

Lidocaine induce neurotoxicity and peripheral nerve injury in trigeminal nerve system

Abstract

Objectives: Local anesthetics (LAs) are widely used in dentistry for their ability to block nerve impulses, particularly lidocaine. However, on the other hand, LAs can commonly cause neurotoxicity in vitro and in vivo. Our study investigated the neurotoxic effects of lidocaine and the occurrence of peripheral nerve injury when lidocaine is injected for local or regional anesthesia in the oro-facial area.

Method: Sprague-Dawley rats were used in trigeminal ganglion (TG) neuron preparation and incubated with lidocaine. Cell death was assessed using a visual microscope. Nerve injury was detected by activating transcription Factor 3 (ATF3) expression in TG neurons after lidocaine injection into the trigeminal nerve endings in the infraorbital area.

Results: The rat TG neurons were killed by lidocaine after 24 hours of incubation. Cell death depends on the concentration of lidocaine, resulting in 39.83% cell death at 10 mM lidocaine, 75.20% at 20 mM lidocaine, and 89.90% at 50 mM ($p < 0.03$), compared to 1.56% in saline. The cell membrane was damaged, and the nuclei showed signs of fragmentation in DAPI staining. Nerve injury was indicated by ATF3 immunoreactivity (IR) in the nuclei of TG neurons in the maxillary area of the TG in naïve ($n=10$), saline (50), 1% lidocaine ($n=95$), 2% lidocaine ($n=319$) ($p < 0.02$), and 5% lidocaine ($n=433$) groups ($p < 0.01$).

Conclusion: Lidocaine may induce neurotoxicity and nerve injury in vitro and in vivo at clinical concentrations or in cases of overdose.

Keywords: Lidocaine, Immunohistochemistry, Neurotoxicity, and Trigeminal system.

Introduction

The local anesthetics have been commonly used in dentistry for several years for the purpose of local or regional anesthesia in the clinical field. The local anesthetic, especially lidocaine, is activated directly on the neuronal membrane voltage-gated Na^+ channels, blocking the propagation of action potentials. Lidocaine also excites sensory neurons and induces neuronal toxicity, leading to cell death, including direct membrane disruption, and activation of p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase involved in apoptosis [1]. In human chondrocytes, the lidocaine cause delayed mitochondrial dysfunction and apoptosis [2][3]. Lidocaine-induced increase in intracellular Ca^{+2} is a mechanism of neuronal toxicity [4]. Local anesthetics especially at high concentration of lidocaine can activate caspase3/-7 triggering apoptosis [5]. Lidocaine may cause changes in cytoplasmic calcium homeostasis and mitochondrial membrane potential [6]. The effect of lidocaine is sufficient to release Calcitonin gene-related peptide (CGRP), a key component of neurogenic inflammation, and warrants investigation into the role of TRPV1 and TRPA1 in lidocaine-induced neurotoxicity [7]. In local or regional anesthesia the Local anesthetics (LAs) were showing peripheral nerve injury as loss or damaged of large-diameter fibers [8]. Sciatic nerve intraneural lidocaine injection induced neuropathic pain and expression of ATF-3 in DRG neurons [9].

In the present study, we conducted research on lidocaine-induced neurotoxicity activated in trigeminal ganglion (TG) neurons leading to cell death and peripheral trigeminal nerve injury indicated by ATF3 immunoreactivity in TG neurons.

Methods

1. Animal

All surgical and experimental procedures were reviewed and approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee at Seoul National University. Animal treatments were performed according to the Guidelines of the International Association for the Study of Pain. Male Sprague-Dawley rats (approximately weighing 180-200 g at the time of surgery) were used. Rats were housed at a temperature of $23\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$ with a 12-hour light-dark cycle and fed food and water ad libitum. The animals were allowed to habituate to the housing facilities for 1 week before the experiments, and efforts were made to limit distress to the animals.

2. Lidocaine injection

After 1 week of housing, rats were given general anesthesia with sodium pentobarbital (50 mg/kg, IP). The rats were then separated into 5 groups, each consisting of 5 rats. The infraorbital area was injected with saline (2Ca/Na) and various concentrations of lidocaine (1%, 2%, and 5%) in a 2 mL solution. After the injections, the rats were housed for 3 days for the next procedures at a temperature of $23\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$ with a 12-hour light-dark cycle and fed with food and water ad libitum.

