

Research Article

Expression of membrane and nuclear melatonin receptor mRNA and protein in the mouse immune system

A. Carrillo-Vico, A. García-Pergañeda, L. Naji, J. R. Calvo, M. P. Romero and J. M. Guerrero*

Department of Medical Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, The University of Seville School of Medicine, Avda. Sánchez Pizjuan 4, 41009 Seville (Spain), Fax: +34 95 490 7048, e-mail: guerrero@us.es

Received 2 June 2003; received after revision 6 August 2003; accepted 14 August 2003

Abstract. The neurohormone melatonin plays a fundamental role in neuroimmunomodulation of several mammalian species, including mice. This effect is supported by the existence of specific melatonin-binding sites in murine immunocompetent organs. Moreover, using melatonin receptor analogues, several effects of the neurohormone on mice physiology through its membrane and nuclear receptors have been described. The expression of these receptors has never been studied, despite indirect evidence showing the presence of melatonin receptor in the murine immune system. At present, the MT₁ and MT₂ membrane receptors, and nuclear receptors belonging to the RZR/ROR family have been related to the im-

munomodulator effect of melatonin. Here, we show the presence of membrane and nuclear melatonin-binding sites in mouse thymus and spleen, using the specific melatonin membrane (S 20098) and nuclear (CGP 52608) receptor agonist. To confirm the presence of melatonin receptors, we analyzed the presence of membrane and nuclear receptor mRNA and protein by RT-PCR, Southern blot, and Western blot. Thus, we show that MT₁ and ROR α receptor mRNA and protein are expressed in both thymus and spleen, while MT₂ receptor mRNA is only detected in the thymus. This expression of melatonin receptors strongly supports the idea of an immunomodulatory role of melatonin through its receptors.

Key words. Melatonin membrane receptor; melatonin nuclear receptor; mRNA expression; protein expression; thymus; spleen; immune system.

The indolamine melatonin (N-acetyl-5-methoxytryptamine) is the main product synthesized by the pineal gland. In mammals, two major physiological functions for the indolamine have been established. Thus, melatonin plays a central role in fine-tuning circadian rhythms [1] and seasonal changes [2] through its daily nocturnal increase in the blood [3]. Additionally, melatonin shows a remarkable functional versatility exhibiting antioxidant [4], oncostatic [5], antiaging [6], and immunomodulatory [7] properties. Four mechanisms have been described for the action of melatonin: (i) interaction with membrane receptors [8], (ii) binding to nuclear receptors [9], (iii) in-

teraction with cytoplasmic proteins [10], and (iv) antioxidant activity, including scavenging properties [11]. A functional relationship between the pineal gland and immune system in different mammalian species has been supported by many experimental findings [7, 12]. Thus, a correlation between melatonin production and circadian and seasonal variations in the immune system has been observed [13]. A circadian rhythm in the activity of lympholytic natural killer cells from spleens of rat [14] and diurnal rhythmicity of human cytokine production [15] have been described. Moreover, surgical or functional pinealectomy has been shown to promote changes in the rodent immune system [16, 17]. The effect of melatonin administration on the immune system has also been widely described. Thus, *in vivo* studies indicate that

* Corresponding author.

melatonin induces an increase in thymic peptide production, such as that of thymosin α_1 and thymulin in human and rats [18], as well as increasing the mitogenic response of mouse splenocytes [19]. Moreover, melatonin administration triggers Crohn's disease symptoms [20]. On the other hand, *in vitro* studies show that melatonin acts on immune cells by regulating cytokine production. Thus, melatonin activates T helper (Th) cells by increasing interleukin (IL)-2 production [21] as well as counteracting the inhibitory effect of prostaglandin E_2 (PGE₂) on IL-2 production in human lymphocytes [8]. Melatonin also enhances IL-12 production by monocytes driving T cell differentiation toward the Th1 phenotype and causing an increase in interferon (IFN)- γ production [22]. Finally, over the last few years, several papers have revealed the existence of extrapineal melatonin in several tissues, including the immune system. Thus, the presence of high concentrations of melatonin in human [23], mouse [23], and rat [24] bone marrow have been described.

Specific membrane and nuclear binding sites for melatonin have been described in many different immune tissues from many species of birds and mammals, including human and rodents [25–27]. Over the last few years, there has been a great advance in molecular studies on melatonin receptors. Thus, to date, three mammalian melatonin membrane receptors have either been cloned, MT₁ [28] and MT₂ [29], or affinity-purified, MT₃ [30]. Melatonin nuclear receptors belong to the RZR/ROR orphan receptor subfamily. A great amount of data suggests that receptors of the ROR/RZR group play a significant role both in processes of differentiation and in the functioning of differentiated cells and tissues [31].

Despite the presence of melatonin receptors in a wide variety of tissues, and the effects of indolamine in a great variety of physiological processes in mice, expression of the membrane and nuclear receptor in the murine immune system had not been studied. Thus, in this paper, after describing the presence of melatonin membrane and nuclear binding sites, we show, for the first time, the expression of the melatonin membrane and nuclear receptors in mouse thymus and spleen. We demonstrate that MT₁ and ROR α receptor mRNA and protein are expressed in both thymus and spleen, while MT₂ receptor mRNA only is detected in the thymus.

