Phasic and tonic serotonin modulate alarm reactions

2 and post-exposure behavior in zebrafish

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26 List of abbreviations

27	4-OH quinoline	4-hydroxyquinoline
28	5-HT	Serotonin
29	5,7-DHT	5,7-dihydroxytryptamine
30	ANOVA	Analysis of variance
31	CAS	Conspecific alarm substance
32	CONCEA	Conselho Nacional de Controle de Experimentação Animal
33	CTRL	Control groups
34	IACUC	Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee
35	Ibama	Instituto Brasileiro do Meio Ambiente e dos Recursos Naturais Renováveis
36	IV	Independent variable
37	MAD	Median absolute difference
38	pCPA	para-chlorophenylalanine
39	PI	Principal Investigator
40	ppm	Parts per million
41	UEPA	Universidade do Estado do Pará
42	WAY 100,635	N-[2-[4-(2-Methoxyphenyl)-1-piperazinyl]ethyl]-N-(2-
43		pyridyl)cyclohexanecarboxamide
44	zMAO	Zebrafish monoamine oxidase

45 **Abstract**

46 Current theories on the role of serotonin (5-HT) in vertebrate defensive behavior suggest that this 47 monoamine increases anxiety but decreases fear, by acting at different levels of the neuroaxis. This 48 paradoxical, dual role of 5-HT suggests that a serotonergic tone inhibits fear responses, while an 49 acute increase in 5-HT would produce anxiety-like behavior. However, so far no evidence for a 50 serotonergic tone has been found. Using zebrafish alarm responses, we investigate the participation 51 of phasic and tonic 5-HT levels in fear-like behavior, as well as in behavior after stimulation. 52 Conspecific alarm substance (CAS) increased bottom-dwelling and erratic swimming, and animals 53 transferred to a novel environment after CAS exposure (post-exposure behavior) showed increased 54 bottom-dwelling and freezing. Clonazepam blocked CAS effects during and after exposure. Acute 55 fluoxetine dose-dependently decreased fear-like behavior, but increased post-exposure freezing. 56 Metergoline had no effect on fear-like behavior, but blocked the effects of CAS on post-exposure 57 behavior; similar effects were observed with pCPA. Finally, CAS was shown to decrease the 58 activity of monoamine oxidase in the zebrafish brain after exposure. These results suggest that 59 phasic and tonic serotonin encode an aversive expectation value, switching behavior towards 60 cautious exploration/risk assessment/anxiety when the aversive stimulus is no longer present.

61 Keywords: Serotonin; Fear; Alarm substance; Zebrafish; Panic

62 1. Introduction

63 The neurocircuitry of defensive reactions involves regulation by a plethora of 64 neuromodulators, including monoamines and peptides (Maximino 2012). In vertebrates, the 65 monoamine serotonin (5-HT) is produced in specific brain nuclei, including the raphe, and is 66 thought to inhibit fear/escape responses to proximate threat by acting on more caudal structures of 67 the aversive brain system (Paul et al. 2014; Deakin and Graeff 1991; Maximino 2012). This 68 response appears to be dependent on the specific brain region in which serotonin acts, as well as on 69 the receptor that is activated. For example, in the rodent periaqueductal gray, the activation of 5- HT_{1A} and 5-HT₂-type receptors inhibit fear responses, while in amygdaloid nuclei the activation of 70 71 5-HT₂- and 5-HT₃-type receptors increase anxiety-like responses (Guimarães et al. 2008; Paul et al. 72 2014; Hale and Lowry 2011). There is also evidence for a serotonergic "tone" inhibiting anxiety, 73 since antagonists usually inhibit anxiety-like responses in animal models; however, antagonists do 74 not appear to modify fear-like responses, suggesting that phasic, not tonic, serotonin is involved in 75 fear. For example, 5-HT levels do not change in the basolateral amygdala or in the dorsal 76 periaqueductal gray during chemical stimulation of this latter structure in rats (Zanoveli et al. 2009), 77 a manipulation that induces panic-like responses (Brandão et al. 2008). This suggests that the 78 inhibitory role of serotonin in fear functions as a "switching" signal: as the threatening stimulus 79 ceases, serotonin is released, inhibiting the fear reactions that are now non-adaptive, and initiating 80 careful exploration and risk assessment responses to ensure that the threat is actually over.

In non-mammalian vertebrates, including teleost fish, 5-HT is produced in additional brain regions, including pretectal and hypothalamic populations (Herculano and Maximino 2014). There is some evidence that 5-HTergic neurons innervate areas of the teleostean brain which participate in defensive behavior, including prosencephalic and mesencephalic regions (do Carmo Silva *et al.* 2018a). A role for 5-HT in modulating fish defensive behavior has been demonstrated before: in zebrafish, 5-HT_{1A} and 5-HT_{1B} receptor antagonists decrease anxiety-like behavior (Maximino *et al.* 2013; Nowicki *et al.* 2014; Herculano *et al.* 2015; Maximino *et al.* 2015), while 5-HT₂- and 5-HT₃-

type antagonists increase it (Nowicki *et al.* 2014). Little is known, however, of the modulation of fear-like responses. Microinjection of the serotonergic neurotoxin 5,7-dihydroxytryptamine (5,7-DHT) in the telencephalon of zebrafish, destroying most serotonergic innervation in regions associated with aversive learning, impairs the acquisition of active avoidance (Amo *et al.* 2014), suggesting that serotonin encodes an aversive expectation value.

93 In zebrafish and other Actinopterygian fish, specialized club cells in the skin produce a 94 substance (conspecific alarm substance, CAS) that, when the skin is damaged, is dispersed in the 95 water, signaling to conspecifics a potential threat (von Frisch 1941; Hüttel 1941; von Frisch 1938; 96 Døving and Lastein 2009; Maximino et al. 2019). CAS induces defensive behavior in zebrafish, 97 including increased bottom-dwelling, erratic swimming, and freezing (Maximino et al. 2019; Egan 98 et al. 2009; Speedie and Gerlai 2008; Maximino et al. 2014). These responses have been exploited 99 as a model system to study fear in more basal vertebrates (Maximino et al. 2019; Jesuthasan and 100 Mathuru 2008).

101 The serotonergic system has also been implicated in some of these behavioral functions. 102 CAS increases extracellular serotonin levels (Maximino et al. 2014) and inhibits monoamine 103 oxidase activity (Quadros et al. 2018) in the zebrafish brain after exposure. Zebrafish exposed to 104 CAS show increased anxiety-like behavior in the light/dark test after exposure (i.e., when the 105 substance is no longer present), an effect that is blocked by fluoxetine but not by the 5- HT_{1A} 106 receptor antagonist WAY 100,635 (Maximino et al. 2014). Interestingly, WAY 100,635 blocked the 107 analgesic effects of CAS in zebrafish (Maximino et al. 2014), suggesting that this receptor 108 participates in some, but not all, neurobehavioral responses to threatening stimuli. While WAY 109 100,635 was not able to alter anxiety-like behavior *after* exposure, the drug blocked the increased 110 geotaxis during CAS exposure, both in the first minutes of exposure and in the last minutes (Nathan 111 *et al.* 2015). Blocking 5-HT₂-type receptors with methysergide did not affect these responses, 112 except at a sedative dose (Nathan et al. 2015). These results are difficult to interpret, but suggest

that CAS increases serotonergic activity after exposure, and that a serotonergic tone on the 5-HT_{1A} receptor is involved in behavioral switching after exposure – that is, when the threat is no longer present, and risk assessment begins; whether this is true for behavioral responses *during* exposure – that is, when the threat is present – is unknown.

