

## Serotonergic and Noradrenergic Systems, But Not Dopaminergic, Mediate Tramadol-Induced Peripheral Antinociception in Rats

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### Abstract

We have recently demonstrated that tramadol acts peripherally to induce antinociceptive action through nitric oxide and potassium channels but not opioid and cannabinoid receptors in rats. However, since its actions in the periphery have not been elucidated fully, the noradrenergic, serotonergic, and dopaminergic systems were evaluated in the peripheral antinociception of tramadol against prostaglandin-induced hyperalgesia  $E_2$ . The method of removing rat paws subjected to compression was used to measure the nociceptive threshold. The non-selective  $\alpha_2$ -adrenergic yohimbine receptor antagonist (20, 40  $\mu\text{g}$ ) partially reversed tramadol analgesia, while the selective  $\alpha_{2C}$ -adrenergic receptor antagonist rauwolscine (10, 15, 20  $\mu\text{g}$ ) totally antagonized the analgesia. On the contrary, antagonists of the other  $\alpha_2$ -adrenergic receptor subtypes,  $\alpha_{2A}$ ,  $\alpha_{2B}$  and  $\alpha_{2D}$ , BRL44480, imiloxane and RX821002 (20  $\mu\text{g}$ ), respectively, did not alter antinociception. As for the serotonergic system, the 5-HT<sub>1B</sub>, 5-HT<sub>1D</sub>, and 5-HT<sub>3</sub> receptor antagonists, isamoltane, BRL 15572, and ondansetron (100 ng, 1 and 10  $\mu\text{g}$ ), respectively, managed to block tramadol antinociception, but the antagonists of tramadol the other evaluated receptors, 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> and 5-HT<sub>7</sub>, ketanserin and SB269970 (10  $\mu\text{g}$ ), respectively, were not able to exert the same effect. D<sub>2</sub>, D<sub>3</sub>, and D<sub>4</sub> receptor antagonists, remoxipride (4.20  $\mu\text{g}$ ), U99194 (32  $\mu\text{g}$ ), and L-745.870 (32  $\mu\text{g}$ ), respectively, did not change the tramadol-induced antinociception, suggesting that dopaminergic signaling may not be implicated in this antinociception. Our data suggest the peripheral antinociceptive action induced by tramadol when administered in a model of PGE<sub>2</sub>-induced hyperalgesia and that this effect should involve the  $\alpha_{2C}$ -adrenergic receptors, the 5-HT<sub>1B</sub>, 5-HT<sub>1D</sub> and 5-HT<sub>3</sub> serotonergic receptors. was unrelated to the activation of dopaminergic receptors

**Keywords:** Tramadol; Norepinephrine; Serotonin; Antinociception; Monoamines

### Abbreviations

PGE<sub>2</sub>: Prostaglandin E<sub>2</sub>; NA: Noradrenaline; IPI: Intraplantar

### Introduction

Tramadol ((2-[(dimethylamino)methyl]-1-(3-methoxyphenyl)cyclohexanol) is a centrally acting “weak opioid” drug that was developed in Germany and marketed globally in 1977 [1-3]. It is effective in the treatment of moderate to severe pain, such as postoperative pain, chronic pain, renal colic, acute trauma, and neuropathic pain, and it is even part of some multimodal anesthesia protocols [1,4]. The

mechanism of action of tramadol in antinociception is due to the central modulation of pain [5], not only by the opioid pathway, having a lower affinity for receptors compared to codeine and morphine [6], but also by its action on the serotonergic and noradrenergic systems [7,8]. Research reveals that tramadol can increase the influx of serotonin and norepinephrine into the central nervous system, although the specific mechanisms still need further investigation [9-11].

In addition to well-recognized systemic actions of tramadol, several preclinical studies report antinociception following spinal [12,13] and local peripheral administration [14-16]. In basic research, several local mechanisms for Tramadol have been reported, such as its weak peripheral agonism over  $\mu$  opioid receptor [17], activation of adrenergic receptors [18], lowering of the activation of vanilloid receptor 1 (TRPV-1), blocking N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) receptors [20], favoring the opening of nonspecific voltage-dependent potassium channels and acting in the nitric oxide pathway [21] or by direct blocking of sodium channels [22], and such actions also may contribute to antinociception, particularly when tramadol is given locally, and higher local tissue concentrations occur.

Experimentally, this drug has been successful in controlling peripheral pain in animal nociception models [23]. It is also effective in humans as an anesthetic adjuvant for brachial plexus block [24] or compared with several local anesthetics when applied subcutaneously [25].

The use of tramadol at the local level has been studied weakly, with few studies in the literature on the subject [26]. Subcutaneous or intradermal administration of opioids in humans is generally not recommended, so it does not seem to be the target of many studies. The pathways by which tramadol exerts local antinociception are not yet well elucidated, so the present work was dedicated to studying the possible monoaminergic pathways that tramadol could exert local antinociception in an animal model, using a model of mechanical hyperalgesia in rats.

## Materials and Methods

### Animals

Male Wistar rats weighing  $170 \pm 30$  g were used at the Bioterism Center of the Federal University of Minas Gerais (CEBIO-ICB/UFMG). The animals were kept at a controlled temperature ( $23 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ ), in a light/dark cycle of 12h (6:00-18:00h), and had free access to food and water. After the tests, the animals were euthanized by high-dose intraperitoneal injection of anesthetic (300 mg/kg ketamine hydrochloride and 15 mg/kg of xylazine hydrochloride, both Sigma-Aldrich, USA). The ethics committee on animal experimentation approved the project under protocol 138/2019. All experimental animal procedures followed the guide for the care and use of laboratory animals.

### Drugs and solvents

The drugs were administered to the paw in a volume of 100  $\mu\text{L}$ .

### Tramadol

Tramadol (Teuto, Brazil) was dissolved and diluted in a saline solution (0.9% NaCl).

### Hyperalgesic stimulus

Prostaglandin  $E_2$  ( $\text{PGE}_2$ ) (Sigma, USA) was dissolved in ethanol, and before injections, it was diluted in a saline solution (0.9% NaCl), obtaining a 2% ethanol concentration in saline.

