

Development of hyperthermia following intracerebroventricular administration of endotoxin in the rat: effect of kinin B₁ and B₂ receptor antagonists

¹Katharine Walker, Andy Dray & Martin Perkins

Sandoz Institute for Medical Research, 5 Gower Place, London WC1E 6BN

- 1 E. coli lipopolysaccharide (LPS) produced a dose-dependent (dose range: 0.02-150 μg) increase in rat core temperature that was maximal 6 h after intracerebroventricular (i.c.v.) administration. LPS (200 ng) increased core temperature by $1.0\pm0.2^{\circ}$ C, 6 h following administration, as compared to vehicletreated controls $(-0.2\pm0.2^{\circ}\text{C})$.
- 2 LPS-induced (200 ng) hyperthermia was prevented by co-administration of the bradykinin (BK) B₂ receptor antagonist, Hoe 140 (10 and 30 pmol, i.c.v.) or by indomethacin (10 nmol, i.c.v.).
- 3 Systemic administration of Hoe 140 at doses up to 1 μmol kg⁻¹, s.c., did not attenuate LPS-induced (200 ng, i.c.v.) hyperthermia. However, LPS hyperthermia was significantly reduced by systemic administration of indomethacin (1 μ mol kg⁻¹, i.v.).
- Co-administration of the selective B₁ receptor antagonists, [des-Arg⁹, Leu⁸]BK (0.1-1 nmol, i.c.v.) or [des-Arg¹⁰] Hoe 140 (0.1 – 1 nmol, i.c.v.), did not prevent LPS-induced hyperthermia.
- 5 It is concluded that the development of hyperthermia following central administration of endotoxin requires activation of central, but not peripheral bradykinin B2 receptors. The formation of kinins within the CNS may be an important initial component of CNS inflammation following infection.

Keywords: Kinin; bradykinin receptors; hyperthermia; lipopolysaccharide; cerebral inflammation

Introduction

Bradykinin (BK) and its active metabolite, [des-Arg⁹]BK, are peptides that are produced at the site of tissue injury or infection (Bhoola et al., 1992) where they induce a variety of proinflammatory effects through the activation of specific B₂ or B₁ receptors, respectively. The action of bradykinin has been extensively studied in models of peripheral inflammation. Stimulation of B₂ receptors in peripheral tissues has been shown to mimic many aspects of the acute inflammatory response including vasodilatation, oedema formation and pain (see Hall, 1992; Bhoola et al., 1992; Dray & Perkins, 1993). Furthermore, B₂ receptor stimulation causes the release of a number of other pro-inflammatory mediators, such as arachidonic acid metabolites (Nielsen et al., 1988; Burch & Tiffany, 1989; Gecse et al., 1989; Rang et al., 1991). Unlike the B₂ receptor, which is constitutively expressed in many tissues, the B₁ receptor is normally expressed to a very limited extent. However, many studies have now demonstrated that during chronic inflammation the expression and activation of the B₁ receptor is increased (Regoli et al., 1986; Hall, 1992; Perkins et al., 1993; Perkins and Kelly, 1994; Davis & Perkins, 1994).

The brain and spinal cord contain all of the components necessary for kinin formation, including kinin precursors, and the necessary activation and degradation enzymes (see Walker et al., 1995b). In addition, autoradiographic studies have identified specific bradykinin binding sites in the brain and spinal cord (Fujiwara et al., 1989; Privitera et al., 1992). Kinin formation and activity has been demonstrated during different forms of CNS trauma, including brain lesion injury and cerebral ischaemia (Maier-Hauff et al., 1984; Unterberg et al., 1986; Ellis et al., 1987, 1988; Kamiya et al., 1990, 1993; Wahl et al., 1993).

