Role of 5-HT2C receptors in zebrafish alarm reactions and post-exposure behavior

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Abstract

Serotonin (5-HT) receptors have been implicated in responses to aversive stimuli in mammals and fish, but its precise role is still unknown. Moreover, since at least seven families of 5-HT receptors exist in vertebrates, the role of specific receptors is still debated. Aversive stimuli can be classified as indicators of proximal, distal, or potential threat, initiating responses that are appropriate for each of these threat levels. Responses to potential threat usually involve cautious exploration and increased alertness, while responses to distal and proximal threat involve a fight-flight-freeze reaction. We exposed adult zebrafish to a conspecific alarm substance (CAS) and observed behavior during (distal threat) and after (proximal threat) exposure, and treated with the 5-HT$_{2C}$ receptor agonists MK-212 or WAY-161503 or with the antagonist RS-102221. The agonists blocked CAS-elicited defensive behavior (distal threat), but not post-exposure increases in defensive behavior (potential threat), suggesting a phasic inhibition of responses to distal threat. MK-212 did not block changes in behavior elicited by acute restraint stress, a model of proximal threat, suggesting that the phasic role of the 5-HT$_{2C}$ receptor is specific to distal threat. We also found that RS-102221, a 5-HT$_{2C}$ receptor antagonist, did not change behavior during exposure, but it produced a small effect on behavior after exposure to CAS, suggesting a tonic facilitation of responses to potential threat.

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1. Introduction

Serotonergic mechanisms have been implicated in defensive behavior to distal, proximal

and potential threat (Graeff, 2004). In current interpretations of the role of serotonin (5-HT) on neurobehavioral responses to threat, the neurotransmitter is released when threat is potential, increasing defensive behavior at this level (i.e., risk assessment/anxiety-like behavior), but inhibiting (non-adaptive) responses to distal and proximal threat (i.e., fight-flight-freeze/fear-like behavior)(Graeff, 2004). These effects are mediated by different structures of the neuroaxis, with more rostral structures (e.g., limbic forebrain) mediating responses to potential threat, and more caudal structures (e.g., periaqueductal gray/griseum centrale) mediating responses to distal and proximal threat (Graeff, 2004).

In zebrafish (*Danio rerio* Hamilton 1822), the alarm reaction has been proposed as a model to study defenses to distal threat (Maximino et al., 2019). The alarm reaction is a behavioral response to the release of an alarm substance ("Schreckstoff") from epitelial club cells after damage (von Frisch, 1938), and involves strategies to avoid potential predators. Since the most likely situation for club cells to be damaged in the wild is predator attack, conspecific alarm substance (CAS) communicates to shoal-mates the potential presence of a predator, eliciting responses that avoid predator attack (Maximino et al., 2019). During CAS exposure, zebrafish display erratic swimming and bottom-dwelling, while after CAS exposure freezing is prominent (Lima-Maximino et al., 2020; Nathan et al., 2015). We suggested that the first component involves defenses to distal threat ("fear-like behavior"), while the second component involves a "return to normal" that is related to potential threat ("anxiety-like behavior")(Lima-Maximino et al., 2020; Maximino et al., 2019).

5-HT has been implicated in fish behavioral responses both during and after exposure to CAS. In zebrafish, extracellular 5-HT levels were increased after CAS exposure (Maximino et al., 2014), an effect that can be related to decreased 5-HT uptake (Maximino et al., 2014) and/or decreased monoamine oxidase activity (Lima-Maximino et al., 2020; Quadros et al., 2018). In Crucian carp (*Carassius carassius*), exposure to CAS elicits increases in serotonergic activity in

the brainstem and optic tectum (Höglund et al., 2005), structures which have been involved in responses to distal and proximal threat (do Carmo Silva et al., 2018a). However, this only happened when hiding material was unavailable in the tank. In Nile tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*), CAS did not increase serotonergic activity in the dorsomedial and dorsolateral telencephali (Silva et al., 2015), homologues of the frontotemporal amygdaloid nuclei and hippocampus, respectively (do Carmo Silva et al., 2018a). These results suggest that, during or after exposure, CAS increases serotonergic activity in regions associated with "quick-and-dirty" behavioral responses to distal threat (a "fight/flight/freeze" or "fear" system), but not in the telencephalic areas associated with cautious exploration/risk assessment (a "behavioral inhibition" or "anxiety" system).

Manipulations of the serotonergic system impact behavioral and neurovegetative responses to CAS. Treating zebrafish with acute fluoxetine, therefore increasing serotonergic activity, dose-dependently decreased behavior during exposure, but increased post-exposure freezing (Lima-Maximino et al., 2020). Blocking 5-HT receptors with metergoline, or depleting 5-HT with *para*-chlorophenylalanine, had no effect on behavior during exposure, but blocked the effects of CAS on post-exposure behavior. While we suggested that the serotonergic system is recruited *after* CAS exposure to inhibit fear-like responses and promote a cautious "return to normal" (Lima-Maximino et al., 2020), results from Crucian carp (Höglund et al., 2005) open the possibility that inescapability is the variable that is involved in this activation of the serotonergic system.

The role of serotonin receptors from the 5-HT$_2$ family in CAS-elicited behavioral adjustments has also been investigated. Zebrafish has been shown to possess two copies of the 5-HT$_{2A}$ receptor, one copy of the 5-HT$_{2B}$ receptor, and two copies of the 5-HT$_{2C}$ receptor (Sourbron et al., 2016). In Nile tilapia, mianserin, a 5-HT$_{2A}$ and 5-HT$_{2C}$ receptor antagonist that also blocks α_2-adrenoceptors, blocked active components of the alarm reaction (dashing,

bristling of dorsal fin spines), but not freezing, during exposure (Barreto, 2012). In zebrafish,

methysergide (an antagonist at 5-HT$_{2A}$, 2B, and 2C receptors, and a 5-HT$_{1A}$ receptor agonist)

increased freezing and bottom-dwelling during and after exposure at a high dose (92.79 mg/kg),

but not at lower doses (Nathan et al., 2015). These results point to an inhibitory role of the 5-

HT$_{2A}$ and 5-HT$_{2C}$ receptors on CAS-elicited fear-like responses. However, since Nathan et al.

(2015) observed these effects consistently during a long session, in which behavior is expected

to change as CAS concentrations decrease (Mathuru et al., 2012)(i.e., similar to the shift from

erratic swimming to freezing that is observed when animals are observed after exposure in a

CAS-free context; Lima-Maximino et al., 2020), and since serotonergic drugs can produce

opposite effects on behavior during and after CAS exposure (Lima-Maximino et al., 2020), from

these results it is not possible to understand whether 5-HT$_2$ receptors participate in both

responses.

These results are also complicated by results from rodent work. 5-HT$_2$ receptors have

been implicated in the mechanisms of defensive behavior organized by the central gray

(PAG/GC) and amygdala in rats. At different amygdalar subnuclei, 5-HT$_2$ receptors appear to

either facilitate (de Paula and Leite-Panissi, 2016) or block (Macedo et al., 2007) unconditioned

fear, while at the midbrain 5-HT$_2$ receptors inhibit defensive responses to distal and proximal

threat (Castilho et al., 2002; Castilho and Brandão, 2001; Coimbra and Brandão, 1997; Graeff et

al., 1986; Oliveira et al., 2007). These receptors have also been implicated in anxiety-like

behavior (defense to potential threat), facilitating these responses in the amygdala (Cornélio

and Nunes-de-Souza, 2007), hippocampus (Alves et al., 2004), and GC/PAG (Nunes-de-Souza

et al., 2008) of rodents. In general, the 5-HT$_{2C}$ receptor appears to mediate these effects on

anxiety-like behavior. Thus, in rodents 5-HT$_2$ receptors appear to inhibit fear and facilitate

anxiety at different levels of the neuroaxis, while in zebrafish these receptors appear to inhibit

both fear and anxiety, although it is currently unknown which brain regions participate in each

effect.

These differences could be due to species differences; to effects at different receptors
(e.g., 5-HT$_{2A}$ or 5-HT$_{2C}$); or to difficulties in the protocol used by Nathan et al. (2015), which does
not differentiate between responses to proximal, distal, or potential threat. In this work, we
tested whether 5-HT$_{2C}$ receptors participate in responses to CAS during (distal threat) or after
exposure (potential threat) and to acute restraint stress (ARS). ARS has been applied in
zebrafish to elicit strong stress responses, including activation of the hypothalamus-pituitary-
interrenal (HPI) axis and associated behavioral responses (Assad et al., 2020; Ghisleni et al.,
2012; Piato et al., 2011). From the point of view of the predatory imminence continuum theory,
ARS represents proximal threat (Perusini and Fanselow, 2015). Thus, if 5-HT$_{2C}$ receptors inhibit
aversively motivated behavior in zebrafish regardless of threat distance, its activation would
inhibit behavioral responses at these three contexts. If, as in rodents, 5-HT$_{2C}$ receptors act at
different levels of threat distance to either activate or inhibit defensive responses, then 5-HT$_{2C}$
agonists will not produce the same effect in each of these contexts.

