

J. Chem Neuroanat
Special issue devoted to W. Vale
Submitted: February, 2013.

CRH: the link between hormonal- metabolic- and behavioral responses to stress

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ABSTRACT

Two major and mutually interconnected brain systems are recruited during stress reaction. One is the hypothalamic paraventricular nucleus (PVH) and the second is the extended amygdala. PVH governs the neuroendocrine stress response while CeA regulates most of the autonomic and behavioral stress reactions. The common neurohormonal mediator of these responses is the corticotropin-releasing hormone, CRH, which is expressed in both centers. CRH belongs to a larger family of neuropeptides that also includes urocortins 1, 2, and 3 all have different affinity towards the two types of CRHR receptors and have been implicated in regulation of stress and HPA axis activity. One functionally relevant aspect of CRH systems is their differential regulation by glucocorticoids. While corticosterone inhibits CRH transcription in the PVH, stress-induced glucocorticoids stimulate CRH expression in the extended amygdala. This review summarizes past and recent findings related to CRH gene regulation and its involvement in the neuroendocrine, autonomic and behavioral stress reaction.

Key words: Corticotropin-releasing hormone, paraventricular nucleus, central amygdala, bed nucleus of stria terminalis, corticosterone, cAMP-response element.

Abbreviations

ADX	adrenalectomy
BAT	brown adipose tissue
cAMP	cyclic AMP
CNS	central nervous system
CREB	cAMP response element binding protein
CRH	corticotropin-releasing hormone
CRH1R	type 1 corticotropin-releasing hormone receptor
CRH2R	type 2 corticotropin-releasing hormone receptor
DAG	diacylglycerol
GABA	gamma-aminobutyric acid
GR	glucocorticoid receptor
icv	intracerebroventricular (injection)
LC	locus ceruleus
LTP	long-term potentiation
PVH	paraventricular nucleus of the hypothalamus
mpd	medial parvocellular dorsal subdivision of PVH
dp	dorsal parvocellular subdivision of PVH
mpv	medial parvocellular ventral subdivision of PVH
lp	lateral parvocellular subdivision of PVH
SNS	sympathetic nervous system
TORC	transducer of regulated CREB activity

Introduction

With the discovery of **corticotropin-releasing hormone**, CRH in 1981, Wylie Vale (Spiess et al 1981, Vale et al 1981) launched a wave of discoveries that resulted in the significant achievement of what we know about stress physiology and stress-related pathologies.

CRH-41 is synthesized by the hypophyseotropic neurons in the medial dorsal parvocellular subdivision of the hypothalamic paraventricular nucleus (PVH) (Swanson et al 1983). The axons of these cells run laterally and caudally and terminate in the outer zone of the median eminence to release CRH into the portal vasculature of the anterior pituitary to initiate the neuroendocrine stress response (Gibbs & Vale 1982, Lennard et al 1993, Merchenthaler et al 1984, Plotsky et al 1985, Swanson et al 1983, Vale et al 1983).

Additional cell groups within the lateral-, dorsal- and ventral medial parvocellular subdivisions of the rat PVH also capable to synthesize CRH, however these cells project to preganglionic neurons of medulla and spinal cord and have been implicated in the control of autonomic stress responses (Sawchenko et al 1984, Swanson & Sawchenko 1983).

Since the beginning it has been shown that CRH is widely distributed within the nervous system (Merchenthaler 1984, Palkovits et al 1985, Swanson et al 1983) and at the periphery where it acts as neurotransmitter or neuromodulator. Foremost among these are the central nucleus of amygdala (CeA) and the bed nucleus of stria terminalis (BNST) which comprise functionally the “extended amygdala”. CRH expression at these sites is related to wide range of stress-adaptive responses, including autonomic- immune- and behavioral changes. Additionally, there are CRH synthesizing neuron populations in the lateral hypothalamus, prefrontal and cingulate cortex and

in the hippocampus. CRH cells have also been found in the Barrington's nucleus, parabrachial complex and in the nucleus of the solitary tract (NTS). Central CRH has been implicated in regulation of arousal, cognitive and executive functions, reward, fear, anxiety and depression, affects sleep-wake cycles, interacts with growth and reproductive regulatory axes and affects cardiorespiratory-, metabolic- and gastrointestinal functions.

CRH is regulated in site-, stress- and glucocorticoid-specific manner (see Table 1). Acute stress challenges generally increase CRH mRNA and peptide levels both in hypothalamic (Imaki et al 1995, Kovacs & Sawchenko 1996a, Kovacs & Sawchenko 1996b, Lightman & Young 1988, Makino et al 1995, Watts 1996) and extrahypothalamic sites, whereas acute and chronic stress exposure reduces CRH transcription in the olfactory bulb (Imaki et al 1991).

