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REVIEW Activity-dependent dendritic secretion of brain-derived neurotrophic factor modulates synaptic plasticity

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Abstract

During the last decade, a major role has emerged for brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) in the translation of intrinsic or sensory-driven synaptic activities into the neuronal network plasticity that sculpts neural circuits. BDNF is released from dendrites and axons in response to synaptic activity and modulates many aspects of synaptic function. Although the importance of BDNF in synaptic plasticity has been clearly established, direct evidence for a specific contribution of the activity-dependent dendritic secretion of BDNF has been difficult to obtain. This review summarizes recent advances that have established specific effects of postsynaptic BDNF secretion on synapse efficacy and development. We will also discuss these data in the light of their functional and pathological significance.

Introduction

The activity-dependent regulation of synaptic efficacy is one of the mechanisms that enable neuronal networks to develop appropriate connections or form memories. Modifications of synaptic efficacy also contribute to the progression of pathological conditions. One strategy developed by many neurons to modulate synapse formation and function is to release substances from their cell bodies and dendrites in response to synaptic activity. This target-derived messenger strategy enables the delivery of appropriate amounts of messenger 'on demand' according to the level and/or pattern of postsynaptic neuronal activity. The messenger can be released locally or globally to control the refinement and strength of synaptic connections. This strategy further allows the postsynaptic target to act on both active and inactive synapses.

Brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) belongs to the neurotrophin family of structurally related proteins originally identified as a crucial target-derived neuronal survival factor (Barde et al., 1982). Since this pioneering observation, in addition to its role in promoting the proliferation and differentiation of neurons, BDNF has been shown to contribute to synaptic plasticity through both functional and structural changes (Lu et al., 2005; Gottmann et al., 2009). Meanwhile, several studies using the over-expression of tagged BDNF have shown that this neurotrophin is released from neurons in an activitydependent manner (Lessmann & Brigadski, 2009). These findings have led to the hypothesis that BDNF acts as a target-derived messenger in synaptic plasticity and development. However, both dendrites (Kolarow et al., 2007) and axons (Kohara et al., 2001) release BDNF and in many early studies it was difficult to determine the source of release. Direct evidence for a role of the activitydependent dendritic secretion of BDNF in synaptic plasticity and development has been obtained only recently in studies in which the postsynaptic expression or release of BDNF has been selectively eliminated or enhanced.

The mechanism of BDNF release, processing and action has been reviewed previously (Lu *et al.*, 2005; Gottmann *et al.*, 2009) and is beyond the scope of this article. Here, we summarize current advances in establishing the impact that postsynaptic BDNF secretion has on synapse development and function both during development and in the adult central nervous system. We will also highlight recent evidence suggesting a sub-cellular postsynaptic compartmentalization of postsynaptic BDNF secretion. Finally we will consider the physiological role of activity-dependent postsynaptic BDNF secretion.

Brain-derived neurotrophic factor is an activity-dependent and target-derived messenger of synaptic plasticity

To be considered as a target-derived messenger of synaptic plasticity, a molecule should satisfy at least two criteria. The first criterion that must be satisfied is that the appropriate machinery for synthesis and release of the molecule is present in the postsynaptic neuron. A dendritic localization of BDNF mRNA transcripts has been reported previously (Chiaruttini *et al.*, 2008). Moreover, alterations of dendritic mRNA targeting lead to a local decrease in dendritic BDNF level (An *et al.*, 2008; Chiaruttini *et al.*, 2009), demonstrating a local dendritic synthesis of BDNF. The sub-cellular distribution of endogenous BDNF has been difficult to study because of the low level of the protein. However, a patchy dendritic and axonal distribution was reported for endogenous BDNF in dissociated neuronal cultures where detection is more sensitive (Brigadski *et al.*, 2005; Adachi *et al.*, 2005).