3. Lidocaine treating

The trigeminal ganglia from 5 rats were harvested and incubated in HBSS containing 0.25% trypsin (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA). The cells were washed and triturated to separate them. Cells were placed on coverslips coated with poly-L-ornithine (0.5 mg/mL; Sigma-Aldrich), and then maintained at 37°C under 5% CO_2 [10]. After 12 hours of trigeminal neuron preparation, the cells were treated with 1%, 2%, and 5% lidocaine, and a control group was treated with saline (2Ca/Na) and 10 μM capsaicin for 24 hours. Osmolarity was adjusted to 400 mOsm, and pH to 7.4. The dead cells were evaluated using a light microscope.

4. Immunohistochemistry

Rats were perfused with physiological saline and sequentially with 4% paraformaldehyde in 0.1 mol/L phosphate buffer (pH 7.4) at 3 days after lidocaine injection. The trigeminal ganglion was removed and immersed in the postfixative at 4°C overnight and then transferred to 30% sucrose in PBS for 48 hours. Serial frozen transverse sections (14 μm thickness) were mounted on gelatin-coated slides. All immunohistochemical procedures were performed as previous at room temperature unless otherwise stated. Slides were washed in PBS and then incubated in the blocking solution containing 5% normal goat serum, 2% BSA, 2% FBS, for 1 hour at room temperature. The sections were incubated overnight at 4°C with rabbit anti-ATF3 antibody (1:500; Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Inc.). Sections were then washed and incubated for 1 hour at room temperature with a Cy3 conjugated goat anti-rabbit IgG(H+L) antibody (1:200; Jackson ImmunoResearch, West Grove, PA, USA), for 1 hour. The sections were mounted with Vectashield. (Vector Laboratories, Inc., Burlingame, CA, USA) and visualized using a confocal microscope using the appropriate filter sets (FV-300; Olympus, Tokyo, Japan).

5. Data analysis and statistics

The descriptive analysis and one-sample t-test were used (SPSS version 29) to compare the mean and differences with the naïve group. Differences were considered significant when the p-value was less than 0.05.

Results

1. Lidocaine induced neurotoxicity

The results of the drug test on rat TG neurons (SD rat) with total cell count of 12,920 cells in each group, after experimenting with Saline (2Ca/Na), Lidocaine at various concentration levels, and Capsaicin 10 μ M for 24 hours, showed that the death of neurons increased with the concentration of the drugs. The percentages of cell death were as follows: Saline 1.56%, Lidocaine 10mM 39.83%, Lidocaine 20mM 75.20%, and Lidocaine 50mM 89.90%. In comparison, Capsaicin 10 μ M resulted in 78.27% cell death as a positive control. These findings indicate that the death of neurons due to Lidocaine occurs at a high rate starting from a concentration of 20 mM and above ($P < 0.03$) (Figure 1).

The lidocaine acts on neurons by being absorbed through the cell wall (lipid bilayer) into the cytoplasm to block sodium channels (Na^+ channels) on the cell surface. The study found that the cell membrane started to be destroyed, leading to the breakdown of neurons. Subsequently, the nucleus of the neurons were observed disintegrating into small lumps and eventually disintegrating completely. This was demonstrated in the results of the experiment using a fluorescence microscope (confocal microscope) showing the TG neuron nucleus capturing the blue fluorescence (DAPI) as depicted in the picture below (Figure 2).

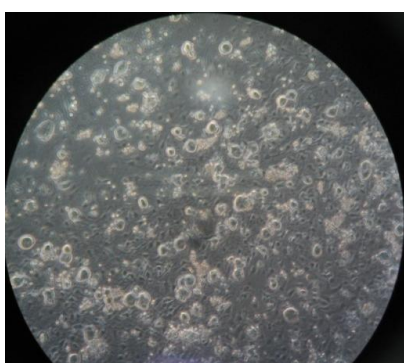
Comparing the mean values of the cells in each experimental group, it was found that the increase in dead cells in the group without lidocaine was not statistically significant. The other group of cells that received lidocaine were found to be statistically related ($P < 0.03$).

