

The serotonin system in autism

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The serotonin system has been implicated as a factor in some cases of autism since the finding in 1961 of elevated serotonin (5-hydroxytryptamine) levels in the blood of patients with autism. This has been clarified as elevation in the platelet content of serotonin. Subjects with elevated whole blood serotonin levels have been shown to have elevated platelet serotonin transport into platelets and decreased serotonin 5-HT₂ receptor binding. Most individuals with autism who are treated with potent serotonin transporter inhibitors have a reduction in ritualistic behavior and aggression. Reduction of central nervous system serotonin, induced by acute tryptophan depletion, causes a worsening of stereotyped behavior. Recent developments in the molecular biology of serotonin receptors are reviewed.

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Abbreviations

CNS central nervous system
5-HT 5-hydroxytryptamine
LSD lysergic acid diethylamide

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Although the function of serotonin (5-hydroxytryptamine [5-HT]) in the central nervous system is still being clarified, various studies have indicated an important role for serotonin in central nervous system (CNS) development, social behavior, sleep, aggression, anxiety, and affective regulation. Therefore, it is not surprising that serotonin has been the most intensively studied neurochemical in autism over the past three decades. Recent advances in pharmacology, molecular biology, and genetics have increased our knowledge of the serotonin system and hold out the promise of the development of improved pharmacologic treatment for at least some aspects of autism, ritualistic behaviors and aggression.

Hyperserotonemia

In 1961, Schain and Freedman [1] reported elevation of whole blood serotonin levels (hyperserotonemia) in patients with autism. A series of studies were performed to test the hypothesis that increased blood serotonin levels indicated a toxic metabolic accumulation of serotonin. A similar hypothesis was supported for the contemporary finding of phenylketonuria. However, the hypothesis that hyperserotonemia in autism was a reflection of toxic levels of serotonin was not supported. In the process of testing this hypothesis, several possible artifacts, including diet, were excluded [2,3], and the finding of hyperserotonemia in at least 25% of individuals with autism was confirmed.

An assay for platelet-poor plasma serotonin developed by Anderson *et al.* [4] revealed that more than 99% of whole blood serotonin is contained in platelets. Use of this assay revealed that when whole blood serotonin levels were elevated, platelet-poor plasma ultrafiltrate serotonin levels were not elevated in subjects with autism [5]. Because serotonin is both actively transported into platelets and released from platelets, either an increase in serotonin transport into platelets or a decrease in the release of serotonin from platelets would lead to an increased steady-state level of serotonin in platelets.

From a technical perspective, direct measurement of platelet serotonin levels is very difficult, requiring several steps that introduce error, including destruction of platelets, release of serotonin from platelets, or size-dependent and shape-dependent yield of platelets. Review of platelet serotonin studies suggests less consistency in findings when platelets are directly studied by centrifugal separation. Given the technical limitations and the demonstration that virtually all the serotonin in blood

is stored in platelets [4,5] whole blood serotonin and platelet serotonin are essentially interchangeable, and the most accurate method for measuring platelet serotonin levels is to measure it in whole blood. For this review, the two will be considered as synonymous.

Familiality of platelet serotonin

Several studies have shown a positive correlation of platelet serotonin levels between probands with autism and their parents and siblings [6–9]. McBride *et al.* (Paper presented at 34th Annual Meeting of the American Academy of Neuropsychopharmacology, San Juan, 1995) recently presented results from a study that confirmed the importance of controlling for race and ethnicity in studies of platelet serotonin [10]. Black and Hispanic subjects had higher levels of platelet serotonin than did white subjects. There is no evidence for a physiologic consequence of this difference, but the finding does prompt the reassessment of many previous studies. For example, it was reported in one study that there was a correlation between whole blood serotonin levels of mothers and fathers of probands with autism [8]. In a subsequent study, this finding was not confirmed [9]. The correlation in the earlier study was accounted for by two “outlier” couples who were black. In contrast, the findings of positive correlations of serotonin between probands and their mothers were present when white subjects were considered separately.

