Neurotrophins use two types of receptors, the Trk tyrosine kinase receptors and the p75 neurotrophin receptor (p75NTR), to regulate the growth, development, survival and repair of the nervous system. These receptors can either collaborate with or inhibit each other's actions to mediate neurotrophin effects. The development and survival of neurons is thus based upon the functional interplay of the signals generated by Trk and p75NTR. In the past two years, the signaling pathways used by these receptors, including Akt and MAPK-induced signaling via Trk, and JNK, p53, and NF- κ B signaling via p75NTR. have been identified. In addition, a number of novel p75NTR-interacting proteins have been identified that transmit growth, survival, and apoptotic signals.

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Abbreviations

FKHRL1	Forkhead 1
JNK	Jun amino-terminal kinase
MAPK	mitogen activated protein kinase
MEK	MAPK kinase
NGF	nerve growth factor
NRIF	neurotrophin receptor interacting factor
PI-3K	phosphoinositide 3-kinase
P75NTR	p75 neurotrophin receptor
TNFR1	tumor necrosis factor receptor 1

Introduction

Neurotrophins mediate the survival, differentiation, growth, and apoptosis of neurons by binding to two types of cell surface receptors, the Trk tyrosine kinases and the p75 neurotrophin receptor (p75NTR). These receptors, often present on the same cell, coordinate and modulate the responses of neurons to neurotrophins. The functions of the neurotrophin receptors vary markedly, from the sculpting of the developing nervous system to the regulation of the survival and regeneration of injured neurons. Strikingly, while Trk receptors transmit positive signals such as enhanced survival and growth, p75NTR transmits both positive and negative signals. The signals generated by the two neurotrophin receptors can either augment or oppose each other. Trk and p75NTR thus exist in a paradoxical relationship, each acting to suppress or enhance the other's actions. How the two neurotrophin receptors act together to regulate the responses of cells to neurotrophins, and the nature of the intracellular signals used by these receptors to exert their effects, are the key questions in neurotrophin signal

transduction. In the past two years, several of the intracellular signaling proteins and signal transduction pathways used by these receptors to promote neurotrophin actions have been identified. In this review, we discuss the latest findings in neurotrophin signaling, emphasizing the mechanisms used by the neurotrophin receptors to promote neuronal survival and apoptosis in primary neurons and *in vivo* systems.

Trk-mediated survival often emanates from Ras

A potent activity of neurotrophins, particularly in sympathetic and sensory neurons, is neuronal survival. Both during development and in culture, the survival of these neurons is absolutely dependent upon a constant exposure to optimal amounts of neurotrophins. The first neurotrophin-activated signaling protein shown to mediate survival of these neurons was the small GTP-binding protein Ras. Inhibition of Ras activity decreased survival of most, but not all, populations of sympathetic neurons [1,2], whereas increasing Ras activity as a result of deletion of neurofibromatosis-1 (NF-1), a Ras regulatory inhibitor, allowed peripheral neurons to survive in culture in the absence of neurotrophins [3]. Ras, which in most cases is responsible for 40-60% of neurotrophin-dependent survival, does not act directly to promote survival. Rather, it functions by translating and directing neurotrophin-initiated signals into multiple signaling pathways. Recent data indicate that two of these signaling pathways, PI-3K/Akt and MEK/MAPK, are the major effectors of neurotrophin and Ras-activated survival (Figure 1). In the first part of this review, we discuss recent data supporting this conclusion.

The PI-3K/Akt survival pathway

PI-3K was first identified as a regulator of neurotrophinmediated survival responses by Cooper and colleagues in nerve growth factor (NGF)-dependent PC12 cells [4]. Subsequently, many groups showed that in cerebellar, sympathetic, sensory, cortical and motor neurons, PI-3 kinase activity was responsible for as much as 80% of neurotrophinregulated cell survival [5-8,9°,10°°,11,12,13°°,14,15], indicating that PI-3K is the major survival-promoting protein for neurons. Not all studies, however, supported this conclusion. In particular, one group reported that inhibition of PI-3K activity did not decrease NGF-mediated survival of rat sympathetic neurons [16], while three other groups reported that it did [5,9°,10°°,12]. Whether these contrasting data are due to differences in culture conditions or inhibitor concentrations is not known, but it highlights the pitfalls of relying upon dominant-inhibitory mutants or selective inhibitors without biochemical confirmation that these reagents specifically block the activity of PI-3K.

