death of an individual in Todd's model appears as a probabilistic phenomenon, or as a given event controlled by the simulation system, in sharp contrast to the activation of death in our model, which is an independent and autonomous process genetically regulated in the individual that starts from detection either of the end of its life span or of excess unconformity with the environment. Consequently, it would be difficult to rely on the ALife system as constructed by Todd to investigate the evolutionary emergence of death in a terrestrial ecosystem.

4.3 Reorganization of the Altruistic Concept

In this section, we describe the concept of altruism that informs our research, including the current study. In conventional zoology, altruism is defined, for example, as "a self-jeopardizing, self-exposing or self-sacrificing behaviour of animals, i.e. any unselfish behaviour pattern which increases the fitness of the object at expense of the altruistic individual" (*Elsevier's Dictionary of Biology* [4]). Thus, in the field of zoology, both a negative effect on a self-individual (i.e., sacrifice) and a positive effect on other individuals (i.e., contribution) are usually regarded as an intrinsic attribute of altruism. Yet there remains the need to measure the degree of altruism in terms of the magnitude of sacrifice. On the other hand, when we look at how altruism is described as a more general concept, we find that the *Oxford English Dictionary* [27] calls it "Devotion to the welfare of others, regard for others, as a principle of action." This notion offers a slightly different slant on altruism by referring to the target of altruistic behaviors as not likely limited to an individual and with greater attention paid to the contribution per se rather than to the sacrifice itself. There seems to be an inconsistency between the zoological concept and the general concept of altruism as to whether the following two conditions should be regarded as essential attributes of altruism: targeting only individuals and always accompanying sacrifice. This semantic deviation, for example, poses a challenging question: Which is more altruistic, a tremendous
Q5 contribution with negligible sacrifice or an tremendous sacrifice with negligible contribution?

In order to adequately address such a question in setting up a reliable framework for our own research, we examined the conventional concept of altruism, which is constrained by individuals and sacrifice. In doing so, we reconstructed a more flexible concept of altruism [25, 26], which need not restrict its target to an individual and need not regard sacrifice as an indispensable requirement.

We redefined an altruistic phenomenon as a phenomenon by which a living individual renders certain biological benefits to a part of the ecosystem including individuals as well as to that ecosystem as a whole, regardless of any biological benefit or disadvantage to itself [25, 26], and we have deployed this construction as a conceptual apparatus in our research. The key point is not to regard sacrifice as an indispensable requirement and not to restrict recipients of contribution to individuals, while extending the notion of recipient to the system level, that is, the ecosystem itself. The biological benefits for the ecosystem may cover various aspects, including the restoration of the environment to its original state, regeneration of reproductive potential, mutation increase, biodiversity, and so forth.

The problem of deciding whether to focus on sacrifice or contribution in altruism or whether to restrict altruism to an individual or extend it to a system is similar to deciding whether to consider light as a wave or a particle in physics. It is well known that a feature of light is easier to understand as a wave in some cases, and as a particle in other cases, and those two aspects are practically selected depending on the circumstances. Such a relationship between two standpoints may correspond to the interrelationship of paradigms, or independent axiomatic systems not mutually constraining, as proposed by Thomas Kuhn [7].

4.4 Evolutionary Mechanism of Altruistic Phenomena

Many theories and principles have been proposed and examined with regard to the evolution of altruism. Kin selection mechanisms based on inclusive fitness, first proposed by John B. S. Haldane and refined upon by William D. Hamilton and George R. Price [5, 6, 28], elegantly explains the evolution of various altruistic behaviors in animals. In addition, related studies by Tom Lenaerts, Francisco C. Santos, and Jorge M. Pacheco [30, 31] suggest that heterogeneity and complexity, which are essential attributes of the real world, have led to the evolutionary emergence and sustainability of

cooperation, a concept closely related to that of altruism. Such studies are compatible and complementary with our finding that mortal organisms endowed with altruism overwhelmingly proliferate in a complex heterogeneous terrestrial-type environment.

In addition, Martin A. Nowak has provided a useful framework to explain the evolution of cooperation—which is closely related to the concept of altruism—on the basis of the principle of natural selection [13–16, 35]. Although Nowak's idea appears to be mainly based on an interest in the origin and evolution of cooperative behaviors in humans and therefore may not precisely correspond to our concept of altruism, his framework indeed effectively explains the PSD mechanism.

According to Nowak, mechanisms for the evolution of cooperation can be classified according to five rules according to the state of the interaction among components, as follows: (i) kin selection, (ii) direct reciprocity, (iii) indirect reciprocity, (iv) network reciprocity, and (v) group selection [14]. In summary, the evolution of cooperation may occur in the following manner: (i) Kin selection operates when the donor and the recipient of an altruistic act are genetic relatives. (ii) Direct reciprocity operates when there are repeated encounters between the same two individuals and both remember their history of cooperation. (iii) Indirect reciprocity is based on reputation, that is, a helpful individual is more likely to receive help. (iv) Network reciprocity operates when cooperators form a close network in which reciprocity develops. (v) Group selection involves the recognition that competition is not only between individuals but also among groups. Group selection sometimes has priority over individual selection, and pure cooperator groups prevail over groups laden with defectors.

Nowak examined this taxonomy while referring to a large number of previous studies, pointing out that emerging cooperation evolves from natural selection as appropriate conditions are satisfied, whereas it becomes extinct when such conditions are not satisfied. He also formulated five simple rules, dependent mainly on the parameters of cost and benefit, by which to discriminate whether or not cooperation will be naturally selected [14]. Based on this framework, he insightfully suggested natural cooperation as a third principle of evolution besides mutation and natural selection.

Nowak's insight with regard to the mechanisms for the evolution of cooperation throws light on our findings of a paradoxical phenomenon in which individuals actualizing altruistic death by means of self-decomposition, though seemingly withdrawing from the struggle for survival, actually prevail over immortal individuals. Needless to say, the kin selection mechanism at least partly explains our seemingly contradictory finding that a species endowed with altruistic death is superior to one without it. Moreover, network reciprocity may also work because the environmental conditions of our simulation space were heterogeneously determined and the virtual individuals were set so that they could not migrate outside their habitation area. Therefore, each group of virtual individuals adapted evolutionarily to environmental conditions specific to the habitat spatial block, and the individuals were spatially separated from other individuals existing under other environmental conditions. Since these circumstances can be interpreted as indicating that virtual individuals within each spatial block form a close network, the superiority of PSD may include a mechanism categorized as network reciprocity. In addition, because a network constructed only by mortal lives reuses materials and space more efficiently than does that inclusive of immortal lives, it likely accelerates evolutionary adaptation to the environment. Thus group selection is also of importance. Moreover, multiple evolutionary mechanisms interacting with one another could be involved.

Thus Nowak's five rules for the evolution of cooperation convincingly account for at least a part of the PSD mechanism. Yet there one more point that should be considered. That is, is Nowak's model sufficiently robust that we can exclude an examination of unknown factors possibly missing from his model?

First, we need to mention that, in our experimental system, all VLIs in the ecosystem are offspring of one initially seeded VLI, which means that all VLIs participating in one simulation are genetic relatives. In particular, since the initial mortal VLI was born from an immortal VLI through a point mutation, these two VLIs share the same genes to a significant degree. At the same time, mortal VLIs have advanced through evolution to other spatial blocks having remarkably different environmental conditions from those of the spatial block in which the initial VLIs existed. This suggests that the genotypes of mortal VLIs distant from the initial habitat point should differ markedly from that of

the initial mortal VLI, due to repeated mutations. Thus the commonality of genotypes between different VLIs, that is, the degree of kin relationship, would continuously decrease. It follows that an evolutionary force driven by kin selection cannot be strengthened, although it can be weakened, as time passes. In our simulation experiments, however, the number of mutations kept increasing and evolutionary adaptation to the environment continuously accelerated. It is necessary to examine whether the kin selection mechanism, basically resting its claim on the commonality between genotypes, can be independently verified as a determinant force for evolution in such situations.

Second, in our simulations it was noteworthy that a VLI contributing to others through altruistic self-decomposition disappeared in tandem with the self-decomposition process and thus no longer existed as a target for reciprocity or retribution nor as a subject of recognition and decision. Therefore, it is difficult to compare the degree of risk or sacrifice with the degree of benefit at the individual level according to Nowak's model. We should carefully consider how altruistic phenomena might be actively selected under such a condition.

Third, in order to delve into potential activities within our ecosystem-dominant umwelt model, the SIVA simulator used in our research was designed to eliminate direct interactions between particular individuals such as bestowal, partnership, predation, and competition as well as sexual reproduction. In our experimental system, each VLI is designed to interact only with its environment through utilizing materials for self-reproduction, releasing its decomposed parts at self-decomposition, and occupying and releasing habitat space, as shown in Figure 3. By assumption, mutual direct interaction between or among plural VLIs cannot occur. Instead, all interaction between VLIs always occurs indirectly through the ecosystem as a change in environmental conditions. No decomposed parts produced by the PSD mechanism belong to any particular individuals, but they do exist as a group of environmental materials that can be utilized by any VLI in the ecosystem. Decomposed parts are utilized by any VLI, and direct descendants are not accorded any special favoritism. In other words, the recipients of decomposed biomaterial contributed by self-decomposition are not restricted to any particular individual or group of individuals. In order to actualize such a concept, we did not install any mechanisms into the VLIs by which to recognize and discriminate other individuals. Thus, using SIVA, we can perform a simulation experiment in which particular individuals do not become targets for cooperation or antagonism based on individual discrimination. All our past simulations were conducted in such a way. Our experimental setting attempts to draw a distinction counter to the conventional meaning of "selection" implied by individual discrimination, which can be regarded as a selection function regulated by internal factors. Selections by individual discrimination should be kept distinct from natural selections induced by an external factor of environmental conditions.

Given these considerations, we implemented for the SIVA simulator a most primitive theoretical model for life in which the fundamental principle of terrestrial life is ultimately simplified and abstracted, taking von Neumann's self-reproductive automaton [37] as our prototype, that is, it reproduces and decomposes itself solely according to genetic information. All biological information possessed by a VLI is remembered as a sequence of virtual genomes while precluding any other method by which to remember information. In other words, in our experimental system, a VLI does not make use of any method by which to remember experiences during its life span or to discriminate between individuals, and all its life activities are regulated solely according to genetic information in read-only memory (that is, a genome), and can be changed only by mutation in the event of self-reproduction of VLIs.

