Original Article

Paroxetine augments while naloxone abolishes the analgesic effect of paracetamol in acute nociceptive pain in mice

M. Raafat, W. Al-Malki, M. Ahmed

Department of Pharmacology and Toxicology, Faculty of Pharmacy, Umm Al-Qura University, Makkah, KSA

Corresponding author

E-mail address: raafatabdalla@hotmail.com. Tel.: +966 53 2708951; *fax*: +96622570000-4273.

الباروكسيتين يعضد بينما النالوكسون يلغى التأثير المسكن للباراسيتامول ضد الألم الفورى في الفئران د. محمد رأفت، د. وليد المالكي، د. محمد أحمد قسم الأدوية والسموم _ كلية الصيدلة _ جامعة أم القري _ مكة المكرمة _ المملكة العربية السعودية

الملخص العربي

بعد مئة عام من تصنيعه ما زالته عمل دواء البار اسيتامول مثيرة للجدل، حيث ترجح بعض الدر اسات السابقة على الجرذان أن التأثير المسكن لهذا الدواء ربما يستغل المسارات الهابطة في الجهاز العصبي المركزي المثبطة للإحساس بالألم والتي توظف مواد السير وتونين و الإندور فينات كوسائط لنقل الإشارة العصبية. والغرض من هذه الدراسة هو استكشاف هذا الإفتراض في الفئران وذلك باستخدام دوا "نالوكسون" الغالق لمستقبلات الافيونيات و دواء "بار وكسيتين" لعملية استعادة السيروترنين داخل الألياف العصبية لهذ

وقد تم تقسيم الحيوانات إلى مجموعتين رئيسيتين، كل لتجربة منفصلة، و قسمت كل مجموعة إلى ثلاث مجموعات فرعية وظفت المجموعة الفرعية الأولى في كلى التجربتين كمجموعة ضة . والمجموعة الثانية في كليهما تم حقنهما يتامول في الغشاء البريتوني بجرعة 200 . وبالنسبة للمجموعة الفرعية الثالثة، ففي التجربة الأولى تم مناولة الفئران عقار باروكسيتين بالفم بجرعة 20 مجم لكل كجم لمدة سبعة أيام متتالية قبل حقنها الباراسينامول، وفي التجربة الثانية تم حقنها بدواء نال 5 مجم لكل كجم قبل حقنها بالبار اسيتامول بثلاثين دقيقة. و في يوم التجربة تم قباس التأثير المسكن للبار اسبتا

أظهرت النتائج أن التأثير المسكن للبار اسبتامول تم تعضيده بو اسطة دواء بار وكسبتين، وظهر ذلك على هيئة أمتداد لفاعلية البار اسيتامول لمدة اطول من تلك الملاحظة في المجموعة الضابطة. بينه ألغي تماما دواء نالو كسون التأثير المسكن للبار اسيتامول. وعليه فإن هذه النتائج تعضد الملاحظة السابقة في الجرذان وهي أن التأثير المسكن للبار اسيتامول يشمل تخدم السيين و الإندور فينات تنشيط المسارات الهابطة في الجهاز العصبي المركزي المثبط للإحساس بالألم، بية في ألياف ه كو سائط لتو صيل

الكلمات الدالة: بار استيمول- باروكسيتين -

ABSTRACT

Objectives: The mechanism(s) of analgesic action of paracetamol (acetaminophen; N-acetylp-aminophenol) remains controversial. Previous studies on rats suggest that the antinociceptive action of paracetamol might involve the central descending inhibitory pain pathways recruiting both a serotoninergic and an opioidergic system. This study explores this issue in mice using paroxetine, the most potent selective serotonin re-uptake inhibitor, and the nonselective opioid pure antagonist naloxone.

Animals were divided into two main groups for two separate experiments, each subdivided into 3 subgroups. In both experiments; the first group served as control, the second group received paracetamol (200 mg/kg, i.p). In one experiment, the third group received paroxetine (20 mg/kg p.o for 7 days) before paracetamol. In the other experiment, animals of the third group were pretreated with naloxone (5 mg/kg, i.p) 30 min before paracetamol. The antinociceptive effect of paracetamol was tested using the hot plate test.

Paracetamol displayed a significant antinociceptive activity that was augmented by pretreatment with paroxetine as was shown by maintenance of its effect beyond that shown by paracetamol alone. On the other hand, pretreatment with naloxone abolished paracetamol's antinociceptive activity in the hot-plate test.

