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Cold-Preconditioning Neuroprotection Depends on TNF- α and is Enhanced by Blockade of Interleukin-11

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Abbreviations: TNF- α , tumor necrosis factor alpha; IL-1 β , interleukin-1 beta; IL-11, interleukin-11; qPCR, quantitative PCR

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Abstract

Cold-preconditioning reduces subsequent brain injury in small animals but the underlying mechanisms remain undefined. Since hypothermia triggers systemic macrophage tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF- α) production and other neural preconditioning stimuli depend on this cytokine, we reasoned that microglia and TNF- α would be similarly involved with cold-preconditioning neuroprotection. Also, since slice cultures closely approximate their *in vivo* counterpart and include quiescent microglia, we used rat hippocampal slice cultures to confirm this hypothesis. Furthermore, inflammatory cytokine gene screening with subsequent PCR and immunostaining confirmation of targeted mRNA and related protein changes showed that cold-preconditioning triggered a significant rise in TNF- α that localized to microglia and a significant rise in interleukin-11 (IL-11) that localized mainly to hippocampal pyramidal neurons and, more rarely, astrocytes. Importantly, co-stimulation with cold and IL-11, an anti-inflammatory cytokine that inhibits TNF- α expression, abrogated the otherwise evident protection. Instead, cold-preconditioning coupled with blockade of IL-11 signaling further enhanced neuroprotection from that seen with cold-preconditioning alone. Thus, physiological activation of brain pro-inflammatory cytokine signaling, and its amplification by inhibition of coincident anti-inflammatory cytokine signaling, may be opportune targets for the development of novel therapeutics that can mimic the protection seen in cold-preconditioning.

Abbreviated Title: *Cytokines & cold-preconditioning neuroprotection*

Key Words: hippocampus, slice culture, innate immunity, interleukin-1 β , microglia, hormesis

Introduction

Cold-preconditioning effectively reduces brain injury in experimental animals (Nishio *et al.*, 2000; Yunoki *et al.*, 2002). However, no clinical preconditioning treatment strategies based on hypothermia have been developed to reduce neurological complications associated with general anesthesia and related surgical procedures (Moller *et al.*, 1998; Bendszus and Stoll, 2006; McKhann *et al.*, 2009). This void likely results from the inherent difficulties in administering this form of therapy, which to date has only been applied after the onset of brain disease (for review see Schaller and Graf, 2003; Tang and Yenari, 2010). In addition, the underlying mechanisms of cold-preconditioning are unknown. This precludes the development of effective cold-preconditioning mimetics, though evidence suggests involvement of cytokines.

Fairchild and coworkers show that *in vitro* exposure of monocytes pre-activated by lipopolysaccharide to hypothermia triggers enhanced production of tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF- α) and interleukin-1 beta (IL-1 β) (Fairchild *et al.*, 2000). Microglia, while perhaps not solely derived from monocytes (Simard and Rivest, 2004; Chan *et al.*, 2007), are a similar predominant source of cytokines (Hanisch, 2002) including TNF- α in uninjured brain (Hulse *et al.*, 2008). Furthermore, microglia are activated by synaptic activity (Ziv *et al.*, 2006), which may act as an adequate pre-activating stimulus for TNF- α production (Kraig *et al.*, 2010) necessary for cold-preconditioning to be effective. Second, a wide array of preconditioning stimuli evoke subsequent neuroprotection via mechanisms involving TNF- α and microglia (for review see Hallenbeck, 2002; Kraig *et al.*, 2010).

