

From DEPARTMENT OF MOLECULAR MEDICINE AND
SURGERY

Karolinska Institutet, Stockholm, Sweden

**NOVEL MECHANISMS IN DEPRESSION:
FOCUS ON TELOMERE BIOLOGY AND
EPIGENETIC REGULATION**

Yabin Wei

魏雅槟



**Karolinska
Institutet**

Stockholm 2015

Cover image by Yu Chen. **The suicide of Ernest Miller Hemingway.** Beijing, China. 2015

All previously published papers were reproduced with permission from the publisher.

Published by Karolinska Institutet.

Printed by E-Print AB 2015

© Yabin Wei, 2015

ISBN 978-91-7549-934-5



**Karolinska
Institutet**

Institutionen för molekylär medicin och kirurgi

Novel Mechanisms in Depression: Focus on Telomere Biology and Epigenetic Regulation

AKADEMISK AVHANDLING

Som för avläggande av medicine doktorsexamen vid Karolinska Institutet offentligen försvaras i L8:00 Lecture hall, Karolinska Universitetssjukhuset, Solna

Fredagen den 29 Maj 2015, kl 9:00

THESIS FOR DOCTORAL DEGREE (Ph.D.)

av

Yabin Wei

Principal Supervisor:

Docent Catharina Lavebratt
Karolinska Institutet
Department of Molecular Medicine and Surgery

Co-supervisor(s):

Professor Martin Schalling
Karolinska Institutet
Department of Molecular Medicine and Surgery

Professor Yvonne Forsell
Karolinska Institutet
Department of Public Health Sciences

Professor Timo Partonen
National Institute for Health and Welfare
Department of Mental Health and Substance
Abuse Services

Ph.D. Philippe Melas
Karolinska Institutet
Department of Molecular Medicine and Surgery

Opponent:

Professor Owen Wolkowitz
UCSF School of Medicine
Department of Psychiatry

Examination Board:

Docent Maja Jagodic
Karolinska Institutet
Department of Department of Clinical
Neuroscience

Professor Georgy Bakalkin
Uppsala University
Department of Pharmaceutical Biosciences

Ph.D. Maria Lindskog
Karolinska Institutet
Department of Neuroscience

To my beloved family and friends.

ABSTRACT

Depression is a complex disorder with an average lifetime prevalence from 11.1% to 14.6%. It causes serious disability and is a significant public health problem worldwide. The etiology of depression is heterogeneous and multifactorial. Traditionally, researchers have tried to investigate depression from biochemical, genetic, environmental and behavioral perspectives. Since few biomarkers are available, diagnosis and treatment are still based on clinical assessment and are far from satisfactory. In recent years, depression has been proposed to be a state of “accelerated biological aging”, with an increased risk of comorbidity with other ageing-related conditions such as diabetes, cardiovascular disease and dementia. There is accumulating evidence to support that depression itself is in fact a state that involves telomere dysfunction, a prominent feature in the ageing process. Epigenetic regulation, with an emerging role in a number of complex disorders, constitutes a fusion between the results of genetic, biochemical and environmental factors. The aim of this thesis was to investigate the pathophysiology of depression with a focus on mechanisms that are perturbed in telomere biology and epigenetic regulation. Specifically, in paper I and III: telomere length and the genetic variation in the *hTERT* gene were examined in relation to lithium treatment, to depression disorder and depressive episodes in bipolar disorder in human cohorts. In paper II, we used a genetic rat model of depression (FSL) to study hippocampal telomere length and telomerase activity, and investigated the mechanism of how lithium affects telomere length. The epigenetic mechanisms potentially involved in depression, specifically DNA methylation/hydroxymethylation and miRNAs were investigated in the prefrontal cortex region of the FSL rats in paper IV and V, respectively. The major finding from the thesis work includes 1) telomere lengths were decreased in saliva DNA from patients with adult depression 2) genetic variation in *hTERT* may influence the susceptibility to depression 3) telomeres and telomerase activity are dysfunctional in the hippocampus of the depressed FSL rats 4) long-term lithium treatment is associated with longer telomeres in bipolar disorder especially when therapeutically efficacious 5) lithium treatment may normalize hippocampal telomerase dysfunction through activation of β -catenin in the rat 6) sodium butyrate exerts antidepressant-like effect and the suggestive epigenetic effects may include DNA methylation changes that are mediated by the demethylation-facilitating enzyme TET1 in the rat 7) elevation of cytokine *Il6* in the prefrontal cortex is associated with depression-like states and may involve disturbance in *let-7* biogenesis in the rat 8) physical exercise appears to normalize *Il6* and *let-7* levels through regulatory processes upstream of primary miRNA transcription in the rat.

Keywords: telomere length, *hTERT*, telomerase activity, depression, FSL, lithium, TET, sodium butyrate, methylation, hydroxymethylation, miRNA, *let-7*

LIST OF PUBLICATIONS/MANUSCRIPTS

- I. Martinsson L*, Wei Y*, Xu D, Melas PA, Mathé AA, Schalling M, Lavebratt C†, Backlund L†.
Long-term lithium treatment in bipolar disorder is associated with longer leukocyte telomeres.
Transl Psychiatry. 2013 May 21;3:e261. doi: 10.1038/tp.2013.37.
- II. Wei Y, Backlund L, Wegener G, Mathé AA†, Lavebratt C†.
Telomerase dysregulation in the hippocampus of a rat model of depression. Normalization by lithium.
Int J Neuropsychopharmacol. 2015: pyv002. doi: 10.1093/ijnp/pyv002.
- III. Wei Y, Martinsson L, Liu JJ, Forsell Y, Schalling M, Backlund L, Lavebratt C.
***hTERT* genetic variation in depression.**
Submitted manuscript.
- IV. Wei Y, Melas PA, Wegener G, Mathé AA, Lavebratt C.
Antidepressant-like effect of sodium butyrate is associated with an increase in TET1 and in 5-hydroxymethylation levels in the *Bdnf* gene.
Int J Neuropsychopharmacol. 2014 Oct 31;18(2). pii: pyu032. doi: 10.1093/ijnp/pyu032.
- V. Wei Y, Liu JJ, Åberg E, Brené S, Wegener G, Mathé AA, Lavebratt C.
Elevation of *Il6* is associated with disturbed let-7 biogenesis in a genetic model of depression.
Manuscript.

*Contributed equally

†Senior authors contributed equally

LIST OF ADDITIONAL PUBLICATIONS/MANUSCRIPTS

- I. Backlund L, **Wei Y**, Martinsson L, Melas AP, Liu JJ, Mu N, Ekström T, Schalling M, Lavebratt C. **Lithium treatment is associated with DNA hypomethylation in leukocytes of bipolar disorder patients.** *Molecular Neuropsychiatry. Accepted manuscript.*
- II. Fandino-Losada A, **Wei Y**, Åberg E, Sjöholm LK, Lavebratt C, Forsell Y. **Influence of serotonin transporter promoter variation on the effects of separation from parent/partner on depression.** *J Affect Disord.* 2013 Jan 25; 144(3): 216-224.
- III. Melas PA, **Wei Y**, Wong CC, Sjöholm LK, Åberg E, Mill J, Schalling M, Forsell Y, Lavebratt C. **Genetic and epigenetic associations of MAOA and NR3C1 with depression and childhood adversities.** *Int J Neuropsychopharmacol.* 2013 Aug;16(7):1513-28. doi: 10.1017/S1461145713000102. Epub 2013 Mar 1.
- IV. Melas PA, Lennartsson A, Vakifahmetoglu-Norberg H, **Wei Y**, Åberg E, Werme M, Rogdaki M, Mannervik M, Wegener G, Brené S, Mathé AA, Lavebratt C. **Allele-specific programming of neuropeptide Y (Npy) and epigenetic effects of physical activity in a genetic model of depression.** *Transl Psychiatry.* 2013 May 7;3:e255. doi: 10.1038/tp.2013.31.

CONTENTS

1	INTRODUCTION	1
1.1	DEPRESSION	2
1.1.1	Symptoms and clinical diagnoses	2
1.1.2	Etiology of depression	4
1.1.3	Genetics and depression	6
1.1.4	Epigenetics and depression	7
1.1.5	Telomere biology and depression	9
1.1.6	Treatment	10
2	AIMS	13
3	MATERIALS AND METHODS	14
3.1	ANIMAL STUDY	14
3.1.1	The FSL genetic rat model of depression	14
3.1.2	Behavior tests and treatments	14
3.1.3	RNA and protein analyses	14
3.1.4	RNA and protein interaction analyses	15
3.1.5	Telomere length and telomerase activity analyses	15
3.1.6	Epigenetic analyses	15
3.2	HUMAN STUDY	15
3.2.1	The PART study	15
3.2.2	The bipolar study	16
3.2.3	Genetic and telomere analyses	17
4	RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	18
4.1	TELOMERE DYSFUNCTION IN HUMAN DEPRESSION	18
4.1.1	Shorter saliva telomere length in self-reported adult depression	18
4.1.2	Telomere length associated negatively with increasing number of depressive episodes in bipolar disorder	18
4.1.3	Rs2736100 polymorphism is associated with depression and the number of depressive episodes in bipolar disorder type I	18
4.2	TELOMERE DYSFUNCTION IN THE FSL RAT MODEL OF DEPRESSION	19
4.2.1	Shorter hippocampal telomere length in the depressed FSL rat model	19
4.2.2	Decreased <i>Tert</i> and telomerase activity in the FSL hippocampus	19
4.3	INFLUENCE OF LITHIUM TREATMENT ON TELOMERE LENGTH AND TELOMERASE ACTIVITY	20
4.3.1	Longer telomere length in bipolar patients and good Li- responders	20
4.3.2	Lithium increases <i>Tert</i> and telomerase activity in the FSL hippocampus	20

4.3.3	Potential mechanism of lithium’s effect on telomere biology	20
4.4	EPIGENETIC FINDINGS IN THE FSL RAT MODEL.....	21
4.4.1	Sodium butyrate affects DNA methylation in the FSL prefrontal cortex (PFC)	21
4.4.2	Inflammation and disturbed let-7 biogenesis in the FSL prefrontal cortex	21
5	SUMMARY AND CONCLUDING REMARKS	23
6	FUTURE PERSPECTIVES.....	24
7	ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	27
8	REFERENCES.....	30

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ACTH	adrenocorticotrophic hormone
ATM	ataxia telangiectasia mutated
ATR	ataxia telangiectasia and Rad3 related
BDNF	brain-derived neurotrophic factor
CRH	corticotropin-releasing hormone
DNMT	DNA (cytosine-5-)-methyltransferase
DROSHA	droscha, ribonuclease type III
DSM-IV/V	diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders
fMRI	functional magnetic resonance imaging
HDR	homology-directed repair
HIP	hippocampus
HPA	hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal
IL-1 β	interleukin-1 β
IL-6	interleukin-6
MAOI	monoamine oxidase inhibitor
NaB	sodium butyrate
NHEJ	nonhomologous end joining
PET	positron-emission tomography
PFC	prefrontal cortex
qRT-PCR	quantitative real time-polymerase chain reaction
SSRI	selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor
TERC	telomerase RNA component
TERT	telomerase reverse transcriptase
TET	ten-eleven translocation protein
TNF- α	tumor necrosis factor α

1 INTRODUCTION

Depression was initially called "melancholia" which first appeared in ancient Mesopotamian texts written around 2000 B.C. It was documented as one of four humors in the old medical beliefs. From ancient Greeks and Romans, for thousands of years, depression has been debated back and forth as to whether it was best thought as a mental or physical disease. Nowadays we define depression, or a more clinical term "major depressive disorder", as a mental disorder characterized by pervasive and persistent low mood that is accompanied by low self-esteem and a loss of interest or pleasure in normally enjoyable activities [1]. However, it became the accepted view for scientists that depression can actually have many causes, and different approaches for treatment are considered to be important in helping depression patients "out of the blue". Depression is a commonly occurring and recurrent disorder. Specifically, the estimated lifetime prevalence is from 11.1% to 14.6% between different countries [2] and approximately 60% of people who had a first lifetime episode would develop a second one [3]. It is noteworthy that depression is highly comorbid with other medical diseases that associates with accelerated biological aging (e.g. cardiovascular disease and type 2 diabetes) [4-6] and recently mounting evidence seem to support the accelerated biological-aging conception in depression [7; 8]. The importance of studying depression is also reflected by the global projections of disease burden by World Health Organization (WHO) which ranked depression as the second leading cause of burden of disease in 2030 worldwide [9]. Therefore, from both individual and public health perspectives, depression is a problem of major significance and importance.

In the introduction section of the thesis, some major definitions and background information are introduced with the purpose to help everyone, also readers who are not working in the psychiatric field, to understand the topics studied in the constituent papers. I hope this thesis work can raise the awareness of people who have ignored or underestimated the significance of studying mental disorder.

"Success is not final, failure is not fatal: it is the courage to continue that counts."
— Winston Churchill

1.1 DEPRESSION

In this section, an overview of depression is provided which includes the symptoms and diagnoses criteria, the current view of etiology and relevant treatments for depression. A brief introduction of bipolar disorder is also included which contains the diagnoses and treatment options.

