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

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ABSTRACT

Background & aims: To elucidate the brain mechanisms underlying inflammation-induced visceral 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 stimuli. Methods: In this randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled fMRI study, 26 healthy male subjects received either an intravenous injection of low-dose LPS (N = 14, 0.4 ng/kg body weight) or placebo (N = 12, control group). Plasma cytokines (TNF- α , IL-6), body temperature, plasma cortisol and mood were assessed at baseline and up to 6 h post-injection. At baseline and 2 h post-injection (test), rectal pain thresholds and painful rectal distension-induced blood oxygen level-dependent (BOLD) responses 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 also analyzed as control stimuli. Results: Compared to the control group, LPS-treated subjects demonstrated significant and transient increases in TNF-a, IL-6, body temperature and cortisol, along with impaired mood. In response to LPS, rectal pain thresholds decreased in trend, along with enhanced upregulation of rectal pain-induced BOLD responses within the posterior insula, dorsolateral prefrontal (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 pain-induced neural activation in DLPFC and aMCC. No significant LPS effects were observed on neural responses to non-painful rectal distensions or mechanical stimulation. Conclusions: These findings support that peripheral inflammatory processes affect visceral pain thresholds and the central processing of sensory-discriminative aspects of visceral pain.

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56 1. Introduction

57 Recurrent abdominal pain constitutes one of the most common pain conditions worldwide, and is the hallmark symptom of func-58 tional gastrointestinal disorders such as the irritable bowel syn-59 drome (IBS) (Longstreth et al., 2006). The pathophysiology of 60 chronic abdominal pain and visceral hyperalgesia or hypersensitiv-61 ity in IBS remains elusive and likely involves disturbances of the 62 63 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/© 2015 Published by Elsevier Inc. nisms (Elsenbruch, 2011; Wilder-Smith, 2011). On the one hand, the importance of central pain amplification is increasingly wellcharacterized owing to a growing number of brain imaging studies documenting altered pain-related neural responses in brain areas associated with emotional arousal and endogenous pain inhibition in patients with IBS (Berman et al., 2008; Tillisch and Labus, 2011). These findings complement and extend knowledge from the broader somatic pain field addressing the brain mechanisms involved in pain chronicity and hyperalgesia in other chronic pain conditions or experimental pain models (Bingel and Tracey, 2008; Tracey and Mantyh, 2007). On the other hand, and this may be unique to IBS as a condition involving the brain-gut axis, there is convincing evidence supporting a role of peripheral immune functions involving not only local but also systemic immune activation (Ohman and Simren, 2010), including increases in

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79 peripheral pro-inflammatory cytokine concentrations such as 80 tumor necrosis factor (TNF)- α , interleukin (IL)-6, and IL-8 (Dinan 81 et al., 2008, 2006; Liebregts et al., 2007; Scully et al., 2010), which 82 reportedly correlate with IBS symptom scores and disease severity 83 (Dinan et al., 2008; Hughes et al., 2013). These clinical observations 84 support the notion that visceral pain in IBS patients is associated 85 with both local and low-grade systemic immune activation, 86 leading to the hypothesis that inflammatory mediators may consti-87 tute relevant factors in the development and/or maintenance of visceral hypersensitivity, at least in a subset of IBS patients 88 (Ohman and Simren, 2010; Wilder-Smith, 2011). However, 89 90 whether peripheral pro-inflammatory mediators contribute to 91 altered central pain processing via afferent immune-to-brain signaling remains unknown from existing patient data. This calls 92 93 for preclinical studies addressing afferent neuro-immune interac-94 tions in human visceral pain while integrating brain imaging tech-95 niques with clinically-relevant models of inflammation.

96 Experimental endotoxemia constitutes an established transla-97 tional model of systemic inflammation to elucidate immune-tobrain communication in humans (Benson et al., 2012a; 98 99 Hutchinson, 2014; Schedlowski et al., 2014). Application of low-100 dose endotoxin (e.g., lipopolysaccharide, LPS) induces a transient inflammatory response, including the release of pro-inflammatory 101 102 cytokines such as TNF- α and IL-6 (Andreasen et al., 2008). This 103 model offers thus the unique opportunity to establish cause-effect 104 relationships between inflammatory processes and pain (Benson 105 et al., 2012a). In a proof-of-concept study involving low-dose intra-106 venous LPS application in humans, we previously established vis-107 ceral hypersensitivity in a rectal-distension model (Benson et al., 108 2012b). To elucidate the putative central mechanism(s) underlying 109 these effects, we conducted the present brain imaging study in 110 order to address if LPS-induced visceral hypersensitivity involves altered central processing of visceral pain stimuli. 111

112 Within the brain, a large distributed network is involved in the 113 processing of painful stimuli, comprised of multiple distinct but 114 functionally connected areas involving cortical, midbrain and sub-115 cortical regions. Size and complexity of this brain network reflect 116 the complex sensory-discriminative, affective-emotional and cog-117 nitive components comprising the experience of pain (Bingel and 118 Tracey, 2008; Simons et al., 2014; Tracey and Mantyh, 2007). 119 Activations within this network have previously been observed 120 in response to both experimental visceral and somatic pain stimuli (Bingel and Tracey, 2008; Tillisch et al., 2011; Tracey and Mantyh, 121 122 2007), although some evidence exists to support differences 123 between visceral and somatosensory signal processing both in 124 the periphery and within the central nervous system (Aziz et al., 125 2000; Dunckley et al., 2007, 2005a,b; Eickhoff et al., 2006), includ-126 ing data indicating that attentional modulation of perception of 127 pain intensity for visceral and somatic pain, respectively, is 128 reflected in different brain regions (Dunckley et al., 2007). 129 Together, this calls for studies addressing visceral and somatic pain stimuli in multiple regions of interest (ROIs). Using event-related 130 functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI), we tested the 131 hypothesis that experimental endotoxemia results in decreased 132 133 rectal pain thresholds along with increased rectal distension-induced neural (i.e., blood oxygen level-dependent, BOLD) responses 134 within brain regions mediating sensory-discriminatory aspects of 135 pain (i.e., thalamus, posterior insula, and somatosensory cortices) 136 as well as brain areas involved in affective-emotional and cognitive 137 138 components of the pain response (i.e., cingulate cortex, prefrontal 139 cortices, anterior insula, amygdala). As secondary ROIs, we 140 additionally analyzed brain areas involved in descending pain inhi-141 bition (i.e., PAG, rostral ventromedial medulla). To address the 142 specificity for visceral pain, we included non-painful visceral stim-143 uli as well as painful somatic stimuli as control stimuli.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Study sample

Twenty-six healthy males (mean age: 26.3 ± 0.7 years; mean 146 BMI: $23.0 \pm 0.5 \text{ kg/m}^2$) 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., 150 2011, 2010; Kullmann et al., 2014; Wegner et al., 2014). 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 \geq 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), with sum scores ≥ 10 resulting in exclusion 169 (Lacourt et al., 2014). Presently increased scores (i.e., sum scores 170 \geq 11) on the Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS) 171 (Herrmann-Lingen et al., 2005) were also exclusionary (for details 172 on screening questionnaires, see Section 2.7). 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

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, 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). 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). 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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