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Review

Genetic Studies on the Tripartite Glutamate Synapse in the Pathophysiology and Therapeutics of Mood Disorders

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Both bipolar disorder (BD) and major depressive disorder (MDD) have high morbidity and share a genetic background. Treatment options for these mood disorders are currently suboptimal for many patients; however, specific genetic variables may be involved in both pathophysiology and response to treatment. Agents such as the glutamatergic modulator ketamine are effective in treatment-resistant mood disorders, underscoring the potential importance of the glutamatergic system as a target for improved therapeutics. Here we review genetic studies linking the glutamatergic system to the pathophysiology and therapeutics of mood disorders. We screened 763 original genetic studies of BD or MDD that investigated genes encoding targets of the pathway/mediators related to the so-called tripartite glutamate synapse, including pre- and post-synaptic neurons and glial cells; 60 papers were included in this review. The findings suggest the involvement of glutamate-related genes in risk for mood disorders, treatment response, and phenotypic characteristics, although there was no consistent evidence for a specific gene. Target genes of high interest included *GRIA3* and *GRIK2* (which likely play a role in emergent suicidal ideation after antidepressant treatment), *GRIK4* (which may influence treatment response), and *GRM7* (which potentially affects risk for mood disorders). There was stronger evidence that glutamate-related genes influence risk for BD compared with MDD. Taken together, the studies show a preliminary relationship between glutamate-related genes and risk for mood disorders, suicide, and treatment response, particularly with regard to targets on metabotropic and ionotropic receptors.

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INTRODUCTION

In the general population, bipolar disorder (BD) and major depressive disorder (MDD) have a lifetime prevalence of ~4 and 16%, respectively (Kessler *et al*, 2005), and both disorders share a genetic vulnerability (McGuffin *et al*, 2003). Despite the prevalence of mood disorders, available first-line treatment options for these illnesses have shown limited efficacy. The Sequenced Treatment Alternatives to Relieve Depression (STAR*D) study found that one-third of MDD patients do not achieve remission even after four antidepressant trials (Rush *et al*, 2006). Similarly, BD patients remain symptomatically ill about half of the time and experience mostly depressive symptoms despite the use of standard treatments (Judd *et al*, 2002).

In this context, developing novel treatments for mood disorders is crucial. However, a major obstacle to developing

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such treatments is our lack of understanding of the pathophysiology of these disorders and the mechanism of action of effective interventions. Although the literature has focused on the role of monoamines in mood disorders, monoamine-related theories are limited in their ability to explain the underlying pathophysiology of these disorders. For instance, it takes about 2 weeks for antidepressants to improve mood, despite the fact that they affect monoamine levels immediately after treatment begins (Machado-Vieira et al., 2008).

A large body of preclinical evidence has implicated the glutamatergic system in the pathophysiology of mood disorders (Skolnick *et al*, 1996), including in the antidepressant effects of N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) receptor antagonists in animal models (Papp and Moryl, 1994). Evidence also exists for the role of α-amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazolepropionic acid (AMPA), supported by the knockout of the GluA1 subunit as a successful animal model of depression (Chourbaji *et al*, 2008) and the antidepressant properties of genetic ablation of kainate receptor subunit GluK4, also in animal models (Catches *et al*, 2012). Metabotropic glutamate receptors (mGluRs) have also been shown

to regulate mood in several animal models (Witkin et al, 2007).

In addition to this preclinical evidence, human studies have shown that the glutamatergic modulator ketamine effectively reduces depressive symptoms in individuals with MDD or BD, including treatment-resistant patients (Zarate et al, 2006, 2012). Further evidence from postmortem studies shows that mood disorders are associated with expression of the glutamatergic genes GRIA1, GRIA3, GRM3, and GRIK1 (Sequeira et al, 2009). Identifying genes involved in the etiology and pathophysiology of mood disorders may reveal relevant mechanistic pathways that could, in turn, inform novel therapeutic targets. Although some genes have consistently been associated with BD (Craddock and Sklar, 2013), only two associations have been replicated in large MDD samples, namely SIRT1 and LHPP (CONVERGE Consortium, 2015). The lack of consistent replicated results poses both a challenge and an opportunity for investigation.

The extant evidence implicating glutamate genes in mood disorders—drawn largely from genome-wide association studies (GWASs) as well as from candidate gene studies—is inconsistent. For instance, no gene has been replicated in all the available studies to date, and associations in opposite directions have been reported for some single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs; Menke *et al*, 2008; Pu *et al*, 2013). Furthermore, genetic studies of glutamate-related genes have never been systematically reviewed, which hampers a synthesized view of the field and the identification of replicable targets on the glutamatergic pathway.

This paper provides a critical and systematic review of genetic studies investigating the tripartite glutamatergic synapse in patients with BD and MDD, encompassing specific mood symptoms and phenotypic characteristics, treatment response, and pathophysiology.

The Function of the Tripartite Glutamate Synapse: Pathways and Mediators

Glutamate is ubiquitous in the brain and, because it is crucial to promoting excitatory synaptic transmission (Orrego and Villanueva, 1993), plays a key role in synaptic plasticity and memory. In presynaptic neurons, glutamate is loaded into vesicles by vesicular glutamate transporter (VGLUT) proteins (Figure 1). These vesicles fuse with the presynaptic neuronal membrane by interacting with soluble N-ethylmaleimide-sensitive factor attachment protein receptor (SNARE), and are then released into the synaptic cleft. Sodium channels located in the presynaptic neuronal membrane depolarize the membrane, which also facilitates glutamate release (Lingamaneni et al, 2001). Glutamate acts on ionotropic AMPA, NMDA, and kainate receptors as well as mGluRs, mostly in the postsynaptic neuron. The ionotropic receptors are ligand-gated ion channels that open when an agonist binds to them. Notably, ketamine is thought to act by increasing glutamatergic throughput at the AMPA receptor relative to the NMDA receptor (Maeng et al, 2008).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

This systematic review was conducted according to the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-analyses (PRISMA) statement. Included studies had enrolled participants diagnosed with BD and/or MDD as established by a validated structured diagnostic interview such as the 10th revision of the International Statistical Classification of Diseases (ICD-10) or the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 4th edition (DSM-IV). GWASs, linkage studies, and candidate gene studies in BD or MDD were included that investigated chromosomal regions or SNPs of genes involved in pathways/mediators related to the so-called tripartite glutamate synapse, comprising pre- and post-synaptic neurons and glial cells. The following specific terms were selected for inclusion from recently published non-systematic reviews (Duman, 2014; Machado-Vieira et al, 2009; Mathews et al, 2012; Rudy et al, 2015): 'Vesicular Glutamate Transport Proteins', 'SNARE Proteins', 'Voltage-Gated Sodium Channels', 'Receptors, Metabotropic Glutamate', 'Postsynaptic Density Proteins', 'Receptors, AMPA', 'Receptors, NMDA', 'Receptors, Kainic Acid', 'Glutamate Plasma Membrane Transport Proteins', and 'Glutamic Acid'. A literature search was performed on PubMed and Web of Science databases in March 2016 using the medical subject heading (MeSH) 'Mood Disorders' associated with the other aforementioned MeSH terms.