1. Regulation of Hypothalamic CRH Transcription

In response to acute stress challenges there is a robust and immediate release of CRH from the hypothalamic parvocellular neurosecretory neurons into the hypophyseal portal circulation that depletes neuropeptide stores at the axon terminals (Plotsky 1985). However, it remains still unknown if the depletion of CRH at the neurovascular interface and/or excitation by neural inputs triggers CRH synthesis in response to stress.

Hypophyseotropic CRH neurons receive stress-related afferents from various brain sites. Most of the somatosensory and viscerosensory information is directly mediated by catecholaminergic pathways (Liposits et al 1986, Liposits et al 1987, Swanson & Sawchenko 1983), while cortical and limbic inputs are processed through gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA) and/or glutamatergic local circuits (Herman et al 2002, Herman et al 2005, Roland & Sawchenko 1993). These stress-related inputs activate various signal transduction pathways in the parvocellular

neurosecretory neurons that converge upon the regulatory region of the CRH gene to initiate CRH transcription. Stress-induced increase of CRH mRNA depends on the integrity of ascending catecholaminergic (noradrenergic) pathways originating in the brain stem (Pacak et al 1996). Stress-induced activation of parvocellular neurons and CRH synthesis can be reproduced by norepinephrine (NE) injection into the PVH that selectively increases CRH heteronuclear (hn)RNA in the parvocellular neurosecretory neurons (Cole & Sawchenko 2002, Itoi et al 1999). Increased NE signals at alpha1 and beta adrenergic receptors on CRH neurons and increases cAMP (and DAG) second messengers (Day et al 1999). cAMP activates protein kinase A (PKA) to phosphorylate cAMP response element binding protein CREB (Montminy et al 1990). CRH promoter contains cis-acting elements among those the cAMP-response element (CRE) is of the highest significance in stress-initiated CRH transcription (Kovacs & Sawchenko 1996b, Seasholtz et al 1991, Seasholtz et al 1988). This site integrates cAMP-PKA (Majzoub et al 1993), MAPK -ERK 1/2 (Khan et al 2011, Khan et al 2007), PKC (Majzoub et al 1993) and intracellular Ca²⁺ signaling via phosphorylation of CREB (Khan et al 2011, Kovacs & Sawchenko 1996a). This relatively simple scenario of CRH regulation is complicated by several factors. (1) Activation of CRH transcription requires recruitment of specific coactivators such as Transducer of Regulated CREB activity (TORC) (Martin et al 2012, Wang et al 2008) especially TORC2, which is co-localized in CRH neurons (Liu et al 2010, Watts et al 2011). (2) Ongoing CRH transcription also depends on interaction with several trans-acting factors among those Inducible cAMP Early Repressor (ICER) has been proposed to terminate stress-induced activation of CRH gene expression in the PVH (Shepard et al 2005).

It is noteworthy that glutamatergic excitatory input does not reliably increase CRH expression in the parvocellular neurosecretory neurons (Cole & Sawchenko 2002). In contrast,

pharmacological (by GABA A receptor antagonist) or genetical (GABBA A1b KO in CRH neurons) interference with inhibitory GABAergic input to the parvocellular neurons, increased CRH expression in PVN (Bali & Kovacs 2003, Cole & Sawchenko 2002, Gafford et al 2012). The cellular and molecular mechanisms that mediate CRH transcription after suspension of GABAergic inhibition remains to be elucidated.

Timing of the CRH neuroendocrine stress cascade

Acute stressors depolarize hypophyseotropic neurons that promptly release CRH into the portal circulation. This is followed by ACTH release from the pituitary corticotropes peaking 5-15 min after acute challenge. The maximal corticosterone (CORT) response by the adrenals is seen between 15-30 min following the onset of acute stress. Meanwhile CREB is phosphorylated in the CRH neurons within 15 min after stress and CRH hnRNA became clearly detectable in the cell nuclei of parvocellular neurons at 5-30 min post stress (Kovacs & Sawchenko 1996b). CRH mRNA levels usually peak after 2 hours post stress and decline thereafter. ICER mRNA and protein appears between 1-3 hours post-stress that coincides with decline of CRH mRNA level and corticosterone secretion (Shepard et al 2005).

Glucocorticoid Negative Feedback on CRH in the PVH

One important factor that constrains basal and stress-induced activity of hypophyseotropic CRH expression is the glucocorticoid negative feedback. Glucocorticoid hormones have direct and indirect effects on CRH neurons. A critical amount of evidence suggests that CRH neurons in the

medial dorsal parvocellular subdivision of the PVH are directly sensitive to glucocorticoids (Bali et al 2008, Kovacs et al 1986, Kovacs et al 2000). Glucocorticoid receptor (GR) immunoreactivity is co-localized in CRH neurons (Uht et al 1988) and glucocorticoid implants in the PVH effectively decreased CRH mRNA levels and immunoreactivity in adrenalectomized (ADX) rats (Kovacs & Mezey 1987, Sawchenko 1987b). Furthermore, CRH transcription is reduced by glucocorticoid hormones in organotypic cultures of the PVH that lack extrahypothalamic connections (Bali et al 2008). Experiments on GR knockout mice revealed that neurosecretory CRH synthesis is tonically repressed by glucocorticoids even under basal (no stress) conditions (Kretz et al 1999). To further support the direct inhibitory effect on CRH gene, it has been recently shown that targeted disruption of GR signaling within the PVH results in upregulation of CRH mRNA levels (Jeanneteau et al 2012).

