The Conditioned Medium of Lactobacillus rhamnoides GG Regulates Microglia/Macrophage Polarization and Improves Functional Recovery after Spinal Cord Injury in Rats

Fangqi Lin, Baokun Zhang, Qiang Shi, Jiaming Liang, Xin Wang, Xiaofeng Lian, and Jianguang Xu

Department of Orthopedic Surgery, Shanghai Jiao Tong University Affiliated No.6 People’s Hospital, 600 Yishan Road, Shanghai 200233, China

Correspondence should be addressed to Xiaofeng Lian; xf909@126.com and Jianguang Xu; xjgn6spine@126.com

Received 7 April 2021; Accepted 25 June 2021; Published 12 July 2021

Copyright © 2021 Fangqi Lin 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.

Lactobacillus rhamnoides, a human intestinal colonizer, can act through various pathways to induce microglia/macrophages to produce cytokines and to polarize microglia/macrophages to different phenotypes to reduce the inflammatory response. In this article, we evaluated the treatment potential of the Lactobacillus rhamnoides GG conditioned medium (LGG-CM) in rat model with SCI (acute spinal cord injury), including functional, neurophysiological, and histological outcomes and the underlying neuroprotective mechanisms. In our experiment, LGG-CM (30 mg/kg) was injected directly into the injury site in rats immediately after SCI. Measured by the BBB scale (Basso, Beattie, and Bresnahan locomotor rating scale) and inclined plane test, rats in the LGG-CM-treated group showed better locomotor scores. Moreover, compared to the vehicle treatment group, LGG-CM increased the mRNA level of the M2 marker (CD206), and decreased that of the M1 marker (iNOS). Western blot assays showed that LGG-CM-treated SCI rats had a higher grayscale ratio of p65 and a lower ratio of p-IκBα/IκBα. Our study shows that local injection of LGG-CM after acute SCI can inhibit inflammatory responses and improve motor function recovery. These effects may be related with the inhibition to the NF-κB signal pathway which leads to M2 microglia/macrophage polarization.

1. Introduction

SCI (spinal cord injury), which is often secondary to spinal injury, is the most severe complication of spinal trauma and often leads to serious limb dysfunction [1]. SCI can cause local tissue destruction and microcirculation disturbances, resulting in the exacerbation of local damage and extensive necrosis of peripheral nerve cells, which in turn can cause motor, sensory, and autonomic dysfunction in the human body, greatly reducing the quality of life of patients [2, 3]. A previous study has proved that timely medication and intervention after spinal cord injury can attenuate long-term functional impairment and pathological damage [4]. So it is essential to develop effective methods to promote locomotor function recovery after SCI. Methylprednisolone is currently most commonly used clinically, but it must be carefully monitored to prevent arrhythmia, circulatory failure, and cardiac arrest, as well as complications of gastrointestinal bleeding [5]. Other drugs such as naloxone, nerve growth factor, and thyrotropin-releasing hormone have been shown to be effective in the recovery of spinal cord function in experiments, but they have yet to be confirmed by their extensive clinical application [6–8].

Within a few hours after spinal cord injury, microglia/macrophages, as the first immune cells to react to injury, polarize into M1 microglia/macrophages, releasing inflammatory factors (TNF-α, IL-6, and IL-1β), exacerbating the inflammatory response, inhibiting axonal regeneration, and finally leading to apoptosis of residual neurons [9, 10]. At later stages of spinal cord injury, the inflammatory response gradually weakens, and inflammatory factors secreted by M1 microglia/macrophages gradually decrease, and M2...
microglia/macrophages play a key gradually. M2 microglia/macrophages can make regeneration and functional recovery of residual nerves by modifying the microglia/macrophage phenotype, reducing the secretion of proinflammatory factors, increasing the secretion of neurotrophic factors, and increasing stimulatory factors in the microenvironment, such as TGF-β1 [11, 12]. The predominance of the M1 phenotype instead of M2 phenotype after SCI may contribute to secondary damage of the spinal cord. But, it is still unclear which factors in SCI can lead to microglia/macrophage phenotype switching. The switch of microglia/macrophage has been successfully applied in the treatment of chronic inflammatory renal disease, type 1 diabetes, and autoimmune encephalomyelitis in animal models [13–17], but the reports about this method applied in SCI treating are yet not so complete.