Taking into account the above-mentioned points raised by our experimental system, we reexamined Nowak's five rules from the viewpoint of evolutionary biology, especially focusing on evolutional development of a biological control system, and discussed their bearing on our studies.

First of all, we focused on the most developed biological control system of interest to Nowak, the central nervous system in vertebrates (including humans), in which plasticity of efficiency of information transmission at the synaptic junction and its extensive accumulation effectively function to remember experiences [1]. Functions of individual discrimination and behavior selection based on such a flexible memory function are not only essential for indirect reciprocity requiring communication regarding others' reputation, but are also important for direct reciprocity requiring contribution to

specific individuals that have contributed to oneself, as well as for network reciprocity requiring clustering with specific individuals. The distributed neural network connecting neural ganglia, which corresponds to the biological control system evolutionarily preceding the central nervous system, is fundamental to direct reciprocity and network reciprocity based on individual discrimination of, for example, social insects. Of course, such functions of the nervous system can enable organisms to actualize group selection and kin selection.

Next, the biological control system evolutionarily preceding the nervous systems is a chemical messenger, typically observed as the endocrine system of animals, hormones of multicellular plants, pheromones of insects, and so forth. In the case of organisms without a nervous system, selective expression of life activities based on individual discrimination by means of a certain chemical messenger system is indispensable for group selection, in which cooperative behaviors should be exerted on discriminating individuals within a group from those outside the group, and for kin selection, in which cooperative behaviors should be according to the degree of kinship. Nowak's five rules essentially require reference to remembered information to discriminate whether other individuals are appropriate recipients of cooperation, and to selectively express a cooperative behavior toward a specific individual or a group of individuals (including the species) under the commitment of a relatively developed biological control system, as mentioned above.

On the other hand, there is a biological control mechanism evolutionarily preceding the chemical messenger system, namely, metabolic regulation on the basis of genetic information remembered in DNA a priori. This mechanism can be actualized by a single cell alone, which is a basic unit of terrestrial life, and therefore it is fundamental to all kinds of biological control systems of terrestrial lives. Our SIVA simulator is designed to focus on evolutionary phenomena that can be actualized solely by means of this biological control system. Thus the PSD mechanism corresponds to the most primitive class of terrestrial lives, namely, cells controlled only by metabolic regulation, and does not reach any level of the five mechanisms as proposed by Nowak. Terrestrial lives in this class not only control themselves, but also support those belonging to higher-developed classes, of which Nowak took note, possibly as an indispensable infrastructure. It is noteworthy that PSD, which is an altruistic phenomenon specific to metabolic regulation or autolysis, may exist universally in terrestrial lives, as suggested by the universal extent of lysosomes (i.e., organelles executing PSD) in every eukaryote cell.

Various findings from our experiments support Nowak's idea that "we might add natural cooperation as a third fundamental principle of evolution beside mutation and natural selection." Nowak incorporated evolutionary mechanisms of cooperative behavior in higher organisms, which are dependent on interaction between particular living individuals. Such mechanisms require biological control systems, such as chemical messengers and, ideally, a central nervous system, that enable the remembering of experience and the ability to discriminate between individuals. In other words, functions to discriminate and select other individuals, partly through referring to remembered information, are inseparable from cooperative behaviors. Consequently, Nowak's framework quite adequately accounts for cooperative behaviors, which can be regarded as a certain type of altruistic phenomena that target only specific individuals or groups.

By contrast, our research has suggested that the involvement of altruism promotes evolutionary adaptation even in very primitive life forms equipped with only the fundamental principle of terrestrial life, namely, self-reproduction and self-decomposition regulated solely by a genetic program, and without any functions by which to discriminate between individuals. This means that altruistic phenomena can be an evolutionary force even without requiring discrimination and selection of other living individuals, that is, interaction including cooperation among specific individuals.

An individual-oriented evolutionary mechanism is conventionally accepted in which a living individual or the population to which it belongs actively retains its specific properties based on interaction between individuals, that is, discrimination and selection of other individuals, as is the case with higher animals. On the other hand, in our experimental conditions it was difficult for such individual-oriented discrimination and selection to occur. Nevertheless, the altruistic gene contributed to either a part of or the entire system through the restoration of the ecosystem to its original state in a way that rendered neither advantage nor disadvantage to individuals. As a result, the altruistic gene was naturally selected

as a trait suitable for such an environment. Our findings suggest the possibility of the existence of an ecosystem-oriented evolutionary mechanism. Yet it seems premature to conclude that no mechanism promoting evolution other than an individual-oriented mechanism exists. We therefore wish to pay increased attention to the possibility that a more fundamental ecosystem-oriented evolutionary mechanism of programmed death accompanied by altruistic self-decomposition could exist as the infrastructure of individual-oriented altruistic mechanisms.

4.5 Conclusion

As described above, our research has focused on a lacuna in previous research on altruism by paying keen attention to death with altruistic self-decomposition, which seemingly contradicts our understanding of the survival of the fittest and the struggle for existence. We have identified a mechanism by which mortal organisms through altruistic activity overcome immortal organisms deprived of altruism and prosper. We also suggest that such activity might promote evolution in a finite, heterogeneous terrestrial-type environment. In showing that the altruistic mortal gene endowed with self-decomposition can be acquired through the evolution of immortal lives, our findings thus offer new insight into the overwhelming evolutionary superiority of lives with the altruistic mortal gene over immortal lives. We believe that such results might augur the opening of a new field of inquiry not only in the study of altruism, but also, more broadly, in the realm of evolutionary biology.

In addition, our present study advocates the study of artificial life based on artificial chemistry to simulate existent terrestrial life, as a promising research tool in the field of interdisciplinary life science including evolutionary biology. We believe in the potential of artificial chemistry in this regard and expect that the concepts, insights, and cutting-edge techniques of artificial life research will henceforward become ever more widely disseminated in all fields of inquiry related to life phenomena.

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Frontal and right temporal activations correlate negatively with depression severity during verbal fluency task: A multi-channel near-infrared spectroscopy study

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ABSTRACT

Multi-channel near-infrared spectroscopy (NIRS) is a noninvasive, on-the-spot, functional neuroimaging technique allowing detection of the spatiotemporal characteristics of brain activity. Previous NIRS studies indicated the oxy-hemoglobin (oxy-Hb) increase during a verbal fluency task (VFT) is attenuated in patients with major depressive disorder (MDD) as compared with healthy controls. However, the possible relationship between depression symptom severity and oxy-Hb change on NIRS has not yet been elucidated. To examine this relationship, we recruited 30 patients with MDD and 30 age-, gender- and intelligence quotient-matched controls. All underwent NIRS during VFT. As expected, the oxy-Hb increase during the task was significantly smaller in patients than in controls. After false discovery rate correction using 31 channels, the mean increase in oxy-Hb during the task showed a significant negative correlation with the total score of the Hamilton Rating Scale for Depression 21-item version (ch25: rho = −.56; FDR-corrected p: .001). When each item of the HAM-D21 was examined individually, insomnia early in 9 channels (rho = −.63 to −.46; FDR corrected p: .000–.014), work and activity in 2 channels (rho = −.61 to −.57; FDR corrected p: .001 to .003) and psychomotor retardation in 12 channels (rho = −.70 to −.44; FDR corrected p: .000–.018) showed significant negative correlations with the mean oxy-Hb increase in the right frontal temporal region. Although it is possible that our results were affected by medication, these data suggest reduced right frontal temporal activation on NIRS during VFT is related to the symptom severity of MDD.

1. Introduction

Major depressive disorder (MDD) is a severe and common psychiatric disorder with a lifetime prevalence of 6.7 per 100 (Waraich et al., 2004). Although depressive symptoms per se do not specifically appear in MDD but also in other psychiatric disorders including bipolar disorders, we do not have an objective diagnostic marker to obtain a clear-cut diagnosis for those patients. In Japan, a relatively new neuroimaging method, near-infrared spectroscopy (NIRS) has been approved by the Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare as a highly advanced medical technology to help distinguish between schizophrenia, depression and bipolar disorders in 2009. Verbal fluency task (VFT) is recommended as an activation task because of a relatively rich store of data. VFT is an easy task to examine the executive function and frequently used in neuroimaging studies (Alvarez and Emory, 2006) and is known to activate prefrontal cortex (PFC) in healthy subjects (Frith et al., 1991; Schlösser et al., 1998). Numerous neuropsychological studies suggest that patients with MDD show executive dysfunction (Gohier et al., 2009; Rose and Ebmeier, 2006; Fossati et al., 2003; Porter et al., 2003; Degl'Innocenti et al., 1998).

Multi-channel near-infrared spectroscopy (NIRS) is a noninvasive, on-the-spot, restraint-free functional neuroimaging technique allowing detection of the spatiotemporal characteristics of brain

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function near the brain surface using near-infrared light (Strangman et al., 2002a; Boas et al., 2004). NIRS has enabled bedside measurement of the concentrations of oxy-hemoglobin (oxy-Hb) and deoxy-hemoglobin (deoxy-Hb) changes with a high time resolution (.1 s). The concentrations of oxy-Hb and deoxy-Hb are assumed to reflect the regional cerebral blood volume (rCBV) changes, which was supported by the simultaneous NIRS and PET study (Villringer et al., 1997; Ohmae et al., 2006).

In fact, numerous studies have demonstrated that the oxy-Hb increase in the fronto-temporal regions during a VFT is significantly smaller in patients with MDD than in those with bipolar disorder or healthy controls (Pu et al., 2008; Kameyama et al., 2006; Suto et al., 2004; Matsuo et al., 2002). Moreover, NIRS studies using VFT have also demonstrated frontal lobe dysfunction in schizophrenia (Suto et al., 2004; Takizawa et al., 2008), and panic disorder (Nishimura et al., 2007). However, the relationship between depression symptom severity at the time of examination and oxy-Hb change on NIRS has not yet been clarified.

In neuroimaging studies using other methodologies, focusing on cortex level that NIRS reflects, positron emission tomography (PET) studies found that abnormal reductions of cerebral blood flow (CBF) and metabolism in patients with MDD in PFC (Kimbrell et al., 2002; Bench et al., 1995; Mayberg et al., 1994; Baxter et al., 1989). As for the relationship between executive function and CBF or metabolism, Elliott et al. (1997) showed activation in PFC was significantly attenuated relative to controls during the Tower of London planning task in PET study. In a functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) study, depressed patients showed significant decreased prefrontal activation during VFT (Okada et al., 2003).

