

Cell signalling in CNS and immune system in depression and during antidepressant treatment: focus on glial and natural killer cells

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Abstract

CNS, endocrine and immune systems share the same molecules: neurotransmitters, cytokines and hormones to communicate within and among each other. Depression is associated with abnormalities in the noradrenergic, serotonergic and dopaminergic neurotransmitter systems and reductions in the level of their precursors and metabolic turnover. Most of these signalling molecules use trimeric G-proteins as a transduction system to transfer extracellular signal into cellular response. Altered levels or function of signalling proteins, especially α subunits of trimeric G-proteins, were found in post-mortem brain tissue and leukocytes of subject suffering from major depression.

There is a considerable evidence that inflammatory response and immune system changes are the part of depression. Components of cellular immune system natural killer cells, important effectors of immune surveillance, are sensitive to stress response, and their functions are compromised in depressive subjects. Many lines of evidence also point to the loss of both neuronal and glial plasticity and neurotrophic factor support under chronic stress or in depression. There is an increasing knowledge of the role of astrocytic cells in neuroplastic processes and neurotransmitter metabolism. Alterations in the glial populations are observed in major depressive subjects. Antidepressant treatment is modulating glial signaling cascades, increasing production of neurotrophic molecules, supporting neuroplasticity processes, and also modulating functions of natural killers. At the level of membrane signalling, antidepressants show a direct influence upon G α subunit levels in both immune system and CNS. These findings support the view that antidepressants influence activity of natural killer and astrocytic populations, and this could be of importance in the depression etiopathogenesis and/or treatment.

Abbreviations:

ACTH – adrenocorticotrophic hormone	GDNF – glia derived neurotrophic factor	NKCA – natural killer cytotoxic activity
ATP – adenosine triphosphate	GTP – guanosine triphosphate	5-HT – 5-hydroxytryptamine, serotonin
AC – adenylyl cyclase	IL-1 β – interleukine 1- β	PKA – protein kinase A
cAMP – cyclic adenosine monophosphate	IL-6 – interleukine 6	PLC – phospholipase C
BDNF – brain derived neurotrophic factor	IL-10 – interleukine 10	PKC – protein kinase C
CREB – cAMP response element binding protein	INF- γ – interferon γ	SSRI – selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor
CNS – central nervous system	InsP ₃ , IP3 – 1,4,5 inositol triphosphate	S100- β – trophic factor S100 β
DAC – diacylglycerol	MAOA – monoamine oxidase A	TCA – tricyclic antidepressant
G-protein – trimeric GTP binding protein	NA – noradrenaline	TGF- β – transforming growth factor β
FGF – fibroblast growth factor	NGF – nerve growth factor	TNF- α – tumor necrosis factor α
	NK – natural killer	

INTRODUCTION

THERE is a widening knowledge of complex interactions among the main homeostatic systems: nervous, immune and endocrine in health and under pathological conditions. One of disorders where a complex disturbance of all systems is present, is major depression. Depression is a highly prevalent disorder, affecting 10–20% of population, with a higher prevalence in women (Weissman *et al.* 1996). Its prominent symptoms are depressive mood, anhedonia, loss of self-confidence, and suicidal ideation. There are also problems with concentration, decision making, and other signs of cognitive impairment. Depressive people often present somatic complaints such as pain, insomnia, loss of appetite, and decrease of body weight (Sadock and Sadock 2005). Neuroendocrine dysfunction of HPA axis is part of major depression symptoms (Matalka, 2003). There are also endocrine abnormalities in depressive patients, 50% of depressive patients have elevated levels of urine cortisol, and administration of synthetic corticoid dexamethazone does not result in suppression of cortisol blood levels and ACTH secretion (Mendlewicz *et al.* 1984; Watson *et al.* 2006). These patients are at a higher risk of suicidium (Joniken *et al.* 2007). Elevated cortisol levels are implicated in the impairment of neuroplastic processes and diminished availability of growth factors like BDNF, NGF or FGF (Duman *et al.* 1997; Evans *et al.* 2004; Hayley *et al.* 2005).