The over-expression of green fluorescent protein-tagged BDNF (BDNF-GFP) in neuronal culture has been used to obtain evidence regarding its sub-cellular localization. Although the expression of tagged protein may have altered binding to sorting partners, the distribution of BDNF-GFP is similar to that observed for endogenous

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BDNF, i.e. a dendritic and axonal patchy distribution (Hartmann et al., 2001; Adachi et al., 2005). In the dendrites, BDNF-GFP is packaged into secretory granules of the regulated pathway of secretion (Gottmann et al., 2009), thus suggesting that dendritic secretion of BDNF can occur. This was confirmed using BDNF-GFP expression combined with time-lapse fluorescence imaging in dissociated neuronal cultures. Several different synaptic signals leading to the Ca2+dependent dendritic release of BDNF have been directly identified in neuronal cultures (Fig. 1): (i) tetanic stimulation of presynaptic glutamatergic fibres and subsequent activation of ionotropic glutamatergic receptors (Hartmann et al., 2001); (ii) prolonged depolarization of the postsynaptic neurons (Magby et al., 2006); (iii) action potentials that propagate backwards into the dendrites (Kuczewski et al., 2008b; Matsuda et al., 2009); and (iv) activation of metabotropic glutamate (Canossa et al., 2001) and y-aminobutyric acid (GABA) (Fiorentino et al., 2009) receptors. This approach was also extremely useful to study the intracellular signalling cascades that mediate BDNF secretion (Lessmann et al., 2003; Lessmann & Brigadski, 2009). Depending on the location of the release site and/or stimuli used, several sources of Ca2+ contribute to BDNF release: N-methyl-Daspartate (NMDA) channels, voltage-dependent Ca2+ channels and intracellular Ca²⁺ stores (Fig. 1). Such diversity in the Ca²⁺ source leading to BDNF secretion again supports the idea that multiple modalities of neuronal BDNF secretion can coexist.

The expression of fluorescent protein-tagged BDNF has also been used to demonstrate the activity-dependent axonal secretion of BDNF. In a seminal study, Kohara *et al.* (2001) used a micropipette to transfect individual cells with a plasmid encoding either BDNF-GFP or a nonreleasable red fluorescent protein. Only one neuron per culture was



FIG. 1. Mechanism of dendritic BDNF secretion and synaptic triggers. BDNF secretion requires a postsynaptic rise in intracellular Ca^{2+} concentration. This Ca^{2+} rise can result from an influx through voltage-dependent Ca^{2+} channels (VDCCs) or *N*-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) receptors upon membrane depolarization, or from the activation of internal Ca^{2+} stores (Inositol trisphosphate receptor, IP₃-R) following the activation of metabotropic glutamatergic (mGlu) receptors. The initial Ca^{2+} rise can be amplified by Ca^{2+} -induced Ca^{2+} secretion via ryanodine receptors (Rya-Rs). Ca^{2+} activates Calcium/Calmodulin-dependent kinase II (CamKII) leading to the fusion of secretory granules. Basal levels of Protein kinase A (PKA) activation 'gate' BDNF secretion. The activation of metabotropic GABA_B receptors also triggers a secretion of BDNF through an as yet unknown mechanism. The postsynaptic release of BDNF is inhibited by a membrane trafficking protein, synaptotagmin-IV (syt-IV). PLC, phospholipase C.