1.1.1 Symptoms and clinical diagnoses

Depressive disorders include a spectrum of disorders with the common features being the presence of sadness or irritable mood accompanied by somatic and cognitive changes that significantly affect the individual's capacity of functioning (DSM-V). Depression is a highly recurrent and dimensional illness with the affected persons moving in and out of diagnostic subtypes, such as Major Depression, Dysthymia and Minor Depression [10]. The symptoms and diagnostic criteria are determined on the basis of clinical interviews, by using diagnostic classification systems, including Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM) and International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems (ICD), with no biochemical or physiological test available. According to DSM-IV (and also DSM-V), the main criteria include depressed mood or a loss of interest or pleasure in daily activities (anhedonia) consistently for at least a two week period. Other symptoms include significant change in weight and appetite, change in sleep (insomnia or hypersomnia), change in activity (psychomotor agitation or retardation), fatigue or loss of energy, guilt/worthlessness, diminished ability to think or concentrate and suicidal thoughts. General practitioners were able to make routine diagnoses of depression only in about 50% of the cases [11].

Depressive episodes are common in bipolar disorder (BD). Bipolar disorder originally called manic-depressive illness, is a mental disorder characterized by recurrent episodes of elevated mood and depression accompanied by changes in activity levels. Based on DSM-IV, BD type 1 is featured as alternating episodes of depression and mania, whereas BD type 2 is characterized by depression and hypomania. Other related diagnoses include cyclothymia, characterized by hypomania and subthreshold depression, and bipolar disorder not otherwise specified. Manic and depressive symptoms can also co-occur, so called "mixed states"[12]. Rapid cycling is a severe subtype of BD defined as four or more bipolar episodes per year, which is associated with treatment resistance and overall poorer prognosis [13]. BD affects ~1-2% of the population and this causes tremendous economic burden [14; 15]. In contrast to unipolar depression, the heritability of BD is high, up to 70~80%, and overlaps with that of schizophrenia in a number of common variants alleles [16]. Lithium is the first-line mood stabilizer in treating BD [16] however treatment response varies considerably and there is no predictive biomarker available [17]. Some studies suggest that lithium responsive-BD may be a distinct subtype of BD with genetic difference, however this hypothesis requires more investigation [18; 19]. In the thesis constituent papers, the study has been primarily focused on BD type 1 patients which the majority of study materials are collected from.



“I can't eat and I can't sleep.

I'm not doing well in terms of being a functional human, you know?”

— Ned Vizzini, *It's Kind of a Funny Story*

Depression by Yu Chen. Beijing, China. 2015.

1.1.2 Etiology of depression

Depression is a complex disorder, meaning that the etiology of depression is the interactive effects of multiple genes in combination with lifestyle and environmental factors, which is best summarized as a prototypical G×E interaction model [20]. Moreover, epigenetics provide a bridge through which environment can affect the genome and play considerable roles in the pathophysiology of depression and antidepressant action [21]. In this section, neuroanatomy and related theories of depression studied in the constituent papers are provided, including the monoamine hypothesis, the neurotrophins and neurogenesis hypothesis, the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis and stress response theory and the inflammation theory of depression. Other theories such as glutamate hypothesis of depression and circadian abnormality hypothesis of depression also received great attention from researchers. One should keep in mind that although these theories of depression have been debated for a long time, none of these theories sufficiently explains the pathophysiology and treatment of depression.

1.1.2.1 Neuroanatomy of depression

Depression is a disorder that involves several critical brain regions and associated circuits and neural pathways. Using brain imaging technologies, e.g. structural imaging (CT) and functional imaging (fMRI, PET), several brain regions in depressed patients have been identified with altered structures and activity. Specifically, reductions in grey-matter volume and glial density in the prefrontal cortex (PFC) and the hippocampus (HIP) have been implicated in depressed patients [22; 23]. Activity changes in depression is characterized by abnormalities in limbic system–cerebrocortical circuits with reduced activity in frontal cortical areas and hyperactivity in the amygdala [24; 25]. PFC and HIP are the two main brain regions investigated in the current thesis. PFC has been implicated in executive function, working memory, personality expression and moderation of social behavior [26-28]. Patients with PFC lesion showed depressive symptoms, suggesting that PFC is both critically and causally involved in depression [29]. HIP plays pivotal roles in cognitive function [30], mood regulation and memory formation [31]. In particular, substantial literature shows existence of adult neurogenesis in the subgranular zones of dentate gyrus in HIP [32] and the role of reduced neurogenesis in the pathophysiology of depression [33; 34].

1.1.2.2 The monoamine hypothesis of depression

The monoamine hypothesis of depression posits that depression is caused by a depletion of the monoamine neurotransmitters in the central nervous system, such as serotonin, norepinephrine or dopamine which structurally contain one amino group connected to an aromatic ring by a two-carbon chain [35]. In accordance with this theory, almost all established antidepressants act either by inhibiting neuronal reuptake of monoamines that leads to an increased concentration in the synaptic cleft (e.g. SSRIs such as fluoxetine) or by hindering the degradation of monoamines (e.g. MAOIs such as tranylcypromine). Although SSRIs and MAOIs are potent antidepressants, full and partial resistance to these drugs and their delayed onset of action suggest the cause of depression is far from being a simple

deficiency of central monoamines. Although it is not particularly studied in the thesis constituent papers, the monoamine hypothesis is regarded as the most clinically relevant neurobiological theory of depression.

1.1.2.3 Neurotrophins and neurogenesis hypothesis of depression.

Reduced volume in hippocampus and other forebrain regions in subsets of depressed patients have supported a popular hypothesis for depression, involving a decrease in neurotrophic factors — a family of proteins that are responsible for the growth, maintenance and survival of neurons that also regulates plasticity of mature neurons within the adult brain [36]. These events may be causally linked via neurogenesis [37]. One of the most studied neurotrophic factors, also the one investigated in the thesis, is brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) which has been shown to play a key role in the regulation of neurogenesis in the hippocampus and to have antidepressant-like effects [38; 39]. A number of studies, both preclinical and clinical evidence, have supported the theory that precipitating factors such as chronic stress may decrease the BDNF neurotrophic support, which leads to significant atrophy of the hippocampus. This is detrimental to hippocampal function and ultimately leads to the development of depressive symptoms [40-43]. However, considerable studies have generated inconsistent data which reminds us to reassess this theory [44; 45]. A role of BDNF supported by more consistent reports is that in antidepressant treatment, which could be beneficial to the development of novel antidepressant drugs [46].

1.1.2.4 Dysregulation of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis and stress response

Stress is commonly defined as a state of real or perceived threat to homeostasis. In order to maintain homeostasis and to increase the probability of survival, animals activate a complex set of behavioral and physiological responses involving the nervous, endocrine, and immune systems which are collectively known as the stress response [47; 48]. Numerous studies have linked stress and depression, as depression may be a cause and/or outcome of chronic stress and increased stress levels can significantly affect the duration and degree of symptoms of depression [49]. Psychosocial stressors implicated in depression includes e.g. early life adversities, divorce or serious marital conflict and death of a relative [50; 51]. The principle anatomical structures that mediate the stress response is commonly referred to as the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis (Figure 1) [52]. Activation of the HPA axis will lead to the release of glucocorticoids, which exert profound effects with their receptors on several somatic organ systems and brain regions. A negative feedback loop exists where high glucocorticoid levels dampen the HPA-axis activity inhibits the secretion of ACTH from the pituitary and CRH from the hypothalamus [53]. Glucocorticoids are reported to regulate neuronal survival, neurogenesis and the sizes of hippocampus [54] and the two main receptors that are widely expressed in the brain include the mineralocorticoid receptor (MR) and the glucocorticoid receptor (GR). A number of studies have reported that depressed patients have HPA axis hyperactivity and increased levels of cortisol in the saliva, plasma and urine [55]. The increased activity of the HPA axis is thought to be related, at least in part due to an impairment of GR-mediated negative feedback (glucocorticoid resistance) [56]. In

agreement with this notion, abnormal GR and GR-associated protein expression (through both genetic and epigenetic mechanisms) have been implied in the brain of depressed individuals and GR is suggested to be a target for antidepressant action [55; 57-59].

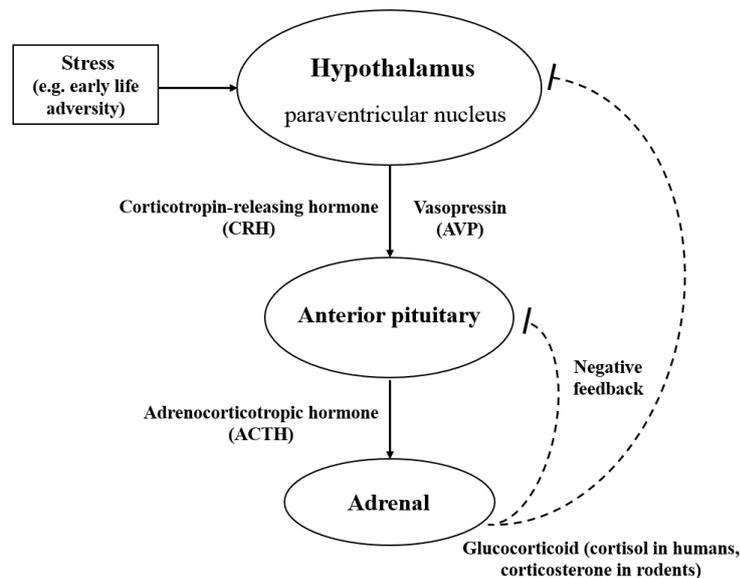


Figure 1. HPA axis.

1.1.2.5 The inflammation theory of depression

Increasing evidence suggests that activation of the immune system may play a critical role in the pathophysiology of depression. Increased levels of inflammatory biomarkers, including proinflammatory cytokines (such as TNF- α , IL-6 and IL-1 β), acute phase proteins and chemokines have been reported in depressed patients [60; 61]. In addition to association between inflammatory markers and depression, several studies also demonstrate that both acute and chronic administration of cytokines (or cytokine inducers such as lipopolysaccharide or vaccination) can cause depressive symptoms [62; 63] and anti-inflammatory therapy may have clinical benefit for depressed patients [64; 65]. Cytokines in the periphery have been shown to access the brain by several routes and can interact with a number of pathophysiological domains involved in depression, including neurotransmitter metabolism (serotonin, norepinephrine, and dopamine), neuroendocrine function (HPA axis), and neural plasticity (neurotrophic support, neurogenesis and glutamate transportation) [66]. However, it remains unclear whether activation of inflammation pathways during depression originates primarily in the periphery or in the central nervous system. The source of immune activation in depression can be quite diverse, nevertheless, psychosocial stress has been regarded as a major factor particularly in medically healthy depressed individuals, which can activate the inflammatory response both peripherally and in the brain [67; 68].

1.1.3 Genetics and depression

Genetic components are considered to be important in the development of depression, as indicated by genetic epidemiology data from family and twin studies, and may provide important evidence about disease mechanisms. Family studies estimate that there is

approximately threefold increase in lifetime risk of developing depression among first-degree relatives of depressed probands [69]. Twin studies suggest a heritability of depression to be 37% and it is significantly higher in women than in men [69; 70]. Familial aggregation coupled with the high heritability of depression led to optimistic thoughts that molecular genetic techniques would reveal risk gene variants that have substantial influence on depression. Unfortunately, from linkage studies, candidate gene studies to genome-wide association studies, the process of identifying those gene variants have been slow and the results have been difficult to consistently replicate so far [71]. The possible explanation could be that depression is a complex and heterogeneous disorder where each susceptibility gene variant contributes only a small fraction of the overall genetic risk. In order to overcome these problems, increase of sample size and categorization by subtype of depression are among the most recommended suggestions [72]. Despite these obstacles, some promising and reproducible genetic findings have been generated using G x E model which incorporates environmental risks, such as the study of interaction effect of stressful life events and the variants in the serotonin system [73].

1.1.4 Epigenetics and depression

The term ‘epigenetics’ was initially coined by Waddington in the 1940s to address the question of how numerous distinct cell types were generated from the same genome [74]. The definition of epigenetics has changed over time, and now it refers to a stably heritable (mitotically and/or meiotically) phenotype resulting from changes in a chromosome without alterations in the DNA sequence [75]. By this definition, epigenetic markers mainly include DNA methylation and histone modifications. However, previously the definition of epigenetic modifications included also the effect of noncoding sequences such as microRNAs (miRNAs) [76]. Epigenetics has provided a mechanism by which environmental factors can affect chromatin structure that ultimately lead to persistent alteration in gene expression. Accumulating evidence suggests critical roles of epigenetic mechanism in neuronal plasticity, neurogenesis and neurological and psychiatric disorders [77; 78]. Epigenetics may help to explain some of the missing heritability in depression and provide new insights to understand the pathophysiology [79]. In the present thesis, two types of epigenetic modifications are investigated in relation to depression: DNA methylation/hydroxymethylation and miRNAs.