As for the relationship between depression symptom severity and frontal lobe function, Brody et al. (1999) found a positive correlation between change in Hamilton Rating Scale for Depression (HAM-D) scores and change in normalized inferior frontal gyrus (IFG) and ventrolateral PFC (VLPFC) metabolism, which indicates that IFG metabolism increased and VLPFC metabolism decreased as depression symptoms became better. Other initial studies also suggest that abnormal functions in dorsolateral PFC (DLPFC) are mood state dependent, attenuated during the depressed mood and reversing during symptom remission (Bench et al., 1995; Mayberg et al., 1994). In contrast, Drevets et al. (2002) showed the persistence of abnormal metabolic deficits using PET measures in the dorsomedial/dorsal anterolateral PFC in MDD during treatment. According to a review by Drevets (2000), a complex relationship exists between depression symptom severity and metabolic activity in the orbital cortex and VLPFC.

Findings obtained by more recent studies investigating cross-sectional relationship between depression symptom severity and brain function assessed by basal regional CBF and metabolism are also inconsistent. For example, Périco et al. (2005) reported that depression symptom severity was negatively correlated with regional CBF (rCBF) in the left amygdala, lentiform nucleus, and parahippocampal gyrus, and positively correlated with rCBF in the right postero-lateral parietal cortex, whereas Milak et al. (2005) showed only positive correlations in bilateral mesiotemporal cortex, parts of the ventral subgenual basal forebrain, and most of the thalamus, hypothalamus, ventral striatum, and midbrain. Accordingly more studies are warranted to clarify the relationship between depression severity and brain activity including frontal lobe function.

In the present study, considering the consistent finding of attenuated oxy-Hb changes during VFT in the fronto-temporal regions in depression, we hypothesized that oxy-Hb changes during VFT in NIRS could be objective indicators of depressive symptom severity. Thus, we used multi-channel NIRS to investigate the relationship between oxy-Hb changes and symptom severity in patients with MDD. Because NIRS can be measured easily and noninvasively in a restraint-free environment over a short amount of time we expect that NIRS can be widely used to assess objectively depressive symptom severity as a clinical examination.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Subjects

The subjects were 30 patients with MDD, and 30 healthy volunteers matched for age, gender and premorbid intelligence quotient (IQ). Premorbid IQ was estimated using the Japanese version of the National Adult Reading Test (Matsuoka et al., 2006). All subjects were right-handed according to the Edinburgh Inventory (Oldfield, 1971) and were native speakers of Japanese. All MDD subjects were outpatients of the National Center of Neurology and Psychiatry Hospital in Tokyo, Japan. They were diagnosed according to the Structured Clinical Interview for the Diagnostic Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 4th edition (DSM-IV) Axis I Disorders (SCID-I; First et al., 1995) by experienced psychiatrists. All patients were medicated with antidepressants. Twenty-seven out of 30 patients were prescribed with one or two antidepressants, 16 with SSRIs, 12 with tricyclics, 7 with milnacipran, 5 with tetracyclics, 2 with trazodone and 1 with mirtazapine. In addition, 20 patients were prescribed with anxiolytics, 16 with hypnotics, 7 with mood stabilizers and 9 with antipsychotics (Supplementary Table 1). Daily doses of all antidepressants were converted to an equivalent dose of imipramine (Inagaki and Inada, 2006) and anxiolytics/hypnotics to that of diazepam (Inagaki and Inada, 2006) for each patient. The controls were healthy volunteers recruited from the same geographical area through advertisements in free local magazines and our website announcement. They were interviewed using the SCID-I for MDD or SCID-NP for healthy volunteers and an unstructured interview for family history, and those individuals who had a current or past history of Axis I psychiatric disorder or a positive family history of Axis I psychiatric disorder within their first degree relatives were excluded. The exclusion criteria for both groups were previous head trauma, neurological illness, a history of electroconvulsive therapy, alcohol/substance abuse or addiction.

After the study procedures had been fully explained, written informed consent was obtained from every participant. This study was approved by the ethics committee of the National Center of Neurology and Psychiatry.

2.2. Clinical assessment

Depressive symptoms and the level of social functioning were evaluated by a single experienced psychiatrist using the GRID Hamilton Rating Scale for Depression 21-item version (GRID HAM-D21; Kalali et al., 2002) and Global Assessment of Functioning scores (GAF; American Psychiatric Association, 1994), respectively, without knowledge of the NIRS data on the same day that the NIRS measurements were conducted. Sleepiness was evaluated as the score on the Stanford Sleepiness Scale (SSS; Hoddes et al., 1973).

2.3. Activation task

The activation task was a letter version of VFT similar to that described by Takizawa et al. (2008). During the VFT, changes in oxy-Hb and deoxy-Hb were measured. The VFT consisted of a 30-sec pre-task baseline, a 60-sec VFT, and a 70-sec post-task baseline. The subjects were instructed to repeat the syllables /a/, /i/, /u/, /e/ and /o/ during the pre-task and post-task baseline periods. For the VFT, the subjects were instructed to generate as many words as possible.

One of the three initial syllables (A; 0–20 s /a/, /to/, or /na/, B; 20–40 s /i/, /ki/, or /se/, C; 40–60 s /o/, /ta/, or /ha/) was randomly

presented on the computer display placed in front of the subjects, every 20 s during the 60-sec task. The number of possible combinations of syllables is 27 (A:3 × B;3 × C;3 = 27). We adopted 15 among the possible combinations. The number of correct words generated during the task was determined as a measure of task performance.

3. NIRS measurements

3.1. NIRS device

We used a 52-channels NIRS (ETG-4000 Optical Topography System; Hitachi Medical Co., Tokyo, Japan) which measures relative changes in oxy-Hb and deoxy-Hb using two wavelengths (695 nm and 830 nm) of infrared light based on the modified Beer–Lambert law (Yamashita et al., 1996). With this system, these Hb values include a differential pathlength factor (DPF). In the NIRS system, "hemoglobin concentration change*DPF" is calculated as a solution to the simultaneous equations based on the Beer–Lambert law, which cannot escape the effect of DPF. Although DPF varies among various brain regions Zhao et al., using a Monte Carlo simulation, reported the estimated DPF variation in the forehead region of adult humans was roughly homogeneous (Zhao et al., 2002).

The distance between a pair of source-detector probes was set at 3.0 cm and each area measured between a pair of source-detector probes was defined as a 'channel'. The NIRS device is considered to measure 'channels' at a 2–3 cm depth from the scalp, that is, at the surface of the cerebral cortex (Hock et al., 1997; Okada and Delpy, 2003, Toronov et al., 2001).

3.2. Probe positioning and measurement points

The NIRS probes were fixed with 3 × 11 thermoplastic shells, with the lowest probes positioned along the Fp1–Fp2 line according to the international 10–20 system used in electroencephalography. The probes can measure Hb values from bilateral prefrontal and temporal surface regions. The measuring points were labeled ch1 to ch52 from right-posterior to left-anterior (Fig. 1). The correspondence between these NIRS channels and the measurement points on the cerebral cortex was confirmed by a multi-subject study of anatomical cranio-cerebral correlations (Okamoto et al., 2004) and presented on the basis of results obtained by the virtual registration method (Tsuzuki et al., 2007).

3.3. Measurement parameters

The rate of data sampling was .1 second (s). The obtained data were analyzed using integral mode; the pre-task baseline was determined as the mean over a 10 s period just prior to the task period, and the post-task baseline was determined as the mean over the last 5 s of the post-task period. Linear fitting was then applied to the data between these two baselines. The moving average method using a window width of 5 s was applied to remove any short-term motion artifacts. Because we could not remove all artifacts in this way, we applied automatic rejection of data with artifacts separately for each channel (Takizawa et al., 2008).

According to the aforementioned measurement parameters for integral mode, the waveforms of oxy-Hb, deoxy-Hb and total-Hb

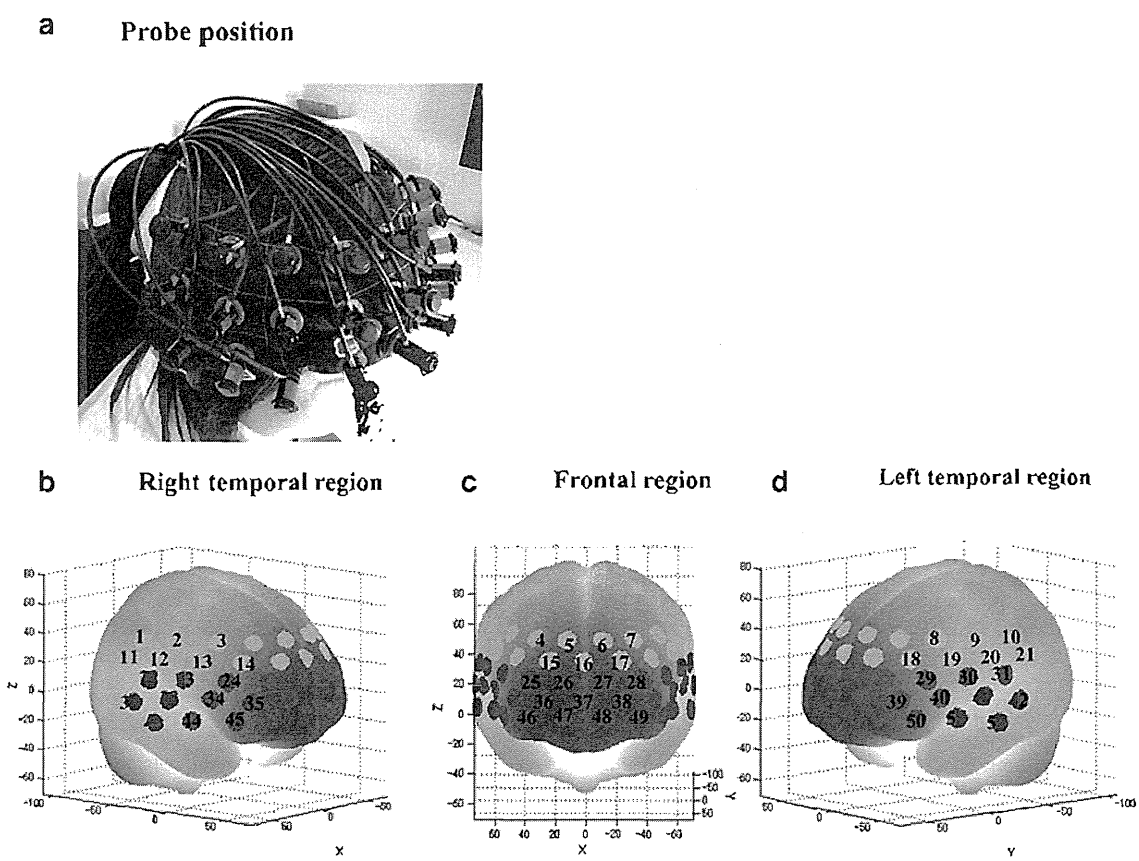

Fig. 1. Measurement points of 52 channels for near-infrared spectroscopy (NIRS) (a) Probes with 3 × 11 thermoplastic shells were placed over a subject's bilateral frontal regions. (b–d) The 52 measuring positions of the NIRS device are superimposed on the 3D-reconstructed cerebral surface, based on magnetic resonance imaging. The 52 measuring positions are labeled ch1 to ch52, from the right posterior to the left posterior. The dimensional figures b, c and d indicate the right temporal, frontal and left temporal brain regions, respectively. Because acquired NIRS data from the 21 channels in the upper two rows (pink channels) clearly contained artifacts presumably due to hair, as indicated by visual inspection of the waveforms, and signal to noise ratio seemed to be low, they were excluded from statistical analyses.

changes were acquired from each subject in all 52 channels during VFT.

