

Marie-Louise G. Wadenberg · Shitij Kapur
Alexandra Soliman · Corey Jones · Franco Vaccarino

Dopamine D₂ receptor occupancy predicts catalepsy and the suppression of conditioned avoidance response behavior in rats

Received: 29 November 1999 / Accepted: 30 March 2000 / Published online: 30 May 2000
© Springer-Verlag 2000

Abstract Rationale: Human positron emission tomography (PET) shows that striatal dopamine D₂ receptor occupancy predicts extrapyramidal side effects (EPS). Patients showed a clinical response with $\geq 65\%$ D₂ occupancy, but EPS only when D₂ occupancy $> 78\%$. Catalepsy and the selective suppression of conditioned avoidance response (CAR) are often used as animal models to predict EPS and antipsychotic effect, respectively. However, the quantitative relationship between striatal D₂ occupancy and effects in these models is not known. **Objectives:** The present study intended to investigate the relationship between animal catalepsy, suppression of CAR, and D₂ receptor blockade using a method of evaluating D₂ receptor occupancy similar in principle to that used in patients. **Methods:** In vivo binding of [¹¹C]-raclopride and [³H]-raclopride was compared. Doses of cold raclopride were chosen to provide a D₂ occupancy from 0 to 95%. The relationship between dose/time course of catalepsy and D₂ occupancy was assessed. Effects of raclopride on conditioned avoidance response (CAR) behavior were tested. **Results:** In vivo binding of [¹¹C]-raclopride compared to [³H]-raclopride was virtually the same. Using [³H]-raclopride, cold raclopride (0.01–0.2 mg/kg) produced 16–77% D₂ receptor occupancy and no catalepsy. Raclopride (0.5–2 mg/kg) produced 83–95% D₂ occupancy and significant catalepsy. Raclopride (2 mg/kg) produced on average 95% and 87% D₂ receptor occupancy 1 and 2 h after administration, respectively, and maximum catalepsy. D₂ occupancy at 4, 8

and 24 h was on average 58%, 46%, and 4%, respectively. No catalepsy was observed. Raclopride (0.2 mg/kg), estimated at 70–75% D₂ occupancy, produced suppression of CAR. **Conclusions:** In vivo D₂ occupancy measurements in rats using [³H]-raclopride is analogous to using [¹¹C]-raclopride in human PET scanning. Suppression of CAR occurred at a D₂ occupancy of around 70–75%, and catalepsy at D₂ occupancy $> 80\%$. Results closely resembled human studies where 65–70% D₂ occupancy was required for antipsychotic response, while $\geq 80\%$ D₂ occupancy led to EPS. Brain mechanisms involved in mediation of catalepsy in rats and EPS in humans might indeed be similar. Both suppression of CAR in rats and antipsychotic response in humans might share an underlying construct, i.e. the need for around 70% D₂ receptor blockade.

Key words [¹¹C]-Raclopride · [³H]-Raclopride · In vivo · D₂ receptor occupancy · Catalepsy · Conditioned avoidance response · Rat

Introduction

Despite the introduction of new antipsychotic compounds which bind to multiple brain receptors, the blockade of dopamine (DA) D₂ receptors remains an important property by which antipsychotic medications are thought to exert their therapeutic effect (Seeman 1992; Seeman et al. 1997; Kapur et al. 1999, 2000). At the same time, as DA D₂ receptors are increasingly blocked, disturbing and incapacitating extrapyramidal side effects (EPS) emerge (see, e.g. Baldessarini 1990; Farde et al. 1992).

In recent years, several positron emission tomography (PET) studies in patients have shown that striatal D₂ receptor occupancy in humans is a reliable predictor for EPS with both typical as well as atypical antipsychotic treatment (Farde et al. 1992; Kapur et al. 1995, 2000). Thus for example, Farde et al. (1992) found that following treatment with traditional antipsychotics, the average D₂ receptor occupancy of patients with EPS was 82%,

M.-L. G. Wadenberg (✉)
Section of Biopsychology, CAMH, 250 College Street,
University of Toronto, Toronto, Canada
e-mail: marylouise_wadenberg@camh.net
Fax: +1-416-979-6942

S. Kapur · A. Soliman · C. Jones
Schizophrenia Division PET Centre, CAMH,
University of Toronto, Toronto, Canada

F. Vaccarino
Department of Psychology, University of Toronto, Toronto,
Canada

S. Kapur
Department of Psychiatry, University of Toronto, Toronto, Canada

while the average D_2 receptor occupancy of patients without EPS was 74%. It should also be noted that the patients with lower D_2 receptor occupancy who had no EPS were all responding well to treatment. Similarly, in a double-blind, randomized prospective study, Kapur et al. (2000) found that when patients are randomized from 37 to 86% D_2 receptor occupancy, clinical response is evident with 65–70% D_2 receptor occupancy, but only patients with a D_2 receptor occupancy >78% show EPS. The human data suggest that there is a threshold for EPS around 78–80%, and exceeding that threshold by even a few percent has a significant effect on EPS. Thus, it seems that the window between doses that produce sufficient D_2 receptor occupancy to obtain a reliable antipsychotic effect ($\geq 65\%$) and doses that produce D_2 receptor occupancy at which EPS begin to emerge ($\sim 80\%$) is fairly narrow (Farde et al. 1992; Nordström et al. 1993; Kapur et al. 1996, 2000). This might at least partly explain why it is often difficult to find an optimal therapeutic dose without EPS.

