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*Published in:*  
Brain Structure and Function

*DOI:*  
[10.1007/s00429-020-02102-w](https://doi.org/10.1007/s00429-020-02102-w)

Published: 01/09/2020

*Document Version*  
Peer reviewed version

[Link to publication](#)

### *Citation for published version (APA):*

Tan, S. Z. K., Temel, Y., Chan, A. Y., Mok, A. T. C., Perucho, J. A. U., Blokland, A., Aquili, L., Lim, W. L., & Lim, L. W. (2020). Serotonergic treatment normalizes midbrain dopaminergic neuron increase after periaqueductal gray stimulation. *Brain Structure and Function*, 225, 1957-1966. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00429-020-02102-w>

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**Serotonergic treatment normalizes midbrain dopaminergic neuron  
increase after periaqueductal gray stimulation**

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**Manuscript Information:**

1. Number of words in the abstract: 239
2. Number of words in the manuscript (excluding references and legends): 3784
3. Number of references: 44
4. Number of figures: 3
5. Number of supplementary figures: 1

36 **ABSTRACT**

37 Electrical stimulation of the dorsolateral periaqueductal gray (dlPAG) in rats has been shown to  
38 elicit panic-like behaviour and can be a useful as an unconditioned stimulus for modelling  
39 anticipatory fear and agoraphobia in a contextual fear conditioning paradigm. In this study, we  
40 further analysed our previous data on the effects of escitalopram (a selective serotonin reuptake  
41 inhibitor, SSRI) and buspirone (a 5-HT1A receptor partial agonist) on dlPAG-induced anticipatory  
42 fear behaviour in a rat model using freezing as a measure. We then attempted to unravel some of the  
43 interactions with dopamine signalling using tyrosine hydroxylase (TH) immunohistochemistry to  
44 probe the effects on dopaminergic neurons. We showed that acute treatment of escitalopram, but not  
45 buspirone, was effective in reducing anticipatory freezing behaviour, while chronic administrations  
46 of both drugs were effective. We found that the dlPAG stimulation induced increase number of  
47 dopaminergic neurons in the ventral tegmental area (VTA) which was reversed in both chronic  
48 buspirone and escitalopram groups. We further found a strong positive correlation between the  
49 number of dopaminergic neurons and freezing in the VTA and showed positive correlations  
50 between dopaminergic neurons in the VTA and substantia nigra pars compacta (SNpc) in  
51 escitalopram and buspirone groups, respectively. Overall, we showed that chronic treatment with an  
52 SSRI and a 5-HT1A agonist reduced anticipatory freezing behaviour which seems to be associated,  
53 through correlative studies, with a reversal of dlPAG stimulation induced increase in number of  
54 dopaminergic neurons in the VTA and/or SNpc.

55

56

57 **KEYWORDS:** Deep brain stimulation; periaqueductal gray; fear-like behaviour; dopamine;  
58 serotonergic system

