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Neurotrophins and nerve injury in the adult

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SUMMARY

A role for neurotrophins in mature primary sensory neurons persists, extending beyond that of promoting survival during development, to one of maintaining phenotypic and functional properties. Many adaptive changes that occur after peripheral axotomy and in axonal repair are believed to be influenced by altered availability of neurotrophic molecules to the neuron in this state. Indeed, administration of exogenous nerve growth factor counteracts many degenerative changes observed in the subpopulation of axotomized neurons which are nerve growth factor-responsive. Current efforts focus on defining actions of other neurotrophins (brain-derived neurotrophic factor, neurotrophin-3 and neurotrophin-4/5) in nerve injury and repair, and the intracellular pathways involved. Knowledge gained from work focusing on nerve growth factor and neurotrophin-3 in supporting maintenance or modulation of aspects of the differentiated state of adult primary sensory neurons is discussed.

1. INTRODUCTION

Adult primary sensory neurons represent a diverse group; mirrored through differences in size, cytology, physiology, biochemical markers and responsiveness to neurotrophic factors (Hunt *et al.* 1992; Lawson 1992). Neurotrophins are a family of related proteins that individually serve as survival factors for largely distinct subclasses of developing DRG neurons and whose mammalian members include nerve growth factor (NGF), brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF), neurotrophin-3 (NT-3) and neurotrophin-4/5 (NT-4/5) (reviewed in Mendell 1995). They exert their effects via specific high-affinity binding to receptor tyrosine kinases known as trks; NGF interacting with trk (trkA), BDNF and NT-4/5 with trkB, and NT-3 with trkC (Kaplan *et al.* 1991; Klein *et al.* 1991; Lamballe *et al.* 1991; Ip *et al.* 1993). In addition to their interaction with trk receptors, each neurotrophin is capable of binding to a low-affinity neurotrophin receptor, p75. The exact importance of this dual receptor system is not known, however, it may serve to increase responsiveness of individual neurons to NGF (reviewed in Chao & Hempstead 1995) or selectively regulate retrograde neurotrophin transport (Curtis *et al.* 1995).

A number of well-documented experimental models have been developed to evaluate NGF's role in adult DRG. NGF appears to be important in maintaining phenotypic and functional properties associated with the intact axonal state (see papers by L. M. Mendell and G. R. Lewin, this volume), and re-establishing these properties after pathological insult. The precise

role(s) for neurotrophins other than NGF in mature DRG are largely unknown. However, recent detailed analysis of deficits in sensory function resulting from

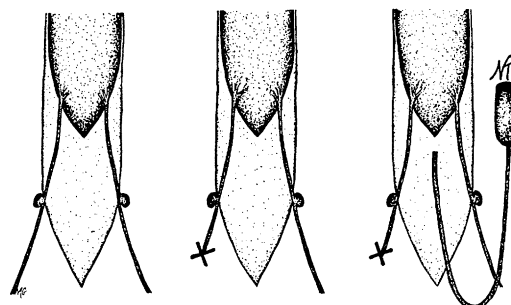


Figure 1. *In vivo* model employed to assess the role of neurotrophins in intact and injured sensory neurons. Left: DRG associated with intact sciatic nerves are used to characterize neurotrophin-responsive subpopulations. Middle: 2–3 week chronic unilateral sciatic nerve transection and resection at site of origin to the L4 & L5 spinal nerves is used to examine phenotypic cell body changes after injury. Right: intrathecal infusion of neurotrophin via mini osmotic pump for one week after a two week unilateral transection period is used to assess which of the injury-associated phenotypic changes or properties of intact neurons are altered in response to exogenous neurotrophin application. Note: frozen left and right DRG from injured and injured plus neurotrophin-infused animals are fused together and sectioned, allowing experimental and control groups to be processed under identical conditions on the same slide, thereby avoiding slide to slide variability resulting from histochemical procedures used (Verge *et al.* 1989 *a, b*, 1990 *a, b*; 1992, 1995; Gratto *et al.* 1994, 1995; Karchewski *et al.* 1995 *a, b*).

homologous recombination experiments targeting neurotrophins or their receptors (Snider 1994; and see paper by Snider *et al.* this volume) and analysis of the distribution, co-localization and characterization of neurotrophin-responsive subpopulations has allowed for insights (Karchewski *et al.* 1995*a*; and see paper by H. S. Phillips *et al.* this volume), the most prominent being the requirement of NT-3 and trkC for proprioceptor development.

A long standing interest of our laboratories has been identifying and defining roles of molecules, principally neurotrophins, believed involved in nerve injury and repair of adult sensory neurons. A model was developed to test effects of individual neurotrophins on cellular properties of intact and injured DRG neurons (figure 1). The following discussion summarizes our and others' findings for NGF, and reports on recent studies examining NT-3's role.

2. NGF COUNTERACTS AXOTOMY-INDUCED CHANGES IN SENSORY NEURONS

After peripheral nerve insult, surviving DRG neurons undergo structural and biochemical changes including alterations in morphology, and expression of enzymes, peptides, growth-associated molecules, cytoskeletal proteins and receptors (reviewed in Aldskogius *et al.* 1992). They may lose their ability to respond to various stimuli or gain new reactivity. It is not known which factor(s) causes these alterations after axotomy, but it has been demonstrated that if regeneration is successful, many of the changes reverse (Lieberman 1974; Aldskogius *et al.* 1992). Several lines of evidence support the view that retrograde transport of trophic factor(s) expressed in limiting quantities in peripheral

target and/or nonneuronal cells within the nerve help maintain the neuron in its normal biological state (Goedert *et al.* 1981; Korsching & Thoenen 1983; Heumann *et al.* 1987; Funakoshi *et al.* 1993). For example, disruption of this flow, either by axotomy or application of microtubule formation inhibitors, triggers the injury-induced state, or aspects of it, in the neuron (Lieberman 1974; Fitzgerald *et al.* 1984; Kniyihar-Csillik *et al.* 1991; Kashiba *et al.* 1992). However, the most convincing evidence for the importance of retrograde neurotrophin(s) supply in the injury response, arises from experiments where either NGF is infused intrathecally at a time point after the neuron has responded to the injury (i.e. figure 1) or administered to the severed tip of the nerve. Using this approach trauma-induced transganglionic degenerative atrophy and decreases in NGF high-affinity bindings sites, trkA and p75; neuronal size; medium neurofilament subunit (NFM); peptides α - and β -calcitonin gene-related peptide (CGRP) and substance P (SP); fluoride resistant acid phosphatase; and neuronal survival are partially prevented or reversed by exogenous NGF (Csillik *et al.* 1985; Fitzgerald *et al.* 1985; Rich *et al.* 1987; Verge *et al.* 1989*b*, 1990, 1992, 1995; Gold *et al.* 1991; Raivich *et al.* 1991; Inaishi *et al.* 1992). In contrast, addition of NGF mitigated, at least partially, trauma-induced increases in immediate early gene protein cJUN (Gold *et al.* 1993); and peptides galanin (GAL), neuropeptide tyrosine (NPY), vasoactive intestinal peptide (VIP) and cholecystokinin (CCK) (Verge *et al.* 1995). The ability of NGF to differentially regulate peptide expression (figure 2) and downregulate cJUN in injured sensory neurons, supports an involvement of NGF in suppression of cJUN and injury-associated peptides in the intact

