Research Article

The Influence of Different Dexmedetomidine Doses on Cognitive Function at Early Period of Patients Undergoing Laparoscopic Extensive Total Hysterectomy

Huiqiong Huang,1 Xiuyi Xu,1 Yirong Xiao,2 and Junxiang Jia1

1Department of Anesthesiology, Women and Children’s Hospital, School of Medicine, Xiamen University, Xiamen, Fujian, China
2Department of Anesthesiology, 907th Hospital of the Joint Logistics Support Force of the Chinese People’s Liberation Army, Nanping, Fujian, China

Correspondence should be addressed to Junxiang Jia; 3115023016@stud.acdt.edu.cn

Received 14 June 2021; Revised 8 July 2021; Accepted 16 August 2021; Published 28 September 2021

Academic Editor: Osamah Ibrahim Khalaf

Copyright © 2021 Huiqiong Huang et al. This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Background. This study aims to analyze the influence of different dexmedetomidine doses on cognitive function. It works on early periods of patients undergoing laparoscopic extensive total hysterectomy. Method. 119 patients with gynecological cancer underwent a laparoscopic extensive total hysterectomy. The operation was performed at the Affiliated Women’s and Children’s Hospital of Xiamen University from January 2019 to June 2020. The score of MoCA and the level of TNF-α, IL-6, S-100β protein, NSE, and GFAP of each group were compared 1 day before and after operation and 3 and 7 days after operation. Result. In four groups, remifentanil, sufentanil, and propofol were given in the following order: group A > group D > group C > group B. Group A > group D > group C in terms of time spent in the recovery room, extubation, and recovery from anesthesia. The difference between groups B and C was not significant (P > 0.05). Compared with group A, group B scored higher in MoCA at 1 day (T1), 3 days (T2), and 7 days (T3) after operation (P < 0.05). At the same scoring point, the score was group B > group C > group D > group A. The POCD of four groups all occurred at 3 days after surgery. Compared with the T0 point, the level of TNF-α and IL-6 of the four groups at T1 and T2 was significantly increased (P < 0.05). At T3, the level of TNF-α and IL-6 gradually decreased. At various periods, the levels of S-100 protein, NSE, and GFAP in groups B, C, and D were lower than those in group A (P < 0.05). Group B had a substantially higher rate of bradycardia than the other three groups (P < 0.05). The incidence of chills, respiratory depression, and restlessness in group A differed significantly from the other three groups (P < 0.05). Conclusion. Using 0.5 μg/kg dexmedetomidine during the perianaesthesia can effectively reduce anesthetic drugs in patients. They had a laparoscopic extensive complete hysterectomy, which helps to reduce the adverse responses and the occurrence of POCD while also protecting brain function.

1. Background

POCD (postoperative cognitive dysfunction) refers to a neurological complication after anesthesia, which can occur at any age, and the incidence is relatively higher in the elderly [1]. POCD means that patients do not have a mental illness before the operation and sleep memory, thinking, orientation, cognition, and consciousness are disturbed within a few days of surgical anesthesia. It belongs to a kind of fluctuating and reversible mental disorder syndrome, and the main period of occurrence of POCD is 3 days after operation [2, 3]. POCD will affect patients’ quality of life and hinder their recovery, extend their stay in the hospital, and increase their family burden and medical expenses. In severe cases, it can even increase patient mortality [4].

It has many advantages such as minimally invasive, open surgical view, less intraoperative blood loss, less patient pain, and quick postoperative recovery [5, 6]. Although this surgical method has many advantages, it will also affect inflammatory factors and postoperative cognitive function to a certain extent, hindering the recovery of patients [7]. Clinical studies have shown that the preventive application
of analgesics is beneficial for reducing the pain caused by surgical stress and reducing the incidence of postoperative cognitive dysfunction [8]. Dexmedetomidine is a new type of α2 adrenergic receptor agonist with high selectivity. It can effectively inhibit sympathetic nerve excitability. It also has a good sedative effect, effectively protecting the nerve center and reducing inflammatory response [9]. Recent studies have shown that dexmedetomidine can reduce the stress response, the secretion and release of inflammatory factors, and the use of anesthetics during operation [10]. Related animal studies show that dexmedetomidine can reduce nerve damage after cerebral ischemia in animals, thereby effectively protecting the central nervous system [11].

