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DIFFERENTIAL EFFECTS OF SEROTONIN ANTAGONISTS ON
HYPOTHERMIA AND STEREOTYPED BEHAVIOR INDUCED BY
APOMORPHINE AND LERGOTRILE IN RATS

Rolin Lee Wade, B.S.

University of the Pacific, 1978

A Thesis

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Requirements for the Degree of
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Introduction

The naturally occurring ergot alkaloids of the fungus, Claviceps purpurea, and their many derivatives have been of neuropharmacological interest for many years because of their ability to affect peripheral and central adrenergic and serotonergic systems. More recently, selected compounds such as lergotrile (2-chloro-6-methyl ergoline-8-beta-acetonitrile) and bromocryptine (2-bromo-alpha-ergocryptine), have been given additional attention due to their possible therapeutic potential in the treatment of parkinson's disease, acromegaly and other disorders. There have been considerable data published attempting to establish the mechanism(s) whereby the ergot compounds exert their effects. A large portion of these experiments involves the interaction of ergot compounds with dopaminergic systems. This is a logical course of study, since many of the actions of the ergot compounds mimic the actions of compounds known to affect dopaminergic neurons, e.g. antagonists such as the

phenothiazines and butyrophenones, and agonists such as levodopa and apomorphine. In the last decade, much attention also has been focused on the role of serotonin (5-hydroxytryptamine) in the mediation of dopaminergic systems. There have been many conflicting reports published as to the role of serotonin but it is still uncertain whether or not serotonin does indeed play a role. The present study investigates two dopaminergic effects of the standard dopamine agonist apomorphine and the ergoline lergotrile and the similarities or differences that exist when serotonergic function is altered.

Literature Survey

1. Hypothermic action of apomorphine

An effect of apomorphine on rodent thermoregulatory function was first described by Lapin and Samsonova (1968a, 1968b). The first convincing evidence that linked drugs which stimulate dopamine receptors with a decrease in core temperature in rats and mice was presented in 1972 (Kruk, 1972; Fuxe and Sjoqvist, 1972). Since that time, apomorphine has been consistently reported to cause a dose-related hypothermia in rats and mice using a variety of injection techniques (Barnett et al., 1972; Chiel et al., 1974; Ary et al., 1977; Cox and Lee, 1978). Kruk (1972) found that dopamine, amphetamine and apomorphine injected intracerebroventricularly into rats, caused a fall in core temperature accompanied by a rise in skin temperature. A maximum drop of about one degree centigrade was observed with all three

drugs, this effect being completely antagonized by the specific dopamine antagonist pimozide. Fuxe and Sjoqvist (1972) obtained a drop of 3° to 4° C in the body temperature of mice administered apomorphine by intraperitoneal injection, and this effect was blocked by a dose of haloperidol that had no effect on body temperature itself. The nor-adrenaline antagonist phenoxybenzamine and the anticholinergic agent atropine failed to block the hypothermic action of apomorphine, thereby precluding alpha adrenergic or muscarinic cholinergic mechanisms of action for apomorphine. These observations suggest that the hypothermic action of apomorphine is exclusively mediated by dopamine receptors.

The apparent mechanism of action of apomorphine at the dopamine receptor had been determined several years earlier by Ernst (1967) and Anden (1967). Apomorphine-induced effects were found to be independent of exogenous catecholamine release, which is contrary to the action of amphetamine, which produced its action through the release of endogenous catecholamines. It was concluded that the action of apomorphine was that of a direct agonistic action on the receptor structure. Thus it appears that apomorphine induces hypothermia by a direct stimulation of dopamine receptors.

It has long been recognized that the preoptic anterior hypothalamus has an important thermoregulatory function in warm-blooded animals (Reid et al., 1968). Utilizing central microinjection techniques, it has been determined that the

site of action of apomorphine (Cox and Lee, 1978) and dopamine (Quock and Gale, 1974) is a well defined area of dopamine receptors in the preoptic anterior hypothalamus. This area was found to be sensitive to the antagonistic action of haloperidol in both studies.

Tolerance to the hypothermic action of apomorphine has been demonstrated. Daily intraperitoneal injections of apomorphine have been reported to decrease the hypothermic response of subsequent injections of apomorphine and other dopamine agonists (Chiel et al., 1974). It was suggested that tolerance to the hypothermic effects was due at least in part to a decrease in sensitivity of the dopamine receptors involved. Tolerance to the hypothermic action of apomorphine has also been demonstrated to occur after chronic rostral hypothalamic injections (Ary et al., 1977), but repeated injections into the lateral ventricle fail to produce tolerance. Therefore, the possibility of two different types of dopamine receptors at two different sites has been suggested -- those surrounding the lateral ventricles being resistant to tolerance.

2. Apomorphine-Induced Stereotypic Behavior

It has been known for over one hundred years that apomorphine, administered by a variety of routes, produces a behavioral syndrome in rats consisting of continuous, purposeless, compulsive actions (Harnack, 1874). At threshold doses, an increase in exploratory activity coupled with discontinuous sniffing is manifested. With increased dosage,

normal activities such as grooming and feeding are extinguished and replaced with continuous sniffing, accompanied by small, repetitive head movements. High doses of apomorphine elicit a continuous gnawing, biting and licking response and the rat restricts its locomotion to a very small area. The nature of this behavior justifies the term "stereotypy," which has been applied to it (DiChiara and Gessa, 1978). Stereotypy has been described in many species including rodents, cats, dogs, rabbits, pigeons and others (Randrup and Munkvad, 1967; DiChiara and Gessa, 1978).

Such stereotyped behavior in rodents can be quantified according to the dose-related appearance of one or more of the behavioral components (Ernst, 1967; Costall and Naylor, 1972). Such scoring scales rate sniffing behavior (with locomotion) lowest while rating continuous gnawing (with little or no locomotion) the highest. Details of one such scoring system are shown in Table I. The appearance of the sniffing at low doses and gnawing at higher doses appears to be directly correlated with the appearance of apomorphine in brain tissue following peripheral injection (Butterworth and Barbeau, 1975). Other scoring systems exist for apomorphine-induced stereotypy, e.g. "gnaw compulsion" syndrome was considered to be present (Ernst, 1969) when rats gnaw at the wire mesh on the bottom of the cage for at least half a minute and, when loosened from the wire, start gnawing again. Others have used a quantal approach to determine the presence of stereotyped behavior (Goetz and Klawans, 1974;

Table I -- Stereotyped behavior rating scale used in the present study

-
-
- 0 = Rats exhibiting no stereotyped behavior; behavior is indistinguishable from that of control animals.
 - 1 = Rats exhibiting periodic sniffing and repetitive head and limb movements.
 - 2 = Rats exhibiting continuous sniffing and repetitive head and limb movements; exploratory activity is also present.
 - 3 = Rats exhibiting occasional licking, biting or gnawing; exploratory activity is also present.
 - 4 = Rats exhibiting persistent and intense licking, biting or gnawing; locomotion is restricted to a small area.
 - 5 = Rats exhibiting persistent and intense licking, biting or gnawing restricted to one location.
-

Jacobs, 1974). It has been observed that the presence of wooden shavings on the cage floor facilitates the gnawing component of stereotypy produced by intermediate doses of apomorphine, and that distracting stimuli, such as loud noise, inhibit this phenomenon (DiChiara and Gessa, 1978).

Ernst (1967) concluded that apomorphine produces stereotyped behavior in rats by direct stimulation of the dopamine receptors located in the neostriatum. This hypothesis is supported by several other studies that have been reported. In the next three paragraphs these studies will be discussed.

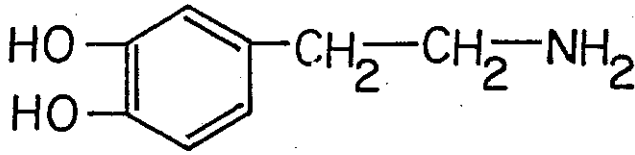
The ability of apomorphine to induce stereotyped behavior has been shown to be abolished by lesions of the corpus striatum (Amsler, 1923; Wolfarth et al., 1973). By stereotaxically implanting crystalline apomorphine or L-dopa into the brain of rats, Ernst and Smelik (1966) discovered that areas producing stereotyped behavior were the dorsal part of the caudate nucleus and the globus pallidum. No stereotyped behavior was produced by implants into the ventral part of the caudate nucleus, in the region medial to the caudate nucleus (nucleus lateralis septi), in subthalamic structures, or in the substantia nigra.

As noted earlier, evidence for the direct action of apomorphine on dopamine receptors was presented by Ernst (1967) and Anden (1967). L-dopa, apomorphine and amphetamine all produce similar stereotyped behavior in rats. Depletion of brain amines by alpha-methyldopa failed to block apomorphine-induced stereotypy but profoundly antagon-

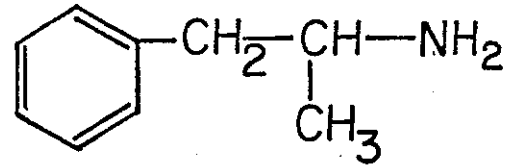
ized amphetamine-induced stereotypy. Alpha-methyltyrosine and reserpine produce the same results. Fog (1967) demonstrated that intracerebral microinjections of dopamine into the corpus striatum restore amphetamine-induced stereotypy that has been inhibited by alpha-methyltyrosine. This strongly suggests that apomorphine does not act by dopamine release, but has a dopamine-like effect on the receptor structure. Amphetamine would appear to act via the release of endogenous amines. Further evidence of this is the observation that monamine oxidase inhibitors can potentiate the behavioral effects of amphetamine (Ernst, 1967) and L-dopa but exert no effect on apomorphine-induced stereotyped behavior. Apomorphine does have structural similarities to dopa, and it has been suggested that the presence of hydroxyl groups at the para- and meta- positions of the phenol ring in the phenol-ethylamine configuration is obligatory for a direct action on gnawing behavior (Ernst, 1967). Apomorphine possesses this catechol configuration; amphetamine does not (Fig. 1).

Further support for the dopaminergic nature of apomorphine is that among neuroleptics, the most powerful antagonists of apomorphine are haloperidol, spiroperidol and pimozide. These compounds are reported to be pure dopamine receptor blockers at doses effective in antagonizing apomorphine-induced stereotyped behavior (DiChiara and Gessa, 1978).

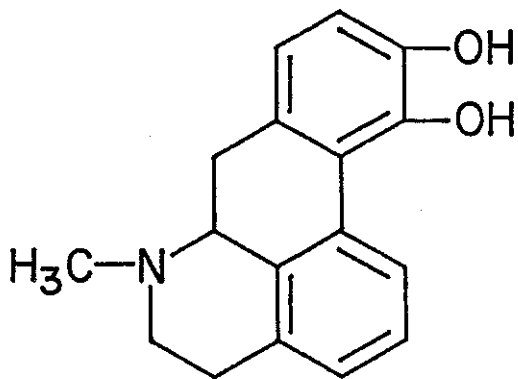
In contrast to the above widely accepted theories on apomorphine action, it has been shown that lesions of



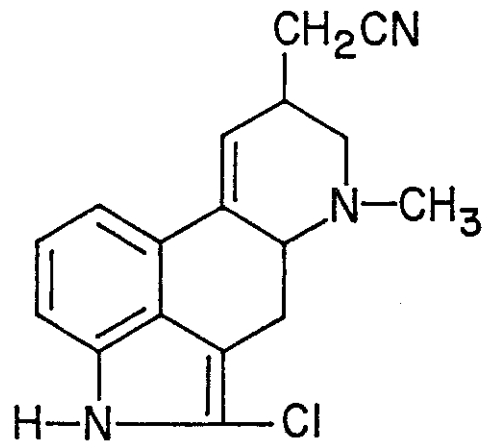
DOPAMINE



AMPHETAMINE



APOMORPHINE



LERGOTRILE

Figure 1 -- The structural relationships between dopamine, amphetamine, apomorphine and lergotrile.

dopaminergic tracts or nerve cells are effective in abolishing or decreasing apomorphine-induced stereotypy (Costall and Naylor, 1972). This would indicate that apomorphine-induced stereotypy requires the presence of intact dopaminergic terminals, and that apomorphine produces stereotypy via some presynaptic mechanism. Further evidence indicating a presynaptic action for apomorphine is that disruption of ~~intraneuronal amine stores by oxypertine and RO 04-1284~~ (catecholamine depletors) has been shown to reduce or abolish the stereotypic effects of apomorphine (Costall and Naylor, 1973a). The electrolytic lesion techniques employed by Costall and Naylor (1972, 1973b) have come under criticism recently by DiChiara and Gessa (1978). Their studies are in disagreement with data obtained by specific chemo-lytic destruction of dopamine terminals with 6-hydroxy-dopamine (Schoenfeld and Uretsky, 1972). Reasons suggested for this discrepancy include the incompleteness of the electrolytic lesions or interference with other non-dopaminergic nerve tracts necessary for the expression of apomorphine-induced stereotypy.

Further evidence for the presynaptic activity of apomorphine, but not intrinsically linked to stereotypy, is the ability of apomorphine to inhibit tyrosine hydroxylase, the enzyme responsible for converting tyrosine to dopa (Goldstein et al., 1970). It has been proposed that a negative feedback mechanism exists in dopaminergic neurons, and that the stimulation of dopamine terminals by apomorphine activates

this mechanism (Kehr et al., 1972). Studies determining the rate of disappearance of dopamine after tyrosine hydroxylase inhibition with alpha-methyltyrosine have shown that apomorphine consistently causes a decrease in the rate of disappearance of dopamine (Anden et al., 1967; Butcher and Anden, 1969). Goldstein and colleagues (1970) found that apomorphine inhibited tyrosine hydroxylase as well as the ~~synthesis of dopamine from tyrosine in striatal slices.~~ The addition of haloperidol to the preparation did not affect the inhibitory effect of apomorphine. This experiment indicates that the inhibitory effectiveness of apomorphine on striatal slices is not due to stimulation of dopamine receptors, but due to a direct action on tyrosine hydroxylase. The catechol structure of apomorphine supports this theory.

Costall and Naylor (1975) have attempted to differentiate pharmacologically and anatomically two components of stereotyped behavior, a low-intensity component (sniffing and repetitive movements) and a high-intensity component (gnawing). As mentioned earlier, low doses of apomorphine cause sniffing and repetitive head and limb movements, whereas high doses elicit intensive gnawing. Intracerebral application of dopamine to the tuberculum olfactorium and nucleus accumbens septi produces sniffing and movements characteristic of the low-intensity component. Lesions of these areas were effective in reducing the stereotyped sniffing and head and limb movements induced by apomorphine.

The substantia nigra and nucleus amygdaloideus centralis were determined to be the effectors for the high-intensity component using the same intracerebral application and lesion techniques. It has become apparent from these findings that other brain structures and pathways are also important in the expression of the stereotypic effects of apomorphine besides those of the neostriatum (Ernst and Smelik, 1966). ~~Paleostriatal structures (nucleus pallidus)~~ and mesolimbic areas (tuberculum olfactorium, nucleus amygdaloideus centralis and lateralis, nucleus accumbens septi) as well as those of the neostriatum (caudate nucleus and putamen) all appear to have important functions in the full expression of apomorphine-induced stereotypic behavior.

3. The Role of Serotonin in Thermal Regulation and Stereotypy

There exists considerable evidence that serotonin plays a role in many central nervous system functions such as temperature regulation, neuroendocrine regulation, sleep, extrapyramidal function and behavior (Chase and Murphy, 1973). Recently it has been postulated that serotonin may have a function in regulating or mediating the central effects of dopaminomimetics such as apomorphine. Conflicting reports preclude the formulation of a single theory to explain the role that serotonin may play in these systems

Attempts to evaluate the role serotonin may play in the central nervous system or in the action of dopamine agonists may be grouped into four approaches. The first approach is biochemical, whereby attempts are made to increase or

decrease brain serotonin. Systemically administered precursors of serotonin (L-tryptophan and 5-hydroxytryptophan) are believed to increase brain serotonin and neural transmission, but evidence exists that this method may also interfere with other catecholamines (Chase and Murphy, 1973).

The opposite approach is to administer a drug that is believed to decrease brain serotonin and neural transmission.

~~Parachlorophenylalanine is an inhibitor of tryptophan~~
hydroxylase and leads to a profound depletion of brain serotonin (Koe and Weissman, 1966). However, it has been shown that parachlorophenylalanine also lowers the levels of other brain amines including norepinephrine and dopamine (Tagliamonte et al., 1973).

A pharmacologic approach is to use selective blocking agents for serotonin receptors in the brain. Drugs such as cyproheptadine, cinanserin and methysergide are believed to block serotonin receptors directly. The major difficulty with these pharmacologically based investigations is finding a drug that acts exclusively on serotonin neurons.

Physical techniques have been utilized for the in vitro study of serotonin function. Lesions of the midbrain raphe are reported to deplete markedly the serotonin concentration of forebrain (Kostowski et al., 1968), whereas electrical stimulation of this area accelerates the synthesis and release of serotonin (Kostowski et al., 1969). As with pharmacological techniques, physical intervention is somewhat nonspecific and may affect non-serotonergic nerve

fibers that traverse the raphe nucleus (Chase and Murphy, 1973).

The fourth major approach to the study of serotonin mechanisms involves histofluorescent techniques. By measuring the brain levels of serotonin or 5-hydroxyindoleacetic acid, its principal deaminated metabolite, the steady state or turnover rate of serotonin can be monitored, and the relative activation of serotonin neurons can be estimated (Tozer et al., 1966).