injected. At 2 days after the transfection, the authors found that the axon of the BDNF-GFP/red fluorescent protein-expressing neuron was surrounding newly fluorescent BDNF-GFP-positive soma. The number of these newly BDNF-GFP-positive soma was reduced in cultures treated with the BDNF scavenger tropomyosin-related kinase (type B) (TrkB)-IgG or when the level of synaptic activity was decreased with tetrodotoxin. Thus, BDNF is secreted from the axons in an activitydependent manner and can move trans-synaptically to postsynaptic neurons. In a recent study using BDNF tagged with a pH-sensitive form of the green fluorescent protein, the pHluorin, Matsuda et al. (2009) found that brief spiking activity in cultured hippocampal neurons triggered transient fusion pore opening, followed by immediate retrieval of BDNF-containing granules in the axon. In contrast, the same spiking activity induced a complete granular fusion in the dendrites, suggesting that the postsynaptic cell is the main source of secreted BDNF. A similar complete dendritic secretion and partial axonal secretion of BDNF-pHluorin has been observed when the neuronal cultures were depolarized with high potassium concentration (Dean et al., 2009). Matsuda et al. (2009) further showed that a brief period of theta burst stimulation, a protocol frequently used to trigger long-term potentiation at glutamatergic synapses, was highly effective for inducing dendritic secretion of BDNF but was ineffective at the axon, again suggesting a predominant dendritic secretion. This issue is, however, not yet clear. Indeed, the activity-dependent presynaptic release of endogenous BDNF has been revealed in rat hippocampal organotypic slice cultures. Thus, theta burst stimulation of Schaffer collaterals or mossy fibres in the presence of glutamatergic and GABAergic receptor antagonists evokes a postsynaptic current in, respectively, CA1 (Amaral & Pozzo-Miller, 2007) and CA3 (Li et al., 2010) pyramidal neurons that was sensitive to the BDNF scavenger TrkB-IgG. Moreover, both the presynaptic secretion of BDNF from the Schaffer collaterals (Zakharenko et al., 2003) and postsynaptic expression in the CA1 pyramidal neurons (An et al., 2008) have been reported to be crucial for the induction of theta burst stimulationinduced long-term potentiation in the CA1 hippocampus.

At this time, few studies have investigated the intracellular pathways involved in the axonal secretion of neurotrophins (Wang *et al.*, 2002; Dean *et al.*, 2009; Matsuda *et al.*, 2009). These studies, however, have revealed some similarities between axonal and dendritic neurotrophin secretion. In both cases, an influx of Ca^{2+} (through N-type voltagedependent Ca^{2+} channels or L-type voltage-dependent Ca^{2+} channels for axonal and dendritic secretion, respectively) (Wang *et al.*, 2002; Matsuda *et al.*, 2009) and intracellular Ca^{2+} stores and CaMKII activity (Wang *et al.*, 2002) are needed. Moreover, both secretions are prevented by tetanus toxin treatment (Wang *et al.*, 2002) and negatively regulated by synaptotagmin-IV (Dean *et al.*, 2009).

The second criterion that must be satisfied to consider a molecule as a target-derived messenger is that modifications of the synthesis or release of the molecule from the postsynaptic neuron have biological effects. Single cell over-expression or knock-out of BDNF in dissociated neuronal or organotypic slice cultures are tools used to test this criterion. Neurons over-expressing BDNF within cortical organotypic slice cultures exhibit a more complex dendritic arborization when compared with control neurons (Horch et al., 1999; Wirth et al., 2003). Using the same approach, Horch & Katz (2002) further showed that BDNF released from dendrites and soma of 'donor' BDNF-expressing cells acts directly on nearby 'recipient' neurons to increase their dendritic branching These effects were prevented by TrkB-IgG (i.e. extracellular scavengers of released BDNF), showing that released BDNF can act in an autocrine and paracrine manner to modulate dendritic development. A similar approach was used to show that BDNF released from postsynaptic target neurons can increase the presynaptic expression of Glutamate decarboxylase 65 (GAD65) and GABAergic synaptic activity (Ohba *et al.*, 2005; Singh *et al.*, 2006). In contrast, when a small number of BDNF-deficient neurons is created by single-cell gene knock-out in organotypic slice cultures of visual cortex, the number of GAD65-positive terminals established on these neurons as well as miniature GABAergic activity are reduced (Kohara *et al.*, 2007). A similar decrease in the number of presynaptic GABAergic terminals and level of miniature GABAergic synaptic activity has been observed after a selective deletion of the gene promoter IV that controls the activity-dependent synthesis of BDNF (Hong *et al.*, 2008).