3.4. Measurement environment

The subjects sat on a comfortable chair in a silent and day-lit room. They were instructed to minimize motions such as head movements, strong biting and blinking during the NIRS measurement, to avoid artifacts.

Data clearly containing motion artifacts, based on both our observations and the NIRS recording, were excluded from further analyses.

4. Statistical analysis

Because acquired NIRS data from the 21 channels in the upper two rows clearly contained artifacts presumably due to hair, as indicated by visual inspection of the waveforms, and signal to noise ration seemed to be low, they were excluded from statistical analyses.

The χ^2 test or Student's t-test was used to compare proportions and means, respectively, between the MDD and control groups.

As for the analysis of the NIRS data, we focused on oxy-Hb data, since oxy-Hb change (task period − pre- and post-task baseline period) is assumed to more directly reflect cognitive activation than deoxy-Hb change as shown by a stronger correlation with blood-oxygenation level-dependent signal measured by fMRI (Strangman et al., 2002b). The mean oxy-Hb changes were compared between the two groups (MDD and control) for each channel using Student's t-test. To examine the relationships between oxy-Hb changes and HAM-D21 total scores, HAM-D21 subscale scores, GAF, or other clinical variables, Spearman's rhos were calculated for MDD patients.

All statistical analyses were performed using SPSS for Windows, version 18.0.0 software (SPSS Japan, Tokyo, Japan). A value of $p < .05$ (two-tailed) was considered to be statistically significant. We set the value of q specifying the maximum false discovery rate (FDR) at .05, such that the false positive rate was no more than 5% on average in treating the oxy-Hb data obtained from multiple channels (Singh and Dan, 2006).

5. Results

5.1. Demographic and clinical data of patients and controls

Table 1 summarizes demographic characteristics of the patients and controls. The two groups did not differ significantly in age, gender, handedness, estimated premorbid IQ or SSS.

5.2. Task performance

The number of words generated did not differ significantly among the 15 combinations employed (15 combinations: $F[1, 45] = 1.1$, $p = .39$; three initial syllables: $F[2, 90] = 1.2$, $p = .31$) in either group. The number of generated words during VFT did not differ significantly (patients: 12.3 ± 3.9; controls 13.9 ± 4.3, $t = 1.5$, $df = 58$, $p = .13$) between the MDD and control groups.

5.3. Group comparison

As shown in Fig. 2, the MDD group had significantly smaller oxy-Hb increases than the control group in 22 channels (ch22–29, ch32–33, ch35–39 and ch44-50; FDR-corrected p: .000–.024) during VFT.

5.4. Relationship with symptom severity at the time of examination

As shown in Fig. 2, there were significant negative correlations between mean oxy-Hb changes during the task and HAM-D21 total scores in one channel (ch25: rho = −.56; FDR-corrected p: .001). Mean oxy-Hb changes during the task period showed significant negative correlations with three individual items of the HAM-D21 subscale scores (Fig. 3); insomnia early in 9 channels (ch23, ch25–27, ch36–37 and ch46–48: rho = −.63 to −.46; FDR corrected p: .000–.014), work and activity in 2 channels (ch44 and ch45: rho = −.61 to −.57; FDR corrected p: .001 to .003), and psychomotor retardation in 12 channels (ch22–24, ch32, ch35–36, ch41, ch43–ch45, ch47 and ch51: rho = −.70 to −.44; FDR corrected p: .000–.018). Mean oxy-Hb changes showed no significant correlations with the remaining HAM-D21 subscale scores (i.e., depressed mood, guilt, insomnia middle, insomnia late, psychomotor agitation, anxiety psychic, anxiety somatic, loss of appetite, somatic symptoms general, sexual interest, hypochondriasis, loss of weight, insight, diurnal variation, and obsessional symptoms;) (Fig. 4).

Furthermore, mean oxy-Hb changes showed no significant correlation with task performance during VFT or other clinical variables, such as age, duration of illness, and sleepiness (data not shown).

5.5. Relationships with medication

There were no significant correlations between the HAM-D21 total score and doses of antidepressants (rho = −.23, $p = .22$) or anxiolytics (rho = .25, $p = .18$). There were significant negative correlations between mean oxy-Hb changes during the task and doses of antidepressants in 6 channels (ch31, ch40–41, ch45, ch50–51: rho = −.57

Table 1
Demographic and clinical data of patients with major depressive disorder and controls.

Demographics	Patients with depression ($n = 30$)	Healthy controls ($n = 30$)	Group difference p-value
Age (years)	36.7 ± 11.6	35.1 ± 9.4	.871
Gender (female/male)	16/14	16/14	1.000
Edinburgh handedness inventory (%)	92.9 ± 9.7	92.0 ± 11.5	.753
Age at onset (years)	30.9 ± 10.8	–	–
Duration of illness (years)	5.8 ± 4.1	–	–
Duration of medication (years)	5.0 ± 3.6	–	–
GRID HAM-D21 total score	16.7 ± 4.8	–	–
Estimated premorbid IQ	105.7 ± 9.5	105.9 ± 8.3	.953
Sleepiness	3.3 ± 1.1	2.9 ± .9	.104
GAF	57.6 ± 9.3		
Medication			
Imipramine equivalent dose (mg/day)	141.9 ± 127.6	–	–
Diazepam equivalent dose (mg/day)	8.5 ± 11.6	–	–

The χ^2 test or t-test was used to compare these variables between patients and controls. GAF, Global Assessment of Functioning; GRID HAM-D21, GRID Hamilton Rating Scale for Depression 21 item; IQ, Intelligence Quotient.

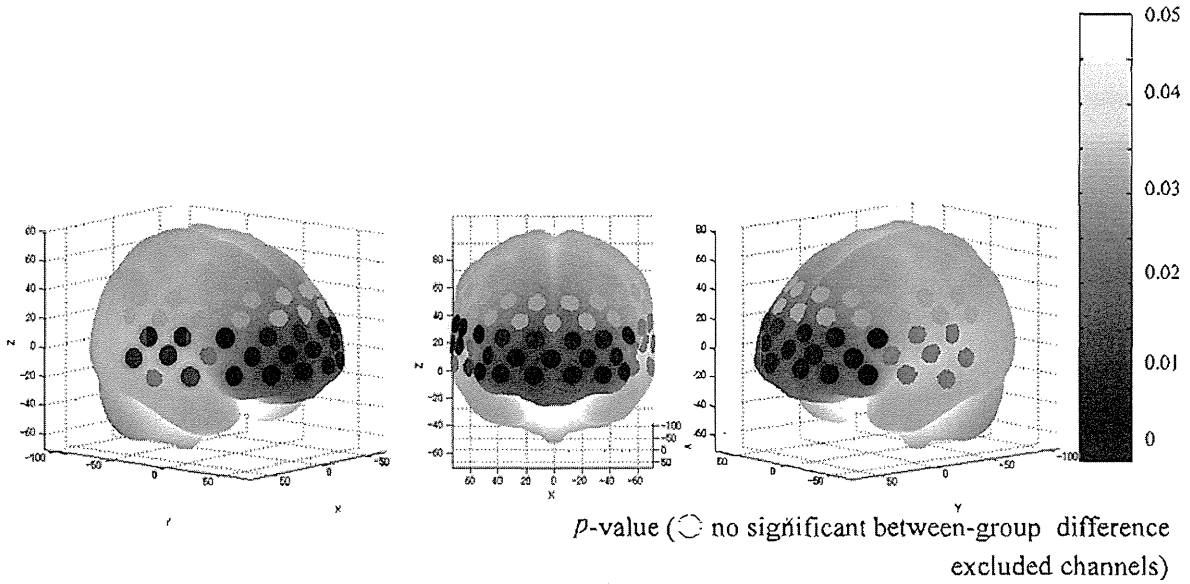

Fig. 2. p-value significance map of t-tests for oxy-Hb increases in patients with MDD compared with healthy controls during VFT using FDR correction. The warm colored circles represent significantly smaller oxy-Hb increases than in the control group at the channels indicated. There were 22 channels (ch22–29, ch32–33, ch35–39 and ch44–50; FDR-corrected p: 000–.024).

to −.48; FDR-corrected p: .002 to .007). Mean oxy-Hb changes showed no significant correlations with doses of anxiolytics.

6. Discussion

6.1. Task performance

The number of words generated during the VFT did not differ significantly between patients and controls, which is consistent with the majority of previous studies (Matsuo et al., 2002; Fossati et al., 2003; Suto et al., 2004; Kameyama et al., 2006). Previous studies reported impairment on semantic fluency tasks in depression (Calev et al., 1989; Tarbuck and Paykel, 1995). However, on phonemic fluency task conflicting results patients showing normal or impairment performance in depression (Albus et al., 1996; Degl'Innocenti et al., 1998). Type of psychiatric disorder and task time setting may reflect the discrepancies (Fossati et al., 2003). In the present study, the time setting of VFT was three phonemes within 60 s, that is, 20 s for each phoneme, which differs from the standard VFT usually using 60 s for one phoneme. The time setting condition was designed as it is, so that the subjects were able to keep generating words regularly within the task period to avoid the effect of "not speaking". It is possible that the time setting condition in the present study caused the lack of significant between group-difference in task performance.