1.1.4.1 DNA methylation

DNA methylation was described as early as in 1948 [80], but it was not until 1969 that Griffith and Mahler suggested that these modifications may modulate gene expression [81]. DNA methylation includes methylation of cytosine (predominant form in mammals), adenine and guanine [82] and the primary form of mammalian methylated cytosine is in the context of CpG dinucleotides (5-methylcytosine, 5mC); 70 – 80% of CpGs are methylated. There is increasing evidence showing that cytosines in non-CpG sequences (i.e. CpH, H=A/T/C) are also frequently methylated, especially in the brain [83; 84]. In mammals, DNA methylation patterns are initially established by the de novo DNA methyltransferases 3

family (DNMT3A/3B) and maintained during cell division by the maintenance methyltransferase (DNMT1) which prefers hemi-methylated DNA [85; 86]. Although DNA methylation has been regarded as a stable epigenetic mark, growing evidence indicates that DNA demethylation can occur through both passive and active mechanisms [87]. Passive DNA demethylation refers to the loss of 5mC during DNA replication in the absence of functional DNMT1. By contrast, active DNA demethylation requires an enzymatic process which removes or modifies 5mC by ultimately breaking the carbon-carbon bond. A number of enzyme has been characterized recently which includes the ten-eleven translocation protein family (TET1-3), facilitating the oxidation of 5mC to 5-hydroxymethylcytosine (5hmC), 5-formylcytosine (5fC) and 5-carboxylcytosine (5caC) [88]. The following demethylation process is often coupled with thymine DNA glycosylase (TDG)-mediated base excision repair (BER) pathways and deaminases which lead to unmodified cytosine (C). A brief summary is shown in Figure 2. Currently, it is generally accepted that cytosine methylation regulates gene transcription in a highly cell-type specific manner [89]. In general, a heavily methylated promoter region corresponds to inactive transcription. This gene silencing mechanism is thought to either be due to direct inhibition of transcription factor binding by DNA methylation or mediated by methyl-binding domain proteins that recruit various co-repressor complexes to methylated DNA [90]. 5hmC is regarded as an intermediate of demethylation, however the relatively high steady-state levels of 5hmC suggest that 5hmC might also function as a stable signal that modulates binding of protein complexes to chromatin thus influences gene expression [91; 92]. In the present thesis, both 5mC and 5hmC were studied with a specific investigation of the *Bdnf* gene [93]. Other established functions of DNA methylation involves multiple cellular processes, such as DNA–protein interactions, cellular differentiation, transposable elements suppression, embryogenesis, X-chromosome inactivation and genomic imprinting [94; 95].

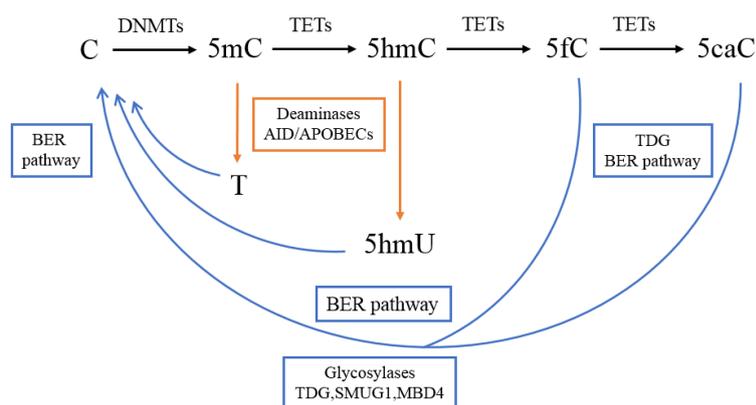


Figure 2. Active DNA demethylation.

1.1.4.2 MiRNA

MiRNAs are small, ~22 nucleotides long, non-coding RNAs that typically function as key post-transcriptional repressors of gene expression [96]. The biogenesis and expression of miRNAs is under strict temporal and spatial control and is involved in nearly all

developmental and pathological processes. Dysregulation of miRNAs have been associated with many human diseases including depression [97]. Most miRNAs derive from transcription of primary transcripts (pri-miRNAs) by RNA-PolIII in the cell nucleus. Primary transcripts are processed by DROSHA/DGCR8 heterodimer into 60-80 nucleotides (nt) long precursors miRNAs (pre-miRNAs) which are released into cytoplasm. DICER together with its dsRNA-binding partner TRBP, further cleave pre-miRNAs into an approximately 22 nt double stranded mature miRNAs. Supported by the HSC70–HSP90 chaperone machinery, only one strand of the mature miRNA is incorporated into the RNA-induced silencing complex (RISC) while the other strand is degraded. The miRNA-RISC complex regulates target mRNA expression through mRNA degradation and/or translational repression [98]. A few miRNAs are produced by alternative pathways e.g. the ‘mirtron pathway’ that replaces standard miRNA biogenesis steps [99]. In the present thesis, the lethal-7 (let-7) miRNA family is for the first time investigated in the FSL/FRL rat PFC region, a study which focused on LIN28B-mediated biogenesis dysregulation. The let-7 family is highly conserved between species and consists of 12 genes encoding 9 distinct miRNAs (let-7a to let-7i and miR-98) [100]. There is increasing evidence suggesting the involvement of the let-7 family in inflammation and immune response, and the let-7 family has also been implicated in neuronal proliferation and differentiation and synaptic plasticity [101-104]. However, its role in relation to the pathophysiology of depression is less investigated.

1.1.5 Telomere biology and depression

Mammalian telomeres are protective DNA-protein structures located at the end of chromosomes. They shorten progressively during each cell division due to incomplete replication of linear chromosomes by conventional DNA polymerases, which often referred to as ‘end-replication problem’ [105]. Then a natural question is that by which mechanism telomeric DNA is maintained. This was answered by Blackburn and Greider who showed that telomeric DNA is synthesized by telomerase, being capable of compensating for this progressive telomere attrition [106]. One may also wonder how cells distinguish their natural chromosome ends from double-strand breaks elsewhere in the genome, i.e. how do cells solve the ‘end-protection problem’. Shelterin is one of the most important and well-characterized telomere-associated protein complexes that are involved in protecting the chromosome ends from two DNA damage signaling pathways (ATM and ATR mediated cell cycle arrest) and two double-strand break repair pathways (NEHJ mediated chromosome fusion and HDR mediated chromosome recombination) [107]. In this section, telomere length and telomerase in relation to depression research are introduced.

1.1.5.1 Telomere length shortening in depression

Telomeres consist of tandem repeat DNA sequences (TTAGGG) and protective proteins. The telomeres are responsible for preventing the chromosome ends from activation of DNA damage response pathways and improper repair pathways [108]. Telomeres are shortened during every cell division, and critically shortened telomeres result in loss of telomere protection which lead to cell cycle arrest and apoptosis pathways. The length of telomeres is

suggested to indicate biological aging [109]. In recent years, a number of studies have reported shorter blood leukocyte telomere length (LTL) to be associated with depression, and the shorter LTL the more experienced depressive episodes in bipolar disorder [110-116], implying that depressive individuals may bear increased risk of dysfunctional telomeres and biological aging-related decline. For example, an average shortening corresponding to 6-10 years of accelerated biological aging has been estimated in blood leukocytes of depressive patients [117; 118]. But only a few studies have investigated telomere length in depressed brains [119; 120]. Telomere shortening has also been associated with psychological stress, oxidative stress and inflammation [121-123]. Adversity in childhood has been associated with shorter LTL in adulthood [124; 125].

1.1.5.2 Telomerase dysfunction in depression

Telomerase is a reverse transcriptase that consists of a catalytic reverse transcriptase subunit (TERT) and an RNA component (TERC) being template for DNA synthesis. Telomerase adds TTAGGG repeats to the chromosome ends and thereby counteracts the telomere shortening [126]. High level of telomerase expression is found in pluripotent stem cells, early stages of embryonic development and cancer cells, although telomerase activity is also present in normal adult stem cell compartments, such as lymphocytes in the bone marrow and peripheral blood, a subset of proliferating epithelial cells in the skin, the hair follicle, the gastrointestinal tract and endometrium and a subset of cells in the testis [127]. There is also detectable telomerase in adult brain regions where neurogenesis exists: the subgranular zone of the dentate gyrus in hippocampus and the subventricular zone of lateral ventricle. In addition to adding nucleotide repeats, telomerase has been reported to be involved in cellular protection and plasticity [128; 129]. In the murine hippocampus, inhibition of TERT expression induced neuronal excitotoxicity, apoptosis and a depressive-like behavior [130; 131], and in humans, telomerase activity in peripheral blood leukocytes associated positively with hippocampal volume of postmortem brains from depressed individuals [132]. Further, reduced *hTERT* expression was found in oligodendrocytes of white matter from postmortem depressed brains compared to corresponding tissue from control brains [120]. Accordingly, TERT overexpression was associated with [133] and promoted [134] adult neurogenesis, and the antidepressant fluoxetine upregulated telomerase activity [134].

1.1.6 Treatment

First-line treatment for moderate to severe depressive disorders includes pharmacotherapy (i.e. antidepressants such as SSRIs [135]), psychotherapy (e.g. cognitive behavioral therapy [136]), or a combination of both. Next-step treatment recommendations are switching drug or augmentation (e.g. in combination with lithium, antipsychotics or ECT), depending on patients response to the initial treatment. Maintenance therapy continues the approach that led to remission [137]. However, these medications are facing a number of difficulties, with a substantial proportion of patients showing poor clinical response and suffering from residual symptoms and side-effects. It also takes weeks to months before those drugs achieve clinical benefits [138]. Thus, there is a clear and urgent need for the development of novel

antidepressants with robust efficacy. For example, clinical trials have shown that ketamine acts rapidly and effectively for treatment-resistant depression patients and may serve as a novel antidepressant [139]. Pre-clinical evidence also suggests drugs targeting epigenetic mechanism such as sodium butyrate (NaB) and L-acetylcarnitine, which exhibit promising antidepressant-like effect in animal model [93; 140]. In addition, physical exercise, a non-pharmacological intervention, has been shown to alleviate depressive symptoms in persons affected by mild to moderate depression [141]. Molecular mechanism of lithium, NaB and physical activity were investigated in the thesis constituent papers in relation to depression therapy.



The last day of Robin Williams by Yu Chen. Beijing, China. 2015.

2 AIMS

The overall aim of the thesis is to increase the understanding of the pathophysiology of depression with a focus on telomere biology and epigenetic regulation. Such information may be critical in providing both preclinical and clinical evidence to develop better diagnostic markers and therapeutic approaches.

The specific aims of each constituent study in the thesis were listed below:

- Study I** To test whether lithium treatment in bipolar patients may influence blood leukocyte telomere length (LTL) and whether LTL may associate with lithium responsiveness, number of depressive episode as well as rapid cycling feature of bipolar patients.
- Study II** Based on the findings in **study I**, we used a genetic rat model of depression (FSL) to investigate whether telomere length was shorter, telomerase activity was changed in the depressed brain with a focus on the hippocampus region, and whether lithium treatment could reverse such processes.
- Study III** Based on the findings in **study I and II**, we investigated whether telomere length was shorter in adult depression by using less-invasive saliva DNA samples and whether genetic variation in the functional subunit of telomerase (*hTERT*) was associated with depression and number of depressive episodes in bipolar disorder type I.
- Study IV** To examine histone deacetylase inhibitor NaB's putative antidepressant-like efficacy in relation to DNA methylation changes in the prefrontal cortex region of FSL rat model of depression.
- Study V** To investigate whether the FSL rat model of depression had elevated levels of the proinflammatory cytokine *Il6* in the PFC region and whether this inflammation state was associated with disturbed miRNA let-7 expression, in turn influenced by alterations in miRNA biogenesis. We then explored if physical exercise would lower the elevated *Il6* levels in the PFC region of the FSL rats, through the rescue of let-7 expression.

3 MATERIALS AND METHODS

In this section, an overview of the materials and methods used in the thesis' constituent papers are introduced. If not otherwise stated, all generated data were analyzed using appropriate statistical methods. All experiments and materials were approved by relevant ethical committees.

3.1 ANIMAL STUDY

All animal studies in this thesis were performed by using a genetic rat model of depression-like behavior: the Flinders Sensitive Line (FSL) and its controls, the Flinders Resistant Line (FRL). The animal studies included analyses of behavior tests and treatment effects, gene and protein expression, telomere length and telomerase activity, DNA/protein interaction and epigenetic modifications.

3.1.1 The FSL genetic rat model of depression

The FSL/FRL rats were generated as a genetic model by selective breeding towards sensitivity to the anticholinesterase agent diisopropyl fluorophosphate (DFP). Compared to FRL, the FSL is genetically more sensitive to DFP and partially resembles human depression, thus it is referred to as a depression-like model [142]. The FSL strain exhibits good face validity for depression (e.g. psychomotor retardation, reduced appetite/loss of weight, sleep disturbances, impaired emotional memory and immune abnormality), satisfies the criterion of construct validity (e.g. abnormal neurochemical systems including serotonergic, dopaminergic and neuropeptide Y), and has a high predictive validity for a number of either known antidepressant drugs (e.g. tricyclic and SSRI) or novel drugs that have antidepressant effect potentially for later on use (e.g. sodium butyrate) [142; 143].

3.1.2 Behavior tests and treatments

One type of behavior experiment and three types of treatment interventions were used. The behavior experiment performed was the behavioral despair test (a.k.a. the Porsolt forced swimming test; FST), which is commonly used to observe FSL's exaggerated immobility (floating) behavior in a water cylinder that reflects a despair state analogous to human depression. FST is also a measure of effectiveness of antidepressants [144]. The expected antidepressant-like effect is a decrease of the immobility time after intervention. Three types of treatment interventions were introduced: oral administration of lithium, intraperitoneal (i.p.) injection of HDACi (sodium butyrate) and physical exercise (running wheel).

3.1.3 RNA and protein analyses

The RNA molecules included both coding (mRNA) and non-coding (miRNA and pri-miRNA) RNA. The expression levels of targeted RNA (converted into the form of complementary DNA; cDNA) were detected primarily by using quantitative Real-Time PCR (qRT-PCR), which is a technique that simultaneously amplifies and quantifies cDNA [145]. The protein analyses were performed by immunoblotting (western blotting) using specific

antibody to detect and quantify targeted protein levels (e.g. TET1, BDNF, β -catenin, DROSHA and LIN28B)[146].

3.1.4 RNA and protein interaction analyses

In order to investigate RNA/protein interaction related to LIN28B and pri-let-7 transcripts *in vivo*, RNA immunoprecipitation (RIP) was performed using PFC region from FSL/FRL rats. RIP involved tissue lysis, followed by an immunoprecipitation stage with an antibody that targeted LIN28B. After RNA-protein complexes were isolated by magnetic beads, the RNA of interest was purified, which then was followed by cDNA conversion and qRT-PCR quantification [147].

