

Central and peripheral cannabinoid modulation of gastrointestinal transit in physiological states or during the diarrhoea induced by croton oil

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1 We have evaluated the effect of cannabinoid drugs, administered intraperitoneally (i.p.) or intracerebroventricularly (i.c.v.) on upper gastrointestinal transit in control and in croton oil-treated mice.

2 The cannabinoid agonists, WIN 55,212-2 (2–239 nmol mouse⁻¹) and cannabinal (24–4027 nmol mouse⁻¹), decreased while the CB₁ antagonist SR141716A (2–539 nmol mouse⁻¹) increased transit in control mice. WIN 55,212-2, cannabinal and SR141716A had lower ED₅₀ values when administered i.c.v., than when administered i.p. The CB₂ antagonist SR144528 (52 nmol mouse⁻¹, i.p.) was without effect.

3 During croton oil (0.01 ml mouse⁻¹, p.o.)-induced diarrhoea, the ED₅₀ values of i.p.-injected WIN 55,212-2 and cannabinal (but not SR141716A) were significantly decreased (compared to control mice). However, the ED₅₀ values of WIN 55,212-2 were similar after i.p. or i.c.v. administration.

4 The inhibitory effects of WIN 55,212-2 and cannabinal were counteracted by SR141716A (16 nmol mouse⁻¹, i.p.) but not by SR144528 (52 nmol mouse⁻¹, i.p.) both in control and croton-oil treated mice.

5 Ganglionic blockade with hexamethonium (69 nmol mouse⁻¹, i.p.) did not modify the inhibitory effect of i.p.-injected cannabinoid agonists either in control or in croton-oil treated mice.

6 The lower ED₅₀ values of cannabinoid drugs after i.c.v. administration suggest a central (CB₁) site of action. However, a peripheral site of action is suggested by the lack of effect of hexamethonium. In addition, croton oil-induced diarrhoea enhances the effect of cannabinoid agonists by a peripheral mechanism.

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Abbreviations: CO, croton oil; Δ⁹-THC, Δ⁹-tetrahydrocannabinol

Introduction

Preparations of *Cannabis sativa* have been used medicinally for over 4000 years for the treatment of a variety of disorders, including migraine, muscle spasm, seizures, glaucoma, pain, nausea and diarrhoea (Felder & Glass, 1998). In 1964 Δ⁹-tetrahydrocannabinol (Δ⁹-THC) was isolated, which was later shown to be responsible for many of the pharmacological actions of *Cannabis* preparations (Mechoulam *et al.*, 1998). With regard to the gastrointestinal tract, Dewey *et al.* (1972) were the first to report that Δ⁹-THC reduced the rate of passage of a charcoal meal in the mouse small intestine and these findings were confirmed by others (Chesher *et al.*, 1973; Jackson *et al.*, 1976; Shook & Burks, 1989).

Understanding of the mechanism by which Δ⁹-THC exerts its pharmacological actions has seen considerable progress in the last ten years following the discovery of two distinct cannabinoid receptors, named CB₁, (expressed mainly by central and peripheral neurons) and CB₂ (that occur mainly in immune cells) (Matsuda *et al.*, 1990; Munro *et al.*, 1993; Pertwee, 1998). The discovery of these receptors has led to the demonstration that there are endogenous agonists for these

receptors, namely anandamide and 2-arachidonylglycerol (Devane *et al.*, 1992; Stella *et al.*, 1997), the latter found in the intestine of the dog (Mechoulam *et al.*, 1995).

The myenteric plexus of the guinea-pig intestine contains CB₁, but not CB₂-like cannabinoid receptor mRNA (Griffin *et al.*, 1997). Activation of prejunctional CB₁ receptors produces inhibition of excitatory transmission (Pertwee *et al.*, 1996; Izzo *et al.*, 1998) in the isolated guinea-pig ileum and these inhibitory effects are associated with a decrease in acetylcholine release from enteric nerves (Coutts & Pertwee, 1997). However, a preliminary report indicates that cannabinoid agonists potentiate electrically-induced contractions in the porcine ileum and this effect is mediated by CB₂ receptors (Albasan *et al.*, 1999).