PI-3K is a target of Ras

An intimate connection between Ras and PI-3K activity in PC12 cells was first reported by Downward and





Trk signaling pathways regulating survival and neurite growth in neuronal cells. Neurotrophin (NT) binding to Trk stimulates receptor transphosphorylation, resulting in the recruitment of a series of signaling proteins to docking sites on the receptor. These proteins include Shc, which activates Ras through Grb-2 and SOS [108], FRS-2 [109,110], rAPS [110], SH2-B [111**], and CHK [112], which participate in activating MAPK, and PLC-γ1. Shc and FRS-2 bind to phosphorylated Tyr490 of TrkA [108], while PLC-γ1 and CHK bind to phosphorylated Tyr 785 [108,112]. MAPK activity is also regulated

through Raf [39[•]], Rap1 [39[•]], SHP-2 [113], and PKCδ [114]. The pathways used by MEK and MAPK to regulate neurite growth and survival are discussed in the text. Trk activates PI-3K through the Ras and the Gab-1/IRS-1/IRS-2 family of adapter proteins [18,19,115]. PI-3K activity stimulates the activities of PDK1 and PDK2, which in turn activate Akt [26,27]. The targets of PI-3K/Akt anti-apoptotic activity, including BAD, Forkhead, GSK-3, BcI-2, IAP, and the p53 cell death pathway, are discussed in the text.

colleagues [17], who demonstrated that Ras directly interacted with PI-3K and that inhibition of Ras suppressed NGF-mediated PI-3K activity. More recently, Ras was shown to activate PI-3K survival promoting pathways in peripheral neurons using two approaches. First, Ras effector mutants that were selective for activating PI-3K, but not those selective for activating MEK/MAPK or RalGDS (Rasrelated guanine-nucleotide dissociation stimulator), induced survival [9[•]], while Ras-mediated survival was blocked by the PI-3K inhibitor LY294002 [9•,11]. Ras is not, however, the only means by which Trk activates PI-3K. In the Trk system, PI-3K activation is probably due to the combined actions of Ras and Gab-1, an adapter protein that binds and stimulates PI-3K [18] and which, when overexpressed, potently stimulated NGF-independent survival [19].

Akt is a crucial mediator of PI-3K-induced survival activity

PI-3K, like Ras, stimulates the activities of many signaling proteins. Among these is the serine/threonine kinase Akt (or protein kinase B), a target of NGF-induced PI-3K activity [20,21]. Greenberg and colleagues [6] first reported a role for Akt in neuronal survival, showing that cerebellar neurons required Akt for 20% of IGF-1-induced survival.

Subsequently, Akt activity was shown, using dominantinhibitory Akt, to be necessary for approximately 80% of NGF-induced survival of sympathetic neurons [5,10^{••},12]. Akt not only mediates growth factor-regulated cell survival, but also neuronal survival promoted by depolarization [10**,22*,23]. In cerebellar neurons, Akt induced survival by stimulating Ca²⁺ influx through L-type calcium channels [22[•]], while in sympathetic neurons, it promoted survival by acting downstream of L-type channels and Ras/PI-3K [10**]. In the latter case, suboptimal levels of NGF and KCl synergistically stimulated maximal Akt activity and neuronal survival, indicating that Akt is a convergence point for diverse survival signals. During development, neurons exposed to suboptimal levels of neurotrophins but which are active may have a competitive advantage over those that are not active, due to increased amounts of Akt activity.

Akt is most probably not the only target of PI-3K-induced survival activity. Inhibition of PI-3K is often more effective than inhibition of Akt at suppressing survival responses. Another potential target of PI-3K is the IAP (inhibitor of apoptosis) family of caspase inhibitors, which includes X-linked inhibitor of apoptosis protein (XIAP), neuronal apoptosis-inhibitory protein (NAIP), and human inhibitor of apoptosis protein (HIAP, also known as inhibitor of T-cell apoptosis [ITA]; see [24]). HIAP/ITA levels were induced by NGF in chick sensory and sympathetic neurons in a manner dependent upon PI-3K activity, and suppression of XIAP levels decreased NGF-induced survival [25^{••}]. Whether IAP levels or activity are also controlled by Akt, either at the transcriptional level or via phosphorylation, is not yet known.