Interestingly, subjects with autism who had a sibling with autism had higher platelet serotonin levels than subjects who did not have a sibling with autism [11]. Dominant or recessive inheritance, rather than oligogenic inheritance, is more likely in families with two autistic children than in families with only one such child. Thus, this finding suggests that hyperserotonemia may be an indicator of autism with a higher risk of sibling recurrence. It would be useful to study families without a proband with autism or attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder to see whether there is general heritability of platelet serotonin levels, independent of diagnosis. Platelet serotonin levels have been demonstrated to be stable after the age of 9 years [12], supporting the hypothesis that platelet serotonin levels are under genetic regulation. Because platelets are fragments of multinucleated megakaryocytes, genetic regulation may occur at the level of the megakaryocyte. Studies of megakaryocytes are obviously not practical. However, it is possible to study genes for regulation of the serotonin transporter and 5-HT_{2A} receptors, because both are expressed in platelets and on pre- and postsynaptic neurons at serotonergic synapses [13,14].

Studies of the mechanism of increased platelet serotonin

A few studies have examined platelet serotonin function in subjects with elevated platelet serotonin levels.

Platelet ³H-lysergic acid diethylamide (LSD)-labeled 5-HT₂ receptor binding was decreased in adults with autistic disorder when compared with binding in normal adult control subjects [15]. There was a relatively strong but insignificant ($n = 9$) negative correlation between 5-HT₂ receptor binding sites and platelet serotonin levels. In another study, children with autistic disorder did not differ from their parents or siblings when ¹²⁵I-spiroperidol-labeled platelet 5-HT₂ receptor binding was studied [16]. There was no difference between subjects with normal and high platelet serotonin levels (Cook, Unpublished data). A more recent study found that ³H-LSD-labeled platelet 5-HT₂ receptor binding was lower in hyperserotonemic first-degree relatives of autistic children when compared with normoserotonemic relatives [17]. The difference in outcome between these two studies may be related to several factors, including a putative point mutation in the 5-HT_{2A} receptor altering affinity for agonists but not antagonists [18]. The two studies were performed during different seasons (February vs July–September). LSD has been shown to bind with high affinity to transfected 5-HT_{5A} [19], 5-HT₆ [20], and 5-HT₇ [21] receptors. It is also possible that there was binding to platelet serotonin receptors other than the 5-HT_{2A} receptor by LSD, but not spiroperidol, under the conditions used (Table 1).

A correlation was also found between platelet serotonin levels and rate of platelet serotonin transport [17]. The increase in transport is interesting in light of the therapeutic effect of potent serotonin transporter inhibitors on ritualistic behaviour and irritability in autism (*see* “Pharmacology”).

Relationship of elevated platelet serotonin levels to clinical subgroups

No consistent pattern between symptoms of autism and elevated whole blood serotonin levels has emerged [22], but these studies have not used reliable instruments to assess autistic symptoms, such as the Autism Diagnostic Interview [23] or the Autism Diagnostic Observation Schedule [24]. In particular, future studies of serotonin levels in autism should focus on symptoms pertaining to restricted and repetitive interests or aggression, because these symptoms respond partially to treatment with potent serotonin transporter inhibitors. (*See* “Pharmacology”).

Pharmacology

The most compelling evidence for the relationship between serotonin levels and autism is the efficacy of antidepressant medications that potently inhibit serotonin transport. Potent serotonin transporter inhibitors include the tricyclic antidepressant clomipramine and the selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors fluoxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, and paroxetine. Potent serotonin transporter inhibitors have been shown to reduce rituals