Materials and methods

Materials

2-[¹²⁵I]iodomelatonin was purchased from the Radiochemical Centre (Amersham, UK). The specific activity of the radioligand was 1900–2175 Ci/mmol and was used from 60 days. Purity of the radioligand was checked by silica gel column chromatography (SGCC) and was >95%. Melatonin was purchased from Sigma (St. Louis,

Mo.). CGP 52608 [1-(3-allyl-4-oxothiazolidine-2-ylidene)-4-methyl-thiosemicarbazone] and S 20098 [Ser-*vi*er; N-acetyl-2-(7-methoxynaphthalin-1-yl) ethylamine] were synthesized by Dr. M. Missbach (Chemical Research, Novartis Pharma, Basel, Switzerland) and were kindly provided by Dr. I. Wiesenber (Pharma Research, Novartis Pharma, Basel, Switzerland). All reagents used in RT-PCR, Southern blot, and immunodetection studies were purchased from Promega (Madison, Wis.). The primers and probes used in the work were purchased from Roche (Mannheim, Germany).

Experimental animals

All mouse studies (male Swiss mice between 6–8 weeks old) were conducted in accordance with the principles and procedures outlined by 'Ethical principles and guidelines for scientific experiments on animals' of the Swiss Academy of Medical Sciences.

Cell and tissue preparations

After animals had been killed by decapitation between 1200 and 1400 h, the organs were carefully removed and total RNA isolations were performed immediately. Cell suspensions from mouse thymus and spleen were prepared by mechanical dissociation. The isolated cells were washed with 0.15 M NaCl, finally resuspended in 0.15 M Dulbecco's phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), 1 mM CaCl₂, pH 7.4, and used immediately for binding experiments. Viability, as determined by trypan blue exclusion, was always greater than 95%.

Binding studies

In standard conditions, cells from mouse thymus and spleen (1×10^6 cells/ml) were incubated with [¹²⁵I]melatonin (100 pM) in incubation buffer and, when necessary, native melatonin or other compounds in a total reaction volume of 0.4 ml. The reaction was initiated by the addition of 0.2-ml aliquots of cells and performed at the times and temperatures indicated. Cell-bound [¹²⁵I]melatonin was separated by centrifugation, then washed with incubation buffer containing 10% (w/v) sucrose, and the radioactivity associated with the cells was measured in an LKB gamma counter. No detectable degradation of [¹²⁵I]melatonin during the incubation occurred, as SGCC of aliquots of the incubation medium, taken before and after incubating, revealed similar amounts of radioactivity (95%) in the position of [¹²⁵I]melatonin.

RT-PCR of MT₁, MT₂ and ROR α receptor

mRNA was isolated by the guanidium method [32]. Single-stranded cDNA was then synthesized from cells using the following method. Ten micrograms of RNA was preincubated with 1 μ g of oligo(T)15 in 20 μ l RNase-free H₂O at 85°C for 10 min and then rapidly chilled on ice. Then, 1 μ l RNasin (40 U/ μ l), 8 μ l 5 \times RT buffer, 8 μ l

dithiothreitol (100 mM) and 2 μ l deoxyribonucleotides (dNTP; 10 mM of each) were added and the mixture was incubated at 42°C for 3 min. Finally, 1 μ l Moloney murine leukemia virus reverse transcriptase (Mo-MuL-VRT; 200 U/ μ l) was added to give a final volume of 40 μ l and the reaction was incubated at 42°C for 60 min, then terminated by placing it on ice after deactivation at 95°C for 5 min. RNA used for RT-PCR analysis of MT₂ melatonin receptor mRNA expression was treated with DNAase (RQ1 RNase-free DNase, 1 U/ μ g RNA) to test DNA contamination before cDNA synthesis. The following oligonucleotides (5' to 3') were used as primers for MT₁ PCR: CCG CAA CAA GAA GCT CAG GAA CTC (exon 1) and TCG TAC TTG AGG CTG TGG CAA ATG (exon 3); they amplified a single 248-bp band. For MT₂ PCR the following oligonucleotides were used: TAC ATC AGC CTC GTC TGG CTC C (forward) and TTC CTC GTA GCC TTG GCC TTC C (reverse); they amplified a single 239-bp band. And for ROR α PCR the followed primers were used: GGA AGA GCT CCA GCA GAT AAC G (exon 4) and GCT GAC ATC AGT ACG AAT GCA G (exon 7), which amplified a single 417-bp band. For PCR reactions (1 \times PCR reaction buffer, 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 400 μ M dNTPs), 5 μ l of RT product were amplified after a 'hot start' procedure in a final volume of 25 μ l using 2.5 U Taq-DNA-polymerase. Thirty PCR cycles were performed (94°C, 1 min; 60°C, 1 min; 72°C, 1 min), followed by a final 5 min extension at 72°C. Specific primers for human hprt were used to test the efficiency of reverse transcription. The hprt primers were (5' to 3'); GTA ATG ATC AGT CAA CGG GGG GAC and CCA GCA AGC TTG CAA CCT TAA CCA (174-bp fragment).