The targets of Akt

In neurons, Akt has only been shown to regulate survival, and not any other response such as neurite outgrowth or differentation. Thus, all of the proposed direct targets of Akt activity identified in the past year have been proteins that regulate cell survival in many cell systems: these include Bad, an inhibitor of the Bcl-2 anti-apoptotic protein; pro-caspase-9, which is cleaved into the pro-apoptotic caspase-9; and Forkhead, a transcription factor that induces apoptosis by increasing levels of Fas ligand (FasL) (Figure 1). In each case, Akt suppresses apoptosis by phosphorylating the apoptotic protein in the Akt consensus phosphorylation site RXRXXS/T (single-letter amino acid code). How Akt regulates the activity of its many targets, as well as the mechanisms whereby PI-3K regulates Akt activity, have been extensively discussed in three recent reviews [26,27,28•]. Therefore, we will discuss whether Akt phosphorylation of one or more of these targets is responsible for neurotrophin-induced neuronal survival.

The first reported target of Akt-mediated survival activity was Bad. Phosphorylation by Akt at Ser136 in Bad induced its association with 14-3-3, and prevented it from associating with and inactivating the anti-apoptotic Bcl-2 and Bcl-XL proteins [29,30]. Evidence for the importance of Akt-induced Bad phosphorylation derives from overexpression experiments in cerebellar neurons, whereby insulin-like growth factor 1 (IGF-1) or constitutively active Akt suppressed the apoptotic activity of wild-type Bad, but not of Bad mutated at Ser136 [29]. These experiments provide compelling evidence for Akt regulation of ectopically expressed Bad, but three other lines of evidence indicate that endogenous Bad phosphorylation might not be important for growth factor-mediated neuronal survival. First, endogenous Bad has not been reported to be phosphorylated in neurotrophic factor-treated neurons, except for increases in brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF)treated cerebellar neurons [31[•]]. Second, analysis of the Bax knockout mice indicate that Bax is the apoptotic Bcl-2 family member that is required for cerebellar neuron cell death [32]. Third, neurons from the Bad knockout mouse do not show alterations in apoptosis [33].

The proteolytic cleavage and activation of pro-caspase-9 was also shown to be effectively inhibited by Akt in vitro and in overexpression experiments. However, the lack of conservation of the Ser196 Akt phosphorylation site in nonhuman procaspase-9 [34], as well as the dearth of reports of Akt-induced phosphorylation of endogenous procaspase-9 in neurons, does not support a role for this phosphorylation event in neurotrophic factor mediated neuronal survival. The third and best candidate for a direct Akt target in neurons is Forkhead 1 (FKHRL1). Genetic studies in C. elegans first indicated that the activity of a Forkhead family member, DAF16 (Dauer-formation-16), which contains an Akt consensus phosphorylation site, was suppressed by Akt [35]. Greenberg's group then showed that ectopic expression of FKHRL1 mutated at the Thr32 and Ser315 Akt phosphorylation sites increased apoptosis of cerebellar neurons cultured in IGF-1 by 20% [36**]. Apoptosis induced by FKHRL1 was reduced by inhibition of FasL binding to its receptor, indicating that FKHRL1 stimulates apoptosis, in part, by inducing the transcription of cell death ligands such as Fas. While endogenous Forkhead has not been shown to be phosphorylated by Akt in neurons, the strong genetic evidence for this protein as an Akt target, coupled with the compelling in vitro and non-neuronal cell data showing regulation of Forkhead by Akt phosphorylation [36.], makes Forkhead an attractive target for Akt in mammalian neurons.

These results suggest that a signaling pathway consisting of Ras/PI-3K/Akt is the major regulator of neuronal survival. Akt may suppress apoptosis directly by inhibiting the activities of Forkhead or Bad, indirectly by suppressing GSK-3 apoptotic activities [37,38°], increasing IAP, Bcl-2, or Bcl-XL levels, or, as will be discussed below, by blocking the function of the primary neuronal apoptotic pathway in neurons, JNK-p53-Bax (Figure 1). Akt probably mediates cell survival at a number of levels, depending upon the cell type, target availability, and the requirement for transcriptional or post-transcriptional events to suppress apoptosis.