The involvement of CB₁ receptors in intestinal motility has been confirmed also *in vivo*. Indeed, the endogenous cannabinoid agonist anandamide (Calignano *et al.*, 1997) and the synthetic cannabinoid agonist WIN 55,212-2 (Colombo *et al.*, 1998; Izzo *et al.*, 1999a) inhibited, whilst the CB₁ receptor antagonist, SR141716A increased gastrointestinal transit in mice. However, in these studies, cannabinoid drugs were administered intraperitoneally or subcutaneously and therefore it was not clear if cannabinoids were acting at central or

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peripheral cannabinoid receptors. In addition, there are no data in the literature concerning the effects of cannabinoid drugs in the control of upper gastrointestinal motility during pathophysiological states.

The present study, therefore, has two objectives: (i) to compare the effect of cannabinoid drugs on intestinal motility after intracerebroventricular and intraperitoneal administration and (ii) to evaluate the effect of cannabinoid agonists on intestinal motility during experimental diarrhoea. In order to achieve this experimental condition, we have used croton oil, a well-known cathartic agent (Pol *et al.*, 1996). The cannabinoid drugs used were: the natural agonist cannabinal (Petitet *et al.*, 1998) and the synthetic agonist WIN 55,212-2 (Compton *et al.*, 1992), the CB₁ receptor antagonist SR141716A (Rinaldi-Carmona *et al.*, 1995) and the CB₂ receptor antagonist SR144528 (Rinaldi-Carmona *et al.*, 1998).

Methods

Animals

Male ICR mice (Harlan Italy, Corezzana, MI) (24–26 g) were used after 1 week of acclimation (temperature $23 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$; humidity 60%). Food was withheld 3 h before experiments but there was free access to drinking water.

Upper gastrointestinal transit

Gastrointestinal transit was measured in control mice or 3 h after treatment with croton oil ($0.01 \text{ ml mouse}^{-1}$). At this time, 0.1 ml of a black marker (10% charcoal suspension in 5% gum arabic) was administered orally to assess upper gastrointestinal transit as previously described (Pol *et al.*, 1996; Izzo *et al.*, 1999a). After 20 min the mice were killed by asphyxiation with CO₂ and the gastrointestinal tract removed. The distance travelled by the marker was measured and expressed as a percentage of the total length of the small intestine from pylorus to caecum (Izzo *et al.*, 1999a).

The cannabinoid agonists WIN 55,212-2 ($2\text{--}239 \text{ nmol mouse}^{-1}$), cannabinal ($24\text{--}4027 \text{ nmol mouse}^{-1}$), the CB₁ receptor antagonist SR141716A ($2\text{--}539 \text{ nmol mouse}^{-1}$), the CB₂ receptor antagonist SR144528 ($52 \text{ nmol mouse}^{-1}$) or vehicle (DMSO, $4\text{--}8 \mu\text{l mouse}^{-1}$) were given intraperitoneally (i.p.) or intracerebroventricularly (i.c.v.) 20 min before charcoal administration. In some experiments SR141716A ($16 \text{ nmol mouse}^{-1} = 0.3 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$), SR144528 ($52 \text{ nmol mouse}^{-1} = 1 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$) or hexamethonium ($69 \text{ nmol mouse}^{-1} = 1 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$) were given (i.p.) 10 min before the cannabinoid agonists. The doses of hexamethonium and SR144528 were selected on the basis of previous published work (Schirgi-Degen & Beubler, 1995; Rinaldi-Carmona *et al.*, 1998).

Intracerebroventricular injections

Intracerebroventricular injections were performed as described by Haley & McCormick (1957)). Mice were briefly anaesthetized with enflurane and the drugs were delivered in a volume of $4 \mu\text{l}$, using a Hamilton microlitre syringe fitted with 26-gauge needle.

Drugs

Drugs used were: WIN 55,212-2 mesylate (Tocris Cookson, Bristol, U.K.), hexamethonium bromide and cannabinal (SIGMA, Milan, Italy). SR141716A [(N-piperidin-1-yl)-5-(4-

chlorophenyl)-1,2,4-dichlorophenyl]-4-methyl-1H-pyrazole-3-carboxamide hydrochloride and SR144528 (N-[1S-endo-1,3,3-trimethyl bicyclo [2.2.1] heptan-2-yl]-5-(4-chloro-3-methylphenyl)-1-(4-methylbenzyl)-pyrazole-3-carboxamide-3-carboxamide) were a gift from Dr Madaleine Mossé and Dr Francis Barth (SANOFI-Recherche, Montpellier, France). Cannabinoid drugs were dissolved in DMSO, while hexamethonium was dissolved in saline.