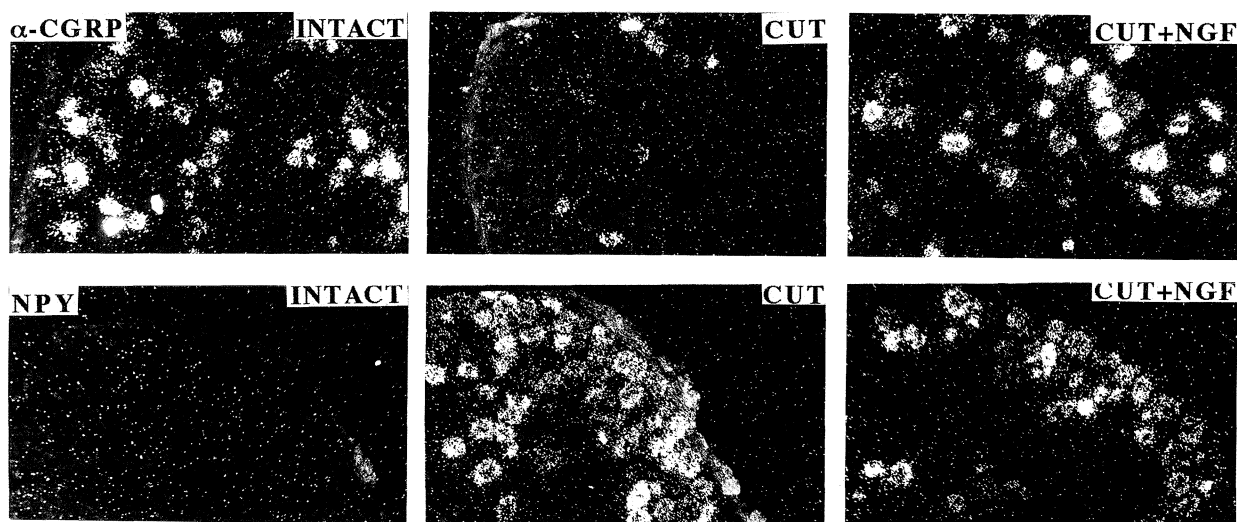


Figure 2. Differential influence of exogenous NGF on neuropeptide expression. Dark-field photomicrographs of L5 DRG sections (from the same animal series) processed for *in situ* hybridization using ³⁵S-labelled oligonucleotide probes to detect α -CGRP (top row) and NPY (bottom row) mRNA and qualitatively demonstrate the ability of delayed intrathecal infusion of NGF ($125\text{--}250\ \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}\ \text{h}^{-1}$) to injured neurons to both positively and negatively influence mRNA expression (Verge *et al.* 1995). In intact DRG many neurons express α -CGRP while few if any express NPY mRNA. Two weeks after injury, neuronal expression of α -CGRP is downregulated while NPY is heterogeneously upregulated in injured neurons. Infusion of NGF for 7 days, 2 weeks after injury is effective in counteracting the axotomy-induced decrease in α -CGRP mRNA expression and mitigating the increase in NPY expression such that approximately one half fewer neurons now exhibit detectable hybridization signal for this peptide. Magnification $\times 57$.