Accordingly, we examined brain cytokine signaling in cold-preconditioning using hippocampal slice cultures from rats. Slice cultures are ideally suited to this purpose since, while deafferented, they are a mature and functionally intact area of brain that remains viable and

stable for weeks *in vitro*. Importantly, slice culture longevity allows microglia time to become quiescent after 10 days in culture, making the preparation ideal for study of neural immune signaling *in vitro*, where environmental conditions can be accurately controlled (Ransohoff and Perry, 2008). Our results confirmed that cold-preconditioning neuroprotection involved increased expression of TNF- α from microglia. Considerable evidence points to the involvement of TNF- α in an array of preconditioning paradigms. However, IL-11 inhibits TNF- α production. Accordingly, we also focused to the potential involvement of IL-11 in cold-preconditioning. Our results provide the first evidence that removal of an anti-inflammatory cytokine, namely IL-11, enhances cold-preconditioning protection. This work has appeared in preliminary form (Kraig *et al.*, 2008; Mitchell *et al.*, 2009).

Materials and Methods

Culture preparation and maintenance

We prepared slice cultures and initially maintained them in media containing 23% horse serum (#26050-088; Invitrogen; Kunkler and Kraig, 1997) with transfer to serum-free media after 7 days *in vitro* and experimental use between 18-24 day *in vitro*. Cultures maintained in serum-free media showed ~ 90% vitality (Supplementary Information).

Experimental manipulations

We administered cold-preconditioning at several temperatures and over various time periods to establish dose-response patterns. Six-well trays containing serum-free media were allowed to equilibrate to hypothermic temperatures (25.5, 28, 30 and 32°C) for at least 20 min prior to cold-preconditioning at these temperatures in an incubator (5% CO₂ balance air). Slice cultures were transferred from normal incubation conditions to cold-preconditioning trays for 20,

40, 60, 90, 120, 150, or 180 min. Cultures were then transferred back to media equilibrated at normal incubation conditions for 24 hours before excitotoxic injury (described below). With the neuroprotection response pattern established (Fig. 1), we performed all other cold-preconditioning at 30°C for 90 minutes since this temperature showed the broadest effective range and 90 minutes was about mid range.

Soluble TNF receptor 1 (sTNFR1, 200 ng/mL, #425-R1-050; R&D Systems) was included during and after cold-preconditioning to abrogate TNF- α signaling. Slice cultures were initially exposed to sTNFR1 20 min prior to cold-preconditioning and continuously exposed to sTNFR1 up until excitotoxic injury.

Slice cultures were exposed to 100 ng/mL recombinant mouse IL-11 (#418-ML; R&D Systems) in serum-free media. To examine effects of cold-preconditioning with blockade of IL-11, slice cultures were exposed to 100 μ g/mL anti-mouse IL-11 neutralizing antibody (#MAB418; R&D Systems). Use of an isotype specific IgG2A (100 μ g/mL) antibody (#02-6200; Invitrogen) served as a sham control. All pharmacological treatments were applied 20 min prior to cold-preconditioning, and were maintained up until administration of excitotoxic injury.

Excitotoxic injury and quantification

Twenty-four hours after cold-preconditioning, slice cultures were exposed to NMDA (*N*-methyl-D-aspartate, #454575; Calbiochem) and assessment of resultant CA1 pyramidal neuron area injury were performed as previously described (Hulse *et al.*, 2008) with modifications.

We used NMDA mediated excitotoxicity to model CA1 area selective neuronal vulnerability, including that seen from ischemia. Our previous work shows that NMDA-induced injury (20-50 μ mol/L for 60 min and normal incubation conditions) produces CA1 area neuronal

loss analogous to that seen from oxygen glucose deprivation (Hulse *et al.*, 2008).

Injury severity was registered as a level of injury minus background (i.e., the prescreen image) via an area of interest selected around the CA1 pyramidal cell layer area for each slice culture. This practice was in contrast to previous work (Hulse *et al.*, 2008) where CA1 area injury was measured as a ratio of injury compared to maximal injury (i.e., created by high doses of or lengthy exposure to NMDA with background subtracted from each image). We often could not maximally injure cultures so that those preconditioned by cold had maximal levels of injury comparable to control cultures. This lapse could obscure otherwise present protective effects. For example, if control injury level was 5 and maximal control injury 10, the injury ratio would be 50%. If cold-preconditioned injury was 3 and associated maximal injury 6, a ratio of 50% would again be evident in spite of a 40% protection (i.e., control level of 5 versus cold-treatment level of 3) (Mitchell *et al.*, 2010).

