

Centrally-mediated antinociceptive actions of GABA_A receptor agonists in the rat spared nerve injury model of neuropathic pain

Frederik Rode^{a,*}, Dorthe G. Jensen^a, Gordon Blackburn-Munro^b, Ole J. Bjerrum^a

^aDanish University of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Department of Pharmacology, Jagtvej 120, Copenhagen, Denmark

^bDepartment of Pharmacology, Neurosearch A/S, Pederstrupvej 93, Ballerup, DK-2750, Denmark

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Abstract

Gamma aminobutyric acid (GABA) plays a major role in the central hyperexcitability associated with nerve damage. The precise antinociceptive actions mediated by GABA_A receptor agonists remain unclear as previous studies have shown mixed results in neuropathic pain models. Thus, various drugs which modulate GABA_A receptor function were tested in the rat spared nerve injury (SNI) model of neuropathic pain. The selective GABA_A receptor agonist gaboxadol dose-dependently (6 and 15 mg/kg, s.c.) reversed hindpaw mechanical allodynia and hyperalgesia for at least 150 min after administration. The GABA_A receptor agonist muscimol (0.02–2 mg/kg, s.c.) also dose-dependently reversed mechanical allodynia, although the maximal effect achieved was less than that observed for gaboxadol. Mechanical hyperalgesia was attenuated only by the highest dose of muscimol. In contrast, the selective GABA_A receptor agonist isoguvacine (20 mg/kg, s.c.) which has poor central nervous system penetration, and the benzodiazepine-site ligand zolpidem (20 mg/kg, s.c.) were ineffective against either nociceptive behaviour. In the rotarod test, both gaboxadol (15 mg/kg) and zolpidem impaired motor function for at least 60 min after injection; muscimol (2 mg/kg) and gaboxadol (6 mg/kg) were ineffective. Importantly, the ataxic effects induced by gaboxadol resolved 1–2 h after administration, a time point where clear antiallodynic and antihyperalgesic actions still occurred. Thus, systemic administration of blood–brain penetratable selective GABA_A receptor agonists attenuate nociceptive behaviours in the SNI rat model of neuropathic pain that can be considered to occur independently of other effects on motor function.

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1. Introduction

Neuropathic pain can arise from damage to nerves within the peripheral or central nervous systems, either as a direct result of physical injury or as a consequence of metabolic dysfunction or viral infection. It can be difficult to treat with typical analgesics, an implication of which is that two-thirds of neuropathic pain patients do not experience sufficient pain relief (Jensen and Baron, 2003). Quality and quantity of sleep are also affected (Nicholson and Verma, 2004). This latter feature when taken together with deleterious sensory deficits can mean that neuropathic pain patients have an

increased propensity for developing psychiatric disorders. There is now substantial evidence to suggest that antidepressants and antiepileptics may improve signs and symptoms of neuropathic pain. Nevertheless, neither drug class offers broad-spectrum pain relief (Dworkin et al., 2003). Thus, other drug classes with alternative mechanisms of action may help to resolve unmet needs in neuropathic pain patients (Harden and Cohen, 2003).

Gamma aminobutyric acid (GABA) is the principal inhibitory neurotransmitter within the superficial laminae of the spinal dorsal horn, as indicated from animal studies which have reported enhanced responsiveness to tactile and chemical stimulation after intrathecal administration of the GABA_A receptor antagonist bicuculline (Kaneko and Hammond, 1997; Malan et al., 2002). A more direct involvement of GABA_A receptors in persistent pain states

* Corresponding author. Tel.: +4535306515; fax: +4535306020.

E-mail address: FR@dfuni.dk (F. Rode).

is indicated by the attenuating actions of the GABA_A receptor agonists muscimol and isoguvacine on second phase flinching behaviours in the rat formalin test (Kaneko and Hammond, 1997). In addition, it has been shown that antagonism of GABA_A receptors enhances spinal cord central sensitisation (Sivilotti and Woolf, 1994). In turn, central sensitisation is thought to underlie the behavioural manifestation of sensory deficits such as allodynia and hyperalgesia in animal models of neuropathic pain (Blackburn-Munro, 2004). Accordingly, the spinal administration of GABA_A receptor agonists such as muscimol and isoguvacine, has been reported to attenuate behavioural allodynia and hyperalgesia in multiple animal models of neuropathic pain (Malan et al., 2002; Cui et al., 1996). However, inconsistencies are apparent, since muscimol has been reported to be ineffective in attenuating pain associated with photochemically-induced sciatic nerve injury and photochemically-induced ischaemic spinal cord injury (Hao et al., 1991; Hao et al., 1999).

