Table 3 Association of SNPs in *LIM* with bipolar disorder (MDMD sample)

MDMD sample (BP)		HWE	n	Allele		P-value*	Genotype			P-value*	Frequency
				A	G		A/A	A/G	G/G		
SNP1	BP	0.3736	127	116	138		24	68	35		0.4567
rs10008257	CT	0.5661	130	84	176	**0.0021**	15	54	61	**0.0048**	0.3231
				A	G		A/A	A/G	G/G		
SNP2	BP	0.6976	128	36	220		2	32	94		0.1406
rs2433320	CT	0.0958	129	33	225	0.6994	0	33	96	0.5953	0.1279
				T	C		T/T	I/C	C/C		
SNP3	BP	0.3424	126	205	47		85	35	6		0.1865
rs2433327	CT	0.0660	130	207	53	0.6564	79	49	2	0.1214	0.2038
				T	C		T/T	T/C	C/C		
SNP4	BP	0.7688	128	35	221		2	31	95		0.1367
rs2438146	CT	0.0974	130	33	227	0.7952	0	33	97	0.5942	0.1269
				T	C		T/T	I/C	C/C		
SNP5	BP	0.8914	125	58	192		7	44	74		0.2320
rs2438140	CT	0.6031	130	69	191	0.4133	8	53	69	0.6170	0.2654
				A	G		A/A	A/G	G/G		
SNP6	BP	0.9953	128	75	181		11	53	64		0.2930
rs2452563	CT	0.7341	129	71	187	0.6960	9	53	67	0.8758	0.2752
				A	C		A/A	A/C	C/C		
SNP7	BP	0.6115	128	196	60		74	48	6		0.2344
rs2433324	CT	0.4598	130	213	47	0.1579	86	41	3	0.3226	0.1808
				T	G		T/T	I/G	G/G		
SNP8	BP	0.2880	127	139	115		41	57	29		0.4528
rs2452574	CT	0.4650	130	153	107	0.3735	43	67	20	0.2948	0.4115
				A	G		A/A	A/G	G/G		
SNP9	BP	0.9446	128	138	118		37	64	27		0.5391
rs24 52578	CT	0.9562	130	139	121	0.9299	37	65	28	1.0000	0.5346
				A	G		A/A	A/G	G/G		
SNP10	BP	0.4634	127	117	137		29	59	39		0.4606
rs902981	CT	0.7237	130	114	146	0.6576	24	66	40	0.6480	0.4385
				A	G		A/A	A/G	G/G		
SNP11	BP	0.4491	127	135	119		38	59	30		0.4685
rs4634230	CT	0.6387	130	143	117	0.7234	38	67	25	0.6405	0.4500
				A	G		A/A	A/G	G/G		
SNP12	BP	0.8575	128	112	144		24	64	40		0.4375
rs12510147	CT	0.4476	130	112	148	0.9293	22	68	40	0.9033	0.4308
				A	G		A/A	A/G	G/G		
SNP13	BP	0.2922	125	138	112		41	56	28		0.4480
rs6854173	CT	0.8438	129	139	119	0.7896	38	63	28	0.7897	0.4612
				A	G		A/A	A/G	G/G		
SNP14	BP	0.1297	127	103	151		25	53	49		0.4055
rs12641023	CT	0.1252	129	102	156	0.8570	16	70	43	0.0989	0.3953
				T	C		T/T	T/C	C/C		
SNP15	BP	0.1027	128	105	151		26	53	49		0.4102
rs951613	CT	0.1636	129	101	157	0.7189	16	69	44	0.0944	0.3915
				A	G		A/A	A/G	G/G		
SNP16	BP	0.4590	127	108	146		25	58	44		0.4252
rs14082	CT	0.0581	130	105	155	0.6547	16	73	41	0.1574	0.4038

*P-values are calculated by Fisher's exact test.
Bold values indicate statistically significant results.

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Table 4 Association of SNPs in *LIM* with bipolar disorder (MPS samples)

MPS sample (BP)		HWE	n	Allele		P-value*	Genotype			P-value*	Frequency
				A	G		A/A	A/G	G/G		
SNP1	BP	0.8970	238	189	287		38	113	87		0.3971
rs10008257	CT	0.7163	237	183	291	0.7400	34	115	88	0.8995	0.3861
				A	G		A/A	A/G	G/G		
SNP2	BP	0.1322	239	58	420		6	46	187		0.1213
rs2433320	CT	0.5375	239	84	394	**0.0227**	6	72	161	**0.0198**	0.1757
				T	C		T7T	T/C	C/G		
SNP3	BP	0.0931	239	390	88		163	64	12		0.1841
rs2433327	CT	0.4510	238	369	107	0.1274	141	87	10	0.0692	0.2248
				T	C		T/T	T/C	C/C		
SNP4	BP	0.3856	236	58	414		5	48	183		0.1229
rs2438146	CT	0.6472	240	82	398	**0.0438**	6	70	164	0.0676	0.1708
				T	C		T/T	I/C	C/C		
SNP5	BP	0.2800	238	119	357		18	83	137		0.2500
rs2438140	CT	0.5346	240	142	338	0.1273	19	104	117	0.1351	0.2958
				A	G		A/A	A/G	G/G		
SNP6	BP	0.3733	235	131	339		21	89	125		0.2787
rs2452563	CT	0.4785	240	153	327	0.1791	22	109	109	0.2147	0.3188
				A	C		A/A	A/C	C/C		
SNP7	BP	0.4042	240	378	102		151	76	13		0.2125
rs2433324	CT	0.2328	240	358	122	0.1470	130	98	12	0.1139	0.2542
				T	G		T/T	T/G	G/G		
SNP8	BP	0.7851	237	263	211		74	115	48		0.4451
rs2452574	CT	0.1186	239	275	203	0.5563	85	105	49	0.5400	0.4247
				A	G		A/A	A/G	G/G		
SNP9	BP	0.0261	239	252	226		75	102	62		0.5272
rs2452578	CT	0.3695	240	245	235	0.6057	66	113	61	0.5706	0.5104
				A	G		A/A	A/G	G/G		
SNP10	BP	0.6862	239	213	265		49	115	75		0.4456
rs902981	CT	0.0939	240	207	273	0.6961	51	105	84	0.5990	0.4313
				A	G		A/A	A/G	G/G		
SNP11	BP	0.6294	240	265	215		75	115	50		0.4479
rs4634230	CT	0.0826	240	269	211	0.8455	82	105	53	0.6524	0.4396
				A	G		A/A	A/G	G/G		
SNP12	BP	**0.0147**	239	220	258		60	100	79		0.4603
rs12510147	CT	0.8353	240	223	257	0.8971	51	121	68	0.1728	0.4646
				A	G		A/A	A/G	G/G		
SNP13	BP	0.8049	236	259	213		72	115	49		0.4513
rs6854173	CT	0.1356	238	266	210	0.7939	80	106	52	0.6525	0.4412
				A	G		A/A	A/G	G/G		
SNP14	BP	0.3156	237	207	267		49	109	79		0.4367
rs12641023	CT	0.6105	240	203	277	0.6949	41	121	78	0.5245	0.4229
				T	C		T/T	T/C	C/C		
SNP15	BP	0.0880	238	199	277		48	103	87		0.4181
rs951613	CT	0.6557	239	202	276	0.8958	41	120	78	0.3171	0.4226
				A	G		A/A	A/G	G/G		
SNP16	BP	**0.0388**	239	210	268		54	102	83		0.4393
rs14082	CT	0.7510	240	206	274	0.7943	43	120	77	0.2378	0.4292

*P-values are calculated by Fisher's exact test.
Bold values indicate statistically significant results.

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samples.[33] When only the samples with pH of 6.4 or more were used for the analysis, patients with bipolar disorder and schizophrenia still showed higher levels of *LIM/GAPDH* (bipolar disorder, $P<0.006$, schizophrenia, $P=0.050$) and *LIM/CFN1* (bipolar disorder, $P<0003$, schizophrenia, $P=0.081$).

To examine the effects of medication on the expression levels of *LIM*, we performed exploratory *t*-test between subjects with or without a particular class of drugs, antipsychotics, antidepressants, lithium, and valproate. However, none of them were significantly associated with mRNA expression of *LIM* (Table 1). There was no significant difference of *LIM* expression levels between suicide cases and nonsuicide cases (Table 1).

Genetic association study

We genotyped 16 SNP markers surrounding *LIM* gene (Figure 2). The markers covering the genomic region and having higher heterozygocity were selected to enhance the information content. Minor allele frequency was between 0.23 and 0.50. Linkage disequilibrium was assessed by the D' and r^2 in the control subjects. Although, the entire gene is within weak linkage disequilibrium, there seems to be several haplotype blocks in this region (Table 2).

All SNP markers were within the Hardy–Weinberg Equilibrium (HWE) in the MDMD samples. Allele and genotype frequencies of the SNP1 (rs10008257) were significantly different between bipolar patients and controls (allele, $P=0.0021$; genotype, $P=0.0048$, by Fisher's exact probability test) (Table 3). The difference of allele and genotype frequencies was statistically significant or close to significant even after the Bonferroni correction ($P=0.03$ and 0.07 after Bonferroni correction of 16 SNP markers).

To examine whether or not this is a false-positive finding, we further genotyped an independent sample set (MPS samples). Most of SNP markers were within HWE, except for three SNP markers (SNPs 9, 12, and 16) showing some deviation from HWE only in bipolar disorder subjects. Allele and genotype frequencies of SNP2 (rs2433320), close to SNP1, were significantly different between bipolar disorder patients and control subjects (allele, $P=0.02$; genotype, $P=0.01$). The other marker, SNP4 (rs2438146), was also associated with bipolar disorder (allele $P=0.04$, genotype, $P=0.06$) (Table 4).

Since the analyses in two independent sample sets showed the association in the upstream region of *LIM*, we further performed haplotype analysis (Table 5). Haplotype of two SNPs (SNPs 1 and 2) showed significant association with bipolar disorder ($P=0.03$, global *P*-value by permutation test). Haplotype of three SNPs (SNPs 1, 2, and 3) also showed a tendency of association with bipolar disorder ($P=0.06$).