Southern blot

After amplification, 5 μ l PCR reaction was electrophoresed in an agarose gel. The cDNA was transferred to a hy+ nylon membrane (Amersham-Pharmacia Biotech, Uppsala, Sweden). Blots were prehybridized at 68°C for 1 h in prehybridization buffer (5 \times SSC, 0.1% N-laurylsarcosyl, 0.02% SDS, 1% blocking reagent). The hybridization was performed at 60°C overnight in the same prehybridization buffer containing 25 ng/ml of labeled probe with an oligonucleotide tailing kit (Roche). Thereafter, blots were washed, blocked and incubated for 30 min in anti-DIG-AP (anti-digoxigenin conjugated to alkaline phosphatase). Finally, they were washed and incubated in CSPD. Blots were then exposed to Kodak X-OMAT AR film at room temperature. The probes used in this study were: MT₁ probe: TGC CAC AGC TAA ACT CAC CAC AAA TAT ATT; MT₂ probe: ACA AAG AAA TTG GGC ACC AAA GCC ACC AGA GT, and ROR α probe: CTG AGA GTC AAA GGC ACG GCA CAT CCT AAT. All of them were directed against their own fragment amplified by PCR.

Immunodetection of MT₁ and ROR α proteins

Tissues were washed with ice-cold PBS and then homogenized with a Polytron homogenizer (Kinematica, Luzern, Switzerland) at 4°C in HEPES 20 mM, pH 7.4, containing protease inhibitors. The tissue homogenates were then centrifuged for 10 min at 4000 g and supernatants were collected to assay protein expression. The protein content of the supernatants was determined by the Bradford method [33]. Samples were run into the SDS sample buffer on a 12% SDS-polyacrylamide gel and transferred to nitrocellulose membranes. Blots were blocked and then incubated using a 1:500 dilution in block buffer of purified antisera against MT₁ for 2 h at room temperature (RT). After a Tris-buffered saline Tween-20 (TBST) washing procedure, the blots were incubated with 1:2000 peroxidase-labeled anti-rabbit antibody (Amersham-Pharmacia Biotech) in TBST for 1 h at RT. The immunodetection was performed using the enhanced chemiluminescence ECL system (Amersham-Pharmacia Biotech). For immunodetection of ROR α , samples were run into the SDS sample buffer on an 8% SDS-polyacrylamide gel. Western analysis was carried out using a 1:500 dilution in block buffer of specific polyclonal antibody against ROR α 1 (ROR α 1, sc-6062; Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz, Calif.) for 4 h at RT. After a TBST washing procedure, the blots were incubated with 1:1000 peroxidase-labeled anti-goat antibody (DAKO, Glostrup, Denmark) in TBST for 1 h at RT. Immunodetection was performed using the ECL system.

Results

Specific melatonin membrane and nuclear binding sites

To prove the existence of specific binding sites for melatonin in mouse thymus and spleen, we studied whether different analogues of the melatonin receptor displaced the binding of 2-[¹²⁵I]iodomelatonin to thymocytes and splenocytes. The binding was displaced significantly by analogues of the melatonin membrane (S 20098) and nuclear (CGP 52608) receptors (fig. 1).

Gene expression of MT₁, MT₂ and ROR α melatonin receptors

As we know that mouse thymocytes and splenocytes possess both membrane and nuclear binding sites (fig. 1), we asked if these cells were able to express melatonin membrane and nuclear receptors. To determine which of the two better-known mouse melatonin membrane receptor subtypes may be expressed in these cells, PCR primers specific for both melatonin subtypes (MT₁ and MT₂) were used in an RT-PCR reaction of RNA isolated from mouse thymus and spleen. Primers used for the amplification of the MT₁ receptor were located in different

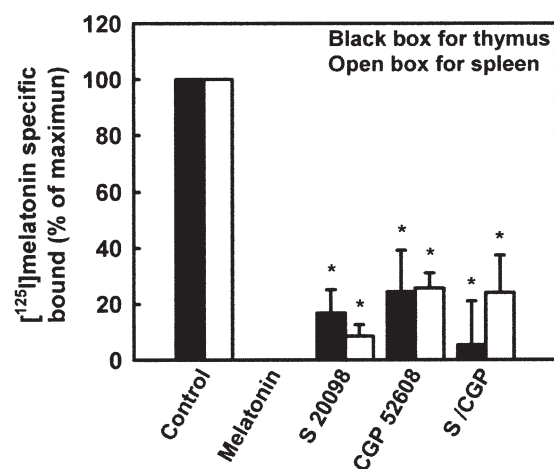


Figure 1. Binding of [125 I]melatonin in the presence of different analogues in mouse thymus (black bars) and spleen (white bars). Cells (1×10^6 cells/ml) were incubated with 100 pM [125 I]melatonin in the presence of 0.1 mM of each analogue at 15°C for 45 min. Bound (%) is the percentage of [125 I]melatonin added to the incubation medium bound specifically to the cells. Results are the mean of three experiments performed in triplicate. Statistical significance was determined by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA test) followed by the Student-Newman-Keuls multiple-range test. * $p < 0.001$ vs control.