Studies published in English, French, Spanish, German, or Portuguese were considered for inclusion. Studies with nonoriginal data, postmortem analyses, and case reports were excluded. Studies of samples comprising individuals with multiple psychiatric diagnoses were also excluded from this review unless data for MDD or BD were reported separately.

RESULTS

Two of the authors (RTDS and AAL) screened 763 abstracts for eligibility and reviewed 102 full texts of potentially eligible articles (Figure 2); reference lists in these publications were also reviewed and provided 14 other potential articles of interest. Disagreements regarding inclusion were resolved through consensus with an additional author (RMV). Sixty unique articles met inclusion criteria. Of these, 33 (55%) evaluated only BD, 23 (38%) evaluated only MDD, and four (7%) evaluated both BD and MDD.

Glutamate-Related Genes

Table 1 provides extensive information for all 60 studies, including study design, demographics, diagnosis, genes and proteins identified, and main study findings. Of the 60 papers included in this review, 34 had positive results—that is, the study implicated glutamate-related genes in mood disorders. Eight of these 34 studies (23.5%) were of large samples (>1000 patients), including two GWASs; 19 (56%) were conducted in medium-sized samples (200–1000 patients); and seven (20.5%) were conducted in small samples (<200 patients).

Interestingly, most of the positive findings (18 of 34 studies (53%)) came from studies that analyzed risk for mood disorders, particularly in BD. Twelve of the 34 positive studies (35%) showed an association between risk for BD and glutamate-related genes, and 7 (21%) showed an association between glutamate-related genes and risk for MDD. The influence of the glutamatergic system on treatment response

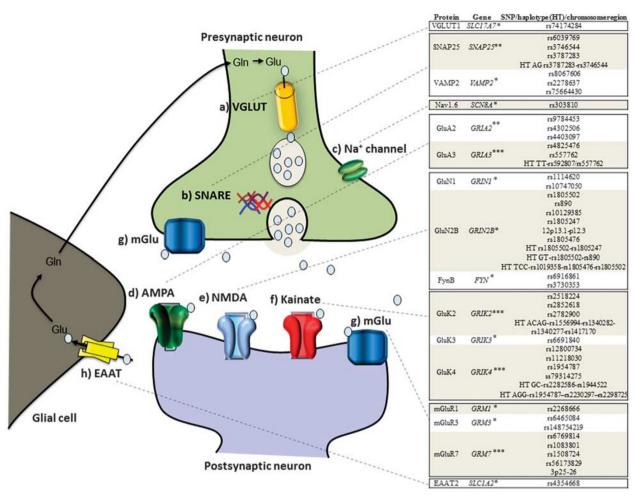


Figure I Glutamatergic pathway (on the left) and gene variants, haplotypes, and chromosome regions positively associated with mood disorders (on the right). Glutamate (Glu) is loaded into vesicles by vesicular glutamate transporter (VGLUT) proteins (a). These Glu vesicles are fused with the presynaptic neuronal membrane through interactions with soluble N-ethylmaleimide-sensitive factor attachment protein receptor (SNARE) proteins to be released to the synaptic cleft (b). Sodium channels located in the presynaptic neuron membrane play a role in regulating Glu release (c). In the postsynaptic neuron, Glu acts on several receptors: ionotropic receptors α-amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazolepropionic acid (AMPA) receptors (d), N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) receptors (e), and kainate receptors (f). Glu also acts on metabotropic glutamate receptors (mGluRs) (g), which are G-protein coupled receptors attached to both the postsynaptic and the presynaptic neurons. The Glu released in the synaptic cleft is cleared by excitatory amino acid transporters (EAAT) (h), to be transformed into glutamine (Gln) in the glial cell. The Gln produced will be transformed into Glu in the neuron. The genes on the right are ranked according to the evidence as high interest (***), moderate interest (***), are least one study with supporting evidence from a large sample (> 1000 patients) and two studies with medium samples (200–1000 patients); moderate interest (***): evidence from one study with a large sample size, but no study with a large sample size, but no study with a large sample size.

was supported by 10 of the 34 positive studies (29%; eight in MDD, two in BD). Eleven of the 34 positive studies (32%; seven in MDD, four in BD) explored the links between phenotypic characteristics and glutamate-related genes.

The variants and regions of those genes showing a positive association with mood disorders are depicted in Figure 1 and Table 1. Specifically, positive evidence was obtained for 16 genes. The importance of these individual findings is highlighted throughout the manuscript, and in the tables and figures, via the following ranking system: high interest (***), moderate interest (**), and low interest (*). Evidence of high interest (***) was supported by at least one study with a large sample sizes (200–1000 patients). Evidence of moderate interest (**) was supported by at least one study with a large sample size but no more than one study of

medium sample size. Evidence of low interest (*) was supported by findings from studies with medium or low sample sizes (<200 patients), but no studies with large sample sizes.

Although to date no specific glutamate-related gene has consistently been associated with mood disorders, below we discuss four genes of high interest. As noted above, an additional 12 genes of moderate and low interest were identified; these are described only in Figure 1 and Table 1. Corroborating evidence from preclinical or postmortem studies is noted throughout the manuscript when extant.

AMPA Receptor

The ionotropic AMPA receptor encompasses several subunits encoded by the *GRIA1-4* genes.

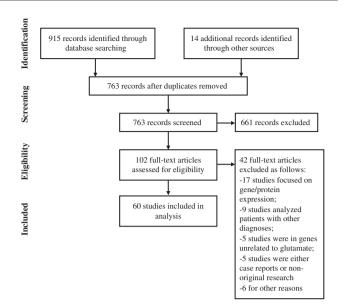


Figure 2 Flowchart showing the identification, screening, election, and inclusion of papers in the review.

GRIA3***. GRIA3 rs4825476 of the gene encoding GluA3 was associated with emergent suicidal ideation following citalopram treatment in a mostly Caucasian sample (78%) of 1915 MDD patients drawn from the STAR*D study (Laje et al, 2007). The same GRIA3 rs4825476 was further associated with suicidal ideation following antidepressant treatment in a German sample of 397 MDD inpatients drawn from the Munich Antidepressant Response Signature (MARS) project; however, these findings implicated a different allele (AA; Menke et al, 2008).

Interestingly, another study found that *GRIA3* rs557762 and *GRIA3* TT HT rs592807-rs557762 were associated with guilt feelings in a subanalysis of 183 Korean MDD females (Myung *et al*, 2012). In a Chinese Han sample of 281 patients with MDD, the *GRIA3* rs502434 and rs3761555 SNPs were also linked to early-onset adverse events and recent negative life stress that influenced treatment outcome, though the analyses did not withstand correction for multiple comparisons (Pu *et al*, 2013). In addition, a family study of 373 Caucasian individuals from 40 BD pedigrees from the US and Israel found no linkage between *GRIA3* and BD (Gécz *et al*, 1999).

It should also be noted that a postmortem study found that levels of the GluA3 subunit of the glutamate receptor encoded by *GRIA3* was significantly downregulated in the hippocampus of MDD subjects (Duric *et al*, 2013).

