Prostaglandins are powerful inducers of NGF and BDNF production in mouse astrocyte cultures

Misao Toyomoto^a, Mitsuhiro Ohta^b, Kohji Okumura^a, Hiroe Yano^a, Kaori Matsumoto^a, Seiji Inoue^{a,*}, Kyozo Hayashi^a, Kiyoshi Ikeda^a

^aDepartment of Biochemistry, Osaka University of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Takatsuki, Osaka 569-1094, Japan ^bDepartment of Clinical Chemistry, Kobe Pharmaceutical University, Kobe 658-8558, Japan

Received 26 January 2004; revised 23 February 2004; accepted 24 February 2004

First published online 11 March 2004

Edited by Jesus Avila

Abstract We found that prostaglandin (PG) D_2 and PGE_2 , which are major PGs in the brain of mammals, powerfully induced the secretion of nerve growth factor (NGF) from cultured mouse astrocytes; PGE_2 or PGD_2 induced an approximately 12- or 19-fold increase in NGF secretion after a 24-h incubation, respectively. Moreover, it was found that the sequential metabolites of PGD_2 , PGJ_2 , Δ^{12} - PGJ_2 , and 15-deoxy- $\Delta^{12,14}$ - PGJ_2 , induced the NGF secretion to the culture medium strikingly (60–98-fold of the control after a 24-h incubation). NGF secretion induced by the J_2 series of PGs was accompanied by the increased expression of NGF mRNA. These PGs also stimulated the secretion/synthesis of brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF). Our findings suggest that PGs play a neuroprotective role by inducing NGF and BDNF production in the central nervous system.

© 2004 Federation of European Biochemical Societies. Published by Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.

Key words: Prostaglandin; Neurotrophin; Astrocyte; Neuroprotection; Nervous system

1. Introduction

Prostaglandins (PGs) are the major lipid mediators produced by cyclooxygenase activity, and they play important modulatory roles in various cells throughout the whole body. In the central nervous system (CNS), PGs and other bioactive lipids regulate various vital aspects of neural membrane biology, including protein—lipid interactions as well as trans-membrane and trans-synaptic signalings [1]. Some current reports raised a possibility that brain PGs are key players at the early stages of acute neural trauma and brain-cell damage associated with chronic neurodegenerative diseases such as Alzheimer's disease (AD) [2,3].

Nerve growth factor (NGF) is well known to be essential to preserve the cholinergic neurons of the basal nucleus of Meynert in culture, and it has been considered a potential thera-

*Corresponding author. Fax: (81)-72-690 1075. E-mail address: inoue@gly.oups.ac.jp (S. Inoue).

Abbreviations: PG, prostaglandin; 15d-PGJ₂, 15-deoxy- Δ ^{12,14}-prostaglandin J₂; NGF, nerve growth factor; BDNF, brain-derived neurotrophic factor; CNS, central nervous system; AD, Alzheimer's disease; FBS, fetal bovine serum; G3PDH, glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase; LPS, lipopolysaccharide

peutic agent for the treatment of AD [4,5]. Brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) has clear neurorestorative and neuroprotective effects on dopaminergic neurons [6–8], and it is considered to contribute to neuroprotection in Parkinson's disease.

However, the effects of PGs on the production of neurotrophins have not yet been defined. Therefore, we investigated the effects of PGs on the synthesis/secretion of the abovementioned neurotrophins by cultured mouse astrocytes.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Materials

Anti-mouse $\beta\text{-NGF}$ monoclonal antibody and anti-BDNF monoclonal antibody were purchased from Roche Molecular Biochemicals (Mannheim, Germany) and R&D systems (Minneapolis, MN, USA), respectively. Human recombinant BDNF and anti-BDNF polyclonal antibody were from Promega (Madison, WI, USA). PGF $_{2\alpha}$, PGI $_2$, PGE $_2$, PGD $_2$, PGB $_2$, PGB $_2$, PGB $_2$, PGJ $_2$, and 15-deoxy- $\Delta^{12,14}\text{PGJ}_2$ (15d-PGJ $_2$) were from Cayman (Ann Arbor, MI, USA). Lipopolysaccharide (LPS) was obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA).

