





Pharmacology of tachykinin receptors on neurones in the ventral tegmental area of rat brain slices

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Received 11 August 1994; revised 21 October 1994; accepted 1 November 1994

Abstract

The pharmacology of tachykinin receptors within the ventral tegmental area of rat brain slices was studied using in vitro electrophysiological techniques. The selective tachykinin NK₃ receptor agonist senktide (100 nM) increased the action potential firing rate from 1.9 to 3.9 Hz in 70% of spontaneously active cells tested (n = 27). Senktide was the most potent agonist tested with an EC₅₀ of 4 nM. In contrast the NK₁ receptor agonists substance P-O-methyl ester (100–300 nM) or GR 73632 (1 μ M) were inactive at the concentrations tested. Responses to neurokinin B (EC₅₀ = 32 nM) were not blocked by the tachykinin NK₁ receptor antagonist CP 99,994 (1 μ M) nor by the tachykinin NK₂ receptor antagonist SR 48968 (300 nM). Similarly responses to the tachykinin NK₂ receptor agonist β -[Ala⁸]neurokinin A-(4–10) (EC₅₀ = 427 nM) were not antagonised by the tachykinin NK₂ receptor antagonist SR 48968 (300 nM) and thus were likely to be due to the activation of tachykinin NK₃ receptors. These data demonstrate that NK₃, and not NK₁ or NK₂ receptors, mediate the principal excitatory effects of exogenously applied tachykinin receptor agonists on dopamine neurones within the rat ventral tegmental area.

Keywords: Dopamine; Electrophysiology; Neurokinin; Senktide; Substance P; Tachykinin; Ventral tegmental area

1. Introduction

Mammalian tachykinins act upon several types of pharmacologically defined tachykinin receptors, three of which have recently been cloned. These cloned receptors are designated NK₁, NK₂, and NK₃, and they are preferentially although not exclusively activated by the endogenous peptides substance P, neurokinin A, and neurokinin B, respectively (reviewed in Iversen et al., 1990). The localisation of these tachykinins and their target receptors in brain tissue have been extensively studied using monoclonal antibodies, radioligand binding, and more recently in-situ hybridisation techniques (Mantyh et al., 1989; Dam et al., 1990; Gerfen, 1991; Humpel and Saria, 1993). However only limited information is available about the

Substance P and neurokinin B increase the excitability of neurones in several areas of the central nervous system. These areas include the locus coeruleus (Guyenet and Aghajanian, 1977; Seabrook et al., 1993), medial habenula (Norris et al., 1993), and raphe nuclei (Pomeroy and Behbehani, 1980). Furthermore several studies have shown that tachykinins excite midbrain dopamine neurones in the substantia nigra pars compacta and ventral tegmental area (e.g. Davies and Dray, 1976; Pinnock and Dray, 1982). However the receptor subtype(s) that regulate the excitability of these neurones are not fully understood. Some studies have implicated predominantly NK₃ tachykinin receptors (Keegan et al., 1992), whereas others have suggested that NK₁ and NK₂ tachykinin receptors may also influence the excitability of midbrain dopamine neurones (Overton et al., 1992). Some of these differences may simply be a consequence of the different brain regions studied (substantia nigra versus ventral

functional significance of these receptors in brain tissue.

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tegmental area respectively), or indeed to receptor population differences between the dopamine and γ -aminobutyric acid containing neurones which are present in both the substantia nigra pars compacta (Lacey et al., 1989) and ventral tegmental area (Johnson and North, 1992).

Consistent with a heterogeneity of tachykinin receptor subtypes between neurones, Pinnock and Dray (1982) showed that presumed dopamine-containing cells of the substantia nigra pars compacta were less sensitive to electrophoretically applied substance P than the γ -aminobutyric acid- containing cells of the pars reticulata. Neurones within both of these areas are also excited by electrophoretically applied neurokinin A, a tachykinin NK₂ receptor agonist (Innis et al., 1985). Overton et al. (1992), have also reported that the majority of neurones within the pars compacta were excited by focal application of GR64349, a NK, tachykinin receptor agonist, whereas within ventral tegmental area the majority were excited by NK₁, NK₂ and NK₃ tachykinin receptor agonists. However, a major complication with these studies is that agonists were applied by either electrophoresis or pressure ejection and thus the concentration of drug at the receptor was unknown. The majority of tachykinin receptor agonists can interact with more than one receptor subtype at micromolar concentrations, and hence it is difficult to assess their relative roles. Indeed, using a submerged brain slice preparation Keegan et al. (1992), showed that the selective tachykinin NK₁ receptor agonist [Sar⁹,Met(O₂)¹¹]substance P-(1-11) was inactive on most substantia nigra neurones whereas the selective tachykinin NK3 receptor agonist senktide activated > 60% cells examined.