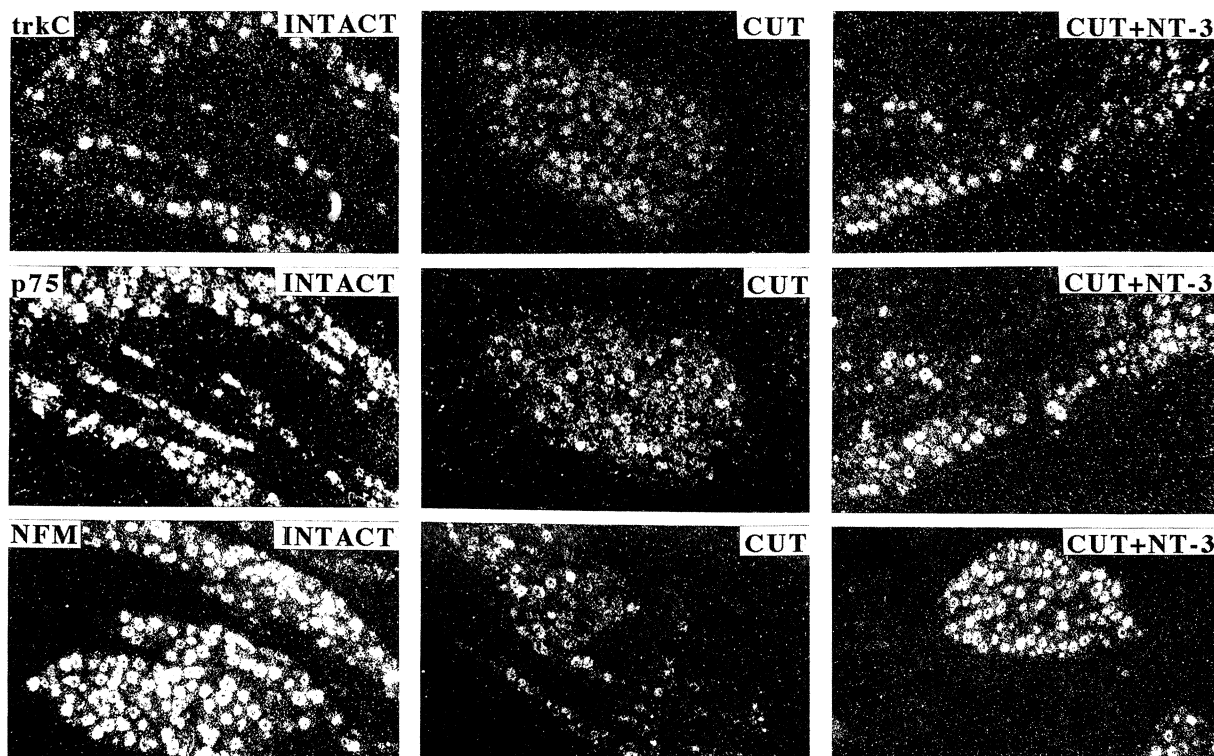


Figure 3. Ability of exogenous NT-3 to regulate NFM, p75 and trkC expression in injured lumbar sensory neurons (Gratto *et al.* 1994, 1995). Dark-field photomicrographs of 6 μm L5 DRG sections (all from the same animal series, p75 and trkC are adjacent sections) processed for *in situ* hybridization to detect mRNA as indicated in upper left of each row. In intact DRG NFM, p75 and trkC are abundantly and heterogeneously expressed. Two weeks after injury, neuronal expression of all three messages is downregulated. Intrathecal infusion of NT-3 ($600 \text{ ng } \mu\text{l}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$) for 7 days, 2 weeks after injury is effective in counteracting the axotomy-induced decrease in a subpopulation of the remaining injured neurons, quantitation of which is shown in figure 4. Magnification $\times 30$.

state, with the post-trauma upregulation of these proteins being a consequence of inadequate supply of retrogradely transported NGF.

The capacity of NGF to counteract effects of axotomy appears selective for the subpopulation of NGF receptor-bearing neurons. In support, NGF does not appear to influence injury-induced decreases in expression of the peptide somatostatin (SOM), which was predicted, as somatostatinergic neurons neither display NGF high-affinity binding sites, nor express trkA mRNA (Verge *et al.* 1989*a*, 1995). A further example of the specificity of NGF's actions is the ability of NGF to modulate NFM and p75 mRNA levels after injury (Verge *et al.* 1990*a*, 1992). In normal DRG, expression of NFM mRNA is not correlated with NGF binding, but strongly correlated to neuronal volume. Thus, although approximately 15% of intact DRG neurons are medium to large in size, express abundant NFM mRNA and are NGF-responsive, there are an additional 25% which are also medium to large in size but do not display NGF high-affinity binding sites. Similarly, although a positive correlation exists between number of NGF high-affinity binding sites and expression of p75 mRNA in the 40% of DRG neurons which are NGF-responsive, many additional neurons, presumably responsive to another neurotrophin(s), also express moderate to high levels of p75. Sciatic nerve transection results in a dramatic downregulation of both p75 and NFM expression. This loss can be reversed by NGF infusion, but is apparent only in

neurons displaying high-affinity NGF receptors and, therefore, presumably responsive to the ligand. These studies indicate that the expression of NGF high-affinity receptors, as well as unknown cell-specific factors allowing expression of the marker, are required for the NGF-rescue effect to be observed (Verge *et al.* 1990, 1992).

3. NT-3 COUNTERACTS AXOTOMY-INDUCED CHANGES IN SENSORY NEURONS

Axotomized neurons that are not NGF-responsive presumably respond, via their receptors, to other trophic factors. This hypothesis was recently tested for NT-3. *In situ* hybridization experiments indicate that 30–35% of intact adult DRG neurons strongly display hybridization signal for trkC, whereas another 10% express low levels of trkC mRNA (Karchewski *et al.* 1995*a*). Expression is detected in some small neurons, but primarily in medium to large sized neurons (McMahon *et al.* 1994; Karchewski *et al.* 1995*a*; Wetmore & Olson 1995; Wright & Snider 1995) believed to function in proprioception.

The influence of NT-3 on p75 and NFM mRNA concentrations in injured neurons can be demonstrated by delayed intrathecal infusion of NT-3, but is not readily apparent in uninjured neurons. This is because both markers are not only expressed at moderate to abundant levels in trkC-positive neurons, but are detectable in many additional neurons (figure 4).

