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**BIOQUÍMICA TOXICOLÓGICA**

Fabiano Vargas da Costa

**FENÓTIPOS RELACIONADOS À DOR EM PEIXE-ZEBRA: UMA  
CARACTERIZAÇÃO NEUROCOMPORTAMENTAL UTILIZANDO O  
MODELO DE DOR VISCERAL INDUZIDA PELO ÁCIDO ACÉTICO**

**Santa Maria, RS**

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Tese de Doutorado apresentada ao programa de Pós-Graduação em Ciências Biológicas: Bioquímica Toxicológica do Centro de Ciências Naturais e Exatas da Universidade Federal de Santa Maria (UFSM), como requisito parcial para obtenção de título de **Doutor em Ciências Biológicas: Bioquímica Toxicológica**

Orientador: Prof. Dr. Denis Broock Rosemberg

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“A pesquisa básica é como atirar uma flecha para o ar e,  
onde ela cair, pintar um alvo”.

(Homer Adkins Burton)

“A grande tragédia da ciência: o massacre de uma bela hipótese  
por parte de um horrível fato”.

(Thomas Henry Huxley)

## RESUMO

Tese de Doutorado  
Programa de Pós-graduação em Ciências Biológicas: Bioquímica Toxicológica  
Universidade Federal de Santa Maria

### **FENÓTIPOS RELACIONADOS À DOR EM PEIXE-ZEBRA: UMA CARACTERIZAÇÃO NEUROCOMPORTAMENTAL UTILIZANDO O MODELO DE DOR VISCERAL INDUZIDA PELO ÁCIDO ACÉTICO**

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ORIENTADOR: DENIS BROOCK ROSEMBERG

O peixe-zebra (*Danio rerio*) é um pequeno teleosteo de água doce pertencente à família Cyprinidae, o qual vem sendo estudado em diferentes áreas científicas. Essa espécie apresenta genes evolutivamente conservados e um amplo repertório comportamental, os quais podem ser afetados por diversas modulações farmacológicas, tais como algógenos e substâncias analgésicas. Apesar de estudos recentes demonstrarem que o peixe-zebra é um organismo modelo emergente para o estudo de processos relacionados à nocicepção, dados relacionados a fenótipos específicos que podem indicar dor localizada ainda carecem de informação. Portanto, a presente tese tem por objetivo caracterizar fenótipos comportamentais específicos na presença de algógenos com ênfase na validação de um novo modelo de dor visceral induzida pela administração intraperitoneal de ácido acético. No primeiro trabalho nós demonstramos que a injeção intraperitoneal de ácido acético (2,5 e 5,0%) promoveu uma resposta semelhante à contorção abdominal em roedores, que foi avaliada pela medição de um índice de curvatura abdominal. Além disso, todas as doses testadas (0,5–5,0%) reduziram a distância percorrida e a atividade vertical no teste do tanque novo. A duração do congelamento aumentou após 5,0% de ácido acético, enquanto os peixes injetados com 1,0, 2,5 e 5,0% aumentaram o tempo de permanência na área superior do tanque. Tanto a morfina (um analgésico opioide) quanto o diclofenaco (um anti-inflamatório não esteroidal, AINE) preveniram as mudanças induzidas pelo ácido acético (5,0%) no índice de curvatura corporal, enquanto a naloxona bloqueou os efeitos analgésicos da morfina. Embora a morfina atenuasse as respostas semelhantes à dor no peixe-zebra, não há dados mostrando se o antagonismo dos receptores opioides prolonga a duração da dor na ausência de um opioide exógeno. Portanto, em um segundo trabalho, nós investigamos se um antagonista opioide comum, naloxona, afeta a resposta semelhante a constrição abdominal. Os animais foram injetados intraperitonealmente com ácido acético (5,0%), naloxona (1,25 mg / kg; 2,5 mg / kg; 5,0 mg / kg) ou ácido acético com naloxona para investigar as mudanças na curvatura corporal por 1 h. O ácido acético provocou uma resposta semelhante a dor no peixe-zebra, conforme avaliado pelo índice de curvatura abdominal que dura aproximadamente 30 min, enquanto nenhum efeito foi observado após a injeção de PBS. Embora a naloxona sozinha não altere a frequência e a duração desse comportamento, ela prolonga de forma dependente de dose a resposta da curvatura abdominal induzida pelo ácido acético, sugerindo que opioides endógenos podem ter um papel chave na recuperação deste fenótipo específico no modelo de dor visceral aguda. Por fim, no terceiro trabalho, nós realizamos uma revisão sistemática sobre a importância dos modelos utilizando peixe-zebra para estudos relacionados à dor.

Mesmo com estruturas anatômicas distintas às dos mamíferos, ortólogos de genes envolvidos na nocicepção (ex: receptores opioides, receptores de potencial transitório, canais iônicos sensíveis ao ácido e receptores canabinoides) apresentam alto grau de similaridade genética. Em suma, esses dados corroboram o envolvimento de uma maquinaria celular evolutivamente conservada para respostas nociceptivas em peixe-zebra. De modo geral, os resultados obtidos nesta tese suportam uma nova estratégia para avaliar parâmetros comportamentais relacionados à dor no peixe-zebra com alto valor preditivo, de face e construto.

**Palavras-chave:** peixe-zebra; nocicepção; dor; ácido acético; curvatura abdominal



## ABSTRACT

Ph.D. Thesis

Graduate Course in Biological Sciences: Toxicological Biochemistry  
Federal University of Santa Maria

### **Pain-like behaviors-related phenotypes in zebrafish: a neurobehavioral characterization using the acetic acid model**

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The zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) is a small freshwater teleost belonging to the Cyprinidae family, which has been studied in different scientific areas. This species has evolutionarily conserved genes and a relatively complex behavioral repertoire, which can be modulated by several pharmacological drugs, such as algogens and analgesic drugs. Although recent studies have shown that zebrafish is an emerging model organism for assessing nociception, specific phenotypes that may indicate local pain are still poorly understood. This thesis aimed to characterize specific behavioral phenotypes in the presence of algogens to validate a model of visceral pain induced by intraperitoneal administration of acetic acid. In a first study, we demonstrated that intraperitoneal injection of acetic acid (2.5 and 5.0%) induced a response similar to the abdominal constriction in rodents, which was assessed by measuring the abdominal curvature index. All doses tested (0.5–5.0%) reduced the distance traveled and vertical activity in the novel tank test. The duration of freezing increased after 5.0% acetic acid, while fish injected with 1.0, 2.5 and 5.0% spent more time in the top area of the tank. Both morphine (an opioid analgesic) and diclofenac (a nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug, NSAID) prevented acetic acid-induced changes (5.0%) in the body curvature index, while naloxone antagonized the analgesic effects of morphine. Although morphine attenuates pain-like responses in zebrafish, there are no data showing whether the opioid receptor antagonism prolongs pain duration in the absence of an exogenous opioid. In a second report, we investigated whether a common opioid antagonist, naloxone, affects the constriction-like response. Animals were injected intraperitoneally with acetic acid (5.0%), naloxone (1.25 mg / kg; 2.5 mg / kg; 5.0 mg / kg) or acetic acid with naloxone to investigate changes in the body curvature for 1 h. As expected, acetic acid elicited pain responses in zebrafish for 30 min, while no effect was observed after PBS injection. Although naloxone alone does not change the frequency and duration of this behavior, it dose-dependently prolongs the acetic acid-induced abdominal curvature response, suggesting that endogenous opioids may have a key role in recovering this specific phenotype in the acute visceral pain model. Finally, in the third study, we performed a systematic review on the importance of zebrafish models for pain-related studies. Albeit the anatomical differences between teleost fishes and mammals, orthologs of genes involved in nociception (*e.g.*, opioid receptors, transient potential receptors, acid-sensitive ion channels, and cannabinoid receptors) show a high degree of genetic similarity. These data support the involvement of an evolutionarily conserved cellular machinery for nociceptive responses in zebrafish. Overall, the results obtained here support a new strategy to assess pain-related behavioral parameters in zebrafish with high predictive, face, and construct validity.

**Keywords:** zebrafish; nociception; pain; acetic acid; abdominal curvature

## ABREVIACOES

AB	Linhagem AB do peixe-zebra
ACTH	Hormnio adrenocorticotrfico, do ingls Adrenocorticotropic hormone
ASICs	Canais inicos sensveis ao cido, do ingls - 'acid-sensing ion channels'
zASICs	Canais inicos sensveis ao cido do peixe-zebra, do ingls - 'zebrafish acid-sensing ion channels'
CRF	Fator liberador de corticotropina, do ingls, 'corticotrophin release factor'
GRD	Gnglios da raiz dorsal
HPI	Eixo hipotlamo-pituitria-inter-renal
POMC	Proopiomelanocortina
SF	Barbatana curta, do ingls - 'short fin'
SNC	Sistema nervoso central
TG	Nervo trigeminal
GPCR	Receptor acoplado a protena G, do ingls - "G protein coupled receptor"
MOP	Receptor opioide $\mu$ , do ingls - ' $\mu$ opioid receptor'
DOP	Receptor opioide $\delta$ , do ingls - ' $\delta$ opioid receptor'
KOP	Receptor opioide $\kappa$ , do ingls - ' $\kappa$ opioid receptor'
ME	Met-enkefalina
MEI	Met-enkefalina-Ile
MED	Met-enkefalina-Asp
LE	Leu-enkefalina
MEGY	Leu-enkefalina-Gly-Tyr
$\gamma$ -LPH	$\gamma$ -lipotropina
$\beta$ -MSH	$\beta$ -melanotropina
$\alpha$ -MSH	$\alpha$ -melanotropina
$\beta$ -END	$\beta$ -endorfina
TM	Transmembrana
TRP	Receptor de potencial transitrio, do ingls "Transient Receptor Potential"
TRPC	Receptor de potencial transitrio cannico, do ingls "Transient Receptor Potential canonical"

TRPV	Receptor de potencial transitório vaniloide, do inglês “Transient Receptor Potential Vanilloid”
TRPA1	Receptor de potencial transitório anquirina 1, do inglês “Transient Receptor Potential Ankyrin 1”
TRPM	Receptor de potencial transitório melastatina, do inglês “Transient Receptor Potential Melastatin”
TRPP	Receptor de potencial transitório policistina, do inglês “Transient Receptor Potential Policistin”
TRPML	Receptor de potencial transitório mucolipina, do inglês “Transient Receptor Potential Mucolipin”

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## 1. APRESENTAÇÃO

No item **INTRODUÇÃO** consta uma revisão sucinta da literatura sobre os temas abordados nesta tese. A metodologia realizada e os resultados obtidos que compõem esta tese estão apresentados sob a forma de três artigos científicos publicados, os quais se encontram no item **DESENVOLVIMENTO**.

As seções Materiais e Métodos, Resultados e Discussão encontram-se nos próprios artigos e representam a íntegra deste estudo. Os itens **DISCUSSÃO, CONCLUSÕES, PERSPECTIVAS, REFERÊNCIAS BIBLIOGRÁFICAS** e **ANEXOS** encontram-se no final desta tese. Os itens **DISCUSSÃO, CONCLUSÕES** e **PERSPECTIVAS** visam discutir os trabalhos de forma integrada, bem como apresentar uma conclusão geral sobre os achados relacionados ao tema com as perspectivas futuras. As **REFERÊNCIAS BIBLIOGRÁFICAS** referem-se somente as citações que aparecem nos itens Introdução e Discussão desta tese.

## 2. INTRODUÇÃO

### 2.1. Dor

A dor é um sintoma debilitante de muitos distúrbios humanos e um problema biomédico urgente (MOGIL *et al.*, 2010; WOOLF, 2010). Estima-se que 80% da população mundial possui acesso limitado a medicamentos para tratamento da dor moderada a grave. Tal fato causa um profundo impacto sobre a qualidade de vida dos pacientes, acarretando consequências físicas, psicológicas, sociais e econômicas na população (FISHMAN, 2007; LOHMAN *et al.*, 2010). De acordo com a Associação Internacional para o Estudo da Dor (IASP), a dor é definida como “uma experiência sensorial e emocional desagradável associada à lesão tecidual real ou potencial, ou ainda descrita em termos que sugerem tal lesão” (LOESER *et al.*, 2008).

A percepção da dor é complexa e não envolve apenas a transmissão de um estímulo nocivo através de nociceptores localizados nas fibras nervosas aferentes primárias, mas também o processamento emocional e cognitivo, tornando-a um fenômeno subjetivo (BASBAUM *et al.*, 2009; LOESER *et al.*, 2008). Estímulos nocivos ativam o sistema nervoso central (SNC) desencadeando a percepção da dor que leva a modulação de diversas respostas comportamentais (JULIUS *et al.*, 2001; PERL, 2011; SHERRINGTON, 1906). A sensação dolorosa pode indicar uma lesão tecidual, o que se torna um importante mecanismo de defesa visando a proteção do organismo. Dessa forma, a dor aguda é de extrema importância, possuindo grande valor adaptativo em relação à sobrevivência do organismo lesado. Como descrito por Charles Darwin: ‘a dor é uma "emoção homeostática", que é essencial para a sobrevivência de espécies’ (BASBAUM *et al.*, 2009; DARWIN, 1872; WOOLF, 2010).

Ao contrário destes propósitos claramente protetores, a dor prolongada pode se tornar maladaptativa quando o organismo não é capaz de produzir a resolução da lesão

ou quando a plasticidade neuronal que ocorre durante a doença mantém a dor mesmo após a recuperação da lesão (KUNER, 2010). É o que acontece, por exemplo, em doenças inflamatórias crônicas (ASHBURN *et al.*, 1999). Neste contexto, o processamento sensorial é anormal e os estímulos ambientais que normalmente são inócuos, tais como leve toques ou pequenas alterações na temperatura ambiente, produzem a sensação de dor, isto é, alodinia (BASBAUM *et al.*, 2009; KUNER, 2010; SHIR *et al.*, 1990). A alodinia é descrita como uma sensação dolorosa em resposta a um estímulo não nocivo, esse termo só deve ser usado quando se sabe que o estímulo não é capaz de ativar nociceptores (JULIUS *et al.*, 2001). Considerada como uma condição patológica, a alodinia é detectada por fibras mielinizadas sensíveis ao toque do tipo A $\beta$  (BASBAUM *et al.*, 2009; JULIUS *et al.*, 2001; KUNER, 2010). Por outro lado, os estímulos que normalmente são percebidos como dolorosos e produzem uma percepção exagerada de dor são denominados hiperalgesia. Finalmente, a dor pode ainda aparecer espontaneamente e sem necessidade de estimulação externa, podendo ser descrita como dor em queimação ou choque (LOESER *et al.*, 2008).

Existem diversos estímulos que podem induzir sensações dolorosas, tais como: calor, frio extremo, pressão e produtos químicos; através da ativação de terminações nervosas livres e periféricas de fibras aferentes sensoriais delgadas do tipo C e A $\delta$  (mielinizadas e não mielinizadas), chamadas de nociceptores (BASBAUM *et al.*, 2009; LOESER *et al.*, 2008; WOOLF, 2010). As fibras do tipo C e A $\delta$  são formadas por neurônios cujos corpos celulares encontram-se nos gânglios da raiz dorsal (GRD) e trigeminal (TG) e que conduzem as informações nociceptivas até o corno dorsal da medula espinhal ou o núcleo trigeminal pars caudalis na ponte, respectivamente (BESSON, 1999; RUSSO *et al.*, 1998; WOOLF, 2010).

Nas lâminas superficiais do corno dorsal da medula espinhal, as terminações dos nociceptores liberam vários neurotransmissores que podem estimular neurônios de segunda ordem (BASBAUM *et al.*, 2009). Estes neurônios formam vias que irão distribuir informações para circuitos cerebrais responsáveis pela produção das dimensões sensoriais (discriminativa) e afetivas/motivacionais (descontentamento) da dor (HUNT *et al.*, 2001). Os neurônios de segunda ordem formam vias supraespinhais, sendo as mais importantes a via espinotalâmica e a espinoparabraquial (JULIUS *et al.*, 2001). A via espinotalâmica termina no tálamo ventroposterior lateral e ventrobasal, que tem projeções para o córtex e a via espinoparabraquial se projeta ao núcleo parabraquial e tem projeções para o hipotálamo, amígdala (HUNT *et al.*, 2001). Esta percepção supraespinhal produz várias respostas autonômicas, neuroendócrinas e comportamentais relacionadas à dor (KUNER, 2010).

## **2.2. Dor e nociceção relacionados a modelos animais**

Estudos de dor envolvendo modelos animais datam do final do século 19 e têm sido de suma importância para a compreensão dos processos biológicos correlatos (VON FREY, 1896). Entretanto, analisar e medir com acurácia comportamentos dolorosos em animais é uma tarefa desafiadora, porque como citado acima, a dor é uma experiência complexa que envolve não apenas a transdução de estímulos nociceptivos como também o processamento cognitivo e emocional (BLACKBURN-MUNRO, 2004; PIEL *et al.*, 2014; TRACEY *et al.*, 2007). Estímulos nociceptivos ativam múltiplas áreas subcorticais e corticais, e a experiência aversiva (comumente reconhecida como dor) resulta dessa ativação conjunta e coordenada (GARCIA-LARREA *et al.*, 2013; TRACEY *et al.*, 2007; WIECH, 2016). Diferentemente dos humanos, os modelos animais de laboratório têm uma menor complexidade de rede de processamento neural, o que dificulta a correlação



da dor com a experiência individual subjetiva (FESTING *et al.*, 2005; THOMAS, 2005). Alguns cientistas afirmam que essa falta de estruturas cerebrais complexas, tais como córtex cerebral, responsáveis por interpretar o estímulo doloroso em humanos, são essenciais para o reconhecimento da dor, negando assim a capacidade animal de reconhecer e apresentar um comportamento protetor frente a um estímulo nocivo, tornando tal ação meramente reflexiva (KEY, 2016; ROSE, 2002; ROSE *et al.*, 2014). Porém, acreditar na ideia de que um certo organismo precise de um córtex humano para sentir dor é uma visão minoritária e reducionista, visto que não leva em consideração a existência de estruturas análogas no SNC em diferentes espécies.

Existe um grande número de pesquisadores que afirmam que animais de laboratório são capazes de apresentar um comportamento mais refinado e não apenas reflexivo (DAMASIO *et al.*, 2013; MERKER, 2007). Bateson (1991) sugeriu uma clara estrutura sobre a qual questões baseadas na capacidade animal de sentir dor poderiam ser aplicadas a qualquer espécie. Tais critérios foram aplicados a numerosas espécies, onde animais que preenchessem todos os critérios deveriam ser considerados capazes de sentir dor. Esses critérios são: *i*) presença de nociceptores; *ii*) vias de nociceptores convergentes para o cérebro; *iii*) estruturas cerebrais análogas ao córtex cerebral humano que processa a dor; *iv*) expressão de receptores opioides e substâncias opioides endógenas em um sistema neural nociceptivo; *v*) uma redução nos efeitos adversos comportamentais e fisiológicos após a administração de analgésicos ou anestésicos; *vi*) a esquiva de estímulos potencialmente dolorosos (BATESON, 1991). Por fim, Sneddon (2004) acrescentou que os animais devem suspender o comportamento normal por um período prolongado, ao invés de mostrar uma resposta reflexiva, com mudanças no comportamento que reflitam sinais de "desconforto" (SNEDDON *et al.*, 2014).

### **2.3. O uso do peixe-zebra como organismo modelo para estudos de estímulos dolorosos**

Embora os roedores sejam amplamente utilizados na pesquisa translacional da dor (MEOTTI *et al.*, 2010; STEVENSON *et al.*, 2006), modelos experimentais alternativos têm ajudado a avaliar os mecanismos evolutivamente conservados subjacentes à dor e seus fenótipos comportamentais correlatos (DU *et al.*, 2017; SNEDDON *et al.*, 2003b). Modelos vertebrados não tradicionais, como o peixe-zebra, são promissores em estudos relacionados à dor (GONZALEZ-NUNEZ *et al.*, 2009), pois apresentam mecanismos evolutivamente conservados, com comportamento sensível a vários algógenos e medicamentos analgésicos (GAU *et al.*, 2013; PROBER *et al.*, 2008; SNEDDON *et al.*, 2003b). Além do envolvimento da medula espinhal e do rombencéfalo (ROSE, 2002), atividades elétricas e alterações transcricionais no mesencéfalo e no prosencéfalo (BRAITHWAITE *et al.*, 2007a; NORDGREEN *et al.*, 2014; REILLY *et al.*, 2008) foram observadas após estímulos nocivos em peixes teleósteos.

A detecção precisa de fenótipos comportamentais específicos expressos na presença de algógenos é um componente chave para avaliar adequadamente as respostas relacionadas à dor. Ao contrário dos roedores, que apresentam uma grande quantidade de fenótipos comportamentais que refletem tal comportamento (BOBINSKI *et al.*, 2018; BONIN *et al.*, 2014; DE RANTERE *et al.*, 2016; GONZALEZ-CANO *et al.*, 2017; MARTINS *et al.*, 2018), a avaliação de parâmetros específicos relacionados à dor em peixe-zebra é limitada até o momento (MAXIMINO, 2011; SCHROEDER, 2017). Por exemplo, as respostas à estímulos dolorosos do peixe-zebra, em sua grande maioria, são medidas usando alterações locomotoras e aumento da taxa de batimentos operculares como parâmetros principais (CORREIA *et al.*, 2011; CURTRIGHT *et al.*, 2015; REILLY *et al.*, 2008; TAYLOR *et al.*, 2017). Desta forma, os fenótipos mencionados acima

poderiam não representar necessariamente comportamentos nociceptivos específicos, uma vez que também indicam estados de estresse, ansiedade, sedação não específica e/ou um comportamento tipo depressivo (KALUEFF *et al.*, 2013). Entretanto, existem diferentes abordagens para induzir a dor local em espécies de peixes, como o procedimento de estimulação na nadadeira caudal (SCHROEDER, 2017) ou a administração de algógenos próximos à respectiva nadadeira (MAXIMINO, 2011). Ambos os protocolos causam movimentos erráticos e aumentam o batimento caudal, um fenótipo comportamental que reflete uma resposta nociceptiva local aguda. Alguns estudos que descrevem os principais fenótipos comportamentais do peixe-zebra adulto relacionado às respostas à dor estão esquematizados na **Tabela 1**.

#### **2.4. Mecanismos fisiológicos e moleculares relacionadas à dor no peixe-zebra**

De um modo geral, a fisiologia da resposta dolorosa em peixes teleósteos pode ser similar à encontrada em mamíferos. No homem, as fibras C estão distribuídas por todo o nervo e podem compreender 50% de fibra total (YOUNG, 1977). Entretanto, nos peixes teleósteos as fibras C são encontradas aproximadamente 4% de fibra total, as fibras A-beta são as mais comuns (53%) seguido por A-delta (33%) e A-alpha (9%) (SNEDDON, 2002). Essa grande diferença de fibras C entre humanos e peixes pode estar relacionada ao avanço na evolução dos vertebrados. Animais terrestres são expostos a drásticas mudanças climáticas, gases nocivos e maior chance de lesões mecânicas devido à gravidade. No entanto, em um ambiente aquático, as flutuações de temperatura são relativamente leves, a flutuabilidade compensa quaisquer efeitos gravitacionais e produtos químicos nocivos podem ser altamente diluídos em alguns casos (SNEDDON, 2002). Portanto, a necessidade de um sistema nociceptivo abrangente pode não ser tão

essencial quanto nos vertebrados terrestres, assim, os peixes apresentam um menos aparato neural dedicada ao processamento da dor.

Apesar das diferenças neuroanatômicas envolvidas no processamento da dor em teleósteos, o peixe-zebra (*Danio rerio*) possui o genoma evolutivamente conservado e completamente sequenciado, compartilhando um alto grau de similaridade com seus ortólogos em mamíferos (aproximadamente 70%) (HOWE *et al.*, 2013). Vários desses genes ortólogos que compõem sistemas especializados envolvidos nos processos dolorosos foram caracterizados, tais como: os canais iônicos sensíveis a ácido (ASICs, do inglês, acid sensitive ion channel), o sistema opioide e a família dos receptores de potencial transitório (TRP; do inglês, transient receptor potential), destacando o valor translacional das pesquisas com peixe-zebra nesta área de estudo (PAUKERT *et al.*, 2004; SAITO *et al.*, 2006).

#### **2.4.1. Canais iônicos sensíveis a ácido (ASICs)**

Os canais ASICs são receptores excitatórios para H<sup>+</sup> extracelular (LEE *et al.*, 2018). Suas funções incluem percepção periférica da dor, transmissão sináptica e mecanossensação (SCHAEFER *et al.*, 2000). Em mamíferos, existem quatro genes ASICs que codificam seis subunidades (*ASIC1a* (WALDMANN; CHAMPIGNY; *et al.*, 1997), *ASIC1b* (CHEN *et al.*, 1998), *ASIC2a* (PRICE *et al.*, 1996), *ASIC2b* (LINGUEGLIA *et al.*, 1997), *ASIC3* (WALDMANN; BASSILANA; *et al.*, 1997) e *ASIC4* (AKOPIAN *et al.*, 2000)). Em humanos, os ASICs são amplamente distribuídos nos sistemas nervosos central e periférico, mas também foram detectados em tecidos não neuronais, incluindo testículos (*ASIC3*) (BABINSKI *et al.*, 1999), glândula pituitária (*ASIC4*) (GRUNDER *et al.*, 2000), células epiteliais pulmonares (*ASIC3*) (SU *et al.*, 2006), e osso (*ASIC1-3*)

(JAHR *et al.*, 2005). No sistema nervoso periférico, os canais ASIC são encontrados predominantemente em neurônios sensoriais envolvidos na dor (CHEN *et al.*, 1998).

No peixe-zebra, seis genes ASICs já foram identificados (*asic1a*, *asic1b*, *asic1c*, *asic2*, *asic4a* e *asic4b*) (PAUKERT *et al.*, 2004). As análises filogenéticas mostram que *asic1a*, *asic2* e *asic4a* são ortólogos aos mamíferos, enquanto *asic1b*, *asic1c* e *asic4b* são variantes de splicing (PAUKERT *et al.*, 2004). Embora os ASICs do peixe-zebra sejam amplamente expressos no SNC (começando entre 24 e 48 horas após a fertilização), apenas *asic1a* é expresso no gânglio trigêmeo (região responsável por transportar informações somatossensoriais da cabeça) (PAUKERT *et al.*, 2004). Tanto *asic1a* quanto *asic1c* são expressos em neurônios sensoriais e podem contribuir para estímulos mecânicos (PAUKERT *et al.*, 2004). Além disso, *asic4a* e *asic4b* compartilham ~ 68% de similaridade genética com humanos (CHEN *et al.*, 1998). Curiosamente, apenas o *ASIC4* mamífero, em que não é ativado por H<sup>+</sup> extracelular. Os efeitos promovidos pelo ácido acético, agonista dos receptores ASICs no peixe-zebra, têm sido amplamente estudados em modelos de dor. Evidências demonstram alterações locomotoras significativas após a administração de ácido acético em diferentes vias do peixe-zebra, geralmente observados como hipolocomoção. Além disso, tal comportamento é prevenido pela administração de fármacos analgésicos, suportando a redução da locomoção como um fenótipo comportamental geral que reflete sensação dolorosa em animais adultos (TAYLOR *et al.*, 2017).