TNF- α assay

We analyzed slice cultures for TNF- α protein content as previously described using a microsphere-based flow cytometric immunoassay (Kunkler *et al.*, 2004). Total protein was determined using a BCA protein assay kit (#23235; Pierce).

Gene expression studies

Techniques for RNA isolation, quantitative PCR (qPCR), cloning of cDNA for IL-11, and semi-quantitative qPCR array screening to probe for low-level inflammatory mediator expression changes using the RT² Profiler PCR Array (#PARN-011A) from SABiosciences followed standard procedures detailed in Supplementary Information and Mitchell *et al.* (2010).

Immunohistochemistry

Slice cultures were fixed and processed for immunostaining as previously described (Kunkler *et al.*, 2005) either as whole or 20 μm sections (Mitchell *et al.*, 2010) with details described in Supplementary Information.

mRNA *in situ* hybridization

Procedures for cellular localization of TNF- α and IL-11 mRNA are detailed in Supplementary Information.

Statistical methods and figure preparation

Data was analyzed using SigmaStat (v. 3.5) software (Systat Software). All data was subject to normality testing (p value to reject: 0.05) and equal variance testing (p value to reject: 0.05). All control values per experiment were standardized to 1.00 with related experimental values adjusted proportionally to allow for interexperimental analyses. ANOVA using Holm-Sidak *post hoc* testing was performed for multiple comparisons or t -test for comparisons. Significance was defined as $p < 0.05$.

Images were created using CorelDRAW (v. X3) Photoshop (9.0.2; Adobe). Confocal images were acquired using a Leica TCS SP2 AOBS laser scanning confocal microscope (University of Chicago Integrated Light Microscopy Core Facility).

Results

Characteristics of cold-preconditioning neuroprotection

Cold-preconditioning provided significant neuroprotection against excitotoxic injury (Fig. 1A-C). This neuroprotection followed a U-shaped response pattern for temperature and

time (Fig. 1D). Other preconditioning stimuli involve TNF- α , a pro-inflammatory cytokine (Hallenbeck, 2002; Kraig *et al.*, 2010), and hypothermia triggers prolonged release of TNF- α from macrophages (Fairchild *et al.*, 2000). Since microglia, resident macrophages of brain, are the principal physiological source of neural TNF- α , we reasoned that TNF- α may play a similar role in cold-preconditioning in brain. Indeed, slice cultures exposed to 30°C for 90 min ($n = 4$) and then harvested 24 hours later showed significantly ($p = 0.004$) increased expression of TNF- α compared to control ($n = 7$).

We next explored whether cold-preconditioning neuroprotection depended on TNF- α . Inclusion of sTNFR1 20 min prior to cold-preconditioning and continuously thereafter abrogated TNF- α signaling, which removed the significant degree of protection seen in cold-preconditioning alone (Fig. 2A).

Furthermore, we modified our experimental timeline to investigate the immediate and delayed effects of cold-preconditioning. Delayed effects of cold-preconditioning were examined by performing cold-preconditioning as described above, but with results quantified using injury levels recorded 3 days after excitotoxic injury. This neuroprotection remained evident 3 days after preconditioning and again was completely removed by abrogation of TNF- α signaling by sTNFR1 (Fig. 2B). However, cold-preconditioning did not produce a protective effect when excitotoxic injury occurred shortly after preconditioning (Fig. 2C). These results show that cold-preconditioning neuroprotection followed a U-shaped dose-response pattern over time and temperature, involved TNF- α , and took time to develop.

PCR array evidence of inflammatory mediator changes from cold-preconditioning

While not all mRNAs are translated to proteins (White *et al.*, 1992), cytokines are

regulated at the transcriptional level and once transcribed to RNA are faithfully translated to protein (Oppenheim and Feldmann, 2001). Therefore, targeted gene analyses via PCR arrays are an efficient means to probe for inflammatory mediator changes of cold-preconditioning (Table 1). Furthermore, PCR arrays are recognized to be a highly sensitive, reproducible method for gene screening and were therefore used to begin defining cytokine signaling in cold-preconditioning (Supplementary Information).

