

SELECTIVE INHIBITION OF CENTRAL SYMPATHETIC NEURONS
BY MORPHINE AND ITS REVERSAL BY NALOXONE

by

Kevin Lee McCloskey

A dissertation submitted to the faculty of the
University of Utah in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Department of Pharmacology

University of Utah

August, 1976

UNIVERSITY OF UTAH GRADUATE SCHOOL

SUPERVISORY COMMITTEE APPROVAL

of a dissertation submitted by

Kevin Lee McCloskey


I have read this dissertation and have found it to be of satisfactory quality for a doctoral degree.




Chairman, Supervisory Committee

I have read this dissertation and have found it to be of satisfactory quality for a doctoral degree.


Date


Stuart A. Turkanis, Ph.D.
Member, Supervisory Committee

I have read this dissertation and have found it to be of satisfactory quality for a doctoral degree.


Date 1976


Gary L. Ingham,
Member, Supervisory Committee

I have read this dissertation and have found it to be of satisfactory quality for a doctoral degree.



Date 1976



Member, Supervisory Committee

I have read this dissertation and have found it to be of satisfactory quality for a doctoral degree.


Date


Dixon M. Woodbury, Ph.D.
Member, Supervisory Committee

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to thank Professors Dixon M. Woodbury and Louis S. Goodman for making my graduate education possible. I am grateful to all members of the Pharmacology Department for their efforts in my training.

I am especially indebted to Dr. Donald N. Franz for his knowledge, patience and the unselfish support rendered during my years in his laboratory. His guidance and assistance during all phases of this thesis have been invaluable.

I wish to thank Dr. Bradford D. Hare and Dr. Robert J. Neumayr for their many fruitful discussions and their cooperation in the laboratory.

Finally, I would like to add a note of special thanks to two close friends, Mr. Reid C. Davis and Ms. Ruth J. Post, for their personal support and objective criticisms.

This work was made possible by USPHS grants FR-05428, NS-04553 and GM-00153.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

| | Page |
|--------------------|-------------|
| ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS | iv |
| ABSTRACT | vi |
| INTRODUCTION | 1 |
| METHODS | 3 |
| RESULTS | 10 |
| DISCUSSION | 23 |
| REFERENCES | 38 |
| FIGURES AND TABLES | 55 |
| VITA | 71 |

ABSTRACT

Recent investigations clarifying the monoaminergic influences on sympathetic preganglionic neurons in the cat have allowed a direct assessment of the effects of narcotic analgesics and antagonists on central transmission. Intravenous morphine, methadone, meperidine or codeine produced an immediate and sustained depression of discharges evoked from these spinal sympathetic neurons. The potency ratios for production of similar degrees of depression by these four agents compared favorably to the potency ratios reported for equianalgesic doses. The depression appeared to be specific in that it was rapidly reversed by very low doses of naloxone or nalorphine and that a non-analgesic stereoisomer related to these drugs produced qualitatively different effects on the sympathetic preganglionic neurons. The depression of these neurons offers an adequate and sufficient mechanism to account for the centrally mediated vasodepressor effect produced by morphine and other narcotic analgesics. The pharmacological characterization of the morphine and naloxone actions strongly suggests that morphine functions as a 5-HT agonist in this system, while naloxone can both block 5-HT receptors and also stimulate these

spinal neurons . The significance of these findings relative to other acute and chronic effects of the narcotic analgesics are discussed .

spinal neurons. The significance of these findings relative to other acute and chronic effects of the narcotic analgesics are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

The involvement of norepinephrine (NE) and 5-hydroxytryptamine (5-HT) in the central actions of the narcotic analgesics has been amply demonstrated^{13, 52, 87}. However, the exact nature and extent of monoamine participation remains unclear. To date, the vast majority of studies have been concerned with correlations between the gross physiological effects of these drugs and major alterations in the concentrations of the putative central transmitters. Relatively few studies have attempted to assess directly the actions of the narcotics on discrete, yet functional NE or 5-HT components of the central nervous system.

Current developments in understanding the role of endogenous monoamines in the activity of sympathetic preganglionic neurons suggest that these neurons could serve as a model system for delineating the mechanisms of action of drugs affecting central NE and 5-HT transmission. Histochemical and anatomical studies have shown that these preganglionic neurons, with cell bodies located in the intermediolateral columns of the spinal cord, receive a rich supply of NE and 5-HT terminals from neurons originating in the vasomotor centers of the caudal medulla oblongata^{16, 29, 95}.

Electrophysiological and pharmacological investigations have demonstrated that the NE neurons are excitatory and the 5-HT neurons are inhibitory to the sympathetic preganglionic neurons^{28, 34, 66}. By monitoring evoked discharges from these preganglionic neurons, coupled with the appropriate use of monoamine precursors and blocking agents, drug actions mediated through the NE or 5-HT synapses can be assessed and characterized.

This paper describes the effects of several narcotic analgesics and related compounds on activity evoked from sympathetic preganglionic neurons. The experiments were conducted in unanesthetized spinal cats to confine the site of drug action to synapses at the spinal level. The narcotics consistently depressed evoked sympathetic activity, an effect that could be rapidly antagonized by naloxone or nalorphine. Characterization of the effect of morphine on these neurons not only suggests its site of action in this system but also offers a mechanism that can adequately account for the centrally mediated vasodepressor effect produced by this drug^{20, 58, 59}.

METHODS

Surgical procedure

Results were obtained from 44 adult cats of either sex weighing between 2.1 and 5.8 kg. During brief ether anesthesia a tracheal cannula was placed, both common carotid arteries were ligated (one of which was cannulated for continuous monitoring of arterial pressure) and the vertebral arteries were clamped and occluded at C2. Anesthesia was discontinued after the spinal cord was transected at C1. Ventilation was maintained with a positive pressure respirator adjusted to hold the end expiratory CO₂ concentration between 4 and 5% (Spinco Medical Gas Analyzer). Arterial pressure usually stabilized between 70 and 85 mm Hg following spinal transection. In the few experiments in which blood pressure tended to fall below this level, adequate perfusion was maintained by wrapping the hind limbs and abdomen with an elastic bandage to reduce peripheral pooling of blood and by intravenous administration of small volumes (5 to 10 ml) of 10% dextran-40. Body temperature was monitored and maintained in the range of 36 to 38 °C by an automatically controlled heating plate. A peripheral vein, usually the left cephalic, was cannulated for

administration of drugs. Gallamine triethiodide (Flaxedil) was administered as needed to provide muscle paralysis throughout the experiment.

The left thoracic sympathetic preganglionic rami communicantes and intercostal nerves of segments T2, T3, and T4 were approached by a dorsal midline incision, reflection of the skin to the left, and removal of overlying muscle. The proximal portions of ribs 2, 3, and 4 and adjacent intercostal muscles were removed. Care was taken to leave the parietal pleural membrane intact to serve as the floor of the recording pool. An ipsilateral pneumothorax and a rigid blunt retainer positioned against the exposed parietal pleural membrane minimized respiratory movement in the vicinity of the exposed nerves.

Dissection was continued under a binocular dissecting microscope (3-25 magnification). Intercostal nerves were sectioned approximately 20 mm distal to the vertebral column and were dissected free of adjacent tissue to a point just proximal to the sympathetic trunk. The sympathetic preganglionic rami were identified by their location and appearance, their distal entry into the sympathetic chain or ganglion, and their proximal juncture with

appropriate spinal nerves. The intercostal nerves and preganglionic rami were then covered with warm mineral oil. The rami were carefully cleaned of remaining connective tissue between their merger with the sympathetic trunk and their juncture with a corresponding spinal nerve; rami were then sectioned proximal to the sympathetic chain.

In experiments depending upon intraspinal stimulation, a dorsolateral laminectomy was performed to expose the spinal cord at either the C2 and C3 or the C5 and C6 segments. The dura was opened and reflected to expose the dorsal roots which were sectioned distally and displaced medially. This exposed dorso-lateral surface of the spinal cord was covered with warm mineral oil.

Recording and stimulating procedures

Evoked sympathetic discharges were recorded with a bipolar silver-wire electrode from two of the three exposed sympathetic preganglionic rami. Evoked responses were amplified (Tektronix 2A61; frequency response 6-600 Hz) and displayed on a dual-beam oscilloscope for continuous monitoring. Evoked activity was quantitated on-line by integrating the area above baseline of 16 or 32

consecutive responses with a signal averaging computer (Nicolet 1072). Photographs of the analog computer output and representative individual discharges served as permanent records for the complete course of each experiment.

Sympathetic preganglionic neurons receive excitatory input, both from the periphery, through small myelinated afferent fibers in the intracostal spinal nerves^{27, 34}, and from supraspinal centers via tracts descending in the dorsolateral funiculus of the spinal cord^{41, 66}. Both pathways were utilized in the present study to evoke sympathetic preganglionic discharges. Fig. 1 presents schematic representations of the relevant structures involved in the peripherally activated spinal reflex pathway (A) and in the centrally activated intraspinal pathway (B).

Stimulation of one of the freed intercostal nerves with supramaximal rectangular pulses (0.2 msec) delivered through bipolar silver-wire electrodes from an isolated stimulator (Devices, Mark IV) at a frequency of 15/min evoked maximal sympathetic discharges. Reflex responses were evoked either within the same segment or from one or two segments distant.

Activation of the thoracic sympathetic preganglionic neurons through the intraspinal pathway (B of Fig. 1) was produced by stimulating descending tracts in the dorsolateral funiculus of the cervical spinal cord with bipolar tungsten microelectrodes (tip exposure, 25 μ ; 3-9 Mohm; separation, 1 mm). The electrodes, held in a micromanipulator, were oriented to enter the spinal cord vertically in the sagittal plane. Maximal responses were evoked with biphasic pulses (0.2 msec) at a frequency of 6/min and a stimulus intensity between 100 and 150 μ A. Electrodes were positioned under microscopic control to provide the largest sympathetic discharges upon stimulation (Devices, Mark IV) at intensities just above threshold; the intensity was then raised to evoke maximal responses. The use of biphasic pulses and a low rate of stimulation conferred good stability of responses for many hours. In all experiments, a digital master control timing unit (Devices, Digitimer) was used to trigger stimulation and recording equipment.

Experimental procedure

A minimum of five hours elapsed between spinal cord transection and the start of recording. During a control period of at least one hour prior to drug administration, evoked responses

were sampled to assess the stability of the preparation and to generate data from which to calculate a mean control response and its variance. In the absence of drug treatment, evoked sympathetic discharges routinely remained within ± 2 Standard Deviations of the mean control value for many hours. Therefore, changes occurring after drug administration were considered significant when consecutive readings fell outside this range.