2.2. Astrocyte culture

Cortical astrocytes were derived from 2-day-old mice (ICR) as described previously [9] with minor modifications. After removal of the meninges, the cerebral cortex was cut into small pieces, and washed in Leibowitz L-15 medium. The pieces were then treated with 0.25% trypsin at 37°C for 25 min. After the trypsin had been neutralized in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM; Sigma-Aldrich) containing 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS; BioWhittaker, Walkersville, MD, USA) and penicillin-streptomycin solution, the cells were rinsed and seeded into 25-cm² tissue culture flasks. The culture became almost confluent 4-5 days after the seeding, and the cells were then trypsinized and recultured in new flasks. This procedure was repeated twice. Finally, the cells were seeded at a density of 10⁵ cells/cm² in 48well plates or in 6-cm dishes. The confluent cells were exposed for about 10 days to FBS-free DMEM containing 0.5% bovine serum albumin, and then incubated with different concentrations of PGs for 24 h. Finally, the culture medium and cells were separately collected and used for the measurement of neurotrophin content.

2.3. Enzyme immunoassay of NGF

NGF content in the cell supernatant was measured by using a sensitive two-site enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) system as previously described [10] with slight modifications. Briefly, polystyrene microtiter plates (Corning, Corning, NY, USA) were coated for 1 h at room temperature with 50 μ l of 0.2 μ g/ml anti-βNGF monoclonal antibody that had been diluted with 10 mM sodium carbonate–bicarbonate buffer, pH 9.3. After the plates had been washed three times with washing buffer (50 mM Tris–HCl, 200 mM NaCl, 10 mM CaCl₂, 0.1% Triton X-100; pH 7.0), non-specific binding sites were saturated with 10% Block Ace (Dainippon Pharmaceu-

tical, Osaka, Japan), and the plates were then washed three times again with the buffer. Subsequently, 50 μl sample or $\beta\text{-NGF}$ standard solution was added to each well of the plates, which were then incubated overnight at 4°C. Each well was next washed three times with the washing buffer, 50 μl of biotinylated anti- $\beta\text{-NGF}$ monoclonal antibody conjugate was added, and incubation was continued for 1 h at 37°C. After the plates had been washed again three times, streptavidin-linked horseradish peroxidase (HRP) (Amgen, Thousand Oaks, CA, USA) was added to each well; then incubation was done for 1 h at room temperature, followed by five washes. The enzyme reaction was started by the addition of 100 μl of TMB-H₂O₂ solution (Kirkegaard and Perry, Gaithersburg, MD, USA), and stopped by the addition of 100 μl of 1 M H₃PO₄. The absorbance of the plates was read at a wavelength of 450 nm.

2.4. Enzyme immunoassay of BDNF

BDNF content in the cell supernatant was measured by the method described previously [11] with slight modifications. Briefly, the microtiter plates were coated with 50 μ l of 1 μ g/ml anti-BDNF monoclonal antibody. Human recombinant BDNF was used as a standard solution. Anti-BDNF polyclonal antibody was biotinylated for use as the secondary antibody. The bound antibody complex was measured with streptavidin-linked HRP by a method similar to that for NGF.