Cold-preconditioning increased the expression of a number of chemokines and cytokines. Interleukin-8 receptor expression increased, a chemokine effect that could enhance leukocyte movement (Iizasa and Matsushima, 2001). Moreover, the expression of several chemokines that also enhance leukocyte movement (Rollins, 2001) was increased, while a single chemokine measured (i.e., ligand 11) was reduced. In addition, cold-preconditioning altered the expression of cytokines. Cold-preconditioning triggered PCR array evident changes of increased pro-inflammatory innate cytokine mRNA expression for TNF- α , IL-1 β , and its receptor IL-1R1. The expression of secreted phosphoprotein 1 (i.e., osteopontin), a cytokine with both pro- and anti-inflammatory effects (Nau, 2001), was decreased. However, we focused to IL-11, a cytokine whose expression was maximally (i.e., 2.95 fold) increased by cold-preconditioning and is directly related to TNF- α homeostasis.

Abrogation of IL-11 signaling, and not IL-11, enhanced neuroprotection

IL-11 is an anti-inflammatory mediator whose expression is stimulated by TNF- α through IL-1 β , and IL-11 inhibits expression of TNF- α (Trepicchio *et al.*, 1996; Redlich *et al.*, 1996). We confirmed this signaling interrelation after cold-preconditioning using real-time RT-PCR for TNF- α , IL-1 β , and IL-11 mRNA. Consistent with the PCR array data, probing for specific

amplification of these cytokines confirmed that cold-preconditioning triggered a significant increase in TNF- α , IL-1 β and IL-11 mRNA compared to control conditions (Fig. 3). These PCR results further support the hypothesis that IL-11 may be involved with neuroprotection from cold-preconditioning. However, when we applied IL-11 to slice cultures to mimic the rise from cold-preconditioning, no significant protection was seen (Fig. 4A). Furthermore, treatment with IL-11 abrogated neuroprotection otherwise seen with cold-preconditioning (Fig. 4B). Instead, blockade of IL-11 signaling, by use of a neutralizing antibody, more than doubled the protection from cold-preconditioning (Fig. 4C).

Cellular origin of cold-preconditioning cytokine signaling variables

To further detail the cold-preconditioning cytokine signaling, we turned to identifying the cellular sources for the key cytokines involved: TNF- α and IL-11. Treatment with TNF- α , IL-1 β , or cold-preconditioning triggered significantly greater IL-11 immunoreactivity in cells with pyramidal neuron morphology (Fig. 5). We confirmed with double-label immunohistochemistry that this increased IL-11 expression was mainly localized to pyramidal neurons (Fig. 6A-F) and, less often, to astrocytes (Fig. 6G). Finally, we used *in situ* hybridization to further define the cellular origins of TNF- α and IL-11. Consistent with our prior work using laser dissection microscopy with slices examined under physiological conditions (Hulse *et al.*, 2008), we show that TNF- α localized to microglia (Fig. 6H). Furthermore, IL-11 mRNA localized mainly to pyramidal neurons (Fig. 6I).

Discussion

This study showed that cold-preconditioning evoked neuroprotection which involved the pro-inflammatory cytokine TNF- α that emanated from microglia. Furthermore, the protection

was dampened by coincident increased expression of IL-11, an anti-inflammatory cytokine predominantly localized to neurons, which if abrogated, significantly enhanced the protective effects of TNF- α .