117 The present paper investigated whether phasic and tonic serotonin participates in the alarm 118 response in zebrafish during and after exposure. Our results reinforce the idea that behavior during 119 CAS exposure is qualitatively different from behavior after CAS exposure. We also show that 120 behavior in both contexts are differentially sensitive to clonazepam, a high potency benzodizepine 121 commonly used in the clinical management of panic disorder (Caldirola et al. 2016). Increasing 122 serotonin levels by treating zebrafish with acute fluoxetine blocked the effects of CAS during and 123 after exposure, but blocking serotonin receptors with metergoline, or blocking serotonin synthesis 124 with pCPA, produced an effect only after exposure. Finally, we show that CAS inhibited 125 monoamine oxidase activity in the brain. Results are discussed in terms of the putative role of 126 serotonin in an homeostatic "neurobehavioral switch" in the absence of threat after predatory risk. 127

128 2. Methods

129 **2.1.** Animals, housing, and baseline conditions

130 435 zebrafish (Danio rerio) from the longfin phenotype were used in the present 131 experiments; details for sample size calculations can be found on each experimental section, below 132 (Figure 1). Outbred populations were used due to their increased genetic variability, decreasing the 133 effects of random genetic drift that could lead to the development of uniquely heritable traits (Parra 134 et al. 2009; Speedie and Gerlai 2008). The populations used in the present experiments are expected 135 to better represent the natural populations in the wild. Animals were bought from a commercial 136 vendor (Fernando Peixes, Belém/PA) and arrived in the laboratory with an approximate age of 3 137 months (standard length = 13.2 ± 1.4 mm), and were quarantined for two weeks; the experiment

138 began when animals had an approximate age of 4 months (standard length = 23.0 ± 3.2 mm). 139 Animals were kept in mixed-sex tanks during acclimation, with an approximate ratio of 50-50 140 males to females (confirmed by body morphology). The breeder was licensed for aquaculture under 141 Ibama's (Instituto Brasileiro do Meio Ambiente e dos Recursos Naturais Renováveis) Resolution 142 95/1993. Animals were group-housed in 40 L tanks, with a maximum density of 25 fish per tank, 143 for at least 2 weeks before experiments begun. Tanks were filled with non-chlorinated water at 144 room temperature (28 °C) and a pH of 7.0-8.0. Lighting was provided by fluorescent lamps in a 145 cycle of 14-10 hours (LD), according to standards of care for zebrafish (Lawrence, 2007). Water 146 quality parameters were as follows: pH 7.0-8.0; hardness 100-150 mg/L CaCO3; dissolved oxygen 147 7.5-8.0 mg/L; ammonia and nitrite < 0.001 ppm. Potential suffering of animals was minimized by 148 controlling for the aforementioned environmental variables and scoring humane endpoints (clinical 149 signs, behavioral changes, bacteriological status), following Brazilian legislation (Conselho 150 Nacional de Controle de Experimentação Animal - CONCEA 2017). Animals were used for only 151 one experiment and in a single behavioral test, to reduce interference from apparatus exposure. 152 Experiments were approved by UEPA's IACUC under protocol 06/18.

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154 **2.2. Alarm substance extraction**

CAS was extracted at a ratio of 1 donor fish for 10 ml distilled water. A detailed protocol for extraction can be found at protocols.io (Silva, Rocha, Lima-Maximino, & Maximino, 2018; <u>https://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.tr3em8n</u>). Briefly, a donor fish was cold-anesthetized and euthanized, and 15 shallow cuts were made on the side of its trunk to lesion club cells. The cuts were washed with 10 mL distilled water, and 7 mL of the eluate was reserved as 1 unit CAS.

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161 2.3. General experimental design

162	After the onset of drug effects (see details below for each drug), animals were individual		
163	transferred to a 1.5 L tank (12 cm X 12 cm x C cm, w X l X h), filled with system water, and left t		
164	acclimate for 3 min. Filming was started, and animals were exposed to either 7 mL distilled wate		
165	(CTRL groups) or 7 mL (1 unit) alarm substance (CAS groups). Exposure was made by slowl		
166	pouring the substance on the water from the top. Animals were then left undisturbed as filming		
167	continued for 6 min; this was termed "alarm reaction". The animal was then transferred to a tank		
168	with 500 mL mineral water for a 1 min "washout" period, to remove potential residues from the		
169	alarm substance. After this period, the animal was transferred to a 5 L tank (A cm X 24 cm X 22		
170	cm, w X l X h) and freely explored for 6 min, during which its behavior was recorded; this was		
171	termed "post-exposure behavior" (Figure 2A). Tanks for both stages were differently shaped to		
172	increase the novelty of the second environment, a variable that is important to induce an anxiety-		
173	like "diving" response in animals not exposed to CAS (Bencan et al. 2009). Light levels above the		
174	tanks were measured using a handheld light meter, and ranged from 251 to 280 lumens (coefficient		
175	of variation = 3.399% between subjects) In all experiments, the following variables were recorded:		
176	• Time spent on the bottom third of the tank (s) [Primary outcome]		
177	• Time spent on the top third of the tank (s) [Secondary outcome]		
178	• Absolute turn angle (equivalent to erratic swimming) [Secondary outcome]		
179	• Freezing: duration of complete movement cessation, defined as speed lower than 0.5 cm/s.		
180	[Secondary outcome]		
181	• Swimming speed (cm/s) [Secondary outcome]		
182	Variables were extracted by automated video tracking, using the software		
183	TheRealFishTracker v. 0.4.0 (http://www.dgp.toronto.edu/~mccrae/projects/FishTracker/), running		
184	on a Windows platform. 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		

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186 randomized to a single treatment using random permuted blocks. One PI attributed a random letter 187 to treatment (e.g., "A" for CTRL, "B" for CAS) and a random integer for drug dose (e.g., "1" for 1 188 mg/kg, "2" for 0 mg/kg [vehicle]), and combinations for letters and integers were randomized. For 189 each experiment, animals were treated and tested in the order of allocation (i.e., randomly). In all 190 experiments, experimenters and data analysts were blinded to drugs and treatment by using coded 191 vials (with the same code used for randomization); blinding was removed only after data analysis. 192 Experiments were always run between 08:00AM and 02:00 PM. After experiments, animals were 193 sacrificed by prolonged bath in ice-cold water (< 12 °C), followed by spinal transection (Matthews 194 and Varga 2011).

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196 **2.4. Quality control**

197 Exclusion criteria: With the exception of outlier exclusion (described in 2.5.3), no
198 exclusion criteria were predetermined.

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.

Biochemical data: All experimenters were trained in the analytical method before experiments. Quality control was achieved periodically using Levey-Jennings charts for known concentrations of kynuramine, adopting a 1_{28} rule.