Quantitative genomic PCR

Recent studies suggested that copy number polymorphisms could be observed in many genes.[34] In the

Table 5 Association of *LIM* haplotype with bipolar disorder (total)

| SNP	rs	2SNPs			3SNPs			
SNP1	rs10008257	0.0359						
SNP2	rs2433320		0.2157		0.0645		0.2523	
SNP3	rs2433327			0.2760				0.3643
SNP4	rs2438146	0.1955						
SNP5	rs2438140		0.2239		0.3222			0.3101
SNP6	rs2452563			0.5116			0.1803	
SNP7	rs2433324	0.0916						
SNP8	rs2452574		0.3219				0.1488	
SNP9	rs2452578			0.5255	0.6055			0.5976
SNP10	rs902981	0.4650					0.5641	
SNP11	rs4634230		0.6942					0.8982
SNP12	rs12510147			0.8782	0.9897			0.9802
SNP13	rs6854173	0.9799						
SNP14	rs12641023		0.7014				0.2313	
SNP15	rs951613			0.2083				
SNP16	rs14082							
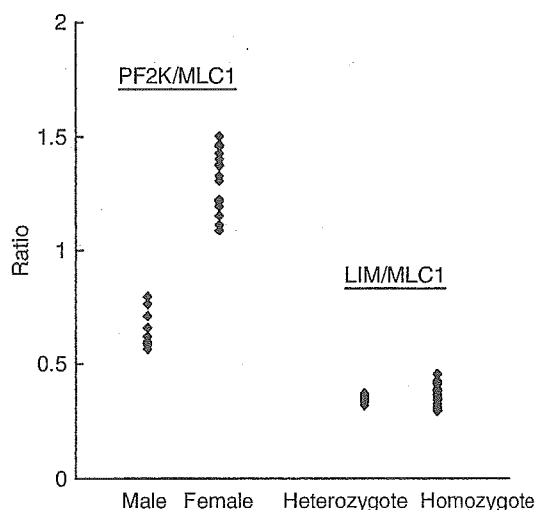
Figure 3 Quantitative genomic PCR of *LIM*. *PF2K* on X chromosome were also measured to verify the experimental procedures. *PF2K/MLC1* clearly differentiate males and females. There is no difference of *LIM/MLC1* between homozygotes and heterozygotes, suggesting that there is no copy number polymorphism or deletion of this gene.

analysis of bipolar disorder, genotype frequency was deviated from HWE only in bipolar disorder in MPS samples. This was mainly derived from a higher number of homozygotes than expected. This could implicate that copy number polymorphism or deletion of this gene might be associated with bipolar disorder. To further explore this possibility, we performed quantitative genomic PCR analysis to measure the copy number of this genomic region. In all, 22 patients homozygous for the SNP15 (rs951613) (C/C, $n=5$; T/T, $n=17$) and six patients heterozygous for this SNP (C/T, $n=6$) were examined.

While copy number difference of *PF2K* on X chromosome between females and males was clearly

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Table 6 No association of LIM with schizophrenia in case control samples

Schizophrenia		HWE	n	Allele		P-value*	Genotype			P-value*	Frequency
				A	G		A/A	A/G	G/G		
SNP1	SC	0.5859	555	408	702		72	264	219		0.3676
rs10008257	CT	0.7233	562	424	700	0.6617	78	268	216	0.8847	0.3772
				A	G		A/A	A/G	G/G		
SNP2	SC	0.3868	562	179	945		17	145	400		0.1593
rs2433320	CT	0.1825	563	186	940	0.7316	11	164	388	0.2655	0.1652
				T	C		T/T	T/C	C/C		
SNP3	SC	0.8822	557	866	248		336	194	27		0.2226
rs2433327	CT	0.8525	565	875	255	0.8794	338	199	28	0.9890	0.2257
				T	C		T/T	T/C	C/C		
SNP4		0.3915	561	179	943		17	145	399		0.1595
rs2438146		0.1491	566	182	950	0.9542	10	162	394	0.2599	0.1608
				T	C		T/T	T/C	C/C		
SNP5	SC	0.7230	562	317	807		43	231	288		0.2820
rs2438140	CT	0.7967	568	338	798	0.4307	49	240	279	0.7210	0.2975
				A	G		A/A	A/G	G/G		
SNP6	SC	0.7311	558	348	768		56	236	266		0.3118
rs2452563	CT	0.4661	564	361	767	0.6830	54	253	257	0.6943	0.3200
				A	C		A/A	A/C	C/C		
SNP7	SC	0.6996	560	855	265		328	199	33		0.2366
rs2433324	CT	0.1083	567	856	278	0.6576	316	224	27	0.3234	0.2451
				T	G		T/T	T/G	G/G		
SNP8	SC	0.9901	557	679	435		207	265	85		0.3905
rs2452574	CT	0.2609	559	651	467	0.1958	196	259	104	0.3244	0.4177
				A	G		A/A	A/G	G/G		
SNP9	SC	0.8635	554	549	559		135	279	140		0.4955
rs2452578	CT	0.3382	554	583	525	0.1608	159	265	130	0.2610	0.5262
				A	G		A/A	A/G	G/G		
SNP10	SC	0.7339	560	459	661		96	267	197		0.4098
rs902981	CT	0.0419	562	470	654	0.6998	110	250	202	0.4567	0.4181
				A	G		A/A	A/G	G/G		
SNP11	SC	0.6983	562	660	464		196	268	98		0.4128
rs4634230	CT	0.0477	566	648	484	0.4950	197	254	115	0.4249	0.4276
				A	G		A/A	A/G	G/G		
SNP12	SC	0.5774	563	552	574		132	288	143		0.4902
rs12510147	CT	0.7924	568	519	617	0.1192	117	285	166	0.2882	0.4569
				A	G		A/A	A/G	G/G		
SNP13	SC	0.5110	555	655	455		197	261	97		0.4099
rs6854173	CT	0.0634	560	630	490	0.1986	188	254	118	0.3123	0.4375
				A	G		A/A	A/G	G/G		
SNP14	SC	0.8526	564	430	698		83	264	217		0.3812
rs12641023	CT	0.3903	568	457	679	0.3221	87	283	198	0.4470	0.4023
				T	C		T/T	T/C	C/C		
SNP15	SC	0.8366	559	418	700		77	264	218		0.3739
rs951613	CT	0.3439	565	452	678	0.2094	85	282	198	0.3833	0.4000
				A	G		A/A	A/G	G/G		
SNP16	SC	0.7090	561	437	685		83	271	207		0.3895
rs14082	CT	0.3502	567	470	664	0.2295	92	286	189	0.4413	0.4145

*P-values are calculated by Fisher's exact test.

demonstrated, none of the patients homozygous for the SNP15 had lower *LIM/MLC1* ratio (Figure 3). This suggests that none of the patients tested had deletion of this region, and it is unlikely that there is copy number variation in this region.

Association studies in schizophrenia
Since original findings in DNA microarray analysis of the postmortem brains and lymphoblastoid cell lines suggested the association with schizophrenia, we further examined the association of *LIM* with schizophrenia (Table 6). There was no significant difference of allele and genotype frequencies between patients with schizophrenia and controls. Haplotype analysis of two or three SNPs also showed no significant association with schizophrenia. (Table 7).

In the family-based association study, none of the SNPs were significantly associated with schizophrenia. None of two or three SNPs haplotypes were associated with schizophrenia (Table 8).

Table 7 No association of *LIM* haplotype with schizophrenia in case–control samples

		2SNPs			3SNPs		
SNP1	rs10008257	0.8672			0.8616		
SNP2	rs2433320		0.9189			0.9900	
SNP3	rs2433327			0.9788			
SNP4	rs2438146	0.7017				0.6108	
SNP5	rs2438140		0.4507		0.5834		0.6275
SNP6	rs2452563			0.4941		0.3536	
SNP7	rs2433324	0.2144					0.3304
SNP8	rs2452574		0.3313				0.3044
SNP9	rs2452578			0.1774	0.3593		
SNP10	rs902981	0.2320				0.1091	
SNP11	rs4634230		0.2279				
SNP12	rs12510147			0.2499			0.2595
SNP13	rs6854173	0.4548					0.4428
SNP14	rs12641023		0.2304		0.4579		
SNP15	rs951613			0.3947		0.4337	
SNP16	rs14082						

Discussion

In this study, upregulation of *LIM* in the postmortem frontal cortex of patients with bipolar disorder and schizophrenia was confirmed in a different sample set. The upregulation could not be explained by confounding factors, such as medications, pH, and suicide status. These findings support the pathogenetic

Table 8 Family-based association analyses in schizophrenia

SNP ID		PDT		ETDT	TRANSMIT (Individual, Global, Common)								
		SUM PDT	AVE PDT	allele	2SNPs					3SNPs			
SNP1	rs10008257	0.065	0.195	0.385	0.2178 0.6055					0.1992			
SNP2	rs2433320	0.695	0.682	0.416	0.6055	0.1967 0.3779				0.6136 0.6136	0.1967		
SNP3	rs2433327	0.225	0.365	0.249		0.3779	0.1967 0.4085				0.5796 0.5796	0.2798	
SNP4	rs2438146	0.692	0.677	0.407			0.4085	0.3267 0.5673				0.7722 0.7722	0.3167
SNP5	rs2438140	0.405	0.562	0.380				0.5673	0.1564 0.4552	0.0966			0.7211 0.8331
SNP6	rs2452563	0.571	0.702	0.554	0.0966 0.2220				0.7133	0.2595 0.5829	0.0826		
SNP7	rs2433324	0.872	0.928	0.623	0.2220	0.1092 0.4107					0.2211 0.8382	0.1103	
SNP8	rs2452574	0.726	0.919	1.000		0.4107	0.1524 0.5583					0.4452 0.5361	0.0359
SNP9	rs2452578	1.000	0.757	0.906			0.5583	0.1009 0.3555		0.0460			0.2655 0.3746
SNP10	rs902981	0.581	0.470	0.586				0.3555	0.1572 0.2340	0.2298 0.2431	0.0588		
SNP11	rs4634230	0.355	0.288	0.333	0.0588 0.1431				0.6585		0.1525 0.2964	0.0833	
SNP12	rs12510147	0.682	0.726	1.000	0.1431	0.0484 0.1437						0.2439 0.2421	0.1015
SNP13	rs6854173	0.294	0.220	0.235		0.1437	0.1153 0.4620			0.1064			0.2678 0.4635
SNP14	rs12641023	0.493	0.181	0.231			0.4620	0.2852 0.3806		0.4520 0.4520	0.1025		
SNP15	rs951613	0.607	0.261	0.398				0.3806	0.1045 0.1943		0.2290 0.3650		
SNP16	rs14082	0.866	0.496	0.721					0.1943				

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role of *LIM* in bipolar disorder and schizophrenia. Further, genetic association analyses suggested that polymorphisms of *LIM* confer a risk for bipolar disorder.