It has been reported that apomorphine increases serotonin turnover (Scheel-Kruger and Hasselager, 1974; Grabowska, 1975; Maj, 1975). Apomorphine has been found to accelerate the disappearance of 5-hydroxyindoleacetic acid from the brain of pargyline-pretreated (a MAO inhibitor) rats as well as to facilitate the depletion of brain serotonin caused by synthesis inhibition (Grabowska, 1975). Depletion of brain serotonin was abolished when rats were treated with the dopamine antagonist, spiroperidol. Apomorphine has been reported to increase brain serotonin and 5-hydroxyindoleacetic acid levels, accelerate the disappearance rate of serotonin after synthesis inhibition with alpha-propyldopacetamide, and intensify serotonin fluorescence in raphe nuclei (Maj, 1975). Dopamine blockers (spiroperidol and pimozide) counteract these effects of apomorphine, and this has led to the suggestion that these agents influence serotonin neurons through a secondary mechanism, with the primary effects being directed at dopamine

receptors. Further experiments have supported this theory. Apomorphine will increase the concentration of serotonin and 5-hydroxyindoleacetic acid in the raphe region in the mesencephalon of normal rats but not in rats with a mesencephalic-diencephalic transection (Grabowska et al., 1976). This transection interrupts the descending pathway originating from dopamine structures of the forebrain. Transection alone was reported to cause no change in raphe serotonin or 5-hydroxyindoleacetic acid. Therefore, it appears that apomorphine can activate serotonin neurons indirectly. This activation of serotonergic neurons may be important in the mediation of some of the pharmacological effects of apomorphine and other dopaminomimetics.

Serotonin appears to also have a critical role in the complex network of neural factors which regulate body temperature. Brain serotonin has been shown to increase in the rat during heat stress (Reid et al., 1968) and it has been proposed that central serotonin pathways may be involved in the response to heat stress in the rat.

Several studies indicate that apomorphine-induced thermal effects have a serotonin link. Midbrain raphe lesions have been shown to attenuate the hypothermic effects of apomorphine in rats (Grabowska et al., 1974). Selective chemolytic destruction of serotonin neurons with 5,6-dihydroxytryptamine, as well as serotonin depletion with parachlorophenylalanine, has been reported to strongly inhibit

the hyperthermia induced by apomorphine and other dopamine agonists in rabbits (Carruba et al., 1978). Intrahypothalamic pretreatment with cyproheptadine or methysergide has been shown to block the hypothermic effect of dopamine agonists (Cox and Lee, 1979). LSD (lysergic acid diethylamide) will inhibit apomorphine-induced hypothermia and this effect is believed to be due to stabilization of serotonin within the receptor (Grabowska et al., 1973). Thus, strong evidence indicates that apomorphine and other dopaminomimetics may mediate thermal effects in mammals through a serotonergic link.

While there is general agreement on a serotonergic link in apomorphine-induced hypothermia, apomorphine-induced stereotypy does not enjoy such agreement. Studies have shown that an increase in brain serotonin induced by 5-hydroxytryptophan or l-tryptophan or a reduction in brain serotonin with parachlorophenylalanine has no effect on apomorphine-induced stereotypy (Rotrosen et al., 1972; Baldessarini et al., 1975). The serotonin lesioning agents 5,6- or 5,7-dihydroxytryptamine (Baldessarini et al., 1975) and the serotonin antagonist methysergide (Rotrosen et al., 1972) have also been reported to have no effect on apomorphine-induced stereotypy.

Certain reports indicate that a decrease in serotonin concentration or a blockade of serotonin receptors can potentiate apomorphine-induced stereotypy (Weiner et al., 1975; Molgılnicka et al., 1977). Treatments found to potentiate

apomorphine-induced stereotypy included parachlorophenylalanine, cyproheptadine, methysergide and methergoline. The administration of 5-hydroxytryptophan was found to inhibit apomorphine-induced stereotypy (Weiner et al., 1975). Consequently, it has been suggested that serotonin plays an antagonistic role to that of dopamine in stereotyped behavior (Molgilnicka et al., 1977). In agreement with this, ~~methamphetamine-induced stereotypy has been found to be~~ inhibited by l-tryptophan treatment and potentiated by parachlorophenylalanine treatment (Balsara et al., 1979).

In direct contrast to these findings, the serotonin agonist quipazine and the serotonin reuptake blocker ORG 6582 have been reported to convert apomorphine-induced low-intensity sniffing to high-intensity gnawing (Carter and Pycock, 1978), and cyproheptadine and metergoline have been reported to reduce apomorphine-induced stereotypy. In addition, parachlorophenylalanine, cinanserin and methysergide treatments have been reported to block l-dopa- or l-tryptophan-induced lateral head weaving and reciprocal forpaw treading in rats (Jacobs, 1974). Dopamine synthesis inhibition with alpha-methyltyrosine or receptor blockade with pimozide apparently had no effect on the stereotypy in these studies. Therefore, the role that serotonin may play in apomorphine-induced stereotyped behavior remains very unclear.

4. Pharmacology of Lergotrile and Related Ergot Compounds

The naturally occurring ergot alkaloids and the hundreds

of chemically related semisynthetic agents that are now available have been described as a treasure chest of pharmacologically active and clinically useful compounds (Saameli, 1976). Crude extracts of the parasitic fungus Claviceps purpurea have been used for centuries as an oxytocic, but the cornerstone of the pharmacology of ergot is the classic work done by Sir Henry Dale early in the twentieth century. His demonstration of adrenaline reversal using ergot extracts in a spinal cat has been the basis for many studies in receptor pharmacology (for a review see Schild, 1976).

The influence of ergot compounds on noradrenergic synapses has been well studied. Dihydrogenated ergot alkaloids and ergotamine have been demonstrated to have direct venoconstrictor activity (Mellander and Nordenfelt, 1976). Aellig (1976) and Chu and colleagues (1976) have attributed part of this venoconstrictor activity to alpha-adrenoceptor stimulation. Other noradrenergic effects of ergot compounds have been demonstrated such as presynaptic noradrenaline release and the blockade of alpha-adrenoceptors (Salzmann and Pacha, 1976). Inhibition of catecholamine reuptake has been demonstrated with dihydroergotoxine in central nervous tissue (Meier-Ruge and Iwangoff, 1976).

Recently, much attention has focused on the dopaminergic activity of ergot compounds, probably due to the clinical application of ergot compounds in the treatment of such pathologies as parkinsonism, acromegaly, hyper-

prolactinemia-hypogonadism and puerperal lactation. The course of study on the dopaminergic agonist and antagonist activities of ergot derivatives and lergotrile have been explored in two different ways: (i) those which have employed biochemical and endocrinological techniques, and (ii) those which have used these compounds clinically as replacements for traditional dopaminergic agents.

Several studies have demonstrated the interaction of ergot derivatives and lergotrile with the dopamine receptor. After pretreatment with alpha-methyltyrosine, histochemical studies on neostriatal and limbic dopamine nerve terminals revealed a dose-dependent deceleration of dopamine fluorescence in rats treated with ergocornine or bromocryptine (Corrodi et al., 1973). Lergotrile has also been reported to slow the decline in dopamine concentration after synthesis inhibition with alpha-methyltyrosine along with being able to lower whole brain DOPAC (3,4-dihydroxyphenylacetic acid) concentration in rats (Fuller and Perry, 1978). Lergotrile has been shown to cause a dose-dependant and haloperidol-reversible depression of dopamine cell-firing rates in the pars compacta of the rat substantia nigra (Walters et al., 1979). All of these observations are consistent with the theory that ergolines and ~~lergotrile can act~~ as direct dopamine agonists in vivo.

In vitro studies indicate that bromocryptine and lergotrile have mixed putative agonist-antagonist activity on

dopamine receptors. Receptor binding studies have shown that lergotrile has a higher affinity for radiolabeled dopamine binding than bromocryptine, while bromocryptine has a higher affinity than lergotrile for radiolabeled haloperidol binding sites (Lew et al., 1977). Lergotrile has also been shown to antagonize the dopamine-stimulated adenylyl cyclase activity in the striatum (Kebabian et al., 1977).

In light of these results, it has been suggested that several categories of pharmacologically distinct dopamine receptors exist (Kebabian and Kebabian, 1978) and that lergotrile possesses varying degrees of agonist-antagonist properties with respect to these various receptors.

The role of hypothalamic dopamine in inhibiting pituitary prolactin release provides a very good opportunity for studying the dopaminergic activity of a variety of compounds. Neuroleptics of many classes (butyrophenones, phenothiazines, thioxanthines) increase prolactin secretion in man in a dose-dependent manner without affecting plasma levels of other pituitary hormones (Langer and Sachar, 1977). This response to neuroleptics is attributed to the blockade of dopamine in the hypothalamic-pituitary axis, as dopamine completely antagonizes the response to the neuroleptics when administered. Lergotrile has been shown to inhibit prolactin secretion in man and to attenuate the perphenazine-induced secretion of prolactin (Lemberger et al., 1974). This effect was very specific; no significant changes in the other pituitary hormones measured (GH, T₃, T₄, LH, FSH)

were observed. Many ergoline derivatives have been shown to have the same effect (Clemens et al., 1974). The mechanism of action for lergotrile in prolactin secretion inhibition has been suggested to be due to an activation of adeno-hypophyseal dopamine receptors (Clemens et al., 1975). A major metabolite of lergotrile in humans, 13-hydroxy-lergotrile, has been demonstrated to be a potent inhibitor of prolactin secretion (Parli et al., 1978).

Lergotrile has been shown to raise the levels of serum growth hormone in normal humans, but to lower the hormone in acromegalic patients (Kleinberg et al., 1978; Thorner et al., 1978). Thorner and coworkers (1978) have demonstrated the dopaminergic nature of this action by attenuating the response to lergotrile with metoclopramide, a dopamine antagonist. Bromocryptine has also been demonstrated to lower serum growth hormone in patients with acromegaly (Thorner and Besser, 1976). Both lergotrile and bromocryptine show promise in the treatment of acromegaly. Clinical improvement is seen as a decrease in sweating, thinning of extremities, improvement in glucose tolerance and, of course, decrease in serum growth hormone levels.

Both lergotrile and bromocryptine have been used successfully in the treatment of parkinsonism (Lieberman et al., 1975; Goldstein et al., 1978; Klawans et al., 1978). Binding studies to striatal membranes have demonstrated that the efficacy of these compounds in the treatment of parkinsonism can be attributed to the direct stimulation of dopamine

receptors (Goldstein et al., 1978). One particularly interesting observation in all of these studies is that lergotrile and bromocryptine were effective in patients who were no longer responsive to L-dopa and carbidopa therapy.

Certain ergot derivatives have been demonstrated to induce stereotypy and/or hypothermia in rodents. Lisuride ~~hydrogen maleate has been shown to produce dose-dependent~~ stereotypy and hypothermia in mice (Horowski and Wachtel, 1976). Stereotypy was induced in control as well as reserpinized mice, indicating a direct dopaminergic action for this ergot derivative. A dose-response relationship has also been demonstrated for bromocryptine-induced hypothermia in rats (Calne and Claveria, 1975). It was suggested that the hypothermia produced was the result of bromocryptine stimulating dopamine receptors in brain areas controlling body temperature.

Statement of the Problem

Apomorphine and lergotrile induce hypothermia and stereotypy in the rat. It is generally accepted that these effects are due to stimulation of dopamine receptors, as both effects can be completely antagonized by haloperidol or pimozide. Several studies have indicated that such central actions of dopaminomimetics may be affected by serotonergic mechanisms.

Apomorphine-induced hypothermia in rats appears to be mediated via a serotonin link (Grabowska et al., 1973;

Grabowska, 1974; Cox and Lee, 1979). One study has indicated that such a serotonin link may mediate apomorphine-induced hyperthermia in rabbits (Quock and Horita, 1974). While there are many studies examining the role of serotonin in apomorphine-induced temperature effects, there are very few studies that have examined the role of serotonin in the temperature effects induced by ergot derivatives. One study used bromocryptine to induce hyperthermia in rabbits, and found this effect to be antagonized by treatment with either parachlorophenylalanine or 5,6-dihydroxytryptamine (Carruba et al., 1978). The role that serotonin may play in lergotrile-induced hypothermia has not been studied.

The role that serotonin may play in apomorphine-induced stereotypy is very unclear. This may be due in part to the difference in methods used to evaluate the behavior and in part to the absence of a specific agonist or antagonist of serotonin, a problem that plagues many serotonin studies. Each of the biochemical, pharmacologic and physical techniques used to facilitate or interrupt serotonergic activity may affect non-serotonergic nerve activity as well (Chase and Murphy, 1973).

Since both apomorphine and lergotrile produce similar effects which have been attributed to dopaminergic activity, the possibility exists that both compounds have a similar mechanism of action. If this is true, it would be expected that any serotonergic influence on the effects of either drug would be the same. The present study was undertaken to compare

two effects induced by apomorphine (hypothermia and stereotypy) with the corresponding effects induced by lergotrile and the changes that may arise in these responses when serotonin function is altered. The results of this study should provide some evidence as to whether apomorphine and lergotrile produce their effects through a common or parallel dopaminergic mechanism.

Materials and Methods

1. Animals

Male Wistar rats (Simonsen Laboratories, Gilroy, California), weighing between 150-250 g, were housed prior to experimentation in community cages on a standard light-dark schedule (light: 0700-1400) and given food (S/L Custom Lab Diet-G4.5, Simonsen Labs) and water ad libitum. Ambient temperature was regulated at $22^{\circ} \pm 1^{\circ}$ C. For each experiment, naive animals were chosen at random, weighed and placed in individual cages. Food and water were withheld during the course of each experiment.

2. Drugs

Apomorphine hydrochloride (APO, Merck and Co.), lergotrile mesylate (LER, Eli Lilly), cyproheptadine hydrochloride (CYP, Merck, Sharp and Dohme), cinanserin hydrochloride (CIN, Squibb and Sons), and parachlorophenylalanine methyl ester hydrochloride (PCPA, Sigma) were all

prepared as aqueous solutions immediately prior to use using double-distilled water. Haloperidol (HAL, McNeil) was supplied in prepared Haldol^R injection ampules and was diluted to final concentration with double-distilled water.

3. Procedure

All experiments were started at 0900 with drug and control pretreatments given by 1100. Double-distilled water served for control injections. All injections were given intraperitoneally with pretreatment and challenge injections given on opposite sides of the peritoneal cavity. A constant injection volume of 1.0 ml/kg was used except for PCPA and its control, which were given at 2.0 ml/kg. All pretreatments were given 30 minutes prior to the challenge injections except for PCPA and its control, which were given 48 hours prior to challenge injections of APO or LER. All doses given refer to the salt of the compound except for HAL, where doses were given as the free base. The significance of the drug effects were evaluated using the Student's t test. Analysis of variance between the baseline body temperatures was evaluated using Dunnett's t test.

4. Measurement of Body Temperature

During experimentation, the animals were housed individually in metal cages (24 x 30 x 15 cm) on absorbant bedding in a controlled temperature room ($22^{\circ} \pm 1^{\circ}$ C) after being weighed. The animals were allowed to acclimatize for 60 minutes prior to any temperature recording. An electron-

ic telethermometer with a flexible rectal probe (Yellow Springs Instruments #43TA, probe #402) was used for all temperature measurements, and was inserted 5.0 cm past the rectum (insertion duration = 30 seconds). Baseline temperatures were taken every 15 minutes for at least one hour prior to any injection. Recordings were made 15 and 30 minutes after pretreatment injections to assure that there had been no variation from the baseline temperature. For APO experiments, recordings were made every 15 minutes for 90 minutes, and for LER, every 30 minutes for 300 minutes -- this difference reflects the duration of action of each drug on body temperature. The change in body temperature was determined by subtracting each interval's reading from the baseline temperature for each animal.

5. Measurement of Stereotypy

The animals were housed in clear plexiglass cages (25 x 45 x 15 cm) in a silent, evenly lit room for 60 minutes prior to the experiment. The floor of the cages was filled with 1-2 cm of absorbant bedding (KC Pharmacal) upon which the animals could gnaw or bite. This material was found to be very satisfactory to observe the gnawing/biting component of stereotypy. Opaque screens were placed between individual cages to prevent behavioral interaction between animals. In all experiments, the animals were injected at staggered intervals of 2 minutes, and the intensity of stereotypy was assessed using a modified version (Table I) of the scale developed by Costall and

Naylor (1972). A total stereotypy score was assigned to each animal consisting of the total of the 18 scores (taken every 5 minutes over the 90-minute observation period), although very often the duration of stereotypy was considerably less than 90 minutes.