The CNS, endocrine and immune systems use neurotransmitters, cytokines and hormones to cross-talk communication among them (Haddad *et al.* 2002; Kitzlerová and Anders 2007; Anismann *et al.* 2008). Most of this signalling molecules use G-proteins for transduction of extracellular signal into cellular response. After ligand binding to G-protein coupled receptor, the trimeric protein complex α, β, γ G-protein subunits is dissociating, activated α subunit of G-protein is then initiating cascade of intracellular events: protein phosphorylations, ion channel modulation and activation of further signalization components (Wettschureck and Offermanns 2005; Avissar and Scheiber 2006; Luttrell 2006). Mode of pathway activation is dependent on the α subunit type (Wettschureck and Offermanns 2005). Gas subunits activate adenylyl cyclase (Gai inhibits enzyme). Gas increase cAMP formation, activation

of protein kinase A, phosphorylation of transcription CREB factor. The G α_q subunit is initiating PLC cascade activation, increase of inositol 1,4,5-triphosphate (InsP₃) production and release of Ca²⁺ from intracellular stores, production of diacylglycerol and protein kinase C (PKC) activation (Hubbard and Hepler 2006).

Although antidepressant medication has been used to treat affective disorders for more than 50 years, our understanding of its action is still incomplete. Acute action is thought to be mediated by blockade of serotonin (5-HT) or noradrenaline (NA) reuptake, chronic administration results in modulation of the cellular signalling components via increased levels of serotonin, noradrenaline and dopamine acting on specific receptors (Duman *et al.* 1997; Nestler *et al.* 2002; Normann *et al.* 2007, Dronjak *et al.* 2007). Antidepressants are known to modulate density of neurotransmitter β -adrenergic receptors when administered chronically (Honegger *et al.* 1986; Fishman and Finberg 1987). Nevertheless, in contrast to tricyclic antidepressants, down-regulation of β -adrenoreceptor density by SSRIs has not been consistently demonstrated (Nelson *et al.* 1990; Koe and Lebel 1995). Clinically effective antidepressants facilitate G-protein activation of adenylyl cyclase without altering G-protein content (Menkes *et al.* 1983; Chen and Rasenick 1995).

Chronic antidepressant effect on C6 glioma cells prevents Gas subunit accumulation in cytoskeletal associated plasma membrane domains, causing its redistribution to the cytoplasm, which can partially explain reduced Gas subunit coupling as well as elevated Gas subunit – adenylyl cyclase coupling (Donati and Rasenick 2005). Because this effect occurs also in *in vitro* cultures which lack presynaptic input, this can be also considered a direct postsynaptic action of antidepressants on signalling components (Chen and Rasenick 1995).

Several lines of evidence suggest that long-term antidepressant treatment is facilitating signalization cascade initiated by Gas subunit, with subsequent activation of adenylyl cyclase, increased cAMP formation, facilitation of transcription mediated by CREB (cAMP response element binding protein) and enhanced production of neurotrophins in the CNS, including BDNF (Chen and Rasenick 1995; Nestler *et al.* 2002; Nair and

Vaidya; 2006; Norman *et al.* 2007). Resulting changes of cell viability, neuroplastic changes and increased neurogenesis, especially in the hippocampal region, are considered to mediate at least a part of the antidepressant effect (Duman *et al.* 1997; Nestler *et al.* 2002; Duman and Monteggia 2006).

IMMUNE CHANGES AND DEPRESSION

IT has been suggested that immune activation and increased levels of inflammatory cytokines (IL-1, TNF- α , INF- γ) with subsequent behavioral (so-called sickness behavior) and biological changes (HPA axis activation) is a characteristic of depression (Leonard 2001; Haddad *et al.* 2002; Simpkins and Devine 2003; Simon *et al.* 2007; Maes 2008). In the CNS environment, inflammatory cytokines like IL-1 β are identified as one of neurotoxic mediators, suppressing hippocampal progenitor cell proliferation and mediating effect of chronic stress; blockade of IL-1 β receptors alleviates chronic stress effect (Koo and Duman 2008). There is also widely recognised complex relationship between chronic stress, depression and immune functions, leukocytes are sensitive to stress-induced systemic cortisol or monoamine levels, monoamine receptors are widely expressed on leukocytes, including α - and β -adrenoreceptors and dopamine receptors (Haddad *et al.* 2002; Fišerová *et al.* 2002; Kovářů and Kovářů 2005).