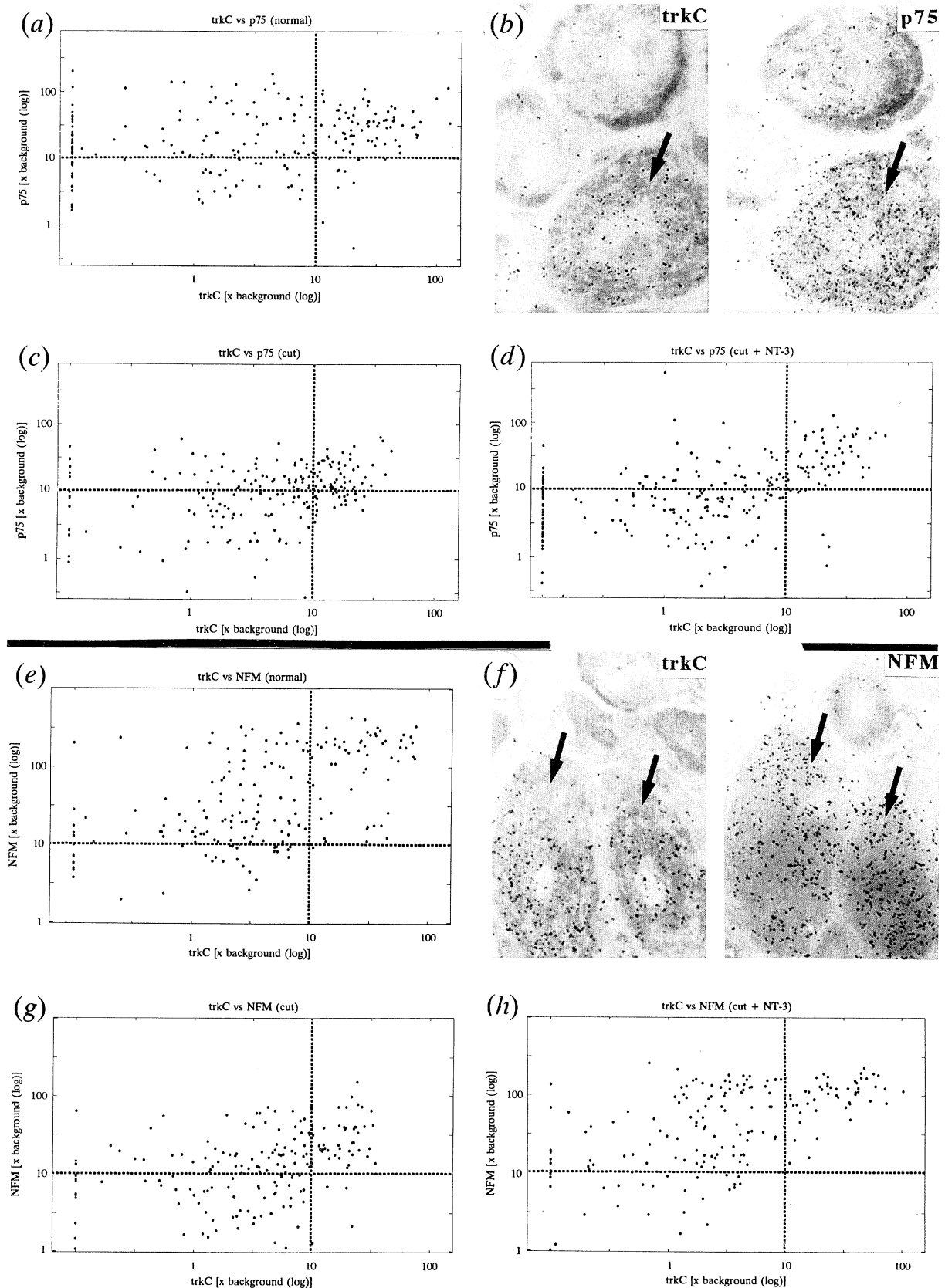


Figure 4. Quantification of data illustrated in figure 3. Scatterplots of labelling indices of 200–300 individual identified neurons in adjacent 6 μ m thick sections of L5 DRG processed for either *trkC* (x axis, logarithmic scale), *p75* (y axis, logarithmic scale) or *NFM* (y axis, logarithmic scale) *in situ* hybridization, to depict the relation between the two mRNAs examined in the upper (*a–d*) and lower series (*e–h*). Labelling index refers to the ratio of silver grain density over neuronal cytoplasm to grain density over areas of the neuropil devoid of positive hybridization signal. The left upper (*a, e*) and left lower (*c, g*) plots of each series pertain to left and right L5 DRG of a rat, with 3 week right sciatic nerve transection. The right lower plots of each series (*d, h*) describe the right L5 DRG of a rat with sciatic

Proximal sciatic nerve axotomy results in down-regulation of *trkC*, *p75* and *NFM* mRNA expression as previously reported (Verge *et al.* 1990, 1992), which appears to be partially counteracted by delayed NT-3 infusion (Gratto *et al.* 1994, 1995; figure 3). Because NT-3 (at concentrations outside physiological ranges) has been shown *in vitro* to interact with *trk* receptors other than *trkC* (Soppet *et al.* 1991), it is important to determine whether *p75* or *NFM* mRNA modulation by NT-3 occurs in neurons not expressing *trkC*. Figure 4 (quantitative analysis of data in figure 3) indicates, that in NT-3 infused axotomized animals, abundant *p75* or *NFM* message is, with the exception of some neurons, colocalized in neurons displaying detectable *trkC* hybridization signal. Thus, as for NGF, multiple signals appear involved in regulation of neuronal phenotype by NT-3, including cell-specific factors in addition to the presence of the appropriate neurotrophin receptor. Further quantitative analysis of recent data demonstrating the ability of NT-3 to differentially regulate peptide and *cjun* mRNA levels (Gratto *et al.* 1994, 1995) will help confirm whether the restriction and specificity of NT-3's actions (at the concentrations used) is confined to that subpopulation of neurons expressing *trkC*.

4. MOLECULAR MECHANISMS UNDERLYING REGULATION OF PHENOTYPE BY NEUROTROPHINS IN INJURED DRG NEURONS

Reduction in the retrograde supply of peripherally derived neurotrophins is not the only signal responsible for alterations in neuronal function and phenotype observed after axotomy (Richardson & Lu 1994). In an apparently carefully orchestrated temporal and spatial pattern, alterations in intraganglionic, endoneurial and target expression of neurotrophins and cytokines occur. An adequate supply to the injured neurons of the correct trophic molecules to prevent cell death, regulate regeneration programmes and restore intact phenotype is probably necessary if functional recovery is expected. Chronic sciatic nerve transection results in a heterogenous, rapid and transient increase (2–4 days) in the concentrations of BDNF and interleukin-6 (IL-6) mRNA in neurons of the corresponding DRG (Karchewski *et al.* 1995*b*; Murphy *et al.* 1995), the former remaining slightly elevated in the case of crush injury (Ernfors *et al.* 1993; Sebert & Shooter

1993). There is also post-axotomy increased retrograde transport of ciliary neurotrophic factor (CNTF) and leukemia inhibitory factor (LIF) to the neurons, correlated with enhanced expression of LIF in proximal and distal segments of the crushed nerve and increased extracellular CNTF at the lesion site, despite a decrease in synthesis in the degenerating nerve (Friedman *et al.* 1992; Sendtner *et al.* 1992; Seniuk *et al.* 1992; Curtis *et al.* 1993, 1994). In addition to their potential role in survival, the axotomy-induced availability of the cytokine-related neurotrophic molecules and BDNF may serve to differentially modulate neuropeptide expression. Indeed, CNTF and LIF antagonize the effects of NGF on neuropeptide expression in sensory neurons *in vitro* (Mulderdy 1994). It remains to be determined which other cellular programmes are altered.

In contrast to the injury-associated cytokines, whose actions and expression implicate them in regeneration, a clear role for neurotrophins in enhancing regeneration programmes is neither understood nor supported by experimental evidence (Diamond *et al.* 1987, 1992). Despite this, expression of NGF, BDNF and NT-4/5 are upregulated in peripheral nerve degenerating distal stump, and NT-3 mRNA levels remain detectable (Heumann *et al.* 1987; Meyer *et al.* 1992; Funakoshi *et al.* 1993). However, treatment of injured neurons with exogenous NGF or NT-3 (as described in this paper), alters the phenotype of responsive neurons so that they now more closely approximate the intact state, not the regenerating. After successful regrowth, regenerating axons presumably have access to neurotrophins which are produced in denervated target tissues and may assist in reestablishing normal phenotype (Funakoshi *et al.* 1993; Mearow *et al.* 1993).