The selective GABA_A receptor agonist gaboxadol [4,5,6,7-tetrahydroisoxazolo(5,4-c)pyridin-3-ol; THIP] is a conformationally restricted analogue of muscimol with anticonvulsant properties, which is currently under registration for the treatment of insomnia (Frolund et al., 2002). Gaboxadol has also been anecdotally reported to attenuate nociceptive pain in both animals and humans (Krogsgaard-Larsen et al., 1997; Frolund et al., 2002). Gaboxadol has greater affinity for central GABA_A receptors than muscimol and is better tolerated after systemic administration (Krogsgaard-Larsen et al., 2004). Furthermore, unlike the benzodiazepine-site ligand zolpidem, which acts to positively modulate GABA_A receptor function, gaboxadol effectively promotes sleep without inducing tolerance after chronic treatment in rats (Lu et al., 2003).

Given that gaboxadol appears to have a more favourable side-effect profile than other GABA_A receptor agonists (Krogsgaard-Larsen et al., 2004), we have tested for antinociceptive effects of systemically administered gaboxadol in the rat spared nerve injury model of neuropathic pain. For comparison we also tested morphine, muscimol, isoguvacine (which has poorer central nervous system penetration than muscimol or gaboxadol; Krogsgaard-Larsen et al., 1981) and zolpidem in the same model.

2. Methods

Adult male Sprague–Dawley rats (Taconic, Denmark) weighing 250 g on the day of surgery were used in this study except where mentioned. They were housed in groups of five in cages containing soft bedding. Food and water were available ad libitum and the light–dark-cycle was 12:12 h. The animals were habituated to their surroundings for 14 days prior to surgery. All experiments were performed according to the Danish Committee for Experiments on Animals and the ethical guidelines of the International Association of the Study of Pain (Zimmermann, 1983).

2.1. Surgery

The method of inducing spared nerve injury (SNI) has been described in detail previously (Decosterd and Woolf, 2000). Rats were anaesthetised with a subcutaneous (s.c.) mixture of fentanyl (5 mg/kg) and midazolam (2.5 mg/kg). The skin of the lateral left thigh was incised and the overlying musculature separated to expose the sciatic nerve and its three terminal branches; the sural, tibial and common peroneal nerves. The tibial and common peroneal nerves were ligated with 5/0 silk and sectioned distal to the ligation. Any stretching or contact with the intact sural nerve was avoided. The muscle was then closed in layers and the skin sutured together.

2.2. Behavioural testing

The testing for the presence of neuropathic pain behaviours was performed in the same room in which the animals were routinely housed. Animals were tested before surgery, on the third day after surgery and a further four times over the following two weeks after injury. On the day of testing, SNI rats were placed in individual plexiglass compartments with a metal grid floor. The testing compartments were elevated to provide the operator with easy access to the plantar surface of the rat's hindpaws.

On the day of drug testing a 30 min adaptation period prior to baseline testing was allowed. All drug testing in SNI rats was performed blind by the observer, using a semi-randomized cross-over paradigm. Only those animals (20 in total) with distinct neuropathic behaviour were included in the study, and all SNI rats received more than one dose of drug and were assigned to more than one drug treatment. A minimal period of 3–4 days was allowed for drug washout, and the studies were conducted from 4 to 12 weeks after surgery. On the day of testing, after a baseline measurement was made prior to drug injection, the effect of the drug on the behavioural response was monitored at 30-min intervals for up to 150 min post-injection.

2.2.1. Mechanical allodynia

A set of von Frey monofilaments (0.008 g–100 g, Stoelting, IL, USA) was used to test the mechanical withdrawal threshold of the hindpaws. The monofilaments or hairs were applied to the lateral plantar surface of the hindpaw (Decosterd and Woolf, 2000). The hairs were applied with increasing force, starting from below the withdrawal threshold until the rat withdrew the paw. The force in g of the von Frey hair able to cause 3 withdrawals after 5 consecutive stimulations (separated by 1–2 s) was taken as the withdrawal threshold. Lifting of the paw due to normal locomotor activity was ignored (Hao et al., 1999).