Following drug administration, evoked activity was sampled at 5 or 10 min intervals, depending upon the rapidity of drug effect and the time required to make measurements. Absolute sizes of evoked discharges generated by the averaging computer were converted to percentages of the mean control value to standardize data for comparison among different experiments. The duration of individual experiments depended upon the physiological stability of the animal and the time required to complete the experimental procedures. Some experiments required up to 15 hours following cord transection for completion.

Although some quantitative differences among individual experiments were noted, drug effects were generally qualitatively consistent and variations were minor. Some of the variability

among individual experiments may have been due to relative differences in sensitivity or the proportion of preganglionic neurons available for discharge.

With the exception of parachlorophenylalanine (PCPA), all drugs were administered intravenously. PCPA was suspended in water with the aid of a small amount of Tween-80 and was injected intraperitoneally. D, L-5-HTP was dissolved in warm, normal saline at a concentration of 10 mg/ml. All other drug solutions were prepared with distilled water or normal saline or commercially available parenteral forms were used.

RESULTS

Drug effects on evoked sympathetic activity

Morphine. The effects of low doses of morphine SO_4 on activity evoked from sympathetic preganglionic neurons were assessed in spinal cats. At doses of 0.5, 1, or 2 mg/kg, morphine consistently produced marked depression of transmission through either the spinal reflex (Fig. 2A) or the intraspinal pathway (Fig. 2B). The onset of depression was rapid, became significant within 5 min, and reached a maximum within 20-30 min. Although the full duration of the depression was not established, little or no recovery occurred within 3 hrs. and only partial recovery was observed in several experiments that were followed up to 5 1/2 hrs.

Responses to the same dose of morphine were somewhat variable among different experiments, but the degree of depression was generally dose-dependent. Although the effects of small doses of morphine were usually additive, little or no further depression could be produced by doses in excess of 2 mg/kg. The minimum effective dose of morphine appeared to be between 0.2 and 0.3 mg/kg; 0.25 mg/kg produced only marginal reductions in discharges evoked through the intraspinal pathway which was significantly

more sensitive than the reflex pathway to depression by morphine ($P < 0.05$). Intraspinally evoked responses were reduced by an average of 43.2% (S.E., $\pm 4.5\%$; $N = 14$) by 1 mg/kg of morphine, whereas the same dose reduced spinal sympathetic reflexes by an average of only 27.5% (S.E., $\pm 4.0\%$; $N = 6$).

Naloxone. Morphine-induced depression of sympathetic discharges evoked by either pathway was rapidly and completely antagonized by very small doses of naloxone HCl (Fig. 2). The effects of 1 or 2 mg/kg of morphine were completely reversed by 10 or 20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ of naloxone. The ratio between the dose of naloxone required for complete antagonism and the dose of morphine given was about 1:100. Submaximal doses of naloxone that only partially reversed the depression by morphine were additive. Antagonism by full doses of naloxone was apparent within several minutes and total reversal of depression was usually achieved within 10 min. Following reversal of morphine-induced depression by naloxone, evoked responses were maintained at or above control levels for 1-2 hrs before depression gradually intervened. Upon its reappearance this secondary morphine depression was equally susceptible to naloxone reversal, indicating that the duration of action of this

antagonist was shorter than that of morphine. Prior administration of an appropriate dose of naloxone was also effective in preventing depression by morphine, but the antagonism was surmountable.

In approximately two-thirds of the experiments, antagonism of the depressant effect of morphine by naloxone produced an enhancement of evoked sympathetic responses by as much as 30% above control levels (Fig. 2). This enhancement was unrelated to the initial degree of depression by morphine or to the interval between administration of morphine and naloxone. Naloxone, alone and in small doses, frequently, but not consistently, caused an increase in evoked preganglionic activity to as much as 130-150% of control values; enhancement was maintained with gradual decrement for up to 2 1/2 hr. The apparent excitatory effect of naloxone, either alone or after morphine, occurred with about the same frequency and to about the same degree in responses evoked by either pathway. Further analysis of this effect of naloxone is presented below.

Nalorphine. A second narcotic antagonist, nalorphine HCl, was tested in several experiments for its ability to counteract the

depressant effect of 1 mg/kg of morphine on evoked sympathetic discharges. Depression was readily antagonized by 200 µg/kg of nalorphine, responses being restored to control values within 10 min and maintained for more than 1 hr. The effects of nalorphine were not characterized further.

Methadone, meperidine and codeine. The effects of several other narcotic analgesics on activity evoked from sympathetic preganglionic neurons were determined for comparison with morphine. As illustrated in A, B and C of Fig. 3, methadone HCl (1 mg/kg), meperidine HCl (10 mg/kg), and codeine PO₄ (12 mg/kg) each produced a significant reduction in sympathetic responses evoked by stimulation of the intraspinal pathway. The depression produced by each of the three drugs was obvious within minutes, had reached a maximum by 15-20 min, and was stable at that reduced level for at least 1 hr. Although depression was consistently produced by each agent, some variability in the intensity of effect was noted among different experiments. In all experiments, naloxone (10-20 µg/kg) promptly reversed the depression induced by each narcotic and frequently caused a transient increase in evoked activity above control values.

The effects of these narcotic analgesics on evoked sympathetic activity were qualitatively similar to those observed for morphine. The time required for onset and full development of depression and the susceptibility of that depression to naloxone antagonism were comparable for all four agents. The doses required for equivalent effect provided the major difference in the profile of action by these drugs. Although 1 mg/kg of methadone usually produced a reduction commensurate with that seen with the same dose of morphine, production of a corresponding degree of depression by meperidine and codeine required 10-12 times that amount. These differences in potencies, however, compare favorably to the ratios reported by other investigators for equianalgesic doses in both man and animals^{53, 65}.

Dextromethorphan. Dextramethorphan is the d-isomer of a codeine analog of levorphanol. As such, it is structurally related to the narcotic analgesics but is devoid of analgesic, euphoric and addictive properties⁴². At low doses an antitussive action is its most prominent central effect; however, larger doses can produce generalized CNS depression^{10, 42}. Dextromethorphan HBr was studied with the intention of further defining the mechanism

mediating the action of the narcotic analgesics on evoked sympathetic activity. Preliminary experiments showed intravenous dextromethorphan to have a serious vasodepressor action, an effect that could be prevented by prior treatment with pyrilamine maleate. Pyrilamine alone had no effect on evoked responses and did not alter the actions of morphine or naloxone.

Fig. 3D shows a representative experiment in which intraspinally evoked discharges were modestly reduced by the administration of 5 mg/kg of dextromethorphan. At this dose, the degree of depression was variable, ranging from 20-40%. Its onset was notably less rapid than that routinely observed after morphine and the other narcotic analgesics. The reduction in evoked activity produced by dextromethorphan could not be reversed by naloxone. As illustrated in Fig. 3D, the depression produced by 5 mg/kg remained relatively unchanged for up to 3 hrs despite an additional 5 mg/kg dose or the administration of 40 µg/kg of naloxone.

In the cat, a selective antitussive action is obtained at doses of dextromethorphan in the range of 0.25 to 0.50 mg/kg; slightly higher doses produce a more generalized CNS depression¹⁰. The characteristics of the dextromethorphan effect on evoked

sympathetic activity indicate that it is different than that produced by the narcotic analgesics and may represent this non-selective depression. The observed differences suggest that the action of the analgesic isomers on sympathetic preganglionic neurons is structurally selective.

Pharmacological characterization of the morphine effect and naloxone antagonism

The bulbospinal serotonergic and noradrenergic neurons terminating in lateral columns of the thoracic spinal cord exert respective inhibitory and excitatory influences on sympathetic preganglionic neurons^{28, 34, 66}. The intraspinally evoked responses referred to in this study are evoked by stimulation of the descending axons of these noradrenergic neurons in the cervical spinal cord^{28, 66}. The pathway involved in spinal reflex responses, however, contains no monoaminergic neurons¹⁶. The ability of the narcotic analgesics to depress activity in both pathways, cannot, therefore, be explained by postulating an interference with noradrenergic transmission. Of the known synaptic mechanisms influencing sympathetic preganglionic neuron responses, only an action involving stimulation of inhibitory 5-HT receptors could

account for this depression²⁸. Accordingly, a series of experiments were conducted to assess the role of 5-HT in the morphine-induced depression of the sympathetic preganglionic neurons. In addition, aspects of the naloxone antagonism of morphine were investigated.

PCPA. To assess whether endogenous 5-HT was necessary for the action of morphine, morphine was administered to animals pretreated with parachlorophenylalanine (PCPA). PCPA, a depletor of central and peripheral 5-HT⁵⁰, was administered intraperitoneally (100 mg/kg/day) for 3 days prior to the experiment. This dosage schedule has been reported to greatly reduce spinal levels of 5-HT without altering catecholamine levels⁵⁰. The results from two such experiments are shown in Fig. 4. Depletion of central 5-HT did not affect the ability of morphine to depress evoked sympathetic activity. Both spinal reflex (Fig. 4A) and intraspinal responses (Fig. 4B) were rapidly reduced to levels normally achieved with these doses of morphine. Similarly, PCPA pretreatment did not hamper naloxone reversal of the morphine-induced depression. In fact, it appeared that naloxone reversal was not only more rapid but also produced a greater enhancement

of responses above control values than was usually observed in cats not treated with PCPA. Acute depletion of central monoamines with reserpine (10 mg/kg) also failed to modify the actions of morphine or its antagonism by naloxone. These experiments indicate that morphine-induced depression of sympathetic preganglionic neurons and its antagonism by naloxone are not dependent on intact 5-HT stores.

Tolazoline. The drug tolazoline, a 5-HT and α -adrenergic receptor antagonist in the periphery^{32, 67}, also has been found to block the inhibitory 5-HT receptors on sympathetic preganglionic neurons²⁸. In a series of five experiments tolazoline was tested for its ability to antagonize the effect of morphine on evoked sympathetic discharges. Tolazoline HCl (15-45 mg/kg) proved effective in both preventing (Fig. 5A) and reversing (Fig. 5B) the morphine-induced depression of either pathway. Although tolazoline consistently antagonized the depressant effect of morphine, the reversal was less rapid than that usually seen with naloxone.