One of the most consistently demonstrated immune changes in depressive subjects is decreased natural killer cytotoxic activity (NKCA) (Reynaert *et al.* 1995; Zorrilla *et al.* 2001). Natural killer (NK) cells are released to circulation in response to stressor stimuli, form the important elements of innate immune defence against viral infections and malignant tumor growth (Engler *et al.* 2004; Orange and Ballas 2006). NK cells are capable of early cytokine production and induce lysis of target cells without prior antigen sensitisation (Cooper *et al.* 2001). There is an association between inflammatory cytokine levels (TNF- α , IL-6) and diminished NKCA in the depressive senior population (Trzonkowski *et al.* 2004). Activity of NK cells is regulated directly by hypothalamic nuclei and by a wide array of receptors, including those for catecholamines; resulting level of activity is a consequence of complex signalization response of activation and inhibitory signals (Katafuchi *et al.* 1993; Jetschmann *et al.* 1997; Kirwan and Burshtyn 2007). Impaired NKCA was repeatedly demonstrated in major depressive subjects with restoration of activity following antidepressant treatment concurrently with amelioration of depressive symptoms (Frank *et al.* 1999; Zorrilla *et al.* 2001; Evans *et al.* 2007). There is a significant association between depressive symptoms, NK numbers and NKCA, and survival time in patients with malignancy (Steel *et al.* 2007).

There is also consistent demonstration of serotonin stimulated cAMP formation in leukocytes of

major depressive disorder subjects (Halper *et al.* 1988; Mann *et al.* 1997; Gurguis *et al.* 1999). Analyses of peripheral blood granulocytes or thrombocytes of depressive patients confirmed relationship between alteration in G-proteins and decreased isoproterenol or β -adrenoreceptor induced cAMP accumulation in subjects suffering from major depression (Halper *et al.* 1988; Gurguis *et al.* 1999). Furthermore, an association between G-protein β 3 subunit gene polymorphism and severity of depression symptoms and response to antidepressant treatment was demonstrated (Lee *et al.* 2004).

ANTIDEPRESSANTS AND LEUKOCYTES

CHRONIC antidepressant treatment alleviates macrophage-produced cytokine production and blocks its behavioral consequences, and also restores NK activity (Kubera *et al.* 1995; Frank *et al.* 1999; Maes, 2001; Evans *et al.* 2007). Increases in potentiation of β ₂-adrenoreceptor-mediated cAMP responses in leukocytes of depressed subjects were found during antidepressant or electroconvulsive therapy, and were correlated with improvement of depression (Mann *et al.* 1990; Halper *et al.* 1988). We previously demonstrated dynamic changes in levels of both G α q/11 and G α s subunits of peripheral blood granulocytes of patients with depression during fluoxetine administration on days 3 – 28 (Kovářů *et al.* 1997; 2000; Kovářů and Kovářů 2005). Analyses of peripheral blood granulocytes or thrombocytes of depressive patients show relationship between alteration in G-proteins and decreased G α -subunit function in depression; granulocyte G α -subunit levels were suggested as a depression „state marker“ or a predictor of antidepressant therapeutic response (Gurguis *et al.* 1999; Avissar and Schreiber 2006). In the depression pathophysiology, regulators of G-protein signalling are also involved, several results show reduced β -arrestin1 and GRK2 kinase levels in leukocytes of subjects suffering from major depression with normalization of levels following antidepressant treatment (Matuzany-Ruban *et al.* 2005; Avissar and Schreiber 2006). Our data demonstrate modulation of G α subunit levels in human and rat NK cell culture by amitriptyline and fluoxetine by the same primary antibodies. Antibody properties to detect of G α chain in both human and rat cell culture are based on common primary amino acid sequences of C terminal decapeptides of alpha subunits of main types of G proteins in mammals (Milligan 1988; Kovářů *et al.* 2001; Kovářů and Kovářů 2005).