Glutamatergic as well as GABAergic synaptic transmission is modulated by the postsynaptic secretion of BDNF. Altered spine morphology and a selective impairment of dendritic glutamatergic long-term potentiation are observed in mutant mice in which the level of dendritic BDNF protein was selectively reduced (An et al., 2008). A loss-of-function strategy also demonstrates that BDNF released from one target neuron can selectively modify the rate of vesicle exocytosis from presynaptic fibres contacting that neuron. Thus, in a study aimed at determining the function of synaptotagmin-IV, Dean et al. (2009) found that synaptotagmin-IV colocalizes with dendritic and axonal BDNF-containing granules and negatively regulates BDNF secretion. Using a coculture assay, in which 5% of the cultured neurons were derived from synaptotagmin-IV knock-out mice and the remaining 95% from wild type, the authors showed that BDNF released from a target neuron could control presynaptic vesicle dynamics (Dean et al., 2009).

Another tool to investigate the activity-dependent postsynaptic release of endogenous BDNF is to monitor functional or morphological changes as an assay for endogenous BDNF release after stimulations of single cells. This approach provides information on endogenous BDNF secretion and action. Using this approach, it has been shown that back-propagating action potentials in CA3 pyramidal neurons induce a BDNF-dependent potentiation of GABAergic synapses in newborn hippocampal slices (Gubellini et al., 2001; 2005). A BDNF-dependent persistent enhancement of GABA release at developing mossy fibres has also been reported when the stimulation of these fibres is coincident with postsynaptic action potentials generated in the target CA3 hippocampal neurons (Sivakumaran et al., 2009). As this plasticity is prevented in neurons loaded with 1,2-bis (o-aminophenoxy)ethane-N,N,N',N'-tetra-acetic acid, a chelator Ca²⁺, by L-type voltage-dependent Ca²⁺ channel blockers, or in the presence of extracellular TrkB-IgG, it was proposed that the Ca2+-dependent release of native BDNF from the target pyramidal neurons is required to trigger GABAergic plasticity (Fig. 2). Using a similar approach, Magby et al. (2006) have demonstrated that a tonic depolarization of one single hippocampal neuron in culture elicits a potentiation of glutamatergic transmission. The induction of this potentiation is prevented by a postsynaptic disruption of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ rise or BDNF release (Fig. 2). Finally, Tanaka et al. (2008) have shown that repetitive pairing of postsynaptic spikes with glutamate uncaging triggers a longlasting structural spine plasticity prevented by the BDNF scavenger TrkB-IgG (Fig. 2). Moreover, although bath-applied BDNF does not by itself alter spine morphology, it results in long-lasting spine plasticity when paired with glutamate uncaging. Thus, exogenous BDNF is able to replace postsynaptic spikes, supporting the idea that a postsynaptic secretion of BDNF during the spike-timing protocol is required to induce long-lasting changes in spine morphology.

Collectively, these observations show that BDNF fulfils the criteria to qualify as a target-derived messenger and that, once released from the target, BDNF can modulate many aspects of synapse development and function.



FIG. 2. Multiple sites of postsynaptic BDNF secretion and consequences on glutamatergic and GABAergic synapses. (1) A prolonged postsynaptic depolarization elicits a calcium-dependent postsynaptic release of BDNF that enhances glutamate release probability acting on presynaptic TrkB receptors (Magby et al., 2006). (2) Synaptic activation of AMPA and/or N-methyl-Daspartate (NMDA) receptors elicits a calcium-dependent postsynaptic secretion of BDNF that potentiates glutamatergic synaptic transmission (Hartmann et al., 2001; An et al., 2008). BDNF secreted after the synaptic activation of AMPA and/or NMDA receptors can also potentiate GABAergic synaptic transmission acting of postsynaptic (Kuczewski et al., 2008a) or presynaptic (Liu et al., 2007) TrkB receptors. (3) Pairing presynaptic back-propagating action potentials (bAPs) with NMDA receptor activation triggers a calcium-dependent postsynaptic release of BDNF leading to a selective postsynaptic spine enlargement (Tanaka et al., 2008). (4) bAPs paired (Sivakumaran et al., 2009) or not (Gubellini et al., 2005) with presynaptic stimulation trigger a BDNFdependent potentiation of GABAergic synaptic transmission. (5) Activation of metabotropic GABAB receptor elicits a calcium-dependent postsynaptic release of BDNF that promotes the formation of functional perisomatic GABAergic synapses (Fiorentino et al., 2009).