Statistics

Data are mean \pm s.e.mean. To determine statistical significance, Student's *t*-test for unpaired data or one-way analysis of variance followed by Tukey–Kramer multiple comparisons test was used. A *P*-value less than 0.05 was considered significant. ED₅₀ (dose which produced a 50% variation of gastrointestinal transit) and E_{max} (maximal effect) values were calculated using the computer program of Tallarida & Murray (1986).

Results

Effect of cannabinoid drugs on upper gastrointestinal transit in control mice

The effect of i.p.- or i.c.v.- injected WIN 55,212-2 ($2\text{--}239 \text{ nmol mouse}^{-1}$) and cannabinal ($24\text{--}4027 \text{ nmol mouse}^{-1}$) on percentage inhibition of upper gastrointestinal transit are presented in Figure 1. Both WIN 55,212-2 and cannabinal produce a dose-dependent inhibition of gastrointestinal transit. However, the ED₅₀ values after i.p. or i.c.v. administration were statistically different. The ED₅₀ and E_{max} values of cannabinoid drugs are shown in Table 1.

The CB₁ receptor antagonist SR141716A ($16 \text{ nmol mouse}^{-1}$, i.p.), but not the CB₂ receptor antagonist SR144528 ($52 \text{ nmol mouse}^{-1}$, i.p.) counteracted the inhibitory effect of WIN 55,212-2 ($5 \text{ nmol mouse}^{-1}$, i.c.v. or $50 \text{ nmol mouse}^{-1}$, i.p.) and cannabinal ($201 \text{ nmol mouse}^{-1}$,

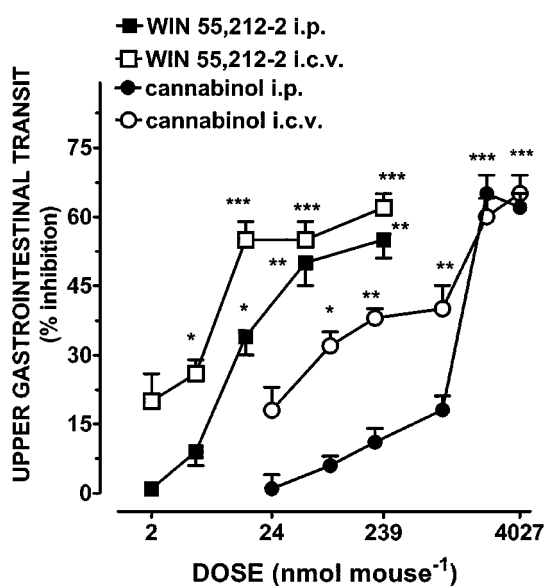


Figure 1 Dose related inhibition of upper gastrointestinal transit by WIN 55,212-2 and cannabinal after i.p. or i.c.v. administration in control mice. Each point represents the mean \pm s.e.mean of 10–13 animals for each experimental group. **P* < 0.05, ***P* < 0.01 and ****P* < 0.001 vs corresponding control.

i.c.v. or 2010 nmol mouse⁻¹, i.p.) after both i.c.v. (Figure 2) and i.p. (Figure 3) routes of administration. Hexamethonium (69 nmol mouse⁻¹, i.p.) abolished the effect of both WIN 55,212-2 and cannabinalol after i.c.v. (Figure 2) but not after i.p. (Figure 3) administration.

SR 14176A (i.p. or i.c.v.), *per se*, dose-dependently increased upper gastrointestinal transit (Figure 4a). However, the ED₅₀ value after i.c.v. administration was significantly ($P < 0.01$) lower than the ED₅₀ after i.p. administration (Table 1). At a dose of 16 nmol mouse⁻¹, SR14176A (i.c.v.) significantly ($P < 0.05$) increased intestinal motility (Figure 4a) and this effect was significantly ($P < 0.05$) counteracted by hexamethonium (69 nmol mouse⁻¹ i.p.) (per cent increase of SR14176A: 44 ± 3; per cent increase of SR14176A in the presence of hexamethonium; 1 ± 3, $n = 10$).