5-HTP. The serotonin precursor, 5-HTP, produces an immediate and sustained depression of sympathetic preganglionic neurons^{28, 34, 66}. The depression following 5-HTP has been

shown to depend on its conversion to 5-HT and subsequent leakage from the serotonin terminals adjacent to these sympathetic neurons^{28, 66}. The antagonism of morphine by tolazoline provided presumptive evidence of a 5-HT-like action for this narcotic analgesic. It was reasoned, therefore, that if morphine stimulates 5-HT inhibitory receptors in this system, then naloxone should similarly oppose the depressant effect of 5-HT.

Two representative spinal reflex experiments are shown in Fig. 6. When given during the depression produced by 5-HTP (Fig. 6A), naloxone reversed the depression and returned the size of evoked responses to control levels. Naloxone, given prior to 5-HTP (Fig. 6B), prevented the development of depression typically seen following the administration of this precursor. The dashed curves in these figures represent the expected degree and duration of inhibition normally produced by the respective doses of 5-HTP. As a rule, somewhat larger amounts of naloxone were required for complete antagonism of the 5-HTP-induced depression than were required to counteract morphine. Although the onset of naloxone reversal of depression by 5-HTP was almost immediate, it required 30-40 min for complete antagonism.

Clonidine. Clonidine, a drug primarily known for its centrally mediated hypotensive effect,^{48, 49, 68, 75, 79}, has also been reported to possess certain properties in common with the narcotic analgesics^{17, 69, 74, 88}. The effect of clonidine on activity evoked from the sympathetic preganglionic neurons appears to be very similar to that of morphine²⁸. Small doses of clonidine (15-25 µg/kg) consistently produced marked depression of both spinal reflexes and intraspinally evoked responses. This depression is rapid in onset and graded according to dose. Depletion of central 5-HT with PCPA pretreatment does not prevent this effect. Tolazoline, however, is an effective antagonist against the actions of clonidine in this system²⁸. Based on these previous observations it was concluded that clonidine depresses the sympathetic outflow by stimulation of inhibitory 5-HT receptors on the sympathetic preganglionic neurons²⁸. Therefore, the ability of naloxone to antagonize clonidine-induced depression was assessed. Results from a series of six experiments demonstrated that naloxone (20-40 µg/kg) was capable of opposing the action of clonidine on evoked sympathetic activity. Naloxone given immediately before the administration of clonidine prevented the expected reduction in evoked

activity. Intraspinally evoked responses which were usually depressed by clonidine for more than 3 hrs could be restored to control levels by naloxone at any stage of the depression (Fig. 7). The rate of reversal was similar to that seen against morphine but the amount of naloxone needed was usually slightly greater than that required for the antagonism of a comparable degree of morphine-induced depression.

Chlorpromazine. Naloxone alone or during the course of reversing morphine-induced depression frequently increased evoked sympathetic discharges above control values. Although observed in more than a dozen experiments, naloxone did not consistently produce this effect. The augmented responses following naloxone reversal of morphine appeared to be unrelated to either the degree or duration of the depression. On a number of occasions in which naloxone was given first and no enhancement occurred, subsequent challenge with a depressant dose of morphine showed that the naloxone blockade was effective. The lack of correlation between the appearance of this excitation and the naloxone antagonism of morphine suggested that naloxone may exert additional effects on the sympathetic preganglionic neurons

apart from its morphine blocking action. Therefore, further characterization of the naloxone actions on these neurons was undertaken.

Chlorpromazine HCl (CPZ), a peripheral and central catecholamine receptor antagonist^{1, 94}, has been shown to block the excitatory catecholamine receptors on sympathetic preganglionic neurons^{28, 34, 66}. Naloxone enhancement of sympathetic responses evoked through the spinal reflex pathway was rapidly blocked by CPZ at doses of 5-8 mg/kg (Fig. 8A). This blockade was effective immediately and lasted for several hours. Although capable of antagonizing the naloxone excitatory effect, further investigation showed that CPZ did not influence either the morphine-induced depression or the ability of naloxone to reverse that depression (Fig. 8B). These data demonstrate conclusively that this excitation, which may be mediated through the catecholamine component of the sympathetic preganglionic neuron system, involves an action of naloxone separate from its ability to antagonize morphine.

DISCUSSION

Morphine can produce bizarre motor and behavioral effects in cats at doses greater than 4 mg/kg; below this dose, morphine produces typical sedative and analgesic effects⁶². The present experiments demonstrate that in spinal cats, morphine, at 0.5-2 mg/kg, produces a prolonged depression of activity evoked from sympathetic preganglionic neurons. This effect occurs rapidly and persists for at least 5 1/2 hr. The depression by morphine appears to be specific since the depression can be antagonized by very low doses of naloxone or nalorphine. Demonstration of identical patterns of depression by three other narcotic analgesics and their antagonism by naloxone indicate that this effect is not peculiar to morphine but represents an action common to this class of drugs. The degree of depression produced by the narcotic analgesics was routinely significant, but exhibited some variability among experiments. However, their relative potency for producing comparable depression of preganglionic neurons (morphine, 1 mg/kg; methadone, 1 mg/kg; meperidine, 10 mg/kg; codeine, 12 mg/kg) is equivalent to their relative analgesic potency^{53, 65}. Dextromethorphan, a nonanalgesic stereoisomer related

to levorphanol, produces only a limited and nonspecific depression of evoked sympathetic activity; the particular characteristics of this effect indicates an action different from that of morphine and related drugs .

The observed effects of the narcotic analgesics on activity evoked from sympathetic preganglionic neurons generally fulfill the criteria for defining useful opiate analgesic models³¹. The identical effects of four narcotic analgesics, their relative potency ratios, the rapid and specific antagonism by naloxone and nalorphine, and the evidence for stereospecificity indicate that these neurons are a potentially useful neuronal system for studying the central actions of the narcotic analgesics . Furthermore, the involvement of monoaminergic neurons in this system presents the possibility of evaluating their role in the central actions of these drugs .

Bulbospinal 5-HT and NE neurons terminate adjacent to the sympathetic preganglionic neurons in the lateral columns of the thoracic spinal cord^{16, 29, 95}. Physiological and pharmacological evidence indicates that these monoaminergic neurons exert opposite effects on spinal sympathetic neurons , 5-HT being inhibitory

and NE being excitatory^{28, 34, 66}. In the present study, discharges from this pool of spinal neurons were evoked through two separate pathways. Transmission through the intraspinal pathway involves the descending NE neurons^{28, 66} whereas the spinal reflex pathway contains no monoaminergic neurons¹⁶. Although these two pathways both terminate with the sympathetic preganglionic neurons, the actions of drugs at monoaminergic synapses affect these pathways differently. For example, blockade of NE synapses interrupts transmission through the intraspinal pathway but leaves the spinal reflex pathway intact^{28, 34, 66}. On the other hand, activation of 5-HT receptors, either through the release of presynaptic 5-HT^{34, 66} or by a direct postsynaptic action²⁸ produces inhibition of both pathways.

Of the known monoaminergic influences impinging upon evoked spinal sympathetic discharges, the only action of morphine that is consistent with its ability to depress both pathways is activation of inhibitory 5-HT receptors on sympathetic preganglionic neurons either directly or indirectly through release of 5-HT. In addition to the classical narcotic antagonists, tolazoline was also found to be an effective antagonist of morphine on these neurons. Although

tolazoline is generally regarded as a peripheral α -adrenergic receptor blocking agent⁶⁷, it also antagonizes 5-HT both in the periphery³² and on spinal sympathetic neurons²⁸. However, the tolazoline blockade of morphine cannot distinguish between a pre-synaptic or postsynaptic site of action. The failure of 5-HT depletion to alter the ability of morphine to depress evoked sympathetic activity indicates that morphine does not cause release of 5-HT but strongly suggests that morphine directly stimulates inhibitory 5-HT receptors in this system. The observations that naloxone antagonizes the depressant effects of both 5-HTP and clonidine, two agents that also appear to produce stimulation of inhibitory 5-HT receptors on these neurons²⁸, further strengthens this conclusion. Full understanding of the anatomy, physiology and biochemistry of the spinal sympathetic neurons is incomplete. Consequently, the possibility that morphine acts through some as yet unidentified process cannot be totally excluded, nor can the unlikely possibility be ruled out that morphine depresses the two pathways by different mechanisms. However, the most direct interpretation of the available evidence points to a site of action on sympathetic preganglionic neurons that strongly resembles the

the postsynaptic inhibitory 5-HT receptors and is consistent with the hypothesis of a direct action on those receptors. No precise explanation can be given for the greater sensitivity of the intraspinal pathway than of the spinal reflex pathway to morphine.

However, the same phenomenon has been observed for depression of these pathways by clonidine²⁸ and may represent differences in the positional relationship between the locations of the 5-HT receptors and the respective terminations of the two excitatory pathways.

Naloxone rapidly and reversibly blocks the morphine-induced depression of sympathetic preganglionic neurons in the microgram dosage range. Based on these observations and on a considerable amount of other available evidence, the naloxone antagonism of morphine is most likely a result of direct competition at the morphine receptor, which in the present system appears to be an inhibitory 5-HT receptor; the ability of naloxone to antagonize the effects of 5-HTP and clonidine on these neurons also strongly supports this probability. Although the naloxone blockade of 5-HTP-induced depression could conceivably result from a presynaptic action, no such mechanism can account for naloxone reversal of

the depression by clonidine. The slightly greater amounts of naloxone needed to reverse the depressant effects of 5-HTP and clonidine than needed to antagonize morphine may reflect slight differences in affinity of these agents for the 5-HT receptors. The less rapid antagonism of the effect of 5-HTP by naloxone may indicate a greater specificity of the antagonist against compounds with related molecular structures. Aside from these small quantitative differences, the mechanisms for naloxone antagonism of 5-HTP, clonidine, and the narcotic analgesics all appear to be qualitatively identical.

In addition to its ability to block the effect of narcotic analgesics on sympathetic preganglionic neurons, naloxone frequently produces increases in evoked activity. The relative irregularity in the appearance of this secondary effect when contrasted against the regularity with which naloxone antagonized the effect of morphine rules out the possibility that naloxone stimulation of preganglionic neurons is responsible for its antagonism of morphine-induced depression. Furthermore, chlorpromazine can block this excitation without affecting the ability of naloxone to reverse the depression by morphine. Excitation following the administration

of narcotic antagonists either alone or in the course of antagonizing narcotic depression has been reported frequently in both clinical and experimental situations, and several authors have noted the irregularity of its appearance^{25, 44, 46, 55, 58, 59, 61}. The rapid blockade of naloxone-induced excitation by chlorpromazine indicates that this effect is mediated through the excitatory NE input to the sympathetic preganglionic neurons^{28, 34, 66}. If the excitation was due to direct stimulation of NE receptors, then evoked sympathetic responses should have been increased in every experiment^{28, 34, 66}. However, a presynaptic action dependent upon some residual catecholamine leakage from decentralized NE terminals in some experiments could account for the irregular appearance of the excitatory effect. Indeed, blockade of synaptosomal NE reuptake by naloxone has been demonstrated in vitro¹². To the degree that this secondary effect is present, the capacity to stimulate sympathetic neurons in addition to its direct morphine blocking action suggests that naloxone may act as a physiological antagonist as well as a pharmacological antagonist of narcotic analgesics in this system.

