

## Role of serotonergic neurotransmission in the hypnotic response to dexmedetomidine, an $\alpha_2$ -adrenoceptor agonist

Bradford C. Rabin<sup>\*</sup>, Tian-Zhi Guo, Keith Gregg, Mervyn Maze

*Department of Anesthesia, Stanford University School of Medicine, and the Anesthesiology Service, Veterans Affairs Hospital, Palo Alto, CA, USA*

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### Abstract

The role of serotonergic pathways in the hypnotic response to dexmedetomidine was examined in neurochemical and behavioral studies. Following acute administration of dexmedetomidine, loss of righting reflex and changes in serotonin (5-hydroxytryptamine, 5-HT) and norepinephrine turnover in different brain regions (locus coeruleus and hippocampus) were assessed. In separate experiments, the effect of dexmedetomidine on 5-HT turnover was measured in rats rendered tolerant to the hypnotic effects of dexmedetomidine. These neurochemical data were complemented by a study of dexmedetomidine-induced hypnotic response in the presence of a 5-HT<sub>2</sub> receptor agonist and antagonist, 1-(2,5-dimethoxy-4-iodophenyl)-2-aminopropane (DOI) and ritanserin, respectively. Dexmedetomidine (1–500  $\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ ) dose dependently reduced 5-HT and norepinephrine turnover in both the locus coeruleus and hippocampus. The decrease in 5-HT turnover more closely correlated with the dose-response curve for loss of righting reflex, a behavioral measure of hypnosis, than did the norepinephrine turnover. In previous studies with chronic administration of dexmedetomidine (3  $\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$  for 7 days), the norepinephrine turnover effect of acute dexmedetomidine (30  $\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ ) persisted while the hypnotic effect was blunted. Following the same regimen, the drug's ability to diminish 5-HT turnover was also blunted. This biochemical evidence for the role of 5-HT in sleep was supported by the behavioral evidence that dexmedetomidine (100  $\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$  i.p. or 7  $\mu\text{g} \cdot 0.2 \mu\text{l}^{-1}$  locus coeruleus)-induced hypnosis was dose dependently blocked by DOI (0.08–0.32  $\text{mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$  i.p.). The selectivity of this effect was demonstrated by the finding that ritanserin (0.16  $\text{mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$  i.p.) pretreatment blocked the effects of DOI (0.16  $\text{mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$  i.p.) on dexmedetomidine (100  $\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$  i.p. or 7  $\mu\text{g} \cdot 0.2 \mu\text{l}^{-1}$  locus coeruleus)-induced loss of righting reflex. In conclusion, these findings suggest that the hypnotic effect of the  $\alpha_2$ -adrenoceptor agonist, dexmedetomidine, is not mediated solely by changes in noradrenergic neurotransmission, but instead is strongly associated with a decrease in serotonergic neurotransmission and correspondingly diminished by stimulation of 5-HT<sub>2</sub> receptors.

**Keywords:**  $\alpha_2$ -Adrenoceptor; Dexmedetomidine; DOI (1-(2,5-dimethoxy-4-iodophenyl)-2-aminopropane); Ritanserin; Monoamine; Locus coeruleus; (Rat)

### 1. Introduction

$\alpha_2$ -Adrenoceptor agonists decrease central noradrenergic neurotransmission concomitant with their hypnotic-anesthetic behavioral effects (Rabin et al., 1994; MacDonald et al., 1988). Administration of central neurotoxins such as *N*-(2-chloroethyl)-*N*-ethyl-2-bromo-benzylamine (DSP-4), which deplete central catecholamine stores, elicit a leftward shift in the hypnotic dose response curve to dexmedetomidine (Doze et al., 1988), although these central neurotoxins are insufficient to produce a hypnotic effect if given alone. In addition, anesthetic requirements in catecholamine-depleted rats are reduced by  $\approx 30\%$  and

further diminished by subsequent administration of dexmedetomidine (Segal et al., 1988). These studies indicate that changes in central noradrenergic neurotransmission, alone, are not enough to mediate the hypnotic-anesthetic action of dexmedetomidine but instead are part of an ensemble of neurochemical changes elicited by adrenoceptors.

According to the monoamine theory of sleep, slow wave sleep (SWS) is mediated by alterations in the release of serotonin (5-hydroxytryptamine; 5-HT) by dorsal raphe neurons (Jouvet, 1969). Jouvet's more recent work is inconsistent with his initial model and instead suggests a role for 5-HT in the maintenance of sleep via changes in the synthesis and release of delta sleep-inducing peptide, a controversial, endogenous hypnogenic factor (Jouvet, 1984). A more contemporary theory on sleep focuses on

<sup>\*</sup> Corresponding author. Office of Student Affairs, Stanford University School of Medicine, Stanford, CA 94305, USA. Fax: (415) 852-3417.

reciprocal interaction between monoaminergic cell groups, namely norepinephrine-containing neurons in the locus coeruleus and 5-HT containing neurons in dorsal raphe. The experimental underpinning of this theory is the characterization of the firing rates of cells in these brain regions across the continuum from wakefulness to SWS to REM. This theory shows a decrease in firing rates of monoaminergic cell groups across this continuum (Lydic et al., 1987; Klemm and Vertes, 1990). Further investigation into physiologic processes mediated by 5-HT receptors has been stimulated by the identification and classification of 7 major subtypes of 5-HT receptors (5-HT<sub>1-7</sub>) and the development of more selective agents capable of discretely probing individual receptor subtypes (Peroutka, 1994).