59

## 60 INTRODUCTION

61 The dorsolateral periaqueductal gray (dlPAG) plays a major role fear; it is thought to  
62 suppress the facilitatory effects of amygdala activation (Walker and Davis 1997), thereby inhibiting  
63 fear expression. Indeed, lesions of the dlPAG has been shown to enhance both unconditional  
64 freezing and cue conditioned freezing, and has been suggested to inhibit the ventral PAG and  
65 forebrain structures involved with defence (Oca et al. 1998). Electrical stimulation (which is  
66 thought to generate a temporary neural activity lesion (McIntyre and Anderson 2016)) of the dlPAG  
67 in rats has been shown to elicit panic-like behaviours such as vigorous running and jumping in an  
68 open-field arena (Lim et al. 2008, 2009). Memory of panic-like behaviour leads to contextual  
69 conditioning, where animals associate the context (e.g., the open-field ) to fear, which models  
70 anticipatory anxiety and agoraphobia (Lim et al. 2008, 2010). Periaqueductal gray (PAG) serotonin  
71 transmission has been shown to play a crucial role in regulating the panic response; studies have  
72 shown that selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) can attenuate or increase the threshold  
73 for escape behaviours in animals (Schenberg et al. 2002; Zanoveli et al. 2005; Hogg et al. 2006). In  
74 this study, we further analysed our previously published data (Lim et al. 2010), which studied the  
75 effects of escitalopram (an SSRI) and buspirone (a 5-HT<sub>1A</sub> receptor partial agonist) on dorsolateral  
76 PAG (dlPAG)-induced anticipatory anxiety). We used freezing, which is a species-specific defence  
77 response defined as the absence of all movement except that required for respiration (Blanchard and  
78 Blanchard 1969), as a measure of fear. It is known that both SSRIs and 5-HT<sub>1A</sub> receptor agonists  
79 exert effects on dopaminergic neurons, reducing TH cells and firing rate (Dremencov et al. 2009;  
80 Jahanshahi et al. 2010). Further, dopaminergic transmission has been shown to be important for  
81 processes and modulation of fear and memory (Abraham et al. 2014; Pignatelli and Bonci 2015;  
82 Luo et al. 2018; Tan et al. 2019b, a), and have been suggested to work as an opponent to  
83 serotonergic systems in conditioning tasks (Daw et al. 2002). Given that the central serotonergic  
84 systems is thought to regulate dopamine functions (Esposito et al. 2008), with this interaction  
85 playing a major role in learning and memory (Feria-velasco and Gonza 2008), we decided to study  
86 the effects of escitalopram (a selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor, SSRI) and buspirone (a 5-

87 HT1A receptor partial agonist) on dopaminergic neurons and their correlation to anticipatory fear.  
88 We further extended our previous data by examining dopaminergic neurons by tyrosine hydroxylase  
89 (TH)-immunohistochemistry of the ventral tegmental area (VTA), substantia nigra pars compacta  
90 (SNpc), dorsal raphe nucleus (DRN), and median raphe nucleus (MnR). Overall, we attempt to  
91 dissect dopaminergic mechanisms in which escitalopram and buspirone modulates defensive  
92 behaviour induced by dPAG stimulation.

93

94

## 95 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### 96 *Animals*

97 Animals used were previously reported (Lim et al. 2010), all data was based on new  
98 behavioural analysis on previously reported animals and molecular analysis of their tissue. Adult  
99 male Wistar rats (n=40, 12 weeks old) were individually housed in standard cages with food and  
100 water available *ad libitum*. The environmental conditions were maintained at a temperature of  
101  $21\pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$  and 60%-65% humidity in a reverse 12 h/12 h light/dark cycle. This study was approved by  
102 the Animal Experiments and Ethics Committee of Maastricht University, as well as the Committee  
103 on the Use of Live Animals in Teaching and Research (CULATR) of The University of Hong  
104 Kong.

105

### 106 *Experimental groups*

107 Rats were randomly divided into six experimental groups: three groups receiving dIPAG  
108 deep brain stimulation (DBS) and three groups receiving sham stimulation and treated with either  
109 escitalopram (DBS-ESCIT, n=7; SHAM-ESCIT, n=7), buspirone (DBS-BUSP, n=7; SHAM-BUSP,  
110 n=6), or saline (DBS-SAL, n=7; SHAM-SAL, n=6), respectively. A schematic representation of the  
111 timeline of the dIPAG DBS and drug treatments is shown in Figure 1 (A).

112

### 113 *Surgical procedure*

114 The surgical procedures were performed as previously described (Temel et al. 2007; Lim et  
115 al. 2010). Rats were anaesthetized during the entire procedure using a combination of ketamine (90  
116 mg/kg) and xylazine (10 mg/kg) injected subcutaneously. Rats were placed in a stereotaxic frame  
117 (Stoeling, Wood Dale, USA) and electrodes were implanted at the level of the dlPAG (from  
118 Bregma: anteroposterior, -7.6 mm; mediolateral, +0.7 mm; ventral, -4.8 mm; coronal approach angle  
119 of 10°)(Paxinos and Watson 2006) and secured to the skull using dental cement. The electrodes  
120 consisted of gold-plated needle combined with an inner wire of a platinum-iridium (Technomed,  
121 Beek, the Netherlands; IDEE Instruments, Maastricht University) with a tip and shaft diameter of  
122 50 µm and 250 µm, respectively. All rats received a subcutaneous injection of Temgesic (0.1  
123 mg/kg) for pain relief directly after the surgery and were allowed to recover for 2 weeks.