In contrast to the well described functional role of tachykinins in the substantia nigra the significance of NK₁ and NK₂ tachykinin receptors in the ventral tegmental area of rat brain needs to be elucidated. It is clear from both in vitro and in vivo studies that activation of NK₃ tachykinin receptors excites neurones in this nucleus and can induce locomotor, rearing, and sniffing behaviours (Stoessl et al., 1991; Overton et al., 1992). Despite this, at least one study has implicated NK₁ and not NK₂ or NK₃ tachykinin receptors as the principal tachykinin receptor subtype that mediates the excitatory influence on mesolimbic dopamine neurotransmission (Elliot et al., 1992), and it was suggested that antagonism of NK₁ tachykinin receptors on neurones within the ventral tegmental area may be useful in the treatment of psychosis. Consequently the present study was carried out in order to clarify the relative significance of tachykinin receptor subtypes on neurones in the rat ventral tegmental area using a submerged rat brain slice preparation to which selective agonists and antagonists were applied in known concentrations.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Experimental preparations and recording techniques

Extracellular microelectrode recordings were made from 32 presumed dopamine-containing neurones in the ventral tegmental area of rat brain slices (300-350 μm thick). The techniques for preparation of recording from, and application of substances to these neurones have previously been described (Pinnock, 1983; Lacey et al., 1988). In brief, coronal slices of rat ventral tegmental area (plate 25, Paxinos and Watson, 1944) were submerged in a tissue chamber (volume 0.4 ml) by a continuously superfused (at 1-2 ml min⁻¹) artificial cerebrospinal fluid kept at 36°C and gassed with 95% O₂ and 5% CO₂. Extracellular electrophysiological recordings were made with glass microelectrodes filled with 3 M NaCl (5–10 M Ω). Care was taken to ensure that recordings were made from within the ventral tegmental area, identified as medial to the terminal nucleus of the accessory optic tract and ventral to the medial lemniscus.

2.2. Analytical techniques

Drug effects were expressed as either the peak increase in cell firing (in Hertz) in response to a 1 min application of the agonist, or as the percent increase normalised to either the control firing rate or to a control application of senktide (100 nM) in each cell as indicated. Concentration-effect data were fitted to a logistic equation (e.g. Bowery et al., 1994) by least squares analysis of variance (Grafit; Erithacus Software). The agonist-induced increase in cell firing was determined using sequential application of increasing concentration of each agonist, allowing 30-40 min recovery to minimise tachyphylaxis. Data are expressed as the geometric mean \pm S.E.M. All agonists were not tested on every cell, consequently the sample size for each ligand was less than the total number of cells studied (n = 32).

2.3. Drugs and solutions

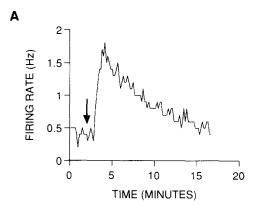
The artificial cerebrospinal fluid contained (in mM): NaCl 126, KCl 2.5, NaH₂PO₄ 1.2, MgCl₂ 1.3, CaCl₂ 2.4, NaHCO₃ 26 and glucose 10. Drugs were applied in the superfusion medium in known concentrations, reaching the recording chamber after a delay of 20–30 s. The following drugs were used: quinpirole hydrochloride (Research Biochemicals); senktide, [β -Ala⁸]neurokinin A-(4–10), and neurokinin B (Cambridge Research Biochemicals). GR 73642 (δ -Ava[L-Pro⁹, N-MeLeu¹⁰]substance P-(7–11)), CP 99,994, (+)-(2S,3S)-3-(2-methoxybenzylamino)-2-phenylpiperidine (McLean et al., 1993), and SR 48968 (S)-N-methyl-N-

[4-(4-acetylamino-4-phenylpiperidino)-2-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)butyl]benzamide) (Emonds-Alt et al., 1992) were synthesised at Merck Research Laboratories. CP 99,994 was used as the preferred tachykinin NK_1 receptor antagonist despite its relatively low affinity for rat NK_1 tachykinin receptors ($IC_{50} = ca.\ 300\ nM$) compared to other species including guinea-pig and humans, because of its low affinity for calcium and sodium channels. Tachykinin receptor agonists were dissolved in distilled water (aliquoted stock solutions of 10 mM stored at $-70^{\circ}C$), and antagonists were dissolved in dimethylsulphoxide (final bath concentration < 0.1% DMSO).