Based on the pharmacological effects of dexmedetomidine, this study will explore whether dexmedetomidine can reduce the incidence of POCD in patients undergoing laparoscopic gynecological malignancies, thereby improving the quality of life and the prognosis of cancer patients. At the same time, this study also discusses the dose correlation of dexmedetomidine, which has specific feasibility and innovation.

2. Materials

119 patients with gynecological cancer underwent a laparoscopic extensive total hysterectomy. The operation was performed at the Affiliated Women’s and Children’s Hospital of Xiamen University from January 2019 to June 2020. They were recruited as the research objects. They were divided into four groups by random block design.

Randomization, allocation concealment, and blinding: the randomization sequence was computer generated with a 1:1 allocation to four groups, using random block sizes. The randomization sequence and envelope packaging were conducted off-site by an associate, not in the investigator team. Group allocation was concealed in consecutively numbered, opaque, sealed envelopes. Envelopes were drawn sequentially by the recruiting researchers who enrolled the participants according to the group drawn. As a result, they were unaware of the allocation until the envelope was opened. A research assistant inputted outcome measures unaware of the allocation until the envelope was opened. As a result, they were di-

3. Research Population

The local institutional review board authorised this research (KY-2020-057), and all participants gave their informed consent. After all patients had been recruited, the study was registered with the Chinese Clinical Trial Registry (http://www.chictr.org.cn/edit.aspx; ID: ChiCTR ChiCTR2100042922). The CONSORT reporting standards were followed in this research.

4. Methods

Four groups of patients were routinely abstained from drinking for 6 hours and fasting for 12 hours before the operation. After patients enter the room, NIBP, ECG, and blood oxygen saturation (SPO2) were closely monitored. Narcotrend compact monitor was connected to monitor EGG index, and venous access was quickly established. Both groups received an intravenous injection of 0.5 mg atropine first. Then, in group A, 0.05 mg/kg midazolam was injected intravenously 10 minutes before induction (Jiangsu Enhua Pharmaceutical Co., Ltd., National Medicine Standard H10980025 specification: 2 ml: 10 mg). 0.5 μg/(kg·min) midazolam was continuously pumped after tracheal intubation to 30 minutes before the end of the operation. In groups B, C, and D, dexmedetomidine was injected intravenously 10 minutes before induction of anesthesia with loadings of 1 μg/kg, 0.5 μg/kg, and 0.25 μg/kg, respectively. Then, the three groups were pumped continuously at a rate of 0.2 μg/(kg·h) to 30 minutes before the end of the operation.

Anesthesia induction: 0.3 mg/kg etomidate (Jiangsu Enhua Pharmaceutical Co., Ltd., National Medicine Standard H20020511 specification: 10 ml: 20 mg), 0.4–0.6 μg/kg sufentanil (Yichang Renfu Pharmaceutical Co., Ltd., National Medicine Standard H20054171 specification: 1 ml: 50 μg/10 pieces), 0.15 mg/kg cisatracurium (Zhejiang Xianju Pharmaceutical Co., Ltd., National Medicine Standard H20090202 specification: 5 mg/piece, powder) were used. Then, the tracheal tube was inserted, the anesthesia machine was connected, the PETCO2 was measured, and Narcotrend EEG/consciousness anesthesia depth was monitored. Based on the actual situation of patients, rationally adjust the respiratory rate and tidal volume and control the respiratory ratio to 1:2. At the same time, based on PETCO2, flexibly adjust breathing parameters, control PETCO2 between 35
and 45 mmHg, and maintain Narcotrend index between 46 and 20 and stabilize at stage D2-E1.

