

male; 47.0 ± 14.9) and 529 controls (270 female; 39.7 ± 15.4 years; 259 male; 34.9 ± 12.4 years) were genotyped for association analysis of rs175174. Moreover, in additional linkage disequilibrium (LD) mapping around this SNP, 95 schizophrenic patients (50 female and 45 male) and 96 controls (44 female and 52 male), part of each sample used in association analysis, were genotyped for three SNPs. The general characterization of these subjects and a description of their psychiatric assessment according to identical criteria were published elsewhere [13]. After explaining the study to all subjects, written informed consent was obtained from each. This study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the Nagoya University Graduate School of Medicine and Fujita Health University.

Genomic DNA was extracted from peripheral blood of all subjects. For rapid genotyping of SNPs, rs175174 and additional three SNPs for LD mapping (rs175169, rs175175 and rs2292570), polymerase chain reaction (PCR)-restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) assays were developed. The information of PCR primers is available on request. The PCR reactions of all SNPs were carried out in a 10 μ l volume containing 10 ng genomic DNA, 0.4 M of each primer, 200 μ M of dNTP, 1 \times PCR Gold Buffer, 1.5 mM MgCl₂ and 0.25 U of Amplitaq Gold™ (Applied Biosystems Japan Ltd., Tokyo, Japan), using the GeneAmp™ PCR system 9700 (Applied Biosystems Japan Ltd.). PCR cycling conditions consisted of an initial denaturation step at 95 °C for 9 min, followed by 45 cycles of 95 °C for 15 s, 56 °C for 20 s, 72 °C for 30 s, and ending with a final extension step at 72 °C for 7 min. PCR product was digested using appropriate restriction enzymes according to the manufacturer's recommendation (New England Biolabs, England, UK) (Table 1). DNA fragments were resolved by electrophoresis in a 6% acrylamide gel stained with ethidium bromide.

Genotype deviation from the Hardy–Weinberg equilibrium (HWE) was evaluated by χ^2 test. Marker-trait association analysis was also evaluated by χ^2 test (SPSS 10.0J, SPSS Japan Inc., Japan). To evaluate pairwise LD matrices among SNPs (by D' and r^2), we used the software HAPLOVIEW version 2.05 (developed in Mark Daly's lab., URL; <http://www.broad.mit.edu/personal/jcbarret/haploview/index.php>). This software also defined "LD blocks" by reasonable criteria based on 95% confidential bounds on D' values [4]. Power calculation was performed

using a statistical program prepared by Ohashi et al. [10]. The significance level for all statistical tests was 0.05.

In view of the gender differences in gene effects, we included analyses of samples divided according to the gender. Both in cases and controls, genotype frequencies of total, female and male samples were not significantly different from HWE.

In association analysis, we could not find associations of rs175174 with schizophrenia in either male or female (Table 2).

Next, to test whether rs175174 is representative for ZDHHC8 or not, we performed LD mapping using three additional SNPs around ZDHHC8 (Fig. 1). LD matrices between each pair of SNPs showed strong LD both in cases and controls (Table 1). Even after dividing samples according to the gender, all LD patterns showed the same trends (data not shown). These findings may suggest that the LD pattern of ZDHHC8 is a block-like pattern and that rs175174 is the "representative SNP" of this gene.

The power based on genotype relative risk (GRR) was calculated to evaluate the non-significant results due to type II error. When we set the GRR at 1.28, 1.42 and 1.40 in all, female and male samples, respectively (multiplicative model), our sample size provided powers of more than 80%.

We could not replicate an original positive association using TDT of ZDHHC8 with schizophrenia by the present case–control association analysis among Japanese. Nor could we replicate the gender-specific effect of the risk SNP. In this association analysis, our sample sizes provide enough power to deny the hypothesis. We also performed the fine LD mapping of Japanese samples and showed that the LD pattern of ZDHHC8 was the same block-like pattern as one of the samples from the United States and South Africa. The results provide evidence that not only rs175174 but also ZDHHC8 would not be a susceptibility factor for schizophrenia in either Japanese females or males. The discrepancy between Japanese and the samples from the United States and South Africa may derive from ethnic differences.

A couple of limitation should be addressed to discuss the present results. Initially, the mean age of controls is much younger than that of patients in the present study. This means that a number of young controls, although not more than five subjects given a lifetime morbidity risk of 0.8–1.0%, may go on to develop schizophrenia. This confounding factor might weaken the power of the present study. Another limitation

Table 1
SNPs in LD mapping and pairwise LD matrices

SNP ID	D'				Restriction enzyme
	rs175169	rs175174	rs175175	rs2292570	
rs175169		0.97 (0.78)	1.0 (0.29)	1.0 (0.67)	<i>BsiI</i>
rs175174	0.97 (0.80)		1.0 (0.36)	1.0 (0.58)	<i>BseRI</i>
rs175175	1.0 (0.26)	1.0 (0.31)		1.0 (0.21)	<i>AiwNI</i>
rs2292570	0.93 (0.76)	0.97 (0.70)	1.0 (0.23)		<i>TspRI</i>

Upper diagonal figures are D' (r^2) of controls and lower diagonal figures are D' (r^2) of schizophrenia.

Table 2
Association analysis of rs175174

Samples	Number	G/G	G/A	A/A	P value (genotype)	MAF ^a	P value (allele)
Total							
SCZ	561	238	245	78		0.357	
CON	529	205	259	65	0.213	0.368	0.618
Female							
SCZ	259	114	106	39		0.355	
CON	270	112	130	28	0.133	0.344	0.714
Male							
SCZ	302	124	139	39		0.359	
CON	259	93	129	37	0.457	0.392	0.260

SCZ: schizophrenia; CON: control.

^a Minor allele frequency.

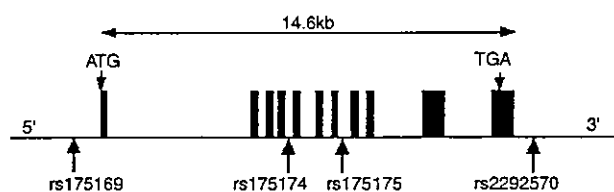


Fig. 1. Genomic structure of ZDHHC8 and SNPs used in association analysis and LD mapping. Vertical bars represent exons of ZDHHC8, and each number under arrows represents SNP ID.

which must be exercised is that the other candidates related to the neurodevelopmental and neuroprotective effect of ZDHHC8 would be in locus heterogeneity [11]. For example, ZDHHC8 encodes a putative transmembrane palmitoyltransferase modulating numerous classes of neuronal proteins including proteins important for neuronal development, neurotransmitter receptors such as NMDA [3]. Thus, the combined effect between ZDHHC8 and the other genes might be a stronger predisposing factor. Further genetic analysis including related candidate genes would definitely be required for a conclusive result.

Acknowledgements

We thank the patients and healthy volunteers who took part in our investigation. We also thank Ms. M. Miyata, Ms. Y. Zusho, Ms. S. Nakaguchi and Ms. R. Ishihara for their technical support. This work was supported in part by research grants from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology and that of Health, Labor and Welfare.

References

- J.A. Badner, E.S. Gershon, Meta-analysis of whole-genome linkage scans of bipolar disorder and schizophrenia, *Mol. Psychiatry* 7 (2002) 405–411.
- A.S. Bassett, E.W. Chow, 22q11 deletion syndrome: a genetic subtype of schizophrenia, *Biol. Psychiatry* 46 (1999) 882–891.
- D. el-Husseini Ael, D.S. Bredt, Protein palmitoylation: a regulator of neuronal development and function, *Nat. Rev. Neurosci.* 3 (2002) 791–802.
- S.B. Gabriel, S.F. Schaffner, H. Nguyen, J.M. Moore, J. Roy, B. Blumenstiel, J. Higgins, M. DeFelice, A. Lochner, M. Faggart, S.N. Liu-Cordero, C. Rotimi, A. Adeyemo, R. Cooper, R. Ward, E.S. Lander, M.J. Altshuler, D. Daly, The structure of haplotype blocks in the human genome, *Science* 296 (2002) 2225–2229.
- C.M. Lewis, D.F. Levinson, L.H. Wise, L.E. DeLisi, R.E. Straub, I. Hovatta, N.M. Williams, S.G. Schwab, A.E. Pulver, S.V. Faraone, L.M. Brzustowicz, C.A. Kaufmann, D.L. Garver, H.M. Gurling, E. Lindholm, H. Coon, H.W. Moises, W. Byerley, S.H. Shaw, A. Mesen, R. Sherrington, F.A. O'Neill, D. Walsh, K.S. Kendler, J. Ekelund, T. Paunio, J. Lonnqvist, L. Peltonen, M.C. O'Donovan, M.J. Owen, D.B. Wildenauer, W. Maier, G. Nestadt, J.L. Blouin, S.E. Antonarakis, B.J. Mowry, J.M. Silverman, R.R. Crowe, C.R. Cloninger, M.T. Tsuang, D. Malaspina, J.M. Harkavy-Friedman, D.M. Svrakic, A.S. Bassett, J. Holcomb, G. Kalsi, A. McQuillin, J. Brynjolfsson, T. Sigmundsson, H. Petursson, E. Jazin, T. Zoega, T. Helgason, Genome scan meta-analysis of schizophrenia and bipolar disorder, part II: schizophrenia, *Am. J. Hum. Genet.* 73 (2003) 34–48.
- H. Liu, G.R. Abecasis, S.C. Heath, A. Knowles, S. Demars, Y.J. Chen, J.L. Roos, J.L. Rapoport, J.A. Gogos, M. Karayiorgou, Genetic variation in the 22q11 locus and susceptibility to schizophrenia, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 99 (2002) 16859–16864.
- H. Liu, S.C. Heath, C. Sobin, J.L. Roos, B.L. Galke, M.L. Blundell, M. Lenane, B. Robertson, E.M. Wijsman, J.L. Rapoport, J.A. Gogos, M. Karayiorgou, Genetic variation at the 22q11 PRODH2/DGCR6 locus presents an unusual pattern and increases susceptibility to schizophrenia, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 99 (2002) 3717–3722.
- B.J. Mowry, P.A. Holmans, A.E. Pulver, P.V. Gejman, B. Riley, N.M. Williams, C. Laurent, S.G. Schwab, D.B. Wildenauer, S. Bauche, M.J. Owen, B. Wormley, A.R. Sanders, G. Nestadt, K.Y. Liang, J. Duan, R. Ribble, N. Norton, S. Soubigou, W. Maier, K.R. Ewen-White, N. DeMarchi, B. Carpenter, D. Walsh, H. Williams, M. Jay, M. Albus, D.A. Nertney, G. Papadimitriou, A. O'Neill, M.C. O'Donovan, J.F. Deleuze, F.B. Lerer, D. Dikeos, K.S. Kendler, J. Mallet, J.M. Silverman, R.R. Crowe, D.F. Levinson, Multicenter linkage study of schizophrenia loci on chromosome 22q, *Mol. Psychiatry* 9 (2004) 784–795.
- J. Mukai, H. Liu, R.A. Burt, D.E. Swor, W.S. Lai, M. Karayiorgou, J.A. Gogos, Evidence that the gene encoding ZDHHC8 contributes to the risk of schizophrenia, *Nat. Genet.* 36 (2004) 725–731.
- J. Ohashi, S. Yamamoto, N. Tsuchiya, Y. Hata, T. Komata, M. Matsushita, K. Tokunaga, Comparison of statistical power between 2 * 2 allele frequency and allele positivity tables in case-control studies of complex disease genes, *Ann. Hum. Genet.* 65 (2001) 197–206.