exons, while primers used for the amplification of the MT₂ receptor belonged to a known partial fragment, thus, RNA used for RT-PCR analysis of MT₂ melatonin receptor mRNA expression was treated with DNAase to test DNA contamination before cDNA synthesis. Agarose gel electrophoresis demonstrates PCR products of the expected size in thymus amplified with the MT₁ primers (248 bp), but not in spleen (fig. 2A). When we used MT₂ primers, no band was detected in either tissues (fig. 3A). To determine the presence of nuclear receptors in both tissues, PCR primers specific for ROR α nuclear receptor were used in an RT-PCR reaction of RNA isolated from mouse thymus and spleen. Primers used for the amplification were located in different exons. A specific band of the expected size (417 bp) was observed in both thymus and spleen (fig. 4A). RT-PCR reactions were processed with hprt housekeeping gene primers (figs 2C, 3C, and 4C). Afterwards, we performed a Southern blot analysis employing specific DIG-labeled PCR-amplified DNA fragment MT₁, MT₂, and ROR α probes. Because of the high sensitivity of Southern blot compared to PCR, we were able to confirm the identity of PCR-amplified DNA fragments and observed a hybridization signal for MT₁ receptor in spleen (fig. 2B) and for MT₂ (239 bp) in thymus (fig. 3B) while no hybridization signal of MT₂ was observed in spleen (fig. 3B). In all experiments, mouse brain was used as positive control. Nucleotide sequences of the melatonin receptor fragments amplified from the brain, thymus, and spleen were studied by direct sequencing (Newbiotechnic, Seville, Spain). Results showed that both thymus and

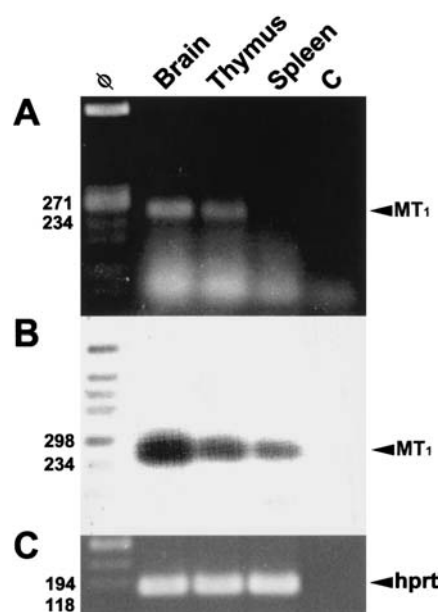


Figure 2. Analysis of MT₁ melatonin receptor mRNA expression in thymus and spleen. Brain was used as a positive control. ϕ shows molecular-weight markers (ϕ X174/*Hae*III for PCR and VI DIG-labeled for Southern blot), and C shows the PCR reaction without cDNA substrate. Representative figure from ten replicates. (A) RT-PCR analysis of the MT₁ receptor. (B) Southern blot hybridization of the PCR products shown in A with the DIG-labeled MT₁ melatonin receptor-specific probe. (C) RT-PCR analysis of hprt mRNA as a housekeeping gene.

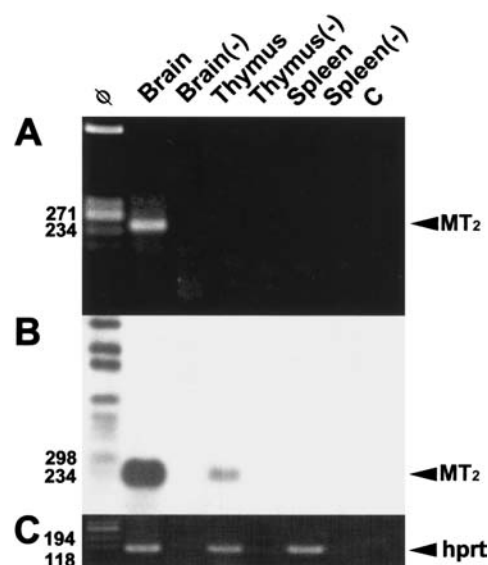


Figure 3. Analysis of MT₂ melatonin receptor mRNA expression in thymus and spleen. Brain was used as a positive control. Brain (-), thymus (-), and spleen (-) were processed in the absence of MMLV retrotranscriptase. ϕ shows molecular-weight markers (ϕ X174/*Hae*III for PCR and VI DIG-labeled for Southern blot), and C shows the PCR reaction without cDNA substrate. Representative figure from ten replicates. (A) RT-PCR analysis of the MT₂ receptor. (B) Southern blot hybridization of the PCR products shown in A with the DIG-labeled MT₂ melatonin receptor-specific probe. (C) RT-PCR analysis of hprt mRNA as a housekeeping gene.