A related question is whether 5-HT$_{2C}$ receptors possess a "tonic" role in defensive
behavior in zebrafish. Differently from phasic responses, which are temporally and spatially
coupled to neurotransmitter release, tonic responses result from low-level, persistent, and
extrasynaptic activation of receptors (Daw et al., 2002). There is some evidence for a
serotonergic tone in zebrafish. Tonic optogenetic activation of a habenulo-raphe pathway in
zebrafish is aversive, inducing avoidance conditioning, and presentation of a conditioned
stimulus consistently produces this tonic activation (Amo et al., 2014); this tonic activity has
been proposed to represent a negative expectation value, with phasic signals representing
prediction error (Amo et al., 2014; Daw et al., 2002). We have shown that there is evidence for a
tonic facilitation of defensive behavior after CAS exposure, but not during exposure, as
metergoline and pCPA blocked the first but not the latter (Lima-Maximino et al., 2020).

Interestingly, work with rodents clearly suggests phasic facilitation or inhibition of defensive

responses by 5-HT$_{2C}$ receptors, since agonists, but not antagonists, produce these effects.

The aim of the present work was to test the hypothesis that phasic activation of 5-HT$_{2C}$

receptors would block CAS-elicited defensive reactions during exposure, but not after exposure;

moreover, we proposed a tonic facilitation of post-exposure behavior. We also hypothesized

that 5-HT$_{2C}$ agonists would not alter the anxiogenic-like effects of acute restraint stress (ARS), a

model for proximal threat. We found that 5-HT$_{2C}$ agonists were able to block elements of the

alarm reaction, but did not affect post-exposure behavior, nor the anxiogenic-like effects of ARS.

This manuscript is a complete report of all the studies performed to test the effect of 5-HT$_{2C}$

agonists and antagonists on zebrafish defensive behavior to distal threat. We report how the

sample size was determined, all data exclusions (if any), all manipulations, and all measures in

the study.

158 2. Materials and methods

159 2.1. Animals and housing

Adult (>4 month-old; standard length = 23.0 ± 3.2 mm) zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) from the

longfin phenotype (n = 218) were used in the present experiments. The populations used are

expected to better represent the natural populations in the wild, due to its heterogeneous

genetic background (Parra et al., 2009; Speedie and Gerlai, 2008). Animals were bought from a

commercial vendor (Belém/PA) and collectively maintained in 40 L tanks for at least two weeks

before the onset of experiments. The animals were fed daily with fish flakes. The tanks were

kept at constant temperature (28 °C), oxygenation, light cycle (14:10 LD photoperiod) and a pH

of 7.0-8.0, according to standards of care for zebrafish (Lawrence, 2007). Animals were used for

only one experiment to reduce interference from apparatus exposure. Potential suffering of

animals was minimized by controlling for the aforementioned environmental variables.

Furthermore, in the all experiments the animals used were handled, anesthetized and sacrificed

according to the norms of the Brazilian Guideline for the Care and Use of Animals for Scientific

and Didactical Purposes (Conselho Nacional de Controle de Experimentação Animal -

CONCEA, 2017). Since, in all cases, animals were individually stressed and/or individually

treated, experimental unit was a single animal, and therefore all sample sizes refer to number of

animals. The experimental protocols were approved by UEPA's IACUC under protocol 06/18.

177 2.2. Drugs and treatments

The 5-HT$_{2C}$ receptor agonists MK-2212 (2-Chloro-6-(1-piperazinyl)pyrazine, CAS

#64022-27-1) and WAY-161503 (8,9-dichloro-2,3,4,4a-tetrahydro-1H-pyrazino[1,2-a]quinoxalin-

5(6H)-one; CAS #75704-24-4) were bought from Sigma-Aldrich (St Louis, USA) on 2018, and

dissolved in Cortland's salt solution (NaCl 124.1 mM, KCl 5.1 mM, Na$_2$HPO$_4$ 2.9 mM, MgSO$_4$ 1.9

mM, CaCl$_2$ 1.4 mM, NaHCO$_3$ 11.9 mM, Polyvinylpyrrolidone 4%, 1,000 USP units Heparin; Wolf,

1963) and in 1% dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), respectively. The 5-HT$_{2C}$ receptor antagonist RS-

102221   (8-[5-(2,4-Dimethoxy-5-(4-trifluoromethylphenylsulphonamido)phenyl   -5-oxopentyl]-

1,3,8-triazaspiro[4.5]decane-2,4-dione; CAS #185376-97-0) was bought from Sigma-Aldrich (St

Louis, USA) in 2018, and dissolved in 1% DMSO. While affinities for zebrafish 5-HT$_{2C}$-like

receptors have not been established, WAY-161503 has been reported to displace DOI from

human 5-HT$_{2C}$ receptors with a K_i of 3.3 nM (6-fold selectivity over human 5-HT$_{2A}$ receptors and

20-fold over human 5-HT$_{2B}$ receptors)(Rosenzweig-Lipson et al., 2006). MK-212 has been

shown to be less selective at recombinant human receptors, with a K_i of 7.01 nM at 5-HT$_{2C}$

receptors (vs. 5.99 nM and 6.21 nM at 5-HT$_{2A}$ and 5-HT$_{2B}$ receptors, respectively)(Knight et al.,

2004). Finally, RS-102221 has been shown to displace mesulergine from human 5-HT$_{2C}$

receptor with a *pKi* of 8.4 nM (over 100-fold selectivity over human 5-HT$_{2A}$ and 5-HT$_{2B}$ receptors)

(Bonhaus et al., 1997).

For Experiment 1, animals were injected intraperitoneally either with MK-212 (1 mg/kg

and 2 mg/kg, doses which increase anxiety-like behavior in the rat elevated plus-maze; (de

Mello Cruz et al., 2005)) or with the vehicle solution (Cortland's salt solution); WAY-161503 (1

mg/kg, a dose which produces anxiogenic-like effects in the rat elevated plus-maze: Gomes et

al., 2010) or with the vehicle solution (DMSO); or RS-102221 (2 mg/kg, a dose that reduces

anxiety in the mouse light/dark test; (Kuznetsova et al., 2006)). For Experiment 2, animals were

injected intraperitoneally with MK-212 (2 mg/kg) or vehicle (Cortland's salt solution). Injections

were made according to the protocol proposed by Kinkel et al. (2010); briefly, animals were

cold-anesthetized and transferred to a sponge-based surgical bed, in which injection was made.

Injections were made using a microsyringe (Hamilton® 701N syringe, needle size 26 gauge at

cone tip), with total volumes of injection of 5 μL.

207 2.3. Effects of 5-HT$_{2C}$ receptor agonists and antagonists on alarm
208 reaction and post-exposure behavior

209 2.3.1. Experimental design

To verify the effects of phasic activation of 5-HT$_{2C}$ receptors on the zebrafish alarm

reaction, animals were pre-treated with either receptor agonists and exposed to CAS in a

sequential design, with a "washout" period in between tests (Figure 1A). For the exposure

stage, each animal was transferred individually to a container (2 L) where after 3 minutes of

acclimatization, it was carefully exposed to 7 ml of alarm substance (CAS), extracted using a

standardized protocol (do Carmo Silva et al., 2018b). As negative control, a group with the

same amount of animals was exposed to the same volume of distilled water, according to the

protocol of Lima-Maximino et al. (2020). The animals remained exposed for 6 minutes during

which their behavior was recorded using a video camera positioned in front of the aquarium.

Then, to verify the residual effects of exposure to the alarm substance, the animals were

transferred to the apparatus of the novel tank test, a transparent glass aquarium filled with 5 L of

mineral water where the animal can freely explore the space for a period 6 minutes during which

their behavior was recorded, following the protocol described in Lima-Maximino et al., (2020).

All stages of the experiment were performed under constant white Gaussian noise, producing

an average of 58 dB above the tank. Light levels above the tanks were measured using a

handheld light meter, and ranged from 251 to 280 lumens (coefficient of variation = 3.399%

between subjects).

Animals were randomly allocated to groups using a random number 185 generator

(http://www.jerrydallal.com/random/random_block_size_r.htm), with each subject randomized to

a single treatment using random permuted blocks. One PI attributed a random letter to

treatment (e.g., "A" for CTRL, "B" for CAS) and a random integer for drug dose (e.g., "1" for 1

mg/kg, "2" for 0 mg/kg [vehicle]), and combinations for letters and integers were randomized.

For each experiment, animals were treated and tested in the order of allocation (i.e., randomly).

In all experiments, experimenters and data analysts were blinded to drugs and treatment by

using coded vials (with the same code used for randomization); blinding was removed only after

data analysis. Experiments were always run between 08:00AM and 02:00 PM. After

experiments, animals were sacrificed by prolonged bath in ice-cold water (< 12 ºC), followed by

spinal transection (Matthews and Varga, 2012).