Lactobacillus rhamnoides, a kind of Gram-positive bacterium, can produce a large amount of lactic acid from fermentable carbohydrates [18]. Moderate intervention to the NF-κB signal pathway can reduce inflammatory response. Studies have shown that the conditioned medium of Lactobacillus rhamnoides GG (LGG-CM) can promote microglia/macrophage polarization to M2 by inhibiting the NF-κB signal pathway; this has been proven in the context of Salmonella infantis-induced inflammation in a pig model and colitis in mice [19, 20]. However, it has not been reported whether lactic acid bacteria can promote the repair of SCI by regulating the polarization of microglia/macrophages. Given its ability to regulate cytokines secreted by microglia/macrophages and microglia/macrophage polarization, we used LGG-CM in the treatment of SCI rats for the first time, to investigate whether it can reduce the nerve damage caused by SCI and promote the recovery of behavioral motor function.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Ethical Approval. All rats were operated on by the same surgeon. The animals were anesthetized by using 30 mg/kg pentobarbital administered intraperitoneally. The anesthetic effect was expected to begin within 5 min and last approximately 2 hours, which was enough time to complete the spinal cord injury procedure. The withdrawal reflex to tail compression was used to evaluate the level of anesthesia.

2.2. Drugs. Lactobacillus rhamnoides was inoculated in MRS medium and cultured for 24 h at 37°C. We centrifuged the supernatant and filtered out the bacteria with a 0.22 μm filter membrane, loaded them into an enrichment tube, and centrifuged them at 4000 r/min for 40 min at 4°C. From previous studies, we can know that the active ingredient of LGG-CM has a relative molecular weight ≥ 30000 kDa, and our preexperimental results also showed that the LGG-CM component with a relative molecular weight ≥ 30000 kDa significantly promoted microglia/macrophage polarization from M1 to M2 state. Therefore, we used the LGG-CM component with a molecular weight of ≥30000 kDa in this study.

2.3. Animals. Female rats (200–220 g, approximately 2 months) were reared in cages (every cage had 4 rats) in an environment with controlled temperature (25°C) and light/dark cycle (12/12 h). All rats had sufficient water and food during the whole study, and we made lots of efforts to alleviate the rats’ suffering.

The rats were divided into the 3 groups randomly, in which SCI or laminectomy was performed. In clinical practice, some doctors inject methylprednisolone into the local area of nerve decompression surgery and administer it in the form of local infiltration, which has played a good auxiliary role in surgical treatment. Similarly, the mice were directly administered LGG-CM (30 mg/kg) or saline at the site of injury by intrathecal injection within the first hour. The animal groups were as follows:

(1) SCI+saline (SCI+vehicle)
(2) SCI+2 ml/kg LGG-CM (SCI+LGG-CM)
(3) Sham+saline (sham; same surgical operation as the other 2 groups, except that weight dropping to the dura was not applied)

At 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7 days postsurgery, each rat was subjected to behavioral function assessment. And at 1, 3, and 7 days after surgery, we sacrificed 3 rats from each group and excised their spinal cords for follow-up biochemical studies and staining.

2.4. In Vitro Experiments

2.4.1. Cell Counting Kit-8. The degrees of cell viability of different LGG-CM concentrations were assessed with CCK-8 (Cell Counting Kit-8). Briefly, LGG-CM (LGG-CM: PBS (phosphate buffer saline) at 4 concentrations: 0, 1:100, 1:50, and 1:25) was added to 96-well plates, and each well was seeded with 200 μl cells at a concentration of 1×10^4 cells/ml. Incubated for 0 and 24 hours, the cells were added with 10 μl CCK-8 reagent. Then, the plates would be incubated for 1 hour. Finally, we used a microplate reader to measure spectrophotometric absorbance at 450 nm.

2.4.2. Flow Cytometric Measurement. THP-1 cells were incubated or differentiated in media containing different concentrations of LGG-CM (0 μl/ml, 10 μl/ml, and 20 μl/ml). The microglia/macrophages were detached with trypsin. The collected microglia/macrophages were washed twice in PBS (phosphate buffer saline) and then resuspended in PBS again at a concentration of 1×10^5 cells/ml. We transferred 100 μl of suspended cells to a flow tube. After that, we stained the cells with fluorescent dye-conjugated antibodies against CD206, CD86, and the corresponding isotype controls at 4°C. Washed twice in PBS again, the stained cells were then analyzed by FACSaria flow cytometry on a flow cytometer.

The software we used for analyzing results was FlowJo. Flow cytometry and fluorescence microscopy were used to measure apoptosis. We used PBS to wash the cells twice and then used trypsin to detach. We centrifuged the THP-1 cells at 1000 rpm for 3 min, washed them in PBS twice, and added Annexin V Binding Solution (1×) to the cells, which were maintained at a fixed concentration of 1×10^6 cells/ml; then,
we transferred 100 μl of the cell-containing solution to prepared flow tubes. We added FITC Annexin V (5 μl) and propidium iodide (PI, 5 μl) to each tube, incubated the tubes for 15 min in the dark, and then added 400 μl of 1× Annexin V Binding Solution to each tube. The results were analyzed by a FACS&Aria flow cytometer and fluorescence microscopy.