Bradykinin is also a pyrogenic agent (Rao & Bhattacharya, 1988; Pela et al., 1995). Intracerebroventricular administration of bradykinin has been shown to produce a dose-related increase in the core body temperature of rats that can be reduced by inhibiting brain 5-hydroxytryptamine (5-HT) or prostaglandin activity (Rao & Bhattacharya, 1988). However, while a large number of peptides have been shown to induce hyperthermia when injected directly into the brains of animals, few of them have subsequently been shown to have a physiological role in thermogenesis (see Rothwell, 1994). In order to dermine whether kinins are important in thermogenesis it is first necessary to demonstrate kinin receptor activation in a model of endotoxin-induced hyperthermia (see Rao & Bhattacharya, 1988; Pela et al., 1995). In this study we address this issue directly by examining the effects of kinin B₁ and B₂ receptor blockade in endotoxin-induced hyperthermia. Furthermore, since kinin receptors are present both in the CNS and widespread throughout the periphery, it would be valuable to determine whether centrally and/or peripherally located kinin receptors contribute to the development of fever in this model. These findings have been published in abstract form (Walker et al., 1995a).

Methods

Animals and experimental procedures

Male Sprague-Dawley rats (160-200 g) from Charles River Ltd. (Kent, UK) were housed in groups of 6 in a temperaturecontrolled room (24°C), that was kept on a 12/12 h light/dark cycle. Experiments were performed during the light phase of the cycle. Animals were provided with food and water ad li-

Standard stereotaxic surgical techniques were used to administer intracerebroventricular (i.c.v.) injections of lipopolysaccharide (LPS), test compounds or vehicle solution to rats. Rats were anaesthetized with enflurane throughout the microinjection procedure (duration: 5-10 min). Solutions were

¹ Author for correspondence.

injected via a sterile stainless steel 30 guage needle attached to a Hamilton syringe with a Kopf (Tujunga, CA, U.S.A.), model 5000, Micro Injector Unit that was fixed to a Kopf stereotaxic frame. The injection needle tip was placed at coordinates: 0.8 mm posterior to bregma, 1.4 mm lateral to the sagittal suture and 3.7 mm below the surface of the skull in the right lateral ventricle. Following the removal of the injection needle the hole in the skull was sealed with sterile bone wax and the scalp was sutured. Immediately following the i.c.v. injection, while still anaesthetized, rats received an i.v. drug or vehicle injection via the tail vein.

A Physitemp (Clifton, NJ, U.S.A.) RET-2 rectal probe for rats connected to a Physitemp BAT-12 microprobe thermometer was used to measure rat core body temperature before and at 2, 4, 6, 8 or 24 h following i.c.v. injections of LPS.

Drugs

E. coli lipopolysaccharide (Sigma, serotype 0111:B4) was administered in saline (sterile, pyrogen free 0.9% saline, Sigma) and dilutions were made up in silicon coated vials. Hoe 140 (D-Arg-[Hyp³, Thi⁵, D-Tic³, Oic³]-BK; synthesized at the Sandoz Institute for Medical Research), [des-Arg¹⁰] Hoe 140 (Peninsula Labs, Europe) and [des-Arg⁰, Leu³]BK (Bachem A.G.) were administered in saline (as above). Indomethacin (Sigma) was dissolved in 2% Na₂CO₃ (buffered to pH 7 with NaH₂PO₄). Compounds were administered either i.v. (injection volume=1 ml kg⁻¹) or co-administered i.c.v. with LPS (injection volume=10 μ l).

Statistical analyses

Results were confirmed by parametric overall analyses of variance (ANOVA) followed by individual group comparisons (Tukey, Dunnetts, Students t test; P < 0.05) according to the methods described by Kirk (1968). The difference between the pre- and post-treatment scores were calculated for each rat and the data are presented as the mean \pm s.e.mean change from pre-treatment baseline.

Results

Development of hyperthermia following i.c.v. LPS administration

Figure 1a illustrates the time course of LPS-induced hyperthermia. A significant increase (P < 0.001) in rat core temperature was produced by LPS following i.c.v. administration of doses from 2 ng (4 h following administration) to 150 μ g (2-24 h following administration) with the highest dose producing the greatest overall increase in core temperature. The temperatures of all LPS-treated groups had returned to baseline 24 h following administration, except for the highest dose (150 µg) which had returned to baseline by 48 h after administration (Figure 1a). Comparisons of individual groups (P < 0.05) indicated that the maximal increase in body temperature was produced 4-6 h after administration. A linear regression ANOVA indicated a significant linear effect of LPS dose (correlation coefficient: r = 0.78; $F_{1,34} = 55.71$, P < 0.001) on hyperthermia 4 h following LPS administration (Figure 1b).