124

### 125 ***DBS procedures***

126 The DBS procedures for inducing fear-like behaviour in rats were reported in our previous  
127 studies (Lim et al. 2009, 2010). To determine the level of the escape threshold, the dlPAG DBS  
128 groups had a preliminary session in their home cages. The stimulation amplitude was gradually  
129 increased until escape behaviour was observed. At each step, the stimulation period was 15 s  
130 followed by a stimulation-off period of 45 s. The stimulation frequency was set at 50 Hz and pulse  
131 width at 0.1 ms based on our previous studies (Lim et al. 2009, 2010). The effects of drugs on  
132 escape threshold was also done, and have been previously reported (Lim et al. 2010). The  
133 stimulation was delivered using a World Precision Instruments (WPI) digital stimulator (DS8000,  
134 WPI, Berlin, Germany) and a stimulus isolator (DLS100, WPI, Berlin, Germany). Real-time  
135 verification of the DBS stimulation parameters was monitored using a digital oscilloscope (Agilent  
136 54622D oscilloscope, Agilent Technologies, Amstelveen). Animals requiring stimulation intensities  
137 above 100 µA were excluded from the analysis. After the threshold determination session, all rats  
138 were allowed a recovery period of 2 weeks. Sham animals were similarly connected to the  
139 stimulator, but no current was delivered.

140

141 ***Drug administration***

142 The dosage and administration of BUSP and ESCIT in animals have been previously  
143 reported and shown to be effective in our previous study (Lim et al. 2010). A week prior to the  
144 actual experimental tests, all animals received 1 mL saline injections three times on alternating days  
145 to habituate them to the injection procedure. Animals were administered a single acute dose of drug  
146 before the first open-field behavioural test. Escitalopram oxalate (ESCIT; H. Lundbeck A/S,  
147 Copenhagen, Denmark) and Buspirone hydrochloride (BUSP; TOCRIS, Cookson Inc., Missouri,  
148 USA) were dissolved in saline (SAL; 0.9% NaCl). The animals received a subcutaneous injection  
149 (in the volume of 1 mL/kg) of ESCIT (10 mg/kg) 60 min before or BUSP (3 mg/kg) 120 min before  
150 the first open-field behavioural test, based on previous effective pharmacological profiles  
151 (Tunncliff et al. 1992; Sánchez et al. 2003; Kakui et al. 2009; Lugenbiel et al. 2010). For testing  
152 the chronic effects of these drugs, animals received daily injections of ESCIT (10 mg/kg), BUSP (3  
153 mg/kg) or SAL for 21 days. A final dose of SAL, ESCIT and BUSP was administered (at 60 min  
154 and 120 min, respectively) before the second open-field behavioural testing to investigate the  
155 chronic treatment effects.

156

157 ***Behavioural evaluation***

158 Freezing behaviour of rats was evaluated in an open-field (square: 100 cm x 100 cm; height:  
159 40 cm) made of clear plexiglass with an open top and a dark floor (Lim et al., 2010). 12h after  
160 dlPAG stimulation, rats were placed in the open-field arena for 10 min and their behaviour was  
161 recorded using a camera. Freezing is defined as the absence of all movement except that required  
162 for respiration (Blanchard and Blanchard 1969). The freezing response was manually scored by  
163 researchers who were blinded to the experimental design and animal groups.