2.5. In Vivo Experiments

2.5.1. Animal Surgery. Animals were anaesthetized by pentobarbital (30 mg/kg body weight). After the hair at the surgical area was shaved, the skin of the surgical area was disinfected with medical alcohol (70%) and povidone-iodine. Under aseptic conditions, we made a longitudinal incision on the midline of the rat back to expose the paravertebral muscles. The T5–T8 vertebrae were exposed after dissecting the paravertebral muscles away. After exposing the spinal cord by T5-T8 laminectomy, we performed extradural compression by dropping a rod (diameter: 2 mm; weight: 10 g; height: 20 mm) to the dura rapidly to produce SCI. The rats in the sham group were only subjected to laminectomy. Ten minutes after SCI, rats in the LGG-CM group were administered direct injections of LGG-CM (2 ml/kg) at the injured segment of the spinal column, and the same volume of PBS was injected into rats in the vehicle group. We set the pH of the LGG-CM solution at between 7.2 and 7.4 to match the normal tissue pH. To replenish the blood lost in the surgery, 1 ml of saline solution at 0°C overnight, dehydrated with 30% sucrose, embedded in paraffin wax, and then sectioned (5 μm). For the spinal cords which were used for PCR and Western blot analysis, we made a dissection for segments of approximately 1 cm concluding the area of injury, washed them with PBS (ice-cold phosphate-buffered saline), and then snap-frozen and stored in liquid nitrogen until analysis.

2.6. Hematoxylin-Eosin Staining and Nissl Staining. We stained the spinal cord sections (20 μm) with conventional hematoxylin-eosin (H&E) staining and Nissl staining and observed the stained sections through an optical microscope. In hematoxylin-eosin staining, after deparaffinization and rehydration, we stained 5 μm longitudinal sections with hematoxylin solution for 5 min, then immersed the sections in 1% acetic acid (1% HCl in 70% ethanol) solution, and then rinse in distilled water totally. Then, the sections were stained with eosin solution for 3 min, and then dehydrated with gradient alcohol and clarified in xylene. In Nissl staining, we first heated the sections at room temperature for 30 min, then immersed the sections in 100% ethanol, 75% ethanol and distilled water for 30 seconds, and then stained them with 0.1% cresyl violet solution at 37°C for 5 min. After the sections were completely washed in distilled water, they would be immersed in 95% ethanol for 30 seconds and then immersed in absolute ethanol, absolute ethanol, and xylene for 5 minutes. Finally, seal the sections with neutral glue and observe under a microscope.

2.7. Immunohistochemistry. Spinal cord sections were stained for: MMPs (matrix metalloproteinases). After fixation, the sections were washed with PBST (30 min) and then incubated in normal goat serum (10%, 30 min) for blocking. The transverse sections were then incubated with the primary antibodies MMPs, at 4°C for 12 h. Subsequently, the sections were washed again in PBST (30 min) and then incubated with the secondary antibodies for 8 h. Finally, the sections were washed with PBST (30 min) and then incubated with DAPI for 30 s and cover-slipped. Images were captured by a laser scanning confocal microscope. Three consecutive slices from each animal were analyzed, and three random visual fields were counted in each slice. Table 1 shows the information of antibodies.

2.8. Real-Time PCR. Following the standard manufacturer’s instructions, we used an RNA simple total RNA kit to isolate total RNAs from the injured spinal cords. The concentration and quality of total RNA were assessed by spectrophotometric determination at 260/280 nm, and equal amounts of RNA from each sample were reverse-transcribed into complementary DNA (cDNA) for RT-qPCR. For miRNA reverse transcription, cDNA was synthesized using the miRNA First-Strand cDNA Synthesis (Tailning Reaction) Kit (Sangon Biotech, Shanghai). For mRNA reverse transcription, cDNA was synthesized using the PrimeScript RT Reagent Kit with gDNA Eraser (TaKaRa Biomedical Technology Co. Ltd., Beijing, China). cDNA was further applied as a template for RT-
qPCR following the manufacturer’s instructions (Mastercycler Gradient; Eppendorf, Germany). The primers are shown in Table 1.