Finally, recent evidence that systemic injection of NGF significantly increases DRG BDNF levels within 24 h (Apfel *et al.* 1994), prompted us to investigate the cellular source of this enhanced expression and determine whether regulation of one neurotrophin by another also occurs in injured neurons.

Figure 5 demonstrates that infusion of NGF for 1 week, 2 weeks after axotomy, results in dramatic upregulation in both the number and intensity of BDNF hybridization signal in intact neurons, with a more modest upregulation in injured neurons, the patterns of which coincide closely with *trkA* mRNA expression on the adjacent section. The consequences of upregulation in BDNF expression by NGF are not known, although it is likely to exert both paracrine and

nerve transection 3 weeks previously and NT-3 intrathecal infusion for the last week. Dashed lines divide the plots into quadrants where the upper right one contains data points representing neurons moderately to heavily labelled for both markers. In the normal DRG, approximately 32% and 30% of neurons fall into this category for *trkC* & *p75* (*a*), or *trkC* & *NFM* (*e*) mRNA expression respectively; the number of heavily labelled neurons is markedly reduced by sciatic nerve transection for both sets of markers (*c*, *g*), but partially restored by NT-3 infusion (*d*, *h*). However, NT-3 infusion does not appear to counteract the downregulation of *p75* or *NFM* mRNA in neurons that do not express detectable *trkC* mRNA and therefore, are presumably not NT-3 responsive. Upper right of each series (*b*, *f*)- photomicrographs of *trkC* (left) and *p75* or *NFM* (right) *in situ* hybridization on adjacent sections of L5 DRG depicting neurons (arrows) ipsilateral to lesion which now display abundant *trkC* and *p75* (*b*) or *trkC* and *NFM* (*f*) mRNA hybridization signal after NT-3 infusion. Magnification $\times 720$.

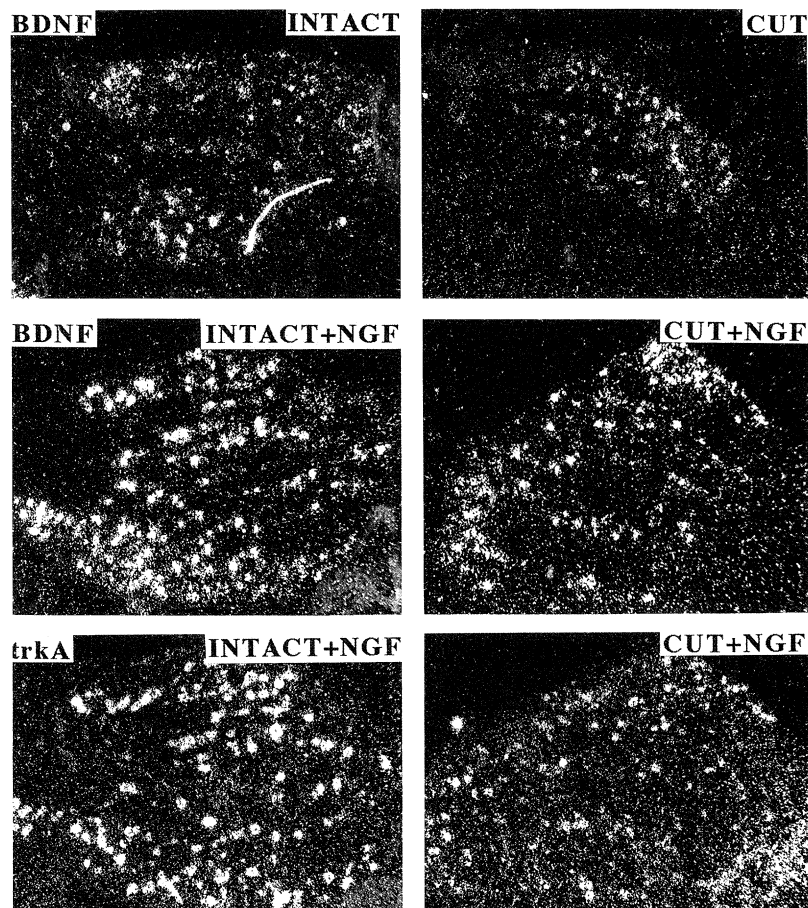


Figure 5. Upregulation of BDNF expression in intact and injured neurons by exogenous NGF. Dark-field photomicrographs of 5 μm L5 DRG sections (all from the same animal series) processed for *in situ* hybridization (Verge *et al.* 1995) to detect mRNAs as indicated at the top of each row. In intact DRG, BDNF mRNA expression is localized to a subpopulation of neurons of varying sizes. Three weeks after injury, the intensity and distribution of neurons expressing BDNF is not discernibly altered from that of the intact state. However, infusion of NGF for 1 week, 2 weeks after unilateral transection of the sciatic nerve results in a dramatic upregulation in both the number and intensity of hybridization signal detecting BDNF mRNA in intact neurons and a more modest upregulation in injured neurons, the patterns of which coincide closely with that of trkA mRNA expression on the adjacent section. Magnification $\times 30$.

autocrine affects (see papers by A. L. Acheson & R. M. Lindsay, this volume); the former potentially on local interneurons in the substantia gelatinosa which express full length trkB receptors (V. M. K. Verge, unpublished observations). Unlike NGF, NT-3 did not appear to influence BDNF expression (K. A. Gratto & V. M. K. Verge, unpublished observations), however, Rush *et al.* (1994) recently reported that exogenous BDNF enhanced levels of NT-3-like immunoreactivity in injured hypoglossal motor neurons. It is not known what other trophic factors are regulated by neurotrophins, but this phenomenon has important implications in understanding the complexity of downstream effects if these molecules are therapeutically applied.

5. CONCLUSIONS AND PERSPECTIVES

Results discussed here support roles for NGF and NT-3 in selectively maintaining or restoring many

aspects of the differentiated phenotypes associated with the intact state in subpopulations of responsive adult DRG neurons after pathological insult. In this capacity, they hold promise for treatment of peripheral neuropathies (see papers by P. Anand and D. R. Tomlinson, this volume). However, more studies are required to fully understand the complexity of the regulation of mature phenotype by neurotrophins and their role in axonal growth, because an upset in the delicate balance of neurotrophic molecules necessary for the desired response can lead to undesirable consequences, such as the hyperalgesic response elicited by NGF (see papers by S. B. McMahon and C. Woolf this volume).