- [11] N.J. Schork, D. Fallin, B. Thiel, X. Xu, U. Broeckel, H.J. Jacob, D. Cohen, The future of genetic case-control studies, *Adv. Genet.* 42 (2001) 191–212.
- [12] S. Shifman, M. Bronstein, M. Sternfeld, A. Pisante-Shalom, E. Lev-Lehman, A. Weizman, I. Reznik, B. Spivak, N. Grisaru, L. Karp, R. Schiffer, M. Kotler, R.D. Strous, M. Swartz-Vanetik, H.Y. Knobler, E. Shinar, J.S. Beckmann, B. Yakir, N. Risch, N.B. Zak, A. Darvasi, A highly significant association between a COMT haplotype and schizophrenia, *Am. J. Hum. Genet.* 71 (2002) 1296–1302.
- [13] T. Suzuki, N. Iwata, Y. Kitamura, T. Kitajima, Y. Yamanouchi, M. Ikeda, T. Nishiyama, N. Kamatani, N. Ozaki, Association of a haplotype in the serotonin 5-HT₄ receptor gene (HTR4) with Japanese schizophrenia, *Am. J. Med. Genet.* 121 (2003) 7–13.

H. Miura · H. Qiao · T. Kitagami · T. Ohta · N. Ozaki

Fluvoxamine, a selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor, suppresses tetrahydrobiopterin levels and dopamine as well as serotonin turnover in the mesoprefrontal system of mice

Received: 26 February 2004 / Accepted: 2 June 2004 / Published online: 29 July 2004
© Springer-Verlag 2004

Abstract *Rationale:* Tetrahydrobiopterin (BH₄) is a coenzyme of tyrosine hydroxylase (TH) and tryptophan hydroxylase (TPH), rate-limiting enzymes of monoamine biosynthesis. According to the monoamine hypothesis of depression, antidepressants will restore the function of the brain monoaminergic system, and BH₄ concentration. *Objective:* To investigate the effects of fluvoxamine on BH₄ levels and dopamine (DA) and serotonin (5-HT) turnover in the mesoprefrontal system, incorporating two risk factors of depression, social isolation and acute environmental change. *Methods:* Male ddY mice (6W) were divided into two housing groups, i.e. group-housing (eight animals per cage; 35 days), and isolation-housing (one per cage; 35 days), SC injected with fluvoxamine (20 or 40 mg/kg; days 29–35), and exposed to 20-min novelty stress (day 35). The levels of BH₄, DA, homovanilic acid (HVA), 5-HT, and 5-hydroxyindoleacetic acid (5-HIAA) were measured in the prefrontal cortex and midbrain. *Results:* Under the group-housing condition, novelty stress significantly increased BH₄ levels in both regions, and the HVA/DA ratio in the midbrain, whereas it did not change any parameters in either region under the isolation-housing condition. In the prefrontal cortex, fluvoxamine significantly decreased the 5-HIAA/5-HT ratio under the group-housing condition, and BH₄ levels and the HVA/DA ratio under the isolation-housing condition. In the midbrain, fluvoxamine significantly decreased all parameters, except for an increasing in the 5-HIAA/5-HT ratio under the isolation-housing condition. *Conclusion:* Isolation-housing suppressed the increase of BH₄ levels and DA turnover elicited by novelty stress. Fluvoxamine

suppressed BH₄ levels, and DA and 5-HT turnover. Fluvoxamine may have altered DA turnover by suppressing BH₄ levels.

Keywords Social isolation · Novelty stress · Animal model · Tetrahydrobiopterin · Dopamine turnover · Serotonin turnover

Introduction

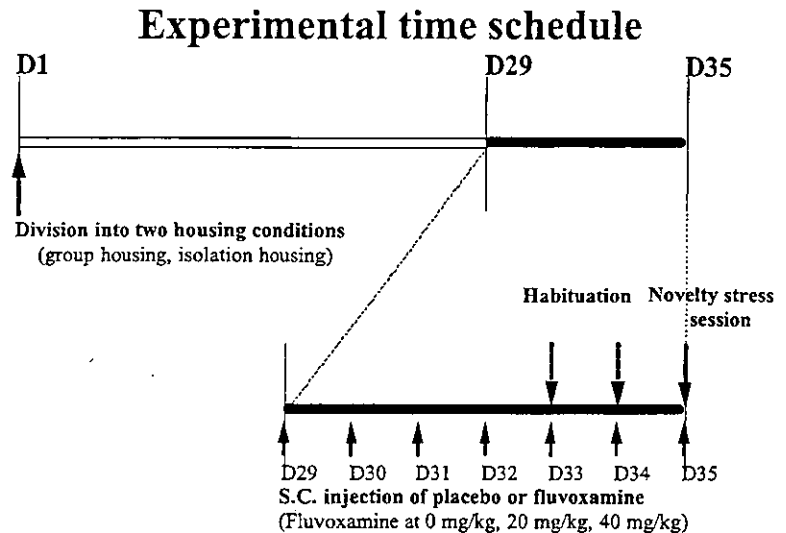
(6R)-5,6,7,8-tetrahydrobiopterin (BH₄) is a coenzyme of tyrosine hydroxylase (TH) and tryptophan hydroxylase (TPH), which are the rate-limiting enzymes of monoamine biosynthesis. BH₄ is also a coenzyme of NO synthase (NOS). NO is known to act as a signaling molecule in the central nervous system (CNS) (Barañano et al. 2001; Kiss and Vizi 2001; Ohkuma and Katsura 2001; Prast and Philippu 2001; Esplugues 2002). Thus, BH₄ plays an important role in CNS activity.

With regard to the cause of human depression, the monoamine hypothesis focuses on impaired function of the monoaminergic system of the brain (Smith et al. 1997; Delgado 2000; Hirschfeld 2000; Leonard 2000). Pharmacological studies of almost all clinically effective antidepressants have supported this hypothesis. Antidepressant-induced suppression in the activity of TH (Nestler et al. 1990) and TPH (Lapierre et al. 1983) may be related to BH₄ levels. Furthermore, recent studies suggest the possibility that alteration of NOS activity may be related to the antidepressant-like effects of NOS inhibitors in animal models (Harkin et al. 1999; Karolewicz et al. 1999; Da Silva et al. 2000). Investigation into the relationship between changes in the activities of these enzymes (TH, TPH, and NOS) and BH₄ levels induced by antidepressants should therefore help to clarify the pathophysiology of human depression.

Concerning environmental risk factors of depression, most patients become ill after adverse life events, such as interpersonal loss (separation, etc.) (Paykel 1994). Further, absence of social support appears to be associated with an

H. Miura (✉) · H. Qiao · T. Kitagami · T. Ohta · N. Ozaki
Department of Psychiatry, School of Medicine, Nagoya University,
Tsuruma-chō, Showa-ku,
Nagoya, Aichi, 466-8550, Japan
e-mail: hmiura@med.nagoya-u.ac.jp
Tel.: +81-52-7412111
Fax: +81-52-7442293

Fig. 1 Experimental time schedule. Mice were divided into 12 groups as described in Materials and methods



onset and relapse of depression (Paykel 1994). Kendler showed that genetic factors cooperate with environmental factors to induce the onset of depression in humans (Kendler et al. 1993). Thus, we proposed an animal model that simulated two of the major environmental risk factors of human depression (Miura et al. 2002a,b; Miura et al. 2004), i.e. social isolation and acute environmental change (Kendler et al. 1993; Paykel 1994).

We propose that changes in brain BH₄ levels play an important role in the pathophysiology of depression, and that antidepressants modulate these changes. Our recent study suggested that fluvoxamine, an SSRI, suppressed BH₄ levels as well as 5-HT turnover in the hippocampus of mice (Miura et al. 2004). In the present study, we further investigated other regions that we suspect are involved in the pathophysiology of human depression, and we measured BH₄, dopamine (DA), and serotonin (5-HT) levels simultaneously. Mesocorticolimbic DA projections (A8, A10) originating from the ventral tegmental area (VTA) of the midbrain (Cooper et al. 2003) have been shown to play an important role in a reward system, i.e. in motivating behavior (Kupferman and Schwartz 1995). We therefore selected two regions of focus, the prefrontal cortex and the midbrain. The aim of the present study was to investigate the effects of fluvoxamine on BH₄ levels and DA and 5-HT turnover in the mesoprefrontal regions, and to clarify the role of BH₄ in our novel animal model simulating two of the major environmental risk factors of human depression (Miura et al. 2002a,b, 2004).

Materials and methods

Animals

A total of 96 male ddY mice were used in the present experiments. The mice were transported from a breeding company at 5 weeks of age to our experimental animal center. After a 1-week habituation period, the mice, all of which had previously been housed in groups (eight per

cage), were divided into two different groups according to housing conditions, i.e. a group-housing group (eight per cage; $n=48$) and an isolation-housing (one per cage; $n=48$; Fig. 1) group. The cages used for group-housing were 21×31×13 cm, and the cages used for isolation-housing were 17×29×13 cm. After being assigned to one of the two housing conditions, the mice were reared for 35 days (Fig. 1). Cage exchange was performed twice a week. Food and water were provided ad libitum. A 12-h light/dark cycle was maintained and room temperature was maintained at 21–23°C. All efforts were made to minimize both the number of animals used and the degree of their suffering. All of the experiments were conducted in accordance with the European Communities Council Directive of 24 November 1986 (86/609/EEC). The experiments also comply with the current laws of Japan.

Fluvoxamine injection

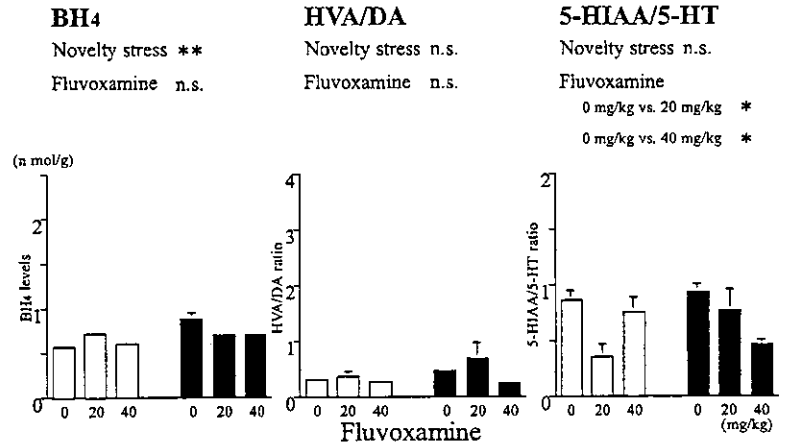
In week 5 (days 29–35) after being assigned to one of the two housing conditions, the mice were SC injected with placebo (distilled water) or low-dose (20 mg/kg) or high-dose (40 mg/kg) fluvoxamine once per day (Fig. 1). The fluvoxamine was kindly donated by Solvay Pharmaceuticals (Brussels, Belgium). The mice were then further divided into three groups: a control (0 mg/kg, $n=32$), a low-dose (20 mg/kg, $n=32$), and a high-dose (40 mg/kg, $n=32$; Fig. 1) group.