It is not clear, however, whether such a threshold of D_2 receptor occupancy also exists in analogous test models in rats. The catalepsy test for rats is a common and widely used preclinical screening test for the EPS liability of potentially antipsychotic drugs. Although catalepsy is usually assessed following acute drug administration, the test has proven to be a reliable predictor for the propensity of an antipsychotic drug to induce EPS (i.e. pseudoparkinsonism; dystonia) in humans (see, e.g. Elliott et al. 1990; Wadenberg 1996).

While it has been suggested that catalepsy is related to the propensity of a drug to induce striatal DA receptor blockade (Sanberg 1980; Elliott et al. 1990), this has never been systematically and quantitatively investigated. Since the catalepsy test is so often relied upon as a predictor of human EPS, this is an important issue to clarify as it would help to define further the validity of this test.

Receptor occupancy in animals is usually determined by means of an *ex vivo* autoradiography technique (see, e.g. Schotte et al. 1996; Mijster et al. 1998). During this procedure, a significant amount of the drug under investigation dissociates from the receptors (unpublished data in our laboratory). Since it has been shown that drugs differ in the rate at which they dissociate from receptors (Seeman and Tallerico 1998, 1999), that could lead to a systematic bias in determining D_2 receptor occupancy. A microPET apparatus for small animals has recently been presented (Cherry et al. 1998). However, this technique is still in its infancy, and it will probably be some time before such a technique becomes common practice in laboratories.

In an effort to bring the preclinical animal test situation closer to the clinical test situation, the present study was designed to measure D_2 receptor occupancy and catalepsy in the same animal. Moreover, to bring the experimental design closer to the PET scan situation in humans, striatal D_2 receptor occupancy was determined through the *in vivo* (as opposed to *ex vivo*) binding of

[^{11}C]-raclopride and [^3H]-raclopride. To address the relationship between catalepsy and brain striatal D_2 receptor occupancy in the rat, a wide range of doses of cold raclopride (a selective dopamine D_2 receptor antagonist; Köhler et al. 1985) was used to provide a D_2 receptor occupancy ranging from 0 to 95%. Furthermore, we also assessed the relationship between the time course of catalepsy and D_2 receptor occupancy. For comparison, catalepsy measurements were performed using both the inclined grid (Ahlenius and Hillegaart 1986) and the bar (Kuschinsky and Hornykiewicz 1972) tests.

Finally, to get a preliminary idea of how the D_2 receptor occupancy necessary to produce an antipsychotic-like effect in the conditioned avoidance response (CAR) test (an animal screening test for potentially antipsychotic compounds; see, e.g. Wadenberg and Hicks 1999) compares to the D_2 receptor occupancy necessary to produce catalepsy, the effect of different doses of raclopride on CAR behavior was also tested.

Materials and methods

Animals

Adult male Sprague-Dawley rats, 200–225 g, were purchased (Charles River, Montréal, Canada). The animals were housed, two per cage, in (19×101/2×8 in) transparent polycarbonate cages (Lab Products Inc., Seaford, Delaware, USA) under reversed light/dark conditions using a 12-h on/off schedule (lights off 08:00 a.m.). Room temperature was maintained at 21±1°C with a relative humidity of 55–60%. Food and water were available *ad libitum*. The animals were allowed 1 week of adaptation to laboratory conditions before being used in experiments.

Principles of animal care (The Animals for Research Act 1968–1969 of the Province of Ontario, RSO, 1990, c A22; 1994 c. 27; and NIH Publication No 85-23, revised 1985) were followed.

Drugs

Raclopride tartrate (Astra, Södertälje, Sweden), was dissolved in physiological saline, and given subcutaneously in a volume of 2 ml/kg body weight. [^3H]-raclopride (NEN Life Sciences, Boston, Mass., USA), and [^{11}C]-raclopride (synthesized at the PET Centre, CAMH, Clarke Division, Toronto, Canada) were used as radioligands and administered intravenously into the tail.

General procedures

Injections and measurements

The rats were randomized to ten different doses of raclopride (0.01–2.0 mg/kg), and a vehicle treated group. All rats were given the cold raclopride subcutaneously 60 min before death, and had the [^3H]-raclopride (7.5 $\mu\text{Ci}/\text{rat}$; in a volume of 0.4 ml 0.9% NaCl solution) injected through a lateral tail vein 30 min before death. The rats were tested for catalepsy 50 min after subcutaneous injection (i.e. 10 min before death) (see Table 1). Animals were killed

Table 1 General time schedule for the experiments

	–60	–30	–10	0 (min)
Raclopride (SC)		[^3H] or [^{11}C]-raclopride (IV)	Catalepsy	Decapitation

by decapitation, and the brains were immediately removed and placed on ice.

In the time-effect experiment, all animals assigned to later time intervals were also observed 1 h after administration. This was done to mimic the repeated testing situation in time-effect studies.

Standardisation of procedure for measurement of occupancy using [^{11}C]-raclopride and [^3H]-raclopride

One of the main objectives of this study was to use a method of occupancy determination in rats that was analogous to the one used in human studies (Farde et al. 1988a; Kapur et al. 1999). Human studies involve the intravenous injection of [^{11}C]-raclopride followed by PET scanning, which provides the data on [^{11}C]-raclopride counts in different brain regions. The ratio of counts in the (striatum minus cerebellum)/cerebellum during the period of pseudo-equilibrium is used as an estimate of the B_{max}/K_d of [^{11}C]-raclopride for dopamine D_2 receptors (Farde et al. 1988a; Kapur et al. 1999). This is justified on the grounds that the cerebellar (C) counts reflect non-specific binding and free ligand, whereas the striatal (S) counts reflect specific binding of the ligand to D_2 receptors in addition to the non-specific and free ligand binding. Using these assumptions, it can be shown that the (S-C/C) ratio reflects the ratio of B_{max}/K_d , where B_{max} is the total number of D_2 receptors and K_d is the affinity of the ligand (Farde et al. 1986, 1988a; Ito et al. 1998; Kapur et al. 1999). This measure is often referred to as the binding potential (BP) (Farde et al. 1988a). To obtain measures of antipsychotic-induced occupancy, the D_2 BP of a patient on an antipsychotic drug is then compared to that obtained in an appropriate control.

