

Effects of chronic prazosin, an alpha-1 adrenergic antagonist, on anxiety-like behavior and cortisol levels in a chronic unpredictable stress model in zebrafish (*Danio rerio*)

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Post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) is often associated with significant neuroendocrine dysfunction and a variety of other symptoms. Today, there are limited efficacious treatment options for PTSD, none of which directly target the dysfunction observed with the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis. The development of new pharmacological treatments is expensive and time consuming; thus, there is utility in repurposing compounds already approved for use in other conditions. One medication in particular that has shown promise for the alleviation of PTSD symptoms is prazosin, an alpha-1 adrenergic receptor antagonist used to treat hypertension. While there have been many studies indicating the efficacy of prazosin in the treatment of PTSD symptoms, no studies fully elucidate mechanisms elicited by this treatment, nor is it clear if prazosin normalizes neuroendocrine dysfunction associated with trauma exposure. The use of zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) has been growing in popularity, in part, due to the homology of the stress response system with mammals. In this study, the zebrafish model was utilized to determine behavioral and biological changes induced by chronic unpredictable stress (CUS) and how these effects could be modulated by chronic prazosin treatment. The results indicated that CUS alters anxiety-like behavior in the novel tank test and alters basal levels of cortisol. Chronic prazosin treatment decreased anxiety-like behaviors overall but did not appear to alter CUS-induced changes in behavior and basal cortisol levels. This suggests that the clinical effectiveness of prazosin may not normalize dysregulated stress responses prevalent in many patients with PTSD but that prazosin-induced relief from anxiety in stress-related conditions may involve an alternative mechanism other than by normalizing neuroendocrine dysfunction associated with stress-related conditions.

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Abstract

24 Post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) is often associated with significant neuroendocrine
25 dysfunction and a variety of other symptoms. Today, there are limited efficacious treatment
26 options for PTSD, none of which directly target the dysfunction observed with the hypothalamic-
27 pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis. The development of new pharmacological treatments is expensive
28 and time consuming; thus, there is utility in repurposing compounds already approved for use in
29 other conditions. One medication in particular that has shown promise for the alleviation of
30 PTSD symptoms is prazosin, an alpha-1 adrenergic receptor antagonist used to treat
31 hypertension. While there have been many studies indicating the efficacy of prazosin in the
32 treatment of PTSD symptoms, no studies fully elucidate mechanisms elicited by this treatment,
33 nor is it clear if prazosin normalizes neuroendocrine dysfunction associated with trauma
34 exposure. The use of zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) has been growing in popularity, in part, due to the
35 homology of the stress response system with mammals. In this study, the zebrafish model was
36 utilized to determine behavioral and biological changes induced by chronic unpredictable stress
37 (CUS) and how these effects could be modulated by chronic prazosin treatment. The results
38 indicated that CUS alters anxiety-like behavior in the novel tank test and alters basal levels of
39 cortisol. Chronic prazosin treatment decreased anxiety-like behaviors overall but did not appear
40 to alter CUS-induced changes in behavior and basal cortisol levels. This suggests that the clinical
41 effectiveness of prazosin may not normalize dysregulated stress responses prevalent in many
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44 associated with stress-related conditions.

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Introduction

47 Post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) is a disorder that inhibits day-to-day functionality
48 due to a plethora of disrupting symptoms, including flashbacks, vivid nightmares, mood
49 alterations, and hypervigilance (Bisson, Cosgrove, Lewis, & Robert, 2015). The lifetime
50 prevalence of PTSD is estimated to be around 6.8% in the United States adult population
51 (Harvard Medical School, 2007). Current evidence-based treatment plans for PTSD include
52 cognitive behavioral therapy and pharmacological options, mainly serotonin reuptake inhibitors
53 (Lancaster, Teeters, Gros, & Back, 2016); however, many cases are resilient to or respond
54 ineffectively to first-line treatments (Foa, Keane, Friedman, & Cohen, 2009; Schnyder, 2005). It
55 appears that there is a growing trend of prescribing benzodiazepines for the management of
56 PTSD symptoms, at least in U.S. active duty service members (Loeffler, Coller, Tracy, &
57 Derderian, 2018); however, this practice is associated with concerning outcomes, such as
58 increased suicide risk (Deka et al., 2018). In addition, it is well known that chronic use of
59 benzodiazepines is associated with physiological dependence and subsequent withdrawal
60 symptoms upon treatment discontinuation (Pétursson, 1994).

61 Due to the resilience of treatment and concerning growth in use of sedative prescription
62 medications, the need for novel treatments for PTSD has become apparent. Because of the
63 exorbitant cost of effective novel drug synthesis and testing, there has been growing interest in
64 the repurposing of compounds already approved by the Food and Drug Administration in the
65 treatment of other conditions (Papapetropoulos & Szabo, 2018). Prazosin, an alpha-1 adrenergic
66 receptor antagonist originally utilized in the treatment of hypertension, has been shown to
67 alleviate clinical symptoms of PTSD (Ahmadpanah et al., 2014; De Berardis et al., 2015; Green,
68 2014; Koola, Varghese, & Fawcett, 2014; Simon & Rousseau, 2017; B. Singh, Hughes, Mehta,

69 Erwin, & Parsaik, 2016; Writer, Meyer, & Schillerstrom, 2014). However, there have been few
70 investigations into the mechanisms behind the clinical efficacy of this compound, particularly
71 involving physiological symptoms associated with chronic stress exposure.

72 The physiological stress response in mammals is largely controlled by the hypothalamic-
73 pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis. The HPA axis acts in a negative feedback loop, wherein the
74 hypothalamus signals the pituitary gland via corticotropin-releasing hormone (CRH) to stimulate
75 the release of adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH) into the bloodstream. ACTH then acts
76 peripherally to stimulate the release of glucocorticoids (e.g., cortisol, corticosterone) from the
77 adrenal glands to mobilize the body's resources to deal with a stressor. Then, cortisol binds to
78 glucocorticoid receptors in the hypothalamus, pituitary gland, and other upstream brain
79 structures to attenuate the stress response. Studies indicate that the HPA axis is dysregulated in
80 patients with PTSD (Mason, Giller, Kosten, Ostroff, & Podd, 1986; Pervanidou & Chrousos,
81 2010; Wichmann, Kirschbaum, Böhme, & Petrowski, 2017; Yehuda et al., 1990). Prazosin has
82 the potential to alleviate or normalize stress responses in patients with neuroendocrine
83 dysfunction via blocking the upstream noradrenergic regulation of the HPA axis via alpha-1
84 receptors. There is evidence that prazosin helps to normalize HPA dysfunction in subjects in the
85 early stages of alcohol withdrawal (Fox et al., 2012); however, it is unknown if prazosin would
86 similarly alleviate HPA dysfunction associated with chronic stress exposure. Furthermore, the
87 exact direction of chronic stress-induced dysregulation (i.e., upregulation or downregulation) is
88 complex and likely dependent on a number of factors, such as biological sex and early life stress
89 exposure (Dunlop & Wong, 2019). Thus, a more complete understanding of individual factors
90 affecting stress-induced alterations in HPA functioning can be examined with animal models.