2.3.2. Sample size determination

To determine sample size, we incorporated information from control groups derived from

previously published experiments on zebrafish alarm substances observing bottom-dwelling

(Lima-Maximino et al., 2020; Quadros et al., 2016; Speedie and Gerlai, 2008) and a series of

four small experiments on the effects of CAS on behavior during exposure

(https://github.com/lanec-unifesspa/5-HT-CAS/tree/master/data/behavioral/metanalysis),

following the RePAIR approach (Bonapersona et al., 2019). Sample sizes, means, and standard

deviations for the primary endpoint "Time on bottom" were used to produce a prior distribution

on the RePAIR script (https://utrecht-university.shinyapps.io/repair/). Final parameters of the

distribution were μ = 197.149, σ^2 = 6100.609, and weighted N = 120.10. The parameters of this

distribution were then used to calculate sample size, based on an effect size of d = 0.5

(equivalent to that used to calculate sample sizes in Lima-Maximino et al., 2020) and *a priori*

power of 0.8, with one-tailed tests with error probability α = 0.05. With these parameters, the

final number of animals was 10 animals in the control group and 21 in each experimental group,

reaching a prospective power of 92.34%.

2.3.3. Alarm substance extraction

A group of zebrafish was used as donor animals for the extraction of the conspecific

alarm substance (CAS). CAS extraction procedure was performed on each animal individually

as described by do Carmo Silva et al. (2018b). First, the donor animal was cold anesthetized

and transferred to a Petri dish, where the excess water from its body was removed with a paper

towel. Then the animal was decapitated with a surgical scalpel and the excess blood from the

sectioned region was removed with a swab. Subsequently, the animal's bodies were transferred

to another Petri dish where 15 superficial cuts were made in the epidermis of animals (medial-

ventral region) and 10 ml of distilled water were added to wash the cuts. After washing, the

animal's bodies were removed from the Petri dish, and with the aid of a Pasteur pipette, the fish

scales and other impurities were removed from the solution that was stored in a conical tube

and preserved on ice. The same extraction procedure was performed for all donated animals.

2.3.4. Observation apparatuses

To assess the effects of drugs on the alarm reaction, animals were transferred to a 12

cm x 12 cm x 14 cm glass tank, filled with 1.5 L tank water, and allowed to swim freely for a 3

min acclimation period. After this period, 7 mL CAS was added to the tank, from above, and

filming started. The video camera (Sony® DCR-DVD610) was positioned in the front of the tank,

therefore allowing observation and tracking of vertical distribution. Animals were allowed to

freely explore this tank for 6 min before being transferred to a "washout" tank, which contained

500 mL tank water. Animals were kept in this tank for 1 min, removing any residues of CAS

before transference to the second apparatus. This second apparatus was a 25 cm x 24 cm x 20

cm glass tank, filled with 5 L tank water; animals were allowed free exploration of this tank for 6

min, during which behavior was filmed from the front of the tank. Tanks for both stages were

differently shaped to increase the novelty of the second environment, a variable that is important

to induce an anxiety-like "diving" response in animals not exposed to CAS (Bencan et al., 2009).

2.4. Experiment 2: Effects of MK-212 on acute restraint stress-elicited behavior

2.4.1. Experimental design

In this experiment, we focus on assessing the effects of activation of 5-HT$_{2C}$ receptors on anxiogenic-like effects of acute restraint stress (ARS). In order to do this, we evaluate the behavior of the animals in the novel tank test after being subjected to a 90-min section of restraint stress (Figure 1B). After drug (MK-212 or RS-102221) or vehicle (Cortland's salt solution) injection and anesthesia, each animal was transferred individually to a 2 mL microtube (Eppendorf®) and placed on a plastic microtube rack inside an aquarium with continuous oxygen supply. The microtubes had small holes at both ends to allow free circulation of water inside the tube and to prevent fish from moving around, according to the protocol of Piato et al. (2011). A control group was maintained in a similar tank, but without restraint stress. Animals remained in these conditions for 90 min., sufficient to induce changes in telencephalon neurochemistry (Assad et al., 2020) and marked anxiety-like behavior (Assad et al., 2020; Ghisleni et al., 2012; Piato et al., 2011). After stress, the animals were transferred to the apparatus of the novel tank test, a transparent glass aquarium filled with 5 L of mineral water where the animal can freely explore the space for a period 6 minutes during which their behavior was recorded, following the protocol described in Lima-Maximino et al., (2020). All stages of the experiment were performed under constant white Gaussian noise, producing an average of 58 dB above the tank. Light levels above the tanks were measured using a handheld light meter, and ranged from 254 to 276 lumens (coefficient of variation = 3.401% between subjects). Random allocation was made as described above. In all experiments, experimenters and data analysts were blinded to drugs by using coded vials (with the same code used for

305 randomization); blinding was removed only after data analysis. Experimenters were not blinded

306 to treatment, but data analysts were blinded to both treatment and drug. Experiments were

307 always run between 08:00AM and 02:00 PM. After experiments, animals were sacrificed by

308 prolonged bath in ice-cold water (< 12 ºC), followed by spinal transection (Matthews and Varga,

309 2012).

311 2.4.2. Sample size determination

312 Sample sizes were based on previous experiments with the behavioral effects of ARS

313 (Assad et al., 2020).

315 2.4.3. Observation apparatus

316 To analyze the behavioral effects of treatment (ARS exposure) and drug, the same

317 apparatus used in the second stage of the previous experiment (5-L transparent glass tank) was

318 used.

320 2.5. Behavioral endpoints

321 Video files for each experiment were stored and later analyzed using automated video

322 tracking (TheRealFishTracker; http://www.dgp.toronto.edu/~mccrae/projects/FishTracker/). The

323 following variables were extracted:

324 ● Time spent on bottom third of the tank (s)[Primary outcome]

325 ● Time spent on top third of the tank (s)[Secondary outcome]

- Erratic swimming, measured as absolute turn angle [Secondary outcome]

- Freezing (s), measured as time spent in a speed lower than 0.5 cm/s [Secondary outcome]

- Swimming speed (cm/s) [Secondary outcome]

2.6. Quality control

Exclusion criteria: Animals were to be excluded if showing signs of poor health or distress before beginning experiments, using the Zebrafish Health and Welfare Glossary (https://wiki.zfin.org/display/ZHWG/Zebrafish+Health+and+Welfare+Glossary+Home; Goodwin et al., 2016). Moreover, animals could be excluded from analysis based on statistical detection as outlier (see 2.7, "Statistical analysis", below).

Behavioral data: Quality control of samples was maintained by periodic assessment of water quality and health parameters. All experimenters were trained in the behavioral methods before experiments; training included observation of all experiments by a PI (CM or MGL) on at least two occasions. After these observations, each trainee performed two mock experiments, on a single subject each, while being observed by the PI. All protocols were reviewed by all PIs, and are publicly available. Behavioral records were reviewed by at least one PI for administration/scoring accuracy, in order to ensure adherence to protocols and consistency across tests.

2.7. Statistical analysis

Data were analyzed using two-way analysis of variance (drug x exposure to stressor)

with sequential sum of squares (type I), followed by Tukey's post-tests when p <0.05. Data

analysis, table organization, and result graphs were performed using R version 3.6.3 (2020-02-

29). Effect sizes for ANOVA effects are shown as ω^2; effect sizes for post-hoc tests were shown

as Cohen's d. Outliers were removed based on median absolute differences (MADs), using time

on bottom as the main endpoint; values were removed when they were higher or lower than 3

MADs around the median (Leys et al., 2013), and the number of outliers was reported in the

results.

3. Results

3.1. Effects of MK-212 on alarm reaction and post-exposure

357 behavior

3.1.1. During exposure

One animal from the control + 0 mg/kg group was detected as outlier and removed.

Small-to-medium-sized main effects of treatment ($F_{[1,\ 114]}$ = 6.337, p = 0.0132; ω^2 = 0.039) and

dose ($F_{[2,\ 114]}$ = 3.665, p = 0.0287; ω^2 = 0.039) were found for time on top. A small-to-medium

interaction effect was also found ($F_{[2,\ 114]}$ = 4.602, p = 0.012; ω^2 = 0.052). Post-hoc tests found

that CAS did not alter time on top (p = 0.94, d = 0.3, non-treated controls vs. non-treated CAS),

but MK-212 (1 mg/kg) increased it in non-exposed animals (*1 mg/kg:* p = 0.024, d = -1.05, non-

treated controls vs. 1 mg/kg controls; *2 mg/kg:* p = 0.994, d = -0.18, non-treated controls vs. 2

mg/kg controls; Figure 2A).

Medium-to-large-sized main effects of treatment ($F_{[1, 114]}$ = 20.995, p = 1.18 x 10^{-5}; ω^2 =

0.12) and dose ($F_{[2, 114]}$ = 11.455, p = 2.93 x 10^{-5}; ω^2 = 0.125) were found for time on bottom. A

small-to-medium interaction effect was also found ($F_{[2, 114]}$ = 4.085, p = 0.0194; ω^2 = 0.037).

