Research Article

The Temporal and Spatial Changes of Th17, Tregs, and Related Cytokines in Epilepsy Lesions

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The cellular and molecular mechanisms in pathogenesis and development of epilepsy are still unclear. Specific inflammatory mediators and immune cells may play an important role. The aim of the present study was to investigate the temporal and spatial changes of Th17, Tregs, and related cytokines in epilepsy lesions. LiCl-pilocarpine-induced temporal lobe epilepsy (TLE) rat models were established, sensorimotor function was examined using modified neurological severity score (mNSS), cognitive function was evaluated by Morris water maze (MWM) test, pathological damages were detected by H&E staining and Nissl staining, helper T cells 17 (Th17), regulatory CD4+ T cells (Tregs), and their related cytokines were detected by Western blotting and immune staining. Results showed that Th17 and its related cytokines in epilepsy lesions played a role mainly at acute phase of epilepsy, and they were positively correlated with the pathological changes in the hippocampus and neurological and cognitive dysfunction caused by epilepsy. Conversely, Tregs and their related cytokines mainly played a role at progressive phase and had the opposite effect. Th17 and Tregs restricted each other during the recovery phase to achieve functional balance. Our results suggested that Th17, Tregs, and related cytokines in epilepsy lesions played an important role in the pathogenesis and development of epilepsy and balancing Th17 and Tregs may be efficacious therapeutics for patients with epilepsy.

1. Introduction

Epilepsy is a chronic brain disease characterized by repeated susceptibility seizures and is associated with a variety of neurological diseases and other systemic diseases. There are 70 million people suffering from epilepsy in the world, and about 30% of them are drug resistant and accompanied by progressive cognitive impairment, which seriously affects the life quality of patients [1]. Temporal lobe epilepsy (TLE) which affects the limbic system is the most common form of pharmacoresistant epilepsy.

The cellular and molecular mechanisms in pathogenesis and progression of epilepsy are still unclear, but it is speculated that focal or systemic uncontrolled inflammatory response may lead to abnormal neuronal connections and overexcited neuronal networks, thereby mediate epilepsy [2]. Specific inflammatory mediators and immune cells play an important role in pathogenesis, development, and recurrence of epilepsy [3, 4]. Immune response may play an important role in promoting neuronal excitability, lowering the threshold of seizures, and inducing chronic inflammation in the brain [4]. Increased inflammatory mediators in the serum have been found in many neurological diseases such as cerebral ischemia, multiple sclerosis (MS), Parkinson’s disease, Alzheimer’s disease, and brain trauma. Epilepsy may also be related to elevated inflammatory mediators, which may be secreted by neuron, neural glial cells, endothelial cells, or peripheral circulating immune cells [5–7].

Helper T cells 17 (Th17), regulatory CD4+ T cells (Tregs), and their related cytokines play an important role in immune diseases, infectious diseases, tumors, and other
diseases. They interact and restrict each other in regulating immune response and inducing cell differentiation. IL-17A and γδT cell-deficient mice displayed less severe seizures, whereas autologous natural Tregs (nTregs) depletion worsened, which demonstrated IL-17-producing γδT cells and nTregs played an important role in epileptogenesis [8]. Th17 are characterized by secretion of IL-17A, expression and nTregs played an important role in epileptogenesis [8]. The pathogenicity of Th17 is limited by nTregs and Tr1 cells, which have a suppressive effect on immune responses and maintain tolerance to self-components. Th17 can transdifferentiate to Tr1 cells during an immune response in the presence of TGF-β1, and AhR activation promotes this conversion [11, 12]. Th17 and Tregs are related to the pathogenesis and development of various types of inflammation and autoimmune diseases [9, 10]. The pathogenicity of Th17 is limited by nTregs and Tr1 cells, which have a suppressive effect on immune responses and maintain tolerance to self-components. Th17 can transdifferentiate to Tr1 cells during an immune response in the presence of TGF-β1, and AhR activation promotes this conversion [11, 12]. Th17 and Tregs are related to the pathogenesis and development of various types of inflammation and autoimmune diseases [9, 10]. However, as far as we know, there are few research data on the level of Th17 and Tregs in epilepsy lesions in pathogenesis and development of epilepsy.