LIM, encoding a protein named enigma homolog (ENH), was initially identified by two hybrid screenings of rat brain cDNA library to interact with the regulatory domain of PKCβI. Northern blot analysis showed that there are two isoforms of *LIM*, 1.9 kb mRNA predominantly expressed in heart and skeletal muscles and 4.4 kb mRNA expressed in various tissues including the brain.[35] This gene was recently renamed as *PDLIM5*.

LIM is named after the LIM domain, composed of 50–60 amino acids that are involved in protein–protein interaction. Using an ENH-specific antibody, Maeno-Hikichi[13] found that ENH is expressed in various regions of the brain, most notably in the hippocampus, cortex, thalamus, hypothalamus, amygdala, and selected regions of the cerebellum. ENH was present in presynaptic nerve terminals, shown by colocalization with synapsin I. ENH coprecipitated with N-type, but not with P/Q-type calcium channels. ENH interacts with PKCε but not with α, β2, and γ. Thus, ENH was regarded as an adaptor protein that forms the PKCε-*ENH*-N-type Ca^{2+} channel complex. ENH facilitated the PKC modulation of N-type Ca^{2+} channel, by interacting the α_{1B} subunit of calcium channel. They concluded that formation of a kinase–substrate complex by an adaptor protein, ENH, is the molecular basis of specificity and efficiency of cellular signaling.

Wang and Friedman[36] reported that cytosolic PKCε was reduced in the postmortem brain samples of patients with bipolar disorder. PKCε is a common target of mood stabilizers, lithium, and valproate.[37] Our group reported that calcium channel α_{1A} subunit gene was significantly downregulated in the postmortem brain samples of bipolar disorder patients. Calcium signaling linked with phosphoinositide pathway has been regarded as one of the important molecular cascades related to the pathophysiology of bipolar disorder.[15] These findings suggest that the impairment of molecular cascade from PKC to calcium channel, which controls intracellular calcium levels in neurons via G-protein-coupled receptors, may become a genetic risk factor of bipolar disorder.

While the function of ENH in the brain is well characterized, that in lymphocytes is still unknown. In addition, it is not known how *PDLIM5* is regulated in the brain and lymphocytes. Thus, it is difficult to interpret why *PDLIM5* mRNA expression was increased in the brain but decreased in the lymphoblastoid cells in bipolar disorder and schizophrenia. Considering the complex interaction of transcription factors in the regulation of gene expression depending on the tissue types, such findings in the opposite direction might have arisen from single nucleotide polymorphisms altering the binding of transcription machinery.

Recently, Arinami et al (personal communication) performed association analysis of *LIM* and schizophrenia and found that several SNPs were significantly associated with schizophrenia. Among the SNPs significantly associated with schizophrenia, rs2433320 was also examined in this study. No significant association of this SNP with schizophrenia was observed in this study. Considering that a larger number of case–control samples were tested in this study (570 schizophrenic patients and 570 controls, while only 278 patients and 462 controls were studied by Arinami et al) and that no association was found in family-based association analysis, it cannot be totally ruled out that their initial findings were false-positive results. However, when the data of these two studies were combined, AA genotype of rs2433320 was significantly associated with schizophrenia in the total sample (schizophrenia, 33/840 (3.9%), control, 19/1025 (1.9%), $P = 0.02$, Fisher's exact probability test). Thus, it might be possible that this SNP confers a genetic risk for schizophrenia. Further studies are needed to draw a definite conclusion.

Since the SNPs associated with bipolar disorder were not the same in two independent case–control samples and the observed association in the MPS sample is marginal, the association observed in bipolar disorder should also be interpreted with caution.

Further replication studies in independent patient populations and using trio samples will be required to validate the apparent association between SNPs in the upstream region of *LIM* and bipolar disorder.

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Altered RNA editing of serotonin 2C receptor in a rat model of depression

Kazuya Iwamoto [a,*], Noriaki Nakatani [b], Miki Bundo [a],
Takeo Yoshikawa [b], Tadafumi Kato [a]

[a] Laboratory for Molecular Dynamics of Mental Disorders, Brain Science Institute, RIKEN, 2-1 Hirosawa, Wako city, Saitama 351 0198, Japan
[b] Laboratory for Molecular Psychiatry, Brain Science Institute, RIKEN, 2-1 Hirosawa, Wako city, Saitama 351 0198, Japan

Abstract

Altered RNA editing of serotonin 2C receptor (HTR2C) has been suggested to be involved in the pathophysiology of major depression. Here we examined RNA editing status of HTR2C in the learned helplessness (LH) rats, one of well-established animal models of depression. LH rats showed the significantly increased RNA editing of site E, and tendency for increased RNA editing of other editing sites. Treatment with fluoxetine, a selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor, or imipramine, a tricyclic antidepressant, affected the RNA editing status of the LH rats. Although, these antidepressants differentially altered RNA editing status, they commonly reduced RNA editing efficiency of site E. We further revealed that altered RNA editing in the LH rats and by antidepressants was not explained by altered expression of RNA editing enzymes or their substrates (adenosine deaminases that act on RNA, HTR2C, and spliced form of HTR2C). These results suggest that alteration of RNA editing of HTR2C may play a role in the pathophysiology of depression and action of antidepressants.
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Keywords: HTR2C; SSRI; TCA; ADAR; Psychiatric disorders; Learned helplessness

1. Introduction

Multiple lines of evidence suggest the involvement of serotonin 2C receptor (HTR2C) with mental disorders. Pharmacological studies revealed the involvement of HTR2C in locomotion, appetite, sexual behavior, and anxiety (Barnes and Sharp, 1999). HTR2C-deficient mice exhibited abnormal control of feeding behavior and enhanced seizure susceptibility (Tecott et al., 1995). One functional polymorphism of Cys23Ser (Okada et al., 2004) of HTR2C associated with depression and bipolar disorder (Gutierrez et al., 2001; Lerer et al., 2001; Oruc et al., 1997), and tardive dyskinesia in schizophrenia (Segman et al., 2000). In addition, down-regulation of HTR2C was found in postmortem brains of patients with bipolar disorder and schizophrenia (Castensson et al., 2003; Iwamoto et al., 2004).

In addition to variations in genomic sequence, post-transcriptional modifications of HTR2C also have some pathophysiological significance (Seeburg, 2002; Seeburg and Hartner, 2003; Sodhi and Sanders-Bush, 2004). Before translation, transcript of HTR2C undergoes adenosine-to-inosine (A-to-I) type RNA editing, by which specific adenosine residues are converted into inosine residues by adenosine deaminases that act on RNA (ADARs) (Bass, 2002; Maas et al., 2003; Reenan, 2001). Since inosine is read as guanosine by translation machinery, this modification leads to amino acid substitution. To date, at least five adenosine residues (termed as sites A–E) in the second intracellular loop of HTR2C have been found to be edited (Burns et al., 1997). As a result, amino acid substitutions at three sites occur (I157 to V or M, N159 to S, D or G, and I161 to V), generating theoretically 24 isoforms. Importantly, different HTR2C isoforms exhibit considerably different G-protein coupling efficiency, and the combination of isoforms were regulated in a brain-region specific manner (Burns

* Corresponding author. Tel.: +81 48 467 6949; fax: +81 48 467 6947.
E-mail address: kaziwamoto@brain.riken.go.jp (K. Iwamoto).

et al., 1997; Fitzgerald et al., 1999; Herrick-Davis et al., 1999; Niswender et al., 1999; Wang et al., 2000).

Altered RNA editing of *HTR2C* was reported in postmortem brains of patients with schizophrenia, depression, or those who committed suicide (Gurevich et al., 2002; Iwamoto and Kato, 2003; Niswender et al., 2001; Sodhi et al., 2001). Although these works suggested the role of RNA editing in mental disorders, the results remain inconsistent (Dracheva et al., 2003; Gurevich et al., 2002; Iwamoto and Kato, 2003; Niswender et al., 2001; Sodhi et al., 2001). This is possibly because of the difficulty in controlling the confounding factors, such as medical treatments and cause of death. To overcome this, results of postmortem studies needed to be compared with the finding in other models. In animal models, fluoxetine, a selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor (SSRI), altered RNA editing of *HTR2C* (Gurevich et al., 2002), while some drugs, such as cocaine or reserpine did not affect RNA editing (Iwamoto and Kato, 2002).