Within the neurosecretory neurons GRs may repress CRH transcription by a putative negative glucocorticoid response element (nGRE). Despite the significant inhibitory effect of various glucocorticoid receptor agonists on CRH mRNA levels, the regulatory region of the CRH gene itself does not seem to contain classical consensus GRE. However, Guardiola-Diaz *et al.* demonstrated several regions of high-affinity GR binding using rat GR DNA-binding domain in a DNase I protection assay (Guardiola-Diaz et al 1996). Indeed, other studies also confirmed a cis-acting regulatory element, located between -278 and -249 bp upstream of the transcription start site, which is important in glucocorticoid-mediated repression and to which GR binds with high affinity and specificity, indicating that GR directly inhibits CRH gene transcription. However, this region of the CRH promoter is a so called GR/AP-1 “composite site/ element” that may confer both stimulatory and inhibitory actions in a context dependent manner. This site is

required for corticosteroid inhibition of cAMP-induced CRH transcription (Malkoski & Dorin 1999, Malkoski et al 1997).

Furthermore, ligand-activated glucocorticoid receptor may interact with other transcription factors and modify their interaction with DNA. Such protein-protein interaction has been revealed between GR and AP-1, NGFI-B, CREB and NFkB transcription factors. This “cross-talk” does not require functional DNA binding domain of GR further suggesting indirect action of glucocorticoids. Corticosteroid suppression of CRH transcription in the parvocellular neurosecretory neurons might also be brought about by competition for transcriptional transactivators.

Additional inhibitory actions of corticosteroids might also be mediated indirectly through modification of intracellular signal transduction pathways via inhibition of MAP-kinases or c-Jun-N terminal kinase (JNK) (Lasa et al 2002, Yao & Denver 2007).

Finally, glucocorticoids affect the half life of CRH transcripts. For instance, adrenalectomy (ADX) decreases the rate of CRH mRNA degradation and corticosterone replacement decreases the half life of CRH mRNA in the rat paraventricular nucleus (Ma et al 2001).

One emerging transcription factor regulating CRH gene transcription in the parvocellular neurons is the NRSF, Neuron-Restrictive Silencing Transcription Factor, also known as RE1-Silencing Transcription factor (REST). REST is involved in the repression of neural genes in non-neuronal cells (Seth & Majzoub 2001). The intron of the CRH gene contains NRSE, and in vitro NRSF may confer repression as well as enhancement of CRH expression (Seth & Majzoub 2001). Recent findings revealed the role of NRSF in long-term repression of CRH gene in response to augmented maternal care (Korosi et al 2010).

One other important aspect of the negative feedback on HPA axis is the effect of glucocorticoids on limbic areas, which is mediated by local GABAergic inputs to the CRH neurons (Bali & Kovacs 2003, Cole & Sawchenko 2002, Cullinan et al 2008, Miklos & Kovacs 2002).

It should be noted, however, that CRH expression might be differentially regulated by glucocorticoids in the functionally distinct (ie. hypophyseotropic vs. autonomic projection) neurons of hypothalamic paraventricular nucleus. While ADX results in an increase of CRH mRNA and protein in all CRH expressing neurons, cells in the dorsal and ventral medial subdivisions seem to be more resistant to glucocorticoid negative feedback than those, which project to the median eminence (Kovacs et al 1986) .

2. Regulation and Function of Central (Extrahypophyseotropic) CRH

Central CRH is upregulated during stress in most of the limbic and brainstem areas including those in the central amygdala, BNST and Barrington's nucleus. Studies on molecular mechanisms through which CRH is stimulated in these areas lag behind compared to that of PVH. It has been shown that psychosocial stress increases CRH mRNA levels in the CeA (Hsu et al 1998, Kalin et al 1994) and laterodorsal (oval) subnucleus of BNST (Makino et al 1999) and in the Barrington's nucleus (Wood et al 2009). Although CRH mRNA is elevated in both of CeA and BNST to most of physical and emotional challenges, interoceptive stressors such as opiate withdrawal results in a unique increase of CRH in the amygdala without affecting that of in the BNST (McNally & Akil 2002). In spite that several studies report on stress-induced elevation of CRH mRNA in brain CRH system, there are no reports on CRH hnRNA increases at these very same neuron population. Whether it is due to extreme low level of ongoing

transcription and/or to differences in mRNA stability needs further investigation. There is only one single study by now, which found increased CRH hnRNA in the extended amygdala following intracerebral kainate induced seizures (Foradori et al 2007).