Post-hoc tests revealed that CAS increased time on bottom (p < 0.001, d = -0.77 for the main

effect), and the highest MK-212 dose blocked this effect (*1 mg/kg:* p = 0.39, d = -0.64, non-

treated controls vs. treated CAS; p = 0.38, d = 0.6, non-treated CAS vs. treated CAS; *2 mg/kg:* p

= 0.828, d = 0.4, non-treated controls vs. treated CAS; p < 0.001, d = 1.64, non-treated CAS vs.

treated CAS; Figure 2B).

A small-to-medium-sized main effect of treatment ($F_{[1, 114]}$ = 5.137, p = 0.0253; ω^2 =

0.017), but not dose ($F_{[2, 114]}$ = 2.948, p = 0.0565; ω^2 = 0.016), was found for erratic swimming. A

very large interaction effect was also found for this variable ($F_{[2, 114]}$ = 57.101, p < 2 x 10^{-16}; ω^2 =

0.467). Post-hoc tests showed that CAS greatly increased absolute turn angle in non-treated

animals (p < 0.001, d = -2.58, non-treated controls vs. non-treated CAS), an effect that was

blocked by both MK-212 doses (*1 mg/kg*: p = 1, d = -0.04, non-treated controls vs. treated CAS;

p < 0.001, d = 2.53, non-treated CAS vs. treated CAS; *2 mg/kg*: p = 0.81, d = -0.42, non-treated

controls vs. treated CAS; p < 0.001, d = 2.16, non-treated CAS vs. treated CAS; Figure 2C);

however, MK-212 also increased absolute turn angle in animals which were not exposed to

CAS (*1 mg/kg*: p < 0.001, d = -1.95, non-treated controls vs. treated controls; *2 mg/kg:* p <

0.001, d = -1.91, non-treated controls vs. treated controls).

A large-sized main effect of treatment ($F_{[1, 114]}$ = 15.219, p = 0.000162; ω^2 = 0.105), but

no effect of MK-212 dose ($F_{[2, 114]}$ = 1.037, p = 0.358; ω^2 = 0.001). No interaction effects were

found ($F_{[2, 114]}$ = 1.662, p = 0.194; ω^2 = 0.01). Post-hoc tests suggested that CAS increased

freezing at all MK-212 doses and controls (p < 0.001, d = -0.72 for the main effect of CAS;

Figure 2D).

No main effects of treatment ($F_{[1, 114]}$ = 0.005, p = 0.9459; ω^2 = -0.008) nor MK-212 dose

($F_{[2, 114]}$ = 0.211, p = 0.8105; ω^2 = -0.013) were found for swimming speed. While a small-to-

medium-sized interaction effect was found ($F_{[2, 114]}$ = 4.652, p = 0.0114; ω^2 = 0.059; f^2 = 0.29),

post-hoc tests found no differences across groups (Figure 2E).

397 3.1.2. After exposure

In the novel tank test after CAS exposure and washout, no main effects of treatment ($F_{[1,}$

$_{114]}$ = 0.945, p = 0.333; ω^2 = 0) were found for time on top. However, a medium-sized main

effect of MK-212 dose was found ($F_{[2, 114]}$ = 4.892, p = 0.009; ω^2 = 0.06). Interaction effects were

also absent ($F_{[2, 114]}$ = 2.393, p = 0.0959; ω^2 = 0.021). Post-hoc tests revealed that MK-212 (1

mg/kg) increased time on top in both controls and CAS-exposed animals (*1 mg/kg*: p = 0.019, d

= -0.63 vs. non-treated animals; p = 0.038, d = 0.54 vs. 2 mg/kg; *2 mg/kg:* p = 0.92, d = -0.09

vs. non-treated animals; Figure 3A).

Medium-to-large-sized main effects of treatment ($F_{[1, 114]}$ = 7.751, p = 0.0063; ω^2 = 0.048)

and MK-212 dose ($F_{[2, 114]}$ = 5.385, p = 0.0058) were found for time on bottom. A medium-to-

large-sized interaction effect was also found ($F_{[2, 114]}$ = 4.203, p = 0.0173; ω^2 = 0.045). Post-hoc

tests suggested that MK-212 (1 mg/kg) decreased time on bottom in control animals (Figure

3B), but not in CAS-exposed animals (*1 mg/kg*: p = 0.002, d = 1.31, non-treated controls vs. 1

mg/kg controls; p = 1.0, d = 0.1, non-treated CAS vs. 1 mg/kg CAS; *2 mg/kg:* p = 0.99, d = 0.21,

non-treated controls vs. 2 mg/kg controls; p = 1, d = 0.01, non-treated CAS vs. 2 mg/kg CAS).

No effect of treatment was found for erratic swimming ($F_{[1, 114]}$ = 3.641, p = 0.0589; ω^2 =

0.018). A large-sized main effect of drug was found ($F_{[2, 114]}$ = 9.244, p = 0.00019; ω^2 = 0.112),

as well as medium-to-large-sized interaction effect ($F_{[2, 114]}$ = 4.951, p = 0.00867; ω^2 = 0.054).

Post-hoc tests suggested a synergistic effect between CAS and MK-212 at 2 mg/kg, which

potentiated CAS-elicited increases in erratic swimming (Figure 3C); moreover, 1 mg/kg MK-212

increased erratic swimming in control animals (*1 mg/kg:* p = 0.026, d= -1.05, non-treated

controls vs. 1 mg/kg controls; p = 1.0, d = -0.16, non-treated CAS vs. 1 mg/kg CAS; *2 mg/kg:* p

= 0.22, d = -0.76, non-treated controls vs. 2 mg/kg controls; p = 0.002, d = -1.21, non-treated

CAS vs. 2 mg/kg CAS) .

A small-to-medium main effect of treatment ($F_{[1, 114]}$ = 4.658, p = 0.033; ω^2 = 0.025) and

a large main effect of MK-212 dose were found for freezing ($F_{[2, 114]}$ = 11.617, p = 2.56 x 10^{-5}; ω^2

= 0.143). No interaction effects were found ($F_{[2, 114]}$ = 2.777, p = 0.0664; ω^2 = 0.024). Post-hoc

tests revealed that CAS increased freezing (p = 0.05, d = -0.364 for the main effect), an effect

that was blocked by all MK-212 doses (*1 mg/kg:* p = 0.74, d = 0.47, non-treated controls vs. 1

mg/kg controls; p < 0.001, d = 1.5, non-treated CAS vs. 1 mg/kg CAS; *2 mg/kg:* p = 0.85, d =

0.4, non-treated controls vs. 2 mg/kg controls; p = 0.002, d = 1.22, non-treated CAS vs. 2 mg/kg

CAS; Figure 3D).

No main effects of treatment ($F_{[1, 114]}$ = 0.111, p = 0.74; ω^2 = -0.007) or dose ($F_{[2, 114]}$ =

1.339, p = 0.266; ω^2 = 0.006), nor an interaction effect ($F_{[2, 114]}$ = 0.981, p = 0.378; ω^2 = 0.0),

were found for swimming speed (Figure 3E).

433   3.2. Effects of WAY-161503 on alarm reaction and post-exposure

434   behavior

435   3.2.1. During exposure

No outliers were detected from any group in this experiment. A small-to-medium-sized

main effect of treatment ($F_{[1, 69]}$ = 7.404, p = 0.00823, ω^2 = 0.08), but not drug ($F_{[1, 69]}$ = 1.751, p =

0.19011, $\omega^2 = 0.009$), was found for time on top. No interaction effect was found ($F_{[1, 69]} = 1.001$,

$p = 0.32067$, $\omega^2 = 0.0$). Post-hoc tests showed that while CAS did not alter time on top ($p = $

0.054, $d = 1.0$, non-treated controls vs. non-treated CAS), a synergistic effect was apparent,

with WAY-161503-treated animals showing less time on top than controls ($p = 0.381$, $d = 0.618$,

non-treated controls vs. WAY-161503 controls; $p = 0.977$, $d = 0.125$, non-treated CAS vs. WAY-

161503 CAS; $p = 0.023$, $d = 1.125$, non-treated controls vs. WAY 161-503 CAS; Figure 4A).

444   Large main effects of treatment ($F_{[1, 69]} = 10.842$, $p = 0.00157$, $\omega^2 = 0.103$) and drug ($F_{[1, 69]} = 10.138$,

$p = 0.00218$, $\omega^2 = 0.096$) were found for time on bottom. A medium-to-large-sized

interaction effect was found ($F_{[1, 69]} = 4.614$, $p = 0.03523$, $\omega^2 = 0.038$). Post-hoc tests revealed

that CAS increased time on bottom ($p = 0.007$, $d = -1.287$, non-treated controls vs. non-treated

CAS), and WAY-161503 blocked this effect ($p = 0.989$, $d = 0.123$, non-treated controls vs.

WAY-161503 controls; $p = 0.002$, $d = 1.181$, non-treated CAS vs. WAY-161503 CAS; Figure

4B).