### Aminergic receptors antagonists

All antagonists were dissolved and diluted in saline solution (0.9% NaCl). Yohimbine, BRL15572, and SB269970 were purchased from Sigma (USA). The other noradrenergic pathway antagonists, dopaminergic antagonists, and isamoltan were purchased at Tocris (USA). Ketanserin is from Biotrend (Switzerland) and ondansetron is from Cristália (Brazil).

### Noradrenergic

Yohimbine (non-selective  $\alpha_2$  receptor antagonist), BRL44480 (selective  $\alpha_2A$  receptor antagonist), imiloxan (selective  $\alpha_2B$  receptor antagonist), rauwolscine (selective  $\alpha_2C$  receptor antagonist), and RX821002 (selective  $\alpha_2D$  receptor antagonist).

### Serotonergic

Selective antagonists of 5-HT receptors were isamoltan (5-HT1B), BRL15572 (5-HT1D), ketanserin (5-HT2A), ondansetron (5-HT3) and SB269970 (5-HT7).

### Dopaminergic

The selective antagonists were remoxipride (D2), U99194 (D3), and L-754.870 (D4).

## Experimental procedure

### Paw pressure test

Sensitivity to mechanical nociceptive stimuli was measured using a modification of a classic paw pressure test [27]. Briefly, progressively increasing pressure was applied to the plantar surface of the rat's hind paws with an analgesimeter (Ugo Basile, Italy). The nociceptive threshold was defined as the force (g) that the rat attempted to withdraw its paw. Basal pain thresholds were set to 190 - 210g with a cut-off value of 300g to avoid any tissue damage. Considering hyperalgesia as a reduction of the nociceptive threshold, the other experiments had their results expressed as a function of the difference ( $\Delta$ ) of the basal threshold Changes in pain thresholds and that measured at the 3<sup>rd</sup> hour when there is a peak of PGE2 action.

### Nociceptive threshold measurement, hyperalgesia, and antinociception

The nociceptive threshold is the pressure exerted by the device at which the animal removes its paw (nociceptive reflex). Before administering any drug, the baseline measurement of the nociceptive threshold is made, that is, the threshold at which no substance acts on the animal's tissue or the zero moment. This measurement was performed three times, with 10 s between each measurement, and the final value is the mean between them.

To assess the duration of the tramadol effect, nociceptive threshold values were monitored over time, from the third hour, when PGE2 peaks, to the sixth hour, when the hyperalgesic agent no longer acts.

Considering hyperalgesia as a reduction of the nociceptive threshold, the results of the other experiments were expressed as a function of the difference ( $\Delta$ ) between the baseline threshold and that measured in the third hour, when PGE2 reaches its peak. If a drug is administered before or during hyperalgesia and has an antinociceptive effect, there will be a reduction in hyperalgesia with the consequent reduction in  $\Delta$ . On the contrary, if any injected drug has an action that interrupts the antinociception of tramadol, there will be a restoration of hyperalgesia and, likewise, an increase in  $\Delta$  values close to those obtained when only the hyperalgesic agent is administered.

### Experimental design

The protocols concerning the dose and the injection time of each drug used in this study were obtained through pilot experiments and literature data from our laboratory [28-30]. The differences in the drug injection times are according to the peak of action of each one to coincide with the same peak of action of all of them at the time of assessment of the nociceptive threshold (which is three hours after PGE<sub>2</sub> injection in the hind paw). Experimental protocols are described below, and the timeline of drug injections is indicated above each figure. Briefly, tramadol or its vehicles were injected 5 minutes before the third hour after PGE2 injection, the moment of maximal hyperalgesia caused by it. Yohimbine was injected 40 minutes prior to tramadol administration, and selective noradrenergic antagonists were injected

30 minutes prior to tramadol. The serotonergic and dopaminergic antagonists were injected 15 minutes before tramadol, except for remoxipride, administered 25 minutes before.

### Statistical analysis

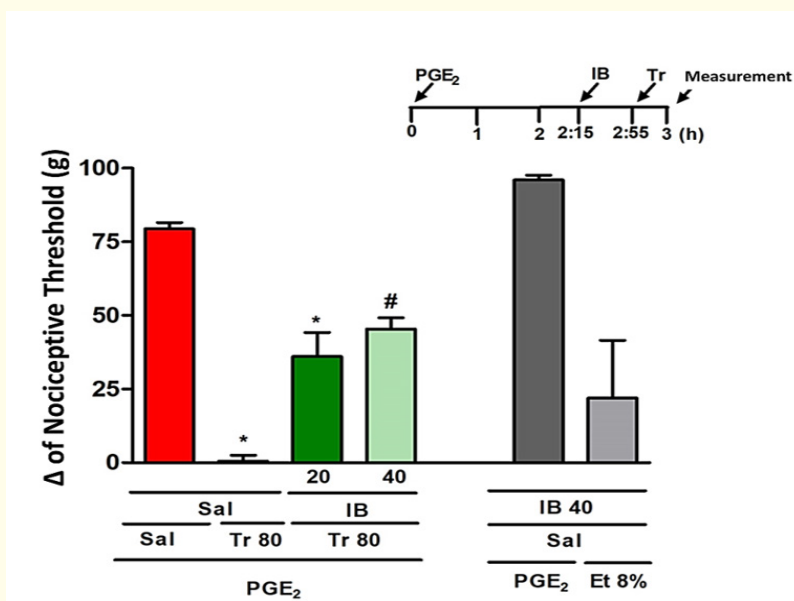
The GraphPad Prism 8.00 program was used for statistical analysis of the data. The results were expressed by means ± standard error (E.P.M.) for each experimental protocol. The data were submitted to one-way variance analysis (for temporal development analysis) or two-way followed by Bonferroni post-test for multiple comparisons. Only p-values lower than 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

## Results and Discussion

### Participation of the noradrenergic system in the peripheral antinociception of tramadol

#### Effect of the non-selective $\alpha_2$ -noradrenergic receptor antagonist yohimbine on the peripheral antinociception of tramadol

When intraplantar administration of the non-selective noradrenergic antagonist yohimbine, there was partial reversal (20  $\mu\text{g}/\text{paw}$ ) of the antinociceptive effect of tramadol (80  $\mu\text{g}/\text{paw}$ ), and total reversal occurred when administering a higher dose (40  $\mu\text{g}/\text{paw}$ ) of the antagonist (Figure 1).