Table 1. Comparison of mean values in a one-sample t-test

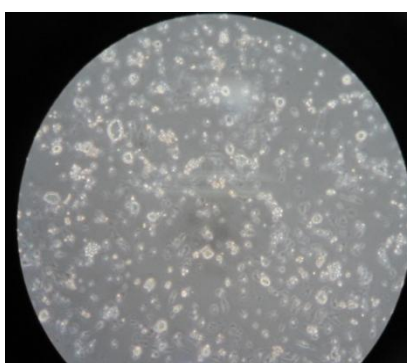
Variables	Mean	SD	Sig	95% CI	
				Lower	Upper
Saline	40.40	37.43	0.73	-6.08	86.88
10mM Li	1029.40	712.66	0.03	144.52	1914.28
20mM Li	1943.40	1423.81	0.03	175.49	3711.31
50mM Li	2271.40	1625.01	0.03	253.69	4289.11
10 μ M cap	2026.60	1501.02	0.03	162.83	3890.37

A

a



b



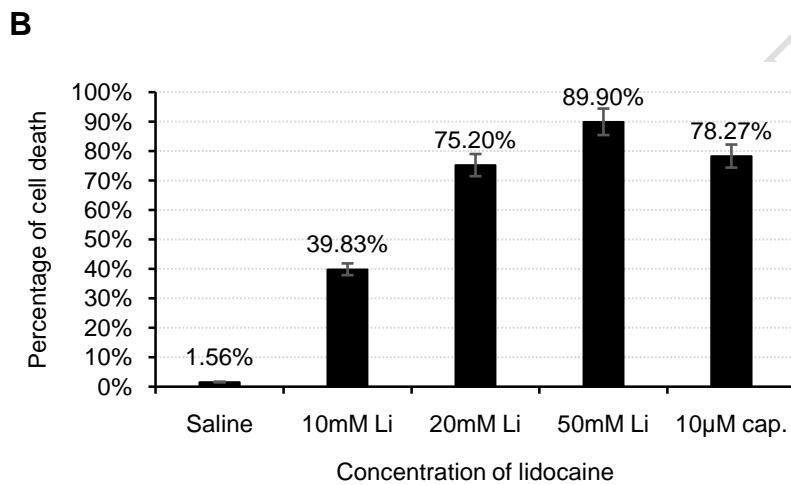
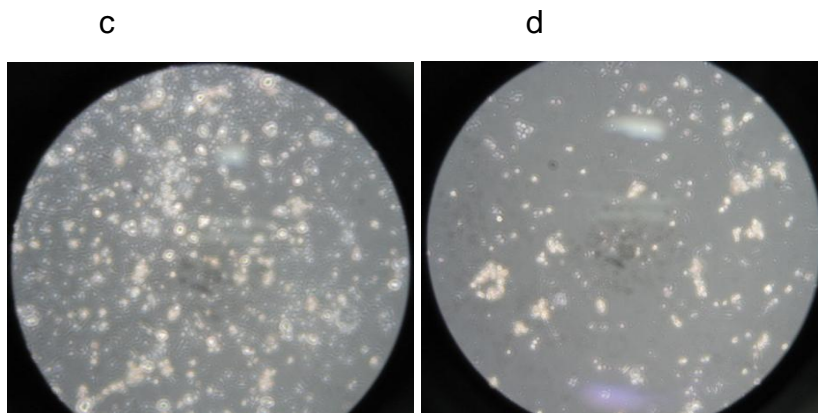
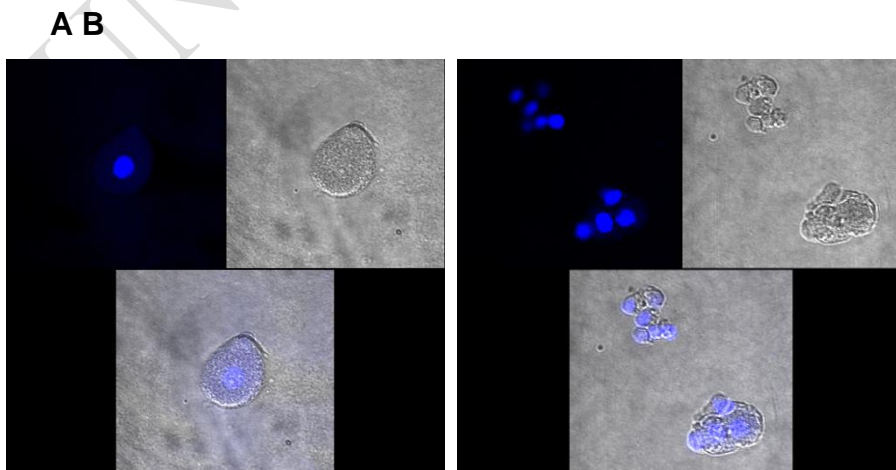


Figure 1: The expression of cell death after 24 hours of treated with lidocaine. **(Aa)** The control group treated with saline shows surviving cells. **(Ab)** The group treated with 10 mM lidocaine shows many dead cells. **(Ac)** The group treated with 20 mM lidocaine shows even more dead cells. **(Ad)** The group treated with 50 mM lidocaine shows almost all cells dead. **(B)** The percentage of cell death in various concentration of lidocaine shown in the bar chart, Capsaicin is used as the positive control.