Interpretation of the respective roles of catecholamine and 5-HT systems in the acute central effects of the narcotic analgesics is controversial. Many studies are available, but large variations in the doses of narcotics and antagonists used, species differences, and the diverse methods employed for assessing the acute effects all combine to make reconciliation of conflicting interpretations very difficult. Evidence is available to suggest that central NE mechanisms either may mediate^{51, 73, 80, 85} or may antagonize^{8, 9, 64, 78, 84} the effects of morphine and other narcotic analgesics. With regards to 5-HT, some investigators have found that decreasing central 5-HT tone does not influence acute morphine-induced analgesia^{6, 38, 60, 91} while others claim that analgesia does require functional 5-HT neurons or that 5-HT and morphine produce additive analgesic effects^{70, 71, 72, 90}. The sympathetic preganglionic neurons almost certainly play no direct role in mediating nociception, but, insofar as these neurons can serve as a central model, the present results may help to resolve these controversies. Some caution should be used when comparing results from whole animal studies with those of the present study in which spontaneous bulbospinal 5-HT tone has

been compromised by spinal transection. Nevertheless, in light of the apparent 5-HT agonist action of morphine on sympathetic preganglionic neurons, it can be suggested that morphine could augment central 5-HT activity in the intact animal, in which case PCPA pretreatment might appear to reduce the effect of morphine whereas activation of 5-HT activity might appear to enhance the effect of morphine.

A number of investigators have concluded that reactions to nociceptive stimuli and their alterations by the narcotic analgesics are dependent not on a single monoamine but on the relative balance of several endogenous compounds^{77, 78, 84, 86}. Takemori et al.⁸⁶ have classified the 5-HT system as a positive modulator and the dopaminergic system as a negative modulator of the analgesic action of morphine. The observations that 5-HT markedly potentiates whereas NE attenuates the actions of narcotic analgesics have led others to suggest that the central effects of these drugs are intimately involved with opposed 5-HT and NE systems^{8, 9, 77, 78, 84}. Since the sympathetic preganglionic neurons are inhibited by 5-HT and excited by NE^{28, 34, 66}, the present demonstration that they are also inhibited by morphine is

consistent with the hypothesis that 5-HT systems are synergistic with its central actions. The lack of dopamine terminals in the spinal cord curtail any judgment on its role in the actions of morphine. The ability of NE to excite preganglionic neurons, however, presents a provocative example supporting contentions that noradrenergic activity opposes the central effects of the narcotic analgesics.

Morphine and other narcotics depress cardiovascular function through an action at both central and peripheral sites^{20, 21, 22, 58}. The inhibition of central cardiovascular structures that contributes to reduction in blood pressure, heart rate and sympathetic activity can be blocked by narcotic antagonists^{18, 20, 54, 58}, shows rapid development of tolerance^{7, 58} and appears to be involved in some of the manifestations of dependence and withdrawal⁵⁸. A medullary site mediating this central inhibition has been suggested^{7, 18, 21, 54}, but an action at the spinal level has not been excluded⁵⁴. Since the sympathetic preganglionic neurons are the final central units for integrating sympathetic outflow and vasomotor control, inhibition of these neurons may account for the central component of narcotic-induced depression of cardiovascular tone. This

explanation is consistent with the observations that 5-HT precursors and clonidine, both of which produce vasodepression^{2, 3, 43, 49, 68} and inhibition of sympathetic outflow^{4, 39, 56}, also depress spinal sympathetic neurons^{28, 34, 66}. Although depression of these spinal neurons may be sufficient to account for the centrally mediated hypotension, demonstrations by other investigators that supraspinal cardiovascular centers are inhibited by narcotics^{18, 21, 54} indicate actions at several levels along the neuraxis.

Although the present study was concerned only with the acute actions of the narcotic analgesics on the sympathetic pre-ganglionic neurons, the unequivocal results prompt some speculation about the chronic effects of these agents on CNS activity. In addition to spinal integration of sympathetic outflow, other central systems may function under reciprocal catecholamine and 5-HT control. For example, these putative transmitters have been shown to produce opposite effects on the central control of motor rhythmicity⁸⁹, respiration^{24, 25}, sleep⁶³, certain aspects of animal behavior^{5, 30, 57, 92} and temperature regulation⁴⁰. The normal functioning, adjustments and derangements of such central systems may reflect changes in balance between

opposing monoaminergic influences rather than isolated changes in the activity of a single element. Responses to disturbances in functional balance and the reestablishment of centrally controlled homeostasis required by the presence of a narcotic analgesic have been offered as explanations for the phenomena of tolerance, dependence and withdrawal^{15, 36, 47}. Depression of the autonomic nervous system by administration of the narcotic analgesics disappears during the course of continuous treatment^{7, 36}. If, following the development of tolerance, drug treatment is discontinued, narcotic withdrawal with overt manifestations of sympathetic hyperactivity develop^{36, 45}.

Both clonidine and 5-HT, which acutely depress the excitability of sympathetic preganglionic neurons, also share other properties with the narcotic analgesics. Precursors of 5-HT produce vasodepression and inhibition of sympathetic outflow^{2, 3, 4, 23}. Continuous administration of 5-HTP produces tolerance to many of its central actions, and abrupt withdrawal produces signs of sympathetic activation⁹³. Clonidine, a centrally acting drug used for anti-hypertensive therapy, also has been shown to possess both anti-nociceptive and sedative properties^{17, 19, 68, 69, 74}. In

addition, clonidine can antagonize some of the manifestations of naloxone precipitated withdrawal from narcotics in animals⁸⁸, and abrupt discontinuance during chronic therapy can produce abstinence signs similar in many respects to those seen during narcotic withdrawal^{33, 39}. Therefore, it appears that prolonged exposure to clonidine or 5-HT precursors can produce forms of both tolerance and dependence that are similar to those produced by narcotic analgesics.

Whether continuous stimulation of inhibitory 5-HT receptors could elicit an increase in noradrenergic activity to balance the depression and thereby lead to the reduced narcotic effect is hypothetical, but considerable evidence is available to suggest this possibility. A number of studies have shown that chronic administration of narcotic analgesics does cause an increase in central norepinephrine turnover^{14, 17, 80, 83}. A lessening of some of the symptoms of narcotic withdrawal has been achieved either by decreasing central noradrenergic stores^{35, 76} or by administering the catecholamine antagonists, chlorpromazine or phenoxybenzamine¹¹. Increasing the levels of central catecholamines, however, augments certain manifestations of withdrawal³⁵.

Enhanced development of tolerance and intensified withdrawal can also be achieved by raising central levels of cyclic adenosine monophosphate^{15, 26, 37}; this observation takes on added significance from recent evidence that this cyclic nucleotide mediates the central postsynaptic actions of NE^{81, 82}. If an increase in central NE tone response to continuous narcotic-induced inhibition is responsible for the development of tolerance, the augmented NE excitatory tone might also account for the increase in central activity seen upon withdrawal.

The development of an endogenous mechanism opposing the actions of narcotic drugs could also account for the development of latent hyperexcitability in which decreasing amounts of antagonist are required to precipitate a withdrawal reaction as tolerance increases^{44, 87}. In response to a sustained narcotic-induced depression and in an effort to reestablish functional homeostasis, excitatory neuronal components (perhaps NE neurons in the spinal sympathetic system) may gradually increase their activity above normal levels. Termination of the narcotic action, either by withdrawing the drug or by displacing it from opiate receptors would unmask the enhanced excitatory activity. As the opposing

excitatory tone progressively increases to enhance the level of tolerance, it would require lessening amounts of antagonist to precipitate a withdrawal reaction because the excitatory system would be operating at progressively higher levels. Considered in this context, equivalent partial displacement of narcotic analgesics molecules from their receptors by an antagonist would precipitate greater withdrawal reactions in highly tolerant subjects than in subjects with lower levels of tolerance. An intriguing observation of the present study was the ability of naloxone not only to block the narcotic action but frequently to increase the excitability of sympathetic preganglionic neurons, apparently by augmenting the NE tone to these cells.

Although the findings of this study pertain only to the acute actions of narcotic analgesics and the suggestions for their long-term effects are only speculative, they are in agreement with the observations of many other investigators and they do form a basis for testable hypotheses to explain a number of the central effects of these drugs.

REFERENCES

- 1 Anden, N. -E., Corrodi, H., Fuxe, K., and Hokfelt, T.,
Increased impulse flow in bulbospinal noradrenaline neurons
produced by catecholamine receptor blocking agents, Eur. J.
Pharmacol., 2 (1967) 59-64.
- 2 Antonaccio, M. J., and Robson, R. D., Cardiovascular
effects of 5-hydroxytryptophan in anesthetized dogs, J. Pharm.
Pharmacol., 25 (1973) 495-497.
- 3 Antonaccio, M. J., and Robson, R. D., Centrally-mediated
cardiovascular effects of 5-hydroxytryptophan in MAO-inhib-
ited dogs: Modification by autonomic antagonists, Archs. int.
Pharmacodyn. Ther., 213 (1975) 200-210.
- 4 Baum, T., and Shropshire, A. T., Inhibition of efferent sym-
pathetic nerve activity by 5-hydroxytryptophan and centrally
administered 5-hydroxytryptamine, Neuropharmacol., 14
(1975) 227-233.
- 5 Birkmayr, W., Danielczyk, W., Neumayer, E., and Riederer,
P., The balance of biogenic amines as a condition for normal
behavior, J. Neural Transm., 33 (1972) 163-178.