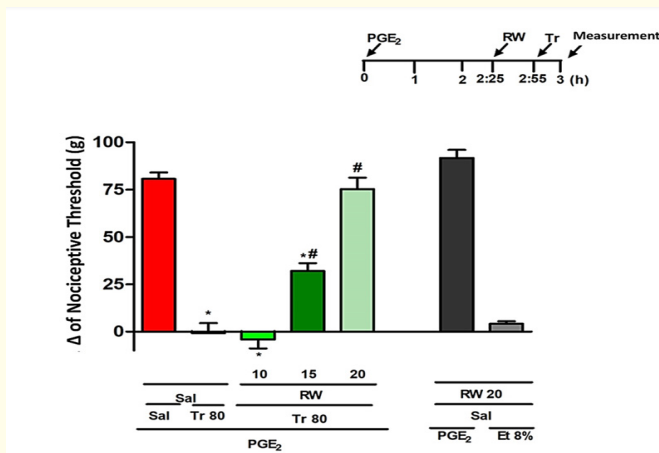


**Figure 1:** Reversal of the peripheral antinociceptive effect of tramadol (Tr, 80  $\mu\text{g}/\text{paw}$ ) by intraplantar administration of yohimbine (IB, 20 or 40  $\mu\text{g}/\text{paw}$ ). The drugs were administered at the times indicated in the diagram described at the top right of the graph. Each bar represents the mean ± E.P.M. n = 5. \* indicates a statistical difference in relation to the hyperalgesic control group (PGE<sub>2</sub> + Sal + Sal). # indicates a statistical difference in relation to the antinociception control group (PGE<sub>2</sub> + Sal + Tr). P<0.05, ANOVA + post-hoc Bonferroni.

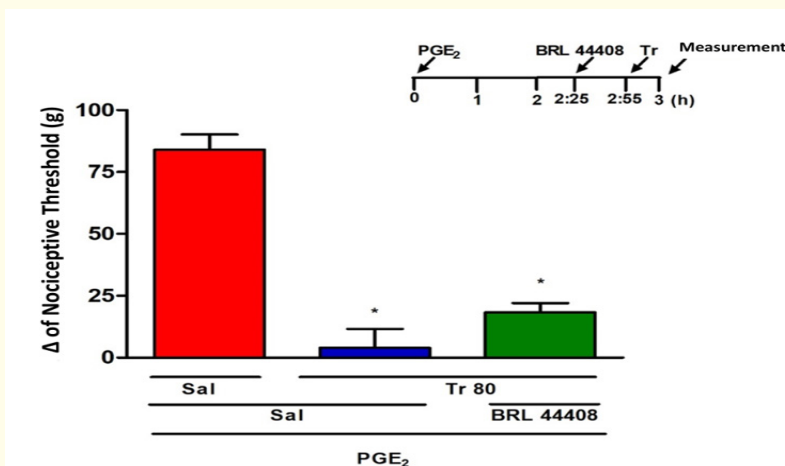
#### Effect of selective $\alpha_2$ -noradrenergic receptor antagonists on the peripheral antinociception of tramadol

To verify which  $\alpha_2$  noradrenergic receptor subtypes participate in the peripheral antinociception of tramadol (80  $\mu\text{g}/\text{paw}$ ), selective  $\alpha_2\text{A}$ ,  $\alpha_2\text{B}$ ,  $\alpha_2\text{C}$  and  $\alpha_2\text{D}$  noradrenergic receptor antagonists BRL 44480, imiloxone, rauwolscine, and 821002 RX, respectively, were ad-

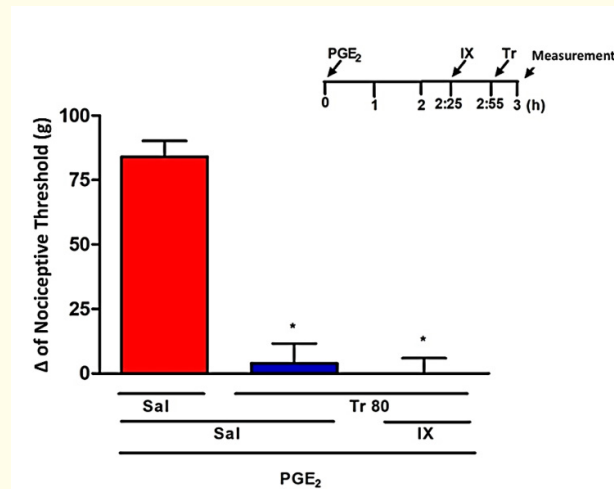
ministered i.pl. Only rauwolscine (10, 15, 20 µg/paw) was able to reverse the peripheral antinociception of tramadol in a dose-dependent manner (Figure 2), but not the other antagonists, 20 µg/paw (Figure 3-5).



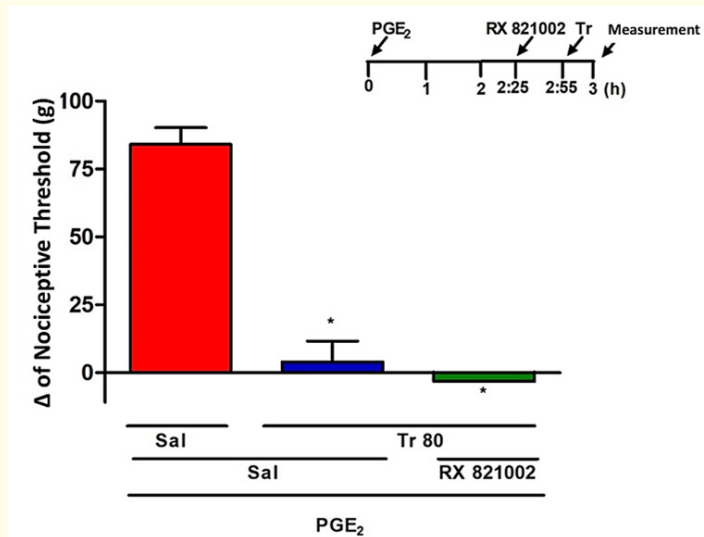
**Figure 2:** Antagonism of the antinociceptive effect of tramadol (80 µg/paw) by the administration of rauwolscine (RW, 10, 15, 20 µg/paw). The drugs were administered at the times indicated in the diagram described at the top right of the graph. Each bar represents the mean ± E.P.M. n=5. \* indicates a statistical difference in relation to the hyperalgesic control group (PGE<sub>2</sub> + Sal + Sal). # indicates a statistical difference in relation to the antinociception control group (PGE<sub>2</sub> + Sal + Tr). P<0.05, ANOVA + post-hoc Bonferroni.