6. Determination of Brain Serotonin Content

Determination of whole brain serotonin content was made by spectrofluorimetric assay by the method of Lai and coworkers (1978). Rats were killed by rapid decapitation 48 hours after the double-distilled water or PCPA injections. The entire brain was quickly removed, washed with ice cold 0.9 percent saline, weighed and homogenized for 4.0 seconds (Brinkmann PCU-2 Polytron) in two volumes of cold 0.3 N perchloric acid. The homogenate was centrifuged at 2000 \times g for 10 minutes. Eight hundred μ l of the supernate was added to 2.0 ml Na_2HPO_4 buffer containing 0.1 M DEHPA (diethylhexyphosphoric acid) in 1.2 ml CHCl_3 . After shaking for two minutes, the organic layer was separated from the aqueous layer by centrifugation (600 \times g for 5 minutes). One ml of the organic layer was removed and added to a test tube containing 2.0 ml heptane and 0.6 ml 0.2 N HCl and shaken for two minutes. Again the organic layer was separated from the aqueous layer by centrifugation (600 \times g for 5 minutes). Two hundred μ l of the aqueous layer was transferred to a test tube to which was added 100 μ l *o*-phthalaldehyde reagent (50 mg percent in methanol). This mixture was

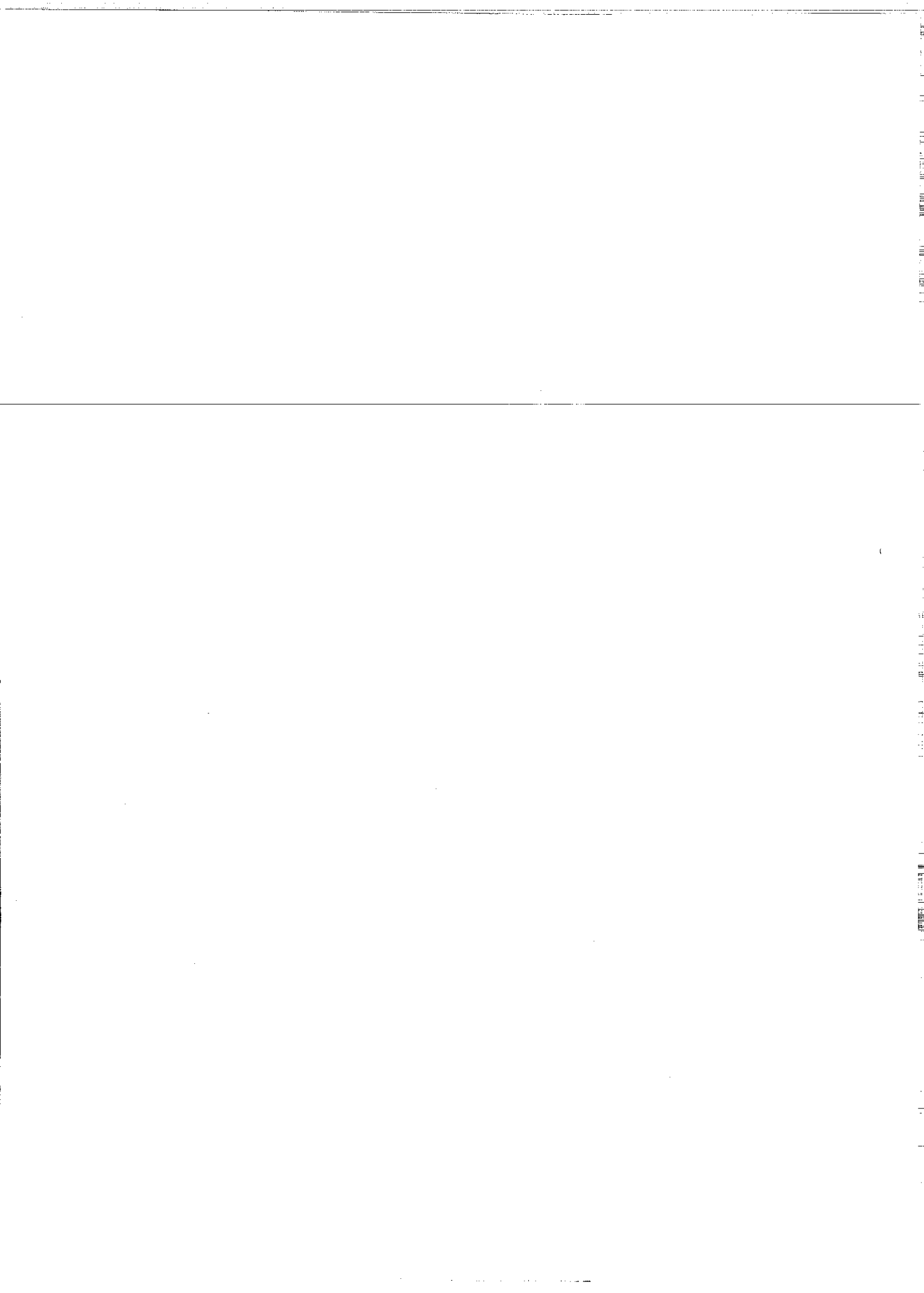
vortexed immediately. Eight hundred μl concentrated HCl (12 N) was then added and vortexed immediately. The resulting mixture was heated in an 85°C water bath for 30 minutes, then cooled to room temperature (22°C) in a water bath. The serotonin phosphor was read at an activation wavelength of 356 nm and a fluorescence wavelength of 480 nm. Serotonin creatinine sulfate ($50\ \mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ in $0.1\ \text{N HCL}$) was used as a standard.

Results

1. Hypothermia

Apomorphine and lergotrile produced a dose-related hypothermia when injected intraperitoneally into rats (Fig. 2,3). Pretreatment with haloperidol 0.5 mg/kg very highly significantly antagonized the maximum drop in body temperature for both doses of apomorphine (Fig. 4,5) and all three doses of lergotrile (Fig. 6,7,8) without significantly affecting body temperature alone (Fig. 9). Pretreatment with cyproheptadine HCl 0.5 mg/kg had no significant effect on apomorphine-induced hypothermia (Fig. 4,5) but significantly potentiated the hypothermic response of lergotrile (Fig. 6,7,8). Cyproheptadine HCl 0.5 mg/kg had no significant effect on body temperature itself (Fig. 9). Pretreatment with cinanserin HCl 5.0 mg/kg very highly significantly attenuated apomorphine-induced hypothermia (Fig. 10) while very highly significantly potentiating the hypothermic response of lergotrile (Fig. 11).

A single injection of parachlorophenylalanine methyl



O APO 0.5
X APO 2.0

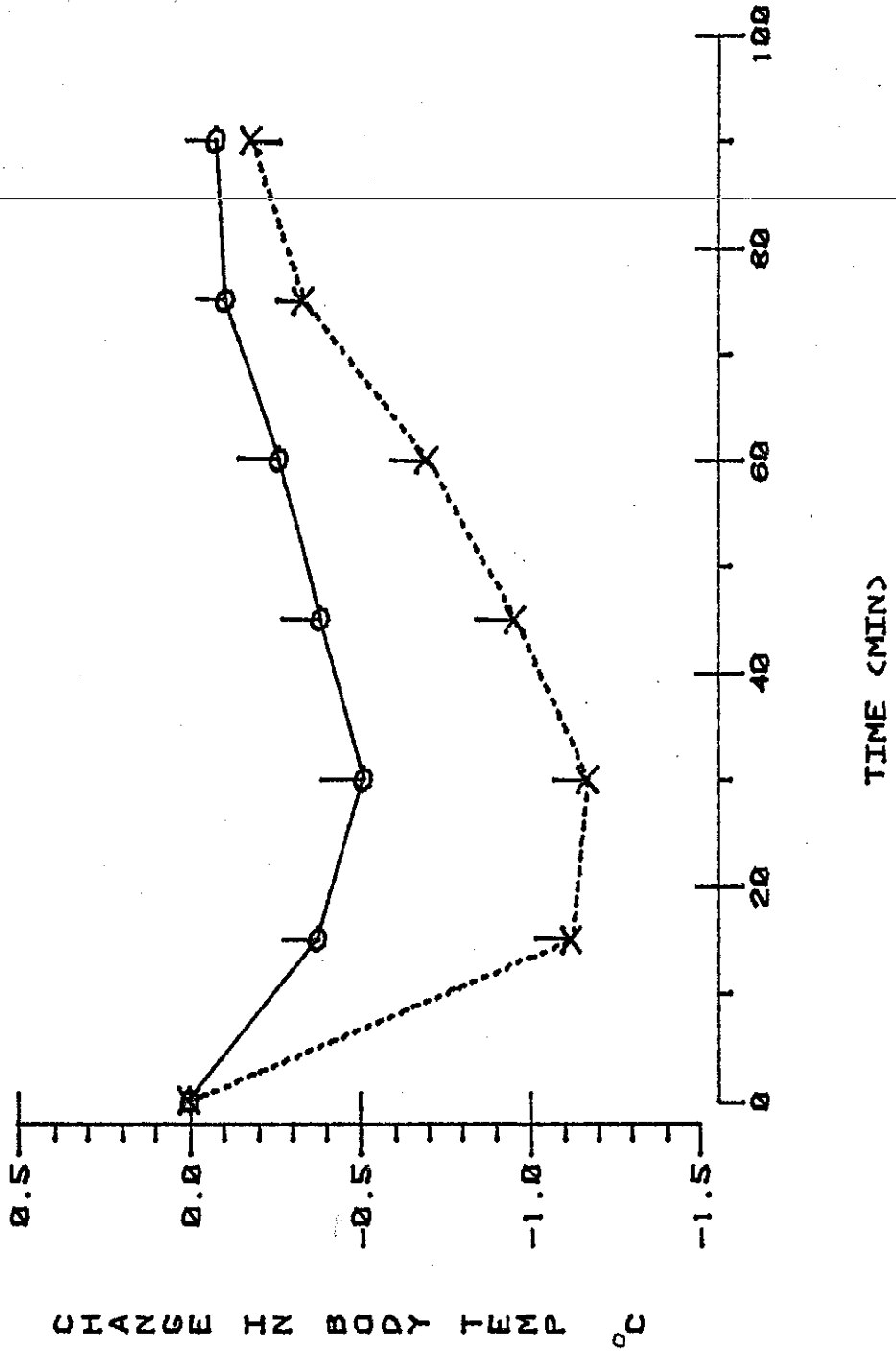


Table II -- The effect of pretreatment (-30 minutes) with either haloperidol (HAL) or cyproheptadine HCl (CYP) on the body temperature effects of intraperitoneal apomorphine HCl (APO).

Mean body temperature °C \pm 1.0 SEM			
Time, min.	APO 0.5 mg/kg (N=14)	HAL 0.5 mg/kg followed by APO 0.5 mg/kg (N=8)	CYP 0.5 mg/kg followed by APO 0.5 mg/kg (N=10)
0 ^a	36.83 \pm 0.15	36.73 \pm 0.18	37.11 \pm 0.11
+15	36.44 \pm 0.16	37.06 \pm 0.19	36.60 \pm 0.17
+30	36.32 \pm 0.15	36.95 \pm 0.18	36.54 \pm 0.22
+45	36.46 \pm 0.13	36.80 \pm 0.20	36.68 \pm 0.19
+60	36.59 \pm 0.14	36.81 \pm 0.20	36.75 \pm 0.18
+75	36.73 \pm 0.15	36.88 \pm 0.19	36.86 \pm 0.17
+90	36.76 \pm 0.17	36.89 \pm 0.18	36.88 \pm 0.13

^aZero time values for the three treatment groups were checked for homogeneity using Dunnett's t test, and no significant difference ($P < 0.05$) was found (pooled $s^2 = 0.2494$, d.f. = 29).

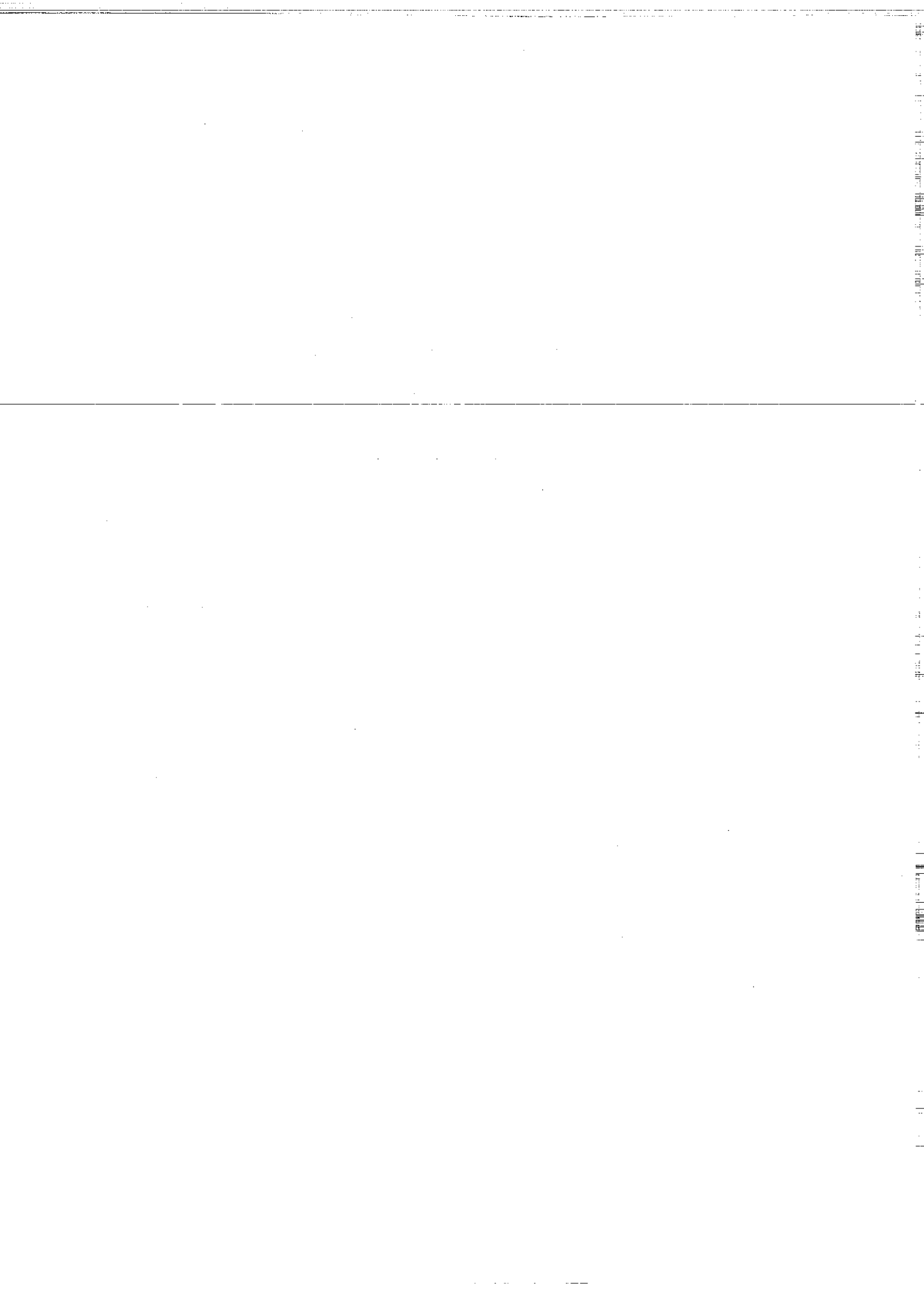
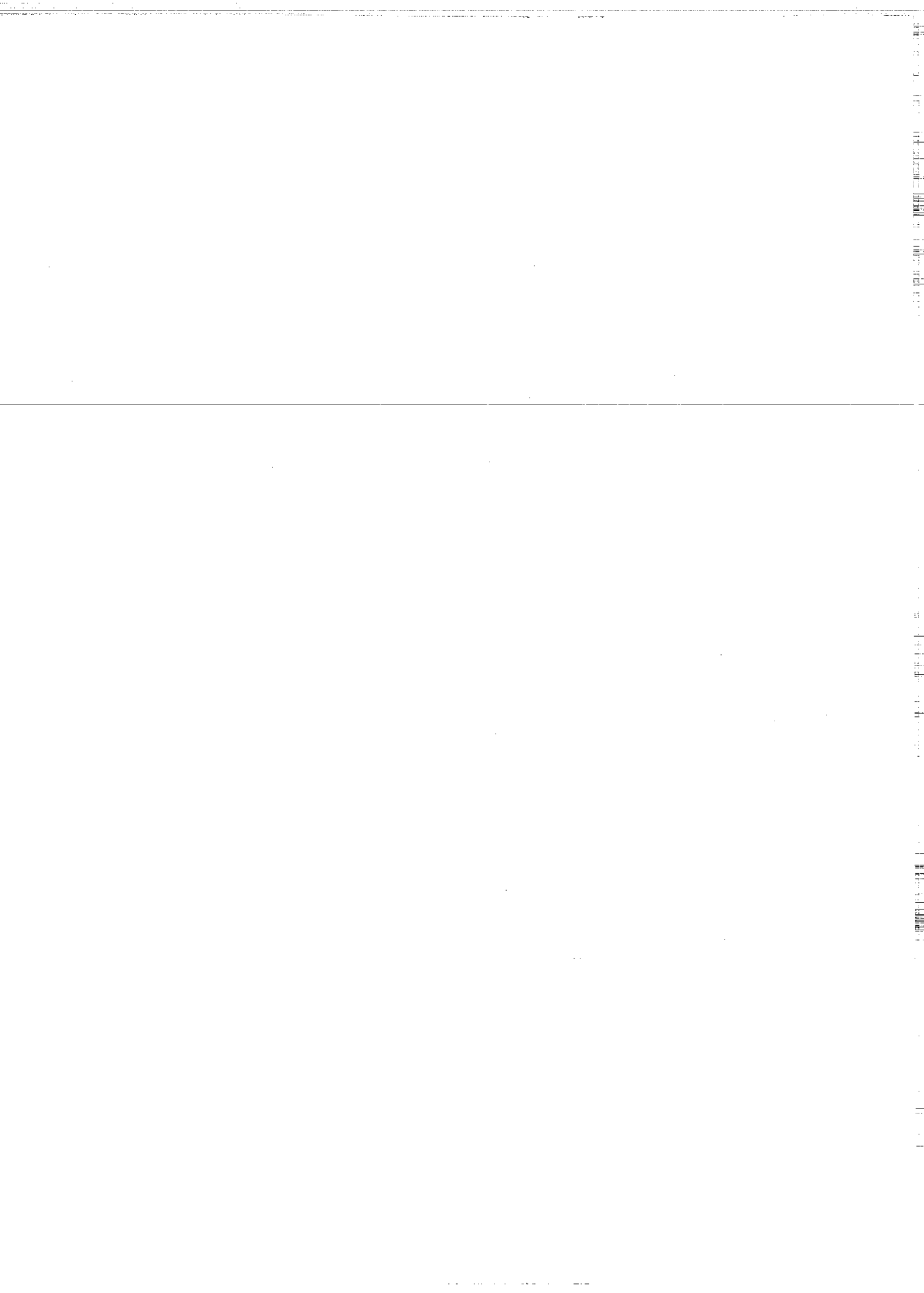


Table III -- (Continued)