- 6 Bläsigg, J., Reinhold, K., and Herz, A., Effect of 6-hydroxy-dopamine, 5, 6-dihydroxytryptamine and raphe lesions on the antinociceptive actions of morphine in rats, Psychopharmacologia, 31 (1973) 111-119.
- 7 Borison, H. L., The nervous system. In D. H. Clouet (Ed.), Narcotic Drugs: Biochemical Pharmacology, Plenum Press, New York-London, 1971, pp. 342-365.
- 8 Calcutt, C. R., Handley, S. L., Sparkes, C. G., and Spencer, P. S. J., Roles of noradrenaline and 5-hydroxytryptamine in the antinociceptive effects of morphine. In H. W. Kosters, H. O. J. Collier and J. E. Villarreal (Eds.), Agonist and Antagonist Actions of Narcotic Analgesic Drugs, University Park Press, Baltimore-London-Tokyo, 1973, 176-191.
- 9 Calcutt, C. R., and Spencer, P. S. J., Activities of narcotic and narcotic-antagonist analgesics following the intraventricular injection of various substances, Brit. J. Pharmacol., 41 (1972) 401P-402P.
- 10 Chakravarty, N. K., Matallana, A., Jensen, R., and Borison, H. L., Central effects of antitussive drugs on cough and respiration, J. Pharmacol. exp. Ther., 117 (1956) 127-135.

- 11 Cicero, T. J., Meyer, E. R., and Bell, R. D., Effects of phenoxybenzamine on the narcotic withdrawal syndrome in the rat, Neuropharmacol., 13 (1974) 601-607.
- 12 Ciofalo, F. R., Effects of some narcotics and antagonists on synaptosomal ^3H -norepinephrine uptake, Life Sci., 11 (1972) 573-580.
- 13 Clouet, D. H. (Ed.), Narcotic Drugs: Biochemical Pharmacology, Plenum Press, New York-London, 1971.
- 14 Clouet, D. H., and Ratner, M., Catecholamine biosynthesis in brains of rats treated with morphine, Science, 168 (1970) 854-856.
- 15 Collier H. O. J., Francis, D. L., McDonald-Gibson, W. J., Roy, A. C., and Saeed, S. A., Prostaglandins, cyclic AMP and the mechanism of opiate dependence, Life Sci., 17 (1975) 85-90.
- 16 Dahlström, A., and Fuxe, K., Evidence for the existence of monoamine neurons in the central nervous system: II. Experimentally induced changes in intraneuronal amine levels of bulbospinal neuron systems, Acta physiol. Scand., 64, Suppl. 247 (1965) 1-36.

- 17 Dahlstrom, B., Paalzow, G., and Paalzow, L., A pharmacokinetic approach to morphine analgesia and its relation to regional turnover of rat brain catecholamines, Life Sci., 17 (1975) 11-16.
- 18 Daskalopoulos, N. Th., Laubie, M., and Schmitt, H., Localization of the central sympatho-inhibitory effect of a narcotic analgesic agent, fentanyl, in cats, Eur. J. Pharmacol., 33 (1975) 91-97.
- 19 Delbarre, B., and Schmitt, H., A further attempt to characterize sedative receptors activated by clonidine in chickens and mice, Eur. J. Pharmacol., 22 (1973) 355-359.
- 20 Eckenhoff, J. E., Oech, S. R., The effects of narcotics and antagonists upon respiration and circulation in man, Clin. Pharmacol. Ther., 1 (1960) 483-524.
- 21 Evans, A. G. J., Nasmyth, P. A., and Stewart, H. C., The fall of blood pressure caused by intravenous morphine in the rat and the cat, Brit. J. Pharmacol., 7 (1952) 542-552.
- 22 Feldberg, W., and Paton, W. D., Release of histamine from skin and muscle in the cat by opium alkaloids and other histamine liberators, J. Physiol. (Lond.), 114 (1951) 490-509.

- 23 Florez, J., and Armijo, J. A., Effect of central inhibition of the l-aminoacid decarboxylase on the hypotensive action of 5-HT precursors in cats, Eur. J. Pharmacol., 26 (1974) 108-110.
- 24 Florez, J., Delgado, G., and Armijo, J. A., Adrenergic and serotonergic mechanisms in morphine-induced respiratory depression, Psychopharmacologia, 24 (1972) 258-274.
- 25 Florez, J., Delgado, G., and Armijo, J. A., Braine amines and development of acute tolerance to and dependence on morphine in the respiratory center of decerebrate cats, Neuropharmacol., 12 (1973) 355-362.
- 26 Francis, D. L., Roy, A. C., and Collier, H. O. J., Morphine abstinence and quasi-abstinence effects after phosphodiesterase inhibitors and naloxone, Life Sci., 1901-1906
- 27 Franz, D. N., Evans, M. H., and Perl, E. R., Characteristics of viscerosympathetic reflexes in the spinal cat, Amer. J. Physiol., 211 (1966) 1292-1298.
- 28 Franz, D.N., Hare, B. D., and Neumayr, R. J., Reciprocal control of sympathetic preganglionic neurons by monoaminergic, bulbospinal pathways and a selective effect of clonidine.

- In P. Milliez and M. Safar (Eds.), Recent Advances in Hypertension, Vol. 1, Boehringer Ingelheim, Reims, France, 1975, pp. 85-96.
- 29 Fuxe, K., Evidence for the existence of monoamine neurons in the central nervous system: IV. Distribution of monoamine nerve terminals in the central nervous system, Acta physiol. scand., 64, Suppl. 247 (1965) 37-84.
- 30 Gessa, G. L., and Tagliamonte, A., Role of brain monoamines in male sexual behavior, Life Sci., 14 (1974) 425-436.
- 31 Goldstein, A., Lowney, L. I., and Pal, B. K., Stereospecific and nonspecific interactions of the morphine congener levorphanol in subcellular functions of mouse brain, Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci., 68 (1971) 174-1747.
- 32 Gyermek, L., 5-Hydroxytryptamine antagonists, Pharmacol. Rev., 13 (1961) 399-439.
- 33 Hannson, L., Hunyor, S. N., Julius, S., and Hoobler, S. W., Blood pressure crisis following withdrawal of clonidine (Catapres, Catapresan) with special reference to arterial and urinary catecholamine levels, and suggestions for acute management, Amer. Heart J., 85 (1973) 605-610.

- 34 Hare, B. D., Neumayr, R. J., and Franz, D. N., Opposite effects of L-dopa and 5-HTP on spinal sympathetic reflexes, Nature (Lond.), 239 (1972) 336-337.
- 35 Herz, A., Bläsigg, J., and Papeschi, R., Role of catecholaminergic mechanisms in the expression of the morphine abstinence syndrome in rats, Psychopharmacologia, 39 (1974) 121-143.
- 36 Himmelsbach, C. K., IV. With reference to physical dependence, Fed. Proc., 2 (1943) 201-203.
- 37 Ho, I. K., Loh, H. H., Bhargava, H. N., and Way, E. L., Effect of cyclic nucleotides and phosphodiesterase inhibition on morphine tolerance and physical dependence, Life Sci., 16 (1975) 1895-1900.
- 38 Ho, I. K., Lu, S. E., Stoman, S., Loh, H. H., and Way, E. L., Influence of p-chlorophenylalanine on morphine tolerance and physical dependence and regional brain serotonin turnover studies in morphine tolerant-dependent mice, J. Pharmacol. exp. Ther., 182 (1972) 155-165.

- 39 Hokfelt, B., Hedeland, H., and Dymling, J. F., Studies on catecholamines, renin and aldosterone following catapresan (2-(2, 6-dichlor-phenylamine)-2-imidazoline hydrochloride) in hypertensive patients, Eur. J. Pharmacol., 10 (1970) 389-397.
- 40 Hori, T., and Nakayama, T., Effects of biogenic amines on central thermoresponsive neurons in the rabbit, J. Physiol. (Lond.), 232 (1973) 71-85.
- 41 Illert, M., and Gabriel, M., Descending pathways in the cervical spinal cord of cats affecting blood pressure and sympathetic activity, Pflugers Arch., 335 (1972) 109-124.
- 42 Isbell, H., and Fraser, H. G., Actions and addiction liabilities of Dromeran derivatives in man, J. Pharmacol. exp. Ther., 107 (1953) 524-530.
- 43 Ito, A., and Schanberg, S. M., CNS mechanisms responsible for blood pressure elevation induced by PCPA, J. Pharmacol. exp. Ther., 181 (1972) 65-74.
- 44 Jaffe, J. H., and Martin, W. R., Narcotic analgesics and antagonists. In L. S. Goodman, A. Gilman, A. G. Gilman and G. B. Koelle (Eds.), The Pharmacological Basis of Therapeutics, Macmillan, New York, 1975, 245-283.

- 45 Jaffee, J. H., Drug addiction and drug abuse. In L. S. Goodman, A. Gilman, A. G. Gilman and G. B. Koelle (Eds.), The Pharmacological Basis of Therapeutics, Macmillan, New York, 1975, 284-324.
- 46 Jurna, I., Grossmann, W., and Theres, C., Inhibition by morphine of repetitive activation of cat spinal motoneurons, Neuropharmacol., 12 (1973) 983-993.
- 47 Kaufman, J. J., Koski, W. S., and Peat, D., A systems and control theory approach to dynamic neurotransmitter balance in narcotic addiction and narcotic antagonism, Life Sci., 17 (1975) 83-84.
- 48 Klupp, H., Knappen, F., Otsuka, Y., Streller, I., and Teichman, H., Effects of clonidine on central sympathetic tone, Eur. J. Pharmacol., 10 (1970) 225-229.
- 49 Kobinger, W., and Walland, A., Circulation studies with 2-(2, 6-dichlorophenylamine)2-imidazoline hydrochloride, Arzneimittel-forschung, 17 (1967) 292-300.
- 50 Koe, B. K., and Weissman, A., p-Chlorophenylalanine: a specific depletor of brain serotonin, J. Pharmacol. exp. Ther., 154 (1966) 499-516.

- 51 Korf, J., Bunney, B. S., and Aghajanian, G. K., Noradrenergic neurons: morphine inhibition of spontaneous activity, Eur. J. Pharmacol., 25 (1974) 165-169.
- 52 Kosterlitz, H. W., Collier, H. O., and Villareal, J. E. (Eds.), Agonist and Antagonist Actions of Narcotic Analgesic Drugs, University Park Press, Baltimore-London-Tokyo, 1973.
- 53 Lasagna, L. The clinical evaluation of morphine and its substitutes as analgesics, Pharmac. Rev., 16 (1964) 47-83.
- 54 Laubie, M., Schmitt, H., Canellas, J., Roquebert, J., and Demichel, R., Centrally mediated bradycardia and hypotension induced by narcotic analgesics: dextromoramide and fentanyl, Eur. J. Pharmacol., 28 (1974) 66-75.
- 55 LeBars, D., Menetrey, D., Conseiller, C., and Besson, J. M., Depressive effects of morphine upon lamina V cells activities in the dorsal horn of the spinal cat, Brain Research, 98 (1975) 261-277.
- 56 Loew, D. M., and Waite, R., A quantitative assessment of the effects of clonidine on pre-ganglionic sympathetic nerve activity in the cat, Brit. J. Pharmacol., 50 (1974) 456P-457P.

