

Social Regulation of Neurogenesis in Teleosts

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Coping style · Hierarchy · Neurogenesis · Stress · Teleost fishes

Abstract

Salmonid fishes such as the rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) are frequently used to study behavioral and neuroendocrine effects of socially induced stress. A predictable aggressive response to territorial intrusion, a well described neuroanatomy, and many essential similarities in the stress response in fishes and other vertebrates are among the advantages of this comparative model. One conspicuous difference when compared to mammals, however, is that in teleost fish and other non-mammalian vertebrates, neurogenesis persists into adulthood to a much higher degree. Very little is known about the functional significance of individual differences in the rate of brain cell proliferation in fish, or whether structural changes in the fish brain are influenced by the social environment. **In this paper we discuss the observation that brain cell proliferation is reduced in subordinate fish, focusing in particular on whether such individual variation reflects a difference in coping style or is indeed a response to social interactions.**

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Introduction: Rainbow Trout as a Model of Social Stress

In teleost fish, as in other vertebrates, individuals that have recently lost fights or hold a subordinate position in a stable social hierarchy often show a general behavioral inhibition, characterized by suppressed aggressive and reproductive behavior, reduced feeding, and low locomotor activity [Abbott et al., 1985; Francis et al., 1993; Huntingford et al., 1993; Winberg and Nilsson, 1993; Winberg et al., 1993; Oliveira and Almada, 1998; Øverli et al., 1998; Höglund et al., 2001; Gomez-Laplaza and Morgan, 2003; Amorim and Almada, 2005; Black et al., 2005; Hsu et al., 2006]. Physiologically, subordinate fish show many of the signs of prolonged stress that are commonly observed in mammals, including elevated hypothalamus-pituitary-interrenal (HPI) axis activity, decreased hypothalamus-pituitary-gonadal (HPG) activity, and chronically increased brain serotonin (5-hydroxytryptamin, 5-HT) metabolism [Winberg et al., 1992; Winberg and Nilsson, 1993; Francis et al., 1993; Fox et al., 1997; Winberg and Lepage, 1998; Øverli et al., 1999; Eloffsson et al., 2000; Höglund et al., 2000; Bass and Grober, 2001; Doyon et al., 2003; Parikh et al., 2006].

Social modulation of behavior is particularly distinct in small groups of salmonid fish, in which the fish can be highly aggressive and territorial both in nature and under

conditions of rearing in captivity. Migratory salmonids are pre-eminently territorial at life stages when they reside in rivers, and clear dominance/subordination relationships form in experimentally established pairs of juvenile salmonids. In such assemblages, dominant individuals can often be seen to monopolize food, and initiate virtually all aggressive acts [Øverli et al., 1998, 1999; Höglund et al., 2002].

Rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) is one of the most commonly used fish species in biological studies [Thorgaard et al., 2002]. It is also one of the most aggressive salmonid species, and has been used in a range of influential studies on the neuroendocrine and behavioral correlates of social position [see, e.g., original papers by Pottinger and Pickering, 1992; Johnsson and Björnsson, 1994; Winberg and Lepage, 1998; Øverli et al., 1999; Sloman et al., 2001, and reviews by Sloman and Armstrong, 2002; Gilmour et al., 2005; Summers and Winberg, 2006]. The neuroanatomy of salmonid fish has also been extensively studied [Northcutt and Bradford, 1980; Billard and Peter, 1982; Holmqvist and Ekström, 1995; Teitsma et al., 1999; Carruth et al., 2000; Vetillard et al., 2002]. This crucial knowledge, in combination with a predictable aggressive response to territorial intrusion, makes salmonid species such as the rainbow trout ideal for comparative studies of the neuroendocrine correlates of social position. A particularly advantageous aspect of the behavior of domesticated rainbow trout is that these fish easily adapt to new environments, including rearing in isolation. A period of isolation prior to the construction of new social groups is often an essential part of experimental design, serving to minimize the effect of previous social interactions, or to reveal trait characters that predict social position [Øverli et al., 2004].

The Interaction between Social Position and Stress Coping Style

A caveat of all research on social interactions is the inherent difficulty in determining which traits are causes and which are consequences of social position. Behavioral inhibition in subordinate animals can be viewed as a passive coping response serving to avoid costly interactions with aggressive dominant individuals [Leshner, 1980]. It has, however, also been firmly established that coping style has a genetic component [Driscoll et al., 1998; Koolhaas et al., 1999; Lepage et al., 2000; Ellenbroek and Cools, 2002; de Boer et al., 2003; Veenema et al., 2003]. In rainbow trout, the magnitude of the cortisol response to stress shows both