Ipsilateral surgical section of ascending catecholaminergic pathways from the brainstem did not affect stress-induced CRH mRNA levels in the CeA, but significantly decreased CRH transcription in the PVH ipsilateral to the cut (Pacak et al 1996). These studies suggest that ascending brainstem pathways do not mediate stress-induced CRH increases in the amygdala.

A wealth of evidence documents the capacity of stress-induced corticosterone to stimulate CRH expression in several brain areas. Among these sites most prominent CORT effect was found in the central amygdala, CeA and the bed nucleus of the stria terminalis (BNST) (Makino et al 1994, Schulkin et al 1998, Watts & Sanchez-Watts 1995). It seems likely that excess glucocorticoids induce CRH gene expression in the CeA as well as in the dorsolateral (oval) nucleus of the BNST (Beyer et al 1988, Watts 2005). By contrast, CRH expression in the fusiform nucleus of BNST is not significantly dependent on corticosteroids (Watts 2005).

The mechanisms of the opposite corticosteroid action in the PVH vs. CeA on CRH transcription is not yet fully elucidated. Tissue specific differences in steroid receptor coactivators, such as SRC-1 might play a role in neuron-specific action of glucocorticoids on CRH transcription. SRC1a isoform is highly expressed in the PVH, while CeA is enriched with SRC1e that coincides with differential effect of corticosterone in these areas (Meijer et al 2000).

In contrast to the situation seen in neurosecretory neurons in the PVH, lack of corticosteroid hormones in the extended amygdala results in a decrease of CRH mRNA and immunoreactivity as revealed by experiments on adrenalectomized (ADX) animals. Most of the studies agree that

CRH mRNA and peptide levels in the CeA are decreased after ADX, however it seems likely that CRH expression in the BNST is less sensitive to the absence of glucocorticoid hormones (Kovacs et al 1986, Makino et al 1994, Santibanez et al 2005, Sawchenko 1987a, Watts 2005).

Previous work hypothesized the role of CeA in the regulation of HPA axis activity during stress. However, lesions of the CeA do not affect stress-induced CRH mRNA and c-Fos in the PVH and ACTH and CORT levels in stressed rats, rather, CeA is involved in long term modulation of basal HPA activity (Prewitt & Herman 1997). By contrast, lentiviral overexpression of CRH in the CeA amplified CRH and AVP expression in the PVH and impaired glucocorticoid negative feedback on ACTH secretion (Keen-Rhinehart et al 2009).

CRH expression in the **neocortex** is also well established. CRH immunoreactive cell bodies are confined to layers II and III and show interneuronal morphology (Swanson et al 1983). These cells are abundant in limbic regions including prefrontal and cingulate areas. CRH neurons in the dentate gyrus and in the pyramidal cell layers CA1 and CA3, are parvalbumin positive GABAergic interneurons (Chen et al 2012, Yan et al 1998). In situ hybridization signals corresponding to CRH mRNA are increased in these areas by stressful stimuli and by local CRH administration (Givalois et al 2000). During stress, CRH is rapidly released in the synapses and facilitates hippocampus functions through postsynaptic type 1 corticotropin-releasing hormone receptor (CRH1R) (Chen et al 2004). CRH-induced acute activation of principal neurons contributes to synaptic plasticity and long-term potentiation (LTP), a cellular mechanism generally believed to underlie learning and memory. However, long lasting and repeated stressors reduce synaptic plasticity and impair memory together with overt morphological changes seen in dendritic morphology (Maras & Baram 2012). The corticosteroid dependence of

cortical CRH expression is much less studied. Scattered information is available suggesting that CORT does not affect CRH mRNA in the cortex (Frim et al 1990).

The pontine **Barrington's nucleus** harbors special population CRH positive neurons, which provide stress-related input to the lumbosacral parasympathetic neurons. Expression of CRH mRNA in these neurons is upregulated in response to stress (Wood et al 2009), but not to ADX (Imaki et al 1991). Increase of CRH in Barrington's nucleus by social stress has been linked to stress-induced bladder dysfunction (Wood et al 2009, Wood et al 2013).

3. Life with excess CRH-41

Several transgenic mouse lines have been generated that help our understanding of the anatomy and physiology of the CRH system. For instance, CRH-gfp transgenic animals provide a tool for anatomical and electrophysiological studies on the CRH system (Alon et al 2009).

Vale's laboratory produced the first CRH overexpressing mice in which CRH gene was expressed under control of the metallothionein promoter. These animals display Cushing-like phenotype with increased ACTH and CORT secretion, hyperphagia, adult onset central obesity, increased adipose mass, thinned skin, osteoporosis and decreased muscle mass. (Stenzel-Poore et al 1992). Chronic CRH excess in these transgenic animals results in anxiety and hyperlocomotion (Coste et al 2001, Stenzel-Poore et al 1996).