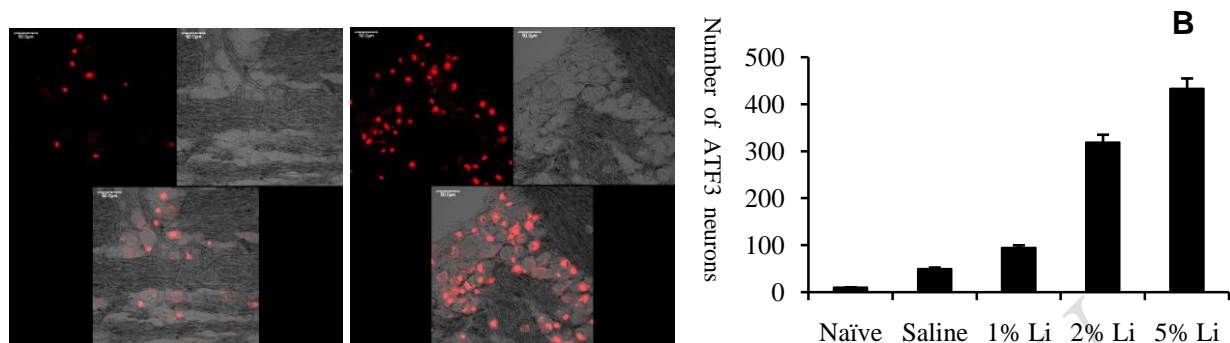


Figure 3: Expression of ATF3 immunoreactivity (ATF3 IR) in the nuclei of primary TG neurons in the ophthalmic nerve area after 3 days of lidocaine injection in the infraorbital region. **(Aa)** Photograph of neuron in the trigeminal ganglion showing ATF3 IR (red, Cy3 filter) treated with saline (2Ca/Na), DIC, and merged. **(Ab)** Photograph of neuron in the trigeminal ganglion showing ATF3 IR (red, Cy3 filter) treated with 1% lidocaine, DIC, and merged. **(Ac)** ATF3 IR (red, Cy3 filter) treated with 2% lidocaine, DIC, and merged. **(Ad)** ATF3 IR (red, Cy3 filter) treated with 5% lidocaine, DIC, and merged. **(Ae)** Photograph of neuron in the trigeminal ganglion showing ATF3 immunoreactivity (red, Cy3 filter) treated with capsaicin, DIC, and merged (the injured positive control). **(B)** The bar chart of ATF3 IR expression in TG neurons change in each concentration of lidocaine analysed. ATF3-positive neurons were significantly increased in ipsilateral ($P < 0.01$); compared with control. Scale bar = 50 μm .

Discussion

Lidocaine is a specific drug widely used in the field of dentistry because it blocks the nerve action potential of nerves or neurons, including sensory and motor nerves. Lidocaine has unique properties, as it dissolves in fat, allowing it to be absorbed through the cell wall or lipid bilayer into the cytoplasmic membrane. Once inside, it can block the sodium channel, preventing sodium ions from passing through. This blockade inhibits the action potential from being carried out for a period of time until the drug is metabolized, typically within 2 hours [11]. Lidocaine, which is widely used today, may be toxic to the nervous system in experiments at a concentration of 2% or higher. After directly incubating lidocaine with the TG neurons of the experimental SD rat at various concentrations and Capsaicin 10 μM , a large amount of cell death occurred depending on the concentration similar to previous reports [12]. The lidocaine acts on neurons by being absorbed through the cell wall (lipid bilayer) into the cytoplasm to block sodium channels (Na^+ channels) on the cell surface. The study found that the cell membrane started to be destroyed, leading to the breakdown of neurons. Subsequently, the nucleus of the neurons were observed disintegrating into small lumps and eventually disintegrating completely and even nuclei fragmentation. This action may include direct membrane disruption, activation of p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase involved in apoptosis [1], delayed mitochondrial dysfunction and apoptosis [2][3], an increase in intracellular Ca^{+2} as a mechanism of neuronal toxicity [4], activation of caspase 3/7 triggering apoptosis [5]. Lidocaine may cause changes in cytoplasmic calcium homeostasis and mitochondrial membrane potential [6], and

even the effect of lidocaine is sufficient to release Calcitonin gene-related peptide (CGRP), a key component of neurogenic inflammation, warranting investigation into the role of TRPV1 and TRPA1 in lidocaine-induced neurotoxicity [7]. In vitro, cell apoptosis occurred via the intrinsic pathway, but the mechanism of nucleus fragmentation in the TG neuron is still unknown. It may be caused by apoptosis factors released from mitochondria binding to the nucleus and DNA, leading to fragmentation [13][14]. This apoptosis pathway still needs further validation.