The CB₂ receptor antagonist SR144528 (52 nmol mouse⁻¹, i.p.), given alone, did not significantly modify gastrointestinal transit (control 47 ± 4%; SR144528 48 ± 2%, $n = 10$, $P > 0.2$). Hexamethonium (69 nmol mouse⁻¹ i.p.) did not significantly modify gastrointestinal transit (17 ± 8% increase, $n = 12$). DMSO (4 µl mouse⁻¹ i.c.v. or 4–

8 µl mouse⁻¹ i.p.) had no effect on the response under study (data not shown).

Effect of cannabinoid drugs on upper gastrointestinal transit during croton oil-induced diarrhoea

Oral administration of croton oil produced diarrhoea which was associated with a significant increase in gastrointestinal transit (per cent transit: control 46 ± 2; croton oil, 56 ± 2, $P < 0.01$, $n = 24$). Both WIN 55,212-2 (2–239 nmol mouse⁻¹, i.p.) and cannabinalol (24–4027 nmol mouse⁻¹, i.p.) produced a dose-related inhibition of transit (Figure 5) and both agonists had a lower ED₅₀ value compared to the corresponding i.p. treatment in control mice (Table 1). In croton oil-treated animals, WIN 55,212-2 (i.p.) and cannabinalol (i.p.) had a significant inhibitory effect with threshold doses of 5 nmol mouse⁻¹ and 80 nmol mouse⁻¹ doses respectively whilst in control mice, significant inhibitory effects were achieved at doses of 14 nmol mouse⁻¹ (WIN 55,212-2) and 2010 nmol mouse⁻¹ (cannabinalol) respectively (Figure 5).

Table 1 ED₅₀ ± s.e.mean and E_{max} ± s.e.mean of cannabinoid drugs after i.p. or i.c.v. administration in control mice and in mice receiving croton oil (0.01 ml mouse⁻¹, orally)

Drug	ED ₅₀ (nmol mouse ⁻¹)		E _{max} (variation in motility)	
	i.p.	i.c.v.	i.p.	i.c.v.
Control mice				
WIN 55,212-2	169 ± 8	104 ± 8*	61 ± 2	67 ± 1
Cannabinalol	2760 ± 144	1829 ± 98#	72 ± 3	69 ± 5
SR14176A	375 ± 31	117 ± 8†	59 ± 3	93 ± 2
Croton oil-treated mice				
WIN 55,212-2	68 ± 5**	74 ± 10	77 ± 2	78 ± 3
Cannabinalol	1681 ± 99#	n.d.	79 ± 3	n.d.
SR14176A	418 ± 32	n.d.	59 ± 2	n.d.

Data are means ± s.e.mean of 10–13 animals; * $P < 0.05$ and ** $P < 0.001$ vs WIN 55,212-2 i.p. in control mice; # $P < 0.05$ vs cannabinalol i.p. in control mice; † $P < 0.01$ vs SR14176A i.p. in control mice; n.d. = not determined

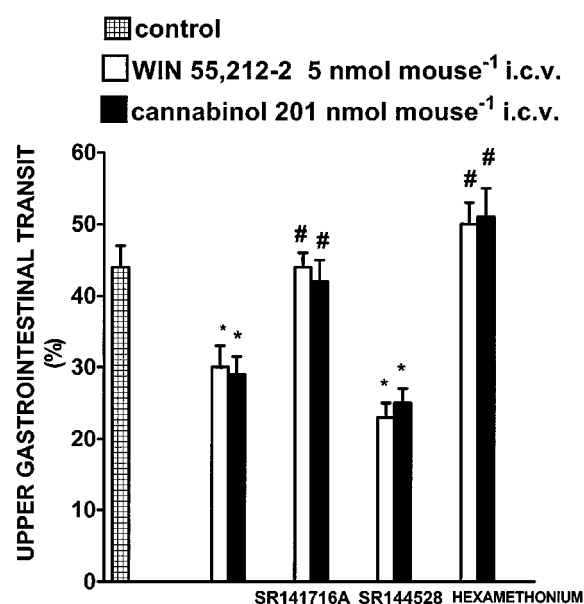


Figure 2 Effect of WIN 55,212-2 (5 nmol mouse⁻¹ i.c.v.) and cannabinalol (201 nmol mouse⁻¹, i.c.v.) on upper gastrointestinal transit alone or in mice treated with SR14176A (16 nmol mouse⁻¹, i.p.) or SR144528 (52 nmol mouse⁻¹, i.p.) or hexamethonium (69 nmol mouse⁻¹, i.p.). Results are mean ± s.e.mean of 8–11 animals for each experimental group. * $P < 0.01$ vs control and # $P < 0.05$ vs WIN 55,212-2 (or cannabinalol).

