

## Original Article

# Dexmedetomidine inhibits lipopolysaccharide-induced inflammatory response in hippocampal astrocytes *in vitro*

Xuexin Feng<sup>1</sup>, Long Fan<sup>1</sup>, Yan Li<sup>2</sup>, Kunpeng Feng<sup>1</sup>, Yan Wu<sup>2</sup>, Tianlong Wang<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Anesthesiology, Xuanwu Hospital, Capital Medical University, 100053, Beijing, China; <sup>2</sup>Department of Anatomy, Capital Medical University, 100069, Beijing, China

Received March 30, 2017; Accepted August 3, 2017; Epub September 15, 2017; Published September 30, 2017

**Abstract:** Neuroinflammation mediated by astrocytes has been implicated in neurodegenerative diseases. Meanwhile, dexmedetomidine (DEX) has potent anti-inflammatory properties. The present study aimed to assess the effects of DEX on proinflammatory mediator production and release in astrocytes after lipopolysaccharide (LPS) induction. Cultured astrocytes, derived from hippocampi of 4-day-old rats, were treated with DEX at 0.1, 1, 10, and 100  $\mu$ M, respectively, in the presence or absence of LPS (1  $\mu$ g/ml). Then, mRNA and protein levels of the proinflammatory cytokines TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-6 and IL-1 $\beta$  were measured. The protein levels of I $\kappa$ B- $\alpha$  were also assessed. DEX at 0.1  $\mu$ M or 1  $\mu$ M did not affect the production of proinflammatory mediators. However, higher DEX levels (10 and 100  $\mu$ M) significantly decreased the amounts of TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-6, and IL-1 $\beta$ , both at the mRNA and protein levels, and increased the protein levels of I $\kappa$ B- $\alpha$ . These findings indicate that DEX inhibits neuroinflammation by interfering with NF- $\kappa$ B signaling, and may constitute a potential therapeutic agent for protecting patients from neuroinflammation associated diseases.

**Keywords:** Dexmedetomidine, astrocytes, NF- $\kappa$ B, lipopolysaccharide

## Introduction

Astrocytes are responsible for diverse functions in the central nervous system (CNS), and play pivotal roles in maintaining the physiological functions of neurons. However, when over-activated under pathological conditions, astrocytes become a center of inflammatory processes. Consequently, they release and respond to a number of important cytokines, including IL-1 $\beta$ , TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-6, and nuclear factor kappa B (NF- $\kappa$ B), which in turn affect microglia and neurons, as well as astrocytes themselves. Ultimately, the normal physiological interaction between glia and neurons may be impaired. Such effects finally damage neuronal function and cause clinically detectable cognitive changes [1-3]. Therefore, suppression of excessive astrocyte activation may constitute a potential therapeutic mechanism to alleviate the progression of neurological diseases which are closely associated with neuroinflammation [1, 4]. Dexmedetomidine, a hypnotic drug with high

selectivity for the  $\alpha_2$ -adrenergic receptor, has been used as a sedative or an anesthetic adjuvant. Its advantages include reduced respiratory suppression, high quality of sedation, anti-agitation features [5, 6], anti-delirium [7], and anesthetic and analgesic-sparing effects [8, 9]. DEX has potential anti-inflammatory properties [10], as well as potent cyto- or organo-protective features. For example, DEX attenuates ischemia-reperfusion induced kidney injury [11] and even protects against remote lung injury induced by renal ischemia-reperfusion in mice [12, 13]. DEX also reduces the mortality rate and dampens the inflammatory response during endotoxemia [14].

In present study, we assessed the effects of DEX on the production of proinflammatory mediators in primary hippocampal astrocytes induced by LPS, and explored the cell signaling mechanisms by which DEX modulates pro-inflammatory responses.

## Material and methods

### Chemicals and reagents

**Cell culture:** Timed pregnant Sprague Dawley rats were obtained from the Experimental Animal Center of Capital Medical University (Beijing, China). All research protocols were approved by the Bioethics Committee of Capital Medical University. Primary astrocytes of hippocampus were prepared as previously described [15]. Briefly, hippocampi of 4-day-old Sprague Dawley rats were harvested with ice-cold calcium/magnesium free HBSS at pH 7.4. The tissues were minced and trypsinized (trypsin-EDTA 0.25%) for 5 min at 37°C; trypsin neutralization was performed with DMEM/F12 medium (Gibco, Grand Island, NY) containing 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) (Gibco) and the penicillin-streptomycin solution (Gibco). Finally, cells were filtered through a mesh (40 µm). After centrifugation at 1000 rpm for 5 min, the tissues were resuspended in DMEM/F12 containing 10% FBS, 100 U/ml penicillin and 100 mg/ml streptomycin at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere of 5% CO<sub>2</sub> and 95% air. The cultures were refreshed with DMEM/F12 medium containing 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and penicillin/streptomycin twice a week. After 7-8 days, astrocytes were separated from microglia and oligodendrocytes by shaking for 18 h (200 rpm 37°C). The isolated astrocytes were cultured in 6-well plates at a density of 2×10<sup>5</sup> cells/well; the cultures were >95% purity of astrocytes as verified by immunocytochemistry.