2.5. Semi-quantitative polymerase chain reaction (PCR)

After treatment of the astrocyte cultures with PGs for a desired period of time, the total RNA of the cells was extracted by using an RNeasy RNA extraction kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA, USA), and then treated with DNase I (Invitrogen, San Diego, CA, USA). Reverse transcription (RT) was carried out with a Transcription Kit (Invitrogen). Aliquots of the cDNA were amplified in 25 µl of PCR cocktail containing each specific primer and KOD Dash DNA polymerase (Toyobo, Osaka, Japan). Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (G3PDH) transcripts were used as a positive control. Based on the preliminary experiments conducted to establish the optimal conditions for the amplification of each primer pair, the target cDNAs of NGF, BDNF, and G3PDH cDNA were amplified for 32, 31, and 26 cycles, respectively. The following primer pairs were used: for NGF, 5'-AGTGAACATGCTGTGCCTCAAGCC-3' (sense) and 5'-GGCAAGTCAGCCTCTTCTTGTAGC-3' (antisense); for BDNF, 5'-AGGTGAGAAGAGTGATGACCATCC-3' (sense) and 5'-CAA-CATAAATCCACTATCTTCCCC-3' (antisense); and for G3PDH, 5'-TGAAGGTCGGTGTGAACGGATTTGGC-3' (sense) and 5'-CATGTAGGCCATGAGGTCCACCAC-3' (antisense). The expected product sizes were 937 bp for NGF, 777 bp for BDNF, and 983 bp for G3PDH. The PCR products were electrophoresed on an agarose gel containing ethidium bromide, and photographed under UV light. Intensity of the amplified bands was analyzed by using Scion Image software.

2.6. Statistical analysis

Data are presented as mean ± S.D. Significance was determined using one-way analysis of variance followed by a post-hoc test with statistical analysis software (SPSS, LEAD Technologies).

3. Results

We examined the effects of various natural PGs on the NGF secretion from cultured mouse astrocytes by ELISA. Fig. 1 shows the biosynthetic pathways of the PGs used. As shown in Fig. 2, PGF $_{2\alpha}$ and PGI $_2$ slightly stimulated the NGF secretion, whereas PGE $_2$ and PGD $_2$ stimulated it significantly. Galve-Roperh et al. reported that some lipid mediators such as ceramide [12] and LPS [13] stimulated NGF secretion from cultured astrocytes. They indicated the maximum level of NGF secretion after 24 h of treatment with 25 μ M C $_2$ -ceramide or 2 μ g/ml LPS to be nine- or eightfold, respectively, of the control. In our cultures, LPS similarly stimulated NGF secretion, and the maximum levels of NGF secretion elicited by 0.5 μ g/ml LPS were about sevenfold of the control after 24 h (Fig. 1). In this study, the

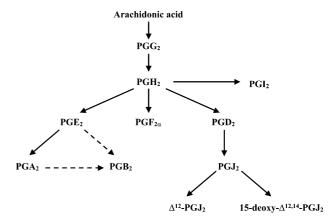


Fig. 1. The prostaglandin biosynthetic pathway. Arachidonic acid is first converted to the central prostanoid precursor PGH_2 via the action of the bifunctional enzyme PGH synthetase. PGH_2 is then converted to one of several related products, including PGD_2 , PGE_2 , $PGF_{2\alpha}$, and PGI_2 , through the action of specific PG synthetases. PGD_2 readily undergoes dehydration non-enzymatically to yield PGJ_2 . PGJ_2 is further converted to Δ^{12} - PGJ_2 or 15d- PGJ_2 ; the formation of the former from PGJ_2 is accelerated by serum albumin. PGA_2 is the dehydration product of PGE_2 , and under alkaline conditions, PGE_2 and PGA_2 are degraded to PGB_2 .

maximum level of NGF secretion stimulated by PGE₂ or PGD₂ treatment was two- or seven-fold greater than the maximum level obtained with LPS.

PGE₂ is known to rapidly undergo non-enzymatic dehydration in culture medium containing serum albumin to produce PGA₂ [14]; and under alkaline conditions, PGE₂ and PGA₂ are degraded to PGB₂ [15]. So, we examined also the effects of PGA₂ and PGB₂. PGA₂ had a greater effect on NGF secretion from astrocytes than PGE₂, whereas PGB₂ had a weaker effect than PGE₂ (Fig. 3A). On the other hand, PGs of the J₂ series (PGJ₂, Δ^{12} -PGJ₂, and 15d-PGJ₂), naturally occurring derivatives of PGD₂ [16–18], showed a dramatically greater effect than PGD₂ on the NGF secretion from cultured astrocytes. As shown in Fig. 3B, PGD₂ induced an approximately 19-fold increase in NGF secretion, while PGJ₂ (30 μ M), Δ^{12} -PGJ₂ (20 μ M), and 15d-PGJ₂ (75 μ M) caused an increase up to higher levels of 60-, 74-, and 98-fold, respectively, of the control.