In this study, we aimed to investigate the temporal and spatial changes of Th17, Tregs, and related cytokines in epilepsy lesions. First, functional experiments were performed after status epilepticus (SE). Secondly, pathological changes in the hippocampus after SE were evaluated. Finally, Th17, Tregs, and related cytokines in epilepsy lesions and their relevance to functional and pathological damages were detected.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Animals. All animal experiments were carried out in accordance with the National Institutes of Health guide for the care and use of Laboratory animals, and this study was approved by the Ethics Committee of North China University of Science and Technology (approval no. LAEC-NCST-2020066). All efforts have been made to minimize animal suffering. A total of 125 male Sprague-Dawley rats (8-10 weeks old; 250-290 g) were purchased from Beijing Vital River Laboratory Animal Technology Co., Ltd. (Beijing, China). All rats were randomly divided into two experimental groups, the normal group (n = 25) and TLE group (n = 100). Animals were kept in specific pathogen-free conditions, at 20-25°C, in 55% humidity, with 12 h light/dark cycles and free access to food and water before and after modeling.

2.2. TLE Model Induction. The TLE model was induced by Li-pilocarpine intraperitoneal (i.p.) injection according to Oyegbile et al. [15]. Briefly, rats were injected LiCl (Sigma-Aldrich, 127 mg/kg) 18-20 h prior to atropine (Cayman, 1 mg/kg) injection. 30 minutes later, pilocarpine (Cayman, 50 mg/kg) was injected to establish TLE. The severity of seizures was evaluated by Racine’s scale, only rats arriving SE (equal to stage 4 or greater seizures according to Racine’s scale) for 60 min were treated with diazepam (10 mg/kg) to terminate seizures. Rats’ weights were measured on D1, D3, D5, D7, D14, and D28 days after SE.

2.3. Neurobehavioral Tests. Neurological impairments were assessed on D1, D3, D5, D7, D14, and D28 after SE using neurological severity score (mNSS) (Table 1). The score is graded at a scale of 0-18, in which 0 represents normal, and 18 indicates maximal neurological deficit. The test was performed by two trained investigators who were blinded to the experiment.

2.4. Morris Water Maze (MWM) Test. Cognitive function was assessed using MWM test. 10 rats were trained to find the platform almost the same time before modeling and then randomly divided into the normal group and TLE group (5 per group). On D5 after modeling, rats were applied to MWM test for the evaluation of spatial learning and memory. Rats were performed 4 trials per day for 5 days. In a trial, rat was allowed to swim freely for 90 s until they found the platform. If the animal had not found the platform within allotted time, its latency was noted as 90 s. On D10, the platform was removed, and rats were allowed free swimming for 60 s. Escape latency, number of platform crossings, target quadrant time percentage, and moving path were recorded for analysis.

2.5. Brain Tissue Sampling. Only rats that attained grade 4–5 seizures were included in the study. In the end, 90 rats were successfully modeled and included in the study. The TLE group was further divided into 6 subgroups (D1, D3, D5, D7, D14, and D28) at different time points, with 15 rats in each group. The rats were anesthetized with isoflurane at D1, D3, D5, D7, D14, and D28 days after SE, respectively. The rats were decapitated, and the brain was removed and fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde or frozen in liquid nitrogen until further tests.

2.6. Hematoxylin and Eosin (H&E) Staining and Nissl Staining. Brain tissues were fixed for 24 h, dehydrated with gradient alcohol, embedded in paraffin, sectioned with 5 μm thickness, stained with H&E and Nissl using standard procedures, and imaged with a light microscope. At least three coronal sections per animal were used for histological evaluation.

2.7. Double Immunofluorescence Staining. Brain tissues were fixed for 24 h, sunk with gradient sucrose solution at 4°C, cut to 10 μm frozen sections, blocked with normal donkey serum, incubated with a mixture of rabbit anti-IL-17A antibody (1:50, ABclonal, A0688) or anti-CD49b antibody (1:50, HuaAn Biological ET1611-57) or anti-Foxp3 antibody (1:50, ABclonal, A4953) and mouse anti-NeuN (1:100, GeneTex, GTX30773) overnight at 4°C, and then incubated with the fluorescein-conjugated secondary antibodies for 2 h at 37°C in the dark. Nuclei were stained with DAPI. Images were taken with a fluorescent microscope (Olympus).