These results extend the previous observation in rats that the antinociceptive effect of paracetamol involves activation of a central descending pain inhibitory pathway with serotonin and opioidergic peptides being potential mediators recruited.

Keywords: Paracetamol, Paroxetine, Naloxone, Mice

INTRODUCTION

ore than 100 years after its synthesis, the mechanism of analgesic action of paracetamol (acetaminophen; N-acetyl- p-aminophenol) controversial. remains Postulated mechanisms^{1,2}, including inhibition of cyclooxygenase isozymes, have been inadequate ³. Its inhibitory activity on the synthesis of prostaglandin is more evident on cyclo-oxygenase 1 than on cyclooxygenase 2⁴, both peripherally and within the CNS, even though the exact antinociceptive mechanism of action of this drug is still not completely clear⁵. Its biochemical properties, such as its weak inhibitory activity on the synthesis of peripheral prostaglandins, its low plasmaprotein binding, its liposolubility and its ability to cross the blood-brain barrier suggest a central activity, which has been reported in several studies both in animals⁶ and in humans⁷. It has been postulated that

this central effect might be linked to the ability of paracetamol to inhibit central cyclo-oxygenase ^{2,5}. On the other hand, it been demonstrated has that tissue cyclooxygenase in rat brain homogenates is not inhibited in doses of paracetamol up to 100 mg/kg⁸. Thus, the inhibition of cyclo-oxygenase may not be solely responsible for the central analgesic effect of non steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs)⁹.

There is evidence to suggest that the serotonergic system may play a role in the antinociceptive mechanism of NSAIDs¹⁰ paracetamol¹¹. There and of was considerable evidence supporting a role for 5-hydroxytryptamine (5-HT) in the modulation of nociceptive thresholds. Studies have shown that 5-HT plays an important role in the descending inhibitory pathway of pain transmission from brainstem to the spinal cord. Descending pain pathways originate in brainstem nuclei, the hypothalamus and the cortex and interact with afferent fibers. interneurons and projecting neurons in the dorsal horn of the spinal cord. They are multiple and their stimulation leads to inhibitory effects in most studies ^{12, 13, 14.} The neurotransmitters involved in these descending controls are serotonin, noradrenalin, dopamine and opioids¹⁵. 5-Hydroxy-tryptamine, applied iontophoretically to dorsal horn neurons does reduce the nociceptive responses of these neurons. Alloui and colleagues ¹⁶ showed that the 5-HT₃ receptor antagonist, tropisetron, injected intrathecally, abolished the antinociceptive effect of paracetamol in an inflammatory pain model in rats. Most of the authors reported that 5-HT₃-receptor activation had an antinociceptive action ^{17, 18, 19, 20}, while few showed an involvement of 5-HT₂ receptor subtype 21 or 5-HT₁subtype 22 .

It has been also proposed that other neurotransmitter systems, including opioidergic pathways, may be involved in the central analgesic effect of this class of drugs². Raffa and co-workers ²³ have discovered that the analgesic effect of acetaminophen involves recruitment of endogenous opioid pathways that lead to antinociceptive spinal-supraspinal "selfsynergy". They also demonstrated a enhancement synergistic of acetaminophen's antinociceptive action by spinal administration of phentolamine²⁴, implicating interaction an between

MATERIAL AND METHODS

I. Animals

Adult albino mice weighing 25 - 30 g of either sex were used in our study. They were purchased from the animal facility of the pharmacology department, College of Pharmacy, King Abdul-Aziz University. descending endogenous opioid pathways and spinal sites. On the other hand, a recent clinical study on human volunteers that naloxone does not inhibit paracetamol antinociception, suggesting no significant implication of the opioid system in paracetamol mechanism of action²⁵.

The study of the impact of modulating the serotonergic and opioidergic systems on the analgesic activity of paracetamol, therefore, might throw some light on the complex antinociceptive activity of this widely used drug. Accordingly, we decided to conduct a study on both neurotransmitter systems, serotonergic and opioidergic, to gain further insight into the mechanism of the analgesic action of paracetamol.

The purpose of this study was twofold. First, to evaluate the impact of enhancing the central serotoninergic neurotransmission by the most potent selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor, paroxetine^{26, 27}, on the antinociceptive effect of paracetamol in the hotplate test, hence the clinically relevant potential drug interaction between therapeutic doses of both paracetamol and this selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor is highlighted. Second, to find out whether naloxone, the opiate receptors pure antagonist, was able to modify or prevent the antinociceptive effect of paracetamol in the same analgesimetric test, thus ruling out the potential involvement of endogenous opioid polypeptides in mediating the analgesic effect of this widely used medicine.

