

## Corticotropin-releasing factor, vasopressin and receptor systems in depression and anxiety

### *Review Article*

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**Summary.** Affective disorders tend to be chronic and life-threatening diseases: suicide is estimated to be the cause of death in 10–15% of individuals with major depressive disorders. Major depression is one of the most prevalent and costly brain diseases with up to 20% of the world-wide population suffering from moderate to severe forms of the disease. Only 50% of individuals with depression show full remission in response to currently available antidepressant drug therapies which are based on serendipitous discoveries made in the 1950s. Previously underestimated, other severe depression-associated deleterious health-related effects have increasingly been recognized. Epidemiological studies have provided substantial evidence that patients with depression have a 2–4-fold increased risk both of developing cardiovascular disease and of mortality after experiencing a myocardial infarction. The majority of patients suffering from affective disorders have measurable shifts in their stress hormone regulation as reflected by elevated secretion of central and peripheral stress hormones or by altered hormonal responses to neuroendocrine challenge tests. In recent years, these alterations have increasingly been translated into testable hypotheses addressing the pathogenesis of illness. Refined molecular technologies and the creation of genetically engineered mice have allowed to specifically target individual genes involved in regulation of corticotropin releasing factor (CRF) and vasopressin (AVP) system elements. The cumulative evidence makes a strong case implicating dysfunction of these systems in the etiology and pathogenesis of depression and pathological anxiety. Translation of these advances into novel therapeutic strategies has already been started.

**Keywords:** Corticotropin releasing factor (CRF) – Vasopressin (AVP) – Depression – Anxiety – CRF receptor antagonist – R121919 – NBI 30775 – CRF receptor type 1 – CRF receptor type 2 – Transgenic mice – Conditional knockout

### **A spotlight on the clinical situation**

Hyperactivity of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenocortical (HPA) system in affective disorders is the most prominent and well-documented neuroendocrine change in

these diseases (Tichomirowa et al., 2005), and it has been proposed that this feature is in some way integral to the pathogenesis and maintenance of psychopathology (Holsboer, 1999a, b, 2000; Nemeroff, 1996; Nemeroff and Owens, 2002). Accordingly, hyperactivity of central neuropeptidergic circuits such as corticotropin releasing factor (CRF; also termed corticotropin releasing hormone, CRH) and vasopressin (AVP) neuronal systems is thought to play a causal role in the etiology and symptomatology of mood and anxiety disorders (Gold et al., 1984; Hökfelt et al., 2000; Holsboer, 2000). This is reflected by increased numbers of CRF- and AVP-secreting neurons in the hypothalamus and locus coeruleus of depressed patients (Bissette et al., 2003; Purba et al., 1996; Raadsheer et al., 1994), increased levels of CRF in the cerebrospinal fluid, and characteristic changes in neuroendocrine challenge tests, such as the combined dexamethasone/CRF challenge test (Holsboer, 1999a, b, 2000). In major depression, the combined dexamethasone/CRF test, in which dexamethasone-pretreated subjects receive a single dose of CRF, has proven to be the most sensitive tool for the detection of altered hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenocortical (HPA) regulation (Heuser et al., 1994). The more severe the patient's depression, i.e. patients with psychotic features and melancholia, the more robust the HPA hyperactivity (Nemeroff, 1996). In recent years, a considerable amount of evidence has been accumulated suggesting that normalization of the HPA system might be the final step necessary for stable remission of the disease (Barden et al.,

1995; Holsboer, 2000; Ising et al., 2005; Zobel et al., 1999). Antidepressant drugs, in turn, have been shown to attenuate and normalize HPA system abnormalities (De Bellis et al., 1993; Heuser et al., 1996; Kling et al., 1994; Nemeroff et al., 1991). Although – with respect to stress hormone regulation – the clinical picture is less clear and exact pathophysiological mechanisms underlying anxiety disorders such as panic disorder have not been identified yet, distinct biological hypothesis have been posited and preclinical and clinical studies point towards the importance of stress hormone regulation as one major pathological condition in anxiety (Keck et al., 2005; Schreiber et al., 1996). Taken together, the clinical findings available so far support the hypothesis that both, depression and anxiety disorders, share impaired HPA system regulation, supporting the notion that the impairment is causally involved in the pathophysiology of these clinical conditions.