MEK/MAP kinase – a second survival pathway used by neurotrophins?

A second survival-promoting pathway used by neurotrophins consists of the Ras-MEK-MAPK pathway (Figure 1). This pathway has many roles in neurons, including synaptic plasticity, long-term potentiation, and survival (reviewed in [39[•]]). The evidence for the contribution of this pathway to neuronal survival is, however, conflicting. While NGF induces a strong and sustained activation of MAPK in sympathetic neurons and PC12 cells, most studies have found that inhibition of MEK has minimal effects on NGF-dependent neuronal survival [9,40-42]. Thus, although the selective activation of MEK/MAPK can promote neuronal survival [9,19,42,43], the lack of dramatic effects of MEK inhibitors (<20% decreases in cell survival) in these same cell types indicates that MEK activity is sufficient, but not necessary, for most of neurotrophinmediated survival. The only exception to this generalization is in P6 rat cerebellar neurons, where the data are conflicting, with one report showing no role for MEK/MAPK in BDNF or insulin-dependent survival [44], and another demonstrating that MEK activity was required for survival promoted by these factors [31[•]]. However, in the latter study, BDNF-mediated survival was suppressed by only 20-30% when MEK was inhibited, indicating that MEK-MAPK is only one contributor to neurotrophinmediated cerebellar neuron survival.

The major role for MEK-induced survival pathways may be to protect neurons from death due to injury or toxicity, rather than from trophic factor withdrawal. In cortical neurons, constitutively active MEK protected, while inhibition of MEK blocked BDNF-regulated neuroprotection from campothecin-induced apoptosis [13**]. In this study, MEK played no role in serum or BDNF-induced survival under basal conditions. Rather, PI-3K mediated this effect. Similarly, MEK/MAPK protected sympathetic neurons against apoptosis due to cytosine arabinoside [45•], cerebellar neurons from apoptosis caused by oxidative stress [46], and retinal ganglion cells from death following axotomy [47. MEK may also play a more prominent role in TrkB-induced survival. We have shown that TrkB, unlike TrkA, uses both MEK and PI-3K to promote the survival of sympathetic neurons (J Atwal, F Miller, D Kaplan, unpublished data).

Targets of MEK/MAPK survival activity

Akt induces survival by inhibiting the activity of apoptotic proteins. In contrast, MEK/MAPK induces survival by stimulating the activity or expression of anti-apoptotic proteins, including Bcl-2 and the transcription factor CREB (cAMP response element binding protein). NGF potently increased Bcl-2 levels in sympathetic neurons [48^{••}], which in turn protected these and other neurons from apoptotic cell death [49]. Inhibition of MEK/MAPK activity in PC12 cells completely blocked NGF's ability to increase Bcl-2 levels [50], suggesting that Bcl-2 is a transcriptional target of the MEK/MAPK pathway. CREB activity is also required for Bcl-2 expression and

survival induced by NGF in sympathetic neurons [51^{••}], suggesting a MEK/MAPK-CREB-Bcl-2 survival pathway. CREB, like Bcl-2, is clearly a key mediator of neuronal survival, as dominant-inhibitory forms of CREB induced apoptosis of virtually all sympathetic neurons grown in NGF [51...], and 25% of cerebellar neurons grown in BDNF [31[•]]. The activation of CREB by survival factors is likely to be due to phosphorylation at Ser133 by multiple kinases, including MAPK activated-Rsk [31[•]], p38MAPK [52], and Akt [53]. p38MAPK is, however, an unlikely candidate for this role, since it induces apoptosis [43] or neurite outgrowth [54] in PC12 cells, but not survival. MEK/MAPK is also an unlikely CREB activator in sympathetic neurons, as MEK activity is not required for NGF-mediated survival. Perhaps CREB is activated by Akt in sympathetic neurons, as occurs in 293T cells [53], while it may be activated by both Akt and MAPK in cerebellar neurons.

p75NTR as a signaling receptor

Although p75NTR was the first-isolated neurotrophin receptor, as well as the first-reported member of the p75NTR/Fas/TNFR1 (tumor necrosis factor receptor 1) family (reviewed in [55]), our understanding of its physiological role and the underlying signaling mechanisms has lagged considerably behind our understanding of the Trk neurotrophin receptors. In particular, studies on p75NTR have been complicated by the fact that it can interact directly with Trk [56], and by the finding that its signaling capacity is modified by the coincident activation of Trk receptors. Nonetheless, the past year has seen the emergence of a consensus regarding the signaling pathways activated by p75NTR and of its potential biological functions, and has led to the elucidation of a number of p75NTR-interacting proteins (Figure 2).