2.8. Immunohistochemistry. Brain tissues were fixed for 24 h, dehydrated with gradient alcohol, embedded in paraffin, sectioned with 5 μm thickness, dewaxed, blocked with 5% normal goat serum, and then incubated with primary antibody including rabbit anti-IL-17A antibody (1:50, ABclonal,
A0688) or anti-CD49b antibody (1:50, HuaAn Biological, ET1611-57) or anti-Foxp3 antibody (1:50, ABclonal, A4953) overnight at 4°C, incubated with appropriate biotinylated secondary antibody at 37°C for 2 h, colored with DAB, and counterstained with hematoxylin. The sections were observed under the microscope and taken photos. Three images from every rat brain were used for cell counting by using the ImageJ software.

2.9. Western Blotting. Rats were deeply anesthetized and decapitated, and the brains were quickly removed from the skull and placed into ice-cold PBS on D1, D3, D5, D7, D14, and D28 after SE; then, hippocampi were carefully dissected and lysed in RIPA buffer. The protein concentration was determined using a BCA kit. Protein samples (30 μg) were separated by 10% sodium dodecyl sulphate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE), transferred onto polyvinylidenefluoride (PVDF) membranes, which were blocked in 5% skimmed milk for 2 h and incubated at 4°C overnight with the following primary antibodies (IL-17A, 1:500, ABclonal, A0688; IL-10, 1:500, ABclonal, A12255; Foxp3, 1:500, ABclonal, A4953; GAPDH, 1:1000, ABclonal, AC002) and then incubated for 2 h at 37°C with horseradish peroxidase- (HRP-) conjugated secondary antibodies (1:10000, ABclonal, AS014/AS003). Finally, the protein bands were detected with enhanced chemiluminescence (ECL). Digital images normalized to GAPDH were analyzed with ImageJ software.

2.10. Statistical Analysis. Data was expressed as mean ± SD. Statistical analysis was conducted using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) or multivariate ANOVA (MANOVA), followed by LSD post hoc test. All statistical analyses were carried out using SPSS 22 and GraphPad Prism 6 software. P < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

3. Results

3.1. Change of Body Weight after SE. In this study, body weight was used to evaluate general life situation of rats. Body weights were significantly decreased in the TLE group. As demonstrated in Figure 1, body weights began to decrease after modeling gradually, until the lowest weight on D5 after modeling, and then recovered gradually. However, body weights were still lower than that of the normal group until D28.
3.2. Neurological Impairments after SE. To explore the neurological impairments of TLE rats, we examined the sensorimotor function of TLE rats by mNSS. Our data showed that rats in two groups showed no significant difference before modeling. However, rats in the TLE group induced significant neurological impairments in comparison with the normal group after modeling. As demonstrated in Figure 2, mNSS of the TLE group was significantly increased from D1 to D5 gradually, recovered from D7, but still higher than the mNSS of the normal group until D28.

3.3. Cognitive Function Impairment after SE. Cognitive function impairment was frequent commonalities after SE. We next investigated the cognitive function impairment of TLE rats using a MWM massed training protocol. For no treatment, there were no significant differences in the spatial learning and memory of all rats. After modeling, as demonstrated in Figure 3, escape latency in the TLE group was significantly prolonged, number of platform crossings and target quadrant time percentage were significantly less than those in the normal group, while swimming speed was unaffected. Thus, our results suggested TLE caused a significant spatial learning and memory deficit compared with normal group, and did not recover by 28 days.

3.4. Pathological Damage in Hippocampus after SE. H&E staining and Nissl staining were performed to detect pathological damage on D1, D3, D5, D7, D14, and D28 after SE. As presented in Figure 4, the number of neurons was significantly reduced in the TLE group, the cell bodies were swollen and deformed, Nissl body was reduced or absent, and the nuclei were solidified. These alterations were most pronounced within CA1 segments in D5 and alleviated from D7. Our results showed that the trend of hippocampal pathological changes of TLE and the trend of mNSS remained uniform in time.

3.5. Th17, nTregs, and Tr1 Cells Were Increased after SE. The colocalizations of NeuN and IL-17A, Foxp3, or CD49b were examined with immunofluorescent staining on D7. As demonstrated in Figure 5(a), the vast majority of Th17, nTregs, and Tr1 cells after SE were localized around neurons in the hippocampus. In order to further evaluate the trend of Th17, nTregs, and Tr1 cells after SE, immunohistochemistry was performed on D1, D3, D5, D7, D14, and D28 after SE. As demonstrated in Figure 5(b), the number of Th17 in the TLE group was significantly more than that in the normal group (P < 0.05), and the number began to increase on D1 after SE, reached the most on D3, and maintained at a high level, decreased from D14, and stabilized on D28, but still more than normal group (P < 0.05). The numbers of nTregs and Tr1 cells were significantly greater than that in the normal group (P < 0.05) too, began to increase on the D3 after SE, reached the most on D7, the numbers decreased from D14, and stabilized on D28, but still more than normal group (P < 0.05). Our data suggested that Th17 played an active role in the early stages of epilepsy, and nTregs and Tr1 cells were more important in the recovery phase of epilepsy.