In order to compare the effects of central vs. systemic routes of LPS administration on the development of hyperthermia, subcutaneous administration of LPS was tested in two additional groups of rats, as shown in Figure 2. When administered s.c. LPS doses of 0.15 or 150 μ g both produced a significantly smaller increase (P < 0.001) in core temperature 4 (0.2 μ g, i.c.v.: $1.0 \pm 0.2^{\circ}$ C; 0.2 μ g, s.c.: $-0.08 \pm 0.1^{\circ}$ C; 150 μ g, i.c.v.: $1.6 \pm 0.2^{\circ}$ C; 150 μ g, s.c.: $0.8 \pm 0.1^{\circ}$ C) or 6 h (Figure 2) following administration, as compared to the effects of the same doses following i.c.v. administration.

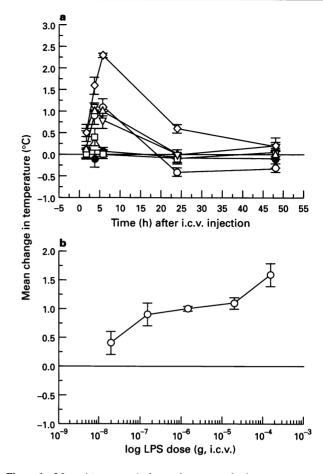


Figure 1 Mean (\pm s.e.mean) change in rat core body temperature at 2, 4, 6, 24 and 48 h following (a) or 4 h following (b) i.c.v. administration of various doses of LPS or vehicle. (a) Depicts the time course of core temperature changes in groups treated with different doses of LPS: $0.02 \,\mu g$ (\square), $0.15 \,\mu g$ (\bigcirc), $1.5 \,\mu g$ (\bigcirc), $1.5 \,\mu g$ (\bigcirc), and $150 \,\mu g$ (\bigcirc) or vehicle (\bullet); (b) depicts the effect of LPS dose on changes in core temperature in these same dose groups 4 h following LPS administration. *P < 0.05 compared to the vehicle-treated control (n = 6/group).

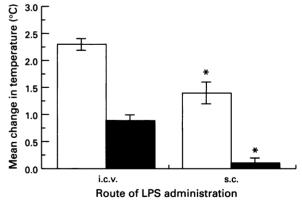


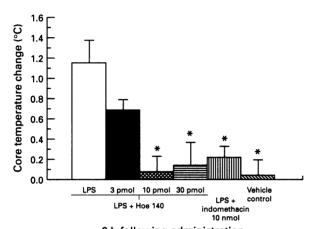
Figure 2 Mean (\pm s.e.mean) change in rat core body temperature 6h following either i.c.v. or s.c. administration of $150\,\mu\text{M}$ (open columns) or $0.15\,\mu\text{M}$ (solid columns) LPS. *P < 0.05 compared to i.c.v. treated group. (n = 6/group).

Effect of bradykinin B_2 receptor antagonist treatment on LPS-induced hyperthermia

LPS- (0.2 μ g, i.c.v.) induced an increase in rat core temperature 4 (0.9 \pm 0.2°C) and 6 h (Figure 3) after i.c.v. administra-

tion. Co-administration of LPS with the selective bradykinin B_2 receptor antagonist, Hoe 140 (10 or 30 pmol, i.c.v.) significantly prevented LPS-induced hyperthermia up to 6 h after administration. ANOVA revealed a significant effect of Hoe 140 treatment (P < 0.001) and comparisons of individual groups vs. the LPS-treated group indicated a significant (P < 0.05) inhibition of LPS-induced hyperthermia by 10 and 30 pmol Hoe 140 4 h (Hoe 140, 10 pmol: $0.08 \pm 0.1^{\circ}$ C; Hoe 140 30 pmol: $0.2 \pm 0.3^{\circ}$ C) 6 h (Figure 3) after administration. Co-administration of LPS and indomethacin (10 nmol, i.c.v.) also prevented the rise in core temperature 6 h following administration (Figure 3). Administration of Hoe 140 (30 pmol, i.c.v.) or indomethacin (10 nmol, i.c.v.) alone did not produce a significant change from baseline core temperature (n = 6/group; data not shown).