91 The stress response is heavily conserved amongst vertebrates. The zebrafish (*Danio*
92 *rerio*) has been asserted as a viable model for stress related research because of the similarities in
93 the physiological stress response (Clark, Boczek, & Ekker, 2011). The hypothalamic-pituitary-
94 interrenal (HPI) axis is considered to be the zebrafish analogue to the mammalian HPA axis
95 (Nesan & Vijayan, 2013; Wendelaar Bonga, 1997). In addition, zebrafish have been growing in
96 popularity for translational research due to genetic and physiological similarities to mammals in
97 stress and anxiety-like behavioral responses (Caramillo, Khan, Collier, & Echevarria, 2015).
98 Zebrafish exposed to chronic unpredictable stress (CUS) models some aspects of behavioral
99 disorders that affect humans, such as major depressive disorder (Fulcher, Tran, Shams,
100 Chatterjee, & Gerlai, 2017) and PTSD (Caramillo et al., 2015; Stewart, Yang, Nguyen, &
101 Kalueff, 2014). The stressors that are utilized in the CUS zebrafish model vary in intensity,
102 duration of stress, and type of stress and include mechanical, chemical, and temperature changes.
103 The stressors are randomized and are administered at different times. Several studies have
104 indicated that CUS modeling in zebrafish elicits anxiety-like behaviors in a variety of testing
105 paradigms (Chakravarty et al., 2013; Fulcher et al., 2017; Marcon et al., 2016, 2018; Piato et al.,
106 2011; Song et al., 2018). CUS also increases whole-body cortisol levels (Manuel et al., 2014;
107 Marcon et al., 2016, 2018; Piato et al., 2011; Song et al., 2018), although in one report, CUS was
108 shown to increase basal cortisol levels only in male fish but did not significantly alter basal
109 cortisol levels in female fish (Rambo et al., 2017). Thus, the CUS model in zebrafish could be
110 used to examine the efficacy of repurposed compounds and clarify the mechanisms by which
111 these compounds could alleviate physiological dysfunction associated with stress-related
112 conditions.

113 The current study utilized the seven-day chronic unpredictable stress (CUS) model as
114 reported in the literature (Manuel et al., 2014; Marcon et al., 2016, 2018; Piato et al., 2011;
115 Rambo et al., 2017) to replicate the effects of the protocol on anxiety-like behavior and basal
116 cortisol levels. Then, in another experiment, chronic treatment with either prazosin or vehicle
117 followed a week of CUS to examine whether prazosin would alter any CUS-induced changes in
118 hormones or behavior. It was hypothesized that CUS would increase basal levels of cortisol and
119 elicit increases in anxiety-like behavior, as evidenced by decreased exploratory behavior in the
120 novel tank test. It was also expected that chronic prazosin treatment would normalize both
121 neuroendocrine and behavioral alterations observed after CUS exposure. The results from the
122 current study could provide evidence for the mechanism of prazosin's clinical efficacy and
123 suggest that it may be a viable treatment option for individuals with HPA dysfunction associated
124 with stress-related conditions, such as PTSD.

125

126

Methods and Materials

127 *Animals and housing*

128 Wild-type, adult mixed-sex zebrafish (total N = 122) were purchased from Carolina
129 Biological Supply (Burlington, NC). Upon delivery, zebrafish were allowed to acclimate to the
130 facility for at least one week before any experimental procedures were initiated. Zebrafish were
131 housed in a stocking density of 5-7 fish per liter in 1.8L tanks and maintained in a two-shelf,
132 stand-alone zebrafish housing rack purchased from Aquaneering (San Diego, CA) on a 14h:10h
133 light:dark cycle at $26 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$. Fish were fed once per day with flake food and once per day with
134 dried shrimp ground to a powder with a mortar and pestle. All procedures were carried out by

135 following established recommendations (Harper & Lawrence, 2016; National Research Council,
136 2011; Westerfield, 2000).

137 *Drugs and materials*

138 Prazosin hydrochloride was manufactured by TCI America and purchased from VWR
139 International (Radnor, PA). N-N-dimethylacetamide was manufactured by Frontier Scientific
140 and purchased from Fisher Scientific (Hampton, NH).

141 *Experiment 1: Chronic unpredictable stress on anxiety-like behavior and basal cortisol levels*

142 Upon arrival to the facility, fifty zebrafish were randomly allocated into four separate
143 housing tanks. Two tanks of fish were randomly selected and subsequently exposed to the
144 chronic unpredictable stress model for seven days and the other two tanks of fish served as
145 untreated, unhandled controls. On the day after the completion of the chronic stress paradigm,
146 fish from both control and stressed groups were placed in the novel tank test one at a time to
147 assess anxiety-like behavior. Fish were subsequently euthanized and decapitated to assess basal
148 levels of trunk cortisol. At the end of the experiment, N = 25 were exposed to chronic
149 unpredictable stress and N = 25 were untreated for 7 days.

150 *Experiment 2: Chronic unpredictable stress and chronic prazosin treatment on anxiety-like 151 behavior and basal cortisol levels*

152 Upon arrival to the facility, seventy-two zebrafish were randomly allocated into eight
153 separate housing tanks. After acclimation to the facility, four tanks of fish were randomly
154 selected and subsequently exposed to the chronic unpredictable stress model for seven days and
155 the other four tanks of fish were unhandled for seven days. Then, two tanks of the stressed fish
156 and two tanks of the unhandled fish were treated with prazosin for 30 minutes per day for seven
157 days. The other four tanks were handled and exposed to vehicle treatment for 30 minutes per day

158 for seven days. On the day after the completion of the chronic stress paradigm, fish from both
159 control and stressed groups were placed in the novel tank test one at a time to assess anxiety-like
160 behavior. Fish were subsequently euthanized and decapitated to assess basal levels of trunk
161 cortisol. A total of three fish died during the course of the procedures (N = 2 from the
162 unstressed/vehicle-treated group and N = 1 from the stressed/vehicle-treated group). At the end
163 of the experiment, N = 18 were exposed to 7d chronic unpredictable stress and chronic (7d)
164 prazosin, N = 17 were exposed to 7d chronic unpredictable stress and 7d vehicle, N = 18 were
165 untreated for 7 days and then exposed to chronic (7d) prazosin, and N = 16 were untreated for 7
166 days and then exposed to vehicle for 7 days.

167 *Chronic unpredictable stress (CUS) model*

168 The chronic unpredictable stress (CUS) model was adapted from previously published
169 procedures (Marcon et al., 2016, 2018; Piato et al., 2011; Rambo et al., 2017). Seven different
170 types of stressors were ordered at random. Fish in the stressed group were exposed to two
171 stressors per day for seven days at random times between 9 a.m. and 4 p.m. (see Table 1 for
172 schedule). The stressors included (1) tank changes (three times) in rapid succession, (2) cooling
173 home tank water abruptly to 23°C and maintaining that temperature for 30 minutes before
174 placing tank back on the system, (3) heating home tank water abruptly to 33°C and maintaining
175 that temperature for 30 minutes before placing tank back on the system, (4) lowered water (1 cm
176 depth for 15 minutes), (5) net chasing in home tank (8 minutes chase, 15 minute rest, 8 minute
177 chase), (6) crowding all fish from one home tank in 200 ml system water in a 250 ml beaker for
178 60 minutes, and (7) social isolation (individual fish were placed in 200 ml system water in 250
179 ml beakers separated by opaque dividers). Control fish were left unhandled and were not
180 removed from the system for 7 days.

181 *Drug treatment*

182 Fish undergoing chronic administration of prazosin were gently netted from the home
183 tank and individually placed into a 100 mL beaker containing 2 mg prazosin dissolved in 100
184 microliters of N,N-dimethylacetamide and 50 mL of system water for 30 minutes (A. Singh,
185 Subhashini, Sharma, & Mallick, 2013). This dose was chosen due to the observed anxiolytic
186 behavior in the light-dark test displayed by the fish acutely exposed to prazosin (A. Singh et al.,
187 2013). In the current experiment, the drug exposure was repeated once daily for seven days.
188 Subjects in the control group were subjected to similar handling and conditions although only
189 exposed to the vehicle (100 microliters of N,N-dimethylacetamide in 50 mL system water in a
190 100 mL beaker for 30 minutes per day). All fish were returned to their respective home tanks
191 after the treatment and placed back on the system between daily treatment sessions.