It has to be emphasized, however, that although these findings derived from peripheral HPA assessments in depressed patients led to the concept of CRF and AVP hyperactivity, it is now clear that central CRF/AVP neuroptidergic circuits other than those driving the peripherally accessible HPA system may well be overactive and act on behaviorally relevant extra-pituitary brain sites.

### **Hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenocortical (HPA) system – a stress-responsive system**

Stress has repeatedly been demonstrated to precipitate major depression and to influence its severity and course (Kessler et al., 1994). In the field of neurobiology, stress is an internal or external cue that disrupts the homeostatic status of a subject. One major neuroendocrine system underlying an individual's capacity to cope with stress is the HPA axis. CRF is the primary hypothalamic hypophysiotropic hormone, which regulates both basal and stress-induced release of pituitary corticotropin (ACTH) and is the major constituent of the HPA system (Vale et al., 1981). ACTH from the anterior pituitary, subsequently leads to release of glucocorticoid hormones (GC, cortisol in humans and corticosterone in rats and mice) from the adrenal cortex. At the pituitary level, the effects of CRF are amplified by AVP, which, after prolonged stress, is increasingly co-expressed and co-secreted from parvocellular hypothalamic CRF neurons (Antoni, 1993; Keck et al., 2000, 2002). These parvocellular neurons project to the anterior pituitary where CRF and AVP are released into hypophyseal portal blood vessels to activate the HPA system by triggering ACTH release from pituitary corti-

cotropes through activation of CRF 1 receptors (CRF<sub>1</sub>) and AVP 1b (V1b) receptors. Furthermore, independently of their action at the pituitary level, these two neuropeptides act as neurotransmitters and neuromodulators in several behaviorally relevant brain areas such as the amygdala and the hippocampus.

Several research groups proposed a hypothesis relating aberrant stress hormone regulation to causality of depression (for review: Buckingham, 2006; Holsboer, 1999a, b, 2000; Korte, 2001; Nemeroff, 1996; Nemeroff and Owens, 2002). The, for example, “corticosteroid receptor hypothesis” submits that corticosteroid receptor signaling is impaired in depression (Holsboer, 2000). Specifically, based on the finding of increased CRF and AVP levels which account for a large number of the signs and symptoms prevalent in depression and anxiety disorders, it can be hypothesized that corticosteroid receptor signaling, exerting a negative feedback on AVP and CRF gene expression, is defunct (Keck and Holsboer, 2001; Reul and Holsboer, 2002).

### **CRF and family**

Beyond CRF, three other mammalian neuropeptides of the CRF family are known, urocortin 1 (Ucn 1; Vaughan et al., 1995), urocortin 2 (Ucn 2; Reyes et al., 2001), and urocortin 3 (Ucn 3; Lewis et al., 2001) the latter of which is an N-terminally shortened sequence of stresscopin (Hsu and Hsueh, 2001). CRF peptides share four amino acids with each other and secondary structure is thought to determine biological activity (Dautzenberg and Hauger, 2002). Human Ucn 2 lacks the standard consensus site required for proteolytic cleavage and C-terminated amidation, which is a prerequisite for biological potency (Dautzenberg and Hauger, 2002). It has to be kept in mind, therefore, that human Ucn 2 may not be processed into a biologically active peptide *in vivo* (Hauger et al., 2003).