There is a decrease of NKCA after acute fluoxetine administration in rats which is transient and followed by tolerance to chronic fluoxetine administration (Pellegrino and Bayer 1998). This effect is attributed to desensitisation of serotonergic receptors involved in the immunoregulatory pathway regulating NK activity (Artigas *et al.* 1996; Pellegrino and Bayer 1998). An increase of NK activity was found after 5-day treatment

with amitriptyline *in vivo* (Kubera *et al.* 1995). Augmentation of NKCA activity after chronic fluoxetine administration *in vivo* and also *in vitro* is repeatedly demonstrated (Frank *et al.* 1999; 2004).

Our finding shows direct modulation of NK signaling by antidepressants which is not dependent on central influence; more prominent changes are induced by fluoxetine than by amitriptyline (Kovářů *et al.* 1997). Reduced levels of Gαq/11 subunits in both human and rat NK cell line could impair functioning of PLC pathway, both DAG and InsP₃ stimulate PKC activity and all enzymes participate in the release of cytotoxic granules and lysis of tumor target cells by NK (Steele and Brahmi 1988; Procopio *et al.* 1989). NK cytotoxic activity is regulated also by the adenylyl cyclase system, elevation of cAMP is associated with suppression of NKCA, and this inhibition appears dependent on PKA activation (Whalen and Bankhurst, 1990; Torgersen *et al.* 1997). However, a further finding by Bariagaber and Whalen demonstrates that also inhibition of cAMP pathway results in suppression of NKCA, maintaining capacity to activate cAMP signalling pathway seems to be crucial for preserving NKCA (Bariagaber and Whalen 2003). Beside this, PLC pathway activation which is critical in the cytotoxic response in the NK cells, is also dependent on the cAMP levels and PKA activation (Bariagaber and Whalen 2003).

GLIA AND DEPRESSION

AN increasing knowledge indicate the role of glial, especially astrocytic cells in the neuronal metabolic support, neurotransmitter metabolism, and synaptic regulation (Araque *et al.* 1999; Haber and Murray 2006; Perea and Araque 2005a; 2005b). Furthermore, astrocytes are implicated in active participating in the induction of new synapses, synaptic communication, and influence experience-dependent changes in the synaptic strength (Elmariah *et al.* 2005; Kleim *et al.* 2007). There is an evidence demonstrating unanticipated reductions in the density and number of glial cells in the regions of importance in subject suffering from major depression, including the dorsolateral and fronto-orbital cortex and possibly the limbic structures (Rajkowska *et al.* 1999; Rajkowska and Miguel-Hidalgo 2007). These observations led to the hypothesis that glial cell dysfunction may contribute to the pathogenesis of depression and antidepressant action (Coyle and Schwarcz 2000; Cotter *et al.* 2001; Manev *et al.* 2003; Páv *et al.* 2008).

A recent finding demonstrates that selective pharmacological glial ablation in the prefrontal cortex of experimental animals is able to induce behavior similar to chronic stress-induced behavior and supports thus the hypothesis that glial population losses contribute to development of core depression symptoms (Banaszak and Duman 2008). There are also findings suggesting that

astrocyte structural and functional heterogeneity can be of importance in the depression neuropathology (Won and Oh 2000; Rajkowska and Miguel-Hidalgo 2007).

Astrocytic cells are able to respond to changes in the CNS environment such as trauma, inflammation, infection or neuronal damage; rearrange the profile of expressed receptors and secreted molecules, and adopt "reactive" phenotype (Ridet *et al.* 1997). Astrocytes respond to cytokines like IL-1, IL-6, INF-γ or TNF-α, ATP, adenosine, growth factors like FGF2 or peptide hormones like vasopressin (Sofroniew 2005).