**Figure 3:** Effect of BR 44408 injection (20 µg/paw) on the peripheral antinociception of tramadol (Tr, 80 µg/paw). The drugs were administered at the times indicated in the diagram described at the top right of the graph. Each bar represents the mean ± E.P.M. \* indicates a statistical difference in relation to the hyperalgesic control group (PGE<sub>2</sub> + Sal + Salt). P<0.05, ANOVA + post-hoc Bonferroni.



**Figure 4:** Effect of the injection of Imiloxan (IX, 20  $\mu\text{g}/\text{paw}$ ) on the peripheral antinociception of tramadol (Tr, 80  $\mu\text{g}/\text{paw}$ ). The drugs were administered at the times indicated in the diagram described at the top right of the graph. Each bar represents the mean  $\pm$  E.P.M. \* indicates a statistical difference in relation to the hyperalgesic control group (PGE<sub>2</sub> + Sal + Sal).  $P < 0.05$ , ANOVA + post-hoc Bonferroni.



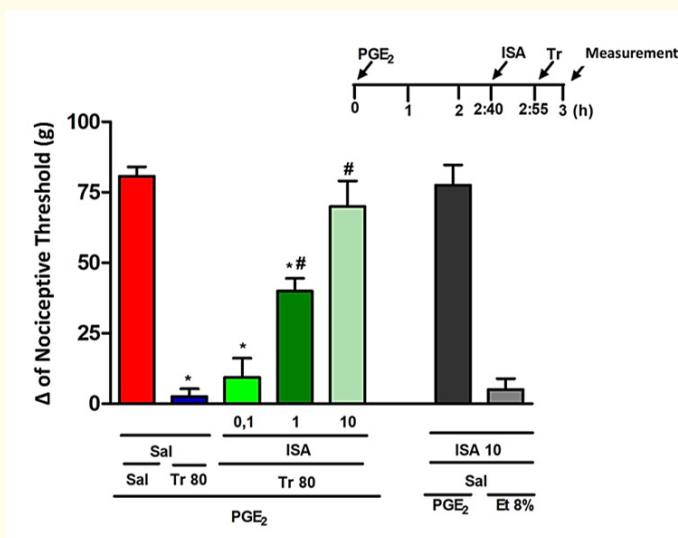
**Figure 5:** Effect of RX 821002 injection (20  $\mu\text{g}/\text{paw}$ ) on the peripheral antinociception of tramadol (Tr, 80  $\mu\text{g}/\text{paw}$ ). The drugs were administered at the times indicated in the diagram described at the top right of the graph. Each bar represents the mean  $\pm$  E.P.M. \* indicates a statistical difference in relation to the hyperalgesic control group (PGE<sub>2</sub> + Sal + Sal).  $P < 0.05$ , ANOVA + post-hoc Bonferroni.

### Participation of the serotonergic system in the peripheral antinociception of tramadol

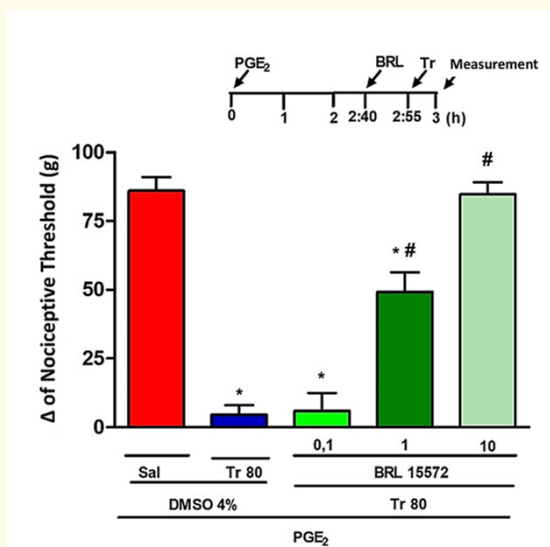
#### Effect of 5-HT<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonists on tramadol-induced antinociception

To evaluate the participation of 5-HT<sub>1</sub> receptors in the peripheral antinociception of tramadol, the selective antagonists isamoltane

and BRL 15572 (0.1, 1, 10 µg/paw), 5-HT1B and 5-HT1D receptors, respectively, were injected intraplantally. Both drugs produced a total reversal of the peripheral antinociception of tramadol (80 µg/paw) in a dose-dependent manner (Figure 6 and 7).



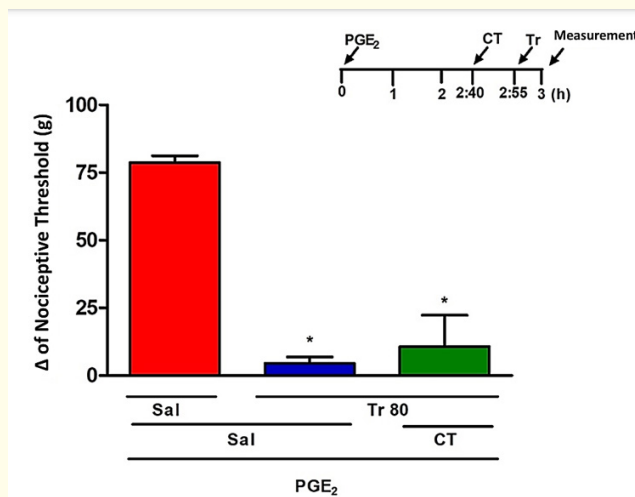
**Figure 6:** Antagonism of the antinociceptive effect of tramadol (Tr, 80 µg/paw) by the administration of isamoltan (ISA, 0.1, 1, 10 µg/paw). The drugs were administered at the times indicated in the diagram described at the top right of the graph. Each bar represents the mean ± E.P.M. n=5. \* indicates a statistical difference in relation to the hyperalgesic control group (PGE<sub>2</sub> + Sal + Sal). # indicates a statistical difference in relation to the antinociception control group (PGE<sub>2</sub> + Sal + Tr). P<0.05, ANOVA + post-hoc Bonferroni.