#### **2.4.2. Sistema opioide**

O sistema opioide envolve múltiplos receptores, ligantes endógenos e análogos naturais ou sintéticos, que desempenham um papel fundamental na homeostase da dor,

humor e bem-estar (CHU SIN CHUNG *et al.*, 2013; MARRON FDEZ DE VELASCO *et al.*, 2009). Em humanos, os receptores opioides pertencem à superfamília do receptor acoplado à proteína G (GPCR), e três receptores opioides clássicos foram caracterizados até agora: MOP, KOP, DOP além de seus respectivos ligantes endógenos;  $\beta$ -endorfina, encefalina e dinorfina (CORBETT *et al.*, 2006; RACHINGER-ADAM *et al.*, 2011; STEVENS, 2009). Adicionalmente, o receptor NOP, considerado um membro não opioide da família do receptor opioide, também foi descrito em mamíferos (LAMBERT, 2008). Os projetos de sequenciamento do genoma permitiram uma identificação abrangente dos ortólogos do peixe-zebra (DREBORG *et al.*, 2008; SUNDSTROM *et al.*, 2010), como zMOP (BARRALLO *et al.*, 2000), zKOP (ALVAREZ *et al.*, 2006), duas cópias funcionais de zDOP (BARRALLO *et al.*, 1998; PINAL-SEOANE *et al.*, 2006) e zNOP (RIVAS-BOYERO *et al.*, 2011). No peixe-zebra, os precursores de peptídeos opioides incluem dois genes de proencefalina (*penka* e *penkb*), dois genes de proopiomelanocortina (*pomca* e *pomcb*), um gene de prodinorfina (*pdyn*) e dois genes de pronociceptina (*pnoca* e *pnocb*). As propriedades farmacológicas dos receptores opioides do peixe-zebra foram amplamente caracterizadas (BAO *et al.*, 2019; DEMIN *et al.*, 2018). Enquanto zMOP, zKOP e zDOPa/b exibem alta afinidade para ambos os ligantes opioides não seletivos [ $H^3$ ]-diprenorfina e [ $H^3$ ]-bremazocina em ensaios de ligação de saturação (ALVAREZ *et al.*, 2006; MARRON FDEZ DE VELASCO *et al.*, 2009; PINAL-SEOANE *et al.*, 2006), eles mostram menor afinidade para ligantes altamente seletivos em mamíferos ([d-Pen<sup>2</sup>, d-Pen<sup>5</sup>] encefalina [ $H^3$ ]-DPDPE, [ $H^3$ ]-[D-Ala<sup>2</sup>, NMe-Phe<sup>4</sup>, Gly<sup>5</sup>-ol]-encefalina (DAMGO) e [ $H^3$ ]-U69.593) (GONZALEZ-NUNEZ *et al.*, 2006). Estudos relatam a participação dos receptores opioides nos comportamentos nocivos induzidos pelo ácido acético. No peixe-zebra, a coadministração da morfina antagoniza a diminuição da distância percorrida causada pelo ácido acético (TAYLOR *et al.*, 2017).

Além disso, a coadministração de naloxona previne os efeitos analgésicos da morfina no modelo citado acima (TAYLOR *et al.*, 2017).

#### **2.4.3. Receptores de potencial transitório (TRP)**

A família dos canais TRP atua como sensores moleculares, respondendo a uma ampla variedade de estímulos (mudanças no pH, agentes químicos, temperatura e osmolaridade) (CLAPHAM, 2003; JULIUS, 2013). Estruturalmente, um canal TRP contém seis domínios transmembrana (TM1-6) montados como tetrâmeros para formar poros permeáveis a cátions entre TM5 e TM6 (CLAPHAM, 2003; MONTELL *et al.*, 2002). Em humanos, os canais TRP incluem 28 membros divididos em seis subfamílias, classificados como canônicos (TRPC), vaniloide (TRPV), anquirina (TRPA1), melastatina (TRPM), policistina (TRPP) e mucolipina (TRPML) (TSAGARELI *et al.*, 2019).

Interessantemente, o peixe-zebra expressa todos os receptores dos canais TRP (*trpc* (VON NIEDERHAUSERN *et al.*, 2013), *trpv* (SAITO *et al.*, 2006), *trpa* (COREY *et al.*, 2004), *trpm* (KASTENHUBER *et al.*, 2013) *trpml* (BENINI *et al.*, 2013) e *trpp* (ENGLAND *et al.*, 2017)).

Os sistemas nociceptivos periféricos e centrais do peixe-zebra são semelhantes aos de camundongos e humanos (KO *et al.*, 2019) e a função nociceptiva do TRPA1 é notavelmente conservada em espécies animais (KANG *et al.*, 2010; LAURSEN *et al.*, 2015). No entanto, ao contrário de humanos e roedores, o genoma do peixe-zebra codifica dois genes TRPA1: *trpa1a* e *trpa1b* (SAITO *et al.*, 2006). Notavelmente, *trpa1a* e *trpa1b* são ativados por agonistas de TRPA humanos (alil isotiocianato, cinamaldeído, dialil dissulfeto, acroleína e 4-hidroxinonenal) (PROBER *et al.*, 2008), e antagonizados por HC-030031, um modulador alostérico competitivo ou negativo de TRPA1 humano (KO

*et al.*, 2019). No entanto, HC-030031 não mostra quaisquer efeitos inibitórios sobre o *trpa1b* ativado por cinamaldeído em um sistema de expressão heterólogo usando oócitos de *Xenopus laevis* (GUPTA *et al.*, 2016). No peixe-zebra o *trpa1a* medeia a detecção química, enquanto *trpa1b* responde a estímulos térmicos (ODA *et al.*, 2016; PROBER *et al.*, 2008) ao contrário de outros vertebrados (por exemplo, galinha, sapo e camundongos), onde TRPA1 é responsável por detectar produtos químicos nocivos e temperaturas prejudiciais (LAURSEN *et al.*, 2015).

Em mamíferos, o TRPV1 é um receptor polimodal, que atua como um sensor de calor nocivo ( $> 42^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) e contribui para distúrbios dolorosos (por exemplo, dor neuropática induzida por diabetes, dor de câncer e dor inflamatória) (VELDHUIS *et al.*, 2015). O TRPV1 também é sensível a soluções ácidas ( $\text{pH} < 6,5$ ), ingredientes alimentares (capsaicina) (CATERINA *et al.*, 1997), derivados de lipídios (prostaglandina E2) (MORIYAMA *et al.*, 2005), endocanabinóide, anandamida (ZYGMENT *et al.*, 1999) e toxinas (por exemplo, vanilotoxinas e resiniferatoxina) (SZALLASI *et al.*, 1989). Curiosamente, o peixe-zebra expressa um único ortólogo ao *trpv1* que poderia ser derivado de um precursor evolucionário do tetrápode TRPV1 e TRPV2 (SAITO *et al.*, 2006). Semelhante ao ortólogo mamífero, o *trpv1* atua como um canal sensível ao calor ( $\geq 25^{\circ}\text{C}$ ), embora apresente uma sensibilidade menor do que a do mamífero ( $\geq 42^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) (GAU *et al.*, 2013). Evidências mostram que larvas de peixe-zebra de 5 dpf evitam temperaturas acima de  $31,5^{\circ}\text{C}$  e abaixo de  $24,5^{\circ}\text{C}$  (CURTRIGHT *et al.*, 2015), caracterizando hiperalgesia térmica. Considerando as similaridades genéticas nos sistemas descritos, além dos efeitos comportamentais robustos, o uso desta espécie em estudos translacionais relacionados à dor no peixe-zebra é bastante promissor.

De modo geral, o peixe-zebra apresenta as ferramentas moleculares necessárias para estudos neurocomportamentais de protocolos relacionados a dor. Entretanto, a



quantidade de metodologias existentes até o momento é insuficiente para demonstrar e diferenciar de maneira adequada os distintos fenótipos comportamentais relacionados a dor. Portanto, aprofundar a investigação dos comportamentos relacionados a dor através do desenvolvimento de novas metodologias mais específicas são de extrema importância.

**Tabela 1.** Fenótipos comportamentais tradicionalmente utilizados para medir dor em diferentes modelos experimentais que utilizam peixes-zebra adultos.

Agente nociceptivo	Animal (linhagem)	Via de administração	Fenótipo comportamental	Referências
Ácido acético (5%)	peixe-zebra (AB)	Injetado (lábios)	Diminuição na atividade locomotora, aumento na frequência respiratória	Reilly <i>et al.</i> , 2008
Ácido acético (1%)	peixe-zebra (SF)	Injetado (cauda)	Aumento dos movimentos erráticos e batida de cauda	Maximino, 2011
Ácido acético (5 and 10%)	peixe-zebra (AB)	Injetado (lábios)	Diminuição na atividade locomotora	Correia <i>et al.</i> , 2011
Clipagem de cauda (30s)	peixe-zebra (AB)	Remoção da metade posterior do tecido caudal	Aumento na frequência respiratória, batimento caudal e redução na atividade	Schroeder <i>et al.</i> , 2017
Formalina (0.1%)	peixe-zebra (AB)	Injetado (lábios ou cauda)	Diminuição na atividade locomotora	Magalhães <i>et al.</i> , 2017
Histamina (0.1, 0.5, 1, e 2 mg/kg)	peixe-zebra (AB)	Injetado (lábios)	Diminuição na atividade locomotora	Taylor <i>et al.</i> , 2017
Adjuvante de Freund Completo (CFA)	peixe-zebra (AB)	Injetado (lábios)	Diminuição na atividade locomotora	Taylor <i>et al.</i> , 2017
Cinamaldeído (10, 20, e 40 mM)	peixe-zebra (AB)	Injetado (lábios)	Diminuição na atividade locomotora	Taylor <i>et al.</i> , 2017
Isotiocianato de alila (1.02 M)	peixe-zebra (AB)	Injetado (lábios)	Diminuição na atividade locomotora	Taylor <i>et al.</i> , 2017
Ácido acético (2.5, 5, 10, e 15%)	peixe-zebra (AB)	Injetado (lábios)	Diminuição na atividade locomotora	Taylor <i>et al.</i> , 2017
Clipagem de cauda (30s)	peixe-zebra (AB)	Remoção da metade posterior do tecido caudal	Aumento do tempo gasto na parte superior do tanque, diminuição na atividade locomotora e aumento na coesão do cardume	Thomson <i>et al.</i> , 2019

### 3. JUSTIFICATIVA E HIPÓTESE

A busca por novas abordagens relacionadas à dor em peixe-zebra, é uma estratégia que visa simplificar e eliminar redundâncias associadas à interpretação dos fenótipos relacionados à dor neste organismo modelo. Assim, é de grande necessidade que os dados coletados possam corroborar com aqueles obtidos através das metodologias existentes. Como hipótese deste trabalho, acreditamos que a administração intraperitoneal (i.p.) de ácido acético em peixe-zebra possa induzir respostas comportamentais robustas que mimetizem dor visceral com alto valor preditivo, de face e construto. Assim, este modelo poderia ser importante para a análise de um comportamento de dor localizada mais específico, sendo sensível a analgésicos classicamente utilizados na clínica. Pelo fato dos receptores opioides estarem envolvidos na atenuação e/ou recuperação da dor, a administração de naloxona como um antagonista de receptores opioides poderá prolongar o período de dor induzida pelo ácido acético no modelo proposto. Os resultados obtidos através da validação de um modelo de dor visceral aguda em peixes-zebra permitirão consolidar uma nova estratégia para avaliar parâmetros comportamentais mais específicos relacionados à dor nesta espécie. Dessa maneira, o presente estudo servirá de suporte para uma melhor compreensão das respostas comportamentais induzidas por ácido acético em modelos aquáticos relacionados à dor.

## **4. OBJETIVO**

### **4.1. Objetivo geral**

- Caracterizar fenótipos neurocomportamentais para validação de um novo modelo de dor visceral aguda em peixe-zebra através da administração i.p. de ácido acético.

### **4.2. Objetivos específicos**

- Realizar uma revisão sistemática da literatura, abrangendo mecanismos moleculares relacionados a dor no peixe-zebra, bem como suas potencialidades e limitações para estudos da dor.
- Padronizar o método de indução de dor em peixes-zebra pela administração i.p. de diferentes doses de ácido acético;
- Avaliar a possível existência de fenótipos comportamentais relacionados à dor no modelo proposto;
- Verificar o efeito promovido pelo ácido acético sobre a locomoção e o padrão de nado dos peixes;
- Analisar se os comportamentos dos peixes alterados pela administração de ácido acético podem ser modulados por analgésicos;
- Verificar o envolvimento do sistema opioide nas respostas analgésicas promovidas pela morfina;
- Analisar uma possível participação dos opioides endógenos na recuperação do fenótipo doloroso induzido pela administração de ácido acético;

## 5. DESENVOLVIMENTO

Os tópicos “**RESULTADOS E DISCUSSÃO**” serão apresentados em forma de 3 artigos científicos. Além disso, um capítulo aceito para publicação em livro acadêmico e um protocolo disponível online podem ser encontrados nos **ANEXOS** desta tese.

**Artigo 1.** Artigo aceito para publicação na revista *Current Neuropharmacology* (Qualis referência CAPES A1, F.I. 7.363) em 2021 e se intitula “*The use of zebrafish as a non-traditional model organism in translational pain research: the knowns and the unknowns*”.

**Artigo 2.** Publicado na revista *Behavioural Brain Research* (Qualis referência CAPES A1, F.I. 3.332) em 2019 e se intitula “*Understanding nociception-related phenotypes in adult zebrafish: behavioral and pharmacological characterization using the acetic acid model*”.

**Artigo 3.** Publicado na revista *Neuroscience Letters* (Qualis referência CAPES A4 F.I. 3.046) em 2019 e se intitula “*Naloxone prolongs abdominal constriction writhing-like behavior in a zebrafish-based pain model*”.

**ARTIGO 1*****The use of zebrafish as a non-traditional model organism in translational pain research: the knowns and the unknowns***

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## REVIEW ARTICLE

# The use of Zebrafish as a Non-traditional Model Organism in Translational Pain Research: The Knowns and the Unknowns

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**Abstract:** The ability of the nervous system to detect a wide range of noxious stimuli is crucial to avoid life-threatening injury and to trigger protective behavioral and physiological responses. Pain represents a complex phenomenon, including nociception associated with cognitive and emotional processing. Animal experimental models have been developed to understand the mechanisms involved in pain response, as well as to discover novel pharmacological and non-pharmacological anti-pain therapies. Due to the genetic tractability, similar physiology, low cost, and rich behavioral repertoire, the zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) is a powerful aquatic model for modeling pain responses. Here, we summarize the molecular machinery of zebrafish responses to painful stimuli, as well as emphasize how zebrafish-based pain models have been successfully used to understand specific molecular, physiological, and behavioral changes following different algogens and/or noxious stimuli (e.g., acetic acid, formalin, histamine, Complete Freund's Adjuvant, cinnamaldehyde, allyl isothiocyanate, and fin clipping). We also discuss recent advances in zebrafish-based studies and outline the potential advantages and limitations of the existing models to examine the mechanisms underlying pain responses from evolutionary and translational perspectives. Finally, we outline how zebrafish models can represent emergent tools to explore pain behaviors and pain-related mood disorders, as well as to facilitate analgesic therapy screening in translational pain research.

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

Pain is a complex process that involves the transduction of nociceptive stimuli culminating in specific behavioral and physiological responses [1]. Chronic pain is an important biomedical and social problem whose management represents a critical unmet biomedical condition [2], necessitating

both novel animal experimental models and non-pharmacological and pharmacological therapies (e.g., analgesic drug discovery) [3]. Thus, developing valid and sensitive animal models is a key factor to the elucidation of neural, molecular, and physiological mechanisms involved in pain response [4-6].

Measuring withdrawal thresholds to noxious stimuli has long been used to examine pain responses *in vivo* [7-9]. These approaches have markedly improved our knowledge of nociception physiology, analgesic drug properties, as well as neurotransmitters (e.g., glutamate) and genes modulated in pain responses [10-13]. Although rodents are widely used in translational pain research [14, 15], developing novel alternative animal experimental models is essential to unravel evolutionarily conserved mechanisms of pain [16, 17] as

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well as to perform high-throughput *in vivo* pharmacological screens [18]. Here, we discuss the growing utility of zebrafish models to evaluate specific molecular, physiological, and behavioral phenotypes related to pain responses. We also outline the suitability of zebrafish models to assess some debilitating pain-related mood disorders, as well as cover recent advances and potential limitations of the zebrafish as a cost-effective and translatable model organism in pain research and pharmacological screens.

## 2. GENERAL MODEL FEATURES

The zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) is a suitable model organism in genetics, neuroscience, pharmacology, and drug discovery [18-21]. Compared to traditional rodent models, zebrafish exhibit some advantages for basic research, including lower space for maintenance and the large number of offsprings [22, 23]. These features reinforce the growing use of zebrafish as a powerful tool to perform medium-to-high throughput screens cost-effectively [24, 25]. The external fertilization also simplifies the production of transgenic lines, and the presence of translucent embryos facilitates the investigation of potential biomarkers of nociception *in vivo* (e.g., using gene-expression fluorescent probes) [26-30]. Although the use of zebrafish-based pain models is relatively recent [31], this species shows high sensitivity to various nociceptive stimuli [32-35]. Notably, zebrafish respond to clinically active analgesics, representing a promising model to investigate the molecular basis of human pain related disorders [16, 36-38]. Despite the anatomical differences in the central nervous system (CNS) from humans, teleost fishes display electrical activity and transcriptional changes following noxious stimuli [39-42]. Importantly, zebrafish express genes involved in pain responses [31, 36, 37, 43-50] also presenting specific “protective” pain behaviors when exposed to noxious stimuli, suggesting the existence of central mecha-

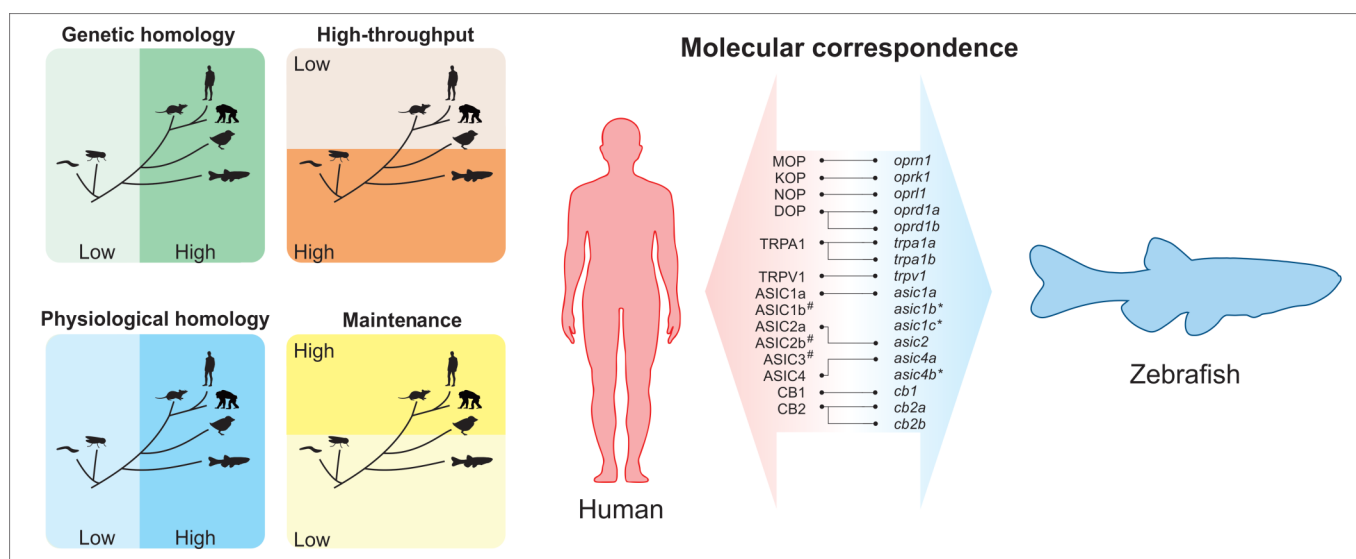
nisms underlying pain responses [51]. Fig. (1) highlights important features of zebrafish vs. other model organisms used in pain studies and the molecular correspondence between human and zebrafish orthologs involved in pain responses.

## 3. MOLECULAR MECHANISMS OF PAIN-RELATED RESPONSES

Pain is an individual sensation that mobilizes specific receptors to detect noxious stimuli, playing a pivotal role in survival and well-being of the species [10]. Zebrafish presents a complex physiological system that recognizes and responds to painful stimuli [13, 42, 52], including multiple subtypes of nociceptors already identified with similar organization of nociceptive circuits to those of mammals [36, 51, 53, 54]. Here, we emphasize the basic mechanisms of pain-related responses, focusing on the molecular machinery expressed in zebrafish (e.g., the opioid system, the transient potential receptor family (TRP), the endocannabinoid system, as well as acid-sensitive ion channels (ASIC)) and their relevance in the study of pain.

### 3.1. Opioid System

The opioid system involves multiple receptors, endogenous ligands and natural or synthetic analogs, which play a key role in pain homeostasis, mood, and well-being [55, 56]. In humans, opioid receptors belong to the G protein-coupled receptor (GPCR) superfamily, and three classical opioid receptors have been characterized so far: MOP ( $\mu$  = mu for morphine; encoded by the *OPRM1*), KOP ( $\kappa$  = kappa for ketocyclazocine; encoded by the *OPRK1*), DOP ( $\delta$  = delta for vas deferens; encoded by the *OPRD1*), and their respective endogenous ligands;  $\beta$ -endorphin, enkephalin, and dynorphin [57-59]. Although MOP, KOP, and DOP mediate analgesic effects, they rather differ in evoking affective be-



**Fig. (1).** General advantages and molecular features of zebrafish in translational pain research. As a vertebrate species, the zebrafish shows a high genetic and physiological homology when compared to mammals, but present a low cost of maintenance and feasibility to high-throughput screens similar to invertebrates (left). Molecular correspondence of the receptors involved in pain responses in humans with their respective genes in zebrafish (right). # are absent in zebrafish. \* are splice variants. (A higher resolution / colour version of this figure is available in the electronic copy of the article).

aviors [60, 61]. While MOP agonists produce euphoria and promote stress coping [62, 63], KOP agonists cause dysphoria and are associated with stress and negative effects [64, 65], and DOP agonists are known to elicit anxiolytic and antidepressant effects [60, 61]. Furthermore, the additional NOP (nociceptin/orphanin FQ) receptor encoded by the *OPRL1* gene, a non-opioid member of the opioid receptor family, has also been described in mammals, and its activation with specific ligands shows analgesic effects [66].

The genome sequencing projects allowed a comprehensive identification of the zebrafish orthologs [67, 68], such as zMOP ( $\mu$ ; encoded by the *oprml*) [45], zKOP ( $\kappa$ ; encoded by the *oprkl*) [44], and two functional copies of zDOP ( $\delta$ ; encoded by the *opr1a* and *opr1b*) [69, 70]. Furthermore, zNOP (nociceptin/orphanin FQ; encoded by *oprll*) receptor has also been characterized [71]. Here, we will use MOP, DOP, KOP, and NOP for mammals' opioid receptors, as well as zMOP, zKOP, zDOPa/b, and zNOP to describe their corresponding zebrafish opioid receptors.

In zebrafish, opioid peptide precursors include two proenkephalin genes (*penka* and *penkb*), two proopiomelanocortin genes (*pomca* and *pomcb*), one prodynorphin gene (*pdyn*), and two pronociceptin genes (*pnoca* and *pnocb*). *Penka* codes four Met-enkephalins (ME), one Met-enkephalin-Ile (MEI), and one Met-enkephalin-Asp (MED) [31, 67, 72]. *Penkb* codes four ME, one Leu-enkephalin (LE), and one Met-enkephalin-Gly-Tyr (MEGY) [73]. *Pomca* codes for adrenocorticotropin (ACTH),  $\gamma$ -lipotropin ( $\gamma$ -LPH),  $\beta$ -melanotropin ( $\beta$ -MSH), and  $\beta$ -endorphin ( $\beta$ -END) while *pomcb* codes for only  $\alpha$ -melanotropin ( $\alpha$ -MSH) and  $\beta$ -END [74]. Interestingly, ACTH and  $\alpha$ -MSH are released after hypothalamic-pituitary-interrenal axis (HPI; homologous to mammalian hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis) activation following a noxious stimulus in zebrafish [75]. While ACTH stimulates the synthesis and cortisol release [76],  $\alpha$ -MSH is responsible for camouflage response in larval zebrafish [77]. Because both molecules are released under aversive conditions, a potential involvement of camouflage in stress- and pain-responses should not be ruled out.

*Pdyn* codes for Ile-enkephalin, the neoendorphins ( $\alpha$ -neoendorphin and  $\beta$ -neoendorphin), dynorphins A and B [78]. Furthermore, both *pnoca* and *pnocb* encode two nociceptin peptides, a nociceptin orthologous to the mammalian which presents the classical 'opioid message' (-Try-Gly-Gly-Phe-) in its N-terminus, and another 'nociceptin-like' peptide, which is lost in mammals and has low homology to mammalian nociceptin [67, 73].

The pharmacological properties of the zebrafish opioid receptors have been extensively characterized [79, 80]. While zMOP, zKOP, and zDOPa/b display high affinity toward both nonselective opioid ligands [<sup>3</sup>H]-diprenorphine and [<sup>3</sup>H]-bremazocine in saturation binding assays [44, 55, 70], they show lower affinity for highly selective ligands in mammals ([d-Pen<sup>2</sup>,d-Pen<sup>5</sup>]enkephalin [<sup>3</sup>H]-DPDPE, [<sup>3</sup>H]-[D-Ala<sup>2</sup>, NMe-Phe<sup>4</sup>, Gly<sup>5</sup>-ol]-enkephalin (DAMGO), and [<sup>3</sup>H]-U69,593) [81]. Like mammals, [<sup>35</sup>S]-GTP $\gamma$ S binding assays demonstrate that all classical zebrafish opioid receptors act *via Gi* (inhibitory) protein-coupled receptors after binding agonist ligands [44, 45, 69], suggesting that the in-

formation could be transduced by the same type of mammalian GPCR.

### 3.1.1. zMOP

Currently, MOP is considered the primary target for painkillers [82], although various adverse side effects (*e.g.*, tolerance, physical dependence, and addiction) limit their effective medical use [60]. zMOP receptors are widely distributed in the zebrafish brain, and similar to their human homologs, they are highly expressed in regions involved in analgesia and reward [83]. Although zMOP shows 74% of genetic similarity related to MOP, the genomic structure of zMOP presents a stop codon on exon 3 (and not on exon 4, as occurs in mammals) [55], suggesting some difference in behavioral effects and regulatory mechanisms mediated by zMOP [55]. For example, while naloxone alone does not affect anxiety in rodents [84] and non-human primates [85], this antagonist induces anxiety-like behaviors in adult zebrafish [86].

Similar to the mammalian ortholog, the zMOP molecular structure is well conserved in both transmembrane domain and intracellular loop [45]. However, zMOP presents low conservation in the extracellular loop as well as in the carboxyl- and amino-terminal, compared to MOP [45]. Although differences in the extracellular loop can determine the selectivity of ligands, zMOP displays similar pharmacological profile and conserved functions compared to the mammalian counterparts [33, 34, 87-89].

Binding experiments using [<sup>3</sup>H]-diprenorphine demonstrate that naloxone displays highest affinity toward zMOP, followed by  $\beta$ -END = morphine > MEGY > ME > LE [72]. Likewise, dynorphin A and nociceptin can also bind to zMOP [73, 78]. While endomorphins exhibit partial agonistic properties at the zMOP, competition-binding assays in zebrafish brain membranes show that [<sup>3</sup>H] diprenorphine binds to zMOP with a nanomolar range affinity, which is antagonized by naloxone [55, 81]. Notably, zMOP also shows analgesic properties, since morphine prevents pain behaviors in both adult and larvae zebrafish, in inflammatory and visceral pain models [32-34, 87, 89]. Like in humans, adverse effects can also be observed after zMOP activation with different agonists, and include sedation (mitragynine and morphine) [90, 91], reduced gut mobility (loperamide) [92], and addiction (morphine) [93], suggesting evolutionarily conserved biological functions related to pain and mediated by these receptors.

### 3.1.2. zKOP

Similar to the stimulation of other opioid receptors, the activation of KOP produces analgesia in mammals [94, 95]. However, the administration of KOP agonists into the spinal cord or intravenously antagonizes morphine-induced analgesia [96]. Clinical trials reveal psychotomimetic and hallucinogenic effects caused by KOP agonists [97]. Interestingly, a biphasic effect was observed after salvinorin A (a KOP selective agonist) injection in zebrafish; while low doses (0.1 or 0.2  $\mu$ g/kg) evoke rewarding effects and excitation, high doses (5 or 10  $\mu$ g/kg) cause aversive effects and hallucinogenic-like behavior [98].



zKOP presents 70% genetic similarity compared to its mammalian counterpart [44]. This receptor is well conserved in both the transmembrane domain and intracellular loop, and less conserved in the extracellular loop and the carboxyl- and amino-terminal compared to KOP [44]. Interestingly, the third extracellular loop of zKOP (determinant for the binding selectivity in mammals) displays high similarity to MOP, which may explain why morphine can bind zKOP [44]. Moreover, binding experiments using [<sup>3</sup>H]-diprenorphine demonstrate that non-specific  $\delta$ - $\kappa$  agonist/ $\mu$  antagonist bremazocine displays highest affinity toward zKOP, followed by dynorphin A = naloxone > D-Arg dynorphin A > morphine [44]. Likewise, both nociceptin and nociceptin-like peptides can also bind zKOP [73]. Because of the presence of a positive-charged residue His<sup>294</sup>, which is not present in the human receptor extracellular loop, the specific KOP ligand [<sup>3</sup>H]-U69,593 does not bind zKOP [44]. Zebrafish endogenous opioid MEGY is unable to bind zKOP [99], unlike the mammalian counterpart peptide MERF, which binds the three classical opioids (MOP, DOP, and KOP) [100]. While there is no direct evidence of analgesic effects following zKOP stimulation in zebrafish-based pain models, the structural similarities between zKOP and MOP could imply such a possibility.