### Experimental grouping

Purified astrocytes were randomly divided into seven groups of 5 wells. In the control group, cells were cultured with serum-free culture medium for 24 h. In the nLPS group, cells were treated with DEX (Jiangsu Hengrui Medicine Co., Ltd.) at the final concentration of 100 µM for 1 h, and cultured with serum-free culture medium for 24 h. In the LPS group, LPS was added for 24 h. In the DEX0.1, DEX1, DEX10 and DEX100 groups, the astrocytes were treated with DEX at concentrations of 0.1, 1, 10, and 100 µM, respectively, followed by LPS (1 µg/ml) for 24 h.

### Cell viability assay

[3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide] (MTT, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis,

MO, USA) was used to evaluate cell viability, according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, cell viability was reflected by the formation of blue formazan metabolized from colorless MTT by mitochondrial dehydrogenases, which are active only in live cells. Astrocytes were seeded into 96-well plates at a density of 1×10<sup>5</sup> cells/well for 24 h. Astrocytes were then treated with various concentrations of DEX for 1 h, and with or without LPS treatment (1 µg/ml) for 24 h. After treatment, MTT solution (0.5 mg/ml) was added to each well for 4 h. After removal of the cell culture medium, DMSO (200 µl) was added per well to dissolve the formazan crystals before absorbance measurement at 570 nm on a microplate reader (Model, Bio-Rad). Each group was measured in triplicate.

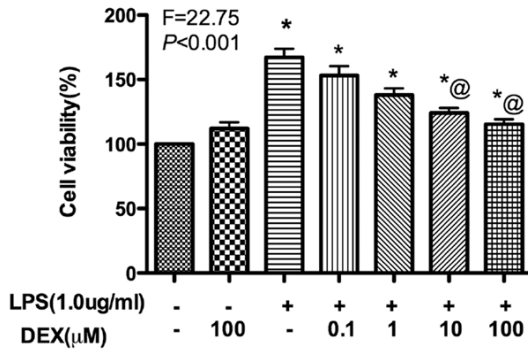
### Real-time PCR

Total RNA was extracted from astrocytes with TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen, Paisley, UK) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The ABI Primer Express software was used to design the polymerase chain reaction (PCR) primers used in this study: NF-κB, ACGATCTGTTTCCCCTCATC (F) and TGCTTCTCTCCCCAGGAA-TA (R); TNF-α, GGGCAGGTCTACTTTGGAGTCATTG (F) and GGGCTCTGAGGAGTAGACGATAAAG (R); IL-1β, CCCAACTGGTACATCAGCACCTCTC (F) and CTATGTCCCAGCATTGCTG (R); IL-6, GATTGTATGAACAGCGATGATGC (F) and AGAAACGGAACCCAGAAGACC (R); GAPDH, TGGAGTCTACTGGCGTCTT (F) and TGTCATATTTCTCGTGGTTCA (R). PCR was carried out on a Real-Time PCR System (ABI 7500, Applied Biosystems, USA), and relative mRNA expression levels were assessed by cycle threshold (Ct) values, normalized to GAPDH.

### Western blot

Protein samples (30 µg) extracted from astrocytes were separated by 10% sodium dodecyl sulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) and transferred onto polyvinylidene difluoride membranes (Amersham Pharmacia Biotech, UK). The membranes were incubated with 5% non-fat milk or fetal bovine serum (FBS) in Tris-buffered saline with Tween (TBS-T) for 2 h at room temperature, to block nonspecific binding. After washing, the membranes were incubated with primary antibodies against NF-κB, phospho-IκBα, or total IκBα (Abcam, Cambridge, MA, UAS) at 4°C overnight, and subsequently with horseradish peroxidase-

## Dexmedetomidine inhibits neuroinflammation



**Figure 1.** Effect of DEX on cell viability in primary astrocytes. Data are mean  $\pm$  SEM (n = 5) from three independent experiments. \* $P < 0.001$  versus control group; @ $P < 0.05$ , versus LPS group.

conjugated secondary antibodies for 2 h at room temperature. Immunoreactive bands were detected with an enhanced ECL kit (GE); imaging was performed on Image Quant™ LAS500 imager (GE) using the IQ LAS500 control software™.

