

1 **Acute fluoxetine differently affects aggressive display in zebrafish phenotypes**

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22 **Abstract**

23 Zebrafish has been introduced as a model organism in behavioral neuroscience and biological
24 psychiatry, increasing the breadth of findings using fish to study the neurobiology of aggression.
25 Phenotypic differences between leopard and longfin zebrafish were exploited in order to elucidate
26 the role of phasic serotonin in aggressive displays on this species. The present study revealed
27 differences in aggressive display between leopard and longfin zebrafish, and a discrepant effect of
28 acute fluoxetine in both populations. In mirror-induced aggression, leopard animals showed higher
29 display latencies than longfin, as well as lower display duration and frequency (Experiment 1).
30 Moreover, 2.5 mg/kg fluoxetine decreased the duration and frequency of display in longfin, but not
31 leopard; and 5 mg/kg fluoxetine increased display frequency in leopard, but not longfin
32 (Experiment 2). It is suggested that zebrafish from the longfin phenotype show more aggressive
33 motivation and readiness in the mirror-induced aggression test than leopard, and that acute
34 fluoxetine increases aggression in leopard and decreased it in longfin zebrafish.

35 **Keywords:** Zebrafish; Aggressive display; Serotonin; Fluoxetine; Phenotypic differences

37 **1. Introduction**

38 The biological comprehension of factors underlying aggression is still limited (Miczek et al.,
39 2007), even though a range of mental disorders present aggression as a symptom (Krakowski,
40 Volavka, & Brizer, 1986). Despite the paucity of neurobiological data on aggression, a role for
41 monoamines has been proposed (Miczek et al., 2007; Takahashi, Quadros, Almeida, & Miczek,
42 2011). In most animal models, acutely increasing the serotonergic transmission inhibits aggressive
43 behavior (Takahashi et al., 2011); a metanalysis of preclinical studies demonstrated that, across
44 species, pharmacologically increasing 5-HT levels inhibit aggression (Carrillo, Ricci, Coppersmith,
45 & Melloni Jr., 2009).

46 While this observation appears to hold for most studies, some controversies and gaps appear
47 in the literature, especially in basal vertebrates such as fish. For example, in the metanalysis by
48 Carrillo et al. (2009), 5-HT decreased aggression in wrasses and trouts, but not in the Siamese
49 fighting fish. Zebrafish has been introduced as a model organism in behavioral neuroscience and
50 biological psychiatry (W. Norton & Bally-Cuif, 2010; Stewart et al., 2015), increasing the relevance
51 of findings using fish to study the neurobiology of aggression.

52 A role for 5-HT in zebrafish aggressive behavior has been suggested by neurochemical
53 studies. After eliciting an aggressive display towards a mirror (mirror-induced aggression, MIA), 5-
54 HT levels were increased in the telencephalon, while 5-HIAA was increased in the optic tectum of
55 zebrafish (Teles, Dahlbom, Winberg, & Oliveira, 2013). Male and female zebrafish respond to
56 agonistic encounters in a similar fashion; nonetheless, males present higher 5-HT turnover in the
57 forebrain in relation to females, suggesting that aggressive bouts could be more stressful to males
58 than females (Dahlbom, Backström, Lundstedt-Enkel, & Winberg, 2012). Filby et al.
59 (2010) demonstrated that dominant males show an overexpression of genes associated with the
60 serotonergic system in the hypothalamus, including *tph1b* and *htr1aa*, while females showed
61 overexpression of *tph2*, *htr1aa*, *slc6a4a*, and *mao* in the hypothalamus and *tph1a* and *tph2* in the
62 telencephalon.

63 While these results suggest that aggressive behavior can be linked to differences in the
64 serotonergic system – especially in the context of dominance hierarchies –, a causal relationship is
65 more tenuous. Filby et al. (2010) treated dominant male zebrafish with fluoxetine (3 or 4.5 µg/L),
66 without effects on aggressive behavior in a dyadic encounter; however, a similar concentration (3
67 µg/L) decreased aggressive displays in the MIA (W. H. J. Norton et al., 2011). Using a much higher
68 concentration (5 mg/L), Theodoridi et al. (2017) were able to inhibit attacks and chasing behavior in
69 dominant animals in dyads. The lack of consistency could be due to dosing, behavioral paradigms
70 (e.g., MIA vs. dyadic encounters), or other variables.

