

**THE EFFECTS OF CRF AND UROCORTINS
ON THE AMYGDALAR-HYPOTHALAMIC-HIPPOCAMPAL SYSTEM**

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LIST OF PUBLICATIONS

1. Original publications the present work is based on:

I. Bagosi Z, Balangó B, **Pintér D**, Csabafi K, Jászberényi M, Szabó G, Telegdy G: The effects of CRF and urocortins on the hippocampal glutamate release (Neurochemistry International, 2015 Nov; 90:67-71.) **IF: 3.385**

II. **Pintér D**, Balangó B, Simon B, Palotai M, Csabafi K, Dobó É, Ibos KE, Bagosi Z: The effects of CRF and the urocortins on the hippocampal acetylcholine release in rats (Neuropeptides, 2021 Aug; 88: 102147) **IF: 2.411**

2. Other publications cited in the present work:

I. Bagosi Z, Palotai M, Simon B, Bokor P, Buzás A, Balangó B, **Pintér D**, Jászberényi M, Csabafi K, Szabó G: Selective CRF2 receptor agonists ameliorate the anxiety- and depression-like state developed during chronic nicotine treatment and consequent acute withdrawal in mice (Brain Research, 2016 Dec; 1652:21-29.) **IF: 3.033**

II. Buzás A, Bokor P, Balangó B, **Pintér D**, Palotai M, Simon B, Csabafi K, Telegdy G, Szabó G, Bagosi Z: Changes in striatal dopamine release and locomotor activity following acute withdrawal from chronic nicotine are mediated by CRFR1, but not CRFR2, receptors (Brain Research, 2019 Mar; 1706: 41-47) **IF: 3.370**

III. Bagosi Z, Csabafi K, Balangó B, **Pintér D**, Szolomájer-Csikós O, Bozsó Z, Tóth G, Telegdy G, Szabó G. Anxiolytic- and antidepressant-like actions of Urocortin 2 and its fragments in mice (Brain Research, 2018 Feb 1; 1680:62-68.) **IF: 3.103**

3. Poster presentations related to the present work:

I. Bagosi Z, Bokor P, Buzás A, Balangó B, **Pintér D**, Csabafi K, Szabó G. The effects of the selective CRF2 receptor agonists in mice exposed to chronic nicotine treatment and consequent acute withdrawal (FAMÉ, Pécs, Hungary, 2016)

II. Bagosi Z, Balangó B, **Pintér D**, Bokor P, Buzás A, Csabafí K, Szabó G. The effects of selective CRF receptor antagonists in rats exposed to chronic nicotine treatment and consequent acute withdrawal (FENS, Pécs, Hungary, 2017)

CUMULATIVE IMPACT FACTOR: 15.302

TOTAL CITATION: 28

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

[³H] = tritium
ACH = acetylcholine
ACTH = adrenocorticotropic hormone
AHH = amygdalar-hypothalamic-hippocampal
CNS = central nervous system
CPM = count per minute
CRF = corticotropin-releasing factor
CRF-BP = corticotropin-releasing factor-binding protein
CRFR1 = corticotropin-releasing factor receptor type 1
CRFR2 = corticotropin-releasing factor receptor type 2
CRH = corticotropin-releasing hormone
GABA = gamma-amino-butyric acid
GLU = glutamate
GPCRs = G protein-coupled receptors
HPA = hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal
ICV = intracerebroventricular
SCP = stresscopin
SRP = stresscopin-related peptide
UCN1= urocortin I
UCN2= urocortin II
UCN3= urocortin III

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. CRF

Corticotropin-releasing hormone (CRH), originally named corticotropin-releasing factor (CRF) and occasionally called corticoliberin, is a significant neurohormone of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis and also an important neurotransmitter released from hypothalamic and extrahypothalamic nuclei in mammals.

CRF is found mainly in the paraventricular nucleus of the hypothalamus (PVN), the central nucleus of the amygdala and hindbrain regions in the CNS, and in the gut, skin, and adrenal gland in the periphery.

1.2. The urocortins

Since CRF was first characterized, a growing family of ligands and receptors has been discovered. The mammalian family members include CRF, urocortin I (UCN1) [1], urocortin II (UCN2) [2], also known as stresscopin-related peptide (SRP), and urocortin III (UCN 3), also known as stresscopin (SCP) [3], along with two CRF receptors, CRFR1 and CRFR2 [4], and a CRF-binding protein (CRF-BP) [5]. These family members share common elements considering their aminoacidic composition and intracellular signalisation (Figures 1-2), but show different aspects regarding their anatomical distribution (Figures 3-4) and physiological functions (Figures 5-6).

UCN1 is predominantly expressed in cell bodies of the Edinger-Westphal nucleus in the brain. In the periphery, it has been found in the gastrointestinal tract, testis, cardiac myocytes, thymus, skin, and spleen. UCN2 expression has been described in hypothalamus, brainstem, and spinal cord in the CNS, and in the heart, blood cells, and adrenal gland in the periphery. UCN3 expression has been discovered in hypothalamus and amygdala in the CNS, and in the gastrointestinal tract and pancreas in the periphery. While CRF has tenfold higher affinity for CRFR1 than for CRFR2, UCN1 has equal affinities for both receptors. Both CRF and UCN1 can be found attached to CRF-BP. Though UCN2 and UCN3 appear to be selective for CRFR2, they may also activate CRFR1 at higher concentrations [6]. UCN2 and UCN3 cannot be bound by CRF-BP.

Previously it has been suggested that CRF-related peptides could play important roles in the regulation of the endocrine, autonomic and behavioral responses to stress [7]. The role of CRF, activating CRFR1, is stimulatory upon stress responsivity, whereas the role of UCN2 and UCN3, both acting on CRFR2, appears to be inhibitory upon stress sensitivity [8].

Peptide	Sequence	Length	Identity (%)
hCRF	SEEPPI SL DLTFHLLREVLEMARAEQLAQQ A HSNRKLMEII	41	100
oCRF	SQEPP I SLDLTFHLLREVLEMTKADQLABQAHSNRKLLDIA	41	83
URO	NDDPP I SIDLTFLHLLRNMIEMARIENEREQAGLNRKYLDEV	41	54
hUCN	DNP SL SIDLTFLHLLRTLLELARTQSQRERAEQNRIIFDSV	40	43
SVG	ZGPP I SIDLSLELLRK MIEI EKQ EKE KQQAANNRLLDTI	40	48
hSRP	IVL SL DVPIGLLQILLEQARARAAREQATTNARILARV	38	34
mUCNII	VIL SL DVPIGLLRILLEQARYKAARNQAATNAQILAHV	38	34
hSCP	FTL SL DVPTNIMNLLFNIAKAKNLRAQAAANAHLMAQI	38	32
mUCNIII	FTL SL DVPTNIMNILFNI D KAKNLRAKAAANAQLMAQI	38	26

Figure 1: The aminoacidic composition of CRFR agonists

Frank M. Dautzenberg and Richard L Hauger: *The CRF peptide family and their receptors: yet more partners discovered* (Trends in Pharmacological Science 2002, 23:71-77)

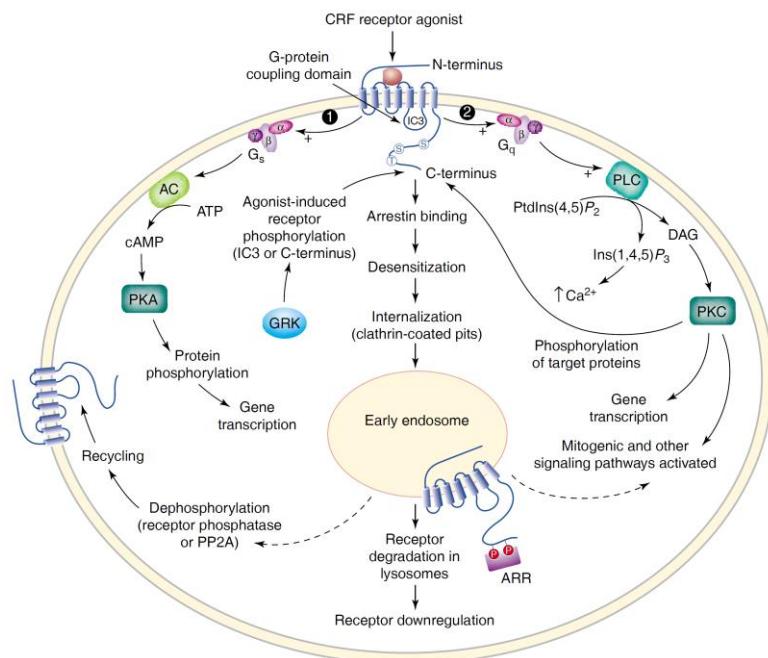


Figure 2: The intracellular signalisation of CRFR agonists

Frank M. Dautzenberg and Richard L Hauger: *The CRF peptide family and their receptors: yet more partners discovered* (Trends in Pharmacological Science 2002, 23:71-77)

As the only ligand with equally high affinity for both receptors, UCN1's role may be promiscuous [9, 10]. Lately, it has been proposed that the stress-like actions observed after the administration of these neuropeptides is stressor dependent (physical and psychological) and species specific (mice and rats) [11, 12].

Recently, new physiological functions have been attributed to CRF-related peptides and receptors, including regulation of food intake and satiety [13], modulation of gastrointestinal motility [14], cardioprotection and vasodilation [15].

1.3. The CRF receptors

CRFRs belong to the class B subtype of G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) [16]. CRFR1 and CRFR2 are produced from distinct genes and have several splice variants expressed in various central and peripheral tissues. CRFR1 has α and β isoforms in addition to subtypes designated c-h, which have been detected in human and rodent tissues. CRFR2 is expressed in three functional subtypes, α , β , and γ . These isoforms differ in their N-terminal sequence as well as their distribution in both tissues and species. Both CRFR2 α and CRFR2 β have been detected in human and rodents. However, to date, CRFR2 γ has only been reported in humans. There is nearly 70% identity between CRFR1 and CRFR2 at the aminoacid level with the transmembrane and intracellular domains of the CRFRs presenting the highest homology (over 80% identity). The third intracellular loop is the receptor region thought to interact with the G-proteins for most GPCRs. In the CRFR family, the third intracellular loops are identical between receptors. Specific sites of ligand action on CRFRs have been identified through mutagenesis and chimaeric-receptor studies in which the N terminus, second and third extracellular domains, and the N terminus juxtamembrane region have been shown to be important in determining the ligand binding and receptor specificity [17].

The anatomical distribution of these receptors completed the deduction of the physiological functions of their ligands. Both receptors are found in the CNS and the periphery, with CRFR1 being more abundant in the CNS and CRFR2 being predominant in the periphery. CRFR1 is distributed throughout the cerebral cortex, cerebellum, olfactory bulb medial septum, hippocampus, amygdala, and pituitary. Central CRFR2 is limited to sites in the lateral septum and hypothalamus, but is widely expressed in peripheral tissues, including the heart, gastro-intestinal tract, lung, skeletal muscle, and vasculature. The choroid plexus is also a major site of CRFR2 expression [18].

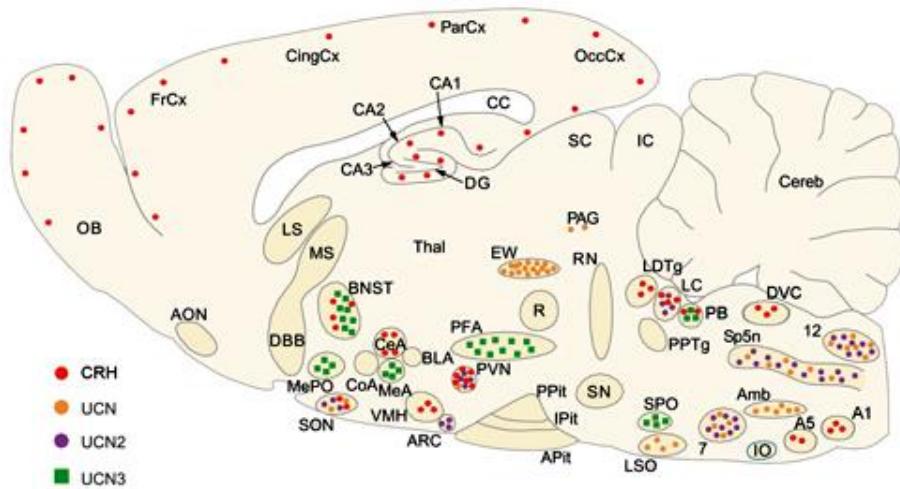


Figure 3: The anatomical distribution of CRF and the urocortins

Johannes M.H.M Reul and Florian Holsboer: *Corticotropin-releasing factor receptors 1 and 2 in anxiety and depression* (Current Opinion in Pharmacology 2002, 2:23-33)

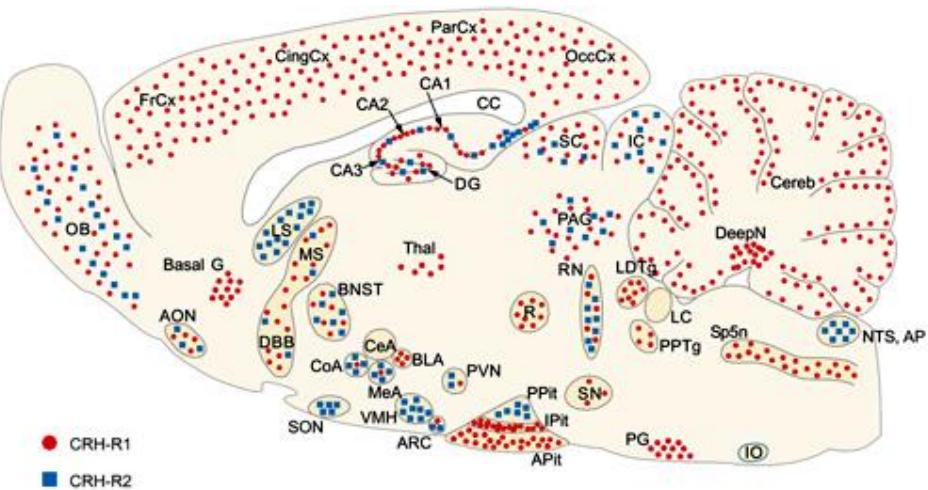


Figure 4: The anatomical distribution of the CRFRs

Johannes M.H.M Reul, Florian Holsboer: *Corticotropin-releasing factor receptors 1 and 2 in anxiety and depression* (Current Opinion in Pharmacology 2002, 2:23-33)

Besides the membrane-bound CRF receptors, there is a soluble one, named CRF-BP that can bind CRF and UCN1 and that is thought to modulate the endocrine activity of these peptides. The CRF-BP is a 37-kDa N-linked glycoprotein expressed in rodent and primate brain and pituitary. In humans, CRF-BP is found in the liver and in the circulation and has been proposed to prevent inappropriate pituitary-adrenal stimulation during pregnancy. Recombinant CRF-BP has been shown to block CRF-induced adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH) secretion from rat anterior pituitary cells. CRF-BP has also been detected in brain regions not associated with CRF activity, suggesting that it may also have CRF-independent actions [17, 19].

In order to investigate the physiological, pharmacological and therapeutical role of CRFR1 and CRFR2 first non-selective, and later selective CRFR antagonists have been developed. The first CRFR antagonist synthesised and studied was α -helical CRF 9-41, that efficiently blocked CRF-induced ACTH secretion [20] and stress-induced locomotor activation [21], followed by D-Phe CRF 12–41, a more potent antagonist of CRF, than α -helical CRF 9-41 [22]. Astressin, a novel CRFR antagonist, was found to be particularly potent at inhibiting the HPA axis. It could reverse the CRF- or stress-induced anxiogenic-like behaviour, but it could not prevent, CRF or stress-induced locomotor hyperactivity [23]. Both α -helical CRF 9-41, D-Phe CRF 12-41 and astressin are competitive and non-selective antagonists of CRF, though astressin seem to have a different pharmacologic profile. CP-154,526 and its structurally related analog antalarmin are selective nonpeptidic CRFR1 antagonists used especially to characterize the central actions of CRFR1s. Both compounds were able to penetrate the blood-brain barrier and antagonize endocrine and behavioural effects of CRF, UCN1 or stressors. Though results with CP-154,526 [24] may seem confusing, studies with antalarmin [25-27] may prove promising for future anxiolytic and antidepressant research [28]. Antisauvagine 30 and astressin 2B, structurally derived from sauvagine and astressin, respectively, are selective peptidic CRFR2 antagonists [29] used preferentially to scrutinize the peripheral functions of CRFR2s [30, 31]. Selective antagonistic studies suggested that CRF- and stress-induced opposite actions on upper and lower gut transit in mice are mediated by different CRF receptor subtypes: the activation of CRFR1 receptors stimulates colonic propulsive activity, whereas activation of CRFR2 receptors inhibits gastric emptying during stress [14]. These studies indicate the therapeutical potential of CRF receptor antagonists in disorders of a gut-brain axis, such as inflammatory bowel diseases or irritable bowel syndrome [32].