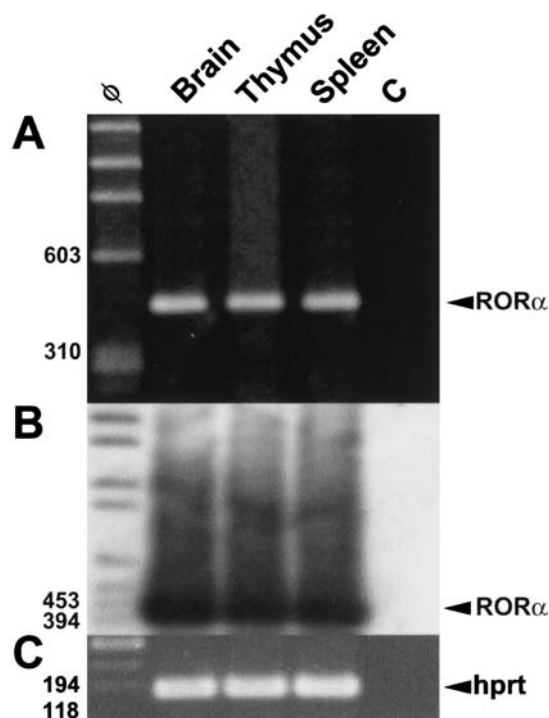


Figure 4. Analysis of ROR α melatonin receptor mRNA expression in thymus and spleen. The brain was used as a positive control. ϕ shows molecular-weight markers (ϕ X174/*Hae*III for PCR and VI DIG-labeled for Southern blot), and C shows the PCR reaction without cDNA substrate. Representative figure from ten replicates. (A) RT-PCR analysis of the ROR α receptor. (B) Southern blot hybridization of the PCR products shown in A with the DIG-labeled ROR α melatonin receptor-specific probe. (C) RT-PCR analysis of hprt mRNA as a housekeeping gene.

spleen melatonin receptor cDNA fragments exhibited identical nucleotide sequences with the mouse brain receptors. Taken together, these data show the presence of membrane and nuclear receptor in the murine immune system. Thus, we detected MT₁ mRNA expression in thymus and spleen, while we only detected MT₂ mRNA expression in thymus. Both thymus and spleen express the nuclear receptor ROR α .

Protein expression of MT₁ and ROR α 1 receptors

Due to the presence of MT₁ (fig. 2), MT₂ (fig. 3), and ROR α (fig. 4) mRNA in thymus and spleen, we wanted to determine whether this mRNA expression correlated with protein expression of these receptors. Thus, we studied protein expression of melatonin receptors expressed in the membrane and in the nucleus by Western blot analysis. We used specific rabbit antisera against the MT₁ melatonin receptor to determine MT₁ protein expression in thymus and spleen. The Western blot analysis was positive: acrylamide gel electrophoresis showed a band of the expected weight, about 37 kDa (fig. 5A). ROR α 1 protein was also observed in thymus and spleen (fig. 5B). We detected a protein with a weight between 50 and 55 kDa,

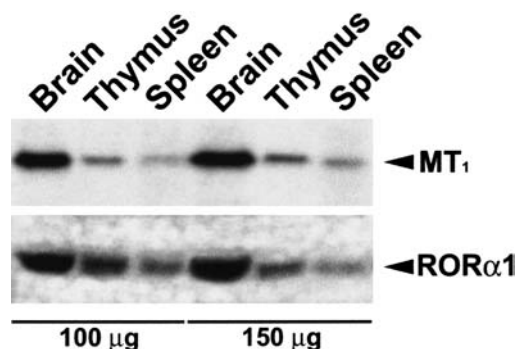


Figure 5. Western blot analysis of MT₁ membrane and ROR α 1 nuclear receptor. Indicated concentrations of protein from mouse thymus and spleen were separated by 12% (MT₁) or 8% (ROR α 1) SDS-PAGE, and then transferred to nitrocellulose and immunoblotted with specific purified rabbit antisera. Brain was used as a positive control. Representative figure from ten replicates.

which agrees with previous studies [34]. In these Western blot analyses, mouse brain was also used as a positive control.

Discussion

A large amount of evidence supports a role for melatonin in the murine immune system. Thus, *in vivo* administration of melatonin has been observed to enhance antibody-dependent cellular cytotoxicity [35], to enhance the antibody response to a T-dependent antigen in young or immunodepressed animals through an increase in Th cell activity and IL-2 production [36], and to reverse lipopolysaccharide-induced hyperalgesia [37]. Moreover, melatonin has been shown to inhibit apoptosis during early B cell development in bone marrow [38] and to stimulate the gene expression of immunomodulating cytokines [39]. Melatonin has also been reported to promote rejuvenation of degenerative thymus [40, 41]. In addition, *in vitro* studies have revealed that melatonin increases IFN- γ production by murine splenocytes and increases the ability of spleen cells to proliferate in response to mitogens [42].

An essential fact that supports a relationship between melatonin and the immune system is the presence of melatonin receptors in immune organs and cells. Although specific binding sites for melatonin had been characterized in murine thymus [43] and spleen [44], the subcellular localization of these binding sites had not been studied in any depth. In the present work, we show that both thymocytes and splenocytes present melatonin-binding sites in plasma membrane and nuclei (fig. 1). Currently, two high-affinity membrane receptors for melatonin have been cloned in mice. These receptors, MT₁ [45] and MT₂, [46] are members of the G protein-coupled receptor superfamily, while, a third membrane

receptor, MT₃, which belongs to the family of quinone reductases, has been recently identified in mouse spleen [47]. Melatonin nuclear receptors, belong to the RZR/ROR orphan receptor subfamily, which includes the products of three genes; splicing variants of ROR α (ROR α 1, ROR α 2, ROR α 3, RZR α), RZR β , and ROR γ . Only ROR α [48] and ROR γ [49] receptors have been specifically identified in mice.