Table 1 shows the effects of systemically administered Hoe 140 or indomethacin on the development of hyperthermia in rats 6 h following i.c.v. administration of LPS (0.2 μ g, i.c.v.). All LPS-treated groups displayed significant increases in core



6 h following administration

Figure 3 Mean (\pm s.e.mean) change in rat core body temperature 6 h following i.c.v. administration of 200 ng LPS, vehicle or i.c.v. coadministration of 200 ng LPS and various doses of Hoe 140 (3, 10 and 30 pmol) or indomethacin (10 nmol). *P<0.05 compared to the group treated with LPS alone (n=6/group).

Table 1 Mean $(\pm s.e.mean)$ change in rat core temperature (°C) following central administration of LPS and systemic administration of Hoe 140 or indomethacin

6 h
$0.9 (\pm 0.2)$
$0 (\pm 0.1)^*$
$0.7 (\pm 0.1)$
` ,
$0.7 (\pm 0.1)$
$0.9 (\pm 0.2)$
$-0.2 (\pm 0.1)$ *
$1.3 \ (\pm 0.2)$
$0.7 (\pm 0.3)$
$-0.2 (\pm 0.2)$ *
$-0.2 (\pm 0.2)$ *
• •

^{*}P < 0.05 compared to the LPS-treated group. (n = 6/group)

temperature and there was no significant effect of systemic Hoe 140 treatment up to 6 h following administration. In contrast to the effects of systemically administered Hoe 140, i.v. administered indomethacin (1 μ mol kg⁻¹) significantly reversed LPS-induced hyperthermia (P < 0.001) at 4 and 6 h following administration. Administration of indomethacin or Hoe 140 alone (1 μ mol kg⁻¹, i.v.) had no effect on baseline core temperature (Table 1).

Effect of i.c.v. co-administration of bradykinin B_1 receptor antagonist on LPS-induced hyperthermia

Figure 4 illustrates the development of hyperthermia following i.c.v. administration of LPS alone, or 6 h after the co-administration of LPS with one of two selective B_1 receptor antagonists, [des-Arg⁹, Leu⁸]BK or [des-Arg¹⁰] Hoe 140. Neither of the B_1 antagonists produced a significant reversal of LPS-induced hyperthermia at 2-6 h following administration. Administration of either [des-Arg⁹, Leu⁸]BK (1 nmol, i.c.v.) or [des-Arg¹⁰] Hoe 140 (1 nmol, i.c.v.) alone had no effect on baseline core temperature (n=12/group; data not shown).

Discussion

Bacterial endotoxin, when administered i.c.v., produces a rapid increase in body temperature that reaches a maximum between 4-8 h after administration. The time course, magnitude and dose-related effect of LPS presented in this study are consistent with previous reports of LPS-induced hyperthermia in rats (see Dascombe, 1985). Luheshi *et al.* (1993) reported that an i.c.v. injection of 1 μ g LPS induced an increase in rat core temperature of approximately 1°C, that was maintained for up to 6-8 h following administration.

It has been previously established that lower doses of LPS are required to produce hyperthermia when administered centrally than when administered peripherally. Direct evidence indicates that the preoptic/anterior hypothalamic nuclei are the central locus for the pyrogenic response in various mammalian species (see Dascombe, 1985 for review). Accordingly, in this study LPS evoked a substantial and reliable increase in body temperature when administered i.c.v.; however, peripheral administration of the same doses produced a significantly smaller increase. The lower dose of LPS, 0.15 µg, produced a significant increase in body temperature only when administered i.c.v. The higher dose of LPS (150 µg) produced a significant increase in core temperature when administered either s.c. or i.c.v., although the increase was greater 6 h following i.c.v. administration. These results indicate that whereas hy-