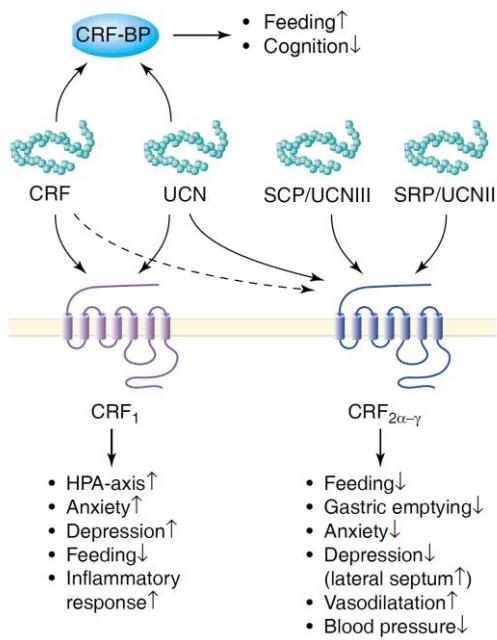


Figure 5: The physiological functions of CRFRs

Frank M. Dautzenberg and Richard L Hauger: *The CRF peptide family and their receptors: yet more partners discovered* (Trends in Pharmacological Science 2002, 23:71-77)

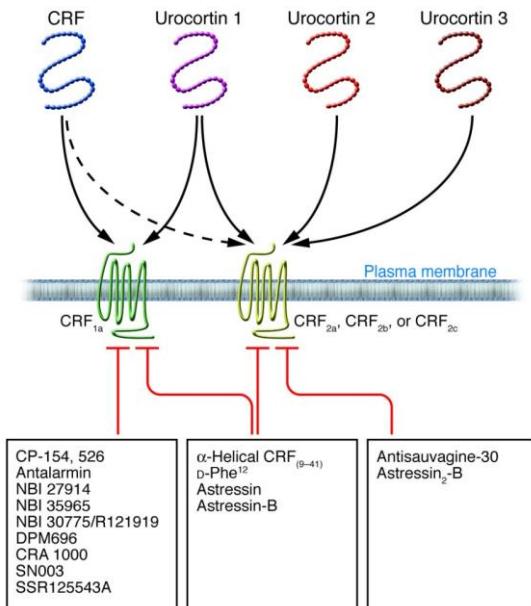


Figure 6: The pharmacological actions of CRFR agonists and antagonists

Yvette Taché, Bruno Bonaz: *Corticotropin-releasing factor receptors and stress-related alterations of gut motor function* (Journal of Clinical Investigation 2007, 117:33–40)

1.4. The hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) system

CRF a hypothalamic neurohormone and an extrahypothalamic neurotransmitter that mediates the endocrine, autonomic and behavioral responses to stress [33]. As a hypothalamic neurohormone, CRF activates the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis [7]. CRF is secreted from the paraventricular nucleus (PVN) of the hypothalamus and released into circulation at the level of median eminence; reaching the anterior pituitary it stimulates the secretion of adrenocorticotropic hormone (ACTH), which on its turn stimulates the production of glucocorticoids in the adrenal cortex [34]. The increase of plasma glucocorticoid concentration not only reflects the activation of the HPA axis, but it exerts negative feedback effects on the hypothalamus, the anterior pituitary and the hippocampus and positive feedback effect on the amygdala [35].

1.5. The amygdalar-hypothalamic-hippocampal (AHH) system

As an extrahypothalamic neurotransmitter, CRF may also modulate the HPA axis [35]. CRF is also synthesized in the central nucleus of the amygdala (CeA) found in the vicinity of the medial nucleus of the amygdala (MeA) and the ventral subiculum (vSub) region of the hippocampus [36]. Neurons from these regions (especially Mea and vSub) send GABAergic or glutamatergic projections to the GABAergic neurons of the bed nucleus of the stria terminalis (BNST) and the peri-paraventricular nuclei (peri-PVN), which exert a tonic GABAergic inhibition upon the paraventricular CRF synthesis/release [8, 37]. Thus, the amygdala through GABAergic-GABAergic disinhibition increases, whereas the hippocampus through glutamatergic-GABAergic inhibition decreases the activity of the HPA axis, respectively [38, 39].

1.6. CRF, urocortins, CRF receptors and the hippocampus

Besides the regulation of the stress responses, CRF and the urocortins could play an important role in the modulation of cognitive processes along with other neuropeptides [40, 41]. This second role is supported by the following lines of evidence: CRF-positive neurons and their projections are also found in various brain regions linked to cognition, including the hippocampus and the prefrontal and cingulate cortex [36]. UCN1 expression is represented predominantly in the Edinger-Westphal nucleus, but it was also reported in one of the cholinergic brainstem nuclei, the laterodorsal tegmental nucleus, that may represent a major site of interaction of the CRF/urocortin system with the cholinergic system [42]. UCN2 is expressed, amongst other sites, in the noradrenergic locus coeruleus, that, together with the

cholinergic laterodorsal tegmental nucleus, is implicated in mediation of arousal [42]. UCN3 expression was not reported in any regions implicated in cognitive processes, but projections from regions rich in UCN3 expression, such as the perifornical area of the hypothalamus, the medial nucleus of the amygdala, the bed nucleus of the stria terminalis to sites involved in learning and memory, such as the hippocampus, cannot be excluded [42]. In addition, both CRFR1 and CRFR2 receptors are moderately to strongly expressed in the olfactory bulbs, the hippocampus, the entorhinal cortex, the bed nucleus of the stria terminalis and the periaqueductal grey, many of these brain regions being involved in the mediation of arousal, attention, learning and memory [43, 44]. These observations raise the possibility that activation or inhibition of the CRF receptors can affect these types of behavior [45]

2. PURPOSES

Our previous *in vitro* studies have demonstrated that CRF and UCN1 stimulate the hypothalamic and amygdalar GABA release in rats and that this stimulatory effect is mediated *via* CRFR1, and not CRFR2 [46]. The aim of the present studies was to investigate the effects of CRF and the urocortins on the hippocampal glutamate and acetylcholine release in rats in similar *in vitro* conditions.

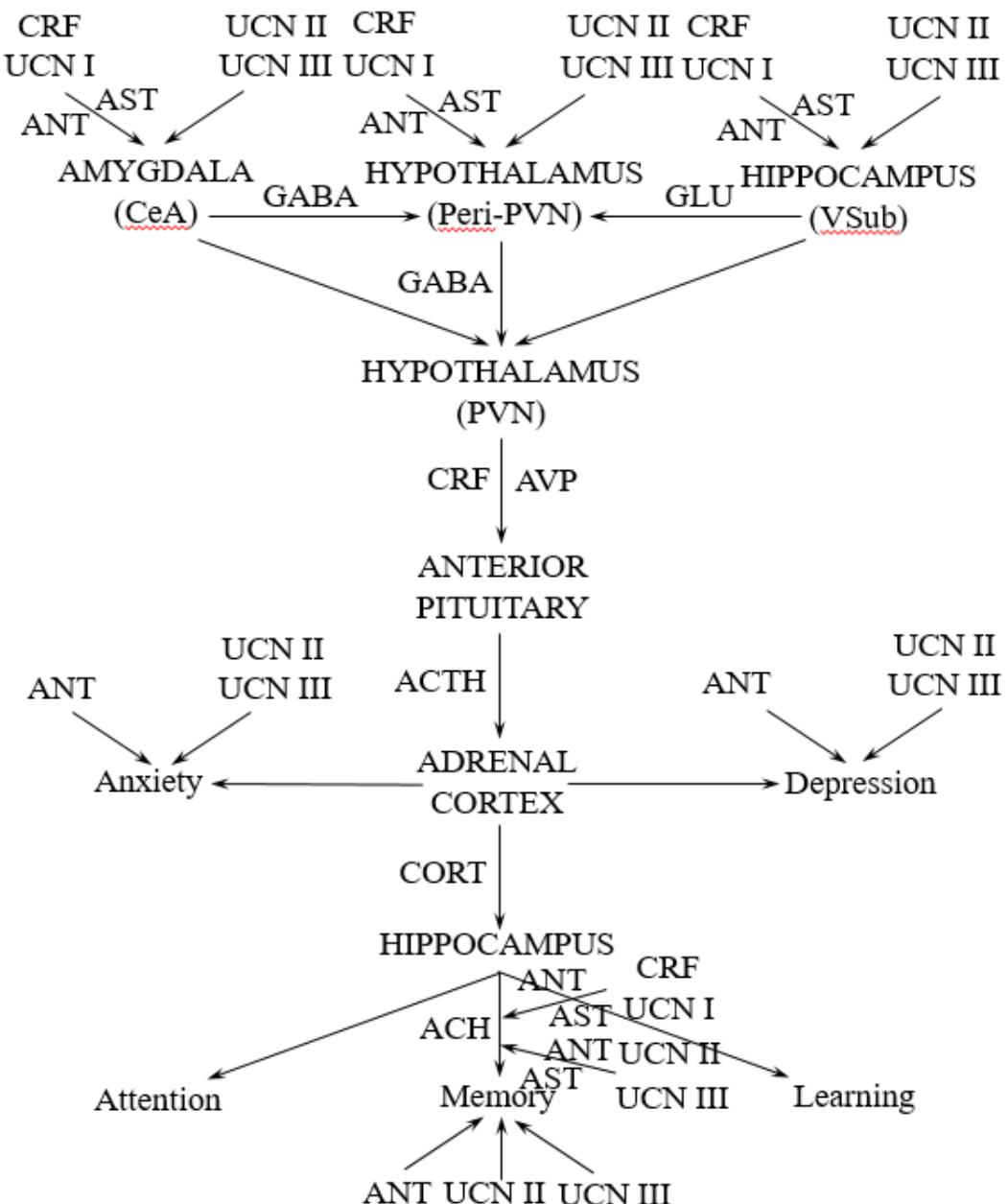


Figure 7: The role of the AHH system in the regulation of the HPA system

3. MATERIALS AND METHODS

3.1. Materials

The CRFR agonists used in the experiments were:

Corticotropin-releasing hormone, CRH (Bachem, Switzerland);
 Urocortin I (Bachem, Switzerland), non-selective CRFR agonist;
 Urocortin II (Bachem, Switzerland), selective CRFR2 agonist;
 Urocortin III (Bachem, Switzerland), selective CRFR2 agonist.

The CRFR antagonists used in the experiments were:

Antalarmin (Sigma-Aldrich, Austria), selective CRFR1 antagonist;
 Asstressin2B (Sigma-Aldrich, Austria), selective CRFR2 antagonist.

Other substances used in experiments were:

[³H]ACH (Amersham, USA), tritium labelled acetylcholine;
 [³H]GLU (Amersham, USA), tritium labelled glutamate;
 Krebs solution: NaCl, KCl, MgSO₄, NaHCO₃, glucose, KH₂PO₄ and CaCl₂ (Reanal, Hungary);
 Saline solution (NaCl inj. of 0.9 %, Biogal, Hungary);
 Ultima Gold (Perkin Elmer, USA), scintillation fluid;
 Mixture of 5 % CO₂ and 95 % O₂ for continuous gassing of the tissues;
 Nembutal (CEVA-Phylaxia, Hungary) for general anesthesia of the rats.

3.2. Animals

Male Wistar rats (Animal Husbandry Services, Domaszék, Hungary) weighing 150-250 g were used. During the experiments they were kept and handled in accordance with the instructions of the University of Szeged Ethical Committee for the Protection of Animals in Research which are concordant with the European Communities Council Directive of 24 November 1986 (86/609/EEC).

3.3. Surgery

For the intracerebroventricular (ICV) administration of neuropeptides, the rats were implanted with a stainless steel Luer cannula (10 mm long) aimed at the right lateral cerebral ventricle under Nembutal (35 mg/kg, ip) anesthesia. Cannulas were secured to the skull with

dental cement and acrylate. The rats were used after a recovery period of at least 5 days. The implantation of the cannula and the isolation of different brain regions were made according to the Stereotaxic Atlas Of The Rat Brain (Pellegrino et al. 1979), after the following coordinates: lateral cerebral ventricle: 0.2 mm posterior to the bregma, 1.7 mm lateral to the bregma and 3.7 mm deep from the dural surface; hypothalamus: rostro-caudal, RC +2.6 - -2.6 mm, medio-lateral, ML +1,5 - -1,5 mm, dorso-ventral, DV +7 - +10 mm; striatum RC +4 - -1 mm, ML +1 - +5 mm, DV +3 - +8 mm; amygdala: RC 0 - -2 mm, ML +3 - +6 mm, DV +7 - +10 mm considering the bregma as point of reference.

3.4. Treatment

In vivo administration of CRF agonists or antagonists was performed ICV through the cannula implanted in the right lateral cerebral ventricles 30 min before the animals were sacrificed. *In vitro* administration of the substances will be described as part of the *in vitro* superfusion studies.

3.5. Methods

3.5.1 *In vitro* superfusion studies

The hippocampal glutamate and acetylcholine release were measured by means of an *in vitro* superfusion system [47]. First the rats were decapitated, and their brains were removed and dissected in a Petri dish filled with ice-cold Krebs solution. The hippocampus was isolated from each rat according to the following stereotaxic coordinates: rostro-caudal - 4.0 to - 6.0 mm, medio-lateral + 2.0 to + 5.0 mm, dorso-ventral + 3.0 to + 8.0 mm, using bregma as a point of reference [48]. The brain tissue was cut into 3 μ m slices with a tissue chopper (McIlwain Inc., USA). The brain slices were incubated for 30 min in 8 ml of Krebs solution (Reanal Ltd., Hungary), submerged in a water bath at 37 °C and gassed through a single-use needle with a mixture of 5% CO₂ and 95% O₂. During the incubation, 15 mM of [³H]glutamate (PerkinElmer Inc., USA) or [³H]acetylcholine (PerkinElmer Inc., USA) was added to the incubation medium. After incubation, the tritium-labelled brain slices were transferred to each of the four cylindrical perspex chambers of a superfusion system (Experimetria Ltd., Hungary). Golden electrodes were attached to both halves of the chambers and connected to an ST-02 electrical stimulator (Experimetria Ltd., Hungary). A multichannel peristaltic pump (Gilson Minipuls 2) was used to perfuse the brain slices at a constant rate of 300 μ l/min. The slices were superfused for 30 min to allow tissue equilibrium, and then the

superfusates were collected in Eppendorf tubes by a multichannel fraction collector (Gilson FC 203B).

The hippocampal slices were pretreated with 0.1 nM of the selective CRFR1 antagonist antalarmin (Sigma-Aldrich Inc., USA) or 1 nM of the selective CRFR2 antagonist astressin₂B (Sigma-Aldrich Inc., USA), and then treated with 100 nM of non-selective CRFR agonists, such as CRF (Bachem Ltd., Switzerland) and UCN1 (Bachem Ltd., Switzerland) or 100 nM of selective CRFR2 agonists, such as UCN2 (Bachem Ltd., Switzerland) and UCN3 (Bachem Ltd., Switzerland). CRF and the urocortins did not affect the baseline acetylcholine release and therefore, the hippocampus was stimulated electrically that may mimick the stress-induced hippocampal acetylcholine release. Hence, after 2 min, electrical stimulation consisting of square-wave impulses (duration: 2 min, voltage: 100 V, pulse length: 5 ms, frequency: 10 Hz) was delivered to each of the four chambers. The total collecting time was 32 min (4x16 samples, 2 min each) and the peak of the fractional release was observed at 14 minutes.

The brain tissue was removed from each chamber and solubilized in 200 ml of Krebs solution, using an ultrasonic homogenizer (Branson Sonifier 250). After the addition of 3 ml of Ultima Gold scintillation fluid (PerkinElmer Inc., USA) to the samples and the remaining brain tissue, the radioactivity was measured with a liquid scintillation spectrometer (Tri-carb 2100TR, Packard Inc., USA) and expressed in count per minute (CPM). The fractional release was calculated as the ratio between the radioactivity of the samples and that of the remaining brain tissue.

3.5.2 *In vivo* behavioral studies

3.5.2.1 Elevated plus-maze test

Thirty minutes after the ICV treatment, the rats were evaluated in an elevated plus-maze test, validated by Lister and Rodgers to investigate anxiety-like behavior [49, 50]. The apparatus consists of a plus-shaped wooden platform elevated at 50 cm from the floor, made-up by four opposing arms of 50 cm × 10 cm. Two of the opposing arms are enclosed by 40 cm-high side and end walls (closed arms), whereas the other two arms have no walls (open arms). The principle of the test is that open arms are more fear-provoking and the ratio of the times spent in open vs. closed arms, or the ratio of the entries into open vs. closed arms, reflects the relative safety of closed arms, as compared with the relative danger of open arms. Each rat was placed in the central area of 10 cm × 10 cm of the maze, facing one of the open

arms. For a 5 minutes period the following parameters were recorded by an observer sitting at 100 cm distance from the center of the plus-maze: a. the percentage of the number of entries into the open arms relative to the total number of entries, b. the percentage of the time spent in the open arms relative to the total time and c. the total number of entries into the open and the closed arms. Entry into an arm was defined as the entry of all four feet of the animal into that arm. The apparatus was cleaned up with sodium hypochlorite solution (HIP-TOM Ltd., Hungary) between the subjects.