3.1.5 Telomere length and telomerase activity analyses

Telomere length (TL) was determined as relative values using qRT-PCR technique by calculating the ratio of telomere repeat copy number to single copy gene copy number [148]. Based on the enzymatic property of telomerase, which is adding telomeric repeats (TTAGGG) to the chromosome ends, the real-time telomeric repeat amplification protocol (RT-TRAP) [149] was used to detect telomerase activity in the hippocampus region of FSL/FRL rats.

3.1.6 Epigenetic analyses

The epigenetic analyses included DNA methylation/hydroxymethylation (5mC/5hmC) and histone modification experiments. DNA methylation/hydroxymethylation analyses were performed both globally (producing an average value representing the whole genome) and within specific regions of the target genes. Global DNA methylation/hydroxymethylation was assessed using a sandwich-based ELISA method while region-specific DNA 5mC/5hmC was assessed using a magnetic assay capable of isolating DNA fragments either with 5mC or a modified 5hmC.

3.2 HUMAN STUDY

The human studies presented in this thesis were performed mainly from PART study and bipolar study. It includes genetic and telomere analyses.

3.2.1 The PART study

PART (Psykisk hälsa, Arbete, Relationer) is a longitudinal population-based study of mental health, work and relationships conducted in Stockholm County, Sweden. It started 1998 and questionnaires were sent out to individuals randomly selected from Stockholm city council registers. The questionnaire includes demographic, socioeconomic and somatic health data, negative life events, smoking, illicit drug use and screening instruments for psychiatric disorders including the Major Depression Inventory (MDI), Sheehan Patient-Rated (Panic) Anxiety Scale, the Yale-Brown Obsessive-Compulsive Scale, symptoms of social phobia and agoraphobia according to Marks and Mathews (1979), eating disorders according to Beglin and Fairburn (1992), the World Health Organization Short Disability

Assessment Schedule (WHO DAS-S) and hazardous alcohol use according to Alcohol Use Disorder Identification Test (AUDIT). Epidemiological data have so far been collected three times: wave I (1998-2000), wave II (2001-2003) and wave III (2010-2011). A subgroup of individuals were selected for psychiatric interviews using Schedules for Clinical Assessment in Neuropsychiatry (SCAN) by experienced psychiatrists and one psychologist. During the period 2006-2007, saliva DNA were asked for from 5527 PART II participants including all individuals with a depression or anxiety diagnosis and a random number of individuals who had no psychiatric diagnosis or psychopathological symptoms in any of the two waves. Blood samples were collected in a subgroup of individuals, which yielded in total 88 samples. The schematic chart with detailed number of participants is shown below. For more information about PART study see Hällström et al [150] and www.folkhalsoguiden.se.

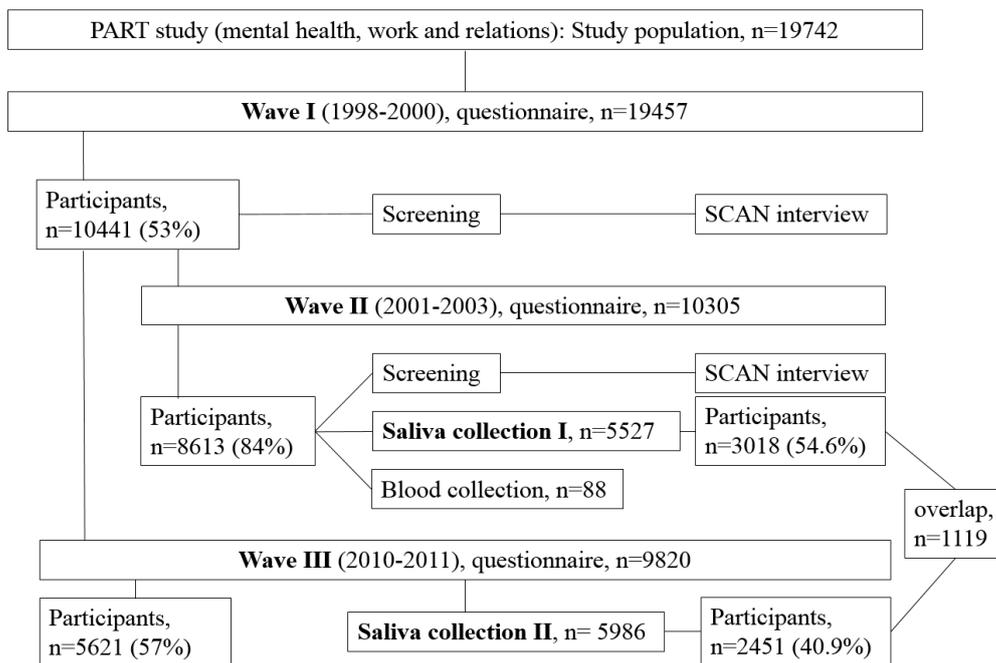


Figure 3. Schematic chart of PART study.

3.2.2 The bipolar study

Patients with a clinical diagnosis of bipolar disorder (BD) were consecutively recruited from the Unit of Affective Disorders at Psychiatry Southwest, Huddinge Hospital, Stockholm. Life-time manic and depressive symptoms were assessed by a psychiatrist specialized in BD or by a trained psychiatric nurse using the modules for mania and depression in the SCAN. On the basis of these assessment patients were considered as fulfilling the diagnostic criteria for BD type 1, 2, or not otherwise specified (NOS). The symptoms as well as the number of manias and depressive episodes, rapid cycling and mixed episodes were assessed, including the age of onset of mania and depression. Lithium response was measured according to the Alda-Scale. In previous studies, lithium responders (LiRs) were those who scored ≥ 7 and non-LiRs were those who scored ≤ 6 (range 0–10 points) [151].

3.2.3 Genetic and telomere analyses

Genetic analyses were performed for single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) in human *TERT* gene (rs2736100 A/C). SNP genotyping utilized TaqMan assay, which was a PCR-based reaction that amplified the region included the SNP site. Allele discrimination is achieved using probes linked to fluorophore at 5' end and a quencher molecule at 3' end [152]. During the PCR amplification, if the allele-specific probe is perfectly complementary to the SNP allele, the fluorophore would separate from the quencher due to degradation by 5'-nuclease activity of the Taq polymerase, generating a detectable signal that could be read in qRT-PCR machine. Based on the conservation of telomere sequence between mammals (TTAGGG tandem repeat) [153], the method used for human telomere analyses was the same as rats, which was described in section 3.1.5 with minor modification.

4 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this section, the major findings are integrated from the thesis constituent papers. More details and comprehensive descriptions are given in the full papers which could be found in the back of the printed thesis.

4.1 TELOMERE DYSFUNCTION IN HUMAN DEPRESSION

4.1.1 Shorter saliva telomere length in self-reported adult depression

To date, most of the reports on telomere length (TL) in depression have been performed on peripheral blood leukocytes. In paper III, we used whole saliva DNA, a less invasive DNA source, and showed that adults with a history of depression had shorter TL compared to age-matched controls, by using samples ($n = 662$) from the PART cohort. In this analyses, a number of parameters previously reported to be associated with LTL were adjusted for including age, sex, alcohol use, number of somatic diseases and number of childhood adversities. In agreement with, and supported by previous studies, the majority of DNA extracted from whole saliva actually originates from blood leukocytes, which is different from buccal cell collection techniques [154; 155].

4.1.2 Telomere length associated negatively with increasing number of depressive episodes in bipolar disorder

In paper I, a significant effect of number of depressive episodes on blood leukocytes telomere length (LTL) was found in bipolar disorder (BD) patients. Specifically, the LTL marginal mean was reduced 0.075 units per depressive event after adjusting for age and sex in the linear model. This effect was stronger in males than in females. This is in line with the only previous study of TL in BD, which found that BD type 2 and number of depressive episodes were associated with shorter LTL however in a smaller sample size [116].

4.1.3 Rs2736100 polymorphism is associated with depression and the number of depressive episodes in bipolar disorder type I

SNP rs2736100, located in the intron 2 of the *hTERT* gene, was previously associated with shorter LTL through the risk allele A in a genome-wide meta-analysis [156]. In paper III, we tested the hypothesis that rs2736100 associates with depression in PART cohort. There was no association between rs2736100 genotype and depression in the whole material ($n = 2026$), adjusted for age, sex, and experience of childhood adversity. However when stratified for childhood adversity, an established risk factor for depression in adulthood [157; 158], homozygosity for the 'short LTL'-risk allele A was significantly associated with higher risk of depression compared to the AC/CC genotypes in the group without experience of childhood adversity (rs2736100: $P = 0.010$, OR = 1.51, 95% CI = 1.10-2.05; sex: $P < 0.001$; age: $P = 0.007$). That this relationship was detected only in those without experience of childhood adversity might be explained by the fact that early adversity has previously been associated with depression and shorter LTL in adulthood [124; 125; 159; 160]. Hence, early adversity might conceal an rs2736100-depression relationship.

We and others previously showed that LTL was associated with the number of depressive episodes and lithium response in BD [115; 116]. We tested whether SNP rs2736100 associated with the number of depressive episodes within BD1, considering the patients' response to lithium treatment. In patients responding well to lithium treatment (LiR), the risk allele A showed dominance, that is the AA/AC genotype significantly associated with higher number of depressive episodes compared to the CC genotype (AA/AC vs CC: $F = 10.9$, $P = 0.001$; sex: $F < 0.001$, $P = 1.00$; years since onset of first depressive episode: $F = 16.8$, $P < 0.001$; age: $F = 0.36$, $P = 0.55$; ANCOVA). We also observed a similar effect in A/C allelic model, with the A allele conferring a risk for increased number of depressive episodes. That the finding in BD patients was confined to the LiR group may reflect a possibly higher lithium functionality in the LiR group, and the fact that lithium upregulates *hTERT* [161], which in turn may upregulate the functionality of rs2736100.

4.2 TELOMERE DYSFUNCTION IN THE FSL RAT MODEL OF DEPRESSION

4.2.1 Shorter hippocampal telomere length in the depressed FSL rat model

Shorter telomeres in leukocytes were reported to be associated with major depression. However, it is not clear whether the same holds true for the respective brains. A study from Szebeni et al showed that oligodendrocytes but not astrocytes from depressed individuals displayed shorter TL and decreased *TERT* expression compared to corresponding postmortem white matter (frontal and temporal lobes) from control brains [162]. Since hippocampus is pivotal in cognitive function [30], mood regulation and memory formation [31] and it is a region that expresses telomerase activity also in adulthood, in paper II we tested whether there is telomere dysfunction in the hippocampus of the depressed FSL rat. We found that the FSL had shorter hippocampal TL compared to the control line FRL.

4.2.2 Decreased *Tert* and telomerase activity in the FSL hippocampus

Shorter telomeres may result from a decreased telomerase activity. The expression of the catalytic subunit (TERT) of telomerase is stringently regulated, and of the several splicing forms the full length mRNA correlates positively with telomerase activity [163; 164]. The *Tert* transcript is highly conserved between human and rodents [164], thus enabling translational studies in rodent models. In paper II, we explored if the shorter TL in the FSL hippocampus could reflect a reduced telomerase activity. The *Tert* levels were reduced in the FSL compared to the FRL rats. Consistent with the downregulated *Tert* expression, telomerase activity was lower in the depressed FSL hippocampi. Telomerase overexpression has been suggested to promote adult neurogenesis in the hippocampus [133; 134]. Substantial literature shows existence of adult neurogenesis, particularly in the dentate gyrus [32] and the role of reduced neurogenesis in the pathophysiology of depression [33; 34]. Interestingly, chronic mild stress in mice resulted in decreased TERT levels and telomerase activity as well as reduced neurogenesis in hippocampus and a depression-like behavior. In contrast, fluoxetine and intrahippocampal infusion of 3-azido-deoxythymidine (AZT)

reversed these effects leading the authors to suggest that hippocampal telomerase plays a role in depression-like behaviors, possibly by regulating neurogenesis [134].

4.3 INFLUENCE OF LITHIUM TREATMENT ON TELOMERE LENGTH AND TELOMERASE ACTIVITY

4.3.1 Longer telomere length in bipolar patients and good Li-responders

In paper I, we found that LTL correlated positively with length of lithium treatment (duration ≥ 30 month) in BP patients. We also found significantly longer LTL in BP patients ($n = 202$) when compared to healthy controls ($n = 135$). This significance could also be seen in lithium monotherapy ($n = 39$) in comparison with healthy controls. Furthermore, LTL seemed to reflect lithium response indicated by that those with good response (LiR, $n = 31$) had 10% longer LTL compared with those with no or partial response (non-LiR).

4.3.2 Lithium increases *Tert* and telomerase activity in the FSL hippocampus

In paper II, we tried to explore the mechanism how lithium protects against TL shortening. We conducted a 6-week treatment with either Li_2SO_4 or vehicle admixed to the FSL rat chow. Both *Tert* expression and telomerase activity were increased in the hippocampi from the lithium treated FSL (FSL-Li) compared to the FSL-vehicle group. But hippocampal TL was not statistically increased in FSL-Li group. A similar lack of TL change despite telomerase upregulation was also reported by Wolkowitz et al [114]. Explanations could be that TL changes much slower than telomerase activity [165; 166]; our previous study found that long-term lithium treatment (≥ 30 months) in patients diagnosed with bipolar disorder correlated positively with LTL [115].

