituted phenethylamine, secondary amine) predicts CYP2D6 as a principal metabolizing enzyme. Concurrent use with strong CYP2D6 inhibitors (paroxetine, fluoxetine, bupropion, quinidine) may elevate PPAP exposure.

QT-prolonging agents. No data are available on the cardiac electrophysiological effects of PPAP. Catecholaminergic agents can increase heart rate and may interact with QT-prolonging drugs; caution is warranted pending characterization.

11. Adverse Events and Safety

11.1 Preclinical safety profile

Formal toxicology studies of PPAP have not been published. The available safety data are derived from observations in the behavioral pharmacology studies conducted by the Knoll laboratory and by subsequent investigators.

Behavioral toxicity. At doses up to approximately 10 mg/kg intraperitoneally in rats, PPAP produced locomotor stimulation, facilitation of learning, and antidepressant-like behavior without observable behavioral toxicity [1]. At higher doses (approximately 50 mg/kg), locomotor inhibition was observed, likely reflecting excessive catecholaminergic stimulation [1]. Stereotyped behavior (a marker of excessive dopaminergic stimulation in the basal ganglia) was substantially less pronounced with PPAP than with equimolar doses of amphetamine or methamphetamine [1].

Therapeutic index. The therapeutic index (ratio of toxic or stereotypy-inducing dose to behaviorally effective dose) for PPAP in rodent behavioral models is substantially wider than that of amphetamine. PPAP produces cognitive facilitation across a dose range of approximately 1 to 10 mg/kg, while stereotypy and locomotor inhibition appear only at approximately 50 mg/kg, yielding a therapeutic index of approximately 5 to 50 depending on the endpoint [1]. For amphetamine, the corresponding therapeutic index is approximately 2 to 4 (facilitation at 0.25 to 0.5 mg/kg, stereotypy at 1 to 2 mg/kg) [1].

11.2 Anticipated adverse effects

On the basis of the pharmacological mechanism (catecholaminergic enhancement and DAT/NET reuptake inhibition), the anticipated adverse effects of PPAP in humans include:

- Cardiovascular stimulation (tachycardia, hypertension) from enhanced norenergic and dopaminergic sympathetic activation
- Insomnia and psychomotor agitation at supratherapeutic doses
- Appetite suppression (characteristic of catecholaminergic agents)

- Potential for psychological habituation or reinforcement given the DAT reuptake inhibition profile (IC₅₀ 57.5 nM), which overlaps with the potency range of known reinforcing stimulants

11.3 Abuse liability considerations

The 2025 finding that PPAP is a potent DAT reuptake inhibitor introduces a concern about abuse liability that was not evident from the original enhancer-only characterization [5]. DAT reuptake inhibition is a pharmacological property strongly associated with reinforcing properties and abuse potential in both animal self-administration models and human clinical experience (cocaine, methylphenidate, MDPV share this mechanism). The DAT IC₅₀ of 57.5 nM places PPAP in the moderate-to-high potency range for DAT inhibition. However, the enhancer mechanism, which preserves temporal coding of dopaminergic signaling rather than producing tonic elevation, may mitigate abuse liability relative to pure reuptake inhibitors of equivalent DAT potency. This hypothesis has not been tested in self-administration paradigms.

11.4 Reproductive and developmental toxicity

No data on reproductive or developmental toxicity of PPAP are available from published sources.

11.5 Mutagenicity and carcinogenicity

No data on mutagenicity or carcinogenicity of PPAP are available from published sources. By analogy with the substituted phenethylamine and amphetamine structural class, PPAP is not expected to be directly mutagenic, but formal genotoxicity testing has not been conducted.

12. Comparative Assessment

This section presents a structured comparative assessment of five catecholaminergic or monoaminergic enhancer, stimulant, or reuptake inhibitor compounds against PPAP-HCl, evaluated against five competency standards: novelty, effect size, promising potential (current research trajectory and clinical proximity), side-effect profile, and overall validation. The five candidates were selected to represent the principal mechanistic classes with which PPAP is compared in the research literature: the parent compound selegiline, the successor compound BPAP, the trace amine pharmacology reference compound beta-phenylethylamine, and two clinically advanced catecholaminergic agents (methylphenidate and bupropion) that target overlapping neurochemical systems through different mechanisms.

