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Metabolic brain activity suggestive of persistent pain in a rat model of 1 neuropathic pain

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ABSTRACT

Persistent pain is a central characteristic of neuropathic pain conditions in humans. Knowing whether rodent models of neuropathic pain produce persistent pain is therefore crucial to their translational applicability. We investigated the spared nerve injury (SNI) model of neuropathic pain and the formalin pain model in rats using positron emission tomography (PET) with the metabolic tracer [18F]fluorodeoxyglucose (FDG) to determine if there is ongoing brain activity suggestive of persistent pain. For the formalin model, under brief anesthesia we injected one hindpaw with 5% formalin and the FDG tracer into a tail vein. We then allowed the animals to awaken and observed pain behavior for 30 min during the FDG uptake period. The rat was then anesthetized and placed in the scanner for static image acquisition, which took place between minutes 45 and 75 post-tracer injection. A single reference rat brain magnetic resonance image (MRI) was used to align the PET images with the Paxinos and Watson rat brain atlas. Increased glucose metabolism was observed in the somatosensory region associated with 22 04 the injection site (S1 hindlimb contralateral), S1 jaw/upper lip and cingulate cortex. Decreases were observed in 23 the prelimbic cortex and hippocampus. Second, SNI rats were scanned 3 weeks post-surgery using the same scan- 24 ning paradigm, and region-of-interest analyses revealed increased metabolic activity in the contralateral S1 25 hindlimb. Finally, a second cohort of SNI rats was scanned while anesthetized during the tracer uptake period, 26 and the S1 hindlimb increase was not observed. Increased brain activity in the somatosensory cortex of SNI rats 27 resembled the activity produced with the injection of formalin, suggesting that the SNI model may produce persis-28 tent pain. The lack of increased activity in S1 hindlimb with general anesthetic demonstrates that this effect can be 29 blocked, as well as highlights the importance of investigating brain activity in awake and behaving rodents. 30

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Introduction **O**6

Neuropathic pain related to peripheral nerve injury results from a variety of causes, including diabetes, shingles (herpes zoster), cancer treatments, and trauma. Neuropathic pain almost always involves sensory abnormalities, such as numbness and/or allodynia and hyperalgesia to touch or temperature (Maier et al., 2010). In addition, patients report 41 42pain in the absence of obvious externally applied stimuli. This pain may result from spontaneous activity in nerve fibers, or subtle stimula-43 tion resulting from normal daily activities. Thus, persistent pain experi-44 enced by patients is likely a mix of stimulus-independent pain and 4546 pain provoked by inadvertent stimulation. Neuropathic pain is studied using multiple nerve-injury rodent models (Bennett and Xie, 1988; 47 Decosterd and Woolf, 2000; Kim and Chung, 1992; Seltzer et al., 1990). 48 Unfortunately, assessing persistent pain using these models is difficult, 49 since the animals frequently do not manifest the pain behaviors 50

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observed during acute injury. Attempts to measure persistent pain 36 using ultrasonic vocalizations, facial expression, altered locomotion and 52 altered sleep patterns have revealed few positive results (Jourdan et al., 33 2002; Langford et al., 2010; Mogil et al., 2010; Urban et al., 2011; 38 Wallace et al., 2005). Thus, neuropathic pain models typically rely on 39 measures of mechanical and/or thermal hypersensitivity (D'Amour and 40 Smith, 1941; Le Bars et al., 2001; Woolfe and MacDonald, 1944), which 57 may not reflect the persistent pain reported by chronic pain patients 58 (Backonja and Stacey, 2004; Baron et al., 2009; Gottrup et al., 1998). 59 Based upon behavioral results, it is unclear whether the assessment 60 methods are inadequate or if the rodent models do not produce chronic 61 persistent pain. In contrast, there are rodent pain models that result in 62 overt short lived pain-related behaviors. As an example, the formalin 63 tonic pain model results in a well characterized set of persistent pain- 64 related behaviors that last for approximately 1 h (Dubuisson and 65 Dennis, 1977). 66

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67 In humans, imaging has revealed brain regions commonly activated 68 by pain, including the primary somatosensory cortex of the area affected by pain, secondary somatosensory cortex, prefrontal cortex, insular 69 70 cortex, anterior cingulate cortex, and thalamus (for reviews see: (Apkarian et al., 2005; Schweinhardt and Bushnell, 2010)). These 07 72regions are also activated during ongoing, chronic pain in humans 73(Baliki et al., 2006; Howard et al., 2012). Rodent in vivo brain imaging 74has revealed activations of homologous brain regions in response to 75acute noxious stimuli (for reviews see: (Borsook and Becerra, 2011; Q8 Thompson and Bushnell, 2012)). Using ex vivo CBF imaging, Paulson et al. (2002) showed that 12 weeks after a chronic constriction nerve 77 injury (CCI), somatosensory cortex showed increased CBF in the 78 absence of stimulation. However, no in vivo brain imaging study has 79 80 evaluated activations related to unstimulated, chronic persistent pain in awake rodents. 81

The current study tested the hypothesis that rats with a chronic 82 nerve injury that produces cutaneous hypersensitivity also show a pat-83 84 tern of brain activity consistent with persistent pain. To test this hypothesis, positron emission tomography (PET) scans were performed on 85 three cohorts of rats using the metabolic tracer [18F]fluorodeoxyglucose 86 (FDG) (Ido et al., 1978; Kornblum et al., 2000). In the first group, 87 88 formalin-evoked brain activity was assessed in awake and behaving 89 rats (during the tracer uptake period) to identify the pattern of persistent pain-related activation. In a second group, the same scanning 90 paradigm was used in rats three weeks post-nerve injury to measure 91ongoing nerve-injury-related brain activity. Finally, to examine whether 92activations related to nerve injury were influenced by the state of 93 94consciousness, a third group of nerve-injured rats was scanned after 95they had been anesthetized during tracer uptake.