Mean body temperature °C \pm 1.0 SEM		
Time, min.	CIN 5.0 mg/kg followed by APO 2.0 mg/kg (N=12)	PCPA 300 mg/kg followed by APO 2.0 mg/kg (N=9)
0	36.66 \pm 0.21	37.81 \pm 0.10
+15	36.21 \pm 0.31	36.74 \pm 0.27
+30	36.13 \pm 0.31	36.61 \pm 0.28
+45	36.27 \pm 0.30	36.73 \pm 0.26
+60	36.50 \pm 0.26	37.04 \pm 0.22
+75	36.63 \pm 0.20	37.36 \pm 0.11
+90	36.73 \pm 0.17	37.59 \pm 0.09



O LER 0.3
X LER 1.0
Δ LER 3.0

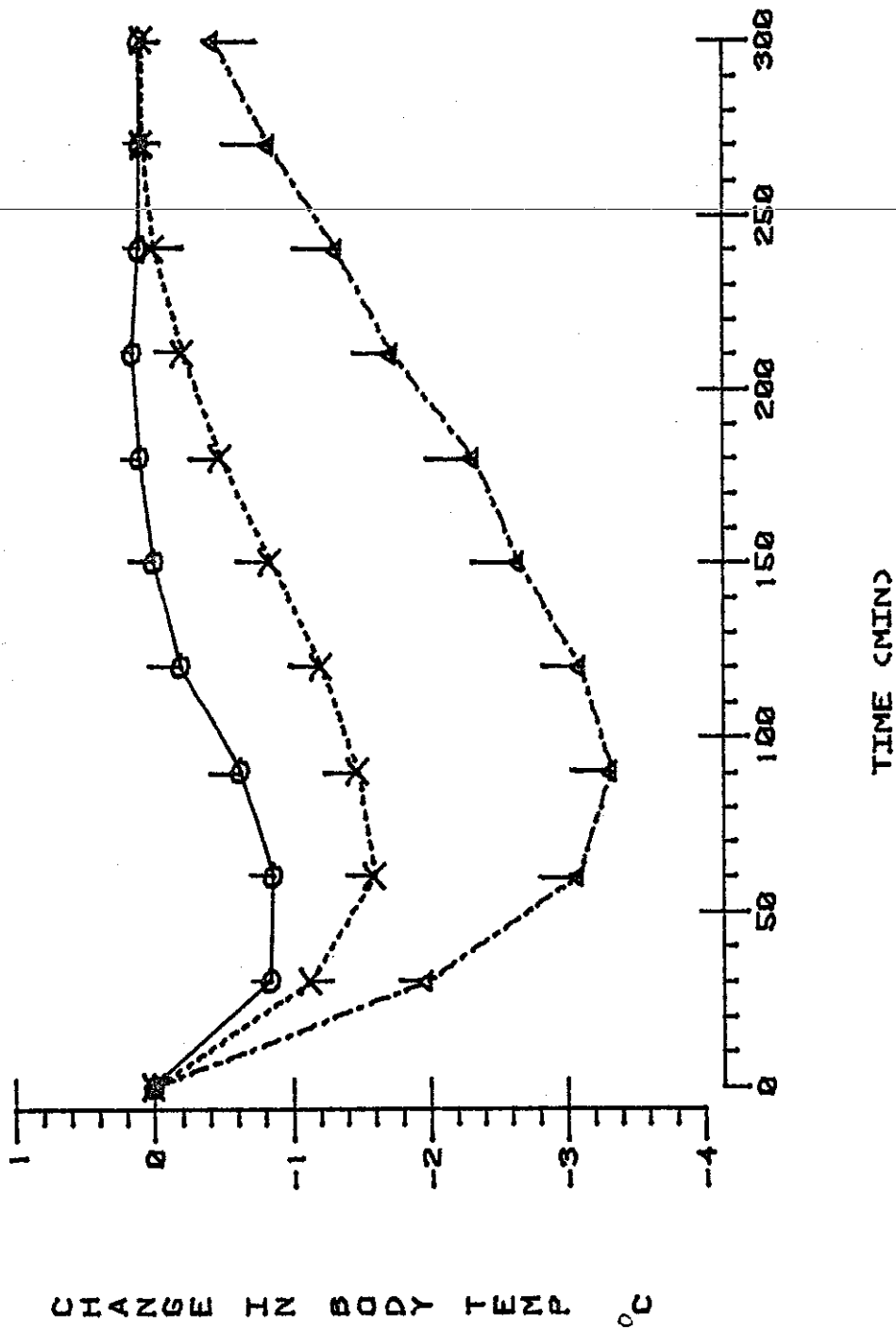


Table IV -- The effect of pretreatment (-30 minutes) with either haloperidol (HAL) or cyproheptadine HCl (CYP) on the body temperature effects of intraperitoneal lergotriple mesylate (LER).

Mean body temperature °C \pm 1.0 SEM			
Time, min.	LER 0.3 mg/kg (N=9)	HAL 0.5 mg/kg followed by LER 0.3 mg/kg (N=8)	CYP 0.5 mg/kg followed by LER 0.3 mg/kg (N=9)
0 ^a	36.17 \pm 0.22	36.98 \pm 0.26	36.94 \pm 0.12
+30	35.33 \pm 0.19	36.88 \pm 0.23	35.93 \pm 0.19
+60	35.31 \pm 0.20	36.93 \pm 0.20	35.74 \pm 0.18
+90	35.64 \pm 0.23	36.94 \pm 0.23	36.00 \pm 0.12
+120	35.98 \pm 0.24	36.80 \pm 0.24	36.26 \pm 0.11
+150	36.17 \pm 0.23	36.83 \pm 0.25	36.51 \pm 0.16
+180	36.27 \pm 0.18	36.98 \pm 0.20	36.67 \pm 0.12
+210	36.32 \pm 0.21	37.09 \pm 0.17	36.76 \pm 0.09
+240	36.28 \pm 0.24	37.01 \pm 0.17	36.78 \pm 0.08
+270	36.31 \pm 0.19	36.88 \pm 0.20	36.89 \pm 0.09
+300	36.19 \pm 0.16	37.04 \pm 0.12	36.90 \pm 0.09

^aZero time values for the three treatment groups were checked for homogeneity using Dunnett's \bar{t} test, and both the HAL and the CYP pretreated groups were significantly different ($P < 0.05$) from the LER control group (pooled $s^2 = 0.3660$, $\bar{d}.f. = 23$).

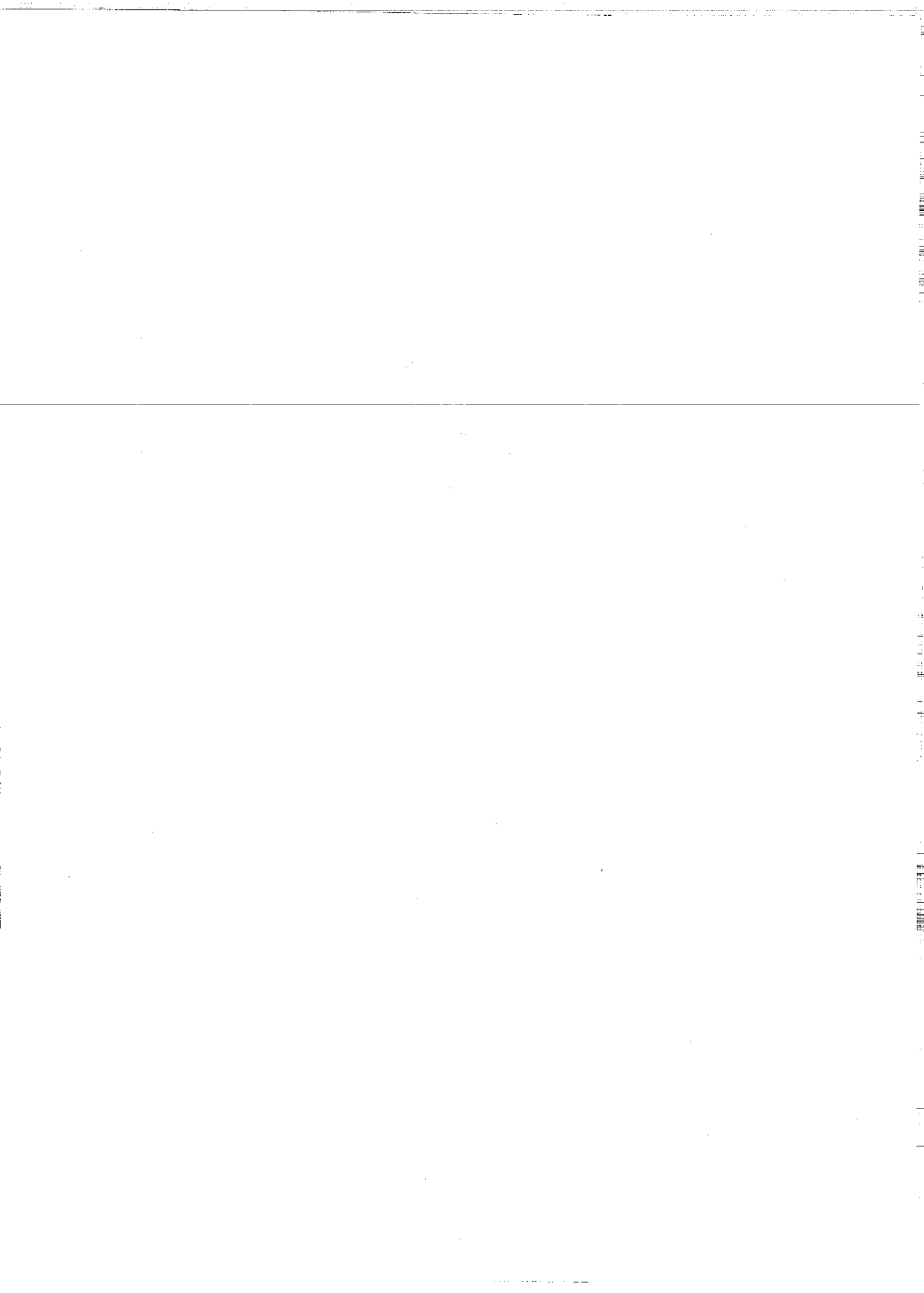


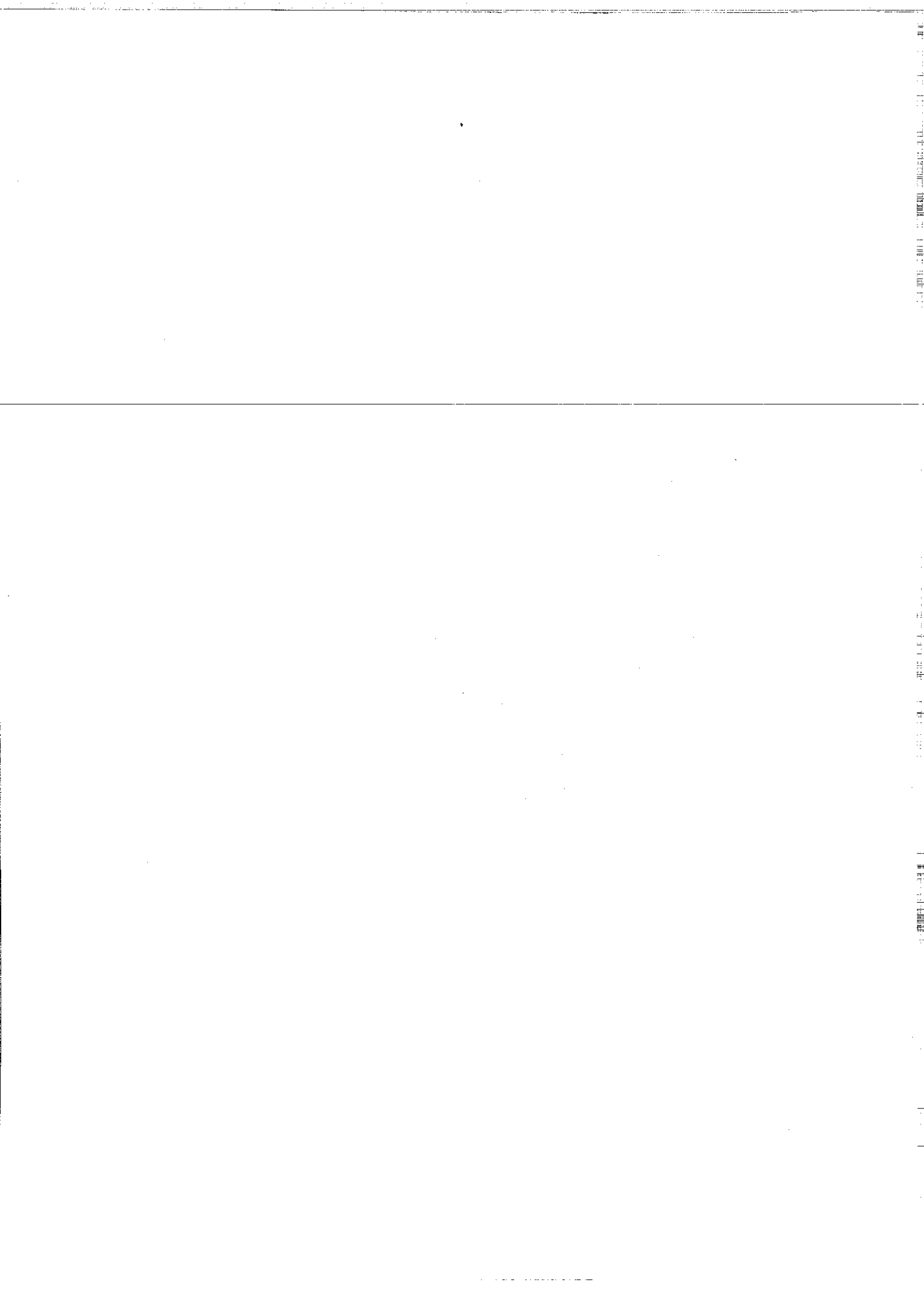
Table V -- (Continued)

Time, min.	Mean body temperature °C \pm 1.0 SEM	
	CIN 5.0 mg/kg followed by LER 1.0 mg/kg (N=10)	PCPA 300 mg/kg followed by LER 1.0 mg/kg (N=11)
0 ^a	36.92 \pm 0.16	37.44 \pm 0.12
+30	34.99 \pm 0.14	35.95 \pm 0.21
+60	34.45 \pm 0.23	35.28 \pm 0.28
+90	34.63 \pm 0.24	35.45 \pm 0.24
+120	35.47 \pm 0.31	35.65 \pm 0.22
+150	36.18 \pm 0.31	36.14 \pm 0.21
+180	36.88 \pm 0.26	36.65 \pm 0.19
+210	36.92 \pm 0.19	37.05 \pm 0.14
+240	36.84 \pm 0.17	37.25 \pm 0.08
+270	36.91 \pm 0.13	37.30 \pm 0.12
+300	36.94 \pm 0.12	37.41 \pm 0.11

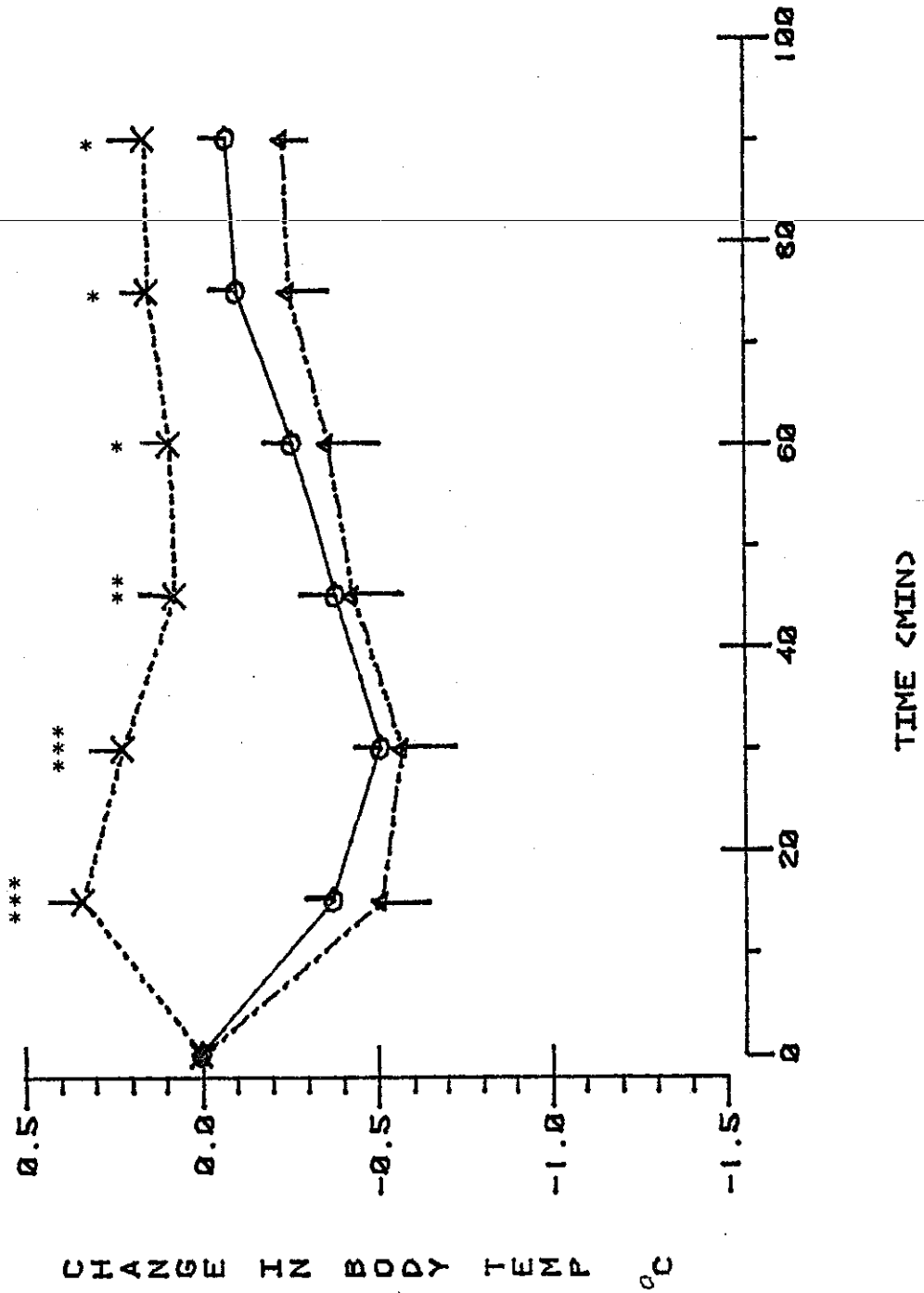
Table VI -- The effect of pretreatment (-30 minutes) with either haloperidol (HAL) or cyproheptadine HCl (CYP) on the body temperature effects of intraperitoneal lergotriple mesylate (LER).