Further on, CRH overexpressing mice were generated in which CRH gene is under the control of Thy-1 promoter and the transgene expression is limited to neural tissues (Dirks et al 2002). These animals do not have Cushing-like phenotype, however display chronic stress-like

neuroendocrine and autonomic changes, HPA axis abnormalities and their behavior is reminiscent to that of seen in depression (Groenink et al 2002).

In contrast, mice that express CRH transgene exclusively in the anterior and interior lobes of the pituitary have Cushing-like phenotype with elevated stress hormone levels, but do not display signs of emotional behavior (anxiety or depression) (Dedic et al 2012).

Conditional CNS restricted- (CRH-COE-Nes) and forebrain restricted (CRH-COE-CAM) overexpression of CRH have been achieved by Cre/Flox recombinase technology (Lu et al 2008). CRH overexpression in the entire central nervous system, but not when overexpressed in specific forebrain regions, resulted in stress-induced hypersecretion of stress hormones and active stress-coping behavior (reduced immobility in the forced swim test and tail suspension test)(Lu et al 2008) and increase in REM sleep (Kimura et al 2010).

Using a tetracycline-off system Muglia's laboratory produced mice with forebrain-restricted inducible expression of CRH. After transient elevation of central CRH during development only (from E0 to PN21), behavioral testing in adult mice revealed a persistent anxiogenic and despair-like phenotype (Kolber et al 2010).

To further specify central effects of CRH, unrestrained overproduction of the peptide by lentiviral constructs have been achieved in the central amygdala. These animals have increased CRH and AVP mRNA levels in the hypothalamic PVN and decreased glucocorticoid negative feedback similar to that seen in depression (Keen-Rhinehart et al 2009). Furthermore, they display increased acoustic startle and passive stress coping behavior in forced swim test (Flandreau et al 2012, Keen-Rhinehart et al 2009).

4. Life without CRH – from paraventricular lesions to CRH-KO mice and lentiviral gene silencing

Surgical/electrical lesion of the hypothalamic paraventricular nucleus results in disappearance of CRH-ir material from the zona externa of the median eminence and attenuated hormonal response to wide range of stressors (Bruhn et al 1984, Makara & Kovacs 1997, Makara et al 1986). It is important to note that in spite of total lesion of the PVH, there is functional recovery of HPA axis and neuroendocrine stress response, 4-6 weeks after hypothalamic lesions (Makara et al 1986). These lesions affect all subdivisions of the PVH; lesioned animals are hyperphagic with increased uptake of carbohydrates (Shor-Posner et al 1985) have increased insulin levels (Sims & Lorden 1986) and develop central obesity. It has also been shown that large PVH lesions increase maternal aggressive behavior (Consiglio & Lucion 1996). Rats with more specific lesions placed to destroy only parvocellular neurons by ibotenic acid injections display less fear and an increase of exploratory behavior (Herman et al 1991).

CRH knockout mice have been generated in 1995 (Muglia et al 1995). CRH-KO pups born to homozygote mothers must have been supplemented by corticosterone from E12 until weaning to prevent pulmonary insufficiency. As expected, under basal conditions, CRH KO mice have blunted ACTH and CORT plasma levels. The requirement of CRH for ACTH release is further supported by the fact that plasma ACTH response to ADX is seen only if CRH is injected. In spite of low levels of circulating glucocorticoids, and elevated hypothalamic AVP levels, CRH KO mice have normal POMC expression in the corticotropes. CRH KO mice display stressor-specific heterogeneity of stress-induced pituitary-adrenocortical activation. Some stressors, such

as restraint and fasting require CRH secretion, while hypoglycemia and hemorrhage results in attenuated but significant ACTH and CORT responses in the absence of CRH (Jacobson et al 2000). In contrast, HPA responses to inflammatory and immune challenges do not require CRH drive (Muglia et al 2000).

To overcome developmental compensatory mechanisms and lack of spatial and temporal specificity in CRH KO animals, lentiviral vectors have been recently developed to silence CRH expression in site specific manner. Silencing of CRH gene exclusively in the central amygdala in adult mice attenuated stress-induced anxiety-like behaviors and increased basal CORT levels (Regev et al 2012).

5. The integrated stress response- view from CRH

CRH integrates many aspects of the stress response. Hypophyseotropic CRH initiates the neuroendocrine stress cascade, while central CRH triggers physiological and behavioral changes to prepare the organism for fight or flight meanwhile inhibits vegetative and reproductive functions and alters immunity.