451   Very large main effects of treatment ($F_{[1, 69]} = 108.37$, $p = 8.66 \times 10^{-16}$, $\omega^2 = 0.311$) and

drug ($F_{[1, 69]} = 122.99$, $p = 2 \times 10^{-16}$, $\omega^2 = 0.353$) were found for erratic swimming. A very large

interaction effect was also found ($F_{[1, 69]} = 44.24$, $p = 5.67 \times 10^{-9}$, $\omega^2 = 0.125$). Again, post-hoc

tests suggested that CAS increased erratic swimming ($p < 0.001$, $d = -3.984$, non-treated

controls vs. non-treated CAS), while WAY-161503 blocked this effect ($p = 0.302$, $d = 0.6759$,

non-treated controls vs. WAY-161503 controls; $p < 0.001$, $d = 3.9537$, non-treated CAS vs.

WAY-161503 CAS; Figure 4C).

458   A large main effect of treatment ($F_{[1, 69]} = 8.582$, $p = 0.0046$, $\omega^2 = 0.094$), but not of drug

($F_{[1, 69]} = 0.564$, $p = 0.4552$, $\omega^2 = -0.005$), was found for freezing duration; no interaction effect

was found ($F_{[1, 69]} = 1.434$, $p = 0.2352$, $\omega^2 = 0.005$). Post-hoc tests revealed that CAS increased

freezing ($p = 0.047$, $d = -1.02$, non-treated controls vs. non-treated CAS), but this effect was not

blocked by WAY-161503 ($p = 0.967$, $d = -0.178$, non-treated controls vs. WAY-161503 controls;

p = 0.544, d = 0.412, non-treated CAS vs. WAY-161503 CAS; Figure 4D).

Finally, no effects of treatment ($F_{[1, 69]}$ = 2.303, p = 0.134, ω^2 = 0.018), drug ($F_{[1, 69]}$ =

0.103, p = 0.749, ω^2 = -0.012), or treatment:drug interaction ($F_{[1, 69]}$ = 0.527, p = 0.471, ω^2 = -

0.006) were found for swimming speed (Figure 4E).

3.2.2. After exposure

No main effects of treatment ($F_{[1, 69]}$ = 3.221, p = 0.0771, ω^2 = 0.026) were found for time

on top, but a small-to-medium effect of drug was found ($F_{[1, 69]}$ = 4.254, p = 0.0429, ω^2 = 0.039).

A medium-sized interaction was also found ($F_{[1, 69]}$ = 6.352, p = 0.014, ω^2 = 0.064). Post-hoc

effects revealed a synergistic effect, with WAY-161503 increasing time on top in animals

exposed to CAS (p = 0.922, d = 0.242, non-treated controls vs. non-treated CAS; p = 0.907,

0.259, non-treated controls vs. WAY-161503 controls; p = 0.011, d = 0.9833, non-treated CAS

vs. WAY-161503 CAS; Figure 5A).

No main effects of treatment ($F_{[1, 69]}$ = 1.95, p = 0.1671, ω^2 = 0.012) were found for time

on bottom, but a small-to-medium effect of drug was found ($F_{[1, 69]}$ = 4.107, p = 0.0466, ω^2 =

0.039). No significant interaction was observed ($F_{[1, 69]}$ = 3.267, p = 0.0751, ω^2 = 0.029). Post-

hoc tests suggested a synergistic effect, with WAY-161503 decreasing time on bottom in

animals exposed to CAS (p = 0.988, d = -0.1243, non-treated controls vs. non-treated CAS; p =

0.999, d = -0.0538, non-treated controls vs. WAY-161503 controls; p = 0.041, d = 0.8369, non-

treated CAS vs. WAY-161503 CAS; Figure 5B).

A large-sized main effect of treatment ($F_{[1, 69]}$ = 16.119, p = 0.000149, ω^2 = 0.174) was

found for erratic swimming, but no main effect of drug ($F_{[1, 69]}$ = 0.568, p = 0.454, ω^2 = -0.005)

nor an interaction effect (F[1, 69] = 0.042, p = 0.838, ω^2 = -0.011) were found. However, post-

hoc tests did not find an increase in erratic swimming with CAS (p = 0.125, d = -0.857), nor a

synergistic effect of WAY-161503 (p = 0.922, d = 0.243, non-treated controls vs. WAY-161503

controls; p = 0.968, d = 0.142, non-treated CAS vs. WAY-161503 CAS; Figure 5C).

A medium-sized main effect of treatment ($F_{[1, 69]}$ = 4.726, p = 0.0331, ω^2 = 0.43) was

found for freezing, and a medium-sized main effect of drug was also found ($F_{[1, 69]}$ = 4.17, p =

0.04497, ω^2 = 0.037). A medium-to-large interaction effect was observed for freezing as well

($F_{[1, 69]}$ = 7.663, p = 0.00723, ω^2 = 0.077). Post-hoc tests revealed that CAS increased freezing

(p = 0.009, d = -1.257, non-treated controls vs. non-treated CAS), while WAY-161503 blocked

this effect (p = 0.816, d = -0.338, non-treated controls vs. WAY-161503 controls; p = 0.008, d =

1.026, non-treated CAS vs. WAY-161-503 CAS; Figure 5D).

Finally, no main effects of treatment ($F_{[1, 69]}$ = 3.85, p = 0.0538, ω^2 = 0.038) or drug ($F_{[1, 69]}$

= 0.416, p = 0.5212, ω^2 = -0.008) were found for swimming speed, and an interaction effect was

also absent (F[1, 69] = 0.062, p = 0.8037, ω^2 = -0.013)(Figure 5E).

500 3.3. Effects of RS-102221 on alarm reaction and post-exposure

501 behavior

502 3.3.1. During exposure

No outliers were detected in any groups. A large effect of treatment ($F_{[1, 68]}$ = 9.68, p =

0.003, ω^2 = 0.011) was found for time on top, but no main effect of drug ($F_{[1, 68]}$ = 0.231, p =

0.632, ω^2 = -0.01) nor an interaction effect ($F_{[1, 68]}$ = 0.096, p = 0.757, ω^2 = -0.012) were found

for this variable. Post-hoc tests suggested that CAS decreased time on top (p = 0.004, d = 0.74

for the main effect); RS-102221 was not able to change this effect (p = 0.353, d = 0.64, non-

treated controls vs. treated CAS; p = 0.941, d = -0.18, non-treated CAS vs. treated CAS; Figure

6A).

A very large main effect of treatment ($F_{[1, 68]}$ = 85.978, p = 1.09 x 10^{-13}, ω^2 = 0.53), but

not dose ($F_{[1, 68]}$ = 0.352, p = 0.555, ω^2 = -0.009), nor an interaction effect ($F_{[1, 68]}$ = 0.517, p =

0.474, ω^2 = -0.006), were found for time on bottom (Figure 6B). Post-hoc tests suggested that

CAS increased time on bottom (p < 0.001, d = -2.22 for the main effect), and RS-102221 was

not able to change this effect (p < 0.001, d = -2.12, non-treated controls vs. treated CAS; p =

0.8, d = 0.29, non-treated CAS vs. treated CAS).

Large main effects of treatment ($F_{[1, 68]}$ = 25.74, p < 0.0001, ω^2 = 0.26) and drug ($F_{[1, 68]}$ =

21.06, p < 0.0001, ω^2 = 0.22) were found for erratic swimming. An interaction effect was also

found ($F_{[1, 68]}$ = 15.47, p < 0.0001, ω^2 = 0.17). Post-hoc tests suggested that CAS increased

erratic swimming (p < 0.01, d = 1.24for the main effect), an effect that was blocked by RS-

102221 (p =0.829, d = -0.33, non-treated controls vs. treated CAS; p <0.001, d = 1.89, non-

treated CAS vs. treated CAS; Figure 6C).

Large main effects of treatment ($F_{[1, 68]}$ = 21.973, p < 0.0001, ω^2 = 0.23) and drug ($F_{[1, 68]}$ =

7.06, p = 0.0098, ω^2 = 0.08) were found for freezing; no interaction effect was found ($F_{[1, 68]}$ =

2.98, p = 0.089, ω^2 = 0.03). Post-hoc tests revealed that CAS increased freezing (p < 0.001, d =

1.10 for the main effect), and RS-102221 partially blocked this effect (p = 0.488, d = -0.548,

non-treated controls vs. treated CAS; p = 0.013, d = 0.985, non-treated CAS vs. treated CAS;

Figure 6D).

Finally, no main effects of treatment ($F_{[1, 68]}$ = 1.84, p = 0.179, ω^2 = 0.01) nor drug ($F_{[1, 68]}$

= 3.156, p = 0.08, ω^2 = 0.03) were found for swimming speed (Figure 6E). No interaction effects

were present ($F_{[1, 68]}$ = 2.981, p = 0.089, ω^2 = 0.03).

3.3.2. After exposure

No main effects of treatment ($F_{[1, 68]}$ = 2.449, p = 0.122, ω^2 = 0.02) or drug ($F_{[1, 68]}$ =

0.002, p = 0.969, ω^2 = -0.01), were found for time on top (Figure 7A); an interaction effect was

also absent ($F_{[1, 68]}$ = 1.152, p = 0.287, ω^2 = 0.002).