164

165 ***Histological processing***

166 At 2 h after the final behavioural test, rats were anaesthetized with Nembutal (75 mg/kg) and  
167 then perfused transcardially with Tyrode (0.1 M) and a fixative solution containing



168 paraformaldehyde, picric acid and glutaraldehyde in phosphate buffer (pH 7.6). Rats were post-  
169 fixed for 2h and incubated overnight in sucrose solution, and subsequently frozen rapidly with CO<sub>2</sub>  
170 and stored at -80 °C. Brain tissues were sequentially cut (10 series) on a cryostat into 30 µm thick  
171 sections in the coronal plane and stored at -80 °C. One series of the brain sections were processed  
172 for TH immunohistochemistry. Briefly, brain sections were incubated overnight with mouse anti-  
173 TH antibody (1:100, kindly provided by Dr C. Cuello, Canada) diluted in 0.1% bovine serum  
174 albumin (BSA) and Tris-Buffered Solution (TBS)-Triton (TBST) solution, followed by biotinylated  
175 donkey anti-mouse IgG (diluted 1:400, Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories Inc, Westgove,  
176 USA). Sections were then incubated with avidin-biotin-peroxidase complex (diluted 1:800,  
177 Vectastain Elite ABC kit, Burlingame, USA) for 2 h. Between steps, sections were washed with  
178 TBS and TBST. Tissue sections were incubated with 3, 3'- diaminobenzidine  
179 tetrahydrochloride/nickel chloride solution to visualise the horseradish peroxidase (HRP) immune  
180 complex. The reaction was stopped after 10 min by washing the sections thoroughly with TBS.  
181 Subsequently, all sections were mounted on the Superfrost micro-slides (VWM, Illinois, USA) and  
182 cover-slipped with Permount mounting medium (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, USA).  
183 Another series of brain sections were stained with haematoxylin-eosin (Merck, Darmstadt,  
184 Germany) to evaluate the localisation of the electrode implantation sites (Fig 1B).

185

### 186 ***Evaluation of the TH-immunoreactive cells***

187 Cell counts of TH-immunoreactive (TH-ir) cells were performed in the VTA, SNpc, DRN  
188 and MnR brain sections from the DBS and SHAM treatment groups. The procedure of cell counting  
189 was performed according to our previously established method (Liu et al. 2015). In brief, systematic  
190 quantification of the TH positive cells (3-4 sections per animal) was performed using an Axiophat 2  
191 imaging microscope (Carl Zeiss Microscopy GmbH, Gottingen, Germany). The boundaries of the  
192 areas of interest (VTA, SNpc, DRN and MnR) were delineated according to the Paxinos and  
193 Watson rat brain atlas (Paxinos and Watson 2006). The TH positive cells were clearly defined  
194 within the areas of interest and quantified by an investigator who was blinded to the treatment

195 groups. Photomicrographs of TH-ir cells within the areas of interest were captured using an  
196 Olympus DP73 digital camera (Olympus, Hamburg, Germany) attached to a bright-field  
197 microscope. Brightness and contrast of the photomicrographs were adjusted in Adobe Photoshop  
198 (Adobe Systems, San Jose, USA).

199

## 200 *Statistical Analysis*

201 Statistical analysis was conducted in R (version 3.5.2) and visualizations were performed using the  
202 “ggplot2” package (Wickham 2016). As linearity of data cannot be assumed, outliers (n=2; 1 DBS-  
203 SAL, 1 DBS-BUSP in acute behaviour data) in the behaviour data were removed using the ROUT  
204 method (Motulsky and Brown 2006). As outliers were only found in acute and not chronic  
205 behavioural data in behavioural studies, no outliers were excluded from cell count and correlation  
206 studies. However, statistics of acute behaviour with outliers can be found in Supplementary Figure  
207 2.