2.2.2. Mechanical hyperalgesia

A new safety pin (0.7 mm diameter and 5 cm long) was applied to the allodynic area of the ipsilateral hindpaw of the rat. The pin was routinely applied with a force sufficient to produce a reflex withdrawal response in non-operated animals, but at an intensity insufficient to penetrate the skin. The duration of the paw withdrawal was measured with a stopwatch. Prior to surgery, the withdrawal duration was too short to time accurately and was set to an arbitrarily minimal time of 0.5 s. A cut-off time of 15 s was applied for the injured hindpaw after surgery (Erichsen and Blackburn-Munro, 2002; Tal and Bennett, 1994).

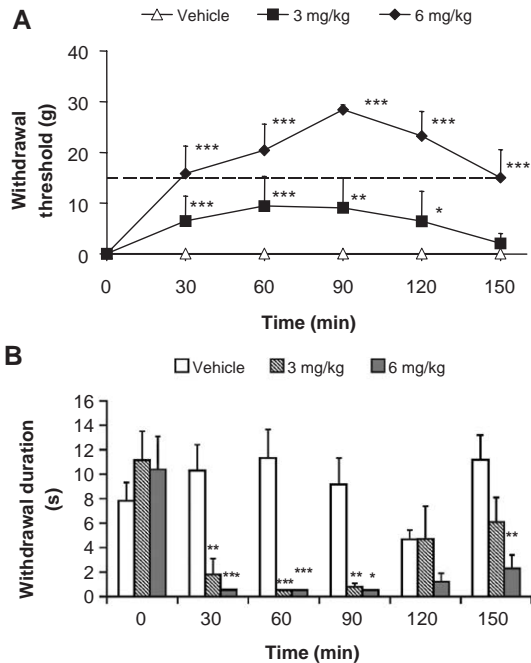


Fig. 1. Effect of the μ -opioid receptor agonist morphine on nociceptive responses in SNI rats. Morphine (3 and 6 mg/kg, s.c.) or vehicle was administered immediately after the baseline response (time 0) had been obtained and the time course of drug actions followed. (A) Paw withdrawal threshold (g) in response to von Frey hair stimulation of the injured hindpaw (as an indication of mechanical allodynia) was dose-dependently reversed by morphine. (B) Paw withdrawal duration (s) in response to pin prick stimulation of the injured hindpaw (as an indication of mechanical hyperalgesia) was dose-dependently attenuated by morphine. Dashed line represents pre-surgery value. All groups, $n=6$ animals. Data are presented as mean \pm S.E.M. * $P<0.05$, ** $P<0.01$, *** $P<0.001$ vs. vehicle (two-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's t -test).

2.2.3. Rotarod test

In normal, uninjured rats (Harlan Scandinavia, Denmark; 250–300 g) changes in motor performance after drug administration were measured using the rotarod test (Blackburn-Munro et al., 2004). Rats were placed on the rotating rod (Ugo Basile, Italy) and required to walk against the motion as the speed was accelerated from 3 rpm to 30 rpm, with the time spent on the rod measured for up to 180 s. Rats received two training trials (separated by 3–4 h) the day prior to drug testing for acclimatisation purposes. On the day of testing after a baseline response had been obtained, they were subsequently administered with drug or vehicle according to the experimental paradigm, and the time course of motor performance followed every 30 min for up to 150 min.

2.3. Drugs

Morphine hydrochloride was purchased from Nordichem, Denmark. Gaboxadol HCl and muscimol were synthesized within the Department of Medicinal Chemistry at The Danish University of Pharmaceutical Sciences by P. Krosgaard Larsen and B. Frølund, respectively. Zolpidem and isoguvacine were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich, Denmark. All drugs were dissolved in isotonic saline and administered s.c. in a dosing volume of 1 ml/kg.