Novelty stress test

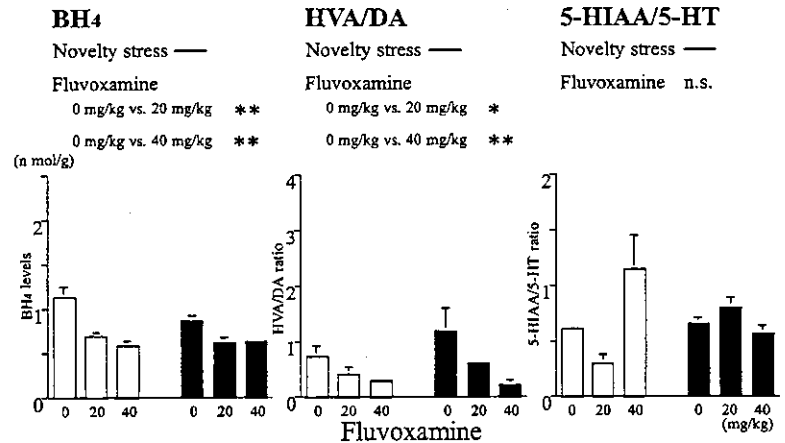
After being assigned to one of the two housing conditions, the animals were further separated into two groups: a stress group ($n=48$) in which the animals were exposed to a 20-min novelty stress on day 35 [i.e. the animals were placed into a transparent plastic box (28×35×30 cm) that they had not yet experienced]; and a non-stress group ($n=48$) in which the animals experienced a habituation

Fig. 2 Changes in BH₄ levels, and HVA/DA and 5-HIAA/5-HT ratios in the prefrontal cortex elicited by novelty stress and by fluvoxamine. **A** group-housing condition ($n=48$); **B** isolation-housing condition ($n=47$). *White bars*, non-stress ($n=48$); *black bars*, novelty stress ($n=47$, $n=95$ total). Fluvoxamine: 0.0 mg/kg ($n=31$); 20.20 mg/kg ($n=32$); 40.40 mg/kg ($n=32$, $n=95$ total). Each bar indicates the final group division. The number of animals used for each group was eight, except in the case of the isolation-housed, stress, 0 mg/kg group ($n=7$). Values are shown as the mean \pm SEM. Asterisks indicate the results of the Tukey-Kramer test for novelty stress and fluvoxamine in each housing and stress condition: * $P<0.05$, ** $P<0.01$, *n.s.* not significant. In the isolation-housing condition, the post hoc test for novelty stress was not performed because the MANOVA result was not significant

A Group housing



B Isolation housing



session (i.e. the animals were placed into the transparent plastic box for 10 min on days 33 and 34 before the 20-min session on day 35; Fig. 1). The habituation session was performed in the room in which the mice had been reared, whereas the novelty stress test was performed in a dark room that was separated from the breeding room. By combining the above conditions, the mice were divided into 12 groups.

Sample preparation

Mice were killed by decapitation immediately after the 20-min stress session. The brains were removed and, as quickly as possible, the prefrontal cortex and midbrain were dissected out on glass plates over ice. The samples were weighed and treated with 1000 μ l of an ice-cold 0.2 M perchloric acid (PCA) solution containing 0.2 mM sodium pyrosulfite, 0.01% EDTA-2Na, and 0.5 μ M isoproterenol (ISO) as an internal standard per 100 mg wet tissue. The solution was sonicated and then cen-

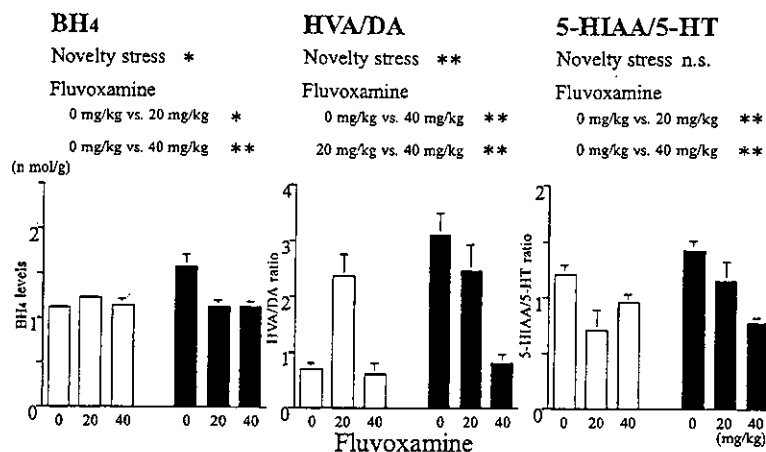
trifuged at 10,000 g for 20 min at 4°C. The supernatant was filtered through a Millipore HV filter (0.45 μ m pore size) and then subjected to both high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) with electrochemical detection (ECD) of monoamines (DA, 5-HT) and their metabolites (homovanilic acid, HVA; 5-hydroxyindoleacetic acid, 5-HIAA), and HPLC with fluorimetric detection (FD) of BH₄.

HPLC-ECD determination of brain levels of monoamines and their metabolites

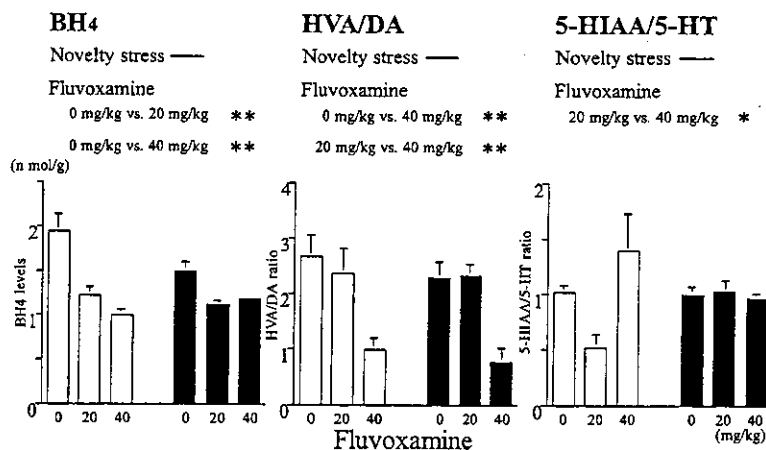
The levels of DA, HVA, 5-HT, and 5-HIAA in the brain extracts were measured by HPLC with ECD. The system employed for HPLC-ECD consisted of a CMA/200 autosampler (CMA/Microdialysis AB, Stockholm, Sweden), a micro LC pump (BAS, West Lafayette, Ind., USA), an LC-4C ECD (BAS), a Bio-Phase ODS-4 51-6034 column (4.0 \times 110 mm; BAS), a CR-6A recorder (Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan), an LC-26A vacuum degasser (BAS),

Fig. 3 Changes in BH₄ levels, and HVA/DA and 5-HIAA/5-HT ratios in the midbrain elicited by novelty stress and by fluvoxamine. **A** group-housing condition (*n*=48); **B** isolation-housing condition (*n*=45). *White bars*, non-stress (*n*=46); *black bars*, novelty stress (*n*=47, *n*=93 total). Fluvoxamine: 0:0 mg/kg (*n*=29); 20:20 mg/kg (*n*=32); 40:40 mg/kg (*n*=32, *n*=93 total). Each bar indicates the final group division. The number of animals used for each group was eight, except in the case of the isolation-housed, stress, 0 mg/kg group (*n*=7), and isolation-housed, non-stress, 0 mg/kg group (*n*=6). Values are shown as the mean±SEM. *Asterisks* indicate the results of the Tukey-Kramer test for novelty stress and fluvoxamine in each housing and stress condition: **P*<0.05, ***P*<0.01, n.s. not significant. In the isolation-housing condition, the post hoc test for novelty stress was not performed because the MANOVA result was not significant

A Group housing



B Isolation housing



and a CTO-10A column heater set at 35°C (Shimadzu). The mobile-phase solution consisted of 0.1 M tartaric acid–0.1 M sodium acetate buffer, pH 3.2, containing 0.5 mM EDTA-2Na, 555 µM sodium 1-octane sulfonate, and 5% acetonitrile. The flow rate was 700 µl/min. The concentration of each compound was calculated by comparison with both the internal and the external standards.

HPLC-FD by post-column sodium nitrite oxidation for the determination of brain levels of BH₄

Tani and Ohno developed a method for the direct measurement of BH₄, the active form of bipterin (Tani and Ohno 1993), and we used this method to measure BH₄ levels in the present study. BH₄ (SIGMA) was stored in 0.1 M HCl (20 mM), and was prepared in 0.01 M HCl as an external standard (0.25 µM) immediately before sample injection. This system consisted of two LC-10AD pumps (Shimadzu), a CMA/200 autosampler, a Cosmosil 5C18

column (4.6×250 mm), a CR-6A recorder (Shimadzu), an LC-26A vacuum degasser, and a PF-10A FD (Shimadzu). The excitation wavelength was 350 nm, and the emission wavelength was 440 nm. The temperature of the reaction coil was set at 80°C using a column heater. The concentration of BH₄ was calculated by comparison with an external standard. The mobile phase was 0.1 M sodium phosphate buffer (pH 2.9) containing 5% methanol, 3 mM sodium 1-octane sulfonate, 0.1 mM EDTA-2Na, and 0.1 mM ascorbic acid (to prevent oxidation). The flow rate was 1.0 ml/min. Reduced pterins were oxidized by NaNO₂ (5 mM; flow rate: 1.0 ml/min) in the reaction coil (80°C).

Statistical analyses

To examine differences in the levels of BH₄, and in the ratios of HVA/DA and 5-HIAA/5-HT, three-way MANOVA (Wilks's lambda) for housing condition, novelty stress, and fluvoxamine was conducted on dependent measures in each brain region. Further analyses were performed to

consider the interactions. In each housing condition, i.e. group-housing and isolation-housing, two-way MANOVA (Wilks's lambda) for novelty stress and fluvoxamine was conducted on dependent measures in each brain region, followed by the Tukey-Kramer test. There were some missing values: in both regions, isolation-housing/stress/0 mg/kg ($n=7$, due to undetected DA in one animal), and in the midbrain, isolation-housing/non-stress/0 mg/kg ($n=6$, due to undetected DA in two animals).