The animals were housed in cages kept under constant environmental and nutritional conditions throughout the period of investigation. They were allowed a free access to water and diet consisting of standard chow.

II. Drugs

Paracetamol was obtained from Sigma-Aldrich Company, USA. Paroxetine hydrochloride was obtained from GlaxoSmithKline Company. Naloxone HCl was obtained from Hikma Pharmaceuticals, Amman, Jordan. Drugs were freshly prepared in aqueous solution in a concentration adjusted so that the volume administered is 0.1ml/10 g animal weight.

III. Experimental design and treatment protocol

The animals were divided into two sets, dedicated each for a separate experiment. Each set was subdivided into three groups, consisting each of 10 mice.

a. Paroxetine experiment

Animals in Group 1 (served as normal control) as well as Group 2 were orally administered normal saline, at the same volume of the drug, for one week. In Group 3, paroxetine was dailv administered by oral gavage in a dose of 20 mg/kg 28 for one week. At the end of the experiment day (on day 7), all the animals were subjected to the hotplate test to determine the baseline withdrawal latency (see below). Thereafter, animals in group 1 were intraperitoneally (i.p) injected with normal saline, while in group 2 and group 3, animals were i.p injected with paracetamol $(200 \text{ mg/kg})^{29}$ one hour after receiving the last oral dose of normal saline or paroxetine. Exactly after 15 min, the hotplate test was started as described below.

b. Naloxone experiment

On the experiment day, all the animals were subjected to the hotplate test before receiving any treatment to determine the baseline withdrawal latency (see below). Thereafter, animals in Group 1 were i.p injected with normal saline and served as control, while in group 2, animals were i.p injected with paracetamol (200 mg/kg). Animals in group 3 where pretreated with naloxone $(5 \text{ mg/kg}, \text{ i.p})^{30}$ 30 min before paracetamol injection. Exactly 15 min after, the hotplate test was started as described below.

IV. Hot-plate test

The central antinociceptive activity of paracetamol was evaluated by using a modified hot plate test following the method of Lavich *et al.*³¹. This test measures the complex response to an acute, noninflammatory, nociceptive input and can be considered a good model for studying central antinociceptive activity^{32.}

Animals were placed individually onto a hot plate with temperature fixed at 55±0.5°C (Harvard Apparatus Ltd., Kent, UK). Exposure to heat was continued till the animal shows withdrawal response in the form of hind paw licking, shaking or lifting or jumped off. To minimize tissue damage, a cut-off time (removing from the plate) of 30 seconds was adopted. The withdrawal latency was defined as the time period between the moment when the animal was placed on the hot plate surface and the moment when the animal licked, shaked or lifted any of its hind paws or jumped off to avoid thermal pain. The baseline latency (pretreatment value) was determined just before paracetamol or saline injection. The withdrawal latency was again determined at 15, 30, 45, 60, 75, 90. 105 120 min after. and The prolongation in the withdrawal latency was taken as an index for the antinociceptive effect of paracetamol.

V. Data analysis

All values in this study are expressed as mean \pm standard error of the mean (M \pm SEM). Data were analyzed by oneway analysis of variance (ANOVA). When variation among groups was found significant, Tukey-Kramer multiple comparisons test was carried out to compare between groups. Differences were considered significant when p value was < 0.05.

RESULTS

Effect of paroxetine

As shown in figure1, the normal (pretreatment) withdrawal latency of control mice was 13.25 ± 0.62 sec. After injection. this value saline showed insignificant variation along the whole experimental period. After injection of paracetamol, the withdrawal latency was gradually and significantly prolonged, starting 15 min after injection, reaching a maximum of 26.63 ± 0.86 seconds after 90 min. However, it started to decline back to

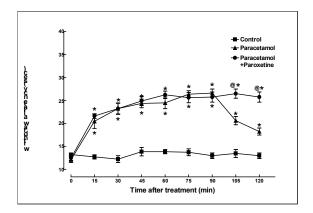


Figure 1: Antinociceptive effect of a single dose of paracetamol (200 mg/kg, i.p) in normal mice and in mice pretreated with paroxetine (20 mg/kg, p.o for 7 days). Values are represented as means \pm S.E. of 8-10 separate experiments.

* Significantly different from respective control values at P<0.05. @ Significantly different from respective paracetamol values at P<0.05.