208

## 209 **RESULTS**

### 210 *Acute administration of escitalopram, but not buspirone, reduced anticipatory freezing* 211 *behaviour.*

212 To test the efficacy of acute BUSP and ESCIT in reducing panic-like freezing behaviour, animals  
213 received electrical stimulation or sham stimulation of the dIPAG and were then tested in the open  
214 field. At 12 h post-stimulation, animals received either saline, BUSP, or ESCIT and were returned  
215 to the open field 120 min and 60 min later, respectively (Fig 1A). Two-way ANOVA revealed an  
216 effect of stimulation, drugs, and their interaction (lowest  $F = 8.9$ , all  $p$ s  $< 0.05$ ) on the measured  
217 freezing behaviour. Tukey’s post-hoc test revealed a significant difference between DBS-SAL and  
218 Sham-SAL groups ( $p < 0.05$ ), indicating DBS induced increased freezing. Tukey’s post-hoc test  
219 further revealed a significant difference between DBS-SAL and DBS-ESCIT ( $p < 0.05$ ), but not  
220 between DBS-SAL and DBS-BUSP groups ( $p = 0.999$ ), which indicated an acute effect of

221 escitalopram, but not buspirone, in reducing anticipatory freezing behaviour (Fig 1C). The heatmap  
222 and full table of p-values can be found in Supplementary Figure 1.

223

### 224 ***Chronic administration of buspirone and escitalopram reduced anticipatory freezing behaviour***

225 To test the efficacy of chronic BUSP and ESCIT in reducing panic-like behaviour, animals received  
226 chronic administration of saline, BUSP, or ESCIT for 3 weeks. Animals then received electrical  
227 stimulation or sham stimulation of the dlPAG before testing in an open field. At 12 h after  
228 stimulation when animals were returned to the open field, two-way ANOVA revealed an effect of  
229 drug and DBS (lowest  $F = 7.7$ , all  $p$ s  $< 0.05$ ) and a trending interaction effect ( $F_{(2,32)}=3.2$ ,  $p = 0.054$ )  
230 on freezing behaviour. Tukey's post-hoc revealed a significant difference between DBS-SAL and  
231 Sham-SAL groups ( $p < 0.05$ ), indicating DBS induced increased freezing. Tukey's post-hoc test  
232 further revealed a significant difference between DBS-SAL and both DBS-BUSP and DBS-ESCIT  
233 groups (all  $p$ s  $< 0.05$ ), but no significant difference between DBS-BUSP and DBS-ESCIT groups ( $p$   
234  $= 0.98$ ), indicating similar effects of chronic BUSP and ESCIT in reducing anticipatory freezing  
235 behaviour (Fig 1D). The heatmap and full table of p-values can be found in Supplementary Figure  
236 1.

237

### 238 ***Chronic buspirone and escitalopram treatments and dlPAG DBS caused changes in the number*** 239 ***of dopaminergic neurons.***

240 To understand the effects of chronic treatment of BUSP and ESCIT and dlPAG DBS on  
241 dopaminergic neurons, TH immunohistochemistry and neuronal cell counting were performed on  
242 VTA, SNpc, DRN, and MnR brain sections (Fig 2A). Two-way ANOVA revealed an effect of  
243 dlPAG DBS on all structures (lowest  $F = 4.7$ , all  $p$ s  $< 0.05$ ). There was an effect of drug in VTA  
244 (Fig 2B), DRN (Fig 2D), and MnR (Fig 2E) (lowest  $F = 4.9$ , all  $p$ s  $< 0.05$ ), but not in SNpc (Fig  
245 2C). There were no interaction effects, although it should be noted that VTA showed a trending  
246 interaction effect ( $F_{(2,21)}= 3.4$ ,  $p = 0.052$ ). Tukey's post-hoc test conducted on all structures revealed  
247 a significant difference between DBS-SAL and Sham-SAL groups in VTA ( $p < 0.005$ ), but not in

248 SNpc, DRN, or MnR (all  $p$ s  $> 0.05$ ), which suggests dlPAG DBS induced increased numbers of TH  
249 neurons in the VTA. There were a lower number of TH neurons in DBS-BUSP and DBS-ESCIT  
250 groups compared to the DBS-SAL group (all  $p$ s  $< 0.01$ ), but no significant difference compared to  
251 their sham counterparts, which suggests chronic administration of both BUSP and ESCIT reversed  
252 the effects of dlPAG on TH neurons. DRN showed significantly lowered TH neuron counts  
253 between DBS-SAL and DBS-ESCIT groups ( $p = 0.02$ ), and MnR showed a significantly lowered  
254 TH neuron count between Sham-SAL and Sham-ESCIT ( $p = 0.04$ ) groups. The heatmap and full  
255 table of  $p$ -values can be found in Supplementary Figure 1.