Evidence points to the involvement of TNF- α in a wide range of stimuli capable of triggering brain preconditioning neuroprotection. When TNF- α is elevated to comparatively low levels over time by systemic stimuli applied to brain, this cytokine from the periphery serves as a preconditioning stimulus that initiates neuroprotection centrally (Hallenbeck, 2002; Dirnagel *et al.*, 2009). Similar protective effects of TNF- α occur after stimuli from within brain that trigger TNF- α production. Increased synaptic activity from environmental enrichment as well as treadmill activity alone (Ding *et al.*, 2005) triggers preconditioning neuroprotection and increased brain production of TNF- α (Kraig *et al.*, 2010). For our purposes here, neuronal activity was a priming signal for cold-induced microglial TNF- α production analogous to the LPS used by Fairchild and coworkers (2000), which, when coupled to reduced temperature exposure resulted in enhanced TNF- α expression from monocytes.

Cold-preconditioning results here provide further support for the ability of brain itself to employ pro-inflammatory functional and structural changes to trigger adaptive nutritive changes. First, we showed that cold-preconditioning depended on TNF- α . Second, the cold-induced TNF- α change came from activated microglia. Third, the protective effects of cold-preconditioning were not immediately evident and the resultant neuroprotection showed a U-shaped dose-response pattern. These latter characteristics are consistent with physiological conditioning hormesis (Calabrese *et al.*, 2007), a dose-response pattern seen with all neuroprotective agents reported to date (Calabrese *et al.*, 2008). Importantly, hormesis involves two basic tenets – namely, an initiating irritative (i.e., pro-inflammatory) stimulus must be sufficient to evoke a

response and that sufficient time must elapse for a nutritive effect to take place (for review see Kraig *et al.*, 2010). Here, the initiating, irritative stimulus that ultimately provides protection involves the pro-inflammatory cytokine TNF- α . Furthermore, our data show for the first time that reduced anti-inflammatory effects, i.e., from IL-11, add to the initiating irritative impact of pro-inflammatory changes needed for adaptive neuroprotection from cold-preconditioning.

Anti-inflammatory effects play an important role in the mechanisms by which hypothermia, after the onset of disease, is protective (Schaller and Graf, 2003; Tan and Yenari, 2010). This likely helps explain why IL-11, an anti-inflammatory cytokine, is protective after the onset of disease. For example, treatment with IL-11 enhances survival and reduces TNF- α production after radiation-induced thoracic injury involving macrophages (Redlich *et al.*, 1996). IL-11 also reduces oxidant-mediated injury of endothelial cells (Waxman *et al.*, 2003) and developing lung cells (Chetty *et al.*, 2008). IL-11 reduces ischemia/reperfusion injury in heart, protecting cardiac myocytes against oxidative damage (Kimura *et al.*, 2007). While less studied in brain, Zhang and coworkers (2006) show that astrocytes in white matter from patients with multiple sclerosis express IL-11 and this expression supports oligodendrocyte vitality. a

In contrast, the current results show that IL-11 has no protective effect before the onset of disease. IL-11 did not improve cold-preconditioning neuroprotection against subsequent NMDA-mediated excitotoxic injury. Furthermore, IL-11 abrogated the protective effects of cold-preconditioning neuroprotection, further supporting the notion that a sufficient, initiating pro-inflammatory stimulus (i.e., TNF- α) is needed for the protection. This suggestion was confirmed by blockade of IL-11 signaling, which significantly enhanced the protective effects of cold-preconditioning. TNF- α stimulates production of IL-11 via IL-1 β and IL-11, in return, inhibits TNF- α expression (Trepicchio *et al.*, 1996; Redlich *et al.*, 1996), effects which are co-

incident and consistent with cytokine network behavior. We suggest IL-11 serves to mitigate the impact of TNF- α rise. Thus, blocking IL-11 signaling enhances the physiological impact of TNF- α to trigger neuroprotection before the onset of disease.

While previous work shows IL-11 is expressed in astrocytes within white matter, our work shows that neurons predominantly express IL-11 in gray matter. As noted, IL-11 is expressed in astrocytes from myelinated borders of active and silent multiple sclerosis lesions (Zhang *et al.*, 2006) and in primary astrocytic cultures (Bsibsi *et al.*, 2006). Our work confirms and extends these findings: we found that astrocytes could express IL-11, but neurons were the principal source of this cytokine in gray matter. This neuronal localization is consistent with *in situ* hybridization work that shows IL-11 mRNA is distributed in the granular layer of the dentate gyrus and the pyramidal cell layers of the hippocampus (Du *et al.*, 1996).