12.1 Selegiline (L-deprenyl)

Mechanism: Irreversible selective MAO-B inhibitor, catecholaminergic activity enhancer (CAE), and (at the metabolic level) a source of (-)-methamphetamine and (-)-amphetamine metabolites. Selegiline was the first synthetic CAE substance identified by Knoll and the parent compound from which PPAP was derived [9, 10].

Novelty: Low relative to PPAP. Selegiline was the original compound in the enhancer lineage (described in the 1960s); PPAP represents the refinement that isolated the enhancer mechanism. Selegiline is a well-established drug with extensive clinical use in Parkinson's disease and depression.

Effect size: Substantial in Parkinson's disease (disease-modifying claims supported by DATATOP trial), moderate in depression (EMSAM transdermal patch approved for major depressive disorder). The enhancer component of selegiline's effect is confounded by its MAO-B inhibition and its amphetamine metabolites, making it difficult to attribute clinical effects specifically to the enhancer mechanism [9, 10].

Promising potential: Moderate. Selegiline is an approved drug with established clinical utility, but its complex pharmacology (MAO-B inhibition, enhancer activity, amphetamine metabolites) complicates mechanistic interpretation and limits dose optimization for the enhancer component alone.

Side-effect profile: The dietary tyramine restriction required with oral selegiline (hypertensive crisis risk from MAO inhibition), the insomnia and cardiovascular effects from amphetamine metabolites, and the drug-drug interactions mediated by MAO inhibition (serotonin syndrome risk with SSRIs) are significant clinical liabilities. The transdermal formulation (EMSAM) partially mitigates the dietary restriction but not the metabolite or drug-interaction concerns [16].

Overall validation: High for clinical utility (approved in multiple indications); moderate for the enhancer mechanism specifically, because the clinical effects cannot be attributed solely to enhancer activity.

Comparison to PPAP: PPAP was designed to isolate the enhancer mechanism of selegiline and succeeds in eliminating MAO inhibition and amphetamine metabolite formation. The trade-off is the absence of clinical validation: selegiline has decades of clinical use and regulatory approval, while PPAP has no human data. For mechanistic research on the enhancer concept, PPAP is the cleaner tool; for clinical application, selegiline has the established track record.

12.2 BPAP [(-)1-(benzofuran-2-yl)-2-propylaminopentane]

Mechanism: Catecholaminergic and serotonergic activity enhancer (monoaminergic activity enhancer, MAE). BPAP is the successor compound to PPAP, synthesized by Knoll in 1999 by replacing the phenyl ring of PPAP with a benzofuran moiety [8]. BPAP enhances impulse-dependent release of dopamine, norepinephrine, and serotonin, in contrast to PPAP and selegiline, which are catecholaminergic-selective.

Novelty: Moderate. The addition of serotonergic enhancer activity to the catecholaminergic enhancer mechanism represents a meaningful extension; the benzofuran substitution is a targeted medicinal chemistry optimization.

Effect size: Substantially greater potency than PPAP in in vitro enhancer assays and in in vivo behavioral models. BPAP is active at doses of 0.05 to 10 mg/kg in rats, compared to 1 to 5 mg/kg for PPAP and selegiline [8]. In vivo microdialysis demonstrates a maximum increase of approximately 44 percent in extracellular striatal dopamine [7].

Promising potential: Moderate. BPAP has not entered clinical development. Like PPAP, it remains a research tool. The serotonergic component and the greater potency could offer advantages for clinical development, but no regulatory filings are known.

Side-effect profile: Preclinical only. No human safety data. The serotonergic enhancer activity introduces a theoretical concern about serotonergic adverse events that is absent from PPAP.