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210 2.5. Experiments 1-4: Effects of clonazepam and serotonergic drugs on 211 alarm reaction and post-exposure behavior

212 **2.5.1. Sample size calculations**

Sample size calculations were based on a power analysis for a 2-way ANOVA with interaction effects, with $\alpha = 0.05$, $\beta = 0.8$, and expected effect size f = 0.25 for each independent variable (IV); Effect sizes used for estimating sample sizes were based on the range of effects observed after pharmacological manipulations on zebrafish anxiety-like behavior in a metanalysis (Kysil et al., 2017). Sample size of 15 animals/group was established. Thus, a total of 270 animals were used for experiments, and another 135 animals were used to produce CAS. The distribution of samples through groups can be found in Figure 1.

220

221 2.5.2. Drugs and treatments

222 Clonazepam (CAS #1622-61-3) was bought from Roche on 2018, and dissolved in 223 Cortland's salt solution (NaCl 124.1 mM, KCl 5.1 mM, Na₂HPO₄ 2.9 mM, MgSO₄ 1.9 mM, CaCl₂ 224 1.4 mM, NaHCO₃ 11.9 mM, Polyvinylpyrrolidone 4%, 1,000 USP units Heparin; Wolf 1963). 225 Clonazepam, as a high-potency benzodiazepine widely used in treating panic disorder (Cloos 2005; 226 Caldirola *et al.* 2017), is expected to decrease fear-like responses to CAS, and therefore used as a 227 positive control. Fluoxetine is expected to acutely increase serotonin levels in the synapse (Figure 228 2B). Fluoxetine hydrochloride (CAS #54910-89-3) was bought from Libbs on 2017, and dissolved 229 in Cortland's salt solution. Metergoline is expected to block 5-HT receptors from the 5-HT₁, 5-HT₂, 230 and 5-HT₇ families (Figure 2C). Metergoline (CAS #17692-51-2) was bought from Virbac on 2017, 231 and dissolved in Cortland's salt solution. pCPA is expected block 5-HT synthesis, therefore greatly 232 reducing serotonergic tone on all receptors (Figure 2D). 4-chloro-DL-phenylalanine (pCPA; CAS 233 #7424-00-2) was bought from Sigma-Aldrich (C6506) on 2018, and dissolved in 10% DMSO. For 234 Experiment 1, animals were injected intraperitoneally with either vehicle (Cortland's salt solution) 235 or clonazepam (0.05 mg/kg; Maximino, Silva, Gouveia Jr., & Herculano, 2011). For Experiment 2,

236 animals were injected intraperitoneally with vehicle (Cortland's salt solution) or fluoxetine (2.5 or 237 25 /kg; Maximino et al. 2014). For Experiment 3, animals were injected intraperitoneally with 238 vehicle (Cortland's salt solution) or metergoline (1 mg/kg; Pimentel et al. 2019). For Experiment 4, 239 animals were injected intraperitoneally with either vehicle (DMSO) or pCPA (one injection of 150 240 mg/kg/day for 2 days, followed by 24 h without treatment; Curzon et al. 1978). Injections were 241 made according to the protocol proposed by Kinkel et al. (2010); briefly, animals were cold-242 anesthetized and transferred to a sponge-based surgical bed, in which injection was made. Injections 243 were made using a microsyringe (Hamilton[®] 701N syringe, needle size 26 gauge at cone tip), with 244 total volumes of injection ranging from 4.81 to 5.05 μ L. Cold-anesthesia has been shown to 245 produce satisfactory results in zebrafish, with faster recovery and less animal loss than commonly 246 used anesthetics such as MS-222 (Matthews and Varga 2011). The sponge allowed gill perfusion to 247 be kept, minimizing suffering. 20 min after recovery, animals were subjected to CAS or water.

248

249 **2.5.3.** Statistical analysis

250 Outliers were removed based on median absolute differences (MADs), using time on bottom 251 as main endpoint; values were removed when they were higher or lower than 3 MADs around the 252 median (Leys et al. 2013), and the number of outliers was reported in the results. Differences 253 between groups were analyzed using two-way analyses of variance (ANOVAs) with robust 254 estimators on Huber's M-estimators, using the R package 'rcompanion' (Mangiafico 2017; 255 https://cran.r-project.org/package=rcompanion). Normality was not assumed, and thus no specific 256 test for normality was performed; however, this type of analysis is resistant to deviations from the 257 assumptions of the traditional ordinary-least-squares ANOVA, and are robust to outliers, thus being 258 insensitive to distributional assumptions (such as normality)(Huber 1981). Behavioral variables 259 were included as outcomes, with treatment and drug used as independent variables; interaction

260 between IVs was assessed as the most important predictor. P-values were adjusted for the false 261 discovery rate.

262

263 **2.6. Experiment 5: Effects of CAS on monoamine oxidase activity**

264 **2.6.1. Sample size**

Based on a power analysis for two-sample unpaired t-test. $\alpha = 0.05$, power = 0.8, and expected effect size d = 1.5, a sample size of 10 animals/group was established. Thus, a total of 20 animals were used for experiments, and 10 more used to produce CAS. The distribution of samples through groups can be found in Figure 1.

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270 **2.6.2. Methods**

271 z-MAO activity was determined as reported previously (Quadros et al. 2018). Two zebrafish 272 brains were pooled per sample and homogenized in 0.5 mL of buffer solution containing 16.8 mM 273 Na₂HPO₄ and 10.6 mM KH₂PO₄, pH 7.4, isotonized with sucrose. Samples (n = 10 per group) were 274 centrifuged at 1.000 x g for 5 min, and the supernatants were kept on ice for the experiments. 275 Protein samples (approximately 100 μ g) were mixed with 460 μ L of assay buffer (168 mM 276 Na₂HPO₄ and 10.6 mM KH₂PO₄, pH 7.4, isotonized with KCl) and preincubated at 37°C for 5 min. 277 The reaction started by adding 110 μ M kynuramine hydrobromide in a final volume of 700 μ L, and 278 was stopped 30 min later with 300 µL 10% trichloroacetic acid. Reaction products were further 279 centrifuged at 16.000 x g for 5 min and supernatants (800 μ L) were mixed with 1M NaOH (1 mL). 280 Fluorescence was measured using excitation at 315 nm and emission at 380 nm. Product formation 281 (4-hydroxyquinoline) was estimated and enzyme activity was expressed as expressed as nmol 4-OH 282 quinoline/min/mg protein.

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284 **2.6.3.** Statistical analysis

285 Data were analyzed with an asymptotic general independence test, using the R package 286 'coin' (Hothorn et al. 2006; <u>https://cran.r-project.org/package=coin</u>).

287

288 2.7. Open science practices

Experiments were formally preregistered at Open Science Framework (https://doi.org/10.17605/OSF.IO/QM3PX). Data packages and analysis scripts for all experiments can be found at a GitHub repository (https://github.com/lanec-unifesspa/5-HT-CAS). Preprints for the manuscript can be found at bioRxiv (https://doi.org/10.1101/827824).