Taken together, our results suggest that physiological activation of brain pro-inflammatory cytokine signaling, and its amplification by inhibition of coincident anti-inflammatory cytokine signaling, may be opportune targets for the development of novel therapeutics that can mimic the protection seen in cold-preconditioning.

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Table 1. Cold-Preconditioning Regulates Expression of Inflammatory Mediators

Ref Seq	Description	Symbol	2 ^{-ΔC_t}		Fold Up- or Down-Regulation
			CP	Control	CP/Control
NM_012675	Tumor necrosis factor (TNF superfamily, member 2)	Tnf	1.5E-02	5.8E-03	2.57
NM_031512	Interleukin 1 beta	Il1b	3.7E-03	2.4E-03	1.58
NM_013123	Interleukin 1 receptor, type I	Il1r1	7.5E-03	4.7E-03	1.58
NM_019310	Interleukin 8 receptor, alpha	Il8ra	2.8E-03	4.4E-03	-1.56
NM_017183	Interleukin 8 receptor, beta	Il8rb	1.5E-03	7.3E-04	2.08
NM_133519	Interleukin 11	Il11	4.6E-03	1.6E-03	2.95
NM_012881	Secreted phosphoprotein 1	Spp1	1.4E-01	2.6E-01	-1.92
XM_213425	Chemokine (C-C motif) ligand 12	Ccl12	1.0E-01	5.4E-02	1.95
NM_057151	Chemokine (C-C motif) ligand 17	Ccl17	1.2E-03	7.3E-04	1.58
NM_031530	Chemokine (C-C motif) ligand 2	Ccl2	2.6E-02	1.2E-02	2.23
NM_013025	Chemokine (C-C motif) ligand 3	Ccl3	9.1E-02	3.1E-02	2.95
NM_053858	Chemokine (C-C motif) ligand 4	Ccl4	5.2E-02	1.4E-02	3.63
NM_001004202	Chemokine (C-C motif) ligand 6	Ccl6	6.0E-02	3.5E-02	1.69
NM_001007612	Chemokine (C-C motif) ligand 7	Ccl7	3.0E-02	1.5E-02	1.95
NM_134455	Chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 1	Cxcl1	2.1E-02	1.3E-02	1.58
NM_182952	Chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 11	Cxcl11	2.6E-03	7.7E-03	-2.91
NM_053647	Chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 2	Cxcl2	1.7E-03	1.1E-03	1.58
NM_001007604	Ribosomal protein, large, P1	Rplp1	4.4E+00	3.9E+00	1.12
NM_012583	Hypoxanthine guanine phosphoribosyl transferase	Hprt	1.4E-01	1.4E-01	-1.03
NM_173340	Ribosomal protein L13A	Rpl13a	3.2E-01	3.0E-01	1.04
NM_017025	Lactate dehydrogenase A	Ldha	1.3E+00	1.3E+00	-1.03
NM_031144	Actin, beta	Actb	4.1E+00	4.5E+00	-1.10

Semi-quantitative PCR array analysis from control versus cold-preconditioning CA1 area of hippocampal slices as detailed in Materials and Methods. Fold-up is colored green (i.e., ≥ 1.5) and fold-down is colored red (i.e., > 1.5).