Two non-mammalian CRF-like peptides, the 40-amino-acid amphibian peptide sauvagine and the 41-amino-acid fish peptide urotensin I share about 50% sequence identity with human CRF. CRF 1 receptor (CRF<sub>1</sub>) and CRF 2 receptor (CRF<sub>2</sub>) differ in their ligand affinities for CRF, Ucn 1, Ucn 2 and Ucn 3 (CRF<sub>1</sub>: Ucn 1 > CRF; CRF<sub>2</sub>: Ucn 1 > Ucn 2 > Ucn 3 ≫ CRF) (Chalmers et al., 1996; Donaldson et al., 1996; Lovenberg et al., 1995). Compared to CRF, Ucn 1 has an approximately 100-fold higher affinity for the CRF<sub>2</sub> and a roughly 6-fold higher affinity for CRF<sub>1</sub> (Dautzenberg et al., 2001; Vaughan et al., 1995). Ucn 2 and Ucn 3 display specific affinity for the

CRF<sub>1</sub> at very high local concentrations only. Of known agonists, Ucn 3 displays the highest degree of selectivity in binding to the CRF<sub>2</sub>. It is, therefore, likely that CRF and Ucn 1 represent the natural agonists for the CRF<sub>1</sub>, whereas Ucn 1, Ucn 2 and Ucn 3 are likely to be the natural ligands for the CRF<sub>2</sub> with CRF remaining a candidate natural ligand for the CRF<sub>2</sub> at sufficiently high local concentrations. It is to emphasize, that it cannot be ruled out that yet undiscovered receptors exist.

In brief, the central distribution of Ucn 1, Ucn 2, and CRF<sub>2</sub> expressing neurons suggests that Ucn 1 may serve as the major CRF<sub>2</sub> ligand in the hindbrain whereas Ucn 3 may serve as the major CRF<sub>2</sub> ligand in the forebrain. Ucn 2 or a novel endogenous ligand may signal at CRF<sub>2</sub> expressed in brain regions lacking Ucn 1 or Ucn 3 innervation, e.g. the hippocampus (Hauger et al., 2003).

### CRF receptors

Specific, high-affinity, G protein-coupled seven-transmembrane membrane receptors mediate the biological actions of CRF, Ucn 1, Ucn 2 and Ucn 3. To date, two distinct mammalian receptor subtypes have been characterized: CRF<sub>1</sub> and CRF<sub>2</sub> display a markedly different tissue distribution and pharmacological specificity (Chalmers et al., 1995; Steckler and Holsboer, 1999). In general, CRF<sub>1</sub> has been proposed to mediate the effects of CRF on HPA system function and anxiety-related behaviour (Liebsch et al., 1999, 1995; Skutella et al., 1998), whereas CRF<sub>2</sub> might be predominantly involved in the regulation of feeding behaviour (Spina et al., 1996), cardiovascular function and the recovery phase of the HPA response (Coste et al., 2000). A complex role for CRF<sub>2</sub> in modulating anxiety-related behaviour, however, is also very likely. Highest densities of CRF<sub>1</sub> mRNA have been described in the anterior pituitary, cerebral cortex, cerebellum, amygdala, hippocampus and olfactory bulb (Chalmers et al., 1995; Sanchez et al., 1999). Although there is some controversy, in non-human primates CRF<sub>1</sub> mRNA could also be localized in the locus coeruleus (Sanchez et al., 1999). Basal expression of CRF<sub>1</sub> mRNA within the PVN is very low. However, in the rat, but not in the mouse, PVN CRF<sub>1</sub> mRNA could be induced via stress exposure or intra-PVN CRF microinfusion (Imaki et al., 2003, 2001; Konishi et al., 2003). In the periphery, low levels of CRF<sub>1</sub> mRNA occur in the testis, ovary, retina and adrenal gland. The CRF<sub>2</sub> receptor family has additional diversity in that splice variants have been described: CRF<sub>2(a)</sub> and CRF<sub>2(b)</sub> (Chalmers et al., 1995; Lovenberg et al., 1995). The CRF<sub>2(a)</sub> receptor is expressed primarily