293

294 2.7.1. Changes from pre-registration

295 During pre-registration, we proposed to use manual recording of behavioral variables. 296 During experiments, we decided to use automated tracking, due to the higher availability of open 297 source software; automated tracking allows for a better reproducibility and precision in measures 298 but, as a trade-off, some measurements were not possible. In the present experiments, the software 299 TheRealFishTracker 0.4.0, Windows; (v. for 300 http://www.dgp.toronto.edu/~mccrae/projects/FishTracker/) was used. Moreover, during pre-301 registration we proposed to also analyze melanophore responses to CAS; this data will appear in a 302 separate paper, on behavioral and physiological aspects of the alarm reaction, and the data is 303 available at a GitHub repository (https://github.com/lanec-unifesspa/5-HT-304 CAS/tree/master/data/melanophore). Finally, the following doses were changed from pre-305 registration: clonazepam was reduced to 0.05 mg/kg, to avoid unwanted sedation; a second dose of 306 fluoxetine was added to approach the range in which fluoxetine blocks fear conditioning at a high 307 shock intensity (Santos et al. 2006). Due to a problem with solubility, the pCPA dose was reduced 308 to 150 mg/kg, a dose that has been shown to reduce serotonin levels in the rat brain by about 50%, 309 and to block the release of 5-HT elicited by electrical stimulation of the raphe (Curzon et al. 1978).

310

311 **3. Results**

312 **3.1. Experiment 1**

313 One outlier was removed from the group in which animals were exposed to CAS and 314 injected with vehicle; and one outlier was removed from the group in which were exposed to water 315 and injected with vehicle in Experiment 1. During CAS exposure, significant effects of treatment (p 316 = 0.0006), dose (p = 0.0044, and interaction (p = 0.0006) were found for time on top (Figure 3A); post-hoc tests suggested that CAS decreased time on top (adjusted $p = 3.91 \cdot 10^{-5}$), and CLZ blocked 317 318 this effect. Significant effects of treatment (p = 0.0466), dose (p = 0.0002), and interaction (p < 0.0002) 319 (0.0001) were found for time on bottom (Figure 3B); CAS increased time on bottom (adjusted p =9.44·10⁻⁶), and CLZ blocked this effect. Main effects of treatment (p = 0.0004) and dose (p = 0.0004) 320 321 0.00038), as well as an interaction effect (p = 0.00042), were found for absolute turn angle (Figure 322 3C); CAS increased absolute turn angle (adjusted p = 0.00033), and CLZ blocked this effect. Main effects of treatment (p = 0.00028) and dose (p = 0.0031), as well as an interaction effect (p = 0.0031) 323 324 0.0021), were found for freezing (Figure 3D); again, CAS increased freezing (adjusted $p = 1.26 \cdot 10^{-5}$ ⁶), and CLZ blocked this effect. Main effects were found for treatment (p = 0.04) and dose (p = 0.04) 325 326 (0.02) for speed; however, post-hoc tests failed to uncover differences between groups (Figure 3E).

327 After CAS exposure, significant main effects of treatment (p = 0.0041) and dose (p = 0.0041)0.0023), as well as an interaction effect (p = 0.0021), were found for time on top (Figure 4A); CAS 328 329 decreased time on top (adjusted $p = 1.07 \cdot 10^{-5}$), and CLZ partially blocked this effect. Main effects of treatment $(p = 2 \cdot 10^{-4})$ and dose $(p = 2.1 \cdot 10^{-4})$, as well as an interaction effect (p = 0.0044), were 330 331 found for time on bottom (Figure 4B), and post-hoc tests suggested that CAS increased time on 332 bottom (p = 0.0009) while CLZ blocked this effect. No main effects (p > 0.2), nor an interaction 333 effect (p = 0.4) were found for absolute turn angle (Figure 4C). A main effect of treatment (p = 0.4)2.1.10⁻⁴) and drug ($p = 2.1.10^{-4}$), as well as an interaction effect ($p = 2.3.10^{-4}$), were found for 334

freezing (Figure 4D); CAS increased freezing (adjusted p = 0.0009), and CLZ blocked this effect. No main effects were found for swimming speed (p > 0.08), nor were interaction effects found (p > 0.3) (Figure 4E).

338

339 **3.2. Experiment 2**

340 One outlier was removed from the group exposed to CAS and treated with 2.5 mg/kg 341 fluoxetine. During CAS exposure, significant effects of treatment (p = 0.0458), dose (p < 0.0001), 342 and interaction (p < 0.0001) were found for time on top. Fluoxetine alone increased time on top at 2.5 mg/kg (adjusted $p = 3.218 \cdot 10^{-5}$ vs. control), CAS decreased it (adjusted p = 0.01132), and 343 344 fluoxetine blocked the effect of CAS at both doses (Figure 5A). Main effects of treatment (p =345 0.004) and dose (p < 0.0001), but no interaction (p = 0.6152), were found for time on bottom (Figure 346 5B); CAS increased time on bottom (adjusted p < 0.0236), fluoxetine decreased it at both doses 347 (adjusted p < 0.01), and fluoxetine blocked the effect of CAS at the highest dose. A main effect of 348 treatment (p = 0.0436), but not dose (p = 0.1102) nor interaction (p = 0.1148), was found for 349 absolute turn angle (Figure 5C); post-hoc tests suggested that CAS increased absolute turn angle 350 (adjusted p = 0.0061 vs. control), and fluoxetine partially (2.5 mg/kg) or fully (25 mg/kg) blocked 351 this effect. A main effect of treatment (p < 0.0001) and dose (p = 0.0004), as well as an interaction 352 effect (p = 0.00002), were found for freezing (Figure 5D); CAS increased freezing (adjusted p =353 0.0058), and both doses partially blocked this effect. Finally, no effect was found on swimming 354 speed (p > 0.39; Figure 5E).

Significant effects of treatment (p = 0.0072) and interaction (p = 0.0196) were found for time on top after exposure (Figure 6A). Post-hoc pairwise permutation tests found a difference between control and CAS-exposed animals (adjusted $p = 1.194 \cdot 10^{-5}$), an effect that was not blocked by fluoxetine. Similarly, main effects of treatment (p = 0.0002), but not a drug (p = 0.2914) nor an interaction effect (p = 0.5878) were found for time on bottom (Figure 6B), with a significant

increase in CAS-exposed animals (all adjusted p < 0.001). No effects were found for erratic swimming (p > 0.7; Figure 6C). Significant treatment (p < 0.0001), dose (p = 0.025), and interaction effects (p = 0.0014), were found for freezing (Figure 6D), with CAS increasing freezing at all drug treatments, and the highest fluoxetine dose potentiating this effect. No effects were found for swimming speed (p > 0.24; Figure 6E).

365

366 3.3 Experiment 3

367 One outlier was removed from the group exposed to water and treated with vehicle. During 368 CAS exposure, significant effects of treatment (p < 0.0001), but not metergoline (p = 0.6682) or 369 interaction (p = 0.5162), were found for time on top (Figure 7A); post-hoc comparisons suggested that CAS decreased time on top (adjusted $p = 1.977 \cdot 10^{-6}$), but metergoline did not block effect. 370 371 Significant effects of treatment (p = 0.0432), but not metergoline (p = 0.9518) nor interaction (p = 0.0432) 372 0.4174) were found for time on bottom (Figure 7B), with CAS increasing time on bottom (adjusted 373 p = 0.01472) and no effect of metergoline. Significant effects of treatment (p = 0.0002), but not 374 metergoline (p = 0.6496) nor interaction (p = 0.1814), were found for absolute turn angle (Figure 375 7C), with CAS increasing absolute turn angle (adjusted p = 0.02627) and metergoline having no 376 effect. Significant effects of treatment (p < 0.0001), but not metergoline (p = 0.462) nor interaction 377 (p = 0.1922), were found for freezing (Figure 7D); post-hoc tests found significant differences 378 between CAS-exposed animals and controls treated with vehicle (adjusted p = 0.02073), but 379 metergoline did not block the effects of CAS on freezing. No effects of treatment (p =, metergoline, 380 and interaction (all p > 0.1) were found for swimming speed (Figure 7E).