3.6. The Expressions of IL-17A, Foxp3, and IL-10 Were Upregulated after SE. In order to confirm the functions of Th17, nTregs, and Tr1 cells, the protein levels of their related cytokines were evaluated by Western blotting. As demonstrated in Figure 6, the protein expression of IL-17A was significantly upregulated from D1, reached the highest on D3,
and maintained at a high level, decreased from D14, and sta-
bilized on D28, but still more than the normal group
($P<0.05$); the protein expressions of Foxp3 and IL-10 were
significantly upregulated from D3, reached the highest on
D7, and maintained at a high level, decreased from D14,
and stabilized on D28, but still more than the normal group
($P<0.05$).

4. Discussion

TLE is the most frequent refractory form of epilepsy in adult
patients. Massive neurons death and progressive cognitive
impairment are the remarkable consequences of refractory
TLE [15, 16], which induce a severe international health
concern. LiCl-pilocarpine-induced epilepsy models were
recognized to have salient histopathological and clinical fea-
tures of human mesial temporal lobe epilepsy (MTLE) [17].
In the present study, we used LiCl-pilocarpine TLE rats
models, and we demonstrated the number of neurons was
significantly reduced in TLE group, the body of neuron
was swollen and deformed, the border of neuron was
blurred, the cytoplasm was deeply stained, Nissl bodies were
reduced and the nucleus was solidified, these alterations
were most obvious on D5, when body weight of TLE rats
got to the lowest.

It is well known that both epilepsy animal models and
TLE patients may have a certain degree of cognitive deficits
due to the loss of neurons in hippocampus. This study
results also confirmed it; TLE rats showed related learning
and memory deficits and sensorimotor function deficit,
which kept consistent with the pathological changes in hippocampus of TLE rats in time. These results indicated neuronal cell death was the main cause of the cognitive function and sensorimotor function deficits after SE.

In recent years, accumulating evidences have supported the hypothesis that inflammatory processes within the brain might comprise a crucial mechanism in epilepsy pathophysiology. Seizure can induce inflammation within the brain, and recurrent seizures induce chronic inflammation. Seizure-associated cells loss can contribute to inflammation [5, 18, 19]. Xu et al. used flow cytometry to study the number, phenotype, and activation state of inflammatory cells in epileptogenic lesions and found that αβ, γδ T cells, and Tregs cells in the brain of patients with focal cortical

Figure 4: Neuronal damages in hippocampus of TLE rats. (a) Representative images of the histological outcomes in the normal group evaluated with H&E staining. Bar, 100 μm. (b) Representative images of the histological outcomes in the normal group evaluated with Nissl staining. Bar, 100 μm. (c) Representative images of histopathological outcomes in the TLE group evaluated with H&E staining. Bar, 100 μm. (d) Representative images of histopathological outcomes in the TLE group evaluated with Nissl staining. Bar, 100 μm.
IL-17A
Foxp3
CD49b

(a)

Normal TLE

(b)

Th17 cell numbers

(c)

Figure 5: Continued.
Figure 5: Changes of the numbers of Th17 cells, nTregs, and Tr1 cells in the pathogenesis and development of epilepsy. (a) Colocalization of NeuN (red) and IL-17A, Foxp3, and CD49b (green) on D7 after SE were detected by immunofluorescent staining, and cell nuclei were counterstained by DAPI. Bar, 20 μm. (b) Representative images of immunohistochemical staining of IL-17A, Foxp3, and CD49b in the hippocampus. Bar, 50 μm. (c–e) The numbers of Th17, nTregs, and Tr1 cells were measured on D1, D3, D5, D7, D14, and D28 after SE, respectively. The data were represented as mean ± SD. *P < 0.05 vs. the normal group.