Effect of naloxone

As shown in figure2, the normal (pretreatment) withdrawal latency of control mice was 8.88 \pm 1.13 sec. After saline injection, this value showed insignificant variation along the whole experimental period. After injection of paracetamol, the withdrawal latency was gradually and significantly prolonged, starting 30 min after injection, reaching a maximum of 23.13 \pm 0.7sec. after 75 min. However, it started to decline back to reach 10.88 \pm 1.37 sec. at the end of the evaluation period (120 min).

In naloxone-pretreated animals; the effect of paracetamol was reversed such that no antinociceptive effect was observed at any of the evaluation time points.

In paroxetine-pretreated animals, the effect of paracetamol did not quantitatively differ from that in paracetamol-only treated group. However, at the time where its effect started to fade in the paracetamol-only (105 min). treated group the antinociceptive effect of paracetamol continued at the same level, achieving a value of 25.75 ± 1.11 sec. at the end of the test period. It could be concluded that pretreatment with paroxetine potentiated the antinociceptive effect of paracetamol during the late phase of its action, leading to prolongation of its effect for at least 30 min.

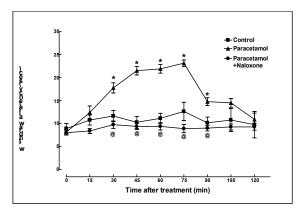


Figure 2: Antinociceptive effect of a single dose of paracetamol (200 mg/kg, i.p) in normal mice and in mice pretreated with naloxone (5 mg/kg, i.p 30 min before). Values are represented as means \pm S.E. of 10 separate experiments.

* Significantly different from respective control values at P<0.05. @ Significantly different from respective paracetamol values at P<0.05.

DISCUSSION

In the present investigation, the effect antinociceptive of paracetamol against thermal pain was evident shortly after i.p. injection, manifested as prolongation in the withdrawal latency 15-30 min after injection. This effect reached a maximum after 75-90 min, thereafter started to fade gradually. Paracetamol is often classified in the group of aspirin like³³ or NSAIDs-like drugs ³⁴. However, it does not share the same profile both in terms of therapeutic activities and side effects. This seems to be due, at least in part; to the inhibition of the synthesis of PGs ³⁴. These

marked differences suggest that its mechanism of action may differ. In vitro, paracetamol weakly inhibits COX. compared to several NSAIDs ³⁵ Clinical experiments have shown that therapeutic doses of paracetamol failed to reduce 6urinary excretion³⁶ or PGE2 keto-PGF1 synovial fluid levels³⁷. Also, Vane³⁸ demonstrated that paracetamol weakly inhibits peripheral COX but has a more potent effect on the centrally located enzymes. This limited inhibition of COX, especially of peripheral COX, led several authors to propose a central mechanism of action of paracetamol^{19, 39}. Such a hypothesis is in line with the ability of paracetamol to cross the blood brain barrier both in rats ⁴⁰ and humans¹⁹, and with its efficacy maintained in animal pain models after central administration¹⁶ and in models devoid of any inflammation and only sensitive to centrally acting drugs⁴¹. Some neurobiochemical hypotheses have been proposed for this centrally mediated effect since paracetamol reduces behavior induced by intrathecally injected substance P or N-(NMDA)⁴². methyl-D-aspartate Involvement of endogenous opioids^{29, 32} and of another variant of COX 1 (COX 3) located in the CNS as a crucial enzyme inhibited by the $drug^{43}$. An inhibitory effect of paracetamol on a COX1 variant (COX3) has been described by Botting 44 . However, the author stated that this enzyme would be involved in the resolution of inflammation, i.e. in a late phase after carrageenan administration, which excludes the involvement of such a mechanism in the "rapid" antinociceptive effect of paracetamol observed here. Hence, systemically administered paracetamol acts differently from aspirin and NSAIDs and independently of peripheral PG synthesis and of any anti-inflammatory effect.