In pilot studies (unpublished data) we injected [^{11}C]-raclopride in rats and killed them at different time intervals, from 15 to 60 min post-injection to obtain the time course of specific and non-specific binding. These data showed that the specific binding (i.e. striatum minus cerebellum) reached equilibrium between 20 and 30 min, as has been reported previously (Köhler et al. 1985; Hume et al. 1992). Therefore we chose 30 min post-injection as the optimal time for killing.

Comparison of [^{11}C]-raclopride and [^3H]-raclopride

One of the difficulties of [^{11}C]-raclopride, the ligand used in human PET studies, is that it requires synthesis by cyclotron and has a very short half-life (20.4 min). As a result, it is not feasible as a standard procedure for rodent studies and would not be accessible to most other laboratories. Therefore, we wanted to examine whether [^3H]-raclopride, which is commercially available and has a long half-life, would give similar results. To make a relevant comparison, 20 animals were assigned to either vehicle ($n=4$) or raclopride in eight stratified doses (0.031–8 mg/kg, $n=16$). The occupancy of cold raclopride was then measured using both [^3H]-raclopride and [^{11}C]-raclopride in the same animal as described below. The dose of the cold raclopride was injected 1 h prior to killing. At 30 min prior to death, the rat received a simultaneous injection of 1 mCi [^{11}C]-raclopride (specific activity 600–1000 mCi/ μM) and 7.5–10 μCi [^3H]-raclopride (78 Ci/mM) via a heated (45°C) tail vein. The rats were killed and the striata and cerebellum dissected from each brain. In each rat, the left and the right striata were separately dissected and were randomly assigned for counting of [^{11}C]-raclopride or [^3H]-raclopride. The cerebellum was dissected, homogenized, and divided into halves, one for [^{11}C]-raclopride and the other for [^3H]-raclopride.

The tissue for determination of occupancy using [^{11}C]-raclopride was transferred into polypropylene tubes and was immediately counted for gamma-emission using a Cobalt Auto-Gamma counter (Canberra-Packard, Guelph, Canada). Determination of D_2 receptor occupancy in tissue using [^3H]-raclopride was carried out according to the procedure described below.

Dissection and tissue counting

The rats were decapitated and the striata and cerebella were rapidly dissected. The cerebellum was homogenized with a small spatula, and approximately one-third (50–100 mg) of this was sampled. The left and right striata were pooled into a single sample (~60 mg). Tissue samples were collected in previously weighed 20 ml glass scintillation vials. The vials were then weighed with tissue and 2 ml Solvable (Canberra Packard, Canada) was added to the vials. The vials were kept on an automated shaking tray, and gently agitated for 24 h at 23°C. Thereafter, 5 ml of Aquasure (formerly Formula 965; Canberra Packard, Canada) scintillation fluid was added, and the mixture was allowed to mix for another 24 h. Quantitation of [^3H] radioactivity was determined by liquid scintillation spectrometry using a Beckman LS5000 CE liquid scintillation counting system at 50% efficiency. Striatal and cerebellar counts were obtained and expressed as disintegrations per min/mg (DPM/mg) for future calculations.

Calculation of D_2 binding potential and receptor occupancy

With each ligand the D_2 receptor binding potential was obtained for each of the animals as S-C/C. The value for the control group was pooled, and the occupancy in each rat was then determined using the same formula as used in human studies (Farde et al. 1988a; Kapur et al. 1999):

$$\% \text{Occupancy} = 100 \times (D_2 \text{BP}_{\text{control}} - D_2 \text{BP}_{\text{indiv}} / D_2 \text{BP}_{\text{control}})$$

Catalepsy measurements

For comparison, both the grid and the bar catalepsy tests were used. Animals were first observed on an inclined (60°) grid, and thereafter with their front paws placed on a bar elevated 10 cm above the floor in the observation cage. To establish a reliable baseline, the first 30 s were excluded from the actual rating time to avoid effects of exploratory motor activity due to a new environment. The time the rat remained in the same position (grid test), or removed both their forelimbs from the bar (bar test) was then measured for a maximum of 2.5 min. The catalepsy was scored from 0 to 5 according to the time (square root transformation) the animal remained immobile (min): 0=0–0.08, 1=0.09–0.35, 2=0.36–0.80, 3=0.81–1.42, 4=1.43–2.24, 5= \geq 2.25 min, i.e., if the rat remained immobile for >2.25 min it was scored as 5 etc. (see, e.g. Ahlenius and Hillegaard 1986).

Conditioned avoidance response behavior

Rats were trained and tested in a computer-assisted two-way active avoidance (shuttlebox) apparatus equipped with a tilting grid floor, with microswitch detection, connected to a high resistance power supply. The boxes were divided into two compartments of equal size by a partition with one opening. Upon presentation of the 80 dB white noise conditioned stimulus (CS), the animals had 10 s to move from one compartment of the shuttlebox into the other. If the rat remained in the same compartment for more than 10 s, an intermittent electric shock, the unconditioned stimulus (UCS), was presented in the grid floor until an escape was performed. If the animal did not respond within 50 s of the shock period, the trial was terminated (escape failure). Intertrial intervals varied at random between 20 and 40 s. The following variables were recorded: *avoidance* (response to CS within 10 s); *escape* (response to CS+UCS); *escape failures* (failure to respond); and *intertrial crosses*. The animals were trained for 5 consecutive days. Experimental manipulations were always preceded by a pretest. All pretest and experimental sessions were run for 10 min (for further details, see Wadenberg et al. 1998). The same animals were tested repeatedly according to a change-over design (Li 1964) serving as their own controls.

