

Dąbrowska Justyna, Wójcik Magdalena, Szarpak Julita, Bator Damian, Milanowska Joanna, Nieścior Hubert. Theories of the pathogenesis of schizophrenia. *Journal of Education, Health and Sport*. 2020;10(8):332-339. eISSN 2391-8306. DOI <http://dx.doi.org/10.12775/JEHS.2020.10.08.039>
<https://apcz.umk.pl/czasopisma/index.php/JEHS/article/view/JEHS.2020.10.08.039>
<https://zenodo.org/record/3996262>

The journal has had 5 points in Ministry of Science and Higher Education parametric evaluation. § 8. 2) and § 12. 1. 2) 22.02.2019.

© The Authors 2020;

This article is published with open access at Licensee Open Journal Systems of Nicolaus Copernicus University in Torun, Poland

Open Access. This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution Noncommercial License which permits any noncommercial use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author (s) and source are credited. This is an open access article licensed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution Non commercial license Share alike. (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-sa/4.0/>) which permits unrestricted, non commercial use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided the work is properly cited.

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interests regarding the publication of this paper.

Received: 01.08.2020. Revised: 05.08.2020. Accepted: 22.08.2020.

Theories of the pathogenesis of schizophrenia

Justyna Dąbrowska^{1*}, Magdalena Wójcik¹, Julita Szarpak¹, Damian Bator¹,
Joanna Milanowska², Hubert Nieścior¹

(1) Student Science Club at the Department of Applied Psychology, Medical University of
Lublin

(2) Department of Applied Psychology, Medical University of Lublin

* E-mail address: jdabrowska00@gmail.com

ORCID ID:

Justyna Dąbrowska <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1356-6965>

Magdalena Wójcik <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0999-6284>

Julita Szarpak <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5091-0235>

Damian Bator <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8464-932X>

Joanna Milanowska <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9741-1583>

Hubert Nieścior, <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4709-4396>

Abstract

Introduction: Schizophrenia is one of the most serious and frightening of all mental illnesses. It affects almost 1% of the population worldwide. The main concept and treatment of schizophrenia are based on the dopaminergic hypothesis. However, accumulating evidence has shown that the core pathophysiology of schizophrenia might involve dysfunction in dopaminergic, glutamatergic, serotonergic, and gamma-aminobutyric acid signaling.

The aim of the study: The purpose of this systemic review was to collect and analyse current and new information on the pathogenesis of schizophrenia.

Material and method: Standard criteria were used to review the literature data. The search of articles in the PubMed database was carried out using the following keywords: schizophrenia, dopamine hypothesis, serotonergic hypothesis, hypothesis of schizophrenia .

Description of the state of knowledge: There are evidence that pathogenesis of schizophrenia include dysfunction in dopaminergic, serotonergic, GABAergic, glutamatergic systems. The use of drugs that act on any of these systems reduces the symptoms of the disease. Nicotinic receptors may also be the target for drugs in treatment of schizophrenia. Studies about the role of nicotinic receptors in pathogenesis of schizophrenia show that it normalize many of the sensory processing deficits found in schizophrenia.

Summary: Despite the fact that current concept and treatment are still based on the dopaminergic hypothesis of the disease, existing theories and each new theory, open up different ways for treating schizophrenia. Considering that schizophrenia is one of the most serious and frightening of all mental illnesses and has major public health implications, more research about pathogenesis and ways of treatment is needed.

Key words: schizophrenia, dopamine hypothesis, serotonergic hypothesis, hypothesis of schizophrenia

1. Introduction

Schizophrenia is a complex, heterogeneous behavioral, cognitive syndrome and one of the most serious and frightening of all mental illnesses. The name schizophrenia comes from the early observation that the disease is characterized by "disconnection or disruption of mental functions" [1]. The disease typically appears in late adolescence or early adulthood. It affects up to 1% of the population. The pathomechanism of schizophrenia is not fully understood and current antipsychotics are characterized by severe limitations [2]. It has major public health implications - in England schizophrenia costs society £11.8 billion per year with around a third of this accounted for by direct expenditure on health and social care, provided both in hospitals and the community [3].