To examine whether the stimulatory effects of PGD_2 and its metabolites on NGF secretion were accompanied by de novo synthesis of NGF protein, we determined the time dependence of their effects on NGF mRNA expression. Total RNA from the astrocytes treated with PGD_2 , PGJ_2 , Δ^{12} - PGJ_2 , or 15d- PGJ_2 was analyzed by the RT-PCR method. As shown in Fig. 4, NGF mRNA expression began to be induced 3 h after the addition of these PGs and did not return to the basal level even after 48 h. The effects of PGD_2 and its metabolites on the NGF synthesis/secretion in cultured astrocytes were thus long-lasting.

BDNF mRNA expression level was also investigated, and we found that PGD₂ and its metabolites stimulated the expression of BDNF mRNA as well. Fig. 4B shows time courses of the level of BDNF mRNA after treatment of PGD₂ and its metabolites. The maximum levels of the BDNF mRNA were 2–2.8-fold of the control at around 12 h after the start of treatment with the PGs, and after 24 h they returned to the basal level almost completely. Unlike the case of NGF syn-

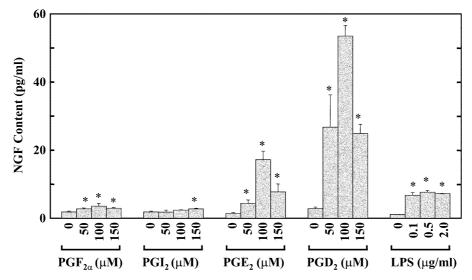


Fig. 2. Effects of PGs and LPS on the NGF secretion from mouse astrocytes. The cells were incubated with the indicated concentrations of PGs or LPS for 24 h. Results are the mean \pm S.D. of three independent experiments. Statistically different data are indicated by asterisks (P < 0.05).

thesis, the BDNF synthesis induced by PGD_2 and its metabolites seemed to be comparatively transient. The amount of BDNF secreted into the culture medium was also examined. As shown in Fig. 5, even at 12 h after the start of treatment with these PGs, it was found that the BDNF secretion was stimulated, although the level of stimulation was lower than that for NGF. These levels of NGF and BDNF secretion are in good agreement with those of mRNA expression shown in Fig. 4.

4. Discussion

PGs are regarded as modulators of cellular functions in various physiological processes. As PGs have various functions in the CNS, they have recently been considered to serve as mediators of glial and neuronal functions [19,20].

Here we showed that several natural PGs induced NGF secretion markedly. The result suggests that PGs in the

CNS act as potent inducers of NGF and thus would have neuroprotective effects. Especially, PGD_2 metabolites, i.e. cyclopentenone PGs of the J_2 series, stimulated the NGF secretion/synthesis quite potently and persistently. Also, these PGs stimulated the secretion/synthesis of BDNF in cultured astrocytes as well, although the levels were lower than those for NGF, and the stimulatory effect was comparatively transient. These differences in stimulation degree and term between NGF and BDNF may be due to some difference in the mechanisms for up-regulation by these PGs between these two neurotrophins.

It has been reported that PGD_2 is spontaneously dehydrated in aqueous solutions to yield PGJ_2 [16,17]. PGJ_2 is further converted to 15d- PGJ_2 in an albumin-independent manner or, alternatively, to Δ^{12} - PGJ_2 in an albumin-dependent manner [18]. PGE_2 is also known to be rapidly dehydrated to PGA_2 in culture medium containing serum albumin [14]. Actually, when PGD_2 or PGE_2 was incubated overnight