Kainate Receptor

 $GRIK2^{***}$. GRIK2 encodes a kainate receptor subunit that alters the structure and function of the GluK2 kainate receptor. GRIK2 rs2518224 was associated with suicidal ideation following citalopram treatment in the aforementioned sample of MDD patients (n = 1915) drawn from the STAR*D study that analyzed 68 candidate genes (odds ratio (OR) = 8.23; corrected P < 0.003; Laje $et\ al$, 2007). In a subsequent replication study conducted in a German sample of 397 MDD inpatients who were part of the MARS project,

15 *GRIK2* SNPs were further associated with suicidal ideation following antidepressant treatment; the SNPs with the strongest association with MDD were *GRIK2* rs2852618 (OR = 9.0, uncorrected P = 0.005) and *GRIK2* rs2782900 (OR = 4.3, uncorrected P = 0.007; Menke *et al*, 2008). Another study found that *GRIK2* HT ACAG rs1556994-rs1340282-rs1340277-rs141717 was associated with somatic anxiety in a sample of 241 Korean MDD patients (Myung *et al*, 2012).

GRIK4***. GRIK4 encodes a protein that belongs to the kainate acid-type glutamate receptor GluK4. In a mostly (78%) Caucasian sample (divided into 1199 MDD patients for discovery and 617 for replication), the G allele of GRIK4 rs1954787 was directly associated with both response and remission after citalopram treatment (Paddock et al, 2007). In another Caucasian sample of 627 MDD patients, GRIK4 rs11218030 was associated with treatment resistance (corrected P = 0.025), while the G allele of GRIK4 rs1954787 was linked to the presence of psychotic symptoms (Milanesi et al, 2015). Consistent with the study by Paddock and colleagues (Paddock et al, 2007), antidepressant response in a Chinese Han sample of 281 MDD patients receiving different SSRIs or serotonin norepinephrine reuptake inhibitors (SNRIs) for 6 weeks was directly and inversely associated with the G allele of the GRIK4 rs1954787 SNP and with the A-G-G HT of GRIK4 (rs1954787-rs2230297-rs2298725), respectively (Pu et al, 2013). GRIK4 SNPs analyzed in a Caucasian sample of 275 MDD patients were not significantly associated with response and remission within up to 5 weeks of treatment with several types of antidepressants, but the GG genotype of GRIK4 rs12800734 was associated with downregulation of hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis hyperactivity (Horstmann et al, 2010). In contrast, GRIK4 was not associated with treatment response to 6 weeks of duloxetine in a sample of 250 mostly Caucasian MDD patients (Perlis et al, 2010). GRIK4 was also not associated with response to antidepressants, risk for MDD, or phenotypic characteristics in a sample of 223 Caucasian MDD patients and 76 healthy controls (Serretti et al, 2012).

As regards BD, an association was observed between decreased manic symptoms and GRIK4 rs2298723 in a sample of 470 manic BD patients in the Systematic Treatment Enhancement Program for Bipolar Disorder (STEP-BD) Study who were treated with several antipsychotics, but this result did not survive correction for multiple testing (Drago et al, 2013). Notably, a Scottish sample of 368 BD patients and 458 controls found that the GRIK4 HT GCrs2282586-rs1944522 protected against BD (OR = 0.62, P = 0.0002), an association that remained significant after correction for multiple testing (Pickard et al, 2006). In another Scottish sample of 356 patients and 286 controls (which overlapped with the 2006 study by Pickard and colleagues), a deletion in GRIK4 ss79314275 was associated with BD when analyzing genotype $(P = 2.73 \times 10^{-6})$ and allele frequencies ($P = 1.9 \times 10^{-7}$, OR = 0.462); an independent replication sample of 274 patients and 376 controls confirmed this association for genotype (P = 0.0166) and allele (P = 0.0107, OR = 0.694) with BD (Pickard et al, 2008). Interestingly, the combined discovery and replication samples showed an additive/dose-dependent protection: the

Table I Genetic Studies on Glutamate-Related Genes in Major Depressive Disorder (MDD) and Bipolar Disorder (BD): (a) Genes Related to Glutamate Pathways/Mediators Showing Positive Results; (b) Genes Related to Glutamate Pathways/Mediators with Negative Results

Gene	Protein	Study	Study design	MDD/BD	N	Population	Assessment	Main outcome
(a) ^a								
VGLUT SLC17A7*	VGLUTI	Li et <i>al</i> , 2014	Candidate gene	MDD	290 patients	Chinese Han	Treatment response	SLC17A7 rs74174284 allele C was associated with SSRI treatment response at week 6 in MDD patients (OR=0.57, 95 % CI=0.38–0.87, corrected P =0.032)
SNARE proteir	ins							
SNAP25**	SNAP25	Wang et al, 2015	Candidate gene	MDD	1045 patients and 1520 healthy controls	Chinese Han	Risk	SNAP25 rs3787283 and rs3746544 were associated with MDD (adjusted $P = 0.00387$ and adjusted $P = 0.0485$, respectively). The haplotype AG rs3787283-rs3746544 was also significantly associated with MDD (corrected $P = 6 \times 10^{-4}$)
		Etain et <i>al</i> , 2010	Candidate gene	BD	197 patients with early-onset BD, 202 patients with late-onset BD, and 136 healthy controls	French	Risk and phenotypic characteristics	SNAP25 rs6039769 allele A was associated with early-onset BD (OR = 0.62, P = 0.005, corrected P = 0.03) but not with late-onset BD. SNAP25 rs363006 allele A was associated with late onset BD (OR = 1.57, P = 0.04), but did not survive correction. Homozygosity for allele C of SNAP25 rs6039769 was associated with a higher SNAP25b expression levels in prefrontal cortex (P = 0.04)
VAMP2*	VAMP2	Abou Jamra et al, 2008	Candidate gene	BD	409 patients and 407 healthy controls; a replication sample of 378 patients and 384 healthy controls	German	Risk	In the initial sample, there was an association of BD and VAMP2 rs2278637 ($P\!=\!0.005$), rs75664430 ($P\!=\!0.033$), and rs8067606 ($P\!=\!0.007$), which was not observed in the replication sample (all $P\!>\!0.45$)
		Saito et al, 2006	Candidate gene	MDD	106 patients	Japanese	Treatment response	There was no association between VAMP2 rs1061032, VAMP2 rs8067606, or VAMP2 HT rs1061032-rs8067606 and response to fluvoxamine in MDD
Sodium chann	nels							
SCN8A*	Nav1.6	Wang et <i>al</i> , 2008	Candidate gene	BD	506 patients and 507 healthy controls	Chinese Han	Risk	SCN8A rs1601012 and rs303810 showed significant differences between BD patients and controls in both allele and genotype distribution, but only SCN8A rs303810 allele distribution remained significant after correction for multiple comparisons ($P = 0.0164$). No linkage disequilibrium or haplotypes were observed among these SNPs
AMPA recepto	or							
GRIA2**	GRIA2	Perlis et al, 2009	GWAS	BD	1177 patients, including 458 individuals treated with lithium carbonate or citrate. A second cohort of 359 patients	Caucasian	Treatment response	GRIA2 rs9784453 had a non-significant low p-value ($P=4\times10^{-4}$) in a STEP-BD analysis of association of the ability of lithium to prevent recurrence. The same GRIA2 rs9784453 was found to be associated with lithium's ability to prevent recurrence in a confirmatory cohort ($P=0.03$, alpha set at 0.05)
		Chiesa et al, 2012b	Candidate gene	MDD	145 patients and 170 healthy controls	Korean	Risk, treatment response, and phenotypic characteristics	GRIA2 rs4302506 and rs4403097 showed an association with age of onset in patients with MDD ($P=0.003$ and $P=0.005$, respectively; after Bonferroni, P set at 0.005), but no association with MDD or treatment response. Other GRIA2 SNPs (rs6536221, rs4260586, rs4441804, and rs3813296) were not associated with MDD and clinical characteristics or outcomes
		Chiesa et al, 2012a	Candidate gene	BD	132 patients and 170 healthy controls	Korean	Risk and phenotypic characteristics	GRIA2 rs6536221, rs4260586, rs4302506, rs4441804, rs3813296, and rs4403097 were not associated with BD diagnosis or treatment outcomes
		Chiesa et al, 2013	Candidate gene	MDD	145 patients	Korean	Treatment response	GRIA2 rs4260586 was not associated with improvement on depression rating scale scores or other clinical/sociodemographic variables. There was no interaction between GRIA2 rs4260586, GRIA4 rs10736648, and improvement in depressive symptoms
GRIA3***	GRIA3	Laje et <i>al</i> , 2007	Candidate gene	MDD	1915 patients	Caucasian (78%) and other (22%)	Phenotypic characteristics	Suicidal ideation following citalopram treatment (treatment-emergent suicidal ideation) was associated with GRIA3 rs4825476 (corrected odds ratio = 1.94; corrected $P < 0.01$)
		Menke et al, 2008	Candidate gene	MDD	397 inpatients	German	Phenotypic characteristics	Following treatment initiation, suicidal ideation was associated with GRIA3 rs4825476 (OR=2.7, uncorrected P =0.041), but with a different allele than that found in Laje et al, 2007)