consistency over time and a moderate to high degree of heritability, and high-responding (HR) and low-responding (LR) lines of rainbow trout have been generated by individual selection for consistently high or low post-stress cortisol values [Pottinger and Carrick, 1999]. Genetically determined differences in HPI-axis activity affect social standing in such a way that LR fish usually win fights for social dominance [Pottinger and Carrick, 2001]. Other studies suggested that LR fish are also characterized by a rapid recovery of food intake after transfer to a novel environment, and a reduced locomotor response in a territorial intrusion test [Øverli et al., 2001, 2002]. Hence, some of the features of the LR trout line suggest that they represent selection for a proactive stress coping style, as defined by Koolhaas et al. [1999]. It should, however, also be pointed out that the behavior of the HR-LR lines of fish is highly context dependent, and are influenced by factors such as novelty of the environment and group size [Schjolden et al., 2005, 2006; Schjolden and Winberg, 2007]. The apparent parallel to genetically determined stress coping styles in mammals, and the existence of similar trait associations in unselected populations of rainbow trout [Øverli et al., 2004, 2006] nevertheless suggest an evolutionarily conserved correlation among multiple traits.

Based on the observation that rapid resumption of food intake in a new environment is a highly predictable indicator of the outcome of fights for dominance in both fish and *Anolis* lizards [Øverli et al., 2004; Korzan et al., 2006], Summers et al. [2005] were able to demonstrate a range of region-specific differences in brain serotonergic function between presumptive dominant and subordinate animals while they were still kept in isolation. Hence, there is every reason to think that some of the physiological and behavioral characteristics that have previously been interpreted as effects of rank might in reality reflect pre-existing individual variation. On the other hand, it has been shown that individuals retain the capacity to rapidly change their physiology and behavior in response to social opportunity [Burmeister et al., 2005; Burmeister, 2007]. In any case, subordination and chronic stress might alter hormone feedback and responsiveness, and perhaps reinforce pre-existing differences, so that dominant and subordinate individuals will respond differently to any intended and unintended experimental stressor. Contradictions in the literature on social interactions and stress have been pointed out by several reviewers [e.g., Creel, 2001; Honess and Marin, 2006], and interactions between inherited differences in stress coping style and acute and chronic effects of social position are likely to be responsible for many of these.

Adult neurogenesis and other forms of structural plasticity in the brain have received much attention in association with social stress. Reduced hippocampal neurogenesis appears to be central to the pathophysiology of chronic stress and depression [Dranovsky and Hen, 2006; Warner-Schmidt and Duman, 2006]. Adult hippocampal neurogenesis also represents an intercept between the 5-HT system and the HPA axis. Thus measuring neurogenesis in animal models of social stress and stress coping styles might shed new light on the dynamics of these systems. In line with the topic of this symposium, the rest of this paper is devoted to discussing differences in neurogenesis between dominant and subordinate animals, focusing in particular on whether such individual variation reflects a difference in coping style or is indeed a response to social interactions.

Linking Physiological, Behavioral and Cognitive Traits – Possible Role of Neurogenesis

A long standing dogma in neuroscience was that the adult mammalian brain is incapable of cell renewal. It is, however, currently agreed that new neurons and glial cells are generated in the brain of adult individuals from all major vertebrate taxa, a process known as adult neurogenesis [Eriksson et al., 1998; Gould et al., 1999a; Biebl et al., 2000; Gross, 2000; Garcia-Verdugo et al., 2002; Nottebohm, 2002; Kempermann et al., 2004; Laplagne et al., 2006; Ramirez-Amaya et al., 2006]. Adult neurogenesis in the hippocampus has received much attention, as it appears to be highly important for behavior, mood and cognition in both animals and humans, and is affected by a range of environmental, endocrine, and pharmacological factors [Bodnoff et al., 1995; Gould et al., 1997, 1998, 1999b; Brezun and Daszuta, 1999; Duman et al., 2001; Nilsson et al., 1999; Jacobs et al., 2000; Shors et al., 2001; Lipkind et al., 2002; Malberg and Duman, 2003; Sapolsky, 2003; Huang and Herbert, 2005; Vaynman and Gomez-Pinilla, 2006; Fuchs et al., 2006].

In particular, stress and glucocorticoid exposure have been shown to reduce adult hippocampal cell proliferation [Gould et al., 1992; Cameron and Gould, 1994; Cameron et al., 1995; McEwen, 1996], whereas voluntary exercise [van Praag et al., 1999a, b] and environmental enrichment do the opposite [Kempermann et al., 1997; Nilsson et al., 1999]. Not surprisingly, then, the experience of social subordination leads to reduced neurogenesis [Gould et al., 1997, 1998; Blanchard et al., 2001].