2. Symptoms of schizophrenia

Schizophrenia typically presents in early adulthood or late adolescence. It appears earlier in men than in women. Men have also tend to experience a more serious form of the illness with more negative symptoms, less chance of a full recovery, and a generally worse outcome [4]. It is also more frequent in people born in cities [5]. Environmental and social factors have an important role in development of schizophrenia, for example the risk of schizophrenia in migrants is greatest when they form a small proportion of their local community [6].

In schizophrenia, we can find three groups of symptoms – positive, negative and cognitive. Definition of symptoms of schizophrenia [7,8] (Tabl. 1):

Table 1

Positive symptoms

Lack of insight	Failure to understand that symptoms are not real or caused by disease
Delusions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Persecution - Patients think they are victims of some form of threat or are critical to the plot • Passivity - patients think that their thoughts or actions are being controlled by an external force or person • Others - delusions can develop around any topic; for example, impressive, sexual, or religious
Hallucinations	Perception without stimulus. It can be touch, smell, taste, or vision hallucinations. Auditory hallucinations are the most common.
Thought disorder	An inability to use language in a logical and consistent manner. "Knight move" - thoughts go in one direction, but suddenly depart at right angles, like a knight in chess, without a logical chain of thoughts.

Negative Symptoms

Avolition-apathy	Amotivation, anhedonia, asociality
Diminished expressiveness	Verbal and nonverbal

The positive symptoms of schizophrenia tend to relapse and resolve, however some patients experience residual, long-term psychotic symptoms. The negative and cognitive symptoms are usually chronic and are associated with long-term effects on social function. Psychosis appears usually in late adolescence or early adulthood. It can be preceded by a prodromal phase [9,10].

3. Pathogenesis of schizophrenia

3.1 Dopamine hypothesis

In the 1960s the dopamine hypothesis was proposed, due to the first antipsychotic chlorpromazine was found to successfully treat the positive symptoms of patients with schizophrenia. Since then, the development of newer antipsychotics has generally been consistent with the dopamine hypothesis. Use of dopamine antagonists, especially dopamine D2 receptor antagonists normalize increased dopaminergic activity, that is present in people with schizophrenia [11]. The dopamine D2 receptor is a G protein-coupled receptor, all antipsychotic drugs in use today block DA D2 receptors at clinically effective doses [12]. However, a dopamine receptor antagonist is not clinically effective at treating cortical-related symptoms, such as cognitive deficits, in schizophrenia.

There are several mechanisms that may be responsible for cognitive deficits, such as deficits in cortical dopamine function, dysfunction in the NMDA receptor or synaptic elimination. However, etiology of cognitive deficits remains largely unknown [13,14,15]. Molecular imaging studies have supported an association of increased subcortical dopamine transmission with the positive symptoms of schizophrenia, with the limitation that this finding is not pathognomonic [16]. Early post-mortem studies suggested that the neuropathological changes in schizophrenia included both an increase in striatal dopamine levels, and an increase in D2 receptor density [17]. Recent research has shown tyrosine hydroxylase, the rate-limiting enzyme involved in the synthesis of dopamine, is significantly increased in the substantia nigra of patients with schizophrenia compared to patients with depression and healthy controls [18]. The hypothesis that D2 receptors are somehow altered in schizophrenia is supported by recent genome-wide association studies [19].