Anesthesia maintenance: in group A, 0.5 μg/(kg-min) midazolam was continuously pumped to 30 minutes before the end of the operation. Groups B, C, and D were pumped continuously at a rate of 0.2 μg/(kg·h) to 30 minutes before the end of the operation. At the same time, 10–15 μg/(kg·h) remifentanil (Yichang Renfu Pharmaceutical Co., Ltd., National Medicine Standard H42022054 specification: 2 ml: 0.1 g*10 pieces) and 4–8 mg/(kg·h) propofol medium/long-chain fat emulsion injection (German Braun Medical Co., Ltd., National Medicine Standard H20160354 specification: 50 ml: 500 mg/bottle) were micropumped to the four groups. The four groups were administered 0.1 mg/kg cisatracurium and 0.2 mg/kg sufentanil intravenously every hour to maintain relaxation, analgesia, and sedation. The quantity of crystalloid and colloidal fluid infusion was regulated appropriately throughout the surgery depending on the real circumstances. To avoid hyperalgesia, cease pumping remifentanil 15 minutes before the surgery and administer sufentanil 0.2 μg/kg intravenously. The tracheal tube was withdrawn when the patient was conscious following the surgery. The patient was sent to the recovery room for observation and was given the same postoperative analgesia. Follow-ups were performed 1 day, 3 days, and 7 days after the operation.

5. Observation Index

5.1. Leading Indicators. The leading indicators are cognitive function score, comparison of POCD occurrence, inflammatory factors, and brain protection indicators. Score of cognitive function [12, 13]: the score of MoCA was compared on T0 (1 day before operation), T1 (1 day after operation), T2 (3 days after the operation), and T3 (7 days after the operation). The MoCA scale assessment content includes orientation, calculation, abstract thinking, visual space, predictive ability, memory, execution ability, attention, and concentration. The scale's total score is 30 points, and the total score of equal to or more than 26 points indicate normal. The criterion is used to add 2 points for those with less than 4 years of education. It helps to add 1 point for those with 4 to 8 years of education. A total score of 25–30 is divided into normal cognitive function. A total score of 21–24 is mild cognitive impairment, a total score of 14–20 is moderate cognitive impairment, and a total score of 13 or less is severe cognitive impairment. Thus, the score reflects the level of cognitive function.

The incidence of POCD between the four groups of patients was compared [14]. Inflammatory factors and brain protection indicators: 3 ml of venous blood was drawn in the early morning from four groups of patients at T0 (1 day before operation), T1 (1 day after operation), T2 (3 days after the operation), and T3 (7 days after the operation). Then, the venous blood was centrifuged for 10 minutes at a speed of 3000 r/min. The levels of TNF-α, IL-6, S-100β protein, NSE, and GFAP were determined by enzyme-linked immunoabsorbent assay. The kit was provided by Beijing Kemei Dongya Biotechnology Co., Ltd.

5.2. Secondary Indicators. The amount of remifentanil during the operation of the four groups of patients, the residence time in the recovery room, the time of extubation from anesthesia, and the time to wake up from anesthesia were recorded. Adverse reactions in the four groups in the wake-up phase after the operation are chills, restlessness, bradycardia, nausea and vomiting, respiratory depression, and hypotension.

6. Statistical Method

According to our previous study’s average value and standard deviation, they were substituted into the PASS data processing system for calculation. In the formula, α is 0.05, and the power is 0.9. The minimum sample size required for each group is 35. SPSS22.0 was used for data analysis. The mean ± standard deviation expressed the measurement data. The data conforming to the normal distribution were subjected to the t test, and the Mann–Whitney U test was performed for the nonconforming data. The enumeration data were expressed by n (%). The comparison of enumeration data between groups was performed by X² test. P < 0.05 indicated statistical significance.

7. Results

7.1. Participant Enrollment and Flow. We performed bedside conversation with hospitalised gynecological cancer patients (n = 147). Three patients experienced problems that prevented them from meeting the inclusion criteria, two patients declined to participate, and two were eliminated for additional reasons. The most frequent causes for failing the assessment during our postoperative follow-up with the patients were that the operation duration was too short, blood clotting, and patient factors did not cooperate with blood collection, among the 140 patients included in the research. Using the CONSORT diagram, Figure 1 depicts participant flow during the research.