p75NTR as an apoptotic receptor independent of Trk

The original finding that p75NTR could mediate neuronal apoptosis in a neural cell line [57] has, over the past several years, been extended to a large number of primary neural cells, both in culture and in vivo. In particular, ligand-dependent activation of p75NTR has been shown to cause the apoptosis of cultured neonatal sympathetic neurons [58••], motor neurons [59,60], sensory neurons [61,62[•]], oligodendrocytes [63] and Schwann cells [64•]. Still controversial, however, is the role of p75NTR in regulating survival of basal forebrain cholinergic neurons; while Yeo et al. [65] reported increased numbers of cholinergic neurons in p75NTR-/- animals, Van der Zee et al. [66] have withdrawn their earlier report describing similar findings, and Peterson et al. [67] recently published a report indicating that neuronal number is actually decreased in $p75NTR^{-/-}$ animals. Whether this discrepancy is due to differing genetic backgrounds and/or other potential confounds associated with the $p75NTR^{-/-}$ animals (see discussion below) remains to be clarified.

In addition to confirming that p75NTR plays an important role in regulating neural apoptosis, a number of major

Figure 2

Cell death pathways induced by NGF withdrawal from neurons. Two pathways are activated by withdrawal of NGF from sympathetic neurons. The first consists of cdc42/Rac [116], Ask1 [117•] and possibly MEKK1, MKK4/7, JNK [48**], and p53 [48**]. JNK isoforms induce cell death through c-Jun [118] and increase in FasL [119"], or by increases in p53 and Bax levels or activity [48..]. A second pathway involves the activation of cell cycle regulatory molecules such as CDK4/6 [120], which results in increased pRb phosphorylation, and possibly the subsequent activation of p53 through p19ARF [121**]. We hypothesize that each pathway converges upon and activates p53 to cause cell death. JNK3 is involved in stress-induced cell death [119**]. while JNK1 and 2 are involved in developmental cell death [122].



conclusions can be derived from these studies. First, in all of these cells, the apoptotic actions of p75NTR were ligand-mediated, indicating that ligand binding to p75NTR does not abolish its ability to mediate apoptosis, as previously suggested [68]. Second, these studies indicate that p75NTR signals apoptosis in a Trk-independent fashion. For example, p75NTR activation caused apoptosis when sympathetic neurons were maintained in KCl [10^{••},48^{••}], when sensory neurons were maintained in ciliary neurotrophic factor (CNTF) [62[•]], and when Schwann cells were maintained in IGF plus neuregulin [64[•]] — all Trk-independent survival signals. Third, in all of these studies, p75NTR only mediated apoptosis when Trk was inactive or suboptimally activated, leading to the conclusion that Trk activation silences p75NTR apoptotic signaling. For example, robust Trk

Figure 3

p75NTR signaling pathways. p75NTR binds a number of interacting proteins, including TRAF2, 4, and 6, NRAGE, SC-1, and RhoA, which play roles in cell survival, cell cycle regulation, and neurite outgrowth. p75NTR also increases ceramide levels and activates the JNK-p53-Bax cell death pathway. See text for a discussion of these proteins and pathways.



activation blocked p75NTR-mediated death of sympathetic [58^{••}] and trigeminal mesencephalic sensory neurons [62[•]], and expression of exogenous TrkA in oligodendrocytes inhibited NGF-induced apoptosis [69^{••}]. Thus, the outcome of neurotrophin-mediated p75NTR signaling depends on the expression of Trk receptors; NGF has the potential to be pro-apoptotic for cells that do not express TrkA (such as oligodendrocytes [69^{••}]), while BDNF would be pro-apoptotic for those cells that do not express TrkB (such as sympathetic neurons [58^{••}]).