Table I Continued

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Gene	Protein	Study	Study design	MDD/BD	N	Population	Assessment	Main outcome
		Myung et al, 2012	Candidate gene	MDD	241 patients	Korean	Phenotypic characteristics	Guilt feelings in females were associated with GRIA3 rs557762 (corrected P =0.01) and GRIA3 TT HT rs592807-rs557762 (corrected P =5.0 × 10 ⁻³)
		Gécz et al, 1999	Linkage study	BD	373 patients from 40 pedigrees	Caucasian	Risk	There was no evidence of linkage between GRIA3 and BD
VMDA recet	ntor	Pu et <i>al</i> , 2013*	Candidate gene	MDD	281 patients	Chinese Han	Treatment response	SNPs in <i>GRIA3</i> (rs502434 and rs3761555) showed interactions with early-ons adverse events and recent negative life stress that influence treatment responsible the analyses did not withstand correction for multiple comparisons
GRIN I *	GluN I	Mundo et al, 2003	Candidate gene	BD	276 patients and their parents	European Caucasian (97%)	Risk	For both $GRINI$ rs1114620 (P = 0.03) and 6608-G/C (P = 0.004) polymorphisms, a preferential transmission of the G allele to BD patients was observed
		Georgi et al, 2006	Candidate gene	BD	306 patients and 319 healthy controls	German	Risk	No association was found between GRIN1 and BD
		Hammer et al, 2014	Candidate gene	MDD and BD	88 MDD patients, 60 BD, and 1250 controls	Caucasian	Risk	In a study focusing on psychosis, a sub-analysis on patients with mood disorder found no association between mood disorders and GRIN1 rs524991 (P = 0.1
GRIN2B*	GluN2B	Martucci et al, 2006	Candidate gene	BD	318 trios (of which 158 probands had psychotic symptoms)	Caucasian	Risk	There was an association between <i>GRIN2B</i> rs1805502 (corrected $P=0.04$) at BD and between <i>GRIN2B</i> A5806C and BD with psychotic symptoms (corrected $P=0.008$). The HT TCC-rs1019358-A5806C-rs1805502 was transmitted most frequently in BD ($P=0.015$)
		Avramopoulos et al, 2007	Linkage study	BD	41 patients with their families	Ashkenazi Jewish	Risk	Chromosome region 12p13.1–p12.3, which harbors the <i>GRIN2B</i> gene region showed an increased association with BD in a fine-mapping analysis of region nominally associated with BD
		Zhao et al, 2011	Candidate gene	BD	480 patients and 480 healthy controls	Chinese Han	Risk	BD diagnosis was associated with <i>GRIN2B</i> rs1805247 allelic distribution (corrected $P = 0.018$) and the haplotype consisting of rs1805502 and rs1805247 (uncorrected $P = 3.55 \times 10^{-9}$)
		Kuswanto et al, 2013	Candidate gene	BD	I 4 patients and 22 healthy controls	Chinese Han (>92% of the patients and the controls)	Phenotypic characteristics	T allele of GRIN2B rs890 in BD patients was associated with lower brain fraction anisotropy values in left frontal (corrected $P < 0.001$), right frontal (corrected $P < 0.001$), left parietal lobe (corrected $P = 0.001$), left occipital (corrected $P = 0.001$), right occipital region (corrected $P < 0.001$), and left cingulate gyrus (corrected $P < 0.001$), when compared with G allele of GRIN2B rs890 carriers
		Zhang et <i>al</i> , 2014	Candidate gene	MDD	178 TRD patients, 612 non-TRD patients, and 779 healthy controls	Chinese Han	Treatment response	GRIN2B HT GT-rs1805502-rs890 was more frequent in the TRD group than the controls (corrected P =0.007). Regarding GRIN2B rs1805502, there was excess of the G allele in the TRD group compared with the non-TRD grou (OR=1.55, 95 % CI=1.18 – 2.05, corrected P =0.008)
		Fallin et al, 2005	Linkage study	BD	337 trios from 323 families	Ashkenazi Jewish	Risk	GRIN2B was associated with BD (uncorrected $P < 0.01$), but this association on ot survive correction for multiple comparisons
		Szczepankiewicz et al, 2009d	Candidate gene	BD	105 patients	Polish	Treatment response	No association was found between treatment response to lithium in BD and three ${\it GRIN2B}$ polymorphisms analyzed
		Szczepankiewicz et al, 2009b	Candidate gene	BD	419 patients and 487 healthy subjects	Polish	Risk	No association was found between BD and GRIN2B polymorphisms
		Dalvie et al, 2010	Candidate gene	BD	191 patients and 188 healthy controls	Mixed ancestry (54%) and Caucasians (46%)	Phenotypic characteristics	The number of hospitalizations for mania in BD was influenced by an interaction between DAOA rs701567 and GRIN2B rs10129385 ($P=0.011$)
FYN*	FynB	Szczepankiewicz et al, 2009a	Candidate gene	BD	425 patients and 518 healthy subjects	Polish	Risk	BD was associated with FYN rs6916861 T/G (uncorrected $P = 0.0004$, significance set at 0.016) and rs3730353 T/C (uncorrected $P = 0.016$, significance set at 0.016)
		Szczepankiewicz et al, 2009c	Candidate gene	BD	101 patients	Polish	Treatment response	No significant association was found between lithium response and FYN polymorphisms. There was a trend toward an association between the TT genotype and T allele of rs3730353 FYN T/C polymorphism and decreased response to lithium
Kainate recet	btor							
GRIK2***		Laje et al, 2007	Candidate gene	MDD	1915 patients	Caucasian (78%) and other (22%)	Phenotypic characteristics	Suicidal ideation following citalopram treatment (treatment-emergent suicida ideation) was associated with <i>GRIK2</i> rs2518224 (odds ratio = 8.23; corrected $P < 0.003$)
		Menke et al, 2008	Candidate gene	MDD	397 inpatients	German	Phenotypic characteristics	Following treatment initiation, suicidal ideation was associated with 15 GR/K2 SNPs; the SNPs with the best association were GR/K2 rs2852618 (OR = 9.0 uncorrected $P = 0.005$) and GR/K2 rs2782900 (OR = 4.3, uncorrected $P = 0.007$)