192 *Novel tank test (NTT)*

193 On the day of the experiment (the day after the last episode of chronic stress for fish in
194 Experiment 1 and the day after the last drug treatment for fish in Experiment 2), home tanks
195 were removed from the system and moved into the experiment room adjacent to the housing
196 facility and left for fish to acclimate for at least 30 minutes. Fish were individually netted and
197 placed into a trapezoidal novel tank, the same size and dimensions as the home tanks (15.2 cm
198 height \times 27.9 cm top \times 22.5 cm bottom \times 7.1 cm width), for six minutes. The behavior of each
199 fish was recorded and subsequently analyzed with motion-tracking software (BehaviorCloud,
200 San Diego, CA). Total distance traveled (cm) and mean ambulatory speed (cm/sec) were
201 measured as markers of general motor activity. Immobility duration (sec), the number of entries
202 to the top of tank, time spent in top (sec), and distance traveled in the top (cm) and were used as

203 markers of anxiety-like behavior. Behavioral data collection and euthanasia of the subjects
204 occurred between 9:30 a.m. and 2:30 p.m.

205 *Euthanasia*

206 After the novel tank test, fish were netted from the novel tank and placed individually in
207 a 50 mL beaker with approximately 30 mL 0.1% (100 mg/L) clove oil in system water. Death
208 was determined upon visual examination for cessation of opercular (gill) movement and
209 nonresponse to tactile stimulation (Davis et al., 2015). The fish were then decapitated. The trunk
210 samples were frozen in individual 1.5 ml tubes and stored at -20°C for cortisol analysis.

211 *Cortisol extraction and assay*

212 The cortisol extraction and assay was done by slightly modifying previously published
213 procedures (Cachat et al., 2010; Canavello et al., 2011). In brief, trunk samples were thawed and
214 weighed, and subsequently homogenized with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). Diethyl ether
215 was added to the homogenates and centrifuged. The ether layer containing cortisol was isolated
216 in a separate tube. The addition of ether, centrifugation, and ether isolation was repeated for a
217 total of three times, collecting all three ether layers in one tube for each sample. The ether was
218 then dried under a light stream of air until only a yellow oil containing the cortisol remained in
219 each tube. The oil in each tube was reconstituted with PBS and refrigerated overnight (4°C).
220 Cortisol was quantified via an enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) as per the
221 manufacturer's instructions (Salimetrics, State College, PA).

222 *Data analysis*

223 Upon selection from the home tank on the day of the experiment, each fish was given a
224 sample number. Behavioral and cortisol analyses were conducted; sample numbers were then
225 matched with the treatment(s) and analyzed by group. Data are presented as the means and

226 standard errors of the mean (SEM) for each group. Raw data (see supplemental file 1) was
227 processed using JASP software (University of Amsterdam, Amsterdam, The Netherlands,
228 <https://jasp-stats.org/>). For Experiment 1, overall (6 minute) behavioral variables, cortisol, and
229 trunk weights were compared by independent sample t-tests (with stress condition as the
230 independent variable) and one-minute bin data for behavioral variables were compared by
231 repeated-measures ANOVA. For Experiment 2, overall (6 minute) behavioral variables, cortisol,
232 and trunk weights were compared by two-way ANOVA analyses (with stress condition and drug
233 treatment as the independent variables) and one-minute bin data for behavioral variables were
234 compared by repeated-measures ANOVA. Tukey post-hoc analyses were conducted when
235 appropriate and Greenhouse-Geisser sphericity correction was made if Mauchly's test of
236 sphericity indicated a violation of the sphericity assumption for the repeated-measures ANOVA
237 tests. A significance level of $p < 0.05$ was used as the criterion for results to reach statistical
238 significance.

239

240

Results

241 *Experiment 1: Effects of seven days of chronic unpredictable stress (CUS) treatment on*
242 *behavioral measures in the novel tank test (NTT), basal levels of cortisol, and body weights in*
243 *zebrafish.*

244 **Motor activity in the novel tank test**

245 A t-test for independent means indicated no significant effect of chronic unpredictable
246 stress on either the total distance traveled ($t(48) = 1.274$, $p = 0.209$) or mean ambulatory speed
247 ($t(48) = 1.077$, $p = 0.287$) for the entire 6 minutes of the novel tank test (Table 2). When the total
248 distance data was broken down into six 60-second bins (Figure 1A) and analyzed with a

249 repeated-measures ANOVA, there was no effect of stress ($F(1,48) = 1.551, p = 0.219$), a
250 significant effect of time ($F(3.877,186.085) = 7.403, p < 0.001$), but no interaction between stress
251 and time ($F(3.877,186.085) = 0.452, p = 0.765$). For the mean ambulatory speed (Figure 1B),
252 again, there was no effect of stress ($F(1,48) = 0.934, p = 0.339$), a significant effect of time
253 ($F(4.077,195.709) = 16.657, p < 0.001$), but no interaction between stress and time
254 ($F(4.077,195.709) = 1.006, p = 0.406$). These results show that the fish appeared to habituate
255 after introduction to the novel tank, as the total distance per minute and mean ambulatory speed
256 gradually increased across the duration of the novel tank test, but there was no effect of treatment
257 on these measures.

258 **Freezing behavior in the novel tank test**

259 A t-test for independent means indicated no significant effect of chronic unpredictable
260 stress on the total immobility time ($t(48) = 0.544, p = 0.589$) in the novel tank test (Table 2).
261 When the immobility data was broken down into six 60-second bins (Figure 2) and analyzed
262 with a repeated-measures ANOVA, there was no effect of stress ($F(1,48) = 0.359, p = 0.552$), no
263 effect of time ($F(2.191,105.178) = 1.359, p = 0.262$), and no interaction between stress and time
264 ($F(2.191,105.178) = 1.114, p = 0.336$). Thus, neither time nor treatment significantly altered
265 freezing behavior across the six minutes of the novel tank test.

266 **Exploratory behavior in the novel tank test**

267 A t-test for independent means indicated a marginally significant effect of chronic
268 unpredictable stress for the number of entries to the top zone ($t(48) = -1.920, p = 0.061$; CUS <
269 untreated), a significant effect on the total time spent in the top zone ($t(48) = -2.129, p = 0.038$;
270 CUS < untreated), but no significant difference in the distance traveled in the top zone ($t(48) = -$
271 $1.309, p = 0.197$; Table 2). When the number of entries to the top zone was broken down into six

272 60-second bins (Figure 3A) and analyzed with a repeated-measures ANOVA, there was a
273 marginal effect of stress ($F(1,48) = 3.454, p = 0.069$), a significant effect of time
274 ($F(3.855,185.031) = 6.701, p < 0.001$), but no interaction between stress and time
275 ($F(3.855,185.031) = 0.935, p = 0.442$). For the time spent in the top zone (Figure 3B), there was
276 a significant effect of stress ($F(1,48) = 4.530, p = 0.038$), a significant effect of time
277 ($F(3.540,169.936) = 13.317, p < 0.001$), but no interaction between stress and time
278 ($F(3.540,169.936) = 1.318, p = 0.268$). For the distance traveled in the top zone (Figure 3C),
279 there was no effect of stress ($F(1,48) = 1.635, p = 0.207$), a significant effect of time
280 ($F(3.631,174.291) = 12.430, p < 0.001$), but no interaction between stress and time
281 ($F(3.631,174.291) = 1.408, p = 0.237$). Similar to the motor measures, the fish appeared to
282 habituate and explore more of the top zone of the novel tank over time, but the fish that were
283 chronically stressed generally explored the top zone less than the fish that were left untreated for
284 seven days.

285 **Trunk cortisol**

286 A t-test for independent means indicated that fish exposed to seven days of chronic
287 unpredictable stress (CUS) had decreased basal levels of trunk cortisol compared to untreated
288 control fish ($t(48) = -3.130, p = 0.003$; Figure 4A). This finding suggests that seven days of
289 chronic unpredictable stress decreases basal levels of cortisol in zebrafish compared to fish that
290 were untreated.

291 **Trunk weights**

292 A t-test for independent means indicated that fish exposed to 7 days of chronic
293 unpredictable stress (CUS) had similar trunk weights as fish that were left untreated for 7 days
294 ($t(48) = -1.111, p = 0.272$; Figure 4B). This finding suggests that 7 days of chronic unpredictable

295 stress does not appear to alter factors involved with body weight regulation, such as feeding, in
296 zebrafish.