Multisynaptic tracing of autonomic circuits often label cells within the forebrain (BNST, dorsal and ventral medial subdivisions of the PVH, lateral hypothalamic area, central amygdala) which do contain CRH immunoreactive neurons (Buijs et al 2001, Denes et al 2005, Strack et al 1989). These pre-autonomic neurons have been implicated in providing relevant sympathetic/parasympathetic outflow during stress. Central administration of CRH mimics cardiovascular, metabolic and even behavioral responses that are seen during stress. It has also

been shown that in most of the cases, CRH effect on the sympathetic activity is mediated by CRH1Rs.

During stress, central CRH stimulates LC neurons and results in elevated noradrenaline levels thereby increases **arousal** (Berridge & Waterhouse 2003, Valentino et al 1991). This is supported by the demonstration of synaptic contacts between CRH immunoreactive terminals and TH positive cells (Van Bockstaele et al 1996). LC receive CRH positive afferent fibers from the brainstem, Barrington nucleus, central amygdala and from the PVH (Valentino et al 1992, Van Bockstaele et al 2001, Van Bockstaele et al 1996, Van Bockstaele et al 1998). Within the LC, CRH acts directly through CRH1R and increases firing of TH positive neurons (Jedema & Grace 2004) and results in norepinephrine release in LC target areas. To further support the involvement of CRH in activation LC sympathetic outflow it has been shown that CRH microinjections into the LC mimics certain sympathetic autonomic, behavioral and immune responses to stressors (Baldwin et al 1991, Kubota et al 2012, Monnikes et al 1996).

Central CRH delivery elevates heart rate and blood pressure while decreases heart rate variability (Arlt et al 2003), similar to that seen under stress or in CRH overexpressing mice (Dirks et al 2002). LC also plays a pivotal role in translation of stress challenges to bodily **cardiovascular responses**. However different stressors recruit different CRH pathways projecting to LC. For instance, during hypotensive stress CeA as a primary source of LC-activating CRH (Curtis et al 2002, Valentino et al 1991). Intra-BNST CRH system has also been implicated in coordination of stress-associated cardiovascular changes. CRH injected intracerebroventricular (icv). or directly into the BNST resulted in tachycardiac response, which was prevented either by β -adrenergic blockers or by CRH1R antagonists (Nijsen et al 2000). On the other hand, CRH,

released in the medial BNST during conditioned fear stress, contributes to cardiac stress responses, particularly by activating vagal outflow (Nijsen et al 2001).

Stress-induced endogenous-, or centrally injected CRH and related peptides affect several aspects of **food intake and energy metabolism** (Kuperman & Chen 2008). It is generally acknowledged that icv administration of CRH-41 significantly reduces food intake while its effect on metabolism is mediated through activation of sympathetic nervous system (SNS) outflow and increased thermogenesis (Rothwell 1990, Spina et al 1996). Based on studies using a non-selective CRH antagonist it has been suggested that appetite reducing effect of emotional stress is conferred by CRH1R (Hotta et al 1999). On contrary, CRH was able to decrease food intake in CRH1R knockout mice as much as in wild type littermates. Finally it is concluded that both CRH and urocortins attenuate food intake via CRH1R and type 2 corticotropin-releasing hormone receptor (CRH2R) however, with different time course (Sekino et al 2004).

CRH, released during stress, also affects **nutrient selection** (Heinrichs & Koob 1992). For instance, rodents prefer “comfort” food, rich in fat and carbohydrates when chronically stressed (Dallman et al 2003, Pecoraro et al 2004, Teegarden & Bale 2008). Ingestion of highly palatable food reduces the activity of the central stress response network, including CRH expression in the CeA, attenuates autonomic outflow and therefore represents a “self-treating” mechanism with which to reduce adverse effects of chronic stress (Dallman et al 2005). Further on, withdrawal from palatable food recruits anti-reward CRH –CRH1R in the extended amygdala that may be responsible for compulsive behavior and binge eating (Cottone et al 2009).

CRH is a mediator of leptin’s anorectic effect via activation of sympathetic outflow (Costa et al 1997). Indeed, central infusion of the peptide has been repeatedly shown to increase sympathetic

activity, brown adipose tissue (BAT) UCP-1 expression and **thermogenesis**, lipolysis, which are independent from the hyperlocomotive behavioral response (Egawa et al 1990). Central CRH and increased sympathetic activity in BAT during stress is likely be involved in the stress-induced hyperthermia (Vinkers et al 2009). Stress-induced changes in body temperature are likely be mediated through central pathways including the preoptic area, the paraventricular and dorsomedial nuclei, rostral ventromedial medulla and target neurons in the intermediolateral cell column at the thoracic spinal cord (Morrison et al 2012).