In animal models of depression, and not only those utilizing social stress, a general behavioral inhibition is often seen after chronic, severe, or unpredictable stressors [Willner, 1990; Weiss and Kilts, 1998; Anisman and Matheson, 2005]. Treatment with anti-depressants such as serotonin reuptake inhibitors increases neurogenesis [Malberg et al., 2000; Duman et al., 2001], and prevents both the reduction in neurogenesis and the behavioral inhibition associated with stress [Czeh et al., 2001; Malberg and Duman, 2003]. Schmidt-Hieber et al. [2004] showed that associative long-term potentiation can be induced more easily in young neurons than in mature neurons under identical conditions. These authors raised the hypothesis that newly generated neurons express unique mechanisms to facilitate synaptic plasticity, which might be important for the formation of new memories. Consequently, newborn hippocampal neurons are assumed to have a central function in cognition [Aimone et al., 2006]. Reduced cognitive performance, i.e., reduced ability to interpret a situation based on previous experience, might reduce predictability and control, and hence promote passive, or reactive, behavioral stress responses.

The question of whether genetically determined differences in stress coping style also incur differences in hippocampal cell proliferation was addressed by Veenema et al. [2004]. Working with the long (LAL) and short (SAL) attack latency mouse strains, these authors found that hippocampal cell proliferation was less affected by stress in the proactive and aggressive SAL mice. Higher glucocorticoid levels and reduced 5-HT signaling [Veenema et al., 2003, 2004; Veenema and Neumann, 2007] in the LAL mice might be contributing to this difference. Genetic influence on hippocampal neurogenesis has also been shown in several other studies [Hayes and Nowakowski, 2002; Kempermann and Gage, 2002; Schauwecker, 2006; Kronenberg et al., 2007]. The observation that social stress affects neurogenesis [Gould et al., 1997] and structural plasticity in the brain [Magarinos et al., 1996; Fuchs and Flügge, 2003] has received wide attention, but the possible interaction between these effects and pre-existing differences in stress coping style is less studied.

Effect of Social Stress on Telencephalic Cell Proliferation in Rainbow Trout

Compared to mammals, neurogenesis persists into adulthood to a much higher degree in the central nervous system of teleost fish and other ectothermic vertebrates

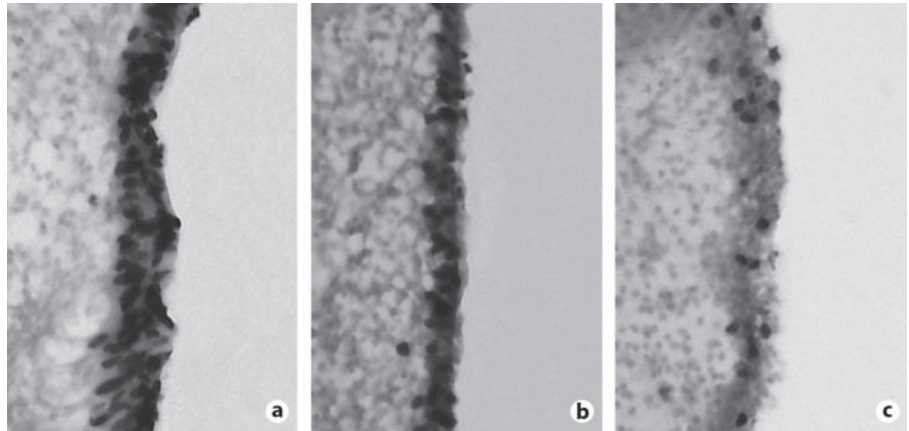


Fig. 1. BrdU-positive cells in the dorsal and ventral nuclei of the ventral telencephalon of (a) control, (b) dominant and (c) subordinate fish.

[Font et al., 2001; Zupanc, 2001a, 2006]. The number of brain cells increases with age, body weight, and body length in teleosts [Birse et al., 1980; Zupanc and Horschke, 1995], and specific regions of active cell division, proliferation zones, have been found in all major brain areas of adult fish [Zupanc and Horschke, 1995; Ekström et al., 2001; Zupanc et al., 2005]. The continuous generation of cells contributes to the well-documented ability of fish to regenerate parts of the central nervous system after injury [Stuermer et al., 1992; Zupanc and Ott, 1999]. As commented by Zupanc [2001b], this impressive degree of proliferation makes it particularly interesting to examine adult neurogenesis from a comparative point of view. Very little is, however, known about the regulation and functional significance of neurogenesis in teleost fish.

In a recent experiment [Sørensen, 2005], pairs of rainbow trout were allowed to fight for dominance, and were then left to interact for 4 days. The thymidine analogue 5-bromodeoxyuridine (BrdU) was administered intraperitoneally to all fish 24 h prior to the end of the experiment. Through incorporation into the DNA of cells going through S-phase, BrdU acts as a marker of proliferation. Proliferating cells were visualized immunohistochemically and quantified in transverse sections of the telencephalon, in which areas homologous to the mammalian hippocampus are thought to be located based on both anatomical and functional evidence [Northcutt and Bradford, 1980; Butler, 2000; Rodríguez et al., 2002; Portavella et al., 2004].