### Enzyme linked immunosorbent assay for proinflammatory cytokine measurements

Cells ( $1 \times 10^6$ ) were seeded in 24-wells plates, and culture supernatants after treatment (with or without LPS and Dex) were collected for the measurement of TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-1 $\beta$  and IL-6 by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) using kits from R&D Systems (Minneapolis, U.S.A.). The concentrations of IL6, IL-1 $\beta$ , and TNF- $\alpha$  were calculated based on standard curves generated with recombinant cytokines provided in the respective ELISA kits.

### Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed with SPSS 20.0. Data are mean  $\pm$  SEM, and were assessed by one-way ANOVA followed by a Student-Newman-Keuls test for multiple comparisons.  $P < 0.05$  was considered statistically significant. All experiments were repeated independently at least three times.

## Results

### DEX is not cytotoxic, and inhibits LPS induced astrocyte over-activation and proliferation

To assess the effects of DEX on astrocytes, cell viability/growth was first evaluated. The viability of astrocytes was not significantly changed

by DEX treatment at various concentrations (0.1-100  $\mu$ M) compared to the control group ( $P > 0.05$ ). Astrocyte activation is the first step of the response to external stimuli, and excessive activation is regarded as astrogliosis [16]. Compared with the control group, LPS at 1.0  $\mu$ g/ml, a dose that induces proinflammatory responses, caused excessive astrocyte activation and increased cell viability; pretreatment with 10 and 100  $\mu$ M DEX for 1 h dramatically inhibited LPS induced excessive astrocyte activation ( $P < 0.05$ ) (Figure 1).

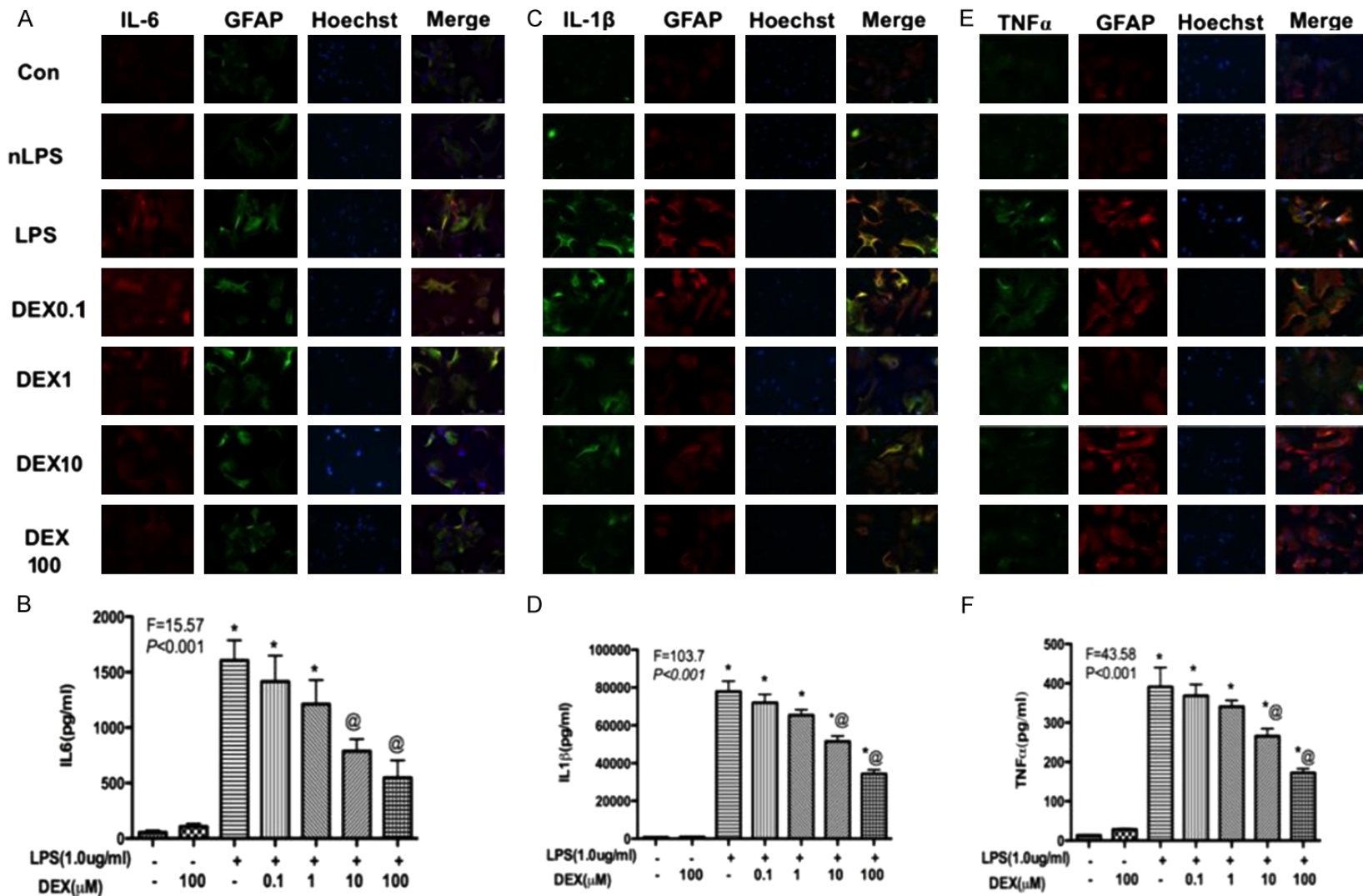
### DEX inhibits cytokine expression in LPS-stimulated primary rat astrocytes