2.4. Statistics

Statistical comparisons of paw withdrawal threshold values in response to von Frey stimulation were made on natural log transformed data. This was undertaken to make the errors of the smaller and larger values comparable for analysis of variance (ANOVA), as the errors become additive after the transformation. Statistical comparisons of rotarod and pin prick values were undertaken on the raw data since there was no systematic error difference between higher and lower values. Two-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's test was used as appropriate. $P<0.05$ was considered significant in all cases.

3. Results

3.1. General observations

The body weight of SNI rats decreased the first week after surgery, but no further impact on weight gain compared to non-injured age-matched control animals was noted. Although no autotomy was observed the rats did display a flexed paw. In addition, the majority of rats attempted to avoid contact between the allodynic areas of the injured paw and regulated their weight distribution accordingly towards the non-injured, contralateral hindpaw. The most allodynic area of the hindpaw was the hairy

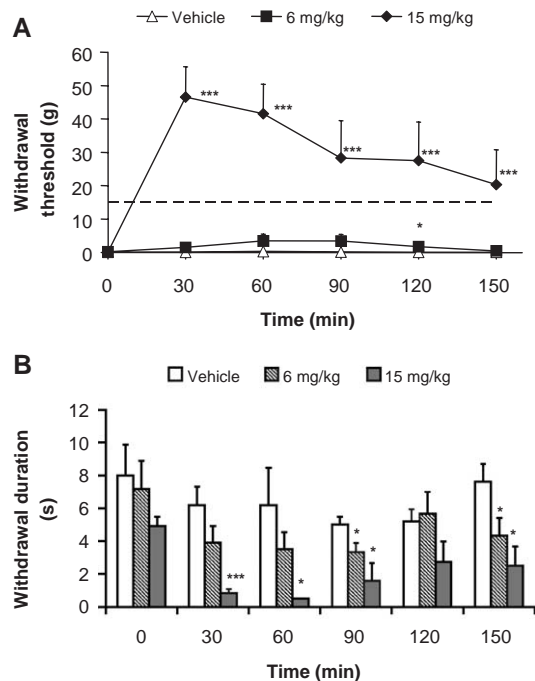


Fig. 2. Effect of the selective GABA_A receptor agonist gaboxadol on nociceptive responses in SNI rats. Gaboxadol (6 and 15 mg/kg, s.c.) or vehicle was administered immediately after the baseline response had been obtained and the time course of drug actions followed. (A) Paw withdrawal threshold (g) in response to von Frey hair stimulation of the injured hindpaw was dose-dependently reversed by gaboxadol. (B) Paw withdrawal duration (s) in response to pin prick stimulation of the injured was dose-dependently attenuated by gaboxadol. Dashed line represents pre-surgery value. All groups, $n=7$ animals. Data are presented as mean \pm S.E.M. * $P<0.05$, *** $P<0.001$ vs. vehicle (two-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's t -test).

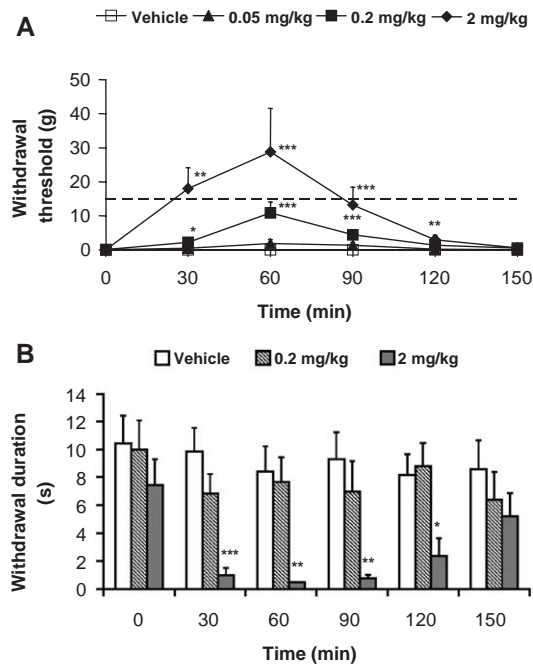


Fig. 3. Effect of the selective GABA_A receptor agonist muscimol on nociceptive responses in SNI rats. Muscimol (0.05–2 mg/kg, s.c.) or vehicle was administered immediately after the baseline response had been obtained and the time course of drug actions followed. (A) The paw withdrawal threshold (g) in response to von Frey hair stimulation of the injured hindpaw was dose-dependently reversed by muscimol. (B) The paw withdrawal duration (s) in response to pin prick stimulation of the injured paw was attenuated by muscimol only at the highest dose tested. Dashed line represents pre-surgery value. All groups, $n=6-7$ animals. Data are presented as mean \pm S.E.M. * $P<0.05$, ** $P<0.01$, *** $P<0.001$ vs. vehicle (two-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's t -test).