The anxiolytic, sedative, analgesic, and anesthetic-sparing actions induced by  $\alpha_2$ -adrenoceptor agonists, such as dexmedetomidine, are each blocked by  $\alpha_2$ -adrenoceptor antagonists yohimbine and atipamezole (Correa-Sales et al., 1992; Scheinin et al., 1989). Also, these responses are not mediated by 5-HT receptors because dexmedetomidine has no activity at 5-HT receptors (Virtanen et al., 1988). The precise neuronal mechanism involved in the hypnotic response produced by  $\alpha_2$ -adrenoceptor agonist, however, is not known.

To further elucidate this mechanism of action, we have undertaken neurochemical and behavioral pharmacological studies of the role of serotonergic neurotransmission in the hypnotic response to dexmedetomidine. Specifically, we studied the association between changes in monoamine turnover in the locus coeruleus and hippocampus and dexmedetomidine-induced loss of righting reflex and investigated the role of 5-HT<sub>2</sub> receptors in this behavioral response. The locus coeruleus, a primary relay station for noradrenergic pathways in the mammalian central nervous system (CNS), was selected because it has been implicated as an essential site in the control of the sleep-wake cycle (Svensson et al., 1975; Amaral and Sinnamon, 1977; Ramm, 1979; Aston-Jones and Bloom, 1981) and for  $\alpha_2$ -adrenoceptor-induced hypnosis in the rat (De Sarro et al., 1987; Correa-Sales et al., 1992). The hippocampus, which derives its norepinephrine input exclusively from the locus coeruleus (Jones and Moore, 1977; Bowden et al., 1978; Crawley et al., 1980), and 5-HT input mainly from the dorsal raphe (Hjorth and Sharp, 1991), was chosen as an indicator of noradrenergic and serotonergic activity in the locus coeruleus and the dorsal raphe, respectively.

## 2. Materials and methods

The experimental protocol was approved by the Animal Care and Use Committee at the Palo Alto Veterans Administration Medical Center. Male Sprague-Dawley rats (250–300 g), originating from the same litter, were used. The rats were stratified to match the distribution of the weights

in the control and treated groups as closely as possible. All behavioral tests and animal sacrifices were performed between 9 a.m. and 1 p.m.

### 2.1. Animals

In subjects receiving locus coeruleus injections, the locus coeruleus was stereotactically cannulated with a 24 g stainless steel cannula according to the following coordinates: the bregma as the reference, 1.2 mm lateral, 9.7 mm posterior, and a depth of 6 mm from the skull (Paxinos and Watson, 1986). The surgical procedure was performed with the rat anesthetized with the volatile anesthetic agent halothane anesthesia, and the cannula was fixed in position with methylmethacrylate resin. Correct placement of the cannula at the superior border of the locus coeruleus was confirmed histologically at the conclusion of the experiments. After a recovery period of 2–3 days, a 30 g stainless steel needle, connected to polyethylene tubing, was inserted through the cannula and positioned 1 mm beyond the tip. This served as the conduit whereby drugs were delivered.

Rats were made tolerant to the hypnotic action of an  $\alpha_2$ -adrenoceptor agonist, dexmedetomidine, as previously described (Reid et al., 1994). Briefly, rats were administered dexmedetomidine chronically using Alzet osmotic minipumps (Model 2002 or 1007D Alza, Palo Alto, CA, USA) which discharge their contents at a mean pumping rate of  $0.48 \pm 0.02 \mu\text{l} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$ . The pumps were loaded to deliver  $3 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$  for 7 days. The pumps were inserted subcutaneously during halothane anesthesia in the dorsal thoracic region. In the initial experiments control animals were also implanted with the osmotic pumps containing the vehicle only. This group did not differ in behavioral response from sham-operated control animals; therefore, the latter were used.

### 2.2. Drug administrations

The compounds used in this study were dexmedetomidine (molecular weight = 236.7) (Orion-Farmos Group, Turku, Finland) and 1-(2,5-dimethoxy-4-iodophenyl)-2-aminopropane hydrochloride (DOI) (molecular weight = 357.6) and ritanserin (molecular weight = 477.6) (Research Biochemicals International). The drugs were dissolved in the following solvents: sterile water (dexmedetomidine), saline (DOI), and 1 mmol tartaric acid (ritanserin).

Dexmedetomidine was injected into the locus coeruleus by a pump (Harvard Apparatus #22) at a rate of  $0.4 \mu\text{l} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$  and in a volume of  $0.2 \mu\text{l}$ . In other animals, Dexmedetomidine was administered i.p. in a volume of  $1 \text{ ml} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ .

All serotonergic agents were administered i.p. in a volume of  $1 \text{ ml} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ .

### 2.3. Neurochemical measurement

Norepinephrine and 5-HT turnover were assessed in the locus coeruleus and hippocampus. Animals were injected with vehicle or dexmedetomidine and killed by decapitation following narcosis induced by a 30 s period of exposure to CO<sub>2</sub>. The locus coeruleus was removed from each side and the hippocampus from the left side of the freshly harvested brain. Samples were sonicated in an ice cold 5% perchloric acid solution and centrifuged to precipitate proteins and membranes. The supernatant was filtered to exclude molecules exceeding 5000 Da. These samples were stable for up to 3 months when stored at –80°C.

The biogenic amines were assayed with high pressure liquid chromatography (HPLC) and reverse-phase chromatography on an HR-80 column (70 mm) containing 3 mm spherical octadecylsilane beads. Compounds were quantified using an integrator (HP3396A) from the peak areas generated by known standards. The limit of detection with this technique is 25 fmol. The electroactive biogenic amines and their metabolites were quantified by an HPLC system consisting of an ESA Coulchem II detector and a high sensitivity cell detector maintained at 0.35 V. The mobile phase (Cat-A, ESA, Bedford, MA, USA) was pumped (Beckman 110B) at a flow rate of 1.4 ml · min<sup>–1</sup>.

The ratio of the concentration of the major metabolite of a brain monoamine neurotransmitter to brain monoamine concentration itself is used as an index of the overall turnover rate of the synaptic transmitter. Underlying this ratio is the understanding that high concentrations of a monoamine neurotransmitter, such as norepinephrine, will reduce neuronal activity by acting as an autoregulator at presynaptic  $\alpha_2$ -adrenoceptors. Conversely, increased concentrations of the neuronal metabolite, such as 3-methoxy-4-hydroxyphenylglycol (MHPG), are associated with increased neuronal firing. The above assumes that the formation and elimination of the monoamines and their metabolites are proportional to their concentrations (Smythe et al., 1983).

### 2.4. Behavioral measurement

In this study sleep was defined as the loss of righting reflex. The rat was placed on its back as soon as it displayed evidence of sedation (stopped walking, remained quiet, or laid down flat on its abdomen). The rat was judged to have lost its righting reflex if it failed to return itself to a prone position within 1 min of being placed in a supine position. If the rat still retained its righting reflex it was tested at 3 min intervals for up to 15 (following locus coeruleus administration) or 40 (following i.p. administration) min. These time periods were selected because they represent twice the average latency period to loss of righting reflex with the doses used. The following outcome measures related to loss of righting reflex were assessed: latency to loss of righting reflex, duration of loss of

righting reflex (sleep-time), and percentage of animals with loss of righting reflex.

#### 2.4.1. Data analysis

The data are expressed as means  $\pm$  S.E.M. The statistical analysis was performed using two way analysis of variance (ANOVA). The statistical significance of group means were evaluated post-hoc using the Fisher test. A *P* value < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

To compare monoamine turnover and % loss of righting reflex dose response curves, a logistic regression was used to estimate the EC<sub>50</sub>, the dose which elicits a response equal to 50% of the maximum response, for percentage loss of righting reflex and a bivariate nonlinear regression was used to estimate the difference between the 5-HT and norepinephrine turnover EC<sub>50</sub>'s in the hippocampus. For locus coeruleus monoamine turnover, which did not provide data compatible with a bivariate nonlinear regression, we used the means of the observation at various doses to test whether the norepinephrine EC<sub>50</sub> was less than the 5-HT EC<sub>50</sub>.

## 3. Results

### 3.1. Acute dexmedetomidine and monoamine turnover

Dexmedetomidine, administered 1–500  $\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$  i.p., dose dependently reduced 5-HT (Fig. 1A) and norepinephrine (Fig. 1B) turnover in both the hippocampus and the locus coeruleus. (A) The ratio of 5-hydroxyindole acetic acid (5-HIAA)/5-HT was significantly reduced compared with controls after 30  $\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$  (*P* < 0.01 in locus coeruleus; *P* < 0.0001 in hippocampus) with maximum reduction after 500  $\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ . (B) The ratio of MHPG/norepinephrine was significantly reduced compared with controls after 10  $\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$  (*P* < 0.01 in locus coeruleus; *P* < 0.0001 in hippocampus) with maximum reduction after 30  $\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ .

### 3.2. Monoamine turnover and loss of righting reflex

There is closer correspondence between the dexmedetomidine dose response curves for percentage loss of righting reflex and 5-HT turnover than for loss of righting reflex and norepinephrine turnover in both the hippocampus (Fig. 2A) and the locus coeruleus (Fig. 2B).

In the hippocampus (Fig. 2A), the EC<sub>50</sub> values for 5-HT turnover (20.74) and norepinephrine turnover (5.64) are different (*P* < 0.05). A 95% confidence interval for the difference between the EC<sub>50</sub>'s was (–25.5, –4.64); since this interval did not include zero, we concluded that the norepinephrine EC<sub>50</sub> was less than the 5-HT EC<sub>50</sub>.

By logistic regression, the % loss of righting reflex EC<sub>50</sub> is greater than the norepinephrine EC<sub>50</sub> (*P* < 0.05) but did not differ from the 5-HT EC<sub>50</sub>. The 97.5% confi-

dence interval for the the % loss of righting reflex  $EC_{50}$  (23.96, 34.74) did not intersect with the confidence interval for norepinephrine  $EC_{50}$  (2.27, 8.90) but did intersect with the 97.5% confidence interval for the 5-HT  $EC_{50}$  (8.64, 32.82).