71 Recent studies also showed that 5-HT levels are lower in zebrafish with the leopard
72 phenotype than in animals with the longfin phenotype, an alteration that is accompanied by
73 increased monoamine oxidase activity (Maximino, Puty, Oliveira, & Herculano, 2013). These
74 neurochemical differences were accompanied by increased anxiety-like behavior that is rescued by
75 fluoxetine treatment (Maximino, Puty, Oliveira, et al., 2013). Interestingly, in longfin animals
76 fluoxetine *increases* anxiety, and 5-HT levels are negatively correlated with anxiety-like behavior; it
77 is possible that embryological differences in the serotonergic system produce opposite adult
78 phenotypes.

79 These phenotypic differences are exploited in the present work to clarify the role of phasic
80 serotonin on aggressive displays in zebrafish. We hypothesized that the hyposerotonergic phenotype
81 of leopard zebrafish would produce increased aggressive behavior, and that fluoxetine would rescue
82 this phenotype. The experimental evidence produced in the present work contradicted this
83 hypothesis, since longfin were shown to display more aggressive motivation and readiness in the
84 mirror-induced aggression test than leopard zebrafish, and since acute fluoxetine increased
85 aggression in leopard animals and decreased it in longfin zebrafish. This manuscript is a complete
86 report of all the studies performed to test the effect of skin phenotype and fluoxetine on aggressive
87 behavior. We report how we determined our sample size, all data exclusions (if any), all
88 manipulations, and all measures in the study.

89

90 **2. Methods**

91 *2.1. Animals, housing, and baseline characteristics*

92 Outbred populations were used due to their increased genetic variability, decreasing the effects of
93 random genetic drift which could lead to the development of uniquely heritable traits (Parra, Adrian
94 Jr, & Gerlai, 2009; Speedie & Gerlai, 2008). Thus, the animals used in the experiments are expected
95 to better represent the natural populations in the wild. Adult zebrafish from the wildtype strain

96 (longfin and leopard phenotypes) were used in this experiment. Animals were bought from a
97 commercial vendor, and arrived in the laboratory with an approximate age of 3 months (standard
98 length = 13.2 ± 1.4 mm), and were quarantined for two weeks; the experiment begun when animals
99 had an approximate age of 4 months (standard length = 23.0 ± 3.2 mm). Animals were kept in
100 mixed-sex tanks during acclimation, with an approximate ratio of 50 male:50 female. The breeder
101 was licensed for aquaculture under Ibama's (Instituto Brasileiro do Meio Ambiente e dos Recursos
102 Naturais Renováveis) Resolution 95/1993. Animals were group-housed in 40 L tanks, with a
103 maximum density of 25 fish per tank, for at least 2 weeks before experiments begun. Tanks were
104 filled with non-chlorinated water at room temperature (28 °C) and a pH of 7.0-8.0. Lighting was
105 provided by fluorescent lamps in a cycle of 14-10 hours (LD), according to standards of care for
106 zebrafish (Lawrence, 2007). Water quality parameters were as follows: pH 7.0-8.0; hardness 100-
107 150 mg/L CaCO_3 ; dissolved oxygen 7.5-8.0 mg/L; ammonia and nitrite < 0.001 ppm. All
108 manipulations minimized their potential suffering of animals, and followed Brazilian legislation
109 (Conselho Nacional de Controle de Experimentação Animal - CONCEA, 2017). Animals were used
110 for only one experiment and in a single behavioral test, to reduce interference from apparatus
111 exposure.

112

113 2.2. *Mirror-induced aggression*

114 The protocol for mirror-induced aggression was adapted from Norton et al. (2011). Animals were
115 individually transferred to a tank (15 x 10 x 30 cm) containing 1 L of holding tank water. The tank
116 was lit from above with white light (445 ± 56 lumens). Animals were allowed to acclimate to the
117 tank for 5 min; after that, a mirror was positioned on the outside of the tank (on the narrower side),
118 in an angle of 22.5°. All steps of the experiment were executed under constant Gaussian white noise
119 (55 ± 2.5 dB above the tank). Behavior was recorded with a digital video camera (Samsung ES68)
120 positioned in the wider side of the tank, and analyzed by observers blind to treatment using the

121 event-recording software X-Plo-Rat (<https://github.com/lanec-unifesspa/x-plo-rat>). The following
122 endpoints were analyzed: time in the square nearest to the mirror (s); frequency (N) and duration (s)
123 of aggressive display; total number of squares crossed (N). Aggressive display was defined as a
124 swimming posture with erect dorsal, caudal, pectoral, and anal fins (Gerlai, Lahav, Guo, &
125 Rosenthal, 2000).