3.5.2.2 Porsolt's forced swim test

In parallel, the rats were evaluated for 5 minutes in a forced swim test, invented by Porsolt et al. to investigate depression-like behavior [51]. The apparatus consists of a plexiglass cylinder of 50 cm height and 20 cm diameter positioned on a table. The cylinder was half-filled with water maintained at 25 ± 1 °C. The principle of the test is that in such a situation, from which they cannot escape, animals rapidly became immobile, that is, floating in an upright position and making only small movements to keep their heads above water. Meanwhile their attempt to escape the cylinder by climbing or swimming may decrease or cease eventually. Each rat was dropped individually into the water. For a 5 minutes period the following parameters were recorded by an observer sitting at 100 cm distance from the table: a. the climbing activity (the time that rats spent with climbing the walls, in their attempt to escape the cylinder), b. the swimming activity (the time that rats spent with swimming in the water, in their attempt to remain at the surface) and c. the time of immobility (the time that rats spent in an upright position on the surface with its front paws together). A 3 second period was considered a time unit, thus the climbing and the swimming activities and the time of immobility were expressed in time units. The water from the apparatus was changed between the subjects.

3.5.2.3 Morris' water-maze test

To assess the effects of CRFR1 antagonists and CRFR2 agonists on acquisition of spatial reference memory, subjects were tested in the Morris water maze [43], as described previously [75]. Briefly, subjects were trained to reach a hidden platform in a 1.8 m open-field water (25 ± 1 °C) maze after receiving ICV pretreatment (-30 min) with antalarmin, UCN2 or UCN3. The submerged platform (size of platform 10 cm×10 cm, 1 cm below surface of water) was maintained in the northeast quadrant. The room was dimly lit by diffuse light reflected from four floodlights situated beneath the rim of the maze and was equipped with

prominent extra-pool cues. The rats' performance was monitored by an observer situated at 1 m distance. The following three dependent measures: latency to reach the platform, path length (distance traveled) to the platform, and cumulative distance from the platform (an index of search error or proximity to the platform during the trial) [20]. Swim speed was calculated as the total path length divided by the total trial duration. The animals were trained for 3 days, before the test. On each day, subjects started each trial facing the exterior at a different, pseudorandomly determined compass point (N, E, S, W), except for the first trial of the first day when they were restricted to a starting point distant from the platform (S, W). Trials ended when the platform was located, after which the subjects spent 30 s on the platform or, for subjects that did not escape, 90 s had elapsed.

3.6. Statistics

For the statistical analysis of our *in vitro* studies, the fractional release of glutamate and acetylcholine was calculated and analyzed by analysis of variance (ANOVA, Statistica v5.0, StatSoft Inc.). The differences between groups were tested by one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post hoc comparison test. In cases of homogenised tissues and the differences between samples were determined by two-way ANOVA with repeated measures in cases of superfused tissues. A probability level of 0.05 or less was accepted as indicating a statistically significant difference.

Statistical analysis of the results of our *in vivo* behavioral studies was performed by analysis of variance (GraphPad Prism, GraphPad Software Inc., USA). The differences between groups were determined by one-way ANOVA followed by Holm-Sidak's post hoc test for pair-wise comparisons. The probability level of 0.05 or less was accepted as indicating a statistically significant difference.

4. RESULTS

4.1. The effects of CRF and urocortins on the hippocampal glutamate release

CRF and UCN1 (both of 100 nM concentration) decreased significantly the hippocampal [³H]glutamate release elicited by electrical stimulation [$t(6, 11) = 2.816$; $p < 0.05$ for CRF *vs.* the control, and $t(6, 11) = 3.352$; $p < 0.05$ for UCN1 *vs.* the control]. In contrast, UCN2 and UCN3 (both of 100 nM concentration) did not affect significantly the hippocampal [³H]glutamate release enhanced by electrical stimulation. The effect of CRF [$F(2, 31) = 5.303$; $p < 0.05$ for CRF *vs.* control] was reversed remarkably by antalarmin [$F(1, 31) = 2.387$; $p < 0.05$ for CRF + antalarmin *vs.* CRF alone], but not by astressin 2B, both being administered in equimolar doses (100 nM). Also, the effect of UCN1 [$F(2, 31) = 15.712$; $p < 0.05$ for UCN1 + antalarmin *vs.* UCN1 alone] was reversed completely by antalarmin [$F(1, 31) = 13.958$; $p < 0.05$ for UCN1 + antalarmin *vs.* UCN1 alone], but not by astressin 2B, both being administered in equimolar doses (100 nM). CRF, UCN1, UCN2 or UCN3 did not change the basal release of [³H]glutamate. Nevertheless, antalarmin and astressin 2B alone, did not change the stimulated release of [³H]glutamate.

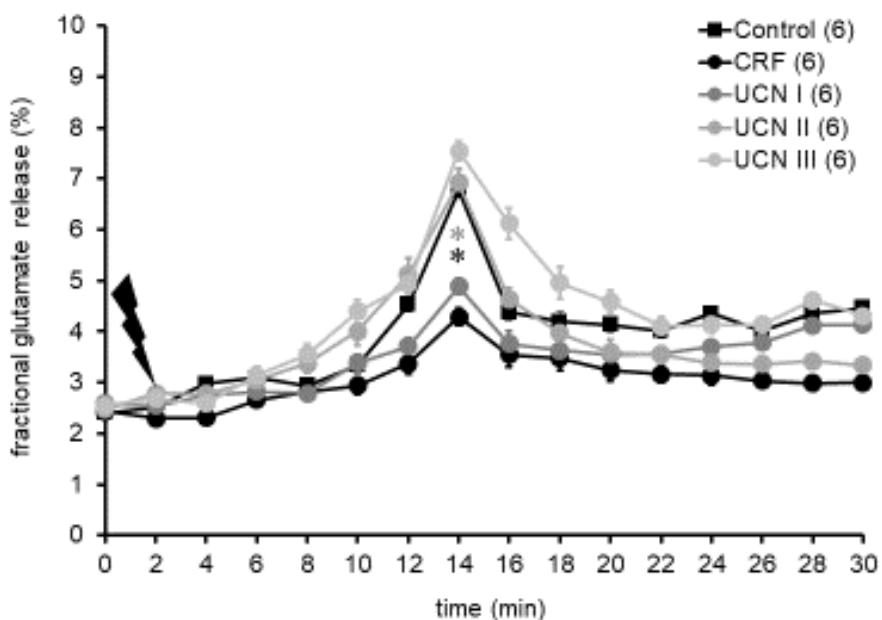


Figure 8: The effects of CRF and the urocortins on the hippocampal glutamate release in rats

CRF and UCN1 (100 nM) decreased significantly the fractional [³H]glutamate release from rat hippocampal slices following electrical stimulation, whereas UCN2 and UCN3 were ineffective. Values are presented as fractional release (%) \pm SEM; the number of animals used was 2 for each experiment and the numbers of slices is indicated in brackets. A probability level of 0.05 or less was accepted as a statistically significant difference and indicated with * $p < 0.05$ for CRF *vs.* control.

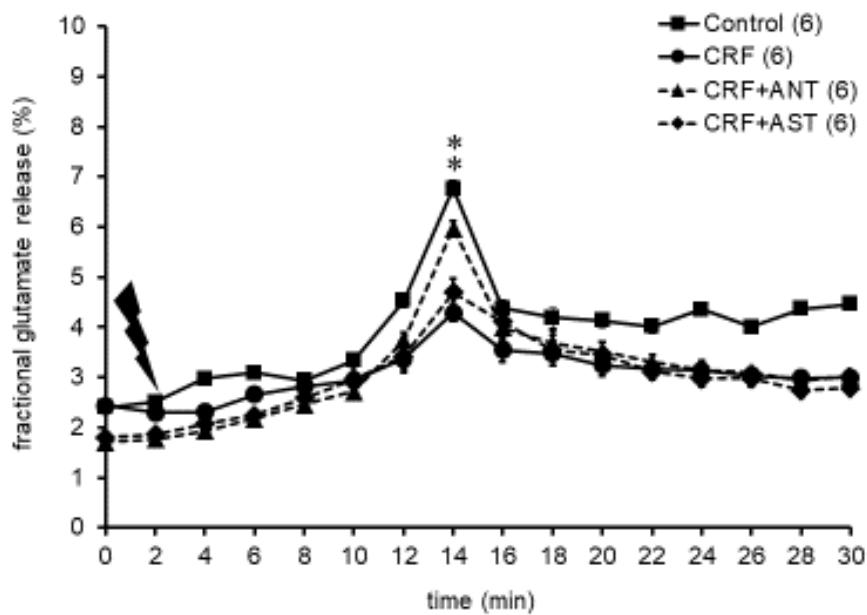


Figure 9: The effects of CRF on the hippocampal glutamate release in rats

CRF (100 nM) decreased significantly the fractional [³H]glutamate release from rat hippocampal slices following electrical stimulation; this effect was reversed by anatalrmin, but not astressin2B. Values are presented as fractional release (%) \pm SEM; the number of animals used was 2 for each experiment and the numbers of slices is indicated in brackets. A probability level of 0.05 or less was accepted as a statistically significant difference and indicated with * $p<0.05$ for UCN1 vs. control.

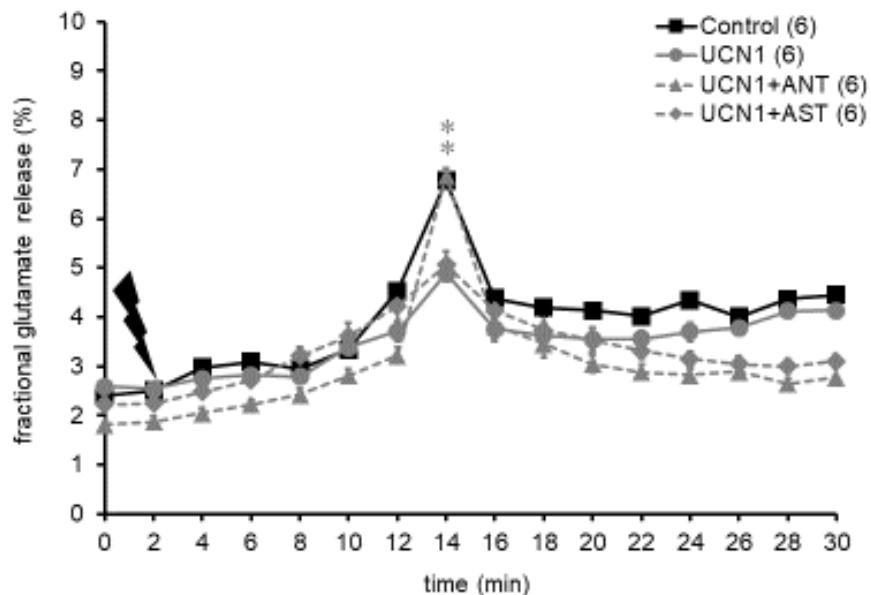


Figure 10: The effects of UCN1 on the hippocampal glutamate release in rats

UCN1 (100 nM) decreased significantly the fractional [³H]glutamate release from rat hippocampal slices following electrical stimulation; this effect was reversed by anatalrmin, but not astressin2B. Values are presented as fractional release (%) \pm SEM; the number of animals used was 2 for each experiment and the numbers of slices is indicated in brackets. A probability level of 0.05 or less was accepted as a statistically significant difference and indicated with * $p<0.05$ for UCN1 vs. control.

4.2. The effects of the selective CRFR1 antagonist and selective CRFR2 agonists on anxiety and depression

CRFR1 antagonist antalarmin (100 nM concentration) increased significantly the time spent in open arm and entries into the open arm [$t(3, 20) = 9.434$; $p < 0.05$ for Antalarmin *vs.* the control; $t(3, 20) = 12.416$; $p < 0.05$ for Antalarmin *vs.* the control] . In contrast, UCN2 and UCN3 (both of 100 nM concentration) did not affect significantly neither the time spent in open arm, nor the entries into the open arm compared to the control group.

CRFR1 antagonist antalarmin (100 nM concentration) increased significantly the time spent with swimming and climbing while decreased significantly the time spent with inmobility [$t(3, 20) = 14.946$; $p < 0.05$ for Antalarmin *vs.* the control; $t(3, 20) = 8.834$; $p < 0.05$ for Antalarmin *vs.* the control] . In contrast, UCN2 and UCN3 (both of 100 nM concentration) did not affect significantly neither the time spent with swimming and climbing, nor the time spent with inmobility compared to the control group.

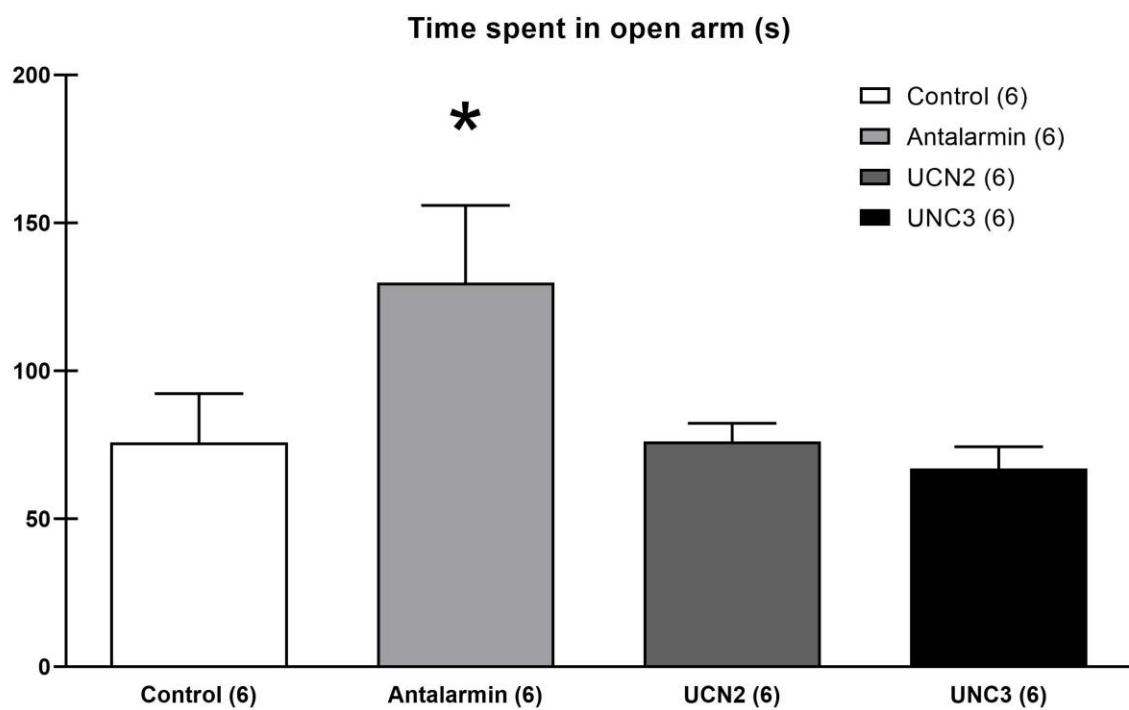


Figure 11: The effects of the selective CRFR1 antagonist and selective CRFR2 agonists on the time spent in open arm

Antalarmin (100 nM) increased significantly the time spent in open arm compared to the control group. Values are presented as total time (s); the number of animals used was 6 for each experiment. A probability level of 0.05 or less was accepted as a statistically significant difference and indicated with * $p < 0.05$ for Antalarmin *vs.* control.

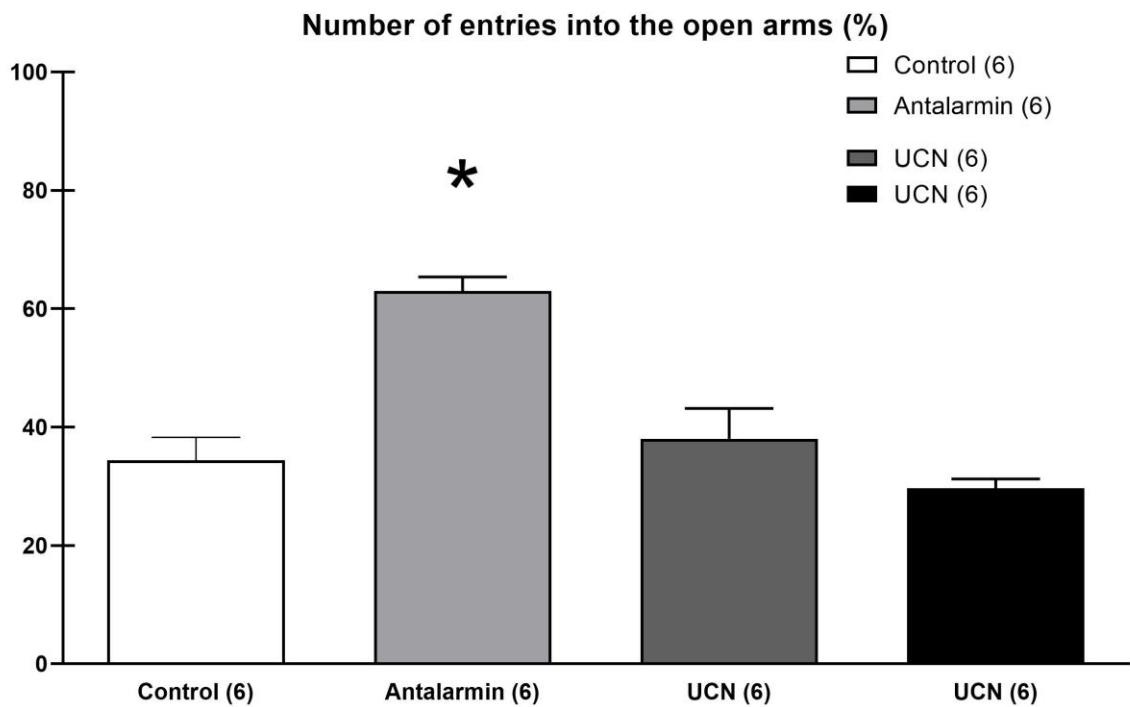


Figure 12: The effects of the selective CRFR1 antagonist and selective CRFR2 agonists on the number of entries into the open arms

Antalarmin (100 nM) significantly increased the number of entries into the open arm compared to the control group. Values are presented as percent of entries (%); the number of animals used was 6 for each experiment. A probability level of 0.05 or less was accepted as a statistically significant difference and indicated with * $p < 0.05$ for Antalarmin vs. control.