Table I Continued

Gene	Protein	Study	Study design	MDD/BD	N	Population	Assessment	Main outcome
		Myung et al, 2012	Candidate gene	MDD	241 patients	Korean	Phenotypic characteristics	GRIK2 HT ACAG rs1556994-rs1340282-rs1340277-rs141717 was associated with somatic anxiety (corrected $P = 5.9 \times 10^{-4}$)
GRIK3*	GluK3	Schiffer and Heinemann, 2007	Linkage analysis	MDD and BD	153 families with at least one sib- pair affected by MDD or BD and replication in 81 trios (early- onset MDD)		Risk	GR/K3 rs6691840 was preferentially transmitted to MDD patients ($P=0.01$), but not to BD type I patients in the first sample. In the replication sample GR/K3 rs6691840 did not show an association with maternal transmission ($P=0.07$)
GRIK4***	GluK2	Pickard et al, 2006	Candidate gene	BD	368 patients and 458 controls	Scottish	Risk	GRIK4 HT GC—rs2282586/rs1944522 was protective against BD (OR=0.62 P =0.0002), which remained significant after correction for multiple testing
		Paddock et al, 2007	Candidate gene	MDD	1199 patients for discovery and 617 patients for replication	Caucasian (78%) and other (22%)	Treatment response	GRIK4 rs1954787 was associated with both response and remission after citalopram treatment in the discovery and replication groups
		Pickard et al, 2008	Candidate gene	BD	356 patients and 286 controls (sample set overlapping with Pickard et al, 2006) and replication in 274 patients and 376 controls	Scottish	Risk	A deletion in the GRIK4 ss79314275 was associated with BD when analyzing genotype ($P=2.73\times10^{-6}$) and allele frequencies ($P=1.9\times10^{-7}$, OR=0.462). The replication confirmed the results for genotype ($P=0.0166$) and allele ($P=0.0107$, OR=0.694). Also, the combination of datasets showed an additive/dose-dependent protection: the association of deletion heterozygosity with BD was higher (OR=0.471) than deletion homozygosity (OR=0.325)
		Horstmann et al, 2010	Candidate gene	MDD	275 patients	Caucasian	Treatment response and phenotypic characteristics	GRIK4 SNPs analyzed were not significantly associated with response and remission to five weeks of antidepressant treatment. Although GRIK4 rs 12800734 association with remission did not survive correction for multiple comparisons, a sub-analysis in MDD patients with the GG genotype of GRIK4 rs 12800734 showed a significant downregulation of hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis hyperactivity
		Pu et <i>al</i> , 2013	Candidate gene	MDD	281 patients	Chinese Han	Treatment response	Antidepressant response in MDD patients receiving different SSRIs or SNRIs for 6 weeks was associated with $GRIK4$ rs1954787 (adjusted P = 0.016, OR = 1.87 C1 95% 1.17–2.98) and the A-G-G haplotype of $GRIK4$ (rs1954787-rs2230297-rs2298725) (adjusted P = 0.004, OR = 0.14, CI 95% 0.04–0.54)
		Milanesi et al, 2015	Candidate gene	MDD	380 patients with treatment- resistant depression and 247 patients without treatment resistant depression	Caucasian of Italian descent	Treatment response and phenotypic characteristics	GRIK4 rs11218030 was associated with treatment resistance (corrected $P\!=\!0.025$) and GRIK4 rs1954787 was associated with the presence of psychotic symptoms (uncorrected $P\!=\!0.005$)
		Perlis et al, 2010	Candidate gene	MDD	250 patients	78% white, 10% African, 12% Hispanic or other descent	Treatment response	GRIK4 was not associated with treatment response to a six-week trial of duloxetine
		Serretti et al, 2012	Candidate gene	MDD	223 MDD patients and 76 healthy controls	Caucasian	Risk, treatment response, and phenotypic characteristics	GRIK4 rs 195478 was not associated with treatment response to antidepressants with risk for MDD, or with characteristics of MDD $$
		Drago et al, 2013	Candidate gene	BD	470 mania patients	Caucasian	Treatment response	$\textit{GRIK4}\ \text{rs}2298723$ was nominally associated with decreased manic symptoms after treatment, but did not survive correction for multiple testing
mGlu receptor	rs mGluR1	Menke et al, 2012	Candidate gene	MDD	350 patients and 370 controls and replication sample of 904 patients and 1012 controls	German (>89%)	Risk, treatment response, and phenotypic characteristics	22 <i>GRM1</i> SNPs were associated with MDD, of which six SNPs remained associated after correction for multiple testing (rs2268666 with best allelic $P = 7.0 \times 10^{-5}$; corrected P set at 0.0002). In the replication sample, <i>GRM1</i> rs2268666 was again associated with MDD in the genotypic and carrier-based tests ($P = 0.02/0.04$). <i>GRM1</i> rs2268666 genotype was also associated with brain hippocampal GIu, with regulation of the HPA-axis, and with treatment response at discharge.
GRM3*	mGluR3	Tsunoka et al, 2009	Candidate gene	MDD and BD	325 MDD patients, 155 BD patients, and 802 controls	Japanese	Risk and treatment response	An association was found between $GRM3$ rs6465084 and MDD (corrected $P\!=\!0.0371$), but no association between $GRM3$ and fluvoxamine response in MDD. Also, no association was found between $GRM2/GRM3$ and BD, or between $GRM2$ and MDD. $GRM2$ was not associated with fluvoxamine response in MDD.
		Dalvie et al, 2010	Candidate gene	BD	191 patients and 188 healthy controls	Mixed ancestry (54%) and Caucasians (46%)		GRM3 rs6465084 G-allele increased the risk of psychosis in BD (OR = 3.9, P = 0.004)