4.3.3 Potential mechanism of lithium's effect on telomere biology

Lithium was previously shown to inhibit GSK-3 β [167], which results in retention of β -catenin [168]. Lithium-induced upregulation of β -catenin was shown to upregulate *hTERT* transcription in cancer cell lines [169] however no such studies have been done in the brain region. Lithium has also been reported to promote expression of BDNF which, in turn, enhances *Tert* expression [170]. In addition, BDNF was reported to modulate telomerase activity in embryonic hippocampal neurons [170]. In paper II, we investigated levels of putative mediators, β -catenin and BDNF, of lithium's effect on telomerase activity, both in naïve FSL/FRL and FSL-vehicle/FSL-Li groups. We found decreased BDNF levels in naïve FSL compared to FRL, which may in part underlie the reduced telomerase activity in FSL brain. But we didn't see any level difference in β -catenin between naïve rats. Interestingly, when we measured the β -catenin levels in FSL-Veh and FSL-Li hippocampi, β -catenin levels were significantly higher in the FSL-Li group, but lithium didn't seem to influence BDNF levels. The duration of lithium treatment has been implied to influence BDNF changes, e.g. an increase in BDNF was found after 14 days, but not 28 days, while the treatment duration in our study was 42 days [171].

4.4 EPIGENETIC FINDINGS IN THE FSL RAT MODEL

4.4.1 Sodium butyrate affects DNA methylation in the FSL prefrontal cortex (PFC)

The epigenetic drug sodium butyrate (NaB) showed antidepressant-like effects in preclinical studies [172; 173]. Research has focused on its role as a histone deacetylase inhibitor, but there is also evidence that NaB affects DNA methylation [174-176]. In paper IV, chronic intraperitoneal administration of NaB had antidepressant-like effects in the FSL and was accompanied by increased levels of TET1 in the PFC region. Hydroxylation of 5-methylcytosine (5mC) by TET proteins were previously shown to lead to the formation of 5-hydroxymethylcytosine (5hmC), which can then mediate active DNA demethylation [177-179]. This mechanism has important implications for studies of postmitotic tissues where cell division and DNA replication have ceased, such as the brain region we studied here. In addition, 5hmC has been found to be most abundant in the brain where it is particularly enriched in active genes, indicating a crucial role for this DNA modification in neuronal gene expression and memory formation [92; 180]. In paper IV, the TET1 upregulation was associated with an increase of 5hmC and a decrease of 5mC in *Bdnf* gene. These epigenetic changes were associated with a corresponding BDNF overexpression. These findings are in line with two recent studies showing that TET1 overexpression in the mouse hippocampus also leads to increased *Bdnf* expression [177; 180].

4.4.2 Inflammation and disturbed let-7 biogenesis in the FSL prefrontal cortex

Elevation of the proinflammatory cytokine IL-6 has been implicated in depression, however the mechanism remains elusive [181-183]. Previous study showed that let-7 family directly inhibited IL-6 expression, which may act as an immunorepressor [184]. In paper V, we found elevation of *Il6* in PFC region of FSL, which was associated with overexpression of LIN28B and downregulation of let-7 miRNAs (including let-7b, let-7c, let-7f, let-7i and miR-98). LIN28B is an RNA-binding protein that selectively represses let-7 synthesis. Also DROSHA, key enzyme in miRNA biogenesis, was downregulated in the FSL PFC. The let-7 family plays an important role in early neurodevelopment. However, other roles of let-7 family in the adult brain have been less investigated despite the fact that let-7 is known to be upregulated in later developmental stages and is one of the most abundant miRNA families in the adult brain [185; 186]. Thus, the results indicate upregulated *Il6* levels in FSL PFC by let-7 downregulation through LIN28B and DROSHA dysregulation. Let-7 can also inhibit LIN28B translation by binding to the 3' UTR target sites, creating a double negative feedback loop [187]. Noteworthy, let-7 could also be regulated in a LIN28B-independent way, e.g. through epigenetic mechanisms such as DNA and histone methylation [188]. It is possible that let-7 dysregulation can lead to disturbances also in other pathophysiological processes because a miRNA often has multiple target genes. The fact that we observed that FSL PFC had decreased DROSHA levels, suggests a disturbed miRNA biogenesis probably not only in let-7 but also in a variety of other miRNAs. In line with this hypothesis, a recent

study has demonstrated a general reduction of miRNA expression in the PFC from depressed suicidal subjects [189]. Previous studies have shown that physical activity in the form of wheel-running exerts antidepressant-like effect in the FSL rat model [190; 191]. We found that physical activity reduced *Il6* levels and selectively increased let-7i and miR-98 expression in the FSL PFC, which were independent of *Lin28b* and *Drosha* changes. However, upstream primary miRNA transcription was increased in the FSL-runners, implying that other mechanisms (e.g. epigenetic) are involved in regulating let-7 expression in response to physical activity.

5 SUMMARY AND CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this section a summary of conclusions from each constituent paper, as well as general concluding remarks, are provided.

- In bipolar patients, long-term lithium treatment was suggested to protect against telomere shortening especially when therapeutically efficacious (i.e. in patients who responded well to lithium). The shorter telomere length associated with a history of higher number of depressive episodes (**Paper I**).
- Shorter telomere length and dysfunctional telomerase activity in hippocampus was associated with a depression-like state in the FSL rat. Lithium treatment normalized the hippocampal telomerase dysfunction, possibly through the activation of β -catenin (**Paper II**).
- Saliva telomere length was decreased in adult individuals with a history of depression and genetic variation in *hTERT* may influence the susceptibility to depression (**Paper III**).
- Sodium butyrate exerted antidepressant-like effect in the FSL and the suggestive epigenetic effects of sodium butyrate may include DNA methylation changes that are mediated by demethylation-facilitating enzymes like TET1 (**Paper IV**).
- Elevation of proinflammatory cytokine *Il6* in prefrontal cortex region of the FSL was associated with disturbance of let-7 family biogenesis. Physical activity could reduce the cortical *Il6* levels possibly through regulating miRNA expression (**Paper V**).

Depression is a complex disorder with multiple genetic, epigenetic, behavioral and environmental risks that contribute to the heterogeneity of the illness. The understanding of the pathophysiology of depression has evolved substantially over years and researchers have realized the importance of utilizing multidisciplinary approaches to unravel the neurobiological bases for depression. Focusing beyond the traditional pathophysiological theories of depression, telomere biology may provide new insights to the development of predictive markers for depression and to the understanding of the neuroprotective effects of lithium. Expanding the knowledge about epigenetic dysregulations in depression may provide novel mechanism and therapeutic possibilities. In addition to some psychotropic drugs with epigenetic effects e.g. valproic acid, there are many epigenetic drugs that have lately received much attention, however still more preclinical and clinical support is needed before targets in psychiatric disorders are identified.

In summary, the studies in this thesis work contribute to increase the understanding of molecular mechanisms in depression and mood disorder treatment.

6 FUTURE PERSPECTIVES

A number of questions, related to the results in the studies of this thesis, remains to be answered. Here, the major perspectives for future work are listed.

- The telomere length and telomerase activity were measured in a homogenate of hippocampus tissue which may include neurons, glia, vascular and immune cells. Since cell types exhibit different telomere vulnerability towards cellular stress, it is important to investigate telomere dysregulation at a cell-type specific level.
- The causal relationship of the association between dysfunctional telomeres and depression symptoms is elusive. Support from additional human studies that genetic variation in *hTERT* associates with depression and the number of depressive episode in bipolar disorder would suggest that telomerase activity influences the risk for depression and the number of depressive episodes in bipolar disorder.
- Leukocyte telomerase activity was reported to correlate positively with SSRI responsiveness in depressed cases with low baseline telomerase activity [114], suggesting that telomerase activation might be beneficial in antidepressant treatment. The molecular mechanisms underlying leukocyte telomerase changes in response to SSRI is not clear. However, it was recently shown that leukocyte telomerase activity correlated with hippocampal volume, suggesting that this activity indexes a neuroprotection or neurogenesis in the hippocampus of depressed individuals, possibly in part through a correlated telomerase activity in the hippocampus [192]. Telomerase is suggested to promote neurogenesis, however the detailed mechanism is still elusive. Telomerase may influence neurogenesis through extra-telomeric functions, and telomerase may thereby be implicated in depression through extra-telomeric functions. Our previous finding showed that bipolar patients who responded well to lithium treatment had longer leukocyte telomere length. Whether this could reflect leukocyte telomerase activation are planned to be studied in newly diagnosed bipolar patients. We showed that lithium upregulated telomerase activity in the hippocampus of depressed rats.
- Telomeres consist of DNA and protective protein complexes. A key protective complex is called shelterin and it includes TRF1, TRF2, TPP1, TIN1, POT1 and RAP1. Dysfunctional shelterin leads to insufficient telomerase docking and increased DNA damage response which may result in cell cycle arrest [107]. Members of shelterin e.g. RAP1 was shown also to have extra-telomeric functions such as regulating gene expression [193]. The role of RAP1 is planned to be investigated in the FSL rat model.
- The understanding of epigenetic regulation is increasing rapidly. Recently a number of studies showed that non-CpG methylation, primarily produced by DNMT3A, are abundant and more dynamic than CpG methylation in adult brain [83]. DNMT3A is suggested to play a role in neurogenesis by modifying methylation in neuronal genes [194]. It would be interesting to investigate the function of DNMT3A in the depressed brain and the biological role of non-CpG methylation in depression.



*“There are two ways to live: you can live as if nothing is a miracle;
you can live as if everything is a miracle.”
“Logic will get you from A to B. Imagination will take you everywhere.”
— Albert Einstein*

Brilliant imagination by Yu Chen. Beijing, China. 2015.

- We showed that the HDACi NaB can affect DNA methylation, however it is not clear how mechanistically epigenetic markers interact with each other, e.g. the order by which histone acetylation and/or DNA methylation predominantly influence one another. This emphasizes the importance of elucidating in detail how epigenetic drugs like NaB, and the structurally similar valproic acid, exert their mood stabilizing effects.
- We found disturbed biogenesis in the *Il6*-targeting let-7 miRNA family in frontal cortex region of the FSL rats. In addition to LIN28B dysfunction, we also noticed a decreased DROSHA expression which implied a general reduction of miRNA biogenesis in frontal cortex region in depression states. In agreement, one study showed that most of the miRNAs were found to be decreased in the postmortem brain from drug-free depressive subjects [189]. In addition, a recent finding reported that enoxacin, an antibiotic drug that has miRNA production enhancement property, exhibited antidepressant-like effect in preclinical research (Smalheiser et al. 2014). MiRNAs show high stability in human paraffin-embedded tissues and plasma samples; a number of studies from cancer research have suggested the possibility that miRNA expression may be a useful tool to identify disease states and subtypes. It would be interesting to examine this idea also in depression. Thus, a comprehensive miRNA profiling is planned to be performed in the FSL frontal cortex. Furthermore, we found that physical activity reduced *Il6* levels and selectively increased let-7i and miR-98 expression in the FSL frontal cortex, which was independent of *Lin28b* and *Drosha* changes but associated with upstream primary miRNA transcription changes, implying that other mechanisms (e.g. epigenetic) are involved in regulating let-7 expression in response to physical activity. The reason to altered primary miRNA transcription is planned to be investigated in FSL frontal cortex.

“By three methods we may learn wisdom:

First, by reflection, which is noblest;

Second, by imitation, which is easiest;

and third by experience, which is the bitterest.”

— Confucius

7 ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The thesis work was conducted within the Neurogenetics group of the Department of Molecular Medicine and Surgery (MMK) at Karolinska Institutet in Stockholm, Sweden. First I would like to thank the funding support* and especially all the participants in the PART study and clinical patients in bipolar study who spent time and contributed biological samples to establish our database and biobank. This work cannot be done without your contribution. Next, I would like to thank all the people that I worked with, you are just so amazing! Last but not least, I would like to give thanks to my dearest family and friends who have supported and loved me.

My supervisors: My main supervisor **Catharina Lavebratt**, who supports and inspires me all the time. You are excellent scientist and open to new ideas and every possibility. Best supervisor ever! Thanks for your encouragement and giving me trust and freedom to be an independent researcher. I am so proud of to be your student. **Martin Schalling**, thanks for bringing me to Sweden. It is my best choice ever! You are more than a scientist, also a sociologist who is taking great responsibility for the society. Your pioneer ideas should be spread to all over the world and I would like to be one of them to help with this process. **Yvonne Forsell**, thanks for all the wonderful discussions and your supervision. Your clinical perspective from the ‘real world’ always makes the laboratory work much fancier. **Timo Partonen**, thanks for your remote supervision. I always love to hear about your new findings, which open up another window for me. **Philippe Melas**, thanks for teaching me all the experimental techniques and leading me to become a senior Ph.D. student during the first two years, I always follow your steps and still use ‘Philippe’s way of thinking’.

Collaborators: The projects cannot be done without the contribution from you. **Aleksander A. Mathé**, thanks for your rich experience and knowledge in animal models and the clinic in the field of psychiatry, I appreciate every scientific advice from you. **Lina Martinsson**, it’s really fun to study telomeres with you and thanks to you and **Lena Backlund**, for sharing valuable knowledge from your clinical experience, you are so smart and enthusiastic researchers and really experts in bipolar disorder. **Dawei**, for contributing your knowledge and always being helpful. Thanks to **Andreas Lennartsson** for teaching me CHIP which substantially broadened my knowledge in epigenetics. **Gregers Wegener**, **Elin Åberg** and **Stefan Brené**, thanks for contributing valuable data and knowledge.