Statistics

For catalepsy studies, the statistical analysis was performed by means of the Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA by ranks followed by the Mann-Whitney *U*-test for comparisons with vehicle treated controls. For CAR studies, the Friedman two-way ANOVA by ranks, followed by the Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-ranks test for comparisons with control conditions was used (Siegel and Castellan 1988). Data for dose and time relationships between D₂ receptor occupancy and catalepsy were analyzed by correlation analysis (Statistica 5.1, StatSoft, Inc.).

Results

Dose and time effects of raclopride on catalepsy in rats

In the experiment relating dose to D₂ receptor occupancy and catalepsy, raclopride (0.01–0.2 mg/kg, SC) did not produce catalepsy. Raclopride (0.5–2.0 mg/kg, SC) produced a statistically significant (KW=7.83, *P*<0.05) catalepsy, that reached its highest score (5) in animals treated with raclopride 2.0 mg/kg (*P*<0.05 compared to vehicle treated animals) (Table 2).

In the experiment relating time course of catalepsy to D₂ receptor occupancy, raclopride (2 mg/kg)-induced catalepsy reached its peak at 1 h after administration. Animals assigned to the 2-h observation time still scored maximum catalepsy. Animals assigned to the 4-, 8-, and 24-h observation times did not show any cataleptic effects at any of these observation times (Table 2). Vehicle treated controls for the different treatment groups did not show any cataleptic behavior at any observation time (data not shown).

Results from treatment with doses of raclopride below 0.06 mg/kg are not shown, since they did not add any further information.

Grid versus bar test

For comparison, animals were observed for catalepsy both in the grid and the bar test. A preceding experiment

showed no measurement differences between animals first observed on the bar, and animals first observed on the grid (data not shown). There was a slight tendency for animals to score somewhat lower in the bar test. However, the median scores in the two tests were close to identical (Table 2), and the statistical correlations did not differ as a function of test method.

Comparison of D₂ receptor occupancy measurement accuracy between [¹¹C]-raclopride and [³H]raclopride in the rat

Data from all 20 animals (see Materials and methods) was available, and the D₂BP obtained by the two techniques was virtually identical [*F*(1,18)=3753, *r*=0.998, *P*<0.0001]. The occupancies in the 16 animals treated with raclopride ranged from 0 to 97%, were highly correlated [*F*(1,14)=281, *r*=0.976, *P*<0.0001], and the difference between the two techniques was on average less than 2%. As a result, all further experiments were carried out using [³H]raclopride.

Dose-effect relationship between D₂ receptor occupancy and catalepsy following raclopride administration in rats

Raclopride (0.01–0.2 mg/kg, SC, –1 h) produced a dose-dependent increase in D₂ receptor occupancy ranging from 16 to 77%. No catalepsy was observed in this dose range (see also above). Raclopride (0.5–2 mg/kg, SC, –1 h) produced a dose-dependent increase in D₂ receptor occupancy ranging from 83 to 95%. The increase in D₂ receptor occupancy was paralleled by a corresponding increase in cataleptic intensity that reached its maximum following treatment with raclopride 2 mg/kg. There was a statistically significant positive correlation between percent D₂ receptor occupancy and degree of catalepsy (*r*=0.80; *P*<0.05) (Fig. 1).

Table 2 Dose and time effects of the dopamine D₂ receptor antagonist raclopride on catalepsy as measured by the grid and the bar test, respectively. Catalepsy scores are shown as medians (±semi-interquartile range) based on four or five animals per treatment group. Statistical evaluation of catalepsy was performed by the Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA by ranks, followed by the Mann-Whitney *U*-test (Siegel and Castellan Jr 1988) for comparisons with vehicle treated controls (upper panel)

Catalepsy				
Raclopride (mg/kg)	Grid (scores)	(Time range, min)	Bar (scores)	(Time range, min)
0	0.0±0.3	0.03–0.25	0.0±0.0	0.00–0.00
0.06	0.0±0.3 ^{ns}	0.02–0.10	0.0±0.0 ^{ns}	0.00–0.00
0.12	0.0±0.5 ^{ns}	0.05–0.50	0.0±0.0 ^{ns}	0.00–0.00
0.2	0.5±0.3 ^{ns}	0.06–0.12	0.0±0.0 ^{ns}	0.00–0.06
0.5	3.5±0.3*	1.25–1.70	0.0±0.0 ^{ns}	0.00–0.35
1.0	2.5±0.8 ^{ns}	0.15–1.85	2.5±1.3 ^{ns}	0.00–2.50
2.0	5.0±0.0*	2.50–2.50	5.0±0.0*	2.50–2.50
Raclopride (2 mg/kg, h)				
1	5.0±0.0	2.50–2.50	5.0±0.0	2.50–2.50
2	5.0±1.0	0.15–2.50	4.0±1.8	0.20–2.50
4	0.0±0.8	0.00–0.45	0.0±0.0	0.00–0.00
8	1.5±2.5	0.00–2.50	0.0±0.0	0.00–0.05
24	0.0±0.0	0.02–0.07	0.0±0.0	0.00–0.00