- 57 Malmnäs, C. O., Monoaminergic influence on testosterone-activated copulatory behavior in the castrated male rat, Acta physiol. scand., Suppl. 395, (1973) 1-128.
- 58 Martin, W. R., Opioid antagonists, Pharmacol. Rev., 19 (1967) 463-521.
- 59 Martin, W. R., and Eisenman, A. J., Interactions between nalorphine and morphine in the decerebrate cat, J. Pharmacol. exp. Ther., 138 (1962) 113-119.
- 60 Maruyama, Y., Hayashi, G., Smits, S. E., and Takemori, A. E., Studies on the relationship between 5-hydroxytryptamine turnover in brain and tolerance and physical dependence in mice, J. Pharmacol. exp. Ther., 178 (1971) 20-29.
- 61 McClane, T. K., and Martin, W. R., Effects of morphine, nalorphine, cyclazocine and naloxone on the flexor reflex, Int. J. Neuropharmacol., 6 (1967) 89-98.
- 62 McKenzie, J. S., and Beechey, N. R., The effects of morphine and pethidine on somatic evoked responses in the midbrain of the cat, and their relevance to analgesia, Electroenceph. clin. Neurophysiol., 14 (1962) 501-519.

- 63 Morgane, P. J., and Stern, W. C., The role of serotonin and norepinephrine in sleep-waking activity. In B. K. Bernard (Ed.), Aminergic Hypothesis of Behavior, Reality or Cliche?, NIDA Research Monograph Series, Vol. 3, NIDA, Rockville, Md., 1975, pp. 37-61.
- 64 Mudgill, L., Friedhoff, A. J., and Tobey, J., Effects of intraventricular administrations of epinephrine, norepinephrine, dopamine, acetylcholine and physostigmine on morphine analgesia in mice, Archs. int. Pharmacodyn. Ther., 210 (1974) 85-91.
- 65 Murphree, H. B., Clinical pharmacology of potent analgesics, Clin. Pharmacol. Ther., 3 (1962) 473-504.
- 66 Neumayr, R. J., Hare, B. D. and Franz, D. N., Evidence for bulbospinal control of sympathetic preganglionic neurons by monoaminergic pathways, Life Sci., 14 (1974) 793-806.
- 67 Nickerson, M., and Hollenberg, N. K., Blockade of alpha-adrenergic receptors. In W. S. Root and F. G. Hofmann (Eds.), Physiological Pharmacology, Vol. 4, The Nervous System--Part D: Autonomic Nervous System Drugs, Academic Press, Inc., New York, 1967, pp. 243-305.

- 68 Onesti, G., Bock, K. D., Heimsoth, V., Kim, K. E., and Merguet, P., Clonidine: A new antihypertensive agent, Amer. J. Cardiol., 28 (1971) 74-83.
- 69 Paalzow, L., Analgesia, produced by clonidine in mice and rats, J. Pharm. Pharmacol., 26 (1974) 361-363.
- 70 Proudfit, H. K., and Anderson, E. G., Morphine analgesia: blockade by raphe magnus lesions, Brain Research, 98 (1975) 612-618.
- 71 Samanin, R., and Bernasconi, S., Effects of intraventricularly injected 6-OHdopamine or midbrain raphe lesion on morphine analgesia in rats, Psychopharmacologia, 25 (1972) 175-182.
- 72 Samanin, R., Gumulka, W., and Valzelli, L., Reduced effect of morphine in midbrain raphe lesioned rats, Eur. J. Pharmacol., 10 (1970) 339-343.
- 73 Satoh, M., and Takagi, H., Enhancement by morphine of the central descending inhibitory influence on spinal sensory transmission, Eur. J. Pharmacol., 14 (1971) 60-65.
- 74 Schmitt, H., LeDouarec, J. C., and Petillot, N., Antinociceptive effects of some α -sympathomimetic agents, Neuropharmacol., 13 (1974) 289-294.

- 75 Schmitt, H., Schmitt, H., Boissier, J. R., Guidicelli, J. F., and Fichelle, J., Cardiovascular effects of 2-(2,6-dichlorophenylamino)-2-imidazoline hydrochloride, Eur. J. Pharmacol., 2 (1968) 340-346.
- 76 Schwartz, A. S., and Eidelberg, E., Role of biogenic amines in morphine dependence, Life Sci., 9 (1970) 613-624.
- 77 Sewell, R. D. E., and Spencer, P. S. J., Anti-nociceptive activity of narcotic agonists and partial agonists in mice given biogenic amines by intracerebroventricular injection, Psychopharmacologia, 42 (1975) 67-71.
- 78 Sewell, R. D. E., and Spencer, P. S. J., Modification of the antinociceptive activity of narcotic agonists and antagonists by intraventricular injection of biogenic amines in mice, Brit. J. Pharmacol., 51 (1974) 140P-141P.
- 79 Sherman, G. P., Grega, G. J., Woods, R. J., and Buckley, J. P., Evidence for a central hypotensive mechanism of 2-(2,6-dichlorophenylamine)-2-imidazoline hydrochloride, Eur. J. Pharmacol., 2 (1968) 326-328.
- 80 Shiomi, H., and Takagi, H., Morphine analgesia and the bulbospinal noradrenergic system: Increase in the

- concentration of normetanephrine in the spinal cord of the rat caused by analgesics, Brit. J. Pharmacol., 52 (1974) 519-526.
- 81 Siggins, G. R., Hoffer, B. J., and Bloom, F. E., Cyclic adenosine monophosphate: possible mediator for norepinephrine effects on cerebellar Purkinje cells, Science (Wash.), 165 (1969) 1018-1020.
- 82 Siggins, G. R., Hoffer, B. J., and Bloom, F. E., Studies on norepinephrine-containing afferents to Purkinje cells of rat cerebellum. III. Evidence for mediation of norepinephrine effects by cyclic 3',5'-adenosine monophosphate, Brain Research, 25 (1971) 535-553.
- 83 Smith, C. B., Sheldon, M. I., Bednarczyk, J. H., and Villarreal, J. E., Morphine-induced increases in the incorporation of ^{14}C -tyrosine into ^{14}C -dopamine and ^{14}C -norepinephrine in the mouse brain: antagonism by naloxone and tolerance, J. Pharmacol. exp. Ther., 180 (1972) 547-557.
- 84 Sparkes, C. G., and Spencer, P. S. J., Antinociceptive activity of morphine after injection of biogenic amines in the cerebral ventricles of the conscious rat, Brit. J. Pharmacol., 42 (1971) 230-241.

- 85 Takagi, H., Doi, T., and Kawasaki, K., Effects of morphine, L-dopa and tetrabenazine on the lamina V cells of spinal dorsal horn, Life Sci., 17 (1975) 67-72.
- 86 Takemori, A. E., Tulunary, F. C., and Yano, I., Differential effects of morphine analgesia and naloxone antagonism by biogenic amine modifiers, Life Sci., 17 (1975) 21-28.
- 87 Takemori, A. E., Biochemistry of drug dependence, Ann. Rev. Biochem., 43 (1974) 15-33.
- 88 Tseng, L. -F., Loh, H. H., and Wei, E. T., Effects of clonidine on morphine withdrawal signs in the rat, Eur. J. Pharmacol., 30 (1975) 93-99.
- 89 Viala, D., and Buser, P., The effects of DOPA and 5-HTP on rhythmic efferent discharges in hind limb nerves in the rabbit, Brain Research, 12 (1969) 437-443.
- 90 Vogt, M., The effects of lowering the 5-hydroxytryptamine content of the rat spinal cord on analgesia produced by morphine, J. Physiol. (Lond.), 236 (1974) 483-498.
- 91 Way, E. L., Role of serotonin in morphine effects, Fed. Proc., 31 (1972) 113-120.

- 92 Wise, C. D., Berger, B. D., Stein, L., Evidence of α -noradrenergic reward receptors and serotonergic punishment receptors in the rat brain, Biol. Psychiat., 6 (1973) 3-21.
- 93 Wyatt, R. J., Kaplan, J., and Vaughan, T., Tolerance and dependence to serotonin, Arch. Gen. Psychiat., 29 (1973) 597-599.
- 94 York, D. H., Dopamine receptor blockade--a central action of CPZ on striatal neurons, Brain Research, 37 (1972) 91-99.
- 95 Zivin, J. A., Reid, J. L., Saavedra, J. M., and Kopin, I. J., Quantitative localization of biogenic amines in the spinal cord, Brain Research, 99 (1975) 293-301.

Fig. 1. Schematic representations of the two pathways used for evoking sympathetic preganglionic neuron (SPGN) discharges.

A, Stimulation of small myelinated afferent fibers in adjacent intercostal nerves evokes SPGN discharges through the polysynaptic spinal reflex pathway. **B,** Stimulation with bipolar microelectrodes positioned in the dorsolateral funiculus of the cervical spinal cord evokes SPGN discharges through the intraspinal pathway. Discharges are recorded from upper thoracic preganglionic rami.