8. Data Comparisons in General

8.1. Comparison of General Data. There was no statistical significance in the comparison of the general data of the four groups of patients in terms of age, weight, time of operation, disease type, and neoplasm stage (P > 0.05) (Table 1).

8.2. Comparison of Anesthesia Indicators. The dosage of remifentanil, sufentanil, and propofol in four groups was group A > group D > group C > group B. The residence time in the recovery room, extubation, and recovery time from anesthesia in four groups was group A > group D > group C > group B. There was no significant difference between group B and group C (P > 0.05) (Figure 1). Figure 1 shows that the recovery time of anesthesia in groups B, C, and D was shorter than that in group A, P < 0.05. Figure 1(b) shows that the extubation time of anesthesia in groups B, C, and D was shorter than that in group A, P < 0.05. Figure 1(c) shows that residence time in the recovery room in group B, C, and D was shorter than that
Figure 1: Comparison of anesthesia indicators in four groups.
in group A, \( P < 0.05 \). Figure 1(d) shows that the dosage of remifentanil in groups B, C, and D was less than that in group A, \( P < 0.05 \). Figure 1(f) shows that sufentanil dosage in groups B, C, and D was less than that in group A, \( P < 0.05 \). Figure 1(g) shows that propofol dosage in groups B, C, and D was less than that in group A, \( P < 0.05 \). * indicates comparison with group A, \( P < 0.05 \).

8.3. The Score of Cognitive Function. At T0, the MoCA score of patients in each group did not vary significantly (\( P > 0.05 \)). T1 dropped substantially as compared to T0, but T2 rose (\( P < 0.05 \)). At T3 and T0, there was no change in MoCA scores (\( P > 0.05 \)). Statistically, there was no difference between groups B and C. At 1 day, 3 days, and 7 days after the surgery, the three groups had higher MoCA scores than group A (\( P < 0.05 \)). At the same scoring point, the scores were comparable in groups B and C, with group A dropping the most, followed by group D (Figure 2).

8.4. Comparison of the Incidence of POCD. The incidence of POCD in group A was 23.08%, group B was 9.68% (the lowest), group C was 10.71%, and group D was 17.65%. The POCD in four groups all occurred 3 days after the operation, and the incidence of POCD in groups B, C, and D was lower than that in group A (\( P < 0.05 \)). There was no significant difference in the incidence of POCD between groups B and C (\( P > 0.05 \)) (Table 2).

8.5. Comparison of Inflammatory Factors. There was no significant difference in the levels of TNF-\( \alpha \) and IL-6 in the four groups at T0 (\( P > 0.05 \)). However, compared with T0, the levels of TNF-\( \alpha \) and IL-6 of the four groups at T1, T2, and T3 increased first and then decreased gradually, and it was the highest at T1 (\( P < 0.05 \)). At T1 and T2, the levels of TNF-\( \alpha \) and IL-6 were the highest in group A, followed by group D, and the lowest in groups B and C, but the difference between the four groups was not statistically significant. At T3, there was no difference between groups B, C, and D, but it was lower than group A.

8.6. Comparison of Brain Protection Indicators. There was no significant difference in the level of S-100\( \beta \) protein, NSE, and GFAP of the four groups at T0 (\( P > 0.05 \)). Compared with T0, the level of S-100\( \beta \) protein, NSE, and GFAP of the four groups at T1, T2, and T3 increased and was highest at T1 (\( P < 0.05 \)). At T1 and T2, the increase in groups B and C was similar, the difference between the four groups was not statistically significant, and the increase in group A was the most (\( P < 0.05 \)). There was no difference in the level of S-100\( \beta \) protein, NSE, and GFAP of the groups B, C, and D at T3, but it was lower than that in group A (Figure 4).