^{ns}*P*>0.05, **P*<0.05

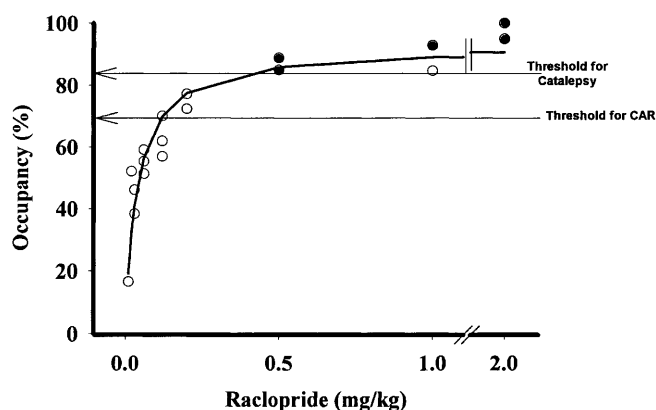


Fig. 1 Dose-effect relationship between percent D_2 receptor occupancy and catalepsy following raclopride administration in rats. Non-cataleptic animals are presented as *open circles* and cataleptic animals as *filled circles*, each circle representing one animal (total $n=23$). There was a statistically significant ($r=0.80$; $P<0.05$) positive correlation between catalepsy and percent D_2 receptor occupancy. Only animals with a D_2 receptor occupancy $>80\%$ were scored as cataleptic

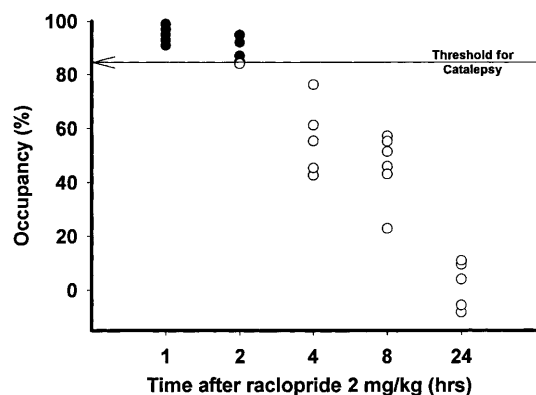


Fig. 2 Time-effect relationship between percent D_2 receptor occupancy and catalepsy following a single dose of raclopride in rats. Non-cataleptic animals are presented as *open circles* and cataleptic animals as *filled circles*, each circle representing one animal (total $n=26$). There was a statistically significant ($r=0.85$; $P<0.05$) positive correlation between catalepsy and percent D_2 receptor occupancy. Only animals with a D_2 receptor occupancy $>80\%$ were scored as cataleptic

Time-effect relationship between D_2 receptor occupancy and catalepsy following a single dose of raclopride in rats

Raclopride (2 mg/kg, SC) produced an average of 95% and 87% D_2 receptor occupancy 1 and 2 h after administration, respectively. This level of occupancy was associated with maximum catalepsy scoring. There was a time dependent decrease in D_2 receptor occupancy resulting in an average occupancy of 58% (4 h), 46% (8 h), and 4% (24 h), respectively. At these later observation times no catalepsy was observed. There was a statistically significant correlation between percent D_2 receptor occupancy and degree of catalepsy over time ($r=0.85$; $P<0.05$) (Fig. 2).

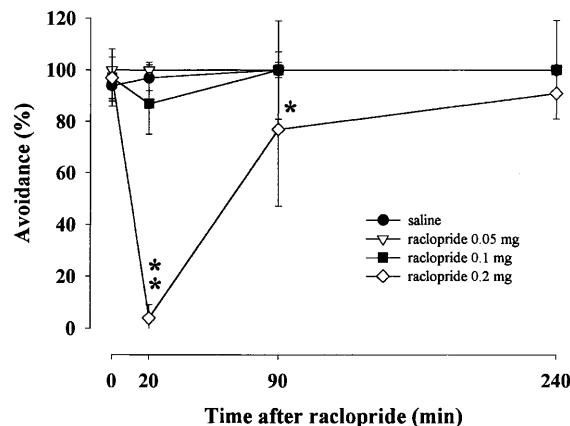


Fig. 3 Effects of raclopride on the conditioned avoidance response (CAR) behavior in rats. The selective DA D_2 receptor antagonist raclopride (0.05, 0.1 or 0.2 mg/kg, SC) was administered 20 min before the first observation time. The animals were observed 20, 90 and 240 min after administration. Shown are medians \pm semi-interquartile range based upon repeated observations of the same eight animals serving as their own controls in a change-over design (Li 1964). Statistical evaluation was performed by means of the Friedman two-way ANOVA followed by the Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-ranks test (Siegel and Castellan Jr 1988) for comparisons with vehicle treated animals. * $P<0.05$, ** $P<0.01$

In summary, doses of raclopride that produced a D_2 receptor occupancy $>80\%$ produced catalepsy. Catalepsy was observed as long as D_2 occupancy stayed at $>80\%$. As the D_2 occupancy decreased over time below 80%, the catalepsy remitted.

Effects of raclopride on the conditioned avoidance response (CAR) behavior in rats

Based on the results presented above, raclopride 0.05, 0.1 and 0.2 mg/kg were chosen as doses that would be expected to produce a D_2 receptor occupancy of approximately 55, 65 and 75%, respectively. Raclopride 0.2 mg/kg produced a statistically significant suppression of CAR at the 20 ($P<0.004$) and 90 ($P<0.02$) min observation times. The animals were back to normal avoidance performance at the 240 min observation time. There was a non-significant tendency for suppression of CAR by raclopride 0.1 mg/kg at the 20 min observation time. Raclopride 0.05 mg/kg had no effect on CAR. There were no escape failures at any dose or time (Fig. 3).