### 3.1.3. zDOP

Although the most prescribed opioids (*e.g.*, morphine, fentanyl, codeine) mainly target MOP receptors, the selective activation of DOP has great potential for chronic pain treatment [101, 102]. Since anxiety and mood disorders are commonly associated with chronic pain, the ability of DOP to cause anxiolytic- and antidepressant-like side effects are desirable [103]. In humans, DOP is widely distributed in the brain, specifically in the periaqueductal gray region, the rostroventral medulla, the cerebral cortex, and the amygdala [104]. In zebrafish, two functional copies of DOP were characterized: zDOPa and zDOPb [69, 70]. Similarly, zDOPa is also widespread in the CNS, from the telencephalon to the spinal cord, including areas involved in analgesia [105]. Moreover, homology analysis revealed 66% of genetic similarity comparing zDOPa to human counterparts [69]. The zDOPa is well conserved in both the transmembrane domain and intracellular loop, being less conserved in the extracellular loop and the carboxyl- and amino-terminal than DOP [69]. In mammals, the third extracellular loop of opioid receptors is a determinant for selective binding [106]. Interestingly, two Arg residues in the third extracellular loop are substituted by a Lys, which may explain why DPDPE, the prototypical ligand for the DOP, has a low affinity for the zDOPa binding site [107]. Pharmacological characterization shows that zDOPa binds the non-selective opioid antagonist [<sup>3</sup>H]diprenorphine with high affinity, followed by bremazocine >  $\beta$ -END > naloxone > morphine > DEDPE [108].

zDOPb is also widespread in the CNS, being more expressed in the dorsal telencephalic area, hypothalamus, reticular formation, facial lobe, and cerebellum than zDOPa [70]. zDOPb presents 65% of genetic similarity and is well conserved in both transmembrane domain and intracellular loop, as well as less conserved in the extracellular loop and the carboxyl- and amino-terminal compared to DOP [70]. Interestingly, zDOPb displays lower or no affinity toward

highly selective DOP ligands due to the presence of positive and negative charges in both second and third extracellular loops [70]. While both zDOPa and zDOPb are homologs with high sequence similarity (71%) [70], they present some differences. For example, an amino acid is substituted in the protein sequence of these receptors (Glu<sup>112</sup> replaces Asn<sup>115</sup> in zDOPa or by Gly<sup>117</sup> in zDOPb), which increases the peptide MEGY affinities for zDOPb [99]. Overall, both zDOPb and zDOPa show similar pharmacological properties and conserved functions, compared to their respective mammalian counterparts, whereas some differences in ligand selectivity also occur.

### 3.1.4. zNOP

Although NOP does not bind the opioid antagonist naloxone (traditionally used to discriminate opioid receptors), NOP is classified as a non-opioid member of the opioid receptor family by the International Union of Basic and Clinical Pharmacology (IUPHAR) [66]. In humans, NOP is widely distributed in both central and peripheral nervous systems [109]. Interestingly, the activation of NOP evokes distinct behavioral responses: a classical antinociceptive effect when spinally activated [110, 111], and an anti-opioid effect when NOP is supraspinally activated [112, 113].

In zebrafish, zNOP is highly expressed in the CNS and intestine, being less expressed in the peripheral nervous system [71]. Although zNOP displays 58-59% of genetic similarity related to mammalian NOP [71], their functionality may differ from the respective mammalian counterpart. Indeed, zNOP binds not only human nociceptin but also both zebrafish dynorphin A (with greater affinity) and mammalian dynorphin A, as well as naloxone (order of affinity: zebrafish dynorphin A > nociceptin > bremazocine = norbinaltorphimine = mammalian dynorphin A > naloxone) [71]. Moreover, amino acid residues that are important for ligand binding at the NOP transmembrane domains (TM) (Phe<sup>220</sup> and Phe<sup>224</sup> in TM5, Asp<sup>130</sup> and Tyr<sup>131</sup> in TM3, and Trp<sup>276</sup> in TM6) are highly conserved in the zNOP [71]. Interestingly, some residues conserved in EL2 (extracellular loop 2; region responsible by interaction with ligands) of NOP are replaced by residues involved in KOP recognition [71]. This change may explain why zNOP shows a preference for the KOP-selective ligands. Ultimately, zebrafish models may help elucidate the role of NOP in the sensory perception of pain.

## 3.2. TRP Family

The transient receptor potential (TRP) channel family acts as molecular sensors, responding to a wide variety of stimuli (*e.g.*, changes in pH, chemical agents, temperature, and osmolarity) [114, 115]. Structurally, a TRP channel contains six putative transmembrane domains (TM1-6) assembled as tetramers to form cation-permeable pores between TM5 and TM6 [115, 116]. In humans, TRP channels include 28 members divided into six subfamilies, classified as canonical (TRPC), vanilloid (TRPV), ankyrin (TRPA1), melastatin (TRPM), polycystin (TRPP), and mucolipin (TRPML) [117]. Interestingly, zebrafish express all TRP subfamilies (*trpc* [118], *trpv* [119], *trpa* [120], *trpm* [121], *trpml* [122], and *trpp* [123]). Moreover, zebrafish have a single NompC (*trpn*), which is absent in humans [37]. Because TRP is considered the most important ion channel

family that detects and transmits noxious stimuli, in this topic, here we summarize key relevant findings related to the *trpa* and *trpv* subfamilies and their importance in pain responses in zebrafish.

### 3.2.1. *Trpa1a*, *trpa1b*, and *trpv1*

The peripheral and central nociceptive systems of zebrafish are similar to those of mice and humans [124] and the nociceptive function of TRPA1 is remarkably conserved across animal species [125, 126]. However, unlike in humans and rodents, the zebrafish genome encodes two TRPA1 genes (*trpa1a* and *trpa1b*) [119]. Notably, both *trpa1a* and *trpa1b* are activated by human TRPA-agonists (allyl isothiocyanate, cinnamaldehyde, diallyl disulfide, acrolein, and 4-hydroxynonenal) [37], and antagonized by HC-030031, a competitive or negative allosteric modulator of human TRPA1 [124]. However, HC-030031 failed to show any inhibitory effects on *trpa1b* activated by cinnamaldehyde in a heterologous expression system using *Xenopus laevis* oocytes [127]. Therefore, the hypothesis that HC-030031 antagonizes *trpa1a* but not *trpa1b*, cannot be discarded.

Unlike other vertebrates (*e.g.*, chick, frog, and mice) where TRPA1 is responsible for detecting noxious chemicals and harmful temperatures [125], mounting evidence suggests that *trpa1a* mediates chemical sensing, whereas *trpa1b* responds to thermal stimuli [37, 128], albeit a mutation on *trpa1b* reduces or abolishes the hyperlocomotion induced by chemical algogens [37]. Both *trpa1a* and *trpa1b* are expressed in sensory neurons and also found in different regions and structures. While *trpa1a* is predominantly expressed in sensory ganglia innervating visceral organs, *trpa1b* is expressed in sensory neurons that innervate the skin and cranial sensory ganglia [37]. These expression patterns suggest that *trpa1b* can be activated by both internal and external stimuli, whereas *trpa1a* probably detects mainly internal stimuli.

In mammals, TRPV1 is a polymodal receptor, which acts as a sensor for noxious heat ( $> 42^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) and contributes to painful disorders (*e.g.*, diabetic-induced neuropathic pain, cancer pain, and inflammatory pain) [129]. TRPV1 is also sensitive to acidic solutions ( $\text{pH} < 6.5$ ), food ingredients (capsaicin) [130], lipid derivatives (prostaglandin E2) [131], endocannabinoid, anandamide [132], and toxins (*e.g.*, vanillotoxins and resiniferatoxin) [133]. Interestingly, zebrafish express a single *trpv1*-like ortholog receptor that could be derived from evolutionary precursors of tetrapod TRPV1 and TRPV2 [119]. Similar to the mammalian ortholog, *trpv1* acts as a heat-sensitive channel ( $\geq 25^{\circ}\text{C}$ ), although it presents a lower sensitivity than that of the mammalian counterpart ( $\geq 42^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) [36]. Notably, 5 dpf zebrafish larvae avoid temperatures rearing above  $31.5^{\circ}\text{C}$  and below  $24.5^{\circ}\text{C}$  [134], characterizing thermal hyperalgesia. Importantly, thermal hyperalgesia is a common symptom of individuals suffering from inflammatory pain, which could support the face validity of this animal model. Also, the thermal aversion is prevented by an analgesic (ibuprofen) [134], reinforcing the predictive validity of this model.

Because amino acid residues critical to TRPV1 activation by capsaicin (Ser-512 and Thr-550) are different in *trpv1*

(Thr-480 and Ile-518), zebrafish larvae do not present behavioral changes after capsaicin administration *via* water immersion [36]. However, pain behaviors can be observed after a single capsaicin administration into the lips of adult zebrafish and classical TRPV1 antagonists prevent these responses [135-138]. Similar results are observed after capsaicin administration into the lips of Atlantic cod, another teleost fish [139]. In zebrafish larvae, *trpv1* is expressed in the early stage (24 hours post fertilization, hpf), along the lateral line ganglion neurons, which do not have direct sensory properties [140]. In the first essay, capsaicin was administered into the water, which may explain why zebrafish larvae do not show aversive behaviors. Furthermore, a feasible interaction between *trpv1* and *trpa1a/trpa1b* in a capsaicin-induced pain behavior cannot be discarded since, like mammals, *trpv1* and *trpa1a/trpa1b* are co-expressed in dorsal root ganglion neurons [37], suggesting a coordinated activation of these receptors. Further studies are necessary to investigate the role of capsaicin in zebrafish-based pain models.

In general, although *trpv1*, *trpa1a*, and *trpa1b* have changed through vertebrate evolution, they modulate a similar behavioral repertoire compared to mammals. Moreover, differences in temperature threshold ( $\geq 25^{\circ}\text{C}$  for zebrafish and  $\geq 42^{\circ}\text{C}$  in mammals) are clearly associated with the adaptation of these organisms to their respective habitats. Finally, as many aspects of the zebrafish TRPA1 and TRPV1 orthologs remain unclear, more studies are necessary to elucidate the *trpv1*-, *trpa1a*-, and *trpa1b*- mediated nociception.

### 3.3. The Endocannabinoid System

The endocannabinoid system plays a key role in various biological processes, such as energy metabolism, inflammation, pain transmission, and synaptic neurotransmission [141]. In general, the endocannabinoid system is composed of cannabinoid receptors, endogenous cannabinoid ligands (anandamide and 2-arachidonoylglycerol), and enzymes involved in the synthesis or degradation of ligands [142]. Cannabinoids exert their pharmacological effects through the activation of at least two distinct cannabinoid receptors, CB1 and CB2, although mounting evidence supports the existence of other receptors, such as GPR55 [143]. Both CB1 and CB2 receptors are presynaptic *Gi* protein-coupled receptors with seven transmembrane domains that are differentially distributed in the CNS and peripheral tissues [144]. While CB1 receptor is highly expressed in the CNS (substantia nigra, globus pallidus, hippocampus, and cerebellum, with little expression in the brainstem) [145], the CB2 receptor is mainly located in immune cells peripherally [146], although it is also expressed in brain neurons (cerebellum, cortex, hippocampus, thalamus and hypothalamus, and ventral tegmental area) [147, 148]. Activation of CB1 receptors causes a robust effect on cognition, reward, and anxiety [149, 150]. On the other hand, the activation of CB2 receptors leads to immunosuppression, which limits inflammation and associated tissue damage [151]. The endocannabinoid system also modulates nociceptive responses. For example, in the peripheral system, CB1 receptors are expressed mainly in the nerve terminals and control neuronal responses [152]. Moreover, CB1 receptors are also expressed in both large and small-diameter fibers (*e.g.*, C-fibers) and inhibit the re-

lease of neurotransmitters involved in pain transmission [153-155]. Likewise, peripheral CB2 receptors reduce the release of pronociceptive molecules from immune cells and keratinocytes [152]. Additionally, cannabinoids also activate pain receptors, such as TRPV1, suggesting the use of such molecules as potential analgesics [156].

The endocannabinoid system of zebrafish is evolutionarily conserved. Basically, zebrafish possess the same receptors (cb1 and cb2 receptors share ~73% and 39% of genetic similarity compared to the human orthologs, respectively) [157, 158], ligands, and metabolic enzymes [159]. However, the zebrafish genome encodes two cb2 receptor genes: *cb2a* and *cb2b* (sharing a sequence identity of 98% between them) [158]. In zebrafish, cb1 mRNA has been detected in whole-body lysates by quantitative real-time reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reactions (qRT-PCRs) as early as the 3-somite stage, with the transcript exhibiting an increase through the first 15 days post-fertilization [160]. The zebrafish cb1 receptors are found in the telencephalon, hypothalamus, tegmentum, and anterior hindbrain by 2 dpf, and their expression remains similar into adulthood, paralleling the mammalian counterpart [157]. On the other hand, cb2a/b are abundant in immune system cells and their activation shows anti-inflammatory effects [158]. Moreover, cb2a/b mRNA has been detected by qRT-PCR in adult zebrafish brain, intestine, retina, gills, heart, pituitary, and spleen [158]. Although both zebrafish cb2a and cb2b do not have an amino acid residue responsible for ligand affinity to WIN55212-2 (Leu<sup>175</sup> replaces Phe<sup>197</sup> in zebrafish cb2a/b) [161], this radiolabeled synthetic cannabinoid (sCB) can bind to its targets in the hypothalamus, optic tectum, and telencephalon in adult zebrafish brain slices [162]. Similarly, binding assays demonstrate that the endocannabinoid (anandamide) and sCB (HU-210, WIN55212-2, and CP55940) interact with receptors in adult brain homogenates [158]. Cannabinoids also show analgesic properties, since cannabidiol, a phytocannabinoid, prevents hypolocomotion induced by acetic acid in zebrafish larvae [163].

Finally, since cb1 receptors are localized in pain-processing areas of the brain and spinal cord, and their exogenous stimulation promotes antinociception [164], zebrafish could be a powerful tool to access the interaction between opioids and cannabinoid receptors [165]. For example, low doses of cannabinoid prevented antinociceptive tolerance to morphine in animal models of neuropathic pain [166]. Additionally, pretreatment with a non-analgesic dose of tetrahydrocannabinol evokes up to a 22-fold increase in morphine-induced analgesia [167], even though the analgesic effects of cannabinoid products are relatively low [154]. Notably, CB2 receptors can also mediate antinociception and may be promising targets for pain therapy due to their relatively lower CNS expression, which can result in reduced psychotropic effects [164]. Overall, although more studies are necessary, the endocannabinoid system could be a relevant molecular pathway to study pain processes in zebrafish.

### 3.4. zASIC

Acid-sensing ion channels (ASICs) are excitatory receptors for extracellular H<sup>+</sup> [168]. Their functions include peripheral perception of pain, synaptic transmission, and

mechanosensation [169]. In mammals, there are four ASICs genes encoding six subunits (*ASIC1a* [170], *ASIC1b* [171], *ASIC2a* [172], *ASIC2b* [173], *ASIC3* [174], and *ASIC4* [175]), which act as homo- or hetero-oligomeric assemblies of individual subunits [176, 177]. In humans, ASICs are widely distributed in both central and peripheral nervous systems, but have also been detected in non-neuronal tissues, including testis (*ASIC3*) [178], pituitary gland (*ASIC4*) [179], lung epithelial cells (*ASIC3*) [180], and bone (*ASIC1-3*) [181]. In the peripheral nervous system, ASIC channels are found predominantly in small-diameter sensory neurons involved in pain [171].

In zebrafish, six ASICs have already been identified (*asic1a*, *asic1b*, *asic1c*, *asic2*, *asic4a*, and *asic4b*) [182]. Phylogenetic analyses show that *asic1a*, *asic2*, and *asic4a* are orthologous to mammals, whereas *asic1b*, *asic1c*, and *asic4b* are splice variants [182]. Although, zebrafish ASICs are broadly expressed in the CNS (starting between 24 and 48 hours post fertilization), only *asic1a* is expressed in the trigeminal ganglion (region responsible for carrying somatosensory information from the head) [182]. Both *asic1a* and *asic1c* are expressed in sensory neurons and may contribute to mechanical stimuli [182]. Although both *asic4a* and *asic4b* share ~68% of genetic similarity [171], only *asic4a* is gated by extracellular H<sup>+</sup> (pH ~5.8) [182]. Importantly, understanding how different ASICs expressed in zebrafish contribute to specific behavioral responses still requires further scrutiny, and the use of specific transgenic lines or mutants can provide relevant findings in this field.

## 4. COMPARISON OF THE EXISTING ADULT ZEBRAFISH-BASED PAIN MODELS

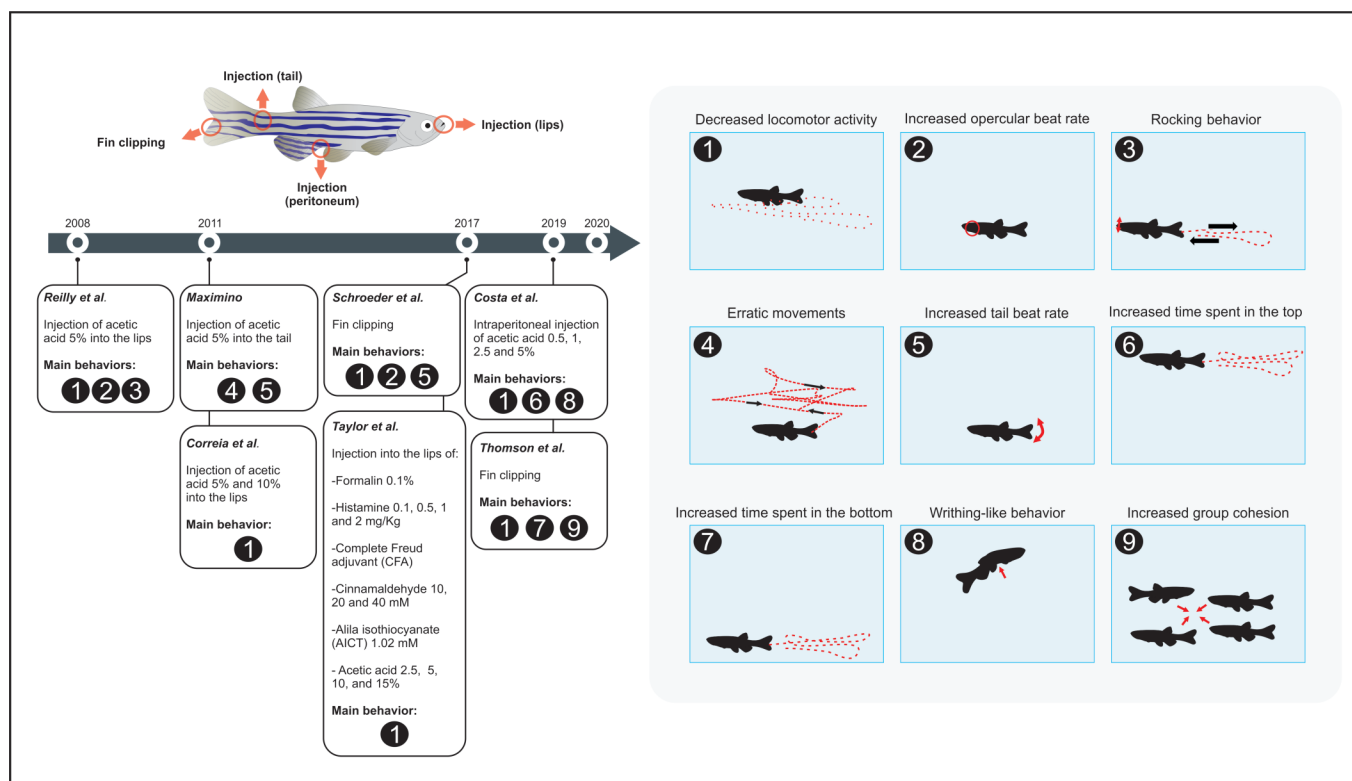
Animal experimental models are essential to characterize the functionality of distinct classes of nociceptors across taxa [51]. Mounting evidence supports that zebrafish express the necessary cellular components to recognize nociceptive agents and display aberrant behaviors in responses to algogens [13, 42, 52], also see Fig. (2) describing major methodological approaches and behavioral phenotypes of adult zebrafish related to pain responses. Because pain perception in animal models is subjective, the recognition of pain-related phenotypes is a cornerstone for understanding how noxious stimuli influence animal physiology and behavior [183, 184]. Here, we summarize the main experimental approaches to access pain behavior in zebrafish.

### 4.1. Fin Clipping

The fin clipping is a surgical procedure that removes the caudal posterior tissue, injuring nociceptive fibers and triggering pain-like responses [185]. The fin clip procedure increases the opercular- and tail-beating, the bottom-dwelling, as well as decreases locomotion [35, 87]. These pain responses are entirely prevented after lidocaine or morphine administration [35, 87, 185], supporting a robust nociceptive response in zebrafish.

### 4.2. Cinnamaldehyde

Widely used in murine models, cinnamaldehyde has been recently used in zebrafish as a nociceptive agent [33]. This TRPA1 agonist acts differently on zebrafish *trpa1a* and



**Fig. (2).** Common experimental protocols used to assess pain in adult zebrafish with the respective behavioral endpoints measured in different studies depicted in timeline perspective. References: Reilly *et al.* [42], Maximino [52], Correia *et al.* [196], Schroeder *et al.* [185], Taylor *et al.* [33], Costa *et al.* [34], Thomson *et al.* [35]. (A higher resolution / colour version of this figure is available in the electronic copy of the article).

trpa1b receptors [127]. While trpa1a is desensitized in two applications of cinnamaldehyde (even at low concentrations), trpa1b shows uniform currents after cinnamaldehyde applications [127]. Notably, cinnamaldehyde administered into the lips (40 mM) or the tail (0.003 mM) causes hypolocomotion in zebrafish [33], supporting a well-conserved biological response even when administered in different routes and doses.

### 4.3. Allyl Isothiocyanate

Another TRPA1 agonist used to induce pain in zebrafish is allyl isothiocyanate (AITC; commonly known as mustard oil). While AITC consistently increases  $Ca^{2+}$  concentration in both trpa1a and trpa1b, this response is prevented by a mammalian TRPA1 antagonist (ruthenium red), suggesting that both zebrafish TRPA1 paralogs can be activated by AITC [37]. Furthermore, a single injection of AITC (1.02 M) causes a remarkable hypolocomotion in adult zebrafish [33]. Although a reduction in distance traveled has been commonly described as pain behavior in zebrafish, there are no data showing a preventive effect of analgesics in this model, therefore, further scrutiny is required.

### 4.4. Complete Freund's Adjuvant

Commonly used to study chronic pain in preclinical research [186], the Complete Freund's Adjuvant (CFA) is composed of inactivated mycobacteria which are recognized by immune cells, through Toll-like receptor 4 (TRL4) [187], leading to persistent inflammation and pain-like be-

haviors. To date, there is a single report using CFA to access pain-like behavior in zebrafish [33]. Like in mammals, a single CFA intraperitoneal administration causes a persistent inflammation in zebrafish, starting 24 hours post-injection and persisting for at least 48 hours. CFA injection results in decreased swimming activity, which can be prevented by morphine [33]. Because depression and chronic pain often correlate in mammals [188], assessing whether the CFA administration serves as a tool to access both pain- and comorbid depression-like responses in zebrafish could be interesting in the future.

### 4.5. Histamine

Histamine is involved in several regulatory mechanisms, including allergic reactions and pain [189]. In general, the zebrafish histaminergic system resembles that of other vertebrates [190]. In adult zebrafish, histamine (1 and 2 mg/kg) injected into the lips causes hypolocomotion [33], similar to what occurs in zebrafish larvae [191]. Although the histaminergic system in zebrafish is well described, relatively little is known about its role in zebrafish pain responses.

### 4.6. Formalin Test

Unlike other approaches, the formalin test is characterized by two different stages of pain-like responses [192]. In mammals, the first stage (neurogenic) begins immediately after the injection lasting for 3-5 min, triggered by chemical stimulation of nociceptors (C fibers). The second stage (inflammatory) begins at 15-20 min and lasts for ~20-40 min,

as multiple pro-inflammatory mediators are released (e.g., histamine, prostaglandins, and serotonin) [193]. Formalin (0.1 %) injected into the tail impairs the locomotion of adult zebrafish in both neurogenic (0-5min) and inflammatory (15-30 min) stages, which are prevented by analgesics (morphine and indomethacin) [32]. Although formalin is a TRPA1 agonist in mammals, there is no evidence that formalin activates the same receptor in zebrafish.

#### 4.7. Acetic Acid

Widely used in rodents to access pain-like phenotypes [194, 195], the acetic acid administration in zebrafish evokes robust behavioral responses. For example, acid acetic injected into the lips (2.5, 5, 10, and 15%) reduces locomotion, increases the opercular beat rate, and promotes 'rocking' behavior (Fig. 2, moving side to side) in zebrafish, as well as causes them to rub their lips against the walls or gravel [33, 42, 196]. When administered near the adipose fin, acetic acid (1 %) increases both erratic movements and tail beating [52]. Moreover, zebrafish display a writhing-like behavior following a single acetic acid (2.5 and 5%) intraperitoneal injection, analogous to writhing response in rodents [34, 197]. Importantly, all behaviors described above can be prevented by clinical analgesics, supporting their pharmacological validity to measure pain-like responses.

Indeed, zebrafish-based pain models are becoming promising strategies as first-choice tools for drug screening. However, future experiments aiming to improve the use of zebrafish in translational pain research are needed. For example, there are no methodological approaches to access allodynia, as well as neuropathic pain in zebrafish so far. These models help validate the use of zebrafish as a potential organism to test novel analgesic drugs, fostering the creation of more sensitive, complex, and objective tools in preclinical research, complementing the existent rodent approaches.

### 5. PAIN-RELATED MOOD DISORDERS

Chronic pain is a global problem that affects millions of people and is linked to significant morbidity, limited mobility, and social isolation [198, 199]. Moreover, chronic pain is also associated to different emotional disorders, including anxiety and depression [200-202]. Considering the complexity of these emotions, anxiety-related disorders and major depression overlap in symptoms and comorbidity, including cognitive, affective, physical, and behavioral deficits [203, 204]. Additionally, anxiety-related disorders and depression are associated with increased pain perception [205]. In humans, pharmacological agents can be used for treating both chronic pain and emotional disorders [206, 207], whereas animal models serve as important tools to understand the evolutionarily conserved mechanisms underlying these conditions [208, 209]. Evidence shows that neurotransmitters systems (e.g., dopaminergic and serotonergic systems) are involved in CNS disorders and pain-regulatory processes [210, 211]. In addition to traditional rodent models, zebrafish serve as a promising tool to investigate the molecular basis of pain and emotional disorders due to high genetic homology and neurochemical conservation when compared to humans [212, 213]. Furthermore, several behavioral paradigms have been validated in zebrafish to assess anxiety- and de-

pression-like phenotypes (e.g., the novel tank and the light-dark tests), as well as pain behavior [52]. Importantly, although changes in the mean distance traveled or altered swim velocity may indicate pain-like conditions, these endpoints may also reflect other behaviors in zebrafish (e.g., anxiety-, non-specific sedation- and/or depressive-like states) [214]. Indeed, locomotor-related parameters represent an overall state of "well-being" and should not be merely described as unique measures of nociception [34]. In line with this, locomotor activity should be tested in the presence of analgesics, aiming to improve predictive validity. Using complementary behavioral endpoints to assess pain responses in adult zebrafish more accurately should also be considered.

Zebrafish is sensitive to various anxiolytics and anti-pain medications [34, 215] and present well-characterized behaviors (e.g., relatively complex swimming activity, as well as high social interaction). Pharmacological experiments revealed that acute morphine (2 mg/L) exposure for 20 min promotes anxiolytic-like behaviors, while 5 mg/L naloxone increases anxiety-like responses in the novel tank diving test [86]. Altogether, these data implicate opioids in the modulation of anxiety-like behaviors, reinforcing the existence of useful behavioral repertoires in zebrafish for modeling emotional disorders and pain-related phenotypes [212, 214].