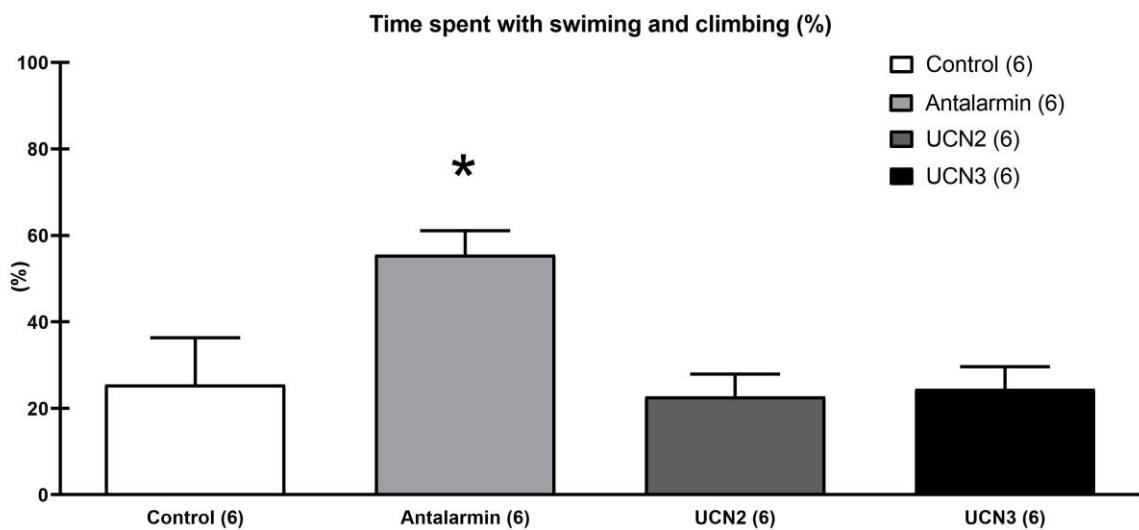


Figure 13: The effects of the selective CRFR1 antagonist and selective CRFR2 agonists on the time spent with swimming and climbing

Antalarmin (100 nM) significantly increased the time spent with swimming and climbing compared to the control group. Values are presented as total time (s); the number of animals used was 6 for each experiment. A probability level of 0.05 or less was accepted as a statistically significant difference and indicated with * $p<0.05$ for Antalarmin vs. control.

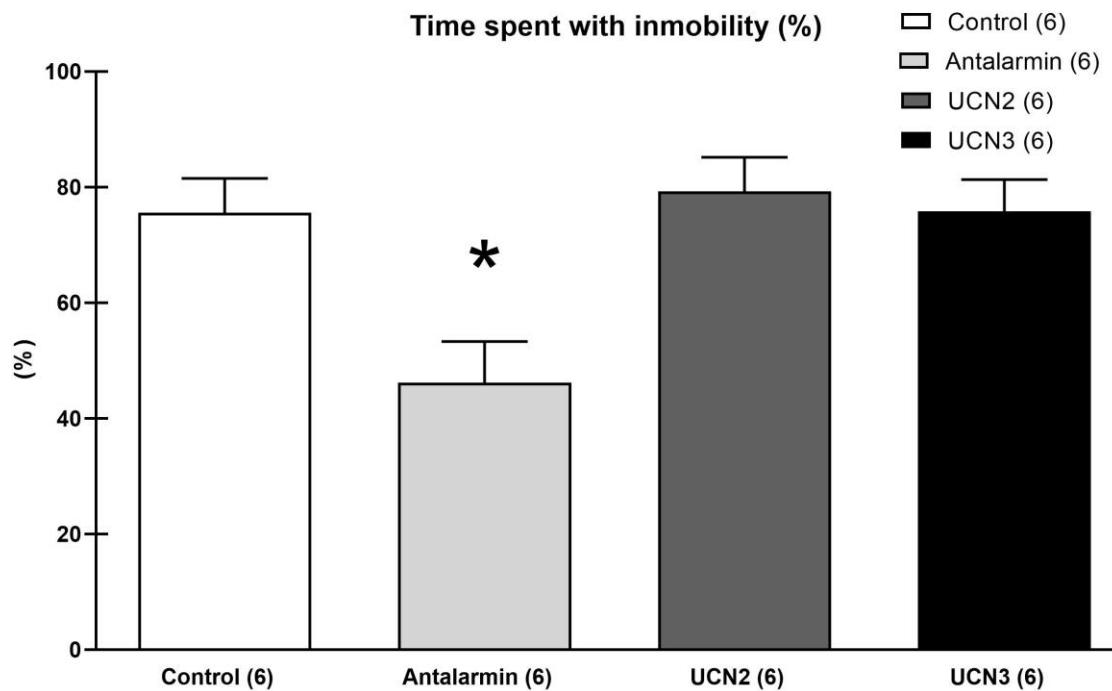


Figure 14: The effects of the selective CRFR1 antagonist and selective CRFR2 agonists on the time spent with inmobility

Antalarmin (100 nM) significantly decreased the time spent with inmobility compared to the control group. Values are presented as total time (s); the number of animals used was 6 for each experiment. A probability level of 0.05 or less was accepted as a statistically significant difference and indicated with * $p<0.05$ for Antalarmin *vs.* control.

4.3. The effects of CRF and urocortins on the hippocampal acetylcholine release

CRF and UCN1 significantly increased $[F_{14 \text{ min}}(3, 23) = 16.289; p=0.001 \text{ for CRF} \text{ versus the control and } F_{14 \text{ min}}(3, 23) = 18.60; p<0.001 \text{ for UCN1} \text{ versus the control}]$, while UCN2 and UCN3 significantly decreased the stimulated hippocampal acetylcholine release $[F_{14 \text{ min}}(3, 23) = 11.53; p=0.001 \text{ for UCN2} \text{ versus the control and } F_{14 \text{ min}}(3, 23) = 11.53; p=0.003 \text{ for UCN3} \text{ versus the control}]$. The increasing effect of CRF and UCN1 was significantly reduced by antalarmin, but not astressin₂B $[F_{14 \text{ min}}(3, 23) = 16.289; p=0.002 \text{ for CRF + antalarmin} \text{ versus CRF alone and } F_{14 \text{ min}}(3, 23) = 18.60; p<0.001 \text{ for UCN1 + antalarmin} \text{ versus UCN1 alone}]$. In contrast, the decreasing effect of UCN2 and UCN3 was reversed significantly by the selective CRFR2, but not the selective CRFR1 antagonist $[F_{14 \text{ min}}(3, 23) = 11.53; p=0.002 \text{ for UCN2 + astressin}_2\text{B} \text{ versus UCN2 alone and } F_{14 \text{ min}}(3, 23) = 11.53; p<0.001 \text{ for UCN3 + astressin}_2\text{B} \text{ versus UCN3 alone}]$.

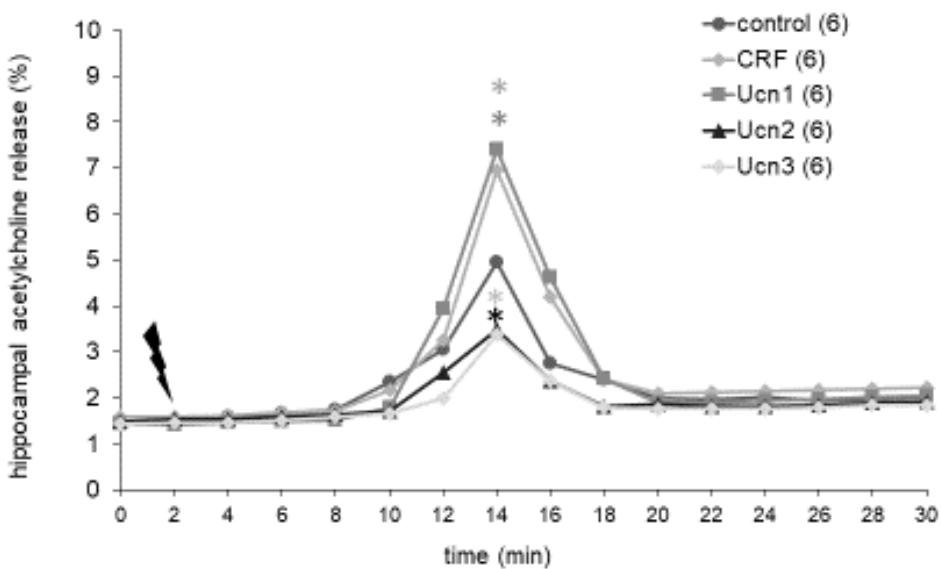


Figure 15: The effects of CRF and the urocortins (UCN1 , UCN2 and UCN3) on the hippocampal acetylcholine release in rats

CRF and UCN1 increased, whereas UCN2 and UCN3 significantly decreased the hippocampal acetylcholine release following electrical stimulation. Values are presented as fractional release (%) \pm SEM; the number of animals used was 2 for each experiment and the numbers of slices is indicated in brackets. A probability level of 0.05 or less was accepted as a statistically significant difference and indicated with * $p<0.05$ for CRF, UCN1 , UCN2 or UCN3 *vs.* control.

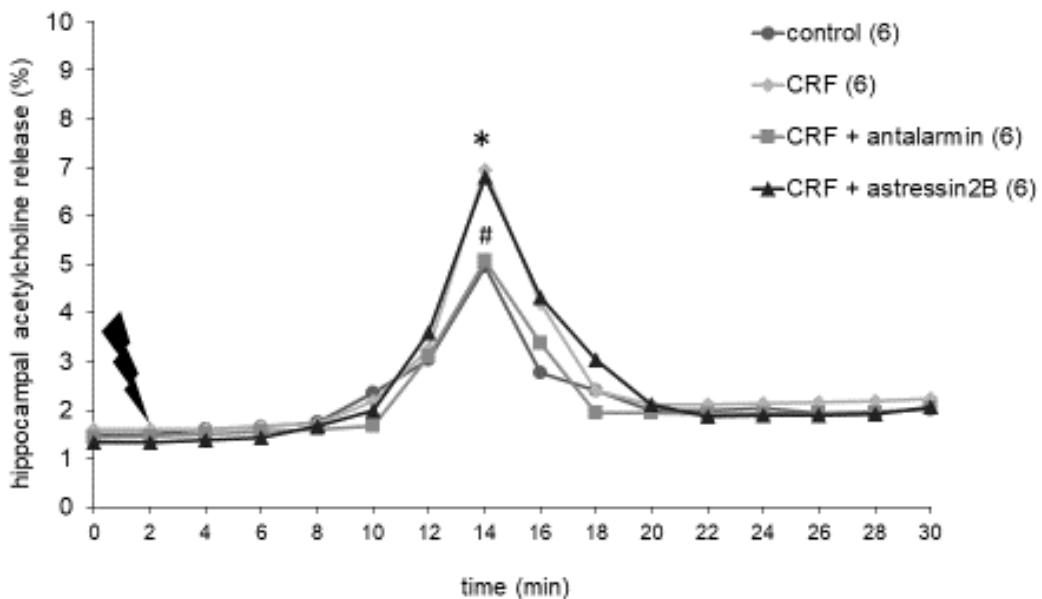


Figure 16: The effects of CRF and the selective CRF antagonists on the hippocampal acetylcholine release in rats

CRF significantly increased the hippocampal acetylcholine release following electrical stimulation and the increasing effect was blocked by antalarmin, but not astressin₂B. Values are presented as fractional release (%) \pm SEM; the number of animals used was 2 for each experiment and the numbers of slices is indicated in brackets. A probability level of 0.05 or less was accepted as a statistically significant difference and indicated with * $p<0.05$ for CRF vs. control.

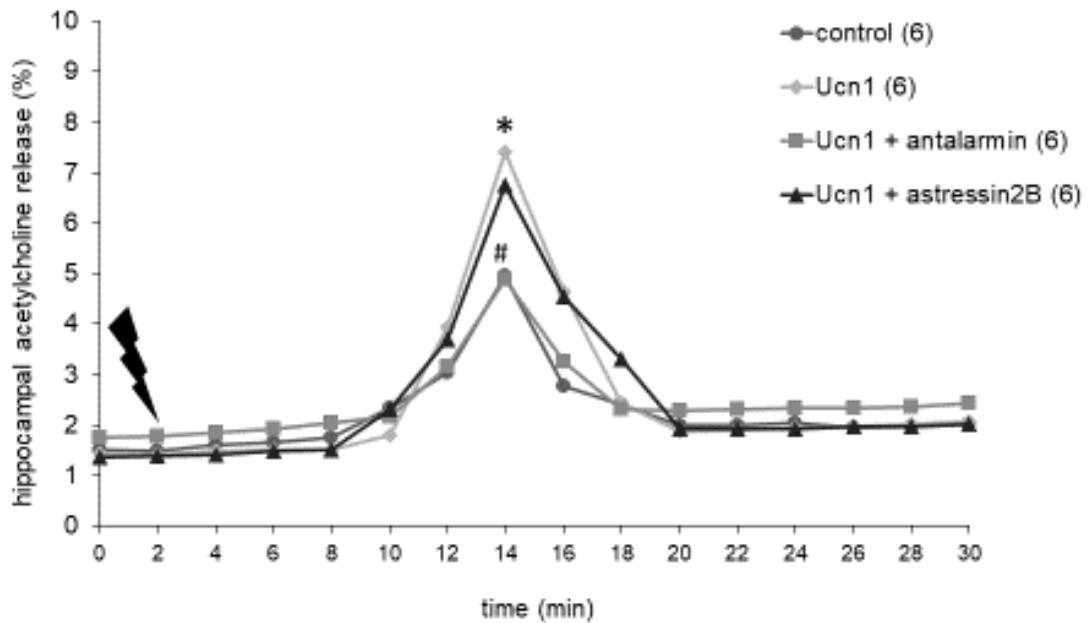


Figure 17: The effects of UCN1 and the selective CRF antagonists on the hippocampal acetylcholine release in rats

UCN1 significantly increased the hippocampal acetylcholine release following electrical stimulation and the increasing effect was blocked by antalarmin, but not astressin₂B. Values are presented as fractional release (%) \pm SEM; the number of animals used was 2 for each experiment and the numbers of slices is indicated in brackets. A probability level of 0.05 or less was accepted as a statistically significant difference and indicated with * $p<0.05$ for UCN1 vs. control, and # $p<0.05$ for UCN1 + antalarmin vs. UCN1.

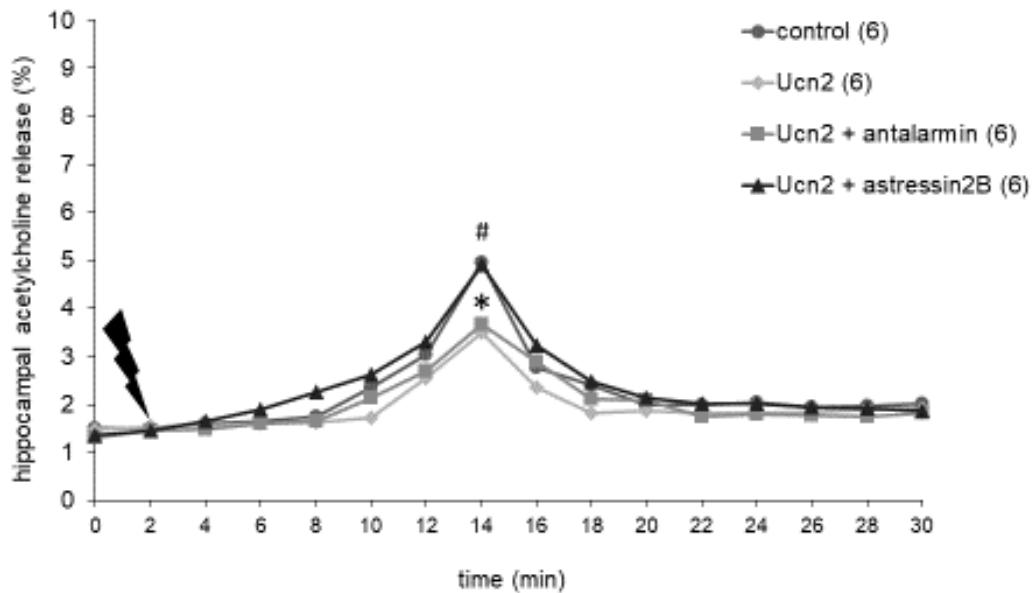


Figure 18: The effects of UCN2 and the selective CRF antagonists on the hippocampal acetylcholine release in rats

UCN2 significantly decreased the hippocampal acetylcholine release following electrical stimulation and the decreasing effect was blocked by astressin_{2B}, but not antalarmin. Values are presented as fractional release (%) \pm SEM; the number of animals used was 2 for each experiment and the numbers of slices is indicated in brackets. A probability level of 0.05 or less was accepted as a statistically significant difference and indicated with * $p<0.05$ for UCN2 vs. control, and # $p<0.05$ for UCN3 + astressin_{2B} vs. UCN2.