3. Results

Extracellular recordings were made from spontaneously active cells in the ventral tegmental area of rat brain slices. The slow time course of action potentials (2-5 ms) and firing rate of these cells (1-5 Hz) were consistent with those of principal, presumed dopamine-containing cells described previously (Johnson and North, 1992). Previous studies from our laboratory have shown that the spontaneous activity in most cells of this type are inhibited by application of the D_2 dopamine receptor agonist quinpirole (73/79 cells at 100 nM; Bowery et al., 1994).

Senktide, neurokinin B and $[\beta-Ala^8]$ neurokinin A-(4–10) increased the firing rate in the majority of cells studied in a concentration-dependent manner. The half-maximally effective concentration of senktide, determined separately for each cell, was 4 nM (Fig. 1). The maximally effective concentration of senktide (100 nM) increased the basal firing rate from 1.9 ± 0.2 Hz to a peak of 3.9 ± 0.3 Hz (n = 19; averaged over a 10 s time interval). Responses to senktide were observed in 70% of cells examined (19/27 cells). In contrast no increase in firing rate of presumed dopamine neurones was detected in 17 cells tested with either substance P-O-methyl ester (0.1-1 μ M) or GR 73632 (1 μ M). Furthermore, 38% of cells did not respond to the application of either NK₁ or the NK₃ receptor agonist (5/13 cells), although the firing of these cells was inhibited by application of the D₂ dopamine receptor agonist quinpirole (100 nM, n = 5). In contrast to the responses of these presumed dopamine neurones, excitatory responses to substance P-O-methyl ester (100 nM) and not senktide (100 nM) were observed in putative non-dopaminergic cells, that were characterised by their high firing rates (> 3 Hz), fast time course of spontaneous action potentials (typically < 2 ms), and insensitivity to quinpirole (100 nM). These cells were found infrequently (<5%) and thus the pharmacology of their tachykinin receptors was not studied in detail.



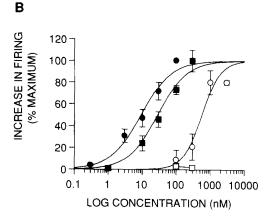


Fig. 1. Concentration-dependent increase in firing rate of spontaneously active cells within the ventral tegmental area of rat brain slices caused by senktide, neurokinin B, and $[\beta\text{-Ala}^8]$ neurokinin A-(4-10). (A) Increase in action potential firing rate caused by neurokinin B (300 nM at arrow for 1 min) in an individual cell. Each point represents the rate averaged over a ten second period. (B) Pooled concentration-effect data from several cells expressed as the maximal increase in firing rate relative to 100 nM senktide. The half-maximally effective concentration of senktide (filled circles) was 4 nM, neurokinin B (filled squares) was 32 nM, and $[\beta\text{-Ala}^8]$ neurokinin A-(4-10) (open circles) was 427 nM. Substance P-O-methyl ester was inactive on all presumed dopamine neurons that were tested (open squares). Data represent the means \pm S.E.M from three to ten cells.

Like senktide, neurokinin B and $[\beta$ -Ala⁸]neurokinin A-(4-10) increased the firing rate of most cells studied. However, the half-maximally effective concentrations of these agonists were 8- and 107-fold higher respectively than that of senktide (Table 1). In addition to activating NK₃ tachykinin receptors, neurokinin B can also bind to NK₁ and NK₂ tachykinin receptors (Table 2). Consequently to determine whether the excitation caused by neurokinin B was mediated by activation of NK₁ or NK₂ tachykinin receptors the ability of selective non-peptide antagonists to block these effects was studied. However, neither the tachykinin NK1 antagonist CP 99,994 (1 μ M for 30 min) or the NK₂ antagonist SR 48968 (300 nM for 30 min) blocked the effects of a submaximally effective concentration of neurokinin B (100 nM; Fig. 2; n = 4). Like neurokinin B,

Table 1
Potency of tachykinin agonists and antagonist affinity for receptors on presumed dopamine neurones in rat brain slices through the ventral tegmental area