### 6. ADVANTAGES AND LIMITATIONS OF ZEBRAFISH MODELS IN ANTI-PAIN MEDICATION SCREENING

#### 6.1. Comparison between Larvae and Adult Zebrafish

To understand the molecular and physiological mechanisms underlying nociception in vertebrates, both larvae and adult zebrafish have become tractable systems in translational pain research. For example, adult fish show reduced activity and swimming behavior in response to a range of potentially painful laboratory procedures that are ameliorated by several drugs with analgesic properties, including local anaesthetics, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, and opioids [35, 87]. Studies utilizing < 5 dpf larvae have demonstrated the same results with a reduction in activity with selected drugs, preventing painful responses [89]. These findings confirm the validity of replacing adult zebrafish with younger animals. Moreover, a large number of larvae can be assessed simultaneously in a high-throughput manner (25-96 in well plates) compared to multiple adults being assessed at once. Furthermore, transparent larvae can be imaged in real-time to investigate CNS changes in relation to innocuous and potentially painful stimuli and whether anaesthetic or analgesic drugs can reduce or prevent pain-related brain activity. Although zebrafish larvae have less sophisticated behaviors than adults and a CNS yet to be fully matured [216], their simple and transparent brain allows for the investigation of the brain circuitry involved in pain responses during early developmental stages. The precise CNS processing of painful stimuli in zebrafish is yet to be elucidated, but their utility can help target specific brain areas involved in mammalian pain processing and assist in the search for novel analgesic compounds. However, caution should be applied to the use of < 5 dpf larvae in terms of the ethics of animal use. The 3Rs (Reduction, Replacement, Refinement)

and ethical review should apply to all animal studies, especially regarding the number of animals used in experiments [217]. Researchers should use the minimum number of larvae to achieve the research objectives, and should also apply refinement by using the least invasive techniques and safeguarding welfare.

## 6.2. Limitations

Zebrafish models possess some limitations in the translatability of their data due to certain differences from mammals, such as in metabolic physiology (cold-blooded fish vs. warm-blooded mammals), brain development, and anatomy (*e.g.*, zebrafish lack cortex) [218]. In addition, zebrafish also present some limitations in neuroscience research. For example, the genome duplication event in teleost fishes [219] complicates genetic analyses of pain responses since some pain-related genes may exist in two copies or be missing in zebrafish. Because of its small size, the long-term monitoring of endocrine levels from blood (*e.g.*, glucose levels) is also problematic as it is difficult to obtain a sufficient amount of blood without euthanizing the animal [220].

## 6.3. Advantages

Zebrafish models have been used to study CNS pharmacological modulation by conventional and non-conventional therapies (*e.g.*, Traditional Chinese Medicine) [221], reinforcing its potential for the development of pharmacological and non-pharmacological therapies for CNS disorders [222] and pain. Another advantage in zebrafish compared to other animal models (*e.g.*, rodents) in pharmacological screening is its high performance. For instance, using zebrafish larvae, one may test over 10000 drugs behaviorally in a single study [223], which may help understand behavioral effects of an-

algesic therapies, molecular mechanisms, and neural circuits involved in pain response. Zebrafish present a high degree (~70%) of genetic homology when compared to humans [224], as well as offer several CNS genetic models [225], which reinforce this aquatic model as a powerful species to explore genetic modulation of pain and related disorders. Importantly, zebrafish have sophisticated behaviors, which can be easily assessed using automated video-tracking systems to perform 3D reconstructions of the swimming traces in adult specimens [214]. Although the development of novel automated systems to measure behavioral activities simultaneously in a group of subjects is necessary, the use of existing video-tracking technologies may increase the efficiency and speed of time-intensive manual coding to measure pain-related responses in zebrafish. This strategy not only minimizes human bias, but also allows an in-depth investigation of specific behavioral responses in fish treated with different algogens in a high-throughput and reliable manner.

## 7. FUTURE PERSPECTIVES AND CONCLUDING REMARKS

In conclusion, zebrafish have been considered an emergent tool to investigate the neurobehavioral basis of pain due to their numerous practical advantages over traditional (rodent) models. This species is space-efficient and enables easy experimental manipulations with a relatively lower cost of maintenance [23]. Some features such as the high reproduction rate, external fertilization, transparency of embryos, and rapid development [226], may foster studying epigenetic mechanisms of pain and probing how painful stimuli during early development affect fish as adults. Multiple transgenic lines created by gene-editing (*e.g.*, CRISPR-Cas9 or transcription activator-like effector nucleases/TALENs) methods have been generated in zebrafish [227, 228]. For exam-

**Table 1. Selected open questions in zebrafish-based pain research.**

Questions
• Can zebrafish present a relatively complex central processing associated with emotional responses of pain?
• Which areas of the zebrafish CNS are involved in processing painful stimuli?
• How important is the descending control of pain, given the empirical results for stress induced analgesia in zebrafish?
• Given the evidence for pain in zebrafish should we implement pain management protocols in the laboratory employing invasive techniques where pain is not the objective?
• Can we develop standard protocols for investigating pain in zebrafish to increase reproducibility within and between laboratories?
• When using non-protected or non-regulated larval zebrafish (typically <5dpf) ethical review and implementation of 3Rs frameworks should be considered as important tools to ensure humane treatment of the experimental fish. What is the best strategy to implement this aspect practically?
• How much the environment ( <i>e.g.</i> , pH, temperature, salinity) can influence in zebrafish pain response?
• How much can stress ( <i>e.g.</i> , experimental manipulation) influence in zebrafish pain response?
• What is the most appropriate behavioral test to assess zebrafish pain phenotypes?
• How to distinguish between a stress and a painful behavioral response in zebrafish?
• How translational to human is the zebrafish pharmacological and non-pharmacological analgesic response?
• Are there differences across strain and age in zebrafish pain response?

ple, the expression of mutant SCN9A, a voltage-gated sodium channel, represents a model to study small-fiber neuropathy and potential analgesic properties of novel compounds in zebrafish [229]. Moreover, zebrafish show high plasticity of CNS [230]. Prominent cell proliferation can occur in different CNS regions of zebrafish, such as the telencephalon and the spinal cord [231, 232], helping to elucidate how adult neurogenesis modulates pain responses, learning, and emotional behaviors, complementing the existing rodent approaches. Finally, the existence of relatively complex behavioral responses [214], as well as multiple strain-, sex- and individual differences in zebrafish, offers further important practical and conceptual advantages to elucidate the link between pain and affective disorders in this aquatic species.

Zebrafish also represent an important model organism in the discovery of novel treatments and therapeutics for pain [124, 134]. However, our present understanding of zebrafish pain-related phenotypes and their molecular mechanisms remains limited (Table 1). One key question to be solved is the precise CNS processing of ascending nociceptive inputs and descending control of pain. This knowledge helps target specific brain areas in the pursuit of discovering new means of reducing pain in biomedical and veterinary studies. Replacing adult zebrafish with young larval forms can increase the throughput of experiments and enhance the rapid testing of pharmacological agents. This could lead to greater translatability of drug efficacy from laboratory models to clinical testing. The use of artificial intelligence monitoring systems is growing in the behavioral analysis of animals [233, 234]. Not only does this provide a means of automatically measuring behaviors that cannot be done by the human observer but it also eliminates any human error or bias and can provide a more subtle means of measuring changes in pain behavior in response to treatment and application of pain-relieving drugs. Furthermore, to combat the reproducibility crisis that we are currently experiencing in the field, standard pain assessment protocols should be developed so that all laboratories are following the same methods. For experimental studies employing invasive techniques where the pain is not the objective of that study, the development of pain management protocols for zebrafish would be a major step forward in the refinement of zebrafish use. Importantly, animal models are suitable tools to investigate the neurobehavioral mechanisms of pain, aiming to develop safer and more effective pharmacological treatments. Mounting evidence which is only briefly discussed here implicates the use of non-traditional zebrafish models as a fruitful strategy to generate important translational insights into molecular, physiological, and neurobehavioral mechanisms of pain.

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### CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflict of interest, financial or otherwise.

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**ARTIGO 2**

***Understanding nociception-related phenotypes in adult zebrafish:  
behavioral and pharmacological characterization using the acetic acid  
model***

**Fabiano V. Costa**, Luiz V. Rosa, Vanessa A. Quadros, Adair R. S. Santos  
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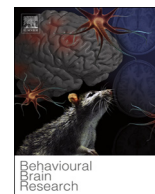
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# Understanding nociception-related phenotypes in adult zebrafish: Behavioral and pharmacological characterization using a new acetic acid model

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## ABSTRACT

Pain, a severely debilitating symptom of many human disorders, is a growing, unmet biomedical problem. Although the use of zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) to investigate both behavioral and physiological nociception-related responses is expanding rapidly, the characterization of behavioral phenotypes that reflect injury location is limited, making the results of such studies difficult to interpret. Here, we characterize putative nociception-related behavioral phenotypes in adult zebrafish following an intraperitoneal (i.p.) administration of acetic acid, a well-established protocol for visceral pain in rodents. Acetic acid (2.5 and 5.0%) induced an abdominal constriction-like response, which was assessed by measuring a body curvature index. Moreover, all doses tested (0.5–5.0%) reduced distance traveled and vertical activity in the novel tank test. Freezing duration increased following 5.0% acetic acid, whereas fish injected with 1.0, 2.5, and 5.0% spent more time in top area of the tank. Both morphine (an opioid analgesic) and diclofenac (a nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug, NSAID) prevented the 5.0% acetic acid-induced changes in body curvature index, whereas naloxone blocked these effects of morphine. Overall, zebrafish exposed to a single acetic acid i.p. injection display abnormal body curvature and specific changes in behavioral parameters sensitive to anti-nociceptive pharmacological modulation. We suggest that the abdominal constriction-like response represents a novel specific nociceptive-related phenotype in zebrafish. In general, our findings support the growing utility of zebrafish in translational pain research and antinociceptive drug discovery.

## 1. Introduction

Pain is a severely debilitating symptom of many human disorders,

representing an urgent unmet biomedical problem [1,2]. Nociception involves transmission of painful signals by nociceptors in the primary afferent nerve fibers, in response to mechanical, thermal or chemical

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noxious stimuli [3,4]. This stimulus then activates the central nervous system (CNS), triggering pain perception and behavioral responses to pain [5–7]. Although rodent models are widely used in translational pain research [8,9], other alternative experimental models help assess evolutionarily conserved mechanisms underlying nociception and their associated behavioral phenotypes [10,11].

The zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) is rapidly emerging as a promising model organism to study nociceptive-like responses [12]. Homologous to human nociceptors, Transient Receptor Potential (TRP) ion channels (e.g., TRPV1 and TRPA1), acid-sensing ion channels (ASICs), and toll-like receptors (TLRs) have already been characterized in zebrafish [13–18]. Although various studies use locomotor changes and opercular beat rate as major endpoints of fish nociception [19–22], many of them focus on behavioral parameters affected by algogens, and do not specifically measure nociception per se. For example, changes in distance traveled or altered swim velocity do not necessarily indicate a specific nociception-related phenotype, and may also reflect fish stress, anxiety-, nonspecific sedation- and/or depressive-like behaviors [23]. Therefore, these endpoints may not offer a proper specificity for adult fish nociception, making the results obtained somewhat difficult to interpret.

Zebrafish injected with acetic acid near the adipose fin [24] or submitted to the fin clipping procedure [25] show a higher frequency of tail beating, suggesting a local nociceptive effect. However, there is limited empirical evidence of specific nociception-related behaviors that may result from direct activation of nociceptors. To further characterize potential nociception-related phenotypes in a new model organism (zebrafish), we describe a novel protocol using the intraperitoneal acetic acid administration, conceptually adapted from a well-established nociception rodent model [26]. Our goal was not to transfer the effective model from mice to fish, but to develop a novel protocol that is efficient in zebrafish and is based on specific nociceptive behavioral responses of this aquatic species. Additionally, to explore potential pharmacological mechanisms involved in nociception-related behaviors, we further validate this method using two clinically active medications with distinct analgesic properties: a non-selective opioid receptor agonist morphine, and a nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug (NSAID) diclofenac.

## 2. Methods

### 2.1. Animals

Subjects were 85 animals (~50:50 male:female ratio) adult zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) (4–6 months-old, weighing 0.250–0.300 g) of short-fin wild type outbred strain obtained from a local commercial distributor (Hobby Aquarios, RS, Brazil). Animals were acclimated in 50-L thermostatic aerated housing tanks (50 × 35 × 30 cm, length × height × width) equipped with filters containing activated carbon for at least two weeks prior to the experiments. The water was pretreated with AquaSafe™ (Tetra, USA) and the temperature was set at  $27 \pm 1$  °C, pH  $7.2 \pm 0.15$ , conductivity at 1300–1500  $\mu\text{S}\cdot\text{cm}^{-1}$ , dissolved oxygen at  $6.0 \pm 0.1$  mg/L, total ammonia at  $< 0.01$  mg/L, nitrate  $< 50$  mg/L, nitrite  $< 0.1$  mg/L, alkalinity and hardness at 75 mg/L  $\text{CaCO}_3$  [27]. Water conditions were monitored daily and 50% water was changed twice a week. Illumination was provided by ceiling-mounted fluorescent light tubes on a 14/10 light/dark photoperiod cycle (lights on at 7:00 am and off at 9:00 pm). Fish were fed thrice daily with commercial flake fish food (Alcon BASIC™, Alcon, Brazil). All animals were experimentally naive and maintained in accordance with the US National Institutes of Health Guide for Care and Use of Laboratory Animals. All protocols were approved by the Ethics Committee on Animal Use of the Federal University of Santa Maria (Protocol 5438310817).

### 2.2. Drugs

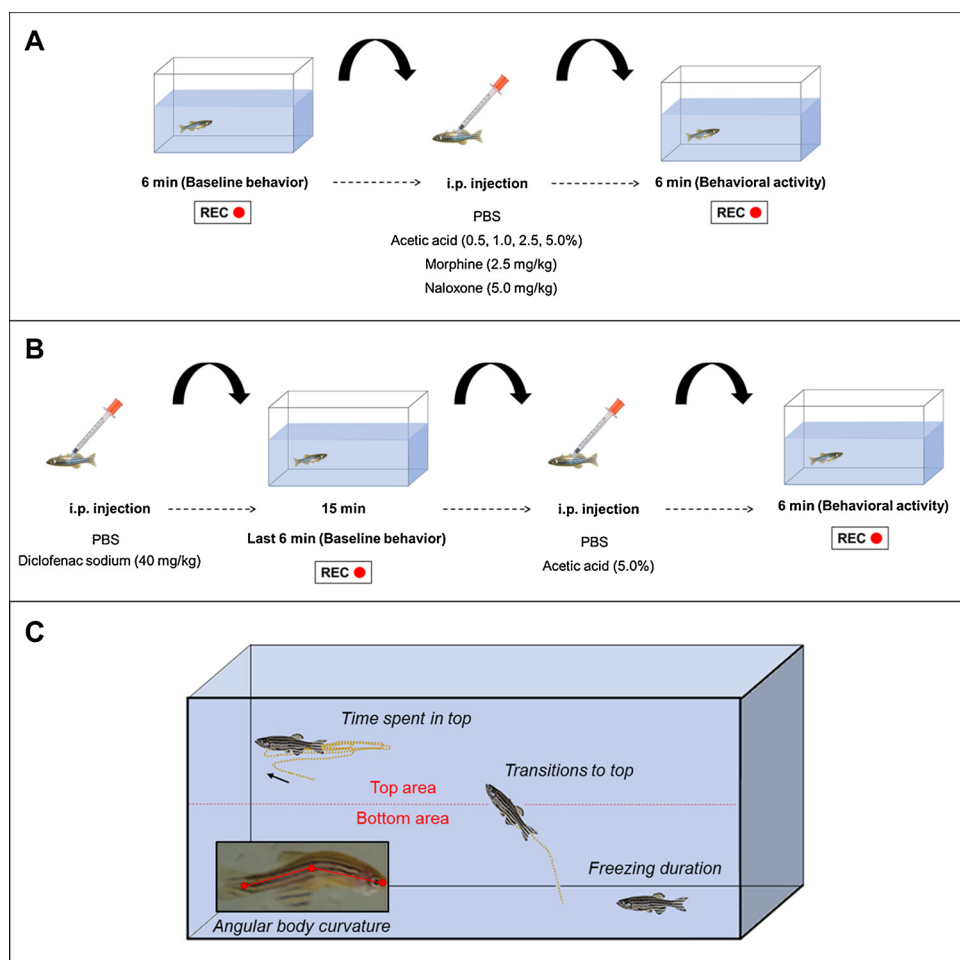
Acetic acid (99%), morphine sulfate, naloxone methiodide, and phosphate buffered saline (PBS) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). Diclofenac sodium was purchased from Novartis (São Paulo, Brazil).

### 2.3. Acetic acid administration protocol and behavioral analyses

Zebrafish ( $n = 5$  per experimental group) were randomly selected from at least three housing tanks and placed individually for 6 min in the observation tanks (15 × 13 × 10 cm, length × height × width) with a 10-cm water depth. Water conditions were similar to those used in the housing tanks and the baseline behavioral activity of fish was recorded for 6 min (Fig. 1A). Then, PBS (control group) or acetic acid (using PBS as vehicle) were administered intraperitoneally (i.p.). Animals were gently handled, anesthetized in cold water [28], and briefly immobilized using a small wet net. Acetic acid (0.5, 1.0, 2.5, or 5.0%) was quickly injected into the midline between the pelvic fins through the net. The i.p. injection occurred in a relatively short period (less than 10 s) and this method was preferred over other known methods of fish i.p. treatment (e.g., chemical anesthesia with tricaine or other similar drugs) in order to prevent any additional anesthesia from concomitantly factoring into the drug effects examined here. Importantly, this protocol allows a fast evaluation of the swimming activity after fish return to the water, minimizing potential pharmacological interference on complex behaviors (e.g., depth preference, immobility, and locomotion). Behavioral recordings started as soon as the fish regains equilibrium ( $\pm 1$  min post-injection), thus allowing a more precise observation of acute pain responses [28]. No differences in body curvature indexes were observed between male and female after 5.0% acetic acid injection (see Supplementary Fig. S1) and thus, male and female were used in a ~50:50 male:female ratio per group. Because no differences were observed in body curvature indexes when 5 vs. 10 animals were treated with PBS or 5.0% acetic acid in pilot experiments (see Supplementary Fig. S2), we chose to use  $n = 5$  for behavioral assays, adhering to the 3Rs principles of ethical animal experimentation. Two separate batches of fish were tested in this study, and the results were generally consistent between the batches. All injections were performed using a BD Ultra-fine™ 30U syringe (needle size 6 mm × 0.25 mm) with a maximum volume of 10  $\mu\text{L}$  (which is shown not to impair normal zebrafish behaviors [28,29]). The doses of acetic acid used here were selected based on our pilot studies and on previous reports that assessed nociception in fish species, including zebrafish [20,30]. Then, fish were returned to their observation tanks and behavioral activities were recorded for 6 min (Fig. 1A) using a digital camera (Nikon Coolpix P900, Tokyo, Japan). All behavioral tests in this study were performed between 09:00 am and 4:00 pm. After the experimental procedures, animals were immediately anesthetized in cold water (4 °C) and then euthanized by decapitation.

### 2.4. Effects of morphine, naloxone, and diclofenac on behavior

Following the baseline recordings for 6 min, animals were gently handled using a small net and the 6 fish cohorts were tested in parallel after i.p. injections of PBS (control), acetic acid (5.0%), morphine (2.5 mg/kg), acetic acid plus morphine, naloxone (5.0 mg/kg), and acetic acid plus morphine plus naloxone. Behavioral activities of these cohorts ( $n = 5$  per experimental group) were recorded for 6 min (Fig. 1A), as described above. Morphine treatment for this study was chosen because as a classical, clinically approved and potent opioid analgesic drug [31] widely used in experimental models of pain [32,33], with a known sensitivity in zebrafish [20]. Naloxone was chosen for this study as a classical opioid antagonist [31], commonly used to antagonize morphine antinociception in various experimental model organisms [34,35], including zebrafish [20]. The doses of



**Fig. 1.** A brief summary of the experimental protocol and behavioral analyses performed in the study. (A) Nociception-like behavioral phenotyping following PBS, acetic acid, morphine, and naloxone intraperitoneal (i.p.) injections. (B) Protocol used for assessing the behavioral effects of zebrafish pretreated with diclofenac sodium 15 min prior to PBS and acetic acid i.p. injections. Baseline behavioral values and body curvatures were measured for each animal tested. (C) Behaviors of zebrafish were analyzed before and after acetic acid administration. Inset: the three body points (frontal, central and posterior, denoted by red dots) used here to estimate the angular body curvature, calculated as area under curve (AUC, see text for details).

morphine and naloxone used here were similar to those described in a previous report using zebrafish [20].

To assess the potential antinociceptive effects of diclofenac, animals ( $n = 5$  per experimental group) were handled and injected i.p. with PBS or diclofenac (40 mg/kg), as described above. Then, animals were kept for 15 min in the tank, and their activity was recorded for 6 min before and after acetic acid (5.0%) or PBS injection (Fig. 1B). Diclofenac was chosen as a common, clinically approved non-steroidal anti-inflammatory analgesic drug [36] widely used in experimental models to assess nociception-related phenotypes [37,38].

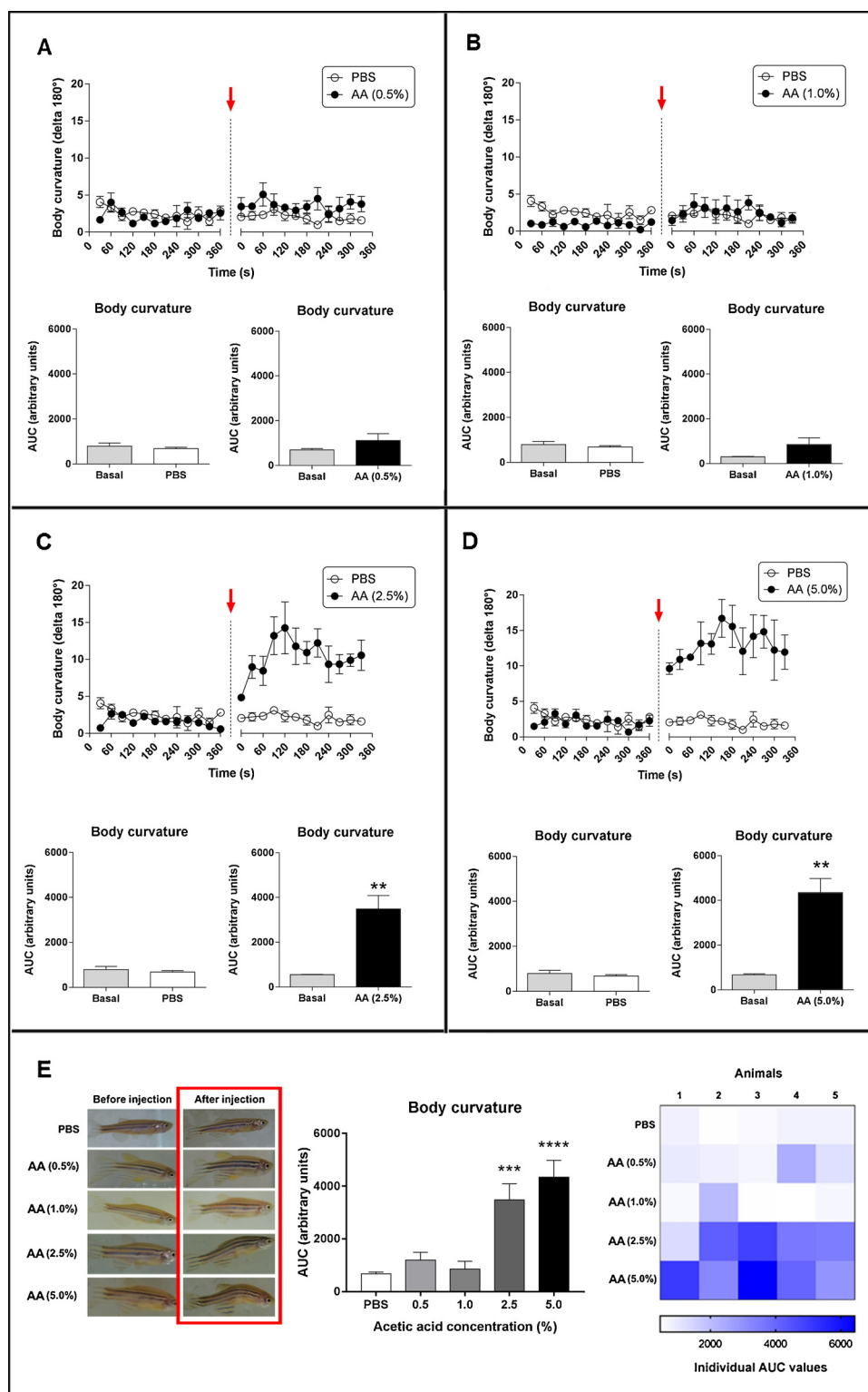
## 2.5. Behavioral parameters

To establish potential nociception-related behaviors of zebrafish, their swimming was recorded 6 min prior to (baseline values) and after a single acetic acid i.p. injection. All behaviors were video-recorded (as described above) and analyzed by automated video-tracking software (Any-Maze™, Stoelting, CO, USA) at 30 frames/s, to quantify the distance traveled, freezing duration, transitions to top area, and time spent in top area of the tank (Fig. 1C). Freezing was defined as a complete immobility ( $\geq 2$  s) except by gills and eyes accompanied by fast opercular beat rates, as described elsewhere [23]. The local effects of acetic acid were assessed by measuring the body curvature index, which represents an abdominal constriction-like response. Frontal digital pictures were taken every 30 s (totaling 24 photos per fish). Afterward, the body curvature was measured with ImageJ 1.45 software for Windows (NIH, Bethesda, MD, USA). We selected three points to estimate the fish body curvature: a frontal (in the front of the head) and a central (in the middle of the animal's body – between the anal and

dorsal fins), and a posterior point (at the caudal fin) (Fig. 1C, inset). Results were subtracted from  $180^\circ$  to calculate a value representing a body curvature index. Temporal variations in the body curvature index were measured by two trained observers blinded to the experimental condition (inter-rater reliability  $> 0.90$ ) and expressed as the area under curve (AUC). Importantly, both observers and data analysts were blinded to the treatment groups. Only person who treated the animals knew their conditions, but did not analyze the data, and only compiled the results after analyses.

## 2.6. Statistics

Data normality and homogeneity of variances were analyzed by Kolmogorov–Smirnov and Bartlett's tests, respectively. Changes in body curvature index and behavioral activity were analyzed by paired Student's *t*-test, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA, factor: treatment), or two-way ANOVA (factors: acetic acid and diclofenac). Differences among groups were further assessed by Dunnett's post hoc test (acetic acid vs. PBS) or by Student-Newman-Keuls multiple comparison test for significant ANOVA data. Results were expressed as means  $\pm$  standard error of the mean (S.E.M.) and non-parametric data (freezing duration) was previously log-transformed. Two trained observers blinded to the experimental conditions selected the fish images used here as representative examples for illustrations on a consensus basis. The inter-rater reliability was calculated using Spearman correlation. The level of significance was set at  $p \leq 0.05$  in all analyses.



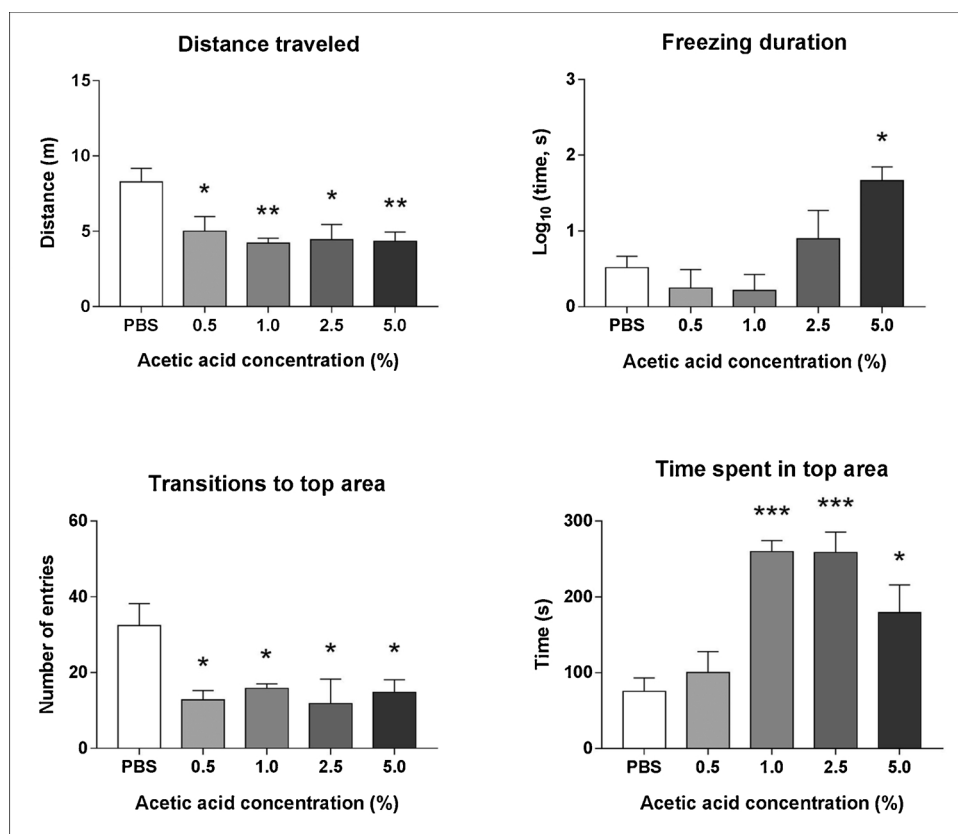
**Fig. 2.** Intra-peritoneal acetic acid injection markedly affects the body curvature index. (A–D) Changes in body curvature index in PBS and acetic acid groups (AA 0.5, 1.0, 2.5, and 5.0%) across time. Red arrows indicate the moment of injection. Area under curve (AUC) values were calculated and expressed as arbitrary units. (E) Representative images displaying the zebrafish phenotypes before and after acetic acid injection, as well as the effects of acetic acid at different doses in relation to PBS group, and the heat map diagram showing the values of AUC obtained for each fish tested. Data are expressed as means  $\pm$  S.E.M. and analyzed by paired Student's *t* test or one-way ANOVA (factor: treatment), followed by Dunnett's post-hoc test for significant ANOVA data. (\*\* $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*\* $p < 0.005$ ; \*\*\*\* $p < 0.001$ , AA vs. basal (C-D), AA vs. PBS (E)).

### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Intra-peritoneal acetic acid injection changes zebrafish behavioral phenotypes

Acetic acid (0.5 and 1.0%, i.p.) injection did not modify zebrafish body curvature index ( $t_{(df = 4)} = 1.47$ ,  $p = 0.2154$  and  $t_{(df = 4)} = 1.855$ ,  $p = 0.1371$ , respectively) (Fig. 2A and B). However, temporal analyses revealed an increased body curvature index following

2.5 ( $t_{(df = 4)} = 4.877$ ,  $p = 0.0082$ ) and 5.0% acetic acid ( $t_{(df = 4)} = 5.734$ ,  $p = 0.0046$ ) (red arrow, 360 s) compared to their baseline conditions (Fig. 2C and D). Importantly, PBS alone did not change the body curvature index ( $t_{(df = 4)} = 0.6246$ ,  $p = 0.5661$ ). The effects of different doses of acetic acid on body curvature index in comparison to control (PBS), as well as representative images of fish from each experimental condition, and the heat map for individual AUC values, are shown in Fig. 2E. Moreover, the abdominal constriction-like behavior measured here is highly reproducible, showing similar responses when



**Fig. 3.** Intraperitoneal acetic acid injection potently affects zebrafish behavior. Locomotor and exploratory endpoints were assessed by distance traveled, freezing duration, number of entries and time spent in top area. Data are expressed as means  $\pm$  S.E.M. and analyzed by one-way ANOVA (factor: treatment), followed by Dunnett's post-hoc test for significant ANOVA data (\* $p < 0.05$ ; \*\* $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*\* $p < 0.005$  vs. PBS;  $n = 5$  per group).

5 or 10 fish per group were tested previously (Supplementary Fig. S2). **Figure 3** shows the influence of acetic acid on zebrafish behavior, as it reduced locomotion ( $F_{(4,20)} = 4.487$ ,  $p = 0.0095$ ) and transitions to top area ( $F_{(4,20)} = 3.784$ ,  $p = 0.0189$ ) compared to control (PBS). Freezing duration increased at 5.0% ( $F_{(4,20)} = 6.005$ ,  $p = 0.0024$ ), whereas fish injected with 1.0, 2.5, and 5.0% acetic acid spent more time in top ( $F_{(4,20)} = 11.17$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ). A representative video showing the main baseline behaviors of zebrafish, as well as the behavioral responses following PBS and 5% acetic acid i.p. injections is provided as a Supplementary Video S1 online.

### 3.2. Opioid system modulates acetic acid-induced changes in body curvature index and behavior

A non-selective opioid receptor agonist morphine co-administration completely prevented changes in body curvature index following 5.0% acetic acid i.p. injection. Additionally, naloxone antagonized the preventive effects of morphine ( $F_{(5,24)} = 33.83$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ , **Fig. 4A**). Representative images of fish from different experimental cohorts and the heat map of individual AUC values are shown in **Fig. 4B** and **C**.

**Fig. 5** illustrates the involvement of the opioid system in modulating zebrafish behaviors following acetic acid i.p. administration. While morphine abolished acetic acid-induced effects on freezing ( $F_{(5,24)} = 10.9$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ) and time spent in top of the tank ( $F_{(5,24)} = 4,216$ ,  $p < 0.0068$ ), naloxone antagonized the effects of morphine only for time spent in top ( $F_{(5,24)} = 4,216$ ,  $p < 0.0068$ ). In contrast, neither morphine nor naloxone injected alone affected zebrafish behavior at doses given (**Fig. 5**).

### 3.3. Diclofenac prevents acetic acid-induced changes in body curvature index

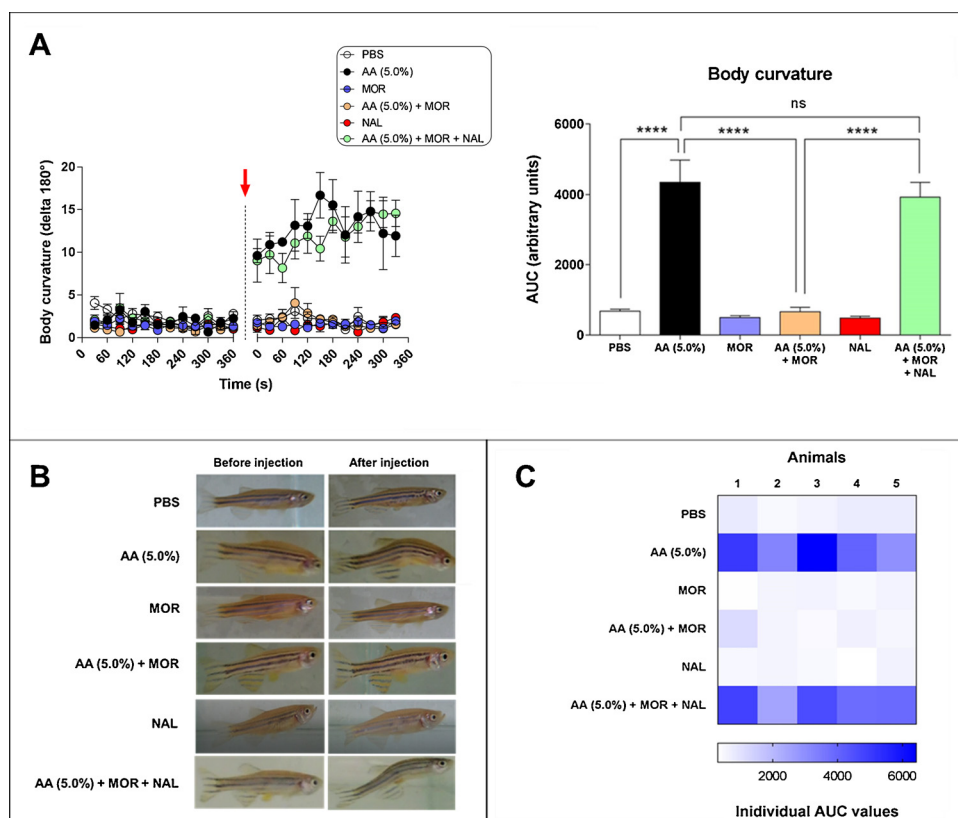
As shown in **Fig. 6A**, an NSAID diclofenac pretreatment completely prevented changes in body curvature index following 5.0% acetic acid

i.p. injection. Furthermore, diclofenac alone did not change fish body curvature index ( $F_{(3,16)} = 33.19$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ). Representative images of fish at different experimental conditions and the heat map of individual AUC values are provided in **Fig. 6B** and **C**, respectively. **Figure 6D** shows modulatory effects of diclofenac on fish behavior following acetic acid i.p. administration. Diclofenac pretreatment did not prevent acetic acid-induced changes in fish locomotor and vertical activity. Moreover, although diclofenac alone reduced vertical transitions, it did not affect other zebrafish behaviors (**Fig. 6D**).

## 4. Discussion

The present study combined an acute acetic acid i.p. injection with in-depth behavioral analyses as a novel model to characterize potential nociception-related behaviors in zebrafish. Here, we showed that acetic acid acutely decreases locomotion and induces a characteristic abdominal constriction-like phenotype (measured as body curvature index in zebrafish), analogous to writhing response in rodents. Morphine co-administration prevented acetic acid-induced variations in the body curvature index and corrected some other behaviors. While naloxone antagonized the antinociceptive effects of morphine on body curvature index, zebrafish pretreated with an NSAID diclofenac showed no abnormal body curvature following acetic acid administration (albeit not rescuing other behavioral responses). Based on known pharmacological actions of morphine and diclofenac, we suggest that the abdominal constriction-like behavior represents a general nociception-related response to acetic acid i.p. injection, corrected by both clinically active analgesics with distinct antinociceptive mechanisms.

Studies involving nociception in teleost fish are important to characterize the functionality of distinct classes of nociceptors across taxa and species [30]. Mounting evidence suggests that zebrafish express necessary cellular components to recognize nociceptive agents, and display complex abnormal behaviors in responses to algogens [22,24,39]. Since pain perception in animal models is subjective, the

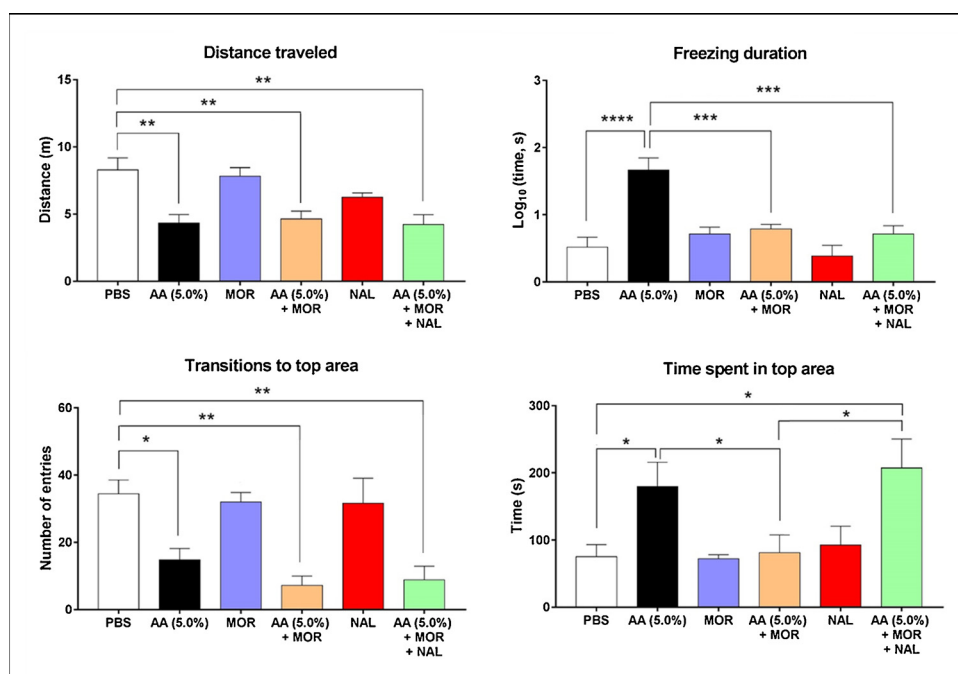


**Fig. 4.** Effects of morphine (MOR, 2.5 mg/kg, i.p.) and naloxone (NAL, 5.0 mg/kg, i.p.) on 5.0% acetic acid (AA)-induced changes in zebrafish body curvature index. (A) Changes in body curvature index in PBS, AA, MOR, AA + MOR, NAL, and AA + MOR + NAL groups across time. The red arrow indicates the moment of injection. Area under curve (AUC) values were calculated and expressed as arbitrary units. Data are expressed as means  $\pm$  S.E.M. and analyzed by one-way ANOVA (factor: treatment), followed by Student-Newman-Keuls post-hoc test for significant ANOVA data (ns = no significance; \*\*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ ;  $n = 5$  per group). (B) Representative images displaying the zebrafish phenotypes before and after the treatments. (C) Heat map diagram showing the values of AUC obtained for each fish tested.

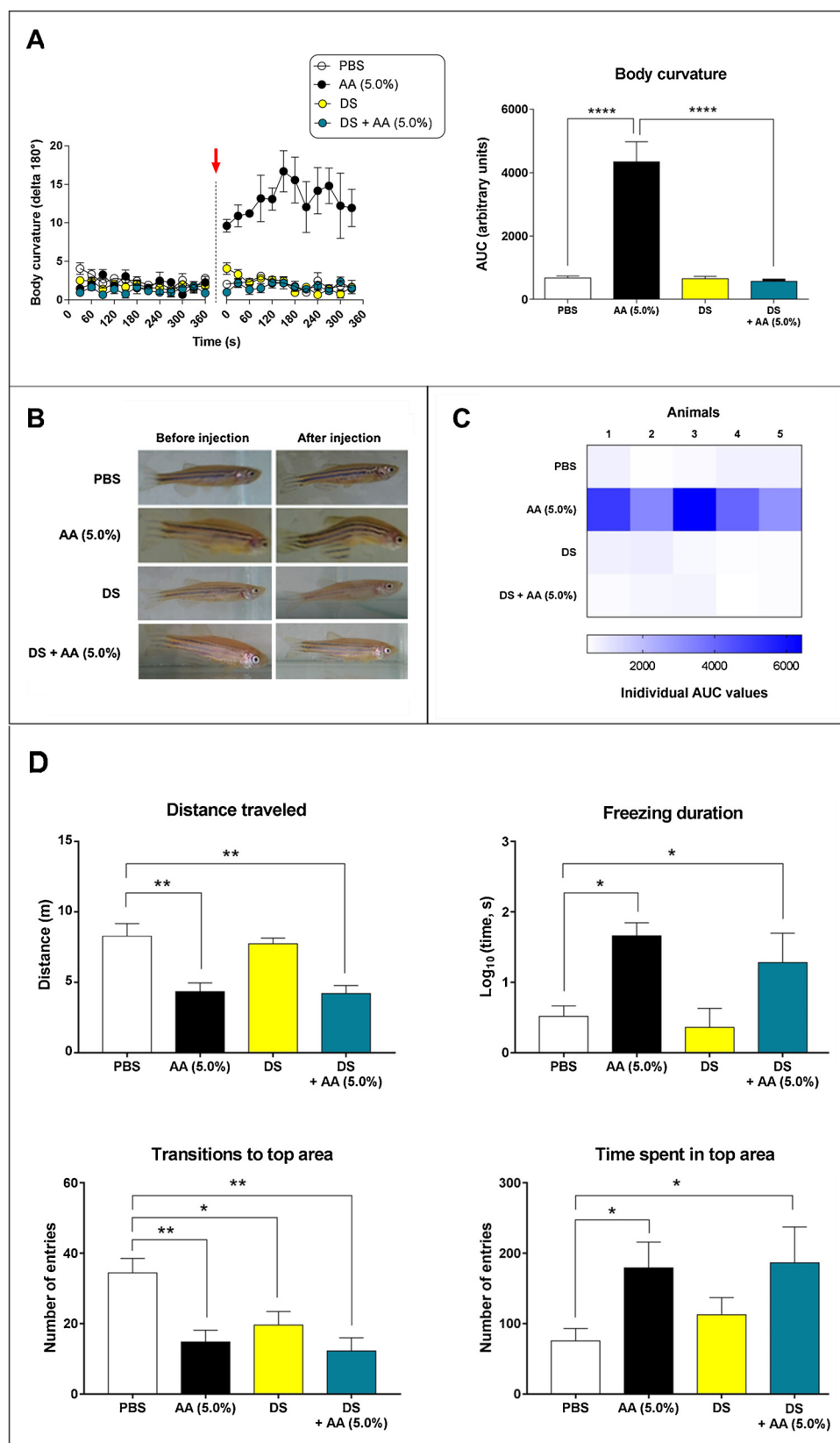
recognition of pain- and nociception-related phenotypes is key for understanding how noxious stimuli influence animal physiology and behavior [40,41]. In the present study, acetic acid increased the body curvature index, which was sustained for 25–30 min after the injection (Supplementary Fig. S3). Because the maximal response was observed within the first 6 min after injection, all behaviors were analyzed using this respective period. Moreover, as we did not detect overt sex differences in zebrafish responses to 5.0% acetic acid i.p. administration (see Supplementary Fig. S1), male and female data were pooled in our

experiments. Although neurochemical mechanisms underlying pain perception can differ between sexes in rodents and humans [42,43], previous other data also showed no sex differences in zebrafish behavioral responses following 5.0% acetic acid administration [44], corroborating our present results.

Furthermore, we observed that acetic acid at various doses consistently reduced locomotion and vertical activity in zebrafish in the novel tank test. However, only 5.0% acetic acid decreased freezing duration (inducing hypolocomotion), while 1.0, 2.5, and 5.0% reduced



**Fig. 5.** Effects of morphine (MOR, 2.5 mg/kg, i.p.) and naloxone (NAL, 5.0 mg/kg, i.p.) on 5.0% acetic acid (AA)-induced changes in zebrafish behavior. Locomotor and exploratory endpoints were assessed by distance traveled, freezing duration, number of entries and time spent in top area. Data are expressed as means  $\pm$  S.E.M. and analyzed by one-way ANOVA (factor: treatment), followed by Student-Newman-Keuls post-hoc test for significant ANOVA data (\* $p < 0.05$ ; \*\* $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*\* $p < 0.005$ ; \*\*\*\* $p < 0.001$ ;  $n = 5$  per group).



**Fig. 6.** Diclofenac (DS, 40 mg/kg, i.p.) pre-treatment prevents 5.0% acetic acid (AA)-induced changes in zebrafish body curvature index (A-C), but does not affect other behavioral endpoints (D). (A) Changes in body curvature index in PBS, AA, DS, and DS + AA groups across time. The red arrow indicates the moment of injection. Area under curve (AUC) values were calculated and expressed as arbitrary units. Data are expressed as means  $\pm$  S.E.M. and analyzed by two-way ANOVA (factors: acetic acid and diclofenac), followed by Student-Newman-Keuls post-hoc test for significant ANOVA data ( $***p < 0.001$ ). (B) Representative images displaying the zebrafish phenotypes before and after the treatments. (C) Heat map diagram showing the values of AUC obtained for each fish tested. (D) Brief summary of the effects of diclofenac pretreatment on AA-induced changes in zebrafish locomotor and exploratory endpoints. Data are expressed as means  $\pm$  S.E.M. and analyzed by two-way ANOVA (factors: acetic acid and diclofenac), followed by Student-Newman-Keuls post-hoc test for significant ANOVA data ( $*p < 0.05$ ;  $**p < 0.01$ ;  $n = 5$  per group).

time spent in top (reflecting lower exploratory activity in this model) [45]. Notably, locomotor deficits are commonly linked to poorer animal welfare in both rodents and zebrafish [19,21,46]. Despite the relatively simpler organization of CNS in teleosts than in mammals, zebrafish have complex and well-described behaviors that extends far beyond

simple instinctive/reflective reactions to various stimuli [23]. For example, multiple drugs that acts on the CNS without effects on nociception can modulate the vertical activity of zebrafish [45,47,48]. Thus, while vertical positioning in the tank involves central processing beyond the reflex responses to peripheral nociceptive input, locomotion

and exploration behavioral endpoints may reflect affected animal physiology when exposed to a noxious stimulus [49–51].

Activating the ASIC receptors, acetic acid i.p. administration in rodents is considered a well-established model for analgesic drug research [52]. In zebrafish, six ASICs have already been identified (zASIC1.1, zASIC1.2, zASIC1.3, zASIC2, zASIC4.1, and zASIC4.2) [53], and their phylogenetic analyses show that zASIC1.1, zASIC2, and zASIC4.1 are orthologous to mammals [53], while zASIC2 and zASIC 4.2 are not activated by acids [54]. Although more studies are needed to clarify whether zASICs activation plays a role in the abdominal constriction-like phenotype reported here, measuring the changes in body curvature index represents a simple, low-cost, and fast protocol to screen potential antinociceptive drugs using the acetic acid model reported here. Moreover, this behavioral endpoint closely parallels the writhing response of rodents that reflects direct activation of nociceptors following acetic acid administration.

While the writhing response in mice is observed for 0.6% acetic acid [26,55], the abdominal constriction-like phenotype in zebrafish occurs following 2.5 and 5.0% acetic acid i.p. administration. Since this may reflect different sensitivity to acetic acid in rodents and fish, in order to better pharmacologically dissect zebrafish nociceptive responses, we administered two traditional analgesics, morphine and diclofenac. Both drugs predictably abolished acetic acid-induced abnormal body curvature, thereby confirming the relation of this endpoint to nociception and its good predictive validity, given their efficacy in preventing this response. In rodents, morphine prevents the writhing phenotype at doses ranging from 0.18 to 5.0 mg/kg [56]. Because the zebrafish opioid system is generally similar (both pharmacologically and biochemically) to its mammalian counterpart [12], and since naloxone counteracted the effects of morphine observed here, it is possible that activation of opioid receptors negatively modulates the abdominal constriction-like response in the acid acetic i.p. model of nociception developed here.

## 5. Conclusion

In summary, our data show that zebrafish display an aberrant abdominal phenotype following a single acetic acid i.p. injection, analogous to writhing response described in rodents, accompanied by other behavioral changes (e.g., reduced locomotion, increased freezing, and changes on vertical activity). We also suggest that variations in body curvature may reflect a specific nociception-related phenotype, which is simple, easy-to-quantify and prevented by clinically active analgesics. Collectively, this indicates that acetic acid i.p. administration offers an excellent opportunity for assessing nociception-related behavioral phenotypes in zebrafish pain models. However, although the opioid system mediates antinociception in the acetic acid i.p. injection model, future studies of other relevant pain-related biomarkers (i.e., modulation of specific genes, receptors, as well as cortisol levels) may provide further insights into the mechanisms underlying acetic acid-mediated nociceptive responses in zebrafish.

## Conflict of interest

The authors declare no competing interests.

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## Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbr.2018.10.009>.

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**ARTIGO 3*****Naloxone prolongs abdominal constriction writhing-like behavior in a zebrafish-based pain model***

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## Research article

# Naloxone prolongs abdominal constriction writhing-like behavior in a zebrafish-based pain model

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## ABSTRACT

The ability to detect noxious stimuli is essential to survival. However, pathological pain is maladaptive and severely debilitating. Endogenous and exogenous opioids modulate pain responses via opioid receptors, reducing pain sensibility. Due to the high genetic and physiological similarities to rodents and humans, the zebrafish is a valuable tool to assess pain responses and the underlying mechanisms involved in nociception. Although morphine attenuates pain-like responses of zebrafish, there are no data showing if the antagonism of opioid receptors prolongs pain duration in the absence of an exogenous opioid. Here, we investigated whether a common opioid antagonist naloxone affects the abdominal constriction writhing-like response, recently characterized as a zebrafish-based pain behavior. Animals were injected intraperitoneally with acetic acid (5.0%), naloxone (1.25 mg/kg; 2.5 mg/kg; 5.0 mg/kg) or acetic acid with naloxone to investigate the changes in their body curvature for 1 h. Acetic acid elicited a robust pain-like response in zebrafish, as assessed by aberrant abdominal body curvature, while no effects were observed following PBS injection. Although naloxone alone did not alter the frequency and duration of this behavior, it dose-dependently prolonged acetic acid-induced abdominal curvature response. Besides reinforcing the use of the abdominal writhing-like phenotype as a behavioral endpoint to measure acute pain responses in zebrafish models, our novel data suggest a putative role of endogenous opioids in modulating the recovery from pain stimulation in zebrafish.

## 1. Introduction

Pain is a serious health problem that affects 20% of adult population worldwide [18]. Thus, understanding the basic physiological mechanisms underlying pain is a cornerstone for developing new therapeutic strategies [18]. Pain is frequently comorbid with other disorders, including depression [2–4], anxiety [13,30], and other neuropsychiatric conditions [17]. Acute pain plays an adaptive role, eliciting fast physiological and behavioral response against tissue damage [23,24,28,39].

Pain activates synaptic terminals located on peripheral fibers, carrying the information to the brain which triggers descending pathways of pain [7,15,33,40]. Collectively, these biochemical events also release

endogenous opioid peptides ( $\beta$ -endorphins, enkephalins, and dynorphins), evoking adaptive analgesic effects in vertebrates [11,40]. As important regulators of nociception, these peptides are of great interest in drug addiction research [14,29], including functional studies of a key role of opioid system in modulating pain-like responses in novel experimental models, such as fish [5,13,14,31].

The zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) is a promising alternative model organism in translational pain research [10,22]. This species possess the classic  $\mu$  (ZfMOP),  $\delta$  (ZfDOP1 and ZfDOP2), and  $\kappa$  (ZfKOP) opioid receptors, as well as agonist opioid peptide precursors with high similarity to their human orthologs [1,5,6,13,22,29]. Mounting evidence shows that fish are sentient species and discriminate pain caused by different stimuli [10,12,32]. For example, the abdominal constriction

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writhing-like behavior following acetic acid intraperitoneal (i.p.) injection has been recently described in adult zebrafish [10]. Because this phenotype is pharmacologically sensitive to classical analgesics (e.g., morphine and diclofenac) this model shows a high degree of predictive validity to assess pain-like responses in zebrafish [10,37]. Although naloxone (a non-selective opioid antagonist) antagonizes morphine-induced analgesia [10,12], there is no evidence suggesting a putative role of endogenous opioid system in modulating pain-like behaviors in zebrafish so far. To further test this hypothesis, the goal of this study was to investigate whether naloxone can dose-dependently prolong the recovery of abdominal constriction writhing-like responses following acetic acid i.p. injection in zebrafish.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Animals

Wild-type adult zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) (~50:50 male:female ratio, 4–6 months-old, weighing 0.25–0.3 g, short-fin phenotype) were obtained from a local commercial supplier (Hobby Aquários, RS, Brazil) and kept for two weeks in a 50-L thermostatic aquarium filled with aerated non-chlorinated water at  $27 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ , pH 7.0–7.2. Fluorescent ceiling-mounted light tubes provided room illumination on a 14/10 light/dark photoperiod cycle (lights on at 7:00 am and off at 9:00 pm). Animals were fed thrice daily with commercial flake food (Alcon BASIC™, Alcon, Brazil). All protocols were approved by the Ethic Commission on Animal Use of The Federal University of Santa Maria (Protocol 5438310817) and animal experimentation fully adhered the National Institute of Health Guide for Care and Use of Laboratory.

### 2.2. Drugs

Acetic acid (99%), naloxone methiodide, and phosphate buffered saline (PBS) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA).

### 2.3. Experimental protocol

All behavioral tests were performed between 09:00 am and 4:00 pm. Experiments were performed using acetic acid (5.0%, i.p.) to induce pain responses, and PBS as vehicle [10]. Injections were performed with a BD Ultra-fine™ 30U syringe (needle size 6 mm  $\times$  0.25 mm) at a volume of 10  $\mu\text{L}$ . First, animals were anesthetized in cold water [25] and injected i.p. with PBS (control), acetic acid alone, naloxone alone, or acetic acid plus naloxone at three doses (1.25, 2.5, and 5.0 mg/kg). The doses of naloxone used here were chosen based on previous reports [10,37]. After injection, animals were individually transferred to observation tanks (15  $\times$  13  $\times$  10 cm, length  $\times$  height  $\times$  width) with a 10 cm water column height, and their behaviors were recorded for 1 h using a digital camera (Nikon Coolpix P900, Tokyo, Japan). Animals were further anesthetized in cold water (4  $^\circ\text{C}$ ) and then euthanized by decapitation. Because no sex differences are observed in fish behavior following acetic acid i.p. administration [10], both male and female zebrafish were separated from their home tanks and divided randomly for each cohort by a computerized random number generator ([www.random.org](http://www.random.org)).

The abdominal constriction writhing-like phenotype was used as a behavioral endpoint to measure pain-like responses, as described elsewhere [10]. Briefly, frontal photos were taken every 30 s and later analyzed using ImageJ 1.45 for Windows. We selected three positions: a frontal (in the front of head), a central (middle of the animal body – between anal and dorsal fins) and posterior (at the dorsal fin) to estimate the fish body curvature. Results were subtracted from 180° and multiplied by (-1) to estimate the body curvature index. Temporal variations in the body curvature index were measured by two trained observers blinded to the experimental condition (inter-rater reliability > 0.90). Fig. 1 outlines the experimental design of the present

study.