Table I Continued

Gene	Protein	Study	Study design	MDD/BD	N	Population	Assessment	Main outcome
		Kandaswamy et al, 2013	Candidate gene	BD	One sample of 506 patients and 510 controls and another sample of 593 patients and 642 controls		Risk	An analysis on the discovery and the replication samples combined showed an association between BD and <i>GRM3</i> rs148754219 (OR = 4.20, 95% Cl, 1.43–12.37, uncorrected $P = 0.005$; corrected $P = 0.047$). The study also shows evidence that <i>GRM3</i> rs148754219 affects gene expression.
		Sklar et al, 2008	GWAS and linkage analysis	BD	1461 patients and 2008 controls; replication on 409 trios (from 256 nuclear families) and 365 patients and 351 controls	Caucasian	Risk	GRM3 rs2237554 was nominally associated with BD in the initial scan (121st variant most associated, uncorrected $P = 0.001$) and was associated with BD in the replication analysis (uncorrected $P = 0.035$), though the results in the replication sample could be found by chance
		Martí et al, 2002	Candidate gene	BD	283 BD patients and 162 healthy controls	German	Risk	There was no association between BD and the GRM3 rs22228595
		Fallin et al, 2005	Linkage study	BD	337 trios from 323 families	Ashkenazi Jewish	Risk	GRM3 was associated with BD (all uncorrected $P < 0.01$), but did not survive correction for multiple comparisons
		Jia et al, 2014	Candidate gene	MDD	409 patients and 619 healthy controls	Chinese Han	Risk	The GRM3 polymorphisms were not associated with MDD
GRM7***	mGluR7	Breen et al, 2011	GW linkage study	MDD	971 sibling pairs concordant for recurrent depression	European descent	Risk	Significant linkage of MDD to chromosome 3p25–26 (GRM7) when restricting diagnoses by severity, with a maximum LOD score of 4.0 centered at the linkage marker D3S1515 (corrected $P = 0.015$). However, a fine mapping of the region in a case-control replication study could not replicate the finding
		Pergadia et al, 2011	Linkage study	MDD	220 sibling pairs with history of heavy smoking	Australian	Risk	On a region that harbors <i>GRM7</i> on chromosome 3 at 24.9 cM (3p26–3p25), there was a genome-wide significant multipoint LOD score of 4.14 for MDD (corrected $P = 0.004$)
		Fabbri et <i>al</i> , 2013	Candidate gene	MDD	1541 patients for discovery and 1109 patients for replication	White non-Hispanic (72%), white Hispanic (12%), and African-American (16%) on first sample. Second sample of white non-Hispanic		GRM7 GG genotype of rs1083801 was associated with early response in comparison with late response ($P=2.03e^{-06}$) and to non-response ($P=1.82e^{-05}$) to citalopram in a white and African-American sample. The results were confirmed in a white non-Hispanic sample, with GRM7 GG genotype of rs1083801 associated with early response when compared with late response ($P=6.7\times10^{-7}$) and non-response ($P=2.1\times10^{-5}$) (after Bonferroni, alpha set at 2.5×10^{-5})
		Kandaswamy et al, 2014	Candidate gene	BD	506 patients and 510 healthy controls for discovery and 593 BD patients and 642 controls for replication	British or Irish descent	Risk	There was no association between BD and GRM7 SNPs in the replication sample. However, the analysis of the discovery and replication samples combined showed an association between BD and GRM7 rs1508724, rs56173829, and rs6769814.
		Muglia et <i>al</i> , 2010	GWAS	MDD	926 patients and 866 controls and 494 and 1052 controls for replication	Caucasian	Risk	No significant variants were associated with MDD. In a sub-analysis on candidate genes, $GRM7$ rs 162209 had the lowest P -value ($P = 0.0001$) in the first sample, but was not significant in the replication ($P = 0.1$); an analysis of the two samples found the lowest P -value for $GRM7$ rs 162209 ($P = 0.0002$)
		Alliey-Rodriguez et al, 2011	GWAS	BD	944 patients evaluated with Cloninger's Temperament and Character Inventory and 1007 patients with the Zuckerman- Kuhlman Personality Questionnaire	European	Phenotypic characteristics	The Zuckerman-Kuhlman Personality Questionnaire subscale evaluating Neuroticism-Anxiety was associated with <i>GRM7</i> rs13080594 (uncorrected $P=7.68\times10^{-7}$), which did not survive correction for multiple comparisons
		Shyn et al, 2011	GWAS	MDD	1221 patients and 1636 healthy controls	European descent	Risk	No genome-wide evidence for an association was found. A GRM7 SNP was the third most associated with MDD ($P=1.11 \times 10^{-6}$)
EAATs		Verbeek et al, 2013	Candidate gene	MDD and BD	1738 patients and 1802 healthy controls	Dutch	Risk	No variants of GRM7 were associated with MDD in GAIN-MDD cohort
SLC1A2*	EAAT2	Dallaspezia, et <i>al</i> , 2012	Candidate gene	BD	110 patients	Caucasian	Treatment response	SLC1A2 rs4354668 T/T genotype in BD patients was associated with a lower frequency of episodes (p <0.001). An interaction between lithium treatment and SLC1A2 genotype influenced the frequency of episodes in BD patients (P =0.026)
		Poletti et al, 2014	Candidate gene	BD	86 patients	Caucasian	Phenotypic characteristics	SLC1A2 rs4354668 affected only BD patients exposed to fewer adverse childhood experiences, with T/T homozygotes showing the lowest, and G/G the highest right hippocampal volume (corrected $P = 0.001$) and left hippocampal volume (corrected $P = 0.001$)

Gene	Protein	Study	Study design	MDD/BD	N	Population	Assessment	Main outcome
(b)								
SNARE prote	eins							
SNAP29	SNAP29	Saito et al, 2001	Candidate gene	BD	124 patients and 107 healthy controls	Caucasian	Risk	There was no association between BD and four SNPs of SNAP29
VAMP3	VAMP3	Abou Jamra et al, 2008	Candidate gene	BD	409 patients and 407 healthy controls; a replication sample of 378 patients and 384 healthy controls	German	Risk	No association was found between VAMP3 rs707455, rs2071987,rs2301489, o rs228729 and BD
VAMP7	VAMP7	Saito et al, 2000	Candidate gene	BD	110 patients not selected for sex-linked transmission and 119 control subjects.	Caucasian	Risk	There was a trend for association of one VAMP7 SNP in males with BD $(P=0.06)$ but not females $(P=0.66)$
		Müller et al, 2002	Candidate gene	BD	164 patients and 267 controls	German	Risk	There was an association of homozygosity between one VAMP7 SNP in female and BD compared with controls (uncorrected $P = 0.017$), which became a trend after correction for multiple comparisons (corrected $P = 0.051$)
AMPA recept	tor GluA l	Chiesa et al.	Candidate gene	BD	132 patients and 170 healthy	Korean	Risk	GRIA1 rs707176 and rs6875572 were not associated with BD diagnosis or
GIW II	Glu/ (I	2012a	Carididate gene	bb.	controls	Rorean	TUSK	treatment outcomes
		Chiesa et al, 2012b	Candidate gene	MDD	145 patients and 170 healthy controls	Korean	Risk and treatment response	$\it GRIA1$ rs707176 and rs6875572 were not associated with MDD diagnosis or treatment response
		Drago et al, 2013	Candidate gene	BD	470 BD mania patients	Caucasian	Treatment response	GRIA1 rs1461224 was nominally associated with a decrease in manic symptom after treatment, but did not survive correction for multiple testing
GRIA4	GluA4	Chiesa et al, 2012a	Candidate gene	BD	132 patients and 170 healthy controls	Korean	Risk and phenotypic characteristics	GRIA4 rs11226805, rs2166318, rs11822168, rs1938956, rs10736648, rs528205 rs11226867, rs667174, and rs641574 were not associated with BD diagnosis o treatment outcomes
		Chiesa et al, 2012b	Candidate gene	MDD	145 patients and 170 healthy controls	Korean	Risk and treatment response	GRIA4 rs 11226805, rs 2166318, rs 11822168, rs 1938956, rs 10736648, rs 528205 rs 11226867, rs 667174, and rs 641574 were not associated with MDD diagnosi or treatment response
		Chiesa et al, 2013	Candidate gene	MDD	145 patients	Korean	Treatment response and phenotypic characteristics	GRIA4 rs10736648 was not associated with improvement on depression rating scale scores or other clinical/sociodemographic variables. There was no interaction between GRIA2 rs4260586, GRIA4 rs10736648, and improvement in depressive symptoms
NMDA recet	otor							
GRIN3A	GluN3A	Takata et al, 2013	Candidate gene	BD	865 patients and 2781 controls	Japanese	Risk	In a sub-analysis of 865 Japanese BD patients compared with 2781 controls, GRIN3A rs149729514 was not associated with BD ($P = 0.14$).
GRIN2D	GluN2D	Dorval et al, 2009	Linkage study	MDD	370 nuclear families with 450 children	Hungarian	Risk	Only GRIN2D rs276713 was associated with childhood-onset mood disorders (uncorrected $P = 0.04$), but the association did not remain significant after correction for multiple testing
mGlu recepto	ors							
GRM4	mGluR4	Fallin et al, 2005	Linkage study	BD	337 trios from 323 families	Ashkenazi Jewish	Risk	GRM4 was associated with BD (all uncorrected $P < 0.01$), but did not survive correction for multiple comparisons