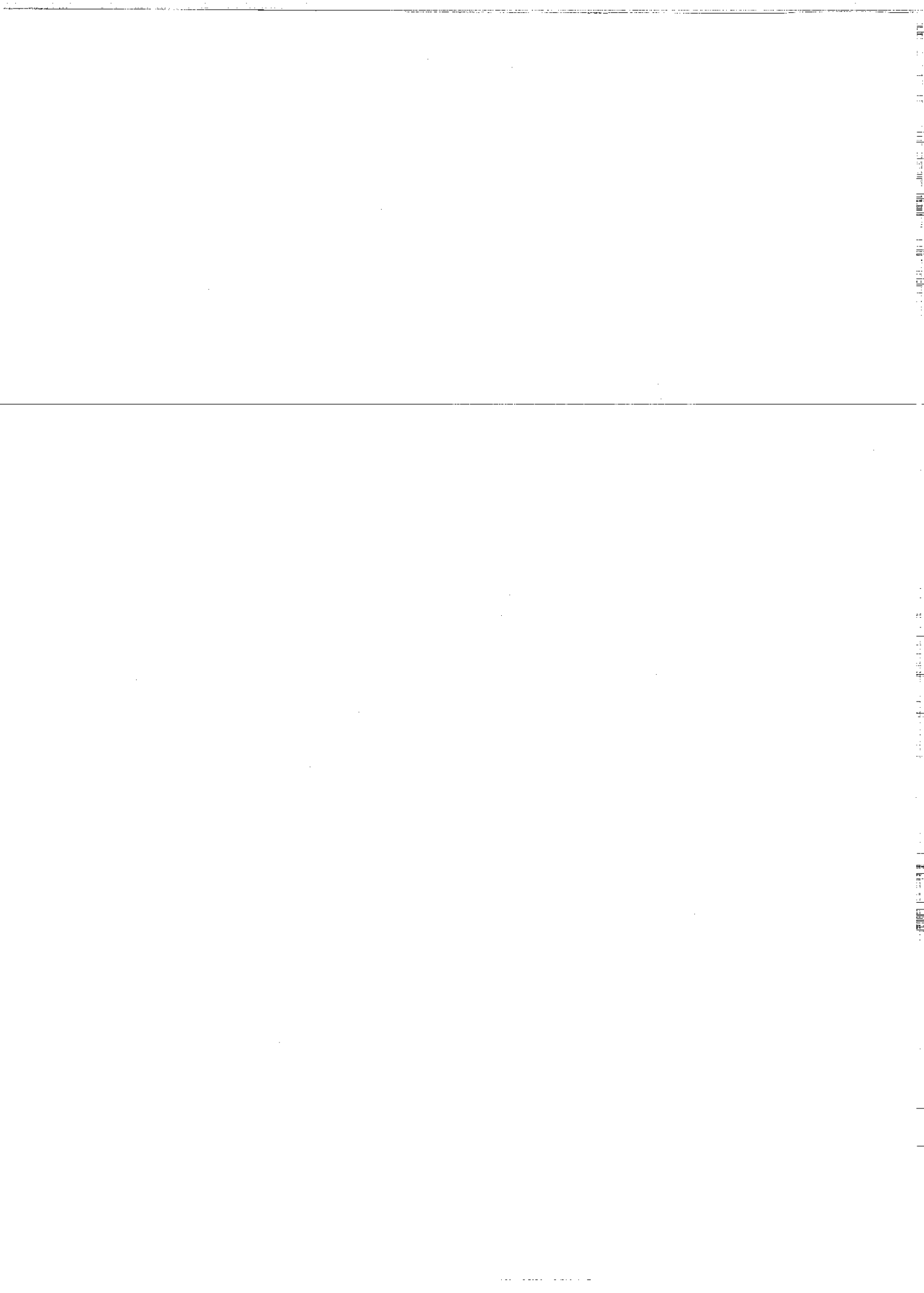
Mean body temperature °C \pm 1.0 SEM			
Time, min.	LER 3.0 mg/kg (N=10)	HAL 0.5 mg/kg followed by LER 3.0 mg/kg (N=9)	CYP 0.5 mg/kg followed by LER 3.0 mg/kg (N=9)
0 ^a	36.33 \pm 0.21	36.52 \pm 0.24	37.21 \pm 0.16
+30	34.36 \pm 0.17	34.96 \pm 0.32	35.18 \pm 0.24
+60	33.25 \pm 0.17	34.99 \pm 0.33	34.03 \pm 0.28
+90	33.01 \pm 0.21	35.48 \pm 0.34	33.71 \pm 0.25
+120	33.24 \pm 0.23	35.94 \pm 0.33	33.86 \pm 0.26
+150	33.68 \pm 0.28	36.28 \pm 0.28	34.11 \pm 0.25
+180	34.01 \pm 0.30	36.49 \pm 0.21	34.44 \pm 0.25
+210	34.61 \pm 0.31	36.50 \pm 0.20	34.98 \pm 0.29
+240	35.01 \pm 0.30	36.59 \pm 0.20	35.41 \pm 0.28
+270	35.50 \pm 0.30	36.63 \pm 0.21	35.78 \pm 0.25
+300	35.90 \pm 0.27	36.62 \pm 0.18	36.06 \pm 0.23

^aZero time values for the three treatment groups were checked for homogeneity using Dunnett's t test, and only the CYP pretreated group was significantly different ($P < 0.05$) from the LER control group (pooled $s^2 = 0.3914$, d.f.=25)