### 2.4. Statistics

Data normality and homogeneity of variances were analyzed by Kolmogorov–Smirnov and Bartlett's tests, respectively. Changes in the body curvature index were analyzed by unpaired Student's *t*-test and latencies to recover pain-like behavior were analyzed using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) (treatment as factor). Temporal variations in the behavior were analyzed using repeated measures ANOVA (treatment as factor and time as repeated measure). *Post hoc* comparisons were made using Tukey's test when necessary. Results were expressed as means  $\pm$  standard error of the mean (S.E.M.), and statistical significance was set at  $p \leq 0.05$ .

## 3. Results

To assess whether the antagonism of opioid receptors prolongs the abdominal constriction writhing-like response in a dose-dependent manner, animals were injected with a single concentration of acetic acid (5.0%) in the presence or absence naloxone (1.25, 2.5 and 5.0 mg/kg). Fig. 2 shows the temporal effects of naloxone and acetic acid on the body curvature index for 1 h. Repeated measures ANOVA yielded significant effects of treatment  $\times$  time interaction ( $F_{(595, 2856)} = 21.97$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ), time ( $F_{(119, 2856)} = 92.24$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ), and treatment ( $F_{(5, 24)} = 1375$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ). Acetic acid induced a robust abdominal constriction writhing-like behavior, with maximal response observed 120 s after the injection. The area under curve (AUC) analyses showed that naloxone alone (5.0 mg/kg, i.p.) did not modify the abdominal curvature compared to the PBS group ( $t_{(df = 8)} = 1.03$ ,  $p = 0.3333$ ) (Fig. 3). Similarly, both lower doses of naloxone alone (1.25 and 2.5 mg/kg) did not alter the body curvature index (data not shown). However, fish cotreated with naloxone (1.25, 2.5, and 5.0 mg/kg) and 5.0% acetic acid showed longer latency to return to the baseline normal curvature than fish injected with acetic acid alone ( $F_{(3,16)} = 1577$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ) (Fig. 4).

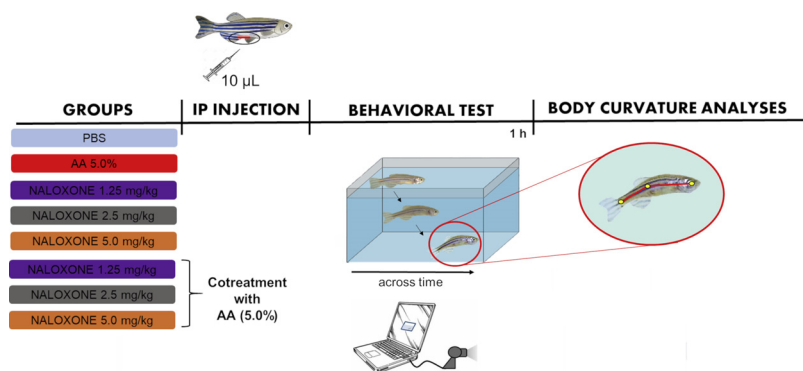
## 4. Discussion

The present study examined whether the non-selective blockade of opioid receptors modulates selected pain-like responses in zebrafish injected with acetic acid. Our novel findings show that naloxone markedly prolongs the recovery of abdominal constriction writhing-like behavior, suggesting that the activation of opioid receptors by endogenous ligands may play a role in adaptive antinociception in zebrafish.

Zebrafish are responsive to acetic acid administration, which activates acid-sensing ion channels (zASIC) [26] and elicits pain-like responses [9]. While morphine induces analgesia in the acetic acid model described here, the co-administration of naloxone blocked such effect, supporting the involvement of opioid system in zebrafish antinociception [10,37]. Likewise, both zebrafish  $\mu$ -opioid receptor and peptide precursors share a high molecular homology with their respective human counterparts [21,27].

Interestingly, naloxone alone (0.5–5 mg/L) elicits anxiogenic-like effects in adult zebrafish by reducing the time spent in top area of the novel tank and increasing the number of erratic movements [35]. Like rodents [16,34], zebrafish display robust behavioral responses to morphine and naloxone, which modulate rewarding properties and the development of withdrawal-like symptoms [8]. For example, naloxone precipitates withdrawal-like syndrome in zebrafish, implicating the opioidergic system in such response [34]. Here, in line with these findings, we showed that naloxone (1.25–5.0 mg/kg) dose-dependently prolonged pain-like responses in adult zebrafish induced by acetic acid.

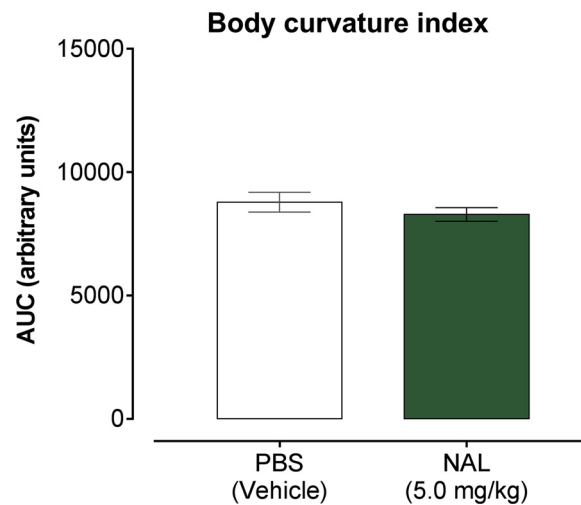
Notably, the opioid peptide precursors reported in zebrafish include two proenkephalin genes (PENKa and PENKb), two



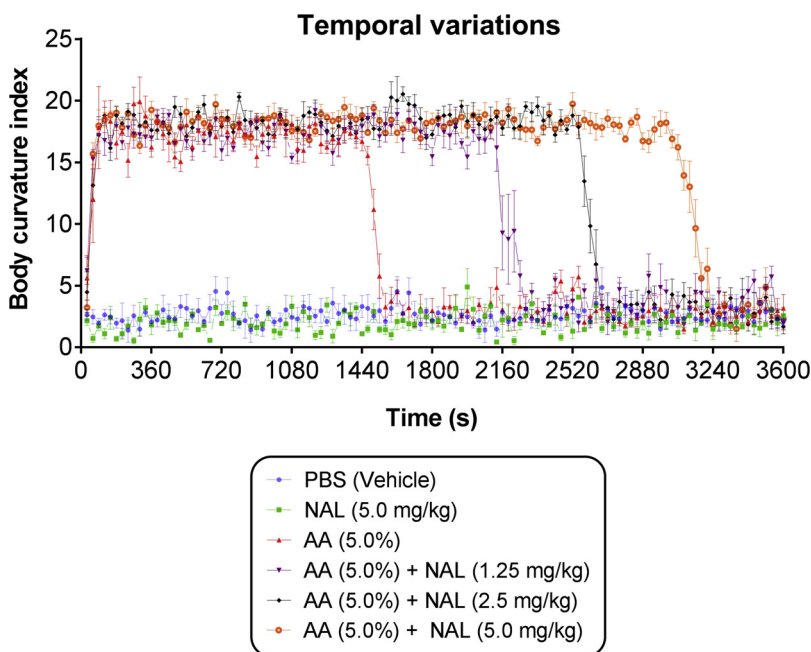
**Fig. 1.** A brief summary of the experimental protocol. Pain-like responses were measured following vehicle (PBS), acetic acid (AA), naloxone, and AA plus naloxone intraperitoneal (i.p.) injections. Behaviors were analyzed for 1 h after treatments for three body points (frontal, central and posterior, denoted by yellow dots) used to estimate the angular body curvature.

proopiomelanocortin genes (POMCa and POMCb), one prodynorphin gene (PDYN), and one pronociceptin gene (PNOC). PENKa codes four Met-ENKs (ME), one Met-enkephalin-Ile (MEI), and one Met-enkephalin-Asp (MED) [21,22,36]. PENKb codes four Met-enkephalins (ME) one Leu-enkephalin (LE), and one Met-enkephalin-Gly-Tyr (MEGY) [19]. POMCa codes for adenocorticotropin (ACTH),  $\gamma$ -lipotropin ( $\gamma$ -LPH),  $\beta$ -melanotropin ( $\beta$ -MSH) and  $\beta$ -endorphin ( $\beta$ -END), while POMCb codes for only  $\alpha$ -MSH and  $\beta$ -END [20]. Interestingly, naloxone shows a highest affinity toward zebrafish  $\mu$ -opioid receptor (followed by  $\beta$ -END = morphine > MEGY > ME > LE) and this species also has some duplicated genes of opioid peptide precursors [22,29]. Thus, it is difficult to compare results across species, as well as establish a specific mechanism of action, since possible differences in binding affinities may also exist. Although we cannot rule out the involvement of endogenous opioids in the results described here, the activation of opioid receptors play a role in the recovery of abdominal constriction writhing-like behavior following acetic acid i.p. injection because naloxone, a potent opioid receptor antagonist, prolongs this response. Nevertheless, further studies are needed to probe the pharmacological properties of zebrafish opioid receptors and ligands in both pain- and pain-unrelated neurobehavioral models.

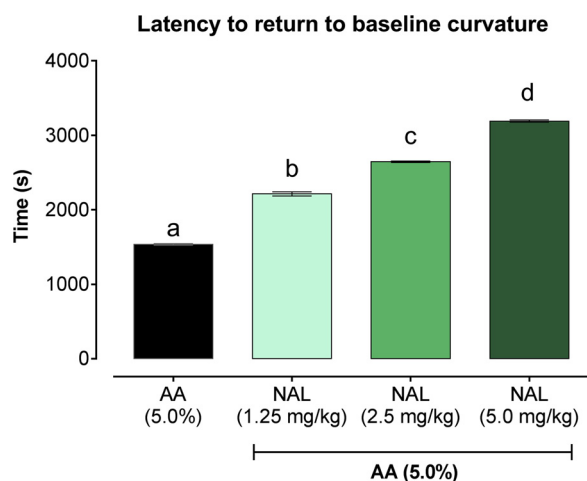
In conclusion, zebrafish treated with naloxone show delayed recovery of abdominal constriction writhing-like behaviors evoked by acetic acid i.p. administration. Although the involvement of human endogenous opioid system in pain-responses has long been known [14,33,38], the putative similar role for fish endogenous opioids in the



**Fig. 3.** Intraperitoneal naloxone injection does not change the body curvature index following vehicle (PBS) and naloxone (NAL) i.p. injection. Area under the curve (AUC) values were calculated and expressed as arbitrary units. Data are expressed as means  $\pm$  S.E.M. and analyzed by unpaired Student's *t* test ( $n = 5$  per group).



**Fig. 2.** Naloxone delays the recovery of abdominal constriction writhing-like phenotypes in adult zebrafish evoked by 5.0% acetic acid (AA) i.p. injection. Changes in the body curvature index (assessed as area under the curve, AUC) in vehicle (PBS), AA, naloxone (NAL), and AA + NAL groups are presented across time for the entire duration of 1-h testing. Data are expressed as means  $\pm$  S.E.M. ( $n = 5$  per group) and analyzed by repeated measured ANOVA followed by Tukey's test, considering  $p < 0.05$  as significant.



**Fig. 4.** Naloxone (NAL) dose-dependently prolongs writhing-like pain response induced by acetic acid (AA) in adult zebrafish, assessed as the latency to return to baseline (normal) abdominal curvature following AA (5.0%; control), NAL (1.25, 2.5 and 5 mg/kg) + AA (5.0%) i.p. injection. Data are expressed as means  $\pm$  S.E.M. and analyzed by one-way ANOVA, followed by Tukey's *post hoc* test when necessary. Different letters indicate statistical differences among groups ( $p < 0.05$ ,  $n = 5$  per group).

recovery of pain-like phenotypes is novel, and merits further scrutiny. The present study may also have several additional implications. For example, despite some species differences in the opioidergic system between zebrafish and humans [5,13], such similarity in recovery phenotypes may support a higher (than previously recognized) degree of evolutionarily conserved pain biology and pathobiology across taxa. Suggesting the putative role of endogenous opioids in modulating the recovery from pain stimulation in adult zebrafish, these findings also corroborate the use of the abdominal writhing-like profiling as a new promising assay for further nociceptive and anti-nociceptive drug screening in this aquatic species. Finally, although the present study focused on adult specimens, the possibility of developing similar pain models for larval fish may also be critical.

#### Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that no competing interests exist.

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## 6. DISCUSSÃO

Durante décadas, a mensuração dos limiares de retirada de estímulos nocivos era utilizada para examinar as respostas à dor *in vivo* (BOBINSKI *et al.*, 2018; GREGORY *et al.*, 2013; MARTINS *et al.*, 2018). Essas abordagens melhoraram significativamente nosso conhecimento acerca da fisiologia da dor, propriedades de drogas analgésicas, bem como neurotransmissores e genes envolvidos nas respostas à dor. Embora os roedores sejam amplamente usados na pesquisa da dor translacional (MEOTTI *et al.*, 2010; STEVENSON *et al.*, 2006), o desenvolvimento de novos modelos de animais experimentais alternativos é essencial para desvendar mecanismos evolutivamente conservados, bem como realizar triagens farmacológicas *in vivo* de alto rendimento (DU *et al.*, 2017; SNEDDON *et al.*, 2003a). Assim, nesta tese, discutimos a crescente utilização do modelo experimental do peixe-zebra para avaliar fenótipos moleculares, fisiológicos e comportamentais específicos relacionados às respostas dolorosas. Também delineamos os recentes avanços e limitações potenciais do peixe-zebra como organismo modelo de baixo custo, traduzível em pesquisa de dor e *screens* farmacológicos. Além disso, caracterizamos os distintos fenótipos comportamentais relacionados à dor em peixe-zebra após a administração i.p. de ácido acético.

A utilização de modelos de dor baseados no peixe-zebra vem crescendo muito na última década (GONZALEZ-NUNEZ *et al.*, 2009). Esta espécie mostra alta sensibilidade a vários estímulos nociceptivos (COSTA *et al.*, 2019; MAGALHAES *et al.*, 2017; TAYLOR *et al.*, 2017; THOMSON *et al.*, 2019), além de responder a analgésicos clinicamente ativos, representando assim um organismo modelo promissor para investigar as bases moleculares de distúrbios relacionados à dor humana (GAU *et al.*, 2013; PROBER *et al.*, 2008). Apesar das diferenças anatômicas no sistema nervoso central (SNC) em relação aos humanos, os peixes teleósteos (por exemplo, peixe-zebra)



exibem atividades elétricas e alterações transcricionais após estímulos nocivos (BRAITHWAITE *et al.*, 2007b; NORDGREEN *et al.*, 2007; REILLY *et al.*, 2008; ROSE, 2002). É importante ressaltar que o peixe-zebra expressa genes envolvidos nas respostas à dor (ALVAREZ *et al.*, 2006; GAU *et al.*, 2013; GONZALEZ-NUNEZ *et al.*, 2009; LEVANTIA *et al.*, 2016; PROBER *et al.*, 2008; SANCHEZ-SIMON *et al.*, 2008), e também apresenta comportamentos específicos de "proteção" quando expostos a estímulos nocivos, sugerindo a existência de mecanismos centrais subjacentes às respostas dolorosas (SNEDDON *et al.*, 2003a).

Deste modo, **no primeiro estudo** abordado nesta tese, realizamos uma revisão sistemática visando discutir as vantagens e limitações do uso do peixe-zebra como organismo modelo para estudos relacionados à dor. Comparado aos modelos tradicionais de roedores, o peixe-zebra demonstra algumas vantagens na pesquisa básica, incluindo o menor espaço para manutenção e a grande prole (AVDESH *et al.*, 2012; HOO *et al.*, 2016). A fertilização externa também simplifica a produção de linhagens transgênicas, e a presença de embriões translúcidos facilita a investigação de potenciais biomarcadores de nocicepção *in vivo* (por exemplo, usando sondas fluorescentes de expressão gênica). Além disso, um alto grau (~ 70%) de homologia genética quando comparado aos humanos (HOWE *et al.*, 2013), bem como vários modelos genéticos do SNC (CHERESIZ *et al.*, 2020), reforçam este modelo aquático como uma ótima espécie para explorar a modulação genética da dor e desordens relacionadas. Esses recursos robustecem o uso crescente de peixe-zebra como uma ferramenta robusta para realizar triagens de rendimento médio a alto de maneira econômica (KITHCART *et al.*, 2017; STEWART *et al.*, 2015). Entretanto, o peixe-zebra possui algumas limitações às representações de seus dados, devido a certas diferenças em relação aos mamíferos, como na fisiologia metabólica (peixes de sangue frio vs. mamíferos de sangue quente), desenvolvimento do

cérebro e anatomia (por exemplo, o peixe-zebra não possui córtex) (PARKER *et al.*, 2013). Além disso, o peixe-zebra também apresenta algumas limitações na pesquisa em neurociência. Por exemplo, o evento de duplicação do genoma em peixes teleósteos (LU *et al.*, 2012) complica as análises genéticas das respostas à dor, uma vez que alguns genes relacionados à dor podem existir em duas cópias ou estar ausentes no peixe-zebra. Devido ao seu pequeno tamanho, o monitoramento de longo prazo dos níveis endócrinos do sangue (por exemplo, níveis de glicose) também é problemático, pois é difícil obter uma quantidade suficiente de sangue sem realizar a eutanásia do animal (LAKSTYGAL *et al.*, 2019).

O **segundo estudo** desta tese teve como objetivo caracterizar um modelo de dor visceral aguda em peixes-zebra através da administração i.p. de ácido acético. Para isso, os animais foram injetados com ácido acético (0.5, 1.0, 2.5, e 5.0%), e posteriormente observados os comportamentos exploratórios bem como fenótipos comportamentais relacionados à dor. Os animais tratados com ácido acético (1.0, 2.5, e 5.0%) apresentaram alterações locomotoras, tais como uma menor distância percorrida e aumento no tempo gasto na parte superior do aquário. Vários estudos utilizam alterações locomotoras como principais endpoints de dor em peixes (CORREIA *et al.*, 2011; CURTRIGHT *et al.*, 2015; REILLY *et al.*, 2008; TAYLOR *et al.*, 2017). A maioria deles é projetada para investigar parâmetros comportamentais afetados por algógenos, e não para avaliar especificamente a dor *per se*. Neste modelo, nós caracterizamos um novo fenótipo comportamental que até então não havia sido descrito para a espécie. Após a administração i.p. de ácido acético (2.5, e 5.0%) os animais apresentaram um fenótipo semelhante à contorção abdominal (medido como índice de curvatura corporal), análogo à resposta de contorção em roedores submetidos ao modelo de dor visceral. Além disso, este comportamento é facilmente reproduzido utilizando um pequeno número de animais, o que atende o critério dos 3Rs

de experimentação animal. Cabe ressaltar que não detectamos diferença de sexo nas respostas de curvatura do peixe-zebra ao ácido acético (2.5, e 5.0%), mostrando que este parâmetro não é influenciado pelo sexo dos animais. A resposta dolorosa foi completamente prevenida pela coadministração de analgésicos clássicos, como a morfina (agonista  $\mu$  opioide), bem como pelo pré-tratamento com um anti-inflamatório amplamente utilizados na clínica, o diclofenaco sódico. Além disso, a naloxona (inibidor não seletivo opioide) antagonizou os efeitos analgésicos da morfina no índice de curvatura corporal. Portanto, como o sistema opioide do peixe-zebra é semelhante (tanto farmacológica quanto bioquimicamente) ao seu homólogo mamífero (GONZALEZ-NUNEZ *et al.*, 2009), e, uma vez que a naloxona neutralizou os efeitos da morfina, sugerimos que a ativação dos receptores opioides modula negativamente o comportamento semelhante a contorção abdominal induzido pelo ácido acético. No geral, esses achados nos mostram que o modelo de dor visceral aguda em peixe-zebra possui um alto valor de face (respostas comportamentais análogas a de outras espécies) e preditivo (sensibilidade farmacológica a moléculas moduladoras da dor).

Em humanos, o sistema opioide está envolvido no sistema de inibição endógena da dor, onde a liberação de opioides endógenos (encefalinas) promovido pela ativação das vias descendentes da dor gera um processo analgésico (PASTERNAK *et al.*, 2013). O projeto de sequenciamento do genoma permitiu uma identificação abrangente dos ortólogos do peixe-zebra, tais como as encefalinas (Met-encefalinas, Met-encefalina-Ile e Met-encefalina-Asp) (GONZALEZ-NUNEZ *et al.*, 2013; GONZALEZ-NUNEZ *et al.*, 2009; SUNDSTROM *et al.*, 2010). Assim, um possível mecanismo de inibição endógena da dor no zebrafish não poderia ser descartado. Portanto, o **terceiro estudo** desta tese teve como objetivo investigar se a naloxona prolonga a recuperação de respostas semelhantes a contorções abdominais após a injeção i.p. de ácido acético em peixes-zebra. Para isso,

os animais foram tratados com ácido acético (5.0%; resposta máxima observada no estudo anterior) e ácido acético (5.0%) coadministrado com diferentes doses de naloxona (1.25, 2.5 e 5 mg/kg). A coadministração de naloxona (1.25, 2.5 e 5 mg/kg) prolongou de forma dose dependente as respostas dolorosas em peixes-zebra induzidas por ácido acético (a qual possui duração aproximada de 30 min). Embora tanto o receptor  $\mu$  opioide do peixe-zebra quanto os precursores de peptídeos endógenos compartilhem uma homologia molecular elevada com seus respectivos homólogos humanos (MARRON FDEZ DE VELASCO *et al.*, 2009), é difícil comparar resultados entre espécies, bem como estabelecer um mecanismo de ação específico, uma vez que também podem existir possíveis diferenças nas afinidades de ligação. Entretanto, não podemos descartar o envolvimento de opioides endógenos nos resultados descritos aqui, visto que a ativação dos receptores opioides desempenham um papel na recuperação do comportamento semelhante a contorções abdominal após a administração de ácido acético, uma vez que a naloxona, um potente antagonista do receptor de opioides, prolonga essa resposta. Assim, um papel putativo dos opioides endógenos na modulação da recuperação da dor em peixes-zebra, não pode ser descartado.

De modo geral, destacamos que a conservação da maquinaria celular relacionada aos processos nociceptivos bem como o rico repertório comportamental, tornam o peixe-zebra um organismo emergente para estudos translacionais relacionados à dor e na busca futura de potenciais fármacos analgésicos.

## 7. CONCLUSÃO

A partir dos resultados apresentados, podemos observar uma robusta evolução no conhecimento sobre fenótipos comportamentais relacionados à dor no peixe-zebra, utilizando o modelo de contorção abdominal. Assim, como conclusões parciais da presente Tese, podemos afirmar que:

- O peixe-zebra é um organismo modelo emergente para estudos relacionados à dor em função do robusto repertório comportamental e da maquinaria celular responsável pela nocicepção;
- O comportamento de contorção abdominal observado após a administração intraperitoneal de ácido acético é análogo ao fenótipo apresentado por roedores e caracteriza-se como uma medida comportamental de fácil mensuração;
- A administração de ácido acético alterou parâmetros exploratórios, tais como redução na distância percorrida bem como aumentou o tempo gasto na área superior do aquário;
- O comportamento de contorção abdominal observado após a administração intraperitoneal de ácido acético mostrou-se sensível a analgésicos tradicionalmente utilizados na clínica;
- O sistema opioide possui um papel modulador na resposta de curvatura corporal, uma vez que a naloxona bloqueou o efeito analgésico da morfina;
- A coadministração de naloxona atrasou a recuperação do animal na alteração da curvatura corporal induzida pelo ácido acético, sugerindo o papel putativo de opioides endógenos na modulação da recuperação da estimulação da dor em peixes-zebra adultos;

Em suma, verificamos que após uma única injeção i.p., o peixe-zebra exibe um fenótipo comportamental distinto, análogo à resposta de contorção descrita em roedores, acompanhada por outras mudanças comportamentais (por exemplo, locomoção reduzida,

congelamento aumentado e mudanças na atividade vertical). Tal comportamento pode refletir um fenótipo específico relacionado à dor, que é simples, fácil de quantificar e prevenido por analgésicos clinicamente ativos. Portanto, os resultados observados nesta tese possibilitarão uma melhor validação a nível de construto do modelo proposto neste projeto, e, assim, um maior conhecimento das bases mecânicas subjacentes à dor. Por fim, nossos achados permitirão a expansão de estudos utilizando este organismo modelo em pesquisas científicas relacionadas à busca de potenciais estratégias farmacológicas para prevenção da dor.

## 8. PERSPECTIVAS

Os resultados apresentados nesta tese contribuem para a consolidação do peixe-zebra como um organismo modelo para estudos relacionados às respostas dolorosas. Entretanto, futuras investigações ainda devem ser realizadas com intuito de elucidar os mecanismos subjacentes a dor no peixe-zebra. Por exemplo, em peixes teleósteos, estímulos estressores ativam o eixo hipotalâmico-pituitária-inter-renal (HPI), causando o aumento dos níveis do fator liberador de corticotropina (CRF) e a liberação do cortisol pelas células inter-renais (função semelhante à glândula adrenal de mamíferos) (MEZZOMO *et al.*, 2018). Assim, diferentemente dos roedores que possuem a corticosterona como o principal hormônio do estresse, os peixes expressam o cortisol de modo similar ao que ocorre em humanos. Além disso, estudos demonstraram que o CRF é um componente crítico para as respostas de camuflagem do peixe-zebra (WAGLE *et al.*, 2011), onde o aumento da pigmentação via ativação dos melanossomos é ausente em larvas que possuem este gene silenciado através da técnica de morfolino. Dessa maneira, tanto respostas pigmentares como respostas fisiológicas associadas ao estresse podem possuir uma relação direta com vias da modulação da dor. O modelo parece interessante também para investigar os mecanismos relacionados com a alodínia mecânica no peixe-zebra. Em peixes teleósteos, 53% das fibras sensoriais são do tipo A-beta (SNEDDON, 2002), responsáveis pela indução da alodínia mecânica. Da mesma forma, um modelo bem utilizado para indução da alodínia mecânica em camundongos já foi descrito no peixe-zebra para avaliar edema (MAGALHAES *et al.*, 2017). Assim, o desafio seria a criação de um aparato capaz de mensurar tal resposta.

Finalmente, em uma perspectiva mais ampla e de longo prazo, fica o planejamento da consolidação de uma linha consistente de pesquisa dentro de nossa Universidade, a qual vise fazer novos estudos avaliando aspectos relacionados à dor em peixe-zebra.

Assim a implementação deste campo de pesquisa certamente trará benefícios não apenas na utilização do peixe-zebra como um modelo alternativo/complementar para estudos da dor, mas também, contribuirá para a formação de recursos humanos.



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ANEXO A - CAPÍTULO ACEITO PARA PUBLICAÇÃO EM LIVRO ACADÊMICO

***Nociception-related behavioral phenotypes in adult zebrafish***

**Fabiano V. Costa**, Luiz V. Rosa, Allan V. Kalueff, and Denis B. Rosemberg

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## Chapter 34

# Nociception-related behavioral phenotypes in adult zebrafish

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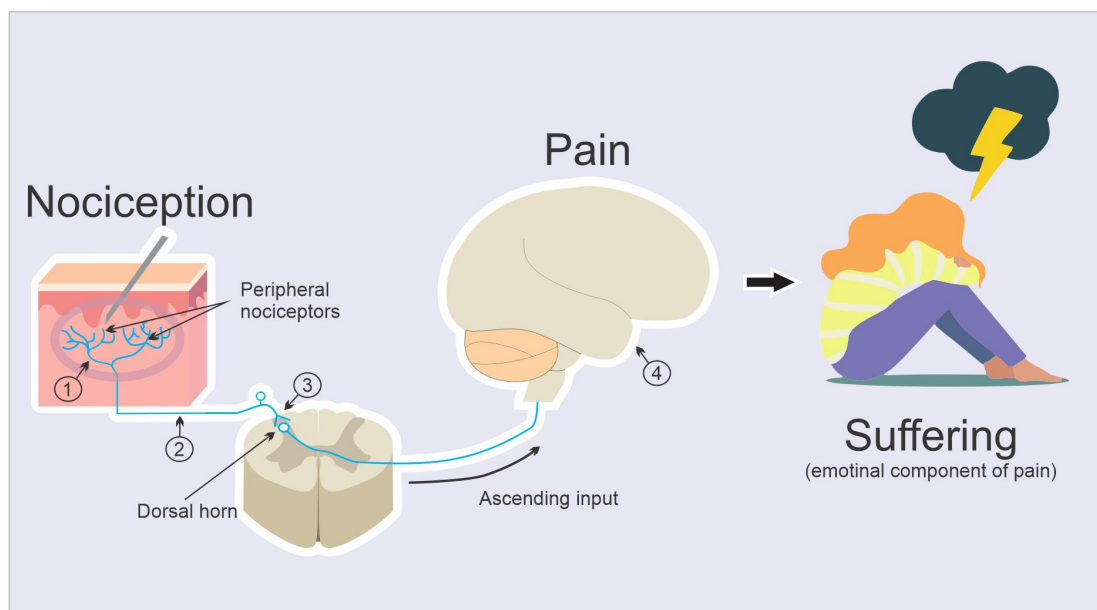
zebrafish; pain; animal models; nociception

## Abbreviations

TRP	transient receptor potential ion channels
TRPA1a	transient receptor potential ankyrin1a
TRPA1b	transient receptor potential ankyrin1b
TRPV1	transient receptor potential vanilloid-1
zDOPa/b	zebrafish $\delta$ opioid a/b receptor
zKOP	zebrafish $\kappa$ opioid receptor
zMOP	zebrafish $\mu$ opioid receptor
zNOP	zebrafish nociceptin opioid receptor

## Introduction

Pain evokes various responses in vivo that serve to communicate unpleasant experiences at various levels (Keefe & Pryor, 2007). Nociception is the neural processes of encoding and processing noxious stimuli, whereas pain is the conscious perception of nociception, and suffering is the negative emotional responses to nociception and pain (Fig. 1) (Fordyce et al., 1984). However, accurate analyses and measurement of pain-related behaviors in animal models can be challenging, since pain is a complex experience that involves not only transduction of nociceptive stimuli but also cognitive and emotional processing (Blackburn-Munro, 2004; Piel, Kroin, van Wijnen, Ranjan, & Im, 2014; Tracey & Mantyh, 2007). Together, this raises the question of how do we measure pain-related behaviors in subjects that cannot express their feelings? Moreover, can we verify if our observations match with the subjective experience of these individuals? To address this knowledge gap, here we discuss various behaviors related to pain, focusing on a novel experimental model organism, such as the zebrafish (*Danio rerio*), in translational pain research.