Results

Prefrontal cortex

Three-way MANOVA (Wilks's lambda) for housing condition, novelty stress, and fluvoxamine was conducted for BH₄ levels, and to determine the HVA/DA and 5-HIAA/5-HT ratios. Housing condition [$F(3, 81)=3.630$, $P=0.0163$] and fluvoxamine [$F(6, 162)=12.013$, $P<0.0001$] significantly altered the dependent measures, whereas novelty stress [$F(3, 81)=1.663$, $P=0.1814$] did not. The interactions between housing condition and novelty stress [$F(3, 81)=4.932$, $P=0.0034$], housing condition and fluvoxamine [$F(6, 162)=9.153$, $P<0.0001$], and novelty stress and fluvoxamine [$F(6, 162)=4.527$, $P=0.0003$] were significant. The interaction among housing condition, novelty stress, and fluvoxamine [$F(6, 162)=2.749$, $P=0.0143$] was also significant.

In the group-housing condition, two-way MANOVA for novelty-stress and fluvoxamine was conducted on dependent measures. Novelty stress [$F(3, 40)=7.011$, $P=0.007$] and fluvoxamine [$F(6, 80)=4.722$, $P=0.0004$] significantly altered the dependent measures. The interaction between novelty stress and fluvoxamine was significant [$F(6, 80)=4.526$, $P=0.0005$]. The post hoc test revealed that novelty stress significantly increased BH₄ levels ($P<0.01$, Fig. 2A), and fluvoxamine significantly decreased the 5-HIAA/5-HT ratio (0 mg/kg versus 20 mg/kg, $P<0.05$; 0 mg/kg versus 40 mg/kg, $P<0.05$; Fig. 2A). In the isolation-housing condition, two-way MANOVA for novelty stress and fluvoxamine was conducted on dependent measures. Novelty stress [$F(3, 39)=1.363$, $P=0.2683$] did not alter these measures, whereas fluvoxamine [$F(6, 78)=11.442$, $P<0.0001$] significantly altered them. The interaction between novelty stress and fluvoxamine was significant [$F(6, 78)=3.419$, $P=0.0048$]. The post hoc test revealed that fluvoxamine significantly decreased BH₄ levels (0 mg/kg versus 20 mg/kg, $P<0.01$; 0 mg/kg versus 40 mg/kg, $P<0.01$; Fig. 2B) and HVA/DA ratio (0 mg/kg versus 20 mg/kg, $P<0.05$; 0 mg/kg versus 40 mg/kg, $P<0.01$; Fig. 2B).

Thus, in the group-housing condition, novelty stress was found to increase BH₄ levels and fluvoxamine to decrease 5-HT turnover. In the isolation-housing condition, novelty stress did not alter dependent measures and fluvoxamine decreased BH₄ levels and DA turnover.

Midbrain

Three-way MANOVA (Wilks's lambda) for housing condition, novelty stress, and fluvoxamine was conducted for BH₄ levels, and to determine the HVA/DA and 5-HIAA/5-HT ratios. Neither housing condition [$F(3, 79)=2.251$, $P=0.0889$] nor novelty stress [$F(3, 79)=1.646$, $P=0.1854$] altered dependent measures, whereas fluvoxamine [$F(6, 158)=22.222$, $P<0.0001$] significantly altered them. The interactions between housing condition and novelty stress [$F(3, 79)=4.513$, $P=0.0057$], housing condition and fluvoxamine [$F(6, 158)=4.790$, $P=0.0002$], and novelty stress and fluvoxamine [$F(6, 158)=4.470$, $P=0.0003$] were significant. The interaction among housing condition, novelty stress, and fluvoxamine [$F(6, 158)=4.807$, $P=0.0002$] was also significant.

In the group-housing condition, two-way MANOVA for novelty stress and fluvoxamine was conducted on dependent measures. Novelty stress [$F(3, 40)=5.011$, $P=0.0048$] and fluvoxamine [$F(6, 80)=9.868$, $P<0.0001$] significantly altered the dependent measures. The interaction between novelty stress and fluvoxamine was significant [$F(6, 80)=6.807$, $P<0.0001$]. The post hoc test revealed that novelty stress significantly increased BH₄ levels ($P<0.05$, Fig. 3A) and the HVA/DA ratio ($P<0.01$, Fig. 3A), and fluvoxamine significantly decreased BH₄ levels (0 mg/kg versus 20 mg/kg, $P<0.05$; 0 mg/kg versus 40 mg/kg, $P<0.01$; Fig. 3A), and decreased the HVA/DA (0 mg/kg versus 40 mg/kg, $P<0.01$; 20 mg/kg versus 40 mg/kg, $P<0.01$; Fig. 3A) and 5-HIAA/5-HT (0 mg/kg versus 20 mg/kg, $P<0.05$; 0 mg/kg versus 40 mg/kg, $P<0.05$; Fig. 3A) ratios. In the isolation-housing condition, two-way MANOVA for novelty stress and fluvoxamine was conducted on dependent measures. Novelty stress [$F(3, 37)=1.044$, $P=0.3845$] did not significantly alter the dependent measures, whereas fluvoxamine [$F(6, 74)=13.336$, $P<0.0001$] did significantly alter them. The interaction between novelty stress and fluvoxamine was significant [$F(6, 74)=3.264$, $P=0.0067$]. The post hoc test revealed that fluvoxamine significantly decreased BH₄ levels (0 mg/kg versus 20 mg/kg, $P<0.01$; 0 mg/kg versus 40 mg/kg, $P<0.01$; Fig. 3B), decreased the HVA/DA ratio (0 mg/kg versus 40 mg/kg, $P<0.01$; 20 mg/kg versus 40 mg/kg, $P<0.01$; Fig. 3B), and significantly increased 5-HIAA/5-HT ratio (20 mg/kg versus 40 mg/kg, $P<0.05$; Fig. 3B).

Thus, in the group-housing condition, novelty stress increased BH₄ levels and DA turnover, and fluvoxamine decreased BH₄ levels, as well as the DA and 5-HT turnover. In the isolation-housing condition, novelty stress did not alter dependent measures and fluvoxamine decreased BH₄ levels and DA turnover, whereas fluvoxamine increased 5-HT turnover.

Discussion

Human depression has a number of etiological risk factors. Both environmental and genetic factors have been

associated with the pathogenesis of the disease (Kendler et al. 1993). Among environmental factors, adverse life events such as interpersonal loss (e.g. separation) or an absence of social support (e.g. that occurring with a loss of social contact) appear to play important roles in the onset and relapse of depression (Paykel 1994). In the present study, we investigated the effects of fluvoxamine on BH₄ levels and on the DA and 5-HT turnover ratio in the mesoprefrontal system of mice using an animal model incorporating these two environmental risk factors. Isolation-housing is known to change the activities in the mesoprefrontal monoaminergic system. Isolation-housing suppresses TPH activity in the midbrain (Yanai and Sze 1983), whereas it increases the accumulation of the monoamine precursor, dihydroxyphenylalanine (DOPA) and 5-hydroxytryptophan (5-HTP) in the cerebral cortex (Miaison et al. 1993). Isolation has also been shown to increase the DA level and decrease the 5-HIAA/5-HT ratio in the prefrontal cortex (Jones et al. 1992), and to increase the KCl-induced release of 5-HT and DA from slices of prefrontal cortex (Jaffe 1998). Finally, Crepsi et al. (1992) showed by *in vivo* voltammetric analysis of the prefrontal cortex that isolation-housing prolonged 5-HT release and increased DA release following KCl or fenfluramine treatment.

In the prefrontal cortex and midbrain in the present study, novelty stress increased BH₄ levels under the group-housing condition (Figs 2A, 3A), whereas these levels were not altered under the isolation-housing condition (Figs 2B, 3B). Our recent study also suggested that novelty stress increases BH₄ levels in the hippocampus, although they did not change under the isolation-housing condition (Miura et al. 2004). According to these results, it appears likely that BH₄ plays a role in stress response mechanisms, and that isolation-housing attenuates these changes. A recent review demonstrated that intracellular concentrations of BH₄, which are mainly determined by GTP cyclohydrolase 1 (GCH), probably regulate the activity of TH, TPH, and also NOS (Nagatsu and Ichinose 1999). Thus, the increase in BH₄ levels elicited by novelty stress may have been related to the activities of TH, TPH, and NOS. Previous studies have shown elevations in brain TH and TPH activities elicited by physiological stress (Boadle-Biber et al. 1989; Serova et al. 1998; Chamas et al. 1999). Physiological stress has also been shown to increase NOS I mRNA levels in the hypothalamic paraventricular nucleus (Kishimoto et al. 1996). Thus, novelty stress may have elevated GCH activity, increased the BH₄ concentration, and differentially regulated TH, TPH, and NOS I activities in each brain region. Although the mechanisms of the BH₄ elevation elicited by novelty stress and the effect of isolation-housing on this type of elevation remain unknown, our results suggest that isolation-housing suppressed the elevation of BH₄ levels elicited by novelty stress. Further *in vivo* study using GCH inhibitors will help to clarify the mechanisms of these stress responses of BH₄.

In the midbrain, novelty stress enhanced DA turnover under the group-housing condition (Fig. 3A), whereas it

did not alter DA turnover under the isolation-housing condition (Fig. 3B). Novelty stress did not alter DA turnover in the prefrontal cortex (Fig. 2A,B). Thus, isolation-housing may have attenuated the increase in DA turnover elicited by novelty stress in the midbrain. Our previous study suggested that isolation-housing suppressed the elevation of monoamine (DA and 5-HT) turnover elicited by novelty stress (Miura et al. 2002a), although the regions in which such suppression was evident in that study, i.e. the prefrontal cortex and the nucleus accumbens (Miura et al. 2002a), differed from the regions of the present study. Although in our previous studies we reported that novelty stress significantly changed the levels of monoamines and their metabolites (Miura et al. 2002a,b), novelty stress was not found to significantly alter either of these levels in the present study. These differences in the stress response between our present and previous studies may be attributable, at least in part, to differences in the stress-session procedures. Here, we employed a non-stress condition in which animals were habituated twice to the novel environment before final exposure, and a stress condition in which they experienced the novel environment without prior habituation. In our previous studies, animals in the non-stress group were killed without exposure to the novel environment. We cannot rule out the possibility that these habituation sessions influenced CNS activity in the non-stress group. The differences between housing cages may also have had an influence. In the previous studies we used hanging-type cages with wire-mesh bottoms to minimize the influence of handling and social experience (Holson et al. 1991; Krebs-Thomson et al. 2001). However, the use of these cages may itself have constituted a chronic stressor. Finally, the difference in species used (rats versus mice) may also have contributed to the difference in results. Despite these differences, however, isolation-housing was clearly shown to attenuate the elevation of DA turnover elicited by novelty stress.