There are already reports of the central actions of paracetamol in a variety of pain models

^{22, 32, 45} or of its actions at a spinal level ^{39, 46},
⁴⁷. These reports have also linked the

actions of paracetamol to a descending 5-HT pathway ^{39, 46, 48}. Control of analgesia is performed by the descending inhibitory pathways in the central nervous system. The key part of this descending system is the periaqueductal grey area (PAG) which receives inputs from different brain regions and is assumed to be a gate in control of nociception, especially in the dorsal horn. PAG mainly stimulates the nucleus raphe magnus (NRM) and some fibers in the spinal cord. which form synaptic connections on dorsal horn interneurons. 5-HT is the major transmitter both at these synapses and the pathway from the NRM to the substantia gelatinosa of the dorsal horn²⁵. Activation of this pathway inhibits transmission specifically in nociceptive pathways ⁴⁹. The 5-HT3 receptors located in the dorsal horn of the rat spinal cord have been shown to mediate an antinociceptive effect⁵⁰. Alloui and his colleagues⁴⁶ demonstrated a spinal antinociceptive action for paracetamol that was reversed by the 5-HT₃ receptor antagonist, tropisetron. The augmentation of the antinociceptive action of paracetamol in mice being treated with paroxetine observed in this study may further highlights the involvement of 5-HT in this action and gives further insight into this postulation. Several authors have demonstrated a serotoninergic involvement the antinociceptive effect in of paracetamol^{11, 16, 21, 48, 51, 52}

Since the antidepressant mechanisms of SSRI drugs are attributed to an increase in the amount and action of serotonin in the synaptic gap due to its serotonin re-uptake inhibitory effect on the presynaptic site^{26, 27}, extension of this effect to the descending serotoninergic spinal pathways would be conceivable as a mechanism of potentiation and/or prolongation of the analgesic effect of paracetamol. Indeed, Duman and coworkers³⁰ demonstrated that the 5-HT₃ receptors antagonist, ondansetron inhibits the antinociceptive effect of paroxetine, while the 5-HT₂ receptors antagonist ketanserin could not. This finding suggests

a contribution of 5-HT₃ receptors rather than 5-HT₂ types, to the antinociceptive action of paroxetine. In conclusion, both paracetamol and paroxetine antinociception descending implicate the inhibitory serotoninergic pathway in their effect, with 5-HT₃ subtype being the receptor involved. Our results, thus, would be compatible with a mechanistic scheme, which involved a central site of action of paracetamol, with algesia being devoid of a peripheral inflammatory component. The potential clinically relevant drug interaction between this widely used analgesic and SSRIs might warrant investigation on human volunteers.

In our study, the reversal of the antinociceptive action of paracetamol in mice being treated with naloxone supports the involvement of endogenous opioids in this action and gives further insight into this postulation. The results of the present study confirm that opioidergic system was engaged in the mechanism of paracetamol action. This observation is in agreement with results obtained by Pini *et al*⁵² who also noted that the antinociceptive effect of paracetamol was reversed by nonselective opioid receptor antagonist naloxone in the hot-plate test in rats. Some studies have indicated that some NSAIDs exert a central opioid receptor-mediated effect⁵³, although the exact mechanism has not been fully elucidated. Indeed, indirect action on opioid receptors with release of endorphins or enkephalins has already been proposed for diclofenac⁵⁴ and ketorolac⁵⁵. On the other hand, our result is not in line with that of Pickering *et al*, 25 who observed that naloxone does not inhibit paracetamol antinociception, in human volunteers. suggesting no significant implication of the opioid system in paracetamol mechanism of action. However, the authors attributed this apparent lack of effect to a matter of the power of their study, being carried out on only12 healthy male volunteers.

Possible interaction of paracetamol with naloxone binding sites has been

investigated. Competition experiments demonstrated that paracetamol, though with low affinity, competes for [3H] naloxone binding sites³². This indicates that paracetamol may behave like morphine regarding not only its analgesic effect but also its action on u-receptors. The authors suggested a dose-related effect in which paracetamol may bind directly to opioid receptors only at high concentrations. It is, however, hard to believe that paracetamol acts directly on opioidergic receptors since Pelissier and co-workers¹¹ were unable to demonstrate paracetamol affinity for these receptors in vitro. It may be, therefore, that paracetamol suggested activates opioidergic system indirectly via still unknown mechanism or mechanisms. In this regard, it has been suggested that paracetamol indirectly activate opiate receptors that in turn may increase 5-HT levels, at least in the cerebral cortex and in the pons, thus provoking an analgesic effect⁴⁷. Indeed, in the mechanism of action of paracetamol, a 5-HT-mediated antinociception is of interest because central 5-HT activation potentiates the effect of opioids, as observed in rats⁵⁶ and humans⁵⁷. On the other hand, it has been shown that naloxone blocks the increase in 5-HT levels in the brain induced by paracetamol³². These potentially regulatory and interactive mechanisms between 5-HT and opioid transmission in nociception are supported by the finding that the analgesic effect of paracetamol depends on an intact 5-HT neurotransmission and is antagonized by the opioid antagonist naloxone ³². Noteworthy, morphine induces changes in the serotoninergic system similar to those obtained with paracetamol, which are also reversed by naloxone. Thus it may be hypothesized that paracetamol, in acting on opiate receptors, may release 5-HT that provokes an analgesic effect. This is supported by many findings which indicate that 5-HT takes part in the complex nociceptive pathways and plays a pivotal role in antinociception⁵⁸. In conclusion, these data provide further evidence for a central antinociceptive effect of PARA antagonized by naloxone, which suggests that this activity may involve the opioidergic pathways which in turn activate the serotonergic system.