Much evidence reveals that melatonin, acting through its receptors, is involved in numerous physiological processes in rodents [50–52]. As an immunomodulator, melatonin has been reported to enhance cell-mediated and humoral immunity via its MT₂ receptor [52]. Moreover, administration of luzindole, a high-affinity melatonin membrane receptor antagonist, has been shown to attenuate the ability of melatonin to enhance splenic lymphocyte proliferation [53] and suppress experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis [54]. Antiproliferative effects of melatonin have also been shown in LNCaP human prostate and murine colonic cancer through its MT₁ and RZR/ROR receptors, respectively [55, 56].

Because of the existence of membrane and nuclear melatonin-binding sites shown in figure 1, together with the numerous biological actions exerted by melatonin on the mouse immune system and the presence of melatonin synthesis in the murine immune system, we thought an expression study of membrane and nuclear melatonin receptors in the murine immune system was necessary. We studied the expression of MT₁ and MT₂ membrane receptors and ROR α nuclear receptor in thymus and spleen of mice, since melatonin has been postulated to exert its immunomodulatory actions through these receptors. Studies revealed the presence of MT₁ and ROR α receptor mRNA in both thymus and spleen (figs. 2, 4), while MT₂ mRNA was only detected in thymus (fig. 3). Protein expression studies indicated clear protein expression of both membrane and nuclear receptors in thymus and spleen (fig. 5). These data show, for the first time, the presence of membrane and nuclear melatonin receptor mRNA and protein in the mouse immune system. In conclusion, the data shown in this paper, together with the development of receptor-specific analogues and the use of melatonin receptor knockout animals will contribute to understanding and elucidating the mechanisms of melatonin through its target sites in the immune system.

Acknowledgements. This work was supported by grants of the Spanish government (DGI, SAS 2002-00939; DGES, PM98-0156; PETRI, 95-04510P, BFI 2002-03544). A. C.-V. was supported by a fellowship of the Asociación Sanitaria Virgen Macarena.

- 1 Cajochen C., Krauchi K. and Wirz-Justice A. (2003) Role of melatonin in the regulation of human circadian rhythms and sleep. *J. Neuroendocrinol.* **15**: 432–437
- 2 Malpaux B., Migaud M., Tricoire H. and Chemineau P. (2001) Biology of mammalian photoperiodism and the critical role

- of the pineal gland and melatonin. *J. Biol. Rhythms* **16**: 336–347
- 3 Reiter R. J. (1991) Pineal melatonin: cell biology of its synthesis and of its physiological interactions. *Endocr. Rev.* **12**: 151–180
- 4 Reiter R. J. (1998) Oxidative damage in the central nervous system: protection by melatonin. *Prog. Neurobiol.* **56**: 359–384
- 5 Cos S., Fernandez R., Guezmes A. and Sánchez-Barcelo E. J. (1998) Influence of melatonin on invasive and metastatic properties of MCF-7 human breast cancer cells. *Cancer Res.* **58**: 4383–4390
- 6 Reiter R. J. (1992) The ageing pineal gland and its physiological consequences. *Bioessays* **14**: 169–175
- 7 Guerrero J. M. and Reiter R. J. (2002) Melatonin-immune system relationships. *Curr. Top. Med. Chem.* **2**: 167–179
- 8 Carrillo-Vico A., García-Mauriño S., Calvo J. R. and Guerrero J. M. (2003) Melatonin counteracts the inhibitory effect of PGE₂ on IL-2 production in human lymphocytes via its mtl membrane receptor. *FASEB J.* **17**: 755–757
- 9 Winczyk K., Pawlikowski M., Guerrero J. M. and Karasek M. (2002) Possible involvement of the nuclear RZR/ROR-alpha receptor in the antitumor action of melatonin on murine Colon 38 cancer. *Tumour Biol.* **23**: 298–302
- 10 Benitez-King G., Hernandez M. E., Tovar R. and Ramirez G. (2001) Melatonin activates PKC-alpha but not PKC-epsilon in N1E-115 cells. *Neurochem. Int.* **39**: 95–102
- 11 Tan D. X., Reiter R. J., Manchester L. C., Yan M. T., El-Sawi M., Sainz R. M. et al. (2002) Chemical and physical properties and potential mechanisms: melatonin as a broad spectrum antioxidant and free radical scavenger. *Curr. Top. Med. Chem.* **2**: 181–197
- 12 Straub R. H., Miller L. E., Scholmerich J. and Zietz B. (2000) Cytokines and hormones as possible links between endocrinosenescence and immunosenescence. *J. Neuroimmunol.* **109**: 10–15
- 13 Nelson R. J. and Drazen D. L. (2000) Melatonin mediates seasonal changes in immune function. *Ann. N. Y. Acad. Sci.* **917**: 404–415
- 14 Fernandes G., Carandente F., Halberg E., Halberg F. and Good R. A. (1979) Circadian rhythm in activity of lympholytic natural killer cells from spleens of Fischer rats. *J. Immunol.* **123**: 622–625
- 15 Petrovsky N. and Harrison L. C. (1997) Diurnal rhythmicity of human cytokine production: a dynamic disequilibrium in T helper cell type 1/T helper cell type 2 balance? *J. Immunol.* **158**: 5163–5168
- 16 Vermeulen M., Palermo M. and Giordano M. (1993) Neonatal pinealectomy impairs murine antibody-dependent cellular cytotoxicity. *J. Neuroimmunol.* **43**: 97–101
- 17 Martins E. Jr, Ligeiro de Oliveira A. P., Fialho de Araujo A. M., Tavares d. L., Cipolla-Neto J. and Costa Rosa L. F. (2001) Melatonin modulates allergic lung inflammation. *J. Pineal Res.* **31**: 363–369
- 18 Molinero P., Soutto M., Benot S., Hmadcha A. and Guerrero J. M. (2000) Melatonin is responsible for the nocturnal increase observed in serum and thymus of thymosin alpha1 and thymulin concentrations: observations in rats and humans. *J. Neuroimmunol.* **103**: 180–188
- 19 Demas G. E. and Nelson R. J. (1998) Exogenous melatonin enhances cell-mediated, but not humoral, immune function in adult male deer mice (*Peromyscus maniculatus*). *J. Biol. Rhythms* **13**: 245–252
- 20 Calvo J. R., Guerrero J. M., Osuna C., Molinero P. and Carrillo-Vico A. (2002) Melatonin triggers Crohn's disease symptoms. *J. Pineal Res.* **32**: 277–278
- 21 García-Mauriño S., González-Haba M. G., Calvo J. R., Rafii-El-Idrissi M., Sanchez-Margalet V., Goberna R. et al. (1997) Melatonin enhances IL-2, IL-6, and IFN-gamma production by human circulating CD4+ cells: a possible nuclear receptor-me-