After CAS exposure, no main nor interaction effects were found for time on top (all p >0.13; Figure 8A). A dose (p = 0.0156) and an interaction (p = 0.047) effects were found for time on bottom, but a treatment effect was not found (p = 0.827); CAS increased time on bottom (adjusted p= 0.0292), an effect that was decreased by metergoline (Figure 8B). No main nor interaction effects were found for absolute turn angle (p > 0.33; Figure 8C). A main effect of treatment (p = 0.0036), but not drug (p = 0.4182), nor interaction (p = 0.1508), was found for freezing (Figure 8D); CAS increased freezing (adjusted p = 0.0075), and metergoline partially blocked this effect. No main effects were found for swimming speed (p > 0.27), but an interaction effect was found (p = 0.026); however, post-hoc tests failed to find significant differences between groups (Figure 8E).

390

391 3.4. Experiment 4

392 Three outliers were removed from the group exposed to water and treated with vehicle, two 393 from the group exposed to water and treated with pCPA, one from the group exposed to CAS and 394 treated with vehicle, and two from the group exposed to CAS and treated with pCPA. During CAS 395 exposure, a main effect of treatment (p < 0.0001), but no drug (p = 0.801) nor interaction effects (p396 = 0.5386) were found for time on top (Figure 9A); CAS decreased time on top on both vehicle- and 397 pCPA-injected animals (both ajusted p > 0.0025). Likewise, a main effect of treatment (p = 0.0022), 398 but no drug (p = 0.6496) nor an interaction effects (p = 0.1166), were found for time on bottom 399 (Figure 9B); CAS increased time on bottom on both vehicle- and pCPA-injected animals (both 400 adjusted p = 0.05). A main effect of treatment (p = 0.0002), but not an effect of drug (p = 0.8162) 401 nor interaction (p = 0.5612), was found for absolute turn angle (Figure 9C); CAS increased absolute 402 turn angle on both vehicle- and pCPA-injected animals (both adjusted p < 0.002). A main effect of 403 treatment (p < 0.0001), but not an effect of drug (p = 0.6822) nor interaction (p = 0.4156), was 404 found for freezing (Figure 9D); CAS increased freezing on both vehicle- and pCPA-injected 405 animals (both adjusted p < 0.018). No main or interaction effects were found for speed (all p > 0.11; 406 Figure 9E).

407 After CAS exposure, no main (all p > 0.08) or interaction (p = 0.1472) effects were found 408 for time on top (Figure 10A). A main effect of drug (p < 0.0001), but not of treatment (p = 0.4514), 409 nor an interaction effect (p = 0.5436), was found for time on bottom (Figure 10B); pCPA decreased

410 time on bottom at both controls and CAS-exposed animals (all adjusted p < 0.001). No main (all p

411 > 0.3) nor interaction (p = 0.6958) effects were found for absolute turn angle (Figure 10C). A main

412 effect of treatment (p = 0.0108), but not drug (p = 0.1892) nor interaction (p = 0.2576), was found

413 for freezing (Figure 10D); CAS increased freezing (adjusted p = 0.02278), an effect that was

414 blocked by pCPA (ajusted p = 0.01453). No main (all p > 0.19) nor interaction (p = 0.0954) effects

415 were found for swimming speed (Figure 10E).

416

417 **3.5. Experiment 5**

418 No outliers were removed. After CAS exposure, zMAO activity was reduced in the brain (Z 419 = 3.205, p = 0.00135; Figure 11).

420

421 **4. Discussion**

422 The present work attempted to clarify the role of phasic and tonic serotonin in the alarm 423 reaction of zebrafish during (fear-like behavior) and after (recovery) exposure. We found that 424 clonazepam decreased fear-like behavior, as well as post-exposure behavior, suggesting a good 425 predictive validity of the assay. Moreover, acute fluoxetine decreased fear-like behavior at the 426 highest dose, but increased freezing post-exposure. Metergoline had no effect on fear-like behavior, 427 but blocked the effects of conspecific alarm substance (CAS) on post-exposure behavior; similar 428 effects were observed with pCPA. Finally, CAS was shown to decrease the activity of monoamine 429 oxidase in the zebrafish brain after exposure.

430

431 **4.1. Behavior during and after CAS exposure**

In zebrafish, reported behavioral effects of CAS vary widely as a function of timing,
extraction method, and whether animals are tested alone or in groups (Maximino *et al.* 2019). When

434 animals are exposed and/or tested alone, as in the present experiments, bottom-dwelling, freezing, 435 and erratic swimming consistently increases during exposure (Eachus et al. 2017; Nathan et al. 436 2015; Ogawa et al. 2014; Maximino et al. 2014), but effects after exposure are less clear (Quadros 437 et al. 2016; Schirmer et al. 2013; Nathan et al. 2015; Egan et al. 2009). In the present experiments, 438 CAS consistently increased bottom-dwelling and erratic swimming during exposure, while after 439 exposure bottom-dwelling and freezing were increased. The first effects were blocked by treatment 440 with the panicolytic drug clonazepam, which nonetheless had a very mild effect on post-exposure 441 behavior. Thus, two components can be elicited by CAS: the first, dominated by erratic swimming, 442 occurs when the substance is present, and the second, dominated by freezing, occurs when the 443 concentrations of CAS decrease.

444 Observing the context in which defensive behavior, and not only the response topography, is 445 important to understand the function of a specific response. The context in which CAS elicits alarm 446 reactions is akin to a circa-strike defensive situation (Maximino et al. 2019), therefore producing 447 freezing and escape reactions that are fear-like; when CAS signals decrease, however (i.e., *after* 448 *exposure* in the present experiments), the context is akin to a post-encounter defensive situation, 449 eliciting avoidance and freezing behavior (see Perusini and Fanselow 2015 for a discussion on 450 predatory imminence, defensive reactions, and fear vs. anxiety). In these contexts, increases in 451 freezing, for example, can be interpreted as representing two different functions: to escape detection 452 by predators in the first case, and to allow careful vigilance, in the second case.

The differences in behavior during and after exposure are reminiscent of the different types of freezing elicited during and after electrical stimulation of the periaqueductal gray in rodents (Brandão *et al.* 2008). The increased erratic swimming observed during CAS exposure suggest escape and/or avoidance attempts, while the increased freezing observed after CAS exposure suggest a role in risk assessment. The effects of clonazepam also suggest different neurobehavioral states: this drug usually decreases panic attacks, but has small effects on generalized anxiety in

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human clinical settings (Caldirola *et al.* 2016; Cloos 2005). These results imply good predictive
validity, suggesting that behavior during and after CAS can be used to study fear- vs. anxiety-like
effects.