### Table 1: Primers used for real-time PCR.

| Genes   | Forward primers                  | Reverse primers                  |
|---------|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| β-Actin | 5′ CCT CTA TGC CAA CAC AGT 3′    | 5′ AGC CAC CAA TCC ACA CAG 3′    |
| IL-6    | 5′ AAT CTG CTC TGG TCT CTT CTA 3′ | 5′ ATT GCT CTG AAT GAC TCT GGC 3′ |
| IL-1β   | 5′ GTT CTT TGA GGC TGA CAG ACC 3′ | 5′ GAT GCT GCT GTG AGA TTT GAA 3′ |
| TNF-α   | 5′ CCA ATC TGT GTC CTT CTA ACT 3′ | 5′ TGT GTT TCT GAG CAT CGT 3′    |
| iNOS    | 5′ CTC AGG CTT GGG TCT TGT TAG 3′ | 5′ TCT GTG ACT TTG TGC TGC TGC 3′|
| CD206   | 5′ CCT TCT GTG CCT ATC TCT CCA 3′ | 5′ TAT TTC TCT GCT TGC TGC CAT 3′|
| TGF-β1  | 5′ CTC GGA TAC CAA CTA CTG CTT 3′ | 5′ AGG TCC TTC CTA AAG TCA ATG T 3′|
| MMP-9   | 5′ GAC TCG GTC TTT GAG GAG CC 3′ | 5′ GAA CTC ACG CGC CAG TAG AA 3′ |

2.9. **Western Blot Analysis.** Microglia/macrophages isolated from mice treated with or without LGG-CM were homogenized with ice-cold RIPA buffer (25 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.6, 150 mM NaCl, 1% NP-40, 1% sodium deoxycholate, and 0.1% SDS) containing protease and phosphatase inhibitors (Complete Protease Inhibitor Cocktail and PhosSTOP Phosphatase Inhibitor Cocktail; both from Roche). After centrifugation at 12,000 g for 10 min at 4°C, the supernatants were collected. The protein concentration was determined using a bicinchoninic acid (BCA) assay (QuantiPro BCA Assay Kit, Sigma-Aldrich) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. Protein samples were separated by SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis and transferred onto polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membranes (Millipore Corporation, USA). The membranes were blocked with 5% skimmed milk for 1 h at room temperature and then incubated with primary antibodies at 4°C overnight: rabbit anti-p-IκBα (1:1000; Cell Signaling Technology), rabbit anti-IκBα (1:1000; Abcam), and rabbit anti-β-actin (1:1000; Abcam). After three washes, the membranes were incubated with an HRP-coupled secondary antibody (1:20000; Jackson) at room temperature for 1 h and washed three times for 10 min each at room temperature. Finally, all the membranes were imaged using densitometry (ChemiScope 6100) and quantified using densitometric analysis (ImageJ software, NIH).

2.10. **Statistical Analysis.** We used GraphPad Prism software 8.0 to perform statistical analysis. Two-tailed unpaired Student’s t-test was used to compare the two groups. Unless otherwise stated, the rest of the data were analyzed by either one-way or two-way analysis of variance with post hoc Tukey’s multiple comparisons tests. P values of < 0.05 were considered significant.

![Figure 1: The scheme of our article.](image-url)
3. Results

3.1. Experimental Protocol. The scheme of our article explains the protocol (Figure 1).

3.2. Cell Survival Assay. To determine the appropriate dose of LGG-CM, microglia/macrophage cells were incubated with 0 (control), 1 : 25, 1 : 50, and 1 : 100 LGG-CM : PBS for 24 h. We can find from the CCK-8 results assay that LGG-CM significantly increased cell viability compared to the control. The 1 : 50 concentration had a greater effect on viability than the other concentrations and also promoted the most microglia/macrophage polarization to M2. Thus, 1 : 50 (20 μl/ml) was selected for use in the subsequent experiments (Figure 2).

3.3. LGG-CM Improves Functional Restoration after Acute SCI. We performed BBB and inclined plane tests daily from 1 to 7 days after SCI to evaluate the functional restoration of mice in different groups. As the higher BBB scores indicated, the LGG-CM-treated group showed improved recovery from day 3 after SCI. Compared to the vehicle-treated group, the rats of the LGG-CM-treated group showed better locomotor function recovery in inclined plane...
Figure 3: Continued.
test, with a significantly increased angle of the inclined plane that the rats could stay (Figure 3).

3.4. LGG-CM Reduces Lesion Size. At 7 days post-SCI, the area of spinal cord damage on the specimens in the LGG-CM-treated group was noticeably less than that in the vehicle-treated group. Moreover, Nissl staining suggested that the density of Nissl bodies in the LGG-CM-treated group was significantly higher than that in the vehicle-treated group at 7 days after SCI (Figure 4).