**Figure 7:** Antagonism of the antinociceptive effect of tramadol (Tr, 80 µg/paw) by the administration of BRL 15572 (0.1, 1, 10 µg/paw). The drugs were administered at the times indicated in the diagram described at the top right of the graph. Each bar represents the mean ± E.P.M. n=5. \* indicates a statistical difference in relation to the hyperalgesic control group (PGE<sub>2</sub> + DMSO 4% + Sal). # indicates a statistical difference in relation to the antinociception control group (PGE<sub>2</sub> + DMSO 4% + Tr). P<0.05, ANOVA + post-hoc Bonferroni.

### Effect of 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> receptor antagonist on tramadol-induced antinociception

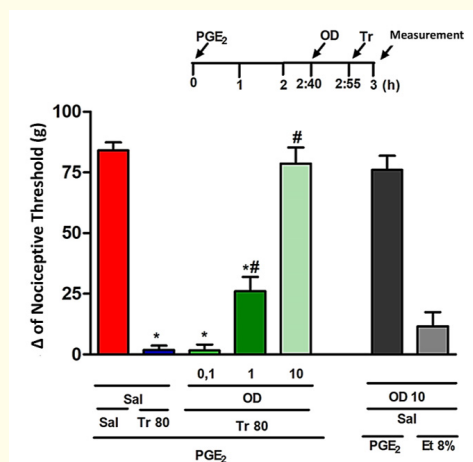
Figure 8 shows that the administration i.p.l. of ketanserin (10 µg/paw), a selective antagonist of 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> receptors, was not able to reverse the peripheral antinociception of tramadol (80 µg/paw).



**Figure 8:** Effect of ketanserin injection (CT, 10 µg/paw) on the peripheral antinociception of tramadol (Tr, 80 µg/paw). The drugs were administered at the times indicated in the diagram described at the top right of the graph. Each bar represents the mean ± E.P.M. \* indicates a statistical difference in relation to the hyperalgesic control group (PGE<sub>2</sub> + Sal + Sal). P<0.05, ANOVA + post-hoc Bonferroni.

### Effect of 5-HT<sub>3</sub> receptor antagonist on tramadol-induced antinociception

Figure 9 shows that the administration i.p.l. of ondansetron (0.1, 1, 10 µg/paw), a selective antagonist of 5-HT<sub>3</sub> receptors, was able to reverse the peripheral antinociception of tramadol (80 µg/paw) in a dose-dependent manner.

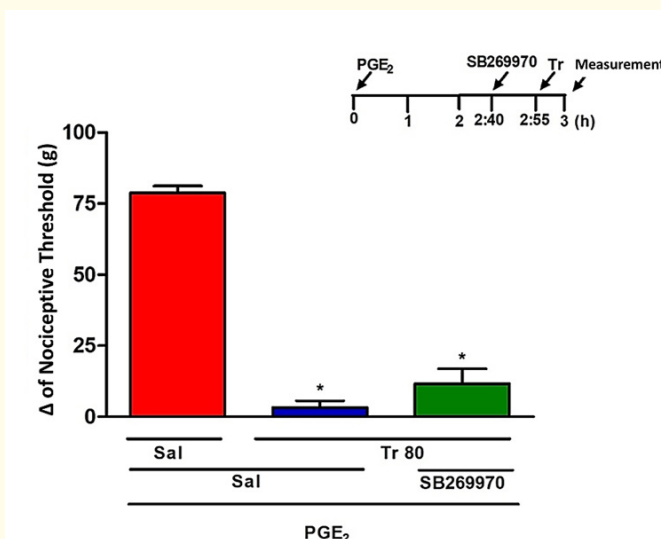


**Figure 9:** Antagonism of the antinociceptive effect of tramadol (Tr, 80 µg/paw) by the administration of ondansetron (OD, 0.1, 1, 10 µg/paw). The drugs were administered at the times indicated in the diagram described at the top right of the graph. Each bar represents the mean ± E.P.M. n=5. \* indicates a statistical difference in relation to the hyperalgesic control group (PGE<sub>2</sub> + DMSO 4% + Sal). # indicates a statistical difference in relation to the antinociception control group (PGE<sub>2</sub> + DMSO 4% + Tr). P<0.05, ANOVA + post-hoc Bonferroni.



### Effect of 5-HT7 receptor antagonist on tramadol-induced antinociception

Figure 10 shows that the administration i.pl. of SB269970 (10µg/paw), a selective antagonist of 5-HT7 receptors, could not reverse the peripheral antinociception of tramadol (80 µg/paw).



**Figure 10:** Effect of SB269970 injection (10 µg/paw) on the peripheral antinociception of tramadol (Tr, 80 µg/paw). The drugs were administered at the times indicated in the diagram described at the top right of the graph. Each bar represents the mean ± E.P.M. \* indicates a statistical difference in relation to the hyperalgesic control group (PGE<sub>2</sub> + Sal + Sal). P<0.05, ANOVA + post-hoc Bonferroni.

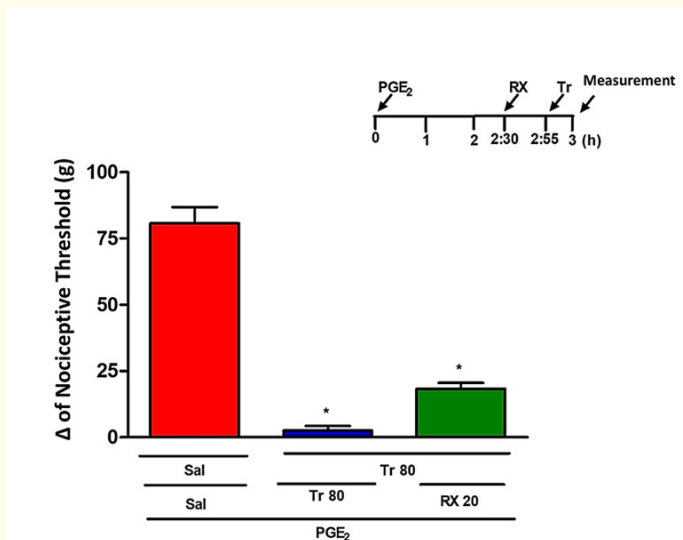
### Participation of the dopaminergic system in the peripheral antinociception of tramadol

To study the participation of dopaminergic receptors in tramadol-induced peripheral antinociception, the selective D2, D3, and D4 receptor antagonists remoxipride (20 µg/paw) (Figure 11), U99194 (32 µg/paw) (Figure 12), and L-745.870 (32 µg/paw) (Figure 13) were injected i.pl., respectively. There was no reversal of the antinociceptive effect of tramadol (80 µg/paw) in any test performed with these antagonists.