The peripheral nerve damage induces change in gene expression in neurons, including ATF3 [15]. ATF3 is a neuronal marker of nerve injury or damage. The rat model of inferior alveolar nerve and mental nerve transection (IAMNT) showed the expression of ATF3 immunoreactivity (IR) in the TG neurons [16]. In primary neurons of dorsal root ganglion (DRG), ATF3 expression was also found in cases of peripheral axotomy, cell stress, or inflammation [17][18][19]. The key finding of our study indicates that peripheral nerve injury results in ATF3 immunoreactivity expression in the nucleus of TG neurons. Lidocaine injection may induce tissue damage, inflammation, and also peripheral nerve injury. The results indicate that even a clinical concentration of lidocaine (2%) can cause peripheral nerve injury ($P < 0.02$). The data suggest that injecting lidocaine into peripheral nerve endings may lead to injury [8][9]. In normal conditions, our study shows that a few cells with ATF3 immunoreactivity have been found in naïve rats. Consistent with previous reports, ATF3 has been detected in the nuclei of a very small percentage of primary sensory neurons in the dorsal root ganglion of uninjured rats [20].

Conclusion

Lidocaine may induce neurotoxicity and peripheral nerve injury either in vitro or in vivo at clinical concentrations or in cases of overdose.

References

1. Haller I, Hausott B, Tomaselli B, Keller C, Klimaschewski L, Gerner P, Lirk P. Neurotoxicity of lidocaine involves specific activation of the p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase, but not extracellular signal-regulated or c-jun N-terminal kinases, and is mediated by arachidonic acid metabolites. *Anesthesiology*. 2006 Nov;105(5):1024-33. doi: 10.1097/00000542-200611000-00025. PMID: 17065898.
2. Grishko V, Xu M, Wilson G, Pearsall AW 4th. Apoptosis and mitochondrial dysfunction in human chondrocytes following exposure to lidocaine, bupivacaine, and ropivacaine. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 2010 Mar;92(3):609-18. doi: 10.2106/JBJS.H.01847. PMID: 20194319.
3. Breu A, Rosenmeier K, Kujat R, Angele P, Zink W. The cytotoxicity of bupivacaine, ropivacaine, and mepivacaine on human chondrocytes and cartilage. *Anesth Analg*. 2013 Aug;117(2):514-22. doi: 10.1213/ANE.0b013e31829481ed. Epub 2013 Jun 7. PMID: 23749443.
4. Gold MS, Reichling DB, Hampl KF, Drasner K, Levine JD. Lidocaine toxicity in primary afferent neurons from the rat. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther*. 1998 May;285(2):413-21. PMID: 9580578.
5. Perez-Castro R, Patel S, Garavito-Aguilar ZV, Rosenberg A, Recio-Pinto E, Zhang J, Blanck TJ, Xu F. Cytotoxicity of local anesthetics in human neuronal cells. *Anesth Analg*.