Postsynaptic compartmentalization of brain-derived neurotrophic factor synthesis, secretion and actions

The regulated activity-dependent postsynaptic secretion of BDNF can therefore modulate multiple processes that are important for synaptic plasticity in the developing and adult central nervous system. However, BDNF diffusion is very limited due to its sticky nature (the isoelectric point of BDNF is roughly 10, so that the molecule is positively charged at physiological pH and, hence, strongly interacts with surrounding negatively charged molecules). The presence of full or truncated TrkB receptors, which can bind and internalize BDNF, further restricts BDNF diffusion. Therefore, to function biologically, BDNF has to be released near the target. Given the large number of segregated terminals along the somato-dendritic axis, these observations suggest that multiple postsynaptic sites of BDNF secretion coexist. Depending on the pattern of synaptic activity, these multiple sites of release enable BDNF to selectively control the development of different sub-populations of synapses and neurons.

Direct proof of the compartmentally restricted dendritic secretion of BDNF is lacking and awaits real-time imaging of BDNF-GFP release in brain slices. However, different BDNF mRNA transcripts generated by the neurons are targeted to distinct cellular compartments (Chiaruttini et al., 2008; An et al., 2008; Chiaruttini et al., 2009) and in mutant mice, where the dendritic targeting of BDNF mRNA is selectively impaired, long-term potentiation of distal, but not proximal, glutamatergic synapses of hippocampal neurons is impaired (An et al., 2008). Given the important role of BDNF in GABAergic synapse development, it will be interesting in future experiments to investigate the fate of dendritic and perisomatic GABAergic synaptic transmission in these mutant mice. In mutant mice in which the activity-dependent expression of BDNF has been selectively down-regulated, the development of cortical GABAergic innervation is selectively impaired, with no effect on the number of glutamatergic synapses or the extent of dendritic arborization (Hong et al., 2008). Therefore, the selective local targeting and expression of BDNF transcripts along the somato-dendritic axis might be a mechanism used by neurons to deliver BDNF protein to specific sub-sets of synapses.

In agreement with a sub-cellular compartmentalization of postsynaptic BDNF release, time-lapse fluorescence imaging studies have shown that the synaptic activation of ionotropic glutamatergic (Hartmann et al., 2001) or metabotropic GABA_B (Fiorentino et al., 2009) receptors can induce a postsynaptic secretion of BDNF in neuronal cultures (Fig. 2). Interestingly, mutant mice that display a complete loss of functional GABA_B receptors exhibit a BDNFdependent reduction in perisomatic GABAergic synaptic innervation, whereas dendritic GABAergic and glutamatergic synaptic transmission are not affected (Fiorentino et al., 2009). Given that the synaptic activation of AMPA receptors induces localized dendritic BDNF release (Hartmann et al., 2001) and that secreted BDNF controls the formation of functional glutamatergic synapses (Walz et al., 2006) and spine-head morphology (Tanaka et al., 2008), glutamate and GABA must be playing a self-regulating role in excitatory and inhibitory synapse development, respectively, through a local postsynaptic release of BDNF. Further experiments will be required to confirm this.