3.2 Glutamatergic Hypothesis

Glutamate is the main excitatory neurotransmitter and the most common neurotransmitter in the brain [20]. The important glutamatergic pathways in schizophrenia are pathways linking to the cortex, the limbic system, and the thalamus regions [21]. Disturbances in the glutamatergic neurotransmission may influence mainly NMDA receptor functioning. NMDA receptors belong to ligand-gated ion channels, and are important for excitatory neurotransmission, excitotoxicity and plasticity [22,23]. Antagonists of NMDA receptor, such as ketamine can cause similar symptoms as in patients with schizophrenia [24]. In post mortem studies, some disturbances in glutamatergic receptor density and subunit composition in the prefrontal cortex, thalamus, and temporal lobe were found [24]. Morphological and structural brain changes, which may be caused by NMDA receptor hypofunction, can result in the development of psychosis [25,26]. Antipsychotics interacting with dopamine D2 receptor increase the phosphorylation of the NR1 subunit of the NMDA receptor, and thus enhance its activation and, consequently, gene expression [27]. Proton Magnetic Resonance Spectroscopy (1H-MRS) has been used to measure glutamate and glutamine levels in individuals at high risk of psychosis, as well as patients with first episode psychosis and chronic schizophrenia. 1H-MRS studies in schizophrenia have generally found that individuals with clinical or familial risk, and those with first episode psychosis have increased glutamine in anterior cingulate cortex [28,29]. On the other hand patients with chronic schizophrenia have normal or reduced cortical glutamate and glutamine levels [30]. There are several evidences to support glutamatergic hypothesis, nevertheless there are a number of potential limitations to the theory. The use of 1H-MRS as the primary tool for the in vivo imaging of the glutamatergic system has some limitations. In particular 1H-MRS may not be able to recognize intra and extracellular compartments. Changes could reflect alterations in either compartment [31].

3.3 Serotonergic hypothesis

The mechanism of action of the hallucinogenic drug lysergic acid diethylamide was the basis for the development of the serotonergic theory of schizophrenia [32]. Overload of serotonin from the dorsal raphe nucleus resulting from stress may be responsible for disturbed activity of cortical neurons in schizophrenia [33].

There are reports that prolonged stress may trigger serotonergic overload in the cerebral cortex (mainly in anterior cingulate cortex and dorsolateral frontal lobe) [34]. There is not much evidence for role of serotonin in pathophysiology of schizophrenia, however serotonin receptors, mainly 5-HT₃ and 5-HT₆ are promising drug targets for alleviate cognitive and negative symptoms of the disease [35]. Agonists of 5-HT_{1A} receptor may reduce catalepsy induced by antipsychotic drugs [36].

3.4 GABAergic hypothesis

Gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA) is the main inhibitory neurotransmitter in the central nervous system [37]. Proper functioning of GABAergic neurons is necessary for perception, memory, learning and cognition [38]. Imbalance between excitation and inhibition in the cerebral cortex is one of the main factors in the pathophysiology of schizophrenia. The cause of this may be disturbed activity of GABAergic neurons [39]. In patients with schizophrenia, we observe increased dopaminergic signaling, GABA may be useful in the treatment of schizophrenia because it has an inhibitory effect dopaminergic signaling [40]. Post mortem studies found the reduction of glutamic acid decarboxylase-67, which is needed to GABA synthesis. This lack of enzyme was found in brain parts linked with critical cognitive functions such as the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex [38]. In clinical studies, administration of GABA agonists decrease symptoms of schizophrenia [41].

3.5 Nicotinic receptors

It is known, that many people with schizophrenia smoke. Smoking rates in schizophrenia range as high as 70%, which is higher than in any other psychiatric disease[42]. Patients report that smoking helps them to relieve negative symptoms. Studies found that there is disturbed brain cholinergic transmission in patients with schizophrenia [43,44]. Those finding prompts research into the role of nicotinic receptors in pathogenesis of schizophrenia. Studies of nicotinic receptors found that $\alpha 7$ receptors are located in brain regions involved in cognition. Studying of $\alpha 7$ receptors with specific venomous toxins showed that $\alpha 7$ receptors are located in areas of the brain involved in cognition [45]. Nicotine or nicotinic agonists normalize many of the sensory processing deficits found in schizophrenia. These include electrophysiological measures of sensory processing such as P50 sensory gating, pre-pulse inhibition, and smooth pursuit eye movements [46]. In studies conducted on animals, nicotine improves performance on learning and memory tasks [47]. In patients with schizophrenia, nicotine improves performance on attention and working memory tasks, however, the duration of the effects is unknown [48]. Nicotinic receptors can be an attractive drug target for the treatment of schizophrenia.