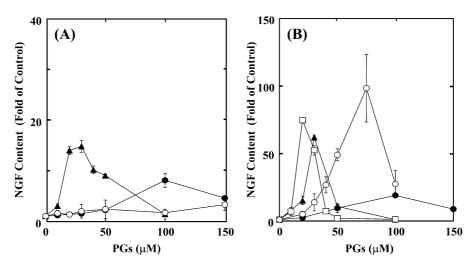


Fig. 3. Effects of PGE₂ and PGD₂ metabolites on the NGF secretion from mouse astrocytes. The cells were incubated with different concentrations of PGs for 24 h. A: PGE₂ (\bullet) and its metabolites, PGA₂ (\blacktriangle) and PGB₂ (\bigcirc). B: PGD₂ (\bullet) and its metabolites, PGJ₂ (\blacktriangle), Δ^{12} -PGJ₂ (\square), and 15d-PGJ₂ (\bigcirc). Results are the mean \pm S.D. of three independent experiments.

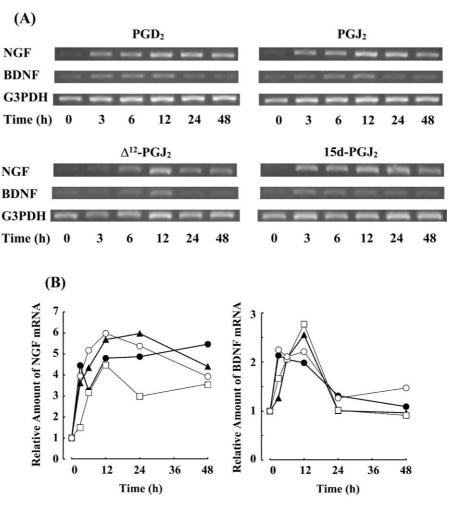


Fig. 4. Effects of PGD₂ and its metabolites on the mRNA levels of NGF, BDNF, and G3PDH. A: Total RNA from untreated astrocytes (0 h) or from those treated with 100 μ M PGD₂, 30 μ M PGJ₂, 20 μ M Δ^{12} -PGJ₂, or 75 μ M 15d-PGJ₂ for 3, 6, 12, 24, and 48 h was analyzed by the RT-PCR method. B: Time course of the mRNA expressions of NGF (left) and BDNF (right). The NGF, BDNF, and G3PDH intensities relative to those of control were calculated, and the ratios (relative NGF)/(relative G3PDH) and (relative BDNF)/(relative G3PDH) were used to indicate the relative amounts of NGF and BDNF gene expression, respectively. •, PGD₂; •, PGJ₂; □, Δ^{12} -PGJ₂; ○, 15d-PGJ₂. Similar results were obtained in two independent experiments.

in our culture medium, we observed by thin-layer chromatography that almost all PGD_2 was converted to the J_2 series of PGs, and almost all PGE_2 to PGA_2 . The J_2 series of PGs showed a dramatically greater effect on NGF secretion than PGD_2 . Likewise, PGA_2 showed a greater effect than PGE_2 . Therefore, the effect of PGD_2 or PGE_2 is likely to be mediated by their respective metabolic products.

At any rate, PGD_2 and its metabolites were found to be inducers of NGF and BDNF in cultured mouse astrocytes. PGD_2 is one of the most abundant PGs produced in the brain [21,22], and acts to induce physiological sleep [23–26]. As described above, PGD_2 is readily dehydrated to produce PGJ_2 and metabolized further to yield Δ^{12} - PGJ_2 or 15d- PGJ_2 . It is clear that PGD_2 is converted to its metabolites in vivo as well as in vitro [18]. Consequently, it is conceivable that PGD_2 synthesized by PGD_2 synthase not only promotes sleep, but also, through its metabolism, may act on astrocytes in brain to stimulate potently the production of neurotrophins. It is known that neurotrophins not only prevent neuronal death but also promote regeneration of neural networks in the CNS. This hypothesis should provoke further research as to the roles of PGD_2 , the most abundant prostanoid in the

CNS. A variety of brain cells such as astrocytes, microglial cells, and neurons can synthesize PGs [27–29]. Since these PGs may have autocrine/paracrine actions, PGs produced in the brain may induce the synthesis of neurotrophins in astrocytes.