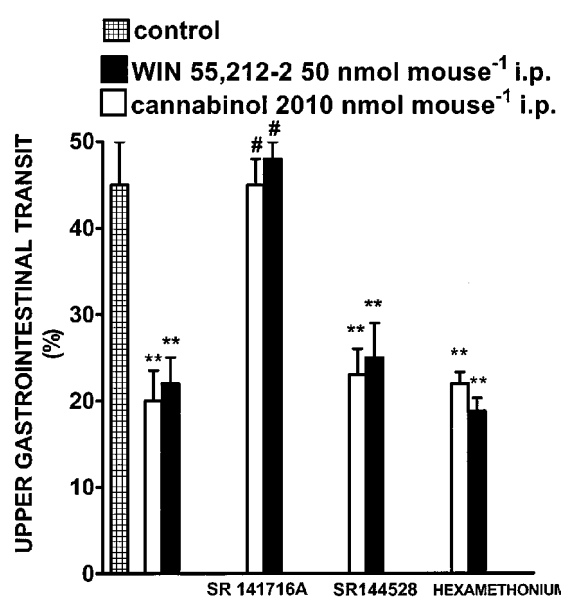


Figure 3 Effect of WIN 55,212-2 (50 nmol mouse⁻¹, i.p.) and cannabinalol (2010 nmol mouse⁻¹, i.p.) on upper gastrointestinal transit alone or in mice treated with SR14176A (16 nmol mouse⁻¹, i.p.) or SR144528 (52 nmol mouse⁻¹, i.p.) or hexamethonium (69 nmol mouse⁻¹, i.p.). Results are mean ± s.e.mean of 8–11 animals for each experimental group. ** $P < 0.01$ vs control and # $P < 0.01$ vs WIN 55,212-2 (or cannabinalol).

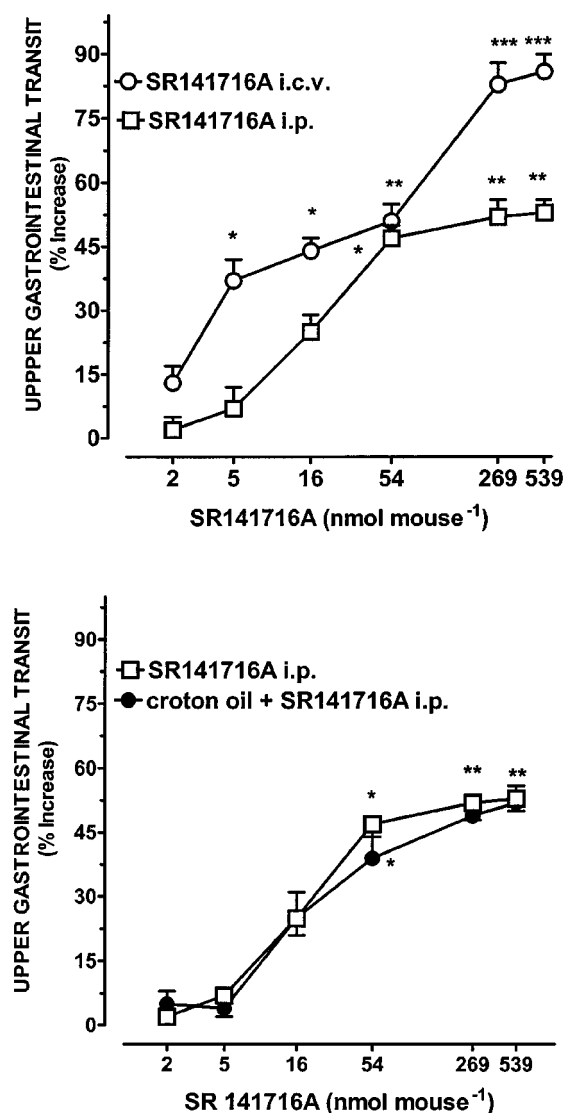


Figure 4 Dose-related increase of upper gastrointestinal transit by SR141716A in control mice (a) or mice treated with croton oil (0.01 ml mouse⁻¹, orally) (b). Results are mean \pm s.e. mean of 10–12 animals for each experimental group. * P < 0.05 and ** P < 0.01 vs corresponding control.