Brain stem monoamine metabolism and plasma cortisol were analysed in fish from the same experiment. These data confirmed that subordinate fish were chronically stressed, for instance showing significantly elevated concentrations of the serotonin metabolite 5-hydroxyin-

dole acetic acid (5-HIAA concentrations in control, dominant, and subordinate fish, respectively, were: 69.7 ± 10.1 ng/g, 73.7 ± 10.2 ng/g, and 105.8 ± 10.8 ng/g, with $F_{(2,26)} = 3.5$, $p = 0.04$) and increased plasma cortisol concentrations (cortisol in control, dominant, and subordinate fish, respectively, were: 33.3 ± 9.2 ng/ml, 22.9 ± 6.7 ng/ml, and 88.0 ± 22.4 ng/ml in control, dominant, and subordinate fish, respectively, with $F_{(2,29)} = 6.0$, $p = 0.007$).

As expected, subordinate individuals also showed reduced forebrain cell proliferation (stained nuclei/mm³ in control, dominant, and subordinate fish, respectively, were: $2,041 \pm 224$, $1,634 \pm 141$, and $1,276 \pm 76$, with $F_{(2,12)} = 5.8$, $p = 0.02$) (fig. 1). The data suggests that social interaction leads to reduced cell proliferation in both dominant and subordinate fish, although more so in subordinate fish, which was the only group where appropriate post-hoc comparisons revealed a statistically significant difference compared to controls. If the lower proliferation seen in subordinate fish only reflects a pre-existing difference, one would expect the control group (a random selection of isolated, non-disturbed animals) to contain an equal number of presumptive dominant and presumptive subordinate individuals. This group should then be intermediate to both other groups. Instead, the intermediate values are displayed by the dominant fish.

Further evidence from behavioral analysis also suggests that aggressive social interactions have a major influence on brain cell proliferation. Daily observation of the frequency of aggressive acts in each pair revealed that the aggression received by subordinate fish on the first day of interaction correlated negatively with the number of BrdU marked cells in the telencephalon (Pearson $r^2 = 0.77$, $p = 0.05$). Neither the number of aggressive acts received on the final day of interaction ($R^2 = 0.14$, $p = 0.53$),

nor the total number of aggressive acts received during the whole observation period ($R^2 = 0.13$, $p = 0.55$) showed any trend towards such a relationship. The number of subordinate fish that was subject to the BrdU immunohistochemistry ($n = 5$) is too low to allow firm conclusions based on correlative measures. The observation that initial aggression is important, but not what happens afterwards, also seems somewhat contradictory. It should, however, be pointed out that a previous study also showed that it was, in fact, aggression received at the earliest stages of hierarchy formation that determined neuroendocrine impact in subordinates [Winberg and Lepage, 1998].

In comparison, a recent study by Mitra et al. [2006] found that individual differences in hippocampal cell proliferation in intruder rats was not related to aggression received by the subject, but rather to the frequency of defensive behavior shown by each test subject. These authors concluded that individual differences in stress-related behavior influenced cell proliferation in the mouse hippocampus.

It is, however, not unlikely that there also could have been a pre-existing difference between the individuals assuming dominant and subordinate positions. The groups' differing levels of cell proliferation could reflect a pre-existing difference in the vulnerability to social stress. This is obviously complicated by the fact that the subordinate fish are exposed to a completely different stress level than dominant fish while in the hierarchy, ac-

companied by differences both in cortisol levels and 5-HT activity.

It is becoming increasingly more evident that genetic factors are highly important in determining predisposition for depressive disorders [Hayes and Nowakowski, 2002; Kempermann and Gage, 2002; Schauwecker, 2006; Kronenberg et al., 2007]. Also, the fact that the previously mentioned SAL and LAL mouse strains display differences in baseline neurogenesis [Veenema et al., 2004], not only indicates that there could be a distribution of baseline neurogenic rates in a natural population, but also that these could, indeed, correspond with stress coping style. One can only speculate on whether a reduced baseline neurogenesis in itself would be a determining factor for social subordination, or if it appears as a side effect of other factors that predispose an individual for a subordinate position. As previously mentioned, behavior in isolation can predict social position in rainbow trout [Overli et al., 2004] in the same way as in *Anolis* lizards [Korzan et al., 2006]. Thus it would be of huge interest to expose animals predicted to be dominant and subordinate in an otherwise equal pair to either social dominance or subordination through pairing with smaller or larger animals. Together with an investigation of baseline neurogenesis performed on a larger selection of animals this could shed light on whether the rate of neurogenesis is a determining factor for social position, a side effect of other inherent traits or merely a product of a stressful situation.

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