Proinflammatory cytokines are soluble mediators of inter- and intracellular communications, and increase during inflammatory responses. In the present study, we measured the expression levels of IL-1 $\beta$ , TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-6 by immunofluorescence, ELISA and RT-PCR (Figure 2). As expected, LPS significantly increased the release of the above cytokines. Astrocytes pretreated with DEX (10 or 100  $\mu$ M) for 1 h before exposure to LPS (1.0  $\mu$ g/ml) for 24 h, showed significantly attenuated release of the proinflammatory cytokines IL-1 $\beta$ , TNF- $\alpha$ , and IL-6 compared with the LPS-alone treatment group. Pretreatment with DEX (0.1 and 1  $\mu$ M) did not significantly inhibit LPS-induced cytokine production compared with the LPS-alone-treatment group (Figure 2).

### DEX inhibits LPS induced NF- $\kappa$ B activation

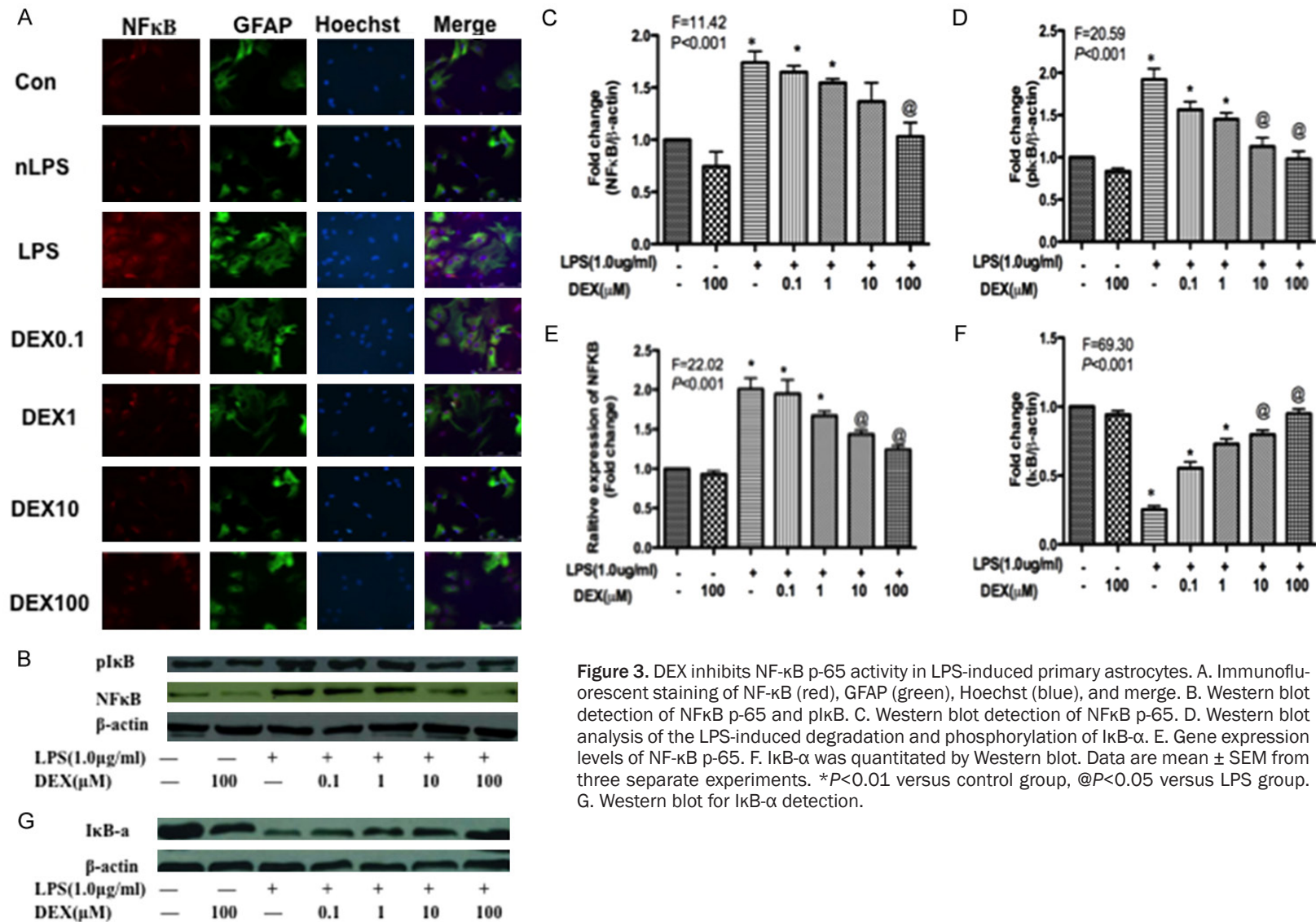
NF- $\kappa$ B plays an essential role in LPS-induced expression of pro-inflammatory cytokines. In this study, we performed immunofluorescence, Western blot and RT-PCR to assess whether DEX inhibits NF- $\kappa$ B activation in LPS-stimulated primary astrocytes. As shown in Figure 3, DEX significantly decreased NF- $\kappa$ B expression in a concentration dependent manner. We also measured the protein levels of I $\kappa$ B- $\alpha$  in the cytoplasm as well as phosphorylated I $\kappa$ B- $\alpha$  in the nucleus by Western blot. Because NF- $\kappa$ B activation depends on I $\kappa$ B- $\alpha$  degradation in the cytoplasm, I $\kappa$ B- $\alpha$  amounts in LPS-induced astrocytes were significantly decreased (Figure 3F,  $P < 0.05$ ). I $\kappa$ B- $\alpha$  expression in the cytoplasm of primary astrocytes was increased significantly after pretreatment with DEX 10 or 100  $\mu$ M before exposure to LPS (Figure 3F,  $P < 0.01$ ). Meanwhile, the protein levels of phosphorylat-