Overall validation: Low to moderate. Extensive preclinical characterization by the Knoll laboratory and by the TAAR1 research community; no clinical validation. The most recent TAAR1-mechanism work (2022 to 2025) has primarily used BPAP as the pharmacological tool [6, 7].

Comparison to PPAP: BPAP is the more potent and more broadly active enhancer (catecholaminergic plus serotonergic), but shares the absence of clinical data. PPAP retains a research niche as the catecholaminergic-selective enhancer for mechanism-dissection studies where serotonergic confounds are undesirable. PPAP also has the 2025 DAT reuptake inhibition data that place it in a dual-mechanism category; comparable transporter data for BPAP have not been published.

12.3 Beta-phenylethylamine (PEA)

Mechanism: Endogenous trace amine; TAAR1 agonist; weak catecholamine-releasing agent; substrate for MAO-B. PEA is the endogenous ligand proposed by Knoll as the physiological enhancer substance in the brain [9, 11]. It is the structural core of the phenethylamine/amphetamine scaffold from which PPAP, selegiline, and BPAP are all derived.

Novelty: Low. PEA is an endogenous compound with a research history spanning more than 50 years. Its role as a TAAR1 agonist was elucidated in the 2000s and represents the principal mechanistic advance.

Effect size: Extremely short duration of action due to rapid MAO-B metabolism (plasma half-life approximately 5 to 10 minutes after exogenous administration). The extremely rapid metabolism limits the achievable plasma and brain concentrations and therefore the magnitude and duration of the enhancer effect in vivo. Exogenous PEA administration produces transient sympathomimetic effects but does not produce sustained cognitive or behavioral facilitation comparable to PPAP at practical dose regimens [17].

Promising potential: Low as a therapeutic candidate. The rapid metabolism by MAO-B renders exogenous PEA administration impractical for sustained pharmacological effects. PEA serves principally as the endogenous reference ligand for the enhancer/TAAR1 system.

Side-effect profile: Sympathomimetic effects (tachycardia, hypertension, headache) at supratherapeutic doses. Generally well tolerated at physiological concentrations. The rapid metabolism limits both efficacy and toxicity.

Overall validation: High as a research tool for understanding the endogenous enhancer system; low as a therapeutic candidate.

Comparison to PPAP: PPAP represents a synthetic, metabolically stable derivative of the PEA pharmacophore with a dramatically longer duration of action and a broader dose-response profile. The relationship is analogous to that between endogenous acetylcholine and synthetic cholinesterase-resistant acetylcholine receptor ligands: the synthetic compound captures the mechanism of the endogenous substance while providing the pharmacokinetic stability required for research and potential therapeutic applications.

12.4 Methylphenidate

Mechanism: DAT and NET reuptake inhibitor; no catecholaminergic enhancer activity. Methylphenidate is the principal pharmacotherapy for ADHD and acts by blocking the reuptake of dopamine and norepinephrine at their respective transporters [18].

Novelty: Low. Methylphenidate has been in clinical use since 1955. The mechanism is well characterized and conventional.

Effect size: Substantial in ADHD (effect sizes of 0.8 to 1.0 on parent-rated symptom scales in meta-analyses of randomized controlled trials). Moderate in narcolepsy and in cancer-related fatigue. The clinical effect size in ADHD is the reference standard for catecholaminergic psychostimulant therapy.

Promising potential: Not applicable (established therapy). Methylphenidate is approved for ADHD in most jurisdictions worldwide and is widely prescribed.

Side-effect profile: Well characterized: appetite suppression, insomnia, tachycardia, growth suppression in children (controversial), potential for abuse and diversion. The abuse liability is directly related to DAT reuptake inhibition and the resulting dopaminergic reinforcement [18].

Overall validation: Very high. Decades of clinical use, thousands of clinical trials, and extensive postmarketing surveillance.