297 *Experiment 2: Effects of seven days of chronic unpredictable stress (CUS) treatment and seven*
298 *days of prazosin treatment on behavioral measures in the novel tank test (NTT), basal levels of*
299 *cortisol, and body weights in zebrafish.*

300 **Motor activity in the novel tank test**

301 A two-way ANOVA indicated that there was no effect of stress ($F(1,65) = 0.358$, $p =$
302 0.552), no effect of drug treatment ($F(1,65) = 0.139$, $p = 0.710$), and no interaction between
303 stress and drug ($F(1,65) = 0.103$, $p = 0.750$) on the total distance traveled in the novel tank test
304 (Table 3). A two-way ANOVA indicated that there was no effect of stress ($F(1,65) = 0.657$, $p =$
305 0.421), no effect of drug treatment ($F(1,65) = 1.186$, $p = 0.280$), and no interaction between
306 stress and drug ($F(1,65) = 0.355$, $p = 0.553$) on the mean ambulatory speed of fish in the novel
307 tank test (Table 3). The total distance and mean ambulatory speed data was also broken down
308 into six 60-second bins and analyzed with a repeated-measures ANOVA (see Table 4 for
309 statistical analyses). These results indicate that, similar to the results from Experiment 1, that fish
310 appear to habituate to the novel tank across the test, but that there is no effect of stress or drug
311 treatment on these measures of motor activity.

312 **Freezing behavior in the novel tank test**

313 A two-way ANOVA indicated that there was a marginal effect of stress ($F(1,65) = 3.050$,
314 $p = 0.085$), a marginal effect of drug treatment ($F(1,65) = 3.050$, $p = 0.085$), but no interaction
315 between stress and drug ($F(1,65) = 2.087$, $p = 0.153$) on total immobility time in the novel tank
316 test (Table 3). The immobility data was also broken down into six 60-second bins and analyzed
317 with a repeated-measures ANOVA (see Table 4 for statistical analyses). These results indicate

318 that immobility generally decreases across the novel tank test, but that there is no strong effect of
319 stress or drug treatment on this behavioral measure.

320 **Exploratory behavior in the novel tank test**

321 A two-way ANOVA indicated that there was a significant effect of stress ($F(1,65) =$
322 $5.939, p = 0.018$), a marginally significant effect of drug treatment ($F(1,65) = 2.903, p = 0.093$),
323 but no interaction between stress and drug ($F(1,65) = 1.404, p = 0.240$) on the number of entries
324 to the top zone (Table 3). A two-way ANOVA indicated that there was no effect of stress
325 ($F(1,65) = 2.769, p = 0.101$), a significant effect of drug treatment ($F(1,65) = 4.061, p = 0.048$),
326 but no interaction between stress and drug ($F(1,65) = 956, p = 0.332$) on the total amount of time
327 spent in the novel tank test (Table 3). A two-way ANOVA indicated that there was a significant
328 effect of stress ($F(1,65) = 4.876, p = 0.031$), no effect of drug treatment ($F(1,65) = 0.745, p =$
329 0.391), but no interaction between stress and drug ($F(1,65) = 1.947, p = 0.168$) on the distance
330 traveled in the top zone of the novel tank (Table 3). The number of entries to the top, time spent
331 in the top zone, and distance traveled in the top zone were also broken down into six 60-second
332 bins and analyzed with a repeated-measures ANOVA (see Table 4 for statistical analyses). These
333 results suggest that allowing additional time (seven days) to elapse between the chronic stress
334 paradigm and testing in the novel tank perhaps reverses the deficits in top zone exploration
335 observed in Experiment 1. In addition, these results suggest that chronic prazosin increases
336 exploration in the novel tank test in the absence of stress, but does not appear to alter any stress-
337 induced effects on top zone exploration in the novel tank when prazosin treatment follows
338 chronic unpredictable stress.

339

340

341 Trunk cortisol

342 A two-way ANOVA indicated that there was no effect of stress ($F(1,65) = 2.511$, $p =$
343 0.118), no effect of drug treatment ($F(1,65) = 0.624$, $p = 0.432$), and no interaction between
344 stress and drug ($F(1,65) = 0.636$, $p = 0.428$) on basal levels of cortisol (Figure 8A). Although
345 these results did not reach statistical significance, the fish subjected to chronic unpredictable
346 stress and subsequently were vehicle-treated had lower levels of cortisol than untreated-vehicle
347 controls, which is similar to the pattern of results observed in Experiment 1. Prazosin treated-fish
348 also had lower levels of basal cortisol compared to unstressed/vehicle-treated fish; however, this
349 finding did not reach statistical significance.

350 Trunk weights

351 A two-way ANOVA indicated that there was no effect of stress ($F(1,65) = 0.057$, $p =$
352 0.811), no effect of drug treatment ($F(1,65) = 0.173$, $p = 0.679$), and no interaction between
353 stress and drug ($F(1,65) = 0.467$, $p = 0.497$) on subject trunk weights (Table 3). Similar to the
354 results from Experiment 1, these results indicate that neither stress treatment nor chronic drug
355 treatment altered factors involved with body weight regulation.

356

357

Discussion

358 The noradrenergic system is critical for the regulation of several functions, including the
359 regulation of stress responses. The locus coeruleus, the major noradrenergic nucleus of the brain,
360 supplies norepinephrine both systemically and directly to regions throughout the brain including
361 the amygdala, hypothalamus, and the medial prefrontal cortex (mPFC), all areas involved with
362 regulating responses to stress. Noradrenergic dysfunction has been hypothesized to be involved
363 with the neuropathology associated with PTSD (Hendrickson & Raskind, 2016; O'Donnell,

364 Hegadoren, & Coupland, 2004; Southwick, Bremner, et al., 1999; Southwick, Paige, et al., 1999;
365 Strawn & Geraciotti, 2008). Dysregulation of the noradrenergic system may ultimately contribute
366 to the alterations in the function of the physiological stress axis observed in patients and animal
367 models. Thus, pharmacological agents that target the norepinephrine regulation of stress
368 responses have the potential to normalize neuroendocrine dysfunction associated with stress-
369 related conditions.

370 The hypothesis of the current study was that the zebrafish model of CUS would increase
371 basal levels of cortisol and increase anxiety-like behavior in the novel tank test, and that chronic
372 prazosin treatment would reverse alterations induced by chronic stress. In support of this
373 hypothesis, CUS increased anxiety-like behavior in the novel tank test; however, this behavioral
374 alteration was associated with significantly lower levels of basal cortisol. In addition, prazosin
375 appeared to decrease levels of anxiety-like behavior in the absence of CUS but did not mitigate
376 any effects of CUS on behavior and hormones.

377 The study design and timing of the assessment of the dependent variables should be
378 considered when interpreting the results of the current study. In the first experiment, behavioral
379 and neuroendocrine measurements were assessed immediately after the seven days of chronic
380 stress. In the second experiment, subjects were exposed to seven days of chronic stress followed
381 by a week of chronic drug treatment administered in the absence of unpredictable stressors. It is
382 possible that any stress-induced effects may have started to return to baseline during the week of
383 drug treatment; thus, any stress-induced effects may have been blunted by the time the
384 measurements were assessed. For example, in Experiment 1, fish that were exposed to CUS had
385 lower levels of basal cortisol compared to unstressed fish. In Experiment 2, fish that were
386 chronically stressed but subsequently treated with vehicle for seven days still had lower basal

387 cortisol levels than non-stressed, vehicle treated subjects; however, this difference did not reach
388 the criterion for statistical significance (see Figure 8A). Alternatively, in Experiment 2, the
389 additional week of handling necessary to administer the drug/vehicle treatment may have
390 triggered adaptive mechanisms in animals previously exposed to the CUS paradigm, which
391 resulted in elevated exploratory behavior in the novel tank test compared to non-handled,
392 vehicle-treated controls (see Figure 7). Future studies should address whether chronic prazosin
393 treatment administered during the same period as the stressors would circumvent any possible
394 effects of allowing previously stressed animals to adapt back to non-stressed conditions. For
395 example, in a previous study, zebrafish were exposed to chronic unpredictable stress for five
396 weeks but treated them with the antidepressant fluoxetine during the last 8 days of the stressor
397 paradigm (Song et al., 2018). Another study suggested that prazosin treatment functions to
398 generally prevent reactions to stress (Rasmussen, Kincaid, & Froehlich, 2017); thus, further
399 studies should determine whether preventative prazosin treatment is effective at mitigating any
400 chronic or acute stress effects on anxiety-like behavior or neuroendocrine dysfunction. In the
401 current report, prazosin treatment alone appeared to enhance exploratory behavior in the novel
402 tank test but did not affect alterations in anxiety-like behavior associated with CUS exposure. In
403 addition, prazosin-treated groups had lower levels of cortisol than non-stressed, vehicle-treated
404 subjects, although this decrease did not reach statistical significance. These data together suggest
405 that prazosin may be clinically efficacious not by normalizing the effects of trauma or stress, but
406 by preventing any responses to further triggering stimuli that may elicit PTSD symptomology.