## Dexmedetomidine inhibits neuroinflammation



**Figure 2.** Dexmedetomidine inhibits pro-inflammatory cytokines in LPS-induced primary astrocytes. A. Immunofluorescent staining of IL-6 (red), GFAP (green), Hoechst (blue), and merge. B. ELISA detection of IL-6. Data are mean  $\pm$  SEM (n = 5) from three independent experiments. \*P<0.001 versus control group; @P<0.05, versus LPS group. C. Immunofluorescent staining of IL-1 $\beta$  (green), GFAP (red), Hoechst (blue), and merge. D. ELISA detection of IL-1 $\beta$ . Data are mean  $\pm$  SEM (n = 5) from three independent experiments. \*P<0.001 versus control group; @P<0.05, versus LPS group. E. Immunofluorescent staining of TNF- $\alpha$  (green), GFAP (red), Hoechst (blue), and merge. F. ELISA detection of TNF- $\alpha$ . Data are mean  $\pm$  SEM (n = 5) from three independent experiments. \*P<0.001 versus control group; @P<0.05, versus LPS group.

## Dexmedetomidine inhibits neuroinflammation



**Figure 3.** DEX inhibits NF-κB p-65 activity in LPS-induced primary astrocytes. **A.** Immunofluorescent staining of NF-κB (red), GFAP (green), Hoechst (blue), and merge. **B.** Western blot detection of NFκB p-65 and pIκB. **C.** Western blot detection of NFκB p-65. **D.** Western blot analysis of the LPS-induced degradation and phosphorylation of IκB-α. **E.** Gene expression levels of NF-κB p-65. **F.** IκB-α was quantitated by Western blot. Data are mean ± SEM from three separate experiments. \* $P < 0.01$  versus control group, @ $P < 0.05$  versus LPS group. **G.** Western blot for IκB-α detection.

ed I $\kappa$ B- $\alpha$  in the nucleus were significantly reduced (**Figure 3D**;  $P < 0.05$  or  $P < 0.01$ ).

