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Neural circuitry mediating inflammation-induced central pain ⁴ amplification in human experimental endotoxemia

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ABSTRACT

Background $\&$ aims: To elucidate the brain mechanisms underlying inflammation-induced visceral 32
hyperalgesia in humans, in this functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) study we tested if intra-
33 hyperalgesia in humans, in this functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) study we tested if intravenous administration of lipopolysaccharide (LPS) involves altered central processing of visceral pain 34 stimuli. Methods: In this randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled fMRI study, 26 healthy male sub- 35 jects received either an intravenous injection of low-dose LPS ($N = 14$, 0.4 ng/kg body weight) or placebo 36 (N = 12, control group). Plasma cytokines (TNF-a, IL-6), body temperature, plasma cortisol and mood 37 were assessed at baseline and up to 6 h post-injection. At baseline and 2 h post-injection (test), rectal 38 pain thresholds and painful rectal distension-induced blood oxygen level-dependent (BOLD) responses 39
in brain regions-of-interest were assessed. To address specificity for visceral pain, BOLD responses to 40 in brain regions-of-interest were assessed. To address specificity for visceral pain, BOLD responses to non-painful rectal distensions and painful somatic stimuli (i.e., punctuate mechanical stimulation) were 41 also analyzed as control stimuli. Results: Compared to the control group, LPS-treated subjects demon- 42 strated significant and transient increases in TNF- α , IL-6, body temperature and cortisol, along with 43 impaired mood. In response to LPS, rectal pain thresholds decreased in trend, along with enhanced up- 44 regulation of rectal pain-induced BOLD responses within the posterior insula, dorsolateral prefrontal 45
(DLPFC), anterior midcingulate (aMCC) and somatosensory cortices (all FWE-corrected $p < 0.05$). 46 (DLPFC), anterior midcingulate (aMCC) and somatosensory cortices (all FWE-corrected $p < 0.05$). Within the LPS group, more pronounced cytokine responses correlated significantly with enhanced rectal 47 pain-induced neural activation in DLPFC and aMCC. No significant LPS effects were observed on neural 48 responses to non-painful rectal distensions or mechanical stimulation. Conclusions: These findings sup- 49 port that peripheral inflammatory processes affect visceral pain thresholds and the central processing 50 of sensory-discriminative aspects of visceral pain. 51

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56 1. Introduction

 Recurrent abdominal pain constitutes one of the most common pain conditions worldwide, and is the hallmark symptom of func- tional gastrointestinal disorders such as the irritable bowel syn- drome (IBS) ([Longstreth et al., 2006\)](#page--1-0). The pathophysiology of chronic abdominal pain and visceral hyperalgesia or hypersensitiv- ity in IBS remains elusive and likely involves disturbances of the brain-gut axis mediated by both central and peripheral mecha-

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<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.bbi.2015.03.017> $0889 - 1591$ / \odot 2015 Published by Elsevier Inc. nisms [\(Elsenbruch, 2011; Wilder-Smith, 2011](#page--1-0)). On the one hand, 64 the importance of central pain amplification is increasingly well- 65 characterized owing to a growing number of brain imaging studies 66 documenting altered pain-related neural responses in brain areas 67 associated with emotional arousal and endogenous pain inhibition 68 in patients with IBS [\(Berman et al., 2008; Tillisch and Labus, 2011\)](#page--1-0). 69 These findings complement and extend knowledge from the 70 broader somatic pain field addressing the brain mechanisms 71 involved in pain chronicity and hyperalgesia in other chronic pain 72 conditions or experimental pain models ([Bingel and Tracey, 2008;](#page--1-0) 73 [Tracey and Mantyh, 2007](#page--1-0)). On the other hand, and this may be 74 unique to IBS as a condition involving the brain-gut axis, there is 75 convincing evidence supporting a role of peripheral immune 76 functions involving not only local but also systemic immune 77 activation ([Ohman and Simren, 2010](#page--1-0)), including increases in 78