8.7. Comparison of Adverse Reactions during the Recovery Period. In group A, the incidence of bradycardia, chills, hypotension, respiratory depression, and agitation was 3.85%, 3.85%, 3.85%, 7.69%, and 11.54%, respectively, whereas the incidence of bradycardia and hypotension in...
Table 2: Comparison of the incidence of POCD in each group [n (%)].

| Group   | Case | 3 days after operation | 7 days after operation | Total incidence |
|---------|------|------------------------|------------------------|-----------------|
| Group A | 26   | 5 (19.23)              | 1 (3.85)               | 6 (23.08)       |
| Group B | 31   | 3 (9.68)               | 0 (0.00)               | 3 (9.68)*       |
| Group C | 28   | 9 (10.71)              | 0 (0.00)               | 3 (10.71)*      |
| Group D | 34   | 6 (14.71)              | 0 (0.00)               | 6 (17.65)*      |

*Comparison with group A, *P* < 0.05.

Figure 3: Comparison of inflammatory factors in four groups.

(a) TNF-α (pg/ml)

(b) IL-6 (pg/ml)

Figure 4: Comparison of brain protection indicators in four groups.

(a) S-100B

(b) GFAP

(c) NSE
group B was 16.13% and 6.45%. On the other hand, the incidence of bradycardia in group C was 7.14%. The percentage of incidence of bradycardia and hypotension in group D was 5.88% and 2.94%. The incidence of adverse reactions in groups A, B, C, and D was 23.08%, 22.58%, 7.14%, and 8.82%, respectively. The incidence of bradycardia was the highest in group B, and there was a significant difference between group B and the other three groups ($P < 0.05$). Group A had the highest incidence of chills, respiratory depression, and restlessness, significantly different from the other three groups ($P < 0.05$). There was no significant difference in the incidence of adverse reactions between groups C and D ($P > 0.05$) (Table 3).

### Table 3: Comparison of the incidence of adverse reactions during the recovery period of each group [$n$ (%)].

| Group | Case | Bradycardia | Chills | Hypotension | Respiratory depression | Nausea and vomiting | Restlessness | Total incidence |
|-------|------|-------------|-------|-------------|-----------------------|--------------------|-------------|-----------------|
| A     | 26   | 1 (3.85)    | 1 (3.85) | 1 (3.85)    | 2 (7.69)              | 0 (0.00)           | 3 (11.5)    | 6 (23.08)       |
| B     | 31   | 5 (16.13)   | 0 (0.00) | 2 (6.45)    | 0 (0.00)              | 0 (0.00)           | 0 (0.00)    | 7 (22.58)       |
| C     | 28   | 2 (7.14)    | 0 (0.00) | 0 (0.00)    | 0 (0.00)              | 0 (0.00)           | 0 (0.00)    | 2 (7.14)*       |
| D     | 34   | 2 (5.88)    | 0 (0.00) | 1 (2.94)    | 0 (0.00)              | 0 (0.00)           | 0 (0.00)    | 3 (8.82)*       |

*Comparison with group A, $P < 0.05$.

### 9. Conclusion

Laparoscopic extensive total hysterectomy is standard in the elderly. The long operation duration is coupled with factors such as postural changes of laparoscopic operation, traumatic stress, and CO2 pneumoperitoneum. It triggers the body’s sympathetic nerve excitement, increases the release of catecholamines, and causes significant stress and inflammation reactions [15, 16]. The systemic inflammatory response that occurs under surgical trauma stress may play an essential role in the occurrence of POCD [17].

Midazolam has always been one of the leading drugs for clinical anesthesia and sedation. It has a specific inhibitory effect on breathing and has no analeptic effect. Previous studies have reported that benzodiazepines may increase the incidence of POCD, and its physiological effects are related to the timing of use and dosage. Larger doses during and after the operation will increase the risk of POCD [18, 19]. This study found that the incidence of POCD in group A was significantly higher than that in the other three groups, which has minor damage to central cholinergic neurons and projection fibers. Besides, it has a specific alleviating effect on the cognitive function mediated by acetylcholine, such as sensation, feeling, learning, arousal, and judgment [20, 21]. Furthermore, awakening time from anesthesia is shorter than group A. It suggests that dexmedetomidina saves a better synergistic effect with opioids. In addition, the number of anesthetics can be significantly reduced during operation, thereby reducing the side effects on patients.