126

127 2.3. Data availability

128 Datasets and scripts for all analyses are available from [https://github.com/lanec-unifesspa/5HT-](https://github.com/lanec-unifesspa/5HT-aggression)
129 [aggression](https://github.com/lanec-unifesspa/5HT-aggression) (doi: 10.5281/zenodo.1006701).

130

131 2.4. Experiment 1

132 **Sample size calculation and groups.** Sample sizes were calculated on results regarding the effects
133 of fluoxetine on total time in broadside display in *Betta splendens*, reported by Lynn et al. (2007);
134 as a result, the closest endpoint (time on display) was chosen as the primary endpoint, and
135 calculations for sample sizes are valid only for that endpoint. Calculations were based on Rosner's
136 (2016) method for comparing two means, and assumed $\alpha = 0.05$ and $\beta = 0.2$ on a two-tailed
137 analysis. Based on these calculations, 15 animals were used in each group in Experiment 1. Animals
138 were derived from the stock population described in section 2.1, and displayed either the longfin
139 (Group LOF) or leopard (Group LEO) phenotypes. Animals were randomly drawn from the tank
140 immediately before testing, and the order with which phenotypes were tested was randomized via
141 generation of random numbers using the randomization tool in <http://www.randomization.com/>.
142 Blinding was not possible, due to the obvious differences in skin phenotype.

143 **Experimental design and statistical analysis.** Animals were allocated to each group according to
144 phenotype. Immediately after being drawn from the tank, animals were individually transported to

145 the experiment room, and left undisturbed for 30 min. After this interval, animals were exposed to
146 the MIA test, described above. Differences between groups were analyzed using Approximative
147 Two-Sample Fisher-Pitman Permutation Tests 10,000 Monte-Carlo re-samplings, using the R
148 package ‘coin’ (Hothorn, Hornik, van de Wiel, & Zeileis, 2006). The data analyst was blinded to
149 phenotype by using coding to reflect treatments in the resulting datasets; after analysis, data was
150 unblinded. Data are presented using individual dot plots combined with boxplots.

151

152 2.5. *Experiment 2*

153 **Sample size calculation and groups.** In the absence of similar experiments in the literature, sample
154 sizes were calculated based on the assumption of fixed effect sizes for both the phenotype and the
155 dose factors, with a projected effect size of 0.4; calculations were made using the R package ‘pwr2’
156 (Lu, Liu, & Koestler, 2017). Based on these calculations, 10 animals were used in each group in
157 Experiment 1. Animals were derived from the stock population described in section 2.1, and
158 displayed either the longfin (Group LOF) or leopard (Group LEO) phenotypes. Animals were
159 randomly drawn from the tank immediately before testing, and the order with which phenotypes
160 were tested was randomized *via* generation of random numbers using the randomization tool in
161 <http://www.randomization.com/>. Blinding for phenotype was not possible, due to the obvious
162 differences in skin phenotype. Animals from each phenotype were randomly allocated to treatment
163 (vehicle or either fluoxetine dose) *via* generation of random numbers using the randomization tool
164 in <http://www.randomization.com/>.

165 **Drug treatments.** Fluoxetine (FLX) was bought from EMS, dissolved in Cortland’s salt solution
166 (Wolf, 1963), and injected injected intraperitoneally in cold-anesthetised animals (Kinkel, Eames,
167 Philipson, & Prince, 2010). FLX doses (2.5 and 5.0 mg/kg) were based on the demonstration of
168 effect on the light/dark test on longfin (Maximino, Puty, Benzecry, et al., 2013) and leopard

169 (Maximino, Puty, Oliveira, et al., 2013) zebrafish. Experimenters were blinded to treatment by
170 coding drug vials.