256

### 257 ***TH neuron count correlated to anticipatory freezing behaviour***

258 To understand the relationship between dopaminergic neurons, and anticipatory freezing behaviour,  
259 freezing and TH cell count in VTA, SNpc, DRN, and MnR of both dlPAG stimulated and sham  
260 stimulated were analysed together by Spearman's rank correlation (Fig 3A,C,E,G, respectively).  
261 Freezing and TH neuron counts were shown to be highly positively correlated in VTA ( $R = 0.727$ ,  $p$   
262  $< 0.001$ ) and moderately positively correlated in SNpc, DRN, and MnR (SNpc:  $R = 0.513$ ,  $p =$   
263  $0.008$ ; DRN:  $R = 0.464$ ,  $p = 0.005$ ; MnR:  $R = 0.387$ ,  $p = 0.022$ ). Overall, dopaminergic neuron (in  
264 particular in the VTA) were positively correlated to anticipatory freezing behaviour.

265

### 266 ***Escitalopram treatment correlates to TH neuron count in VTA, whereas buspirone treatment*** 267 ***correlates to TH neuron count in SNpc***

268 To understand the relationship between chronic administration of BUSP or ESCIT and  
269 dopaminergic neurons, individual drug groups and TH cell counts in VTA, SNpc, DRN, and MnR  
270 were analysed by Spearman's rank correlation (Fig 3B, D, F, & H, respectively). ESCIT showed  
271 significant positive correlation with TH neuron count in the VTA ( $R = 0.68$ ,  $p = 0.06$ ), whereas  
272 BUSP showed significant positive correlation with TH neuron count in SNpc ( $R = 0.95$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).  
273 No significance was seen in DRN or MnR for either drug. All  $R$  and  $p$  values are shown in the  
274 respective graphs (Fig 3B, D, F, & H).

275

276 **DISCUSSION**

277 In this study, we extended our previous findings to show that acute treatment of ESCIT, but not  
278 BUSP, was effective in reducing anticipatory freezing behaviour (mimicking agoraphobia).  
279 However, both drugs were comparably effective in reducing freezing behaviour after chronic  
280 administration. It should be noted that given both groups were returned to the same environment the  
281 second stimulation session to assess chronic effects. While this might mean that groups were not  
282 equivalent at the start of the second chronic test (ESCIT but not BUSP being effective in acute),  
283 both drugs still lowered freezing when administer chronically, and the comparison in efficacy in  
284 lowering freezing between drugs is unimportant to the main conclusion of the behavioural aspect of  
285 this paper. We further demonstrated that chronic BUSP or ESCIT reversed the dlPAG stimulation  
286 induced increase in number of dopaminergic neurons in the VTA, whereas only chronic ESCIT  
287 decreased dopaminergic neurons in the DRN. Lastly, we showed that there was a strong positive  
288 correlation between the number of dopaminergic neurons and freezing in the VTA, and positive  
289 correlations between dopaminergic neurons with ESCIT and BUSP treatments in the VTA and  
290 SNpc, respectively. This suggests that both drugs, while both reduce the number of dopaminergic  
291 neurons, exert their effects via different dopaminergic-related neuronal circuits.