Glutamate-induced BDNF dendritic release can control the strength of nearby GABAergic synapses (Liu *et al.*, 2007; Kuczewski *et al.*, 2008a) (Fig. 2). Such a mechanism might be important for the formation of functionally balanced local dendritic excitatory and inhibitory inputs. Alternatively, the action potentials triggered by a suprathreshold excitatory postsynaptic potential could provide the depolarization necessary for BDNF release at distant GABAergic synapses (Kuczewski *et al.*, 2008b; Matsuda *et al.*, 2009) (Fig. 2). Indeed, because the action potentials and associated Ca²⁺ rise travel backward from the soma to invade the dendritic tree, BDNF delivered under these circumstances as well as the actions mediated by BDNF might not be restricted to specific synapses.

Therefore, in contrast to presynaptic release, which is confined to individual stimulated synapses, postsynaptic release provides a means to deliver BDNF locally or globally depending on the pattern or level of synaptic activity. It should be mentioned, however, that presynaptic activity concomitant with BDNF secretion can gate the BDNF-TrkB signalling cascade and restrict the action of BDNF to specific inputs (Fig. 2). Accordingly, bath-applied BDNF, at a concentration that by itself has no effect, resulted in marked enlargement in spine-heads when paired with un-caging of glutamate at single spines in hippocampal slice cultures (Tanaka *et al.*, 2008). This effect of BDNF was selective for the stimulated spines, not being observed on neighbouring spines. Similarly, in the developing rat visual cortex (Inagaki *et al.*, 2008) and *Xenopus* tectum (Liu *et al.*, 2007), exogenous application of BDNF, that by itself did not affect baseline GABAergic activity, induced a selective potentiation of stimulated GABAergic pathways.

Physiopathological implications of dendritic brain-derived neurotrophic factor synthesis and release

Most of the interest in BDNF secretion and actions stems from the possibility that it might play a role in brain development or function. With this in mind, the conditioning protocol used to trigger BDNF secretion deserves particular attention. Compelling evidence shows that physiological conditioning protocols can trigger dendritic secretion of BDNF. As few as 10 back-propagating action potentials are sufficient to trigger the release of endogenous dendritic BDNF in neuronal cultures (Kuczewski et al., 2008b). In the developing hippocampus, ongoing synaptic activity is characterized by spontaneous patterned network-driven activity termed giant depolarizing potentials in vitro (Ben-Ari et al., 1989) and sharp waves in vivo (Leinekugel et al., 2002). When paired with presynaptic Schaffer collateral stimulation, the spontaneous giant depolarizing potentials lead to a persistent and selective increase in the efficacy of the stimulated glutamatergic synapses (Mohajerani et al., 2007). This potentiation involves the activation of presynaptic and postsynaptic TrkB receptors by endogenous BDNF, the activation of the postsynaptic extracellular signal-regulated kinase pathway and is expressed as an increase in presynaptic glutamate release. giant depolarizing potentials have also been proposed to play an instructive role in the development of the hippocampal GABAergic circuit through the activity-dependent secretion of BDNF (Fiorentino et al., 2009). Sensory-driven synaptic activity can also trigger a dendritic secretion of BDNF in vivo. For instance, a BDNF-dependent potentiation of GABAergic inputs to Xenopus tectal neurons can be induced in vivo by repetitive visual stimuli (Liu et al., 2007).

Although the source of BDNF (dendritic and/or axonal) was not determined, studies show that learning-related activity can drive BDNF release to modify synaptic efficacy in vivo. Thus, the molecular mechanisms underlying the formation of long-term memory in vivo share remarkable similarities with those involved in long-term modifications of glutamatergic synaptic efficacy, an in vitro model of memory formation. The secretion of hippocampal BDNF, and proteolysis of pro-BDNF, appear to be required in vivo for the consolidation of hippocampal-dependent contextual fear memory (Lee et al., 2004; Barnes & Thomas, 2008) and in vitro for the induction of long-term potentiation at hippocampal glutamatergic synapses (Pang et al., 2004). Along the same lines, in mouse models of Alzheimer's disease and in aged primates, BDNF gene delivery in the entorhinal cortex has been reported to improve cognitive performance (Nagahara et al., 2009). Therefore, although further studies are required to clarify the mechanisms involved, these findings provide important evidence that in vivo activity can lead to BDNF secretion.