in rat subcortical neuronal populations (lateral septum, amygdala, hippocampus, paraventricular nucleus of the hypothalamus), whereas the CRF<sub>2(b)</sub> is expressed in non-neuronal cells in the central nervous system (e.g., cerebral arterioles and choroid plexus). Peripherally, CRF<sub>2(b)</sub> mRNA is found in rodent cardiac myocytes, lung, ovary and skeletal muscle (Chalmers et al., 1995; Lovenberg et al., 1995). In contrast, in humans, CRF<sub>2(a)</sub> is the major peripheral splice variant (Dautzenberg et al., 2001). Taken together, with respect to species-specific differences, it is of importance that in the monkey brain both CRF<sub>1</sub> and CRF<sub>2</sub> were found in the pituitary and throughout the neocortex (i.e., in prefrontal, cingulate, striate, and insular cortices), amygdala, and hippocampal formation (Sanchez et al., 1999). In the rat and mouse brain only the CRF<sub>1</sub> is found in the anterior pituitary and the CRF<sub>2</sub> is present only at low expression levels in the neocortex. These results suggest that, in primates, both CRF<sub>1</sub> and CRF<sub>2</sub> may be involved in mediating the effects of CRF on cognition, behavior, and HPA system function. The presence of CRF<sub>1</sub> (but not CRF<sub>2</sub>) within the amygdala, cerebellar cortex, nucleus of the solitary tract, thalamus, and striatum and of CRF<sub>2</sub> (but not CRF<sub>1</sub>) receptors in the choroid plexus, certain hypothalamic nuclei, the nucleus prepositus, and the nucleus of the stria terminalis suggests that each receptor subtype also may have distinct functional roles within the primate central nervous system.

In humans only, a third functional splice variant, CRF<sub>2(c)</sub>, has been identified which is expressed in selected brain areas, such as the septum and hippocampus and at lower levels in the amygdala, nucleus accumbens, mid-brain and frontal cortex (Kostich et al., 1998).

As there still is some controversy whether or not CRF<sub>1</sub> or CRF<sub>2</sub> have been conclusively identified in some important stress-sensitive brain structures such as the locus coeruleus and the central nucleus of the amygdala (but see Plotsky et al., 2005; Sauvage and Steckler, 2001) it is possible that a novel CRF receptor is waiting to be cloned (Hauger et al., 2003).

### The role of CRF receptors in anxiety

CRF<sub>1</sub> antagonistic approaches have anxiolytic-like properties in most, but not all anxiety paradigms (Griebel et al., 1998; Keck et al., 2001; Liebsch et al., 1995). The effectiveness of CRF<sub>1</sub> blockade to reduce anxiety is likely to depend on the animal's stress level and/or innate trait anxiety (Keck et al., 2001). Beyond CRF<sub>1</sub>, recent pharmacological data point towards a complex involvement of

the CRF<sub>2</sub> in anxiety and stress-related behaviors and there is some controversy in the current literature about its precise functional role. The role of CRF<sub>2</sub> in anxiety is likely complicated, and the site of action appears to be critical. Central administration of Ucn 1, an endogenous ligand for CRF<sub>2</sub>, has been shown to induce a variety of effects, including behavioral consequences such as increased anxiety (Moreau et al., 1997; Slawecki et al., 1999). However, as Ucn 1 can bind and activate both CRF receptor subtypes, i.c.v. administered Ucn 1 might activate receptors non-selectively in areas where endogenous Ucn 1 may not exist. Interestingly, activation of the CRF<sub>2</sub> can result in either anxiolysis or anxiogenesis depending on when the animal is tested and, possibly, where the receptor is localized (Reul and Holsboer, 2002; Takahashi, 2001). Acute antagonism of CRF<sub>2(a)</sub> in the rat lateral septum, which abundantly expresses CRF<sub>2(a)</sub> but not CRF<sub>1</sub>, produced a behaviorally, anatomically and pharmacologically specific reduction in stress-induced defensive behavior as measured by shock-induced freezing (Bakshi et al., 2002). CRF<sub>2</sub> in the dorsal raphe nucleus, where serotonergic neurons innervating the hippocampus emerge, has been shown to mediate the behavioral consequences, i.e. learned helplessness and increased anxiety, of uncontrollable stress (Hammack et al., 2003).