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 peripheral pro-inflammatory cytokine concentrations such as 80 tumor necrosis factor (TNF)- α , interleukin (IL)-6, and IL-8 [\(Dinan](#page--1-0) [et al., 2008, 2006; Liebregts et al., 2007; Scully et al., 2010](#page--1-0)), which reportedly correlate with IBS symptom scores and disease severity ([Dinan et al., 2008; Hughes et al., 2013](#page--1-0)). These clinical observations support the notion that visceral pain in IBS patients is associated with both local and low-grade systemic immune activation, leading to the hypothesis that inflammatory mediators may consti- tute relevant factors in the development and/or maintenance of visceral hypersensitivity, at least in a subset of IBS patients ([Ohman and Simren, 2010; Wilder-Smith, 2011\)](#page--1-0). However, whether peripheral pro-inflammatory mediators contribute to altered central pain processing via afferent immune-to-brain signaling remains unknown from existing patient data. This calls for preclinical studies addressing afferent neuro-immune interac- tions in human visceral pain while integrating brain imaging tech-niques with clinically-relevant models of inflammation.

 Experimental endotoxemia constitutes an established transla- tional model of systemic inflammation to elucidate immune-to- brain communication in humans ([Benson et al., 2012a;](#page--1-0) [Hutchinson, 2014; Schedlowski et al., 2014\)](#page--1-0). Application of low- dose endotoxin (e.g., lipopolysaccharide, LPS) induces a transient inflammatory response, including the release of pro-inflammatory 102 cytokines such as TNF- α and IL-6 ([Andreasen et al., 2008](#page--1-0)). This model offers thus the unique opportunity to establish cause-effect 104 relationships between inflammatory processes and pain [\(Benson](#page--1-0) [et al., 2012a\)](#page--1-0). In a proof-of-concept study involving low-dose intra- venous LPS application in humans, we previously established vis- ceral hypersensitivity in a rectal-distension model [\(Benson et al.,](#page--1-0) [2012b](#page--1-0)). To elucidate the putative central mechanism(s) underlying these effects, we conducted the present brain imaging study in order to address if LPS-induced visceral hypersensitivity involves altered central processing of visceral pain stimuli.

 Within the brain, a large distributed network is involved in the processing of painful stimuli, comprised of multiple distinct but functionally connected areas involving cortical, midbrain and sub- cortical regions. Size and complexity of this brain network reflect the complex sensory-discriminative, affective-emotional and cog-117 nitive components comprising the experience of pain [\(Bingel and](#page--1-0) [Tracey, 2008; Simons et al., 2014; Tracey and Mantyh, 2007\)](#page--1-0). Activations within this network have previously been observed in response to both experimental visceral and somatic pain stimuli ([Bingel and Tracey, 2008; Tillisch et al., 2011; Tracey and Mantyh,](#page--1-0) [2007\)](#page--1-0), although some evidence exists to support differences between visceral and somatosensory signal processing both in 124 the periphery and within the central nervous system ([Aziz et al.,](#page--1-0) [2000; Dunckley et al., 2007, 2005a,b; Eickhoff et al., 2006\)](#page--1-0), includ- ing data indicating that attentional modulation of perception of pain intensity for visceral and somatic pain, respectively, is reflected in different brain regions ([Dunckley et al., 2007\)](#page--1-0). Together, this calls for studies addressing visceral and somatic pain stimuli in multiple regions of interest (ROIs). Using event-related functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI), we tested the hypothesis that experimental endotoxemia results in decreased rectal pain thresholds along with increased rectal distension-in- duced neural (i.e., blood oxygen level-dependent, BOLD) responses within brain regions mediating sensory-discriminatory aspects of pain (i.e., thalamus, posterior insula, and somatosensory cortices) as well as brain areas involved in affective-emotional and cognitive components of the pain response (i.e., cingulate cortex, prefrontal cortices, anterior insula, amygdala). As secondary ROIs, we additionally analyzed brain areas involved in descending pain inhi- bition (i.e., PAG, rostral ventromedial medulla). To address the specificity for visceral pain, we included non-painful visceral stim-uli as well as painful somatic stimuli as control stimuli.