Laparoscopic surgery trauma and anesthesia can trigger a systemic stress response and cause inflammation in the body, including the central nervous system. Among them, IL-6 and TNF-α are important inflammatory factors, promoting the accumulation of neutrophils in the body. It will further activate the surrounding endothelial cells and immune cells to produce more cytokines, increase the release of neurotoxic substances, and aggravate nerve tissue damage [22]. TNF-α has good antitumor and anti-infection effects under normal concentration conditions. However, when it exceeds a certain amount, it promotes the development of cancer, causing pathological damage to tissues and organs [23]. IL-6 is a multifunctional inflammatory cytokine, which has the function of connecting various mediators to exert their effects together. Therefore, excessive IL-6 can directly lead to the imbalance of inflammatory-anti-inflammatory factors and ultimately lead to a series of inflammatory damage. In addition, IL-6 can also mediate secondary brain injury through mechanisms such as activation of platelet-activating factor, induction of platelet aggregation, and interference with local microcirculation [24, 25]. In this study, the level of TNF-α and IL-6 of patients in groups B, C, and D on the 1 day, 3 days, and 7 days after operation was lower than that in group A at the corresponding time points. Group B and C were almost insignificant. It shows that dexmedetomidine can inhibit the release of inflammatory factors, such as IL-6 and TNF-α. It is because dexmedetomidine acts on the postsynaptic membrane α2 adrenergic receptor. It inhibits sympathetic nerve activity, stimulates imidazoline receptors, and activates the cholinergic anti-inflammatory pathway. It further regulates the body’s nuclear factor-κB and plays an anti-inflammatory effect on the release of inflammatory factors, thereby reducing the damage of neuronal cells and the incidence of POCD. As the dose increases, the concentration of TNF-α and IL-6 decreases, but there is a capping effect. The specific mechanism is still unclear and needs further study.

In the central nervous system, S-100β is mainly stored by glial cells and Schwann cells. It is an essential factor that regulates cell proliferation and death in the brain. It can also act on various receptors and enzymes to exert energy metabolism and regulate inflammation. After Schwann cells and glial cells are damaged, S-100β protein escapes from the damaged cells, enters the cerebrospinal fluid, and then enters the internal circulation through the blood-brain barrier. It is a specific marker of the damage of the central nervous system, and its sensitivity is ideal. Therefore, it can be used as a biochemical indicator for the clinical detection of brain damage [26]. Under normal physiological conditions, the level of S-100β protein in serum is shallow. When the brain is damaged, its level will increase significantly. NSE is a specific marker enzyme for neuronal damage, which mainly exists in the cytoplasm of neurons and neuroendocrine cells. NSE is released from the cytoplasm of damaged neuronal cells into the cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) when neuronal cells are damaged. It increases the concentration of NSE in CSF. NSE is released from the periphery into the blood, and the
concentration of NSE in serum increases. The occurrence of POCD indicates neuronal cell damage, so the concentration of NSE is correlated with the occurrence of POCD [27]. GFAP is a specific marker protein in astocytes. It participates in maintaining the internal environment of neurons and the blood-brain barrier, controlling the entry and exit of soluble molecules and harmful substances, and plays a vital role in regulating neuronal and cognitive functions. It mainly assists glial cells to repair nerve cells.

The increase of serum GFAP indicates that the massive damage of glial cells reduces the repairability of nerve function. In this study, the level of S-100β protein, NSE, and GFAP in groups B, C, and D was lower than that in group A at 1 day, 3 days, and 7 days after the operation. It suggests that the use of dexmedetomidine during perianesthesia has a protective effect on the brain. To explore its mechanism of action, the possible mechanisms of the neuroprotective effect of dexmedetomidine are studied. First, it acts on the central nervous system α2 adrenergic receptors. By inhibiting the voltage-gated calcium channel of the nervous system, it reduces the release of glutamate in the damaged central nervous system and excitatory neurotransmitters in the brain [28].

In summary, using 0.5 μg/kg dexmedetomidine can effectively reduce the anesthetic drugs used in patients. In addition, the patients were undergoing laparoscopic extensive total hysterectomy during the perianaesthesia period. Therefore, reducing the incidence of POCD improves cancer patients’ quality of life after the operation and protects brain function.