Administered i.c.v. WIN 55,212-2 (2–239 nmol mouse⁻¹) also decreased intestinal motility, but the ED₅₀ value (74 \pm 10 nmol mouse⁻¹) was not statistically different from the ED₅₀ value (68 \pm 5 nmol mouse⁻¹) after i.p. administration (Table 1).

The inhibitory effect of i.p.-injected WIN 55,212-2 (14 nmol mouse⁻¹) or cannabinalol (805 nmol mouse⁻¹) was reduced by the CB₁ receptor antagonist SR141716A (16 nmol mouse⁻¹, i.p.) but not by the CB₂ receptor antagonist SR144528 (52 nmol mouse⁻¹, i.p.) or by the ganglion blocker hexamethonium (69 nmol mouse⁻¹, i.p.) (Figure 6).

Figure 4b shows the potentiating effect of SR141716A (2–539 nmol mouse, i.p.) in mice treated with croton oil. The ED₅₀ value (418 \pm 32 nmol mouse⁻¹) was not statistically different from the corresponding ED₅₀ value in control animals (375 \pm 31 nmol mouse⁻¹). By contrast, SR144528 (52 nmol mouse⁻¹, i.p.) or hexamethonium (69 nmol mouse⁻¹, i.p.) did not modify gastrointestinal transit (per cent transit: croton oil: 58 \pm 6, croton oil + SR144528 61 \pm 5, croton oil + hexamethonium 68 \pm 4, n = 6, P > 0.2).

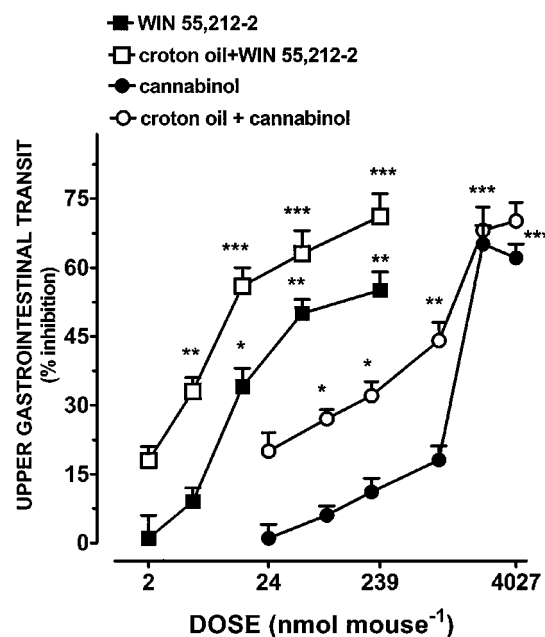


Figure 5 Dose-related inhibition of upper gastrointestinal transit by WIN 55,212-2 (i.p.) and cannabinalol (i.p.) in control mice or in mice receiving croton oil (0.01 ml mouse⁻¹, orally). Results are mean \pm s.e. mean of 10–12 animals for each experimental group. * P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01 and *** P < 0.001 vs corresponding control.