3.5. LGG-CM Polarization to M2 Microglia/Macrophages and Reduce Inflammation. At 7 days after surgery, we used immunohistochemistry and immunofluorescence staining to observe the spinal cord slices of rats with spinal cord injury to study the changes of matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs) near the slices. We found that the expression of MMPs was low in the sham group. In both the LGG-CM group and vehicle group, the expression of MMPs was higher than that in the sham group significantly; the expression of MMPs was less in the LGG-CM compared with the vehicle group. Then, we used qPCR to value the mRNA levels of MMP-9 and characteristic surface markers (TNF-α, IL-6, IL-1β, TGF-β1, CD206, and iNOS) at day 7 after surgery. As expected, LGG-CM treatment reduced the mRNA expression of MMP-9, iNOS, IL-6, IL-1β, and TNF-α. On the contrary, the mRNA expression CD206 and TGF-β was significantly increased in LGG-CM-treated rats. The mRNA marker expressions of both M1 and M2 in the vehicle-treated group were significantly higher than that in the sham group. Compared to vehicle treatment, LGG-CM treatment can increase the mRNA expression of M2 markers and decreased that of M1 markers (Figure 5).

3.6. LGG-CM Inhibits the NF-κB Signal Pathway by Reducing the Phosphorylation of IκBa. The NF-κB (nuclear factor-kappa B) signal pathway is crucial in the process of producing inflammatory cytokines to perform proinflammatory functions. We hypothesized that LGG-CM can protect rats against SCI by inhibiting NF-κB-mediated inflammation. To verify our hypothesis, we used immunoblotting to assess the NF-κB activation and assessed the expression of NF-κB in microglia/macrophages by immunostaining. In the LGG-CM treatment group, we could observe an inhibition of NF-κB p65, suggesting that LGG-CM can suppress the transcriptional activity of NF-κB p65. Moreover, the ratio of p-IκBa/IκBa was significantly lower in rats with LGG-CM treatment, which means that the NF-κB signaling pathway was inhibited by reducing the phosphorylation of IκBa (Figure 6).

4. Discussion

After ensuring the safety of LGG-CM by CCK-8 test and the effectiveness by flow cytometric measurement, we applied LGG-CM locally at the injured site after SCI in rats. From the observation of the treatment group, we can find a less damage area of spinal cord specimens and a higher density of Nissl bodies. Evaluated by BBB test and inclined plane test, functional recovery was improved significantly in the treatment group, which shows that LGG-CM do provide a protective effect against SCI in rats. The results of PCR and Western blot experiments showed that the therapeutic effect was associated with the inhibition of the NF-κB signal pathway, which promoted the polarization of microglia/macrophages to M2 rather than M1 and thereby reduced related inflammatory processes and improved locomotor function recovery.

With the mediation of inflammatory mediators, matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs) can cause the dissolution of extracellular matrix and the destruction of basement membrane, aggravating the inflammatory response and...
Figure 4: LGG-CM attenuates tissue damage. (a) H&E staining of transverse spinal cord sections near the injury at day 7 after SCI. (b) Nissl staining of transverse spinal cord sections near the injury at day 7 after SCI. (c) The area of injury site in SCI rats who were treated with LGG-CM or vehicle. (d) Quantification of lesion as a ratio to whole area at the epicenter in each SCI group. (e) Numbers of Nissl bodies (/mm²) in transverse spinal cord sections near the injury at day 7 after SCI.
destroying normal cell tissues. What is more, the expression of MMPs is positive with the inflammatory mediators. So MMPs can be used to assess the severity of inflammatory response [23–25]. From the results of immunohistochemistry and immunofluorescence staining, we found that in the sham operation group, the expression of MMPs was low,
Figure 6: Continued.
which is in line with the description in the literature review: the expression of MMPs in normal tissues was low or even not expressed. In the LGG-CM group and the vehicle group, the expression of MMPs was higher than that in sham group, and the expression of MMPs in the LGG-CM group was lower than that in the vehicle group. This indicates that the intervention of LGG-CM can reduce the inflammatory response of spinal cord injury tissue, and its effect may be related to the reduction of inflammatory mediators.

The inflammatory response plays an important role during the process of local tissue injury after SCI. In well-defined in vitro situations, microglia/macrophages can be divided into the M1 (proinflammatory) phenotype and M2 (anti-inflammatory) phenotype by the presence of different surface markers. The dominance of the M1 or M2 phenotype can determine the trend of immune responses [26]. The proinflammatory M1 state may be related to the dominant expression of proinflammatory factors (TNF-α, IL-6, IL-1β, and iNOS) that exacerbate local inflammation. On the contrary, the anti-inflammatory M2 state is associated with the dominance of anti-inflammatory factors (TGF-β1 and CD206), which is beneficial for tissue repair [27, 28]. In our research, we observed the changes of inflammatory factors and microglia/macrophage markers by real-time PCR. We can find that in the first few hours after SCI, microglia/macrophages polarized to the M1 phenotype, and proinflammatory factors increased and remained a high level for 3 days after SCI. In the late stage of SCI, microglia/macrophages polarized to M2, with a significant increase of anti-inflammatory factors (i.e., TGF-β1 and CD206). These results offer a possible therapeutic strategy that regulates the polarization of microglia/macrophages to decrease excess neuroinflammatory factor levels and block inflammatory responses which may down-regulate the production of inflammatory cytokines and inhibited inflammation, to promote neural functional repair after SCI.