Figure Legends

Figure 1. Cold-preconditioning was neuroprotective and followed a U-shaped temperature and time dose-response pattern. **A**, Immunostaining for NeuN shows the typical principal neuron cytoarchitecture of a hippocampal slice culture with the CA1 pyramidal neuron area at the top, CA3 area to the left, and dentate gyrus to the lower right. **B-D**, We used the fluorescent dead cell marker Sytox to measure excitotoxic injury from NMDA exposure in the CA1 area (dotted white line area of interest) as a level of injury made relative to control injury cultures. Here we show an exemplary image of control injury (**B**) and a significantly reduced level after cold-preconditioning (25.5°C for 20 min) (**C**). Scale bar, 250 μ m. **D**, Cold-preconditioning produced significant neuroprotective effects that followed a U-shaped or hormetic dose-response pattern over a range of temperatures and durations. For example, cold-preconditioning at 25.5°C evoked significant ($p = 0.002$) neuroprotection from 20 ($n = 8$) and 40 ($n = 39$) min exposures, but not from 60 ($n = 7$), 90 ($n = 8$), 120 ($n = 4$), 150 ($n = 7$), or 180 ($n = 6$) min exposure times versus control ($n = 45$). Cold-preconditioning at 28°C evoked significant ($p < 0.001$) protection from 40 ($n = 12$), 60 ($n = 13$), 90 ($n = 8$), and 120 ($n = 17$) min exposures, but not from 20 ($n = 7$), 150 ($n = 8$), or 180 ($n = 7$) min exposure times versus control ($n = 41$). Cold-preconditioning at 30°C evoked significant ($p = 0.01$ at 120 min, all other times $p < 0.001$) protection from 60 ($n = 26$), 90 ($n = 13$), 120 ($n = 8$), and 150 ($n = 14$) min exposures, but not from 20 ($n = 6$), 40 ($n = 7$) or 180 ($n = 8$) min exposure times versus control ($n = 40$). Cold-preconditioning at 32°C evoked significant ($p = 0.005$ at 120 min, all other times $p < 0.001$) protection from 90 ($n = 17$), 120 ($n = 8$), and 150 ($n = 7$) min exposures, but not from 20 ($n = 8$), 40 ($n = 8$), 60 ($n = 8$), or 180 ($n = 6$) min exposure times versus control ($n = 15$).

Figure 2. Cold-preconditioning neuroprotection depended on TNF- α and took time to develop. **A**, Soluble TNF- α receptor 1 (sTNFR1) blocked TNF- α signaling and abrogated the otherwise significant ($p = 0.009$) neuroprotection from cold-preconditioning (CP). Cold-preconditioning evoked neuroprotection at 30°C for 90 min, followed by NMDA-mediated CA1 excitotoxic injury 24 hours later ($n = 7-9$ /group). **B**, Cold-preconditioning neuroprotection ($n = 8$) remained significantly ($p = 0.003$) greater than control conditions ($n = 8$) three days after exposure to 30°C for 90 min ($n = 8$). Inclusion of sTNFR1 (CP+sTNFR1; $n = 8$) removed this neuroprotection. **C**, Finally, cold-preconditioning at 30°C for 90 min with only 20 min of recovery before excitotoxic injury from NMDA ($n = 8$) was not protective compared to control ($n = 8$). Furthermore, inclusion of sTNFR1 (CP+sTNFR1) had no impact ($n = 8$) on injury levels.

Figure 3. Cytokine mRNA changes further suggest TNF- α involvement in cold-preconditioning neuroprotective signaling. **A**, Cold-preconditioning (CP) at 30°C for 90 min with 2 hour recovery triggered significantly ($p < 0.001$) increased relative TNF- α mRNA expression compared to control. Cold-preconditioning plus blockade of TNF- α signaling by inclusion of sTNFR1 (CP+sTNFR1) returned relative TNF- α mRNA expression to a non-significant difference ($n = 3$ /group). **B**, Cold-preconditioning at 30°C for 90 min with 2 hour recovery also triggered a significant ($p = 0.01$) increase in relative IL-1 β mRNA expression compared to control and cold-preconditioning. In addition, blockade of TNF- α signaling (CP+sTNFR1) returned IL-1 β mRNA expression to control levels ($n = 3$ /group). **C**, Finally, cold-preconditioning at 30°C for 90 min with 2 hour recovery triggered significantly ($p = 0.002$) increased relative expression of IL-11 mRNA compared to control while cold-preconditioning

with blockade of TNF- α signaling (CP+sTNFR1) triggered a non-significant change in relative IL-11 mRNA expression compared to control ($n = 3$ /group).