4. Summary

There are numerous theories about pathogenesis of schizophrenia. However, neither of these theories fully explains the pathogenesis of this disease. Despite the fact that current concept and treatment are still based on the dopaminergic hypothesis of the disease, existing theories and each new theory, open up different ways for treating schizophrenia. Considering how severe the disease is, any new treatment method that gives hope for an effective, non-burdensome therapy is very important.

Schizophrenia is a complex multi-factor disease and according to the current knowledge it is not very probably that it can be treated using one single-target drug.

References

1. Emsley R, Chiliza B, Asmal L, Harvey BH. The nature of relapse in schizophrenia. *BMC Psychiatry*. 2013 13 50. Published 2013 Feb 8. doi:10.1186/1471-244X-13-50
2. Stępnicki P, Kondej M, Kaczor AA. Current Concepts and Treatments of Schizophrenia. *Molecules*. 2018 23(8) 2087. Published 2018 Aug 20. doi:10.3390/molecules23082087
3. Schizophrenia Commission. The abandoned illness: a report from the Schizophrenia Commission. London: Rethink Mental Illness. 2012
4. Jablensky A. Epidemiology of schizophrenia: the global burden of disease and disability. *Eur Arch Psychiatry Clin Neurosci* 2000 250 274-85.
5. Pedersen CB, Mortensen PB. Evidence of a dose-response relationship between urbanicity during upbringing and schizophrenia risk. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 2001 58:1039-46.
6. Boydell J, van Os J, McKenzie K, Allardyce J, Goel R, McCreadie RG, et al. Incidence of schizophrenia in ethnic minorities in London: ecological study into interactions with environment. *BMJ* 2001 323 1336-8.
7. Picchioni MM, Murray RM. Schizophrenia. *BMJ*. 2007 335(7610) 91-95. doi:10.1136/bmj.39227.616447.BE
8. Batinic B. Cognitive Models of Positive and Negative Symptoms of Schizophrenia and Implications for Treatment. *Psychiatr Danub*. 2019 31(Suppl 2) 181-184.
9. Lieberman JA, Perkins D, Belger A, Chakos M, Jarskog F, et al. The early stages of schizophrenia: speculations on pathogenesis, pathophysiology, and therapeutic approaches [published correction appears in *Biol Psychiatry* 2002 Feb 15 51(4) 346]. *Biol Psychiatry*. 2001 50(11) 884-897. doi:10.1016/s0006-3223(01)01303-8
10. Addington J, Heinssen R. Prediction and prevention of psychosis in youth at clinical high risk. *Annu Rev Clin Psychol*. 2012 8 269–289.
11. Yang AC, Tsai SJ. New Targets for Schizophrenia Treatment beyond the Dopamine Hypothesis. *Int J Mol Sci*. 2017 18(8) 1689. Published 2017 Aug 3. doi:10.3390/ijms18081689
12. Kapur S, Remington G. Dopamine D(2) receptors and their role in atypical antipsychotic action: still necessary and may even be sufficient. *Biological Psychiatry*. 2001;50:873–83.
13. Urs NM, Peterson SM, Caron MG. New Concepts in Dopamine D2 Receptor Biased Signaling and Implications for Schizophrenia Therapy. *Biol. Psychiatry*. 2017 81 78–85. doi: 10.1016/j.biopsych.2016.10.011.
14. Moran RJ, Jones MW, Blockeel AJ, Adams RA, Stephan KE, Friston KJ. Losing control under ketamine: Suppressed cortico-hippocampal drive following acute ketamine in rats. *Neuropsychopharmacology*. 2015 40 268–277. doi: 10.1038/npp.2014.184.
15. Glantz LA, Lewis DA. Decreased dendritic spine density on prefrontal cortical pyramidal neurons in schizophrenia. *Arch. Gen. Psychiatry*. 2000 57 65–73. doi: 10.1001/archpsyc.57.1.65.
16. Grunder G, Cumming P. The dopamine hypothesis of schizophrenia: Current status. In: Abel T., Nickl-Jockschat T., editors. *The Neurobiology of Schizophrenia*. Academic Press; Cambridge, MA, USA: 2016. pp. 109–124
17. Lee T, Seeman P. Elevation of brain neuroleptic/dopamine receptors in schizophrenia. *Am J Psychiatry*. 1980;137:191–197.
18. Howes OD, Williams M, Ibrahim K, Leung G, Egerton A, et al. Midbrain dopamine function in schizophrenia and depression: a post-mortem and positron emission tomographic imaging study. *Brain*. 2013 136(Pt 11) 3242-3251. doi:10.1093/brain/awt264