Neurogenetics people: I grew up during my doctoral training here with you and have the most memorable and enjoyable days in Sweden with you. It is so confused sometimes to tell who is a *former* and who is a *current* member, as everybody is so tightly connected. **Ida**, thanks for letting me stay at your apartment the first month I came to Sweden and for always being nice and helpful and teaching me challenging tasks: never-understandable Skånska and never-show-signal immunofluorescence. **Karin**, it is just so good to have you sitting at the back of me, I love your laughter and that your long arm makes ‘press the button’ easily. A ‘nephrology expert’ can always stand outside of ‘black box of psychiatry’. **Anna**, I learned the word ‘duktig’ which is the best word to describe you. I really enjoy listening to your

stories about Ester, Edith and Kennet, just like they are part of the group. **Jiajia**, how can I live without you? You changed my life so much and must have epigenetically modified my brain permanently. I believe our 'Chinese-English-Swedish' way of discussing will speed up the scientific process in psychiatry research. **Vincent**, so good to have you joining the team and you are such a smart guy. **Dzana**, thanks for spending the 'liquid nitrogen mornings' and the great conference days with me! **Anna-Lee**, I feel very safe to work with a 'security ambassador'. I should have consulted you before I ate risgrynsgröt without warming it up. **Ninni**, drink less coke and your telomeres will become longer. Great thanks I want to give also to **Annika, Katarina, Eva, Carina, Giulia, Selim, Björn, Santi, Urban, Charlotte, Jeanette** and **Louise**, I really appreciate to have you as co-workers and all the good time we spent together.

Floormates and colleagues in CMM: Our floormates are so talented to create the best Friday breakfasts and seminars. Thank you all for building up such a cozy and friendly working environment. **Tomas**, great pleasure that you moved your **Epigenetic group** down even though I always get lost in your cold jokes. **Lollo**, thanks for being my Svenska supervisor and teach me 'lugn som filbunke'. **Malin, Joëlle** and **Atosa**, you are brave and brilliant female scientists. Mikael for smiling at me all the time. **Hematology group**, thanks for always being nice neighbors where we can borrow all kinds of equipment and knowledge. **Hongya, Tiantian** and **Xiaolu**, thanks for the wonderful time when you were here and I appreciate the scientific discussion with you. **Bingnan** and **Xiuming**, handsome guys who know all techniques in science. **Xiaotian** and **Jingya**, for the fun time when we were eating and travelling together. Many times I feel like coming from Shandong University. Also thanks to **Jenny, Selina, Meta** and **Monica**. Thanks for the contribution from friends in **clinical immunology** and **multiple sclerosis** groups: **Anna Fogdell, Anna Mattsson, Ingegerd, Christina, Elin, Malin Ryner** and **Sahl**. Also thanks to **Ning Xu** and **Andor**.

The MMK administration and IT supports: I extremely appreciate that I received enormous administrative help from **Ann-Britt**, you always saved my day. Also thanks to **Kerstin, Britt-Marie, Lennart** and **Jan-Erik**.

My Chinese friends: **Yu Li**, for being my friend and family in Sweden, so grateful to get to know you. **Xinsong**, for providing me valuable help before I came to Sweden and all those scientific suggestions. **Ting Jia**, for encouraging me during the depressed period in my life. **Xiaoyuan**, thanks for picking me up the first day I came to Sweden and thanks to you and **Jiangrong**, for being old friends since college and all those wonderful dinners with you. **Bojing**, I enjoyed chatting and eating in fancy restaurants with you. **Chang Liu, Xiao Tang, Tian Li, Yiqiao, Meng Chen, Xintong, Shuo Liang, Jitong (Tongtong), Min Guo, Ran Ma**, and **Bin Xiao**. Thank you all for sharing the wonderful time with me in Sweden.

My friends in Beijing: You are just so important to me. **Dong Lin, Wei Shang, Shuang Liu** and **Shijun Li**, we have been friends for most of my life, you raise me up whenever I

fall down to the bottom. **Vanya Xia**, thanks for giving me the pulse to come to Sweden and all your encouragement and trust on me.

Special thanks to artist **Yu Chen**, for her kind contribution of all the artistic images, which were specifically created for this thesis. You are a genius! I believe scientist should always collaborate with artist to create a better world (contact: cylclvip@vip.sina.com, <http://chenyuart.weebly.com/>).

My family: Thanks to my parents who love and support me all the time and let me do everything I want to do. My grandparents for being so open-minded and advanced in your thinking, giving me confidence and courage. My all relatives who trust and support me. I love you all.

感谢父母对我无限的爱与支持；感谢爷爷奶奶、姥姥姥爷看护我长大并且对我充满信心；是你们让我拥有信心和勇气去做自己喜欢的事情，去挑战自己也去克服生活中各种困难。感谢我所有的家人，一直陪伴、鼓励着我。虽然有些人已不在，但你们始终在我心里。

谨以此书献给你们。科学道路何其漫长，吾将上下而求索。无论以怎样的形式，都愿为全人类的健康事业前进一小步而努力。

*Funding support from the Karolinska Institutet's Faculty Funds (KID), Swedish Research Council, the Fredrik and Ingrid Thuring's Foundation, the regional agreement on medical training and clinical research (ALF) between the Stockholm County Council and Karolinska Institutet, the Danish Medical Research Council, and the Lundbeck foundation.

8 REFERENCES

1. *Wikipedia, The Free Encyclopedia*. Major depressive disorder. http://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Major_depressive_disorder&oldid=648488258 2015.
2. Bromet E, Andrade LH, Hwang I et al. . Cross-national epidemiology of DSM-IV major depressive episode. *BMC Med* 2011;9:90.
3. Solomon DA, Keller MB, Leon AC et al. . Multiple recurrences of major depressive disorder. *Am J Psychiatry* 2000;157(2):229-33.
4. Goldston K, Baillie AJ. Depression and coronary heart disease: a review of the epidemiological evidence, explanatory mechanisms and management approaches. *Clin Psychol Rev* 2008;28(2):288-306.
5. Krishnan V, Nestler EJ. The molecular neurobiology of depression. *Nature* 2008;455(7215):894-902.
6. Katon W, Pedersen HS, Ribe AR et al. . Effect of Depression and Diabetes Mellitus on the Risk for Dementia: A National Population-Based Cohort Study. *JAMA Psychiatry* 2015.
7. Kinser PA, Lyon DE. Major depressive disorder and measures of cellular aging: an integrative review. *Nurs Res Pract* 2013;2013:469070.
8. Douillard-Guilloux G, Guilloux JP, Lewis DA, Sibille E. Anticipated brain molecular aging in major depression. *Am J Geriatr Psychiatry* 2013;21(5):450-60.
9. Mathers CD, Loncar D. Projections of global mortality and burden of disease from 2002 to 2030. *PLoS Med* 2006;3(11):e442.
10. Forsell Y. A three-year follow-up of major depression, dysthymia, minor depression and subsyndromal depression: results from a population-based study. *Depress Anxiety* 2007;24(1):62-5.
11. Mitchell AJ, Vaze A, Rao S. Clinical diagnosis of depression in primary care: a meta-analysis. *Lancet* 2009;374(9690):609-19.
12. Akiskal HS. Validating 'hard' and 'soft' phenotypes within the bipolar spectrum: continuity or discontinuity? *J Affect Disord* 2003;73(1-2):1-5.
13. Schneck CD. Treatment of rapid-cycling bipolar disorder. *J Clin Psychiatry* 2006;67 Suppl 11:22-7.
14. Merikangas KR, Jin R, He JP et al. . Prevalence and correlates of bipolar spectrum disorder in the world mental health survey initiative. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 2011;68(3):241-51.
15. Bagalman E, Muser E, Choi JC et al. . Health care resource utilization and costs in a commercially insured population of patients with bipolar disorder type I and frequent psychiatric interventions. *Clin Ther* 2011;33(10):1381-1390 e4.
16. Sullivan PF, Daly MJ, O'Donovan M. Genetic architectures of psychiatric disorders: the emerging picture and its implications. *Nat Rev Genet* 2012;13(8):537-51.
17. McCarthy MJ, Leckband SG, Kelsoe JR. Pharmacogenetics of lithium response in bipolar disorder. *Pharmacogenomics* 2010;11(10):1439-65.

18. Smeraldi E, Petroccione A, Gasperini M et al. . Outcomes on lithium treatment as a tool for genetic studies in affective disorders. *J Affect Disord* 1984;6(2):139-51.
19. Grof P, Alda M, Grof E et al. . Lithium response and genetics of affective disorders. *J Affect Disord* 1994;32(2):85-95.
20. Saveanu RV, Nemeroff CB. Etiology of depression: genetic and environmental factors. *Psychiatr Clin North Am* 2012;35(1):51-71.
21. Vialou V, Feng J, Robison AJ, Nestler EJ. Epigenetic mechanisms of depression and antidepressant action. *Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol* 2013;53:59-87.
22. Drevets WC. Neuroimaging and neuropathological studies of depression: implications for the cognitive-emotional features of mood disorders. *Curr Opin Neurobiol* 2001;11(2):240-9.
23. Sheline YI. Neuroimaging studies of mood disorder effects on the brain. *Biol Psychiatry* 2003;54(3):338-52.
24. Mayberg HS, Liotti M, Brannan SK et al. . Reciprocal limbic-cortical function and negative mood: converging PET findings in depression and normal sadness. *Am J Psychiatry* 1999;156(5):675-82.
25. Drevets WC. Prefrontal cortical-amygdalar metabolism in major depression. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 1999;877:614-37.
26. Yang Y, Raine A. Prefrontal structural and functional brain imaging findings in antisocial, violent, and psychopathic individuals: a meta-analysis. *Psychiatry Res* 2009;174(2):81-8.
27. Shimamura AP. The role of the prefrontal cortex in dynamic filtering. *Psychobiology* 2000;28(2):207-218.
28. Courtney SM, Petit L, Haxby JV, Ungerleider LG. The role of prefrontal cortex in working memory: examining the contents of consciousness. *Philos Trans R Soc Lond B Biol Sci* 1998;353(1377):1819-28.
29. Koenigs M, Huey ED, Calamia M et al. . Distinct regions of prefrontal cortex mediate resistance and vulnerability to depression. *J Neurosci* 2008;28(47):12341-8.
30. Sweatt JD. Hippocampal function in cognition. *Psychopharmacology (Berl)* 2004;174(1):99-110.
31. Becker S, Wojtowicz JM. A model of hippocampal neurogenesis in memory and mood disorders. *Trends Cogn Sci* 2007;11(2):70-6.
32. Christian KM, Song H, Ming GL. Functions and dysfunctions of adult hippocampal neurogenesis. *Annu Rev Neurosci* 2014;37:243-62.
33. Campbell S, Macqueen G. The role of the hippocampus in the pathophysiology of major depression. *J Psychiatry Neurosci* 2004;29(6):417-26.
34. Lee MM, Reif A, Schmitt AG. Major depression: a role for hippocampal neurogenesis? *Curr Top Behav Neurosci* 2013;14:153-79.
35. Hasler G. Pathophysiology of depression: do we have any solid evidence of interest to clinicians? *World Psychiatry* 2010;9(3):155-61.
36. Duman RS, Monteggia LM. A neurotrophic model for stress-related mood disorders. *Biol Psychiatry* 2006;59(12):1116-27.

37. Duman RS. Neurotrophic factors and regulation of mood: role of exercise, diet and metabolism. *Neurobiol Aging* 2005;26 Suppl 1:88-93.
38. Scharfman H, Goodman J, Macleod A et al. . Increased neurogenesis and the ectopic granule cells after intrahippocampal BDNF infusion in adult rats. *Exp Neurol* 2005;192(2):348-56.
39. Taliaz D, Stall N, Dar DE, Zangen A. Knockdown of brain-derived neurotrophic factor in specific brain sites precipitates behaviors associated with depression and reduces neurogenesis. *Mol Psychiatry* 2010;15(1):80-92.
40. Almeida RD, Manadas BJ, Melo CV et al. . Neuroprotection by BDNF against glutamate-induced apoptotic cell death is mediated by ERK and PI3-kinase pathways. *Cell Death Differ* 2005;12(10):1329-43.
41. Duman RS. Depression: a case of neuronal life and death? *Biol Psychiatry* 2004;56(3):140-5.
42. Karege F, Perret G, Bondolfi G et al. . Decreased serum brain-derived neurotrophic factor levels in major depressed patients. *Psychiatry Res* 2002;109(2):143-8.
43. Dwivedi Y, Rizavi HS, Conley RR et al. . Altered gene expression of brain-derived neurotrophic factor and receptor tyrosine kinase B in postmortem brain of suicide subjects. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 2003;60(8):804-15.
44. Dias BG, Banerjee SB, Duman RS, Vaidya VA. Differential regulation of brain derived neurotrophic factor transcripts by antidepressant treatments in the adult rat brain. *Neuropharmacology* 2003;45(4):553-63.
45. Branchi I, D'Andrea I, Sietzema J et al. . Early social enrichment augments adult hippocampal BDNF levels and survival of BrdU-positive cells while increasing anxiety- and "depression"-like behavior. *J Neurosci Res* 2006;83(6):965-73.
46. Groves JO. Is it time to reassess the BDNF hypothesis of depression? *Mol Psychiatry* 2007;12(12):1079-88.
47. Chrousos GP, Gold PW. The concepts of stress and stress system disorders. Overview of physical and behavioral homeostasis. *JAMA* 1992;267(9):1244-52.
48. Carrasco GA, Van de Kar LD. Neuroendocrine pharmacology of stress. *Eur J Pharmacol* 2003;463(1-3):235-72.
49. Hammen C. Stress and depression. *Annu. Rev. Clin. Psychol.* 2005;1:293-319.
50. Hazel NA, Hammen C, Brennan PA, Najman J. Early childhood adversity and adolescent depression: the mediating role of continued stress. *Psychol Med* 2008;38(4):581-9.
51. Kendler KS, Kessler RC, Walters EE et al. . Stressful life events, genetic liability, and onset of an episode of major depression in women. *Am J Psychiatry* 1995;152(6):833-42.
52. Smith SM, Vale WW. The role of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis in neuroendocrine responses to stress. *Dialogues Clin Neurosci* 2006;8(4):383-95.
53. Sawchenko PE. Evidence for a local site of action for glucocorticoids in inhibiting CRF and vasopressin expression in the paraventricular nucleus. *Brain Res* 1987;403(2):213-23.