Table 1

| Serotonin receptors | | | | | |
|---------------------|---------------------|---|---------------------|---------------|---|
| Receptor | Signal transduction | Notes | Amino acid variants | Chromosome | Studies |
| 5-HT _{1A} | ↓ AC | 8-OH-DPAT; autoreceptor; stimulates neurite branching | 128V, G22S | 5 | Sikich <i>et al.</i> [44], Fargin <i>et al.</i> [49], Goldman <i>et al.</i> [50], Nakhai <i>et al.</i> [51], Erdmann <i>et al.</i> [52] |
| 5-HT _{1B} | ↓ AC | = 5-HT _{1DB} aggression in knockout mice; autoreceptor | F124C | 6q13 | Ramoz <i>et al.</i> [53], Hartig <i>et al.</i> [54], Lappalainen <i>et al.</i> [55], Saudou <i>et al.</i> [56], Nöthen <i>et al.</i> [57] |
| 5-HT _{1D} | ↓ AC | = 5-HT _{1Dα} trigeminal ganglia, autoreceptor homologous pseudogene | | 1p35 | Hartig <i>et al.</i> [54], Ozaki <i>et al.</i> [58] |
| 5-HT _{1E} | ↓ AC | = S31 | | 6q14-15 | Goldman <i>et al.</i> [50], McAllister <i>et al.</i> [59], Levy <i>et al.</i> [60] |
| 5-HT _{1F} | ↓ AC | = 5-HT _{1EB} = MR77 | | 3p | Lovenberg <i>et al.</i> [61], Cook (Unpublished data) |
| 5-HT _{2A} | ↑ PLC | formerly 5-HT ₂ ; sequence identical brain and platelet [14]; LSD | T25N, A439V, H444Y | 13q14.1 | Cook <i>et al.</i> [14], Julius <i>et al.</i> [62], Ozaki <i>et al.</i> [63], Erdmann <i>et al.</i> [64] |
| 5-HT _{2B} | ↑ PLC | = 5-HT _{2F} | | 13q14.2 | |
| 5-HT _{2C} | ↑ GC | = 5-HT _{1C} ; sudden death in knockout mice; choroid plexus; alternative splice variant | C23S | 2q36.3-2q37.1 | Schmuck <i>et al.</i> [65], Le Coniat <i>et al.</i> [66] |
| 5-HT ₃ | Ion channel | Ondansetron; splice variants | | Xq21 | Julius <i>et al.</i> [67], Lappalainen <i>et al.</i> [68], Tecott <i>et al.</i> [69], Kaufman <i>et al.</i> [70] |
| 5-HT ₄ | ↑ AC | Zacopride; two splice variants—5-HT _{4L} and 5-HT _{4S} ; human 5-HT _{4L} 16 amino acids shorter than rat, autoreceptor | | 11q23.1-q23.2 | Uetz <i>et al.</i> [71], Miyake <i>et al.</i> [72], Weiss <i>et al.</i> [73] |
| 5-HT _{5A} | ↓ AC | = REC17; colocalized with mouse reeler mutant and human and human holoprosencephaly 3, LSD | | 5q | Adham <i>et al.</i> [74], Gerald <i>et al.</i> [75], Cook (Unpublished data) |
| 5-HT _{5B} | ↓ AC | | | 7q36.1 | Matthes <i>et al.</i> [19], Schanen <i>et al.</i> [76] |
| 5-HT ₆ | ↑ AC | = MR22; pseudogene in humans | | 2q11-q13 | Matthes <i>et al.</i> [19], Grailhe <i>et al.</i> [77] |
| 5-HT ₇ | ↑ AC | = St-B17; clozapine, clomipramine, LSD | | 1p35-36 | Kohen <i>et al.</i> [78] |
| | | Antagonists: eg, clozapine, risperidone; agonists: LSD, 8-OH-DPAT; also 80%–90% homologous pseudogene | P279L | 10q | Bard <i>et al.</i> [21], Gelernter <i>et al.</i> [79], Goldman <i>et al.</i> [80] |
| 5-HTT | Transporter | = SLC 6A4 | | 17q11.1-q12 | Gelernter and Freimer [81] |

AC—adenylyl cyclase; GC—guanylyl cyclase; LSD—lysergic acid diethylamide; 8-OH-DPAT—8-hydroxydipropylaminotetralin; PLC—phospholipase C.

associated with anxiety and to reduce aggression in more than 50% of children and adults with autism in open [25–29] and double-blind trials [30,31••]. These drugs have also been used successfully to treat self-injurious behavior and stereotypic movements in patients with mental retardation without autism [29,32]. The acute effect of administration of these drugs in healthy adults is a reduction in basolateral limbic system (amygdala and hippocampus) metabolism [33]. Chronic administration in rodents leads to an increase in serotonergic neurotransmission through downregulation of presynaptic terminal autoreceptors [34].