In the locus coeruleus (Fig. 2B), the norepinephrine  $EC_{50}$  value was less than the 5-HT  $EC_{50}$  ( $P < 0.05$ ). With a 95% confidence interval, the norepinephrine  $EC_{50}$  was less than 10 and the 5-HT  $EC_{50}$  was greater than 10. Moreover, the norepinephrine  $EC_{50}$  was less than the % loss of righting reflex  $EC_{50}$  because the 97.5% confidence interval for the norepinephrine  $EC_{50}$  was less than 10 and the 97.5% confidence interval for % loss of righting reflex  $EC_{50}$  was greater than 10.

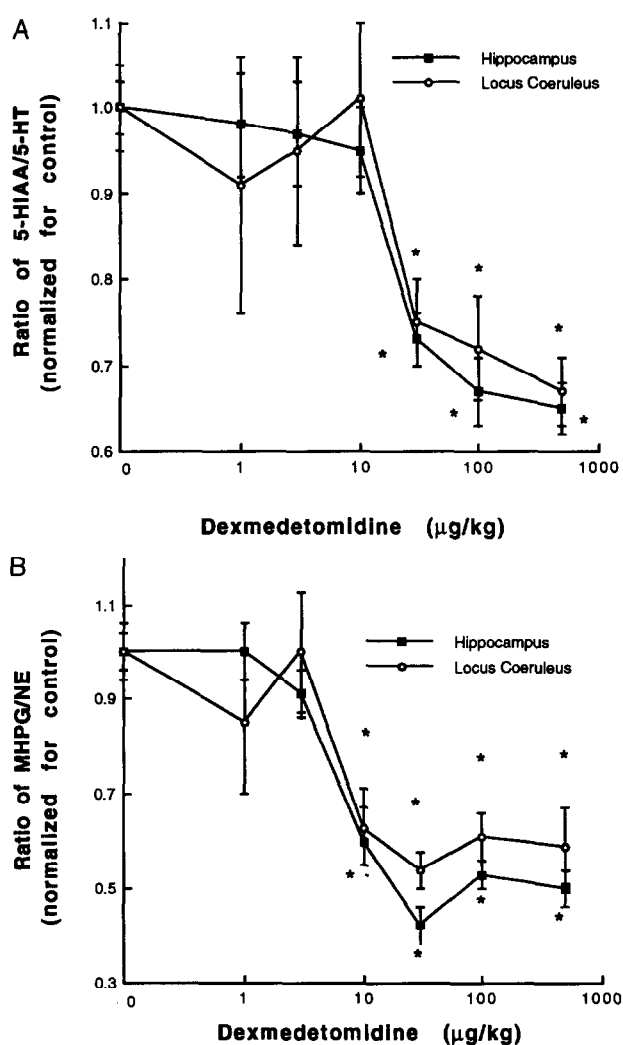


Fig. 1. Effect of dexmedetomidine on norepinephrine (A) and 5-HT (B) turnover in the hippocampus and locus coeruleus. Rats were treated with dexmedetomidine (1–500  $\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$  i.p.) and killed 30 min later. The hippocampus was removed unilaterally and the locus coeruleus bilaterally and the indoleamines (5-HT and 5-HIAA) and catecholamines (norepinephrine and MHPG) were measured. Data are presented as means  $\pm$  S.E.M. with each group consisting of at least 6 rats. ANOVA:  $P < 0.0001$ . \*  $P < 0.01$  compared with control (Fisher test).