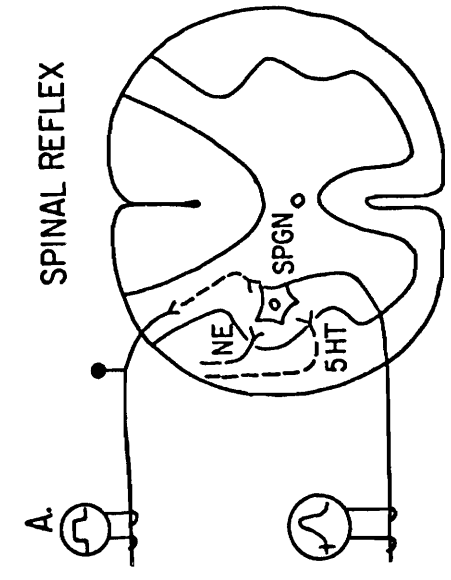
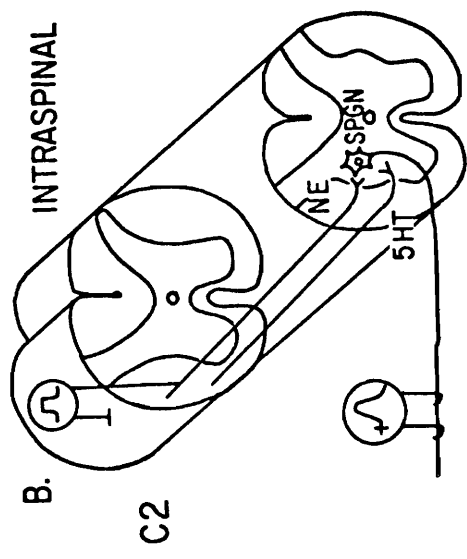


Fig. 2. Effects of morphine and naloxone on transmission through spinal reflex and intraspinal pathways. A, Morphine-induced reduction in spinal sympathetic reflex and its antagonism by naloxone. Activity was evoked by stimulating T2 intercostal nerve and recorded from T4 preganglionic ramus. B, Morphine-induced depression of intraspinally evoked responses (recorded from T2 ramus) and its antagonism by naloxone. Representative traces are shown for each phase (C, control; M, morphine; and N, naloxone) of the two experiments. Upper traces are individually evoked responses; lower traces represent computer averages of 32 (spinal reflex) or 16 (intraspinally evoked) consecutive responses. Calibrations: vertical, 40 μ V in A, 100 μ V in B; horizontal, 20 msec in both. Graphs below show time courses of the respective experiments; individual points were calculated from computer averages. Dashed lines indicate ± 2 Standard Deviations (S.D.) of the mean control value obtained during the control period.

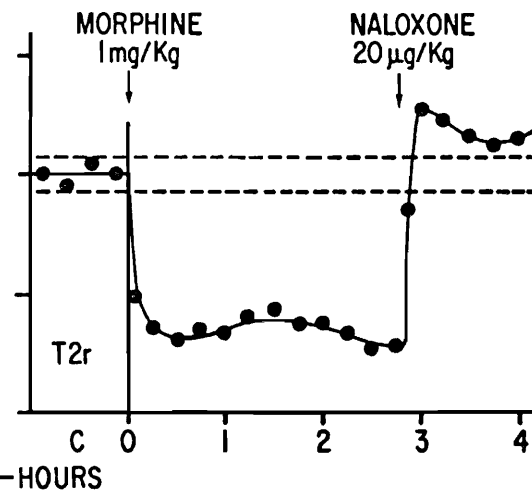
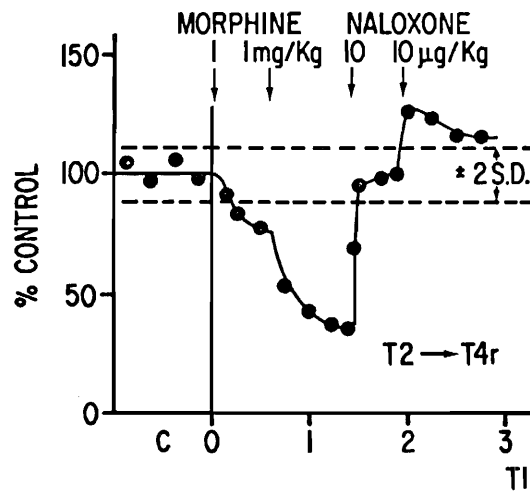
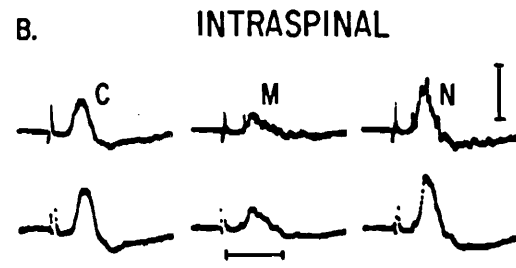
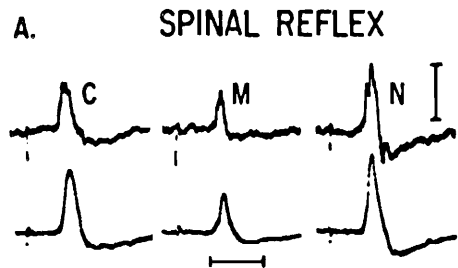


Fig. 3. Rapid depression of intraspinally evoked responses by methadone (A), meperidine (B), and codeine (C) and antagonism by naloxone. Limited depression by dextromethorphan (D) is unresponsive to naloxone. Pyrilamine was given in D to prevent the severe vasodepressor effect of dextromethorphan. Dashed lines represent ± 2 S.D.

INTRASPINAL RESPONSES

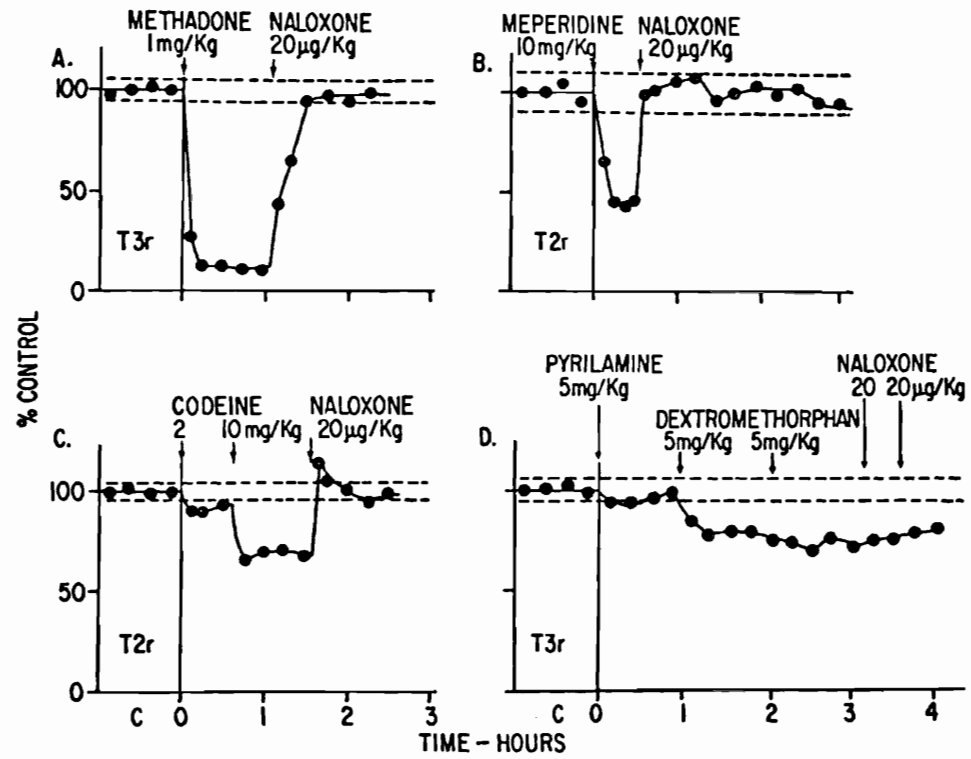
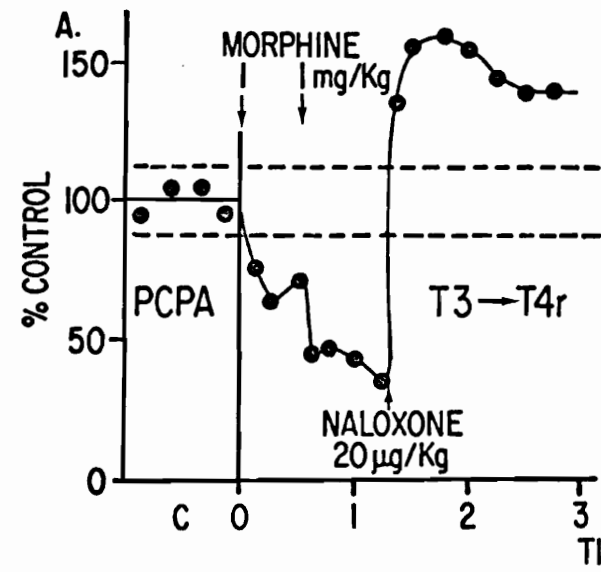


Fig. 4. Morphine-induced depression of evoked sympathetic discharges and naloxone reversal after pretreatment with parachlorophenylalanine (PCPA, 100 mg/kg/day, i.p., for 3 days prior to the day of the experiment). Pretreatment did not alter the depressant effect of morphine or its reversal by naloxone in either the spinal reflex (A) or the intraspinally evoked response (B). Dashed lines, ± 2 S.D.

SPINAL REFLEX



INTRASPINAL

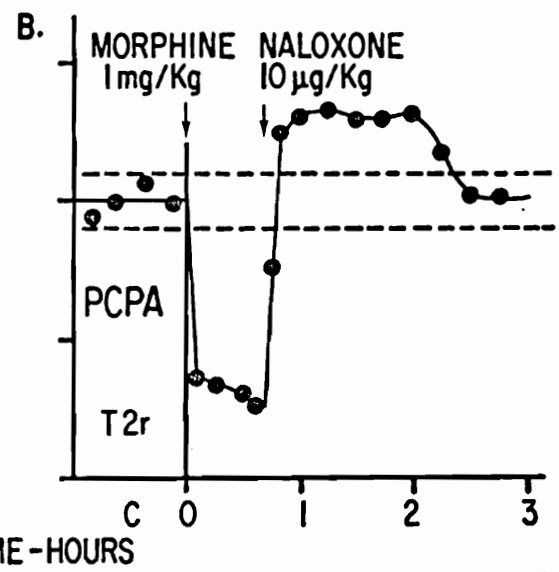


Fig. 5. Antagonism of morphine-induced depression by tolazoline. A, Prevention of morphine-induced depression of spinal sympathetic reflexes by tolazoline. B, Reversal of morphine-induced depression of intraspinally evoked responses by tolazoline. Dashed lines, ± 2 S.D.