To date, combining molecular genetics with behavioral pharmacology studies with antisense probes in rats that selectively reduce CRF receptor subtype levels and genetically engineered mouse models (see below) have indicated that CRF<sub>1</sub> might be the primary target of interest at which selective compounds should be directed to treat pathological anxiety (Keck and Holsboer, 2001; Liebsch et al., 1995, 1998; Overstreet et al., 2005; Skutella et al., 1998; Timpl et al., 1998). It has to be kept in mind that, in addition to CRF<sub>1</sub> hyperfunction, CRF<sub>2</sub> dysfunction might play an important role in both causality and treatment of mood and anxiety disorders and that an altered CRF<sub>2</sub>-mediated "anxiolysis" might result in an extended state of anxiety and arousal. Moreover, the animal studies mentioned account for the rodent situation whereas in humans and other primates the role of CRF<sub>2</sub> is likely more important due to its higher expression levels and wider distribution pattern (Dautzenberg and Hauger, 2002).

### **Vasopressin (AVP): growing importance**

Beyond hyperactivity of central CRH neuropeptidergic circuits, AVP neuronal systems are thought to play a causal role in the aetiology and symptomatology of anxiety disorders (Hökfelt et al., 2003; Keck and Holsboer, 2001;

Keck et al., 2002, 2003; Landgraf and Holsboer, 2005). AVP release occurs from dendrites, somata, and axons of neurosecretory neurons. Upon demand, both diffuse spread into the extracellular fluid following dendritic release and focal release from axon terminals contributes to regionally and temporally varying combinations of neuromodulator and neurotransmitter actions (Landgraf and Neumann, 2004). AVP has been shown to exert both behavioural effects such as, e.g., increased anxiety following intracerebroventricular administration, and to increase CRH-induced ACTH secretion from pituitary corticotrope cells (Antoni, 1993; Bhattacharya et al., 1998; Landgraf et al., 1995). After prolonged stress, AVP is increasingly expressed and released from hypothalamic neurons in both humans and rodents (Antoni, 1993). Recently, the involvement of hypothalamic AVP in benzodiazepine-induced HPA-system attenuation could be demonstrated (Welt et al., 2006). In clinical studies, plasma AVP concentrations were found to be significantly correlated with anxiety-related symptoms in healthy volunteers in response to an anxiogenic drug challenge (Abelson et al., 2001) and were demonstrated to be elevated in depressed patients (van Londen et al., 1997). Accordingly, administration of the non-peptide AVP 1b (V<sub>1b</sub>) receptor antagonist SSR149415 was shown to display anxiolytic and antidepressant-like effects in rodents (Griebel et al., 2002, 2003). Similarly, the AVP 1a (V<sub>1a</sub>) receptor, which is highly expressed in the rat lateral septum, thalamic nuclei and the amygdalostratial transition area (Barberis and Tribollet, 1996), is well known to play a role in a variety of behaviours such as the modulation of emotionality and stress coping (Landgraf et al., 1998). Specifically, septal AVP has been shown to increase anxiety-related behaviour in rats (Ebner et al., 1999; Landgraf et al., 1995). Accordingly, in rats displaying an innately increased trait anxiety, V<sub>1a</sub>-binding sites were higher in the lateral septum when compared to low-anxiety rats (Keck et al., 2003). In these high-anxiety rats also elevated levels of intra-PVN AVP were found and chronic administration of paroxetine, a clinically well established antidepressant, normalized aberrant behavioural and neuroendocrine patterns in this psychopathological animal model (Keck et al., 2003). As it could be demonstrated that a hypothalamic vasopressinergic hyperdrive (secondary to an impaired repression at an AVP promoter polymorphism) accounts for the disturbance in HPA system regulation prevalent in these rats (Keck et al., 2002; Murgatroyd et al., 2004), the paroxetine-induced reduction of vasopressinergic overexpression indicates that this neuropeptidergic system may be critically involved in the

action of antidepressant drugs known to be effective in the treatment of anxiety disorders (Keck et al., 2003).