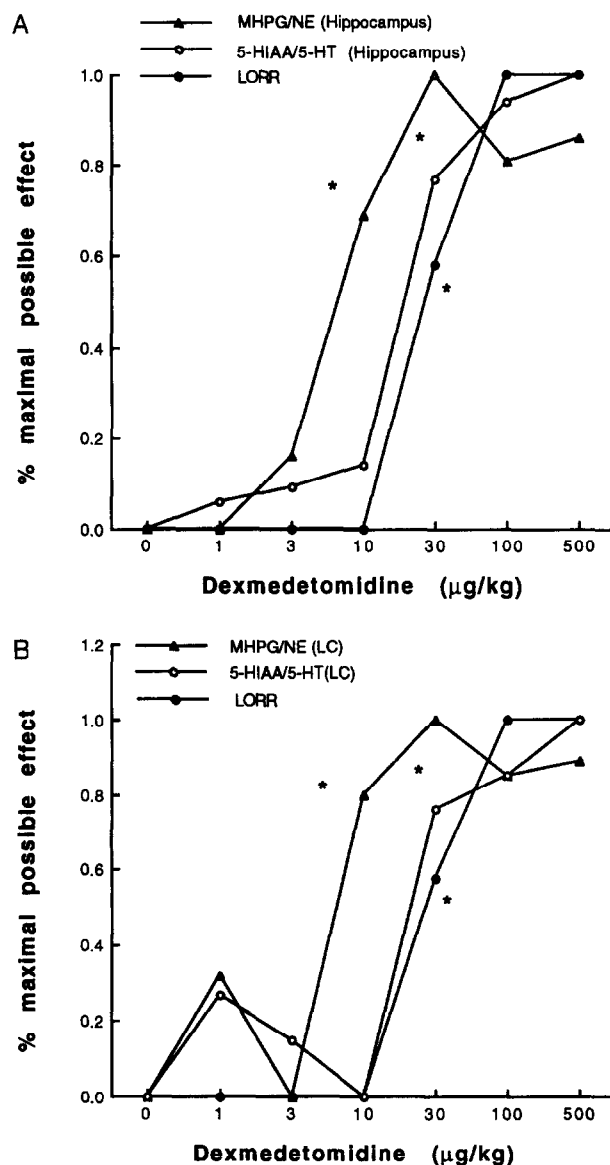


Fig. 2. Effect of dexmedetomidine on monoaminergic turnover in the hippocampus (A) and locus coeruleus [LC] (B) and loss of righting reflex in rats. Hypnotic response to increasing doses of dexmedetomidine was measured by the loss of righting reflex. The maximal possible effect refers to the fraction of animals that have lost their righting reflex at a given dose. Monoaminergic neurotransmitter turnover data from Fig. 1 (5-HIAA/5-HT) and from Rabin et al., 1994 (MHPG/NE [norepinephrine]) are replotted as the maximal possible effect. \* Refers to the lowest dose at which a significant difference ( $P < 0.05$ ) from baseline occurred.

### 3.3. Chronic dexmedetomidine and monamine turnover

In sham treated rats, acute dexmedetomidine ( $30 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$  i.p.) reduced 5-HT turnover in the locus coeruleus and hippocampus ( $P < 0.05$ ) (Fig. 3A,B). In rats rendered tolerant to the hypnotic effect of dexmedetomidine with chronic administration ( $3 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$  s.c. per day) (Reid et al., 1994), acute dexmedetomidine failed to have a significant effect on 5-HT turnover compared with controls receiving acute saline. Additionally, chronic dexmedetomi-

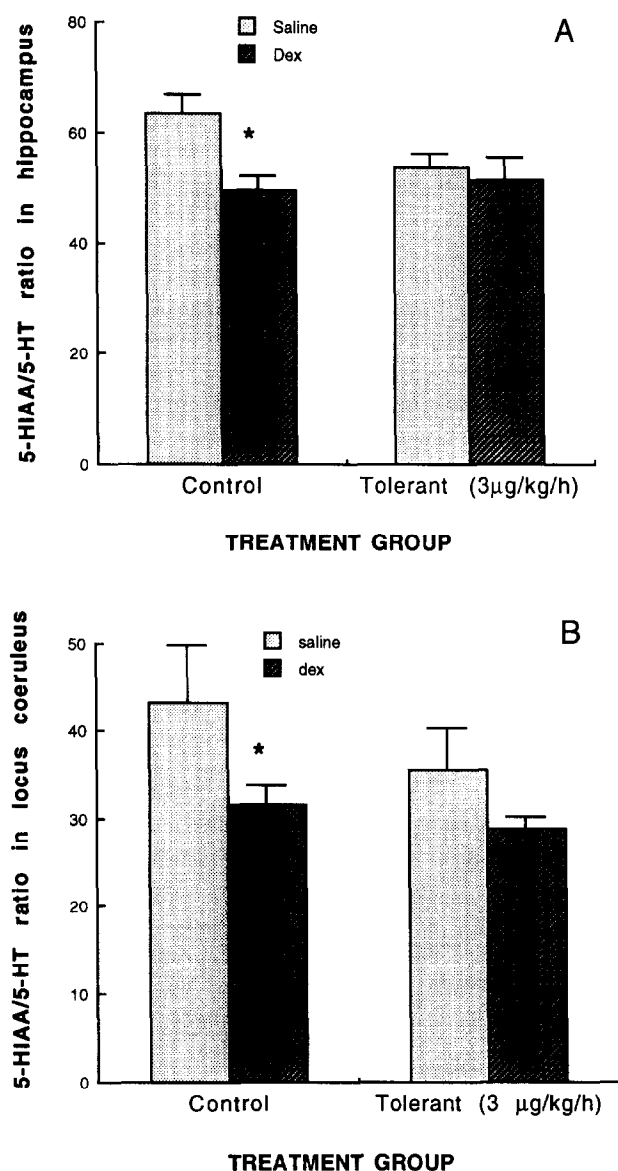


Fig. 3. Effect of dexmedetomidine on 5-HT turnover in the hippocampus (A) and locus coeruleus (B) of rats rendered tolerant to the hypnotic effects of dexmedetomidine. Rats were infused with dexmedetomidine,  $3 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$ , for 7 days. At this time, they were administered dexmedetomidine  $30 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$  i.p., or saline and sacrificed 30 min later. The hippocampus was removed unilaterally and the locus coeruleus bilaterally, and indoleamines were analyzed by high pressure liquid chromatography with electrochemical detection. Data are presented as means  $\pm$  S.E.M. with 6–8 rats in each group. ANOVA:  $P < 0.05$  in LC;  $P < 0.01$  in Hc. \*  $P < 0.05$ , compared with control (Fisher test).

dine alone did not alter basal levels of 5-HT turnover measured in sham-treated rats.