Fluvoxamine was also shown to suppress BH₄ levels in this study (Figs 2B, 3A,B), with the exception of the group-housing condition in the prefrontal cortex (Fig. 2A). In both regions, two-way MANOVA revealed significant interactions between novelty stress and fluvoxamine in each housing condition; thus fluvoxamine attenuated the elevation of BH₄ levels elicited by novelty stress. Our recent study demonstrated that fluvoxamine decreased BH₄ levels in the hippocampus of mice (Miura et al. 2004). Because chronic antidepressant treatment has been shown to suppress TH (Nestler et al. 1990) as well as TPH activity (Lapierre et al. 1983), the decrease in BH₄ levels elicited by fluvoxamine would seem to have attenuated the activities of these enzymes. Recently, NOS inhibitors have been shown to exhibit antidepressant-like effects in animal models (Harkin et al. 1999; Karolewicz et al. 1999; Da Silva et al. 2000). Paroxetine, a selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor (SSRI), is known to act as an NOS inhibitor (Finkel et al. 1996). Thus, antidepressants may possess clinical potency by inhibiting NOS activities. Fluvoxamine, an inhibitor of cytochrome P450 isozymes

that are structurally homologous to NOS (Richelson 1997), may influence NOS activity by decreasing BH₄ levels, although the mechanism of BH₄ suppression remains unknown. However, further research into the relation between alterations in BH₄ levels and GCH activity, and that between changes in BH₄ levels and NOS I activity elicited by fluvoxamine will help to clarify the role of NOS I in the clinical efficacy of the drug.

Fluvoxamine was found to inhibit DA turnover (Figs 2B, 3A,B), with the exception that there was no change in DA turnovers in the prefrontal cortex under the group-housing condition (Fig. 2A). In both regions, two-way MANOVA revealed significant interactions between novelty stress and fluvoxamine in each housing condition, and thus fluvoxamine attenuated the elevation of DA turnover elicited by novelty stress. To our knowledge, this is the first study showing a decrease in BH₄ levels and a simultaneous inhibition of DA turnover elicited by fluvoxamine. The mechanism of the effects of fluvoxamine on the DA system remains unknown. We suspect that the inhibition of 5-HT transporter (SERT) activity elicited by fluvoxamine cannot solely account for the inhibition of DA turnover. It is likely that other pharmacological effects related to the changes in BH₄ levels also played a role in inducing these changes. We propose here two possible explanations for these findings, although these are only speculation at present. The first explanation involves the regulation of DA neuron activity by the innervation of 5-HT neurons. The 5-HT innervations of the DA system are thought to attenuate the activity of DA neurons, and thus fluvoxamine may have potentiated the attenuation by increasing 5-HT levels (Di Mascio et al. 1998; Dong et al. 1999). The second possibility is that fluvoxamine may have suppressed TH activity via the decrease in BH₄ levels, and thereby suppressed DA biosynthesis. A study using 6-pyruvoyltetrahydropterin synthase-knockout mice (i.e. mice in which the second step of BH₄ biosynthesis is blocked) showed that the suppression of TH and NOS activities in the brain did not affect TPH activity (Sumi-Ichinose et al. 2001). In a study by Flatmark (2000), TH activity was highly dependent on the intracellular concentration of BH₄.

Fluvoxamine decreased the 5-HIAA/5-HT ratio under the group-housing condition in both regions (Figs 2A, 3A). Under the isolation-housing condition fluvoxamine did not alter the 5-HIAA/5-HT ratio in the prefrontal cortex (Fig. 2B), whereas it increased this ratio in the midbrain (Fig. 3B).

Although the original monoamine hypothesis has advanced our understanding of the etiology and pathophysiology of human depression, it does not address several major issues. The hypothesis has evolved to include adaptive changes in receptors to explain why there should be only a gradual clinical response to antidepressant treatment when the increase in availability of monoamine is rapid (Hirschfeld 2000). On the other hand, the dysfunction of SERT is the target of some of the newest forms of antidepressant pharmacotherapy, including the SSRIs (Leonard 2000). Activity of the SERT in

platelets is reduced in patients with depression (Owens and Nemeroff 1994), and changes in the SERT in platelets have been found to correlate with response to treatment (Leonard 2000). A study using single photon emission computed tomography with [¹²³I]-2β-carbomethoxy-3β-(4-iodophenyl) tropane, the radiolabeled tracer binding with high affinity to SERT in the midbrain, revealed a reduction in the activity of the transporter in patients with depression (Malison et al. 1998). In the present study, fluvoxamine may have modified the activity and/or expression of SERT. The discrepancy of fluvoxamine-induced changes in 5-HT turnover between isolation and group-housing might be attributable to the difference in the responses of SERT activities to fluvoxamine between the two housing conditions, although the underlying mechanism remains to be clarified. Further, impaired activity of enzymes essential for monoamine synthesis may play a role in depression, although reports on this subject are few (Leonard 2000). Our results suggest the possibility that the decreased BH₄ levels elicited by fluvoxamine suppressed TH and/or TPH activity.

In the present study, both novelty stress and fluvoxamine induced changes in BH₄ levels, DA turnover, and 5-HT turnover in the mesoprefrontal system. In the group-housing animals, novelty stress significantly increased BH₄ levels. The suppression of BH₄ levels by fluvoxamine may have in turn been related to the suppression of DA turnover. As mentioned above, our results suggest the possibility that the clinical efficacy of fluvoxamine may be due to its influence on BH₄ levels as well as due to its effect on SERT. Further investigation of these potential mechanisms will help clarify the pathophysiology and pathogenesis of human depression.

References

- Barañano DE, Ferris CD, Snyder SH (2001) Atypical neural messengers. *Trends Neurosci* 24:99-106
- Boadle-Biber MC, Corley KC, Graves L, Phan TH, Rosecrans J (1989) Increase in the activity of tryptophan hydroxylase from cortex and midbrain of male Fischer 344 rats in response to acute or repeated sound stress. *Brain Res* 482:306-316
- Chamas F, Serova L, Sabban EL (1999) Tryptophan hydroxylase mRNA levels are elevated by repeated immobilization stress in rat raphe nuclei but not in pineal gland. *Neurosci Lett* 267:157-160
- Cooper JR, Bloom FE, Roth RH (2003) Dopamine (The biochemical basis of neuropharmacology, 8th edition). Oxford University Press, New York
- Crepes F, Wright IK, Möbius C (1992) Isolation rearing of rats alters release of 5-hydroxytryptamine and dopamine in the frontal cortex: an in vivo electrochemical study. *Exp Brain Res* 88:495-501
- Da Silva GD, Matteussi AS, dos Santos AR, Calixto JB, Rodrigues AL (2000) Evidence for dual effects of nitric oxide in the forced swimming test and in the tail suspension test in mice. *Neuroreport* 11:3699-3702
- Delgado PL (2000) Depression: the case for a monoamine deficiency. *J Clin Psychiatry* 61(Suppl 6):7-11
- Di Mascio M, Di Giovanni G, Di Matteo V, Prisco S, Esposito E (1998) Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors reduce the spontaneous activity of dopaminergic neurons in the ventral tegmental area. *Brain Res Bull* 46:547-554

- Dong J, De Montigny C, Blier P (1999) Assessment of the serotonin reuptake blocking property of YM992: electrophysiological studies in the rat hippocampus and dorsal raphe. *Synapse* 34:277-289
- Esplugues JV (2002) NO as a signaling molecule in the nervous system. *Br J Pharmacol* 135:1079-1095
- Finkel MS, Laghrissi-Thode F, Pollock BG, Rong J (1996) Paroxetine is a novel nitric oxide synthase inhibitor. *Psychopharmacol Bull* 32:653-658
- Flatmark T (2000) Catecholamine biosynthesis and physiological regulation in neuroendocrine cells. *Acta Physiol Scand* 168:1-17
- Harkin AJ, Bruce KH, Craft B, Paul IA (1999) Nitric oxide synthase inhibitors have antidepressant-like properties in mice. I. Acute treatments are active in the forced swim test. *Eur J Pharmacol* 372:207-213
- Hirschfeld RM (2000) History and evolution of the monoamine hypothesis of depression. *J Clin Psychiatry* 61(Suppl 6):4-6
- Holson RR, Scallet AC, Ali SF, Turner BB (1991) "Isolation stress" revisited: isolation-rearing effects depend on animal care methods. *Physiol Behav* 49:1107-1118
- Jaffe EH (1998) Ca^{2+} dependency of serotonin and dopamine release from CNS slices of chronically isolated rats. *Psychopharmacology* 139:255-260
- Jones GH, Hernandez TD, Kendall DA, Marsden CA, Robbins TW (1992) Dopaminergic and serotonergic function following isolation rearing in rats: study of behavioural responses and postmortem and in vivo neurochemistry. *Pharmacol Biochem Behav* 43:17-35
- Karolewicz B, Bruce KH, Lee B, Paul IA (1999) Nitric oxide synthase inhibitors have antidepressant-like properties in mice. 2. Chronic treatment results in downregulation of cortical beta-adrenoceptors. *Eur J Pharmacol* 372:215-220
- Kendler KS, Kessler RC, Neale MC, Heath AC, Eaves LJ (1993) The prediction of major depression in women: toward an integrated etiologic model. *Am J Psychiatry* 150:1139-1148
- Kishimoto J, Tsuchiya T, Emson PC, Nakayama Y (1996) Immobilization-induced stress activates neuronal nitric oxide synthase (nNOS) mRNA and protein in hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis in rats. *Brain Res* 720:159-171
- Kiss JP, Vizi ES (2001) Nitric oxide: a novel link between synaptic and nonsynaptic transmission. *Trends Neurosci* 24:211-215
- Krebs-Thomson K, Giracello D, Solis A, Geyer MA (2001) Post-weaning handling attenuates isolation-rearing induced disruptions of prepulse inhibition in rats. *Behav Brain Res* 120:221-224
- Kupfermann I, Schwartz J (1995) Motivation. In: Kandel ER, Schwartz JH, Jessell TM (eds) *Essentials of neural science and behavior*, McGraw-Hill, New York, pp 613-628
- Lapierre YD, Rastogi RB, Singhal RL (1983) Fluvoxamine influences serotonergic system in the brain: neurochemical evidence. *Neuropsychobiology* 10:213-216
- Leonard BE (2000) Evidence for a biochemical lesion in depression. *J Clin Psychiatry* 61(Suppl 6):12-17
- Malison RT, Price LH, Berman R, van Dyck CH, Pelton GH, Carpenter L, Sanacora G, Owens MJ, Nemeroff CB, Rajeevan N, Baldwin RM, Seibyl JP, Innis RB, Charney DS (1998) Reduced brain serotonin transporter availability in major depression as measured by [^{123}I]-2 β -carbomethoxy-3 β -(4-iodophenyl)tropane and single photon emission computed tomography. *Biol Psychiatry* 44:1090-1098
- Miachon S, Rochet T, Mathian B, Barbagli B, Claustrat B (1993) Long-term isolation of wistar rats alters brain monoamine turnover, blood corticosterone, and ACTH. *Brain Res Bull* 32:611-614
- Miura H, Qiao H, Ohta T (2002a) Attenuating effects of the isolated rearing condition on increased brain serotonin and dopamine turnover elicited by novelty stress. *Brain Res* 926:10-17
- Miura H, Qiao H, Ohta T (2002b) Influence of aging and social isolation on changes in brain monoamine turnover and biosynthesis of rats elicited by novelty stress. *Synapse* 46:116-124
- Miura H, Qiao H, Kitagami T, Ohta T (2004) Fluvoxamine, a selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor, suppresses tetrahydrobiopterin in the mouse hippocampus. *Neuropharmacology* 46:340-348
- Nagatsu T, Ichinose H (1999) Regulation of pteridine-requiring enzymes by the cofactor tetrahydrobiopterin. *Mol Neurobiol* 19:79-96
- Nestler EJ, McMahon A, Sabban EL, Tallman JF, Duman RS (1990) Chronic antidepressant administration decreases the expression of tyrosine hydroxylase in the rat locus coeruleus. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 87:7522-7526
- Ohkuma S, Katsura M (2001) Nitric oxide and peroxynitrite as factors to stimulate neurotransmitter release in the CNS. *Prog Neurobiol* 64:97-108
- Owens MJ, Nemeroff CB (1994) Role of serotonin in the pathophysiology of depression: focus on the serotonin transporter. *Clin Chem* 40:288-295
- Paykel ES (1994) Life events, social support and depression. *Acta Psychiatr Scand Suppl* 377:50-58
- Prast H, Philippu A (2001) Nitric oxide as modulator of neuronal function. *Prog Neurobiol* 64:51-68
- Richelson E (1997) Pharmacokinetic drug interactions of new antidepressants: a review of the effects on the metabolism of other drugs. *Mayo Clin Proc* 72:835-847
- Serova L, Sabban EL, Zangen A, Overstreet DH, Yadid G (1998) Altered gene expression for catecholamine biosynthetic enzymes and stress response in rat genetic model of depression. *Brain Res Mol Brain Res* 63:133-138
- Smith KA, Fairburn CG, Cowen PJ (1997) Relapse of depression after rapid depletion of tryptophan. *Lancet* 349:915-919
- Sumi-Ichinose C, Urano F, Kuroda R, Ohye T, Kojima M, Tazawa M, Shiraiishi H, Hagino Y, Nagatsu T, Nomura T, Ichinose H (2001) Catecholamines and serotonin are differently regulated by tetrahydrobiopterin. A study from 6-pyruvoyltetrahydropterin synthase knockout mice. *J Biol Chem* 276:41150-41160
- Tani Y, Ohno T (1993) Analysis of 6R- and 6S-tetrahydrobiopterin and other pterins by reversed-phase ion-pair liquid chromatography with fluorimetric detection by post-column sodium nitrite oxidation. *J Chromatogr* 617:249-255
- Yanai J, Sze PY (1983) Isolation reduces midbrain tryptophan hydroxylase activity in mice. *Psychopharmacology* 80:284-285