### Discussion

This study showed that DEX remarkably suppressed the increased amounts of NF- $\kappa$ B, IL-1 $\beta$ , IL-6 and TNF- $\alpha$  in astrocytes after LPS induction, both at the gene and protein levels. These anti-inflammatory properties of DEX are likely through the modulation of NF- $\kappa$ B signaling.

In the human brain, astrocytes account for about half of all cells and are substantially involved in almost all CNS diseases [17]. As they appear to play a dominant role in the inflammatory process, astrocytes are considered a central element in neurological diseases. Astrocytes are responsible for a wide variety of complex and essential functions in the healthy CNS, with primary roles in synaptic transmission and information processing by neural circuit functions [18, 19]. Neuroinflammation is a common feature of multiple neuro-degenerative diseases in onset and progression. It was proposed that delirium after surgery is associated with neuroinflammation induced by astrocyte activation [20, 21]. Suppression of astrocyte activation may therefore help alleviate postoperative delirium. To this end, exploring new drugs or interventions, which prevent astroglia activation, may have clinical significance.

LPS, a bacterial membrane component, is a potent astrocyte activator and an inducer of brain inflammation associated with pro-inflammatory cytokines in many experimental models *in vivo* and *in vitro* [22, 23]. A large body of experimental studies have indicated that reactive astrocytes exert both pro- and anti-inflammatory regulatory functions *in vivo*, which are controlled by specific molecular signaling pathways [24, 25]. Activated astrocytes produce a wide range of proinflammatory mediators, including IL-6, TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-1 $\beta$  and beyond. However, TNF- $\alpha$  and IL-1 $\beta$  are the most important mediators, and secreted during the early phase of inflammatory disease [26]. A recent study by Cuiying Xie, et al [27] showed that medium and high concentrations of DEX post-treatment could inhibit the expression and release of inflammatory factors. In the present study, however, we found that DEX may attenuate the inflammatory response by inhibiting the NF- $\kappa$ B

pathway. NF- $\kappa$ B is considered a common and essential transcription factor for the expression of many inflammation-related genes, including IL-6, TNF- $\alpha$ , and IL-1 $\beta$  [28]. The NF- $\kappa$ B heterodimer consists of the p50 and p65 subunits. NF- $\kappa$ B activity is regulated by its subcellular localization. In resting cells, NF- $\kappa$ B is sequestered in the cytoplasm by the I $\kappa$ B family of proteins, including I $\kappa$ B- $\alpha$  and I $\kappa$ B- $\beta$  [29]. I $\kappa$ B proteins can be induced by a variety of stimuli, such as LPS and proinflammatory cytokines, which results in the phosphorylation of I $\kappa$ B proteins by a complex of I $\kappa$ B kinases (IKKs). Phosphorylated-I $\kappa$ B proteins are rapidly degraded by the proteasome, allowing NF- $\kappa$ B to be released from I $\kappa$ B and translocated to the nucleus where it can initiate transcription by binding to numerous specific gene promoter elements [30]. In the present study, DEX increased I $\kappa$ B- $\alpha$  levels, and decreased the amounts of phospho-I $\kappa$ B- $\alpha$ . Therefore, increased expression of I $\kappa$ B- $\alpha$  enhanced binding to NF- $\kappa$ B, which further blocked NF- $\kappa$ B translocation to the nucleus and prevented its activity. It was recently reported [31] that I $\kappa$ B- $\alpha$  is a critical mediator of NF $\kappa$ B activity in astrocytes. Compared with astrocytes, neurons exhibit negligible NF $\kappa$ B activity. Therefore, suppressing astrocyte activation would play a critical role for the astrocyte I $\kappa$ B- $\alpha$ /NF $\kappa$ B loop in neuronal homeostasis through a novel neuron-glia signaling pathway. Due to anti-inflammatory properties, DEX inhibits NF- $\kappa$ B signaling pathways in LPS stimulated astrocytes, successfully reducing the production of proinflammatory cytokines such as IL-6, TNF- $\alpha$ , and IL-1 $\beta$ . Ya-juan Zhu, et al [32] also found that pretreatment with DEX could inhibit NF- $\kappa$ B signaling and neuroinflammation in hippocampal astrocytes after tibial fractures in rats.

A preliminary study showed an association between microglia and astrocyte activation in the human brain and delirium in elderly patients, adding to the accumulating evidences that inflammatory mechanisms are involved in delirium [30]. Interestingly, IL-1 $\beta$  can inhibit acetylcholine release and cholinergic-dependent memory function [20, 33]. Therefore, it could be reasonably postulated that the anti-delirium of DEX reported recently [7] might be due to its anti-inflammatory effects although other beneficial features, e.g. improving sleep quality [34], cannot be ruled out.