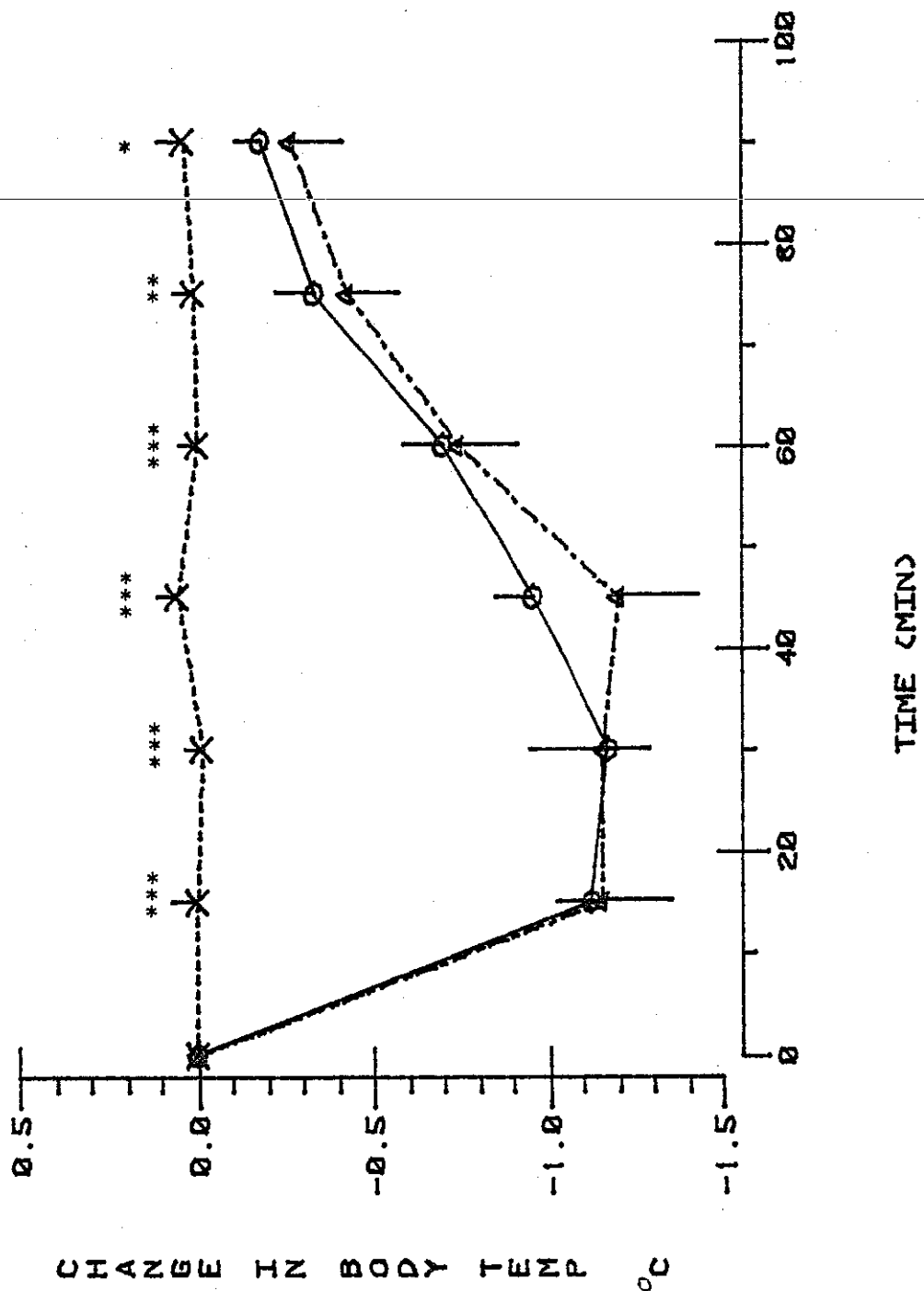


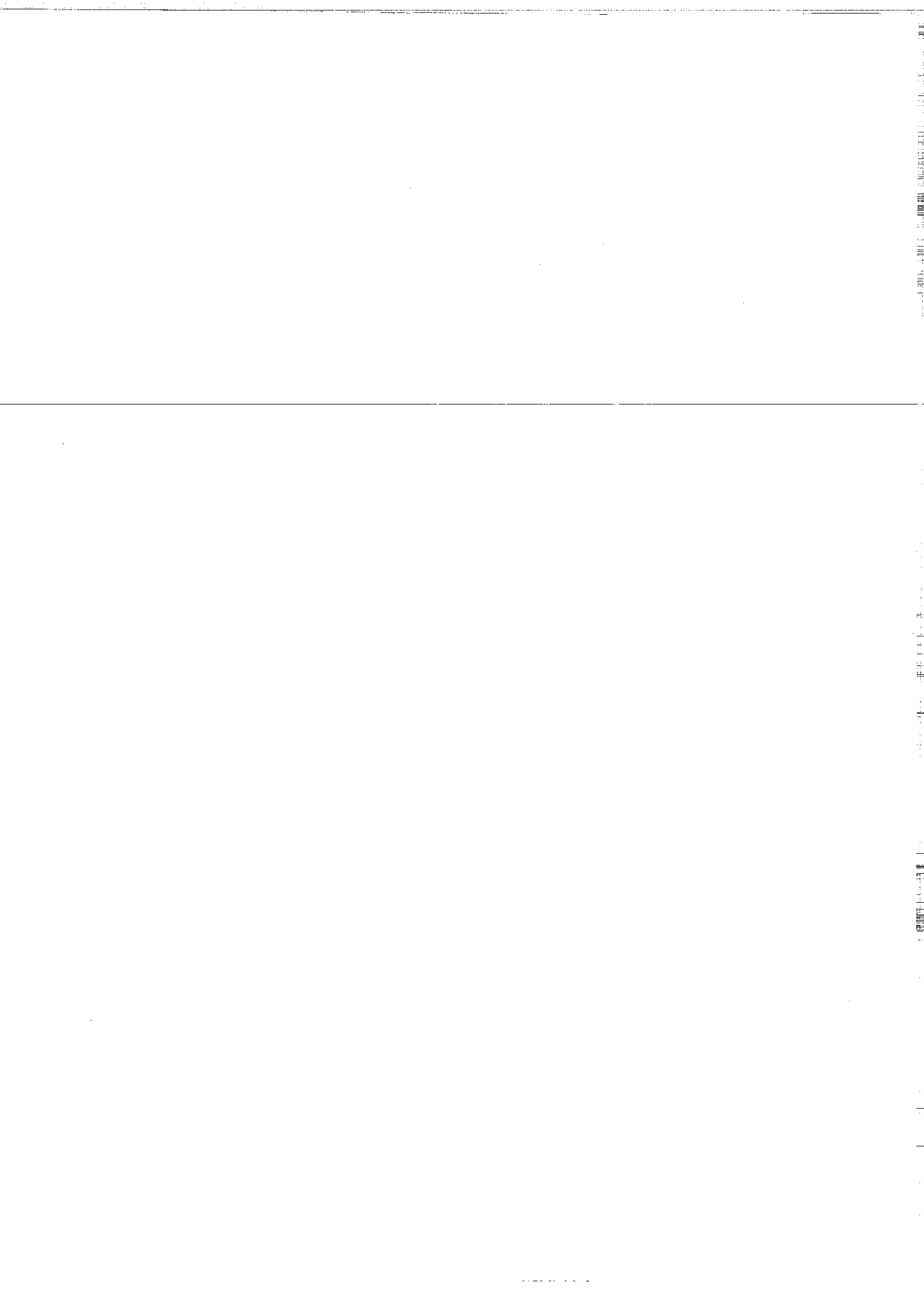
○ APO 0.5
X HAL/APO
△ CYP/APO



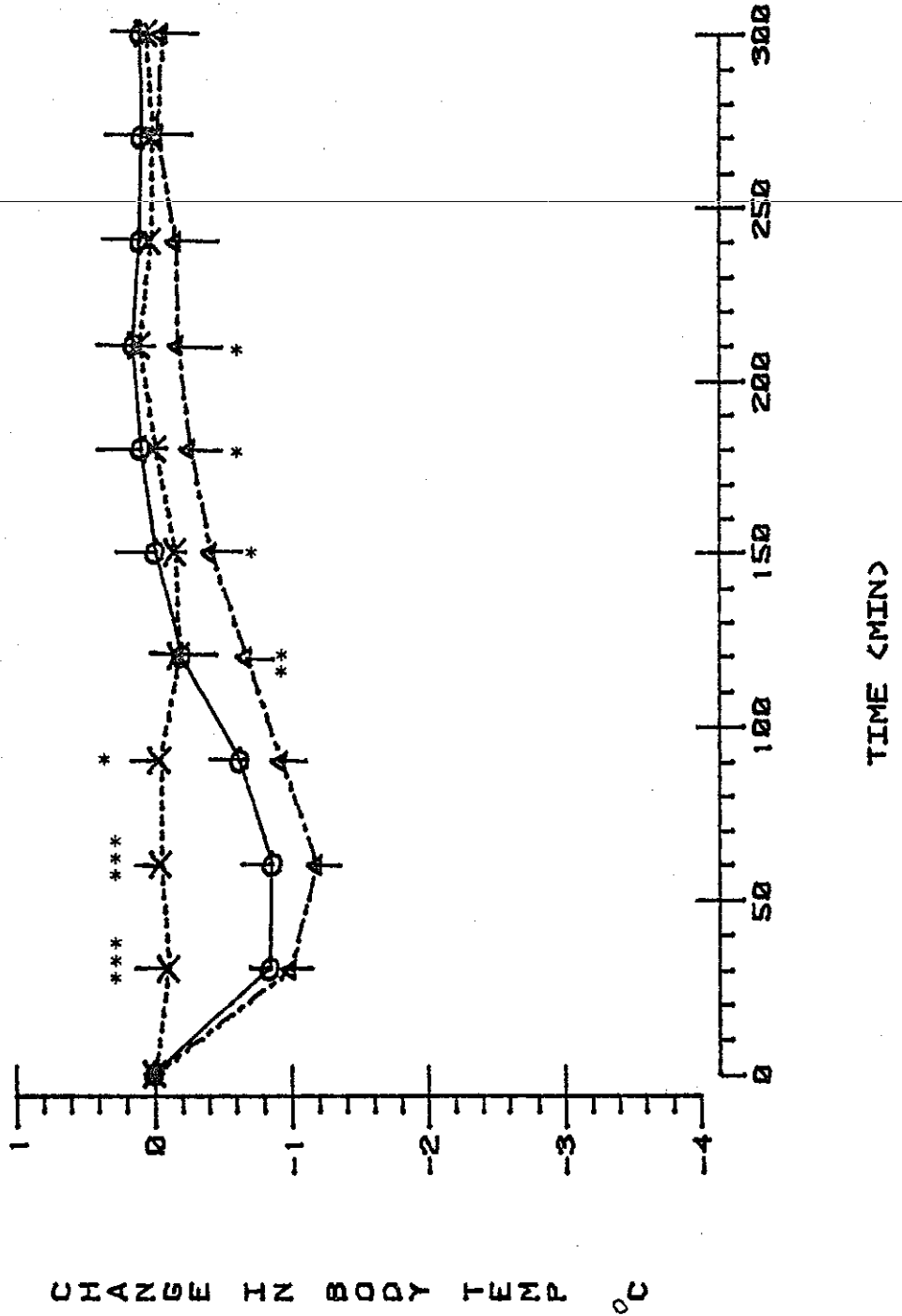


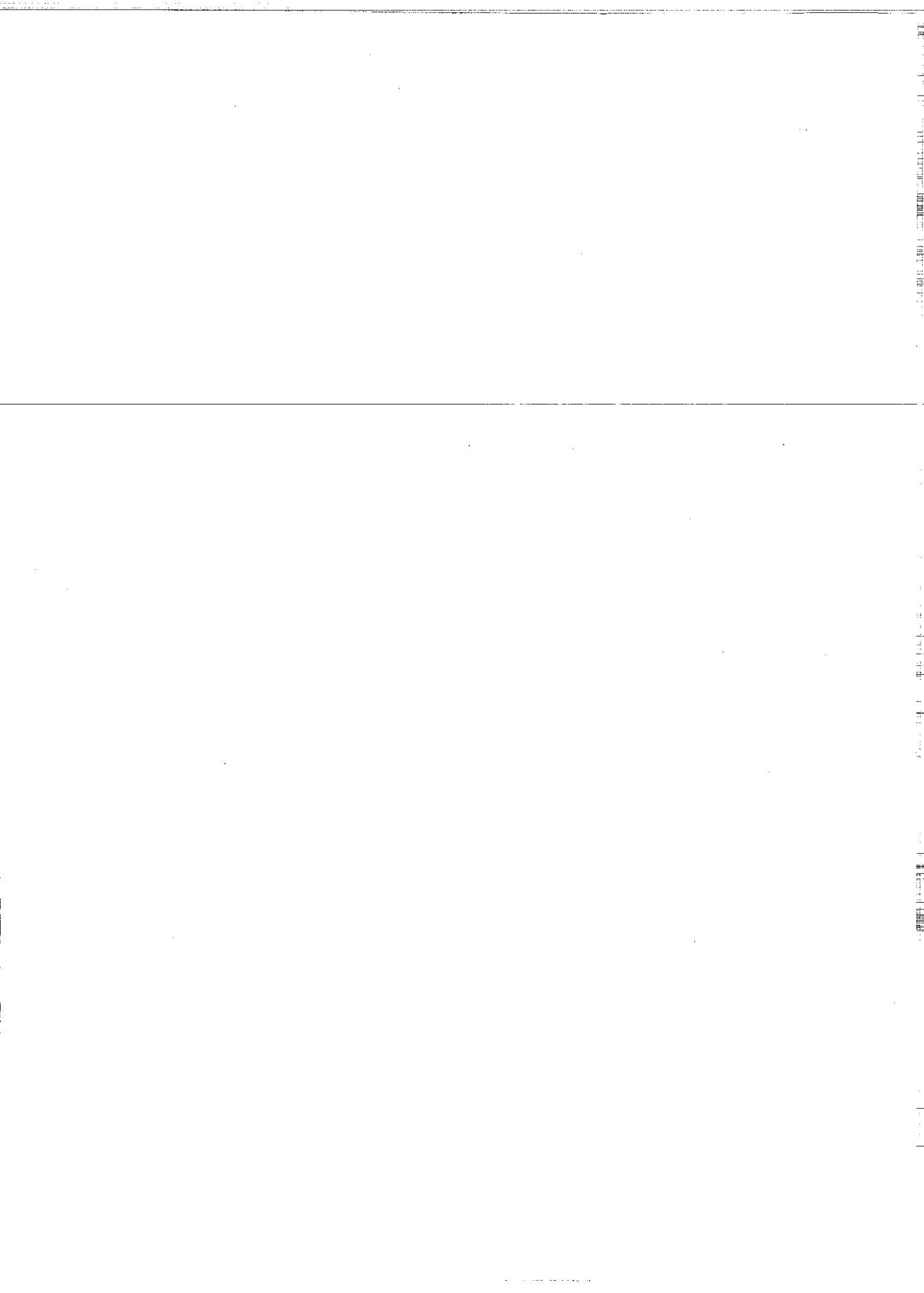
○ APO 2.0
X HAL/APO
△ CYP/APO



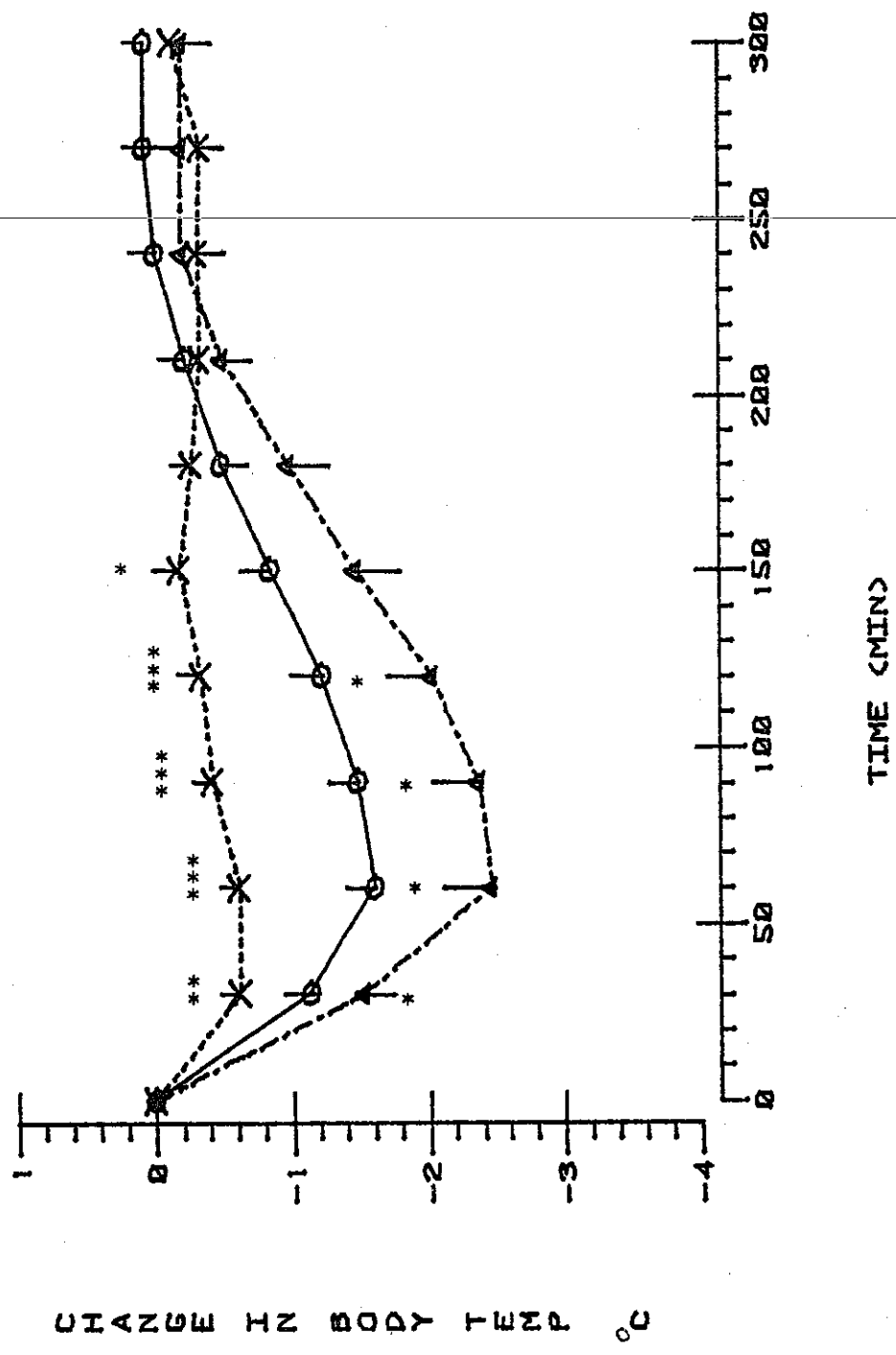


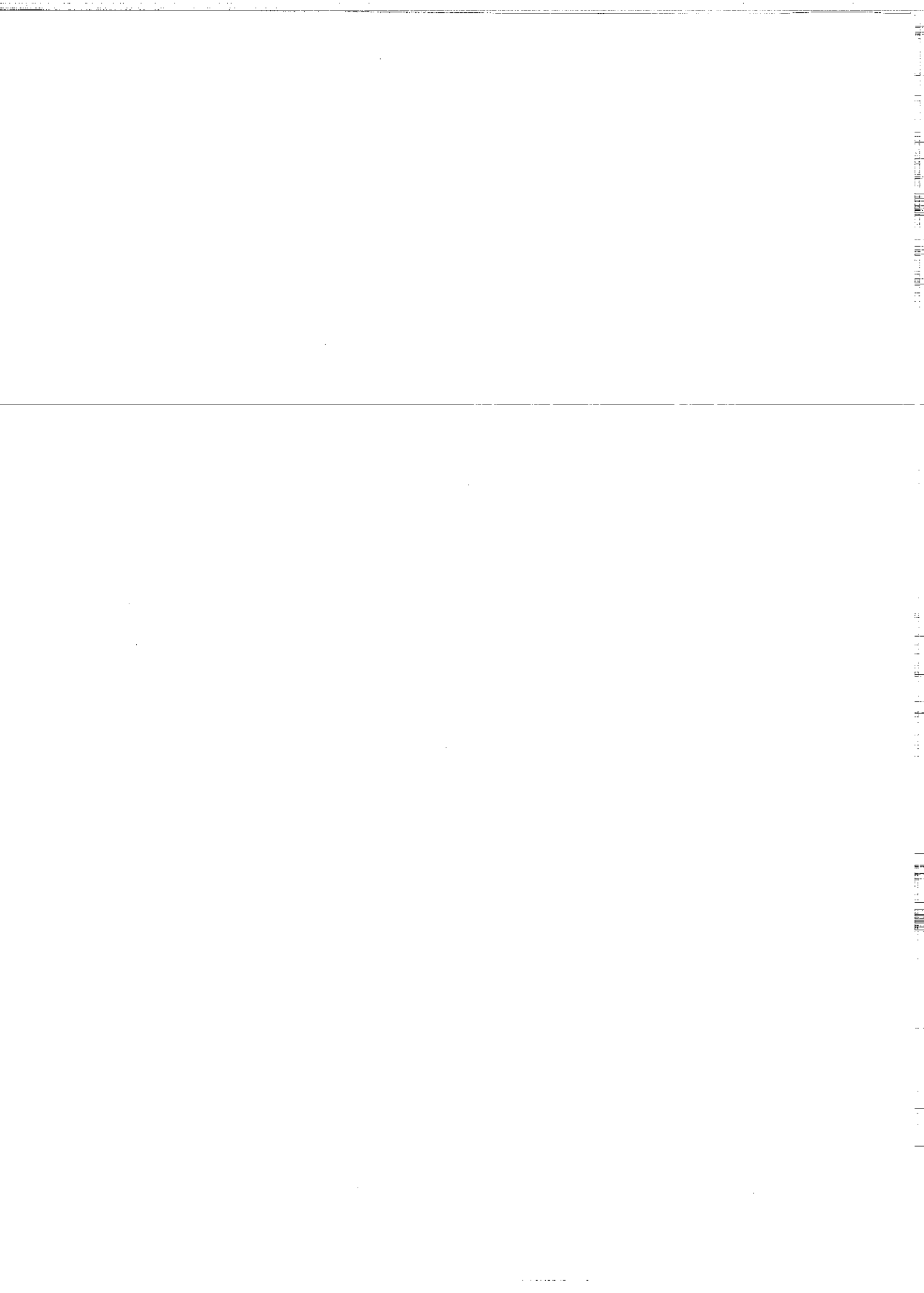
O LER 0.3
X HAL/LER
Δ CYP/LER



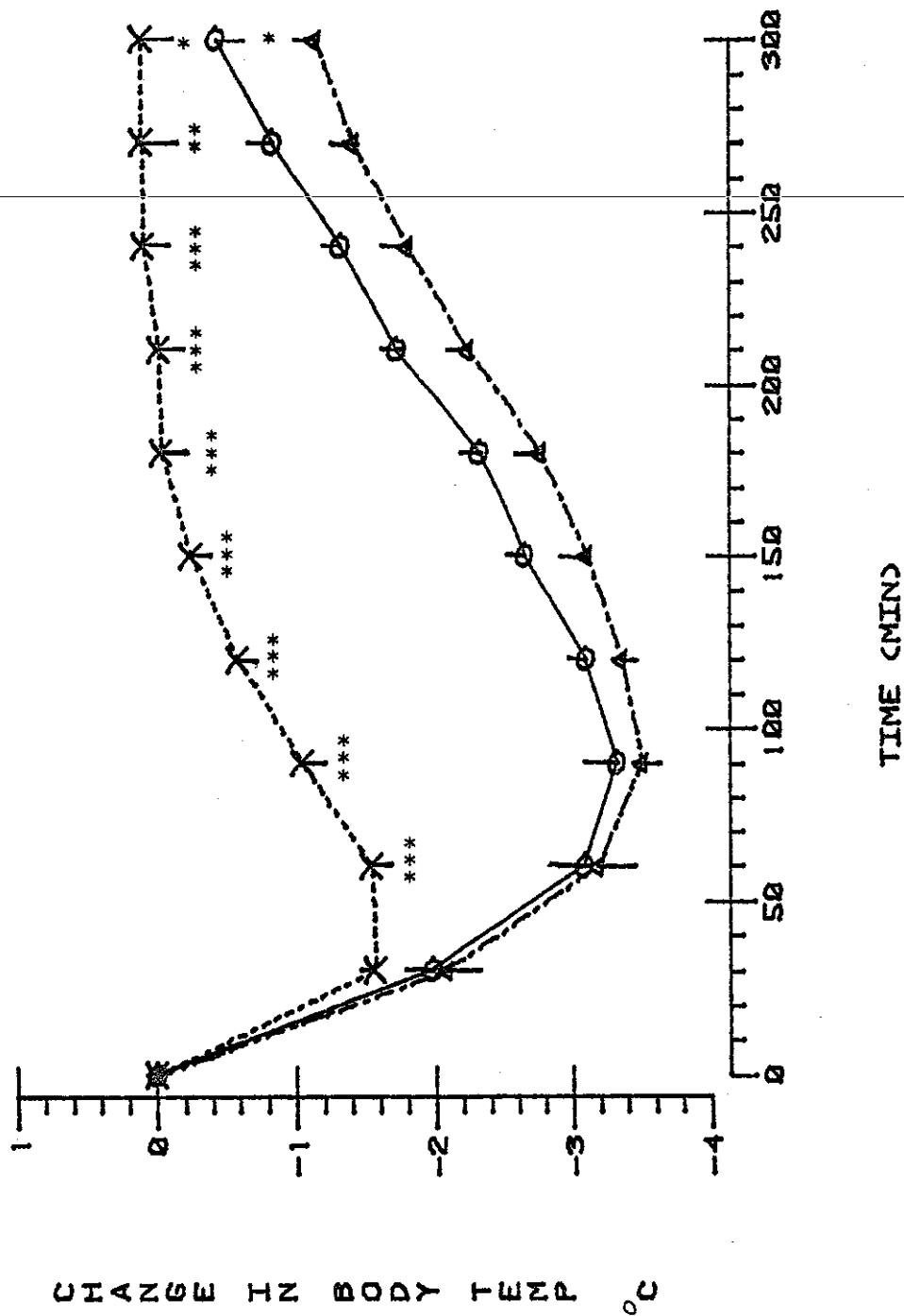


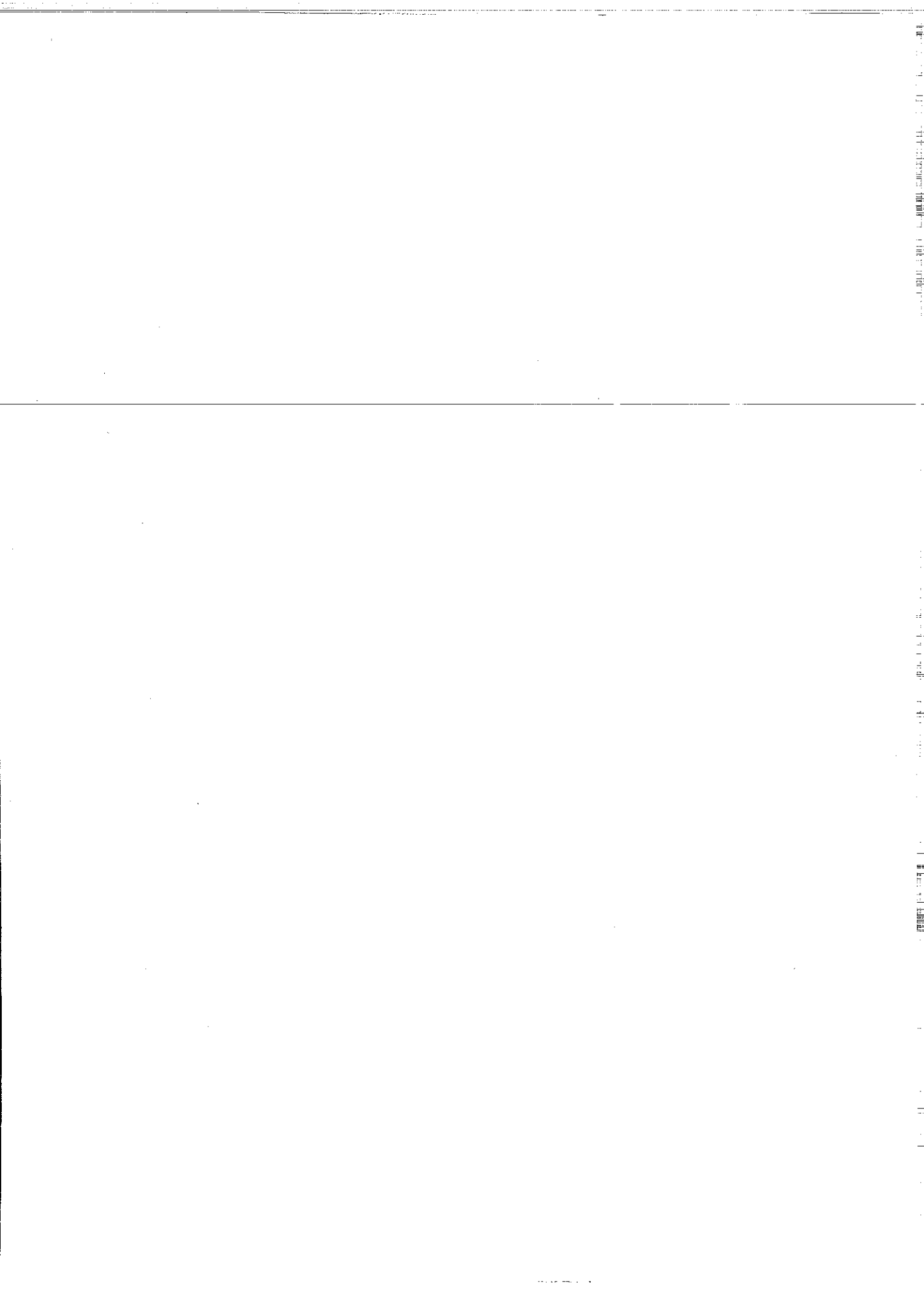