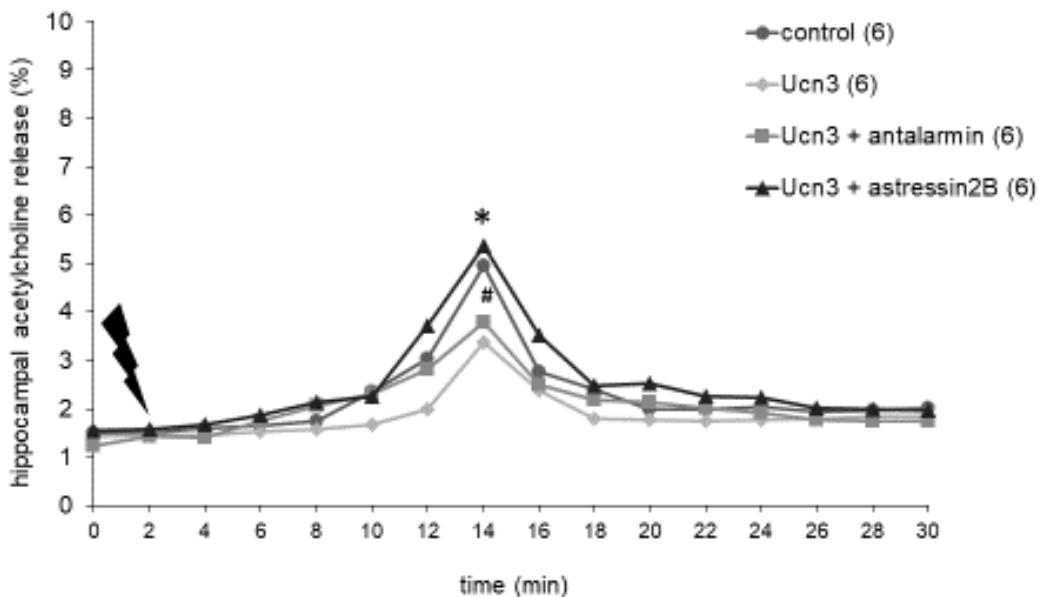


Figure 19: The effects of UCN3 and the selective CRF antagonists on the hippocampal acetylcholine release in rats

UCN3 significantly decreased the hippocampal acetylcholine release following electrical stimulation and the decreasing effect was blocked by astressin_{2B}, but not antalarmin. Values are presented as fractional release (%) \pm SEM; the number of animals used was 2 for each experiment and the numbers of slices is indicated in brackets. A probability level of 0.05 or less was accepted as a statistically significant difference and indicated with * $p<0.05$ for UCN3 vs. control, and # $p<0.05$ for UCN3 + astressin_{2B} vs. UCN3.

4.4. The effects of the selective CRFR1 antagonist and selective CRFR2 agonists on cognitive functions

On the 2nd day CRFR1 antagonist antalarmin (100 nM concentration) and CRFR2 agonists (UCN2 and UCN3) decreased the latency time significantly, compared to the control group. [$t(2, 40) = 49.334$; $p < 0.05$ for Antalarmin *vs.* the control; $t(2, 40) = 12.516$; $p < 0.05$ for UCN2 *vs.* the control; $t(2, 40) = 8.467$; $p < 0.05$ for UCN3 *vs.* the control]. Meanwhile, on the 3rd day only Antalarmin reduced the latency time significantly, compared to the control group [$t(2, 40) = 19.324$; $p < 0.05$ for Antalarmin *vs.* the control].

On the 4th day, CRFR1 antagonist antalarmin (100 nM concentration) increased significantly the time spent in the N-E quadrant [$t(2, 40) = 18.846$; $p < 0.05$ for Antalarmin *vs.* the control]. In contrast, UCN2 and UCN3 (both of 100 nM concentration) did not affect significantly the time spent in the N-E quadrant.

On the 4th day, CRFR1 antagonist antalarmin (100 nM concentration) increased significantly the number of crossovers [$t(2, 40) = 18.849$; $p < 0.05$ for antalarmin *vs.* the control]. In contrast, UCN2 and UCN3 (both of 100 nM concentration) did not affect significantly the number of crossovers.

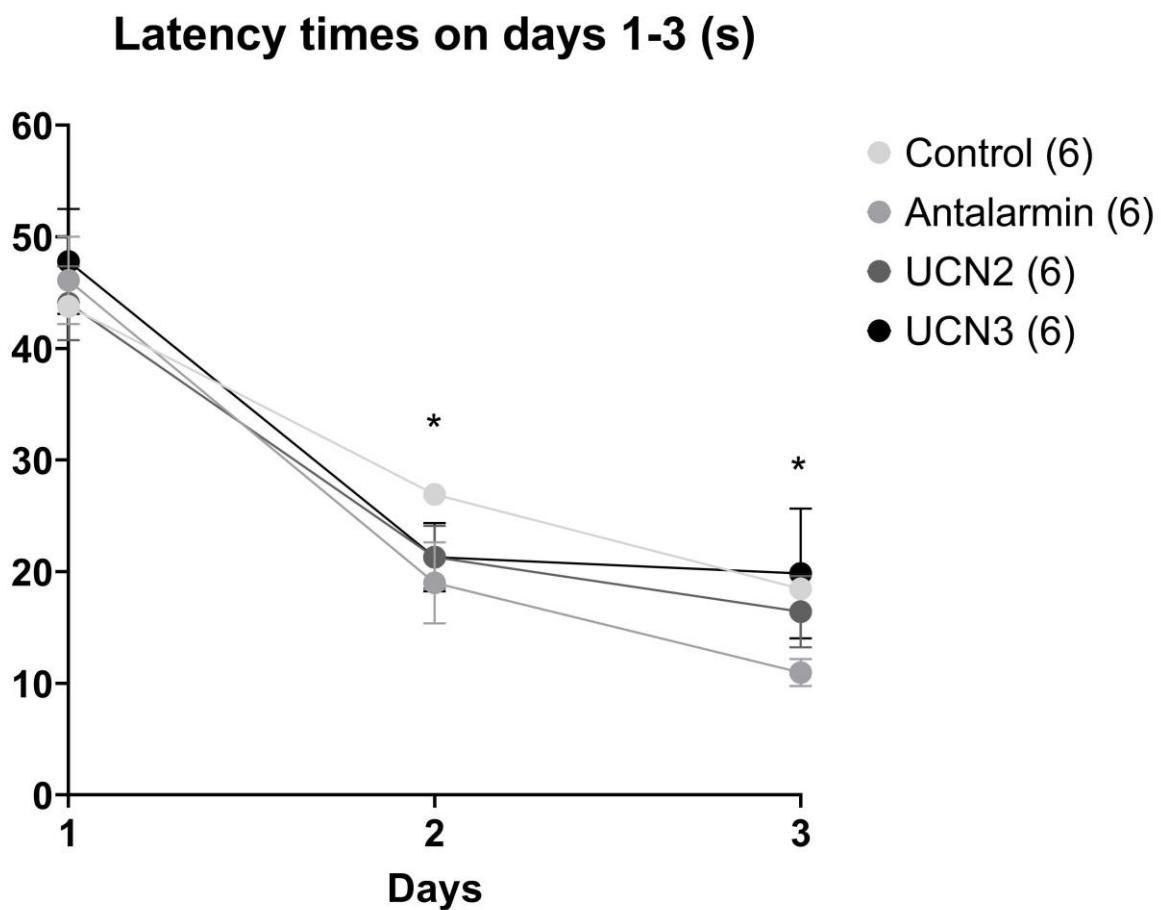


Figure 20: The effects of the selective CRFR1 antagonist and selective CRFR2 agonists on the latency times on day 1-3.

Antalarmin, UCN2 and UCN3 decreased the latency time on the 2nd day, while on the 3rd day only antalarmin reduced the latency time. Values are presented as total time (s); the number of animals used was 6 for each experiment. A probability level of 0.05 or less was accepted as a statistically significant difference and indicated with * $p < 0.05$ for Antalarmin vs. control.

Time spent in the N-E quadrant on the 4th day (s)

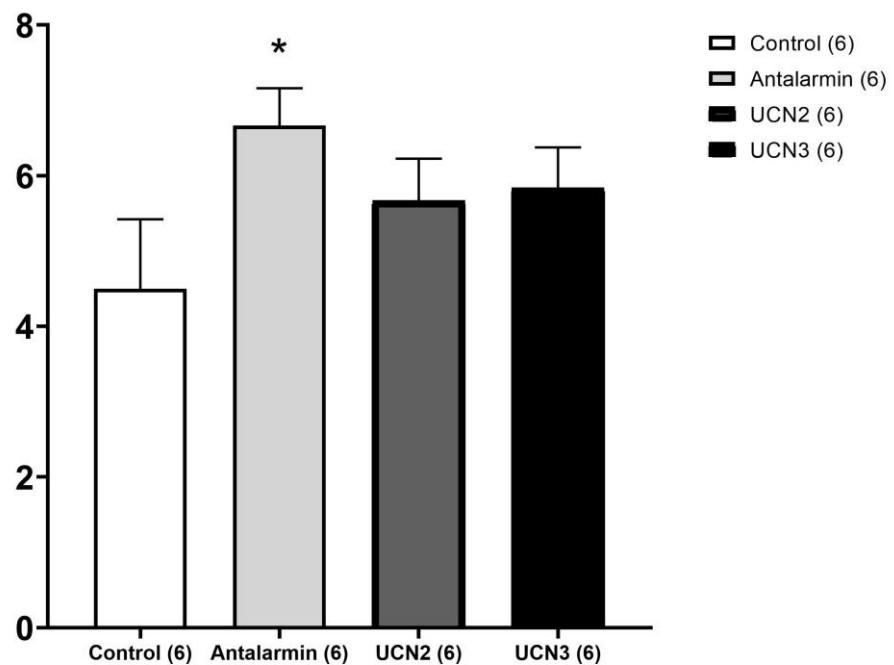


Figure 21: The effects of the selective CRFR1 antagonist and selective CRFR2 agonists on the time spent in the N-E quadrant.

Antalarmin (100 nM) increased significantly the time spent in the N-E quadrant on the 4th day, compared to the control group. Values are presented as total time (s); the number of animals used was 6 for each experiment. A probability level of 0.05 or less was accepted as a statistically significant difference and indicated with * $p<0.05$ for Antalarmin vs. control.

Number of crossovers on the 4th day

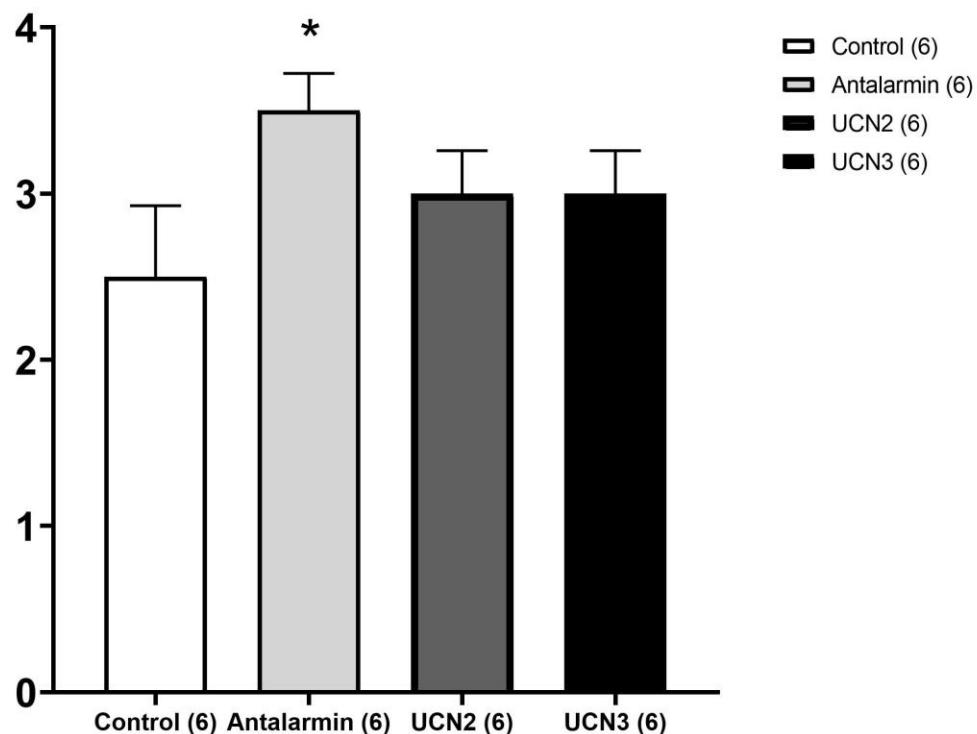


Figure 22: The effects of the selective CRFR1 antagonist and selective CRFR2 agonists on the number of crossovers on the 4th day.

Antalarmin (100 nM) significantly increased the number of crossovers on the 4th day. Values are presented as total numbers (n); the number of animals used was 6 for each experiment. A probability level of 0.05 or less was accepted as a statistically significant difference and indicated with * $p<0.05$ for Antalarmin vs. control.

5. DISCUSSION

5.1. The impacts of CRF and urocortins on the hippocampal glutamate release

The present study demonstrates that CRF and UCN1 inhibit the glutamate release in the hippocampus *via* CRFR1, as the selective CRFR1 antagonist was able to increase the hippocampal glutamate release decreased previously by the non-selective CRFR1 agonists. CRFR2 is not involved in this process, since the selective CRFR2 antagonist did not reverse the effects of CRF or UCN1 and the selective CRFR2 agonists UCN2 and UCN3 did not affect the hippocampal glutamate release either.

Our previous *in vitro* superfusion study reported that CRF and UCN1 stimulate the amygdalar GABA release *via* CRFR1, but not CRFR2 [46]. We speculated that this amygdalar GABA is released from both the MeA and the CeA, which respond to distinct stressors and are thought to have divergent roles in HPA regulation. Neurons from the MeA are activated following exposure to emotional stressors including predator, social interaction, forced swimming and restraint stress paradigms and send mainly GABAergic projections to GABAergic neurons of BNST and the peri-PVN which directly innervate the PVN leading to activation – actually to disinhibition – of the HPA axis [52]. In contrast, the CeA is activated following exposure to homeostatic stressors, including hemorrhage and immune challenge and exerts its feed-forward effect on the HPA axis through interneurons localized in the brain stem [52].

The present study completes our previous report with the observation that CRF and UCN1 inhibit the hippocampal glutamate release *via* CRFR1, and not CRFR2. We presume that a similar process may occur under different stressors in the vSub region of the hippocampus, which has been implicated in the regulation of the HPA axis. Hippocampal lesions involving the vSub were shown to produce exaggerated HPA responses to restraint and open field exposure, but not to hypoxia or ether exposure, suggesting that hippocampal neurons respond to distinct stress modalities [52]. Neurons from this region send mostly glutamatergic projections to GABAergic neurons of BNST and the peri-PVN which directly innervate the PVN, resulting ultimately in inhibition of the HPA axis [52].

The interaction of CRF and urocortins with glutamate have been investigated in other *in vitro* settings also. An earlier study indicated that CRF and UCN1 modulate differently the excitatory glutamatergic synaptic transmission in the CeA and the lateral septum, which are reciprocally innervated [53]. Another study concluded that UCN1, but not UCN2, protects cultured hippocampal neurons from oxidative stress and glutamatergic excitotoxicity *via*

CRFR1, even more potently than CRF does [54]. We suggest that besides having role in neurotransmission and neuroprotection, CRF-glutamate and UCN1-glutamate interactions may also take part in the regulation of the HPA axis. Based on the previous and the present results, we propose that CRFR1 agonists can activate the HPA axis not only directly by stimulating the pituitary ACTH and consequently the adrenal glucocorticoid secretion, but also indirectly by increasing the amygdalar GABA release and decreasing the hippocampal glutamate release.

5.2. Therapeutical implications in anxiety and depression

The principal role of CRF and the urocortins is to regulate the neuroendocrine, autonomic and behavioral stress responses, including the regulation of the HPA axis [35], which consists of the PVN, the anterior pituitary and the adrenal cortex [7, 34]. ICV administration of CRF and UCN1 induces activation of the HPA axis reflected by elevation of the plasma corticosterone concentration, anxiety- and depression-like behavior in mice and rats [55-58]. In contrast, icv administration of UCN2 and UCN3 produces anxiolytic and anti-depressant actions in rodents [57, 59-61]. It was hereby hypothesized that in physiological conditions, CRF and UCN1 would initiate the responses to stress activating CRFR1 in the anterior pituitary, whereas UCN2 and UCN3 would terminate these responses activating CRFR2 in the PVN [8, 62]. Consequently, CRFR1 and CRFR2 are presumed to mediate antagonistic effects, as regards stress, anxiety and depression [63, 64]. However, our previous *in vivo* studies suggested that the role of CRFR2 in the regulation of the HPA axis can be inhibitory or stimulatory, depending on the actual concentration of their agonists [58, 65]. In addition, CRF- and UCN1-induced stimulation of the amygdalar GABA release and inhibition of the hippocampal glutamate release *via* CRFR1, but not CRFR2, may also modulate the activity of the HPA axis [46, 66]. This notion is supported by the observation that, next to the PVN, CRF is also expressed in the central nucleus of the amygdala (CeA) and the ventral subiculum (vSub) of the hippocampus [36]. Overwhelming stress may induce a pathological stimulation of CRF/CRFR1 system in the cerebral cortex and the amygdala over the urocortin/CRFR2 system in the lateral septal nucleus and the hippocampus that may result in hyperactivity of the HPA axis, anxiety and depression [8, 62]. In this order of thoughts, administration of selective CRFR1 antagonists, such antalarmin and/or selective CRFR2 agonists, such as UCN2 and UCN3 are promising therapy in stress-related disorders, such as anxiety and depression.