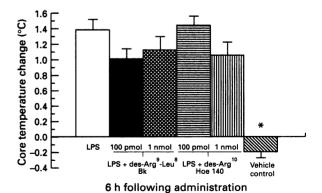


Figure 4 Mean (\pm s.e.mean) change in rat core body temperature 6 h following i.c.v. administration of 200 ng LPS, vehicle or i.c.v. coadministration of 200 ng LPS and either [des-Arg⁹, Leu⁸]BK (100 pmol and 1 nmol) or [des-Arg¹⁰] Hoe 140 (100 pmol and 1 nmol). *P < 0.05 compared to the group treated with LPS alone (n = 12/group).

perthermia might result from leakage of 150 μ g LPS into the systemic circulation, the hyperthermia induced by 0.15 μ g LPS can only be explained by the induction of thermogenic mechanisms within the CNS. For this reason, we used only a lower dose of LPS to examine the effects of kinin receptor antagonists on LPS-induced hyperthermia. It is important to note that this lower dose (0.2 μ g) of LPS has been shown to induce a pronounced acute inflammatory response characterized by the infiltration of neutrophils and macrophages within the ventricles, choroid plexus and subarachnoid space, but not the CNS parenchyma, following intracerebral or i.c.v. administration (Andersson et al., 1992).

The present study provides direct evidence for the participation of kinins in LPS-induced thermogenesis. The role of central B₂ receptors in hyperthermia is also supported by the recent work of Pela et al. (1995) demonstrating that i.c.v. administration of 2-8 nmol of the highly potent and selective B₂ receptor antagonist, Hoe 140 (see Knolle et al., 1992) also prevents the hyperthermia induced by systemically administered LPS. In this study, central co-administration of 10-30 pmol of Hoe 140 completely inhibited the development of hyperthermia following i.c.v. administration of LPS. Furthermore, the prevention of LPS-induced hyperthermia was produced by doses of Hoe 140 in the range that would be expected to reverse B₂ receptor-mediated effects if administered locally to an inflamed tissue. In peripheral models of inflammation, B2 receptormediated effects were reversed by the local administration of Hoe 140 within the dose range of 1-10 pmol (Knolle et al., 1992; Davis & Perkins, 1994; Davis et al., 1994). Peripheral B₂ receptor-mediated effects could also be inhibited by intravenous administration of Hoe 140 in the dose range of 10-100 nmol kg⁻¹ (Davis & Perkins, 1994). However, in the present study intravenous administration of doses of Hoe 140 up to 1 μmol kg⁻¹ did not affect LPS-induced hyperthermia. Hoe 140, a peptide antagonist, was likely to be poorly bioavailable in the CNS following systemic administration. Accordingly, the differences in the effectiveness of Hoe 140 following central vs. systemic administration can be explained by its action at central, but not peripheral B₂ receptors. This is further illustrated by the observation that indomethacin (which crosses the blood-brain barrier) reversed hyperthermia when administered systemically. However, lower doses of indomethacin were more effective in reversing hyperthermia when administered i.c.v. Indomethacin and other non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs are well known for their anti-pyrogenic effects which are more effective following central administration (see Dascombe, 1985).

In contrast to the effect of the B₂ receptor antagonist, central administration of two selective B₁ receptor antagonists, [des-Arg⁹, Leu⁸]BK (Barabe *et al.*, 1980; Marceau & Regoli, 1991) or the highly potent [des-Arg¹⁰] Hoe 140 (Wirth *et al.*, 1992), did not affect the hyperthermia induced by i.c.v. administered LPS. Co-administration of doses that have been shown to reverse peripheral B₁ receptor-mediated effects (Barabe *et al.*, 1980; Marceau & Regoli, 1991; Wirth *et al.*, 1992) did not reverse

LPS-induced hyperthermia. Indeed, the potent and long lasting [des-Arg¹⁰] Hoe 140 inhibited peripheral B₁ receptor-mediated vasodepression at systemic doses lower than those injected i.c.v. in the present study (Wirth *et al.*, 1992).