Various external and internal stress challenges inhibit **reproduction** and reproductive behavior in both sexes, which is mediated partially by CRH and CRH-related peptides (Miwa et al 2011, Petraglia et al 1987, Rivier & Rivest 1991). Stress and stress-induced CRH delay puberty, while non-selective CRHR antagonist astressin B advances vaginal opening in females (Kinsey-Jones et al 2010). Although previous in vitro experiments suggested direct action of CRH through CRH2R on GnRH cell line GT1-7 (Kinsey-Jones et al 2006), more recent studies identified the GnRH pulse generator as the major potential target of stress-induced suppression of reproductive functions . To add the complexity, the inhibitory action of stress on the pulse generator is stressor dependent and mediated differentially through CRH1R and/or CRH2Rs (Li et al 2006). In fact, stress significantly attenuates expression kisspeptin and kisspeptin receptor Gpr54 in the hypothalamus, which are critical components of the GnRH pulse generator in the arcuate nucleus (Kinsey-Jones et al 2009, Li et al 2009). Recently, it has been shown that medial and central nuclei of the amygdala and the BNST as key mediators of the stress response are recruited in stressor-specific manner to inhibit LH pulses (Lin et al 2011). Specifically, the BNST CRH system activates hypothalamic GABAergic interneurons that may pose inhibition onto GnRH neurocircuit (Li et al 2011).

CRH acts as a neurotransmitter/neuromodulator in stress-associated limbic regions to propagate and integrate stress-induced **behaviors**. It has been shown shortly after its discovery that intracerebroventricular infusion of CRH-41 reproduces many behaviors seen in during stress (Sutton et al 1982). Pharmacological studies, using CRH antagonists underscore the role of central CRH in mediating stress-related behaviors (Kalin et al 1988, Skelton et al 2007). Furthermore, CRH overexpressing mice also display a behavioral phenotype seen in stressed animals including increased anxiety (Kasahara et al 2007, Stenzel-Poore et al 1996). CRH increases locomotion in a familiar surroundings, decreases exploration in novel environment, induces grooming, burrowing, self-gnawing and decreases rearing and sleeping (Sherman & Kalin 1986), however does not affect analgesia. Some of these behaviors (grooming and exploration) can be initiated by CRH microinjections into the amygdala under resting conditions (Wiersma et al 1995). Interestingly, mice lacking the CRH gene exhibit normal stress-induced behavior that is specifically blocked by a CRH type 1 receptor antagonist, suggesting involvement of another endogenous CRH1R ligand such as urocortin (Weninger et al 1999).

The role of the extended amygdala in **fear and anxiety** is well established (Davis 1992, Davis et al 1994, Lee & Davis 1997, Merali et al 2003, Schulkin et al 1998). It has been shown that infusion of CRH into the BNST and amygdala provokes number of fear-related behavioral responses in a CRH1R receptor dependent manner (Lee & Davis 1997, Shepard et al 2000). Stress-induced CORT increases CRH in the amygdala and BNST and results in anxiety in rats (Shepard et al 2000, Shepard et al 2009). CeA projections to the periaqueductal gray are responsible for freezing (LeDoux 1995), while efferents to the nucleus reticularis pontis caudalis facilitate startle response to stress (Lee & Davis 1997, Rosen et al 1991). Chronic CORT

treatment elevates CRH mRNA in the CeA, increases fear, enhance learning and memory consolidation, however, does not potentiate innate fear responses (Rosen et al 2008).

CRH affects **stress coping strategy**. Mice displaying active coping in social interaction have significantly higher hypothalamic levels of CRH mRNA than passive mice (De Miguel et al 2011).

Acute and chronic stress exposure significantly modulates **immune defense** system. Although stress-released glucocorticoids are the best characterized players that mediate neuro-immune interaction, central CRH is also involved in brain-to-immune signaling via stimulation of the sympathetic outflow to the lymphoid organs (Elenkov et al 2000, Irwin et al 1992, Tsagarakis & Grossman 1994). Spleen, thymus and bone marrow receive extensive sympathetic/noradrenergic innervation (Denes et al 2005, Williams et al 1981) that is modulated by central CRH. Lymphoid tissues express relevant adrenoreceptors through which sympathetic nervous system affects lymphocyte traffic proliferation, and modulate Th1-proinflammatory/Th2 –anti-inflammatory cytokine balance (Elenkov & Chrousos 1999, Hauger et al 1993). Thus, the activation of SNS during an immune response might be aimed to localize the inflammatory response, through induction of neutrophil accumulation and stimulation of more specific humoral immune responses, although systemically it may suppress Th1 responses, and, thus protect the organism from the detrimental effects of proinflammatory cytokines and other products of activated macrophages (Elenkov & Chrousos 2002).

Conclusion

A wealth of knowledge has been accumulated since Wylie Vale's discovery of corticotropin-releasing hormone, CRH-41. CRH is widely distributed throughout the central nervous system and it is intriguing to note that most of CRH expressing sites are somehow related the central stress regulation. CRH, synthesized by the parvocellular neurosecretory neurons, acts as a neurohormone to initiate the neuroendocrine stress response, while CRH expressed in the extended amygdala, in the cortex and hippocampus is related to many vegetative and behavioral aspects of stress (Figure 1). Much is already known about stress-related neurotransmitters and intracellular signal transduction pathways that converge upon the regulatory regions of the CRH gene. However the network of transcription factors and coregulators that may mediate differential expression and corticosteroid regulation of CRH gene at different brain sites remains to be discovered.