Our recent *in vivo* behavioral studies support these observations. In the elevated plus-maze test, administration of the CRFR1 antagonist induced anxiolysis, since the rats treated with antalarmin spent significantly more time in the open arm of the maze. In addition, in the forced swim test, the rats treated with CRFR2 agonists expressed an increased swimming and climbing time and decreased immobility time, indicative of anti-depressant effects. In contrast, administration of UCN2 and UCN3 did not affect the parameters observed either in the elevated plus-maze test or the forced swim test. This is in concert with our *in vitro* results, according to which CRFR1, but not CRFR2, inhibits the release of hippocampal GLU, that may induce anxiety and depression through GLU-ergic-GABA-ergic stimulation of the hypothalamic CRF release and consequent activation of the HPA axis.

Nevertheless, a recent hypothesis suggested that the action of CRFR1 and CRFR2 is not a matter of simple dualism, but it depends on the brain regions and neuron populations that are activated, and despite the promising pre-clinical results, the clinical application of CRFR1 antagonists produced no therapeutical effects, but some side effects, such as liver toxicity [67, 68].

5.3. The impacts of CRF and urocortins on the hippocampal acetylcholine release

The present study also demonstrates that CRF and UCN1 increase the hippocampal acetylcholine release through CRFR1, while UCN2 and UCN3 decrease the hippocampal acetylcholine release through CRFR2. Previous results have already indicated that ICV administration of CRF stimulates the hippocampal acetylcholine release [69], and that this process is mediated *via* CRFR1 [70], [71]. Nevertheless, the present study is the first to demonstrate that UCN1 stimulates the hippocampal acetylcholine release through activation of CRFR1, whereas UCN2 and UCN3 inhibit the hippocampal acetylcholine release through activation of CRFR2.

Stress affects learning and memory functions that are mediated mainly by hippocampal acetylcholine [45]. This effect of stress could be modulated by CRF/CRFR1 system, the presence of which was indicated within the pyramidal cell layers of hippocampus [45]. Furthermore, the effect of systemic, distantly released CRF on hippocampal neurons has been already demonstrated by previous studies [72-75]. However, the role of the native, locally released CRF and that of urocortin/CRFR2 system in stress-evoked enhancement of hippocampal synaptic function has not been clarified yet.

Previous studies indicated that CRF is stored in GABAergic terminals, while CRFR1 is found in glutamatergic synapses of the hippocampus [76]. This is quite interesting,

considering that endogenous CRF has been localized to inhibitory interneurons, yet exogenous CRF acts as an excitatory neurotransmitter [72]. However, the way in which CRF reaches and activates the receptor is not clear. The finding that stress increases CRF-immunoreactivity in extracellular spaces adjacent to the pyramidal cells suggests the possibility that local CRF is released by electrical stimulation from hippocampal interneurons, and then it diffuses slowly to the pyramidal cell dendritic spines [45]. Although under physiological conditions, an extrahippocampal source and a rapid transport of CRF from distant brain sites that is shared by the urocortins cannot be excluded [77]. Moreover, previous studies also indicated that the CRF-induced hippocampal acetylcholine release might be the result of the increased release of acetylcholine from the terminals of neurons projecting from the medial septal nucleus or a decreased uptake of high-affinity choline in the hippocampus [69, 77][69, 77][69, 77][73, 77] 70, 74].

5.4. Therapeutical implications in cognitive deficits

Hippocampal acetylcholine plays a critical role in cognitive functions, including attention, learning and memory. However, studies investigating this role led to contradictory results, due to the complexity of acetylcholine's actions in the brain [78]. Comprehending the complexity of neuropeptide-acetylcholine interactions might allow us to better understand the physiological roles of acetylcholine in cognitive functions and help us to design better treatment options for dementia that is observed in neurodegenerative disorders, including Alzheimer's, Parkinson's and Huntington disease [78].

Overall, these studies suggest the existence of two apparently opposing CRF systems in the hippocampus, through which CRF and the urocortins might modulate cholinergic activity and thereby cognitive functions [78]. We further speculate that CRF and UCN1 would facilitate processing and storing of affectively negative information, by activating CRFR1 expressed abundantly in the medial septal nucleus and hippocampus, whereas UCN2 and UCN3 would help to neglect this information, by activating CRFR2 expressed in the lateral septal nucleus and the hippocampus. In physiological conditions, a delicate balance between CRF/CRFR1 and urocortin/CRFR2 systems must exist to secure a normal HPA axis activity and cognitive functioning. However, in pathological states, such as anxiety, depression, and post-traumatic stress disorder an overstimulation of CRF/CRFR1 system may occur that results in hyperactivity of the HPA axis and deterioration of cognitive functions [45]. In this order of thoughts, administration of selective CRFR1 antagonists, such as antalarmin and/or selective CRFR2 agonists, such as UCN2 and UCN3, might be able to

attenuate the hyperactivity of the HPA axis, and the disturbance of attention, learning and memory associated with anxiety, depression, and other stress-related disorders [79].

Our recent *in vivo* behavioral studies also support these observations. In the Morris' water-maze test, CRFR1 antagonist and CRFR2 agonists affected similarly the cognitive parameters, as both processes of learning/memory. Namely, antalarmin, UCN2 and UCN3 decreased the latency time on the 2nd day, whereas on the 3rd day only antalarmin reduced the latency time, suggestive of facilitated learning. Also, on the 4th day, only antalarmin (100 nM) increased significantly the time spent in and the number of crossovers through the the N-E quadrant, indicative of enhanced memory. These findings partly coincide, but certainly do not contradict, with our *in vitro* results, according to which CRFR1 antagonists increased, whereas CRFR2 antagonists decreased the release of the hippocampal ACH, indicative of the dualistic effects of the CRF/CRFR1 and urocortin/CRFR2 systems.

Despite of the fact that the animal experiments are very promising, most clinical trials concluded that CRF antagonists are not effective at treating the affective symptoms of anxiety and depression disorders [80]. Nevertheless, the cognitive actions of CRFR1 antagonists administered alone or together with CRFR2 agonists were not explicitly investigated, hence more animal and human studies are needed to demonstrate the efficacy of these drugs in the therapy of these disorders.

6. CONCLUSIONS

6.1. Our *in vitro* studies demonstrate that CRF and UCN1 inhibit the hippocampal glutamate release *via* CRFR1 and that UCN2 and UCN3 and CRFR2 do not participate to this process. Based on the previous and the present results we conclude that CRFR1 agonists can modulate the HPA axis, anxiety and depression not only directly by stimulating the pituitary ACTH release, but also indirectly by increasing the amygdalar GABA release and decreasing the hippocampal glutamate release.

6.2. Our recent *in vivo* behavioral studies support these observations. In the elevated plus-maze test, administration of the CRFR1 antagonist induced anxiolysis, since the rats treated with antalarmin spent significantly more time in the open arm of the maze. In addition, in the forced swim test, the rats treated with CRFR2 agonists expressed an increased swimming and climbing time and decreased immobility time, indicative of anti-depressant effects. In contrast, administration of UCN2 and UCN3 did not affect the parameters observed either in the elevated plus-maze test or the forced swim test.

6.3. Our *in vitro* studies also demonstrate that CRF and UCN1 stimulate the hippocampal acetylcholine release *via* CRFR1, whereas UCN2 and UCN3 inhibit the hippocampal acetylcholine release *via* CRFR2. Based on the present results we suggest the existence of two apparently opposing CRF systems in the hippocampus, through which CRF and the urocortins might modulate the cognitive functions, such as attention, learning and memory.

6.4. Our recent *in vivo* behavioral studies also support these observations. In the Morris' water-maze test, both the CRFR1 antagonist antalarmin, and the CRFR2 agonists UCN2 and UCN3 decreased the latency time on the 2nd day, whereas on the 3rd day only antalarmin reduced the latency time, suggestive of facilitated learning. Also, on the 4th day, only antalarmin increased significantly the time spent in and the number of crossovers through the the N-E quadrant, indicative of enhanced memory.

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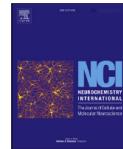
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APPENDIX I



The effects of CRF and urocortins on the hippocampal glutamate release

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ABSTRACT

Corticotropin-releasing factor (CRF) is a hypothalamic neurohormone and an extrahypothalamic neurotransmitter that regulates the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis. The urocortins (UCN I, UCN II and UCN III) are CRF-related peptides, which may also regulate the HPA axis directly or indirectly, by modulation of extrahypothalamic neurotransmitters, such as amygdalar GABA and hippocampal glutamate.

Our previous *in vitro* superfusion studies have already demonstrated that CRF and UCN I stimulate the amygdalar GABA release in rats. The aim of the present study was to investigate the effects of CRF, UCN I, UCN II and UCN III on the glutamate release elicited electrically from rat hippocampal slices in similar *in vitro* conditions. In order to investigate the participation of CRF receptors (CRFR1 and CRFR2) in this process, hippocampal slices were pretreated with antalarmin, a selective antagonist of CRFR1 or astressin 2B, a selective antagonist of CRFR2.

CRF and UCN I at 100 nM decreased significantly the hippocampal glutamate release evoked by electrical stimulation. In contrast, 100 nM of UCN II and UCN III did not affect significantly the hippocampal glutamate release enhanced by electrical stimulation. The decreasing effects of CRF and UCN I were reversed by antalarmin, but not by astressin 2B, both being administered in equimolar doses.

Our results demonstrate that CRF and UCN I inhibit the glutamate release in the hippocampus *via* CRFR1 and that CRFR2 does not participate to this process. Based on the previous and the present results we conclude that CRFR1 agonists can activate the HPA axis not only directly, but also indirectly by increasing the amygdalar GABA release and decreasing the hippocampal glutamate release.

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1. Introduction

Corticotropin-releasing factor (CRF) is a hypothalamic neurohormone and an extrahypothalamic neurotransmitter that mediates the endocrine, autonomic and behavioral responses to stress (Vale et al., 1981). As a hypothalamic neurohormone, CRF activates the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis (Carrasco and Van de Kar, 2003). CRF is secreted from the paraventricular nucleus (PVN) of the hypothalamus and released into circulation at the level of median eminence; reaching the anterior pituitary it stimulates the secretion of adrenocorticotrop hormone (ACTH), which on its turn stimulates the production of glucocorticoids in the adrenal

cortex (Tsigos and Chrousos, 2002). The increase of plasma glucocorticoid concentration not only reflects the activation of the HPA axis, but it exerts negative feedback effects on the hypothalamus, the anterior pituitary and the hippocampus and positive feedback effect on the amygdala (Herman and Cullinan, 1997).

As an extrahypothalamic neurotransmitter, CRF may also modulate the HPA axis (Herman and Cullinan, 1997). CRF is also synthesized in the central nucleus of the amygdala (CeA) found in the vicinity of the medial nucleus of the amygdala (MeA) and the ventral subiculum (vSub) region of the hippocampus (Reul and Holsboer, 2002). Neurons from these regions (especially MeA and vSub) send GABAergic or glutamatergic projections to the GABAergic neurons of the bed nucleus of the stria terminalis (BNST) and the peri-paraventricular nuclei (peri-PVN), which exert a tonic GABAergic inhibition upon the paraventricular CRF synthesis/release (Bale and Vale, 2004; Cullinan et al., 2008). Thus, the

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amygdala through GABAergic–GABAergic disinhibition increases, whereas the hippocampus through glutamatergic–GABAergic inhibition decreases the activity of the HPA axis, respectively (Herman et al., 2003, 2004).

CRF acts through two distinct receptors, CRFR1 and CRFR2, which seem to have antagonistic effects in the brain (Chang et al., 1993; Van Pett et al., 2000). Activation of CRFR1 induces HPA axis activation, anxiety and depression, while activation of CRFR2 produces anxiolytic and antidepressive effects (Bale and Vale, 2004; Reul and Holsboer, 2002). However, our recent studies suggest that the role of CRFR2 in the regulation of the HPA axis can be inhibitory or stimulatory, depending on the actual concentration of their agonists, the urocortins (Bagosi et al., 2013, 2014). The urocortins (UCN I, UCN II and UCN III) are CRF-related peptides, with similar chemical structure, but different pharmacological profile, than that of CRF (Fekete and Zorrilla, 2007; Suda et al., 2004). In contrast with CRF, which binds preferentially to CRFR1, UCN I has equal affinity for both CRF receptors (Vaughan et al., 1995). UCN II and UCN III bind selectively to CRFR2 (Lewis et al., 2001; Reyes et al., 2001).

Our previous *in vitro* superfusion experiments have demonstrated that CRF and UCN I stimulate the amygdalar GABA release in rats and that this stimulatory effect is mediated via CRFR1, and not CRFR2 (Bagosi et al., 2008). The aim of the present experiments was to investigate the effects of CRF and urocortins on the hippocampal glutamate release in rats in similar *in vitro* conditions.

2. Materials and methods

Male Wistar rats (Animal Husbandry Services, Domaszék, Hungary) weighing 150–250 g were used. During the experiments they were kept and handled in accordance with the instructions of the University of Szeged Ethical Committee for the Protection of Animals in Research which are concordant with the European Communities Council Directive of 24 November 1986 (86/609/EEC). The rats were decapitated and their brains were rapidly removed. All efforts were made to minimize animal suffering and to reduce the number of animals used ($N = 2$ for each experiment). The hippocampus was isolated and dissected in a Petri dish filled with ice-cold Krebs solution (composition: 113 mM NaCl, 4.7 mM KCl, 1.2 mM MgSO₄, 25 mM NaHCO₃, 11.5 mM glucose, 1.2 mM KH₂PO₄, 2.5 mM CaCl₂, pH 7.4; Reanal, Hungary) according to the Stereotaxic Atlas Of The Rat Brain (Pellegrino et al., 1979). The extracted hippocampus was cut with a McIlwain tissue chopper and slices of 300 μ M were produced.

The hippocampal slices were investigated with *in vitro* superfusion method described originally by Gaddum (Gaddum, 1953). The slices were incubated for 30 min in 8 ml of Krebs solution, submerged in a water bath at 37 °C and gassed through a single-use needle with a mixture of 5% CO₂ and 95% O₂. During the incubation [³H]glutamate (Biotrend Ltd., Germany) at 20 μ M with a specific activity of 40 Ci/mmol was injected into the incubation medium. Two tritiated slices were transferred to each of the four cylindrical perspex chambers of the superfusion system (Experimetry Ltd., Hungary). A multichannel peristaltic pump (Gilson Minipuls 2, USA) was used to maintain a constant superfusion rate of 200 μ l/min. The slices were superfused for 30 min to allow tissue equilibrium. In order to determine the effects of different CRFR agonists on the hippocampal glutamate release equimolar doses (100 nM) of CRF, UCN I, UCN II or UCN III (Bachem Ltd., Germany) were added to the perfusion medium, 20 min after the superfusion had started. In order to determine the participation of CRF receptors in this process 100 nM of selective CRFR1 antagonist antalarmin or 100 nM of selective CRFR2 antagonist astressin-2B (Sigma–Aldrich Inc., USA) were preadded to the perfusion medium, 10 min after the

superfusion had started. The concentrations of the non-selective agonists were selected based on preliminary experiments in which 100 nM of CRF and 100 nM UCN I proved the most effective in stimulating the hippocampal glutamate release. Using equimolar concentrations of the selective agonists/antagonists was inspired by our previous studies investigating the amygdalar and the hypothalamic GABA release (Bagosi et al., 2008, 2012).

The superfusates were collected in Eppendorf tubes by a multichannel fraction collector (Gilson FC 203B, UK) every 2 min. After the first 2 min electrical stimulation consisting of square-wave impulses (total duration: 2 min, voltage: 100 V, pulse length: 5 ms, frequency: 10 Hz) was delivered to each of the four chambers, as gold electrodes were previously attached to both halves of the superfusion chambers and connected to an ST-02 electrical stimulator (Experimetry Ltd., Hungary). The fraction collecting lasted 32 min, thus 16 fractions were obtained.

After the fraction collecting had finished, 3 ml of scintillation fluid (Ultima Gold, Perkin–Elmer Inc., USA) were added to each fraction and the remnants of the superfused brain slices, which were previously solubilized in 200 ml of Krebs solution using an ultrasonic homogenizer (Branson Sonifier 250, USA). The radioactivity in the fractions and the homogenized tissue samples was measured with a liquid scintillation spectrometer (Tri-carb 2100 TR, Packard Inc., USA). The fractional release was calculated as a percentage of the radioactivity present in the collected sample compared to the total radioactivity of the corresponding tissue.

The fractional release of glutamate was calculated by the area-under-the-curve (AUC) method and statistical analysis of the results was performed by analysis of variance (SigmaPlot v11.0, Systat Software Inc., USA). Differences between two areas were determined by Student's *t* test or two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey post-hoc test and a probability level of 0.05 or less was accepted as indicating a statistically significant difference.