Discussion

The DA D_2 receptor antagonist raclopride produced a dose-dependent, statistically significant catalepsy 1–2 h after administration. There were no significant differences between catalepsy scorings in the bar compared to the inclined grid test. There was a significant positive correlation between D_2 receptor occupancy and catalepsy

over dose as well as over time. However, while there was a gradual increase in D₂ receptor occupancy over dose, the cataleptic response tended to show more of an all-or-none profile beginning around 83% D₂ receptor occupancy (or 0.5 mg/kg raclopride). A similar tendency was observed in time course of action. The catalepsy was observed as maximal at 1 and 2 h after administration, i.e. when D₂ receptor occupancy was >80%. Over time (i.e. at 4, 8 and 24 h after administration) as D₂ receptor occupancy dropped below this threshold, no catalepsy was observed.

In planning the present experiments, we wanted to bring the D₂ receptor occupancy measurement technique closer to the *in vivo* PET situation. Two main requirements needed to be met: the radioligand had to be injected intravenously into the living animal; the radioligand needed to be the same as, or be able to substitute for, the PET ligand. Furthermore, to get an accurate quantification of D₂ receptor occupancy, behavioral testing of the animals should preferably be performed as close to the optimal time for killing as possible. [¹¹C]-raclopride, usually used as a radioligand in PET, is expensive to use. Due to the short half-life, it also puts a time strain on the experimental schedule. Therefore, a pilot test was performed to investigate whether the D₂ receptor radio-ligand [³H]-raclopride could substitute for [¹¹C]-raclopride. It was found that the D₂ receptor binding potential obtained by the two techniques was close to identical, and that the difference in results obtained by the two techniques was on average less than 2%. Thus, using [³H]-raclopride made it possible systematically to investigate and quantify the relationship between D₂ receptor occupancy and catalepsy over dose and time in the rats.

To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study systematically to quantify the relationship between D₂ receptor occupancy and catalepsy in rats. The finding that this relationship is indeed a very good predictor of human D₂ receptor occupancy and EPS further strengthens the validity of catalepsy as a screening test for EPS liability of potentially antipsychotic agents. In addition, the time course of action of raclopride was also well reflected by the catalepsy scores. This seems to indicate that, not only does catalepsy closely describe human striatal D₂ receptor occupancy and EPS following antipsychotic treatment, but that catalepsy also is a reliable indicator of gradual dissociation of the antipsychotic agent from D₂ receptors. Taken together, the results suggest that brain mechanisms involved in the mediation of catalepsy in rats and EPS in humans might indeed be similar.

To facilitate comparisons between laboratories, catalepsy was assessed by means of the two most common test settings: the inclined grid and the bar tests. A preceding pilot study revealed no behavioral differences between animals first observed on the bar compared to animals first observed on the inclined grid. Therefore, to simplify the design of the present testing schedule, animals were observed first on the inclined grid and then on the bar. Catalepsy scorings of the present study in the inclined grid compared to the bar test were virtually identi-

cal. Thus, future studies using either one of the tests should be generating very similar results.

Finally, the conditioned avoidance response (CAR) is a commonly used test to predict antipsychotic activity. The CAR test has significant predictive validity, some construct validity, but little face validity (see, e.g. Wadenberg and Hicks 1999). However, since antipsychotic drugs are presumed to exert their therapeutic effect mainly via an action at the DA mesocorticolimbic system (see, e.g. Carlsson 1988; Owens and Risch 1995), it seems reasonable to believe that this pathway is also involved in CAR behavior. The nucleus accumbens_{shell} (NAS_{shell}) is an important substructure of the DA mesocorticolimbic system (Heimer et al. 1993), presumed to be involved in the pathophysiology of schizophrenia, and in behavior arising from emotion and motivation (Mogenson et al. 1980). Local application of the DA D₂ receptor antagonist (-)sulpiride into the NAS_{shell}, but not the dorsolateral neostriatum, suppresses CAR (Wadenberg et al. 1990). Furthermore, the atypical antipsychotic clozapine, that does not produce EPS in humans or catalepsy in animals, also produces a selective suppression of CAR following systemic injections (Wadenberg et al. 1993), as well as following local application into the NAS_{shell} (see Wadenberg and Hicks 1999). The CAR test, therefore, seems primarily to involve DA mesocorticolimbic, rather than DA nigrostriatal pathways that mediate extrapyramidal motor functions. Accordingly, it would have been more informative to measure accumbal D₂ occupancy, in addition to striatal D₂ occupancy, to examine if any differences exist between the two. However, it should be pointed out that this issue has been carefully examined before in *ex-vivo* autoradiographic studies, and no evidence for differential or preferential occupancy in extrastriatal regions was found for any of a series of typical and atypical antipsychotics examined (Schotte et al. 1996).

Antipsychotic drugs produce a selective suppression of a previously acquired avoidance behavior in the animals, while they improve delusions and hallucinations in humans. Furthermore, the CAR test is an acute single dose test in rats, whereas in humans improvement follows only after repeated dosing. Despite these differences, it is of interest to note that the minimum antipsychotic-like dose effective in the CAR test causes around 70–75% D₂ receptor occupancy. This is considerably lower than the >80% D₂ receptor occupancy needed for the induction of catalepsy. Furthermore, this relationship is virtually identical to results from human studies, which find that the threshold for clinical response is at the level of 65–70% D₂ receptor occupancy, while EPS emerges when D₂ receptor occupancy exceeds 80%. Thus, it seems that both suppression of CAR in rats and antipsychotic response in humans share an underlying construct – the need for around 70% D₂ receptor blockade. This may in part explain why this seemingly unrelated test predicts human therapeutic outcome so well.