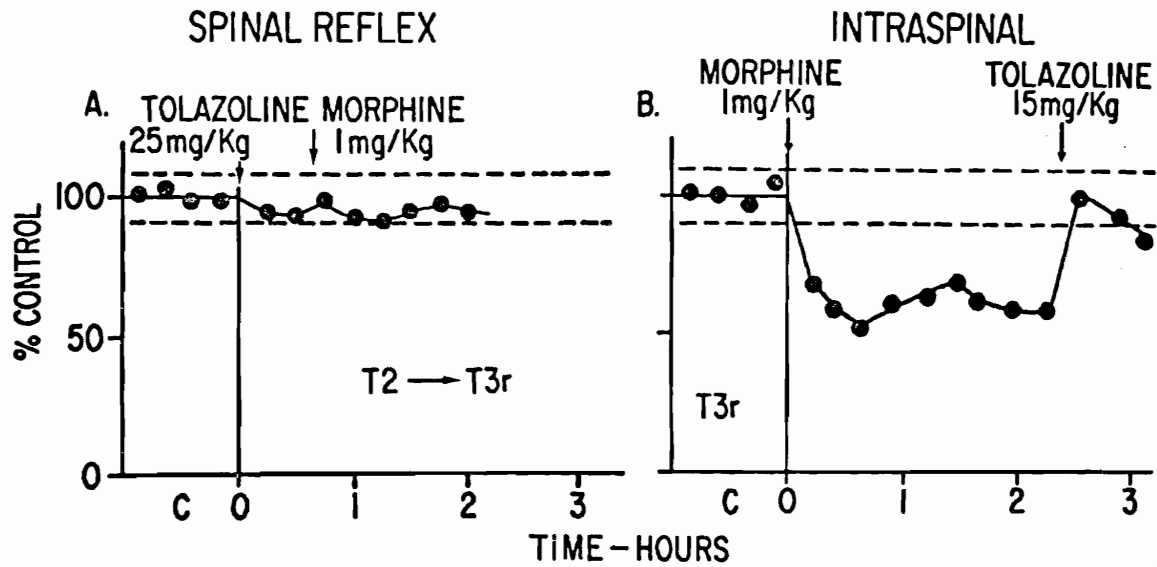


Fig. 6. Antagonism (A) and prevention (B) of 5-HTP-induced depression of spinal sympathetic reflexes by naloxone. Dashed curves represent the normal responses to 5-HTP. Dashed lines, ± 2 S.D.

SPINAL REFLEXES

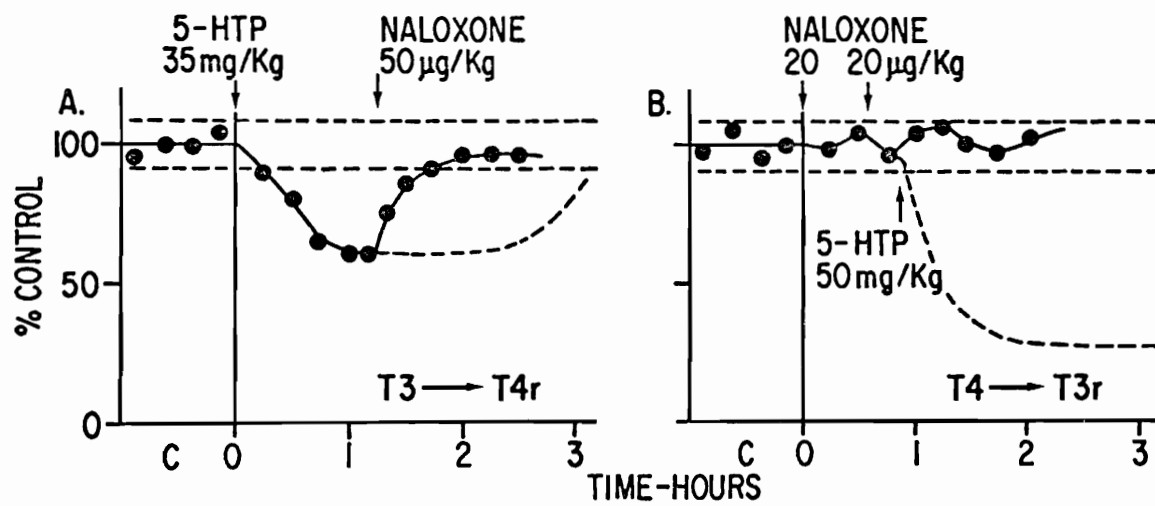


Fig. 7. Antagonism by naloxone of clonidine-induced depression of intraspinally evoked responses. Dashed curve represents the normal response to clonidine. Dashed lines, ± 2 S. D.

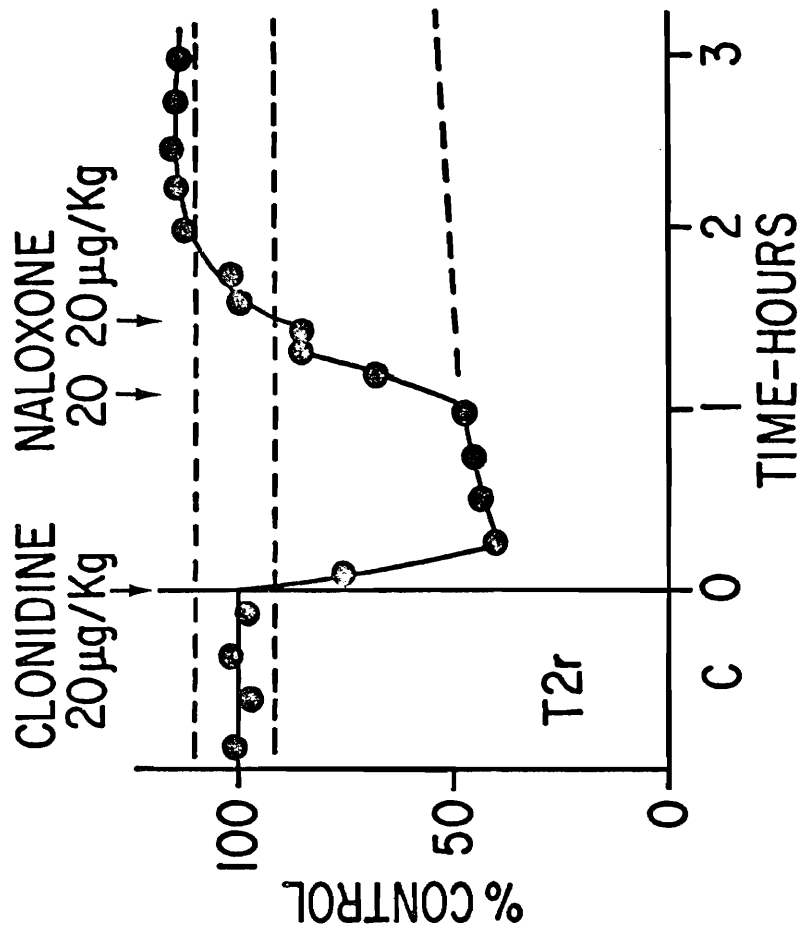
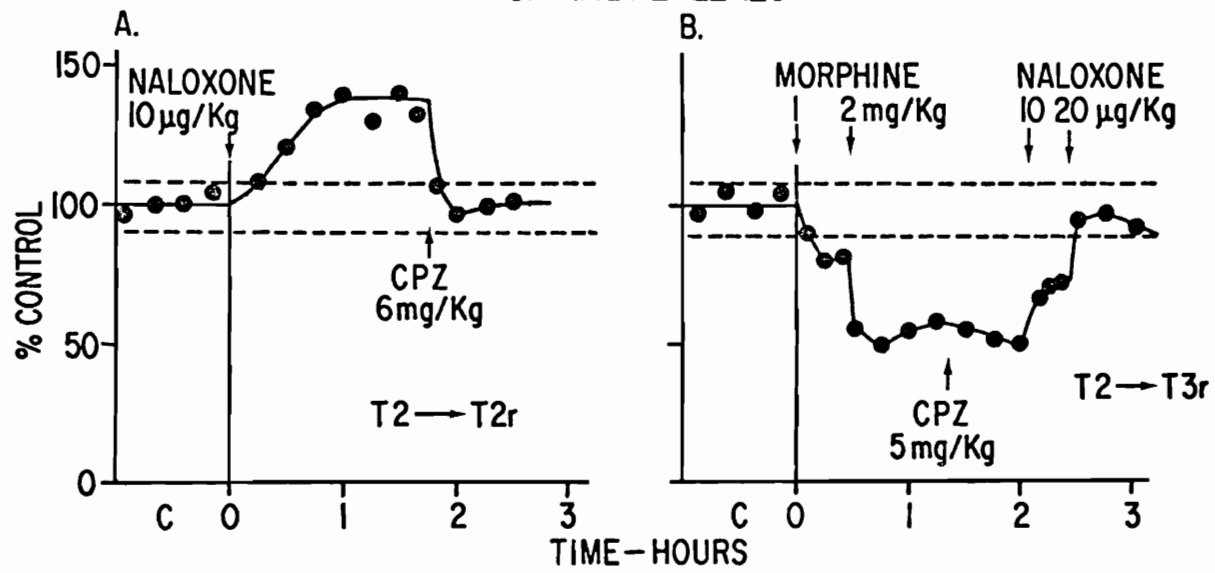


Fig. 8. Effects of chlorpromazine (CPZ) on the actions of naloxone and morphine in the spinal reflex pathway. A, Rapid antagonism of naloxone enhancement of spinal reflex discharges by CPZ. B, Morphine-induced depression of evoked activity and its reversal by naloxone is unaffected by CPZ. Dashed lines, ± 2 S.D.

SPINAL REFLEXES



VITA

| | |
|---------------------------|--|
| Name | Kevin Lee McCloskey |
| Birthplace | Riverside, California |
| Birthdate | October 31, 1943 |
| High School | Notre Dame High School Riverside, California |
| College 1968-1971 | Saint Mary's College Moraga, California |
| University 1971-1976 | University of Utah Salt Lake City, Utah |
| Degree 1971 | B.S., Saint Mary's College Moraga, California |
| Professional Organization | American Association for the Advancement of Science, American Academy of Forensic Sciences, Sigma Xi, California Association of Toxicologists |

Publications

McCloskey, K. L., Muscillo, G. C., and Noordewier, B.,
Prostatic acid phosphatase activity in the post-coital vagina,
Journal of Forensic Sciences, 20 (1975) 630-636.

Finkle, B. S., McCloskey, K. L., Kiplinger, G., and
Bennett, I., A national assessment of propoxyphene in post-
mortem medico-legal investigations, in press. Journal of
Forensic Sciences.

Abstracts

McCloskey, K. L., and Franz, D. N., Effects of LSD, mescaline and psilocybin on sympathetic preganglionic neurons, The Pharmacologist, 16 (1974) p.237.

McCloskey, K. L., Franz, D. N., Hare, B. D., and Neumayr, R. J., Effects of morphine and naloxone on sympathetic preganglionic neurons, The Pharmacologist, 17 (1975) p. 188.

Franz, D. N., Hare, B. D., McCloskey, K. L., and Neumayr, R. J., Effects of morphine on sympathetic outflow, Abstracts of Scientific Papers, American Society of Anesthesiologists, (1975) p. 169.