3. Results

CRF and UCN I (both of 100 nM concentration) decreased significantly the hippocampal [³H]glutamate release elicited by electrical stimulation [$t(6, 11) = 2.816$; $p < 0.05$ for CRF vs. the control, and $t(6, 11) = 3.352$; $p < 0.05$ for UCN I vs. the control] (Figs. 1 and 2). In contrast, UCN II and UCN III (both of 100 nM concentration) did not affect significantly the hippocampal [³H]

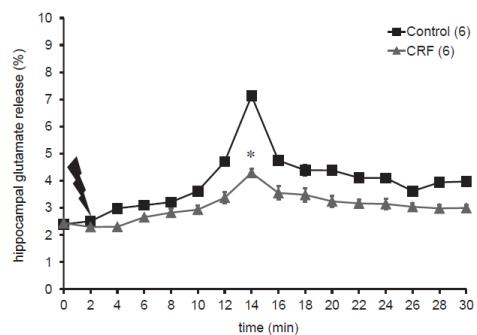


Fig. 1. The effects of CRF on the hippocampal glutamate release in rats. CRF (100 nM) decreased significantly the fractional [³H]glutamate release from rat hippocampal slices following electrical stimulation. Values are presented as fractional release (%) \pm SEM; the number of animals used was 2 for each experiment and the numbers of slices is indicated in brackets. A probability level of 0.05 or less was accepted as a statistically significant difference and indicated with * $p < 0.05$ for CRF vs. control.

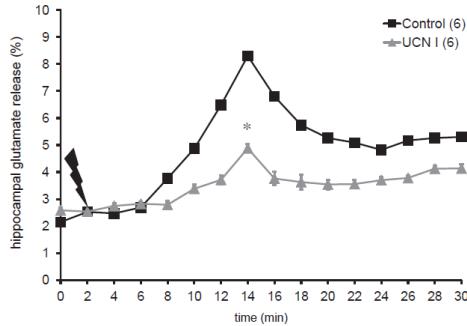


Fig. 2. The effects of UCN I on the hippocampal glutamate release in rats. UCN I (100 nM) decreased significantly the fractional [³H]glutamate release from rat hippocampal slices following electrical stimulation. Values are presented as fractional release (%) \pm SEM; the number of animals used was 2 for each experiment and the numbers of slices is indicated in brackets. A probability level of 0.05 or less was accepted as a statistically significant difference and indicated with * p < 0.05 for UCN I vs. control.

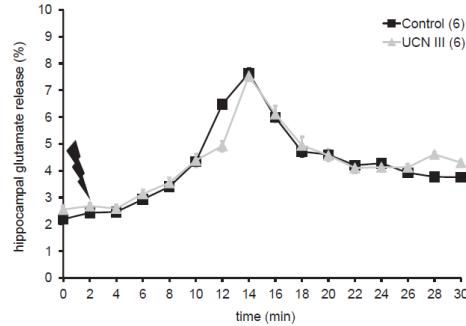


Fig. 4. The effects of UCN III on the hippocampal glutamate release in rats. UCN III (100 nM) did not influence significantly the fractional [³H]glutamate release from rat hippocampal slices following electrical stimulation. Values are presented as fractional release (%) \pm SEM; the number of animals used was 2 for each experiment and the numbers of slices is indicated in brackets. A probability level of 0.05 or less was accepted as a statistically significant difference.

glutamate release enhanced by electrical stimulation (Figs. 3 and 4). The effect of CRF [$F(2, 31) = 5.303$; p < 0.05 for CRF vs. control] was reversed remarkably by antalarmin [$F(1, 31) = 2.387$; p < 0.05 for CRF + antalarmin vs. CRF alone], but not by astressin 2B, both being administered in equimolar doses (100 nM). Also, the effect of UCN I [$F(2, 31) = 15.712$; p < 0.05 for UCN I + antalarmin vs. UCN I alone] was reversed completely by antalarmin [$F(1, 31) = 13.958$; p < 0.05 for UCN I + antalarmin vs. UCN I alone], but not by astressin 2B, both being administered in equimolar doses (100 nM). CRF, UCN I, UCN II or UCN III did not change the basal release of [³H]glutamate. Nevertheless, antalarmin and astressin 2B alone, did not change the stimulated release of [³H]glutamate (Figs. 5 and 6).

4. Discussion

Our results demonstrate that of CRF and UCN I inhibit the glutamate release in the hippocampus *via* CRFR1, as the selective CRFR1 antagonist was able to increase the hippocampal glutamate

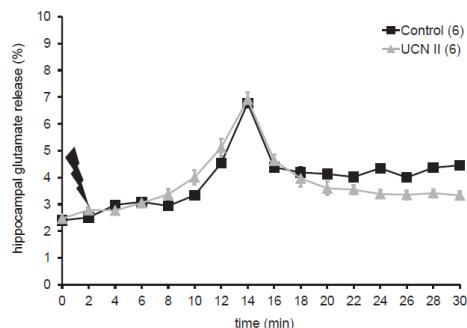


Fig. 3. The effects of UCN II on the hippocampal glutamate release in rats. UCN II (100 nM) did not influence significantly the fractional [³H]glutamate release from rat hippocampal slices following electrical stimulation. Values are presented as fractional release (%) \pm SEM; the number of animals used was 2 for each experiment and the numbers of slices is indicated in brackets. A probability level of 0.05 or less was accepted as a statistically significant difference.

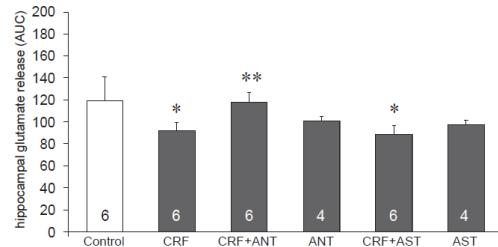


Fig. 5. The effects of antalarmin (ANT) and astressin 2B (AST) on the hippocampal glutamate release decreased by CRF in rats. Antalarmin (100 nM) increased remarkably the fractional [³H]glutamate release decreased by CRF (100 nM) from rat hippocampal slices following electrical stimulation, but astressin 2B (100 nM) did not change it considerably. Antalarmin and astressin 2B alone were ineffective. Values are presented as area-under-the-curve (AUC) \pm SEM; the number of animals used was 2 for each experiment and the numbers of slices is indicated on the columns. A probability level of 0.05 or less was accepted as a statistically significant difference and indicated with * p < 0.05 for treatment vs. control and ** p < 0.05 for CRF + treatment vs. CRF alone.

release decreased previously by the non-selective CRFR1 agonists. CRFR2 is not involved in this process, since the selective CRFR2 antagonist did not reverse the effects of CRF or UCN I and the selective CRFR2 agonists UCN II and UCN III did not affect the hippocampal glutamate release either.

Our previous *in vitro* superfusion study reported that CRF and UCN I stimulate the amygdalar GABA release *via* CRFR1, but not CRFR2 (Bagosi et al., 2008). We speculated that this amygdalar GABA is released from both the MeA and the CeA, which respond to distinct stressors and are thought to have divergent roles in HPA regulation. Neurons from the MeA are activated following exposure to emotional stressors including predator, social interaction, forced swimming and restraint stress paradigms and send mainly GABAergic projections to GABAergic neurons of BNST and the peri-PVN which directly innervate the PVN leading to activation – actually to disinhibition – of the HPA axis (Smith and Vale, 2006). In contrast, the CeA is activated following exposure to homeostatic stressors, including hemorrhage and immune challenge and exerts its feed-forward effect on the HPA axis through interneurons localized in the brain stem (Smith and Vale, 2006).

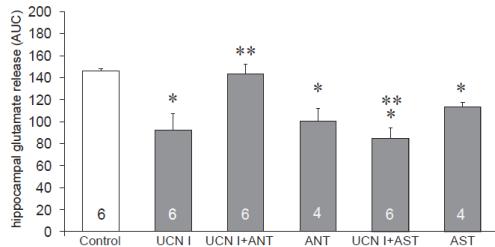


Fig. 6. The effects of antalarmin (ANT) and astressin 2B (AST) on the hippocampal glutamate release decreased by urocortin 1 (UCN 1) in rats. Antalarmin (100 nM) reversed completely the fractional [³H]glutamate release decreased by UCN 1 (100 nM) from rat hippocampal slices following electrical stimulation, but astressin 2B (100 nM) did not change it considerably. Antalarmin and astressin 2B alone were ineffective. Values are presented as area-under-the-curve (AUC) \pm SEM; the number of animals used was 2 for each experiment and the numbers of slices is indicated on the columns. A probability level of 0.05 or less was accepted as a statistically significant difference and indicated with * $p < 0.05$ for treatment vs. control ** $p < 0.05$ for UCN 1 + treatment vs. UCN 1 alone.

The present *in vitro* superfusion study completes our previous report with the observation that CRF and UCN 1 inhibit the hippocampal glutamate release *via* CRFR1, and not CRFR2. We presume that a similar process may occur under different stressors in the

vSub region of the hippocampus, which has been implicated in the regulation of the HPA axis. Hippocampal lesions involving the vSub were shown to produce exaggerated HPA responses to restraint and open field exposure, but not to hypoxia or ether exposure, suggesting that hippocampal neurons respond to distinct stress modalities (Smith and Vale, 2006). Neurons from this region send mostly glutamatergic projections to GABAergic neurons of BNST and the peri-PVN which directly innervate the PVN, resulting ultimately in inhibition of the HPA axis (Smith and Vale, 2006).

The interaction of CRF and urocortins with glutamate have been investigated in other *in vitro* settings also. An earlier study indicated that CRF and UCN 1 modulate differently the excitatory glutamatergic synaptic transmission in the CeA and the lateral septum, which are reciprocally innervated (Liu et al., 2004). Another study concluded that UCN 1, but not UCN 2, protects cultured hippocampal neurons from oxidative stress and glutamatergic excitotoxicity *via* CRFR1, even more potently than CRF does (Pedersen et al., 2002). We suggest that besides having role in neurotransmission and neuroprotection, CRF-glutamate and UCN 1-glutamate interactions may also take part in the regulation of the HPA axis. Based on the previous and the present results, we propose that CRFR1 agonists can activate the HPA axis not only directly by stimulating the pituitary ACTH and consequently the adrenal glucocorticoid secretion, but also indirectly by increasing the amygdalar GABA release and decreasing the hippocampal glutamate release (Fig. 7).

Acknowledgments

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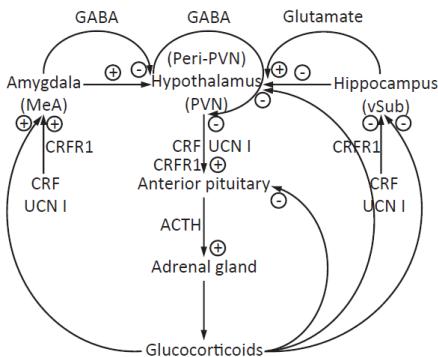


Fig. 7. The effects of CRF and urocortin 1 (UCN 1) on the amygdalar GABA and the hippocampal glutamate release and their putative impacts on the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis. CRF is secreted from the paraventricular nucleus (PVN) of the hypothalamus and released into circulation at the level of median eminence; reaching the anterior pituitary it stimulates the secretion of adrenocorticotropin hormone (ACTH), which on its turn stimulates the production of glucocorticoids in the adrenal cortex. The increase of plasma glucocorticoid concentration not only reflects the activation of the HPA axis, but it exerts negative feedback effects on the hypothalamus, the anterior pituitary and the hippocampus and positive feedback effect on the amygdala. CRF is also synthesized in the central nucleus of the amygdala (CeA) found in the vicinity of the medial nucleus of the amygdala (MeA) and the ventral subiculum (vSub) region of the hippocampus. Neurons from these regions (especially MeA and vSub) send GABAergic or glutamatergic projections to the GABAergic neurons of the peri-paraventricular nuclei (peri-PVN), which exert a tonic inhibition upon the paraventricular CRF synthesis/release. Thus, the amygdala through GABAergic–GABAergic disinhibition increases, whereas the hippocampus through glutamatergic–GABAergic inhibition decreases the activity of the HPA axis, respectively. Based on the previous and the present results we propose that CRFR1 agonists can activate the HPA axis not only directly by stimulating the pituitary ACTH (*via* CRFR1) and consequently the adrenal glucocorticoid secretion, but also indirectly by increasing the amygdalar GABA release (*via* CRFR1) and decreasing the hippocampal glutamate release (*via* CRFR1).

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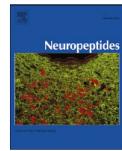
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APPENDIX II



The effects of CRF and the urocortins on the hippocampal acetylcholine release in rats



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ABSTRACT

Corticotropin-releasing factor (CRF) and the urocortins (Ucn1, Ucn2 and Ucn3) are structurally related neuropeptides which act *via* two distinct CRF receptors, CRF1 and CRF2, with putatively antagonistic effects in the brain. CRF and Ucn1 activate both CRF1 and CRF2, while Ucn2 and Ucn3 activate selectively CRF2. The aim of the present study was to investigate the effects of CRF, Ucn1, Ucn2 and Ucn3 on the hippocampal acetylcholine release through which they may modulate cognitive functions, including attention, learning and memory. In this purpose male Wistar rats were used, their hippocampus was isolated, dissected, incubated, superfused and stimulated electrically. The hippocampal slices were first pretreated with selective CRF1 antagonist antalarmin or selective CRF2 antagonist astressin_{2B}, and then treated with non-selective CRF1 agonists, CRF or Ucn1, and selective CRF2 agonists, Ucn2 or Ucn3. The hippocampal acetylcholine release was increased significantly by CRF and Ucn1 and decreased significantly by Ucn2 and Ucn3. The increasing effect of CRF and Ucn1 was reduced significantly by antalarmin, but not astressin_{2B}. In contrast, the decreasing effect of Ucn2 and Ucn3 was reversed significantly by the selective CRF2, but not the selective CRF1 antagonist. Our results demonstrate that CRF and Ucn1 stimulate the hippocampal acetylcholine release through CRF1, whereas Ucn2 and Ucn3 inhibit the hippocampal acetylcholine release through CRF2. Therefore, the present study suggests the existence of two apparently opposing CRF systems in the hippocampus, through which CRF and the urocortins might modulate cholinergic activity and thereby cognitive functions.

1. Introduction

Corticotropin-releasing factor (CRF) and the urocortins (Ucn1, Ucn2 and Ucn3) are structurally related neuropeptides which act *via* two distinct CRF receptors, CRF1 and CRF2. CRF and Ucn1 activate both CRF1 and CRF2 (Chang et al., 1993; Van Pett et al., 2000), while Ucn2 and Ucn3 activate selectively CRF2 (Lewis et al., 2001; Reyes et al., 2001). CRF1 is distributed widely in the brain, in regions such as the cerebral cortex, anterior pituitary and cerebellum, but it is also expressed in the amygdala, medial septal nucleus and hippocampus (Van Pett et al., 2000). In contrast, CRF2 is represented mainly in the periphery, but it is also expressed abundantly in the subcortical regions, such as the striatum, lateral septal nucleus and hippocampus (Van Pett et al., 2000).

The principal role of CRF and the urocortins is to regulate the neuroendocrine, autonomic and behavioral stress responses, including

the regulation of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis (Herman and Cullinan, 1997), which consists of the paraventricular nucleus of the hypothalamus (PVN), the anterior pituitary and the adrenal cortex (Carrasco and Van de Kar, 2003; Tsigos and Chrousos, 2002). Intracerebroventricular (icv) administration of CRF and Ucn1 induces activation of the HPA axis reflected by elevation of the plasma corticosterone concentration, anxiety- and depression-like behavior in mice and rats (Bagosi et al., 2014; Spina et al., 1996; Spina et al., 2002; Tanaka and Telegyi, 2008). In contrast, icv administration of Ucn2 and Ucn3 produces anxiolytic and anti-depressant actions in rodents (Inoue et al., 2003; Tanaka and Telegyi, 2008; Valdez et al., 2002; Valdez et al., 2003). It was hereby hypothesized that in physiological conditions, CRF and Ucn1 would initiate the responses to stress activating CRF1 in the anterior pituitary, whereas Ucn2 and Ucn3 would terminate these responses activating CRF2 in the PVN (Bale et al., 2002; Bale and Vale, 2004). Consequently, CRF1 and CRF2 are presumed to mediate

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antagonistic effects, as regards stress, anxiety and depression (Alldredge, 2010; Kormos and Gaszner, 2013). However, our previous *in vivo* studies suggested that the role of CRF2 in the regulation of the HPA axis can be inhibitory or stimulatory, depending on the actual concentration of their agonists (Bagosi et al., 2013, 2014). In addition, our previous *in vitro* studies demonstrated that CRF and Ucn1 increase the amygdalar GABA release and decrease the hippocampal glutamate release via CRF1, but not CRF2, whereby they can also modulate the activity of the HPA axis (Bagosi et al., 2015; Bagosi et al., 2008). This notion is supported by the observation that, next to the PVN, CRF is also expressed in the central nucleus of the amygdala (CeA) and the ventral subiculum (vSub) of the hippocampus (Reul and Holsboer, 2002). Overwhelming stress may induce a pathological stimulation of CRF/CRF1 system in the cerebral cortex and the amygdala over the urocortin/CRF2 system in the lateral septal nucleus and the hippocampus that may result in hyperactivity of the HPA axis, anxiety and depression (Bale et al., 2002; Bale and Vale, 2004). Nevertheless, a recent hypothesis suggested that the action of CRF1 and CRF2 is not a matter of simple dualism, but it depends on the brain regions and neuron populations that are activated (Henckens et al., 2017; Janssen and Kozicz, 2013).