In conclusion, the present findings indicate that DEX is a potent suppressor of LPS-induced inflammation in activated astrocytes, and decreases the production of proinflammatory cytokines such as IL-6, IL-1 $\beta$ , and TNF- $\alpha$ . These favorable effects are closely associated with NF- $\kappa$ B pathway modulation in astroglia by DEX. Therefore, DEX may be a potent therapeutic agent for preventing or treating neurological disorders closely associated with neuroinflammation triggered by excessive activation of astrocytes.

### Acknowledgements

This study was supported by Technology Foundation for Selected Overseas Chinese Scholar and Beijing Municipal Administration of Hospitals' Ascent Plan (DFL 20150802).

### Disclosure of conflict of interest

None.

**Address correspondence to:** Tianlong Wang, Department of Anesthesiology, Xuanwu Hospital, Capital Medical University, 100053, Beijing, China. Tel: +86-13910525304; Fax: +86-10-83198676; E-mail: tianlongwang2006@sina.cn

### References

- [1] van Gool WA, van de Beek D and Eikelenboom P. Systemic infection and delirium: when cytokines and acetylcholine collide. *Lancet* 2010; 375: 773-775.
- [2] Ebersoldt M, Sharshar T and Annane D. Sepsis-associated delirium. *Intensive Care Med* 2007; 33: 941-950.
- [3] Garden GA and Moller T. Microglia biology in health and disease. *J Neuroimmune Pharmacol* 2006; 1: 127-137.
- [4] Morandi A, Hughes CG, Girard TD, McAuley DF, Ely EW and Pandharipande PP. Statins and brain dysfunction: a hypothesis to reduce the burden of cognitive impairment in patients who are critically ill. *Chest* 2011; 140: 580-585.
- [5] Kamibayashi T and Maze M. Clinical uses of alpha2-adrenergic agonists. *Anesthesiology* 2000; 93: 1345-1349.
- [6] Riker RR, Shehabi Y, Bokesch PM, Ceraso D, Wisemandle W, Koura F, Whitten P, Margolis BD, Byrne DW, Ely EW and Rocha MG. Dexmedetomidine vs midazolam for sedation of critically ill patients: a randomized trial. *JAMA* 2009; 301: 489-499.
- [7] Su X, Meng ZT, Wu XH, Cui F, Li HL, Wang DX, Zhu X, Zhu SN, Maze M and Ma D. Dexmedetomidine for prevention of delirium in elderly patients after non-cardiac surgery: a randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *Lancet* 2016; 388: 1893-1902.
- [8] Ramsay MA and Luterma DL. Dexmedetomidine as a total intravenous anesthetic agent. *Anesthesiology* 2004; 101: 787-790.
- [9] Kunisawa T, Suzuki A, Takahata O and Iwasaki H. High dose of dexmedetomidine was useful for general anesthesia and post-operative analgesia in a patient with postpolio syndrome. *Acta Anaesthesiol Scand* 2008; 52: 864-865.
- [10] Peng M, Wang YL, Wang CY and Chen C. Dexmedetomidine attenuates lipopolysaccharide-induced proinflammatory response in primary microglia. *J Surg Res* 2013; 179: e219-225.
- [11] Gu J, Sun P, Zhao H, Watts HR, Sanders RD, Terrando N, Xia P, Maze M and Ma D. Dexmedetomidine provides renoprotection against ischemia-reperfusion injury in mice. *Crit Care* 2011; 15: R153.
- [12] Chen Q, Yi B, Ma J, Ning J, Wu L, Ma D, Lu K and Gu J. alpha2-adrenoreceptor modulated FAK pathway induced by dexmedetomidine attenuates pulmonary microvascular hyperpermeability following kidney injury. *Oncotarget* 2016; 7: 55990-56001.
- [13] Gu J, Chen J, Xia P, Tao G, Zhao H and Ma D. Dexmedetomidine attenuates remote lung injury induced by renal ischemia-reperfusion in mice. *Acta Anaesthesiol Scand* 2011; 55: 1272-1278.
- [14] Taniguchi T, Kidani Y, Kanakura H, Takemoto Y and Yamamoto K. Effects of dexmedetomidine on mortality rate and inflammatory responses to endotoxin-induced shock in rats. *Crit Care Med* 2004; 32: 1322-1326.
- [15] Pizzurro DM, Dao K and Costa LG. Diazinon and diazoxon impair the ability of astrocytes to foster neurite outgrowth in primary hippocampal neurons. *Toxicol Appl Pharmacol* 2014; 274: 372-382.
- [16] Eng LF and Ghirnikar RS. GFAP and astrogliosis. *Brain Pathol* 1994; 4: 229-237.
- [17] Barres BA. The mystery and magic of glia: a perspective on their roles in health and disease. *Neuron* 2008; 60: 430-440.
- [18] Sofroniew MV and Vinters HV. Astrocytes: biology and pathology. *Acta Neuropathol* 2010; 119: 7-35.
- [19] Cai Q, Chen Z, Song P, Wu L, Wang L, Deng G, Liu B and Chen Q. Co-transplantation of hippocampal neural stem cells and astrocytes and microvascular endothelial cells improve the memory in ischemic stroke rat. *Int J Clin Exp Med* 2015; 8: 13109-13117.