171 **Experimental design and statistical analysis.** Animals were allocated to each group according to
172 phenotype. Immediately after being drawn from the tank, animals were individually transported to
173 the experiment room, injected with vehicle or drug, and left undisturbed for 30 min. After this
174 interval, animals were exposed to the MIA test, described above. Differences between groups were
175 analyzed using two-way analyses of variance with robust estimators on Huber's M-estimators,
176 using the R package 'rcompanion' (Mangiafico, 2017). P-values were adjusted for the false
177 discovery rate. The data analyst was blinded to phenotype by using coding to reflect treatments in
178 the resulting datasets; after analysis, data was unblinded. Data are presented using individual dot
179 plots combined with boxplots.

180

181 **3. Results**

182 *3.1 Experiment 1*

183 LEO zebrafish showed longer latencies to display than LOF animals ($Z = 3.3925$, $p = 0.0005$;
184 Figure 1A), as well as shorter display durations ($Z = -2.5659$, $p = < 2.2e-16$; Figure 1B) and
185 frequency ($Z = -2.7073$, $p = 0.003$; Figure 1C), and time spent near the mirror ($Z = -3.2284$, $p = <$
186 $2.2e-16$; Figure 1D). No differences were found in total locomotion ($Z = -0.69887$, $p = 0.4965$;
187 Figure 1E).

188

189 *3.2. Experiment 2*

190 No main effects of phenotype ($p = 0.5736$) or FLX dose ($p = 0.5044$) were found for latency, but a
191 significant interaction was found ($p = 0.0412$); nonetheless, post-hoc tests did not detect any

192 differences between groups (Figure 2A). Main effects of phenotype ($p = 0.0132$) and FLX dose ($p =$
193 0.0062), as well as an interaction effect ($p = 0.009$), were found for display duration (Figure 2B).
194 Post-hoc tests suggested that FLX (2.5 mg/kg) decreased display duration on LOF, but not LEO (p
195 $= 0.032$ vs. 0 mg/kg). Similarly, main effects of phenotype ($p = 0.0458$) and FLX dose ($p = 0.004$),
196 as well as an interaction effect ($p < 0.0001$), were found for display frequency (Figure 2C); post-hoc
197 tests suggested that FLX (5 mg/kg) increased display frequency in LEO, but not LOF animals ($p =$
198 0.004 vs. 0 mg/kg). No main effects of phenotype ($p = 0.2692$) were found for time near mirror, but
199 a main effect of FLX dose ($p = 0.0004$) and an interaction effect ($p < 0.0001$); post-hoc tests
200 suggested a inverted-U-shaped curve for FLX-treated LOF (0 vs. 2.5 mg/kg: $p = 0.0012$; 0 vs. 5.0
201 mg/kg: $p = 0.0167$), while a monotonic increase for FLX-treated LEO (0 vs. 2.5 mg/kg: $p = 0.0496$;
202 0 vs. 5.0 mg/kg: $p < 0.0001$) (Figure 2D). No main or interaction effects were found for total
203 locomotion (Figure 2E).

204

205 4. Discussion

206 The present work demonstrated that zebrafish with the leopard skin phenotype show less aggressive
207 readiness and less aggression in relation to longfin animals. Moreover, a different pattern of
208 fluoxetine effects was observed, with fluoxetine decreasing aggressive display (but not readiness) in
209 longfin animals and increasing it in leopard animals. Evidence for dose-dependence was also
210 observed.

211 Serotonin (5-HT) has long been implicated in the neurobiological mechanisms of aggressive
212 behavior (Miczek et al., 2007; Summers & Winberg, 2006; Takahashi et al., 2011). In a metanalysis
213 of preclinical studies, Carrillo et al. (2009) demonstrated that, across species, pharmacologically
214 increasing 5-HT levels inhibit aggression. Interestingly, in their metanalysis a species-specific effect
215 was found in fish, with 5-HT decreasing aggression in wrasses and trouts, but not in the Siamese

216 fighting fish (Carrillo et al., 2009). The present study examined only aggressive displays, which was
217 elicited in the mirror-induced aggression test; as a result, dominance hierarchies were not induced.
218 Similar results were observed by Norton et al. (2011), which observed reduced aggressive displays
219 in zebrafish treated with fluoxetine. When zebrafish are allowed to form dominance hierarchies,
220 fluoxetine either produces no effect (Filby et al., 2010) or reduces aggression in dominant males,
221 but not in subordinates (Theodoridi et al., 2017).