In addition, the observation time is not long enough and the duration of the influence of anesthesia and surgical stress on the cognitive function of gynecological cancer patients needs more in-depth research in the future.

Abbreviations

MoCA: Montreal cognitive assessment scale
TNF-α: Tumor necrosis factor-α
IL-6: Interleukin-6
NSE: Neuron-specific enolase
GFAP: Glial fibrillary acidic protein.

Data Availability

The data used to support the findings of this study are included within the article.

Ethical Approval

The experiment was approved by the Ethics Committee of Xiamen Maternity and Child Health Hospital; the clinical trial number is ChiCTR2100042922.

Consent

All patients participating in this study provided written informed consent in accordance with the “Helsinki Declaration.”

Disclosure

Huiqiong Huang and Xiuyi Xu are co-first authors.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Authors’ Contributions

Huiqiong Huang and Xiuyi Xu contributed equally to this work. JJ and HH designed and performed the experiments, analyzed the data, and wrote the manuscript. XX and YX provided the patient samples, conceived the study, and revised the manuscript. HH, XX, and YX performed the experiments, analyzed the data, and revised the manuscript. JJ and HH designed the experiments, provided reagents, and revised the manuscript. All authors have read and approved the manuscript.

References

[1] Z. J. Carr, T. J. Cios, K. F. Potter, and J. T. Swick, “Does dexmedetomidine ameliorate postoperative cognitive dysfunction? A brief review of the recent literature,” Current Neurology and Neuroscience Reports, vol. 18, no. 10, p. 64, 2018.
[2] S. Deiner, X. Luo, H. M. Lin et al., “Intraoperative infusion of dexmedetomidine for prevention of postoperative delirium and cognitive dysfunction in elderly patients undergoing major elective noncardiac surgery: a randomized clinical trial,” JAMA Surgery, vol. 152, no. 8, Article ID e171505, 2017.
[3] N. Chen, X. Chen, J. Xie, C. Wu, and J. Qian, “Dexmedetomidine protects aged rats from postoperative cognitive dysfunction by alleviating hippocampal inflammation,” Molecular Medicine Reports, vol. 20, no. 3, pp. 2119–2126, 2019.
[4] W. Yang, L. S. Kong, X. X. Zhu, R. X. Wang, Y. Liu, and L. R. Chen, “Effect of dexmedetomidine on postoperative cognitive dysfunction and inflammation in patients after general anaesthesia: a PRISMA-compliant systematic review and meta-analysis,” Medicine (Baltimore), vol. 98, no. 18, Article ID e15383, 2019.
[5] W.-X. Li, R.-Y. Luo, C. Chen et al., “Effects of propofol, dexmedetomidine, and midazolam on postoperative cognitive dysfunction in elderly patients,” Chinese Medical Journal, vol. 132, no. 4, pp. 437–445, 2019.
[6] C. Han, R. Fu, and W. Lei, “Beneficial effects of dexmedetomidine on early postoperative cognitive dysfunction in pediatric patients with tonsillectomy,” Experimental and Therapeutic Medicine, vol. 16, no. 1, pp. 420–426, 2018.
[7] Y.-S. Zhu, Y.-F. Xiong, F.-Q. Luo, and J. Min, “Dexmedetomidine protects rats from postoperative cognitive dysfunction via regulating the GABAB R-mediated cAMP-PKA- CREB signaling pathway,” Neuropsychiatry, vol. 39, no. 1, pp. 30–38, 2019.
[8] H. Zhang, Z. Wu, X. Zhao, and Y. Qiao, “Role of dexmedetomidine in reducing the incidence of postoperative cognitive dysfunction caused by sevoflurane inhalation anesthesia in elderly patients with esophageal carcinoma,” Journal of Cancer Research and Therapeutics, vol. 14, no. 7, pp. 1497–1502, 2018.
[9] B. Subramaniam, P. Shankar, S. Shafei et al., “Effect of intravenous acetaminophen vs. placebo combined with
propofol or dexmedetomidine on postoperative delirium among older patients following cardiac surgery,” *Journal of the American Medical Association*, vol. 321, no. 7, pp. 686–696, 2019.