Table 1. Site Specific Regulation of CRH Expression in the Brain

site	ADX	Stress	CORT	References
PVH mpd (hypophyseotropic)	↑	↑	↓	(Herman et al 1992, Kovacs & Mezey 1987, Kovacs & Sawchenko 1996b, Ma et al 1997, Swanson & Simmons 1989, Watts et al 2004)
PVH dp, mpv, lp (autonomic)	↑	↑	±↓/↑	(Swanson & Simmons 1989)
CeA	↓	↑	↑	(Hsu et al 1998, Kalin et al 1994, Makino et al 1994, Makino et al 1999, Shepard et al 2000, Watts & Sanchez-Watts 1995)
BNST oval	↓	↑	↑	(Makino et al 1994, Santibanez et al 2005, Watts 1996)
Barrington's nucl.	No change/↓	↑	No change	(Imaki et al 1991)
Cortex	↑	↑	↑(release)	(Merali et al 2008)
Olfactory bulb	?	↓	?	(Imaki et al 1991, Imaki et al 1989)

Acknowledgement:

I thank to Ágnes Polyák for graphical help and to Drs Szilamér Ferenczi and Éva Mikics for reading the proof.

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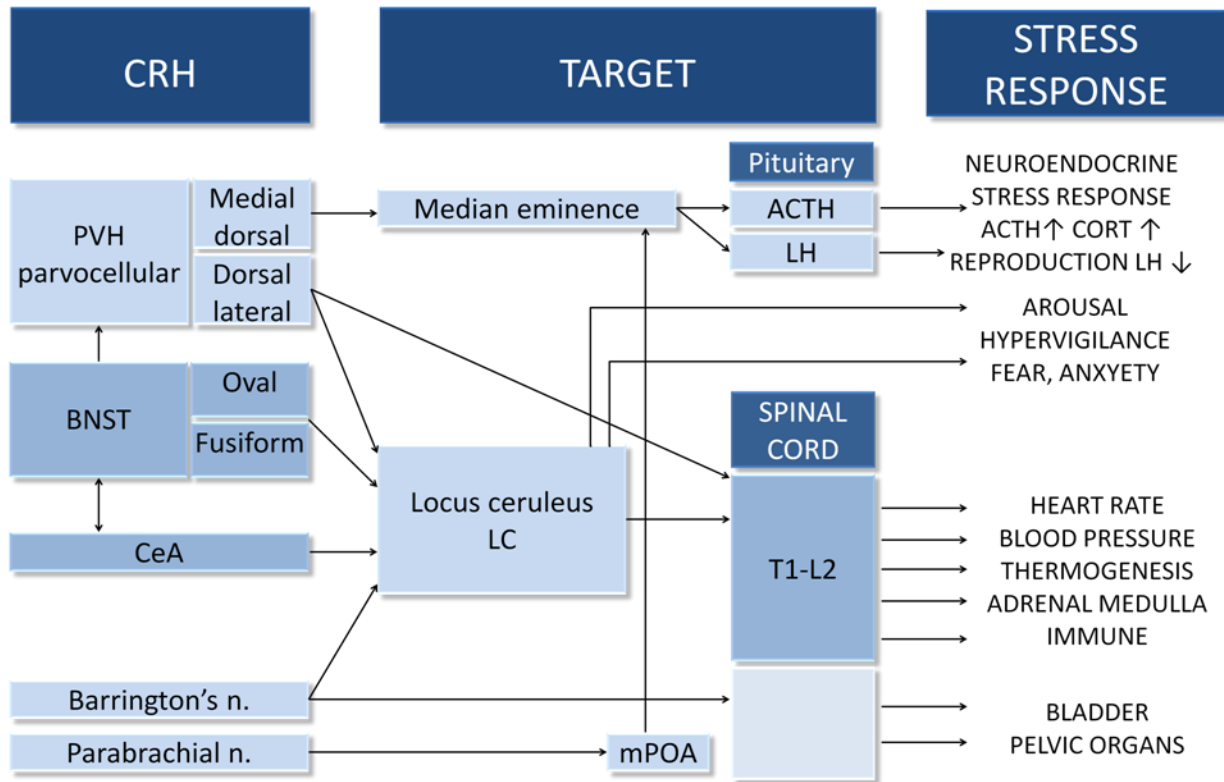
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Legend to the Figure

Figure 1. The major loci of corticotropin-releasing hormone (CRH) synthesis in the central nervous system: targets and roles in the integrated response to stress