lateral plantar skin, which started as a thin line from the tip of digit 5 and broadened towards the back of the foot and ankle. Although contralateral hypersensitivity to von Frey hair stimulation appeared to increase after injury, this could not be consistently measured, due to the rats displaying generalized escape behaviour to the stimulus rather than initiating a reflex hindpaw withdrawal as was observed for the ipsilateral hindpaw. Mechanical hyperalgesia was measured over the entire hindpaw. Prior to surgery the paw withdrawal threshold in response to von Frey hair stimulation was 17 ± 10 g ($n=15$) and paw withdrawal duration in response to pin prick stimulation was always < 0.5 s. Four days after surgery the paw withdrawal threshold fell to 0.98 ± 0.2 g ($P<0.001$) in SNI rats, whereas the paw withdrawal duration had increased to 6 ± 2.1 s, indicative of mechanical hyperalgesia. Baseline hindpaw mechanical allodynia remained at a similar level up to 3 months after surgery.

3.2. Drug testing in SNI rats

3.2.1. Effects of morphine

Administration of morphine (3 and 6 mg/kg, s.c.) to SNI rats produced a dose-dependent reversal of hindpaw mechanical allodynia [time effect $F_{(2,78)}=98.5$, $P<0.0001$] and mechanical hyperalgesia [time effect $F_{(2,78)}=25.33$, $P<0.0001$; Fig. 1]. The onset of antiallodynic and antihyperalgesic actions were observed from 30 min after injection for both doses of morphine tested.

Injection of morphine at 6 mg/kg produced a particularly marked increase in the paw withdrawal threshold in response to von Frey hair stimulation at 90 min post-injection (28.4 ± 1.0 g, $P<0.001$ vs. baseline). The antiallodynic and antihyperalgesic actions of morphine remained significantly different from baseline for at least 150 min after injection. We have previously tested morphine (3 and 6 mg/kg) in the rotarod test after s.c. administration and observed no effect on motor function (Erichsen and Blackburn-Munro, 2002).

3.2.2. Effects of gabaxadol

Subcutaneous administration of gabaxadol (6 and 15 mg/kg) reversed hindpaw mechanical allodynia [time effect $F_{(5,102)}=5.66$, $P=0.0001$] in SNI rats (Fig. 2A). The onset of antiallodynia was observed at 30 min after injection and remained significantly different from baseline throughout the 150 min duration of the experiment (all time points, $P<0.001$). Furthermore, the increase in paw withdrawal threshold after 15 mg/kg gabaxadol in SNI rats exceeded the pre-surgery threshold level indicative of a general analgesic action. Hindpaw mechanical hyperalgesia was dose-dependently attenuated by gabaxadol [time effect $F_{(5,96)}=6.52$, $P<0.002$] in SNI rats (Fig. 2B). The antihyperalgesic actions of gabaxadol were still significantly different from baseline 150 min after injection ($P<0.05$ vs. baseline).

In the rotarod test, gabaxadol (15 mg/kg) produced significant motor impairment in normal uninjured rats at 30 and 60 min after injection compared with baseline and vehicle-treated rats ($P<0.001$; Fig. 5). However, the ataxia had resolved by 120 min after administration. The lower dose of gabaxadol (6 mg/kg) had no effect on motor function.