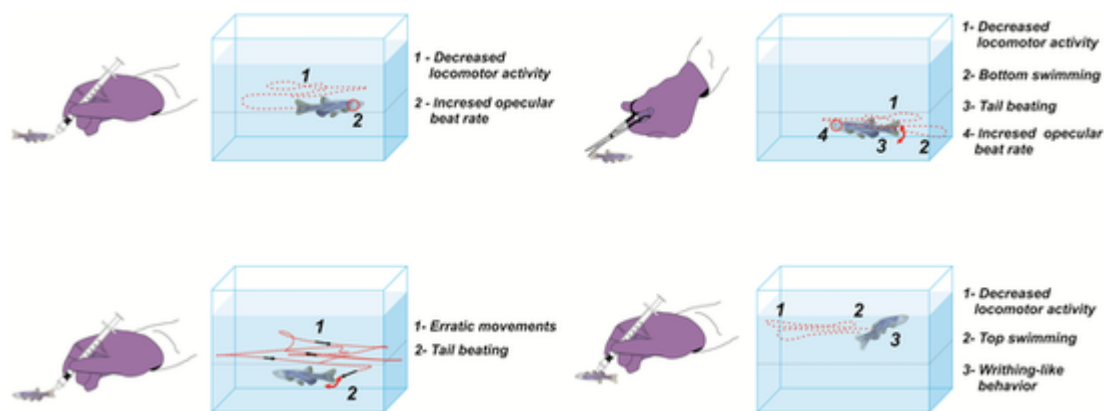
**FIG. 1** Simplified diagram of the ascending pain pathway. Nociceptive stimulus is recognized by nociceptors. This signal travels to the dorsal horn of the spinal cord where it is sent to the brain for conscious perception of nociceptive stimuli. Finally, subjects exhibit negative emotional responses to nociception and pain, thereby causing suffering. 1—Transduction; 2—Transmission; 3—Modulation; 4—Perception (Basbaum, Bautista, Scherrer, & Julius, 2009).

### Nociception and pain in animal models

Unlike humans, laboratory animal models have less complex neural processing networks, making it difficult to correlate nociception with the individual subjective experience (Festing & Patel, 2005; Thomas, 2005). Bateson (1991) has suggested several clear criteria for the ability to feel pain in various species, noting that only animals that met all these criteria should be considered sentient organisms. Briefly, they should possess (i) nociceptors; (ii) converging nociceptor pathways to the brain; (iii) brain structures analogous to the human cerebral cortex that processes pain; as well as (iv) express opioid receptors and endogenous opioid substances in a nociceptive neural system; (v) display lower adverse behavioral and physiological effects after administration of analgesics or anesthetics; (vi) avoid potentially painful stimuli. Sneddon and colleagues have suggested an additional criterion for animal sentience, namely that animals should suspend normal behavior for a prolonged period, instead of showing a reflexive response, with changes in behavior that reflect signs of ‘discomfort’ (Sneddon, Elwood, Adamo, & Leach, 2014).

### Zebrafish as animal model for translational pain research

Although rodents are widely used in pain research (Meotti, Coelho, & Santos, 2010; Stevenson, Bilsky, & Negus, 2006), novel alternative experimental models, such as zebrafish, are also becoming important. For example, they can increase our understanding of evolutionarily conserved, “core” mechanisms underlying nociception and related behaviors (Du et al., 2017; Sneddon, Braithwaite, & Gentle, 2003b). Indeed, zebrafish are becoming critical in probing pain-related mechanisms and behaviors (Gonzalez-Nunez & Rodriguez, 2009), based on their evolutionarily conserved mechanisms involved in nociception, and robust, well-characterized behaviors (Fig. 2) that are bidirectionally sensitive to various algogens and analgesic drugs (Bao et al., 2019; Costa et al., 2019; Kalueff et al., 2013; Sneddon et al., 2003b; Taylor et al., 2017). Orthologs to human receptors involved in nociception have already been characterized in zebrafish, including the  $\mu$  opioid receptor (zMOP; encoded by *oprml*) (Barrallo, Gonzalez-Sarmiento, Alvar, & Rodriguez, 2000), the  $\kappa$  opioid receptor (zKOP; encoded by *oprkl*) (Alvarez et al., 2006), the two functional copies of zebrafish  $\delta$  opioid receptor (zDOP; encoded by *oprld1a* and *oprld1b*) (Barrallo, Gonzalez-Sarmiento, Porteros, Garcia-Isidoro, & Rodriguez, 1998; Pinal-Seoane et al., 2006), the nociceptin opioid receptors (zNOP, encoded by *oprll*) (Rivas-Boyer et al., 2011), as well as the transient receptor potential ion channels (TRPA1a, TRPA1b, and TRPV1) (Prober et al., 2008; Saito & Shingai, 2006) and acid-sensing ion channels (Paukert et al., 2004). Overt electrical activity and transcriptional changes in the midbrain and forebrain occur after harmful stimuli in teleost fishes, including zebrafish (Braithwaite & Boulcott, 2007; Nordgreen, Tahamtani, Janczak, & Horsberg, 2014; Reilly, Quinn, Cossins, &



**FIG. 2** Behavioral neurophenotyping of pain in zebrafish models. A brief summary of the main experimental protocols to assess pain in adult zebrafish and their respective behavioral phenotypes.

Sneddon, 2008). Moreover, while structural anatomy of nociceptive fibers in zebrafish has not been examined in detail, other teleost species possess typical nociceptors (e.g., A-delta and C-fibers) (Sneddon, 2002), collectively suggesting that this taxon fully adheres to the Bateson-Sneddon's criteria of sentience listed above.

Analyses of specific behavioral phenotypes expressed in the presence of algogens is a cornerstone for an adequate assessment of nociception-related responses *in vivo*. Unlike rodents, which have multiple well-characterized pain-like behaviors (Bobinski, Teixeira, Sluka, & Santos, 2018; Bonin, Bories, & De Koninck, 2014; De Rantere, Schuster, Reimer, & Pang, 2016; Gonzalez-Cano et al., 2017; Martins et al., 2018), such phenotypes in zebrafish remain poorly understood (Table 1), necessitating further translational research in this organism.

### Zebrafish-based pain models

Following the characterization of polymodal nociceptors in teleost fish (Sneddon, Braithwaite, & Gentle, 2003a), the search for new approaches to assess pain responses in zebrafish has begun. The first protocol reported in zebrafish involved the application of 5  $\mu$ L of 5% acetic acid onto the fish lips, causing hypolocomotion, increased opercular beat rate, and an aberrant “rocking” behavior (Reilly et al., 2008), as briefly summarized in Fig. 2.

Altered locomotion is an important behavioral endpoint which indicates poor welfare (Kristiansen et al., 2004), and is similar to the immobility observed in other animals (e.g., chickens) after a noxious stimulation (Gentle, 1992). Although useful for evaluating pain-like behavior in adult zebrafish (Correia et al., 2011; Curtright et al., 2015; Taylor et al., 2017), this endpoint does not necessarily represent specific pain-like behavior, since it may indicate states of stress, anxiety, nonspecific sedation, toxicity and/or a pro-depressant behavior (Kalueff et al., 2013).

Thus, different approaches to induce local nociception in fish species, such as administration of algogens close to the fins (Maximinó, 2011), or the caudal fin stimulation procedure (Schroeder & Sneddon, 2017), have been proposed. Both protocols induce erratic movements (swimming in a zig-zag unpredictable pattern) and increased tail beating (tail-beat movements that do not lead to propulsion in the water, Fig. 2), suggesting a local nociceptive effect. Additionally, the writhing-like phenotype has been recently reported as a novel behavioral endpoint to measure local pain (Costa, Canzian, Stefanello, Kalueff, & Rosemberg, 2019; Costa, Rosa, et al., 2019). Such behavior can be elicited by a single intraperitoneal injection of 5  $\mu$ L 5% acetic acid, producing marked changes in body posture (resembling the writhing phenotype in rodents), as well as hypolocomotion. Interestingly, the writhing-like behavior of zebrafish (Fig. 2) reflects a direct activation of nociceptors following acetic acid administration, and is also sensitive to classical anti-pain medications (e.g., morphine and diclofenac). Furthermore, nociceptive effects following the administration of different algogenic agents have also been reported in zebrafish. For example, administration of histamine, complete Freund's adjuvant, cinnamaldehyde, alila isothiocyanate, or formalin, lowers zebrafish locomotor activity (strikingly similar to effects in rodents) (Magalhaes et al., 2017; Taylor et al., 2017). However, unlike pain caused by these substances, there are no current protocols that measure mechanical allodynia (pain to nonnociceptive stimuli) or neuropathic pain in adult zebrafish, thus meriting further scrutiny. Finally, although measuring a single pain-related behavioral endpoint may yield conflicting or nonspecific results, the parallel assessment of several different behaviors and using alternative animal models and/or species can improve face and predictive validity of such models of pain.

Table 1

**TABLE 1 Selected examples of zebrafish-based pain models in the AB strain (see Fig. 2 for a graphic summary).**

Noxious agents	Treatment	Behavioral endpoints	References
Acetic acid (5 %)	Injected (lips)	Decreased locomotor activity, increased opercular beat rate, and rocking behavior	Reilly et al. (2008)
Acetic acid (1 %) <sup>a</sup>	Injected (tail)	Increased both erratic movements and tail beating	Maximino (2011)
Acetic acid (5 and 10%)	Injected (lips)	Decreased locomotor activity	Correia, Cunha, Scholze, and Stevens (2011)
Fin clipping (30 s)	Removal of caudal posterior tissue	Increased opercular beat rate, increased tail beating and decreased locomotor activity	Schroeder and Sneddon (2017)
Formalin (0.1 %)	Injected (lips and tail)	Decreased locomotor activity	Magalhaes et al. (2017)
Histamine (0.1, 0.5, 1 and 2 mg/kg)	Injected (lips)	Decreased locomotor activity	Taylor et al. (2017)
Complete Freund's adjuvant	Injected (lips)	Decreased locomotor activity	Taylor et al. (2017)
Cinnamaldehyde (10, 20 and 40 mM)	Injected (lips)	Decreased locomotor activity	Taylor et al. (2017)
Alila isothiocyanate (1.02 M)	Injected (lips)	Decreased locomotor activity	Taylor et al. (2017)
Acetic acid (2.5, 5, 10 and 15 %)	Injected (lips)	Decreased locomotor activity	Taylor et al. (2017)
Acetic acid (0.5, 1, 2.5 and 5 %)	Injected (peritoneum)	Decreased locomotor activity, increased time spent on top area and altered body curvature	Costa, Rosa, et al. (2019)
Fin clipping	Removal of caudal posterior tissue	Increased time at the bottom, decreased locomotor activity and more clustered shoals	Thomson, Al-Temeemy, Isted, Spencer, and Sneddon (2019)

<sup>a</sup>In the SF strain.

## Applications to other areas

Moreover, because zebrafish have sophisticated behaviors, automated video-tracking tools can be used to perform 3D reconstructions of the swimming traces (Cachat et al., 2011; Rosa et al., 2018; Thomson et al., 2019) to assess pain-related behaviors. The expression of all major opioid receptors, as well as the presence of well-characterized neurotransmitter systems, makes zebrafish a valuable tool to investigate central mechanisms underlying their pain pathobiology. Given high fertility rate of zebrafish and the transparency of embryos (Antinucci & Hindges, 2016; Sakai, Ijaz, & Hoffman, 2018), the analysis of molecular brain markers using whole-mount in situ hybridization and fluorescent probes can help determine how genes and proteins exert genetic and epigenetic regulation of pain. Finally, high genetic homology (> 70%) with humans, evolutionarily conserved molecular targets, as well as small size and easy/inexpensive maintenance (Fontana, Mezzomo, Kalueff, & Rosemberg, 2018; Howe et al., 2013), make zebrafish models a powerful tool in translational pain research.

## Other agents of interest

Furthermore, assessing specific behaviors can be important for elucidating neural circuitry and specific brain areas activated when zebrafish are exposed to noxious stimuli. Measuring the relative expression of *C-fos* (Chatterjee, Tran, Shams, & Gerlai, 2015), an immediate early gene that reflects neuronal activation (e.g., using whole-mount in situ hybridization and/or immunohistochemistry), can be promising to investigate how specific brain regions contribute to pain-like responses. Moreover, the spatiotemporal measurements of behavior not only in adult fish, but also using larval fish, may enhance probing how locomotion can be affected during and after the exposure to algogens.



Examining how genes influence nociception is still in its early stages in various organisms, including zebrafish (Bao et al., 2019; Barrallo et al., 2000). However, because zebrafish have a high degree of genetic conservation, this species offers a promising forward-genetics system to explore evolutionarily conserved candidate genes in nociception (Howe et al., 2013). Analyzing physiological parameters is a key strategy in elucidating mechanisms underlying pain responses. Likewise, because zebrafish express well-characterized aversive behaviors (e.g., bottom dwelling, freezing, erratic movements) (Kalueff et al., 2013), the correlation of fear/anxiety-like responses with specific pain-like behaviors can elucidate how stress influence pain in zebrafish and vice-versa.

The use of pharmacological tools also facilitates the discovery of novel mechanisms involved in zebrafish nociception. For example, both agonists (morphine) and antagonists (naloxone) of opioid receptors play a key role in opioidergic modulation of analgesia in zebrafish, regulating local pain (Bao et al., 2019; Demin et al., 2018; Taylor et al., 2017). Moreover, the suitability of zebrafish for medium-to-high throughput pharmacological screening (Stewart, Gerlai, & Kalueff, 2015) may accelerate preclinical discovery of novel drugs with analgesic properties.

Finally, using systems biology approaches to investigate transcriptome, proteome, and metabolome can be strategically incorporated into zebrafish-based pain models. Such omics-based approaches can also facilitate the translatability of zebrafish studies across species aiming to identify evolutionarily conserved pathways related to pain and nociception.

### Mini-dictionary of terms

**Nociceptors.** Sensory receptors transducing and encoding noxious stimuli.

**Teleosts.** The largest infraclass of *Actinopterygii*, the ray-finned fish, comprising around 96% of the existing fish species.

**Formalin.** Injection of formalin induces a concentration-dependent long-lasting (at least 14 days) mechanical allodynia (first stage) and hyperalgesia (second stage). At the former, formalin activates C-fibers, releasing substance P and bradykinin. At the latter, various pro-inflammatory mediators are released (e.g., histamine, prostaglandins, and serotonin).

**Histamine.** An important mediator of the inflammatory response.

**Cinnamaldehyde.** Organic compound found in cinnamon, an agonist of the TRPA1 receptor.

**Alila isothiocyanate.** An organic compound found in mustard oil, and agonist of the TRPA1 receptor.

**Erratic movements.** Fast left-right swimming with abrupt changes in velocity and direction of movement. This phenotype indicates increased fear/anxiety-like states.

**Bottom dwelling.** Movement to/preference toward the bottom of the tank, often in response to threat. This phenotype indicates increased fear/anxiety-like states.

**Freezing.** A complete cessation of movement (except for gills and eyes) by the fish while at the bottom of the tank. This phenotype indicates increased fear/anxiety-like states.

### Key facts

#### Key facts of zebrafish

- The complete genome sequence of the zebrafish was published in 2013.
- The zebrafish is a tropical fish native to the Southeast Asia.
- The use of zebrafish as a model organism in biomedicine has begun in the 1960s.
- Zebrafish have a high (>70%) genetic homology to humans.
- Nearly 85% of genes known to be associated with human diseases have a zebrafish counterpart.

### Summary points

- Unlike humans, laboratory animal models have less complex neural processing networks.
- The zebrafish has evolutionarily conserved mechanisms involved in nociception, and its behaviors are bidirectionally sensitive to various algogens and analgesic drugs.
- Overt electrical activity and transcriptional changes in the midbrain and forebrain occur after harmful stimuli in teleosts.
- Analyses of specific behavioral phenotypes expressed in the presence of algogens is key to adequately assess nociceptive responses in vivo.

- Because zebrafish have complex behaviors, automated video-tracking tools can be used, including 3D reconstructions of swimming traces, to assess pain-like behaviors.
- Zebrafish represent an important, translationally relevant model system to investigate the evolutionarily conserved neural bases of pain responses in vertebrates.

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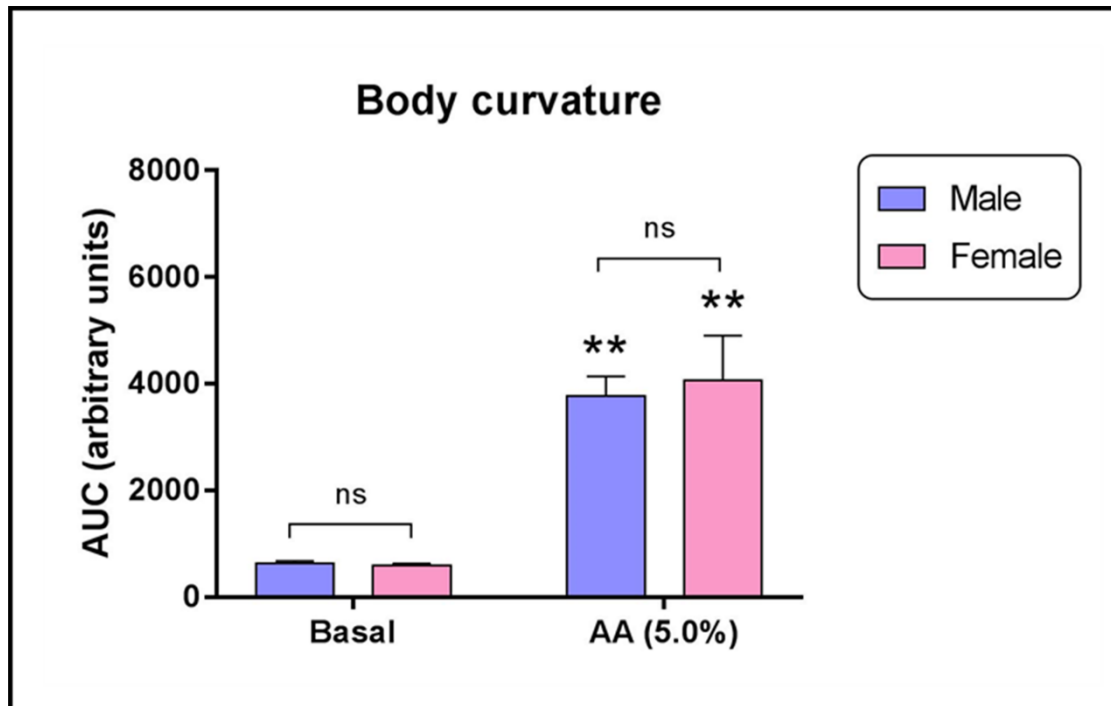
**ANEXO B - LISTA DE TRABALHOS COLABORATIVOS DESENVOLVIDOS DURANTE O DOUTORADO**

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ANEXO C – FIGURA SUPLEMENTAR DO ARTIGO 1, MOSTRANDO A SEMELHANÇA DAS RESPOSTAS DE CURVATURA ABDOMINAL EM PEIXES MACHOS E FÊMEAS



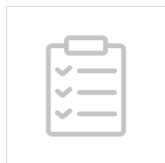
**ANEXO D.** LINK PARA ACESSO AO VÍDEO SUPLEMENTAR QUE MOSTRA OS FENÓTIPOS COMPORTAMENTAIS EM PEIXE-ZEBRA INJETADOS COM PBS E ÁCIDO ACÉTICO (5.0%) PUBLICADO NO **ARTIGO 1.**

<https://ars.els-cdn.com/content/image/1-s2.0-S0166432818312099-mmc4.mp4>

**ANEXO E. PROTOCOLO DA METODOLOGIA UTILIZADA NESTA TESE**  
DISPONÍVEL ONLINE (PROTOCOLS.IO).

<https://www.protocols.io/view/modeling-acute-visceral-pain-in-adult-zebrafish-bwjkpckw>





Jul 16, 2021

# Modeling acute visceral pain in adult zebrafish

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Fabiano Denis Rosemberg

Denis Rosemberg

## ABSTRACT

This protocol describes a reliable procedure for assessing acute pain responses in adult zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) based on the abdominal writhing-like phenotype following a single intraperitoneal injection of acetic acid. The method is an inexpensive, fast, and easy-to-use protocol for measuring pain-like responses in adult zebrafish. The protocol involves five steps: analyses of baseline behavior, drug injection, post-injection recordings of behavior, euthanasia, and data analyses/interpretation. Intraperitoneal injection of 2.5–5.0% acetic acid elicits a robust pain-like behavior by changing zebrafish body curvature, which can be easily quantified using freely available imaging software. This response is sensitive to pharmacological manipulations, as morphine prevents altered body curvature, while naloxone blocks these effects. Pretreatment with diclofenac sodium (a non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drug commonly used as an analgesic) also prevents writhing-like behavior. Demonstrating high predictive and face validity, this unbiased protocol can be performed over the course of ~2 days, enabling a reliable assessment of acute pain-like responses in zebrafish, thus fostering in-depth analyses of complex pain-related mechanisms and anti-pain drug discovery.

## DOI

[dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.bwjkpckw](https://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.bwjkpckw)

## PROTOCOL CITATION

Fabiano Costa, Denis Rosemberg 2021. Modeling acute visceral pain in adult zebrafish. **protocols.io**  
<https://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.bwjkpckw>

## FUNDERS ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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## MANUSCRIPT CITATION please remember to cite the following publication along with this protocol

Costa FV, Rosa LV, Quadros VA, Santos ARS, Kalueff AV, Rosemberg DB. (2019) Understanding nociception-related phenotypes in adult zebrafish: Behavioral and pharmacological characterization using a new acetic acid model. *Behav Brain Res.* 359, 570-578. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbr.2018.10.009>

## KEYWORDS

zebrafish, nociception, acute abdominal pain, abnormal body curvature, acetic acid, pharmacological manipulations, opioid system, analgesic properties

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## CREATED

Jul 13, 2021

## LAST MODIFIED

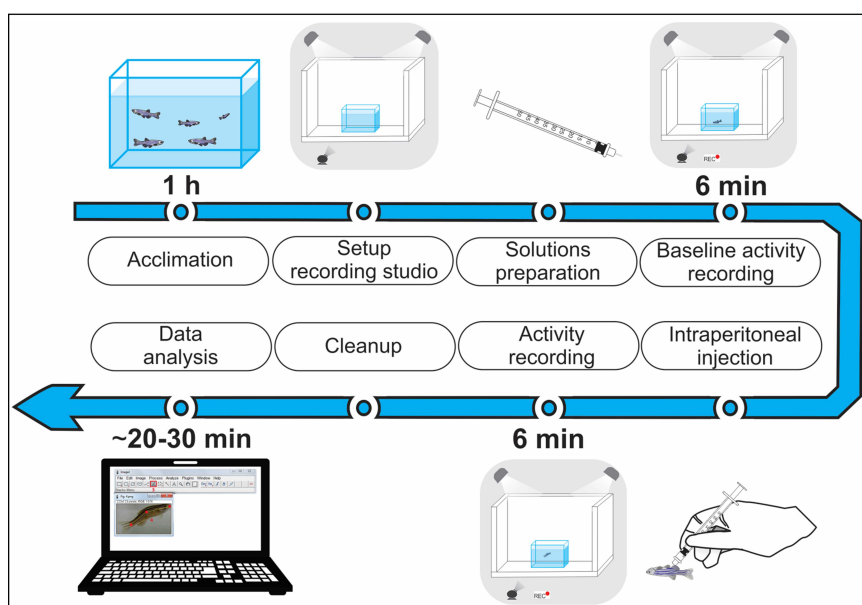
Jul 16, 2021

PROTOCOL INTEGER ID

51532

## GUIDELINES

Strikingly paralleling the abdominal constriction writhing-like response observed in rodents, the present protocol (**Fig. 1**) is easy-to-use, inexpensive, and does not require complex trials or sophisticated automated tools. Specifically, a single acetic acid administration (2.5–5.0%, i.p.) elicits overt changes in zebrafish body posture that persist for 30 min after injection. This phenotype can be easily analyzed using freely available software (*e.g.*, Image J) for Windows, Mac OS X, and Linux systems, and can also be complemented with automated video-tracking tools (*e.g.*, Any-Maze™, Stoelting, CO and/or NOLDUS EthoVision XT, Wageningen, Netherlands) to assess other relevant zebrafish behaviors, as locomotion and exploration. Albeit sensitive and unbiased, the protocol has limitations to be considered for further refining and model development. For example, the present protocol is based on a relatively narrow (2.5–5.0%) range of algogenic (acetic acid) response that affects the body curvature. Our pilot experiments using 7.0% of acetic acid unaltered body curvature (vs. 5.0%) but caused a high (~50%) mortality rate. Furthermore, a highly trained researcher is needed to perform an i.p. injection, because if poorly performed, it may induce unwanted side-effects, including such non-specific phenotypes as hyperactivity, corkscrew swimming or and/or the loss of posture (ataxia). The ability of other chemicals (beyond acetic acid) to evoke the observed writhing-like responses also merits further testing. Finally, potential individual, and/or strain differences in nociception merits further scrutiny in zebrafish.



**Fig. 1.** Schematic diagram showing the experimental procedures to model abdominal constriction writhing-like responses in adult zebrafish and time required for the main steps of the present protocol.

## MATERIALS TEXT

[Acetic acid glacial](#) **Sigma**

**Aldrich Catalog #ARK2183**

[Phosphate Buffered Saline](#) **Thermo Fisher**

**Scientific Catalog #28374**

[Sodium chloride](#) **P212121**

[Morphine sulfate salt pentahydrate](#) **Sigma**

**Aldrich Catalog #M8777**

 [Naloxone methiodide](#) **Sigma**

**Aldrich Catalog #N129**

 [Diclofenac sodium salt](#) **Sigma**

**Aldrich Catalog #D6899**

Experimental tanks (3.5 L)

Aquarium

**Tecniplast**    **ZB30TK**    

3.5 L tank made of blue polycarbonate

Insulin gauge needle (BD Ultra-fine™ II,  
NJ, USA)

(8 mm x 0.3 mm)

**BD**            **328838**            

0.3 mL

Computer

Computer

**Dell**            **v3681w206w**            

Desktop or notebook with necessary basic software able to acquire digital video recordings, run appropriate imaging and/or video tracking software, as well as statistical packages (e.g., Excel, GraphPad Prism, SPSS, or similar).

C505e HD BUSINESS WEBCAM

Webcam

**Logitech**            **no number**            

High-resolution video cameras (e.g., HD webcams connected to a computer through a USB) or similar.

## SAFETY WARNINGS

Acetic acid is a severe irritant agent. In contact with the skin or eyes, an 80% solution can be corrosive, causing severe burns. Use personal protective equipment (*e.g.*, gloves, lab coat, safety glasses, and respirator) to prevent contamination and limit exposure.