Agonists	pEC ₅₀	EC ₅₀ (nM)	n
Senktide	8.38 ± 0.14	4	6
Neurokinin B	7.49 ± 0.11	32	4
$[\beta-Ala^8]NKA-(4-10)$	6.37 ± 0.18	427	3
Substance P-O-methyl ester	< 6.5	> 300	10
GR 73632	< 6	> 1000	5
Antagonists	pK_A	K _A (nM)	n
CP 99,994	< 6	> 1000	4
SR 48968	< 6.5	> 300	4

Antagonist affinities were estimated using neurokinin B as the agonist.

the putative NK₂ selective receptor agonist [β -Ala⁸]neurokinin A-(4-10) can also activate NK₃ tachykinin receptors at high concentrations (Table 2). To determine whether the effects of [β -Ala⁸]neurokinin A-(4-10) were mediated by NK₂ tachykinin receptors the ability of SR 48968 to antagonise the responses to this agonist was examined. However, in three cells the excitation caused by [β -Ala⁸]neurokinin A-(4-10) (3 μ M) was not blocked by 30 min pretreatment with 300 nM SR 48968 (86 \pm 7% of control).

Table 2 Selectivity of tachykinin receptor ligands (estimated from the published literature – see below) used in the present study for NK_1 , NK_2 and NK_3 receptor subtypes

Ligand	Affinity or EC ₅₀ (nM)		
	NK ₁	NK ₂	NK ₃
NK, preferring			
Substance P	2	2200	18000
Substance P-O-methyl ester	13	10000	> 10000
GR 73632	4	960	> 1000
CP 99,994	0.2	> 10000	> 10000
NK, preferring			
Neurokinin A	16	3	1300
$[\beta-Ala^8]NKA-(4-10)$	260	120	980
SR48968	> 5000	0.5	> 5000
NK 3 preferring			
Neurokinin B	70	25	4
Senktide	> 10000	> 10000	18

Values are compiled simply to compare the approximate subtype selectivity for each ligand. Data are binding affinities for rat tachykinin receptors where available (Cascieri et al., 1992; Emonds-Alt et al., 1992; Gether et al., 1993; Humpel and Saria, 1993), however data for $[\beta$ -Ala⁸]NKA-(4–10) (Rovero et al., 1989) and GR 73632 (Hagan et al., 1991) are from functional assays, and the affinity of CP 99,994 is for human tachykinin receptors (McLean et al., 1993; see text). The affinity of CP 99,994 for rat tachykinin NK₁ receptors is several-fold lower than that for human tachykinin NK₁ receptors but was used as the preferred antagonist in the present study because it lacks non-specific effects on ion channels (see text).

4. Discussion

Activation of tachykinin receptors on midbrain dopamine neurones will influence the release of dopamine in brain regions innervated by these cells. Mesolimbic dopamine neurones of the ventral tegmental area provide a major projection pathway to the nucleus accumbens and prefrontal cortex. In particular it has been hypothesised that hyperactivity of this pathway in man may underlie some forms of psychosis (reviewed in Goldstein and Deutch, 1992; Reynolds, 1992). Although the role of tachykinin receptors in psychiatric illness is unknown it has been suggested that antagonists of NK₁ tachykinin receptors may be useful therapeutic agents (Elliot et al., 1992). In view of the potential clinical significance of this proposal and because different studies report conflicting results concerning the relative importance of different tachykinin receptor subtypes in the ventral tegmental area, this study was carried out to determine the pharmacology of the tachykinin receptors that mediate the excitations caused by the exogenous application of tachykinins in this region of rat brain. These data demonstrate that the pharmacology of tachykinin receptors on rat ventral tegmental area neurones is consistent with the activation of NK₃ and not NK₁ or NK₂ tachykinin receptor subtypes.

4.1. Comparison with other studies

Neurokinin B is the endogenous ligand for NK₃ tachykinin receptors, but like other agonists can also

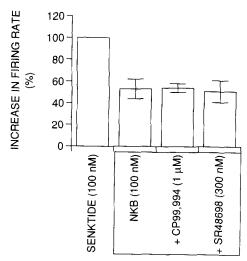


Fig. 2. Effect of tachykinin NK₁ (CP 99,994) and NK₂ (SR 48968) antagonists on the increase in excitability caused by the exogenous application of a submaximally effective concentration of neurokinin B (100 nM). The increase in firing caused by neurokinin B was unaffected by pre-incubation with either CP 99,994 (1 μ M) or SR 48968 (300 nM). Data are normalised to the maximal increase in firing rate caused by 100 nM senktide in each cell and represent the means \pm S.E.M. of four cells.