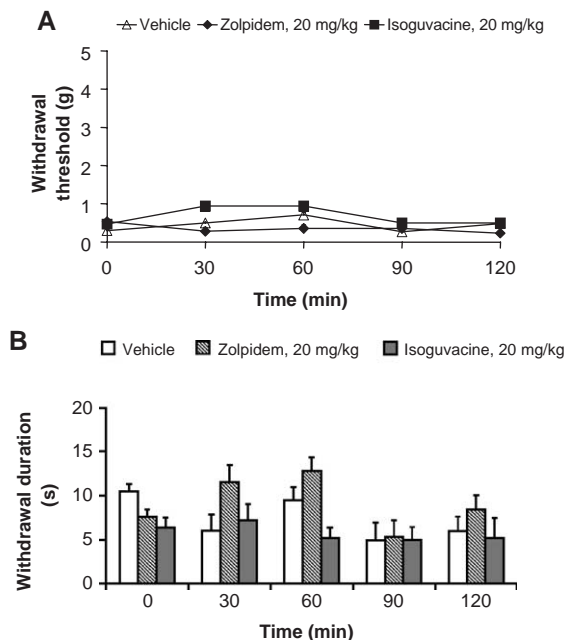


Fig. 4. Effect of the selective GABA_A receptor agonist isoguvacine and the benzodiazepine-site ligand zolpidem on nociceptive responses in SNI rats. Isoguvacine (20 mg/kg, s.c.), zolpidem (20 mg/kg, s.c.) or vehicle was administered immediately after the baseline response had been obtained and the time course of drug actions followed. (A) Paw withdrawal threshold (g) and (B) paw withdrawal duration (s) of the injured hindpaw were unaffected by administration of either isoguvacine or zolpidem. Dashed line represents pre-surgery value. All groups, $n=7$ animals. Data are presented as mean \pm S.E.M.

3.2.3. Effects of muscimol

Muscimol (0.05–2 mg/kg, s.c.) administration produced a dose-dependent reversal of mechanical allodynia in SNI rats [time effect $F_{(2,90)}=53.53$, $P<0.0001$; Fig. 3A). The associated increase in paw withdrawal threshold was observed as early as 30 min after administration, and reached a maximal value of 28.8 ± 12 g 60 min after administration for the highest dose of muscimol tested ($P<0.001$ vs. baseline). The antiallodynic actions of muscimol remained until 120 min post-injection. Subcutaneous administration of muscimol also reversed hindpaw mechanical hyperalgesia [time effect $F_{(2,102)}=25.26$, $P<0.0001$] in SNI rats (Fig. 3B). However, only the highest dose of muscimol tested (2 mg/kg) attenuated the paw withdrawal duration in response to pin prick stimulation in SNI rats. In the rotarod test, no motor impairment was observed in normal, unoperated rats after s.c. administration of 2 mg/kg muscimol (Fig. 5).

3.2.4. Effects of isoguvacine and zolpidem

In SNI rats, administration of either isoguvacine or zolpidem (both 20 mg/kg, s.c.) failed to affect the paw withdrawal threshold in response to von Frey hair stimulation or the paw withdrawal duration in response to pin prick stimulation (Fig. 4). Administration of zolpidem significantly impaired motor function at 30 and 60 min after administration (both time points $P<0.001$; Fig. 5). No further ataxia was observed for zolpidem 120 min post-injection.

4. Discussion

The present results confirm previous findings that have reported antinociceptive effects for the GABA_A receptor agonist muscimol in animal models of peripheral nerve injury. We have also shown for the first time that systemic administration of the selective GABA_A receptor agonist gaboxadol attenuates both mechanical allodynia and hyperalgesia in SNI rats, at time points where no impairment of motor function was present. These effects appear to have

been mediated by actions on centrally located GABA_A receptors, since systemic administration of isoguvacine which has poor central nervous system penetration in comparison with gaboxadol and muscimol failed to affect mechanical hypersensitivity in SNI rats.