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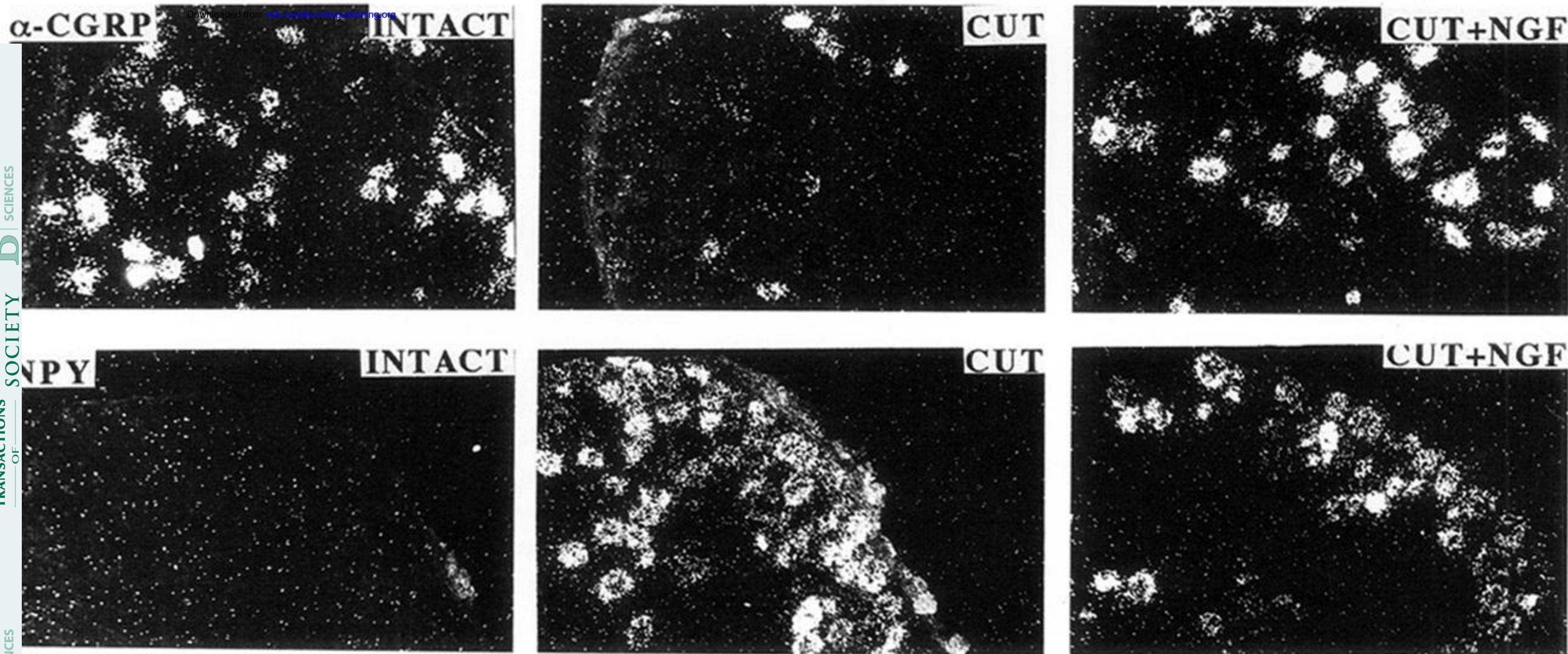


Figure 2. Differential influence of exogenous NGF on neuropeptide expression. Dark-field photomicrographs of L5 DRG sections (from the same animal series) processed for *in situ* hybridization using ^{35}S -labelled oligonucleotide probes to detect α -CGRP (top row) and NPY (bottom row) mRNA and qualitatively demonstrate the ability of delayed intrathecal infusion of NGF ($125\text{--}250\ \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}\ \text{h}^{-1}$) to injured neurons to both positively and negatively influence mRNA expression (Verge *et al.* 1995). In intact DRG many neurons express α -CGRP while few if any express NPY mRNA. Two weeks after injury, neuronal expression of α -CGRP is downregulated while NPY is heterogeneously upregulated in injured neurons. Infusion of NGF for 7 days, 2 weeks after injury is effective in counteracting the axotomy-induced decrease in α -CGRP mRNA expression and mitigating the increase in NPY expression such that approximately one half fewer neurons now exhibit detectable hybridization signal for this peptide. Magnification $\times 57$.