**Association study of the frizzled-3 (FZD3) gene
with schizophrenia and mood disorders**

Short Communication

**R. Hashimoto^{1,*}, T. Suzuki², N. Iwata², Y. Yamanouchi²,
T. Kitajima², A. Kosuga³, M. Tatsumi^{4,5}, N. Ozaki⁶,
K. Kamijima⁴, and H. Kunugi¹**

- ¹ Department of Mental Disorder Research, National Institute of Neuroscience,
National Center of Neurology and Psychiatry, Tokyo,
² Department of Psychiatry, Fujita Health University School of Medicine, Aichi,
³ Showa University Karasuyama Hospital, Tokyo,
⁴ Department of Psychiatry, Showa University School of Medicine, Tokyo,
⁵ Yokohama Shinryo Clinic, Kanagawa, and
⁶ Department of Psychiatry, Nagoya University Graduate School of Medicine,
Aichi, Japan

Received September 6, 2004; accepted November 13, 2004

Summary. Two research groups have recently reported a significant association between schizophrenia and genetic variants of Frizzled-3 (FZD3) gene. We examined a possible association in a Japanese sample of schizophrenia, bipolar disorder, unipolar depression and controls with four single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), tested in previous reports. We failed to find significant association in the four SNPs or haplotype analysis. The FZD3 gene might not play a role in conferring susceptibility to major psychosis in our sample.

Keywords: FZD3, schizophrenia, mood disorder, association study, single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP).

Introduction

Schizophrenia is a complex genetic disorder characterized by disturbances of cognition, emotion and social functioning. This disease is believed to involve genetic abnormalities in developmental/plasticity related processes during a critical period in neuronal growth (Weinberger et al., 2001). Wnt signal transduction cascades have been implicated in a variety of neurodevelopmental processes, e.g. segmentation, central nervous system patterning, and cell divisions (Wodarz and Nusse, 1998). Wnt proteins signal via cell surface transmembrane receptors, termed frizzleds, which display many properties

characteristic of members of the superfamily of G-protein-coupled receptors (Wang and Malbon, 2004). The frizzled-3 (FZD3) gene, a member of frizzles, is located on chromosome 8p21, repeatedly suggested as a positive linkage locus for schizophrenia (Lewis et al., 2003; McGuffin et al., 2003). The FZD3 gene consists of 8 exons and 7 introns, spanning approximately 70 Kb (Kirikoshi et al., 2000). In accordance with this, two research groups have recently reported a significant association between schizophrenia and the FZD3 gene in Japanese and Chinese samples (Katsu et al., 2003; Yang et al., 2003). We tried to replicate these findings in an independent Asian sample. Furthermore, we also examined the possible association between the FZD3 gene with mood disorders, since schizophrenia and mood disorders might share the genetic vulnerability (Berrettini, 2003).

Methods and materials

Subjects

Subjects were 427 patients with schizophrenia (221 males and 206 females with mean age of 44.2 years [SD 14.5]), 91 with bipolar disorder (40 and 51; 53.6 years [SD 14.8]), and 396 with major depression (155 and 241; 53.4 years [SD 16.1]) and 473 healthy controls (228 and 245; 36.1 years [SD 12.5]). All the subjects were biologically unrelated Japanese. Consensus diagnosis was made for each patient by at least two trained psychiatrists according to the DSM-IV criteria. Controls were healthy volunteers who had no current or past contact to psychiatric services. After description of the study, written informed consent was obtained from every subject. The study protocol was approved by institutional ethical committees.

SNP genotyping

Venous blood was drawn from the subjects and genomic DNA was extracted from whole blood according to the standard procedures. We genotyped four SNPs (single nucleotide polymorphisms; dbSNP accession: rs960914 in intron3, rs2241802 in exon5: A435G, L145L, rs2323019 in intron5 and rs352203 in intron5) in the FZD3 gene, which were examined in the previous two studies (Katsu et al., 2003; Yang et al., 2003). Genotyping was performed with the TaqMan 5'-exonuclease allelic discrimination assay, described previously (Hashimoto et al., 2004a, b). Briefly, primers and probes for detection of the SNPs are: rs960914: forward primer 5'-CTTTTATAAAGAAATTTGAAACAT CAGAACATGGGA-3', reverse primer 5'-ACTTTTTCCTGCTTGGGAGTTATTCT-3', probe 1 5'-VIC-CTGAATGGCTGCTATC-MGB-3', and probe 2 5'-FAM-TCTGAATGGCTACTATC-MGB-3'; rs2241802: forward primer 5'-ATGAGCCATATCCTCGACTTGTG-3', reverse primer 5'-GGACACCAAAAACCATAGTCTCTCT-3', probe 1 5'-VIC-TCCAGCTAAATTCAG-MGB-3', and probe 2 5'-FAM-CAGCCAAATTCAG-MGB-3'; rs2323019: forward primer 5'-GAAT TACTTTGTTTTCTAGATTCTTGAATTGAAAGC-3', reverse primer 5'-CCAACCTGGTTAA TAATGGTCTTTTGG-3', probe 1 5'-VIC-TCATTTATTGTCAATGTTTTTAA-MGB-3', and probe 2 5'-TCATTTATTGTCAATATTTTAA-MGB-3'; rs352203: forward primer 5'-CCTGAAAAAA TATTCTATATCTCTTGTGTTTTGCCA-3', reverse primer 5'-CAACCAGGACATAACAGTATTA CAGTTTCTAT-3', probe 1 5'-VIC-TCCTTCATGTCGTATTC-MGB-3', and probe 2 5'-FAM-TTTCCTTCATATCGTATTC-MGB-3'. PCR cycling conditions were: at 95°C for 10 minutes, 45 cycles of 92°C for 15 seconds and 60°C for 1 minute.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis of association studies was performed using SNPAllyse software (DYNACOM, Yokohama, Japan). The presence of Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium was examined using the χ^2 test for goodness of fit. Allele distributions between patients and controls were analyzed by the

Table 1. Allele distribution for SNPs in the FZD3 gene between major psychoses and controls

dbSNP ID	SNP	Controls	Schizophrenia		Bipolar		Unipolar	
		n = 473	n = 427	<i>P</i> value	n = 91	<i>P</i> value	n = 397	<i>P</i> value
rs960914	T/C	.398	.396	.91	.352	.23	.386	.61
rs2241802	G/A	.453	.458	.85	.451	.94	.455	.96
rs2323019	A/G	.407	.420	.57	.357	.21	.409	.91
rs352203	T/C	.397	.396	.97	.352	.24	.386	.64

χ^2 test for independence. The measures of linkage disequilibrium (LD), denoted as D' , was calculated from the haplotype frequency using Expectation-Maximization algorithm. Case-control haplotype analysis was performed by the permutation method to obtain empirical significance (Good, 2000). The global p -values represent the overall significance using the χ^2 test when the observed versus expected frequencies of all the haplotypes are considered together. The individual haplotype was tested for association by grouping all others together and applying the χ^2 test with 1 df. P -values were calculated based on 10,000 replications. All p -values reported are two tailed. Statistical significance was defined at $p < 0.05$.

Results

The obtained allele frequencies for the patients and controls are shown in Table 1. The genotype distributions for all the diagnostic groups were in Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (data not shown). There was no significant difference in genotype distributions or allele frequencies of the four SNPs in the FZD3 gene between the controls and any patient group, although previous studies reported positive associations between schizophrenia and several SNPs (Katsu et al., 2003; Yang et al., 2003). We computed the LD between the SNPs using D' , which ranged between 0.8 and 1.0, indicating strong to intermediate LD between the markers. Adjacent combinations of up to four markers were tested, however, any haplotype combination was not significantly associated with any diagnostic group (all global p -values > 0.2).