Although B₂ receptor antagonists are clearly effective in reversing the development of hyperthermia when administered in the initial or acute phase of LPS-induced cerebral inflammation, recent evidence from Pela et al. (1995) suggests a later induction of B₁ receptor-mediated hyperthermia following systemically administered LPS. Peripheral studies on B₁ receptor-mediated activity have demonstrated that while it is expressed to a limited extent in normal tissues, during a chronic or 'persistent' inflammation the expression of the B₁ receptor-mediated activity is increased (Regoli et al., 1986; Hall, 1992; Perkins et al., 1993; Davis & Perkins, 1994). Consistent with these peripheral studies it appears that although B₁ receptor-mediated responses are not detected following the acute co-administration of B₁ antagonists, they are detected at later stages of the CNS inflammatory response. Pela et al. (1995) demonstrated that 24 h following systemic administration of LPS i.c.v. administration of the B₁ receptor agonist [des-Arg⁹]BK, but not BK itself, induced an increase in rat core temperature. Further experiments will determine respective roles of kinin B₁ and B₂ receptors in the induction and maintenance of endotoxin-induced hyperthermia.

All components of the kallikrein-kinin system, B₂ receptors and bradykinin-immunoreactivity are widely distributed throughout the rodent CNS (see Walker et al., 1995b). Indeed, high concentrations of bradykinin- and kininogen-immunoreactivity have been demonstrated in the hypothalamus and pituitary (Kariya et al., 1985; Richoux et al., 1991) which coincides with the locus for thermoregulation. In addition, bradykinin increased core temperature in rats following i.c.v. administration (Rao & Bhattacharya, 1988; Pela et al., 1995) and this hyperthermia appeared to be mediated by the formation of prostanoids and 5-HT, as the inhibition of 5-HT or prostanoid release prevented BK-induced hyperthermia (Rao & Bhattacharya, 1988). Kinins are potent stimulators of arachidonic acid metabolism in CNS microglia (Nielsen et al., 1988; Burch & Tiffany, 1989; Gecse et al., 1989) and intracerebral injections of bradykinin have been shown to increase brain prostaglandin synthesis (Bhattacharya et al., 1986). Finally, the activation of the CNS immune system, and the production and release of pyrogenic cytokines, such as interleukin-1 (IL-1) IL-6 and tumour necrosis factor (TNFa) (Tiffany & Burch, 1989; Banati et al., 1993), is known to be an important early component of thermogenesis (Hopkins & Rothwell, 1995; Rothwell & Hopkins, 1995; Rothwell, 1994). Kinin formation is also likely to be one of the early events, possibly preceding even the release of pyrogenic cytokines, following infection or injury within the CNS. The dramatic reversal of hyperthermia following the co-administration of endotoxin and a B₂ receptor antagonist in the present study supports this hypothesis.

References

- ANDERSSON, P.B., PERRY, V.H. & GORDON, S. (1992). The acute inflammatory response to lipopolysaccharide in CNS parenchyma differs from that in other body tissues. *Neuroscience*, 48, 169–186.
- BANATI, R.B., GEHRMANN, J., SCHUBERT, P. & KREUTZBERG, G.W. (1993). Cytotoxicity of microglia. Glia, 7, 111-118.
- BARABE, J., MARCEAU, F., THERIAULT, B., DROUIN, J.N. & REGOLI, D. (1980). Cardiovascular actions of kinins in the rabbit. Can. J. Physiol. Pharmacol., 58, 563-542.
- BHATTACHARYA, S.K., RAO, P.J., BRUMLEVE, S.J. & PARMAR, S.S. (1986). Effects of intracerebroventricular administration of bradykinin on rat brain serotonin and prostaglandins. Res. Commun. Chem. Pathol. Pharmacol., 54, 355-366.
- BHOOLA, K.D., FIGUEROA, C.D. & WORTHY, K. (1992). Bioregulation of kinins: kallikreins, kininogens, and kininases. *Pharmacol. Rev.*, 44, 1-80.
- BURCH, R.M. & TIFFANY, C.W. (1989). Tumor necrosis factor causes amplification of arachidonic acid metabolism in response to interleukin-1, bradykinin, and other agonists. *J. Cell. Physiol.*, 141, 85-89.
- DASCOMBE, M.J. (1985). The pharmacology of hyperthermia. *Prog. Neurobiol.*, **25**, 327-373.
- DAVIS, A.J., KELLY, D. & PERKINS, M.N. (1994). The induction of des-Arg⁹-bradykinin-mediated hyperalgesia in the rat by inflammatory stimuli. *Brazilian J. Med. Biol. Res.*, 27, 1793 1802.
- DAVIS, A.J. & PERKINS, M.N. (1994). Induction of B1 receptors in vivo in a model of persistent inflammatory mechanical hyperalgesia in the rat. Neuropharmacol., 33, 127-133.
- DRAY, A. & PERKINS, M. (1993). Bradykinin and inflammatory pain. Trends Neurosci., 16, 99-104.

