

reduction of the contractions induced in the stomach preparation. This supports the results of one further separate experiment on longitudinal stomach strips where imolamine (10  $\mu\text{g/ml}$ ) did not alter the acetylcholine dose-response curve but butalamine (10  $\mu\text{g/ml}$ ) caused a shift to the right and a flattening of the curve.

From these preliminary experiments, it would appear that butalamine is a more effective smooth muscle relaxant compound than imolamine. It has a similar potency to aminophylline on isolated human smooth muscle. Imolamine has a variable action on tone, producing an increase in ileum and uterus and a decrease in stomach.

We thank our surgical colleagues for providing us with the operation specimens used in this study. The work has been supported by a grant from the Board of Governors of St. Bartholomew's Hospital. Butalamine and imolamine were supplied by Rona Laboratories Ltd.

*Clinical Pharmacology Division,  
Medical Professorial Unit,  
St. Bartholomew's Hospital,  
London, E.C.1.*

I. M. COUPAR  
ANNMARIE HEDGES  
HELEN L. METCALFE  
P. TURNER

April 14, 1969

#### REFERENCES

- STERNE, J. & HIRSCH, C. (1964). *IVth European Congress of Cardiology, Prague*.  
STERNE, J. & HIRSCH, C. (1965). *Thérapie*, **20**, 89-94; 95-100.

## Protection against *m*-fluorotyrosine convulsions and lethality in mice exposed to hypobaric hypoxia

Acute exposure to hypoxia shifts brain metabolism to anaerobic pathways (Gurdjian, Webster & Stone, 1949) and elevates  $\gamma$ -aminobutyric acid (Wood, Watson & Ducker, 1968). Drugs which cause convulsions and impair aerobic metabolism or deplete brain  $\gamma$ -aminobutyric acid should therefore induce fewer convulsions during hypoxia.

Semicarbazide is thought to act in this way (Killam & Bain, 1957) and the convulsions it induced were antagonized by hypobaric hypoxia (Baumel, Shatz & others, 1969). *m*-Fluorotyrosine impairs oxidative metabolism in brain (Weissman & Koe, 1967), and we now show acute hypoxia to antagonize the convulsions and mortality it produces.

Swiss albino, random-bred male mice (Charles River Farms), 22-26 g were housed at 21-23° with room lights alternating on a 12-h light-dark cycle. The hypobaric chambers (Baumel, Robinson & Blatt, 1967) were plexiglass desiccators (internal diameter 10 in, height 14 in) connected, in parallel, to a vacuum pump through a manifold which exhausted room air.

Drug solutions were freshly prepared immediately before intraperitoneal injection. The animals were injected and immediately placed, in pairs, in the four altitude-chambers which were then decompressed over a 10-min period to 364 mm Hg (10% O<sub>2</sub>). Controls were placed in identical chambers open to room air (760 mm Hg, 21% O<sub>2</sub>).

Hypobaric hypoxia protected against *m*-fluorotyrosine convulsions at 3 and 4 h after administration of the drug. Lethality was decreased throughout the exposure period (Fig. 1).

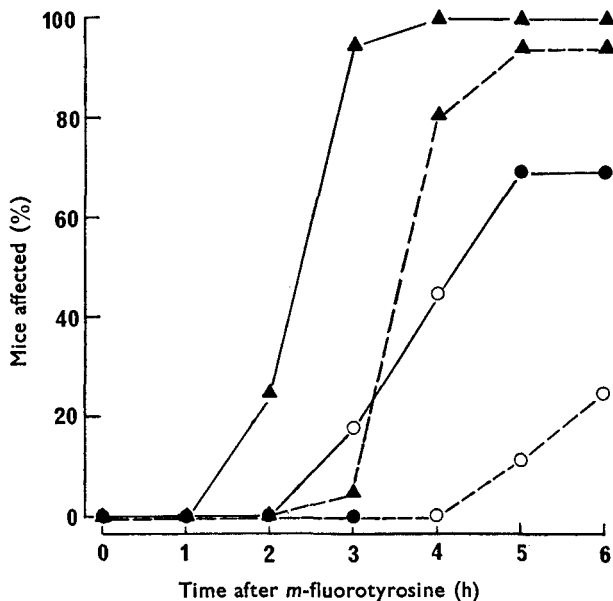


FIG. 1. Effect of hypobaric hypoxia on *m*-fluorotyrosine (10 mg/kg intraperitoneally) convulsions (—) and lethality (---). ▲ Sea level. ● Hypobaric. Clear circles denote significant difference ( $P < 0.005$ ) from sea level.

The similarity of the acute effects of *m*-fluorotyrosine to those of fluoroacetate in several species (Chenoweth, 1949; Pattison, 1959) and accumulation of citric acid in brain and kidney of mice (Weissman & Koe, 1967) suggests that metabolism to fluoroacetate and blockade of the Krebs cycle by this metabolic poison is the mechanism of convulsions produced by *m*-fluorotyrosine. Hypoxia may antagonize *m*-fluorotyrosine convulsions by one or more of three probable mechanisms: hypoxia may decrease the rate of conversion of *m*-fluorotyrosine to fluoroacetate; increased dependence of neurons on anaerobic metabolism during hypoxia may reduce the consequences of impairing aerobic metabolism by fluoroacetate, or a rise in brain  $\gamma$ -aminobutyric acid during hypoxia (Wood, Watson & Ducker, 1968) may increase the threshold of vulnerable neurons to seizure activity.

This investigation was supported by PHA Training Grant No. 1T01ES 00104 from the Division of Environmental Health Sciences.

*Institute of Environmental Biology,  
Department of Pharmacology & Toxicology,  
University of Rhode Island,  
Kingston, Rhode Island 02881, U.S.A.*

IRWIN BAUMEL  
ROBERT SCHATZ  
JOHN J. DEFEO  
HARBANS LAL

February 28, 1969

#### REFERENCES

- BAUMEL, I., SCHATZ, R., DEFEO, J. J. & LAL, H. (1969). *J. Pharm. Pharmac.*, **21**, 119-120.  
 BAUMEL, I., ROBINSON, S. M. & BLATT, W. F. (1967). *J. pharm. Sci.*, **56**, 918-919.  
 CHENOWETH, M. B. (1949). *Pharmac. Rev.*, **1**, 383-424.  
 GURDJIAN, E. S., WEBSTER, J. E. & STONE, W. E. (1949). *Am. J. Physiol.*, **156**, 149-157.  
 KILLAM, K. F. & BAIN, J. A. (1957). *J. Pharmac. exp. Ther.*, **119**, 255-262.  
 PATTISON, F. L. M. (1959). *Toxic Aliphatic Fluorine Compounds*. Amsterdam: Elsevier.  
 WEISSMAN, A. & KOE, K. B. (1967). *J. Pharmac. exp. Ther.*, **155**, 135-144.  
 WOOD, J. D., WATSON, W. J. & DUCKER, A. J. (1968). *J. Neurochem.*, **15**, 603-608.