O LER 1.0
X HAL/LER
Δ CYP/LER



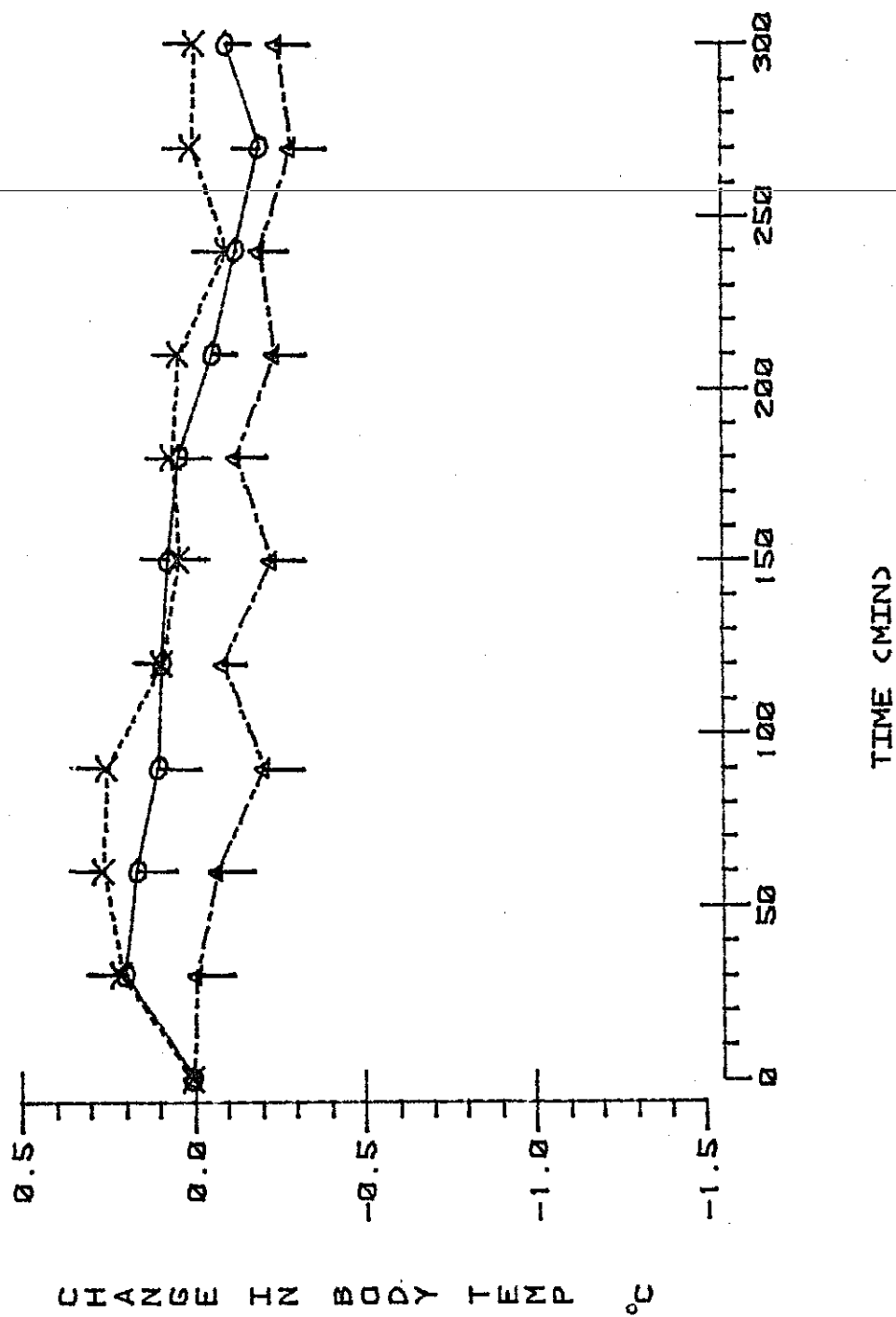


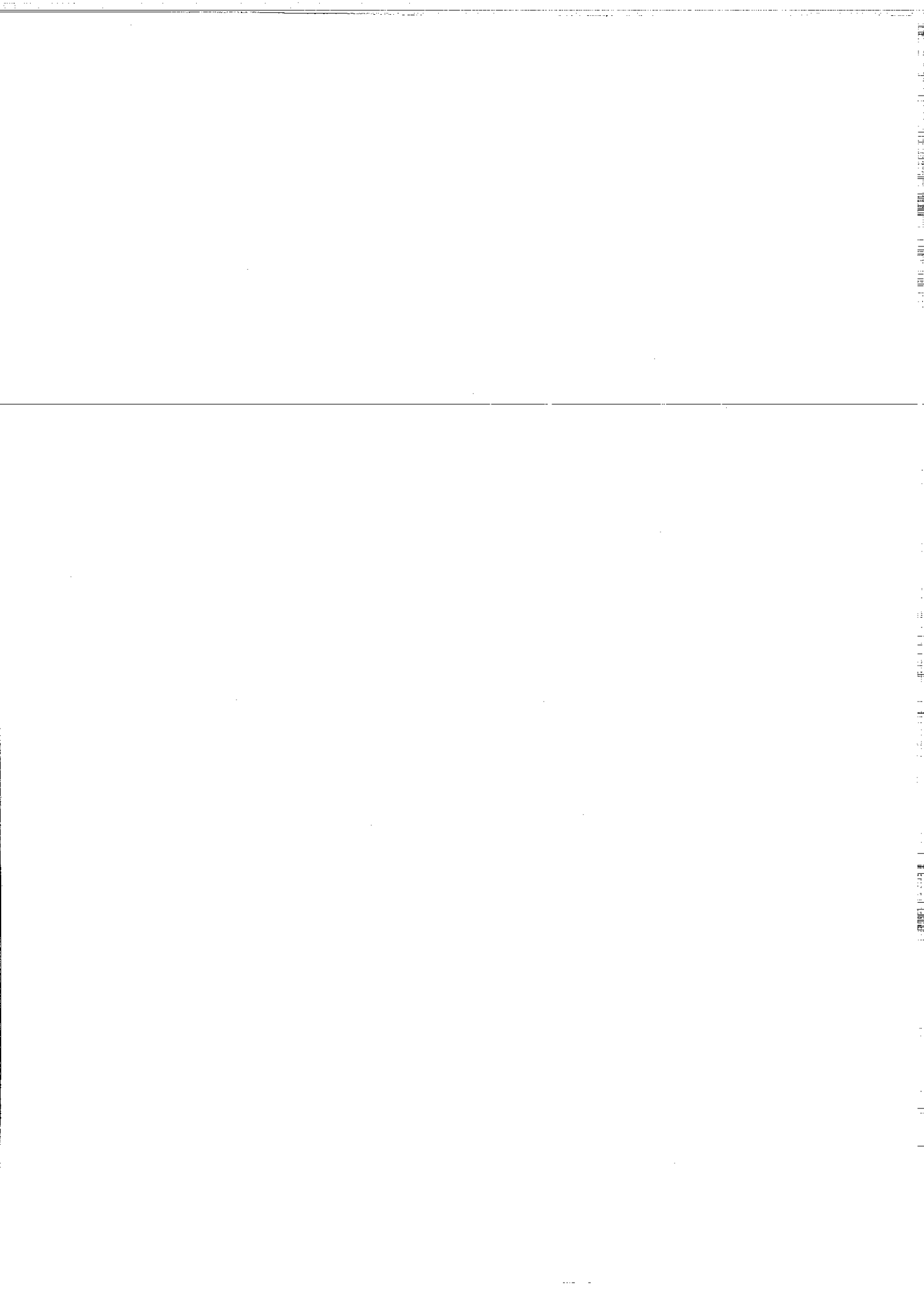
O LER 3.0
 X HAL/LER
 Δ CYP/LER



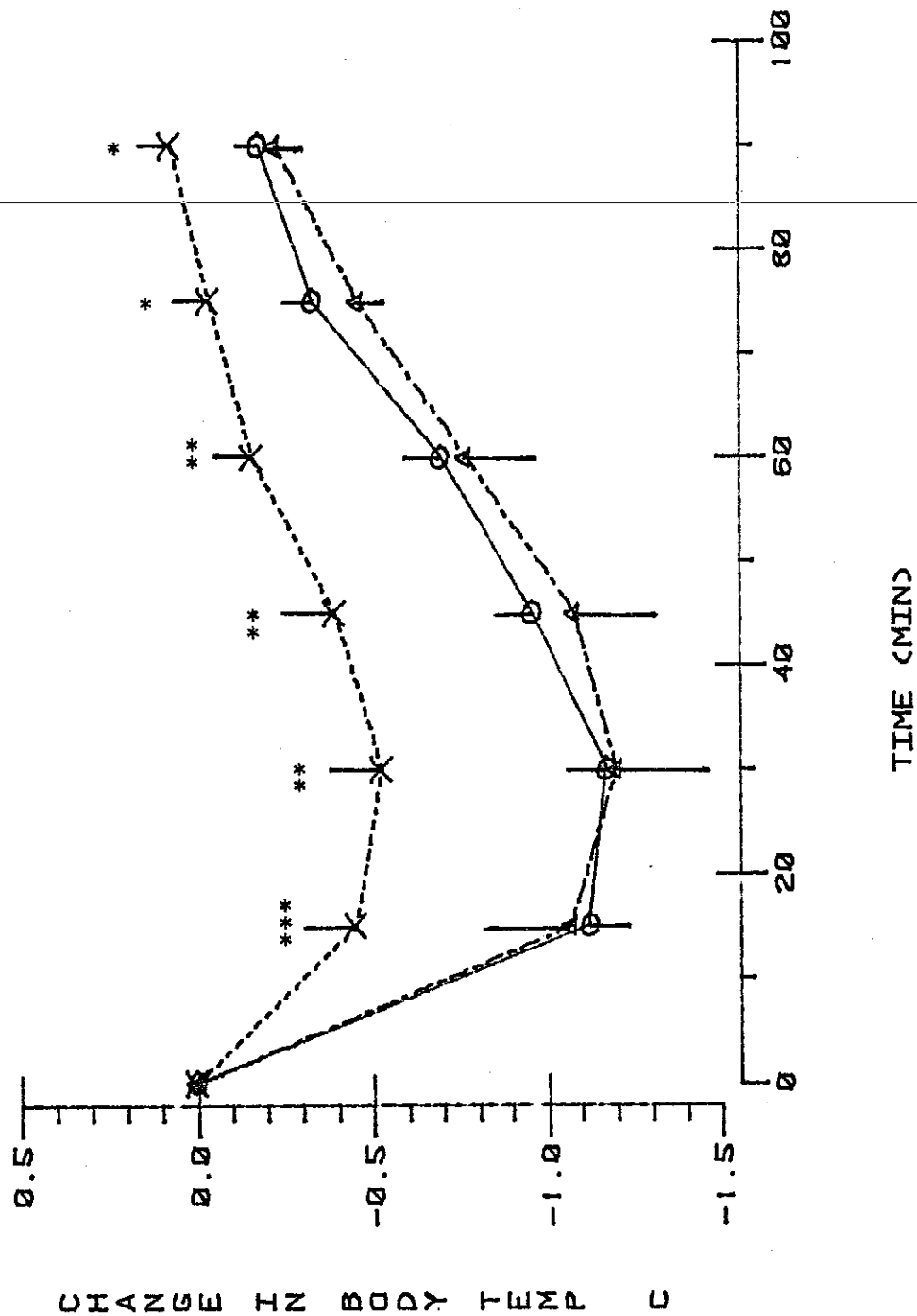


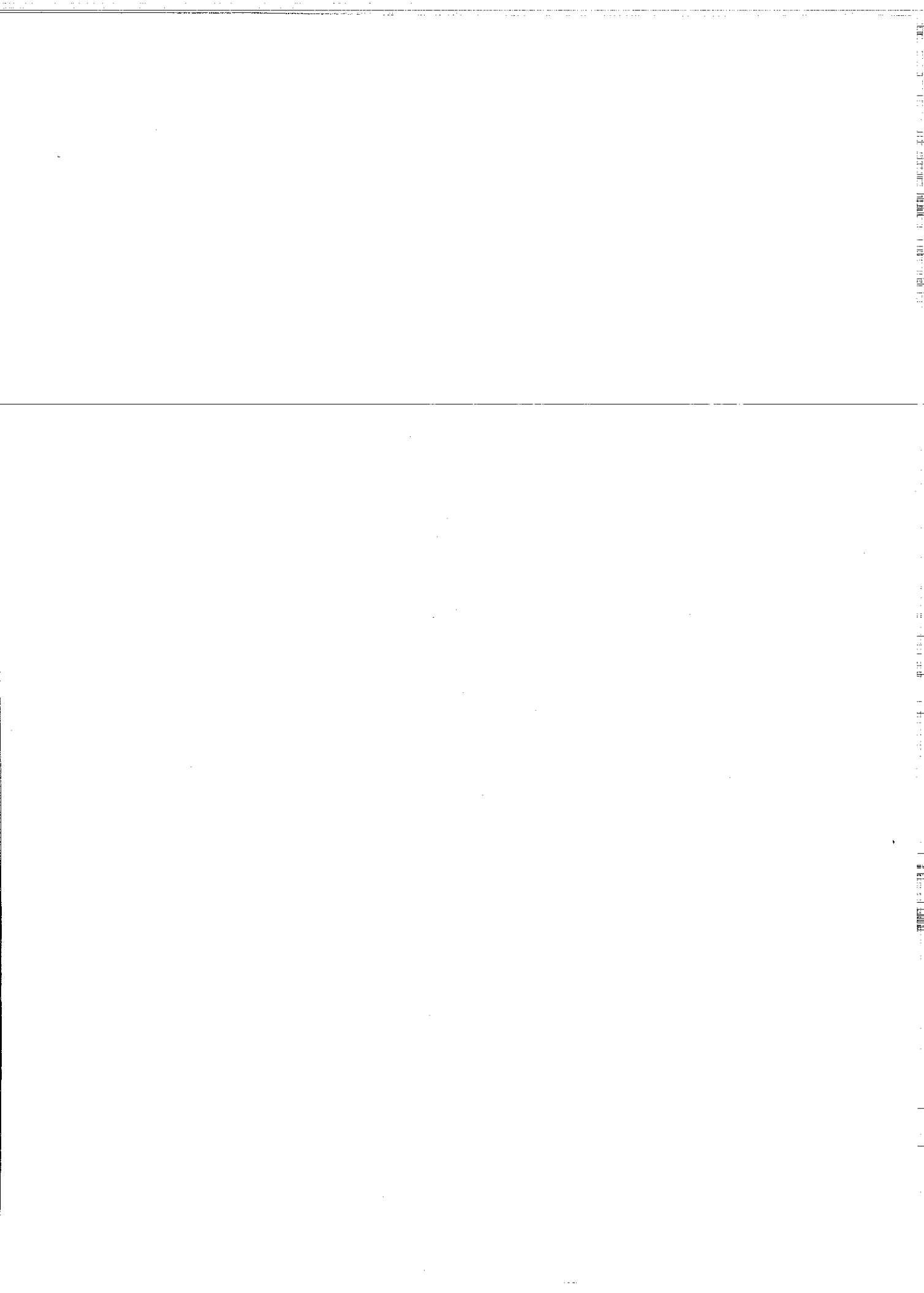
O D H2O
 X HAL 0.5
 Δ CYP 0.5



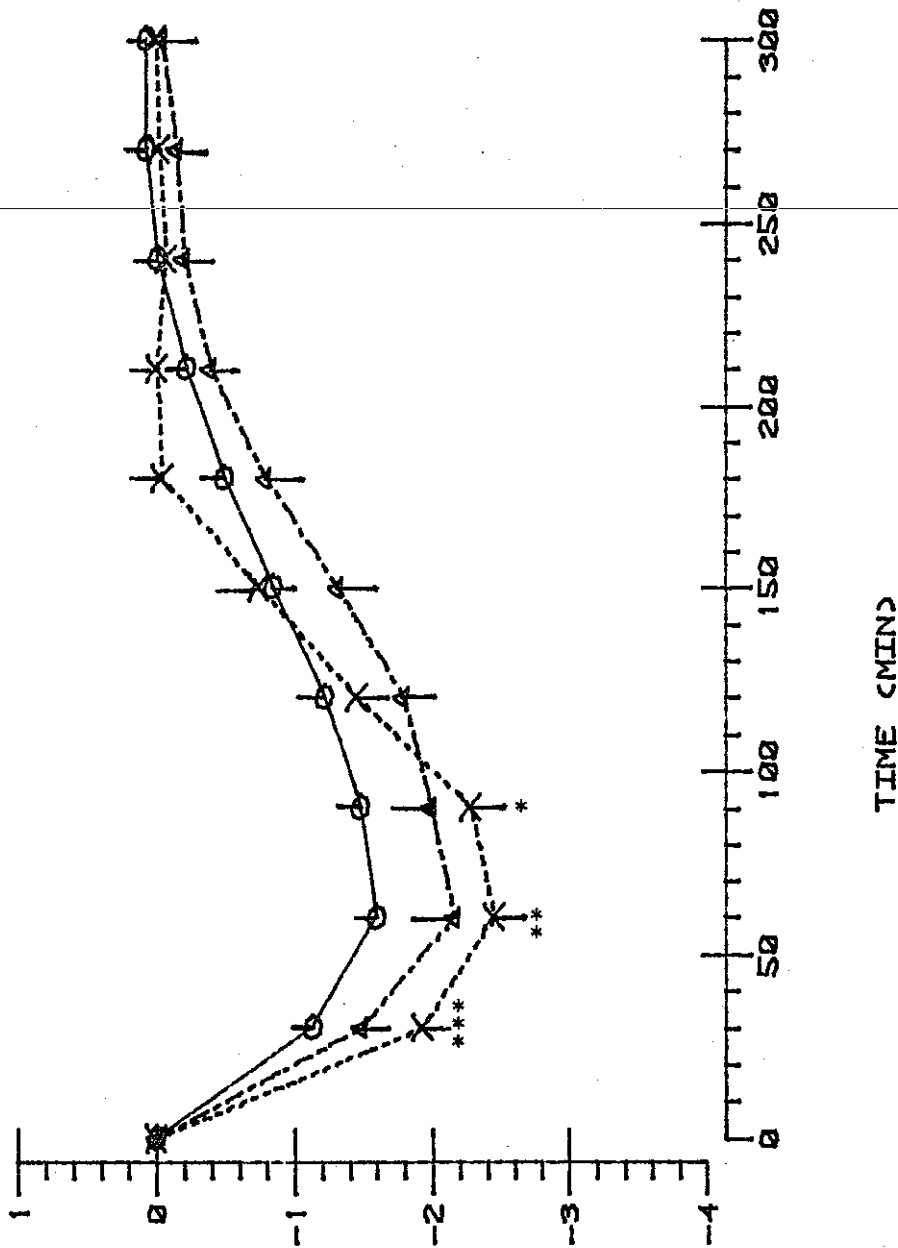


○ APO 2.0
 X CIN/APO
 △ PCPA/APO





O LER 1.0
X CIN/LER
Δ PCPA/LER



CHANGE IN BODY TEMP C

TIME (MIN)