- diated mechanism involving T helper type 1 lymphocytes and monocytes. *J. Immunol.* **159**: 574–581
- 22 García-Mauriño S., Pozo D., Carrillo-Vico A., Calvo J. R. and Guerrero J. M. (1999) Melatonin activates Th1 lymphocytes by increasing IL-12 production. *Life Sci.* **65**: 2143–2150
 - 23 Conti A., Conconi S., Hertens E., Skwarlo-Sonta K., Markowska M. and Maestroni J. M. (2000) Evidence for melatonin synthesis in mouse and human bone marrow cells. *J. Pineal Res.* **28**: 193–202
 - 24 Tan D. X., Manchester L. C., Reiter R. J., Qi W. B., Zhang M., Weintraub S. T. et al. (1999) Identification of highly elevated levels of melatonin in bone marrow: its origin and significance. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* **1472**: 206–214
 - 25 Liu Z. M. and Pang S. F. (1993) [¹²⁵I]iodomelatonin-binding sites in the bursa of Fabricius of birds: binding characteristics, subcellular distribution, diurnal variations and age studies. *J. Endocrinol.* **138**: 51–57
 - 26 Rafii-El-Idrissi M., Calvo J. R., Pozo D., Harmouch A. and Guerrero J. M. (1995) Specific binding of 2-[¹²⁵I]iodomelatonin by rat splenocytes: characterization and its role on regulation of cyclic AMP production. *J. Neuroimmunol.* **57**: 171–178
 - 27 González-Haba M. G., García-Mauriño S., Calvo J. R., Gubern R. and Guerrero J. M. (1995) High-affinity binding of melatonin by human circulating T lymphocytes (CD4+). *FASEB J.* **9**: 1331–1335
 - 28 Reppert S. M., Weaver D. R. and Ebisawa T. (1994) Cloning and characterization of a mammalian melatonin receptor that mediates reproductive and circadian responses. *Neuron* **13**: 1177–1185
 - 29 Reppert S. M., Godson C., Mahle C. D., Weaver D. R., Slaugenhaupt S. A. and Gusella J. F. (1995) Molecular characterization of a second melatonin receptor expressed in human retina and brain: the Mel1b melatonin receptor. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **92**: 8734–8738
 - 30 Nosjean O., Ferro M., Coge F., Beauverger P., Henlin J. M., Lefoulon F. et al. (2000) Identification of the melatonin-binding site MT₃ as the quinone reductase 2. *J. Biol. Chem.* **275**: 31311–31317
 - 31 Smirnov A. N. (2001) Nuclear melatonin receptors. *Biochemistry (Moscow)* **66**: 19–26
 - 32 Chomczynski P. and Sacchi N. (1987) Single-step method of RNA isolation by acid guanidinium thiocyanate-phenol-chloroform extraction. *Anal. Biochem.* **162**: 156–159
 - 33 Bradford M. M. (1976) A rapid and sensitive method for the quantitation of microgram quantities of protein utilizing the principle of protein-dye binding. *Anal. Biochem.* **72**: 248–254
 - 34 Meyer T., Kneissel M., Mariani J. and Fournier B. (2000) In vitro and in vivo evidence for orphan nuclear receptor ROR α function in bone metabolism. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **97**: 9197–9202
 - 35 Giordano M. and Palermo M. S. (1991) Melatonin-induced enhancement of antibody-dependent cellular cytotoxicity. *J. Pineal Res.* **10**: 117–121
 - 36 Caroleo M. C., Frasca D., Nistico G. and Doria G. (1992) Melatonin as immunomodulator in immunodeficient mice. *Immunopharmacology* **23**: 81–89
 - 37 Raghavendra V., Agrewala J. N. and Kulkarni S. K. (2000) Melatonin reversal of lipopolysaccharides-induced thermal and behavioral hyperalgesia in mice. *Eur. J. Pharmacol.* **395**: 15–21
 - 38 Yu Q., Miller S. C. and Osmond D. G. (2000) Melatonin inhibits apoptosis during early B-cell development in mouse bone marrow. *J. Pineal Res.* **29**: 86–93
 - 39 Liu F., Ng T. B. and Fung M. C. (2001) Pineal indoles stimulate the gene expression of immunomodulating cytokines. *J. Neural Transm.* **108**: 397–405