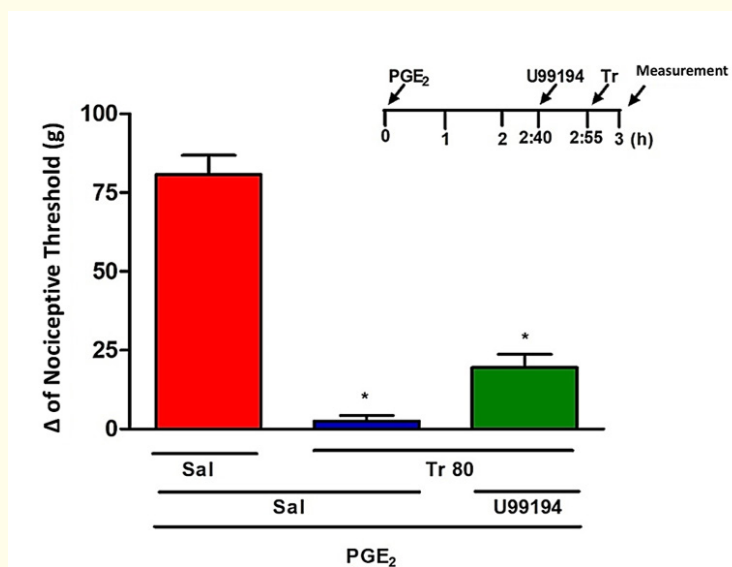
### Discussion

Studies on tramadol remain largely focused on its systemic mechanism of action. Little is known about the pathways by which its peripheral antinociception occurs. In veterinary medicine, tramadol is the opioid analgesic most prescribed for moderate to severe pain in Brazil and the United States [31-33]. Since the adverse effects, at least in some species, are little evidenced, being restricted to the reduction of intestinal motility and respiratory rate, emesis, and excitation, especially in cats, this drug seems to be a safe option for the treatment of several painful pathologies [33,34].

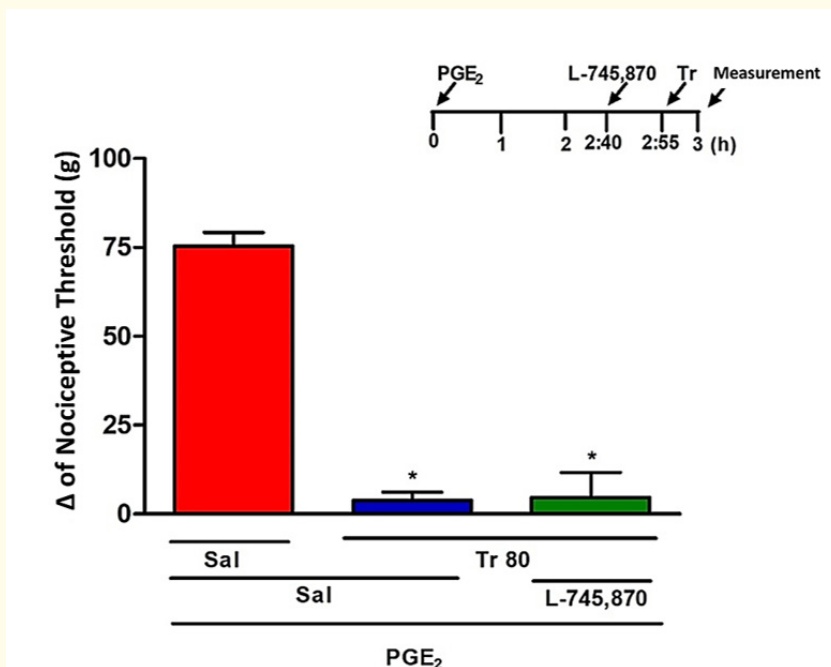
In animals, the local effect of tramadol in a plantar incision model was evaluated. Peripheral nociception in an incisional model and mechanical hyperalgesia was described by [35], in which naloxone could not reverse antinociception. This reinforces the theory that the peripheral antinociception of tramadol is not due exclusively to the opioid pathway. In addition, it has been shown that the opioid pathway



**Figure 11:** Effect of remoxipride injection (RX, 20  $\mu\text{g}/\text{paw}$ ) on the peripheral antinociception of tramadol (Tr, 80  $\mu\text{g}/\text{paw}$ ). The drugs were administered at the times indicated in the diagram depicted in the upper right corner of the graph. Each bar represents the mean  $\pm$  E.P.M.  $n = 5$ . \* indicates a statistical difference in relation to the hyperalgesic control group (PGE<sub>2</sub> + Sal + Sal).  $P < 0.05$ , ANOVA + post-hoc Bonferroni.



**Figure 12:** Effect of U99194 injection (32  $\mu\text{g}/\text{paw}$ ) on the peripheral antinociception of tramadol (Tr, 80  $\mu\text{g}/\text{paw}$ ). The drugs were administered at the times indicated in the diagram described at the top right of the graph. Each bar represents the mean  $\pm$  E.P.M.  $n = 5$ . \* indicates a statistical difference in relation to the hyperalgesic control group (PGE<sub>2</sub> + Sal + Sal).  $P < 0.05$ , ANOVA + post-hoc Bonferroni.