Preliminary evidence of the efficacy of risperidone has been reported in autism [35,36]. The effects appear to be similar to those of potent serotonin transporter inhibitors but are more rapid in onset (Cook *et al.*, Unpublished observation). Risperidone is an antagonist at dopamine D₂ and D₄ receptors [37]. It is also an antagonist at 5-HT_{2A} and 5-HT₇ receptors [38]. Development of more specific antagonists may allow study of the possibility that the rapid action of risperidone in reducing rituals in autism may be due to antag-

onism of presynaptic 5-HT₇ autoreceptors, which would lead to a more rapid onset of increased serotonin neurotransmission than potent inhibition of the presynaptic serotonin transporter. In addition, absence of D₂ receptor antagonism is likely to reduce or eliminate the risk of tardive dyskinesia.

Further evidence of serotonin involvement in autism comes from a pharmacologic study using tryptophan depletion. Tryptophan depletion leads to reduced serotonin synthesis, release, and neurotransmission. McDougale *et al.* [39••] found exacerbation of behaviors such as whirling, flapping, pacing, banging and hitting self, rocking, toe walking, and anxiety in more than 50% of adults with autism after tryptophan depletion. This finding is consistent with the finding of a decreased ratio of the level of serum tryptophan to the level of large neutral amino acids in idiopathic infantile autism relative to control subjects [40•]. This decreased ratio would lead to a lower basal level of serotonin synthesis, vulnerability to tryptophan depletion, and response to pharmacologic manipulations that increase serotonin neurotransmission (Fig. 1).