407 It is also interesting to note that, although it was expected that seven days of CUS
408 treatment would elicit increases in basal cortisol levels based on previously published reports
409 (Manuel et al., 2014; Marcon et al., 2016, 2018; Piato et al., 2011), the results from the first

410 experiment indicate that the CUS protocol can elicit hypocortisolic responses. There are several
411 factors that could explain the different results between laboratories, such as the source, strain,
412 previous stress exposure, or age of the subjects. For example, one previous report indicated that
413 there are possible sex-specific differences in basal cortisol levels after exposure to chronic stress,
414 with male zebrafish exhibiting increases in cortisol compared to untreated controls, while the
415 levels of basal cortisol did not change in females relative to untreated controls (Rambo et al.,
416 2017). The current results support a recent call for much more research into the housing,
417 breeding, and other husbandry conditions that may be contributing factors to experimental results
418 (Lidster, Readman, Prescott, & Owen, 2017; Tsang et al., 2017; Varga, Ekker, & Lawrence,
419 2018).

420 In sum, this study suggests that the clinical efficacy of prazosin in reducing symptoms of
421 stress-related conditions like PTSD does not involve the normalization of physiological stress
422 axis dysfunction. Rather, the clinical effectiveness of prazosin could involve preventing further
423 stress or trauma from triggering the norepinephrine-mediated stimulation of stress axis reactivity.
424 In addition, this study also highlights the importance of considering methodological and
425 husbandry factors when interpreting results across several studies, which will ultimately
426 contribute to a better understanding of the complex nature of the regulation and expression of
427 stress responses.

428 **Conclusions**

429 This study demonstrates that seven days of chronic unpredictable stress exposure in
430 zebrafish alters the expression of anxiety-like behavior and basal levels of cortisol. When
431 prazosin, an alpha-1 receptor antagonist, is chronically administered to subjects after the stress
432 exposure, stress-related effects on behavior and hormones are not reversed; however, prazosin

433 appears to decrease anxiety-like behaviors in the novel tank test in the absence of stress
434 exposure. Further studies are necessary to determine whether effects on stress-induced alterations
435 in stress responses are dependent on the timing of drug treatment. These studies also suggest that
436 normalization of neuroendocrine dysfunction may not be involved with the clinical efficacy of
437 prazosin in the treatment of PTSD, although human studies are needed to confirm this finding.

438

439

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Figure 1

Motor measures of zebrafish in the novel tank test (Experiment 1)

Zebrafish gradually increased the total distance traveled per minute (A) and demonstrated increased ambulatory speeds (B) across the novel tank test (6 minutes), but there was no effect of chronic stress on these measures (N = 25 in each group). *, ** p < 0.05 and p < 0.01, respectively, compared to minute 1 of the respective treatment group; ++p < 0.01 compared to minute 2 of the respective treatment group.

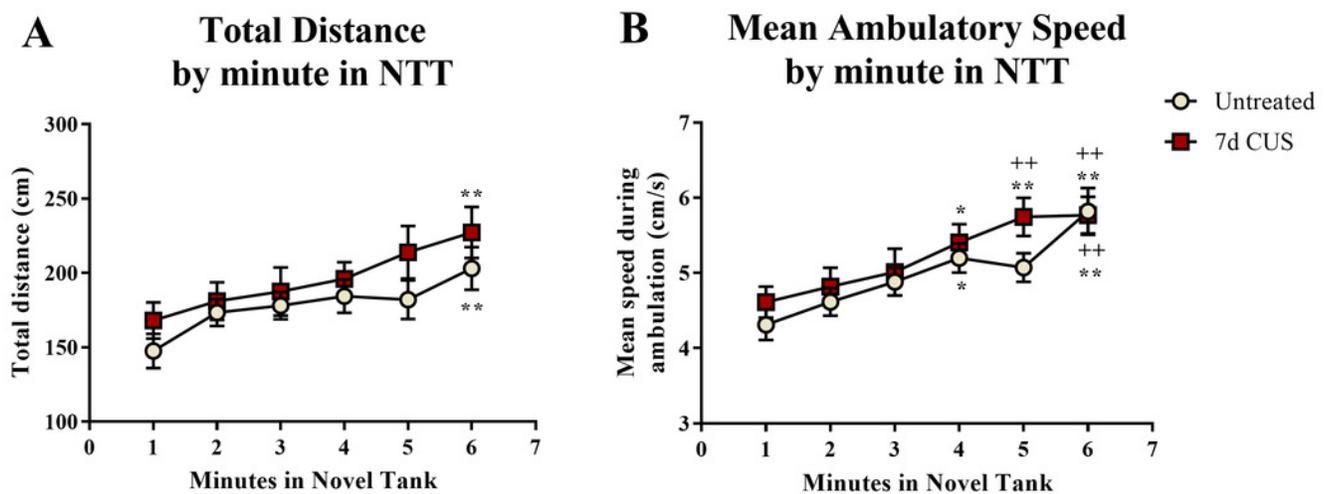


Figure 2

Freezing behavior of zebrafish in the novel tank test (Experiment 1)

There was no effect of treatment or time on the amount of time zebrafish spent immobile in the novel tank test (6 minutes, N = 25 in each group).