**Figure 13:** Effect of L-745,870 injection (32 µg/paw) on the peripheral antinociception of tramadol (Tr, 80 µg/paw). The drugs were administered at the times indicated in the diagram described at the top right of the graph. Each bar represents the mean ± E.P.M. n = 5. \* indicates a statistical difference in relation to the hyperalgesic control group (PGE<sub>2</sub> + Sal + Sal). P<0.05, ANOVA + post-hoc Bonferroni.

is not the primary peripheral antinociceptive mechanism of tramadol and that the nitrenergic pathway and potassium channels participate as antinociceptive pathways of this drug [21]. Tramadol is a drug included in the class of “atypical opioids” as it has an opioid and non-opioid mechanism of action.

In the present study, yohimbine, a non-selective α<sub>2</sub>-adrenergic receptor antagonist, was administered as pretreatment, and as a result, we obtained a partial blockade of the peripheral antinociceptive activity of tramadol. However, in contrast to what was found in our experiments, [36] suggested that yohimbine cannot block the antinociception of tramadol in a thermal nociception model. The differences concerning this study may involve the dose of the drugs, route of administration, and/or nociceptive model used.

Tramadol is a racemic mixture of two enantiomers, (+)-tramadol and (-)-tramadol. The mixture is capable of increasing extracellular levels of monoamines, including NA. The effects of racemic mixing are not merely additive; they seem to act synergistically, with each fraction enhancing the other [37]. In addition, the levorotatory enantiomer, (-)-tramadol, would have greater selectivity by inhibiting NA reuptake [37], and these effects would be modulated by the metabolite M1, with greater affinity for µ-opioid receptors [38]. In addition, the levogyre fraction seems to increase NA efflux compared to other fractions, in addition to prolonging the uptake of this neurotransmitter in the LC [9,39]. Therefore, the antinociception of tramadol through the opioid-monoaminergic pathway seems to be stereoselective [40]. According to our results, peripheral antinociception blockade was total with yohimbine injection. Since there is no hepatic metabolism at the peripheral level, there is no formation of metabolites, and, therefore, there is no potentiation of the noradrenergic antinociceptive

effect by activating opioid receptors. *In vitro* studies suggest that the (-)-tramadol enantiomer is more selective for  $\alpha 2$  receptors since the reduction of action potential triggers and hyperpolarization are inhibited by adding rauwolscine to the medium. It would also increase the concentration of NA around the adrenergic receptors. In addition, (+)-tramadol could not reduce the firing in the presence of this selective  $\alpha 2C$  antagonist [40].

In formalin testing and intraperitoneal administration of tramadol, NA levels are increased in the inflamed paw, probably by blocking the reuptake of this neurotransmitter in peripheral nerve endings [41]. At the peripheral and spinal level, in a model of inflammation caused by carrageenan, non-selective  $\alpha 2$  antagonists can block the effect of potent opioids, such as morphine [42,43]. This would occur by activation of the descending pathway as an analgesic mechanism of opioids [44]. Tramadol, as an atypical opioid, would probably use this analgesic route as well. During the inflammatory process, NA levels are elevated in the spinal cord. Thus, the blockade of opioid action by  $\alpha 2$  antagonists in tissues inflamed or sensitized in the periphery evidences the participation of spinal NA in analgesia [44]. In a rat model of arthritis followed by mechanical nociception by paw compression, intravenously injected tramadol was antagonized by yohimbine to a significant extent [45]. We used selective antagonists as pre-treatment to evaluate the possible participation of different  $\alpha 2$  receptors. The selective  $\alpha 2C$  receptor antagonist, rauwolscine, could block the analgesic effect of tramadol in a dose-dependent manner. On the other hand,  $\alpha 2A$ ,  $\alpha 2B$ , and  $\alpha 2D$  receptor antagonists did not block antinociception. Although they do not affect antinociception, studies demonstrate the presence of mRNA for these receptors in the dorsal root ganglion. The  $\alpha 2C$  receptor seems to have a higher concentration of mRNA, while  $\alpha 2A$  is practically not detected for this protein.  $\alpha 2B$  can also have mRNA expressed in the DRG. The studies did not evaluate the presence of  $\alpha 2D$  mRNA [46]. Knockout animals for the  $\alpha 2A$  receptor showed greater sensitivity to the antinociceptive effects of tramadol in a thermal nociception model. Thus,  $\alpha 2A$  antagonists would improve the antinociception of tramadol, and the loss of  $\alpha 2A$  function would imply opioid analgesia by indirect mechanisms [47]. However, peripherally, this effect was not observed in our study.

The stimulation of adrenoceptors by tramadol, especially the levogyre enantiomer [40], would increase  $K^+$  conductance, generating membrane hyperpolarization and inhibition of the nociceptive process [47,48]. Since, according to our results, ATP-dependent potassium channels play a role in tramadol analgesia and  $\alpha 2$  receptors were blocked, this theory corroborates our results. The  $\alpha 2$  analgesic mechanisms are similar at the spinal and supraspinatus levels [47,49]. In our study, yohimbine blocked antinociception entirely, as did rauwolscine. Thus, it is suggested that tramadol can release endogenous NA, which binds to  $\alpha 2C$  receptors, interrupting painful transmission in peripheral tissues.

In the periphery, the dorsal root ganglion expresses mRNA for several subtypes of serotonergic receptors, especially in conditions of peripheral inflammation. The 5-HT<sub>1A</sub>, 5-HT<sub>1B</sub>, 5-HT<sub>2A</sub>, and 5-HT<sub>3</sub> receptors have their mRNA increased in conditions of immediate inflammation. On the other hand, the 5-HT<sub>2C</sub>, 5-HT<sub>4</sub>, 5-HT<sub>6</sub>, and 5-HT<sub>7</sub> receptors mRNA is expressed later in inflammation. No alteration in mRNA expression is perceived in 5-HT<sub>1D</sub>, 5-HT<sub>1F</sub>, and 5-HT<sub>5A</sub> [50]. Previous studies carried out in our laboratory have shown that the 5-HT<sub>1B</sub>, 5-HT<sub>2A</sub>, and 5-HT<sub>3</sub> receptors participate in the peripheral antinociception of serotonin at low doses in a dose-dependent manner since the antagonists of these receptors can reverse the antihyperalgesic effect of this neurotransmitter [51]. Similarly, in our study, the 5-HT<sub>1B</sub> and 5-HT<sub>3</sub> receptor antagonists, isamoltan and ondansetron, respectively, but not ketanserin, the 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> receptor antagonist, abolished the antinociceptive effect of tramadol in a dose-dependent manner, suggesting the participation of these receptors in tramadol analgesia. In addition, BRL 15572, a 5-HT<sub>1D</sub> receptor antagonist, could also block the effect of tramadol in a dose-dependent manner. This result was not expected since did not find this result in their studies, but rather the opposite, the non-participation of this receptor in low-dose serotonin analgesia at the peripheral level [51,52]. When injected alone, the antagonists used in our experiments did not show any analgesic or hyperalgesic effect.