4.1. General observations

Rats with spared nerve injury developed pronounced hypersensitivity to von Frey and pin prick stimulation of the injured hindpaw in accordance with previous observations for this model (Decosterd and Woolf, 2000; Decosterd et al., 2004; Erichsen and Blackburn-Munro, 2002). Pronounced mechanical allodynia of the injured hindpaw was still apparent up to 90 days after surgery. Interestingly, the area of the paw innervated by the saphenous nerve was found to be as sensitive to von Frey hair stimulation as compared to the spared sural nerve area a finding that has also been reported in the chronic constriction injury model (CCI; Tal and Bennett, 1994). Furthermore, SNI rats responded to pin prick stimulation when the stimulus was applied to areas of the plantar hindpaw where mechanical allodynia was absent. This corresponds well to the clinical situation, where the hyperalgesic area is often larger than the allodynic area (Gottrup et al., 1998; Raja et al., 1999). As a prelude to testing GABA_A receptor agonists in the SNI rat model we tested for antiallodynic and antihyperalgesic effects of the μ -opioid receptor agonist morphine. Overall, the current findings agree with those previously reported for morphine in SNI rats (Decosterd et al., 2004; Erichsen and Blackburn-Munro, 2002). However, our results indicate that morphine appeared both more potent and efficacious in reversing mechanical allodynia and hyperalgesia. Although adult male Sprague–Dawley rats were used in both studies they were supplied by different vendors. Substrain differences in opioid sensitivity in rats supplied by different vendors have been reported previously, most likely as a result of differential opioid metabolism (Bulka and Wiesenfeld-Hallin, 2003; Bulka et al., 2004).

4.2. GABA and spinal disinhibition after nerve injury

The initiation and maintenance of neuropathic pain involves a complex interplay between excitatory and inhibitory influences arising from within the spinal dorsal horn and supraspinal sites involved in nociceptive processing (Woolf and Salter, 2000). Various lines of evidence suggest that the inhibitory actions of GABA may be diminished after nerve injury. Immunoreactivity for GABA and its synthesizing enzyme glutamate decarboxylase within the dorsal horn appears to be reduced after peripheral nerve injury (Eaton et al., 1998). However, this finding has recently been questioned by Polgar et al. (2004) who failed to observe any changes in GABA cell number or neuropil staining intensity in the CCI model of neuropathic pain. Nevertheless, the incidence, magnitude

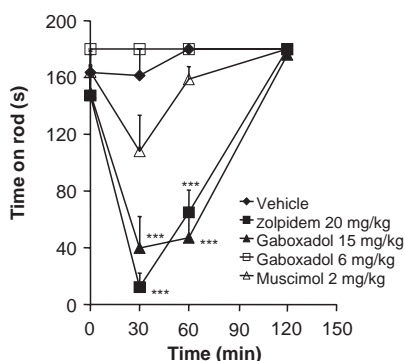


Fig. 5. Effect of GABA_A receptor agonists on motor function in normal, uninjured rats. Gaboxadol (5 and 16 mg/kg), muscimol (2 mg/kg), zolpidem (20 mg/kg) or vehicle were administered s.c. immediately after the baseline response was obtained and the time course of drug actions followed. The time spent on the rotarod (s) was significantly attenuated for up to 1 h after injection by both the highest dose of gaboxadol tested and zolpidem. All groups, $n=7-8$ animals. Data are presented as mean \pm S.E.M. *** $P<0.001$ vs. vehicle (two-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's t -test).

and duration of primary afferent evoked GABA-mediated inhibitory postsynaptic currents in lamina II neurones is reduced after both CCI and SNI, presumably as a consequence of attenuated presynaptic GABA release (Moore et al., 2002). Crucially, behavioural studies indicate that intrathecal administration of both GABA_A and GABA_B receptor agonists attenuate mechanical allodynia and thermal hyperalgesia in animal models of peripheral nerve injury (Malan et al., 2002).

Our results support and extend the above findings. Thus, muscimol was shown to effectively reverse mechanical hypersensitivity in SNI rats after systemic administration, while no motor impairment was observed in control rats at doses that produced antinociception. Similarly, systemic administration of gaboxadol produced a profound reversal of mechanical hypersensitivity in SNI rats. Indeed, the paw withdrawal duration was raised above that measured prior to surgery throughout the 150 min experimental duration. Although marked motor impairment was observed after administration of gaboxadol (15 mg/kg), crucially, this potentially confounding issue had dissipated between 1 and 2 h after administration. Thus, we are confident that gaboxadol specifically attenuated injury-induced mechanical hypersensitivity in SNI rats. Furthermore, the benzodiazepine-site ligand zolpidem failed to attenuate pain behaviours in SNI rats despite producing marked motor impairment with a similar temporal profile to that observed for gaboxadol. This further emphasizes that disruption of motor function per se does not necessarily correlate with the inability of the rat to initiate a withdrawal reflex to experimenter-evoked noxious stimulation.