It has already been reported that LPS is an inducer of NGF secretion from astrocytes. But the details of the mechanism are not clear. On the other hand, it has been reported that LPS stimulates the release of PGE₂ from astrocytes in culture [30]. As we found in this study that PGE₂ stimulated NGF secretion from astrocytes, the effect of LPS on NGF secretion may be through the production of PGE₂ stimulated by the LPS treatment.

Recently, the association of low BDNF levels with major depressive disorders was suggested [31–33]. In animals subjected to forced swimming [34] or chronic immobilization stress [35,36], BDNF mRNA levels were significantly suppressed. Moreover, it was reported that the reduced BDNF levels in depressed patients recovered to basal levels after antidepressant treatment [37]. Our experiments revealed that PGD₂ and its metabolites stimulated the BDNF secretion/synthesis by mouse astrocytes. This is suggestive of correlation between depression and these PGs in the brain.

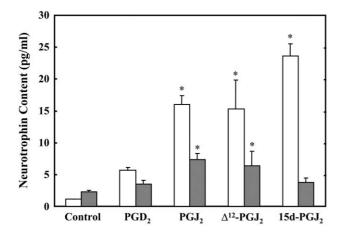


Fig. 5. The secretion levels of NGF and BDNF from mouse astrocytes after a 12-h incubation with PGD₂ and its metabolites. The cells were incubated for 12 h with 100 μM PGD₂, 30 μM PGJ₂, 20 μM Δ^{12} -PGJ₂, or 75 μM 15d-PGJ₂. NGF content (open bars) and BDNF content (solid bars) in the medium were measured by specific immunoassays as described in Section 2. Results are mean \pm S.D. of two experiments. Statistically different data are indicated by asterisks (P < 0.05).

In conclusion, it is now certain that several natural PGs are powerful inducers of NGF and BDNF production in cultured mouse astrocytes. This fact suggests that PGs in the CNS may act neuroprotectively to induce the production/release of these neurotrophins by astrocytes.

References

- [1] Bazan, N.G. (2003) J. Lipid Res. 44, 2221-2233.
- [2] Pasinetti, G.M. and Aisen, P.S. (1998) Neuroscience 87, 319-324.
- [3] Bazan, N.G., Colangelo, V. and Lukiw, W.J. (2002) Prostaglandins Other Lipid Mediat. 68–69, 197–210.
- [4] Weis, C., Marksteiner, J. and Humpel, C. (2001) Neuroscience 102, 129–138.
- [5] Lad, S.P., Neet, K.E. and Mufson, E.J. (2003) Curr. Drug Target CNS Neurol. Disord. 2, 315–334.
- [6] Altar, C.A., Boylan, C.B., Fritsche, M., Jones, B.E., Jackson, C., Wiegand, S.J., Lindsay, R.M. and Hyman, C. (1994) J. Neurochem. 63, 1021–1032.
- [7] Shults, C.W. (1998) in: Parkinson's Disease and Movement Disorders, 3rd edn. (Jankovic, J. and Tolosa, E., Eds.), pp. 105–118, Williams and Wilkins, Baltimore, MD.
- [8] Bradford, H.F., Zhou, J., Pliego-Rivero, B., Stern, G.M. and Jauniaux, E. (1999) Adv. Neurol. 80, 19–25.
- [9] Furukawa, S., Furukawa, Y., Satoyoshi, E. and Hayashi, K. (1986) Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. 136, 57–63.