19. Schizophrenia Working Group of the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium. Biological insights from 108 schizophrenia-associated genetic loci. *Nature*. 2014 511(7510) 421-427. doi:10.1038/nature13595
20. Moghaddam B, Javitt D. From revolution to evolution: the glutamate hypothesis of schizophrenia and its implication for treatment. *Neuropsychopharmacology*. 2012 37(1) 4-15. doi:10.1038/npp.2011.181
21. Cull-Candy S, Brickley S, Farrant M. NMDA receptor subunits: diversity, development and disease. *Curr Opin Neurobiol*. 2001 11(3) 327-335. doi:10.1016/s0959-4388(00)00215-4
22. Paoletti P, Neyton J. NMDA receptor subunits: function and pharmacology. *Curr Opin Pharmacol*. 2007 7(1) 39-47. doi:10.1016/j.coph.2006.08.01
23. Harrison PJ, Weinberger DR. Schizophrenia genes, gene expression, and neuropathology: on the matter of their convergence [published correction appears in *Mol Psychiatry*. 2005 Apr 10(4) 420] [published correction appears in *Mol Psychiatry*. 2005 10(8) 804]. *Mol Psychiatry*. 2005 10(1) 40-5. doi:10.1038/sj.mp.4001558
24. Farber NB. The NMDA receptor hypofunction model of psychosis. *Ann N Y Acad Sci*. 2003 1003 119-130. doi:10.1196/annals.1300.008
25. Kondziella D, Brenner E, Eyjolfsson EM, Sonnewald U. How do glial-neuronal interactions fit into current neurotransmitter hypotheses of schizophrenia?. *Neurochem Int*. 2007 50(2) 291-301. doi:10.1016/j.neuint.2006.09.006
26. Stone JM, Morrison PD, Pilowsky LS. Glutamate and dopamine dysregulation in schizophrenia--a synthesis and selective review. *J Psychopharmacol*. 2007 21(4) 440-452. doi:10.1177/0269881106073126
27. Leveque JC, Macías W, Rajadhyaksha A, Carlson RR, Barczak A, et al. Intracellular modulation of NMDA receptor function by antipsychotic drugs. *J Neurosci*. 2000 20(11) 4011-4020. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.20-11-04011.2000
28. Poels EM, Kegeles LS, Kantrowitz JT, Javitt DC, Lieberman JA, et al. Glutamatergic abnormalities in schizophrenia: a review of proton MRS findings. *Schizophr Res*. 2014 152(2-3) 325-332. doi:10.1016/j.schres.2013.12.013
29. Tandon N, Bolo NR, Sanghavi K, Mathew IT, Francis AN, et al. Brain metabolite alterations in young adults at familial high risk for schizophrenia using proton magnetic resonance spectroscopy. *Schizophr Res*. 2013 148(1-3) 59-66. doi:10.1016/j.schres.2013.05.024
30. Natsubori T, Inoue H, Abe O, Takano Y, Iwashiro N, et al. Reduced frontal glutamate + glutamine and N-acetylaspartate levels in patients with chronic schizophrenia but not in those at clinical high risk for psychosis or with first-episode schizophrenia. *Schizophr Bull*. 2014 40(5) 1128-1139. doi:10.1093/schbul/sbt124
31. Howes O, McCutcheon R, Stone J. Glutamate and dopamine in schizophrenia: an update for the 21st century. *J Psychopharmacol*. 2015 29(2) 97-115. doi:10.1177/0269881114563634
32. Aghajanian G. Serotonin model of schizophrenia: Emerging role of glutamate mechanisms. *Brain Res. Rev*. 2000 31 302-312. doi: 10.1016/S0165-0173(99)00046-6.
33. Eggers AE. Extending David Horrobin's membrane phospholipid theory of schizophrenia: Overactivity of cytosolic phospholipase A2 in the brain is caused by overdrive of coupled serotonergic 5HT_{2A/2C} receptors in response to stress. *Med. Hypotheses*. 2012 79 740-743. doi: 10.1016/j.mehy.2012.08.016.
34. Eggers AE. A serotonin hypothesis of schizophrenia. *Med. Hypotheses*. 2013 80 791-794. doi: 10.1016/j.mehy.2013.03.013.
35. Abi-Dargham A. Alterations of serotonin transmission in schizophrenia. *Int. Rev. Neurobiol*. 2007 78 133-164. doi: 10.1016/S0074-7742(06)78005-9.