Besides the regulation of the stress responses, CRF and the urocortins could play an important role in the modulation of cognitive processes along with other neuropeptides (Abramova et al., 2020; Borbely et al., 2013). This second role is supported by the following lines of evidence: CRF-positive neurons and their projections are also found in various brain regions linked to cognition, including the hippocampus and the prefrontal and cingulate cortex (Reul and Holsboer, 2002). Ucn1 expression is represented predominantly in the Edinger-Westphal nucleus, but it was also reported in one of the cholinergic brainstem nuclei, the laterodorsal tegmental nucleus, that may represent a major site of interaction of the CRF/urocortin system with the cholinergic system (Fekete and Zorrilla, 2007). Ucn2 is expressed, amongst other sites, in the noradrenergic locus coeruleus, that, together with the cholinergic laterodorsal tegmental nucleus, is implicated in mediation of arousal (Fekete and Zorrilla, 2007). Ucn3 expression was not reported in any regions implicated in cognitive processes, but projections from regions rich in Ucn3 expression, such as the perifornical area of the hypothalamus, the medial nucleus of the amygdala, the bed nucleus of the stria terminalis to sites involved in learning and memory, such as the hippocampus, cannot be excluded (Fekete and Zorrilla, 2007). In addition, both CRF1 and CRF2 receptors are moderately to strongly expressed in the olfactory bulbs, the hippocampus, the entorhinal cortex, the bed nucleus of the stria terminalis and the periaqueductal grey, many of these brain regions being involved in the mediation of arousal, attention, learning and memory (Loverberg et al., 1995; Perrin et al., 1993). These observations raise the possibility that activation or inhibition of the CRF receptors can affect these types of behavior (Warnock et al., 2006).

Stress affects learning and memory functions that are mediated mainly by hippocampal acetylcholine (Warnock et al., 2006). This effect of stress could be modulated by CRF/CRF1 system, the presence of which was indicated within the pyramidal cell layers of hippocampus (Warnock et al., 2006). Furthermore, the effect of systemic, distantly released CRF on hippocampal neurons has been already demonstrated by previous studies (Aldenhoff et al., 1983; Blank et al., 2002; Hollrigel et al., 1998; Wang et al., 1998). However, the role of the native, locally released CRF and that of urocortin/CRF2 system in stress-evoked enhancement of hippocampal synaptic function has not been clarified yet. Therefore, the aim of the present study was to investigate the effects of CRF, Ucn1, Ucn2 and Ucn3 on the hippocampal acetylcholine release, through which they may modulate cognitive functions, including attention, learning and memory.

2. Materials and methods

In order to investigate the effects of CRF, Ucn1, Ucn2 and Ucn3 on the hippocampal acetylcholine release male Wistar rats (Animal

Husbandry Services, Domaszék, Hungary) weighing 150–250 g were used, their hippocampus was isolated, dissected, incubated and superfused. During the experiments the rats were kept and handled in accordance with the instructions of the University of Szeged Ethical Committee for the Protection of Animals in Research which are concordant with the European Communities Council Directive of 24 November 1986 (86/609/EEC).

The hippocampal acetylcholine release was measured by means of an *in vitro* superfusion system (Gaddum, 1953). First the rats were decapitated, and their brains were removed and dissected in a Petri dish filled with ice-cold Krebs solution. The hippocampus was isolated from each rat according to the following stereotaxic coordinates: rostro-caudal -4.0 to -6.0 mm, medio-lateral +2.0 to +5.0 mm, dorso-ventral +3.0 to +8.0 mm, using bregma as a point of reference (Pellegrino et al., 1979). The brain tissue was cut into 3 µm slices with a tissue chopper (McIlwain Inc., USA). The brain slices were incubated for 30 min in 8 ml of Krebs solution (Reanal Ltd., Hungary), submerged in a water bath at 37 °C and gassed through a single-use needle with a mixture of 5% CO₂ and 95% O₂. During the incubation, 15 nM of [³H] acetylcholine (PerkinElmer Inc., USA) was added to the incubation medium. After incubation, the tritium-labelled brain slices were transferred to each of the four cylindrical perspex chambers of a superfusion system (Experimetrics Ltd., Hungary). Golden electrodes were attached to both halves of the chambers and connected to an ST-02 electrical stimulator (Experimetrics Ltd., Hungary). A multichannel peristaltic pump (Gilson Minipuls 2) was used to perfuse the brain slices at a constant rate of 300 µl/min. The slices were superfused for 30 min to allow tissue equilibrium, and then the superfusates were collected in Eppendorf tubes by a multichannel fraction collector (Gilson FC 203B).

The hippocampal slices were pretreated with 0.1 nM of the selective CRF1 antagonist antalarmin (Sigma-Aldrich Inc., USA) or 1 nM of the selective CRF2 antagonist astressin_{2B} (Sigma-Aldrich Inc., USA), and then treated with 100 nM of non-selective CRF agonists, such as CRF (Bachem Ltd., Switzerland) and Ucn1 (Bachem Ltd., Switzerland) or 100 nM of selective CRF2 agonists, such as Ucn2 (Bachem Ltd., Switzerland) and Ucn3 (Bachem Ltd., Switzerland). CRF and the urocortin did not affect the baseline acetylcholine release and therefore, the hippocampus was stimulated electrically that may mimic the stress-induced hippocampal acetylcholine release. Hence, after 2 min, electrical stimulation consisting of square-wave impulses (duration: 2 min, voltage: 100 V, pulse length: 5 ms, frequency: 10 Hz) was delivered to each of the four chambers. The total collecting time was 32 min (4 × 16 samples, 2 min each) and the peak of the fractional release was observed at 14 min.

The brain tissue was removed from each chamber and solubilized in 200 ml of Krebs solution, using an ultrasonic homogenizer (Branson Sonifier 250). After the addition of 3 ml of Ultima Gold scintillation fluid (PerkinElmer Inc., USA) to the samples and the remaining brain tissue, the radioactivity was measured with a liquid scintillation spectrometer (Tri-carb 2100TR, Packard Inc., USA) and expressed in count per minute (CPM). The fractional release was calculated as the ratio between the radioactivity of the samples and that of the remaining brain tissue.

The fractional release of acetylcholine was calculated by the area-under-the-curve (AUC) method and statistical analysis of the results was performed by analysis of variance (Stata v16.1, StataCorp LLC., USA). Differences between two areas were determined by one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey *post-hoc* test and a probability level of 0.05 or less was accepted as indicating a statistically significant difference.

3. Results

CRF and Ucn1 increased significantly [$F_{14, \min(3,23)} = 16.289$; $p = 0.001$ for CRF *versus* the control and $F_{14, \min(3, 23)} = 18.60$; $p < 0.001$ for Ucn1 *versus* the control] (Figs. 1, 2 and 3), while Ucn2 and Ucn3 decreased significantly the stimulated hippocampal acetylcholine release [$F_{14, \min(3, 23)} = 11.53$; $p = 0.001$ for Ucn2 *versus* the control and

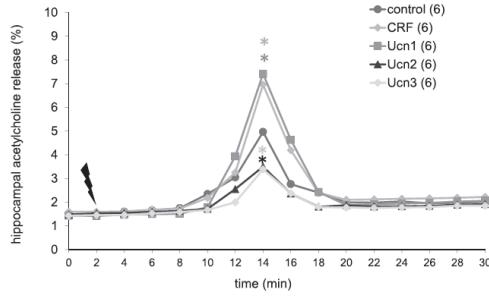


Fig. 1. The effects of CRF and the urocortins (Ucn1, Ucn2 and Ucn3) on the hippocampal acetylcholine release in rats. CRF and Ucn1 increased, whereas Ucn2 and Ucn3 decreased significantly the hippocampal acetylcholine release following electrical stimulation. Values are presented as fractional release (%) \pm SEM; the number of animals used was 2 for each experiment and the numbers of slices is indicated in brackets. A probability level of 0.05 or less was accepted as a statistically significant difference and indicated with * $p < 0.05$ for CRF, Ucn1, Ucn2 or Ucn3 vs. control.

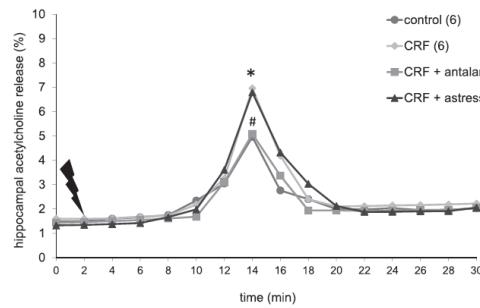


Fig. 2. The effects of CRF and the selective CRF antagonists on the hippocampal acetylcholine release in rats. CRF increased significantly the hippocampal acetylcholine release following electrical stimulation and the increasing effect was blocked by antalarmin, but not astressin_{2B}. Values are presented as fractional release (%) \pm SEM; the number of animals used was 2 for each experiment and the numbers of slices is indicated in brackets. A probability level of 0.05 or less was accepted as a statistically significant difference and indicated with * $p < 0.05$ for CRF vs. control.

$F_{14 \text{ min}}(3, 23) = 11.53$; $p = 0.003$ for Ucn3 versus the control] (Figs. 4 and 5). The increasing effect of CRF and Ucn1 was reduced significantly by antalarmin, but not astressin_{2B} (Figs. 1, 2 and 3) [$F_{14 \text{ min}}(3, 23) = 16.289$; $p = 0.002$ for CRF + antalarmin versus CRF alone and $F_{14 \text{ min}}(3, 23) = 18.60$; $p < 0.001$ for Ucn1 + antalarmin versus Ucn1 alone]. In contrast, the decreasing effect of Ucn2 and Ucn3 was reversed significantly by the selective CRF2, but not the selective CRF1 antagonist [F_{14 min}(3, 23) = 11.53; $p = 0.002$ for Ucn2 + astressin_{2B} versus Ucn2 alone and $F_{14 \text{ min}}(3, 23) = 11.53$; $p < 0.001$ for Ucn3 + astressin_{2B} versus Ucn3 alone] (Figs. 4 and 5).

4. Discussion

Our results demonstrate that CRF and Ucn1 increase the hippocampal acetylcholine release through CRF1, while Ucn2 and Ucn3 decrease the hippocampal acetylcholine release through CRF2. Previous results have already indicated that i.v. administration of CRF stimulates the hippocampal acetylcholine release (Day et al., 1998), and that this process is mediated via CRF1 (Desvignes et al., 2003; Gully et al., 2002).

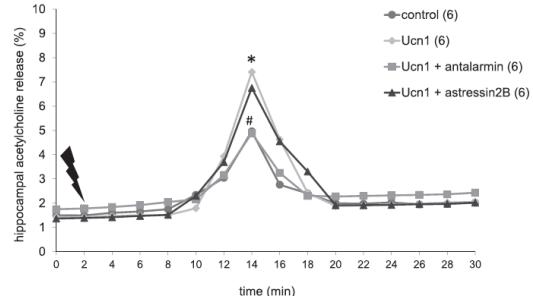


Fig. 3. The effects of Ucn1 and the selective CRF antagonists on the hippocampal acetylcholine release in rats. Ucn1 increased significantly the hippocampal acetylcholine release following electrical stimulation and the increasing effect was blocked by antalarmin, but not astressin_{2B}. Values are presented as fractional release (%) \pm SEM; the number of animals used was 2 for each experiment and the numbers of slices is indicated in brackets. A probability level of 0.05 or less was accepted as a statistically significant difference and indicated with * $p < 0.05$ for Ucn1 vs. control, and # $p < 0.05$ for Ucn1 + antalarmin vs. Ucn1.

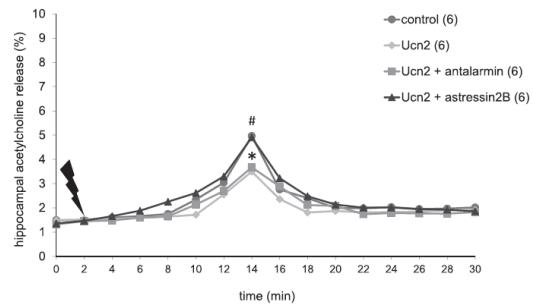


Fig. 4. The effects of Ucn2 and the selective CRF antagonists on the hippocampal acetylcholine release in rats. Ucn2 decreased significantly the hippocampal acetylcholine release following electrical stimulation and the decreasing effect was blocked by astressin_{2B}, but not antalarmin. Values are presented as fractional release (%) \pm SEM; the number of animals used was 2 for each experiment and the numbers of slices is indicated in brackets. A probability level of 0.05 or less was accepted as a statistically significant difference and indicated with * $p < 0.05$ for Ucn2 vs. control, and # $p < 0.05$ for Ucn3 + astressin_{2B} vs. Ucn2.

Nevertheless, the present study is the first to demonstrate that Ucn1 stimulates the hippocampal acetylcholine release through activation of CRF1, whereas Ucn2 and Ucn3 inhibit the hippocampal acetylcholine release through activation of CRF2.

Previous studies indicated that CRF is stored in GABAergic terminals, while CRF1 is found in glutamatergic synapses of the hippocampus (Chen et al., 2004). This is quite interesting, considering that endogenous CRF has been localized to inhibitory interneurons, yet exogenous CRF acts as an excitatory neurotransmitter (Aldenhoff et al., 1983). However, the way in which CRF reaches and activates the receptor is not clear. The finding that stress increases CRF-immunoreactivity in extracellular spaces adjacent to the pyramidal cells suggests the possibility that local CRF is released by electrical stimulation from hippocampal interneurons, and then it diffuses slowly to the pyramidal cell dendritic spines (Warnock et al., 2006). Although under physiological conditions, an extrahippocampal source and a rapid transport of CRF from distant brain sites that is shared by the urocortins cannot be excluded

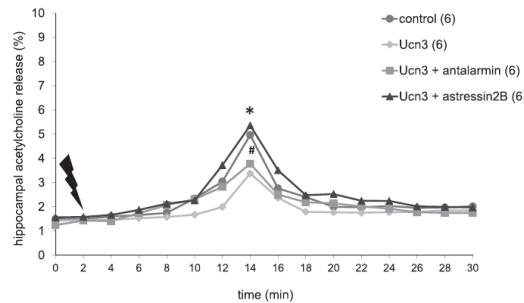


Fig. 5. The effects of Ucn3 and the selective CRF antagonists on the hippocampal acetylcholine release in rats. Ucn3 decreased significantly the hippocampal acetylcholine release following electrical stimulation and the decreasing effect was blocked by astressin_{2B}, but not antalarmin. Values are presented as fractional release (%) \pm SEM; the number of animals used was 2 for each experiment and the numbers of slices is indicated in brackets. A probability level of 0.05 or less was accepted as a statistically significant difference and indicated with * $p < 0.05$ for Ucn3 vs. control, and # $p < 0.05$ for Ucn3+astressin_{2B} vs. Ucn3.

(Bittencourt and Sawchenko, 2000). Moreover, previous studies also indicated that the CRF-induced hippocampal acetylcholine release might be the result of the increased release of acetylcholine from the terminals of neurons projecting from the medial septal nucleus or a decreased uptake of high-affinity choline in the hippocampus (Bittencourt and Sawchenko, 2000; Day et al., 1998).

Hippocampal acetylcholine plays a critical role in cognitive functions, including attention, learning and memory, however studies investigating this role led to contradictory results, due to the complexity of acetylcholine's actions in the brain (Haam and Yaker, 2017). Comprehending the complexity of neuropeptide-acetylcholine interactions might allow us to better understand the physiological roles of acetylcholine in cognitive functions and help us to design better treatment options for dementia that is observed in neurodegenerative disorders, including Alzheimer's, Parkinson's and Huntington disease (Haam and Yaker, 2017).

Overall, these studies suggest the existence of two apparently opposing CRF systems in the hippocampus, through which CRF and the urocortins might modulate cholinergic activity and thereby cognitive functions (Haam and Yaker, 2017). We further speculate that CRF and Ucn1 would facilitate processing and storing of affectively negative information, by activating CRF1 expressed abundantly in the medial septal nucleus and hippocampus, whereas Ucn2 and Ucn3 would help to neglect this information, by activating CRF2 expressed in the lateral septal nucleus and the hippocampus. In physiological conditions, a delicate balance between CRF/CRF1 and urocortin/CRF2 systems must exist to secure a normal HPA axis activity and cognitive functioning. However, in pathological states, such as anxiety, depression, and post-traumatic stress disorder an overstimulation of CRF/CRF1 system may occur that results in hyperactivity of the HPA axis and deterioration of cognitive functions (Warnecke et al., 2006). In this order of thoughts, administration of selective CRF1 antagonists, such as antalarmin and/or selective CRF2 agonists, such as Ucn2 and Ucn3, might be useful tool to attenuate the hyperactivity of the HPA axis, and the disturbance of attention, learning and memory associated with anxiety, depression, and other stress-related disorders (Hupalo et al., 2019). Despite of the fact that the animal experiments are very promising, most clinical trials concluded that CRF antagonists are not effective at treating the affective symptoms of anxiety and depression disorders (Spierling and Zorrilla, 2017). Nevertheless, the cognitive actions of CRF1 antagonists administered alone or together with CRF2 agonists were not explicitly investigated, hence more animal and human studies are needed to

demonstrate the efficacy of these drugs in the therapy of these disorders.

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