### 3.4. Effects of DOI on the hypnotic response to dexmedetomidine

DOI dose dependently attenuates the hypnotic response to dexmedetomidine administered systemically or directly into the locus coeruleus. Latency to sleep (Fig. 4A) was

significantly ( $P < 0.0001$ ) increased with DOI pretreatment ( $0.08 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$  and  $0.16 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ ) followed by systemic and local locus coeruleus injection of dexmedetomidine, respectively. Sleep-time (Fig. 4B) induced by locus coeruleus or systemically administered dexmedetomidine was decreased ( $P < 0.0001$ ) by pretreatment with DOI ( $0.16 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ ). The hypnotic response to dexmedetomidine, administered locally to the locus coeruleus or systemically, was completely blocked with DOI ( $0.32 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$  and  $0.64 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ ).

Ritanserin ( $0.16 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ ) prevents DOI ( $0.16 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ ) reversal of hypnotic response to dexmedetomidine

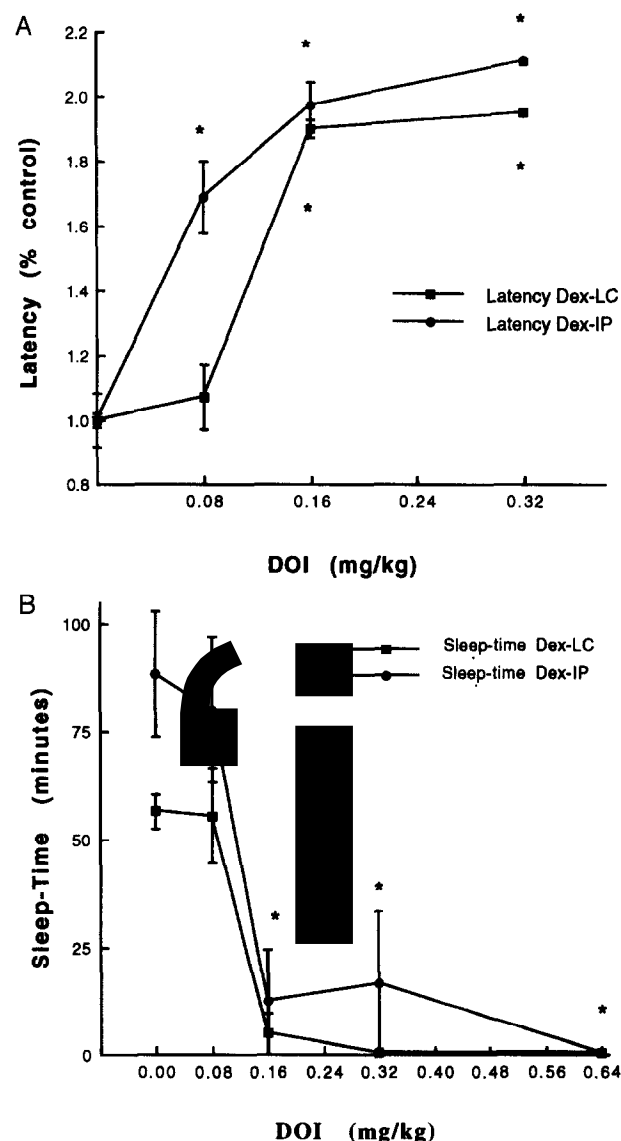


Fig. 4. Effect of the 5-HT<sub>2</sub> receptor agonist DOI on the hypnotic response to dexmedetomidine. Dexmedetomidine ( $100 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$  i.p. or  $7 \mu\text{g} \cdot 0.2 \mu\text{l}^{-1}$  locus coeruleus [LC]) was injected after pretreatment with DOI  $0-0.32 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$  i.p. (an additional dose of DOI  $= 0.64 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$  i.p. was used following i.p. dexmedetomidine). The latency to sleep (A) and the duration of loss of righting reflex (B) were assessed. Data are presented as means  $\pm$  S.E.M. with 6 rats in each group. ANOVA:  $P < 0.0001$  \*  $P < 0.001$  compared to the absence of DOI (Fisher test).