Comparison to PPAP: Methylphenidate shares the DAT/NET reuptake inhibition mechanism with PPAP (comparable potency at DAT) but lacks the enhancer component. The key theoretical advantage of PPAP over methylphenidate is the enhancer mechanism, which would selectively amplify phasic (stimulus-linked) dopamine signaling rather than producing the tonic dopamine elevation produced by reuptake inhibition alone. If this theoretical advantage translates to clinical practice, it could manifest as improved temporal precision of dopaminergic modulation and potentially reduced abuse liability. However, this advantage is entirely hypothetical in the absence of clinical data for PPAP.

12.5 Bupropion

Mechanism: DAT and NET reuptake inhibitor; nicotinic acetylcholine receptor antagonist. Bupropion is approved for major depressive disorder, seasonal affective disorder, and smoking cessation [19].

Novelty: Low. Bupropion has been in clinical use since 1989 (second approval after initial withdrawal for seizure risk). The mechanism is well characterized.

Effect size: Moderate in major depressive disorder (comparable to SSRIs in meta-analyses). The catecholaminergic mechanism provides a distinct clinical profile (less sexual dysfunction, less weight gain than SSRIs) but no clear superiority on primary efficacy endpoints. Moderate in smoking cessation (approximately doubles quit rates relative to placebo).

Promising potential: Not applicable (established therapy).

Side-effect profile: Dose-dependent seizure risk (the basis for the initial market withdrawal), insomnia, dry mouth, agitation, tachycardia. Lower rates of sexual dysfunction and weight gain than SSRIs. Abuse liability is low but not absent [19].

Overall validation: High. Established clinical use in multiple indications with extensive safety data.

Comparison to PPAP: Bupropion shares the DAT/NET reuptake inhibition mechanism with PPAP and is the closest clinically approved comparator for the proposed antidepressant application of PPAP. The enhancer mechanism of PPAP is the principal theoretical differentiator; whether it produces a clinical advantage over pure reuptake inhibition is untested. Bupropion has the overwhelming advantage of clinical validation, regulatory approval, and decades of safety data.

12.6 Comparator summary

The five comparator compounds span the mechanistic space relevant to PPAP. **Selegiline** is the parent compound from which PPAP was derived, with clinical validation but confounded pharmacology. **BPAP** is the more potent successor with broader (catecholaminergic plus serotonergic) enhancer activity but no clinical data. **Beta-phenylethylamine** is the endogenous enhancer substance, metabolically unstable and impractical as a therapeutic. **Methylphenidate** and **bupropion** are clinically established catecholaminergic reuptake inhibitors that share the DAT/NET mechanism with PPAP but lack the enhancer component.

PPAP occupies a unique position in this landscape as the only compound that combines catecholaminergic activity enhancement (the enhancer mechanism mediated by TAAR1 agonism and potentiation of vesicular exocytosis) with potent DAT reuptake inhibition, in the absence of MAO inhibition, in the absence of serotonergic activity, and in the absence of transporter-reversal monoamine release. The dual mechanism is mechanistically attractive for conditions requiring amplification of phasic catecholaminergic signaling (cognitive enhancement, attentional facilitation) with concurrent prolongation of synaptic catecholamine residence time. The principal limitation is the complete absence of human pharmacokinetic, safety, and efficacy data: the theoretical advantages of PPAP over its comparators are supported exclusively by preclinical evidence and by pharmacological reasoning, and have not been validated in clinical studies.

Investigators considering PPAP for research applications should weigh the mechanistic uniqueness (enhancer plus reuptake inhibitor, no MAO, no serotonin) against the evidentiary limitations (no human data, limited formal toxicology, uncertain abuse liability) and against the availability of clinically validated alternatives (selegiline for enhancer-adjacent pharmacology, methylphenidate and bupropion for DAT/NET reuptake inhibition). PPAP is most productively positioned as a mechanistic research tool for dissecting enhancer-mediated versus reuptake-mediated catecholaminergic effects, as a reference compound for TAAR1 pharmacology, and as a lead structure for potential clinical development if the enhancer mechanism can be demonstrated to provide clinical advantages over existing treatments.

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