In the present study, the selective DA D₂ receptor antagonist raclopride was used as a preclinical prototype

for an antipsychotic agent. Although raclopride is currently not used as an antipsychotic in the clinic, it clearly displays antipsychotic activity. Thus, open label clinical trials have reported that raclopride (4–16 mg/day) showed good antipsychotic efficacy (patients were rated “very much”, or “much”, improved), was well tolerated, and had a relatively safe side effect profile (Farde et al. 1988b; Cookson et al. 1989). Furthermore, in addition to its antipsychotic-like effects in the CAR test, raclopride (0.1–0.3 mg/kg) also dose-dependently reverses apomorphine-induced disruption of the prepulse inhibition of the acoustic startle reflex, PPI, in rats (Swerdlow et al. 1991; Varty and Higgins 1995; Wadenberg and Pais, unpublished data), another screening test for antipsychotic activity (see Swerdlow and Geyer 1998).

In summary, D₂ receptor occupancy can be measured in rats using [³H]-raclopride with methods analogous to those using [¹¹C]-raclopride in PET scanning in humans. Catalepsy is associated with >80% striatal D₂ receptor occupancy. Catalepsy is also a reliable indicator of gradual dissociation of the antipsychotic agent from D₂ receptors. The results suggest that brain mechanisms involved in the mediation of catalepsy in rats and EPS in humans indeed might be similar. Finally, antipsychotic-like suppression of CAR can be observed at a D₂ receptor occupancy between 70 and 75%, while catalepsy emerges only when D₂ receptor occupancy is >80%. These figures are remarkably analogous to human studies where 65–70% D₂ receptor occupancy is found to be required for clinical antipsychotic response, while 80% D₂ receptor occupancy or greater leads to EPS.

Acknowledgements Raclopride was generously donated by Astra Zeneca, Södertälje, Sweden. For excellent technical assistance and scientific advice we would like to thank Dr. Alan Wilson, Doug Hussey, and Kevin Cheung. Judy Sinyard is gratefully acknowledged for excellent help with the CAR testing. The study was supported by grants from the MRC of Canada and The Stanley Foundation, USA (Dr. S. Kapur), and by Eli Lilly, Canada (Dr. M.-L. Wadenberg).

References

- Ahlenius S, Hillegaart V (1986) Involvement of extrapyramidal motor mechanisms in the suppression of locomotor activity by antipsychotic drugs: a comparison between the effects produced by pre- and postsynaptic inhibition of dopaminergic neurotransmission. *Pharmacol Biochem Behav* 24:1409–1415
- Baldessarini RJ (1990) Drugs and the treatment of psychiatric disorders. In: Goodman Gilman A, Rall TW, Nies AS, Taylor P (eds) *The pharmacological basis of therapeutics*. Pergamon Press, New York, pp 383–435
- Carlsson A (1988) The current status of the dopamine hypothesis of schizophrenia. *Neuropsychopharmacology* 1:179–203
- Cookson JC, Natorf B, Hunt N, Silverstone T, Uppfeldt G (1989) Efficacy, safety and tolerability of raclopride, a specific D₂ receptor blocker, in acute schizophrenia: an open trial. *Int Clin Psychopharmacol* 4:61–70
- Cherry SR, Chatziioannou A, Annala AJ, Doshi NK, Phelps ME (1998) MicroPET – a dedicated high resolution PET scanner for animal imaging. *Soc Neurosci* 24:429
- Elliott PJ, Close SP, Walsh DM, Hayes AG, Marriott AS (1990) Neuroleptic-induced catalepsy as a model of Parkinson's disease. I. Effect of dopaminergic agents. *J Neural Transm* 2:79–89
- Farde L, Hall H, Ehrin E, Sedvall G (1986) Quantitative analysis of D₂ dopamine receptor binding in the living human brain by PET. *Science* 231:258–261
- Farde L, Wiesel F-A, Halldin C, Sedvall G (1988a) Central D₂-dopamine receptor occupancy in schizophrenia patients treated with antipsychotic drugs. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 45:71–76
- Farde L, Wiesel F-A, Jansson P, Uppfeldt G, Wahlen A, Sedvall G (1988b) An open label trial of raclopride in acute schizophrenia. Confirmation of D₂-dopamine receptor occupancy by PET. *Psychopharmacology* 94:1–7
- Farde L, Nordström A-L, Wiesel F-A, Pauli S, Halldin C, Sedvall G (1992) Positron emission tomographic analysis of central D₁ and D₂ dopamine receptor occupancy in patients treated with classical neuroleptics and clozapine: relation to extrapyramidal side effects. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 49:538–544
- Heimer L, Alheid GF, Zahm DS (1993) Basal forebrain organization: an anatomical framework for motor aspects of drive and motivation. In: Kalivas PW, Barnes CD (eds) *Limbic motor circuits and neuropsychiatry*. CRC Press, Boca Raton, Fla., pp 1–43
- Hume SP, Myers R, Bloomfield PM, Opacka-Juffry J, Cremer JE, Ahier RG, Luthra SK, Brooks DJ, Lammertsma AA (1992) Quantitation of carbon-11-labeled raclopride in rat striatum using positron emission tomography. *Synapse* 12:47–54
- Ito H, Hietala J, Blomqvist G, Halldin C, Farde L (1998) Comparison of the transient equilibrium and continuous infusion method for quantitative PET analysis of [¹¹C]-raclopride binding. *J Cereb Blood Flow Metab* 18:941–950
- Kapur S, Remington G, Zipursky RB, Wilson AA, Houle S (1995) The D₂ dopamine receptor occupancy of risperidone and its relationship to extrapyramidal symptoms: a PET study. *Life Sci* 57:103–107
- Kapur S, Remington G, Jones C, Wilson AA, DaSilva J, Houle S, Zipursky RB (1996) High levels of dopamine D₂ receptor occupancy with low-dose haloperidol treatment: a PET study. *Am J Psychiatry* 153:948–950
- Kapur S, Zipursky RB, Remington G (1999) Comparison of the 5-HT₂ and D₂ receptor occupancy of clozapine, risperidone and olanzapine in schizophrenia: clinical and theoretical implications. *Am J Psychiatry* 156:286–293
- Kapur S, Zipursky RB, Jones C, Remington G, Houle S (2000) Relationship between dopamine D₂ occupancy, clinical response and side effects – a double blind PET study in first episode schizophrenia. *Am J Psychiatry* 157:514–520
- Köhler C, Hall H, Ögren S-O, Gawell L (1985) Specific in vitro and in vivo binding of [³H]-raclopride. A potent substituted benzamide drug with a high affinity for dopamine D₂ receptors in the rat brain. *Biochem Pharmacol* 34:2251–2259
- Kuschinsky K, Hornykiewicz O (1972) Morphine catalepsy in the rat; relation to striatal dopamine metabolism. *Eur J Pharmacol* 19:119–122
- Li CC (1964) *Introduction to experimental statistics*. McGraw-Hill, New York, pp 207–226
- Mijnster MJ, Schotte A, Docter GJ, Voorn P (1998) Effects of risperidone and haloperidol on tachykinin and opioid precursor peptide mRNA levels in the caudate-putamen and nucleus accumbens of the rat. *Synapse* 28:302–312
- Mogenson GJ, Jones DL, Yim CY (1980) From motivation to action: functional interface between the limbic system and the motor system. *Prog Neurobiol* 14:69–97
- Nordström A-L, Farde L, Wiesel F-A, Forslund K, Pauli S, Halldin C, Uppfeldt G (1993) Central D₂-dopamine receptor occupancy in relation to antipsychotic drug effects – a double blind PET study of schizophrenic patients. *Biol Psychiatry* 33:227–235
- Owens MJ, Risch SC (1995) Atypical antipsychotics. In: Schatzberg AF, Nemeroff CB (eds) *Psychopharmacology Press*, Washington D.C., pp 263–280
- Sanberg PR (1980) Haloperidol-induced catalepsy is mediated by postsynaptic dopamine receptors. *Nature* 284:472–473