ester HCl 300 mg/kg reduced whole brain serotonin content to 17 percent of water-pretreated control rats in 48 hours (Table VII). Serotonin depletion with parachlorophenylalanine apparently has no effect on apomorphine-induced hypothermia (Fig. 10) and may tend to potentiate lergotrile-induced hypothermia (not statistically significant, see Fig. 11).

2. Stereotyped behavior

Apomorphine and lergotrile at low doses induced stereotypy consisting of increased locomotion coupled with sniffing and repetitive head and limb movements. At these doses, apomorphine produced continuous locomotor activity and head and limb movements while the locomotor activity and repetitive movements induced by lergotrile were discontinuous, suggesting that apomorphine may stimulate the low-intensity components of stereotypy to a greater extent than lergotrile. Increasing the dose of apomorphine or lergotrile replaced locomotor activity with intermittent biting, gnawing or licking mouth movements. High doses of apomorphine or lergotrile evoked continuous (at least 30 seconds without stopping) biting, gnawing or licking mouth movements. Mouth movements induced by lergotrile mesylate 1.0 mg/kg were very continuous, frequently lasting several minutes without interruption.

The results of haloperidol and cyproheptadine pretreatments on apomorphine- and lergotrile-induced stereotypy are summarized in Table VIII. Haloperidol produced slight sedation

Table VII -- The effect of pretreatment (-48 hours) with either intraperitoneal double-distilled water (DH2O) or parachlorophenylalanine methyl ester hydrochloride (PCPA) on the whole brain serotonin content of male rats.

Treatment, dosage	Mean \pm 1.0 SEM	<u>t</u>	<u>P</u>
DH2O, 2.0 ml/kg (N=6)	0.465 \pm 0.023 ug/g		
PCPA, 300 mg/kg (N=6)	0.081 \pm 0.017 ug/g	13.36	<0.001

Table VIII -- The effect of pretreatment (~30 minutes) with either haloperidol or cyproheptadine HCl on stereotyped behavior produced by intraperitoneal apomorphine HCl or lergotrile mesylate in male rats..

Treatment	mg/kg	Total stereotypy score \pm 1.0 SEM (N)		
		Apomorphine HCl 0.5 mg/kg	Apomorphine HCl 2.0 mg/kg	Lergotrile mesylate 1.0 mg/kg
Control (H ₂ O)	-	12.0 \pm 1.8 (13)	33.2 \pm 3.1 (11)	24.2 \pm 2.7 (15)
Haloperidol	0.25	2.7 \pm 0.5 ^b (7)	2.0 \pm 0.4 ^b (7)	-
Haloperidol	0.5	1.9 \pm 1.1 ^b (9)	0.9 \pm 0.3 ^b (9)	5.3 \pm 1.1 ^b (9)
Haloperidol	1.0	-	-	4.4 \pm 1.2 ^b (9)
Cyproheptadine HCl	0.5	8.7 \pm 2.7 (7)	26.3 \pm 4.7 (12)	-
Cyproheptadine HCl	1.0	9.1 \pm 1.4 (10)	18.1 \pm 4.9 ^a (10)	29.9 \pm 3.2 (10)
Cyproheptadine HCl	2.0	-	-	35.6 \pm 3.4 ^a (9)

^aSignificantly different from control ($P < 0.05$)

^bVery highly significantly different from control ($P < 0.001$)

and very highly significantly antagonized both apomorphine- and lergotrile-induced stereotypy in a dose-related manner. Cyproheptadine also reduced the total stereotypy score produced by apomorphine in a dose-related manner. This antagonism became significant as the doses of apomorphine and cyproheptadine were raised. Cyproheptadine alone produced no behavioral effects. Cyproheptadine had an opposite effect on lergotrile-induced stereotypy. A significant potentiation of lergotrile-induced stereotypy was observed as the pretreatment dose of cyproheptadine HCl was increased to 2.0 mg/kg.

Discussion

The present study indicates that differences exist as to the effects of known serotonin antagonists (cyproheptadine and cinanserin) upon the hypothermic and stereotypic effects of apomorphine and lergotrile. Pretreatment with cyproheptadine had no effect on apomorphine-induced hypothermia while it potentiated that of lergotrile, and pretreatment with cyproheptadine attenuated apomorphine-induced stereotypy while potentiating lergotrile-induced stereotypy. Pretreatment with cinanserin potentiated lergotrile-induced hypothermia while antagonizing apomorphine-induced hypothermia. This same pattern was observed with cinanserin in regard to apomorphine- and lergotrile-induced stereotypy.

Despite the differences that serotonin blockade appears to have on apomorphine- and lergotrile-induced effects, the observed effects of these drugs are probably due to some effect on dopaminergic mechanisms. Convincing evidence in the rat exists linking the stimulation of dopamine receptors to hypothermia (Kruk, 1972; Fuxe and Sjoqvist, 1972) and

stereotyped behavior (Ernst, 1967; Anden, 1967). The ability of the dopamine antagonist haloperidol to abolish the effects of both apomorphine and lergotrile in the present experiments is presumptive evidence that both apomorphine and lergotrile exert their effects via dopamine receptors. This is in agreement with the consistent findings in rats that apomorphine induces hypothermia (Barnett et al., 1972; Chiel et al., 1974; Ary et al., 1977; Cox and Lee, 1978) as well as stereotyped behavior (Harnack, 1874; Ernst, 1967; Costall and Naylor, 1972) and that dopamine antagonists can block the hypothermic and stereotypic effects of apomorphine (Kruk, 1972; Fuxe and Sjoqvist, 1972; DiChiara and Gessa, 1978). Until the present investigation, lergotrile-induced hypothermia and stereotypy have not been studied and these effects have not previously been demonstrated to be attenuated by neuroleptics. However, inhibition of unit activity of dopamine cells by lergotrile has been reported to be antagonized with haloperidol (Walters et al., 1979) and lergotrile has been found to compete with radiolabeled haloperidol binding sites in rat striatum (Lew et al., 1977). Additionally, the hypothermic effect of another ergoline, bromocryptine, has been demonstrated to be antagonized by pimozide (Calne et al., 1975).

As both apomorphine and lergotrile appear to exert their hypothermic and stereotypic effects via dopamine receptors, the involvement of serotonin in these effects may be due to three different possibilities. First, serotonin may be a

physiological antagonist for the hypothermia and stereotyped behavior induced by dopaminergic stimulation. Serotonin could exert direct opposing action on the target response (hypothermia or stereotyped behavior) through an independent pathway or could inhibit the dopaminergic pathways leading to full expression of the target response. Second, serotonin may facilitate the effects of dopaminomimetics on hypothermia or stereotyped behavior in the rat. Serotonin would then exist as a functional link in the final expression of dopaminergic stimulation, or serotonin activation alone could produce an identical response to that of dopaminergic stimulation. Third, serotonin may have no effect at all upon dopaminergic systems since neither cyproheptadine nor cinanserin can be classified as selective serotonin antagonists (e.g. cyproheptadine is also a potent histamine antagonist; see Stone et al., 1973).

The present findings suggest that serotonin antagonists attenuate apomorphine-induced hypothermia while facilitating lergotrile-induced hypothermia. This proposes a facilitatory role for serotonin in apomorphine-induced hypothermia and an antagonistic role for serotonin in lergotrile-induced hypothermia. The results with apomorphine in the present study are in agreement with the results of other investigators. Cox and Lee (1979) found that intrahypothalamic pretreatment with cyproheptadine or methysergide blocked apomorphine- or dopamine-induced hypothermia. They suggested that a serotonin link existed in dopamine-receptor-mediated hypo-

thermia in the rat. In one study (Grabowska, 1974), lesions of midbrain raphe prevented apomorphine-induced hypothermia suggesting that the hypothermic action of apomorphine may be dependent upon activation of serotonin neurons originating in the midbrain. A serotonergic link has also been proposed in apomorphine-induced hyperthermia in the rabbit (Quock and Horita, 1976). The antagonism of apomorphine-induced hypothermia by cyproheptadine and cinanserin support the theory of a serotonin link mediating the thermal effects of apomorphine.

If serotonin activation must occur for apomorphine to induce hypothermia in rats, it would be expected that serotonin activation alone should induce hypothermia in rats. Indeed, heat stress accelerates serotonin turnover in rat brain (Chase and Murphy, 1973). Additionally, administration of 5-hydroxytryptophan with a peripheral decarboxylase inhibitor produced hypothermia in rats (Grabowska *et al.*, 1973). This effect has also been demonstrated with tryptophan (Pawlowski, 1976), although cyproheptadine and methysergide were shown to potentiate this effect -- an unexpected finding. It was suggested that cyproheptadine and methysergide do not block the serotonin receptors for which stimulation leads to hypothermia. This brings up the possibility of multiple receptors for both dopamine and serotonin in producing hypothermia in rats. Since the serotonin antagonists, cyproheptadine and cinanserin, potentiated lergotrile-induced hypothermia while having the opposite effect on

apomorphine-induced hypothermia, it is suggested that apomorphine and lergotrile may act through different but parallel dopaminergic pathways to produce hypothermia in the rat.

A recent body of evidence exists which suggests that two or more distinct dopamine receptors exist. Two classes of dopamine receptors have been defined according to their association with, or independence from, dopamine-sensitive adenylyl cyclase (Kebabian, 1978; Schwarcz et al., 1978). It has been proposed that those receptors unassociated with adenylyl cyclase be designated type alpha and those receptors associated with adenylyl cyclase be designated type beta (Kebabian, 1978). Dopaminergic ergots such as lergotrile, lisuride, and bromocryptine and specific antagonists such as metoclopramide have been shown to be relatively specific for the alpha-dopaminergic receptor in the anterior pituitary, and fail to produce their effects upon the beta-dopaminergic receptor in the striatum.

In view of the present findings, it appears that serotonin may have a facilitatory role on beta-dopaminergic receptor stimulation (by apomorphine) while antagonizing alpha-dopaminergic receptor stimulation (by lergotrile). The inability of parachlorophenylalanine to influence the change in body temperature induced by apomorphine or lergotrile in this study does not support this theory, but this lack of significant results may be due in part to the effect parachlorophenylalanine itself had on the body temperature (see Tables III and V).

The modification of dopaminergic-induced stereotypy by antiserotonin agents has received extensive investigation, but lacks agreement. This may be due to differences in evaluating the stereotypic behavior(s), the vast number of chemically different serotonin antagonists used, and differences between species studied. Several studies have reported the failure of serotonin agonists and antagonists to modify apomorphine-induced stereotypy in the rat (Rotrosen et al., 1972; Baldessarini et al., 1975; Calil et al., 1978). The present study is in agreement with another study that demonstrated reduction of apomorphine-induced stereotypy with the serotonin antagonists cyproheptadine and metergoline (Carter and Pycock, 1978). Still other studies report the potentiation of apomorphine-induced stereotypy by serotonin antagonists, indicating an inhibitory role for serotonin in this behavior (Weiner et al., 1975; Baldessarini and Griffith, 1976; Mogilnicka et al., 1977). These disagreements preclude the assignment of a single role for serotonin in apomorphine-induced stereotypy.

As with hypothermia, the antiserotonin effects on apomorphine-induced stereotypy were the opposite of the effects on lergotrile-induced stereotypy. This is a further indication that apomorphine and lergotrile do not stimulate identical dopaminergic pathways. This difference may involve the stimulation of adenylyl cyclase-linked (beta type) dopamine receptors by apomorphine and stimulation of non-adenylyl cyclase-linked (alpha type) dopamine receptors by lergotrile

to produce stereotypy in the rat. Another possible explanation is that apomorphine and lergotrile stimulate anatomically different dopamine receptor populations with differing serotonergic influence. Costall and Naylor (1975) have suggested that the tuberculum olfactorium and nucleus accumbens septi are more important in the low-intensity components (locomotion, sniffing) of stereotypy while the ~~nucleus amygdaloideus centralis~~ appears to be necessary for the high-intensity (gnawing, licking) components. In the present study, it was noted that lergotrile produced more mouth movements and less locomotion than apomorphine over the spectrum of doses used. Others have supported the stimulation of anatomically different receptors by apomorphine and lergotrile (Tye et al., 1977; Gianutsos and Moore, 1980). Additionally, much attention has focused on the presynaptic activity of dopamine agonists (Costall and Naylor, 1973a, 1973b; Silbergeld and Pfeiffer, 1977). Apomorphine has been reported to exert less presynaptic activity on dopaminergic neurons than bromocryptine or lergotrile (Silbergeld and Pfeiffer, 1977). It is unknown what influence serotonin may have on the presynaptic events of dopamine neurons, but if serotonin influences dopamine nerve cell firing, presynaptic actions of ergolines such as dopamine release or blockage of the reuptake of dopamine might be influenced by serotonergic manipulation.

The results of this study indicate that the dopamine agonists apomorphine and lergotrile do not produce their

similar effects through a common dopaminergic pathway. It may be possible that apomorphine and lergotrile activate two separate dopaminergic pathways, each with its own unique mode of serotonergic involvement. There is much evidence supporting this idea in the literature. Serotonin appears to play a facilitatory modulator role in the apomorphine-activated pathway, while serotonin seems to play an inhibitory modulator role in the lergotrile-activated pathway -- both pathways leading to outwardly identical effects of hypothermia and stereotypy.

It may be concluded from this investigation that (i) more than a single dopaminergic pathway is involved in producing hypothermia and stereotyped behavior in the rat; (ii) that these pathways are differentially affected by apomorphine and lergotrile; and (iii) that serotonin is intimately involved in both pathways, albeit in different manners.

Conclusions

The present study in male Wistar rats was designed to study the mechanisms of two effects (hypothermia and stereotyped behavior) induced by the dopamine agonists apomorphine and lergotrile. It is generally accepted that these effects are produced in rats through central stimulation of dopamine receptors; however, several studies have indicated that serotonergic mechanisms may mediate or modify these "dopaminergic" effects.

The results of the present study demonstrate that differences exist as to the effects that known serotonin antagonists (cyproheptadine and cinanserin) have upon the hypothermic and stereotypic effects of apomorphine and lergotrile. Pretreatment with cyproheptadine had no effect upon apomorphine-induced hypothermia while it potentiated that of lergotrile. Moreover, pretreatment with cyproheptadine attenuated apomorphine-induced stereotypy while potentiating lergotrile-induced stereotypy. Pretreatment with cinanserin potentiated lergotrile-induced hypothermia and stereotypy while antagon-

izing both of these effects of apomorphine.

Parachlorophenylalanine effectively reduced whole brain serotonin content in rats, but failed to produce any significant change in the thermal response to apomorphine or lergotrile.

Haloperidol was found to antagonize both the hypothermia and stereotypy produced by apomorphine or lergotrile. This finding supports the dopaminergic nature of these effects.

The present findings suggest that serotonin plays a facilitatory modulator role in apomorphine-induced effects and that serotonin plays an inhibitory modulator role in lergotrile-induced effects. Recent studies by other investigators have suggested that two or more pharmacologically and anatomically distinct types of dopamine receptors exist. It would appear that apomorphine and lergotrile may have the ability to selectively stimulate these different dopamine receptor populations.

It may be concluded from this investigation that (i) more than a single dopaminergic pathway is involved in producing hypothermia and stereotyped behavior in the rat; (ii) that these pathways are differentially affected by apomorphine and lergotrile; and (iii) that serotonin is intimately involved in both pathways, albeit in different manners.

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