[10] J. Zhang, G. Liu, F. Zhang et al., “Analysis of postoperative cognitive dysfunction and influencing factors of dexmedetomidine anesthesia in elderly patients with colorectal cancer,” *Oncology Letters*, vol. 18, no. 3, pp. 3058–3064, 2019.

[11] X. Du, F. Song, X. Zhang, and S. Ma, “Protective efficacy of combined use of parecoxib and dexmedetomidine on postoperative hyperalgesia and early cognitive dysfunction after laparoscopic cholecystectomy for elderly patients,” *Acta Cirúrgica Brasileira*, vol. 34, no. 9, Article ID e201900905, 2019.

[12] J. Zhang, G. Wang, F. Zhang, and Q. Zhao, “Improvement of postoperative cognitive dysfunction and attention network function of patients with ischemic cerebrovascular disease via dexmedetomidine,” *Experimental and Therapeutic Medicine*, vol. 15, no. 3, pp. 2968–2972, 2018.

[13] X. Q. Cheng, B. Mei, Y. M. Zuo et al., “POCD Study Group. Retracted: a multicentre randomised controlled trial of the effect of intra-operative dexmedetomidine on cognitive decline after surgery,” *Anesthesia*, vol. 74, no. 6, pp. 741–750, 2019.

[14] D. Lei, Y. Sha, S. Wen, S. Xie, L. Liu, and C. Han, “Dexmedetomidine may reduce IL-6 level and the risk of postoperative cognitive dysfunction in patients after surgery: a meta-analysis,” *Dose response*, vol. 18, no. 1, Article ID 1559325820902345, 2020.

[15] C. Zhou, Y. Zhu, Z. Liu, and L. Ruan, “Effect of dexmedetomidine on postoperative cognitive dysfunction in elderly patients after general anaesthesia: a meta-analysis,” *Journal of International Medical Research*, vol. 44, no. 6, pp. 1182–1190, 2016.

[16] X. P. Zhang, Y. R. Liu, M. Chai et al., “High-fat treatment prevents postoperative cognitive dysfunction in a hyperlipidemia model by protecting the blood-brain barrier via Mfsd2a-related signaling,” *Molecular Medicine Reports*, vol. 20, no. 5, pp. 4226–4234, 2019.

[17] Z. Gong, J. Li, Y. Zhong, X. Guan, A. Huang, and L. Ma, “Effects of dexmedetomidine on postoperative cognitive function in patients undergoing coronary artery bypass grafting,” *Experimental and Therapeutic Medicine*, vol. 16, no. 6, pp. 4685–4689, 2018.

[18] J. Huang, B. Gou, F. Rong, and W. Wang, “Dexmedetomidine improves neurodevelopment and cognitive impairment in infants with congenital heart disease,” *Personalized Medicine*, vol. 17, no. 1, pp. 33–41, 2020.

[19] J. Chen, N. Shen, X. Duan, and Y. Guo, “An investigation of the mechanism of dexmedetomidine in improving postoperative cognitive dysfunction from the perspectives of alleviating neuronal mitochondrial membrane oxidative stress and electrophysiological dysfunction,” *Experimental and Therapeutic Medicine*, vol. 15, no. 2, pp. 2037–2043, 2018.

[20] M. Rajaei, M. Tabari, G. Soltani et al., “Comparison between the effects of dexmedetomidine and midazolam on postoperative cognitive impairment after coronary artery bypass graft surgery: a randomized clinical trial,” *Journal of Tehran University Heart Center*, vol. 14, no. 2, pp. 67–73, 2019.

[21] Z. M. Jia, H. N. Hao, M. L. Huang, D. F. Ma, X. L. Jia, and B. Ma, “Influence of dexmedetomidine to cognitive function during recovery period for children with general anesthesia,” *European Review for Medical and Pharmacological Sciences*, vol. 21, no. 5, pp. 1106–1111, 2017.