222 Behavioral differences between leopard and longfin phenotypes were observed in zebrafish before
223 (Canzian, Fontana, Quadros, & Rosemberg, 2017; Maximino, Puty, Oliveira, et al., 2013; Quadros
224 et al., 2016; <https://doi.org/10.1101/055657>). Of special relevance is the observation that leopard
225 zebrafish present increased brain monoamine oxidase (MAO) activity that is associated with lower
226 serotonin levels and higher turnover of 5-HT in the brain (Maximino, Puty, Oliveira, et al., 2013).
227 This hyposerotonergic profile was also associated with increased anxiety-like behavior that was
228 rescued by fluoxetine treatment (Maximino, Puty, Oliveira, et al., 2013).

229 The results from the Carrillo et al. (2009) metanalysis suggested a inhibitory role for phasic
230 serotonin (i.e., 5-HT released by either the aggressive act itself, or by pharmacological
231 manipulations such as fluoxetine); a role for tonic 5-HT, in *Betta splendens*, was discarded, because
232 neither the 5-HT synthesis inhibitor para-chlorophenylalanine nor the 5-HT precursor L-tryptophan
233 changed display behavior (Clotfelter, O'Hare, McNitt, Carpenter, & Summers, 2007). If that was
234 also true for zebrafish, differences in aggressive display between leopard and longfin would not be
235 expected, given that these phenotypes differ in serotonergic tone (Maximino, Puty, Oliveira, et al.,
236 2013). While these differences were observed in the present work, they occur in the opposite
237 direction from what would be predicted from 5-HTergic tone alone (i.e., we should expect leopard
238 zebrafish to be more aggressive). It is possible that a developmental effect is responsible for these
239 discrepancies.

240 These results are also reminiscent of what is observed in different populations of *Astyanax*
241 *mexicanus*. In that species, different populations occupy different niches, and surface-dwelling
242 populations are much more aggressive than cave-dwelling populations (Rétaux & Elipot, 2013).
243 These differences are related to the density of serotonergic neurons in the hypothalamus, with
244 cavefish showing a higher number of 5-HT neurons in that region (Elipot, Hinaux, Callebert, &
245 Rétaux, 2013). Moreover, a mutation in the *mao* gene was found in cavefish that led to an
246 hyperserotonergic phenotype (Elipot et al., 2014). Treating surface fish with fluoxetine decreases
247 aggression, while in cavefish the drug slightly increases it (Elipot et al., 2013). In the present paper,
248 however, treatment with fluoxetine increased aggression in leopard animals (which show an
249 hyposerotonergic profile in relation to longfin animals; Maximino, Puty, Oliveira, et al., 2013) and
250 decreased it in longfin zebrafish. These differences might be due to the origin of serotonin, since, in
251 *Astyanax mexicanus* populations, raphe 5-HT levels are unchanged, while hypothalamic 5-HT is
252 increased (Elipot et al., 2013); further experiments are needed to untangle this hypothesis.

253 In conclusion, the present experiments revealed differences in aggressive behavior between leopard
254 and longfin zebrafish, and a discrepant effect of fluoxetine on both populations. These results are
255 relevant to understand the role of tonic and phasic serotonin neurotransmission on aggressive
256 behavior in preclinical models, and might contribute to a better appreciation of the complex roles of
257 this monoamine in controlling vertebrate aggression.

258

259 Acknowledgments

260 Data packages and statistical analysis scripts for this article can be found at
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262

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359 Figure captions

360 **Figure 1** – Phenotype differences in (A) latency to display, in s; (B) display duration, in s; (C),
361 display frequency; (D), time spent near the mirror, in s; and (E), total locomotion. Boxplots
362 represent median and interquartile range, with Tukey whiskers.

363

364 **Figure 2** – Effects of fluoxetine on the aggressive display of longfin (LOF, blue) and leopard (LEO,
365 coral) zebrafish. (A) latency to display, in s; (B) display duration, in s; (C), display frequency; (D),
366 time spent near the mirror, in s; and (E), total locomotion. Boxplots represent median and
367 interquartile range, with Tukey whiskers. Dots joined by lines represent means.