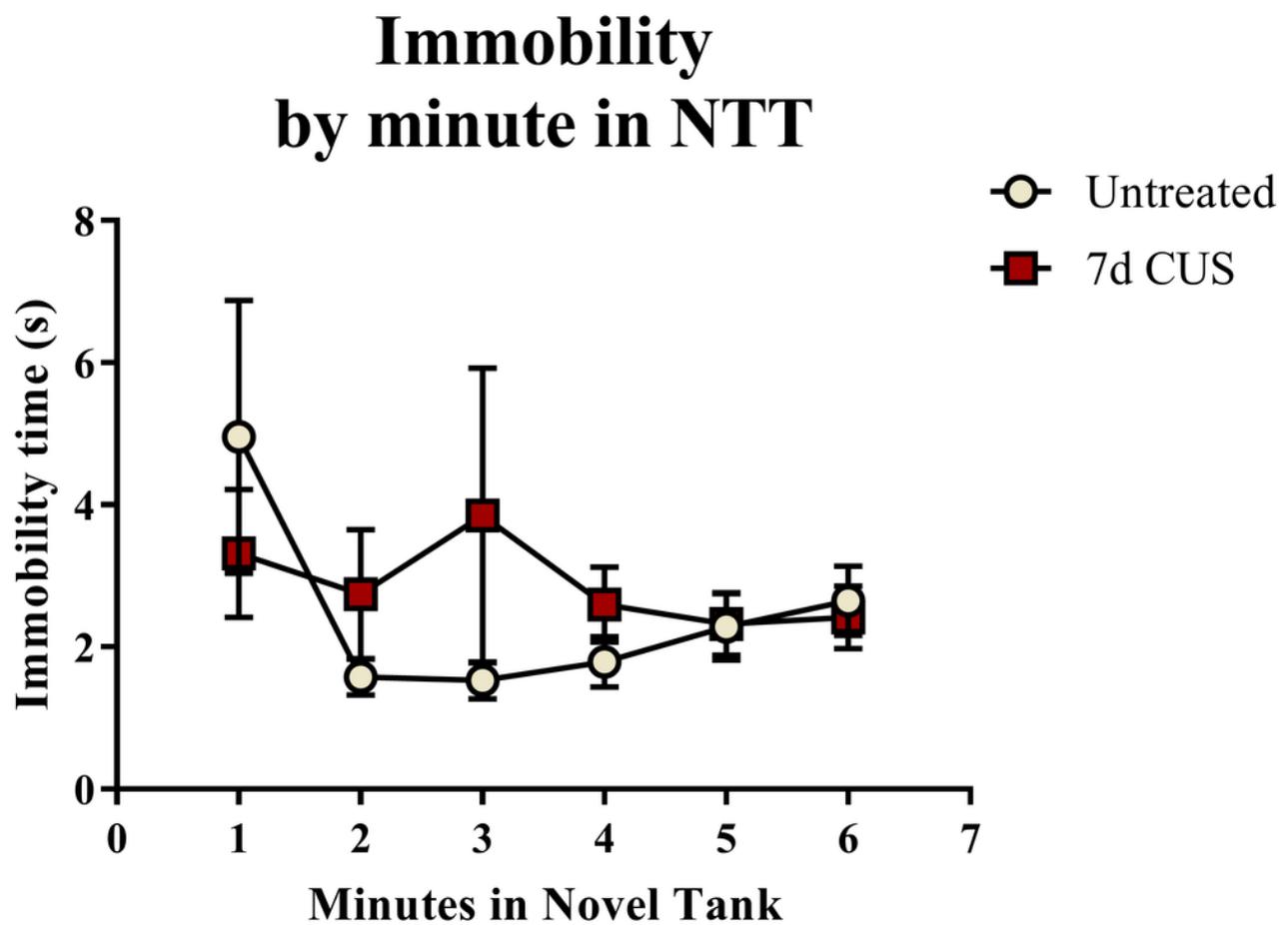


Figure 3

Exploratory measures of zebrafish in the novel tank test (Experiment 1)

Seven days of chronic unpredictable stress (CUS) decreased the amount of time zebrafish explored the top zone of the novel tank test (6 minutes). Zebrafish exposed to CUS were less likely to enter the top (A), spend less time in the top (B), and travel a shorter distance in the top (C) compared to fish that were left untreated (N = 25 in each group). *, ** p < 0.05 and p < 0.01, respectively, compared to minute 1 of the respective treatment group; +, ++ p < 0.05 and p < 0.01, respectively compared to minute 2 of the respective treatment group; and ^ p < 0.05 compared to minute 3 of the respective treatment group.

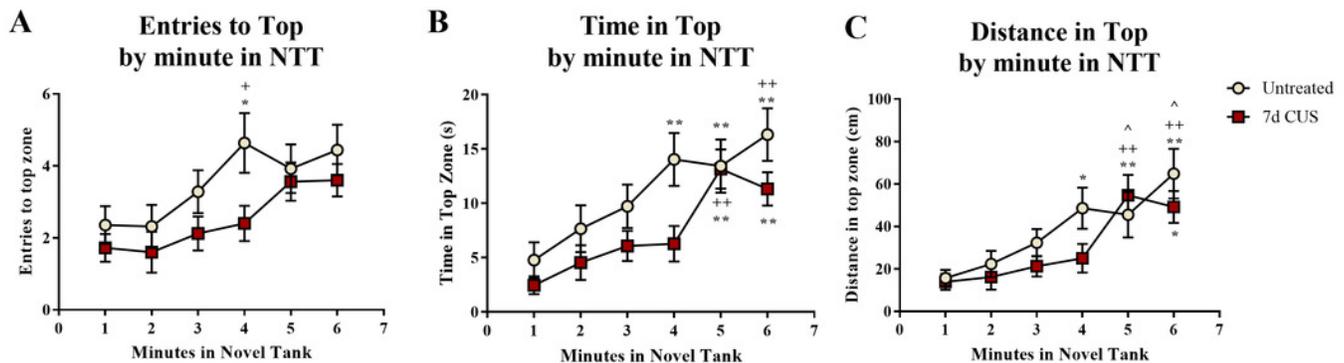


Figure 4

Cortisol and body weight measures of zebrafish (Experiment 1)

Seven days of chronic unpredictable stress (CUS) significantly decreased (** $p < 0.01$) basal levels of trunk cortisol (A) but did not alter the body weight (B) of zebrafish compared to fish that were left untreated (N = 25 in each group).

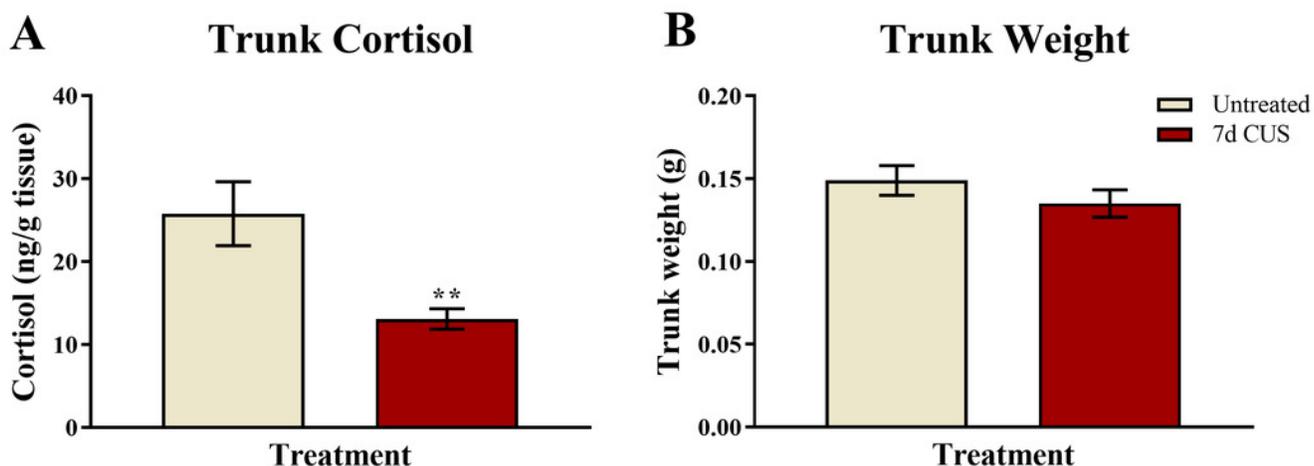


Figure 5

Motor measures of zebrafish in the novel tank test (Experiment 2)

In general, zebrafish gradually increased the total distance traveled per minute (A) and demonstrated increased ambulatory speeds (B) across the novel tank test (6 minutes), but there was no effect of chronic stress or drug treatment on these measures (N = 16-18 in each group).

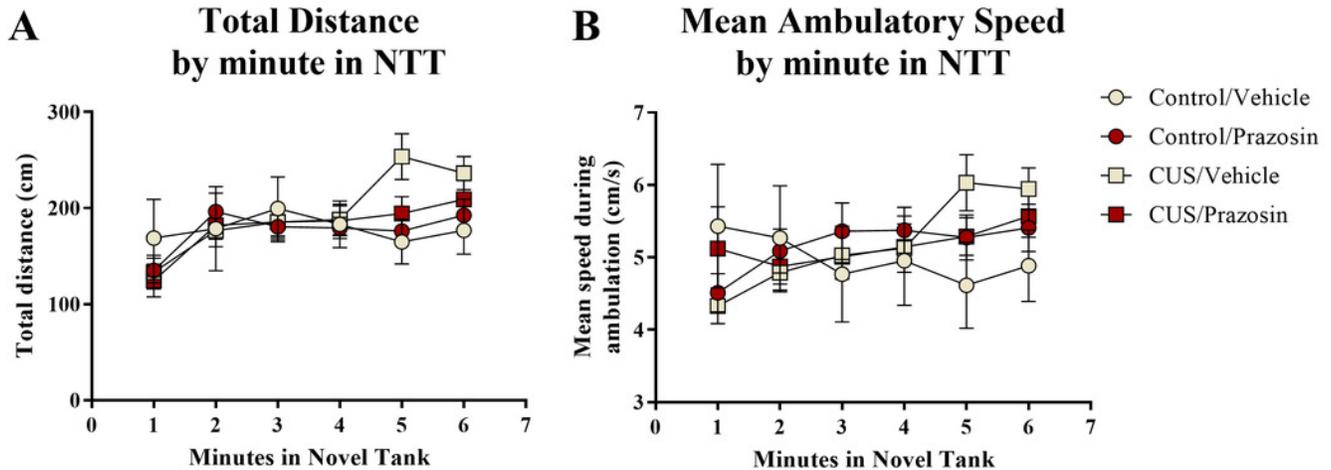


Figure 6

Freezing behavior of zebrafish in the novel tank test (Experiment 2)

In general, zebrafish spent less time immobile across the novel tank test (6 minutes), but there was no significant effect of chronic stress or drug treatment on immobility (N = 16-18 in each group).