Although none of currently available animal models of depression can completely mimic human depressive disorder, learned helplessness (LH) is one of the most validated animal models of depression (Overmier and Seligman, 1967; Telner and Singhal, 1984). After pretreatment with repeated inescapable shocks, animals with LH exhibit decreased ability to escape unfavorable situations. Since this depressive phenotype can be ameliorated by antidepressants, the LH model has been widely used for studying the depression and the actions of antidepressants. Here we examined RNA editing of *HTR2C* and expression levels of related genes in the LH rats, and assessed the effect of antidepressants administration.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Learned helplessness (LH) rats and drug administration

Detailed methods for creation of the LH rats were described elsewhere (Nakatani et al., 2004). The behavioral procedures were summarized in Fig. 1. Male Sprague-Dawley rats (5–6 week old) were purchased from Japan SLC (Shizuoka, Japan). Antidepressants were purchased from SIGMA (St. Louis, MO, USA). After 1 week of handling, they were used for experiments. On day 1, rats were subjected to inescapable foot electroshock pretreatment (0.5 mA, 10 s duration, shock interval 1–5 s, 160 trials) in a Plexiglas chamber. Control rats were placed for 1 h in the same chambers without electroshocks. On day 2, avoidance training was started in the same chamber, which was divided into two compartments using a partition. The partition included a gate, through which animals could move into the adjacent compartment. Rats were subjected to 15 avoidance trials with 30 s intervals. In each trial, 0.5 mA of current was applied via the grid floor during the first 3 s. If a rat moved to
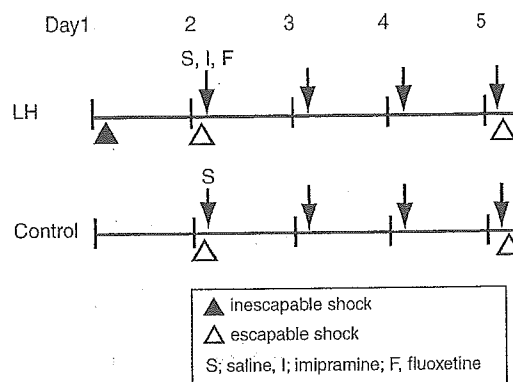
Fig. 1. Schematic representation of procedures. To make the LH rats, rats were first given inescapable shock on day 1 and then they were given escapable shock on day 2. The rats that showed greater than 50% failure in escape responses were selected as LH rats. LH rats were administered saline or antidepressants. On day 5, LH rats were given escapable shock to examine their LH status. Control rats were treated in the same way as the LH rats, but they were not given inescapable shock on day 1.

the other compartment within this period (escape response), the shock was terminated. Failures in escape response were counted as a measure of LH when they showed eight or more failures during a session. In this condition, LH was induced with a success rate of less than 40% (Nakatani et al., 2004). Control rats and subgroup of LH rats were administered saline (LH-S). The remaining LH animals were treated with either imipramine (25 mg/kg, i.p.) (LH-I) or fluoxetine (5 mg/kg, i.p.) (LH-F). Antidepressants or saline administration was administered once a day, starting in day 2 after the avoidance trial. On day 5, 30 min after the final administration, rats were tested for escape ability under escapable electroshock conditions. Antidepressants-treated rats that showed a 50% or more successful escape response were used for analysis. In our study, imipramine treatment recovered all rats ($n = 9$), and fluoxetine treatment recovered five out of seven from LH status (Nakatani et al., 2004). Rats were decapitated on day 6, 24 h after the final electroshock procedure. After the exclusion of olfactory bulb, coronal sections of prefrontal cortices (3 mm in length, right side) were cut and used in this study. Since altered RNA editing of *HTR2C* has been reported in the frontal cortex of patients with mental disorders, we chose and examined rat frontal cortex region in this study. Efforts were made not to be contaminated with striatum and choroids plexus in the samples.

2.2. Total RNA isolation and quantitative RT-PCR

Total RNA was extracted using an ISOGEN kit (NIPPON Gene, Toyama, Japan) and it was purified with an RNAeasy column (Qiagen, Valencia, CA, USA) as described by the manufacturer's protocol. One microgram of total RNA was used for cDNA synthesis by SuperScript II reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) and oligo(dT) primers (Invitrogen). Quantitative RT-PCR was

performed with an ABI PRISM 7900HT (Applied Biosystems, Foster city, CA, USA) using SYBER/GREEN I dye (Applied Biosystems). The comparative threshold cycle (C_t) method was employed for quantification of transcripts according to the manufacture's protocol (Applied Biosystems). Measurement of ΔC_t was performed at least three times per sample. Amplification of the single product was confirmed by monitoring the dissociation curve. We used two control genes (glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH), and β-actin (ACTB)) for normalization to control for possible fluctuations of the target transcripts. Primer pairs used in this study were as follows: GAPDH: 5′-GCCTGGAGAAACCTGCCAAGTAT-3′, and 5′-AGA-CAACCTGGTCCTCAGTGTAGC-3′; ACTB: 5′-ATCAA-GATCATTGCTCCTCCTGAG-3′, and 5′-ACATCTGCT-GGAAGGTGGACA-3′; HTR2C: 5′-TATCGCTGGACCG-GTATGTAGC-3′, and 5′-GCAATCTTCATGATGGCCT-TAGTC-3′; HTR2C (truncate form): 5′-GCCCCGTCTG-GATTTCACTAGATGTGCTAT-3′, and 5′-AGGAACTGA-AACTCCGGTCCAGCGATAT-3′; ADAR1: 5′-TTTCACC-TCTACATCAGCACGGC-3′, and 5′-GCTTTCCACAG-CACGGTCACT-3′; ADAR2: 5′-AGCGGATCTCCAACA-TAGAGGAC-3′, and 5′-TGCCTCTGCATTGCTGATA-CC-3′.

2.3. Cloning and sequencing analysis

Two rounds of RT-PCR amplification of rat HTR2C for estimation of RNA editing efficiency was performed as reported previously (Iwamoto and Kato, 2002). Primers used in the first round PCR were P1: 5′-TGGATTTCACTA-GATGTGCT-3′, and P2: 5′-GTCCCTCAGTCCAATCA-CAG-3′. Those used in the second PCR were P1 and P3: 5′-TTGATATTGCCCAAACGATG-3′. cDNA synthesis and RT-PCR analysis was performed in each animal sample. A portion of product was cloned into the pCR2.1 vector (Invitrogen), and the reaction mixture was used for transformation of E. coli. cDNA clones derived from single bacterial colonies were sequenced with an ABI3700 DNA sequencer (Applied Biosystems).

3. Results

3.1. Altered RNA editing of HTR2C in the LH rats and by antidepressants

There are five RNA editing sites (sites A–E) at the 3′-end of exon 5 in HTR2C (Fig. 2A). RT-PCR products including these edited sites were used for cloning and sequencing analysis. To ensure reliable estimation of RNA editing efficiency, at least 50 colonies were sequenced per sample (control rats, $n = 4$; LH-S, $n = 4$; LH-I, $n = 4$; LH-F, $n = 5$). RNA editing efficiency at site E was significantly increased in the LH-S rats ($p = 0.034$) compared with control rats (Fig. 2B). We then assessed the effects of antidepressants,

fluoxetine, and imipramine, on RNA editing of HTR2C in the LH rats. Administration of these drugs to LH rats significantly reversed the LH condition assessed by the escape test in our experimental system (Nakatani et al., 2004). Imipramine administration to LH (LH-I) rats showed a trend for decrease at E site ($p = 0.081$), compared with LH-S rats (Fig. 2B). Fluoxetine administration to LH (LH-F) rats decreased the RNA editing in the three editing sites (site A, $p = 0.069$; site B, $p = 0.080$; site E, $p = 0.002$) compared with LH-S rats (Fig. 2B).

Given the altered RNA editing among LH groups, we then compared the distribution of five major isoforms (see Fig. 2A for relationship between RNA editing and isoforms) to examine the functional consequence of altered RNA editing by antidepressants. Although, the composition of two major isoforms, VNV and VNI isoforms did not differ among the groups, a trend for increase of the VSV isoform in the LH-I rats ($p = 0.075$) and a significant decrease of the VSI isoform in the LH-F rats ($p = 0.032$) were found (Fig. 3). The non-edited INI isoform was decreased in the LH-I ($p = 0.098$) and LH-F ($p = 0.034$) rats compared with LH-S rats (Fig. 3).

3.2. Expression levels of HTR2C, splice variant of HTR2C (HTR2C-tr), ADAR1, and ADAR2 in the LH rats

To examine the possible cause of altered RNA editing of HTR2C, we examined expression levels of major genes involved in RNA editing (Yang et al., 2004) by quantitative RT-PCR. The HTR2C splice variant (HTR2C-tr) generated by alternative splicing within exon 5 does not contain any editing sites, and was suggested to be a non-functional form since translation was immaturely terminated in exon 6 (Canton et al., 1996; Xie et al., 1996) (Fig. 2A). It has been reported that there is a functional coupling between splicing and RNA editing events (Flomen et al., 2004; Raitskin et al., 2001). However, we did not find any alterations in the expression levels of these two forms (Fig. 4). The ratio of splice/non-splice variant was also not changed (Fig. 4).

In cellular models, global increase of HTR2C RNA editing in the human glioblastoma cells treated with interferon-α was associated with increased expression of ADAR1 (Yang et al., 2004). Although significant change was seen only in site E, other editing sites also showed a tendency for increase in the LH rats. Thus, it is possible that these changes may be associated with altered expression of ADAR1. However, the expression levels of ADAR1 as well as ADAR2 were not significantly differed among groups (Fig. 5).