- [10] Tanigawa, A., Ohde, H., Yoneda, F., Kimachi, T., Toyomoto, M., Inoue, S., Ikeda, K. and Hayashi, K. (1999) J. Biochem. Mol. Biol. Biophys. 3, 231–237.
- [11] Inoue, S., Susukida, M., Ikeda, K., Murase, K. and Hayashi, K. (1997) Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. 238, 468–472.
- [12] Galve-Roperh, I., Haro, A. and Diaz-Laviada, I. (1997) Mol. Brain Res. 52, 90–97.
- [13] Galve-Roperh, I., Malpartida, J.M., Haro, A., Brachet, P. and Diaz-Laviada, I. (1997) J. Neurosci. Res. 49, 569–575.
- [14] Ohno, K., Fujiwara, M., Fukushima, M. and Narumiya, S. (1986) Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. 139, 808–815.
- [15] Watanabe, S., Yoshida, C., Kobayashi, T. and Okuyama, H. (1997) Biol. Pharm. Bull. 20, 101–103.
- [16] Fitzpatrick, F.A. and Wynalda, M.A. (1983) J. Biol. Chem. 258, 11713–11718.
- [17] Fukushima, M. (1992) Prostaglandins Leukot. Essent. Fatty Acids 47, 1–12.
- [18] Shibata, T., Kondo, M., Osawa, T., Shibata, N., Kobayashi, M. and Uchida, K. (2002) J. Biol. Chem. 277, 10459–10466.
- [19] Petrova, T.V., Akama, K.T. and Van Eldik, L.J. (1999) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 96, 4668–4673.
- [20] Tsubokura, S., Watanabe, Y., Ehara, H., Imamura, K., Sugimoto, O., Kagamiyama, H., Yamamoto, S. and Hayaishi, O. (1991) Brain Res. 543, 15–24.
- [21] Abdel-Halim, M.S., Hamberg, M., Sjoquist, B. and Anggard, E. (1977) Prostaglandins 14, 633–643.
- [22] Ogorochi, T., Narumiya, S., Mizuno, N., Yamashita, K., Miya-zaki, H. and Hayaishi, O. (1984) J. Neurochem. 43, 71–82.
- [23] Hayaishi, O., Matsumura, H. and Urade, Y. (1993) J. Lipid Mediat. 6, 429–431.
- [24] Matsumura, H., Nakajima, T., Osaka, T., Satoh, S., Kawase, K., Kubo, E., Kantha, S.S., Kasahara, K. and Hayaishi, O. (1994) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 91, 11998–12002.
- [25] Urade, Y. and Hayaishi, O. (1999) Biochim. Biophys. Acta 1436, 606–615.
- [26] Hayaishi, O. (2000) Phil. Trans. Biol. Sci. 355, 275-280.
- [27] Murphy, S., Pearce, B., Jeremy, J. and Dandona, P. (1988) Glia 1, 241–245.
- [28] Minghetti, L. and Levi, G. (1995) J. Neurochem. 65, 2690-2698.
- [29] Shimizu, T. and Wolfe, L.S. (1990) J. Neurochem. 55, 1-15.
- [30] Pozzoli, G., Costa, A., Grimaldi, M., Schettini, G., Preziosi, P., Grossman, A. and Navarra, P. (1994) J. Endocrinol. 140, 103– 109
- [31] Altar, C.A. (1999) Trends Pharmacol. Sci. 20, 59-61.
- [32] Duman, R.S., Heninger, G.R. and Nestler, E.J. (1997) Arch. Gen. Psychiatry 54, 597–606.
- [33] Nestler, E.J., Barrot, M., DiLeone, R.J., Eisch, A.J., Gold, S.J. and Monteggia, L.M. (2002) Neuron 34, 13–25.
- [34] Russo-Neustadt, A., Ha, T., Ramirez, R. and Kesslak, J.P. (2001) Behav. Brain Res. 120, 87–95.
- [35] Smith, M.A., Makino, S., Kim, S.Y. and Kvetnansky, R. (1995) Endocrinology 136, 3743–3750.
- [36] Xu, H., Qing, H., Lu, W., Keegan, D., Richardson, J.S., Chlan-Fourney, J. and Li, X.M. (2002) Neurosci. Lett. 321, 65–68.
- [37] Shimizu, E., Hashimoto, K., Okamura, N., Koike, K., Komatsu, N., Kumakiri, C., Nakazato, M., Watanabe, H., Shinoda, N., Okada, S. and Iyo, M. (2003) Biol. Psychiatry 54, 70–75.