Figure 4. Interleukin-11 counteracted TNF- α involvement in cold-preconditioning

neuroprotection. **A**, Preconditioning with IL-11, an anti-inflammatory cytokine that inhibits TNF- α , at 1000 ($n = 4$), 100 ($n = 14$), 10 ($n = 16$), 1 ($n = 10$), and 0.1 ($n = 8$) ng/mL for 24 hours did not significantly protect against subsequent NMDA injury versus control ($n = 16$). **B**, Furthermore, cold-preconditioning (CP; 30°C for 90 min) with IL-11 (CP+IL-11; 100 ng/mL; $n = 21$) abrogated the otherwise significant ($p = 0.002$) neuroprotection from CP ($n = 22$) versus control ($n = 24$). **C**, In contrast, cold-preconditioning plus blockade of IL-11 signaling (CP+anti-IL-11; $n = 17$) by pretreatment for 24 hours with anti-IL-11 neutralizing antibody (100 μ g/mL) significantly ($p < 0.001$) enhanced neuroprotection from cold-preconditioning alone ($n = 13$) with both conditions providing significant ($p < 0.001$) protection over control ($n = 25$). Finally, the specificity of this IL-11 blocking effect was confirmed by comparison to the effect of cold-preconditioning plus an isotype, but otherwise non-specific, antibody (CP+IgG2A; 100 μ g/mL; $n=9$), which did not significantly ($p = 0.401$) enhance neuroprotection from cold-preconditioning alone.

Figure 5. Cold-preconditioning and related effector cytokines increased hippocampal

pyramidal layer interleukin-11 immunoreactivity. **A-D**, We observed the most IL-11 immunoreactivity at the pyramidal cell layer in all groups. Here we show faint and sparsely distributed IL-11 immunostaining under control conditions (**A**) that markedly increased 24 hours after cold-preconditioning CP (30°C for 90 min) (**B**), TNF- α exposure (TNF- α ; 100 ng/mL) (**C**),

and IL-1 β exposure (IL-1 β ; 100 ng/mL) (**D**). **E**, CP, TNF- α , and IL-1 β ($n = 9$ /group) significantly ($p < 0.001$) increased the number of IL-11 immunopositive cells at the pyramidal cell layer. Scale bar, 50 μ m.

Figure 6. Cellular localization of cold-preconditioning TNF- α and IL-11 changes. **A-C**, Control hippocampal slice culture immunostaining with neuronal marker NeuN (**A**) followed by IL-11 immunostaining (**B**) showed that the predominant cell type positive for IL-11 immunoreactivity were pyramidal neurons (**C**). **D-F**, Exposure to TNF- α (100 ng/mL) for 24 hours dramatically increased neuron-specific IL-11 immunostaining. Here we show exemplary confocal photomicrographs ($n = 5$ /group). Scale bar, 50 μ m. **G**, Image shows double-labeling with glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP) and IL-11 immunostaining at the pyramidal cell layer from an exemplary hippocampal slice culture 24 hours after cold-preconditioning (30°C for 90 min). We observed IL-11 immunopositive astrocytes (arrows) in only a minority of photomicrographs ($n = 5$). **H**, Image shows that mRNA for TNF- α (green) 3 hours after cold-preconditioning (90 min at 30°C) localized to microglia, immunostained with CD11b (red). The resultant exemplary (from $n = 5$) image shows green spots overlying red cells or the optical conversion of these spots to yellow when both *in situ* and immunostaining probes are blended at the same plane of focus (arrows). **I**, 12 hours after analogous cold-preconditioning ($n = 5$), mRNA for IL-11 (green) localized mainly to pyramidal neurons immunostained with NeuN (red). Arrows point to exemplary in-focus *in situ* and immunostaining probe markings. While sparse, these probe markings for IL-11 mRNA concentrate to the pyramidal neuron layer. **G-I** Scale bar, 25 μ m (**G** and **H**) and 50 μ m (**I**).