6.2. Between-group comparison of oxy-Hb activation

The present study showed oxy-Hb activation during VFT to be significantly smaller in the MDD group than in age-, gender- and IQ-matched healthy controls. This result is essentially consistent with those obtained using NIRS (Matsuo et al., 2002; Herrmann et al., 2004; Suto et al., 2004; Kameyama et al., 2006; Pu et al., 2008), single photon emission computed tomography (SPECT) (Mayberg et al., 1994) or functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) (Okada et al., 2003).

6.3. Relationships with symptom severity at the time of examination

Mean oxy-Hb changes during the task period showed a significantly negative correlation with HAM-D21 total score at ch25. Ch25 is located approximately in the right DLPFC. The finding is in line with some initial studies (Bench et al., 1995; Mayberg et al., 1994) which suggest that abnormal functions in DLPFC are mood dependent. However, other more recent studies investigating cross-sectional relationship between depression psychopathology and brain function do not coincide with our result (Périco et al., 2005; Milak et al., 2005). One of the reasons for the discrepancy may arise from the different methodologies; in the present study we adopted VFT for activation whereas the previous studies observed the basal activity with no activation task. Although speculative as it is, the activation of PFC by VFT may have led to the significant relationship between oxy-Hb changes and depression symptom severity in the right DLPFC.

More interestingly, mean oxy-Hb changes during the task period showed significant negative correlations with three individual HAM-D21 items in a wider area than they showed with HAM-D21 total scores; insomnia early in nine, work and activity in two and psychomotor retardation in twelve channels. The nine channels correlating with "insomnia early" were located approximately in the right pre-motor area, DLPFC and frontopolar and orbitofrontal areas. The two channels correlating with "work and activity" were located approximately in the right DLPFC and temporopolar area. The twelve channels correlating with "psychomotor retardation" were located broadly in the fronto-temporal areas with right hemispheric dominance. Although these findings should be treated with care given the exploratory nature of multiple analyses, it is noteworthy that at least some subscale scores of HAM-D21 appeared to show stronger relationship with oxy-Hb changes than HAM-D21 total scores. It has been pointed out that HAM-D17 and/or HAM-D21 are not necessarily unidimensional, and thus not adequate to assess depression severity (Bagby et al., 2004). Licht et al. (2005) showed that a set of the HAM-D containing six subscales constitute a unidimensional scale measuring severity of

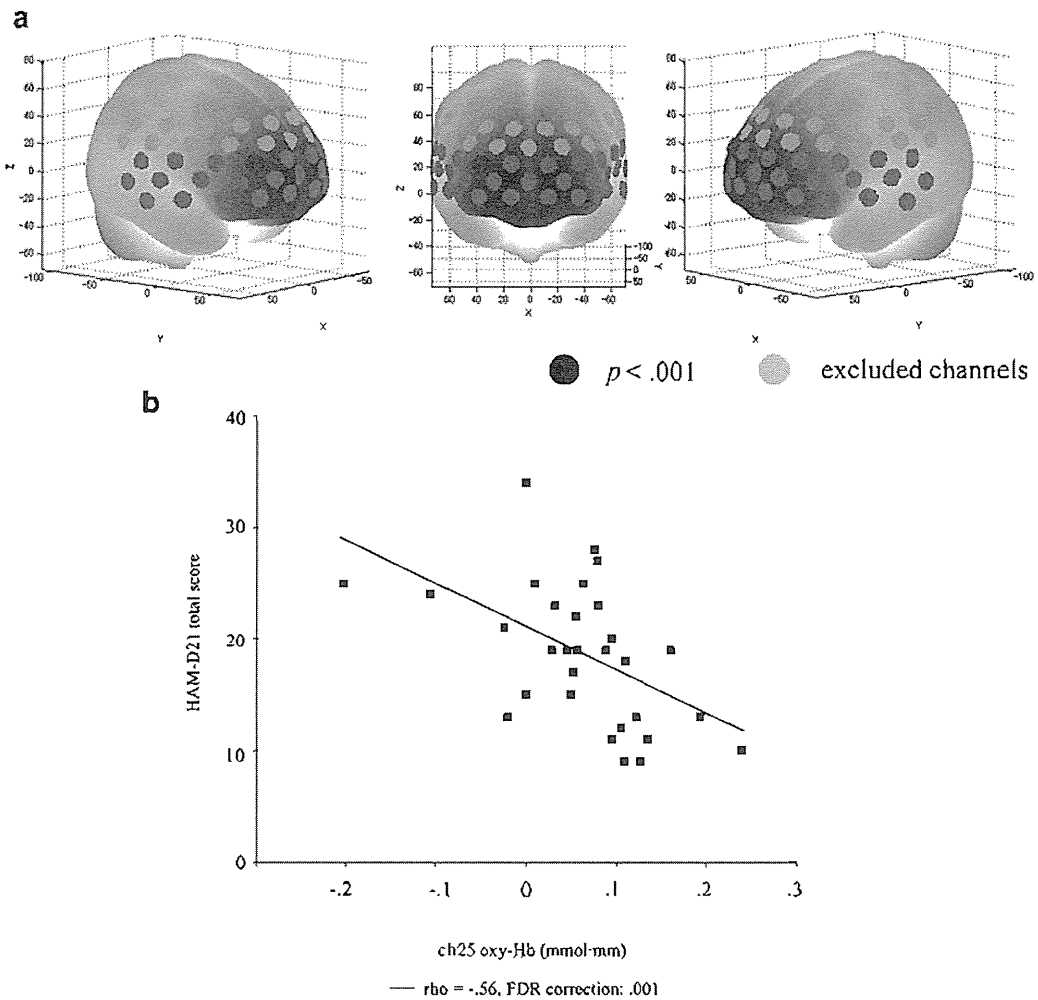

Fig. 3. (a) The channels with a significant correlation between oxy-Hb changes and HAM-D21 total score after FDR correction. (b) Scatter graph showing the relationship between HAM-D21 total scores and oxy-Hb activation in ch25.

depression, whereas the remaining items covering neurovegetative symptoms showed a problematic response somewhat insensitive to depression severity. In fact, the multidimensionality was highlighted in the unstable factor structure, which was demonstrated by a failure to replicate a single unifying structure across studies (Bagby et al., 2004). The relatively strong relationship indicated between HAM-D21 subscale scores and oxy-Hb changes in divergent areas, compared to HAM-D21 total scores may be due to the multidimensional properties of HAM-D21. Graff-Guerrero et al. (2004) also demonstrated that each HAM-D subscale score showed a significant correlation with the basal CBF in variant areas, in some cases showing positive correlation and others negative.

6.4. Relationships with medications

As all patients were taking antidepressants at the time of evaluation, the medication effect could not be ignored. Yet, there was no significant relationship between daily dose levels of antidepressants and the HAM-D21 total score. Although daily dose levels of antidepressants showed significant negative correlations with oxy-Hb changes in six channels, ch25, where a significant correlation between oxy-Hb changes and HAM-D21 total scores was observed, was not included in the six channels. Therefore, we suspect that the effect was small, if at all.

PET has been used to demonstrate that antidepressant medication normalizes both over-activity and under-activity in the frontal cortex (Kennedy et al., 2001, 2007; Mayberg et al., 2000; Goldapple et al., 2004). Unfortunately, our results could not clarify the relationship between medication and brain activation because our analysis was based on cross-sectional data. Although our data may reflect the more restraint-free, natural setting than those using fMRI or PET, further studies in drug-naïve patients are required to draw any conclusions as to the possible effects of medication on brain activation as measured by NIRS. Longitudinal studies investigating the relationship between the change in oxy-Hb data and symptom severity scores with a larger sample size are warranted to reach a conclusion on this matter.

The results of this study must be interpreted with caution due to certain limitations. First, because the analysis was based on cross-sectional data, causality cannot be determined. Longitudinal studies are needed to assess cause-and-effect relationships. Second, our sample size was not large, and is thus subject to type II error. Further studies with larger numbers of MDD patients are required. Finally, owing to the multidimensional properties of HAM-D21, assessment of depression symptom severity using HAM-D21 total scores may not be adequate, and thus, other scales such as Montgomery Asberg Depression Rating Scale (MADRS) or Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) should be tested in the future study.

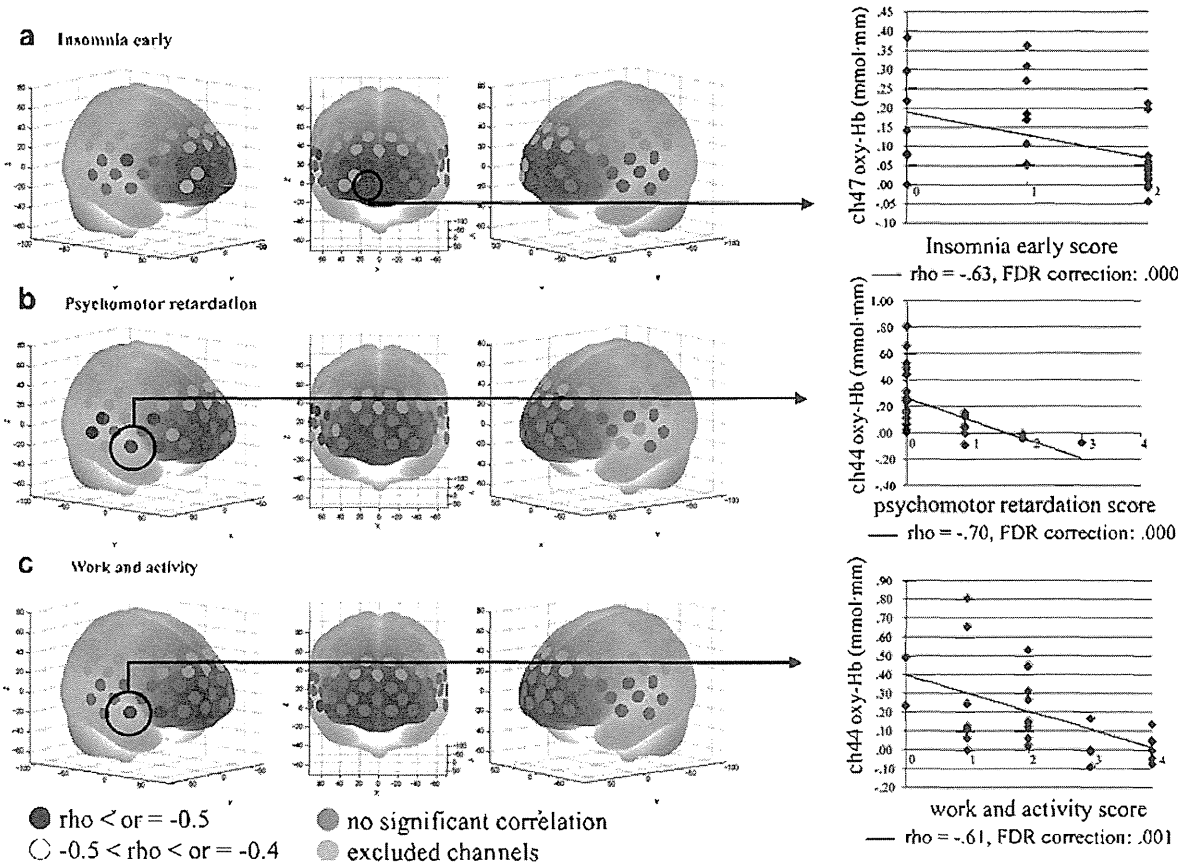

Fig. 4. rho-value map for the correlation between oxy-Hb activation in MDD patients and three individual HAM-D21 subscale scores after FDR correction. (a) insomnia early, (b) psychomotor retardation, and (c) work and activity.