4. Discussion

Here, we showed the altered RNA editing of HTR2C in behavioral animal model of depression, learned helplessness. LH rats showed significant increase of RNA
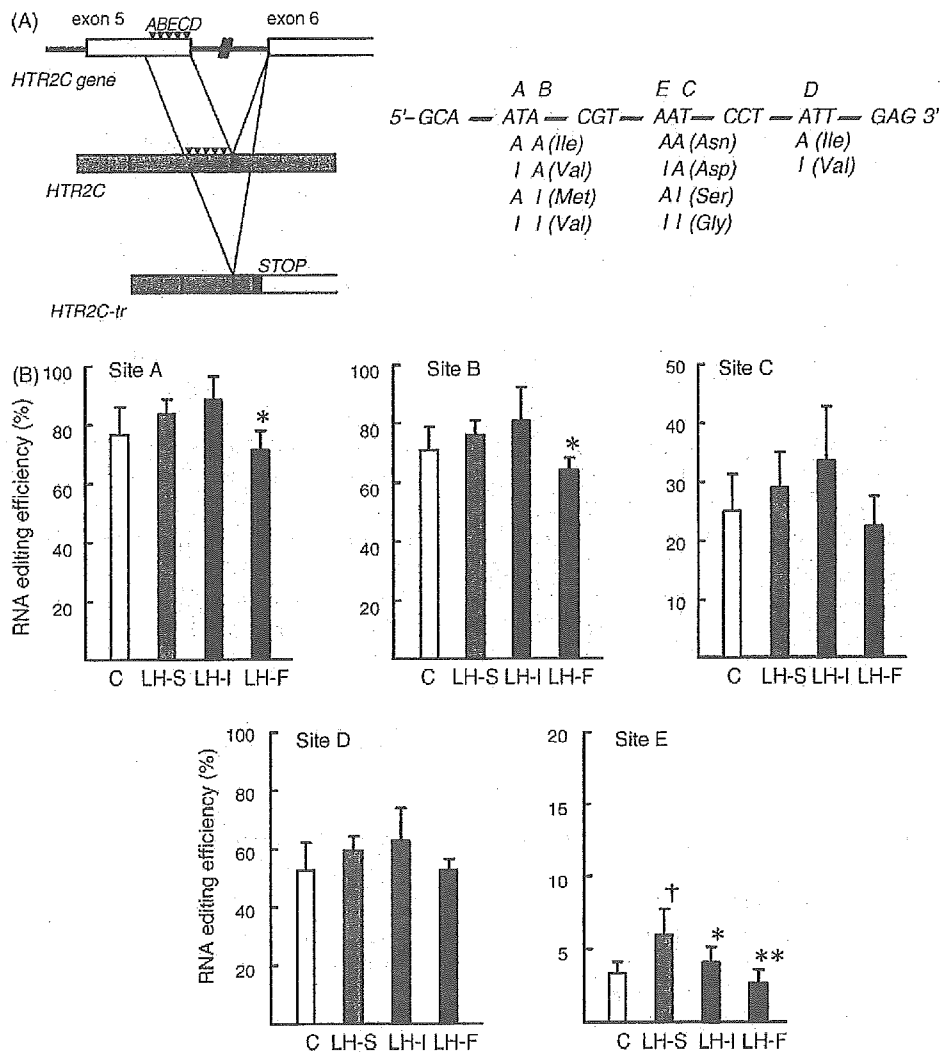
Fig. 2. RNA editing efficiencies of *HTR2C* in the LH rats. (A) Genomic context and transcripts of *HTR2C* around RNA editing sites (*left*), and amino acid changes associated with RNA editing of the *HTR2C* (*right*). (B) RNA editing efficiency of each site (mean ± S.D.). *HTR2C* cDNA derived from single bacterial colonies were sequenced in at least 50 clones per sample (control rats, $n = 4$; LH-S, $n = 4$; LH-I, $n = 4$; LH-F, $n = 5$). The sum of the number of sequenced clones that contained the *HTR2C* was 1.114. Data were compared by one-way ANOVA ($p < 0.05$), and statistical analysis were then conducted post hoc using Dunnett's test with LH-S as a reference group. [†]$p < 0.05$ in control rats vs. LH-S rats. [*]$p < 0.10$, [**]$p < 0.05$ in LH-S rats vs. either LH-I or LH-F rats.
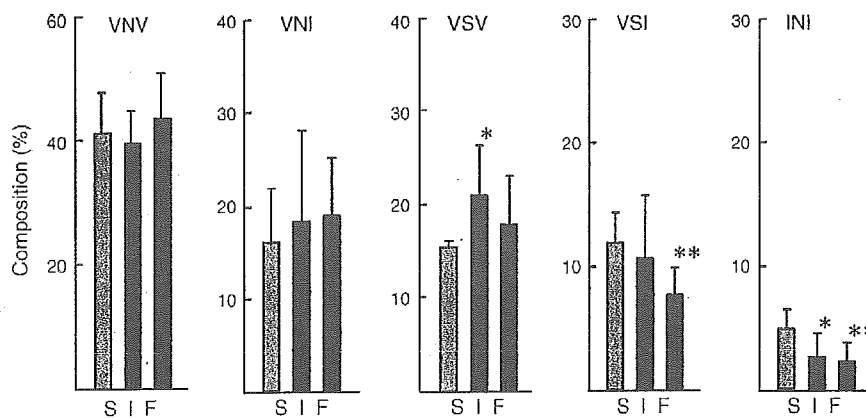
Fig. 3. Comparison of the composition of the major *HTR2C* isoforms. Data (mean ± S.D.) were compared by *t*-test. [*]$p < 0.10$, [**]$p < 0.05$ in LH-S rats vs. either LH-I or LH-F rats.
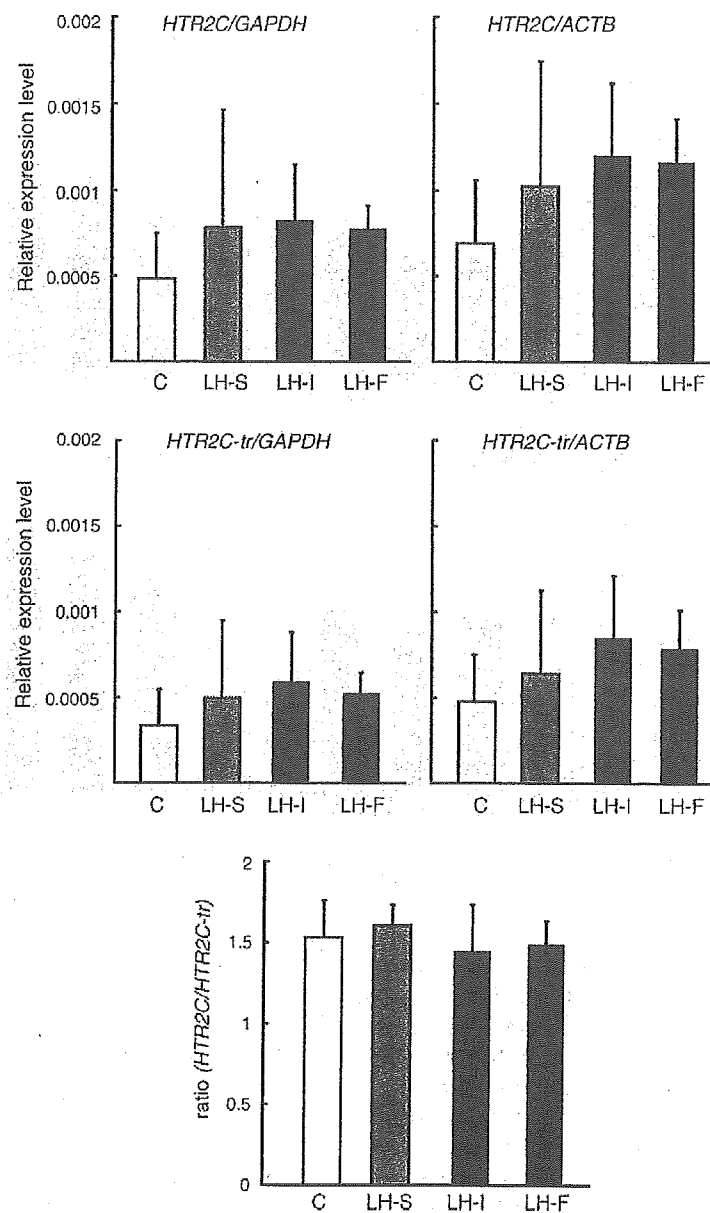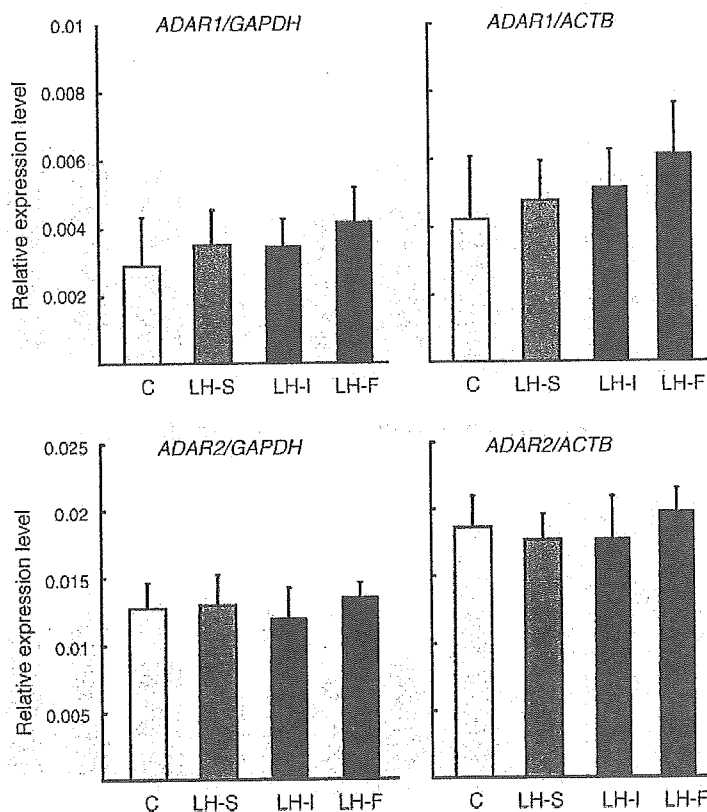
Fig. 4. Expression levels of *HTR2C* and *HTR2C*-tr. Data (mean ± S.D.) were compared by *t*-test. There were no statistical differences ($p < 0.10$) among groups. Control rats, $n = 4$; LH-S, $n = 4$; LH-I, $n = 4$; LH-F, $n = 5$.

editing of site E. Two different classes of antidepressants, imipramine and fluoxetine, reduced the RNA editing of site E in LH rats. These results suggest that altered RNA editing of *HTR2C*, especially RNA editing of site E, is associated with depressive state in this animal model.