462

463 **4.2. Role of phasic serotonin on CAS effects**

464 Fluoxetine, at the highest dose, blocked the alarm reaction (fear-like behavior during CAS 465 exposure) and post-exposure behavior in zebrafish. The results from the lower dose (2.5 mg/kg) are 466 harder to interpret, as they could represent not (partial) blocking, but an additive effect, at least on 467 bottom-dwelling. These results are similar to what was previously observed in the light/dark test, in 468 which fluoxetine (2.5 mg/kg) blocked post-exposure effects on scototaxis, freezing, and erratic 469 swimming (Maximino *et al.* 2014). While the role of phasic increases in serotonergic signaling on 470 acute fear-like responses in zebrafish has not been previously investigated, a higher dose (10 471 mg/kg) blocked the alarm reaction (i.e., during exposure) in the piaucu Leporinus macrocephalus 472 (Barbosa et al. 2012). This phasic role of serotonin is likely highly conserved, as serotonin has been 473 shown to decrease responses to aversive odors in *Caenorhabditis elegans* (Li et al. 2012; Harris et 474 al. 2009). The effects of fluoxetine strongly suggest that serotonin phasically inhibits fear-like 475 behavior in zebrafish, acting as a switch towards risk assessment.

476 Phasic serotonin has been proposed to modulate fear-like behavior in mammals before 477 (Zangrossi Jr et al. 2001; Paul et al. 2014; Guimarães et al. 2010); the Deakin/Graeff theory 478 suggests a "panic inhibition system" (Paul et al. 2014; Silva et al. 2019) that inhibits behavioral 479 and sympathoexcitatory responses to these stimuli, and is mediated by serotonergic signaling. The 480 theory proposes a "dual role" for serotonin, increasing anxiety-like responses and inhibiting fear-481 like responses. A similar mechanism has been proposed for zebrafish based on data regarding 482 serotonergic drugs in anxiety-like behavior (Herculano and Maximino 2014). We propose that, at 483 least in zebrafish, phasic serotonin does not physiologically inhibits fear responses; instead, the

inhibitory role of serotonin in fear functions as a "neurobehavioral switch": as the threatening stimulus ceases, serotonin is released, inhibiting the fear reactions that are now non-adaptive, and initiating careful exploration and risk assessment responses to ensure that the threat is actually over (Figure 11). This is consistent with expectancy value theories, in which serotonin signals represent the expectation of risk/threatening outcomes (aversive expectation values), from which appropriate behavioral strategies can be selected (Amo *et al.* 2014; Cools *et al.* 2011).

490 A role for the serotonin transporter has also been proposed for the selection of behavior at 491 different levels of a threat imminence continuum: animals with lower expression of the transporter 492 are more cautious and readily show defensive responses under distal threat, while animals with high 493 expression show more defensive responses under proximal threat (Kroes et al. 2019). While the 494 expression levels of the serotonin transporter are more associated with controlling serotonergic 495 tone, this protein has been also shown to mediate the increases in serotonin levels after CAS 496 exposure in zebrafish (Maximino *et al.* 2014), suggesting a participation also in phasic signals. 497 Whether serotonin transporter expression levels are associated with the alarm reaction and/or postexposure behavior in zebrafish is still unknown. 498

499

500 **4.3.** Is there a tonic inhibition of fear-like responses in zebrafish?

501 The hypothesis that serotonin functions as a "neurobehavioral switch" signal in zebrafish 502 aversive behavior would be strengthened if decreasing the effects of serotonin on its receptors 503 inhibited post-exposure behavior. Indeed, metergoline, which non-specifically blocks 5-HT₁, 5-HT₂, 504 and 5-HT₇ receptors, had no effect on the alarm reaction, but blocked the post-exposure effects of 505 CAS on bottom-dwelling and homebase use; no effect was observed during exposure, suggesting 506 that fear-like responses are not under tonic inhibition. pCPA had similar effects. Nathan et al. (2015) 507 observed that blocking 5-HT_{1A} and 5-HT₂ receptors potentiates freezing and bottom-dwelling both 508 in the initial moments of exposure and in a "recovery period"; however, during the recovery period

animals were still exposed to CAS, the doses which produced effect in Nathan et al. (2015) were higher than reported in other experiments with zebrafish (Maximino *et al.* 2013), and important controls were lacking, making comparison of results difficult.

512 Further support for this hypothesis is lent by sophisticated experiments made by Amo et al. 513 (2014) using the serotonergic neurotoxin 5,7-DHT. Injection of this neurotoxin in the telencephalon 514 destroyed most serotonergic fibers projecting to it, and led to an inability to learn an active 515 avoidance contingency (Amo et al. 2014), suggesting that serotonergic signaling in the 516 telencephalon represents an aversive expectation value. Amo et al. (2014) demonstrated that this 517 circuitry is under the control of projections from the ventral habenula which are not necessary for 518 classical fear conditioning. This suggests that this habenula-raphe-telencephalon pathways do not 519 simply process a fear response, but instead represents expectations values that can be used to inhibit 520 fear when threat is no longer present.

521 A caveat of the results from metergoline and pCPA experiments is that these drugs also 522 affect other neurotransmitter systems. Metergoline also acts as a non-selective dopamine receptor 523 antagonist (https://www.ebi.ac.uk/chebi/searchId.do?chebiId=CHEBI:64216); although its affinity 524 for 5-HT₂ receptors is ~25 times higher than for the dopamine D_2 receptor, the affinity for 5-HT₁ 525 receptors is comparable to D_2 receptors (Dukhovich *et al.* 2004). While pCPA has been reported to 526 produce a selective effect on serotonin levels in zebrafish (Sallinen *et al.* 2009), not altering levels 527 of catecholamines, at the moment we cannot discard the possibility that the treatment used in the 528 present article were not due to changes in these systems. We cannot discard, then, the participation 529 of catecholamines along with serotonin in the effects of these drugs on post-exposure behavior.

In addition to the effects of the manipulations of the serotonergic system on post-exposure behavior, zMAO activity has been shown to be decreased after CAS exposure, which would increase serotonin levels at this moment. Previously, CAS has been shown to increase 5-HT levels in the extracellular fluid of the zebrafish brain 20 min after CAS stress (Maximino *et al.* 2014), and

repeated (7 day) exposure to CAS decreases the mRNA levels of the serotonergic genes *pet1* and *slc6a4a* (serotonin transporter)(Ogawa *et al.* 2014). These results suggest that CAS increases serotonergic activity after the stimulus is no longer present, but it is not known whether CAS does so during exposure.

- 538
- 539 **4.4. Which receptors are involved?**

540 The present work did not investigate specific receptors which are involved in the alarm 541 reaction in zebrafish. However, a role for 5-HT₁-, 5-HT₂-, and 5-HT₇-like receptors is suggested by 542 the effects of metergoline. The 5-HT_{1A} receptor antagonist WAY 100,635 has been previously 543 shown to block fear-induced analgesia elicited by CAS, but not the increase in anxiety-like behavior 544 in the light/dark test (Maximino et al. 2014). At higher doses, however, WAY 100,635 potentiated 545 the effects of CAS both in the early responses (0-8 min) and in the late phase (8-13 min) (Nathan et 546 al. 2015). These contradictory results can be explained by differences in exposure methods, as well as differences in behavioral scoring techniques. Methysergide, which non-selectively blocks 5-547 548 HT_{2A} , 5-HT_{2B}, and 5-HT_{2C} receptors, also potentiate the effects of CAS at both times (Nathan *et al.* 549 2015). However, 5-HT_{1A}, 5-HT_{2A}, and 5-HT_{2C} receptors in the dorsolateral periaqueductal gray 550 area have been shown to phasically inhibit escape/fear responses in rats (Soares and Zangrossi Jr 551 2004). While currently it is unknown whether the griseum centrale, the teleostean homolog of the 552 periaqueductal gray area, is involved in fear responses in zebrafish or not, its anatomical position 553 and hodology suggests so (Maximino et al. 2019; do Carmo Silva et al. 2018a). Thus, 5-HT_{1A} and 554 5-HT₂-like receptors appear to be involved in phasic inhibition of fear-like behavior, but so far 555 evidence for a tonic inhibition is lacking.