A fourth and somewhat surprising conclusion is that p75NTR is, for some cells, essential for apoptosis following growth factor withdrawal. Barrett and Bartlett [61] first showed that sensory neuron survival following neurotrophin withdrawal was enhanced when p75NTR levels were decreased. More recent work extended this finding to other primary cells; apoptosis of p75NTR-/- sympathetic neurons was greatly delayed following NGF withdrawal [58**], and p75NTR^{-/-} Schwann cells showed enhanced survival in the absence of survival factors [64]. Interestingly, as no exogenous p75NTR ligand is present following growth factor withdrawal, these data may suggest that p75NTR can signal apoptosis in a ligand-independent fashion [68]. However, as both sympathetic neurons and Schwann cells make endogenous p75NTR ligands, these data raise the equally interesting possibility of an autocrine p75NTR-driven apoptosis loop that is suppressed by survival factors.

p75NTR mediates apoptosis following injury and during development

The past year has also seen a number of studies indicating that the apoptotic function of p75NTR is important following neural injury and during development. The first suggestion that p75NTR might be involved in injuryinduced apoptosis originated with studies showing that neuron-specific expression of the p75NTR intracellular domain caused the death of injured facial motor neurons in transgenic mice [70]. More recently, endogenous p75NTR was shown to play a role in the death of injured neonatal facial motor neurons [59,71], and, following seizure in adult animals, neuronal apoptosis was accompanied by induction of p75NTR in the dying neurons [72•]. In this regard, exogenous BDNF exacerbated the death of CA3 pyramidal neurons following kainic acid treatment [73], suggesting that both endogenous and exogenous neurotrophins might act through p75NTR to cause apoptosis in the damaged nervous system. Recent evidence also indicates that p75NTR is essential for rapid and appropriate apoptosis during developmental cell death (reviewed in [74]). In particular, apoptosis is significantly reduced in embryonic retinae of NGF-/- and p75NTR-/- mice [75,76], and the period of naturally-occurring sympathetic neuron death is greatly delayed in the *p75NTR*^{-/-} mice [58••]. Moreover, 75NTR is essential for maintaining the specificity of neuronal survival responses to different neurotrophins; sympathetic neurons of p75NTR-/- but not wild-type mice utilized NT3 as a survival ligand both in vivo [77.] and in culture [78]. Previous work

demonstrating that NT3 activates TrkA on sympathetic neurons but does not maintain survival [79], and that p75NTR activation has no effect on sympathetic neuron TrkA activation [48**,58**], suggests that p75NTR 'selects' survival ligands not by regulating TrkA activation, as is seen in some cell lines (reviewed in [80]), but by antagonistically signalling neuronal apoptosis.

p75NTR apoptotic signal transduction

How does p75NTR signal apoptosis? One recently elucidated pathway involves JNK (Jun amino-terminal kinase)-p53-Bax, which is activated by p75NTR activation and following NGF withdrawal ([48**], Figures 2 and 3). p53 appears to be a key death sensor in this pathway, with the levels of this protein determining whether neurons undergo apoptosis in vivo and in culture [48**]. MEKK and JNK function upstream of p53 in p75NTR-mediated apoptosis, while cdc42/Rac1, Ask1, MKK (mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase), JNK, c-jun, and p53 have been shown to act in a signaling pathway regulating NGF-withdrawal-induced apoptosis (Figures 2 and 3). The presence of apoptotic proteins common to both p75NTR and NGF-withdrawal-induced cell death pathways, and the observation that $p75NTR^{-/-}$ sympathetic neurons are greatly delayed in their death following NGF withdrawal, suggests that a major component of NGF withdrawal-induced apoptosis involves p75NTR-driven activation of the JNK-p53-Bax pathway. Although it is not yet known whether this pathway is important for apoptosis in other cells, it is intriguing that p75NTR is induced in dying cells following seizure [72[•]], and that seizure-induced apoptosis requires JNK3 [81] and p53 [82]. Also intriguing is the finding that p75NTR-mediated apoptosis of oligodendrocytes involves the same pattern of caspase activation as did radiationinduced oligodendrocyte apoptosis [83], which is known to require p53 [84]. Thus, although it is as yet unclear how p75NTR activates the JNK-p53-Bax cell death pathway, this pathway may well play a key role in a variety of p75NTR-driven apoptotic events. Interestingly, in sympathetic neurons TrkA activation, which inhibits p75NTR-mediated apoptosis, silences this JNK-p53 death pathway via Ras and perhaps PI-3K/Akt [9•], while in oligodendrocytes, TrkA activation selectively silences JNK activation coincident with its repression of p75NTR-mediated apoptosis [69••].