The limitations of our findings were the specificity of altered RNA editing in LH rats and by the antidepressants. In this study, we did not analyze RNA editing status in the rats that failed to show LH status, and the LH rats that failed to recover from LH status by antidepressant treatments. However, considering the laborious work of conventional cloning and sequencing analysis, it would not be a practical approach to examine the various experimental groups. We have previously reported the method for estimating RNA

editing efficiency by primer extension combined with denaturing high-performance liquid chromatography (Iwamoto and Kato, 2002). Although this method was rapid and accurate, there is a disadvantage in that this can only estimate the RNA editing efficiency of site A or D, which located at either ends of RNA editing region. Therefore, other high throughput method should be developed to estimate the RNA editing efficiency of other editing sites. In addition, given the high recovery rate of antidepressants treatment (100% in imipramine, and 71% in fluoxetine), we could not assess the RNA editing status of the LH rats that failed to recover from LH status by antidepressants.

It has been reported that fluoxetine administration in normal mice (129Sv) showed significantly decreased RNA

Fig. 5. Expression levels of *ADAR1* and *ADAR2*. Data (mean ± S.D.) were compared by *t*-test. There were no statistical differences (*p* < 0.10) among groups. Control rats, *n* = 4; LH-S, *n* = 4; LH-I, *n* = 4; LH-F, *n* = 5.

editing in site E, decrease in site C, and increased RNA editing in site D (Gurevich et al., 2002). Our findings confirmed the effect of fluoxetine on RNA editing with regard to site E. Although we also showed that fluoxetine reduced RNA editing efficiency at other sites, this may not be relevant to antidepressants efficacy, because imipramine had an opposite effect on RNA editing except site E. Tricyclic antidepressants, such as imipramine inhibit the reuptake of both serotonin and norepinephrine by acting on monoamine transporters, whereas SSRI, including fluoxetine specifically block reuptake of serotonin. These differences in pharmacological profiles may account for the differential effect on RNA editing efficiency.

At the isoform level, both fluoxetine and imipramine decreased the fully non-edited, INI isoform (Fig. 3). Considering that the INI isoform exhibits the greatest basal activity, agonist affinity and potency (Herrick-Davis et al., 1999), decreased levels of this isoform in LH rats treated with antidepressants may result in the reduction of sensitivity of *HTR2C* receptor functions. Although other changes at the isoform level are not common to two antidepressants in this study, they may also reduce the sensitivity of *HTR2C*, since the VSI isoform exhibit relatively high sensitivity among the *HTR2C* isoforms, whereas the VSV isoform exhibits low sensitivity (Herrick-Davis et al., 1999).

Recently, similar results have been reported in mice that were subjected to a modified forced swimming test (FST) (Englander et al., 2005). Mice (Balb/c) subjected to the FST showed global increased RNA editing of *HTR2C*, and chronic fluoxetine-treated mice exposed to the FST reversed this increased RNA-editing (Englander et al., 2005). Although alteration at the isoform level, such as content of the INI isoform, was not inconsistent with our results, this may be partly attributable to the species-specific variation. Interestingly, there is a great variation in the distribution of *HTR2C* isoforms, especially in content of the INI isoform, among different inbred strains of mice (Englander et al., 2005). Furthermore, effect of chronic fluoxetine on the content of the INI isoform was opposite between C57Bl/6 (increased) and Balb/c (decreased) (Englander et al., 2005). In addition, alterations at the isoform level were needed to be assessed with caution since functional properties of all isoforms have not been fully determined. Therefore, it may be possible that presence or absence of minor isoforms may have some significance of the total *HTR2C* receptor function.

We revealed that the expression levels of major genes involved in RNA editing of *HTR2C* were not changed. Therefore, molecular mechanism of the altered RNA editing of *HTR2C* in the LH rats and by antidepressants remains to be explored. There would be several other possible

explanations, such as the expression level of HBII-52 small nucleolar RNA, which has sequence complementary to the mRNA containing the *HTR2C* editing sites (Cavaille et al., 2000), and cellular localization of *ADAR*s (Desterro et al., 2003; Poulsen et al., 2001; Sansam et al., 2003; Yang et al., 2003). Therefore, further examination of such possibilities would be helpful for understanding the altered RNA editing of *HTR2C* in this animal model.

Acknowledgments

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Functional polymorphisms of HSPA5: Possible association with bipolar disorder

Chihiro Kakiuchi [a], Mizuho Ishiwata [a], Shinichiro Nanko [b], Hiroshi Kunugi [c],
Yoshio Minabe [d], Kazuhiko Nakamura [d], Norio Mori [d], Kumiko Fujii [e], Tadashi Umekage [f],
Mamoru Tochigi [g], Kazuhisa Kohda [g], Tsukasa Sasaki [f], Kazuo Yamada [h],
Takeo Yoshikawa [h], Tadafumi Kato [a,*]

[a] Laboratory for Molecular Dynamics of Mental Disorders, Brain Science Institute, RIKEN, Wako-shi, Saitama 351-0198, Japan
[b] Department of Psychiatry, Teikyo University School of Medicine, Tokyo 173-8606, Japan
[c] Laboratory for Mental Disorder Research, National Institute of Neuroscience, National Center for Neurology and Psychiatry, Tokyo 187-8502, Japan
[d] Department of Psychiatry, Hamamatsu University School of Medicine, Hamamatsu, Japan
[e] Biwako Hospital, Otsu, Shiga 520-0113, Japan
[f] Department of Psychiatry, Health Service Center, University of Tokyo, Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo 113-0033, Japan
[g] Department of Neuropsychiatry, University of Tokyo, Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo 113-0033, Japan
[h] Laboratory for Molecular Psychiatry, Brain Science Institute, RIKEN, Wako-shi, Saitama 351-0198, Japan

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Abstract

Altered endoplasmic reticulum stress (ER) response signaling is suggested in bipolar disorder. Previously, we preliminarily reported the genetic association of HSPA5 (GRP78/BiP) with bipolar disorder. Here, we extended our analysis by increasing the number of Japanese case-control samples and NIMH Genetics Initiative bipolar trio samples (NIMH trios), and also analyzed schizophrenia samples. In Japanese, nominally significant association of one haplotype was observed in extended samples of bipolar disorder but not in schizophrenia. In NIMH trios, no association was found in total samples. However, an exploratory analysis suggested that the other haplotype was significantly over-transmitted to probands only from the paternal side. The associated haplotype in Japanese or NIMH pedigrees shared three common polymorphisms in the promotor, which was found to alter promotor activity. These findings suggested promotor polymorphisms of HSPA5 may affect the interindividual variability of ER stress response and may confer a genetic risk factor for bipolar disorder.
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Keywords: Bipolar disorder; Schizophrenia; Endoplasmic reticulum stress; HSPA5/GRP78; Association study; Promotor assay

Bipolar disorder is a severe mental disorder characterized by recurrent episodes of mania and depression, affecting about 0.5–1% of the population [1]. Although the contribution of genetic factors has been evidenced by family, twin and adoption studies, the molecular pathophysiology of the illness has been controversial [2,3]. Recently, we suggested that the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress

response signaling is one of candidate cascades related to pathology of the illness [4].

In our previous study, XBP1 and HSPA5 were downregulated in the lymphoblastoid cells of monozygotic twins with bipolar disorder compared with healthy co-twins by DNA microarray analysis. Induction of XBP1 and HSPA5 mRNA by thapsigargin was reduced in the patients' cell lines and valproate induced ATF6 mRNA expression and enhanced the ER stress response in SHSY5Y cells [4]. Although we also reported that a functional polymorphism of XBP1 (−116C/G) altering the ER stress response was

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* Corresponding author. Fax: +81 48 467 6947.
  E-mail address: kato@brain.riken.jp (T. Kato).

associated with bipolar disorder, the genetic association was not replicated in Caucasian bipolar samples and Taiwanese samples [5,6]. On the other hand, the association of *XBP1* −116C/G polymorphisms with schizophrenia was observed in Chinese samples and Japanese samples [7,8]. Schizophrenia is another major mental disorder sharing common clinical features and genetic background with bipolar disorder [9]. The chromosomal region of *XBP1*, 22q, is one of common linkage loci for these two disorders. Thus, altered ER stress response signaling may contribute to the pathophysiology of both of these major mental disorders.

When unfolded proteins accumulate in endoplasmic reticulum (ER) by some reasons, ER stress response begins. ER stress response consists of four signaling cascades: (1) induction of ER chaperon such as *HSPA5* (*GRP78/BiP*), which promotes the folding of unfolded proteins (unfolded protein response, UPR), (2) inhibition of protein synthesis, (3) induction of ER-associated degradation pathway, which promotes the processing of unfolded proteins, and (4) induction of apoptosis when this system could not process the unfolded proteins [10,11].

In the previous paper, we focused on *XBP1* since it is a transcription factor regulating the mRNA expression of ER chaperon genes such as *HSPA5*. However, initial reaction eliciting ER stress response is the consumption of HSPA5. When HSPA5 proteins are consumed to fold unfolded proteins, dissociation of HSPA5 from ATF6 protein on the ER membrane causes cleavage of ATF6. Cleaved ATF6 protein induces the expression of ER chaperons and *XBP1*. In parallel, dissociation of HSPA5 from IRE1 protein on the ER membrane causes dimerization of IRE1, which splices *XBP1* mRNA. The spliced *XBP1* mRNA encodes active form XBP1 that strongly induces the expression of chaperon genes including *HSPA5* as well as *XBP1* itself [10]. In this regard, HSPA5 is a key protein regulating ER stress response.