REFERENCES

1. Walker JS. NSAID: an update on their analgesic effects. Clin. Exp. Pharmacol. Physiol. 1995; 22: 855-860.

2. Björkman R. Central antinociceptive effects of non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs and paracetamol. Acta Anaesthesiol Scand. 1995; 39 (Suppl. 103): 2-44.

3. Warner TD, Vojnovic I, Giuliano F, Jime'nez R, Bishop-Bailey D, Mitchell JA. Cyclooxyge-nases 1, 2, and 3 and the prostaglandin production of I2: investigating activities the of acetaminophen and cyclooxygenase-2selective inhibitors in rat tissues. J Pharmacol Exp Ther. 2004; 310: 642-647.

4. Vane JR, Botting RM. A better understanding of anti-inflammatory drugs based on isoforms of cyclooxygenase (COX-1 and COX-2). Adv Prostaglandin Thromboxane Leukot Res. 1995; 23:41-48.

5. Clissold S P. Paracetamol and Phenacetin. Drugs. 1986; 32: suppl. 4: 46-59.

6. Carlsson KH, Monzel W, Jurna I. Depression by morphine and the non-opioid analgesic agents metamizol (Dipyrone), lysine acetylate and paracetamol, of activity in rat thalamus neurons evoked by electrical stimulation of nociceptive afferents. Pain. 1988; 32: 313-326.

7. Chen ACN, Chapman CR. Aspirin analgesia evaluated by event related potentials in man: possible central action in brain. Exp Brain Res. 1980; 39: 359-364.

8. Abdel-Alim MS, Sjoqvist B, Anggard E. Inhibition of prostaglandin synthesis in rat brain. Acta Pharmacol Toxicol. 1978; 43: 266-272.

9. Malberg AB, Yaks, TL. Antinociceptive actions of spinal anti-inflammatory agents on the formalin test in the rat. J Pharmacol Exp Ther. 1992; 263: 136-146.

10. Sandrini M, Vitale G, Dondi M, Pini LA. Effects of acetylsalicylic acid on serotonin brain receptor subtypes. Gen Pharmacol. 1995; 26: 737-41.

11. Pelissier T, Alloui A, Caussade F, Dubray C, Cloarec A, Lavarenne J, Eschalier A. Paracetamol exerts a spinal antinociceptive effect involving an indirect interaction with 5-hydroxytryptamine3 receptors: in vivo and in vitro evidence. J Pharmacol ExpTher.1996; 278:8-14.

12. Willer JC, Roby A, Le Bars D. Psychophysical and electrophysiological approaches to the pain-relieving effects of heterotopic nociceptive stimuli. Brain. 1984; 107: 1095-1112.

13. Price DD, McHaffie JG. Effects of heterotopic conditioning stimuli on first and second pain: a psychophysical evaluation in humans. Pain.1988 ;34: 245-252.

14. Talbot JD, Duncan GH, Bushnell MC. Effects of diffuse noxious inhibitory controls (DNICs) on the sensorydiscriminative dimension of pain perception. Pain.1989; 36: 231-238.

15. Julien N, Marchand S. Endogenous pain inhibitory systems activated by spatial summation are opioid-mediated. Neurosci Lett. 2006; 401: 256-260.

16. Alloui A, Pelissier T, Cloarec A, Lavarenne J, Eschalier A. Tropisetron inhibits the antinociceptive effect of intrathecally administered paracetamol and serotonin. Fundam. Clin Pharmacol. 1996; 10: 406-407.

17. Glaum SR, Proudfit HK, Anderson EG. Reversal of the antinociceptive effects of intrathecally administered serotonin in the rat by a selective 5-HT3 receptor antagonist. Neurosci Lett.1988; 95: 313-317.

