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Pharmacology, Biochemistry and Behavior 83 (2006) 130-135

PHARMACOLOGY BIOCHEMISTRY ^{AND} BEHAVIOR

www.elsevier.com/locate/pharmbiochembeh

Differential progesterone effects on defensive burying and forced swimming tests depending upon a gradual decrease or an abrupt suppression schedules

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Received 5 August 2005; received in revised form 8 December 2005; accepted 29 December 2005 Available online 17 February 2006

Abstract

A single dose of progesterone reduces the cumulative time in the defensive burying test and the immobility in the forced swim test, whereas the abrupt suppression of repeated doses increases the anxiety indicators. Whether anxiety and despair indicators reduce by a gradually decreased schedule of progesterone is unknown. Therefore, we subjected adult ovariectomized Wistar rats to open field, defensive burying and forced swim tests. One group received a constant schedule of progesterone (0.50 mg, daily), abruptly suppressed (AS) after five days. Another group received a gradual reduction schedule of progesterone (GR: 0.84, 0.67, 0.50, 0.33, 0.17 mg, each day). Control group received vehicle (VEH). The GR group displayed similar crossing in the open field test as the VEH group ($F_{2,19}=8.78$, p<0.002), but also the shortest cumulative time in defensive burying ($F_{2,28}=13.3$, p<0.0001) and the shortest time in freezing ($F_{2,24}=6.39$, p<0.006). In the forced swim test, the GR group displayed the shortest immobility time ($F_{2,19}=12.1$, p<0.0005), the lowest number of immobility periods ($F_{2,19}=4.26$, p<0.03) and the longest latency to the first period of immobility ($F_{2,1}=4.06$, p<0.03). It is concluded that a gradually reduced schedule of progesterone reduces anxiety and despair in the Wistar rat.

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Keywords: Anxiety; Depression; Defensive burying test; Forced swim test; GABA receptor; Premenstrual syndrome; Progesterone; Withdrawal syndrome

1. Introduction

Several behavioral observations support the assumption that progesterone exerts antidepressant-like and anxiolytic actions. 1) During the estrous cycle of the rat, the highest plasma level of estradiol and progesterone occurs during the Proestrus–estrus phases (Freeman, 1994; Frye et al., 2000). Precisely during these phases the total time of immobility in the forced swim test of Porsolt et al. (1979) is shorter as compared with the diestrus– metaestrus phases (Contreras et al., 1998). 2) In consistence, systemically injected progesterone reduces immobility (Martínez-Mota et al., 1999). 3) From a physiological point of view, by the 14th day of gestation, when the plasma level of progesterone peaks, the number of reinforcers received in the low rate 72s task reaches its maximum (Molina et al., 2000). In addition, the neuronal activity of the lateral septal nucleus (LSN) is related to motivational and hedonic behavior. For instance: a) the firing rate of the lateral septal neurons decreases during the process of experimental despair in rats (Contreras et al., 2004); b) but increases during the proestrus–estrus phases, showing a similar effect as some antidepressant treatments (Contreras et al., 2000).

In regard to anxiety, the defensive burying test is widely utilized and validated. The behavioral and physiological responses displayed in this paradigm are expressions of normal and functionally adaptive coping patterns; the animals go from active burying to passive freezing (De Boer and Koolhaas, 2003). The measure of the burying latency represents the rat's reactivity and the anxiety level is represented by the cumulative time of burying (Pinel and Treit, 1978). Along the estrous cycle, cumulative burying decreases during Proestrus–estrus (Fernandez-Guasti and Picazo, 1992), while by the 14th day of pregnancy the cumulative time spent in burying is the shortest

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(Picazo and Fernández-Guasti, 1993), which is related with the highest plasma level of progesterone, but not of estradiol, which in turn peaks by the end of gestation (Tolmacheva et al., 2004). The injection of progesterone (Picazo and Fernández-Guasti, 1995; Martínez-Mota et al., 1999, 2000; Reddy et al., 2005) or allopregnanolone (Bitran et al., 1999; Reddy and Kulkarni, 1999; Gulinello et al., 2003; Shen et al., 2005) reduces the total cumulative burying through actions on the GABA_A receptor since bicuculline or picrotoxin blocks these anxiolytic actions (Reddy and Kulkarni, 1997; Laconi et al., 2001). However, these actions are seemingly independent of the benzodiazepine allosteric site in the GABA receptor, since the injection of flumazenil did not modify the anxiolytic effect of progesterone or allopregnanolone (Gulinello et al., 2002).