36. Mombereau C, Arnt J, Mørk A. Involvement of presynaptic 5-HT_{1A} receptors in the low propensity of brexpiprazole to induce extrapyramidal side effects in rats. *Pharmacol. Biochem. Behav.* 2017 153:141–146. doi: 10.1016/j.pbb.2016.12.015.
37. Benes FM. The GABA system in schizophrenia: Cells, molecules and microcircuitry. *Schizophr. Res.* 2015 167 1–3. doi: 10.1016/j.schres.2015.07.017.
38. Tso IF, Fang Y, Phan KL, Welsh RC, Taylor S. Abnormal GABAergic function and face processing in schizophrenia: A pharmacologic-fMRI study. *Schizophr. Res.* 2015 168 338–344. doi: 10.1016/j.schres.2015.08.022.
39. Guidotti A, Auta J, Davis JM, Dong E, Grayson DR, et al. GABAergic dysfunction in schizophrenia: New treatment strategies on the horizon. *Psychopharmacology (Berl.)* 2005 180 191–205. doi: 10.1007/s00213-005-2212-8.
40. Garbutt JC, van Kammen DP. The interaction between GABA and dopamine: Implications for schizophrenia. *Schizophr. Bull.* 1983 9 336–353. doi: 10.1093/schbul/9.3.336.
41. Wassef A, Baker J, Kochan LD. GABA and schizophrenia: A review of basic science and clinical studies. *J. Clin. Psychopharmacol.* 2003 23 601–640. doi: 10.1097/01.jcp.0000095349.32154.a5.
42. George TP, Krystal JH. Comorbidity of psychiatric and substance abuse disorders. *Curr Opin Psychiatry.* 2000 13(3) 327–331
43. Raedler TJ, Bymaster FP, Tandon R, Copolov D, Dean B. Towards a muscarinic hypothesis of schizophrenia. *Mol Psychiatry.* 2007 12(3) 232–246. doi:10.1038/sj.mp.4001924
44. Brunzell DH, McIntosh JM. Alpha7 nicotinic acetylcholine receptors modulate motivation to self-administer nicotine: implications for smoking and schizophrenia. *Neuropsychopharmacology.* 2012 37(5) 1134–1143. doi:10.1038/npp.2011.299
45. Wallace TL, Bertrand D. Neuronal $\alpha 7$ Nicotinic Receptors as a Target for the Treatment of Schizophrenia. *Int Rev Neurobiol.* 2015 124 79–111. doi:10.1016/bs.imn.2015.08.003
46. Tregellas JR, Wylie KP. Alpha7 Nicotinic Receptors as Therapeutic Targets in Schizophrenia. *Nicotine Tob Res.* 2019;21(3):349–356. doi:10.1093/ntr/nty034
47. Levin ED, Simon BB. Nicotinic acetylcholine involvement in cognitive function in animals. *Psychopharmacology (Berl.)* 1998 138(3–4) 217–230.
48. Jacobsen LK, D’Souza DC, Mencl WE, Pugh KR, Skudlarski P, Krystal JH. Nicotine effects on brain function and functional connectivity in schizophrenia. *Biol Psychiatry.* 2004 55(8) 850–858.