### Testing for anxiety when investigating for depression: a conundrum?

Anxiety is a common core symptom in depressed patients and there is a high comorbidity rate between anxiety and depressive disorders (Hettema et al., 2001; Roy-Burne et al., 2000). Moreover, anxiety disorders seem to precede the development of depression suggesting that there might be a continuum between these disorders with common pathophysiological features. Because both disorders imply inappropriate adaptation to stressors they are viewed as stress-related disorders suggesting a causal role of HPA system dysregulation (for review see de Kloet et al., 2005). Although anxiety disorders and depression have been classified as separate types of disorders for decades, there is a longstanding debate about whether anxiety and depression constitute different aspects of the same disorder or distinct, yet overlapping, conditions (Kendler, 2001; Nemeroff, 2002; Persons et al., 2003). The absence of a clear therapeutic demarcation is also of considerable interest: a variety of classic antidepressants such as serotonin reuptake inhibitors and tricyclics, are successfully used to treat anxiety disorders since many years. Animal models conceptualized to elucidate mechanisms underlying depression, therefore, often show altered anxiety-related behavior. With respect to CRF neuronal circuits, the possibility exists, however, that CRF might be mostly related to the anxiety symptomatology seen in many depressed patients. This could explain the wide variability observed in depressed patients in terms of HPA system function, with some patients having anxiety symptoms more than others (Holsboer, 1999a, b, 2000, 2003a, b).

### Genetic targeting of CRF receptors – recent highlights

#### *Conditional inactivation of limbic CRF<sub>1</sub>*

Studies on conventional knockout mice deficient for CRF<sub>1</sub> firmly established the requirement of pituitary CRF<sub>1</sub> for endocrine responses to stress (Smith et al., 1998; Timpl et al., 1998): in CRF<sub>1</sub> null mutants, both basal and stress-induced HPA system activity are markedly impaired (Müller et al., 2000; Preil et al., 2001; Timpl et al., 1998). Moreover, conventional knock-out of CRF<sub>1</sub> results in reduced anxiety-related behavior (Smith et al., 1998; Timpl et al., 1998). The behavioral analyses of CRF<sub>1</sub> null

mutants, however, are hampered by the fact that CRF<sub>1</sub> knockout mice display severe glucocorticoid deficiency (Smith et al., 1998; Timpl et al., 1998). As glucocorticoids play important roles in modulating fear and anxiety-related behavior (Korte, 2001; Korte et al., 1996), the anxiolytic effect observed in conventional CRF<sub>1</sub> knockout mice may, therefore, result from either CRF<sub>1</sub> deficiency itself or be influenced by a marked reduction in circulating glucocorticoid hormone levels in these animals. The lack of circulating glucocorticoids may also result in developmental deficiencies what could easily influence behavioral characteristics.