Astrocytes are able to produce growth factors as GDNF, NGF, BDNF, neurotrophic and anti-inflammatory cytokines like IL-4, IL-10 and RANTES chemokine (Althaus and Richter-Landsberg 2000; Miklic *et al.* 2004; Juric *et al.* 2006). Glucocorticoids regulate astrocyte growth factor production (S100-β, TGF-β, NGF or BDNF), this is dependent on the dynamics of corticoid levels (Niu *et al.* 1997; Gubba *et al.* 2004). Secreted molecules as immune system mediators signal between astrocytes, neurons, microglia and endothelial cells (Farina *et al.* 2007). Astrocytes by anti-inflammatory cytokine IL-4, IL-10 and IL-13 secretion limit inflammatory activation as well as activation of microglia (Ledeboer *et al.* 2000).

Astrocyte-microglia interaction is also important in the serotonin metabolism; activated microglia is producing toxic metabolites like quinolinic acid from serotonin precursor tryptophan (Guillemin *et al.* 2001). Inflammation and elevated levels of inflammatory cytokines induce increasing activity of indoleamine (2,3)-dioxygenase, thus decreasing levels of tryptophan and serotonin production, and increasing production of toxic metabolites which have apoptotic, pro-oxidant and neurotoxic effects and aggravate initial inflammation (Maes *et al.* 2007). Astrocytes are able to metabolize these toxic metabolites and produce neuroprotective kynurenine acid with antiapoptotic and neuroprotective effects, and limit the inflammatory processes and neuronal damage (Guillemin *et al.* 2001).

ANTIDEPRESSANTS AND GLIAL CELLS

ANTIDEPRESSANT effects are usually studied on brain tissue, neuronal cells or neuronal cell models and results are interpreted in terms of neuronal function modulation, with some exceptions – astrocytes are not usually considered as a target of antidepressant action (Hertz and Richardson 1983; Cotter *et al.* 2001; Manev *et al.* 2003; Hertz *et al.* 2004; Lee *et al.* 2007). These cells, however, have been shown to respond to antidepressants in a manner similar to postsynaptic neurons and are used to study antidepressant effects (Chen and Rasenick 1995; Chung *et al.* 2007; Hisaoka *et al.* 2001; 2007). Astrocytes produce various neurotrophins – GDNF, BDNF, NGF and S100β as an effect of antidepressant treatment, and antidepressants are able to reverse unfavourable effects of chronic

stress and depression (Condorelli *et al.* 1994; Manev *et al.* 2001; Hisaoka *et al.* 2001; Juric *et al.* 2006; Hisaoka *et al.* 2007).

Glial cells express β -adrenergic and 5-HT_{1A} receptors in the high density and are considered by some authors as major target of neuronally released noradrenaline or serotonin *in vivo* (Feinstein *et al.* 2002; Hertz *et al.* 2004). Noradrenergic effects on astrocytes are essential for memory processes, synthesis of glutamate, morphological plasticity, membrane transport and immunological responses, and play role in the pathogenesis of several CNS diseases, including mood disorders (Hertz *et al.* 2004; Gavrilyuk *et al.* 2005). Moreover, monoaminergic neural activity regulates BDNF synthesis in the cultured rat astrocytes (Juric *et al.* 2006).

Stimulation of receptors positively coupled to adenylyl cyclase (e.g. β -adrenergic), increased Gas subunit levels, or otherwise elevated cAMP levels exert profound influence upon glial functions. Cyclic AMP is inducing stellation of *in vitro* astrocyte growth which adopt a similar to their *in vivo* appearance through the depolymerisation of actomyosin stress fibres, reorganization of membrane compounds and does not require PKA activation (Goldman and Abramson 1990; Baorto *et al.* 1992; Won and Oh 2000). Change of cAMP levels also influence cellular responsiveness to other signalling events. Increased astrocyte cAMP levels enhance expression of glutamate GLAST transporters and glutamate uptake; this can affect participation of astrocytes in plastic processes and even transfer and storage of synaptic information (Perea and Araque 2005).

Number of data also demonstrate an interaction of cyclic AMP and InsP₃ system in cultured astroglial cells, both adenylyl cyclase and PLC, participating in the downstream signalling responsible for the stimulation of BDNF synthesis via CREB phosphorylation with previous activation of CaM kinase and MAP kinase cascades (Hansson *et al.* 1990; Miklic *et al.* 2004; Tiraboshi *et al.* 2004). Elevation of cAMP levels has a suppressive effect on astrocytic expression of genes involved in inflammation which can participate in the suppression of inflammatory mechanisms, suggested in the depression etiopathogenesis such as IL-1, TNF- α , NO synthase or adhesion molecule production (Feinstein *et al.* 2002; Hayley *et al.* 2005; Gavrilyuk *et al.* 2005). Neuroprotection can be also increased (Junker *et al.* 2002; Mourlevat *et al.* 2003).