- 2009 Mar;108(3):997-1007. doi: 10.1213/ane.0b013e31819385e1. PMID: 19224816.
6. Johnson ME. Potential neurotoxicity of spinal anesthesia with lidocaine. *Mayo Clin Proc.* 2000 Sep;75(9):921-32. doi: 10.4065/75.9.921. PMID: 10994828.
 7. Leffler A, Fischer MJ, Rehner D, Kienel S, Kistner K, Sauer SK, Gavva NR, Reeh PW, Nau C. The vanilloid receptor TRPV1 is activated and sensitized by local anesthetics in rodent sensory neurons. *J Clin Invest.* 2008 Feb;118(2):763-76. doi: 10.1172/JCI32751. PMID: 18172555; PMCID: PMC2157564.
 8. Farber SJ, Saheb-Al-Zamani M, Zieske L, Laurido-Soto O, Bery A, Hunter D, Johnson P, Mackinnon SE. Peripheral nerve injury after local anesthetic injection. *AnesthAnalg.* 2013 Sep;117(3):731-739. doi: 10.1213/ANE.0b013e3182a00767. Epub 2013 Aug 6. Erratum in: *AnesthAnalg.* 2014 Mar;118(3):686. Dosage error in article text. PMID: 23921658.
 9. Cheng KI, Wang HC, Wu YC, Tseng KY, Chuang YT, Chou CW, Chen PL, Chang LL, Lai CS. Sciatic Nerve Intrafascicular Lidocaine Injection-induced Peripheral Neuropathic Pain: Alleviation by Systemic Minocycline Administration. *Clin J Pain.* 2016 Jun;32(6):513-21. doi: 10.1097/AJP.0000000000000293. PMID: 26340654.
 10. Kim HY, Chung G, Jo HJ, Kim YS, Bae YC, Jung SJ, Kim JS, Oh SB. Characterization of dental nociceptive neurons. *J Dent Res.* 2011 Jun;90(6):771-6. doi: 10.1177/0022034511399906. Epub 2011 Mar 1. PMID: 21364091.
 11. Beecham GB, Nessel TA, Goyal A. Lidocaine. [Updated 2022 Dec 11]. In: StatPearls [Internet]. Treasure Island (FL): StatPearls Publishing; 2024 Jan-. Available from: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK539881/>
 12. Gold MS, Reichling DB, Hampf KF, Drasner K, Levine JD. Lidocaine toxicity in primary afferent neurons from the rat. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther.* 1998 May;285(2):413-21. PMID: 9580578.
 13. Mirshahidi S, Shields TG, de Necochea-Campion R, Yuan X, Janjua A, Williams NL, Mirshahidi HR, Reeves ME, Duerksen-Hughes P, Zuckerman LM. Bupivacaine and Lidocaine Induce Apoptosis in Osteosarcoma Tumor Cells. *Clin OrthopRelat Res.* 2021 Jan 1;479(1):180-194. doi: 10.1097/CORR.0000000000001510. PMID: 33009230; PMCID: PMC7899706.
 14. Verlinde M, Hollmann MW, Stevens MF, Hermanns H, Werdehausen R, Lirk P. Local Anesthetic-Induced Neurotoxicity. *International Journal of Molecular Sciences.* 2016; 17(3):339. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms17030339>.
 15. Cheng YC, Snively A, Barrett LB, Zhang X, Herman C, Frost DJ, Riva P, Tochitsky I, Kawaguchi R, Singh B, Ivanis J, Huebner EA, Arvanites A, Oza V, Davidow L, Maeda R, Sakuma M, Grantham A, Wang Q, Chang AN, Pfaff K, Costigan M, Coppola G, Rubin LL, Schwer B, Alt FW, Woolf CJ. Topoisomerase I inhibition and peripheral nerve injury induce DNA breaks and ATF3-associated axon regeneration in sensory neurons. *Cell Rep.* 2021 Sep 7;36(10):109666. doi: 10.1016/j.celrep.2021.109666. PMID: 34496254; PMCID: PMC8462619.
 16. Kim HY, Park CK, Cho IH, Jung SJ, Kim JS, Oh SB. Differential Changes in TRPV1 expression after trigeminal sensory nerve injury. *J Pain.* 2008 Mar;9(3):280-8. doi: 10.1016/j.jpain.2007.11.013. Epub 2008 Jan 28. PMID: 18226965.
 17. Flatters, Sarah. (2000). ATF3: novel signpost for nerve injury. *Neuroreport.* 11. 10.1097/00001756-200010200-00003.
 18. Tsujino H, Kondo E, Fukuoka T, Dai Y, Tokunaga A, Miki K, Yonenobu K, Ochi T, Noguchi K. Activating transcription factor 3 (ATF3) induction by axotomy in sensory and motoneurons: A novel neuronal marker of nerve injury. *Mol Cell Neurosci.* 2000

Feb;15(2):170-82. doi: 10.1006/mcne.1999.0814. PMID: 10673325.

19. Nascimento D, Pozza DH, Castro-Lopes JM, Neto FL. Neuronal injury marker ATF-3 is induced in primary afferent neurons of monoarthritic rats. *Neurosignals*. 2011;19(4):210-21. doi: 10.1159/000330195. Epub 2011 Sep 6. PMID: 21912089.
20. Averill S, Davis DR, Shortland PJ, Priestley JV, Hunt SP. Dynamic pattern of reg-2 expression in rat sensory neurons after peripheral nerve injury. *J Neurosci*. 2002 Sep 1;22(17):7493-501. doi: 10.1523/JNEUROSCI.22-17-07493.2002. PMID: 12196572; PMCID: PMC6757959.

UNDER PEER REVIEW