activate more than one tachykinin receptor subtype (Table 2). In contrast the synthetic peptide, senktide, is one of the most selective ligands for NK3 tachykinin receptors that has been described. [3H]Senktide binds to several brain regions especially within frontal cortex, the medial but not dorsal raphe nuclei, hippocampus, substantia nigra and ventral tegmental area (Dam et al., 1990; Stoessl and Hill, 1990). Fibres immunoreactive to neurokinin B, the endogenous NK₃ tachykinin receptor ligand, are also widespread in the brain and are found in both the ventral tegmental area and substantia nigra (Marksteiner et al., 1992). In the present study both neurokinin B and senktide were potent and efficacious agonists in ventral tegmental area. However, in contrast to the comparable binding affinities of these ligands for clonal rat NK, tachykinin receptors the functional potency of senktide was 10-fold greater than that of neurokinin B (Table 2). The potency of an agonist is dependent not only upon its affinity for receptors but also upon its intrinsic activity and the receptor reserve (Kenakin, 1993), although it was not possible to determine whether differences in intrinsic activity could account for the greater potency of senktide in this study.

As in the ventral tegmental area, previous studies have also shown that senktide excites most substantia nigra neurones (Keegan et al., 1992; however c.f. Overton et al., 1992). In agreement with previous in vitro studies, senktide elicits behavioural effects concordant with the stimulation of midbrain dopamine neurones when applied directly to either the ventral tegmental area or substantia nigra (Stoessl et al., 1991). In the present study, exogenously applied neurokinin B also potently excited ventral tegmental area neurones, and consistent with the effects of neurokinin B being mediated by direct activation of NK3 receptors, responses to this agonist were not blocked by selective nonpeptide antagonists for NK₁ (CP 99,994) or NK₂ (SR 48968) receptors. Several non-peptide tachykinin NK, receptor antagonists, including CP 96,345 (Beresford et al., 1991) and CP 99,994 (McLean et al., 1992), have higher affinity for human and guinea-pig NK₁ receptors than those of the rat. Consequently in the present study the concentration of CP 99,994 used was chosen to be appropriate for its functional affinity for rat NK₁ receptors (ca. 300 nM; unpublished observations), and the effects of selective tachykinin NK₁ receptor agonists were also examined. Substance P, like neurokinin B, can also act upon more than one tachykinin receptor subtype (Table 2). In contrast the synthetic peptides substance P-O-methyl ester and GR 73632 have much greater selectivity for NK₁ over NK₂ receptors and were thus used as the preferred agonists to test for the presence of NK₁ tachykinin receptors in the ventral tegmental area. However, no effects of either agonist were observed on presumed dopamine neurones in this study. Consequently few if any NK, receptors were present on these cells. Several in vivo studies have also reported that only a minority of neurones in substantia nigra pars compacta respond to those tachykinin receptor agonists that act on NK, receptors (Pinnock and Dray, 1982; Keegan et al., 1992; Overton et al., 1992). Consistent with the absence of NK₁ receptors on dopamine neurones within the substantia nigra some behavioural studies have shown that tachykinin NK₁ receptor agonists do not stimulate locomotor activity when injected in this brain region (Stoessl et al., 1991; however see also Elliot et al., 1991). The grooming behaviour observed following central administration of NK, receptor agonists (Stoessl et al., 1991) may simply be a consequence of the inevitable diffusion of drugs away from the injection site (e.g. Humpel et al., 1991), as this behaviour is observed when tachykinin NK₁ receptor agonists are applied directly to the substantia nigra pars reticulata (Kelly and Iversen, 1978). Alternatively these behaviours may be a consequence of effects upon non-dopamine-containing neurones within the substantia nigra (e.g. Lacey et al., 1989), or upon afferent projections to this brain region.

Although no effects of selective tachykinin NK₁ receptor agonists were observed on presumed dopamine neurones of the ventral tegmental area in this in vitro and in other in vivo studies (Stoessl et al., 1991), at least one group has reported effects of tachykinin NK₁ receptor ligands in this tissue (Overton et al., 1992; Elliot et al., 1992). These conflicting results may partly relate to selectivity of some of the ligands tested, the experimental methodology, or alternatively to differences between the strains of animals used, however no gross differences in the distribution of tachykinin receptors between rat strains have been reported.