Some evidence supports the existence of a withdrawal syndrome for progesterone. Indeed, the abrupt suppression of progesterone diminishes the sedative action of lorazepam as a result of the direct action upon the α -4 subunit of the GABA_A receptor (Moran et al., 1998), and progesterone withdrawal diminishes the threshold for seizures induced by picrotoxin or beta-carbolines in rats (Moran and Smith, 1998). Besides, the withdrawal of long-term progesterone treatment decreases the latency to burying and increases the cumulative time in burying test (Gallo and Smith, 1993), through actions on the GABA_A receptor mediated by the main metabolite of progesterone, i.e., allopregnanolone (Costa et al., 1995).

These observations may be applied to the management of the premenstrual dysphoric disorder (Smith, 2001), which can be taken as a progesterone withdrawal syndrome (Gallo and Smith, 1993). The present study tests the hypothesis that the behavioral effects of a gradually reduced schedule of progesterone (GR) are less than those associated with an abruptly suppressed schedule of progesterone (AS) in animal models of anxiety and depression.

2. Materials and methods

We included 67 female Wistar rats, each weighing 300 g at the beginning of our study. All the animals lived in housing facilities with a light–darkness cycle of 12/12 h (lights ON at 7:00 a.m.), temperature of 24 °C, and ad libitum access to water and food. Ventral bilateral ovariectomy was practiced under ethylic ether anesthesia. After recovery from the anesthesia and once amikacine (Labs Zafiro S.A. de C.V., México) had been applied to the surgical wounds, the animals were returned to their housing facilities. At least two weeks elapsed between surgery and treatments. The experiments were carried out in compliance with the National Institute of Health's Guide for Care and Use of Laboratory Animals (1996).

2.1. Groups

In our study, we distributed the animals in three groups. All treatments were administered daily at 7:00 a.m., in a volume of 0.12 ml/rat. The rats from AS group (N=29) received a daily (s.c.), fixed dose of progesterone during 5 consecutive days. From AS group 22 rats underwent the burying test and 7 were forced to swim. The GR group (N=18) was also injected daily (s.c.) with

progesterone during 5 days, but in a gradually decreased schedule. From GR group 12 rats were submitted to the burying defensive tests and 6 to forced swim test. The remaining group (N=20: 13 to burying test and 7 to forced swim test) received five injections (s.c.) of corn oil as vehicle (VEH) during five days.

2.2. Drug treatment

We selected a progesterone dose of 1.5 mg/kg, because it reduces the immobility in the forced swim test and the cumulative time in the defensive burying test (Martínez-Mota et al., 1999, 2000). This dose is similar to that reported by Gallo and Smith (1993) to produce a withdrawal syndrome. In the AS group, we used a fixed dose of 0.5 mg/rat=1.6 mg/kg (Sigma Chemicals Co. USA), once per day, during 5 consecutive days; thus, each rat received a total amount of 2.5 mg. The GR group received the same total amount of progesterone, but in a gradually decreasing schedule, by reducing one fifth of the initial dose each day, during five days (0.84, 0.67, 0.50, 0.33, 0.17 mg). Behavioral tests began 24 h after the last injection.

2.3. Defensive burying test

At first, each rat was placed in an individual Plexiglas cage $(27 \times 17 \times 15.5 \text{ cm})$ for 72 h before the test session. For the defensive burying test, we used a similar Plexiglas cage. An electrified probe (90 mm, length; 8 mm, \emptyset) protruded from one of the walls about 2 cm above the bed of sawdust. A stimulator (Grass S-44) coupled in series to an isolation unit (Grass SIU5) and a constant current unit (Grass, CCU1A) delivered direct



Fig. 1. Burying behavior test. In the gradually reduced progesterone group (GR), the cumulative burying (A) proved to be significantly lesser ($F_{2,28}=13.3$, p<0.0001) than the abruptly suppressed (AS) or vehicle (VEH) groups. The lowest time of freezing (B) corresponded to GR group ($F_{2,24}=6.39$, p<0.006).



Fig. 2. Open field test. Crossing was significantly $(F_{2,19}=8.78, p<0.002)$ higher in the AS group. (*p<0.05, Student–Newman–Keuls test. Abbrev. as in Fig. 1).

current (0.3 mA) through the probe during the 10-min test. When a rat incidentally touched the electrode, it received an electric shock and after some time (burying latency) it began to displace the sawdust vigorously in order to hide the electrode. Some rats remained quiet, in an expectant attitude (freezing). All sessions were videotaped for subsequent analysis and to measure burying latency and total cumulative burying time, as well as total freezing time.

2.4. Open field test

In order to discard any influence of locomotor activity on swimming, a 5-min open field test preceded the forced swim test. We used an acrylic box $(33 \times 44 \times 20 \text{ cm})$ with the floor divided into squares $(11 \times 11 \text{ cm})$ to count the number of times each rat crossed a square completely (crossing) with its four paws.