A medium-sized main effect of treatment ($F_{[1, 68]}$ = 6.322, p = 0.0143, ω^2 = 0.07), as well

as a large effect of drug ($F_{[1, 68]}$ = 22.796, p < 0.0001, ω^2 = 0.23), were found for time on bottom

(Figure 7B). A medium-sized interaction effect was also found ($F_{[1, 68]}$ = 4.08, p = 0.047, ω^2 =

0.04). Post-hoc tests suggested that CAS increased time on bottom after exposure (p = 0.05, d

= 1.02, non-treated controls vs. non-treated CAS), an effect that was blocked by RS-102221 (p

= 0.506, d = 0.54, non-treated controls vs. treated CAS; p < 0.001, d = 1.55, non-treated CAS

vs. treated CAS).

A large main effect of treatment ($F_{[1, 68]}$ = 36.19, p < 0.0001, ω^2 = 0.33), but not drug ($F_{[1, 68]}$

= 2.957, p = 0.09, ω^2 = 0.03), were found for erratic swimming (Figure 7C). No interaction

effect was found ($F_{[1, 68]}$ = 0.002, p = 0.965, ω^2 = -0.01). Post-hoc tests suggested that CAS

increased erratic swimming after exposure (p = 0.001, d = 1.514, non-treated controls vs. non-

treated CAS), an effect that was not altered by RS-102221 (p < 0.001, d = -1.92, non-treated

controls vs. treated CAS; p = 0.56, d = -0.41, non-treated CAS vs. treated CAS).

A large main effect of treatment ($F_{[1, 68]}$ = 39.763, p < 0.0001, ω^2 = 0.35) and a small main

effect of drug ($F_{[1, 68]}$ = 4.16, p = 0.045, ω^2 = 0.04), were found for freezing; no interaction effects

were found ($F_{[1, 68]}$ = 3.23, p = 0.077, ω^2 = 0.03). Post-hoc tests suggested that CAS increased

freezing after exposure (p < 0.001, d = 1.96, non-treated controls vs. non-treated CAS), an

effect that was partially blocked by RS-102221 (p = 0.025, d = -1.12, non-treated controls vs.

treated CAS; p = 0.041, d = 0.85; Figure 7D).

Finally, no main effects of treatment ($F_{[1, 68]}$ = 1.014, p = 0.317, ω^2 = 0.0002) or drug ($F_{[1, 68]}$

= 1.83, p = 0.181, ω^2 = 0.01) were found for swimming speed, nor was there an interaction

effect for this variable ($F_{[1, 68]}$ = 0.475, p = 0.493, ω^2 = -0.007. Figure 7E).

3.4. Restraint stress-elicited behavioral changes

3.4.1. Effects of MK-212 on restraint stress-elicited behavioral changes

No main effects of treatment ($F_{[1, 23]}$ = 0.167, p = 0.687, ω^2 = -0.026) nor drug ($F_{[1, 23]}$ =

3.884, p = 0.061, ω^2 = 0.089), were found for time on top (Figure 8A). No interaction effects

were found as well ($F_{[1, 23]}$ = 4.215, p = 0.052, ω^2 = 0.1).

A medium-sized main effect of treatment ($F_{[1, 23]}$ = 6.3864, p = 0.019, ω^2 = 0.099), but

not drug ($F_{[1, 23]}$ = 0.0879, p = 0.77, ω^2 = -0.017), was found for time on bottom (Figure 8B). A

large treatment:drug interaction effect was found ($F_{[1, 23]}$ = 8.5023, p = 0.008, ω^2 = 0.22). Post-

hoc tests showed that ARS increased time on bottom (*p* = 0.038, *d* = -1.566 vs. non-treated

controls), and MK-212 (2 mg/kg) blocked this effect (*p* = 0.757, *d* = -0.495 non-treated controls

vs. treated ARS).

A large main effect of treatment ($F_{[1, 23]}$ = 17.9732, p = 0.00031, ω^2 = 0.398), but not drug

($F_{1, 23]}$ = 0.446, p = 0.511, ω^2 = -0.013), was found for erratic swimming (Figure 8C). No

interaction effects were found ($F_{[1, 23]}$ = 0.193, p = 0.664, ω^2 = -0.019). Post-hoc tests suggested

that a ARS increased erratic swimming (p < 0.001, d = -1.57 for the main effect), an effect that

was not blocked by MK-212 (*p* = 0.006, d = -1.85, non-treated controls vs. treated ARS).

No main effects of treatment ($F_{[1, 23]}$ = 0.384, p = 0.541, ω^2 = -0.016) nor drug ($F_{[1, 23]}$ =

0.618, p = 0.44, ω^2 = -0.01) were found for freezing (Figure 8D). A large interaction effect was

found ($F_{[1, 23]}$ = 12.339, p = 0.002, ω^2 = 0.304). Post-hoc tests suggested that animals injected

with MK-212 and subjected to ARS showed decreased freezing in relation to other groups (p =

0.033, d = -1.6, non-treated controls vs. treated ARS; p = 0.031, d = 1.6, non-treated ARS vs.

treated ARS).

Finally, no main effects of treatment ($F_{[1, 23]}$ = 1.0005, p = 0.328, ω^2 = 0.0) nor drug ($F_{[1, 23]}$

= 0.0283, p = 0.868, ω^2 = -0.038) were found for swimming speed (Figure 8E). No interaction

effect was found for this variable ($F_{[1, 23]}$ = 0.5437, p = 0.468, ω^2 = -0.018).

3.4.2. Effects of RS-102221 on restraint stress-elicited behavioral changes

A main effect of treatment ($F_{[1, 28]}$ = 422.613, p < 0.0001, ω^2 = 0.93), but not drug ($F_{[1, 28]}$ =

0.728, p = 0.401, ω^2 = -0.009), was found for time on top (Figure 9A). No interaction effect was

found ($F_{[1, 28]}$ = 0.416, p = 0.524, ω^2 = -0.02). ARS increased time on top (p < 0.0001, d = 7.78 for

the main effect), and RS-102221 was not able to block this effect.

No main effects of treatment ($F_{[1, 28]}$ = 3.051, p = 0.0916, ω^2 = 0.06) nor drug ($F_{[1, 28]}$ =

2.208, p = 0.1485, ω^2 = 0.04) were found for time on bottom (Figure 9B). However, a significant

interaction effect was found ($F_{[1, 28]}$ = 10.832, p = 0.0027, ω^2 = 0.24). Post-hoc tests revealed

that ARS increased time on bottom (p = 0.007 vs. non-treated controls), an effect that was

partially blocked by RS-102221 (p = 0.997, non-treated controls vs. treated ARS; p = 0.019,

non-treated ARS vs. treated ARS).

No main effects of treatment ($F_{[1, 28]}$ = 0.014, p = 0.905, ω^2 = -0.03) nor drug ($F_{[1, 28]}$ =

0.224, p = 0.639, ω^2 = -0.02), were found for erratic swimming (Figure 9C). An interaction effect

was also absent ($F_{[1, 28]}$ = 2.916, p = 0.098, ω^2 = 0.06).

A main effect of treatment ($F_{[1, 28]}$ = 13.564, p = 0.001, ω^2 = 0.28) was found for freezing

(Figure 9D), but no main effect of drug was found ($F_{[1, 28]}$ = 0.122, p = 0.729, ω^2 = -0.03).

Moreover, an interaction effect was also absent ($F_{[1, 28]}$ = 0.022, p = 0.882, ω^2 = -0.03). ARS

increased freezing (p = 0.001, d = 1.4 for the main effect), an effect that was not blocked by RS-

102221 (p = 0.052, non-treated controls vs. treated ARS; p = 0.998, non-treated ARS vs.

treated ARS).

Finally, no main effects of treatment ($F_{[1, 28]}$ = 1.833, p = 0.187, ω^2 = 0.03) nor drug ($F_{[1, 28]}$

= 0.003, p = 0.955, ω^2 = -0.03), neither an interaction effect ($F_{[1, 28]}$ = 0.051, p = 0.823, ω^2 = -

0.03), were found for swimming speed (Figure 9E).

609 4. Discussion

The present work tested the hypothesis that phasic activation of the 5-HT$_{2C}$ receptor is

involved in behavioral adjustments to distal, but not proximal, threat in zebrafish, and that these

receptors exerts a tonic facilitation of defensive behavior to potential threat in zebrafish. We

found that 5-HT$_{2C}$ agonists blocked CAS-elicited defensive behavior, but not post-exposure

increases in defensive behavior, nor ARS-elicited anxiogenic-like effects. We also found that

RS-102221, a 5-HT$_{2C}$ receptor antagonist, did not change behavior during exposure, but it

produced a small effect on behavior after exposure to CAS. No effects of RS-102221 were

found for ARS-elicited anxiogenic-like effects.

619 4.1. Effects of stressors on zebrafish behavior

One of the aims of this paper was to confirm the behavioral effects of CAS during and

after exposure (Lima-Maximino et al., 2020), given the considerable variation in the literature

(Maximino et al., 2019), and to compare the effects after exposure with those of ARS -

considering that, while both CAS and ARS are anxiogenic stressors, from an ecological point of

view both should affect different behavioral endpoints.