- Schotte A, Janssen PF, Gommeren W, Luyten WH, Van Gompel P, Lesage AS, De Loore K, Leysen JE (1996) Risperidone compared with new and reference antipsychotic drugs: in vitro and in vivo binding. *Psychopharmacology* 124:57–73
- Seeman P (1992) Dopamine receptor sequences. Therapeutic levels of neuroleptics occupy D₂ receptors, clozapine occupies D₄. *Neuropsychopharmacology* 7:261–284
- Seeman P, Tallerico T (1998) Antipsychotic drugs which elicit little or no parkinsonism bind more loosely than dopamine to brain D₂ receptors, yet occupy high levels of these receptors. *Mol Psychiatry* 3:123–134
- Seeman P, Tallerico T (1999) Rapid release of antipsychotic drugs from dopamine D₂ receptors: an explanation for low receptor occupancy and early clinical relapse upon withdrawal of clozapine or quetiapine. *Am J Psychiatry* 156:876–884
- Seeman P, Corbett R, Van Tol HHM (1997) Atypical neuroleptics have low affinity for dopamine D₂ receptors or are selective for D₄ receptors. *Neuropsychopharmacology* 16:93–122
- Siegel S, Castellan NJ Jr (1988) *Nonparametric statistics for the behavioral sciences*, 2nd edn. McGraw-Hill, New York
- Swerdlow NR, Geyer MA (1998) Using an animal model of deficient sensorimotor gating to study the pathophysiology and new treatments of schizophrenia. *Schizophr Bull* 24:285–301
- Swerdlow NR, Keith VA, Braff DL, Geyer MA (1991) Effects of spiperone, raclopride, SCH 23390 and clozapine on apomorphine inhibition of sensorimotor gating of the startle response in the rat. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* 256:530–536
- Varty GB, Higgins GA (1995) Examination of drug-induced and isolation-induced disruptions of prepulse inhibition as models to screen antipsychotic drugs. *Psychopharmacology* 122:15–26
- Wadenberg M-L (1996) Serotonergic mechanisms in neuroleptic-induced catalepsy in the rat. *Neurosci Biobehav Rev* 20:325–339
- Wadenberg M-L, Hicks PB (1999) The conditioned avoidance response test re-evaluated: is it a sensitive test for the detection of potentially atypical antipsychotics? *Neurosci Biobehav Rev* 23:851–862
- Wadenberg M-L, Ericson E, Magnusson O, Ahlenius S (1990) Suppression of conditioned avoidance behavior by the local application of (–) sulpiride into the ventral, but not the dorsal, striatum of the rat. *Biol Psychiatry* 28:297–307
- Wadenberg M-L, Ahlenius S, Svensson TH (1993) Potency mismatch for behavioral and biochemical effects by dopamine receptor antagonists: implications for the mechanism of action of clozapine. *Psychopharmacology* 110:273–279
- Wadenberg M-L, Young KA, Trompler RA, Zavodny RA, Richter TJ, Hicks PB (1998) A novel computer controlled conditioned avoidance apparatus for rats. *J Pharmacol Toxicol Meth* 38:211–215