 - 40 Tian Y. M., Li P. P., Jiang X. F., Zhang G. Y. and Dai Y. R. (2001) Rejuvenation of degenerative thymus by oral melatonin administration and the antagonistic action of melatonin against hydroxyl radical-induced apoptosis of cultured thymocytes in mice. *J. Pineal Res.* **31**: 214–221
 - 41 Pierpaoli W. and Regelson W. (1994) Pineal control of aging: effect of melatonin and pineal grafting on aging mice. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **91**: 787–791
 - 42 Atre D. and Blumenthal E. J. (1998) Melatonin: immune modulation of spleen cells in young, middle-aged and senescent mice. *Mech. Ageing Dev.* **103**: 255–268
 - 43 Liu Z., Zhao Y. and Peng S. (1995) Identification of 2-[¹²⁵I]iodomelatonin binding sites in the thymus of mice and its significance. *Sci. China. B.* **38**: 1455–1461
 - 44 Yu Z. H., Yuan H., Lu Y. and Pang S. F. (1991) [¹²⁵I]iodomelatonin binding sites in spleens of birds and mammals. *Neurosci. Lett.* **125**: 175–178
 - 45 Roca A. L., Godson C., Weaver D. R. and Reppert S. M. (1996) Structure, characterization, and expression of the gene encoding the mouse Mel1a melatonin receptor. *Endocrinology* **137**: 3469–3477
 - 46 Jin X., Gall C. von, Pieschl R. L., Gribkoff V. K., Stehle J. H., Reppert S. M. et al. (2003) Targeted disruption of the mouse Mel1b melatonin receptor. *Mol. Cell Biol.* **23**: 1054–1060
 - 47 Nosjean O., Nicolas J. P., Klupsch F., Delagrèze P., Canet E. and Boutin J. A. (2001) Comparative pharmacological studies of melatonin receptors: MT₁, MT₂ and MT₃/QR2. Tissue distribution of MT₃/QR2. *Biochem. Pharmacol.* **61**: 1369–1379
 - 48 Karasek M., Carrillo-Vico A., Guerrero J. M., Winczyk K. and Pawlikowski M. (2003) Expression of melatonin MT₁ and MT₂ receptors, and ROR α (1) receptor in transplantable murine Colon 38 cancer. *Neuroendocrinol. Lett.* **23**: 55–60
 - 49 Villey I., Chasseval R. de and Villartay J. P. de (1999) ROR γ MT, a thymus-specific isoform of the orphan nuclear receptor ROR γ MT, is up-regulated by signaling through the pre-T cell receptor and binds to the TEA promoter. *Eur. J. Immunol.* **29**: 4072–4080
 - 50 Dubocovich M. L., Yun K., Al Ghoul W. M., Benloucif S. and Masana M. I. (1998) Selective MT₂ melatonin receptor antagonists block melatonin-mediated phase advances of circadian rhythms. *FASEB J.* **12**: 1211–1220
 - 51 Petrovsky N. and Bucala R. (2002) Macrophage migration inhibitory factor: a critical neurohumoral mediator. *Front. Horm. Res.* **29**: 83–90
 - 52 Drazen D. L. and Nelson R. J. (2001) Melatonin receptor subtype MT₂ (Mel 1b) and not mt1 (Mel 1a) is associated with melatonin-induced enhancement of cell-mediated and humoral immunity. *Neuroendocrinology* **74**: 178–184
 - 53 Drazen D. L., Bilu D., Bilbo S. D. and Nelson R. J. (2001) Melatonin enhancement of splenocyte proliferation is attenuated by luzindole, a melatonin receptor antagonist. *Am. J. Physiol. Regul. Integr. Comp. Physiol.* **280**: 1476–1482
 - 54 Constantinescu C. S., Hilliard B., Ventura E. and Rostami A. (1997) Luzindole, a melatonin receptor antagonist, suppresses experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis. *Pathobiology* **65**: 190–194
 - 55 Xi S. C., Tam P. C., Brown G. M., Pang S. F. and Shiu S. Y. (2000) Potential involvement of mt1 receptor and attenuated sex steroid-induced calcium influx in the direct anti-proliferative action of melatonin on androgen-responsive LNCaP human prostate cancer cells. *J. Pineal Res.* **29**: 172–183
 - 56 Winczyk K., Pawlikowski M. and Karasek M. (2001) Melatonin and RZR/ROR receptor ligand CGP 52608 induce apoptosis in the murine colonic cancer. *J. Pineal Res.* **31**: 179–182