556

557 **5. Conclusion**

The present experiments evidenced two qualitatively different stages of the alarm reaction in zebrafish, one in the presence of the alarm substance, and another when it is no longer present, both sensitive to clonazepam. Results from biochemistry and pharmacological manipulations suggest that phasic and tonic serotonin acts as a neurobehavioral switch towards cautious exploration/risk assessment/anxiety when the aversive stimulus is no longer present. These results refine previous theories on the role of serotonin in anxiety and fear, suggesting new avenues of research.

564

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- conditioned fear states: An in vivo microdialysis study. *Brain Res.* **1294**, 106–115.
- 721

722 Figure captions

- 723 Figure 1 Experimental design and sample sizes for each experiment. In the right-most boxes,
- "724 "donors" refer to animals which were sacrificed and used to produce alarm substance, and therefore
- not used as subjects.
- 726

Figure 2 – (A) Time-course of the experiments, with behavioral observations during two 6-min blocks, "CAS exposure" and "Post exposure", separated with a 1-min washout period. The boxes in red indicate the moment that the observation is made in each block. (B-D) Representation of the synaptic effects of the pharmacological manipulations: acute fluoxetine (B) is expected to increase synaptic and extra-synaptic serotonin levels, while metergoline (C) is expected to block receptors from the 5-HT₁, 5-HT₂, and 5-HT₇ family; pCPA (D) is expected to decrease synaptic and extra-

- 733 synaptic serotonin levels.
- 734

735 Figure 3 – Clonazepam (0.05 mg/kg) blocks all CAS-elicited increases in defensive behvavior 736 during exposure. (A) Time spent on the top third of the tank; (B) Time spent on the bottom third of 737 the tank; (C) Absolute turn angle; (D) Freezing; (E) Swimming speed. Different letters represent 738 statistical differences at the p < 0.05 level; similar letters indicate lack of statistically significant 739 differences. Data are presented as individual data points (dots) superimposed over the median \pm 740 interquartile ranges. CTRL = controls (water-exposed animals); CAS = conspecific alarm substance. 741 Final sample sizes: CTRL + VEH: n = 14 animals; CTRL + CLZ: n = 15 animals; CAS + VEH: n = 742 14 animals; CAS + CLZ: n = 15 animals.

743

Figure 4 – Clonazepam (0.05 mg/kg) blocks only the CAS-elicited increases in bottomdwelling after exposure. (A) Time spent on the top third of the tank; (B) Time spent on the bottom third of the tank; (C) Absolute turn angle; (D) Freezing; (E) Swimming speed. Different letters represent statistical differences at the p < 0.05 level; similar letters indicate lack of statistically

748	significant differences. Data are presented as individual data points (dots) superimposed over the
749	median \pm interquartile ranges. CTRL = controls (water-exposed animals); CAS = conspecific alarm
750	substance. Final sample sizes: CTRL + VEH: n = 14 animals; CTRL + CLZ: n = 15 animals; CAS +
751	VEH: $n = 14$ animals; CAS + CLZ: $n = 15$ animals.
752	
753	Figure 5 – Acute fluoxetine dose-dependently blocks all the CAS-elicited increases in defensive
754	behavior during exposure. (A) Time spent on the top third of the tank; (B) Time spent on the

bottom third of the tank; (C) Absolute turn angle; (D) 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 \pm interquartile ranges. CTRL = controls (water-exposed animals); CAS = conspecific alarm substance. Final sample sizes: CTRL + 0 mg/kg: n = 15 animals; CTRL + 2.5 mg/kg: n = 15 animals; CTRL + 25 mg/kg: n = 15 animals; CAS + 0 mg/kg: n = 15 animals; CAS + 2.5 mg/kg: n = 14 animals; CAS + 25 mg/kg: n = 15 animals.

762

763 Figure 6 – Acute fluoxetine dose-dependently blocks only the CAS-elicited increases in 764 bottom-dwelling after exposure. (A) Time spent on the top third of the tank; (B) Time spent on the 765 bottom third of the tank; (C) Absolute turn angle; (D) Freezing; (E) Swimming speed. Different 766 letters represent statistical differences at the p < 0.05 level; similar letters indicate lack of 767 statistically significant differences. Data are presented as individual data points (dots) superimposed 768 over the median \pm interquartile ranges. CTRL = controls (water-exposed animals); CAS = 769 conspecific alarm substance. CTRL = controls (water-exposed animals); CAS = conspecific alarm 770 substance. Final sample sizes: CTRL + 0 mg/kg: n = 15 animals; CTRL + 2.5 mg/kg: n = 15 animals; CTRL + 25 mg/kg: n = 15 animals; CAS + 0 mg/kg: n = 15 animals; CAS + 2.5 mg/kg: n 771 772 = 14 animals; CAS + 25 mg/kg: n = 15 animals.

773

774 Figure 7 – Metergoline does not block the CAS-elicited increases in defensive behavior after 775 exposure. (A) Time spent on the top third of the tank; (B) Time spent on the bottom third of the 776 tank; (C) Absolute turn angle; (D) Freezing; (E) Swimming speed. Different letters represent 777 statistical differences at the p < 0.05 level; similar letters indicate lack of statistically significant 778 differences. Data are presented as individual data points (dots) superimposed over the median \pm 779 interquartile ranges. CTRL = controls (water-exposed animals); CAS = conspecific alarm substance. 780 CTRL = controls (water-exposed animals); CAS = conspecific alarm substance. Final sample sizes: 781 CTRL + VEH: n = 14 animals; CTRL + MET: n = 15 animals; CAS + VEH: n = 15 animals; CAS + 782 MET: n = 15 animals. 783

Figure 8 – Metergoline blocks the CAS-elicited increases in bottom-dwellig and freezing after 784 785 exposure. (A) Time spent on the top third of the tank; (B) Time spent on the bottom third of the 786 tank; (C) Absolute turn angle; (D) Freezing; (E) Swimming speed. Different letters represent 787 statistical differences at the p < 0.05 level; similar letters indicate lack of statistically significant 788 differences. Data are presented as individual data points (dots) superimposed over the median \pm 789 interquartile ranges. CTRL = controls (water-exposed animals); CAS = conspecific alarm substance. 790 Final sample sizes: CTRL + VEH: n = 14 animals; CTRL + MET: n = 15 animals; CAS + VEH: n = 791 15 animals; CAS + MET: n = 15 animals.