18. Glaum SR, Proudfit HK, Anderson EG.5-HT3 receptors modulate spinal nociceptive reflexes. Brain Res. 1990, 510:12-6.

19. Bannwarth B, Netter P, Lapicque F, Gillet P, Pe're P, Boccard EJ, Eschalier A. Paracetamol exerts a spinal antinociceptive effect involving an indirect interaction with 5-Hydroxytryptamine3 receptors: in vivo and in vitro evidence. J Pharmacol Exp Ther. 1996; 278: 8-14.

20. Bardin L, Schmidt J, Alloui A, Eschalier A. Effect of intrathecal administration of serotonin in chronic pain models in rats. Eur J Pharmacol. 2000; 409: 37-43.

21. Srikiatkhachorn A, Trasu N, Govitrapong P. Acetaminophen induced antinociception via central 5-HT 2A receptors. Neurochem Int. 1999; 34: 491-498.

22. Graham GG, Scott KF. Mechanism of action of paracetamol. Am J Ther. 2005; 1:46-55.

23. Raffa RB, Stone Jr, DJ, Tallarida RJ. Discovery of "self-synergistic" spinal/supraspinal antinociception produced by acetaminophen (paracetamol). J Pharmacol Exp Ther. 2000; 295: 291- 294.

24. Raffa RB, Stone Jr, DJ, Tallarida RJ. Unexpected and pronounced antinociceptive synergy between spinal acetaminophen (paracetamol) and phentolamine. Eur J Pharmacol. 2001; 412: R1- R2. 25. Pickering G, Moustafa F, Desbrandes S, Cardot JM, Roux D, Dubray C. Paracetamol and opioid pathways: a pilot randomized clinical trial. Fundamental Clin Pharmacol. 2011(Ahead of print).

26. Bourin M, Fiocco AJ, Clenet F. How valuable are animal models in defining antidepressant activity? Hum Psychopharmacol. 2001; 1: 9-21.

27. Richelson E. Where are all the novel antidepressants? Curr Opin Investig. Drugs. 2001; 2: 256-8.

28. Takeuchi T, Owa T, Nishino T, Kamei C. Assessing anxiolytic-like effects of selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors and serotonin-noradrenaline reuptake inhibitors using the elevated plus maze in mice. Methods Find Exp Clin Pharmacol. 2010; 32:113-21.

29. Rezende RM, França DS, Menezes GB, dos Reis WG, Bakhle YS, Francischi JN. Different mechanisms underlie the analgesic actions of paracetamol and dipyrone in a rat model of inflammatory pain. Br J Pharmacol. 2008; 153:760-768.

30. Duman NE, Kesim M, Kadioglu M, Yaris E, Kalyoncu NI, Erciyes N. Possible involvement of opioidergic and serotonergic mechanisms in antinociceptive effect of paroxetine in acute pain. J Pharmacol Sci 2004; 94:161-165.

31. Lavich TR, Cordeiro RS, Silva PM, Martins MA. A novel hot-plate test sensitive to hyperalgesic stimuli and nonopioid analgesics. Braz J Med Biol Res. 2005; 38:445-51

32. Pini LA, Vitale G, Ottani A, Sandrini M. Naloxone-reversible anti-nociception by paracetamol in the rat. J Pharmacol ExpTher. 1997; 280: 934-940.

33. Ferreira SH. Prostaglandins, aspirin like drugs and analgesia. Nature 1972; 240: 200-203.

34. Insel, PA. Analgesic– antipyretic and anti-inflammatory agents and drugs employed in the treatment of gout. In: Hardman JG, Limbird LE, Molinoff PB, Ruddon RW, Goodman

Gilman A. (Eds.). Goodman and Gilman's The Pharmacological Basis of Therapeutics, 1996, 9th edn. McGraw-Hill, USA, pp: 617-657

35. Mitchell JA. Akarasereenont P. Thiemermann C, Flower RJ, Vane JR. steroidal Selectivity of non antiinflammatory drugs as inhibitors of constitutive and inducible cyclooxygenase. Proc Natl Acad Sci. 1994; 90:11693-11697.

36. Seppala E, Laitinen O, Vapaaltalo H. Comparative effects of acetyl-salicylic acid, indomethacin and paracetamol on metabolites of arachidonic acid in plasma and urine in man. Int J Clin Pharmacol Res. 1983; 4: 265-269.

37. Bippi H, Frohich JC. Effects of acetylsalicylic acid and paracetamol alone and in combination on prostanoid synthesis in man. Br J Clin. Pharmacol. 1990; 29: 305-310.