- ELLIS, E.F., HEIZER, M.L., HAMBRECHT, G.S., HOLT, S.A., STEW-ART, J.M. & VAVREK, R.J. (1987). Inhibition of bradykinin- and kallikrein-induced cerebral arteriolar dilation by a specific bradykinin antagonist. *Stroke*, 18, 792-795.
- ELLIS, E.F., HOLT, S.A., WEI, E.P. & KONTOS, H.A. (1988). Kinins induce abnormal vascular reactivity. *Am. J. Physiol.*, **255**, H397 H400.
- FUJIWARA, Y., MANTIONE, C.R., VAVREK, R.J., STEWART, J.M. & YAMAMURA, H.I. (1989). Characterization of (³H)bradykinin binding sites in guinea-pig central nervous system: possible existence of B2 subtypes. *Life Sci.*, 44, 1645-1653.

 GECSE, A., MEZEI, Z. & TELEGDY, G. (1989). The effect of
- GECSE, A., MEZEI, Z. & TELEGDY, G. (1989). The effect of bradykinin and its fragments on the arachidonate cascade of brain microvessels. Adv. Exp. Med. Biol., 247A, 249-254.
- HALL, J.M. (1992). Bradykinin receptors: pharmacological properties and biological roles. *Pharmacol. Ther.*, **56**, 131-190.
- HOPKINS, S.J. & ROTHWELL, N.J. (1995). Cytokines and the nervous system I: expression and recognition. *Trends Neurosci.*, 18, 83-88
- KAMIYA, T., KATAYAMA, Y., KASHIWAGI, F. & TERASHI, A. (1993). The role of bradykinin in mediating ischemic brain edema in rats. Stroke, 24, 571-575.
- KAMIYA, T., KATAYAMA, Y., SHIMIZU, J., SOEDA, T., NAGAZUMI, A. & TERASHI, A. (1990). Studies on relation of bradykinin to ischemic brain edema in stroke-resistant spontaneously hypertensive rat. Adv. Neurol., 52, 543.
- KARIYA, K., YAMAUCHI, A. & SASAKI, T. (1985). Regional distribution and characterisation of kinin in the CNS of the rat. J. Neurochem., 44, 1892-1897.
- KIRK, R.E. (1968). Experimental Design: Procedures for the Behavioural Sciences. California: Brooks Cole Publishing.
- KNOLLE, J., BREIPOHL, G., HENKE, S., WIRTH, K. & SCHOLKENS, B. (1992). New and highly potent bradykinin antagonist. Agents Actions Suppl., 38/I, 559-563.
- LUHESHI, G., HOPKINS, S.J., LEFEUVRE, R.A., DASCOMBE, M.J., GHIARA, P. & ROTHWELL, N.J. (1993). Importance of brain IL-1 type II receptors in hyperthermia and thermogenesis in the rat. Am. J. Physiol., 265, E585-E591.
- MAIER-HAUFF, K., BAETHMANN, A.J., LANGE, M., SCHURER, L. & UNTERBERG, A. (1984). The kallikrein-kinin system as mediator in vasogenic brain oedema part 2: studies on kinin formation in focal and perifocal brain tissue. J. Neurosurg., 61, 97-106.
- MARCEAU, F. & REGOLI, D.C. (1991). Kinin receptors of the B1 type and their antagonists. In *Bradykinin Antagonists: Basic and Clinical Research*, ed. Burch, R.M. pp. 33-49. New York: Marcel Dekker.
- NIELSEN, O.H., BUKAVE, K., AHNFELT-RINNE, I. & RASK-MAD-SEN, J. (1988). Source of endogenous arachidonate and 5lipoxygenase products in human neutrophils stimulated by bradykinin and A23187. Gut, 29, 319-324.
- PELA, I.R., OLIVEIRA, C.R., PUGLIESI, G., COELHO, M.M. & CALIXTO, J.B. (1995). Bradykinin mediates endotoxin-induced fever in rats. Involvement of B1 and B2 receptors. 14th International Symposium on Kinins Abstracts, B16.