54. Herbert J, Goodyer IM, Grossman AB et al. . Do corticosteroids damage the brain? *J Neuroendocrinol* 2006;18(6):393-411.
55. Pariante CM. The glucocorticoid receptor: part of the solution or part of the problem? *J Psychopharmacol* 2006;20(4 Suppl):79-84.
56. Pariante CM, Lightman SL. The HPA axis in major depression: classical theories and new developments. *Trends Neurosci* 2008;31(9):464-8.
57. Binder EB, Salyakina D, Lichtner P et al. . Polymorphisms in FKBP5 are associated with increased recurrence of depressive episodes and rapid response to antidepressant treatment. *Nat Genet* 2004;36(12):1319-25.
58. Zhang TY, Labonte B, Wen XL et al. . Epigenetic mechanisms for the early environmental regulation of hippocampal glucocorticoid receptor gene expression in rodents and humans. *Neuropsychopharmacology* 2013;38(1):111-23.
59. Claes S. Glucocorticoid receptor polymorphisms in major depression. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 2009;1179:216-28.
60. Miller AH, Maletic V, Raison CL. Inflammation and its discontents: the role of cytokines in the pathophysiology of major depression. *Biol Psychiatry* 2009;65(9):732-41.
61. Zorrilla EP, Luborsky L, McKay JR et al. . The relationship of depression and stressors to immunological assays: a meta-analytic review. *Brain Behav Immun* 2001;15(3):199-226.
62. Reichenberg A, Yirmiya R, Schuld A et al. . Cytokine-associated emotional and cognitive disturbances in humans. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 2001;58(5):445-52.
63. Dantzer R, O'Connor JC, Freund GG et al. . From inflammation to sickness and depression: when the immune system subjugates the brain. *Nat Rev Neurosci* 2008;9(1):46-56.
64. Mendlewicz J, Kriwin P, Oswald P et al. . Shortened onset of action of antidepressants in major depression using acetylsalicylic acid augmentation: a pilot open-label study. *Int Clin Psychopharmacol* 2006;21(4):227-31.
65. Tying S, Gottlieb A, Papp K et al. . Etanercept and clinical outcomes, fatigue, and depression in psoriasis: double-blind placebo-controlled randomised phase III trial. *Lancet* 2006;367(9504):29-35.
66. Raison CL, Capuron L, Miller AH. Cytokines sing the blues: inflammation and the pathogenesis of depression. *Trends Immunol* 2006;27(1):24-31.
67. Pace TW, Mletzko TC, Alagbe O et al. . Increased stress-induced inflammatory responses in male patients with major depression and increased early life stress. *Am J Psychiatry* 2006;163(9):1630-3.
68. Bierhaus A, Wolf J, Andrassy M et al. . A mechanism converting psychosocial stress into mononuclear cell activation. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2003;100(4):1920-5.
69. Sullivan PF, Neale MC, Kendler KS. Genetic epidemiology of major depression: review and meta-analysis. *Am J Psychiatry* 2000;157(10):1552-62.
70. Kendler KS, Gatz M, Gardner CO, Pedersen NL. A Swedish national twin study of lifetime major depression. *Am J Psychiatry* 2006;163(1):109-14.

71. Lohoff FW. Overview of the genetics of major depressive disorder. *Curr Psychiatry Rep* 2010;12(6):539-46.
72. Flint J, Kendler KS. The genetics of major depression. *Neuron* 2014;81(3):484-503.
73. Risch N, Herrell R, Lehner T et al. . Interaction between the serotonin transporter gene (5-HTTLPR), stressful life events, and risk of depression: a meta-analysis. *JAMA* 2009;301(23):2462-71.
74. Waddington CH. *Organisers & Genes*: The University Press. 1947.
75. Berger SL, Kouzarides T, Shiekhattar R, Shilatifard A. An operational definition of epigenetics. *Genes Dev* 2009;23(7):781-3.
76. Dupont C, Armant DR, Brenner CA. Epigenetics: definition, mechanisms and clinical perspective. *Semin Reprod Med* 2009;27(5):351-7.
77. Borrelli E, Nestler EJ, Allis CD, Sassone-Corsi P. Decoding the epigenetic language of neuronal plasticity. *Neuron* 2008;60(6):961-74.
78. Feng J, Fan G. The role of DNA methylation in the central nervous system and neuropsychiatric disorders. *Int Rev Neurobiol* 2009;89:67-84.
79. Zhang TY, Meaney MJ. Epigenetics and the environmental regulation of the genome and its function. *Annu Rev Psychol* 2010;61:439-66, C1-3.
80. Hotchkiss RD. The quantitative separation of purines, pyrimidines, and nucleosides by paper chromatography. *J Biol Chem* 1948;175(1):315-32.
81. Griffith JS, Mahler HR. DNA ticketing theory of memory. *Nature* 1969;223(5206):580-2.
82. Ratel D, Ravanat JL, Berger F, Wion D. N6-methyladenine: the other methylated base of DNA. *Bioessays* 2006;28(3):309-15.
83. Guo JU, Su Y, Shin JH et al. . Distribution, recognition and regulation of non-CpG methylation in the adult mammalian brain. *Nat Neurosci* 2014;17(2):215-22.
84. Lister R, Mukamel EA, Nery JR et al. . Global epigenomic reconfiguration during mammalian brain development. *Science* 2013;341(6146):1237905.
85. Kim JK, Samaranyake M, Pradhan S. Epigenetic mechanisms in mammals. *Cell Mol Life Sci* 2009;66(4):596-612.
86. Hermann A, Goyal R, Jeltsch A. The Dnmt1 DNA-(cytosine-C5)-methyltransferase methylates DNA processively with high preference for hemimethylated target sites. *J Biol Chem* 2004;279(46):48350-9.
87. Wu SC, Zhang Y. Active DNA demethylation: many roads lead to Rome. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol* 2010;11(9):607-20.
88. Ito S, Shen L, Dai Q et al. . Tet proteins can convert 5-methylcytosine to 5-formylcytosine and 5-carboxylcytosine. *Science* 2011;333(6047):1300-3.
89. Varley KE, Gertz J, Bowling KM et al. . Dynamic DNA methylation across diverse human cell lines and tissues. *Genome Res* 2013;23(3):555-67.
90. Bogdanovic O, Veenstra GJ. DNA methylation and methyl-CpG binding proteins: developmental requirements and function. *Chromosoma* 2009;118(5):549-65.

91. Spruijt CG, Gnerlich F, Smits AH et al. . Dynamic readers for 5-(hydroxy)methylcytosine and its oxidized derivatives. *Cell* 2013;152(5):1146-59.
92. Mellen M, Ayata P, Dewell S et al. . MeCP2 binds to 5hmC enriched within active genes and accessible chromatin in the nervous system. *Cell* 2012;151(7):1417-30.
93. Wei Y, Melas PA, Wegener G et al. . Antidepressant-like effect of sodium butyrate is associated with an increase in TET1 and in 5-hydroxymethylation levels in the *Bdnf* gene. *Int J Neuropsychopharmacol* 2014;18(2).
94. Lippman Z, Gendrel AV, Black M et al. . Role of transposable elements in heterochromatin and epigenetic control. *Nature* 2004;430(6998):471-6.
95. Reik W. Stability and flexibility of epigenetic gene regulation in mammalian development. *Nature* 2007;447(7143):425-32.
96. Krol J, Loedige I, Filipowicz W. The widespread regulation of microRNA biogenesis, function and decay. *Nat Rev Genet* 2010;11(9):597-610.
97. Dwivedi Y. Evidence demonstrating role of microRNAs in the etiopathology of major depression. *J Chem Neuroanat* 2011;42(2):142-56.
98. Ha M, Kim VN. Regulation of microRNA biogenesis. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol* 2014;15(8):509-24.
99. Yang JS, Lai EC. Alternative miRNA biogenesis pathways and the interpretation of core miRNA pathway mutants. *Mol Cell* 2011;43(6):892-903.
100. Pasquinelli AE, Reinhart BJ, Slack F et al. . Conservation of the sequence and temporal expression of let-7 heterochronic regulatory RNA. *Nature* 2000;408(6808):86-9.
101. Polikepahad S, Knight JM, Naghavi AO et al. . Proinflammatory role for let-7 microRNAs in experimental asthma. *J Biol Chem* 2010;285(39):30139-49.
102. Kumar M, Ahmad T, Sharma A et al. . Let-7 microRNA-mediated regulation of IL-13 and allergic airway inflammation. *J Allergy Clin Immunol* 2011;128(5):1077-85 e1-10.
103. Chandrasekar V, Dreyer JL. microRNAs miR-124, let-7d and miR-181a regulate cocaine-induced plasticity. *Mol Cell Neurosci* 2009;42(4):350-62.
104. He Y, Yang C, Kirkmire CM, Wang ZJ. Regulation of opioid tolerance by let-7 family microRNA targeting the mu opioid receptor. *J Neurosci* 2010;30(30):10251-8.
105. Chan SR, Blackburn EH. Telomeres and telomerase. *Philos Trans R Soc Lond B Biol Sci* 2004;359(1441):109-21.
106. Greider CW, Blackburn EH. Identification of a specific telomere terminal transferase activity in *Tetrahymena* extracts. *Cell* 1985;43(2 Pt 1):405-13.
107. de Lange T. How shelterin solves the telomere end-protection problem. *Cold Spring Harb Symp Quant Biol* 2010;75:167-77.
108. de Lange T. How telomeres solve the end-protection problem. *Science* 2009;326(5955):948-52.
109. Benetos A, Okuda K, Lajemi M et al. . Telomere length as an indicator of biological aging: the gender effect and relation with pulse pressure and pulse wave velocity. *Hypertension* 2001;37(2 Pt 2):381-5.

110. Garcia-Rizo C, Fernandez-Egea E, Miller BJ et al. . Abnormal glucose tolerance, white blood cell count, and telomere length in newly diagnosed, antidepressant-naive patients with depression. *Brain Behav Immun* 2013;28:49-53.
111. Lung FW, Chen NC, Shu BC. Genetic pathway of major depressive disorder in shortening telomeric length. *Psychiatr Genet* 2007;17(3):195-9.
112. Verhoeven JE, Revesz D, Epel ES et al. . Major depressive disorder and accelerated cellular aging: results from a large psychiatric cohort study. *Mol Psychiatry* 2014;19(8):895-901.
113. Wikgren M, Maripuu M, Karlsson T et al. . Short telomeres in depression and the general population are associated with a hypocortisolemic state. *Biol Psychiatry* 2012;71(4):294-300.
114. Wolkowitz OM, Mellon SH, Epel ES et al. . Resting leukocyte telomerase activity is elevated in major depression and predicts treatment response. *Mol Psychiatry* 2012;17(2):164-72.
115. Martinsson L, Wei Y, Xu D et al. . Long-term lithium treatment in bipolar disorder is associated with longer leukocyte telomeres. *Transl Psychiatry* 2013;3:e261.
116. Elvsashagen T, Vera E, Boen E et al. . The load of short telomeres is increased and associated with lifetime number of depressive episodes in bipolar II disorder. *J Affect Disord* 2011;135(1-3):43-50.
117. Hartmann N, Boehner M, Groenen F, Kalb R. Telomere length of patients with major depression is shortened but independent from therapy and severity of the disease. *Depress Anxiety* 2010;27(12):1111-6.
118. Simon NM, Smoller JW, McNamara KL et al. . Telomere shortening and mood disorders: preliminary support for a chronic stress model of accelerated aging. *Biol Psychiatry* 2006;60(5):432-5.
119. Wei YB, Backlund L, Wegener G et al. . Telomerase Dysregulation in the Hippocampus of a Rat Model of Depression: Normalization by Lithium. *Int J Neuropsychopharmacol* 2015.
120. Szebeni A, Szebeni K, DiPeri T et al. . Shortened telomere length in white matter oligodendrocytes in major depression: potential role of oxidative stress. *Int J Neuropsychopharmacol* 2014;17(10):1579-89.
121. Epel ES, Blackburn EH, Lin J et al. . Accelerated telomere shortening in response to life stress. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2004;101(49):17312-5.
122. Parks CG, Miller DB, McCanlies EC et al. . Telomere length, current perceived stress, and urinary stress hormones in women. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 2009;18(2):551-60.
123. Revesz D, Verhoeven JE, Milaneschi Y et al. . Dysregulated physiological stress systems and accelerated cellular aging. *Neurobiol Aging* 2014;35(6):1422-30.
124. Kiecolt-Glaser JK, Gouin JP, Weng NP et al. . Childhood adversity heightens the impact of later-life caregiving stress on telomere length and inflammation. *Psychosom Med* 2011;73(1):16-22.
125. Savolainen K, Eriksson JG, Kananen L et al. . Associations between early life stress, self-reported traumatic experiences across the lifespan and leukocyte telomere length in elderly adults. *Biol Psychol* 2014;97:35-42.