To address this question and to dissect CRF/CRF<sub>1</sub> central nervous system pathways modulating behavior from those regulating neuroendocrine function, a conditional CRF<sub>1</sub> knockout using the *Cre/loxP* system (Lewandoski, 2001) driving *Cre* recombinase expression by a Calcium Calmodulin-kinase II $\alpha$  (*CaMKII $\alpha$* ) promoter (Minichiello et al., 1999) was generated recently (Müller et al., 2003). The *CaMKII $\alpha$*  gene is expressed with tissue-specificity predominantly in the mouse anterior forebrain during postnatal development with high expression levels in hippocampal neurons (pyramidal and granule cell layer), cortical layers and the amygdala (Solà et al., 1999). Selective disruption of CRF/CRF<sub>1</sub> signaling pathways in behaviorally relevant limbic neuronal circuitries significantly reduces anxiety-related behavior (Müller et al., 2003). The robust anxiety-reduced phenotype of *Cr<sub>f</sub><sub>1</sub><sup>loxP/loxP</sup> CaMKII $\alpha$ Cre* conditional mutants could be confirmed in two different behavioral paradigms based on the natural avoidance behavior of mice, the dark-light box paradigm and the elevated plus-maze test. In contrast to CRF<sub>1</sub> null mutants, basal plasma ACTH and corticosterone levels are similar to wildtype levels in *Cr<sub>f</sub><sub>1</sub><sup>loxP/loxP</sup> CaMKII $\alpha$ Cre* conditional mutants. The behavioral phenotype of conditional CRF<sub>1</sub> mutants, therefore, is not likely to be influenced by central nervous system effects of circulating stress hormones.

Plasma ACTH and corticosterone levels are virtually identical between wildtype mice and *Cr<sub>f</sub><sub>1</sub><sup>loxP/loxP</sup> CaMKII $\alpha$ Cre* conditional mutants under basal conditions and immediately following 2, 5 or 10 min of acute immobilization stress. However, hormone levels remain significantly elevated in *Cr<sub>f</sub><sub>1</sub><sup>loxP/loxP</sup> CaMKII $\alpha$ Cre* conditional mutants 30 and 90 min, following a 5-min period of restraint stress. These data provide the first evidence that limbic CRF<sub>1</sub> is required for central control of HPA system feedback and hormonal adaptation to stress.

Taken together, the data from *Cr<sub>f</sub><sub>1</sub><sup>loxP/loxP</sup> CaMKII $\alpha$ Cre* conditional mutants underline the importance of limbic

CRF<sub>1</sub> in modulating anxiety-related behavior. Furthermore, the findings underline the clinical assumption that central CRF/CRF<sub>1</sub> neuropeptidergic circuits, other than those driving the peripherally accessible HPA system, may well be overactive and could be therapeutic targets (for review see Holsboer, 2003a, b).

### **Conventional CRF<sub>2</sub> knockout: increased anxiety-related behavior?**

Behavioral and endocrine analysis of CRF<sub>2</sub> knockout mice has provided a less clear picture as compared to CRF<sub>1</sub> mutants and, consequently, the physiological role of CRF<sub>2</sub> in mediating anxiety-like behavior has been the subject of controversy. Differences in aspects of both the endocrine and behavioral phenotype were described between three independently created knockout mouse lines deficient for the CRF<sub>2</sub> (Bale et al., 2000; Coste et al., 2000; Kishimoto et al., 2000). This phenomenon points towards the fact that most likely the genetic background of genetically engineered mice plays a crucial role, especially when dealing with subtle behavioral alterations (Crusio, 2004; Lathe, 1996). Moreover, it is possible that beyond environmental interactions in different laboratories/housing facilities differences in compensatory gene expression are involved (Bale et al., 2000, 2002; Crabbe et al., 1999).

The behavioral performance reveals significant differences between the three independently created CRF<sub>2</sub> deficient mouse lines: whereas Coste et al. (2000) found no differences in anxiety-related behavior, Bale et al. (2000) and Kishimoto et al. (2000) detected a significant increase in anxiety-like behavior in their CRF<sub>2</sub> mutants. Interestingly, the latter behavioral phenotype could be observed only in male, but not in female CRF<sub>2</sub> deficient mice. Recently, the CRF<sub>2</sub> knockouts developed by Bale and coworkers were tested in the forced swim test where they displayed increased immobility as an indicator of depression-like behavior. When treated with the CRF<sub>1</sub> antagonist antalarmin the time spent immobile was found to be decreased while swimming and climbing, i.e. active stress coping behaviors, increased (Bale and Vale, 2003). Although there were no controls to indicate whether antalarmin reduces depression-like behavior in CRF<sub>2</sub> wildtype mice, the effectiveness of CRF<sub>1</sub> antagonism might be explained by the previous finding that CRF<sub>2</sub> deficient mice show increased CRF levels in the central nucleus of the amygdala and increased Ucn 1 levels in the Edinger Westphal nucleus (Bale et al., 2000). The specific interaction, however, between CRF<sub>2</sub>