7. Conclusion

In this study, we confirmed that the increase in oxy-Hb during a VFT task is significantly smaller in MDD than in age- and gender-matched healthy subjects. This difference could not be explained by a difference in task performance or premorbid IQ. The blunted increase in right DLPFC was associated with the symptom severity of MDD and therefore oxy-Hb changes during VFT in this region may be a state-dependent marker of depression.

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Contributors

T. Noda designed the study, wrote the protocol, assessment of depression severity, literature searches, statistically analyzed the data, and wrote the first draft of the manuscript. T. Matsuda was involved in patient recruitment and assessment of depression severity. H. Kunugi and S. Yoshida wrote the final version of the manuscript. All authors contributed to and have approved the final manuscript.

Conflict of interest

All the authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest with respect to this study or its publication.

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Appendix A. Supplementary material

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:10.1016/j.jpsychires.2012.04.001.

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Negative correlation between cerebrospinal fluid oxytocin levels and negative symptoms of male patients with schizophrenia

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ABSTRACT

Background: Accumulating evidence indicates that oxytocin plays an important role in social interactions. Previous studies also suggest altered oxytocin function in patients with schizophrenia and depression. However, few studies have examined the central oxytocin levels in these disorders.
Methods: Cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) oxytocin levels were measured by ELISA in male participants consisting of 27 patients with schizophrenia, 17 with major depressive disorder (MDD), and 21 healthy controls.
Results: CSF oxytocin levels of patients with schizophrenia or MDD did not differ significantly with healthy controls. The antidepressant dose or the Hamilton depression rating scale score did not significantly correlate with the oxytocin levels in MDD patients. CSF oxytocin levels in schizophrenic patients significantly negatively correlated with second generation antipsychotic dose ($r=-0.49$, $P=0.010$) but not with first generation antipsychotic dose ($r=-0.13$, $P=0.50$). A significant correlation was observed between oxytocin levels and negative subscale of PANSS ($r=-0.38$, $P=0.050$). This correlation remained significant even after controlling for second generation antipsychotic dose ($r=-0.47$, $P=0.016$).
Conclusions: We obtained no evidence of altered CSF oxytocin levels in patients with schizophrenia or those with MDD. However, lower oxytocin levels may be related to higher second generation antipsychotic dose and more severe negative symptoms in schizophrenia.

1. Introduction

Oxytocin is produced in the supraoptic and paraventricular nuclei of hypothalamus and is secreted into the blood stream from the posterior pituitary. Its release is induced by a variety of stressful stimuli, including noxious stimuli, conditioned fear, and exposure to novel environments (Onaka, 2004). Accumulating evidence indicates that oxytocin plays an important role in social interactions (Lim and Young, 2006; Bartz et al., 2010). Deficits in social functioning observed in psychiatric disorders including schizophrenia (Couture et al., 2006; Sparks et al., 2010) and mood disorders (Inoue et al., 2004; Montag et al., 2010; Wolkenstein et al., 2011) imply the possible involvement of oxytocin in the pathophysiology of these disorders.

Many studies have investigated the possible link between oxytocin and psychiatric disorders. Some previous studies reported altered oxytocin function in patients with schizophrenia (Linkowski et al., 1984; Beckmann et al., 1985; Mai et al., 1993). Higher plasma oxytocin levels in schizophrenic patients were associated with lower symptom severity (Rubin et al., 2010). A clinical study showed that administration of this hormone ameliorated symptoms of schizophrenia (Feifel et al., 2010). In a preclinical study, systemically administered oxytocin reversed prepulse inhibition deficits induced by amphetamine and the phencyclidine analog in rats (Feifel and Reza, 1999). Oxytocin dysfunction has been implicated in the pathophysiology of depression as well. Two studies have shown that peripheral oxytocin levels and depressive symptoms were significantly correlated in patients with major depressive disorder (MDD) (Scantamburlo et al., 2007; Cyranowski et al., 2008). Moreover, oxytocin knock-out mice have shown dysregulated stress responses to psychological stimuli (Mantella et al., 2005) and enhanced anxiety behaviors (Mantella et al., 2003).

Oxytocin secreted from the pituitary gland generally does not re-enter the brain through the blood-brain barrier (Ermisch et al., 1985). Therefore, the behavioral effects of oxytocin are likely to be due to the release from centrally projecting oxytocin neurons. Since

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oxytocin in the nervous system can be transported to blood (Durham et al., 1991), peripheral oxytocin levels may reflect brain levels to some extent. However, central and peripheral oxytocin is regulated independently, and the half-life of oxytocin is less than 5 minutes in the blood (Ryden and Sjoholm, 1969) while that in the brain is 19.1 minutes (Durham et al., 1991). Therefore, measurement in the CSF is necessary for the direct assessment of central oxytocin levels.

To our knowledge, two studies have previously examined the cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) levels of oxytocin in patients with schizophrenia. One reported elevated oxytocin levels in schizophrenia compared with controls (Beckmann et al., 1985), while the other did not obtain such a finding (Glovinsky et al., 1994). Only one study has examined the CSF levels of oxytocin in patients with depression, in which no difference was found compared with controls (Pitts et al., 1995). No study to date has examined the association of CSF oxytocin levels with symptom severity of these disorders. Since symptom severity forms a continuous spectrum ranging from mild to severe state, an association with the severity of the disease would suggest that oxytocin levels reflect the state of the disease.

In the present study, the oxytocin levels in the CSF of patients with schizophrenia and those with depression were measured and compared to that of healthy controls. Furthermore, we investigated the correlation between CSF oxytocin levels and symptom severity of these disorders. From the findings of previous studies examining peripheral oxytocin levels (Scantamburlo et al., 2007; Rubin et al., 2010), we hypothesized that CSF oxytocin levels would be lower in patient groups compared to healthy controls and that symptom severity would be negatively correlated with the oxytocin levels.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Subjects

Participants were 27 patients with schizophrenia (mean age (standard deviation): 42.6 (8.5) years), 17 patients with major depressive disorder (MDD) (age: 39.5 (8.0) years), and 21 healthy controls (age: 38.3 (15.3) years). Demographic and clinical characteristics of the subjects are summarized in Table 1. All subjects were males to avoid gender effects and were biologically unrelated Japanese recruited from the outpatient clinic of the National Center of Neurology and Psychiatry Hospital, Tokyo, Japan or through advertisements in free local information magazines and by our website announcement. None of the healthy controls were on psychotropic medication, while 70.6% of the patients with MDD were treated with antidepressant medication at the time of the study. Most of the schizophrenic patients were prescribed antipsychotic medication, and all of those prescribed antipsychotics were on the medication for more than 3 years. Consensus diagnosis by at least 2 psychiatrists was made for each patient according to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 4th edition criteria (American Psychiatric Association, 1994), on the basis of unstructured interviews and information from medical records. The controls were healthy volunteers with no current or past history of psychiatric treatment and were screened using the Japanese version of the Mini International Neuropsychiatric Interview (Sheehan et al., 1998; Otsubo et al., 2005) by a research psychiatrist to eliminate the possibility of any axis I psychiatric disorders. Participants were excluded if they had prior medical histories of central nervous system diseases or severe head injury or if they met the criteria for substance abuse or dependence or mental retardation. The study protocol was approved by the ethics committee at the National Center of Neurology and Psychiatry, Japan. After describing the study, written informed consent was obtained from every subject.

2.2. Clinical measures

Schizophrenic symptoms and depressive symptoms were assessed immediately after the lumbar puncture by an experienced research psychiatrist using the Japanese version of the Positive and Negative Syndrome Scale (PANSS) (Kay et al., 1987; Yamada et al., 1991) and the Japanese version of the GRID Hamilton Depression Rating Scale, 17-item version (HAMD-17) (Hamilton, 1967), which have both been demonstrated to show good inter-rater reliability (Igarashi et al., 1998; Tabuse et al., 2007). Medication status at the time of lumbar puncture was recorded. Daily doses of antipsychotics in patients with schizophrenia and antidepressants in patients with MDD were

Table 1
Demographic and clinical characteristics.

	Controls ($N=21$)	Schizophrenia ($N=27$)	Depression ($N=17$)	Analysis
Age (years)	38.3 (15.3)	42.6 (8.5)	39.5 (8.0)	ANOVA: $F=0.97$, n.s.
BMI	23.9 (4.1)	26.0 (6.2)	23.9 (4.5)	ANOVA: $F=1.06$, n.s.
Duration of illness (years)		16.3 (9.8)	7.7 (7.3)	t-test: $t=2.8$, $P<0.01$
Treatment duration (years)		15.5 (9.1)	5.8 (6.9)	t-test: $t=3.4$, $P<0.01$
Medication status				
on antipsychotic medication				
first generation (%)	0	59.3	11.8	
second generation (%)	0	66.7	23.5	
first and/or second generation (%)	0	96.3	35.3	
on antidepressant medication (%)	0	25.9	70.6	
on benzodiazepine medication (%)	0	81.5	76.5	
on mood stabilizer medication (%)	0	14.8	5.9	
CP equivalent dose				
first generation (mg/day)		361.8 (445.0)		
second generation (mg/day)		402.4 (498.3)		
total (mg/day)		764.2 (591.6)		
IMI equivalent dose (mg/day)			167.2 (141.5)	
PANSS				
Positive symptoms score		12.5 (3.8)		
Negative symptom score		16.0 (5.8)		
General symptom score		6.8 (1.3)		
Total score		55.6 (12.6)		
HAMD-17 score			13.4 (9.6)	

Values are shown as mean (standard deviation).
BMI: body mass index; CP: chlorpromazine; IMI: imipramine.
PANSS: Positive and Negative Syndrome Scale; HAMD-17: 17 item Hamilton Rating Scale for Depression.
ANOVA: analysis of variance, n.s.: not significant.

converted to chlorpromazine and imipramine equivalent doses, respectively, using published guidelines (Inagaki et al., 1999).