Figure 6: Changes of the expressions of IL-17A, Foxp3, and IL-10 proteins in the pathogenesis and development of epilepsy. (a) Representative Western blotting images of IL-17A, Foxp3, and IL-10 proteins in the hippocampus of the normal group and TLE group at different times. (b) Densitometric analysis normalized to GAPDH was presented as IL-17A expression. (c) Densitometric analysis normalized to GAPDH was presented as Foxp3 expression. (d) Densitometric analysis normalized to GAPDH was presented as IL-10 expression. The data were represented as mean ± SD. *P < 0.05 vs. the normal group.
and Western blotting to investigate the temporal and spatial above viewpoints, this study used immunohistochemistry and achieve the purpose of treatment [22]. Based on the mTOR/HIF-1α pathway, Th17/Tregs and suppress the function of Th17 by inhibiting the IE. The ketogenic diet can promote the differentiation of Tregs and suppress the function of Th17 by inhibiting the mTOR/HIF-1α signaling pathway to correct this imbalance and achieve the purpose of treatment [22]. Based on the above viewpoints, this study used immunohistochemistry and Western blotting to investigate the temporal and spatial changes of Th17, nTregs, and Tr1 cells in epileptic lesions of TLE rats and measured the expressions of related IL-17A, Foxp3, and IL-10.

CD4+ T cells differentiate into Th17 cells under the co-induction of IL-6 and TGF-β. Th17 cells can specifically secrete IL-17A, which can play a pro-inflammatory role by binding to its receptor. It has a pro-inflammatory effect and can induce the expression of pro-inflammatory cytokines, chemokines, and matrix metalloproteinases, causing cell infiltration and tissue destruction, and is closely related to the occurrence of various autoimmune diseases. CD4+ T cells can differentiate into Tregs cells under the induction of TGF-β. Tregs express Foxp3, Foxp3 plays a very important role in its immunosuppressive function, Tregs release the anti-inflammatory factor IL-10, and it inhibits lymphocyte response through various ways and exerts anti-inflammatory effect.

We demonstrated the infiltration of the hippocampus by Th17, nTregs, or Tr1 cells at different stages after SE. During the 1-3 days after SE (acute phase), the number of Th17 and the expression of IL-17A were gradually increased. At the same time, the neurons in the hippocampus were damaged and necrotic, and mNSS was increased gradually too. At the end of the acute phase, Th17 and its related IL-17A in the hippocampus reached a peak, and Tregs began to accumulate in the hippocampus, and the expressions of related cytokines Foxp3 and IL-10 began to increase. In the 3-7 days after SE (progressive phase), Th17 and related cytokine IL-17A were maintained at a high level, and Tregs and related cytokines Foxp3 and IL-10 gradually increased until D7 to the peak value, the neuron damages and necrosis in the hippocampus were the most severe on D5 after SE, and mNSS was the highest. In the 7-14 days (recovery phase) after SE, Th17, Tregs, and their related cytokines IL-17A, Foxp3, and IL-10 were decreased gradually, neuronal damages were repaired, and mNSS was decreased. By 28 days (chronic phase), Th17, Tregs, and their related factors tended to be stable, as well as mNSS and the result of MWM, but they were all higher than the normal group. Altogether, these results supported the hypothesis that Th17, Tregs, and their related factors might be involved in the pathogenesis and development of epilepsy.

SE chronic phase is characterized by the excitability of neuronal networks, the sprouting of hippocampal mossy fibers, and finally hippocampal sclerosis [23]. After the SE chronic phase, MNSS and MWM tend to be stable, which may be due to the correct structural integration of most hippocampal newborn neurons in the TLE chronic phase [24]. It also believes that promoting hippocampal nerve regeneration in chronic stage of TLE can repair the hippocampal nerve architecture and may improve the prognosis of the disease [25, 26]. A large amount of evidence also shows that neurosteroids regulate epilepsy in the chronic phase of the disease (i.e., when motor seizures occur) [27–30].

5. Conclusion

In conclusion, the present study demonstrated that Th17 and its related cytokines in epilepsy lesions played a role mainly at acute phase of epilepsy, and they were positively correlated with the hippocampal pathological changes and neurological and cognitive dysfunction caused by epilepsy. Conversely, Tregs and their related cytokines mainly performed a function at progressive phase and had the opposite effect. Th17 and Tregs restricted each other during the recovery phase to achieve functional balance. Therefore, any therapies that can transform Th17 to Tregs to balance them in the pathogenesis and development of epilepsy may be efficacious therapeutics which might not only inhibit the neurological injury to improve patient outcomes but also eliminate the related factors that cause epilepsy and prevent it.

Data Availability

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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