2.5. Forced swim test

In a first 15-min habituation session, not included in the data analysis, each rat was gently placed in a pool $(40 \times 20 \times 60 \text{ cm})$ of water $(25 \pm 1 \text{ °C})$ at a level that just permitted the animals to touch the bottom with their forepaws. After a period of vigorous swimming, all rats reduced their movements to only those necessary to maintain their head above the water level, without any other displacement (immobility). The 5-min test session began 24 h later. All sessions were videotaped to measure the total time, number of periods and latency to immobility.

2.6. Statistical analysis

The data were grouped according to progesterone schedule and analyzed by one-way ANOVA, using the post hoc Student– Newman–Keuls test, when statistical differences reached $p \le 0.05$. Results are presented as mean±standard error.

3. Results

3.1. Defensive burying test

The GR group spent ($F_{2,28}$ =13.3, p<0.0001) the shortest time in cumulative burying (17.6±6.76 s), significantly different

from the vehicle group $(111.5\pm17.44 \text{ s})$ and the AS group $(184.8\pm29.03 \text{ s})$, which displayed the longest time. The longest burying latency occurred in the GR group $(84.3\pm27.24 \text{ s})$ with respect to the other two groups, which displayed similar and shorter latencies (AS: $40.3\pm22.96 \text{ s}$ and vehicle: $35.2\pm6.9 \text{ s}$, Fig. 1A), although not statistically significant.

The percentage of animals who displayed freezing was also different among the groups. The highest percentage occurred in the AS group (68%), followed by the vehicle (62%), and lastly the GR group which showed the lowest percentage of freezing animals (33%). Consistently, the GR group displayed ($F_{2,24}$ =6.39, p<0.006) the shortest time in freezing (88±11.3 s), significantly different from the vehicle (153.5±14.9 s), and AS groups, which showed the longest freezing time (197.2±17.1 s, see Fig. 1B).

3.2. Open field test

The crossing in the GR group (21.0 ± 5.25) and the vehicle group (21.0 ± 2.6) was similar, whereas the AS group $(39.3\pm$



FORCED SWIM TEST

Fig. 3. Forced swim test. The gradual reduction of progesterone schedule (GR) produced: (A) less immobility ($F_{2,19}=12.1$, p<0.0005); (B) fewer periods of immobility ($F_{2,19}=12.1$, p<0.0005); and (C) longer latency to the first period of immobility ($F_{2,1}=4.06$, p<0.03), as compared to other groups. (*p<0.05, Student–Newman–Keuls test. Abbrev. as in Fig. 1).

3.34) showed significantly greater crossing ($F_{2,19}$ =8.78, p<0.002, see Fig. 2).

3.3. Forced swim test

The GR group displayed the shortest total time of immobility $(72.3\pm15.99 \text{ s})$, followed by the AS group $(113.7\pm10.60 \text{ s})$ and then by the vehicle group $(153.1\pm7.53 \text{ s})$. These differences among groups reached the statistical criterion of significance $(F_{2,19}=12.1, p<0.0005)$. Likewise, the number of immobilities was significantly $(F_{2,19}=4.26, p<0.03)$ smaller in the GR group (23.7 ± 0.67) than in the AS group (36.4 ± 3.4) and in the vehicle group (40.1 ± 5.6) . Lastly, the latency to the first period of immobility was significantly $(F_{2,1}=4.06, p<0.03)$ longer in the GR group $(11.19\pm1.51 \text{ s})$ than in the AS group $(6.63\pm1.40 \text{ s})$ and in the vehicle group $(6.27\pm1.08 \text{ s}, \text{Fig. 3})$.

4. Discussion

The aim of the present study was to determine whether progesterone administered in a schedule of gradual reduction produces different behavioral actions compared to progesterone administration in a schedule of abrupt suppression. We found fewer indicators of anxiety and despair with the gradual reduction of progesterone than with the abrupt suppression schedule.

Majewska (1992) reported that the binding of progesterone to the GABA_A (Weiland and Orchinik, 1995; Follesa et al., 2000) receptor increases the opening frequency of the chloride channel leading to an increased neuronal hyperpolarization. Therefore, the abrupt descent of the plasma level of progesterone possibly associates with hyperexcitability. For instance, barbiturates, benzodiazepines and alcohol are other GABA_A receptor ligands (Faingold et al., 2000; Reilly et al., 2000) that produce physical dependence. A rapid descent in their plasma level is followed by a withdrawal syndrome which is dominated by neuronal hyperexcitability (Watson and Little, 2002; Cagetti et al., 2003; Casasola et al., 2004). During withdrawal, convulsive seizures are commonly observed, but in a less extreme situation the main symptoms are anxiety and tremors. These behavioral changes may be attenuated by a gradual decrease in the plasma levels of addictive drugs to avoid or at least attenuate the withdrawal syndrome (Pinna et al., 1997; Jimenez Ruiz et al., 1999).