292

293 The use of dlPAG stimulation is advantageous in that it directly induces the activation of the panic-  
294 circuit independent of the behavioural context and is highly reproducible (Jenck et al. 1995; Hogg et  
295 al. 2006; Lim et al. 2011). This feature is useful as an unconditioned stimulus in a contextual fear  
296 conditioning paradigm that effectively models agoraphobia. The use of freezing to measure fear  
297 response (rather than distance moved or corner time) is more relevant in cases where there is a lack  
298 of shelter or no close predators (Eilam 2005). Our behavioural data agree with previous studies  
299 showing anxiolytic drugs (including serotonergic drugs) were effective in reducing panic-like  
300 responses in dlPAG stimulation models (Jenck et al. 1990, 1995, 1998; Hogg et al. 2006). Whether  
301 this effect is due to general anxiolytic effects, or effects on contextual fear memory, or a

302 combination of both, however, requires more work. Regardless, this study extended our previous  
303 findings (Lim et al. 2010) and showed that ESCIT and BUSP reduced freezing behaviour.  
304

305 The mesolimbic dopamine pathway plays an important role in fear learning and memory, including  
306 encoding and consolidation (Pezze and Feldon 2004; Pignatelli and Bonci 2015). Therefore, it is not  
307 surprising that freezing activity was correlated to dopaminergic structures (namely VTA, SNpc,  
308 DRN, and MnR) in our model. Furthermore, both BUSP and ESCIT have been shown to affect  
309 dopaminergic transmission. BUSP was shown to antagonizes presynaptic inhibitory DA<sub>2</sub>  
310 autoreceptors, increase circulating dopamine (Lechin et al. 1998), and occupy dopamine receptors  
311 (Ciano et al. 2017). Two major projection sites of the mesolimbic pathway are the amygdala and the  
312 medial prefrontal cortex (mPFC) (Pezze and Feldon 2004), structures heavily involved in fear  
313 conditioning (Herry et al. 2010). Indeed, higher stress and fear conditioning has been associated to  
314 higher dopamine transmission in both the mPFC and amygdala (Pezze and Feldon 2004), a  
315 potential mechanism of the effects seen in the current study. ESCIT was shown to increase the  
316 firing rate of VTA dopamine neurons (Ivanov and Konradsson-geuken 2011), although it should be  
317 noted that another study found an opposite effect (Dremencov et al. 2009). How serotonin  
318 modulators affect dopaminergic systems is still largely unknown and more studies are needed to  
319 fully understand their effects. Interestingly, the individual drug correlations appear to point towards  
320 ESCIT exerting its effects through/on VTA dopaminergic neurons, whereas BUSP exerts effects  
321 through/on SNpc dopaminergic neurons. This is in contrast to the TH cell count data, which showed  
322 both drugs exerted their effects mainly through/on the VTA. This data perhaps highlights the effects  
323 of both drugs on conditioned fear – restoration of dopamine synthesis in the VTA of dopamine  
324 deficient mice has been shown to reverse fear learning impairment (Fadok et al. 2009).

325 Nevertheless, BUSP has been shown to have an anti-dyskinetic effect on a Parkinson's disease  
326 model (Azkona et al. 2014) and the SNpc is suggested to play a crucial role in this effect (Sharifi et  
327 al. 2012; Sagarduy et al. 2016), which implies that BUSP directly affects the SNpc, how much this  
328 affects anticipatory anxiety and/or learned fear requires further mechanistic work. Of note,

329 serotonin transporter inhibitors have been shown to reduce the amount of TH neurons in the SN  
330 (MacGillivray et al. 2011), and given the positive correlation of SN TH neurons and freezing, could  
331 explain in part the effects seen here. We should note that a limitation of this study is the correlative  
332 nature of this study, which makes it difficult to determine if the changes in TH neurons are due to  
333 BUSP/ESCIT, or if the changes in TH neurons are a consequence of changes in fear and memory  
334 caused by BUSP/ESCIT. The fact that a correlation was also present in Saline treated rats on TH  
335 count in the VTA seems to suggest that freezing (or fear/memory) is indeed driving the changes in  
336 TH neurons instead of drugs, however, a direct effect of drugs on TH count or a combination of  
337 both cannot be excluded. Another limitation is the relatively small sample size in terms of  
338 biological replicates (although multiple technical replicates for cell counts on each sample was  
339 performed, with averages of them being used for analysis), which might influence correlation  
340 studies. This has also limited our ability to obtain meaningful data from correlation studies breaking  
341 down dlPAG DBS and sham groups – though freezing as a measure would be sufficient given  
342 dlPAG DBS function was to induce fear which is measured by freezing. Overall, while the data  
343 suggest a complex interplay between VTA and SNpc dopaminergic neurons in the observed effects,  
344 more investigation is needed to fully understand this relationship.