LGG is currently one of the most widely studied probiotics, and it has been proven effective in preventing and treating certain conditions, such as intestinal infections, diarrhea, systemic inflammation, and allergic diseases [29, 30]. Studies have shown that LGG-CM can reduce intestinal damage caused by pathogenic bacteria and oxidative stress [31, 32]; moreover, LGG-CM reduced allergic reactions and enhanced the immune function of mononuclear microglia/macrophages when administered to mice [33, 34]. In a previous study, it was found that LGG-CM can directly act on brain microvascular cells to inhibit the activation of the NF-κB signal pathway. [35] We applied LGG-CM to SCI rats and found that LGG-CM can reduce the occurrence of inflammation in SCI and do exert a therapeutic effect. During in vitro experiments, we ensured the safety of LGG-CM by CCK-8 test. And then, we treated microglia/macrophages with different concentrations of LGG-CM and found that the effect of LGG-CM on polarization was concentration dependent. From the real-time PCR results, we can find that compared to vehicle treatment, LGG-CM treatment significantly decreased the mRNA levels of M1 state markers (iNOS) near the injury section of SCI rats, which shows that LGG-CM administration may inhibit polarization to M1. Conversely, the mRNA levels of markers of M2 were increased, which means that polarization to M2 was promoted. As indicated by our behavioral analyses, LGG-CM can promote the polarization of microglia/macrophage to M2 phenotype rather than M1 phenotype and thus improve the recovery of motor function.

In fact, the dominance of the M1 or M2 phenotype in vivo may be associated with many conflicting factors from the physiological environment. As a key transcription factor, NF-κB plays an important role in microglia/macrophage polarization. NF-κB pathways are activated by extracellular stimuli. Extracellular signaling factors bind to the corresponding receptors on the cell membrane, initiating a series of downstream responses. The stimulated receptor protein activates IκB kinase (IKK). IKK phosphorylates the serine within the amino-terminal domain of IκB in the intracellular NF-κB IκB complex so that the IκB subunit is modified by
ubiquitination and then degraded by proteases, thereby releasing the NF-κB dimer. The activated NF-κB dimer is mainly composed of the p50 subunit and p65 subunit. In the NF-κB pathway, the activation of p65 can initiate inflammation in the human body and induce microglia/macrophage polarization to M1. Our Western blot assay indicated that the grayscale ratio of p65 was lower in the LGG-CM-treated SCI rats, suggesting that LGG-CM can inhibit the transcriptional activity of NF-κB p65. Moreover, the ratio of p-IκBα/IκBα was significantly lower in LGG-CM-treated SCI rats, which indicates that the phosphorylation of IκBα was reduced. Collectively, these findings suggest that LGG-CM inhibited the NF-κB pathway by reducing the phosphorylation of IκBα, which can promote microglia/macrophage polarizing to the anti-inflammatory M2 state to repair injury tissue and reduce inflammation.

5. Conclusion

Our study suggests a novel treatment strategy: early LGG-CM administration immediately after SCI reduced the extent of posttraumatic inflammation near the injured site and promoted locomotor function recovery after SCI. This occurred through a mechanism in which LGG-CM inhibited the NF-κB pathway by reducing the phosphorylation of IκBα, which promotes microglia/macrophage polarization to M2 and inhibited polarization to M1. Thus, LGG-CM is expected to be a candidate therapeutic drug for exerting neuroprotection after SCI.

Data Availability

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

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Authors’ Contributions

F.L. carried out the experiments, and drafted the manuscript. B.Z. performed the statistical analysis, and helped to perform the experiments. J.X. and X.L. advised on the experimental procedures, and designed the study. Q.S., J. L. and X.W. helped to perform the experiments. All authors have read and approved the final manuscript.

Acknowledgments

This work is supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (81672217).

References

[1] B. T. Lang, J. M. Cregg, M. A. DePaul et al., “Modulation of the proteoglycan receptor PTPσ promotes recovery after spinal cord injury,” *Nature*, vol. 518, no. 7539, pp. 404–408, 2015.

[2] M. S. Beattie, “Inflammation and apoptosis: linked therapeutic targets in spinal cord injury,” *Trends in Molecular Medicine*, vol. 10, no. 12, pp. 580–583, 2004.