In the present experiments, CAS consistently increased bottom-dwelling and erratic

swimming during exposure, with a smaller component of freezing. After exposure, a strong

component of freezing was present, while erratic swimming contributed less to the overall

behavioral pattern. These results are consistent with what was observed both with a washout

period (Lima-Maximino et al., 2020), and in the absence of a washout, but with an extended

observation interval (Mathuru et al., 2012; Nathan et al., 2015). These effects suggest that, as

threat levels change from distal (i.e., CAS is present) to potential (i.e., CAS is no longer

present), a "residual" effect emerges that is marked by different behavioral components. This is

similar to what is observed with electrical stimulation of the PAG/GR in rats (Brandão et al.,

2008). We have previously shown that serotonin differentially mediates these behaviors,

phasically inhibiting responses during exposure and tonically facilitating responses after

exposure (Lima-Maximino et al., 2020).

ARS-elicited behavioral effects have been explored in the literature with mixed results.

While Ghisleni et al. (2012) found that a 90-min restraint protocol did not change bottom-

dwelling after stress when animals were tested individually, a similar protocol showed marked

increases in this variable (Assad et al., 2020) - albeit control animals in the latter experiment

spent most of the session in the upper half of the tank instead of in the lower half. In the present

experiments, ARS increased bottom-dwelling as well. Moreover, we observed a small

component of erratic swimming, consistent with what is observed by Ghisleni et al. (2012).

While increased bottom-dwelling was also observed as a pattern of post-exposure behavior

after CAS in the present experiments and in Lima-Maximino et al. (2020), freezing was a major

component of post-exposure behavior, suggesting that stressors do not produce similar

behavioral effects.

4.2. Role of the 5-HT$_{2C}$ receptor in CAS-elicited behavioral adjustments

Both 5-HT$_{2C}$ receptor agonists were able to block CAS-elicited behavioral adjustments

during exposure, but the effects on behavior after exposure were less impressive, with agonists

blocking the increased geotaxis. While RS-102221, a 5-HT$_{2C}$ receptor antagonist, did not

change behavior during exposure, it blocked some of the effects on post-exposure behavior.

These results suggest that the 5-HT$_{2C}$ receptor has opposite roles in both stages, phasically

inhibiting defensive responses to proximal threat and tonically facilitating responses to potential

threat.

We have previously found that serotonin participates in responses to CAS, acutely and

phasically inhibiting responses to proximal threat but phasically facilitating responses to

potential threat (Lima-Maximino et al., 2020; Maximino et al., 2014). We suggested that phasic

and tonic serotonin encode an aversive expectation value, switching behavior toward cautious

exploration/risk assessment/anxiety when the aversive stimulus is no longer present. In the

experimental design that was used in this experiment, behavior during exposure represents

proximal threat, as CAS acts as a partial predator stimulus that elicits behavior that decreases

the possibility of a predator attack or detection by the predator (Smith, 1992). However, if CAS

is no longer present (as in the post-exposure stage of our design), that would signal a decrease

in threat levels to potential threat, a situation in which trying to flee or hide is non-adaptive, but

resuming normal behavior is also non-adaptive - and therefore cautious, alert exploration is

warranted (Maximino et al., 2019). Using Fanselow's taxonomy, the situation in which CAS is

present is more akin to "fear", while the situation in which it is no longer present is more akin to

"anxiety" (Perusini and Fanselow, 2015). The rodent literature suggests that 5-HT$_2$ receptors

participate in fear and anxiety. Salchner and Singewald (2006) have shown that MK-212

potentiates escape responses to an airjet in rats, and the antagonist SB-242084 has been

shown to produce anxiolytic-like effects in rats (Kennett et al., 1997; Martin et al., 2002). In the

elevated T-maze, an apparatus which tests anxiety-like behavior (inhibitory avoidance) and fear-

like behavior (one-way escape), 5-HT_{2C} agonists facilitate, and antagonists impair, inhibitory

avoidance, but only agonists facilitate one-way escape (Mora et al., 1997), suggesting tonic

facilitation of responses to potential threat and phasic inhibition of responses to distal or

proximal threat. Thus, a conserved role for this receptor appears to be related to phasic and

tonic modulation of defensive responses.

A role for 5-HT_2 receptors has also been suggested by pharmacological experiments in

fish as well. In Nile tilapia the $5\text{-HT}_{2A/2C}$ and α_2-adrenoceptor antagonist mianserin blocked

active components of the alarm reaction (dashing, bristling of dorsal fin spines), but not freezing,

during exposure (Barreto, 2012). In zebrafish, the $5\text{-HT}_{2A/2B/2C}$ receptor antagonist/5-HT1A

receptor agonist methysergide increased freezing and bottom-dwelling during and after

exposure at a high dose (92.79 mg/kg), but not at lower doses (Nathan et al., 2015). Our results

are consistent with a major component of 5-HT_{2C} receptors in these responses, although we did

not find an effect of the antagonist during exposure. Thus, our results point to a specific role of

the 5-HT2C receptor in phasic (inhibitory) control of defensive responses to proximal threat and

tonic (stimulatory) control of responses to potential threat.

We have previously shown that, after exposure, serotonin levels are increased in the

extracellular fluid of the zebrafish brain (Maximino et al., 2014), an effect that was mediated by

both serotonin transporters (Maximino et al., 2014) and monoamine oxidase activity (Maximino

et al., 2019; Quadros et al., 2018). This increase in serotonergic activity could activate 5-HT_{2C}

and other serotonergic receptors to inhibit ongoing defensive responses to proximal threat and

initiate programs of alertness and cautious exploration/risk assessment. This phasic signal

represents prediction errors (Amo et al., 2014; Lima-Maximino et al., 2020), while the tonic

activity, which facilitates responses to potential threat, has been proposed to represent a

negative expectation value (Amo et al., 2014; Lima-Maximino et al., 2020). However, at least for

the case of the 5-HT$_{2C}$ receptor, the phasic signals do not appear to represent all aversive

values, as no effect of MK-212 was found for ARS-elicited responses. Our results suggest that

the 5-HT$_{2C}$ receptor is at least partially responsible for both effects, acting as a "switch" between

the two behavioral modes.

705 4.3. Limitations and translational potential

While the present work presents results on zebrafish behavioral pharmacology inspired

on results from mammals, which can potentially underscore conserved mechanisms for

responses to threat across vertebrates (cf. Gerlai, 2014, for a discussion on how using fish as

well as mammals can decrease uncertainty regarding translational relevance and evolutionary

conservation of mechanisms), there are limitations in using zebrafish as experimental models in

neuroscience. One of them is that, due to the teleost genome duplication event, zebrafish

present two copies of the gene that codes the 5-HT$_{2C}$ receptor (Schneider et al., 2012), and

therefore it is currently not possible to know which protein (HTR2CL1 or HTR2Cl2) was targeted

by the drugs used in the present experiments. Moreover, while we propose that alarm reactions

and post-exposure behavior can be exploited to better understand panic disorder (Silva et al.,

2020), the paradigm that was used represents the normal, adaptive behavior of zebrafish under

threatening circumstances, and therefore cannot yet be used to generate novel hypotheses

about a pathological organism (cf. Maximino and van der Staay, 2019, for a discussion on the

limitations of using behavioral assays in experimental psychopathology).

Another important limitation of our results is that sex differences were not considered

throughout the experiment. The field of sex differences in zebrafish research is barely emerging

(Genario et al., 2020), due to difficulties in ascertaining sex only through external morphology in

common (commercial) zebrafish phenotypes; as a result, we did not separate animals per sex in

our experiments. Future experiments will consider the role of sex in these responses,

considering that sex differences were observed in fear-like behavior in rodents (e.g., Petrovich

and Lougee, 2011).

Despite these limitations, the work presented has translational potential in understanding

fear, anxiety, and panic states (cf. Silva et al., 2020, for a discussion on the use of alarm

reactions to study fear in zebrafish). In general, our results are the first to determine a specific

role of 5-HT$_{2C}$ receptors in zebrafish behavior, and add to the small literature on the role of this

receptor in mammals as well. Further work is needed to understand whether this receptor

interacts with other serotonin receptors known to be involved in defensive behavior in this

species (Herculano and Maximino, 2014) and if the effects during exposure are related to

changes in serotonin levels. Moreover, given the importance of these phenotypes to

understanding fear and panic states (Silva et al., 2020), further work will clarify the usefulness of

this pharmacological profile in modeling panic disorder and anxiety.

739   Significance statement

While the neurotransmitter serotonin has been associated with mental disorders, we currently

do not know the mechanisms through which serotonin influences responses to threat. This is

relevant to future studies on anxiety disorders, for example. Here we report that, in zebrafish,

the 5-HT$_{2C}$ receptor "pushes the break" on (fear-like) responses to threat that is actually present,

and keeps on facilitating (anxiety-like) responses to threat that is only implied. Thus, this

receptor appears to act as a "switch" between two modes that facilitate escape ("fear") or

cautious exploration ("anxiety").