345

## 346 **Conclusions**

347 In this study, we showed that both chronic administration of BUSP and ESCT were effective in  
348 reducing dlPAG stimulation induced anticipatory/contextual fear in our model. Our molecular work  
349 suggests that BUSP and ESCT are likely mediated via different structures or pathways in the  
350 mesolimbic dopaminergic system. A major limitation has been the lack of mechanistic studies on  
351 how the drugs affect dopaminergic systems, as well as the inconsistencies in the literature, making  
352 interpretation of the data difficult, especially in a correlative study such as this. More work is  
353 needed to fully understand the link between serotonergic drugs and their effects on dopaminergic  
354 neurons, and more causative studies are required to establish the effects of these serotonergic drugs  
355 on the various mesolimbic dopaminergic system and how they affect fear behaviour.

356

357 **Ethical Statement**

358 This research was funded by a Hong Kong RGC-ECS Grant (27104616) that awarded to  
359 L.W.L. W.L.L. was the recipient of the International Brain Research Organization-Asia Pacific  
360 Regional Committee (IBRO-APRC) Exchange Fellowship to work on this project. All animal  
361 works was approved by the Animal Experiments and Ethics Committee of Maastricht University, as  
362 well as the Committee on the Use of Live Animals in Teaching and Research (CULATR) of The  
363 University of Hong Kong. All authors declared no biomedical financial interests or potential  
364 conflicts of interests.

365

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485

## 486 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

487

488 **Figure 1. Chronic administrations of buspirone and escitalopram were effective in reducing**  
489 **anticipatory fear freezing behaviours.** (A) A schematic representation of the timeline of the  
490 experiments. (B) A 3-D reconstruction and lateral view and of the subdivisions of the

491 periaqueductal gray longitudinal columns. The dark dots represent the localization of electrode  
492 implantation sites. (C) & (D) show box-plots of the behavioural data from the acute and chronic  
493 treatments with saline, buspirone, and escitalopram in the dIPAG stimulation and sham groups,  
494 respectively. \* represents  $p < 0.05$  between bracketed groups, # represents  $p < 0.05$  between  
495 corresponding dIPAG stimulation groups.

496

497 **Figure 2. dIPAG DBS and chronic buspirone and escitalopram treatment caused changes in**  
498 **the number of dopaminergic neurons.** (A) Representative low-power photomicrographs of VTA  
499 and SNpc sections from the brain of rats in dIPAG stimulation and sham groups treated with saline,  
500 buspirone, and escitalopram, respectively. Boxplot of TH cell counts for VTA (B), SNpc (C), DRN  
501 (D), and MnR (E) showing significantly lowered dopamine neurons counts with dIPAG DBS and  
502 chronic buspirone or escitalopram in VTA, and a significantly lowered dopamine neuron counts  
503 with escitalopram in DRN. \* represents  $p < 0.05$  between bracketed groups, # represents  $p < 0.05$   
504 between corresponding dIPAG stimulation groups.

505

506 **Figure 3. Correlation plots of TH neuron cell count and freezing behaviour.** Global correlation  
507 plots showed significant positive correlations between TH neuron count and anticipatory fear  
508 freezing behaviour in VTA (A), SNpc (C), DRN (E), and MnR (G). In individual drug groups,  
509 escitalopram showed a significant correlation in VTA (B), and a significant correlation in SNpc (D).  
510 No significant correlation of buspirone or escitalopram was seen in DRN (F) or MnR (H).

511

512 **Supplementary Figure 1. Heat plot of p-values from Tukey's test.** Numbers in the table are p-  
513 values from Tukey's post-hoc tests from the ANOVAs. The heatmap shows the levels of  
514 significance (red represents more significance and green represents less significance).

515

516