4.3. GABA_A receptor function and correlation with antinociception after nerve injury

GABA_A receptors are highly diverse and at least 20 different subunits have been identified. The pentameric structure of the GABA_A receptor is usually composed of two α subunits, two β subunits and one γ , ϵ or δ subunit (Mehta and Ticku, 1999; Sieghart et al., 1999). The binding site for GABA and GABA_A receptor agonists lies at the interface between the α and β subunits, whilst the benzodiazepine-site lies between the α and the γ subunit (Frolund et al., 2002). Agonist-induced sedation/hypnosis is mediated primarily by GABA_A receptors containing the $\alpha 1$ subunit (McKernan et al., 2000). Further, synaptically located GABA_A receptors have a $\alpha 1\beta 3\gamma 2$ subunit composition, whereas extrasynaptically located GABA_A receptors have the composition $\alpha 4\beta 3\delta$ (Rudolph et al., 2001; Ebert et al., 2002; Brown et al., 2002). In vitro electrophysiological evidence exists to suggest that whereas gaboxadol acts as a weak partial agonist at synaptically located GABA_A receptors, it acts as a potent agonist at extrasynaptically located receptors (Ebert et al., 2002). Taken together, it is reasonable to suggest that the antinociceptive actions of selective GABA_A receptor agonists such as

muscimol and gaboxadol as shown here, may thus be mediated via extrasynaptically located receptors (Voss et al., 2003). By extension it is also reasonable to assume that $\alpha 1$ containing GABA_A receptors may not mediate antinociception in SNI rats, based on the lack of an antinociceptive effect observed for zolpidem at a dose that produced profound motor impairment indicative of $\alpha 1$ receptor activation. Alternatively, attenuated GABA release within the spinal dorsal horn after nerve injury (Moore et al., 2002) may account for the lack of antinociceptive action of zolpidem, since zolpidem binding to GABA_A receptors would be expected to allosterically modulate actions of endogenous GABA.

Changes in the expression of GABA_A receptor channels within dorsal root ganglion neurones after nerve section imply that the periphery may be a possible site of drug action after nerve damage (Honore et al., 2000). Isoguvacine, is a potent GABA_A receptor agonist and when administered intrathecally has similar effects on pain relief as muscimol (Malan et al., 2002). However, the intrinsic physio-chemical properties of isoguvacine limit its access to the central nervous system (Krogsgaard-Larsen et al., 1981). The apparent lack of antinociceptive effect obtained after systemic administration of isoguvacine in the current study suggests that antinociceptive actions of GABA_A receptor agonists after nerve injury are mediated selectively within the central nervous system.

4.4. Gaboxadol and sleep

Patients who suffer from chronic pain often experience difficulties in initiating and maintaining sleep, with as many as 87% of patients having a comorbid sleep disorder more severe than in those patients where sleep disorder is the primary indication (Smith et al., 2000). Paradoxically, sleep deprivation is associated with a decreased pain threshold, muscle aches, and stiffness in normal volunteers (Nicholson and Verma, 2004). Sleep disturbances have also been reported in animal models of chronic pain. Rats with adjuvant-induced polyarthritis show marked abnormalities in sleep architecture, including increased wakefulness and a reduction in overall electroencephalogram (EEG) amplitude (Landis et al., 1989). Similarly, alterations in EEG and sleep patterns have been reported in rats with peripheral nerve injury (Andersen and Tufik, 2003; Monassi et al., 2003). Gaboxadol has been shown to improve but not induce sleep and is currently in clinical trials for treating sleep disorders (Mathias et al., 2001; Lancel et al., 2001). Taken together with the current data, these findings suggest that the administration of gaboxadol to those neuropathic pain patients with severely impacted sleep patterns, may provide a multifaceted approach to improving various signs and symptoms of neuropathic pain. Of course our study has not addressed this issue, although such animal experiments are obviously warranted.

4.5. Conclusions

The current findings suggest that subtype selective GABA_A receptor agonists such as gaboxadol may have some utility in alleviating neuropathic allodynia and hyperalgesia in human patients. Furthermore, the utility of gaboxadol for improving sleep disorders may have additional benefits for neuropathic pain patients where disruption of sleep impacts negatively on quality of life measurements.

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