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Conflict of interests statement

755   The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Authors' contributions

Rhayra Xavier do Carmo Silva: Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Data
curation, Formal analysis, Visualization, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing;
Bianca Gomes do Nascimento: Investigation, Data curation, Formal analysis; *Gabriela Cristini*
Vidal Gomes: Investigation, Data curation, Formal analysis; *Nadyme Assad Holanda da Silva:*
Investigation, Data curation; *Jéssica Souza Pinheiro:* Investigation, Data curation; *Suianny*
Nayara da Silva Chaves: Investigation, Data curation, Formal analysis, Visualization; *Ana Flávia*

Nogueira Pimentel: Investigation, Data curation, Formal analysis; *Bruna Patrícia Dutra Costa:*

Investigation, Data curation, Formal analysis; *Anderson Manoel Herculano:* Conceptualization,

Supervision, Resources, Validation; *Monica Lima-Maximino:* Conceptualization, Validation,

Writing – original draft; *Caio Maximino:* Conceptualization, Formal analysis, Funding acquisition,

Methodology, Project Administration, Resources, Software, Supervision, Validation,

Visualization, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing.

770 Data accessibility

774 References

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para o cuidado e a utilização de animais para fins científicos e didáticos - DBCA. Anexo

I. Peixes mantidos em instalações de instituições de ensino ou pesquisa científica,

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Figure captions

Figure 1 – Experimental designs for (A) experiment 1 (CAS-elicited behavioral responses and
post-exposure behavior) and (B) experiment 2 (ARS-elicited behavioral responses).
Abbreviations: ARS – acute restraint stress; CAS – conspecific alarm substance; VEH –
vehicle

Figure 2 – Effects of MK-212 on behavior during CAS exposure. (A) Time spent on top third of
the tank. (B) Time spent on bottom third of the tank. (C) Erratic swimming. (D) Total time
spent freezing. (E) Swimming speed. Different letters represent statistical differences at
the $p < 0.05$ level; similar letters indicate lack of statistically significant differences. Data
are presented as individual data points (dots) superimposed over the median ±
interquartile ranges. Dashed lines on panels A and B represent change levels. Dots
connected by lines represent group means. CTRL = controls (water-exposed animals);
CAS = conspecific alarm substance. Final sample sizes: CTRL + VEH: n = 15 animals;
CTRL + 1 mg/kg MK-212: n = 21 animals; CTRL + 2 mg/kg MK-212: n = 21 animals;
CAS + VEH: n = 21 animals; CAS + 1 mg/kg MK-212: n = 21 animals; CAS + 2 mg/kg
MK-212: n = 21 animals.

Figure 3 – Effects of MK-212 on behavior after CAS exposure. (A) Time spent on top third of the
tank. (B) Time spent on bottom third of the tank. (C) Erratic swimming. (D) Total time
spent freezing. (E) Swimming speed. Different letters represent statistical differences at
the $p < 0.05$ level; similar letters indicate lack of statistically significant differences. Data
are presented as individual data points (dots) superimposed over the median ±
interquartile ranges. Dashed lines on panels A and B represent change levels. Dots
connected by lines represent group means. CTRL = controls (water-exposed animals);
CAS = conspecific alarm substance. Final sample sizes: CTRL + VEH: n = 15 animals;
CTRL + 1 mg/kg MK-212: n = 21 animals; CTRL + 2 mg/kg MK-212: n = 21 animals;
CAS + VEH: n = 21 animals; CAS + 1 mg/kg MK-212: n = 21 animals; CAS + 2 mg/kg
MK-212: n = 21 animals.

Figure 4 – Effects of WAY-161503 on behavior during CAS exposure. (A) Time spent on top
third of the tank. (B) Time spent on bottom third of the tank. (C) Erratic swimming. (D)
Total time spent freezing. (E) Swimming speed. Different letters represent statistical

differences at the p < 0.05 level; similar letters indicate lack of statistically significant

differences. Data are presented as individual data points (dots) superimposed over the

median ± interquartile ranges. Dashed lines on panels A and B represent change levels.

Dots connected by lines represent group means. CTRL = controls (water-exposed

animals); CAS = conspecific alarm substance. Final sample sizes: CTRL + VEH: n = 10

animals; CTRL + 1 mg/kg WAY-161503: n = 21 animals; CAS + VEH: n = 21 animals;

CAS + 1 mg/kg WAY-161503: n = 21 animals.

Figure 5 – Effects of WAY-161503 on behavior <u>after</u> CAS exposure. (A) Time spent on top third

of the tank. (B) Time spent on bottom third of the tank. (C) Erratic swimming. (D) Total

time spent freezing. (E) Swimming speed. Different letters represent statistical

differences at the p < 0.05 level; similar letters indicate lack of statistically significant

differences. Data are presented as individual data points (dots) superimposed over the

median ± interquartile ranges. Dashed lines on panels A and B represent change levels.

Dots connected by lines represent group means. CTRL = controls (water-exposed

animals); CAS = conspecific alarm substance. Final sample sizes: CTRL + VEH: n = 10

animals; CTRL + 1 mg/kg WAY-161503: n = 21 animals; CAS + VEH: n = 21 animals;

CAS + 1 mg/kg WAY-161503: n = 21 animals.

Figure 6 – Effects of RS-102221 on behavior <u>during</u> CAS exposure. (A) Time spent on top third

of the tank. (B) Time spent on bottom third of the tank. (C) Erratic swimming. (D) Total

time spent freezing. (E) Swimming speed. Different letters represent statistical

differences at the p < 0.05 level; similar letters indicate lack of statistically significant

differences. Data are presented as individual data points (dots) superimposed over the

median ± interquartile ranges. Dashed lines on panels A and B represent change levels.

Dots connected by lines represent group means. CTRL = controls (water-exposed

animals); CAS = conspecific alarm substance. Final sample sizes: CTRL + VEH: n = 10

animals; CTRL + 2 mg/kg RS-102221: n = 21 animals; CAS + VEH: n = 20 animals; CAS

+ 2 mg/kg RS-102221: n = 21 animals.

Figure 7 – Effects of RS-102221 on behavior <u>after</u> CAS exposure. (A) Time spent on top third of

the tank. (B) Time spent on bottom third of the tank. (C) Erratic swimming. (D) Total time

spent freezing. (E) Swimming speed. Different letters represent statistical differences at

the p < 0.05 level; similar letters indicate lack of statistically significant differences. Data

are presented as individual data points (dots) superimposed over the median ±

interquartile ranges. Dashed lines on panels A and B represent change levels. Dots

connected by lines represent group means. CTRL = controls (water-exposed animals);

CAS = conspecific alarm substance. Final sample sizes: CTRL + VEH: n = 10 animals;

CTRL + 2 mg/kg RS-102221: n = 21 animals; CAS + VEH: n = 20 animals; CAS + 2 mg/

kg RS-102221: n = 21 animals.

Figure 8 – Effects of MK-212 on behavior <u>after</u> acute restraint stress (ARS). (A) Time spent on

top third of the tank. (B) Time spent on bottom third of the tank. (C) Erratic swimming.

(D) Total time spent freezing. (E) Swimming speed. Different letters represent statistical

differences at the p < 0.05 level; similar letters indicate lack of statistically significant

differences. Data are presented as individual data points (dots) superimposed over the

median ± interquartile ranges. Dashed lines on panels A and B represent change levels.

Dots connected by lines represent group means. CTRL = controls (water-exposed

animals); ARS = acute restraint stress. Final sample sizes: CTRL + VEH: n = 8 animals;

CTRL + 2 mg/kg MK-212: n = 5 animals; ARS + VEH: n = 6 animals; ARS + 2 mg/kg

MK-212: n = 8 animals.

Figure 9 – Effects of RS-102221 on behavior <u>after</u> acute restraint stress (ARS). (A) Time spent

on top third of the tank. (B) Time spent on bottom third of the tank. (C) Erratic swimming.

(D) Total time spent freezing. (E) Swimming speed. Different letters represent statistical

differences at the p < 0.05 level; similar letters indicate lack of statistically significant

differences. Data are presented as individual data points (dots) superimposed over the

median ± interquartile ranges. Dashed lines on panels A and B represent change levels.

Dots connected by lines represent group means. CTRL = controls (water-exposed

animals); ARS = acute restraint stress. Final sample sizes: CTRL + VEH: n = 8 animals;

CTRL + 2 mg/kg RS-102221: n = 8 animals; ARS + VEH: n = 8 animals; ARS + 2 mg/kg

RS-102221: n = 8 animals.

A

Acclimation (>14d)

Injection (drug or VEH)

20 min

CAS exposure

6 min

Behavioral observation (*during* exposure)

Washout (1 min)

6 min

Behavioral observation (*after* exposure)

B

Acclimation (>14d)

Injection (MK-212, RS-102221, or VEH)

20 min

ARS

90 min

6 min

Behavioral observation (*after* exposure)

LaNeC
LaNeF