126. Blackburn EH, Collins K. Telomerase: an RNP enzyme synthesizes DNA. *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol* 2011;3(5).
127. Collins K, Mitchell JR. Telomerase in the human organism. *Oncogene* 2002;21(4):564-79.
128. Bollmann FM. The many faces of telomerase: emerging extratelomeric effects. *Bioessays* 2008;30(8):728-32.
129. Cong Y, Shay JW. Actions of human telomerase beyond telomeres. *Cell Res* 2008;18(7):725-32.
130. Li J, Qu Y, Chen D et al. . The neuroprotective role and mechanisms of TERT in neurons with oxygen-glucose deprivation. *Neuroscience* 2013;252:346-58.
131. Fu W, Killen M, Culmsee C et al. . The catalytic subunit of telomerase is expressed in developing brain neurons and serves a cell survival-promoting function. *J Mol Neurosci* 2000;14(1-2):3-15.
132. Wolkowitz OM, Mellon SH, Lindqvist D et al. . PBMC telomerase activity, but not leukocyte telomere length, correlates with hippocampal volume in major depression. *Psychiatry Research: Neuroimaging* 2015.
133. Wolf SA, Melnik A, Kempermann G. Physical exercise increases adult neurogenesis and telomerase activity, and improves behavioral deficits in a mouse model of schizophrenia. *Brain Behav Immun* 2011;25(5):971-80.
134. Zhou QG, Hu Y, Wu DL et al. . Hippocampal telomerase is involved in the modulation of depressive behaviors. *J Neurosci* 2011;31(34):12258-69.
135. Anderson IM, Ferrier IN, Baldwin RC et al. . Evidence-based guidelines for treating depressive disorders with antidepressants: a revision of the 2000 British Association for Psychopharmacology guidelines. *J Psychopharmacol* 2008;22(4):343-96.
136. Butler AC, Chapman JE, Forman EM, Beck AT. The empirical status of cognitive-behavioral therapy: a review of meta-analyses. *Clin Psychol Rev* 2006;26(1):17-31.
137. . *Depression: The Treatment and Management of Depression in Adults (Updated Edition)*. Leicester (UK); 2010.
138. Gaynes BN, Rush AJ, Trivedi MH et al. . The STAR*D study: treating depression in the real world. *Cleve Clin J Med* 2008;75(1):57-66.
139. Abdallah CG, Averill LA, Krystal JH. Ketamine as a promising prototype for a new generation of rapid-acting antidepressants. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 2015.
140. Nasca C, Xenos D, Barone Y et al. . L-acetylcarnitine causes rapid antidepressant effects through the epigenetic induction of mGlu2 receptors. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2013;110(12):4804-9.
141. Craft LL, Perna FM. The Benefits of Exercise for the Clinically Depressed. *Prim Care Companion J Clin Psychiatry* 2004;6(3):104-111.
142. Overstreet DH, Friedman E, Mathe AA, Yadid G. The Flinders Sensitive Line rat: a selectively bred putative animal model of depression. *Neurosci Biobehav Rev* 2005;29(4-5):739-59.
143. Overstreet DH, Wegener G. The flinders sensitive line rat model of depression--25 years and still producing. *Pharmacol Rev* 2013;65(1):143-55.

144. Porsolt RD, Bertin A, Jalfre M. Behavioral despair in mice: a primary screening test for antidepressants. *Arch Int Pharmacodyn Ther* 1977;229(2):327-36.
145. Nolan T, Hands RE, Bustin SA. Quantification of mRNA using real-time RT-PCR. *Nat Protoc* 2006;1(3):1559-82.
146. Liu ZQ, Mahmood T, Yang PC. Western blot: technique, theory and trouble shooting. *N Am J Med Sci* 2014;6(3):160.
147. Keene JD, Komisarow JM, Friedersdorf MB. RIP-Chip: the isolation and identification of mRNAs, microRNAs and protein components of ribonucleoprotein complexes from cell extracts. *Nat Protoc* 2006;1(1):302-7.
148. Cawthon RM. Telomere measurement by quantitative PCR. *Nucleic Acids Res* 2002;30(10):e47.
149. Hou M, Xu D, Bjorkholm M, Gruber A. Real-time quantitative telomeric repeat amplification protocol assay for the detection of telomerase activity. *Clin Chem* 2001;47(3):519-24.
150. Hällström T, Damström Thakker K, Forsell Y et al. . The PART Study: A Population Based Study of Mental Health in the Stockholm County: Study Design: Phase I (1998-2000). Stockholm, Samhällsmedicin, Karolinska Institute 2003.
151. Schulze TG, Alda M, Adli M et al. . The International Consortium on Lithium Genetics (ConLiGen): an initiative by the NIMH and IGSLI to study the genetic basis of response to lithium treatment. *Neuropsychobiology* 2010;62(1):72-8.
152. McGuigan FE, Ralston SH. Single nucleotide polymorphism detection: allelic discrimination using TaqMan. *Psychiatr Genet* 2002;12(3):133-6.
153. Meyne J, Ratliff RL, MoYzIs RK. Conservation of the human telomere sequence (TTAGGG) n among vertebrates. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 1989;86(18):7049-7053.
154. Endler G, Greinix H, Winkler K et al. . Genetic fingerprinting in mouthwashes of patients after allogeneic bone marrow transplantation. *Bone Marrow Transplant* 1999;24(1):95-8.
155. Thiede C, Prange-Krex G, Freiberg-Richter J et al. . Buccal swabs but not mouthwash samples can be used to obtain pretransplant DNA fingerprints from recipients of allogeneic bone marrow transplants. *Bone Marrow Transplant* 2000;25(5):575-7.
156. Codd V, Nelson CP, Albrecht E et al. . Identification of seven loci affecting mean telomere length and their association with disease. *Nat Genet* 2013;45(4):422-7, 427e1-2.
157. Sjöholm L, Lavebratt C, Forsell Y. A multifactorial developmental model for the etiology of major depression in a population-based sample. *J Affect Disord* 2009;113(1-2):66-76.
158. Kendler KS, Gardner CO, Prescott CA. Toward a comprehensive developmental model for major depression in women. *Am J Psychiatry* 2002;159(7):1133-45.
159. O'Donovan A, Epel E, Lin J et al. . Childhood trauma associated with short leukocyte telomere length in posttraumatic stress disorder. *Biol Psychiatry* 2011;70(5):465-71.

160. Kananen L, Surakka I, Pirkola S et al. . Childhood adversities are associated with shorter telomere length at adult age both in individuals with an anxiety disorder and controls. *PLoS One* 2010;5(5):e10826.
161. Wei Y, Backlund L, Wegener G et al. . Telomerase dysregulation in the hippocampus of a rat model of depression. Normalization by lithium. *Int J Neuropsychopharmacol* 2015.
162. Szebeni A, Szebeni K, DiPeri T et al. . Shortened telomere length in white matter oligodendrocytes in major depression: potential role of oxidative stress. *Int J Neuropsychopharmacol* 2014:1-11.
163. Bollmann FM. Physiological and pathological significance of human telomerase reverse transcriptase splice variants. *Biochimie* 2013;95(11):1965-70.
164. Kaneko R, Esumi S, Yagi T, Hirabayashi T. Predominant expression of rTERTb, an inactive TERT variant, in the adult rat brain. *Protein Pept Lett* 2006;13(1):59-65.
165. Epel ES, Merkin SS, Cawthon R et al. . The rate of leukocyte telomere shortening predicts mortality from cardiovascular disease in elderly men. *Aging (Albany NY)* 2009;1(1):81-8.
166. Epel ES, Lin J, Dhabhar FS et al. . Dynamics of telomerase activity in response to acute psychological stress. *Brain Behav Immun* 2010;24(4):531-9.
167. Pasquali L, Busceti CL, Fulceri F et al. . Intracellular pathways underlying the effects of lithium. *Behav Pharmacol* 2010;21(5-6):473-92.
168. Gould TD, Chen G, Manji HK. In vivo evidence in the brain for lithium inhibition of glycogen synthase kinase-3. *Neuropsychopharmacology* 2004;29(1):32-8.
169. Zhang Y, Toh L, Lau P, Wang X. Human telomerase reverse transcriptase (hTERT) is a novel target of the Wnt/beta-catenin pathway in human cancer. *J Biol Chem* 2012;287(39):32494-511.
170. Fu W, Lu C, Mattson MP. Telomerase mediates the cell survival-promoting actions of brain-derived neurotrophic factor and secreted amyloid precursor protein in developing hippocampal neurons. *J Neurosci* 2002;22(24):10710-9.
171. Fukumoto T, Morinobu S, Okamoto Y et al. . Chronic lithium treatment increases the expression of brain-derived neurotrophic factor in the rat brain. *Psychopharmacology (Berl)* 2001;158(1):100-6.
172. Schroeder FA, Lin CL, Crusio WE, Akbarian S. Antidepressant-like effects of the histone deacetylase inhibitor, sodium butyrate, in the mouse. *Biol Psychiatry* 2007;62(1):55-64.
173. Yamawaki Y, Fuchikami M, Morinobu S et al. . Antidepressant-like effect of sodium butyrate (HDAC inhibitor) and its molecular mechanism of action in the rat hippocampus. *World J Biol Psychiatry* 2012;13(6):458-67.
174. de Haan JB, Gevers W, Parker MI. Effects of sodium butyrate on the synthesis and methylation of DNA in normal cells and their transformed counterparts. *Cancer Res* 1986;46(2):713-6.
175. Parker MI, de Haan JB, Gevers W. DNA hypermethylation in sodium butyrate-treated WI-38 fibroblasts. *J Biol Chem* 1986;261(6):2786-90.

176. Cosgrove DE, Cox GS. Effects of sodium butyrate and 5-azacytidine on DNA methylation in human tumor cell lines: variable response to drug treatment and withdrawal. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1990;1087(1):80-6.
177. Guo JU, Su Y, Zhong C et al. . Hydroxylation of 5-methylcytosine by TET1 promotes active DNA demethylation in the adult brain. *Cell* 2011;145(3):423-34.
178. Tahiliani M, Koh KP, Shen Y et al. . Conversion of 5-methylcytosine to 5-hydroxymethylcytosine in mammalian DNA by MLL partner TET1. *Science* 2009;324(5929):930-5.
179. Kriaucionis S, Heintz N. The Nuclear DNA Base 5-Hydroxymethylcytosine Is Present in Purkinje Neurons and the Brain. *Science* 2009;324(5929):929-930.
180. Kaas GA, Zhong C, Eason DE et al. . TET1 controls CNS 5-methylcytosine hydroxylation, active DNA demethylation, gene transcription, and memory formation. *Neuron* 2013;79(6):1086-93.
181. Lindqvist D, Janelidze S, Hagell P et al. . Interleukin-6 is elevated in the cerebrospinal fluid of suicide attempters and related to symptom severity. *Biol Psychiatry* 2009;66(3):287-92.
182. Dowlati Y, Herrmann N, Swardfager W et al. . A meta-analysis of cytokines in major depression. *Biol Psychiatry* 2010;67(5):446-57.
183. Loftis JM, Huckans M, Morasco BJ. Neuroimmune mechanisms of cytokine-induced depression: current theories and novel treatment strategies. *Neurobiol Dis* 2010;37(3):519-33.
184. Iliopoulos D, Hirsch HA, Struhl K. An epigenetic switch involving NF-kappaB, Lin28, Let-7 MicroRNA, and IL6 links inflammation to cell transformation. *Cell* 2009;139(4):693-706.
185. He M, Liu Y, Wang X et al. . Cell-type-based analysis of microRNA profiles in the mouse brain. *Neuron* 2012;73(1):35-48.
186. Shinohara Y, Yahagi K, Kawano M et al. . miRNA profiling of bilateral rat hippocampal CA3 by deep sequencing. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 2011;409(2):293-8.
187. Rybak A, Fuchs H, Smirnova L et al. . A feedback loop comprising lin-28 and let-7 controls pre-let-7 maturation during neural stem-cell commitment. *Nat Cell Biol* 2008;10(8):987-93.
188. Hayashi Y, Tsujii M, Wang J et al. . CagA mediates epigenetic regulation to attenuate let-7 expression in *Helicobacter pylori*-related carcinogenesis. *Gut* 2013;62(11):1536-46.
189. Smalheiser NR, Lugli G, Rizavi HS et al. . MicroRNA expression is down-regulated and reorganized in prefrontal cortex of depressed suicide subjects. *PLoS One* 2012;7(3):e33201.
190. Bjornebekk A, Mathe AA, Brene S. The antidepressant effect of running is associated with increased hippocampal cell proliferation. *Int J Neuropsychopharmacol* 2005;8(3):357-68.
191. Bjornebekk A, Mathe AA, Brene S. The antidepressant effects of running and escitalopram are associated with levels of hippocampal NPY and Y1 receptor but not cell proliferation in a rat model of depression. *Hippocampus* 2010;20(7):820-8.

192. Wolkowitz OM, Mellon SH, Lindqvist D et al. . PBMC telomerase activity, but not leukocyte telomere length, correlates with hippocampal volume in major depression. *Psychiatry Res* 2015;232(1):58-64.
193. Martinez P, Thanasoula M, Carlos AR et al. . Mammalian Rap1 controls telomere function and gene expression through binding to telomeric and extratelomeric sites. *Nat Cell Biol* 2010;12(8):768-80.
194. Wu H, Coskun V, Tao J et al. . Dnmt3a-dependent nonpromoter DNA methylation facilitates transcription of neurogenic genes. *Science* 2010;329(5990):444-8.