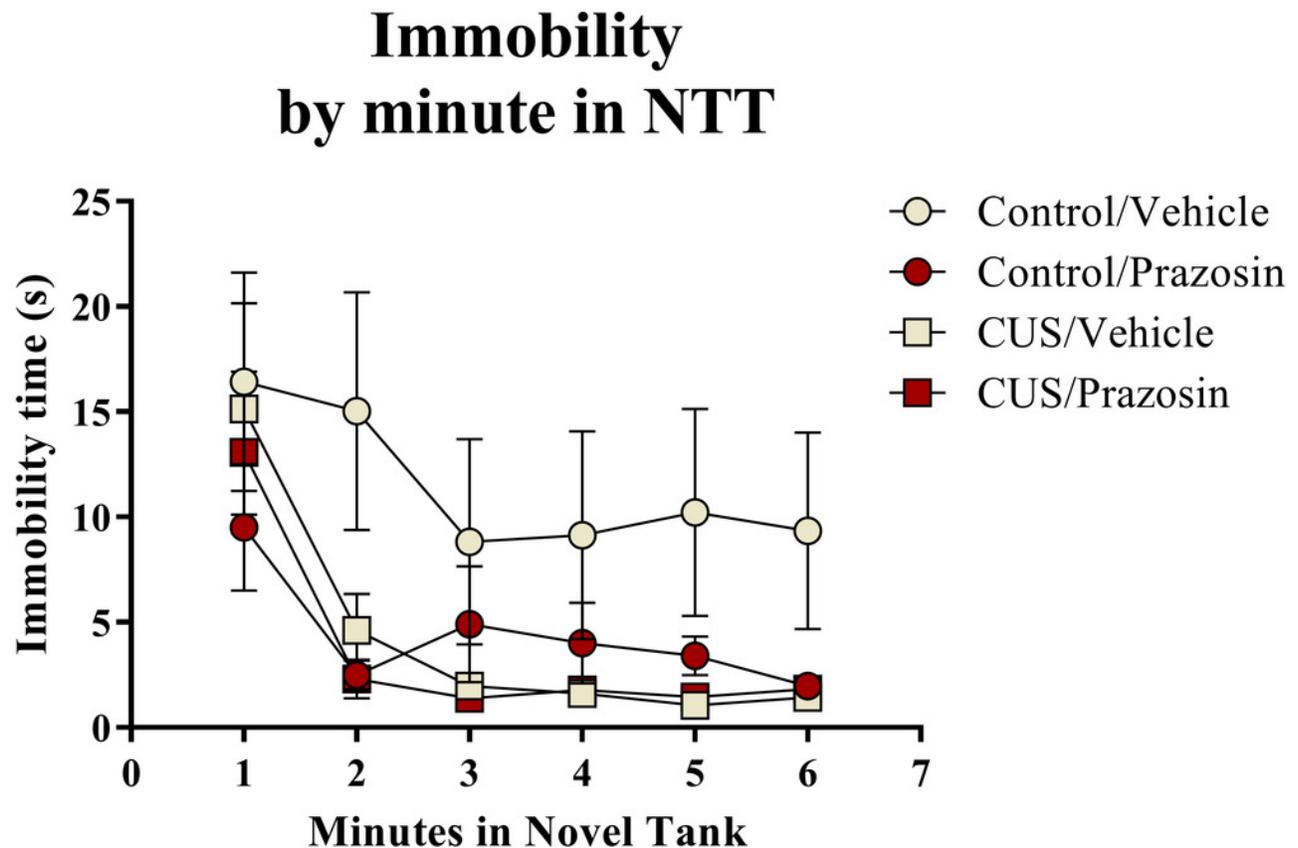


Figure 7

Exploratory measures of zebrafish in the novel tank test (Experiment 2)

In general, zebrafish explored the top of the novel tank more across the test (6 minutes) by increasing the number of entries to the top zone (A), spending more time in the top (B), and traveling a longer distance in the top (C). Fish exposed to chronic unpredictable stress (CUS) for 7 days before drug treatments entered the top zone more and traveled a longer distance in the top compared to untreated control subjects. If fish were chronically treated with prazosin, they tended to enter the top zone more and spend more time in the top of the tank compared to vehicle-treated fish (N = 16-18 in each group).

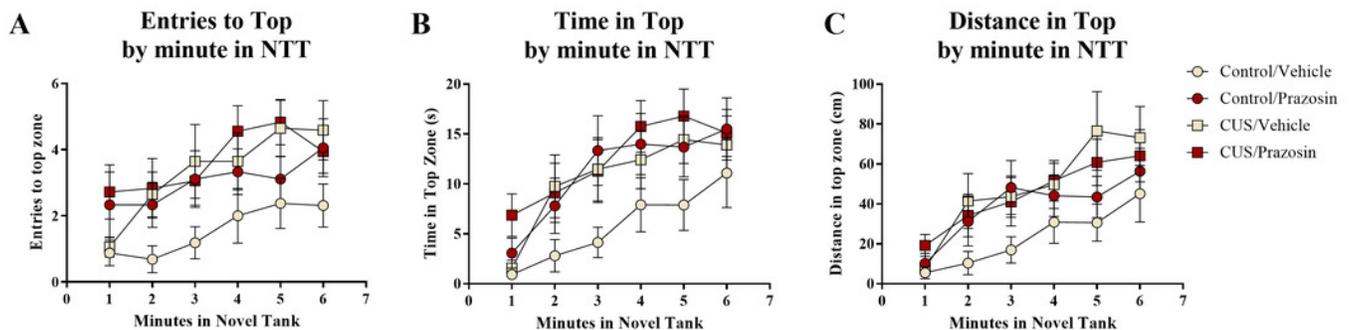


Figure 8

Cortisol and body weight measures of zebrafish (Experiment 2)

Neither chronic unpredictable stress treatment (CUS) and nor drug treatment significantly altered basal levels of trunk cortisol (A) or body weight (B) of zebrafish (N = 16-18 in each group).