[3] R. Galeiras Vázquez, P. Rascado Sedes, M. Mourelo Faríña, A. Montoto Marqués, and M. E. Ferreiro Velasco, “Respiratory management in the patient with spinal cord injury,” *BioMed Research International*, vol. 2013, Article ID 168757, 2013.

[4] C. Wang, Q. Wang, Y. Lou et al., “Salidroside attenuates neuroinflammation and improves functional recovery after spinal cord injury through microglia polarization regulation,” *Journal of Cellular and Molecular Medicine*, vol. 22, no. 2, pp. 1148–1166, 2018.

[5] M. Tęsirowski, T. Potazcek, B. Jasiewicz, J. Sapa, and M. Zygmunt, “Metyloxyprednizolon – ostre urazy rdzeniakrego wego, korzyści czy zagrożenia ?,” *Postępy Higieny i Medycyny Doświadczalnej*, vol. 67, pp. 601–609, 2013.

[6] E. Hayta and H. Elden, "Acute spinal cord injury: a review of pathophysiology and potential of non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs for pharmacological intervention," *Journal of Chemical Neuroanatomy*, vol. 87, pp. 25–31, 2018.

[7] L. L. Wu, X. M. Pan, H. H. Chen, X. Y. Fu, J. Jiang, and M. X. Ding, "Repairing and analgesic effects of umbilical cord mesenchymal stem cell transplantation in mice with spinal cord injury," *BioMed Research International*, vol. 2020, Article ID 7650354, 2020.

[8] BioMed Research International, "Retracted: study of effect of salvianolic acid B on motor function recovery in rats with spinal cord injury," *BioMed Research International*, vol. 2017, Article ID 8234878, 2017.

[9] E. Talamonti, A. M. Pauer, A. Asadi, A. W. Fischer, V. Chirichiu, and A. Jacobsson, “Impairment of systemic DHA synthesis affects microglia/macrophage plasticity and polarization: implications for DHA supplementation during inflammation,” *Cellular and Molecular Life Sciences*, vol. 74, no. 15), pp. 2815–2826, 2017.

[10] O. Manzhulo, A. Tyrtyshnaia, Y. Kipryushina, I. Dyuizen, and I. Manzhulo, “Docosahexaenoic acid induces changes in microglia/macrophage polarization after spinal cord injury in rats,” *Acta Histochemica*, vol. 120, no. 8, pp. 741–747, 2018.

[11] A. Etzerodt and S. K. Moestrup, "CD163 and inflammation: biological, diagnostic, and therapeutic aspects," *Antioxidants & Redox Signaling*, vol. 18, no. 17, pp. 2352–2363, 2013.

[12] R. Yang, J. He, and Y. Wang, “Activation of the nicin receptor HCA2 reduces demyelination and neurofilament loss, and promotes functional recovery after spinal cord injury in mice,” *European Journal of Pharmacology*, vol. 791, pp. 124–136, 2016.

[13] R. Parsa, P. Andresen, A. Gillett et al., “Adaptive transfer of immunomodulatory M2 microglia/macrophages prevents type 1 diabetes in NOD mice,” *Diabetes*, vol. 61, no. 11, pp. 2881–2892, 2012.

[14] Y. Wang, Y. P. Wang, G. Zheng et al., “Ex vivo programmed macrophages ameliorate experimental chronic inflammatory renal disease,” *Kidney International*, vol. 72, no. 3, pp. 290–299, 2007.

[15] X. M. Zhang, H. Lund, S. Mia, R. Parsa, and R. A. Harris, “Adaptive transfer of cytokine-induced immunomodulatory adult microglia attenuates experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis in DBA/1 mice,” *Glia*, vol. 62, no. 5, pp. 804–817, 2014.

[16] D. Han, Z. Yu, W. Liu et al., “Plasma hemepoxin ameliorates murine spinal cord injury by switching microglia from the
M1 state to the M2 state,” *Cell Death & Disease*, vol. 9, no. 2, p. 181, 2018.

[17] D. Sun, Z. Yu, X. Fang et al., “LncRNA GAS5 inhibits microglial M2 polarization and exacerbates demyelination,” *EMBO reports*, vol. 18, no. 10, pp. 1801–1816, 2017.

[18] J. Wang, T. Wu, X. Fang, W. Min, and Z. Yang, “Characterization and immunomodulatory activity of an exopolysaccharide produced by Lactobacillus plantarum JK0142 isolated from fermented dairy tofu,” *International Journal of Biological Macromolecules*, vol. 115, pp. 985–993, 2018.