Abbreviations: BD, bipolar disorder, GW, genome-wide; GWAS, genome-wide association study; MDD, major depressive disorder, SNRI, serotonin-norepinephrine reuptake inhibitor, SSRI, selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor, TRD, treatment resistant depression.

The studies retrieved in the systematic search were reviewed based on the following proteins related to the glutamatergic pathway: vesicular glutamate transport proteins (VGLUTs), soluble N-ethylmaleimide-sensitive factor attachment protein receptor (SNARE) proteins, α -amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazolepropionic acid (AMPA) receptor, N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) receptor, kainate receptor, metabotropic glutamate receptor (mGluR), excitatory amino acid transporters (EAATs).

Most studies evaluated several genes; the study is located in the line(s) that correspond(s) to the most relevant results on glutamate-related genes.

^aStudies are underlined when they demonstrated a positive association between glutamate-related genes and mood disorders. The genes are ranked according to the following system: high interest***: at least one study with a large sample (> 1000 patients) and two studies with medium-sized samples (200–1000 patients); moderate interest**: evidence from one study with a large sample size (> 1000 patients) but no more than one study with a large sample; low interest*: findings from studies with medium or small sample sizes, but no study with a large sample size.

association of deletion heterozygosity with BD was higher (OR = 0.471) than with deletion homozygosity (OR = 0.325) (Pickard *et al*, 2008). Thus, it appears that both of these kainate receptors—*GRIK2* and *GRIK4*—are potentially implicated in mood disorders.

mGluRs

 $GRM7^{***}$. GRM7 encodes mGluR7. Linkage analyses encompass extensive regions, and GRM7 is one of the genes that could explain the signal associating the 3p25-26 region with MDD. One family study of 187 Australian sibling pairs, all them heavy smokers with a history of MDD, found that chromosome 3 at 24.9 cM (3p26-3p25) showed a genomewide significant multipoint LOD score of 4.14 for MDD (corrected P=0.004; Pergadia $et\ al$, 2011). Another genomewide study that replicated the finding showed significant linkage between severe MDD and chromosome 3p25-26, with a maximum LOD score of 4.0 centered at linkage marker D3S1515 (corrected P=0.015; Breen $et\ al$, 2011); the latter study analyzed 971 concordant sibling pairs for recurrent MDD, 118 discordant sibling pairs, and 12 unaffected sibling pairs, all of European descent.

A GWAS evaluating 926 Caucasian MDD patients and 866 controls in the discovery phase and 494 Caucasian MDD patients and 1052 controls in the replication phase obtained mixed results regarding GRM7. Although no significant variants were associated with MDD in the main analysis (Muglia et al, 2010), a sub-analysis of candidate genes found that GRM7 rs162209 had the lowest P-value (P = 0.0001) in the first sample, but this finding was not significant in the replication study (P=0.1); when the two samples were analyzed together via meta-analysis, GRM7 rs162209 again had the lowest P-value, and the association occurred in the same direction (P = 0.0002; Muglia et al, 2010). Another study of 1541 Caucasian and African-American MDD patients found that the GRM7 GG genotype of rs1083801 was associated with early response to citalogram compared with late response $(P = 2.03 \times 10^{-6})$ and non-response $(P=1.82\times10^{-5}; \text{ Fabbri } et \ al, 2013)$. The result was confirmed in a Caucasian, non-Hispanic sample that found that the GRM7 GG genotype of rs1083801 was associated with early response to citalopram compared with late response $(P = 6.75 \times 10^{-7})$ and non-response $(P = 2.12 \times 10^{-5})$; after Bonferroni correction, alpha set at 2.51×10^{-5} ; Fabbri et al, 2013). Notably, after stratification by gender, the association between GRM7 rs1083801 and response to citalopram was shown to be significant only in females (females, uncorrected $P = 1.54 \times 10^{-5}$; males, uncorrected P = 0.0003). Finally, an analysis of 1221 MDD patients and 1636 controls of European ancestry drawn from the STAR*D study found no genome-wide evidence of an association between MDD and GRM7 (Shyn et al, 2011); however, the GRM7 rs9870680 SNP showed one of the lowest P-values (uncorrected $P = 1.1 \times 10^{-6}$). Nevertheless, another study of 1738 MDD patients drawn from the Dutch GAIN-MDD sample found that none of the 204 GRM7 SNPs were associated with MDD (Verbeek et al, 2013).

As regards BD, a case–control study in BD patients of Irish or British descent found that three *GRM7* SNPs were associated with BD in the discovery sample, a finding not replicated in a second sample (Kandaswamy *et al*, 2014).

After combining the genotype data for the two samples (1099) BD patients and 1235 healthy controls), BD was significantly associated with GRM7 rs1508724 (OR = 1.15, corrected P = 0.043) and *GRM7* rs6769814 (OR = 1.15, corrected P = 0.045; Kandaswamy et al, 2014). Another analysis of SNPs selected based on increased frequency in BD cases detected an association between GRM7 rs56173829 and BD in the two samples combined (OR = 0.4829, P = 0.035; Kandaswamy et al, 2014). Another study found that the GRM7 rs13080594 SNP was associated with Neuroticism-Anxiety (uncorrected $P = 7.68 \times 10^{-7}$) as assessed by the Zuckerman-Kuhlman Personality Questionnaire in 1007 BD patients of European ancestry, but this finding did not survive correction for multiple comparisons (Alliey-Rodriguez et al, 2011). Interestingly, a GWAS in individuals of European ancestry with BD found one of the strongest P-values (uncorrected P = 0.0001) for the glutamatergic SNP GRM7 rs1485171; however, it should be noted that 15% of the sample was diagnosed with schizoaffective disorder, BD subtype (CONVERGE Consortium, 2015).