2.3. Lumbar puncture and oxytocin assay

Lumbar puncture was performed with the subject in the left decubitus position. CSF was withdrawn from the L3–L4 or L4–L5 interspace. After the removal of 2 ml of CSF, a further 6 ml of CSF was collected and immediately transferred on ice to be centrifuged at 4 °C and aliquoted for storage at −80 °C until assay. CSF oxytocin levels were analyzed using a commercial ELISA kit (Enzo Life Sciences, INC., NY). Using the results from two separate runs of standard concentrations, the inter-assay coefficient of variation (CV) was less than 10%.

2.4. Statistical analysis

Statistical differences between groups were calculated using Student's *t*-test, Welch's *t*-test, or one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). Correlations were assessed using Pearson's correlation coefficient. Since the CSF oxytocin levels were not normally distributed, log transformation was applied prior to statistical analyses to achieve normal distribution. Because previous studies suggest that some antipsychotic and antidepressant medications increase oxytocin secretion (Uvnas-Moberg et al., 1992, 1999), chlorpromazine and imipramine equivalent doses were examined as possible confounders. Statistical analyses were performed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences version 11.0 (SPSS Japan, Tokyo, Japan). All statistical tests were two-tailed, and $P<0.05$ indicated statistical significance.

3. Results

Fig. 1 shows the CSF oxytocin levels in each diagnostic group. A one-way ANOVA using the transformed oxytocin levels as the dependent variable indicated no significant difference between diagnostic groups ($F=1.08$, $P=0.35$). The transformed oxytocin levels showed no significant correlation with age or body weight. Figs. 2 and 3 show the relation of CSF oxytocin levels with symptom severity and psychotropic dose, respectively. The antidepressant dose or the HAMD-17 score did not significantly correlate with the transformed oxytocin levels in patients with MDD (antidepressant dose: $r=-0.15$, $P=0.57$; HAMD-17: $r=-0.19$, $P=0.46$). The transformed oxytocin levels were significantly negatively correlated with negative subscale of PANSS ($r=-0.38$, $P=0.050$). Correlations between transformed oxytocin levels and other subscales of PANSS were not statistically significant. The transformed oxytocin levels in schizophrenic patients were significantly negatively correlated with chlorpromazine equivalents of total antipsychotic dose ($r=-0.51$, $P=0.0064$) and second generation antipsychotic (SGA) dose ($r=-0.49$, $P=0.010$) but not with chlorpromazine equivalents of first generation antipsychotic (FGA) dose ($r=-0.13$, $P=0.50$). Those prescribed SGA had significantly lower CSF oxytocin levels compared to those not prescribed SGA (Welch's *t* test: $t=2.6$, $df=10.4$, $P=0.024$). Comparison between patients prescribed and not prescribed FGA did not yield significant difference (Student's t test: $t=1.1$, $df=25$, $P=0.27$). Although none of the subscales of PANSS were correlated with FGA, SGA, or total chlorpromazine equivalent dose in the present study (all $P>0.1$), a previous study (Sim et al., 2009) reported an association between antipsychotic dose and the severity of positive as well as negative symptoms of schizophrenia. Therefore, we considered antipsychotic dose as a confounding factor for the association between oxytocin levels and symptom severity. Thus, we also examined the correlation between the oxytocin levels and PANSS scores controlling for prescribed antipsychotic dose. Partial correlation between transformed oxytocin levels and negative subscale of PANSS, removing the linear effects of total antipsychotic dose, was statistically significant ($r=-0.39$, $P=0.047$). Removing the linear effects of SGA dose instead of total antipsychotic dose also resulted in significant correlation of transformed CSF oxytocin levels with negative subscale ($r=-0.47$, $P=0.016$) as well as with total PANSS score ($r=-0.47$, $P=0.016$). SGA dose-controlled partial correlations between transformed oxytocin levels and other subscales of PANSS were not statistically significant (positive subscale: $r=-0.24$, $P=0.23$; general subscale: $r=-0.33$, $P=0.099$).

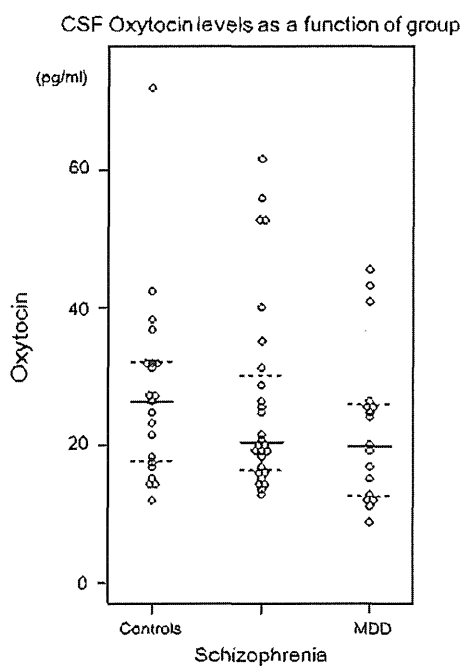

Fig. 1. Cerebrospinal fluid oxytocin levels as a function of group. The cerebrospinal fluid oxytocin levels in healthy controls and patients with schizophrenia and major depressive disorder are shown. Solid bars indicate median values and the dotted lines indicate interquartile range. No significant difference was observed between the diagnostic groups.

4. Discussion

Consistent with some previous studies (Glovinsky et al., 1994; Pitts et al., 1995), CSF oxytocin levels did not significantly differ between healthy controls and patients with schizophrenia and MDD. However, the present results showed that higher levels of CSF oxytocin may be associated with less severe symptoms of schizophrenia.

The observed negative correlation between antipsychotic dose and CSF oxytocin levels points to the possibility that antipsychotic medication lowers oxytocin levels. A recent study suggests that an inhibitory feedback loop may exist between prolactin-secreting lactrophs and oxytocinergic paraventricular neurons (Sirzen-Zelenskaya et al., 2011). Therefore, the disinhibition of prolactin secretion due to the D_2 receptor blockade by antipsychotics may have resulted in the suppression of oxytocin secretion. This, however, does not explain the stronger correlation of SGA dose compared to FGA dose. Kiss et al (2010) showed that SGAs have a more potent influence than haloperidol on the activity of oxytocin magnocellular neurons. This also seems contradictory to the present finding that SGA is negatively correlated with oxytocin levels. An alternative explanation for this negative correlation is that patients with low oxytocin levels may respond poorly to antipsychotic medication, and thus, higher dose was prescribed to such patients. Nevertheless, despite the relatively strong correlation with the antipsychotic dose, the cross-sectional design of the present study hinders any causal inferences. One previous study (Glovinsky et al., 1994) demonstrated that CSF oxytocin levels were unchanged by antipsychotic medication. Thus, further investigation is necessary to elucidate the effects of antipsychotic medication on oxytocin levels.

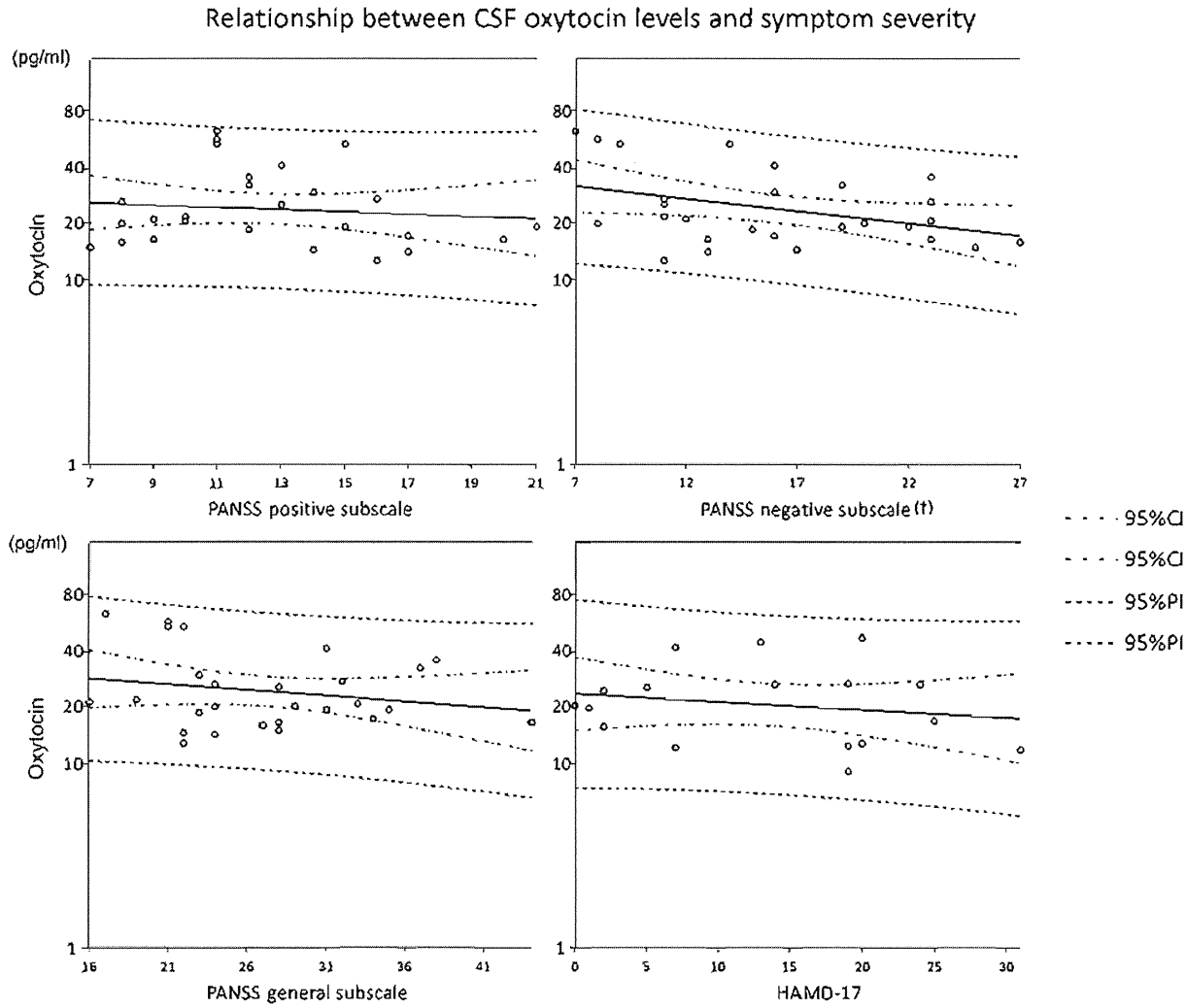

Fig. 2. Relationship between cerebrospinal fluid oxytocin levels and symptom severity. The association between cerebrospinal oxytocin levels and symptom severity is shown. Oxytocin levels are shown in logarithmic scale. Solid lines indicate fitted regression lines, unevenly dashed lines indicate 95% confidence intervals, and evenly dashed lines indicate 95% prediction intervals. (†): Correlation at significance level of $P<0.05$. PANSS: Positive and Negative Syndrome Scale, HAMD-17: Hamilton Depression Rating Scale, 17-item version, 95%CI: 95% confidence interval, 95%PI: 95% prediction interval.