2. Materials and methods 144

2.1. Study sample 145

Twenty-six healthy males (mean age: 26.3 ± 0.7 years; mean 146 BMI: 23.0 \pm 0.5 kg/m²) were randomly assigned to the LPS group 147 $(N = 14)$ or control group $(N = 12)$. The recruitment and rigorous 148 screening process as well as the safety measures have previously 149 been described in detail ([Benson et al., 2012b; Grigoleit et al.,](#page--1-0) 150 [2011, 2010; Kullmann et al., 2014; Wegner et al., 2014](#page--1-0)). Briefly, 151 healthy male volunteers aged 18–45 years were recruited and sub-
152 jected to an in-depth screening process consisting of a physical 153 examination and a personal interview conducted by a physician, 154 completion of standardized questionnaires, and repeated lab- 155 oratory analyses of blood samples. All participants were evaluated 156 digitally for anal tissue damage (e.g., painful hemorrhoids) that 157 may interfere with balloon placement. Exclusion criteria included 158 any previous or current medical or psychological conditions upon 159 physical examination or self-report, body mass index <18 or 160 \geqslant 29 kg/m², smoking, or any abnormality upon laboratory analyses 161 of blood samples (i.e., complete blood cell count, liver enzymes, 162 renal parameters, electrolytes, coagulation factors, C-reactive pro- 163 tein). Cut-off values for laboratory parameters were based on spec- 164 ifications of the Division of Laboratory Research of the University 165 Hospital Essen (see Supplementary Table 1). The frequency and 166 severity of gastrointestinal complaints during the past month 167 was assessed with a standardized screening questionnaire 168 ([Lacourt et al., 2014\)](#page--1-0), with sum scores ≥ 10 resulting in exclusion 169 ([Lacourt et al., 2014](#page--1-0)). Presently increased scores (i.e., sum scores 170 \geqslant 11) on the Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS) 171 ([Herrmann-Lingen et al., 2005](#page--1-0)) were also exclusionary (for details 172 on screening questionnaires, see Section [2.7\)](#page--1-0). The study protocol 173 was approved by the local ethics committee (permit No. 174 09-4271). All subjects gave written informed consent and were 175 paid for their participation. 176

2.2. Study design 177

In this randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled study, 178 participants underwent standardized visceral and somatic pain 179 assessments, described in detail below, in a baseline and a test 180 phase [\(Fig. 1,](#page--1-0) study design). Following the baseline, subjects were 181 randomly assigned to receive an intravenous injection of either sal- 182 ine (control group) or 0.4 ng LPS (Reference Standard Endotoxin, 183 lot G3E069; United States Pharmacopeia, Rockville, MD) per kilo- 184 gram body weight dissolved in sterile water (LPS group). A dose 185 of 0.4 ng LPS was sufficient to induce visceral hyperalgesia in a pre- 186 vious study of our group ([Benson et al., 2012b](#page--1-0)). The endotoxin used 187 had been subjected to a microbial safety testing routine approved 188 by the German Federal Agency for Sera and Vaccines (Paul Ehrlich 189 Institute, Langen, Germany), and was prepared for human use as 190 previously described ([Grigoleit et al., 2010](#page--1-0)). 191

A total of four event-related fMRI scanning sessions were 192 accomplished during which neural activation induced by visceral 193 and somatic pain stimulation, respectively, were assessed at base- 194 line (visceral baseline, somatic baseline) and test (visceral test, 195 somatic test). Study day starting times were standardized (i.e., 196 09:00) to control for circadian effects, and the test phase was 197 begun 120 min post-injection. Blood samples for analyses of 198 plasma concentrations of TNF- α , IL-6, and cortisol were drawn at 199 baseline (i.e., prior to baseline pain assessments), prior to injection 200 of LPS or placebo (-0.25 h) and 1, 2, 3, 4, and 6 h after injection, 201 along with assessments of vital (i.e., body temperature, blood pres- 202 sure, heart rate) and mood parameters. The rectal balloon was 203 removed after each distension session in order to avoid putative 204

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