Discussion

This study examined the possible association of the FZD gene with schizophrenia and mood disorders in our Japanese sample. We obtained no evidence for a significant association of the genetic variations of the FZD gene with any diagnostic group, suggesting that the examined polymorphisms play no major role in the pathogenesis of major psychoses in our sample. Our results are thus inconsistent with the results of the previous case-control study which reported a significantly higher frequency of the T allele of rs960914 in patients with schizophrenia than in controls (Katsu et al., 2003). The frequencies of the T allele were 0.62 and 0.51 in schizophrenics ($n = 209$) and controls ($n = 200$) in their Japanese sample, while the frequencies of the T allele were 0.60 and 0.60 in patients with schizophrenia ($n = 427$) and controls ($n = 473$) in ours. A highly significant association of the other three SNPs (rs2241802, rs2323019 and rs352203) and their three marker haplotypes with schizophrenia patients was reported in a family-based association study in a Chinese population

(Yang et al., 2003), while no evidence of such an association was obtained in our results (Chinese: global p -value < 0.000001 , GAT haplotype p value < 0.000001 ; vs our results: global p -value $= 0.31$, GAT haplotype p -value $= 0.97$). Recently, the positive association between schizophrenia and the FZD3 gene has been reported in case-control study in a Chinese population (Zhang et al., 2004). This study presented that a new marker, rs880481, created the most positive results. Further analysis using this new marker should be examined in other ethnic populations.

A possible explanation for the discrepancy between the previous results and ours is a type II error in our sample. The odds ratio of the T allele of rs960914 was 1.54 in Japanese study (Katsu et al., 2003). However, power analysis revealed that our sample size could detect a significant association between the examined risk alleles (frequency of 0.4–0.6) and schizophrenia with a power of 90% when odds ratio was assumed to be 1.4 or more and the critical p -value was set at 0.05. There is only a small chance that a clinically meaningful difference would have been missed with the data. Secondly, it is possible that LD with other unknown polymorphisms, that is truly responsible for giving susceptibility to schizophrenia, may explain the discrepancy. Alternatively, the significant association observed by the previous two groups may have arisen by chance. The case-control association study is subject to the effect of population stratification, although the patients and controls were ethnically matched.

More recently, an extensive family-transmission and case-control analysis in a Japanese population with additional post-mortem mRNA expression data and family trio analysis in a British population yielded negative results for association between the FZD3 gene and schizophrenia (Ide et al., 2004; Wei and Hemmings, 2004), which is consistent with our results.

In conclusion, we obtained no evidence for an association between the FZD3 gene and schizophrenia or mood disorders, suggesting that this gene has no major role in conferring susceptibility to major psychoses in our sample.

Acknowledgements

We wish to thank T. Shizuno and R. Fujita for technical assistance. This work was supported in part by the Uehara Memorial Foundation.

References

- Berrettini W (2003) Evidence for shared susceptibility in bipolar disorder and schizophrenia. *Am J Med Genet* 123C: 59–64
- Good P (2000) Permutation tests. A practical guide to resampling methods for testing hypothesis, 2nd edn. Springer, New York
- Hashimoto R, Straub RE, Weickert CS, Hyde TM, Kleinman JE, Weinberger DR (2004) Expression analysis of neuregulin-1 in the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex in schizophrenia. *Mol Psychiatry* 9: 299–307
- Hashimoto R, Yoshida M, Ozaki N, Yamanouchi Y, Iwata N, Suzuki T, Kitajima T, Tatsumi M, Kamijima K, Kunugi H (2004) Association analysis of the $-308G > A$ promoter polymorphism of the tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF-alpha) gene in Japanese patients with schizophrenia. *J Neural Transm* 111: 217–221

- Ide M, Muratake T, Yamada K, Iwayama-Shigeno Y, Iwamoto K, Takao H, Toyota T, Kaneko N, Minabe Y, Nakamura K, Kato T, Mori N, Asada T, Someya T, Yoshikawa T (2004) Genetic and expression analyses of FZD3 in schizophrenia. *Biol Psychiatry* 56: 462–465
- Katsu T, Ujike H, Nakano T, Tanaka Y, Nomura A, Nakata K, Takaki M, Sakai A, Uchida N, Imamura T, Kuroda S (2003) The human frizzled-3 (FZD3) gene on chromosome 8p21, a receptor gene for Wnt ligands, is associated with the susceptibility to schizophrenia. *Neurosci Lett* 353: 53–56
- Kirikoshi H, Koike J, Sagara N, Saitoh T, Tokuhara M, Tanaka K, Sekihara H, Hirai M, Katoh M (2000) Molecular cloning and genomic structure of human frizzled-3 at chromosome 8p21. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 271: 8–14
- Lewis CM, Levinson DF, Wise LH, DeLisi LE, Straub RE, Hovatta I, Williams NM, Schwab SG, Pulver AE, Faraone SV, Brzustowicz LM, Kaufmann CA, Garver DL, Gurling HM, Lindholm E, Coon H, Moises HW, Byerley W, Shaw SH, Mesen A, Sherrington R, O'Neill FA, Walsh D, Kendler KS, Ekelund J, Paunio T, Lonnqvist J, Peltonen L, O'Donovan MC, Owen MJ, Wildenauer DB, Maier W, Nestadt G, Blouin JL, Antonarakis SE, Mowry BJ, Silverman JM, Crowe RR, Cloninger CR, Tsuang MT, Malaspina D, Harkavy-Friedman JM, Svrakic DM, Bassett AS, Holcomb J, Kalsi G, McQuillin A, Brynjolfson J, Sigmundsson T, Petursson H, Jazin E, Zoega T, Helgason T (2003) Genome scan meta-analysis of schizophrenia and bipolar disorder, part II. Schizophrenia. *Am J Hum Genet* 73: 34–48 (Epub 2003 Jun 2011)
- McGuffin P, Tandon K, Corsico A (2003) Linkage and association studies of schizophrenia. *Curr Psychiatry Rep* 5: 121–127
- Wang HY, Malbon CC (2004) Wnt-frizzled signaling to G-protein-coupled effectors. *Cell Mol Life Sci* 61: 69–75
- Wei J, Hemmings GP (2004) Lack of a genetic association between the frizzled-3 gene and schizophrenia in a British population. *Neurosci Lett* 366: 336–338
- Weinberger DR, Egan MF, Bertolino A, Callicott JH, Mattay VS, Lipska BK, Berman KF, Goldberg TE (2001) Prefrontal neurons and the genetics of schizophrenia. *Biol Psychiatry* 50: 825–844
- Wodarz A, Nusse R (1998) Mechanisms of Wnt signaling in development. *Annu Rev Cell Dev Biol* 14: 59–88
- Yang J, Si T, Ling Y, Ruan Y, Han Y, Wang X, Zhang H, Kong Q, Li X, Liu C, Zhang D, Zhou M, Yu Y, Liu S, Shu L, Ma D, Wei J (2003) Association study of the human FZD3 locus with schizophrenia. *Biol Psychiatry* 54: 1298–1301
- Zhang Y, Yu X, Yuan Y, Ling Y, Ruan Y, Si T, Lu T, Wu S, Gong X, Zhu Z, Yang J, Wang F, Zhang D (2004) Positive association of the human frizzled 3 (FZD3) gene haplotype with schizophrenia in Chinese Han population. *Am J Med Genet* 129B: 16–19

Authors' address: R. Hashimoto, M.D., Ph.D., Department of Mental Disorder Research, National Institute of Neuroscience, National Center of Neurology and Psychiatry, 4-1-1, Ogawahigashicho, Kodaira, Tokyo, 187-8502, Japan, e-mail: rhashimo@ncnp.go.jp



Letter to the Editors

A missense polymorphism (H204R) of a Rho GTPase-activating protein, the chimerin 2 gene, is associated with schizophrenia in men

Dear Editors:

Schizophrenia is a complex genetic disorder characterized by profound disturbances of cognition, emotion and social functioning. This disease is believed to involve genetic abnormalities in developmental/plasticity related processes (DeLisi, 2000). The pathophysiology of schizophrenia is still unclear; however, the high incidence developing schizophrenia was observed in mental retardation, suggesting common pathophysiological basis of these two diseases including genetic basis. As several X-linked mental retardation genes are involved in Rho signaling pathways (Ramakers, 2002), Rho GTPase related genes could be strong candidate genes for schizophrenia. The Rho family of GTP binding proteins act as a key regulator for developing neuronal network, e.g. neurite and growth cone formation (Negishi and Katoh, 2002). Chimerin 2 gene, CHN2, is one of the GTPase-activating proteins expressed in a variety of human tissues with the highest expression levels in brain (Yuan et al., 1995). Therefore, genetic variability of the chimerin 2 gene is of considerable interest in the evaluation of risk of schizophrenia. To our knowledge, however, there is no study examining the possible association between the CHN2 gene and schizophrenia.

The CHN2 maps to chromosome 7p15.3 and consisted of 13 exons and 12 introns, spanning 318 Kb (Yuan et al., 1995). We searched for polymorphisms in the CHN2 gene in silico and detected a common single nucleotide substitution (A611G; NCBI SNP ID: rs3750103) (Haga et al., 2002) in

exon7 giving rise to an amino acid change of histidine to arginine at codon 204 (H204R) (amino acid numbering is according to NCBI protein data base accession NP_004058). In our search there was no other missense polymorphism reported in the CHN2 gene. Since this polymorphism may alter functions of the CHN2, we performed an association analysis between this polymorphism and schizophrenia in a Japanese sample of 293 patients (162 males and 131 females with mean age of 43.7 years [S.D. 14.2]) with schizophrenia and 450 healthy controls (222 males and 228 females with mean age of 36.5 years [S.D. 12.6]). Consensus diagnosis was made for each patient by at least two psychiatrists according to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 4th edition (DSM-IV) criteria. After description of the study, written informed consent was obtained from every subject. The study protocol was approved by institutional ethical committees.

The H204R polymorphism genotypes were determined using the TaqMan 5'-exonuclease allelic discrimination assay, described previously (Hashimoto et al., 2004). Briefly, probes and primers for detection of the SNP are: forward primer, 5'-CAGATCTCCTCCTGGTTCGA-3', reverse primer, 5'-TGCTTACCTTAAAGTTGTGTGTCTTCT-3', probe 1, 5'-VIC-CCCTCACACACAACGA-MGB-3', and probe 2, 5'-FAM-CCTCACACGCAACGA-MGB-3'.

Genotype distributions and allele frequencies of the H204R missense polymorphism of the chimerin 2 gene among the patients and controls are shown in Table 1. The genotype distributions for the two groups and those of male and female patients as well as controls were in Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (data not shown). There was a trend towards an increased frequency of the R204 allele in the patients than in the controls ($\chi^2=3.74$, $df=1$, $p=0.053$, odds ratio = 1.29, 95%CI 1.00–1.66). The individuals homozygous for the R204 allele were significantly

Table 1

Genotype and allele distributions for the H204R polymorphism of the chimerin 2 gene between the patients with schizophrenia and controls

Group	N	Genotype distribution			P value	Mantel Haenszel P value	Allele frequency			odds ratio (95%CI)
		His/His	His/Arg	Arg/Arg			His	Arg	P value	
Male										
Patients	162	95 (58.6%)	57 (35.2%)	10 (6.2%)	0.047	0.018	247 (76.2%)	77 (23.8%)	0.018	1.53 (1.07–2.19)
Controls	222	152 (68.4%)	65 (29.3%)	5 (2.3%)			369 (83.1%)	75 (16.9%)		
Female										
Patients	131	80 (61.2%)	44 (33.6%)	7 (5.3%)	0.703	0.678	204 (77.9%)	58 (22.1%)	0.681	1.08 (0.75–1.56)
Controls	228	141 (61.9%)	79 (34.6%)	8 (3.5%)			361 (23.8%)	95 (20.8%)		
Total										
Patients	293	175 (59.7%)	101 (34.5%)	17 (5.8%)	0.087	0.052	451 (77.0%)	135 (23.0%)	0.053	1.29 (1.00–1.66)
Controls	450	293 (65.1%)	144 (32.0%)	13 (2.9%)			730 (81.1%)	170 (18.9%)		

more common in the cases than in the controls ($\chi^2 = 3.94$, $df = 1$, $p = 0.049$, odds ratio = 2.07, 95%CI 0.99–4.33). The observed frequency for the minor allele (R204) in our control group (19%) was quite similar to that reported by Haga et al. (2002) (18%) estimated from 48 Japanese chromosomes. Thus, the observed significant difference in the allele frequency between the cases and controls cannot be ascribed to an unusually lower frequency of the R204 allele in our control subjects.