38. Vane JR. Inhibition of prostaglandin synthesis as a mechanism of action for aspirin like drugs. Nat New Biol. 1971; 231: 232-235.

39. Bonnefont J, Chapuy E, Clottes E, Alloui A, Eschalier A. Spinal 5-HT1A receptors differentially influence nociceptive processing according to the nature of the noxious stimulus in rats: effect of WAY-100635 on the antinociceptive activities of paracetamol, venlafaxine and 5-HT. Pain. 2005; 114:482-490. 40. Courade J, Caussade F, Martin K, Besse D, Delchambre C, Hanoun N, Hamon C, Eschalier A, Cloarec A. Effect of acetaminophen on monoaminergic system in the rat central nervous system. Naunyn Schmiedebergs Arch Pharmacol. 2001; 364:534-537.

41. Carlsson KH, Jurna I. Central analgesic effects of paracetamol manifested by depression of nociceptive activity in thalamic neurons of the rat. Neurosci Lett. 1987; 79: 339- 343.

42. Björkmann R, Hallman KM, Hedner J, Hedner T, Henning M. Acetaminophen blocks spinal hyperalgesia induced by NMDA and substance P. Pain. 1994; 57: 259-264.

43. Botting R, Ayoub SS. COX-3 and the mechanism of action of acetaminophen / paracetamol. Prostaglandins Leukot Essent Fatty Acids. 2005; 72: 85-87.

44. Botting, RM. Mechanism of action of paracetamol: Is there a cyclooxygenase 3? Clin Infect Dis. 2000; Suppl 5: S202-S210.

45. Bonnefont J, Courade JP, Alloui A, Eschalier A. Antinociceptive mechanism of action of paracetamol. Drugs. 2003; 63:1-4.

46. Alloui A, Chassaing C, Schimidt J, Ardidi D, Dubray C, Cloarec A. Paracetamol exerts a spinal, tropisetronreversible, antinociceptive effect in an inflammatory pain model in rats. Eur J Pharmacol. 2002; 443: 71-77.

47. Raffa RB, Walker EA, Sterious SN. Opioid receptors and paracetamol (acetaminophen). Eur J Pharmacol. 2004; 503: 209-210.

48. Sandrini, M., Vitale, G., Ottani, A., Pini, L.A. The potentiation of analgesic activity of paracetamol plus morphine involves the serotoninergic system in rat brain. Inflamm Res. 1999; 48: 120- 127. 49. Fields HL, Basbaum AI. Central nervous system mechanisms of pain modulation. In: Wall PD, Melzack R, editors. Textbook of pain. 3rd ed. Edinburgh: Churchill Livingstone; 1994. Pp: 243-257.

50. Sasaki M, Ishizaki K, Obata H, Goto F. Effects of 5-HT2 and 5-HT3 receptors on the modulation of nociceptive transmission in rat spinal cord according to the formalin test. Eur J Pharmacol. 2001; 424: 45-52.

51. Tjolsen A, Lund A, Hole K. Antinociceptive effect of paracetamol in rats is partly dependent on spinal serotonergic systems. Eur J Pharmacol. 1991; 193: 193-201.

52. Pini L.A, Sandrini M, Vitale G. The antinociceptive action of paracetamol is associated with changes in the serotoninergic system in the rat brain. Eur J Pharmacol. 1996; 308: 31-40.

53. Vanegas H, Tortorici V. Opioidergic effects of nonopioid analgesics on the central nervous system. Cell Mol Neurobiol. 2002; 22:655-61.

54. Sacerdote P, Moza G, Mantegazza P, Panerai AE. Diclofenac and pirprofen modify pituitary and hypothalamic betaendorphin concentrations. Pharmacol Res Commun. 1983; 17: 679-684.

55. Domer F. Characterization of the analgesic activity of ketorolac in mice. Eur J Pharmacol. 1990; 177:127-135.

56. Baraldi M, Poggioli R, Santi M, Verogoni AV, Bertolini A. Antidepressantsand opiates interactions: pharmacological and biochemical evidences. Pharmacol Res Commun. 1983; 15: 843-857.

57. Bentley, K. C. and Head, T. W.: The additive analgesic efficacy of acetaminophen,1000 mg, and codeine, 60 mg, in dental pain. Clin Pharmacol Ther. 1987; 42: 634-640.

58. Malmgren R. The central serotoninergic system. Cephalalgia. 1990; 10:199-204.