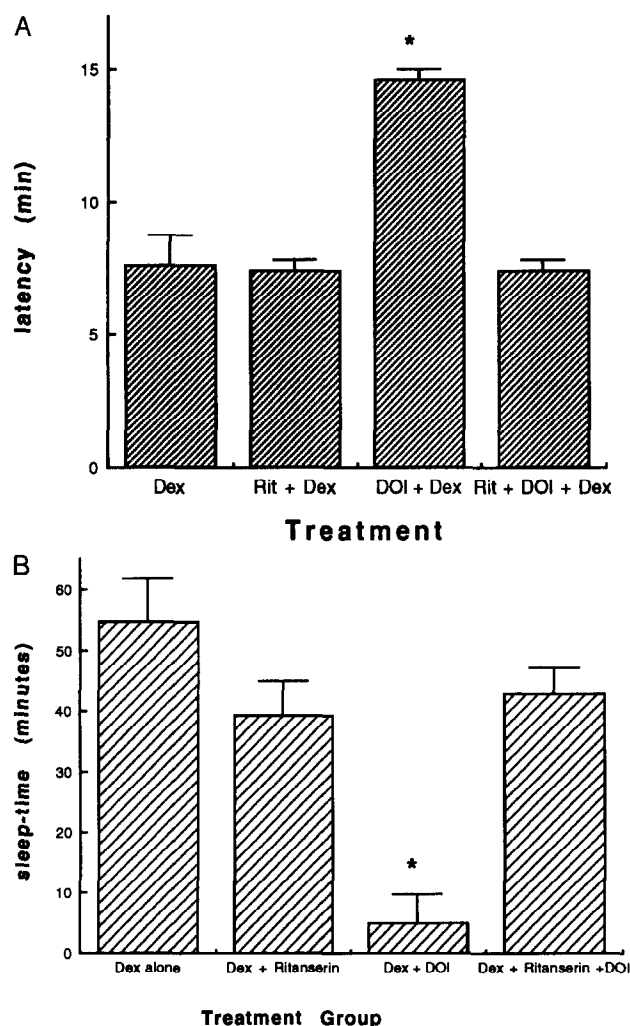


Fig. 5. Effect of the 5-HT<sub>2</sub> receptor antagonist ritanserin on the hypnotic-reversing action of DOI as reflected by latency to sleep (A) and duration of loss of righting reflex (LORR) (B). Rats were stereotactically cannulated and several days later received dexmedetomidine 7  $\mu$ g directly into the locus coeruleus,  $\pm$  DOI 0.16 mg·kg<sup>-1</sup> i.p.,  $\pm$  ritanserin 0.16 mg·kg<sup>-1</sup> i.p. \*  $P < 0.05$  when compared to dexmedetomidine alone. Data are presented as means  $\pm$  S.E.M. with 4–5 rats in each group. ANOVA:  $P < 0.0001$  \*  $P < 0.001$  compared to each of the other three groups (Fisher test).

administered either into the locus coeruleus (Fig. 5A,B) or systemically (sleep-time was reduced from  $97 \pm 4$  to  $12 \pm 12$  min following DOI [ $P = 0.0005$ ]; ritanserin restored this back to  $96 \pm 22$  min). DOI increased latency to sleep ( $P < 0.0001$ ) and reduced sleep-time ( $P < 0.0001$ ).

#### 4. Discussion

The dose-dependent hypnotic response to dexmedetomidine corresponds to decreased 5-HT but not norepinephrine turnover in the locus coeruleus and hippocampus of the rat. Coincident to the development of tolerance to the hypnotic action of dexmedetomidine, the ability of acutely

administered  $\alpha_2$ -adrenoceptor agonists to decrease 5-HT turnover is lost while their ability to alter norepinephrine turnover is preserved (Rabin et al., 1994). Furthermore, activation of the 5-HT<sub>2</sub> receptor reverses the hypnotic response to dexmedetomidine. The data presented here suggest a role for serotonergic pathways in the hypnotic response to  $\alpha_2$ -adrenoceptor agonists.

Dexmedetomidine dose dependently reduced norepinephrine turnover in the hippocampus and the locus coeruleus. This finding is in agreement with previous neurochemical studies with clonidine and dexmedetomidine. Clonidine administration significantly reduced the concentration of MHPG in the rat brain (Tang et al., 1978). Correspondingly, dexmedetomidine induced reductions in rat brain norepinephrine turnover, as evidenced by an enhanced rate of norepinephrine disappearance following synthesis inhibition by  $\alpha$ -methyl-*p*-tyrosine (MacDonald et al., 1988) and decreased concentrations of MHPG (Scheinin et al., 1986). These biochemical findings are supported by electrophysiologic studies which show that clonidine, administered systemically or microiontophoretically inhibits locus coeruleus activity (Svensson et al., 1975; Engberg et al., 1982; Berridge et al., 1993), while  $\alpha_2$ -adrenoceptor antagonists, namely yohimbine and idazoxan, elicit excitation of locus coeruleus neurons (Marwaha and Aghajanian, 1982; Freedman and Aghajanian, 1984). Dexmedetomidine also dose dependently reduced 5-HT turnover in the hippocampus and locus coeruleus. This finding corroborates previous studies which demonstrated decreases in 5-HT turnover in the CNS following acute (MacDonald et al., 1988; Reinhard and Roth, 1982) or chronic (Koulu et al., 1990) administration of  $\alpha_2$ -adrenoceptor agonists. This depression of 5-HT turnover is blocked by the selective  $\alpha_2$ -adrenoceptor antagonists yohimbine and atipamezole (MacDonald et al., 1988; Reinhard and Roth, 1982).

While there is a strong connection between alterations in noradrenergic neurotransmission and alterations in vigilance and sleep, our earlier studies have suggested that this is not the only neurotransmitter involved in the anesthetic action of  $\alpha_2$ -adrenoceptor agonists (Rabin et al., 1994; Doze et al., 1988; Segal et al., 1988). The current study strongly implicates serotonergic neurotransmission in the hypnotic response to  $\alpha_2$ -adrenoceptor agonists by showing a correspondence between 5-HT turnover and loss of righting reflex and a dissociation between norepinephrine turnover and loss of righting reflex. Firstly, the dose response curves for the inhibition of norepinephrine turnover and 5-HT turnover are different. The EC<sub>50</sub> values for 5-HT turnover and loss of righting reflex are similar to one another and significantly different from the EC<sub>50</sub> values for norepinephrine turnover. Further, in animals treated chronically with dexmedetomidine there are coincidental losses of the hypnotic response (Reid et al., 1994) and the inhibition of 5-HT turnover following acute administration of dexmedetomidine; no such link exists for norepinephrine turnover (Rabin et al., 1994).