HSPA5, *TRA1* (*GRP94*), and *CALR* (*Calreticulin*) are known to be increased in the temporal cortex of depressed subjects who died by suicide [12]. Anti-malarial drug mefloquine, which is known to cause psychiatric symptoms including bipolar disorder in susceptible individuals [13], is reported to induce ER chaperons including HSPA5 in rat neurons [14]. Methamphetamine (MAP), a psychostimulant causing manic state, is also known to induce *HSPA5* and other ER chaperon genes in the mouse brain [15]. Induction of *HSPA5* by mefloquine or MAP is interpreted that these drugs cause ER stress, since they also induce ER stress pathway other than UPR, such as apoptosis. On the other hand, valproate, one of the mood stabilizers, is known to increase *HSPA5* expression and have neuroprotective effects by enhancing the UPR [16–20,4]. Recently, the other mood stabilizer, lithium, was also shown to protect the rat PC12 cells against ER stress by inducing the *HSPA5* mRNA [21].

HSPA5 gene is located on 9q33–34.1, on which significant evidence for linkage with bipolar disorder was observed by several studies [22–24].

In this study, we examined whether or not genetic variations of *HSPA5* contribute to the pathophysiology of bipolar disorder and schizophrenia.

Part of the data presented in this paper (data on 3 of 6 SNPs in 195 of 439 patients with bipolar disorder and 254 of 492 controls in case-control studies, and 88 of 240 trios in transmission disequilibrium test) was reported in the reply to correspondence [5].

Materials and methods

Subjects. For the case-control study, 439 patients with bipolar disorder (50.5 ± 13.4 years old, 208 males and 231 females), 229 patients with schizophrenia (46.0 ± 14.9 years old, 131 males and 98 females), and 492 controls (41.7 ± 14.4 years old, 246 males and 246 females) were analyzed. In addition to the samples previously reported in the reply to correspondence [5], we increased the number of case-control samples including the independently collected sample set described previously as "MPS samples" for replication study [25]. MPS samples include 239 patients with bipolar disorder (51.0 ± 13.1 years old, 131 males and 108 females) and 234 controls (51.6 ± 10.7 years old, 117 males and 117 females). They were diagnosed according to the DSM-IV criteria (American Psychiatric Association). Controls were selected from students, nurses, office workers, and doctors in participating institutes, and their friends. A senior psychiatrist interviewed them and they did not have major mental disorders. Only a part of them were interviewed using a structured interview, Mini-International Neuropsychiatric Interview (M.I.N.I.) [26]. In Japanese, no significant population stratification has repeatedly reported in several studies including a part of our samples [4,27–29]. For transmission disequilibrium test, we analyzed total 240 trio samples (227 trios with BPI proband and 12 trios with BPII proband) from NIMH Genetics Initiative Pedigrees (http://zork. wustl.edu/nimh/), including 88 trios previously reported in the reply to correspondence [5]. Only one trio was obtained from one family. The criteria, by which the trio was selected from a pedigree, were, (1) DNA is available for parents and the proband, (2) if multiple complete trios were found in one pedigree, the trio with younger generation was selected, (3) if multiple trios were available in one generation, elder sibling was selected as the proband. Data and biomaterials of the NIMH pedigrees were collected in four projects that participated in the NIMH Bipolar Disorder Genetics Initiative. From 1991 to 1998, the Principal Investigators and Co-Investigators were: Indiana University, Indianapolis, IN, U01 MH46282, J. Nurnberger, M. Miller, and E. Bowman; Washington University, St. Louis, MO, U01 MH46280, T. Reich, A. Goate, and J. Rice; Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, MD, U01 MH46274, J. R. DePaulo, Jr., S. Simpson, and C. Stine; NIMH Intramural Research Program, Clinical Neurogenetics Branch, Bethesda, MD, E. Gershon, D. Kazuba, and E. Maxwell. Written informed consent was obtained from all the subjects. Postmortem brains were donated by The Stanley Medical Research Institute's Brain Collection courtesy of Drs. Michael B. Knable, E. Fuller Torrey, Maree J. Webster, Serge Weis, and Robert H. Yolken. The Ethics Committees of the Brain Science Institute (RIKEN) and participating institutes approved the study.

Mutation screening of the HSPA5 genes and genotyping of flag SNPs. Polymorphisms of all exons and the upstream region (1 kb) of *HSPA5* (GenBank Accession No. NT_008470) were screened by sequencing in 24 patients with bipolar disorder and eight patients with schizophrenia. Primer sequences are available on request. Genotyping was performed using commercially available TaqMan probes and ABI7900HT according to the protocol recommended by the manufacturer (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA).

cDNA synthesis. To genotype the 3′-UTR of *HSPA5* mRNA, we generated cDNA. RNA samples were extracted from the postmortem brain tissues and single-strand cDNA was synthesized by the same method described previously [30].

Cell culture. We cultured SHSY5Y cells in the medium of DMEM (Sigma, Saint Louis, Missouri) containing 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and used for degradation assay and promotor assay.

Degradation assay. We generated constructs for mRNA degradation assay. We amplified a 3778 bp fragments excluding SV40 polyA signal region (1242 to 680) of pCMV-tag3 vector (Stratagene, La Jolla, CA, USA), a 1653 bp fragment (coding sequence of luciferase) of pGL3-basic vector (Promega, Madison, WI, USA), and a 1741 bp fragment of 3′-UTR of HSPA5 with SNP5 T. Using BD In-Fusion Technique (BD Biosciences Clontech, San Jose, CA, USA). We fused the three PCR fragments and generated a 7152 bp construct having CMV promotor, coding sequence of luciferase, and 3′-UTR of *HSPA5*. In this construct, start codon of pCMV-tag3 vector fell on that of luciferase coding sequence and the stop codon of luciferase coding sequence fell on the stop codon of the HSPA5 gene. Next we made mutation in SNP5 from T to C using QuickChange Site-Directed Mutagenesis Kit (Stratagene) and generated point mutated construct only in SNP5. The sequence of coding region and 3′-UTR was confirmed by sequencing. We transfected SHSY5Y cells cultured in a 96-well plate using Superfect (Qiagen, Valencia, CA, USA) with 0.2 μg of the reporter plasmid (SNP5 T or C) and 0.05 μg of a reference plasmid (pRL-CMV). After a 48-h incubation, with pre-incubation by the medium containing 5 μg/ml actinomycin D (Wako, Osaka, Japan) for 0, 2, 4, and 6 h before luciferase assay, we measured luciferase activities with the aid of Dual-Glo Luciferase assay system (Promega). In this assay, mRNA degradation was compared by the degradation of mRNA of generated vector and mRNA of pRL-CMV vector. By incubation with actinomycin D for 6 h, the activity of reporter or reference vector decreased to the approximately one-third level compared with the activity not-treated with actinomycin D. The assay was performed independently four times.

Promotor assay. We amplified a 548-bp fragment (−554 to −7, the numbers indicate the nucleotide positions from the transcription start site) of the *HSPA5* gene by PCR and cloned into the *MluI/BglII* site of pGL3-Basic vector (Promega). As a template, genomic DNA derived from control having heterozygotes of haplotype 1 and haplotype 3, or haplotype 2 and haplotype 4, was used and we prepared four kinds of reporter plasmids, having the sequence corresponding to haplotype 1, haplotype 2, haplotype 3 or haplotype 4. We also cloned the spliced *XBP1* cDNA into the *BamHI/HindIII* site of pcDNA3.1 vector (Invitrogen, San Diego, CA, USA) to construct a spliced *XBP1*-ex-

pressing vector. For the experiments of thapsigargin treatment, we transfected SHSY5Y cells cultured in a 96-well plate with 0.2 μg of the reporter plasmid or pGL3-Basic vector carrying no insert and 0.1 μg of a reference plasmid (pRL-CMV) using Superfect (Qiagen). For the experiments to examine the effects of XBP1, we transfected SHSY5Y cells with 0.4 μg DNA containing 0.2 μg of the reporter plasmid, 0.2 μg pcDNA3.1 vector with or without the insert of spliced *XBP1*, and 0.1 μg of a reference plasmid (pRL-CMV). After a 48-h incubation, thapsigargin (300 nM) or vehicle was added. Three hours after the thapsigargin stimulation, we measured the luciferase activities with the aid of Dual-Glo Luciferase assay system (Promega). The assay was performed independently four times.

Data analysis. Linkage disequilibrium (LD) patterns were assessed by the standardized disequilibrium coefficient ($D′$) and squared correlation coefficient (r^2) calculated by COCAPHASE and TDTPHASE programs (http://www.rfcgr.mrc.ac.uk/fdudbrid/software/unphased/). Analysis of haplotypic distribution, haplotype frequencies, and haplotype TDT analysis was performed using COCAPHASE and TDTPHASE programs. Global significance was calculated by random permutation test for 10,000 times using COCAPHASE and TDTPHASE programs. Two-sample *t* test was used for comparison among the haplotypes in the promotor assay and mRNA degradation assay.