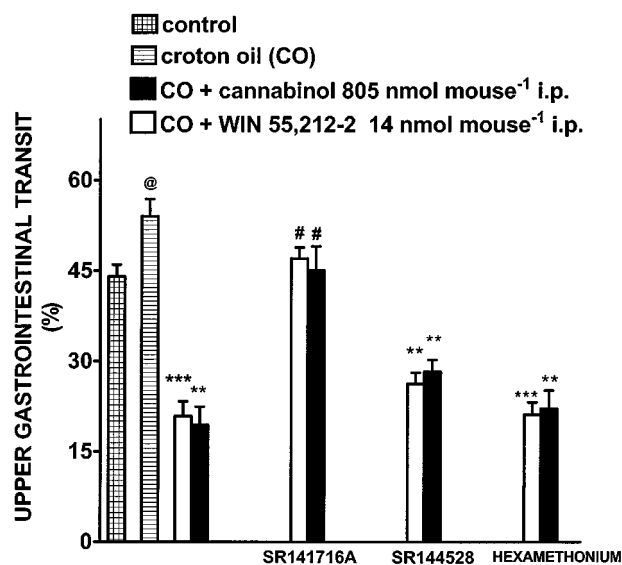


Figure 6 Upper gastrointestinal transit in mice with diarrhoea induced by croton oil (0.01 ml mouse⁻¹, orally): effect of WIN 55,212-2 (14 nmol mouse⁻¹, i.p.) and cannabinalol (805 nmol mouse⁻¹, i.p.) alone or in mice treated with SR141716A (16 nmol mouse⁻¹, i.p.) or SR144528 (52 nmol mouse⁻¹, i.p.) or hexamethonium (69 nmol mouse⁻¹, i.p.). Results are mean \pm s.e. mean of 8–11 animals for each experimental group. @ P < 0.05 vs control, ** P < 0.01 and *** P < 0.001 vs croton oil and ## P < 0.01 vs croton oil + WIN 55,212-2 (or croton oil + cannabinalol).

Discussion

The role of cannabinoid receptors in control mice

It is now well known that cannabinoid agonists can reduce intestinal motility through activation of CB₁

receptors. Indeed activation of CB₁ receptors can mediate, (i) inhibition of electrically-evoked contractions in the isolated guinea-pig (Pertwee *et al.*, 1996; Izzo *et al.*, 1998) and human ileum (Crocì *et al.*, 1998), (ii) inhibition of fast and slow synaptic transmission in guinea-pig myenteric nerves (Lopez-Redondo *et al.*, 1997), (iii) inhibition of electrically-evoked acetylcholine release from myenteric nerves (Coutts & Pertwee, 1997) and (iv) reduction of peristalsis efficiency in the isolated guinea-pig ileum (Heinemann *et al.*, 1999; Izzo *et al.*, 2000). These findings are in keeping with the presence of CB₁, but not CB₂-like receptor messenger RNA in the myenteric plexus of the guinea-pig small intestine (Griffin *et al.*, 1997). Consistent with these *in vitro* findings, it has been shown that cannabinoid agonists reduced intestinal motility in mice (Calignano *et al.*, 1997; Colombo *et al.*, 1998; Izzo *et al.*, 1999a) and rats (Izzo *et al.*, 1999c) and this effect was counteracted by SR141716A, a specific CB₁ antagonist. However, whether the effect of cannabinoid drugs *in vivo* is mediated *via* a central or a peripheral site of action was not demonstrated in these studies. Indeed the CB₁ receptor is located within both the central nervous system (Matsuda *et al.*, 1990) and within the enteric nervous system (Griffin *et al.*, 1997).

In the present study we have shown that the synthetic cannabinoid agonist WIN 55,212-2 and the natural cannabinoid agonist cannabinal produced a dose-related inhibition of upper gastrointestinal transit when administered *i.p.* or *i.c.v.* The inhibitory effect of cannabinoid agonists was abolished by SR141716A, a specific CB₁ antagonist, but not by SR144528, a CB₂ receptor antagonist, indicating an involvement of CB₁ but not CB₂ receptors.

The ED₅₀ values of WIN 55,212-2 and cannabinal after *i.c.v.* administration were significantly lower than the corresponding ED₅₀ values after *i.p.* administration. The low doses that were needed to inhibit transit after *i.c.v.* injection implies that cannabinoid agonists may inhibit intestinal motility through activation of central CB₁ receptors. However, the effect of *i.p.*-injected cannabinoid agonists was not modified by the ganglion blocker hexamethonium. These results probably indicate that the effect of *i.p.*-injected cannabinoid agonists is mediated by peripheral CB₁ cannabinoid receptors.

Although some reports indicate that the CB₁ receptor antagonist SR141716A does not affect intestinal motility in the isolated human ileum (Crocì *et al.*, 1998) and gastric emptying in the rat (Izzo *et al.*, 1999b), other studies indicate that intestinal motility could be tonically inhibited by the endogenous cannabinoid system. Indeed SR141716A increased electrically-induced contractions in the isolated guinea-pig ileum (Pertwee *et al.*, 1996; Izzo *et al.*, 1998) and intestinal motility and defaecation in the mouse (Colombo *et al.*, 1998; Izzo *et al.*, 1999a). The observation that SR141716A, *per se*, increased intestinal motility does not necessarily imply that endogenous cannabinoids are involved in the control of intestinal motility in view of the inverse agonist properties of SR141716A at human recombinant CB₁ (Landsman *et al.*, 1997) and both CB₁ and CB₂ receptors (MacLennan *et al.*, 1998).