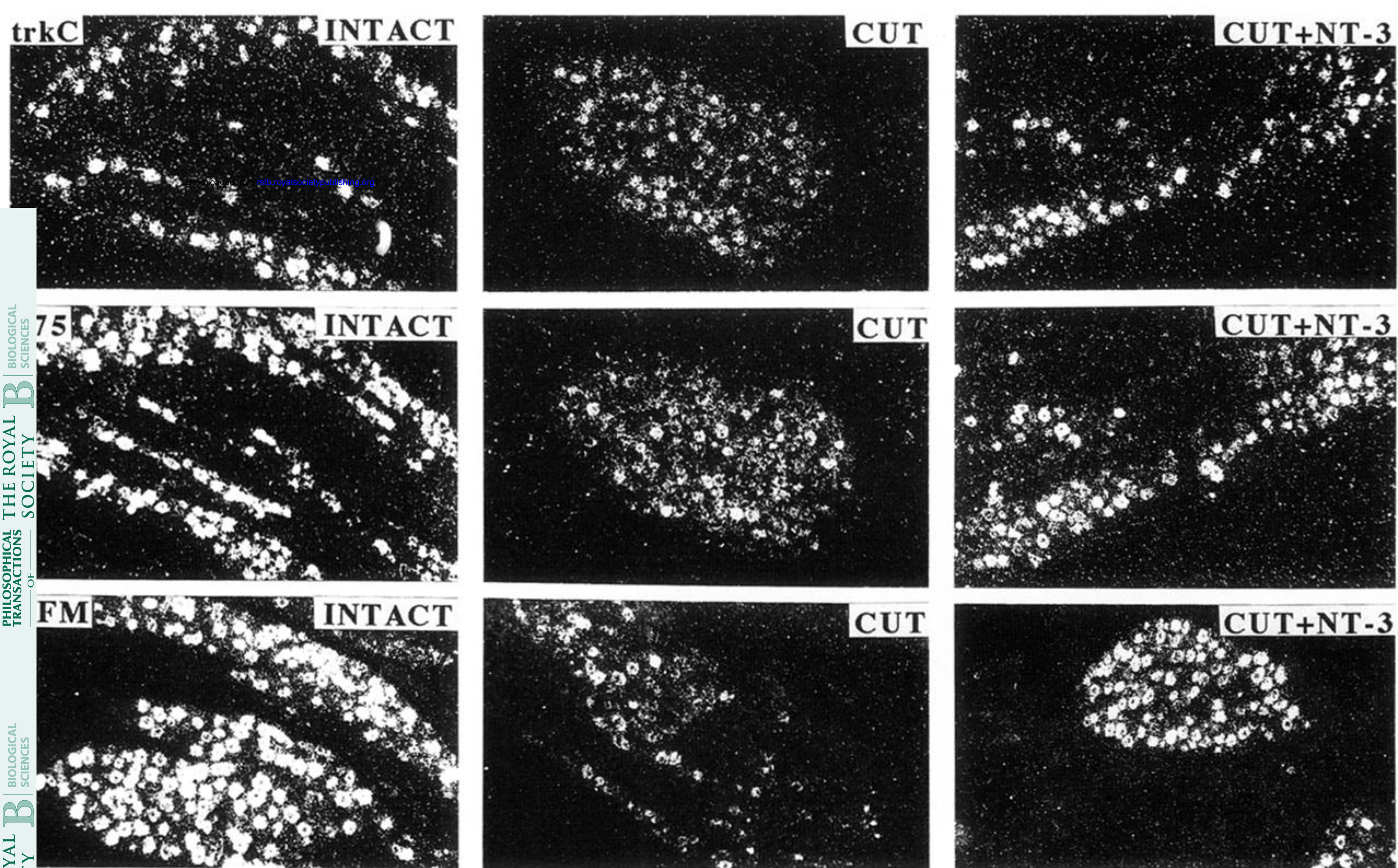


Figure 3. Ability of exogenous NT-3 to regulate NFM, p75 and trkC expression in injured lumbar sensory neurons (Gratto *et al.* 1994, 1995). Dark-field photomicrographs of 6 μm L5 DRG sections (all from the same animal series, p75 and trkC are adjacent sections) processed for *in situ* hybridization to detect mRNA as indicated in upper left of each row. In intact DRG NFM, p75 and trkC are abundantly and heterogeneously expressed. Two weeks after injury, neuronal expression of all three messages is downregulated. Intrathecal infusion of NT-3 ($600 \text{ ng } \mu\text{l}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$) for 7 days, 2 weeks after injury is effective in counteracting the axotomy-induced decrease in a subpopulation of the remaining injured neurons, quantitation of which is shown in figure 4. Magnification $\times 30$.