792

Figure 9 – pCPA does not block the CAS-elicited increases in defensive behavior during exposure. (A) Time spent on the top third of the tank; (B) Time spent on the bottom third of the tank; (C) Absolute turn angle; (D) 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 \pm

- interquartile ranges. CTRL = controls (water-exposed animals); CAS = conspecific alarm substance.
- Final sample sizes: CTRL + VEH: n = 12 animals; CTRL + pCPA: n = 13 animals; CAS + VEH: n
- 800 = 14 animals; CAS + pCPA: n = 13 animals.
- 801

802 Figure 10 – pCPA blocks the CAS-elicited increases in bottom-dwellig and freezing after 803 exposure. (A) Time spent on the top third of the tank; (B) Time spent on the bottom third of the 804 tank; (C) Absolute turn angle; (D) Freezing; (E) Swimming speed. Different letters represent 805 statistical differences at the p < 0.05 level; similar letters indicate lack of statistically significant 806 differences. Data are presented as individual data points (dots) superimposed over the median \pm 807 interquartile ranges. VEH = Vehicle (10% DMSO); pCPA = para-chlorophenylalanine; CTRL = 808 controls (water-exposed animals); CAS = conspecific alarm substance. Final sample sizes: CTRL +809 VEH: n = 12 animals; CTRL + pCPA: n = 13 animals; CAS + VEH: n = 14 animals; CAS + pCPA: 810 n = 13 animals.

811

Figure 11 – Conspecific alarm substance (CAS) reduces the activity of monoamine oxidase in the brain after exposure. Different letters represent statistical differences at the p < 0.05 level. Data are presented as individual data points (dots) superimposed over the median \pm interquartile ranges. CTRL = controls (water-exposed animals); CAS = conspecific alarm substance. Final sample sizes: CTRL: n = 10 animals; CAS: n = 10 animals.

817

Figure 12 – **Hypothetical mechanism of the serotonergic signaling in zebrafish defensive behavior during and after exposure to conspecific alarm substance**. CAS elicits responses dominated by erratic swimming, which decreases as the substance's concentrations decline. After CAS exposure, the behavioral response is dominated by freezing. Serotonin shifts responding from the first to the second (represented by the purple arrow, as well as by the arrows connecting the

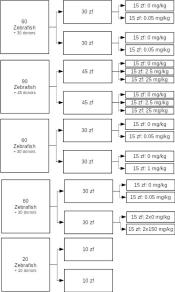
- 823 raphe to the "switch" green boxes), putatively by switching control from the mesencephalic
- 824 aversive circuit ("switch OFF") to the prosencephalic aversive circuit ("switch ON").

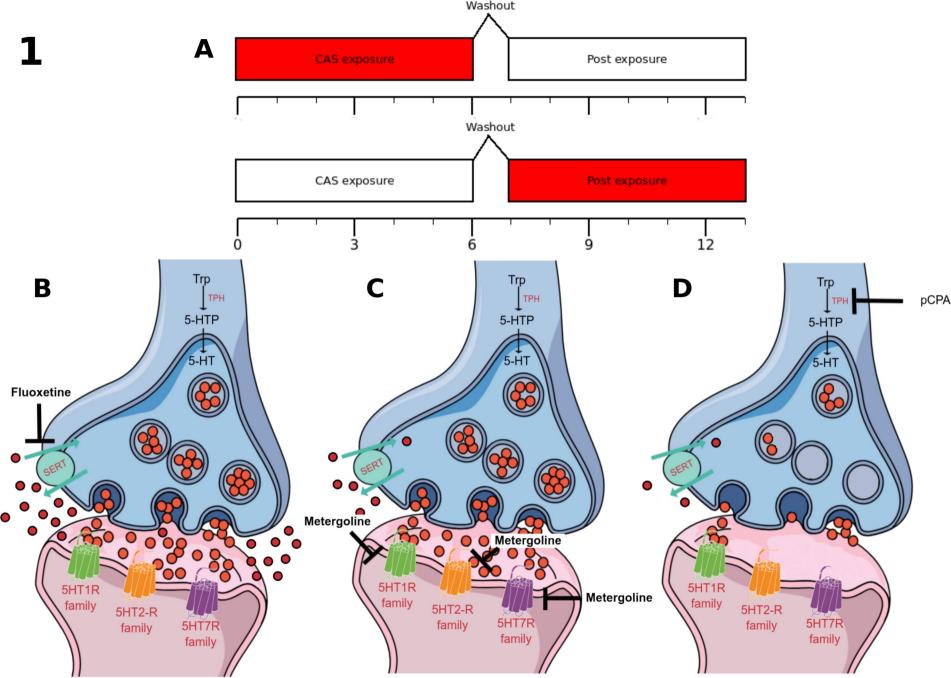
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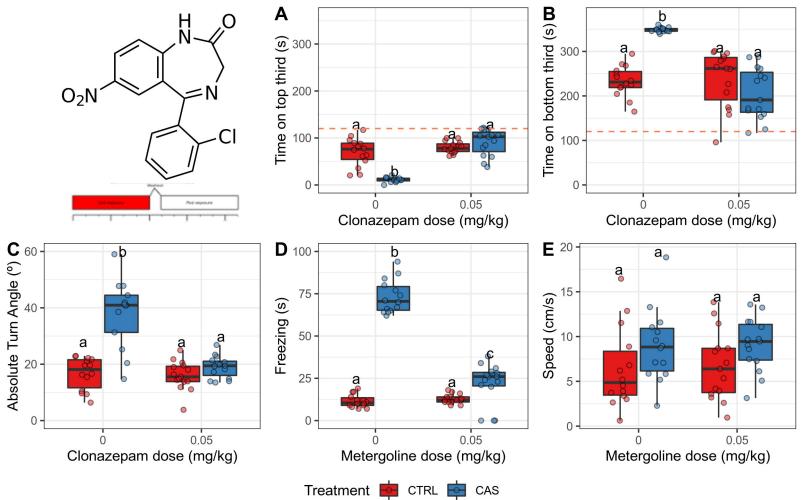
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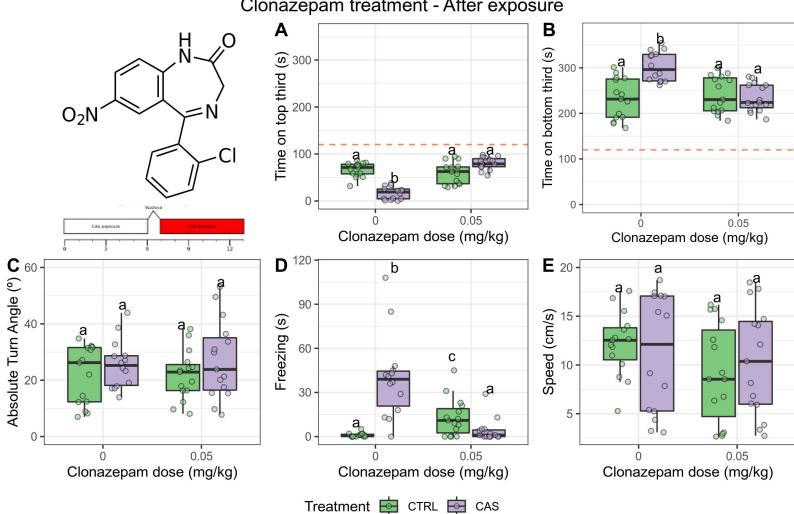
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Clonazepam treatment - During exposure





Clonazepam treatment - After exposure