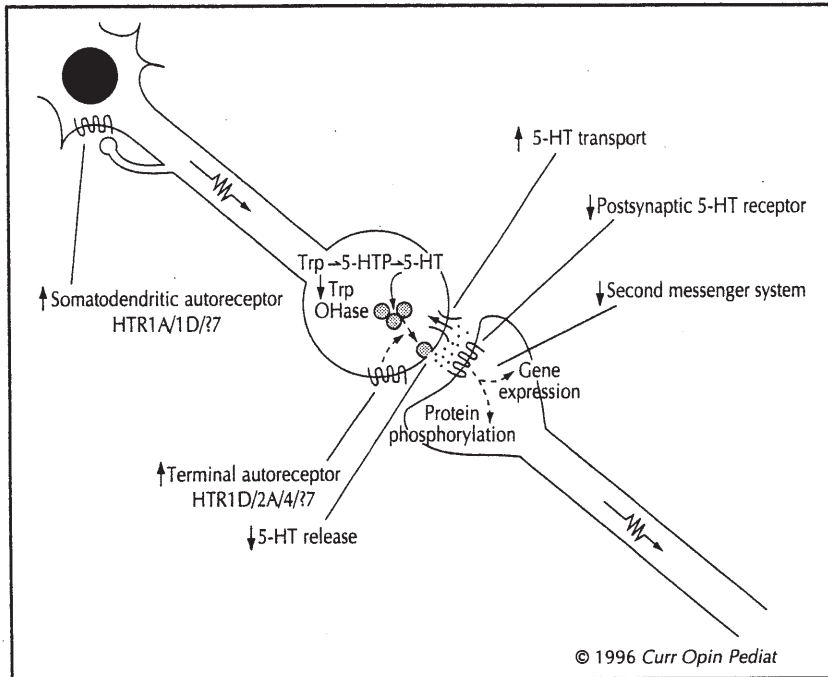


Fig. 1. Several possible ways that functional activity of a serotonin (5-HT) synapse may be reduced in autism, leading to behavioral problems such as the performance of rituals, anxiety and aggression in childhood and adolescence, and abnormal central nervous system development. Decreased 5-HT signaling may occur through decreased 5-HT synthesis, increased somatodendritic 5-HT autoreceptor sensitivity (HTR1A, HTR1D, or possibly HTR7) or terminals (HTR1D, HTR2A, HTR4, or possibly HTR7), decreased 5-HT release, increased 5-HT transport (reuptake) into the presynaptic terminals, decreased postsynaptic 5-HT receptor sensitivity, or decreased signal transduction in the postsynaptic neuron. In each case of an arrow demonstrating the possible mechanism of reduced 5-HT function in autism, pharmacologic strategies would be designed in the opposite direction. For example, potent 5-HT transporter inhibitors such as clomipramine and fluvoxamine decrease 5-HT transport (reuptake). This model also demonstrates the advantage of development of autoreceptor antagonists, because the regulation of serotonergic neurons leads to net decreased 5-HT function if synaptic 5-HT exceeds a level sufficient to trigger autoreceptors, leading to a narrow therapeutic window for potent 5-HT transporter inhibitors. 5-HTP=5-hydroxytryptophan; OHase=hydroxylase; Trp=tryptophan.

Molecular biology of serotonin receptors and the serotonin transporter

Several recent developments in the molecular biology of serotonin receptors are relevant in the study of autism. Past studies of 5-HT₂ receptors must be reconsidered, because the 5-HT_{2B}, 5-HT_{5A}, 5-HT₆, 5-HT₇ receptors have been cloned. Table 1 lists much of the information about serotonin receptors and the serotonin transporter that may be of relevance in developing a better understanding of the role of the serotonin system in autism. The expression of the 5-HT_{2A} receptor and the serotonin transporter in autism provides the most logical connection between platelet findings and the relevant CNS mechanism. Because pharmacologic evidence suggests that more than 50% of patients with autism have an abnormality in serotonergic neurotransmission, it is possible that one or more of these mechanisms (decreased postsynaptic 5-HT₂ receptor binding or increased serotonin transporter function) may lead to platelet findings, but other possible specific mechanisms may not be expressed in platelet changes (*eg*, increased 5-HT_{1A} autoreceptor sensitivity).

Role of serotonin in central nervous system development

Serotonin may have a role in the developmental neuropathologic abnormalities found in the hippocampus, amygdala, and cerebellum in autistic disorder [41]. As a specific example, decreased neurite branching has been observed in the hippocampus in autism [42]. Stimulation of the 5-HT_{1A} receptor by 8-hydroxydipropylaminotetralin (and possibly 5-HT₇ receptor [43]) decreases neurite branching during development of the nervous system [44]. In addition, the 5-

HT_{1A} receptor has neurotrophic effects in the hippocampus [45]. The 5-HT_{1A} receptor is also expressed in the fetal and neonatal but not the adult human cerebellum [46]. The 5-HT_{2A} receptor is expressed in the hippocampus and cerebellum [47]. The 5-HT₆ receptor is expressed in the amygdala, hippocampus, and cerebellum [48].

Our laboratory has recently studied expression of serotonin receptor in an amygdala cDNA library and found a pattern of serotonin receptor mRNA of the order 5-HT_{1A} > 5-HT₄ = 5-HT_{5A} = 5-HT₇ > 5-HT_{2C} > 5-HT₃ > 5-HT_{1D} > 5-HT_{1E} > 5-HT_{1B} = 5-HT_{1F} = 5-HT_{2A} = 5-HT_{2B} = 5-HT₆ (Cook *et al.*, Unpublished observation). The serotonin transporter is expressed at all presynaptic serotonin terminals.

Conclusions

Convergent findings from behavioral neuroscience, platelet, pharmacologic, and genetic studies indicate the involvement of serotonin in many of the symptoms of autistic disorder. Over the next decade, as the molecular biology of serotonin-related proteins is elucidated and medications are developed using this knowledge, it will be possible to assist people with autism to more effectively control the disabling symptoms of aggression, anxiety, and inflexible rituals and routines. As the molecular biology of the role of serotonin in CNS development is elucidated, it may become possible to treat or prevent the development of the social and cognitive dysfunction associated with autism through rational pharmacologic or dietary intervention.

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