A third tachykinin receptor subtype, NK₂, is also found in both central nervous system and peripheral tissues. NK₂ tachykinin receptors are preferentially activated by the endogenous tachykinin neurokinin A, and are localised extensively within peripheral tissues but have only a restricted distribution within the brain (see Humpel and Saria, 1993). There are many conflicting studies concerning the effects of NK, receptor agonists in the central nervous system, some of which may simply relate to the non-selective effects of ligands on other tachykinin receptor subtypes. Indeed Kalivas et al. (1985), have shown that neurokinin A is ten-fold more potent than substance P at inducing locomotor activity in rat ventral tegmental area, however these effects may simply be due to the direct activation of NK₃ tachykinin receptors to which neurokinin A binds with higher affinity than does substance P (e.g. Gether et al., 1993; Table 2). Other more selective tachykinin NK₂ receptor agonists include GR 64349 (Hagan et al., 1991) and β -[Ala⁸]neurokinin A-(4–10) (Rovero et

al., 1989). In the substantia nigra micromolar concentrations of β -[Ala⁸] neurokinin A-(4-10) were found to be inactive (Keegan et al., 1992) whereas GR 64349 has been reported to increase the excitability of both substantia nigra and ventral tegmental area neurones (Overton et al., 1992). In the present study β -[Ala⁸] neurokinin A-(4-10) was also found to excite neurones in the ventral tegmental area. However, because this ligand also has affinity for NK₁ and NK₃ tachykinin receptors it was important to determine whether these effects were specific to NK₂ receptors. SR 48968, a selective non-peptide antagonist of NK₂ tachykinin receptors (Emonds-Alt et al., 1992), did not block responses to β -[Ala⁸] neurokinin A-(4–10) in this tissue and consequently these data were consistent with the direct activation of NK₃ tachykinin receptors. Confirmation of this hypothesis requires a selective antagonist for rat NK3 tachykinin receptors and these ligands have yet to be described.

4.2. Functional implications

The source of neurokinin B fibres in the ventral tegmental area is not clear (reviewed in Kalivas, 1993; Angulo and McEwen, 1994), but may involve the afferent 5-hydroxytryptamine-containing fibres of the medial habenula and raphe (e.g. Marksteiner et al., 1992). 5-Hydroxytryptamine-containing fibres in the medial habenula also have NK₃ tachykinin receptors on their cell bodies and activation of these receptors stimulates locomotor responses that can be blocked by dopamine receptor antagonists, presumably by an effect in the striatum.

The localisation of both neurokinins and tachykinin receptor subtypes within the striatum is also heterogeneous. Neurokinin B immunoreactive fibre's are colocalised within GABA-containing neurones that project to the pallidum but not the substantia nigra pars reticulata, whereas substance P- containing neurones project principally to the substantia nigra pars reticulata (Burgunder and Young, 1989). Activation of tachykinin receptors in the striatum modulates the release of neurotransmitters including acetylcholine and dopamine (Tremblay et al., 1992). Interestingly in that study the release of dopamine by [Pro⁷]neurokinin B (NK₃) was partly insensitive to tetrodotoxin suggesting a presynaptic localisation of NK3 tachykinin receptors. This is further supported by the finding that stimulation of acetylcholine release by neurokinin B in rat striatum is reduced by both tetrodotoxin and by lesions of the nigrostriatal pathway (Arenas et al., 1991), and is consistent with the presence of NK₃ tachykinin receptors on dopamine cell bodies of the striatonigral (Keegan et al., 1992) and mesolimbic pathways (this study). However, it has recently been reported that 6-hydroxydopamine lesions of the medial forebrain bundle in rat brain significantly decreases senktide binding in the substantia nigra but not in the ventral tegmental area (Stoessl, 1994). These results indicate that a substantial proportion of the NK₃ binding sites in the ventral tegmental area is not located on dopamine cell bodies. Consequently, activation of only a minority of the total NK₃ receptors by senktide may be necessary for the increase in neuronal excitability, or alternatively this increase may be mediated by a population of presynaptic NK₃ receptors that modulate the release of excitatory neurotransmitters within the ventral tegmental area.

In conclusion, this study indicates that the principal tachykinin receptor subtype regulating dopamine cell excitability within the rat ventral tegmental area is of the NK₃ and not the NK₁ or NK₂ subtype. Although these data suggest that NK₃ tachykinin receptors mediate the principal excitatory influence of tachykinins on mesolimbic dopamine neurones, the role of receptors on afferent projections to the ventral tegmental area and the relative tone of neuropeptide-containing fibres may also have a significant influence over their function.

Acknowledgements

The authors are grateful to Jeffrey J. Hale and Eileen Seward for the synthesis of SR 48968 and CP 99,994.

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