Results

Mutation screening and identification of the haplotype block of HSPA5

We first performed mutation search of *HSPA5* gene by screening all exons and the upstream region (1 kb) in 24 patients with bipolar disorder and eight patients with schizophrenia. Four single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) [rs391957 (A/G SNP1), rs17840762 (C/T SNP2), rs17840761 (C/T SNP3), and rs3216733 (G/deletion SNP4)] in the upstream region and 3 SNPs [rs16927997 (T/C SNP5), rs1140763 (C/T SNP6), and rs12009 (C/T SNP7)] in the 3′-untranslated region were identified (Fig. 1A). In these 32 samples, SNP1 and SNP4, SNP3 and SNP6 were completely linked. None of two non-synonymous (rs11542738 and rs11542739) and one synonymous
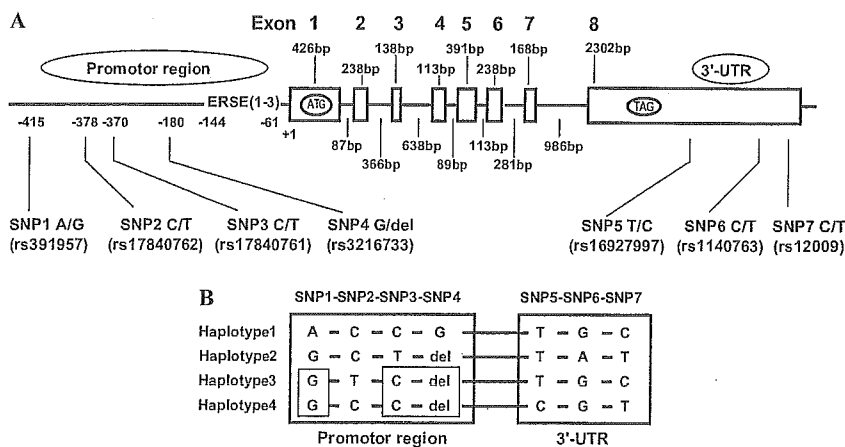

Fig. 1. *HSPA5* gene structure. (A) Genomic structure and the location of single nucleotide polymorphisms. (B) Haplotypes of 7 SNPs of *HSPA5*. Three SNPs in the upstream are common to haplotype 3, the risk for NIMH trios when transmitted paternally, and haplotype 4, the risk for Japanese population.

polymorphisms (rs11542736) registered in dbSNP database were detected in these patients. We genotyped six SNPs, except for SNP6 in 457 samples (257 control samples and 200 bipolar samples), and analyzed by COCAPHASE program. We confirmed that these six SNPs were in linkage disequilibrium (Table 1). We performed a genetic association study for four haplotypes consisted of these SNPs (haplotype 1; A-C-C-G-T-G-C, haplotype 2; G-C-T-del-T-A-T, haplotype 3; G-T-C-del-T-G-C, and haplotype 4; G-C-C-del-C-G-T) (Fig. 1B).

Case-control study of Japanese bipolar disorder and schizophrenia samples

By genotyping three flag SNPs (SNP1, SNP3, and SNP5), we performed association studies in Japanese case-control samples (control $n = 492$, bipolar disorder $n = 439$, and schizophrenia $n = 229$). Haplotype 4 was significantly associated with bipolar disorder ($p = 0.0489$) (Table 2), but not with schizophrenia. Information of family history was available in only a part of bipolar samples. As per our preliminary report [5], the association was much stronger in patients with family history of affective

disorders including bipolar disorder and depression in their first-degree relatives ($p = 0.00099$). Extended samples included independently collected sample set, "MPS sample" as described in Materials and methods. In this sample set, no significant association of any haplotype was observed (data not shown).

TDT analysis in NIMH trios

We performed transmission disequilibrium test (TDT) in 240 parents and proband trios of bipolar disorder obtained from NIMH Genetics Initiative pedigrees (NIMH trios). In NIMH trios, mainly originated from Caucasians, only three haplotypes were identified. Haplotype 4 was not found and SNP5 was not polymorphic in NIMH samples. By haplotype TDT using TDTPHASE program, no significant over-transmission was observed (Table 3).

Exploratory analysis of sex-specific transmission

Next, TDT was also performed separately in paternal and maternal transmission, because the parent of origin

Table 1
Linkage disequilibrium (LD) patterns in this region

Control	D'					
	SNP1	SNP2	SNP3	SNP4	SNP5	SNP7
r^2						
SNP1		1	1	1	1	1
SNP2	0.07541		1	1	1	1
SNP3	0.4547	0.1026		1	1	1
SNP4	1	0.07541	0.4547		1	1
SNP5	0.04775	0.01065	0.06494	0.04775		1
SNP7	0.6222	0.1402	0.7317	0.6222	0.07596	

Case	D'					
	SNP1	SNP2	SNP3	SNP4	SNP5	SNP7
r^2						
SNP1		1	1	1	1	1
SNP2	0.07608		1	1	1	1
SNP3	0.3462	0.1061		1	1	1
SNP4	1	0.07608	0.3462		1	1
SNP5	0.07116	0.02182	0.09927	0.07116		1
SNP7	0.5706	0.1775	0.598	0.5706	0.1229	

D' and r^2 were calculated by COCAPHASE.

Table 2
Association of HSPA5 haplotype with bipolar disorder in Japanese case-control samples

	BP				Sch		Control
	Total	p value	With FH[a]	p value		p value	
Haplotype 1	282(0.32)	0.0902	40(0.29)	0.0868	145(0.32)	0.1625	352(0.36)
Haplotype 2	373(0.42)	0.831	54(0.38)	0.322	204(0.45)	0.444	422(0.43)
Haplotype 3	116(0.13)	0.362	19(0.14)	0.555	49(0.11)	0.5903	116(0.12)
Haplotype 4	107(0.12)	0.0498*	27(0.19)	0.00099*	54(0.12)	0.1385	92(0.093)
	(Global 0.16)		(Global 0.0028)*		(Global 0.32)		

p values are calculated by COCAPHASE for only haplotypes which are certain at least once. BP, bipolar disorder; Sch. schizophrenia; FH. family history of mood disorders.

[a] The patients' population is the same as that reported in [5], in which SNP3, 4. and 7 were genotyped.

* $p < 0.05$.

Table 3
Transmission disequilibrium test of HSPA5 haplotype in NIMH trios

	Total			Maternal transmission			Paternal transmission		
	T	NT	p value	T	NT	p value	T	NT	p value
Haplotype 1	199(0.41)	195(0.40)	0.792	81(0.41)	77(0.39)	0.681	82(0.41)	84(0.42)	0.838
Haplotype 2	243(0.51)	254(0.53)	0.476	108(0.55)	107(0.54)	0.919	97(0.49)	108(0.55)	0.268
Haplotype 3	36(0.075)	29(0.060)	0.368	9(0.045)	14(0.070)	0.281	19(0.096)	6(0.030)	0.00597*
Haplotype 4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	(Global 0.59)			(Global 0.43)			(Global 0.0054)*		

p values are calculated by TDTPHASE. T, transmitted; NT, not-transmitted.
* p < 0.05.

effect has been shown in bipolar disorder [2]. This should be considered as an exploratory and hypothesis-generating analysis. In this study, significant over-transmission of haplotype 3 was found only in paternally transmitted alleles (transmitted, 19; not transmitted, 6; p = 0.0059) (Table 3).

Nominally significantly associated haplotype was observed as haplotype 4 in Japanese and haplotype 3 in NIMH trios. Three SNPs in the upstream region are common to these two haplotypes (Fig. 1B). When the association was re-analyzed using the haplotype of three SNPs (SNP1, 3, and 4) in the upstream region, significant association was observed in Japanese samples (p = 0.031 in total samples and p = 0.0029 in the samples with family history of mood disorder).

We hypothesized two possibilities. One is the contribution of SNP5 in Japanese samples. SNP5 is located in the 3′-UTR. Around the SNP, there are four ATTTA motifs with AT-rich contents (Fig. 2A), which suggested that the region is so-called "AU-rich element." AU-rich element is associated with mRNA stability, in most cases it promotes degradation of mRNA [31]. SNP5 is located next to the ATTTA motif and substitution from T to C reduces the contents of AT, which made us hypothesize that the substitution was associated with the stability of HSPA5 mRNA. To test this hypothesis, we performed mRNA deg-

radation assay. The other hypothesis is the contribution of haplotype in the upstream region, which was common to Japanese samples and NIMH trios. To test this hypothesis, we performed a promotor assay.

Degradation assay

We performed mRNA degradation assay using luciferase assay system. We generated two kinds of constructs which commonly have a CMV promotor and firefly luciferase coding sequence, with the 3′-UTR of HSPA5, either with T or C at SNP5. SHSY5Y cells were transfected by the construct and the degradation was examined by the relative activity of firefly luciferase of the reporter plasmid to that of Renilla luciferase of a reference plasmid co-transfected. We treated the transfected cells for 0, 2, 4, and 6 h with actinomycin D (5 µg/ml), which inhibits the transcription of mRNA, and the relative rate of degradation was calculated. No difference was observed between the construct with SNP5-T and the construct with SNP5-C (Fig. 2B).

Promotor assay

We cloned the promotor region of each haplotype into the pGL3-basic vector and generated four kinds of con-
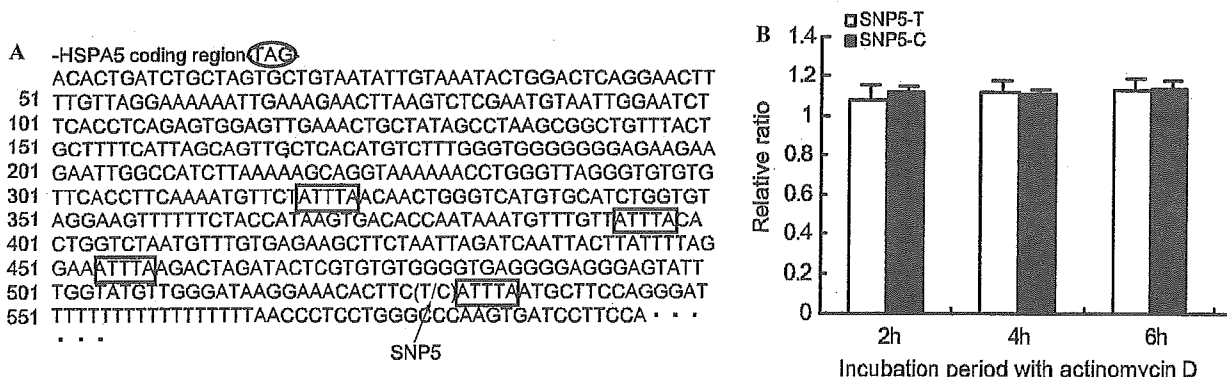

Fig. 2. Degradation assay. (A) 3′-UTR of HSPA5 gene. There are four ATTTA motifs and SNP5 is located next to the fourth motif. (B) Degradation assay for the examination whether SNP5 is associated with mRNA degradation. No difference between SNP5-T construct and SNP5-C construct. X-axis indicates the incubation time with actinomycin D (5 µg/ml) and Y-axis indicates the relative ratio of relative activities compared with the activities at 0 h. Values are means ± SD. Assay was performed independently four times.