The 5-HT<sub>1B</sub> and 5-HT<sub>1D</sub> receptors are coupled to the  $G_i$  protein, which can reduce cAMP production and stimulate intracellular calcium release. They are structurally similar receptors, with the 5-HT<sub>1B</sub> receptor most found in rodents and 5-HT<sub>1D</sub> in non-rodents [53].

In the formalin test, these receptors showed participation in peripheral antinociception [54], and knockout animals for 5-HT<sub>1B</sub> receptors had increased responses to thermal and inflammatory nociception in the formalin test [55].

It is known that increasing plasma 5-HT concentration, without reaching toxic levels, generates analgesia. Stimulation of 5-HT<sub>3</sub> receptors can be achieved with quipazine injection. This causes the potentiation of analgesia in the immediate postoperative period [56]. The 5-HT<sub>3</sub> receptors are located in peripheral sensory fibers, promoting rapid depolarization. They are ligand-controlled ion channels whose opening allows sodium and calcium influx and potassium efflux [53]. However, subcutaneous 5-HT<sub>3</sub> agonist or antagonist administration could not affect serotonin-produced hyperalgesia [57]. On the other hand, the concomitant use of ondansetron, a 5-HT<sub>3</sub> receptor blocker, with tramadol reduces analgesic potential [58] and also reduces the antinociception of paroxetine in an abdominal writhing model [59]. In fact, in our experiments, this drug reduced the peripheral antinociception of tramadol in a dose-dependent manner, suggesting an important role of this receptor in tramadol analgesia.

5-HT<sub>2A</sub> receptors are coupled to the G<sub>q</sub> protein, activating the IP<sub>3</sub>/PKC/Ca<sup>2+</sup> pathway [53,60]. The administration of a 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> agonist generates thermal hyperalgesia, while its antagonist can reverse the pain produced by the administration of 5-HT [57]. The mRNA for 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> is increased in rats with peripheral inflammation, and selective antagonists for this receptor, when administered systemically, can antagonize tramadol analgesia partially [61]. They are receptors generally associated with antidepressant events, therefore playing an important role in the analgesic mechanism of serotonin. However, in our experiments, no reversal of tramadol analgesia by the ketanserin antagonist was observed. Other studies corroborate these results. The peripheral analgesia of paroxetine was also not blocked by ketanserin injection in the experiments [59] suggesting a pharmacological similarity between tramadol and this antidepressant. In studies with venlafaxine, it was observed that tramadol was also not bound to the 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> receptor or venlafaxine itself [62]. Further studies are needed to elucidate this peripheral analgesic route. It is important to note that the dextrorotatory enantiomer increases 5-HT efflux in the dorsal raphe nucleus [9,39].

The 5-HT<sub>7</sub> receptor is the only receptor evaluated in the experiments coupled to the G<sub>s</sub> protein, that is, it activates CA and increases cAMP levels. Consequently, neuronal excitability increases [53,60]. The mRNA of these receptors is detected in the sensory neurons of mice and humans [60]. In fact, in the formalin test, the 5-HT<sub>7</sub> receptor has a pronociceptive action, and the 5-HT<sub>7</sub> agonist produced pain in phase 2 of the test and was reversed by its antagonist [60]. In our experiments, however, the 5-HT<sub>7</sub> receptor does not seem to have any involvement in peripheral analgesia by tramadol since the SB269970 antagonist could not reverse the analgesia produced by the opioid. The role of serotonergic receptors in the mechanism of action of this atypical opioid still requires further study.

The dopaminergic system has also been evaluated in the study of peripheral pain. Regarding tramadol, few studies have been done to elucidate the participation of these receptors in the antinociception of this opioid. In our study, we evaluated the action of D<sub>2</sub>, D<sub>3</sub>, and D<sub>4</sub> receptor antagonists, and none of them could block the peripheral antinociception of tramadol. Studies involving oxidative stress produced by tramadol and consequent reduction of the seizure threshold have shown that D<sub>2</sub> receptor agonists can reduce the seizure threshold further. In contrast, antagonists of these receptors produce the opposite effect, increasing the threshold, suggesting partial blockade of tramadol action and that this action is partially through the dopaminergic pathway [63]. The D<sub>2</sub> receptor can be found in the CNS and the periphery, having a high density in the dorsal horn of the medulla [64].

The administration of a D<sub>3</sub> receptor agonist, 7-OH-DPAT, attenuated the antinociception produced by systemically injected morphine. This suggests the relationship between opioids and the dopaminergic pathway [65]. In our study, the antagonist U 99194 peripherally could not block the antinociception of tramadol, making it unclear whether these receptors play a role in tramadol analgesia in our model. Regarding dopaminergic transporters (DAT), tramadol showed low interference on transporters in rat cortex synaptosomes [10]. On the other hand, binding assays showed that the metabolite M1 could bind to DAT, as was the racemic (±)-tramadol mixture [66].

## Conclusion

In conclusion, our data suggest the peripheral action induced by tramadol when administered in a model of PGE2-induced hyperalgesia and that there is interaction with  $\alpha$ 2C-adrenergic receptors and with serotonergic receptors 5-HT1B, 5-HT1D, and 5-HT3. The present study proved to be important in understanding the mechanisms of action of tramadol and elucidating the possible applications of the drug in veterinary and human medicine at the local level. We emphasize the need for future investigations, and this work opens doors to new perspectives, such as the quantification of receptors on the plantar surface of rats using western blot and pharmacological experiments in a model of hyperalgesia by PGE2 using the enantiomers (+)-tramadol, (-)-tramadol and the metabolite M1.

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## Conflict of Interest

The authors of this article declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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