In the present study, we have shown that SR141716A (*i.c.v.* or *i.p.*) produced a dose-dependent increase in upper gastrointestinal transit. The ED₅₀ value after *i.c.v.* administration was significantly lower than the ED₅₀ value after *i.p.* administration, suggesting a central site of action of SR141716A. The most likely explanation of these results is that the endogenous cannabinoid system, within the central nervous system, can inhibit intestinal motility through

activation of CB₁ receptors. In a recent study, we have shown that SR141716A (*i.p.*)-induced changes in intestinal motility are not modified by the ganglionic blocker hexamethonium (Izzo *et al.*, 1999a), suggesting a peripheral site of action of *i.p.*-injected SR141716A.

Effect of cannabinoid drugs during croton oil-induced diarrhoea

Croton oil is a well known irritant that has been widely used to produce experimental inflammation in different tissues, especially skin and mucosa, and induces diarrhoea associated with intestinal inflammation in the mouse small intestine (Pol *et al.*, 1996). According to Pol *et al.*, (1996), we have shown that croton oil increases upper gastrointestinal transit 3 h after oral administration. The cannabinoid agonists WIN 55,212-2 and cannabinal blocked the increase in intestinal motility induced by croton oil; in addition, the ED₅₀ values of *i.p.*-injected WIN 55,212-2 and cannabinal were significantly decreased (compared to control mice). However, during croton oil-induced diarrhoea the ED₅₀ value of WIN 55,212-2 was similar after *i.p.* or *i.c.v.* treatment and ganglionic blockade with hexamethonium did not alter the inhibitory effect of *i.p.*-injected cannabinoids.

Taken together, these results indicate that the enhanced effect of cannabinoid agonists are mediated by peripheral receptors. By contrast, using the castor oil test, we have recently shown that cannabinoid agonists possess either weak or no antidiarrhoeal activity in the rat (Izzo *et al.*, 1999c). The use of a different cathartic (castor oil *vs* croton oil), different species (rat *vs* mouse) and different region of the gut (whole gut *vs* upper gastrointestinal tract) could explain this discrepancy. Consistent with this hypothesis, Shook & Burks (1989) showed that Δ^9 -THC produced a greater inhibition of small intestinal transit than large bowel transit.

In line with the result obtained in control mice and those reported in the isolated guinea-pig ileum (Pertwee *et al.*, 1996; Izzo *et al.*, 1998), the antitransit response of cannabinoid agonists involves CB₁, but not CB₂ receptors, as the inhibitory effect of both WIN 55,212-2 and cannabinal were reduced by SR141716A, but not SR144528. Administration of SR141716A (*i.p.*), *per se*, increased intestinal motility in control mice and those given croton oil with a similar ED₅₀ value, thus indicating that during the experimental diarrhoea the endogenous cannabinoid system is activated as in control animals. By contrast, SR144524, a specific CB₂ receptor antagonist, at doses previously shown to bind the CB₂ receptor in the rat spleen (Rinaldi-Carmona *et al.*, 1998), failed to modify the inhibitory effect of both WIN 55,212-2 and cannabinal and did not modify, *per se*, intestinal motility during the diarrhoea induced by croton oil. Thus, a role for CB₂ receptors in modulating intestinal motility during experimental diarrhoea seems unlikely.

Conclusions

Our results suggest that both central and peripheral CB₁ receptors can modulate upper gastrointestinal motility. However, the effect of systemic (*i.p.*) cannabinoid drugs is probably mediated by peripheral receptors. Diarrhoea induced by the irritant croton oil enhances the inhibitory effect of cannabinoid agonists by a peripheral mechanism, while CB₂ receptors are not involved in the control of

intestinal motility, either in physiological or in pathophysiological states. Thus, selective non-psychotropic CB₁ agonists could represent novel drugs to treat motility disorders associated with inflammatory diarrhoea.

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