[19] G. Y. Yang, J. Yu, J. H. Su, L. G. Jiao, X. Liu, and Y. H. Zhu, “Oral administration of Lactobacillus rhamnosus GG ameliorates Salmonella infantis-induced inflammation in a pig model via activation of the IL-22BP/IL-22/STAT3 pathway,” *Frontiers in Cellular and Infection Microbiology*, vol. 7, 2017.

[20] S. E. Jang, S. R. Hyam, M. J. Han, S. Y. Kim, B. G. Lee, and D. H. Kim, “Lactobacillus brevisG-101 ameliorates colitis in mice by inhibiting NF-κB, MAPK and AKT pathways and by polarizing M1 macrophages to M2-like macrophages,” *Journal of Applied Microbiology*, vol. 115, no. 3, pp. 888–896, 2013.

[21] D. M. Basso, M. S. Beattie, and J. C. Bresnahan, “A sensitive and reliable locomotor rating scale for open field testing in rats,” *Journal of Neurotrauma*, vol. 12, no. 1, pp. 1–21, 1995.

[22] A. S. Rivlin and C. H. Tator, “Objective clinical assessment of motor function after experimental spinal cord injury in the rat,” *Journal of Neurosurgery*, vol. 47, no. 4, pp. 577–581, 1977.

[23] N. Cui, M. Hu, and R. A. Khalil, “Biochemical and biological attributes of matrix metalloproteinases,” *Progress in Molecular Biology and Translational Science*, vol. 147, 2017.

[24] M. Waszczykowski, I. Bednarski, J. Narbutt, E. Waszczykowska, A. Lesiak, and J. Fabiś, “Interleukin-18, interleukin-20, and matrix metalloproteinases (MMP-1, MMP-3) as markers of psoriatic arthritis disease severity and their correlations with biomarkers of inflammation and turnover of joint cartilage,” *Advances in Dermatology and Allergology*, vol. 37, no. 6, pp. 1001–1008, 2020.

[25] R. Serra, “Matrix metalloproteinases in health and disease,” *Biomolecules*, vol. 10, no. 8, p. 1138, 2020.

[26] N. G. Frangogiannis, “The immune system and cardiac repair,” *Pharmacological Research*, vol. 58, no. 2, pp. 88–111, 2008.

[27] S. Girard, D. Brough, G. Lopez-Castejon, J. Giles, N. J. Rothwell, and S. M. Allan, “Microglia and microglia/macrophages differentially modulate cell death after brain injury caused by oxygen-glucose deprivation in organotypic brain slices,” *Glia*, vol. 61, no. 5, pp. 813–824, 2013.

[28] A. Alizadeh, K. T. Santhosh, H. Kataria, A. S. Gounni, and S. Karimi-Abdolrezae, “Neuregulin-1 elicits a regulatory immune response following traumatic spinal cord injury,” *Journal of Neuroinflammation*, vol. 15, no. 1, p. 53, 2018.

[29] E. M. Quigley and F. Shanahan, “The future of probiotics for disorders of the brain-gut axis,” *Advances in Experimental Medicine and Biology*, vol. 817, pp. 417–432, 2014.

[30] G. Umbrello and S. Esposito, “Microbiota and neurologic diseases: potential effects of probiotics,” *Journal of Translational Medicine*, vol. 14, no. 1, p. 298, 2016.

[31] F. Yan, H. Cao, T. L. Cover, R. Whitehead, M. K. Washington, and D. B. Polk, “Soluble proteins produced by probiotic bacteria regulate intestinal epithelial cell survival and growth,” *Gastroenterology*, vol. 132, no. 2, pp. 562–575, 2007.

[32] Y. Tao, K. A. Drabik, T. S. Waypa et al., “Soluble factors from Lactobacillus GG activate MAPKs and induce cytoprotective heat shock proteins in intestinal epithelial cells,” *American Journal of Physiology-Cell Physiology*, vol. 290, no. 4, pp. C1018–C1030, 2006.

[33] H. Harb, E. A. van Tol, H. Heine et al., “Neonatal supplementation of processed supernatant from Lactobacillus rhamnosus GG improves allergic airway inflammation in mice later in life,” *Clinical and Experimental Allergy*, vol. 43, no. 3, pp. 353–364, 2013.

[34] F. L. Y. Fong, P. V. Kirjavainen, and H. El-Nezami, “Immuno-modulation of _Lactobacillus rhamnosus_ GG (LGG)-derived soluble factors on antigen-presenting cells of healthy blood donors,” *Scientific Reports*, vol. 6, no. 1, 2016.

[35] Q. Zeng, X. L. He, H. S. Xiao et al., “Lactobacillus rhamnosus GG conditioned medium prevents E. coli meningitis by inhibiting nuclear factor-κB pathway,” *Nan Fang Yi Ke Da Xue Xue Bao*, vol. 37, no. 1, pp. 24–29, 2017.