deletion effects and CRF<sub>1</sub> on depression-like behavior remains unproven.

### **V<sub>1b</sub> receptor knockout**

In the rat, extrahypothalamic AVP-containing neurons have been characterized mainly in the medial amygdala and the BNST, which innervate behaviourally relevant limbic structures such as the lateral septum and the ventral hippocampus. In these brain regions AVP acts as a neurotransmitter, exerting its action by binding to specific G protein-coupled receptors, i.e. V<sub>1a</sub> and V<sub>1b</sub> (Barberis and Tribollet, 1996; Hernando et al., 2001). V<sub>1b</sub> receptor-null mutant mice show significantly reduced aggression when tested in a resident-intruder paradigm (Wersinger et al., 2002). This finding might also be indicative of a decreased anxiety-related behaviour. Anxiety-related behaviour on the elevated plus-maze, however, was found to be indistinguishable between knockouts and wildtype mice. This observation is in line with the finding that infusion of an V<sub>1a</sub> antisense oligodeoxynucleotide into the rat lateral septum has been shown to exert anxiolytic effects (Landgraf et al., 1995) pointing towards the fact that in the context of anxiety-related behaviour the V<sub>1a</sub> receptor subtype might be more important. With respect to HPA system regulation, basal and stress-induced plasma corticosterone concentrations showed no difference between V<sub>1b</sub> receptor-null mutant mice and their wildtype littermates. Concerning the important role of AVP in learning and memory, V<sub>1b</sub> knockouts displayed a slight impairment in the social recognition test (olfactory-cued memory) but not in the Morris water maze task (spatial memory) although this observation might be secondary to a reduced social motivation (Wersinger et al., 2002, 2004).

### **Conclusion**

Targeted gene mutation has become an established tool for increasing our knowledge about neuropeptide functions in the central nervous system (Keck et al., 2005). As currently available treatments for affective disorders, which are amongst the most pervasive and costly brain diseases (Michaud et al., 2001), are far from being fully satisfactory in many patients there is a need for novel treatment strategies based on innovative neurobiological concepts (Berton and Nestler, 2006). The integrated information especially from the newer conditional mutant mice together with the increasing knowledge on the role of single nucleotide polymorphisms in psychiatric disorders

prophesies an enormous progress (e.g., Binder et al., 2004; Holsboer, 2001a, b; Leonardo and Hen, 2006). There is reason to believe that efficient strategies to characterize the deleterious effects of CRF hypersecretion in psychiatric diseases should include antagonism of CRF effects through CRF<sub>1</sub> blockade. This may ultimately open a new lead in the treatment of stress-related disorders such as depression and anxiety disorders. Among others (review: Heinrichs and Koob, 2004; Keck et al., 2005; Li et al., 2005; Müller and Wurst, 2004; Saunders and Williams, 2003; Takahashi, 2001), one compound recently examined is the high-affinity non-peptide CRF<sub>1</sub> antagonist NBI 30775 (R121919). In an open-label trial (phase IIa) in patients suffering from major depression, treatment with NBI 30775/R121919 led to a significant reduction in both anxiety and depression scores (Chen and Grigoriadis, 2005; Keck and Holsboer, 2001; Künzel et al., 2003; Zobel et al., 2000). Taken together, CRF<sub>1</sub> antagonists represent a promising new treatment modality for both depression and pathological anxiety that emerged from closely interrelated clinical and preclinical research.

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