As gender differences occur in various aspects of the disease, including earlier age of onset, poorer course and medication response in men, we examined males and females separately. The R204 allele was excess in our cases when compared to controls among males ($\chi^2 = 5.57$, $df = 1$, $p = 0.018$, odds ratio = 1.53, 95%CI 1.07–2.19). Genotype distributions also revealed significant difference between male controls and male patients with schizophrenia ($\chi^2 = 6.12$, $df = 2$, $p = 0.047$; $\chi^2 = 5.56$, $df = 1$, $p = 0.018$ by Mantel Haenszel test). However, there was significant difference in neither allele frequency nor genotype distribution between the schizophrenics and controls in females.

CHN2 protein acts as a receptor of diacylglycerol/phorbol esters and regulates the activity of the Rac GTPase, one of the Rho GTPase family proteins (Caloca et al., 2003). The CHN2 inhibits Rac-GTP activation by the stimulation of epidermal growth factor (EGF). EGF protein levels were decreased in the prefrontal cortex of schizophrenic patients, and conversely, EGF receptor expression was elevated in the prefrontal cortex (Futamura et al., 2002). Serum EGF levels were markedly reduced in schizophrenic

patients, even in young, drug-free patients (Futamura et al., 2002). Neonatal perturbation of EGF in rats resulted in abnormal sensorimotor gating and social interaction in adults (Futamura et al., 2003). In addition, neuregulin-1, one of the EGF family proteins, was reported as a schizophrenia susceptibility gene (Harrison and Owen, 2003) and the abnormal expression of neuregulin-1 has been observed in schizophrenic brain (Hashimoto et al., 2003). Therefore, the CHN2 H204R polymorphism might lead to the abnormality of neuregulin signaling pathways. As the location of H204R is close to diacylglycerol/phorbol ester binding domain (214–264 amino acid), this polymorphism could alter the protein structure of the region, which may change the second messenger signaling. H204R polymorphism, next to a casein kinase II phosphorylation site, might also play a potential role in the CHN2 phosphorylation state, although the physiological phosphorylation status is unclear.

We demonstrated, for the first time, the possible association between a missense polymorphism (H204R) of the CHN2 gene and schizophrenia in a Japanese population. A false-positive association due to population stratification could not be excluded in our case control designed study, despite the precaution of ethnic matching of this study. Therefore, it is necessary to carry out further investigations to confirm our findings in other samples. If our results are replicated, functional analysis of the CHN2 H204R polymorphism might contribute to understanding the molecular mechanisms of schizophrenia.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported in part by the Health and Labor Science Research Grants for Psychiatric and Neurological Diseases and Mental Health from the Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare (HK).

References

- Caloca, M.J., Wang, H., Kazanietz, M.G., 2003. Characterization of the Rac-GAP (Rac-GTPase-activating protein) activity of beta2-chimaerin, a 'non-protein kinase C' phorbol ester receptor. *Biochem. J.* 375, 313–321.
- DeLisi, L.E., 2000. Critical overview of current approaches to genetic mechanisms in schizophrenia research. *Brain Res. Brain Res. Rev.* 31, 187–192.
- Futamura, T., Toyooka, K., Iritani, S., Niizato, K., Nakamura, R., Tsuchiya, K., Someya, T., Kakita, A., Takahashi, H., Nawa, H., 2002. Abnormal expression of epidermal growth factor and its receptor in the forebrain and serum of schizophrenic patients. *Mol. Psychiatry* 7, 673–682.
- Futamura, T., Kakita, A., Tohmi, M., Sotoyama, H., Takahashi, H., Nawa, H., 2003. Neonatal perturbation of neurotrophic signaling results in abnormal sensorimotor gating and social interaction in adults: implication for epidermal growth factor in cognitive development. *Mol. Psychiatry* 8, 19–29.
- Haga, H., Yamada, R., Ohnishi, Y., Nakamura, Y., Tanaka, T., 2002. Gene-based SNP discovery as part of the Japanese Millennium Genome Project: identification of 190,562 genetic variations in the human genome. Single-nucleotide polymorphism. *J. Hum. Genet.* 47, 605–610.
- Harrison, P.J., Owen, M.J., 2003. Genes for schizophrenia? Recent findings and their pathophysiological implications. *Lancet* 361, 417–419.
- Hashimoto, R., Straub, R.E., Weickert, C.S., Hyde, T.M., Kleinman, J.E., Weinberger, D.R. 2003. Expression Analysis of Neuregulin-1 in the Dorsolateral Prefrontal Cortex in Schizophrenia. *Mol Psychiatry* advance online publication.
- Hashimoto, R., Yoshida, M., Ozaki, N., Yamanouchi, Y., Iwata, N., Suzuki, T., Kitajima, T., Tatsumi, M., Kamijima, K., Kunugi, H., 2004. Association analysis of the -308G>A promoter polymorphism of the tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF- α) gene in Japanese patients with schizophrenia. *J. Neural Transm.* 111, 217–221.
- Negishi, M., Katoh, H., 2002. Rho family GTPases as key regulators for neuronal network formation. *J. Biochem. (Tokyo)* 132, 157–166.
- Ramakers, G.J., 2002. Rho proteins, mental retardation and the cellular basis of cognition. *Trends Neurosci.* 25, 191–199.
- Yuan, S., Miller, D.W., Barnett, G.H., Hahn, J.F., Williams, B.R., 1995. Identification and characterization of human beta 2-chimaerin: association with malignant transformation in astrocytoma. *Cancer Res.* 55, 3456–3461.

Ryota Hashimoto*

Mariko Yoshida

Hiroshi Kunugi

*Department of Mental Disorder Research,
National Center of Neurology and Psychiatry,
National Institute of Neuroscience,
4-1-1 Ogawahigashicho,
Kodaira, Tokyo 187-8502, Japan
E-mail address: rhashimo@ncnp.go.jp*

Norio Ozaki

Department of Psychiatry,

*Nagoya University Graduate School of Medicine,
Nagoya, Japan*

Yoshio Yamanouchi

Nakao Iwata

Tatsuyo Suzuki

Tsuyoshi Kitajima

*Department of Psychiatry,
Fujita Health University School of Medicine,
Toyoake, Japan*

Masahiko Tatsumi

Kunitoshi Kamijima

Department of Psychiatry,

*Showa University School of Medicine,
Tokyo, Japan*

11 November 2003

* Corresponding author. Tel.: +81-42-341-2712x5831; fax: +81-42-346-1744.

Expression of NdrG2 in the rat frontal cortex after antidepressant and electroconvulsive treatment

Kou Takahashi¹, Misa Yamada¹, Hisayuki Ohata¹, Kazutaka Momose¹, Teruhiko Higuchi², Kazuo Honda¹ and Mitsuhiro Yamada³

¹ Department of Pharmacology, Showa University School of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Tokyo, Japan

² Musashi Hospital, National Center of Neurology and Psychiatry, Tokyo, Japan

³ Division of Psychogeriatrics, National Institute of Mental Health, National Center of Neurology and Psychiatry, Chiba, Japan

Abstract

Although the therapeutic action of antidepressants most likely involves the regulation of serotonergic and noradrenergic signal transduction, no consensus has been reached concerning their precise molecular or cellular mechanisms of action. In the present study, we demonstrated that chronic treatment with a tricyclic antidepressant (imipramine) and a selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor (sertraline) reduced the expression of NdrG2 mRNA and protein in the rat frontal cortex. NdrG2 is a member of the N-Myc downstream-regulated genes. Interestingly, repeated ECT also significantly decreased NdrG2 expression in this region of the brain. These data suggest that NdrG2 may be a common functional molecule that is decreased after antidepressant treatment and ECT. Although, the functional role of NdrG2 in the central nervous system remains unclear, our findings suggest that NdrG2 may be associated with treatment-induced adaptive neural plasticity in the brain, a chronic target of antidepressant action. In conclusion, we have identified NdrG2 as a candidate target molecule of antidepressants and ECT.

Received 8 June 2004; Reviewed 20 July 2004; Revised 1 November 2004; Accepted 3 November 2004

Key words: Microarray, neural plasticity, pharmacogenomics, selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor.

Introduction

Antidepressants are very effective agents for preventing and treating depression and have been used clinically for more than 50 yr. Typical antidepressants significantly increase the synaptic concentration of norepinephrine and/or serotonin. However, a latency period of several weeks generally elapses before the therapeutic effects of antidepressants are observed. This delayed therapeutic action could result from either the indirect regulation of other neuronal signal transduction systems or the regulation of gene transcription following chronic treatment. Indeed, antidepressants have been shown to affect the expression of immediate early genes and transcription factors, including *c-fos*, *FosB*, *junB*, *NGF1-A*, and *CREB* (see

review by Yamada and Higuchi, 2002). These regulatory proteins activate or repress genes that encode specific proteins, and may be involved in critical steps that mediate treatment-induced alterations of central nervous system function. We recently performed expressed-sequence tag (EST) analyses to identify some biological changes observed in rat brain after chronic treatment with antidepressants (Yamada et al., 2001). We developed our original ADRG microarray for high-throughput secondary screening of these candidate genes (Yamada et al., 2000). To date, we have cloned several cDNA candidates as ESTs from the rat brain and have named these antidepressant-related genes (ADRGs).

While antidepressant pharmaceuticals have been shown to be an effective treatment, another important therapy that is widely used for treating depression is repeated electroconvulsive treatment (ECT). Because of its safety, high efficacy, and rapid onset of action, ECT is well-suited for treating patients with severe psychotic depression, severe depression with suicidal ideation, drug-resistant depression, and for treating

Address for correspondence: M. Yamada, M.D., Ph.D., Division of Psychogeriatrics, National Institute of Mental Health, National Center of Neurology and Psychiatry, 1-7-3 Kohnodai, Ichikawa, Chiba 272-0827, Japan.

Tel.: +81-47-375-4742 (ext. 1270) Fax: +81-47-375-4795

E-mail: mitsu@ncnp-k.go.jp