## Dexmedetomidine inhibits neuroinflammation

- [20] Munster BC, Aronica E, Zwinderman AH, Eikelenboom P, Cunningham C and Rooij SE. Neuroinflammation in delirium: a postmortem case-control study. *Rejuvenation Res* 2011; 14: 615-622.
- [21] Crosta F, Orlandi B, De Santis F, Passalacqua G, DiFrancesco JC, Piazza F, Catalucci A, Desideri G and Marini C. Cerebral amyloid angiopathy-related inflammation: report of a case with very difficult therapeutic management. *Case Rep Neurol Med* 2015; 2015: 483020.
- [22] Li G, Sun S, Cao X, Zhong J and Tong E. LPS-induced degeneration of dopaminergic neurons of substantia nigra in rats. *J Huazhong Univ Sci Technolog Med Sci* 2004; 24: 83-86.
- [23] Weinstein JR, Swartz S, Bishop C, Hanisch UK and Moller T. Lipopolysaccharide is a frequent and significant contaminant in microglia-activating factors. *Glia* 2008; 56: 16-26.
- [24] Kostianovsky AM, Maier LM, Anderson RC, Bruce JN and Anderson DE. Astrocytic regulation of human monocytic/microglial activation. *J Immunol* 2008; 181: 5425-5432.
- [25] Sofroniew MV. Molecular dissection of reactive astrogliosis and glial scar formation. *Trends Neurosci* 2009; 32: 638-647.
- [26] Palladino MA, Bahjat FR, Theodorakis EA and Moldawer LL. Anti-TNF-alpha therapies: the next generation. *Nat Rev Drug Discov* 2003; 2: 736-746.
- [27] Xie C, Wang Z, Tang J, Shi Z and He Z. The effect of dexmedetomidine post-treatment on the inflammatory response of astrocyte induced by lipopolysaccharide. *Cell Biochem Biophys* 2015; 71: 407-412.
- [28] Surh YJ, Chun KS, Cha HH, Han SS, Keum YS, Park KK and Lee SS. Molecular mechanisms underlying chemopreventive activities of anti-inflammatory phytochemicals: down-regulation of COX-2 and iNOS through suppression of NF-kappa B activation. *Mutat Res* 2001; 480-481: 243-268.
- [29] Baeuerle PA and Baltimore D. NF-kappa B: ten years after. *Cell* 1996; 87: 13-20.
- [30] Niederberger E and Geisslinger G. The IKK-NF-kappaB pathway: a source for novel molecular drug targets in pain therapy? *FASEB J* 2008; 22: 3432-3442.
- [31] Lian H, Yang L, Cole A, Sun L, Chiang AC, Fowler SW, Shim DJ, Rodriguez-Rivera J, Tagliavella G, Jankowsky JL, Lu HC and Zheng H. NF-kappaB-activated astroglial release of complement C3 compromises neuronal morphology and function associated with Alzheimer's disease. *Neuron* 2015; 85: 101-115.
- [32] Zhu YJ, Peng K, Meng XW and Ji FH. Attenuation of neuroinflammation by dexmedetomidine is associated with activation of a cholinergic anti-inflammatory pathway in a rat tibial fracture model. *Brain Res* 2016; 1644: 1-8.
- [33] Taepavarapruk P and Song C. Reductions of acetylcholine release and nerve growth factor expression are correlated with memory impairment induced by interleukin-1beta administrations: effects of omega-3 fatty acid EPA treatment. *J Neurochem* 2010; 112: 1054-1064.
- [34] Rada P, Mark GP, Vitek MP, Mangano RM, Blume AJ, Beer B and Hoebel BG. Interleukin-1 beta decreases acetylcholine measured by microdialysis in the hippocampus of freely moving rats. *Brain Res* 1991; 550: 287-290.