A second potential p75NTR-dependent apoptotic pathway involves the recently-reported neurotrophin receptor interacting factor (NRIF) [85^{••}]. NRIF is a ubiquitouslyexpressed zinc finger protein that interacts with p75NTR in GST pulldown assays. Analysis of the *NRIF*-/- mice revealed a deficit in apoptosis in the embryonic retina that was similar to that seen in the *NGF*-/- and *p75NTR*^{-/-} mice [76,85^{••}], raising the possibility that p75NTR might signal apoptosis in some cells via NRIF.

Finally, the past year has seen the description of a number of additional p75-interacting proteins that may regulate cell survival, including members of the TRAF (tumor

necrosis factor receptor-associated factor) family [86•] (see the discussion below), and two novel proteins, the zinc finger motif protein SC-1 [87•] and NRAGE (neurotrophin receptor-interacting MAGE [melanoma antigen gene] homologue) (A Salehi, P Barker, personal communication). One of these latter two proteins, SC-1, is a zinc finger protein that, like NRIF, associates with p75NTR in GST pulldown assays. Interestingly, NGF-mediated activation of p75NTR led to translocation of SC-1 from the cytoplasm to the nucleus and inhibited cellular proliferation [87•] suggesting that it, like other members of the same family, may play a role in growth arrest. The second protein, NRAGE, is a member of the MAGE family, and can be coimmunoprecipitated with p75NTR from PC12 nnr5 cells (A Salehi, P Barker, personal communication). Like SC-1, NRAGE appears to play a role in growth arrest. It is unclear whether these two proteins play any role in apoptosis but it is intriguing that cell cycle deregulation is thought to be involved in many types of neuronal apoptosis (Figure 3).

p75NTR as a signaling receptor in the presence of Trk activation

One of the major conclusions that can be derived from recent studies on the neurotrophin receptors is that the signaling capacity and biological role of p75NTR is a function of cellular Trk activation status. In particular, as discussed above, Trk signaling silences p75NTR-mediated apoptotic pathways such as the JNK-p53 pathway, while leaving other p75NTR pathways 'intact'. Moreover, emerging evidence indicates that *crosstalk* between these two receptors is bidirectional, with p75NTR modulating certain Trk signaling pathways. We will discuss these issues by focusing on p75NTR-mediated NF- κ B signaling, and by examining how p75NTR modulates the morphological growth of neurons.

The finding that p75NTR caused activation of the transcription factor NF-KB in Schwann cells [88] has recently been extended to oligodendrocytes [89] and sensory neurons [90]. Unlike the JNK-p53 pathway, p75NTR-mediated activation of the NF-KB pathway is not silenced by coincident TrkA activation [69..]. Two recent publications suggest that NF-KB activation represents a p75NTR-mediated prosurvival pathway that collaborates with Trk. Specifically, Maggirwar et al. [91•] demonstrated that NGF treatment of sympathetic neurons led to NF-kB activation, and that this activation was important for NGF-mediated survival. Although this study did not examine the relative roles of TrkA versus p75NTR, Hamanoue et al. [92•] demonstrated that NGF-induced NF-KB activation in sensory neurons required p75NTR and that this pathway was important for survival. How does p75NTR activate NF-kB? Recent work demonstrated that p75NTR interacts with TRAF6, and that dominant-negative TRAF6 blocked p75NTR-mediated NF-κB activation in Schwann cells [86•]. In non-neuronal cells, TRAF6 also forms a signaling complex with TRANCE (tumor necrosis factor-related activation-induced cytokine) to activate Akt [93]. Thus, p75NTR and Trk may

synergistically activate Akt's survival-promoting activity in cells where p75NTR can associate with TRAF6 or other TRAF family members. In this regard, a related publication demonstrates that other TRAF family members interact with p75NTR, at least as assayed by GST pulldowns [94].