## BEFORE STARTING

As subjects, use adult zebrafish (~50% male and female ratio, 4–6 months old). Heterogeneous wild-type (*e.g.*, short-fin), specific (*e.g.*, AB, TU) or genetically modified zebrafish strains can be used. While using the same-batch fish cohorts is desirable, fish from different batches still provide highly consistent data. For testing, animals must be randomly separated from their housing tanks and assigned to specific experimental groups using a computerized random number generator (*e.g.*, [www.random.org](http://www.random.org)). Both male and female zebrafish can be used for the experiments since no gender difference in writhing-like responses to acetic acid was observed in the reference paper. Note, however, that if using additional behavioral endpoints and/or treatments, animals from both sexes must be tested separately to avoid false positive or negative findings, and consistent with recent NIH guidelines on the inclusion of both males and females in biomedical experimentation. All animal experimentation should be performed in accordance with the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) following national guidelines and standards.

## ACCLIMATIZATION AND BASELINE BEHAVIORAL RECORDINGS ●TIMING ~ 1 h for acclimatization; 6 min per animal

1h 6m

1 

Transport animals from their holding facility to the experimental room for acclimation 1 h prior to the experiments. Avoid low- or high density of fish to prevent social isolation or crowding stress (tanks must have 1–2 fish per 1 L of water). Fish must acclimate to the facility before testing, and the water used must have similar physicochemical characteristics to those of housing tanks. The use of home tank or holding tank water (with properly adjusted temperature and salinity) is required. **CAUTION:** Ensure that the experimental tank is filled with non-chlorinated water before use set at optimal temperature (27–28°C).

2 

Mount a camera on the frontal side of tank test and connect video recorder to the power in a switch-on mode. Provide adequate illumination (fluorescent light bulbs), to ensure that the enlightenment is proper to differentiate the subject from the apparatus, allowing a precise detection of fish. However, avoid excessive brightly lit environments (stressful for zebrafish) and dark areas (poor fish recognition and video-tracking detection of locomotion if desirable).

**? TROUBLESHOOTING****? TROUBLESHOOTING**

**Problems: (1)** Inappropriate video lighting.

**Possible reasons: (1)** Lack or excess of brightness, heterogeneous background.

**Solutions: (1)** Measure the light intensity above the experimental tank with a lux meter or open Android or IOS application (*e.g.*, Lux meter, Crunchy ByteBox, Germany, or similar) to ensure adequate illumination. Use a styrofoam background to improve contrast.

3 Prepare the acetic acid solutions in 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tubes (2.5% or 5.0% diluted in PBS or 0.9% NaCl).

4 

Transfer the fish from the holding tank to the experimental tank and start recording for 6 minutes to measure the baseline behavioral phenotypes. Animals should be transferred individually to the experimental tank. Ensure adequate transport to minimize handling stress. **!CAUTION:** If more than a single injection is applied, the baseline behavior should be recorded after the first injection to avoid false positive/negative results. **?TROUBLESHOOTING**

### ? TROUBLESHOOTING

**Problem: (1)** Pretreatment alters the normal zebrafish behavior.

**Possible reasons: (1)** The drug used affects the swimming activity of fish and/or elicits abnormal phenotypes. Incorrect injection.

**Solutions: (1)** Run a pilot experiment using different concentrations of the drug. Analyze zebrafish behavior at different time intervals after pretreatment. Use highly-trained researchers to perform the injections.

## INTRAPERITONEAL INJECTIONS ●TIMING ~ 3 min per animal

3m

5 

Before i.p. injections, video recordings must be stopped.

6 

Remove the fish from the tank with a fishing net and proceed with the i.p. injection using a BD Ultra-fine™ 30U syringe (needle size 6 x 0.25 mm) with a volume of 10  $\mu$ L (which does not impair normal zebrafish behaviors). Animals must be gently handled, briefly anesthetized, and later immobilized using a small wet fishing net (< 5 s). The i.p. injections should be quickly performed into the midline between the pelvic fins. To minimize potential interference of drugs in the behavioral endpoints measured and to allow a fast evaluation of the swimming activity, avoid using anesthetics (tricaine or other similar drugs). Injections can be quickly performed through the net in fish previously anesthetized in cold water without affecting complex behaviors (*e.g.*, depth preference, immobility, and locomotion).

### ?TROUBLESHOOTING

### ? TROUBLESHOOTING


**Problem: (1)** Unconventional responses (*e.g.*, fish do not exhibit curvature, fish die).

**Possible reasons: (1)** Incorrect injection, incorrect acetic acid concentration.

**Solutions: (1)** Use highly-trained researchers to perform the injections. Ensure the appropriate acetic acid concentration is used.

## FINAL BEHAVIOR RECORDING ●TIMING 6 min per animal

6m

7 

Relocate the fish into the experimental tank to record the behavioral phenotypes following i.p. injections for 6 minutes.

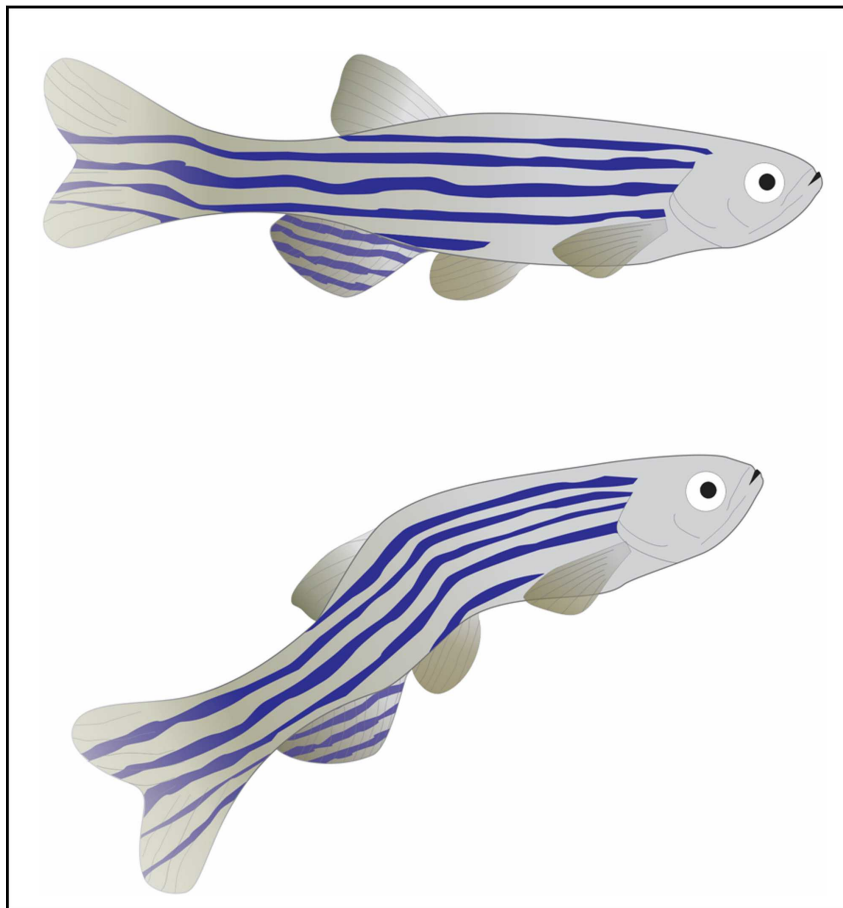
CLEANUP ●TIMING 1–2 min per animal 2m

- 8 Stop the behavioral recording and remove the fish from the experimental tank. Animals must be euthanized following national guidelines and standard protocols.
- 9 Discard the water used previously, wash the tank thoroughly with tap water and refill it with non-chlorinated water before testing another fish.
- 10 Repeat steps 4–9 for the next subject tested.

VIDEO ANALYSES ●TIMING 20–30 min per animal 30m

11 

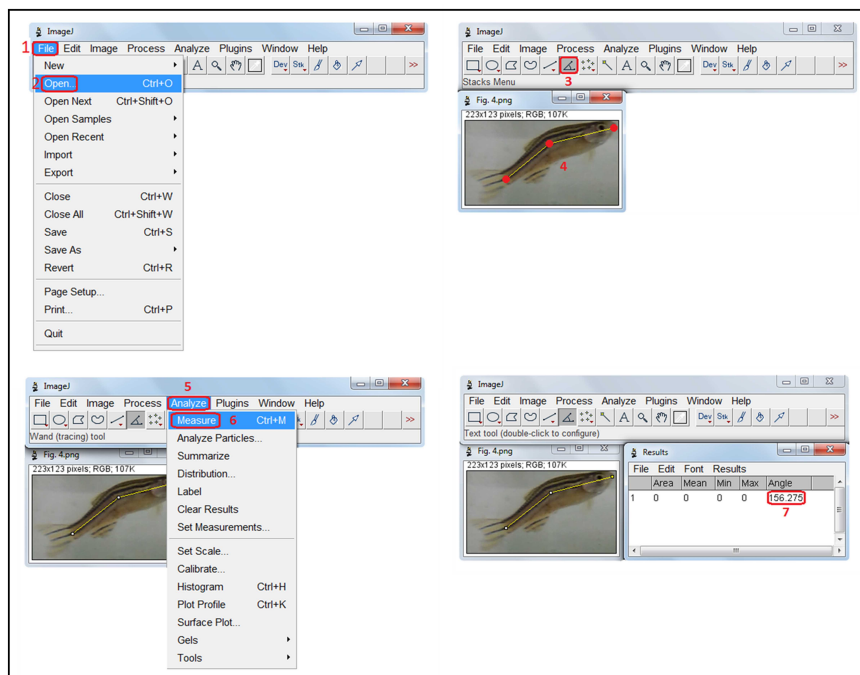
Digital pictures of fish at sagittal plane (**Fig. 2**) must be taken every 30 s, totaling 24 photos per fish. We strongly recommend the use of "Prt Sc" (*print screen*) Windows tool.



**Fig. 2.** Representative phenotypes of zebrafish following vehicle (PBS, upper fish) or acetic acid (5.0% AA, lower fish) i.p. administration.

12 

With ImageJ software (available for download at <https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/download.html>), open the digital pictures of fish sagittal plane that represent the first 30 s (1-2), and using the angle tool (3), select three positions to estimate the fish body angulation: a frontal (in the front of the head), a central (in the middle of the animal's body – between the anal and dorsal fins), and a posterior one (at the caudal fin) (4). Then, analyze and measure the fish angular value (5-7). **!CAUTION:** Results must be subtracted from 180° to calculate a value representing the body curvature index (Fig. 3). **?TROUBLESHOOTING**



**Fig. 3.** Main steps to analyze the abdominal writhing-like phenotype using the Image J software. After opening, click on “file” (1) and “open” (2) to analyze the sagittal pictures taken. Using the angle tool (3), select three points (frontal, central, and posterior) (4) to estimate the body angulation. Then, select “analyze” (5) and “measure” (6) to obtain the angle value (7), which must be subtracted from 180°.

### ?TROUBLESHOOTING

**Problem:** (1) Fish do not swim at the sagittal plane. (2) The image is not appropriate to measure the body curvature.

**Possible reasons:** (1) Fish freeze during the entire test period due to increased stress responses; (2) The quality of video and/or image acquisition makes the analysis difficult. High-speed swimming in the experimental tank due to increased erratic movements.

**Solutions:** (1) Ensure adequate manipulation to minimize handling and/or other stressful conditions. Use a narrow experimental tank to restrict the lateral swimming activity. Alternatively, record videos from frontal- and top-view positions to generate 3D traces; (2) Ensure a proper manipulation and/or injection to minimize stress. Improve video/image resolution. Use a high-resolution camera to record the behaviors. Select a more appropriate image to quantify the writhing-like response at the respective time interval by using the *Prt Sc* (*print screen*) Windows tool (to obtain high definition screenshots).

STATISTICAL ANALYSES ●TIMING 20–30 min, depending on amount of data collected

30m

13



Several options exist for analyzing the data, based on the specific experimental design. Use the nonparametric Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney U-test or parametric Student's *t*-test (if data are homoscedastic or normally distributed) for comparing two groups. For more than two groups, use analysis of variance (ANOVA), followed by appropriate post-hoc comparison (*e.g.*, Tukey, Dunn, Student-Newman-Keuls or Dunnett tests). Depending on the study design, an *n*-way ANOVA can generally be applied to assess various factors (*e.g.*, drug/treatment, dose, sex, strain, time, trial, age). Even if a small number of cohorts is used ( $n = 5$ ), robust differences can be detected in acetic acid-treated fish vs. PBS (control group) (*e.g.*, effect size calculated using Cohen's  $d = 3.646$ ). Thus, the use of adult zebrafish to assess pain-like responses following a single i.p. acetic acid injection brings direct "3R's" benefits (refinement, replacement, reduction) of animal experimentation. Use ANOVA with repeated measures to assess time-dependent modulation of the observed phenotypes, if necessary. To facilitate data analysis, export data from every 30 s into separate Excel spreadsheets (one spreadsheet per fish tested in a 6-min trial). The area under curve (AUC) from each individual can be further calculated to express the specific behavioral endpoint using specific statistical packages (*e.g.*, GraphPad Prism).

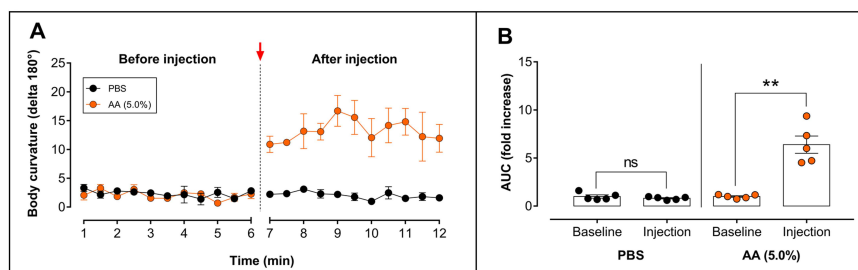
## ANTICIPATED RESULTS

14 The anticipated results described below show robust pain-like responses in zebrafish as reported elsewhere.

Costa FV, Rosa LV, Quadros VA, Santos ARS, Kalueff AV, Rosemberg DB (2019). Understanding nociception-related phenotypes in adult zebrafish: Behavioral and pharmacological characterization using a new acetic acid model. *Behavioural brain research*.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbr.2018.10.009>



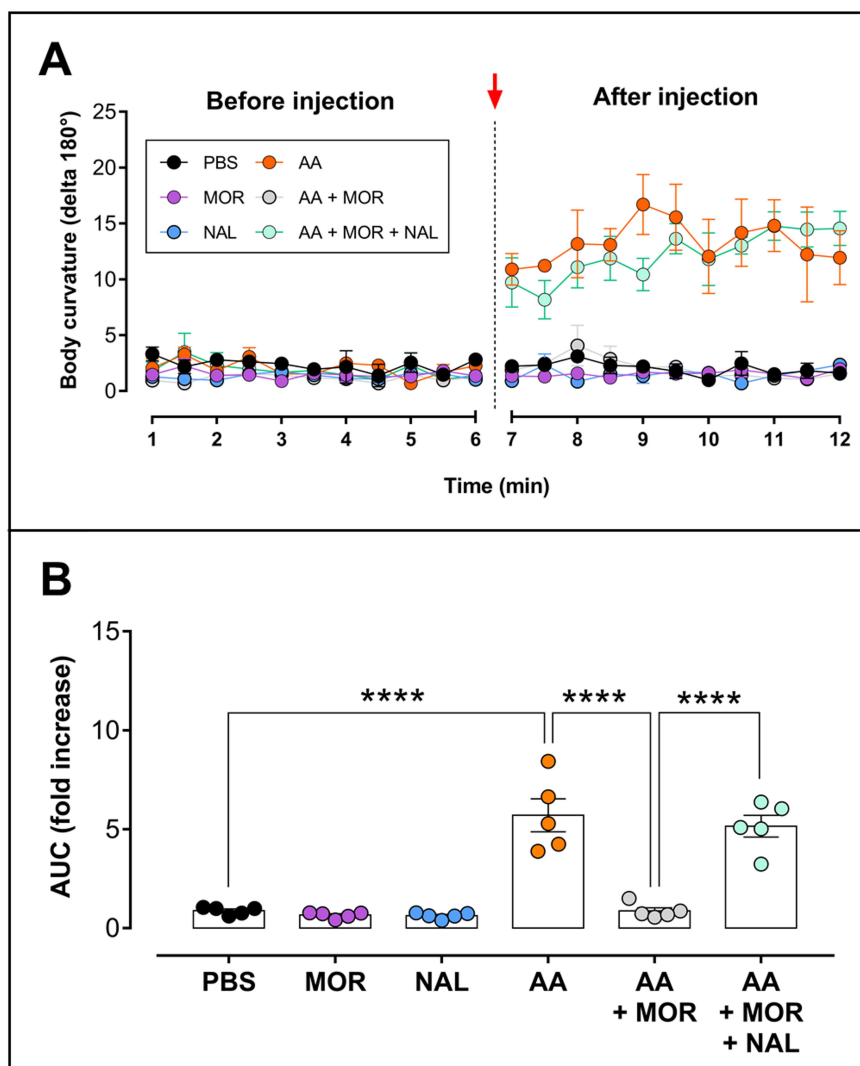
Intraperitoneal injection of 5.0% acetic acid (AA) induces a typical, well-defined abdominal constriction writhing-like phenotype (measured as body curvature index) in zebrafish, analogous to writhing response observed in rodents. **Fig. 4** illustrates typical results obtained using the present protocol. Notably, these results are robust and replicable even with a small number of subjects per cohort (*e.g.*,  $n = 5$ ), obtained by trained researchers blinded to the experimental condition with inter-rater reliability  $> 0.85$ – $0.90$ . Acetic acid-treated fish show a prominent increase in the body curvature index when compared to control (PBS). Interestingly, intraperitoneal injections do not affect the baseline curvature since no differences are observed in PBS-treated group.



**Fig. 4.** Intraperitoneal AA injection elicits abdominal constriction writhing-like behavior in adult zebrafish. **(A)** Temporal variations in the body curvature in the vehicle (PBS) and 5.0% AA groups before and after i.p. injection. The red arrow indicates the moment of injection. **(B)** Changes in the area under curve (AUC) following i.p. injections. Results are expressed as means  $\pm$  S.E.M. and analyzed by paired Student's *t*-test. (\*\* $p < 0.01$ ;  $n = 5$  per group). Data are similar to those reported in the previously published reference paper (Costa et al., 2019).

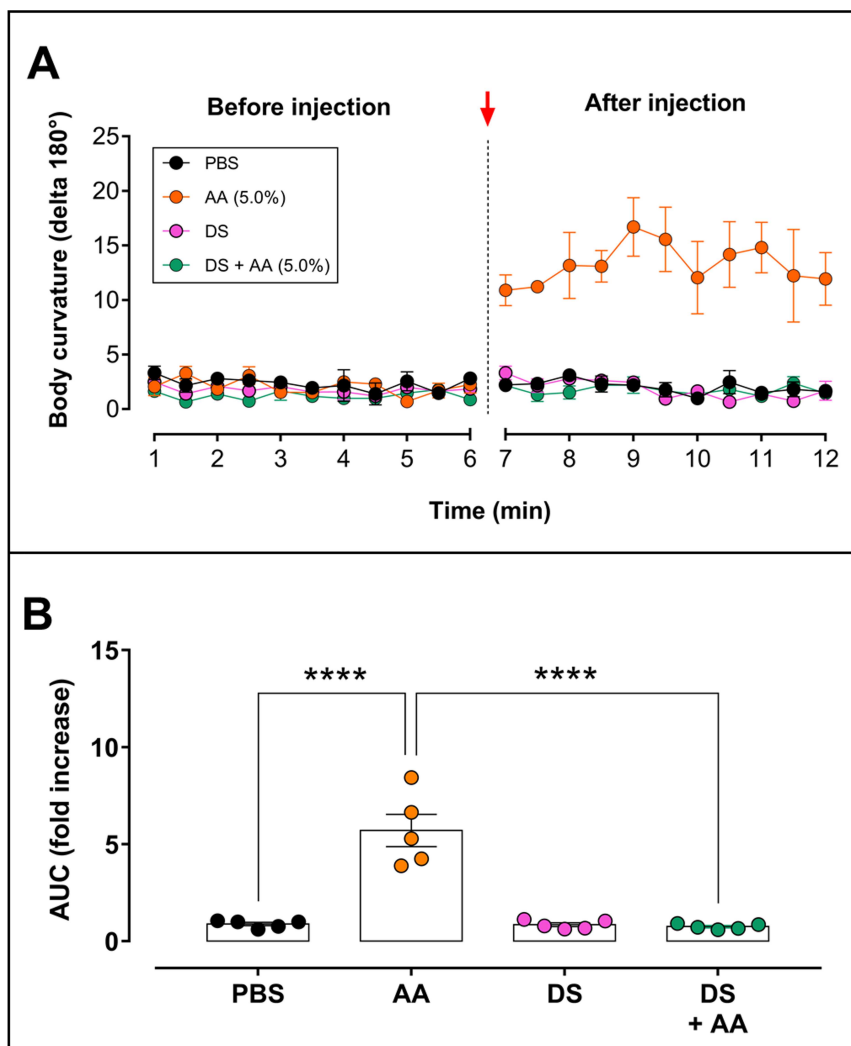
Our protocol also enables studying the involvement of the opioid system in zebrafish pain-like behaviors, as well as the effects of potential pro- and anti-pain drugs. For example, co-administration of 2.5 mg/kg morphine (MOR), an opioid agonist classically used as an analgesic drug, inhibits the effects of acetic acid on the body curvature index, while a common 'reference' non-specific opioid antagonist naloxone (NAL, 5.0 mg/kg) predictably antagonizes morphine-evoked analgesic responses (**Fig. 5**).





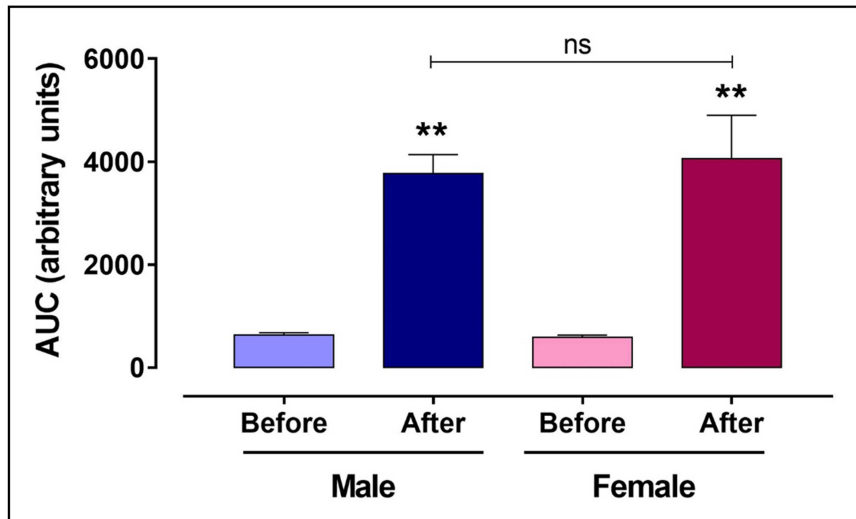
**Fig. 5.** Influence of opioidergic system in the 5.0% AA-induced abdominal constriction writhing-like responses. **(A)** Changes in the body curvature in vehicle (PBS), AA, 2.5 mg/kg MOR, AA+MOR, 5.0 mg/kg NAL, and AA+MOR+NAL groups across time. The red arrow indicates the moment of injection. **(B)** Area under curve (AUC) values following i.p. injections, expressed as fold increase in relation to PBS group. Results are shown as means  $\pm$  S.E.M. and analyzed by one-way ANOVA (factor: treatment), followed by Tukey's post-hoc test for significant ANOVA data (\*\*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ ;  $n = 5$  per group). Data are similar to those reported in the previously published reference paper (Costa et al., 2019).

Pretreatment with the non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drug, diclofenac (40 mg/kg, for 15 min), another commonly used analgesic agent that does not target the opioidergic system, prevents acetic acid-induced changes in the body curvature index (**Fig. 6**). These findings suggest that assessing writhing-like responses in the present protocol may be a sensitive and specific approach to evaluate pain-related phenotypes in adult zebrafish.



**Fig. 6.** Diclofenac (DS, 40 mg/kg, i.p.) pretreatment prevents 5.0% acetic acid (AA)-induced abdominal constriction writhing-like behavior. **(A)** Temporal variations in the body curvature index in vehicle (PBS), AA, DS, and DS+AA groups across time. The red arrow indicates the moment of AA or PBS injection. **(B)** Area under curve (AUC) values, expressed as fold increase in relation to PBS group. Baseline recordings were performed 15 min after PBS or DS i.p. injections. Results are expressed as means  $\pm$  S.E.M. and analyzed by one-way ANOVA (factor: treatment), followed by Tukey's post-hoc test for significant ANOVA data (\*\*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ ;  $n = 5$  per group). Data are similar to those reported in the previously published reference paper (Costa et al., 2019).

Overall, these robust behavioral and pharmacological responses show high predictive and face validity of the present zebrafish-based pain model. The protocol can be run using animals selected randomly from their home tanks since no differences in the body curvature index was observed when different genders are tested (**Fig. 7**). Collectively, these data show that the protocol described here enables measuring specific acute pain responses in adult zebrafish.



**Fig. 9.** Male and female show similar effects of 5.0% acetic acid (AA) in the abdominal constriction writhing-like phenotype. Body curvature indexes (before, and after i.p. AA injections) are shown as the area under curve (AUC), expressed as arbitrary units. Data are expressed as means  $\pm$  S.E.M. and analyzed by repeated measures ANOVA (factors: gender and time), followed by Bonferroni's post-hoc test (\*\*  $p < 0.01$  when compared to their respective baseline values; ns = non-significant;  $n = 5$  per group). Data are similar to those reported in the previously published reference paper (Costa et al., 2019).

**ANEXO F - CARTA DE APROVAÇÃO DA COMISSÃO DE ÉTICA NO USO DE ANIMAIS – CEUA/UFSM**



## CERTIFICADO

Certificamos que a proposta intitulada "Endofenótipos comportamentais relacionados à nocicepção em peixe-zebra (Danio rerio): uma caracterização comportamental utilizando o modelo do ácido acético", protocolada sob o CEUA nº 5438310817 (ID 001660), sob a responsabilidade de **Denis Brock Rosemberg e equipe; Fabiano Vargas da Costa; Vanessa Andreatta de Quadros** - que envolve a produção, manutenção e/ou utilização de animais pertencentes ao filo Chordata, subfilo Vertebrata (exceto o homem), para fins de pesquisa científica ou ensino - está de acordo com os preceitos da Lei 11.794 de 8 de outubro de 2008, com o Decreto 6.899 de 15 de julho de 2009, bem como com as normas editadas pelo Conselho Nacional de Controle da Experimentação Animal (CONCEA), e foi **aprovada** pela Comissão de Ética no Uso de Animais da Universidade Federal de Santa Maria (CEUA/UFSM) na reunião de 28/09/2017.

We certify that the proposal "Nociception-related endophenotypes in zebrafish: a behavioral characterization using the acetic acid model", utilizing 180 Fishes (males and females), protocol number CEUA 5438310817 (ID 001660), under the responsibility of **Denis Brock Rosemberg and team; Fabiano Vargas da Costa; Vanessa Andreatta de Quadros** - which involves the production, maintenance and/or use of animals belonging to the phylum Chordata, subphylum Vertebrata (except human beings), for scientific research purposes or teaching - is in accordance with Law 11.794 of October 8, 2008, Decree 6899 of July 15, 2009, as well as with the rules issued by the National Council for Control of Animal Experimentation (CONCEA), and was **approved** by the Ethic Committee on Animal Use of the Federal University of Santa Maria (CEUA/UFSM) in the meeting of 09/28/2017.

Finalidade da Proposta: **Pesquisa**

Vigência da Proposta: de **10/2017** a **09/2019**

Área: **Bioquímica E Biologia Molecular**

Origem: **Não aplicável biotério**

Espécie: **Peixes**

sexo: **Machos e Fêmeas**

idade: **2 a 4 meses**

N: **180**

Linhagem: **Heterogênea**

Peso: **0250 a 0280 g**

Local do experimento: Laboratório de Fisiologia de Peixes (LAFIPE), UFSM, CCS - Departamento de Farmacologia e Fisiologia.

Santa Maria, 05 de agosto de 2021

Profa. Dra. Patrícia Severo do Nascimento  
Presidente da Comissão de Ética no Uso de Animais  
Universidade Federal de Santa Maria

Prof. Dr. Saulo Tadeu Lemos Pinto Filho  
Vice-Presidente da Comissão de Ética no Uso de Animais  
Universidade Federal de Santa Maria