The physiological significance of the activity-dependent secretion of BDNF has been highlighted by a number of studies showing that a single nucleotide polymorphism in the pro-region of BDNF (val66met) results in a marked decrease in both dendritic BDNF levels and regulated secretion of BDNF (Egan et al., 2003). Such a decrease results, at least in part, from a deficit in dendritic BDNF mRNA trafficking (Chiaruttini et al., 2009). The valine to methionine substitution in the pro-domain also impaired the regulated, but not constitutive, form of BDNF secretion (Egan et al., 2003; Chen et al., 2005). Human subjects carrying the BDNF single nucleotide polymorphism exhibit impairments in hippocampal specific shortterm memory and a higher susceptibility to a variety of neuropsychiatric disorders (Egan et al., 2003). A smaller hippocampal and cortical volume has also been reported in carriers of the BDNF single nucleotide polymorphism (Pezawas et al., 2004). These differences may be related to the role of BDNF in synaptic plasticity and brain development, although it is difficult to establish causality between phenotypic changes and genetic modifications in such studies. A BDNF_{Met} knock-in mouse that mimics the phenotypic hallmarks of humans with BDNF polymorphism was generated (Chen et al., 2006). The dendritic complexity and performance in various behavioural paradigms used to access learning, memory and anxiety are altered in the BDNF_{Met} mice (Chen et al., 2006, 2008). The polymorphism in the BDNF gene therefore represents an important example of the role of secreted neurotrophins in behavioural and cognitive processes.

Conclusions and perspectives

The studies summarized above have established that the activitydependent postsynaptic secretion of BDNF contributes to synapse plasticity and development. Several issues remain to be addressed. For example, although controversial (Matsumoto et al., 2008), some studies have reported that a significant proportion of BDNF is secreted from hippocampal neurons in the pro-form (Bergami et al., 2008; Yang et al., 2009b), converted into mature BDNF by extracellular proteases (Nagappan et al., 2009; Yang et al., 2009b), and that released pro-BDNF is biologically active (Pang et al., 2004; Woo et al., 2005). Endogenous pro-BDNF can also be released from postsynaptic Xenopus myocytes in culture and causes synaptic depression and nerve terminal retraction at the developing neuromuscular junction (Yang et al., 2009a). Thus, an important issue is to determine whether the dendritic release of pro-BDNF and/or mature BDNF also occurs in the central nervous system. Because pro-BDNF and mature BDNF have opposing biological effects on glutamatergic synapses, dendritic morphology and cell survival, addressing this issue will not only advance our basic understanding of BDNF release and actions, but will also have implications for the management of disorders in which BDNF release and signalling are disrupted.

A large number of studies suggest that BDNF can be used for the therapeutic treatment of neurodegenerative diseases or neurological disorders. However, results from preclinical and clinical trials have been largely disappointing or controversial. Strategies have included the delivery of neurotrophins or non-peptidyl small molecules that mimic the biological action of neurotrophins. The most probable weakness of this approach is that such uniform delivery is different from the spatially and temporally restricted activity-dependent secretion of BDNF occurring from multiple releasing sites. To overcome this drawback, it will be interesting in future experiments to discover selective modulators of the different modalities of BDNF secretion and to investigate the effects that these drugs might have on brain development, plasticity and pathology.

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Abbreviations

BDNF, brain-derived neurotrophic factor; BDNF-GFP, green fluorescent protein-tagged brain-derived neurotrophic factor; GABA, γ -aminobutyric acid; TrkB, tropomyosin-related kinase (type B).

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