The present results showed that the negative symptoms of schizophrenia were negatively correlated with CSF oxytocin levels. The correlation coefficient between CSF oxytocin levels and total PANSS score was also significant, controlling for SGA dose. Rubin et al. (2010) reported that higher peripheral oxytocin levels were associated with more prosocial behaviors in female patients with schizophrenia. Furthermore, previous studies have demonstrated improvement of social behaviors with administration of intranasal oxytocin (Macdonald and Macdonald, 2010; Pedersen et al., 2011). Since strong relationships between negative symptoms and social difficulties have been demonstrated in schizophrenia (Weinberg et al., 2009), the present finding associating higher CSF oxytocin levels with lower negative subscale is in accord with what has previously been described for peripheral oxytocin. Whether the peripheral oxytocin levels reflect the CSF oxytocin levels, or whether a different mechanisms of action in the brain and the peripheral result in a similar effect, remains to be explored.

Previous studies examining CSF oxytocin levels in patients with schizophrenia (Beckmann et al., 1985; Glovinsky et al., 1994) and depression (Pitts et al., 1995) showed mean oxytocin levels of less than 10 pg/ml, which is lower than that in the present study (>20 pg/ml). Such outcome may have resulted from some of the methodological differences between previous studies and the present one. Previous three studies measured oxytocin levels using radioimmunoassay (RIA), while the present study used a commercially available ELISA kit. A recent study that used the same ELISA kit to measure CSF oxytocin levels (Heim et al., 2009) also demonstrated higher levels of oxytocin (mean oxytocin levels of 17 pg/ml in women without a history of emotional abuse) compared to the previous studies using RIA. Thus, the different measurement techniques may have influenced the values.

A number of other methodological differences exist between the present study and previous ones examining CSF oxytocin levels (Beckmann et al., 1985; Glovinsky et al., 1994; Pitts et al., 1995). One of the major differences was that the present study did not require fasting prior to lumbar puncture, while Beckmann et al (Beckmann et al., 1985) collected CSF in patients with schizophrenia after 12 hours fasting. Although a previous study (Challinor et al., 1994) reported that peripheral oxytocin levels were not affected by 20 hours of fasting, the influence of fasting on CSF levels is unknown. Furthermore, Beckmann et al used Research Diagnostic Criteria to select a patient group consisting entirely of paranoid schizophrenia. Such difference in composition of participants may have affected the outcome of the study by Beckmann et al (1985), which showed significantly higher CSF oxytocin levels in schizophrenic patients compared to healthy controls. The findings by Glovinsky et al (1994) and Pitts et al (1995) were consistent with the present study in that no significant difference in CSF oxytocin levels was found between patients and controls. However,

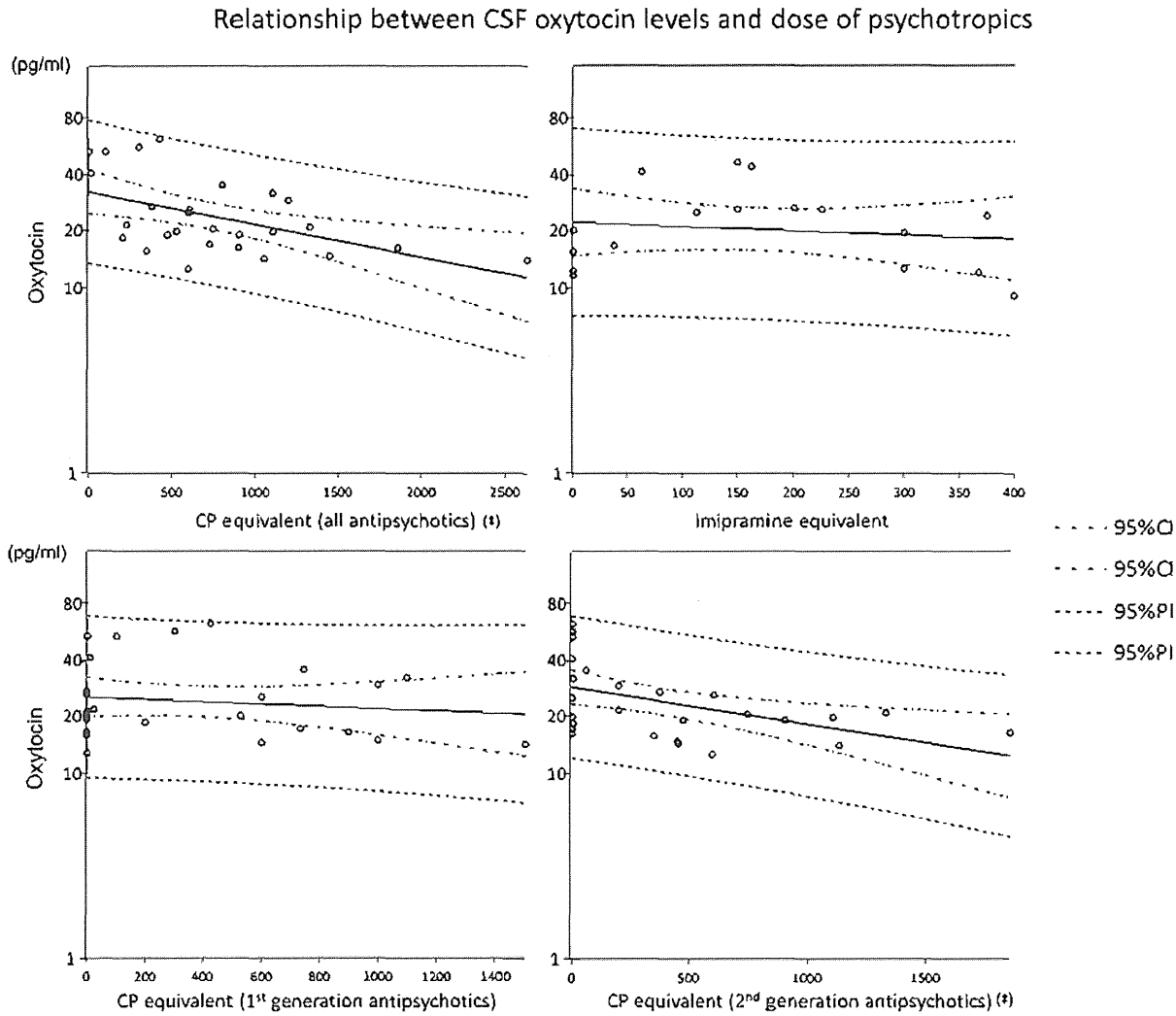

Fig. 3. Relationship between cerebrospinal fluid oxytocin levels and dose of psychotropics. The association between cerebrospinal oxytocin levels and dose of psychotropics is shown. Oxytocin levels are shown in logarithmic scale. Solid lines indicate fitted regression lines, unevenly dashed lines indicate 95% confidence intervals, and evenly dashed lines indicate 95% prediction intervals. (‡): Correlation at significance level of $P<0.01$. CP equivalent: chlorpromazine equivalent, 95%CI: 95% confidence interval, 95%PI: 95% prediction interval.

participants in these studies also differed from that of the present study in that both genders were included. Furthermore, MDD patients in the study by Pitts et al (1995) all scored 18 or above on the HAMD-17, while the MDD patients in the present study included those in a remitted state. These differences in composition of study samples should be carefully considered when comparing findings across studies.

Some limitations must be considered when interpreting the results of this study. First, the effects of medication could not be fully controlled due to the variability in types and doses. Future studies should examine oxytocin levels in untreated patients to elucidate the role of oxytocin in the pathophysiology of schizophrenia and depression. Treatment duration may also affect oxytocin levels. However, since all of the schizophrenic patients that were prescribed antipsychotics were on chronic treatment with the medication, treatment duration is unlikely to have confounded the main findings of the present study. Secondly, as mentioned above, the cross-sectional design did not allow for any definitive conclusions regarding the causal relationship between the CSF oxytocin levels, psychotropic medication, and symptom severity. Thirdly, only male participants were included in the present study. Previous studies suggest that effects of peripheral and intranasal oxytocin may differ between men and women (Domes et al., 2010; Rubin et al., 2010, 2011). Therefore, the present findings cannot be generalized to women. Finally, the risk of type II error was high due to the small sample size. The sample size in the present study was comparable to those of the previous studies that examined CSF oxytocin levels in patients with schizophrenia and depression (Beckmann et al., 1985; Glovinsky et al., 1994; Pitts et al., 1995). However, the power to detect a moderate difference (effect size of 0.50) in CSF oxytocin levels between patients and controls was relatively low (schizophrenia: 39%; MDD: 32%; calculated by G*Power 3.1.3 (Faul et al., 2007)). A larger sample may be necessary to detect small to moderate change in CSF oxytocin levels in psychiatric disorders.

In conclusion, we obtained no evidence of altered CSF oxytocin levels in patients with schizophrenia or those with MDD. However, lower CSF oxytocin levels may be related to higher SGA dose and more severe negative symptoms in schizophrenia, which is in line with the possibility that central oxytocin may ameliorate the severity of some symptoms of schizophrenia by improving social functioning.

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