Some findings suggesting significantly elevated G α q/11 levels and stimulation of PLC pathway in astrocyte cells as an effect of chronic administration of antidepressant drugs with different modes of action such as fluoxetine, mianserine and imipramine (Lesch *et al.* 1992b; Fakuda *et al.* 1994). Acute fluoxetine administration causing reduced membrane associated G α q/11 subunit amount was analyzed and translocation into cytoplasm was determined (Kovářů *et al.* 1997).

There is astrocyte growth factor production including BDNF and GDNF after activation of Ca²⁺-dependent kinases cascades, protein kinase C (PKC) cascades and MAP kinases signalling pathway activation (Miklic *et al.* 2004; Mercier *et al.* 2004; Saito *et al.* 2006; Hisaoka *et al.* 2007). Cultured astrocytes express sodium-dependent serotonin transporters (SERT); phosphorylation of SERT by PKC or translocation of PKC from cytoplasm to membrane is reducing serotonin uptake (Kimmelberg and Katz 1985; Inazu *et al.* 2001). There is also an involvement of PKC in β -adrenoreceptor down-regulation, inhibition of protein kinase C attenuated both isoproterenol-induced and desipramine induced β -adrenoreceptor down-regulation in glioma cells and results in a more prolonged repression of receptor gene transcription (Li *et al.* 1998; Leavitt *et al.* 2001).

Increases of glial Ca²⁺ concentrations can spread to neighbouring astrocytes through gap junctions as "Ca²⁺ wave" and stimulate responsiveness of astroglial syncytium and release of gliotransmitters such as glutamate or D-cycloserine (Araque *et al.* 1999; Parpura and Haydon 2000; Perea and Araque 2005a; 2005b; 2007). There are several lines of evidence suggesting excitatory amino acid neurotransmitter system in the pathophysiology and treatment of mood disorders (Krystal *et al.* 2002; Paul and Skolnick 2003; Müller and Schwartz 2007). Acting on NMDA receptors, astrocyte-derived glutamate can modulate excitability of neighbouring neurones, modulate processes of long-term plasticity and have influence upon neuronal firing synchronization, so astrocytes can even be considered as cellular elements involved in the information processing (Perea and Araque 2005a; 2005b; 2007). This, together with possible impairment of glutamine-glutamate cycle between astrocytes and neurones in certain areas (e.g. amygdala, hippocampus), can contribute to behavioral and physiological endophenotypes related to mood disorders (Lee *et al.* 2007).

CONCLUSION

FINDINGS discussed above implicate modulation of glial cells G α subunits levels and subsequent signalization cascades modulation in the chronic effects of antidepressants. In contrast to tricyclic antidepressants which do not significantly influence G-protein subunits levels, newer molecules modulate G α q/11 subunits in a much larger extent. Substantial amount of data also support the view that antidepressants influence activity and cellular production of leukocytes, and this can be of importance in the depression etiopathogenesis and/or treatment, or can be used as a measure of treatment outcome. Direct effects of antidepressants upon natural killer signalization cascades influence production of cytokines and directly modulate cytotoxic effector activity. Modulation of natural killer functions can thus have an impact on the chronic infection course, cytokine production during

stress response or influence tumor growth. Comparison of profiles of Ga subunit changes following antidepressant administration in vivo using rat model – in brain and spleen or in vitro in C6 glioma (astrocytoma) and NK cells could suggest a similar antidepressant-induced cell signalling in different functional systems, and presumably influencing by antidepressant treatment. Further research is needed to detailed knowledge of antidepressant influence at the organ level – CNS and immune system or at the cellular level – glial- and/or NK cells in the neuroendocrine-immune relationship and pathophysiology of depressive disorder.

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