- PERKINS, M.N., CAMPBELL, E. & DRAY, A. (1993). Antinociceptive activity of the bradykinin B1 and B2 receptor antagonist, desArg9, [Leu8]-BK and Hoe 140, in two models of persistent hyperalgesia in the rat. *Pain*, 53, 191-197.
- PERKINS, M.N. & KELLY, D. (1994). Interleukin-1β induced-desArg⁹ bradykinin-mediated thermal hyperalgesia in the rat. *Neuropharmacol.*, 33, 657-660.
- PRIVITERA, P.J., DAUM, P.R., HILL, D.R. & HILEY, C.R. (1992). Autoradiographic visualization and characteristics of (125 I) bradykinin binding sites in guinea pig brain. *Brain Res.*, 577, 73-79.
- RAO, P.J.R.M. & BHATTACHARYA, S.K. (1988). Hyperthermic effect of centrally administered bradykinin in the rat: Role of prostaglandins and serotonin. *Int. J. Hyperthermia*, 4, 183–189.
- RANG, H.P., BEVAN, S.J. & DRAY, A. (1991). Chemical activation of nociceptive peripheral neurones *Br. Med. Bull.*, 47, 534-548.
- REGOLI, D., DRAPEAU, G., ROVERO, P., DION, S., RHALEB, N.D., BARABE, J., D'ORLEANS-JUSTE, P. & WARD, P. (1986). Conversion of kinins and their antagonists into B1 receptor activators and blockers in isolated vessels. Eur. J. Pharmacol., 17, 219 224.
- RICHOUX, J.P., GELLY, J.L., BOUHNIK, J., BAUSSANT, T., ALHENC-GELAS, F., GRIGNON, G. & CORVOL, P. (1991). The kallikrein-kinin system in the rat hypothalamus. *Histochem.*, **96**, 229-243.
- ROTHWELL, N.J. (1994). CNS regulation of thermogenesis. Crit. Rev. Neurobiol., 8, 1-10.
- ROTHWELL, N.J. & HOPKINS, S.J. (1995). Cytokines and the nervous system II: actions and mechanisms of action. *Trends Neurosci.*, **18**, 130-136.
- TIFFANY, C.W. & BURCH, R.M. (1989). Bradykinin stimulates tumor necrosis factor and interleukin-1 release from macrophages. *FEBS Lett.*, **247**, 189-192.
- UNTERBERG, A., DAUTERMANN, C., BAETHMANN, A. & MULLER-ESTERL, W. (1986). The kallikrein-kinin system as mediator in vasogenic brain edema part 3: inhibition of the kallikrein-kinin system in traumatic brain swelling. J. Neurosurg., 64, 269-276.
- WAHL, M., SCHILLING, L., UNTERBERG, A. & BAETHMANN, A. (1993). Mediators of vascular and parenchymal mechanisms in secondary brain damage. *Acta. Neurochir. Suppl.*, 57, 64-72.
- WALKER, K., DRAY, A. & PERKINS, M.N. (1995a). Hyperalgesia and fever in rats following i.c.v. administered lipopolysaccharide: Effects of bradykinin B₁ and B₂ receptor antagonists. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*, 115, 95P.
- WALKER, K., PERKINS, M. & DRAY, A. (1995b). Kinins and kinin receptors in the nervous system. *Neurochem. Int.*, 26, 1-16.
- WIRTH, K.J., WIEMER, G. & SCHOLKENS, B.A. (1992). DESARG¹⁰-[HOE 140] is a potent B₁ bradykinin antagonist. Agents Actions Suppl., 38/II, 406-413.

(Received May 31, 1995 Revised October 6, 1995 Accepted October 17, 1995)