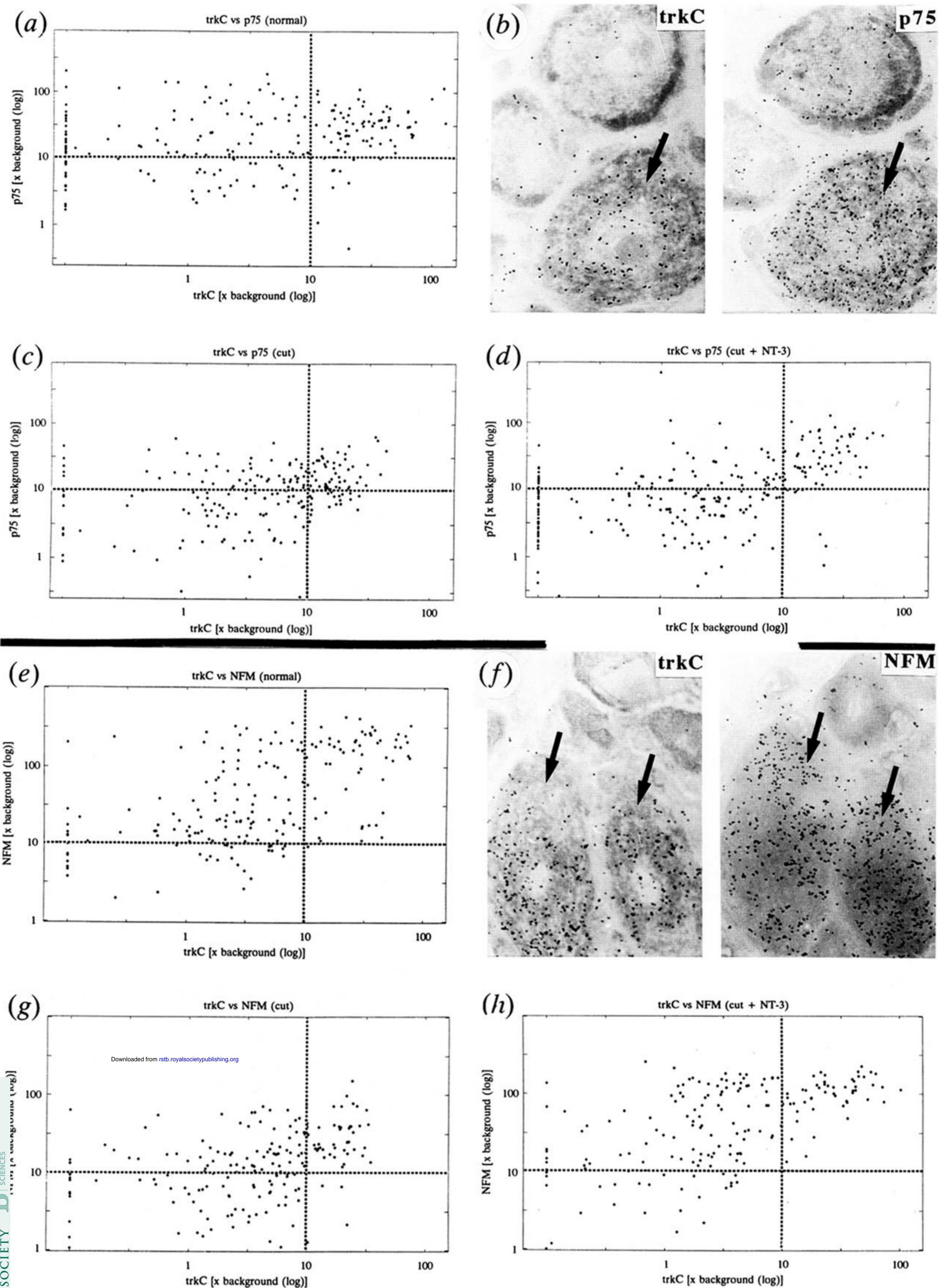


Figure 4. Quantification of data illustrated in figure 3. Scatterplots of labelling indices of 200–300 individual identified neurons in adjacent 6 μm thick sections of L5 DRG processed for either trkC (x axis, logarithmic scale), p75 (y axis, logarithmic scale) or NFM (y axis, logarithmic scale) *in situ* hybridization, to depict the relation between the two mRNAs examined in the upper (a – d) and lower series (e – h). Labelling index refers to the ratio of silver grain density over neuronal cytoplasm to grain density over areas of the neuropil devoid of positive hybridization signal. The left upper (a , e) and left lower (c , g) plots of each series pertain to left and right L5 DRG of a rat, with 3 week right sciatic nerve transection. The right lower plots of each series (d , h) describe the right L5 DRG of a rat with sciatic nerve transection 3 weeks previously and NT-3 intrathecal infusion for the last week. Dashed lines divide the plots into quadrants where the upper right one contains data points representing neurons moderately to heavily labelled for both markers. In the normal DRG, approximately 32% and 30% of neurons fall into this category for trkC & p75 (a), or trkC & NFM (e) mRNA expression respectively; the number of heavily labelled neurons is markedly reduced by sciatic nerve transection for both sets of markers (c , g), but partially restored by NT-3 infusion (d , h). However, NT-3 infusion does not appear to counteract the downregulation of p75 or NFM mRNA in neurons that do not express detectable trkC mRNA and therefore, are presumably not NT-3 responsive. Upper right of each series (b , f)- photomicrographs of trkC (left) and p75 or NFM (right) *in situ* hybridization on adjacent sections of L5 DRG depicting neurons (arrows) ipsilateral to lesion which now display abundant trkC and p75 (b) or trkC and NFM (f) mRNA hybridization signal after NT-3 infusion. Magnification $\times 720$.

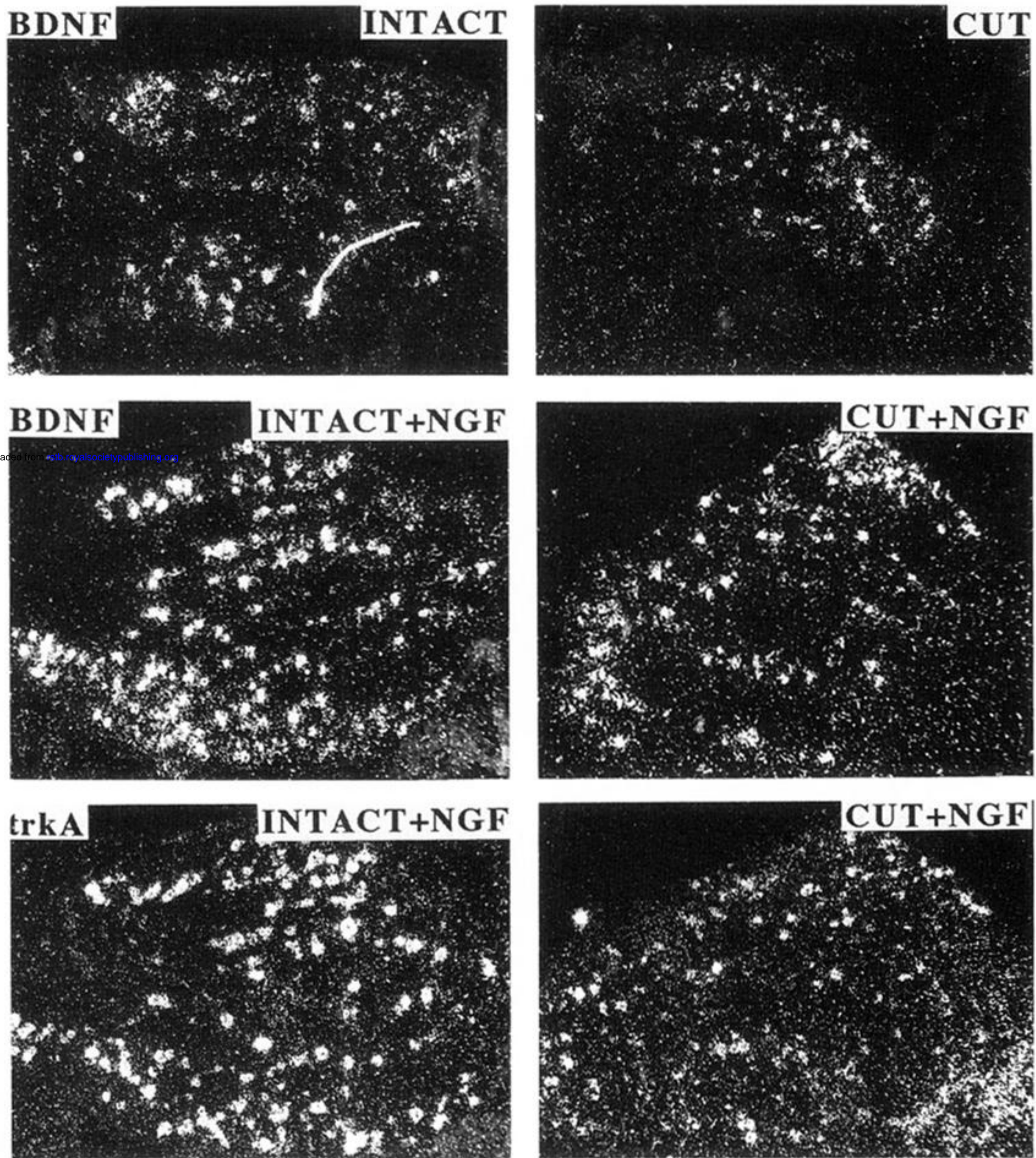


Figure 5. Upregulation of BDNF expression in intact and injured neurons by exogenous NGF. Dark-field photomicrographs of 5 μ m L5 DRG sections (all from the same animal series) processed for *in situ* hybridization (Merger *et al.* 1995) to detect mRNAs as indicated at the top of each row. In intact DRG, BDNF mRNA expression is localized to a subpopulation of neurons of varying sizes. Three weeks after injury, the intensity and distribution of neurons expressing BDNF is not discernibly altered from that of the intact state. However, infusion of NGF for 1 week, 2 weeks after unilateral transection of the sciatic nerve results in a dramatic upregulation in both the number and intensity of hybridization signal detecting BDNF mRNA in intact neurons and a more modest upregulation in injured neurons, the patterns of which coincide closely with that of trkA mRNA expression on the adjacent section. Magnification $\times 30$.