The presence of anxiety as a component of the progesterone withdrawal syndrome has been demonstrated before (Gallo and Smith, 1993; Costa et al., 1995; Gulinello et al., 2003). Our present contribution consists in the comparison of an abruptly suppressed schedule of progesterone with a gradual reduction schedule. We confirmed that the abrupt suppression of progesterone increased anxiety indicators, including freezing, which is a passive behavior reflecting extreme anxiety (De Boer and Koolhaas, 2003). On the contrary, the gradual reduction schedule lowered the anxiety indicators (freezing and burying), reaching roughly one-sixth of the values found in the vehicle-treated group. Whereas the rats of the gradual reduction group displayed the lowest freezing values, the abrupt suppression group displayed the highest. These results suggest that the

schedule of gradual progesterone reduction effectively decreases the anxiety indicators as compared with the schedule of abrupt suppression.

A similarly encouraging conclusion arises from the forced swim test analysis. The gradual progesterone reduction schedule decreased the total time of immobility, and the number of immobilities by about one-half, and increased the latency to the first period of immobility by two-fold, as compared with the vehicle. The anti-despair action of antidepressants includes a decrease in the time of immobility (Consoli et al., 2005), but they also enlarge the occurrence of the first period of immobility, which represents the strength of the first effort to escape from the stressful situation generated by the forced swim (Contreras et al., 1998, 2000, 2001; Espejo and Miñano, 1999). The abrupt suppression of progesterone also produced a lesser but significant reduction in immobility; in agreement with the anti-despair action exerted by a single dose of progesterone (Contreras et al., 2002) and its antidepressive action in humans (Mortola et al., 1991).

Withdrawal from progesterone induces anxiety (Gallo and Smith, 1993), and during the rat postpartum increases the immobility in the forced swim test (Stoffel and Craft, 2004). A similar change may occur in the premenstrual dysphoric disorder in women (Cronje and Studd, 2002) since there also occurs an abrupt decrease of plasma levels of progesterone and allopregnanolone (Freeman et al., 2002; Smith, 2002; Uziel-Miller and Dresner, 2002; Gulinello et al., 2003). On the contrary, the allopregnanolone content in hippocampus and amygdaline nuclei is higher in animals with lower anxiety and depression indicators in open field, social interaction and forced swim tests (Zimmerberg et al., 2005). Thus, an abrupt decrease of plasma progesterone levels may bear some relationship with the premenstrual syndrome in some susceptible women (Smith, 2002; Uziel-Miller and Dresner, 2002; Gulinello et al., 2003).

Certainly, progesterone is not an addictive drug, but it is noteworthy that the cerebral pathways and neurotransmitter systems involved in drug dependence, withdrawal and craving seem to be different (Lingford-Hughes et al., 2003; Kreek et al., 2005). However, progesterone may behave like many other therapeutic drugs which produce a withdrawal syndrome, in the absence of craving (McGrath et al., 2005). The adaptive changes of the GABAA receptor are associated with decreased reactivity and coupling towards its ligands, leading to the development of tolerance (Listos and Fidecka, 2005) and probably to withdrawal symptoms. Hence, the withdrawal syndrome to benzodiazepines (Tsuda et al., 1998), alike the abrupt cessation of GABA cortical infusion, is characterized by cortical hyperexcitability (Fukuda et al., 1987; Silva-Barrat et al., 1989; Calixto et al., 1995, 2000; Casasola et al., 2001, 2004), i.e., the opposite to normal actions. Noticeably, flumazenil by itself is unable to promote defensive burying changes (Saldívar-González et al., 2000), however, flumazenil during progesterone withdrawal exerts an anxiolytic action (Smith et al., 1998). Hence, the action of flumazenil depends on the previous state of the receptor.

Progesterone has been assayed in different regimens for premenstrual syndrome management with varying success (Dennerstein et al., 1985; Rapkin et al., 1997; Johnson, 1998). In view of our present results, we conclude that a schedule of gradual progesterone reduction has anxiolytic and anti-despair effects and may be used in clinic for the management of the premenstrual dysphoric disorder.

Acknowledgements

The authors are grateful to Warren Haid, Irene Marquina and Isabel Pérez Montfort for revising the manuscript. During this investigation M.H.L. and G.A.A. received fellowships from the Consejo Nacional de Ciencia y Tecnología (CONACYT, México, Reg.170667) and the Instituto Mexicano del Seguro Social, (IMSS, México, Reg. 2005/0340), respectively.

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