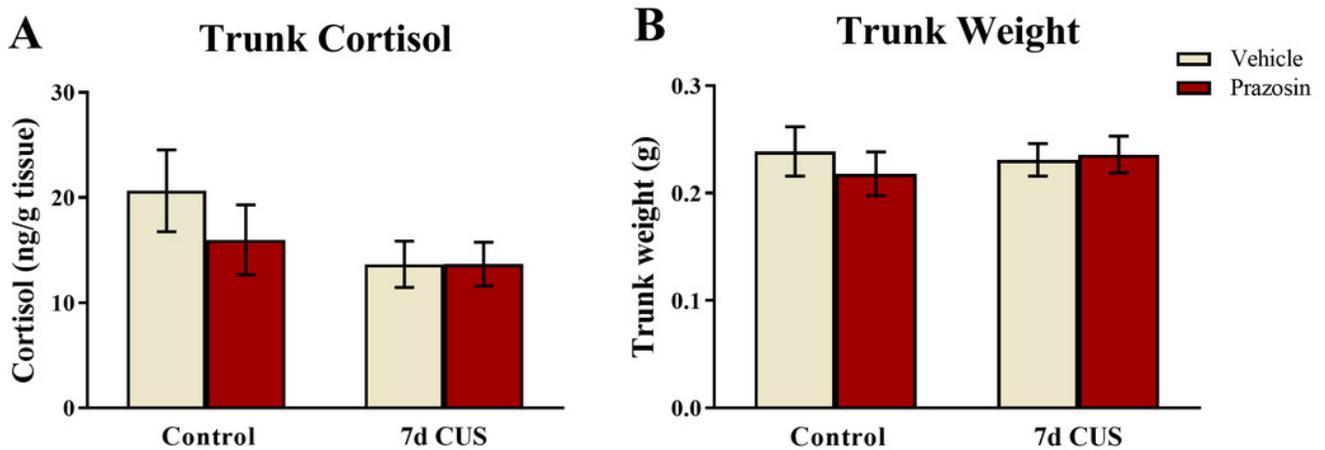


Table 1 (on next page)

Chronic unpredictable stress schedule for Experiment 1 and Experiment 2.

Seven stressors were randomized; fish in the stressed group were exposed to the cycle of stressors twice. Subjects were exposed to stressors twice a day at random times throughout the light period between 9 a.m. and 4 p.m.

- 1 **Table 1:** Chronic unpredictable stress schedule for Experiment 1 and Experiment 2.
 2 Seven stressors were randomized; fish in the stressed group were exposed to the cycle of
 3 stressors twice. Subjects were exposed to stressors twice a day at random times throughout the
 4 light period between 9 a.m. and 4 p.m.
 5

Experiment Day	Stressor	Time of day (Experiment 1)	Time of day (Experiment 2)
1	Tank changes (3 times)	11:00 a.m.	12:00 p.m.
	Cooling (23°C, 30 min)	1:00 p.m.	1:00 p.m.
2	Lowered water (15 min)	3:00 p.m.	2:00 p.m.
	Net chase (8 min + 15 min rest + 8 min)	4:00 p.m.	3:00 p.m.
3	Crowding (250 ml beaker, 60 min)	10:00 a.m.	10:00 a.m.
	Heating (33°C, 30 min)	2:00 p.m.	4:00 p.m.
4	Social isolation (250 ml individual beakers, 45 min)	11:00 a.m.	9:00 a.m.
	Tank changes (3 times)	12:00 p.m.	11:00 a.m.
5	Cooling (23°C, 30 min)	3:00 p.m.	11:00 a.m.
	Lowered water (15 min)	4:00 p.m.	4:00 p.m.
6	Net chase (8 min + 15 min rest + 8 min)	1:00 p.m.	11:00 a.m.
	Crowding (250 ml beaker, 60 min)	2:00 p.m.	4:00 p.m.
7	Heating (33°C, 30 min)	10:00 a.m.	10:00 a.m.
	Social isolation (250 ml individual beakers, 45 min)	12:00 p.m.	1:00 p.m.

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Table 2 (on next page)

Overall behavioral measures of zebrafish in the novel tank test (Experiment 1)

Exposure to 7 days of chronic unpredictable stress (CUS) altered some behavioral measures in the novel tank test (6 minutes) in adult zebrafish compared to unstressed (control) fish (N = 25 in each group).

1 **Table 2:** Overall behavioral measures of zebrafish in the novel tank test (Experiment 1)
 2 Exposure to 7 days of chronic unpredictable stress (CUS) altered some behavioral measures in
 3 the novel tank test (6 minutes) in adult zebrafish compared to unstressed (control) fish (N = 25 in
 4 each group).
 5

Variable	Control		7d CUS		t	df	p	Cohen's d
	M	SD	M	SD				
Total distance moved (cm)	1082.44	225.84	1191.60	364.03	1.274	48	0.209	0.360
Mean ambulatory speed (cm/s)	5.03	0.81	5.30	0.96	1.077	48	0.287	0.305
Time immobile (s)	13.26	9.99	15.42	17.11	0.544	48	0.589	0.154
Number of entries to top	20.00	13.12	14.12	7.90	-1.920	48	0.061	-0.543
Total time in top (s)	65.96	44.75	43.82	26.49	-2.129	48	0.038	-0.602
Distance in top (cm)	233.58	160.16	182.32	112.61	-1.309	48	0.197	-0.370

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Table 3(on next page)

Overall behavioral measures of zebrafish in the novel tank test (Experiment 2)

Exposure to 7 days of chronic unpredictable stress (CUS) and 7 days of chronic drug treatment altered some behavioral measures in the novel tank test (6 minutes) in adult zebrafish (N = 16-18 in each group). See text for results of significance testing.

1 **Table 3:** Overall behavioral measures of zebrafish in the novel tank test (Experiment 2)
 2 Exposure to 7 days of chronic unpredictable stress (CUS) and 7 days of chronic drug treatment
 3 altered some behavioral measures in the novel tank test (6 minutes) in adult zebrafish (N = 16-18
 4 in each group). See text for results of significance testing.
 5

Variable	Control/Vehicle N = 16		Control/Prazosin N = 18		CUS/Vehicle N = 17		CUS/Prazosin N = 18	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Total distance moved (cm)	1075.90	611.65	1070.93	206.33	1162.93	349.64	1097.22	320.95
Mean ambulatory speed (cm/s)	5.83	2.60	5.21	1.07	5.31	1.05	5.13	0.96
Time immobile (s)	67.71	108.90	24.05	28.06	24.06	27.47	19.93	18.79
Number of entries to top	9.19	9.68	17.39	10.49	19.47	13.07	20.94	13.30
Total time in top (s)	34.78	40.07	67.42	44.41	63.59	45.87	74.91	49.61
Distance in top (cm)	140.69	160.39	236.92	173.72	294.23	207.33	271.54	161.64

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Table 4(on next page)

Results of repeated measures ANOVA (Experiment 2)

Exposure to 7 days of chronic unpredictable stress (CUS) and 7 days of chronic drug treatment altered some behavioral measures in the novel tank test (6 minutes) in adult zebrafish (N = 16-18 in each group). Significance for all dependent variables are determined with a repeated-measures ANOVA with Greenhouse-Geisser correction.

1 **Table 4:** Results of repeated measures ANOVA (Experiment 2)
 2 Exposure to 7 days of chronic unpredictable stress (CUS) and 7 days of chronic drug treatment
 3 altered some behavioral measures in the novel tank test (6 minutes) in adult zebrafish (N = 16-18
 4 in each group). Significance for all dependent variables are determined with a repeated-measures
 5 ANOVA with Greenhouse-Geisser correction.
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	Total distance (cm)		Mean ambulatory speed (cm/s)		Time immobile (s)		Number of entries to top		Total time in top (s)		Distance in top (cm)	
	F	p	F	p	F	p	F	p	F	p	F	p
<i>Within-subjects Effects</i>												
Time	9.795	<0.001	2.022	0.133	15.136	<0.001	7.112	<0.001	15.075	<0.001	13.679	<0.001
Time* Stress	4.262	0.005	2.134	0.118	1.705	0.190	0.766	0.545	0.375	0.822	0.898	0.452
Time* Drug	0.573	0.644	0.240	0.802	0.948	0.381	0.425	0.785	0.215	0.927	0.350	0.811
Time* Stress* Drug	1.811	0.136	3.226	0.039	0.392	0.651	0.771	0.541	0.920	0.451	0.620	0.620
<i>Between-subjects Effects</i>												
Stress	0.308	0.581	0.118	0.732	3.050	0.085	5.886	0.018	2.768	0.101	5.100	0.027
Drug	0.191	0.663	0.050	0.824	2.931	0.092	3.131	0.082	4.062	0.048	0.750	0.390
Stress* Drug	0.100	0.753	0.123	0.727	2.018	0.160	1.431	0.236	0.956	0.332	1.876	0.176

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