p75NTR and the regulation of neuronal growth

A second biological function of p75NTR in the presence of Trk activation is the modulation of neuronal growth. Such a role for p75NTR was first suggested by the finding that sympathetic innervation patterns were perturbed in p75NTR-/mice [95]. More recent studies led to the conclusion that ligand-mediated p75NTR activation inhibits TrkA-mediated growth and target innervation of sympathetic neurons [96[•]]. Remarkably, elimination of p75NTR even led to robust sprouting of adult sympathetic nerve fibers on CNS myelin [97.]. The finding that p75NTR inhibits neuronal growth is not limited to sympathetic neurons; BDNF-mediated activation of NGF-dependent sensory neurons also inhibits their growth [90], and there is cholinergic hyperinnervation of the hippocampus and hypertrophy of basal forebrain cholinergic neurons in p75NTR-/- animals [65]. Together these studies raise the possibility that neurotrophins act as growth inhibitors via p75NTR, providing a mechanism for regulating the specificity or density of axonal growth and target innervation and/or for axon collateral elimination.

How does p75NTR inhibit TrkA-mediated growth? Recent studies indicate that p75NTR activation causes a selective downregulation of the TrkA-dependent Raf–MEK–MAPK pathway, which is a major growth pathway for sympathetic neurons (R Aloyz, FD Miller, DR Kaplan, unpublished data). Although the p75NTR-derived signals that are responsible for negatively regulating this pathway are currently unknown, it is intriguing that elevation of ceramide, a known downstream p75NTR effector, inhibits NGF-dependent growth of distal sympathetic neurites [98] and the activation of Raf-1 and Akt in non-neuronal cells [99,100]. In this regard, p75NTR-mediated ceramide increases are thought to modulate the growth of cultured hippocampal neurons [101].

p75NTR probably also regulates axonal growth via a recently-described modulation of the growth regulatory protein Rho. Yamashita *et al.* [102^{••}] demonstrated that, in 293 cells, transfection of p75NTR led to a robust activation of Rho, and that neurotrophin binding to p75NTR largely suppressed this p75NTR-dependent Rho activation. As Rho activation has been shown to inhibit neuronal growth [103[•]], this work raises the possibility that p75NTR might regulate axonal growth either positively or negatively, depending on the proportion of unliganded to liganded p75NTR present in the local microenvironment.

At this point, it is worth mentioning a number of limitations to some of the current approaches in studying p75NTR function. The first two caveats involve the p75NTR-/- mice. The homologous recombination strategy used to generate these mice left intact a p75NTR splice variant that lacks

exon III, and which generates a protein that is incapable of binding neurotrophins [104], making these animals hypomorphs rather than true knockouts. A second caveat with these mice involves the fact that p75NTR is now known to regulate both the migration [105] and survival [64•,106] of Schwann cells, meaning that any perturbations in growth or innervation pattern observed in the PNS of these animals might be attributable to a Schwann cell phenotype rather than to a neuronal phenotype. The final issue involves the use of p75NTR antibodies to assess the biological role of this receptor and in particular the use of MC192 [107]. Although many studies have used MC192 to 'block' neurotrophin binding to p75NTR, this antibody has now been shown to cause NF-kB translocation in sensory neurons [90], presumably by functioning as an 'activating' antibody. This finding obviously changes the interpretation of many experiments that have been published previously, and makes it a poor choice as a blocking antibody for future experiments.

Conclusions

Neurotrophins regulate neuronal survival and apoptosis at several levels. Trk uses at least two mechanisms, Ras/PI-3K/Akt-induced suppression of apoptotic proteins and pathways, and MEK/MAPK activation of anti-apoptotic proteins, to stimulate survival. p75NTR can potentiate Trk activity through the activation of NF-kB. In most cases, however, p75NTR functions as a ligand-stimulated apoptotic receptor, inducing the activity of the JNK-p53-Bax apoptosis pathway, and of other proteins that regulate cell death such as NRIF. Trk, through Ras and probably PI-3K/Akt, can interfere with p75NTR-induced apoptosis by suppressing the JNK-p53-Bax pathway upstream of JNK, or by inhibiting the activities of cell death proteins such as Forkhead. p75NTR, in turn, can suppress Trkinduced cell survival and growth pathways, possibly through ceramide-mediated inhibition of Akt and Raf activities. This functional crosstalk between Trk and p75NTR signaling pathways appears to be a key process in determining how the nervous system develops and is repaired following injury. In the next year, the characterization of both the newly identified and novel targets of Trk and p75NTR will allow us to identify the mechanisms used by these receptors to develop, maintain, and repair the nervous system.

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