There is extensive anatomical, biochemical, and behavioral evidence documenting significant interaction between noradrenergic and serotonergic neurons. Anatomic studies have shown that serotonergic neurons of the dorsal raphe are innervated by norepinephrine containing neurons originating in the locus coeruleus (Loizou, 1969; Baraban and Aghajanian, 1981). Immunocytochemical (Pickel et al., 1977) and autoradiographic studies (Leger and Descarries, 1978) have confirmed that the locus coeruleus receives dense input from serotonergic afferents arising from the raphe system. Biochemical studies have shown adrenergic modulation of 5-HT release from serotonergic neurons in the dorsal raphe as well as the cortex (Baraban et al., 1978; Alojado et al., 1994). Conversely, perturbations in central indolaminergic neurotransmission strongly influence noradrenergic neuronal activity in the locus coeruleus (Crespi et al., 1980; McRae-Degueurce et al., 1985) and the mediating receptor subtype appears to be 5-HT<sub>2</sub> receptor (Gorea and Adrien, 1988). In behavioral studies, interaction between noradrenergic and serotonergic pathways are important in the induction of nociception (Clatworthy et al., 1988; Post and Archer, 1990). Additionally, Takeshige et al. (1981) reported that tetrabenzine, a depletor of 5-HT and norepinephrine, prolonged the hypnotic response in animals.

Given that the anesthetic properties of dexmedetomidine include a hypnotic effect which results in decreased vigilance and a change in activity of thalamo-cortical neurons resembling slow wave sleep (Seidel et al., 1993) and the previous demonstrations that decreases in noradrenergic and serotonergic neurotransmission are associated with the transition from wakefulness to sleep (Aston-Jones and Bloom, 1981; Rasmussen et al., 1986; Lydic et al., 1987), we propose the following neuronal pathways model to explain dexmedetomidine-induced sleep. Dexmedetomidine inhibits release of norepinephrine from noradrenergic neurons in the locus coeruleus (Jorm and Stamford, 1995) thereby decreasing activity in the efferent ascending noradrenergic pathway to the cortex. Less norepinephrine is released and available to activate adrenoceptors in the cortex. Dexmedetomidine will also decrease activity in the ascending serotonergic pathways originating in the dorsal raphe. In our model, the firing of 5-HT neurons in the dorsal raphe is reduced by two means. Local administration of dexmedetomidine to the locus coeruleus suppresses norepinephrine release, which has an excitatory effect at  $\beta$ -adrenoceptors in dorsal raphe (Alojado et al., 1994). Systemic administration combines the  $\beta$ -adrenoceptor action with the inhibitory action of dexmedetomidine at  $\alpha_2$ -adrenoceptors in the dorsal raphe (Andén et al., 1970; Farnebo and Hamberger, 1971). This results in reduced occupancy of 5-HT<sub>2</sub> receptors in the cortex.

Coincidental changes in noradrenergic and serotonergic neurotransmission act in a coordinated fashion to alter cortical neuronal activity and facilitate the transition from wakefulness to dexmedetomidine-induced sleep. If the ag-

gregate effect of  $\alpha_2$ -adrenoceptor stimulation on serotonergic pathways is to decrease activation of 5-HT<sub>2</sub> receptors, it follows that activation of these receptors by DOI, a 5-HT<sub>2</sub> receptor agonist, would blunt the hypnotic effect of dexmedetomidine.

Studies of ritanserin and DOI on sleep, as measured by EEG recordings, have shown significant effects at doses of 0.63 mg · kg<sup>-1</sup>. At 0.16 mg · kg<sup>-1</sup>, the dose of ritanserin and DOI used in this study, EEG recordings show no effect on sleep (Silhol et al., 1992; Stutzmann et al., 1992; Dugovic et al., 1989). In the behavioral experiments, the serotonergic ligands were administered systemically, which will activate 5-HT receptor populations in multiple sites. This precludes a specific localization for the site of action.

In the process of defining the role of serotonergic neurons in  $\alpha_2$ -adrenoceptor agonist-elicited behaviors, future studies should further characterize  $\alpha_2$ -heteroreceptors, specifically their binding profiles and sensitivity to chronic drug administration. This knowledge will promote the rational synthesis of  $\alpha_2$ -adrenoceptor agonists with enhanced or diminished contribution from serotonergic neurons, and by that means, endow the next generation of drugs with enhanced potency and selectivity. For example, preclinical and clinical studies with  $\alpha_2$ -adrenoceptor agonists suggest that insomnia may be a therapeutic indication for this class of agent (Seidel et al., 1993). An increased ability to activate heteroreceptors on serotonergic neurons, and thereby decrease the release of 5-HT in the cortex, would augment the soporific properties of these agents.

In conclusion, the hypnotic effect of dexmedetomidine is associated with a decrease in serotonergic neurotransmission and can be attenuated by activation of 5-HT<sub>2</sub> receptors. These findings suggest an important role for serotonergic pathways in the hypnotic action of  $\alpha_2$ -adrenoceptor agonists.

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