96 Materials & methods

97 Experimental animals

Forty-six male Sprague–Dawley rats (150–200 g, Charles River, QC)were pair housed in temperature controlled $(23 +/-1 \degree \text{C})$ ventilated racks with a 14-hour light, 10-hour dark cycle with lights on at 07:00. The rats had access to both food (Harlan Teklad 2920X) and water. Ethical treatment of animals was ensured; all procedures were approved by McGill University's Animal Care Committee.

104 PET imaging acquisition procedures

[18F]Fluorodeoxyglucose (FDG), an analog of glucose, was used as 105the PET tracer to yield a relative measure of glucose metabolism in the 106 brain. As shown in Fig. 1, for the formalin and awake SNI scanning 107 procedures, the FDG was injected in the tail vein while the rat was brief-108 109ly anesthetized with sevoflurane (5% induction, 2.5% maintenance for ~3 min). The injection was made 45 min before PET scanning began, 110 since the peak signal in rat brain occurs approximately 1 h after injec-111 112tion and represents an accumulation of the tracer that occurred from the time of injection (Ido et al., 1978). The anesthesia was guickly 113 removed, the animal awoke, and was awake and behaving for the 114 next 30 min before the animals was re-anesthetized and scanned. The 115 use of this delayed scanning allowed us to capture metabolic activity 116 that occurred while the animal was awake and behaving throughout 117 30 min of tracer uptake. Forty minutes after FDG injection, the animal 118 was anesthetized (sevoflurane, 5% induction, 2.5% maintenance 119 throughout the scan), placed in the PET scanner and a static 30-min 120 scan was acquired. A single static scan was chosen over dynamic scan- 121 ning, since maximizing signal-to-noise ratio was more important for 122 this study than obtaining temporal information. For the SNI anesthe- 123 tized scan, the rat was anesthetized (isoflurane, 5% induction, 2% main- 124 tenance) before the FDG injection and anesthesia was maintained with 125 the rat resting on the scanner bed during the entire period of tracer 126 uptake and scanning. Images were acquired using a microPET R4 (CTI 127 Concorde, Knoxville, TN, USA). The scanner bed was equipped with a 128 breathing rate monitor, rectal thermometer, and heating pad to main- 129 tain body temperature at 37 °C. Following standard procedures, rats 130 were fasted for approximately 12 h prior to scanning as blood glucose 131 levels can affect FDG uptake (Lindholm et al., 1993). The FDG tracer 132 was obtained from on-site production at the Montreal Neurological 133 Institute Cyclotron Facility using standard practices for the production 134 of clinical FDG. 135

Formalin pain model

Sixteen rats in total (8 formalin, 8 controls) were randomly assigned 137 to either a formalin (5%, 50 µL) or control (saline, 50 µL) injection. Injec- 138 tion of formalin results in a well-characterized behavioral response 139 lasting approximately 1 h (Dubuisson and Dennis, 1977). On the day 140 of the scan, each rat received a tail vein injection of a volume less than 141 0.2 mL and approximately 0.2 MBq of FDG, and a subcutaneous injection 142 of formalin or saline into the plantar surface of the left hindpaw while 143 briefly anesthetized with 5.0% sevoflurane (minute zero, see Fig. 1). 144 The anesthetic was immediately removed after injections and the rats 145 were placed in a ventilated clear Plexiglas observation chamber with a 146 clear floor (30 cm \times 30 cm \times 30 cm). Beneath the floor, a mirror was 147 mounted at a 45-degree angle allowing for an unobstructed view of 148 the paws. Behavior was video recorded from minute 5 to minute 35. 149 Behavior was not recorded minute 0 to 5 to allow for anesthesia to 150 fully lift, nor at minute 35 to 40 because of scanning preparations require 151 ing technician movement and noise, which could have modified behav- 152 ior. At minute 40, the rat was removed from the observation apparatus, 153 anesthetized with sevoflurane (5.0% for induction, 2.5% for mainte- 154 nance) and placed on the scanner bed, with scanning starting at minute 155 45 and ending at minute 85 as shown in Fig. 1. 156

Neuropathic pain model

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Eighteen rats were randomly assigned to either spared nerve injury 158 (SNI) surgery (9 rats) or sham surgery (9 rats, control group). Surgery 159





Fig. 1. Time course of small animal positron emission tomography (PET) scanning for the 3 experimental groups: formalin unanesthetized during uptake ('awake'), spared nerve injury (SNI) unanesthetized during uptake ('awake') and SNI anesthetized during uptake.

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