Preclinical data also support the association between *GRM7* and mood disorders. Specifically, mice with the *GRM7* deletion had substantially less behavioral immobility in both the forced swim and tail suspension tests than their wild-type littermates (Cryan *et al*, 2003).

DISCUSSION

Here we reviewed the links between glutamate-related genes and mood disorders risk, treatment response, and phenotypic characteristics such as emergent suicidal ideation. As the evidence reviewed above demonstrates, more evidence exists linking glutamate-related genes to BD than MDD, but no specific glutamate-related gene has been consistently associated with mood disorders. However, several genes appear worthy of further exploration, including *GRIA3*, *GRIK2*, *GRIK4*, and *GRM7*.

Most of the studies reviewed here were candidate gene studies; only six GWASs were included. GWASs have advantages over other study designs because they use larger samples and analyze variants over the entire genome, thus providing more robust results. Indeed, in this review, four-fifths of the studies that found evidence of a relationship between glutamate-related genes and mood disorders were of medium or large samples. However, of the large studies evaluating glutamate-related genes, no analysis of a gene associated with mood disorders has yet been replicated.

The multiple glutamate-related gene targets of small relevance reviewed above are consistent with the overall sparse findings in genetic studies of mood disorders (Craddock and Sklar, 2013). As noted above, genetic studies in BD have been more conclusive than in MDD (13 studies in BD vs six in MDD), which could be explained by factors such as the much higher lifetime prevalence of MDD, which is over 16% (Kessler et al, 2005), the higher heritability of BD vs MDD (roughly 85% compared with 40%; Lohoff, 2010; McGuffin et al, 2003), or the more diffuse phenotype of MDD compared with BD. Studies that focus on specific clinical characteristics of MDD, such as age of onset, could be more successful in this context, as could research focused

on groups with specific endophenotypes, such as neuroimaging abnormalities.

Taken together, the studies reviewed above implicate several glutamate-related genes of high interest (***) in mood disorders: GRIA3, GRIK2, GRIK4, and GRM7. Specifically, several MDD (n=7) and BD (n=2) studies support the link between glutamate-related genes and treatment response. For instance, two large studies in MDD found evidence of a relationship between GRIK4 (Paddock et al, 2007) and GRM7 (Fabbri et al, 2013) and treatment response to SSRIs. Phenotypic characteristics were associated with both MDD (six studies) and BD (four studies). Notably, emergent suicidal ideation after SSRI treatment in MDD was linked to GRIA3 and GRIK2 in one large (Laje et al, 2007) and one medium-sized (Menke et al, 2008) study. In addition, a region spanning GRM7 was significantly associated with risk for MDD in one GWAS (Breen et al, 2011), and GRM7 was one of the best candidate genes emerging from two GWASs that evaluated risk for MDD (Muglia et al, 2010; Shyn et al, 2011). GRM7 was also linked to BD in one large study (Kandaswamy et al, 2014) and to MDD in one medium-sized study (Pergadia et al, 2011). Finally, GRIK4 influenced treatment response in one large and two medium-sized studies in MDD (Horstmann et al, 2010; Paddock et al, 2007; Pu et al, 2013) and was associated with risk for BD in two medium-sized samples (Pickard et al, 2006, 2008). All four of these genes (GRIA3, GRIK2, GRIK4, and GRM7) stand out as highly interesting candidates for further study. In addition, further clinical or preclinical evidence exists for all of these genes of functional involvement such as altered mRNA expression or induction of depressive-like behaviors (Beneyto et al, 2007; Catches et al, 2012; Cryan et al, 2003; Duric et al, 2013).

Though preliminary, evidence also suggests an association between glutamate genes with neuroimaging correlates in mood disorders. In MDD, GRM1 was associated with brain hippocampal glutamate levels (Menke et al, 2012). In BD patients, GRIN2B was associated with white matter integrity (Kuswanto et al, 2013), and SLC1A2 was found to modulate gray matter volume (Poletti et al, 2014). However, the results reported across studies have also obtained inconsistent results, which might be due to the high prevalence, relatively moderate heritability, and phenotypic heterogeneity of mood disorders. Another potential reason for inconsistencies is that common variants with small effects likely combine to make a large contribution to risk for mood disorders (Craddock and Sklar, 2013; Flint and Kendler, 2014), which leads to low power to detect effects for the SNPs studied as well as lack of replication.

Importantly, the availability of less costly exome sequencing or whole-genome sequencing techniques has improved the field; both methods are especially useful at finding rare variants that may have larger effects on mood disorders. Successful strategies for future studies could include focusing on more severe cases of MDD to retrieve a clearer signal (CONVERGE Consortium, 2015); using very large sample sizes to study depressive symptoms (Okbay *et al*, 2016); or studying families with a dense prevalence of mood disorders (Collins *et al*, 2013).

Pathway analyses are a powerful tool for overcoming limitations associated with studies that explain only a small proportion of phenotypic variance because they use previous knowledge of molecular and cellular processes to detect associations between genes and disorders (Wang et al, 2007). Interestingly, pathway analyses of large datasets support the involvement of the glutamatergic system—and specific glutamatergic pathways—in risk for MDD (Lee et al, 2012) and BD (Nurnberger et al, 2014; Torkamani et al, 2008). In addition, postsynaptic density was found to be related to risk for mood disorders (as well as schizophrenia; Network and Pathway Analysis Subgroup of Psychiatric Genomics Consortium, 2015), and the long-term potentiation pathway encompassing several glutamate genes was involved with response to citalopram in MDD (Hunter et al, 2013).

Another pathway analysis also found an association between BD and the glia-astrocyte pathway (Duncan *et al*, 2014); glial cells are central to glutamatergic uptake and recycling. Although the glutamatergic modulator ketamine is consistently associated with an effective antidepressant response (Zarate *et al*, 2006, 2012), research into ketamine is still in its infancy and we found no studies specifically investigating the genetics of response to ketamine, perhaps because no cohorts to date have been large enough to perform adequately powered GWASs. The lack of genetic studies on ketamine and other glutamatergic modulators could partly explain the low-interest evidence for the NMDA receptor in our review.

Limitations of this review include a methodology limited to searching for articles focused on glutamate-related genes and the diversity of the study designs. However, the inclusion of all genetic studies on the glutamate pathway in mood disorders is a strength of the present review. In future analyses, it might be valuable to explore the glutamatergic pathway in the context of patients enrolled in clinical trials with glutamatergic drugs.

Despite the absence of consistent results, these findings suggest directions that could help decipher the etiology and pathogenesis of mood disorders. The body of evidence suggests that glutamatergic genes are indeed involved in the pathophysiology and treatment of mood disorders. In particular, several targets identified by the present review—including *GRIA3*, *GRIK2*, *GRIK4*, and *GRM7*—are worthy of further exploration in future studies.

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