We evaluated repeated exposures of mice to a trained aggressor mouse as a model (adapted from “social stress” models of traumatic stress) for aspects of post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). Using a “cage-within-cage resident-intruder” protocol, subject C57BL/6J mice were exposed to aggressors for 6 h daily for 5 or 10 days. At one to three random times during each 6-h session, subjects were exposed directly to aggressor for 1 min or 10 bites, whichever came first. Behavioral, physiological, and histological changes associated with aggressor-exposure were assessed for up to 6 weeks. During aggressor exposure, subjects displayed less territorial behavior, gained weight, and increased body temperature. One day after the last aggressor exposure, inflammatory cardiac histopathologies were prevalent; after 10 days, only mild myocardial degeneration with fibrosis or fibroplasias was evident, while controls showed almost no cardiac abnormalities at any time. After 4 weeks, the medial prefrontal cortex of control mice showed increased dendritic spine density, but aggressor-exposed mice showed no increase. Behaviors affected by aggressor exposure were evaluated in a partition test wherein the subject mouse is separated from the aggressor by a fenestrated partition that permits sensory cues to pass but prevents direct physical interaction. For up to 4–6 weeks after the last aggressor exposure, subjects showed
Research report

Murine model of repeated exposures to conspecific trained aggressors simulates features of post-traumatic stress disorder

Rasha Hammamieh a,⁎, 1, Nabarun Chakraborty a, 1, Thereza C.M. De Lima b, James Meyerhoff a, Aarti Gautam a, Seid Muhie a, Peter D’Arpa a, Lucille Lumley c, Erica Carroll d, Marti Jett a

a US Army Center for Environmental Health Research, Fort Detrick, MD, USA
b Federal University of Santa Catarina – Department of Pharmacology, Florianópolis, SC, Brazil
c US Army Medical Research Institute of Chemical Defense, Aberdeen Proving Ground, Aberdeen, MD, USA
d Naval Medical Research Center, Silver Spring, MD, USA

HIGHLIGHTS

► We established a modified social stress mouse model adapting and revising the ‘resident-intruder’ model.
► The model used SJL strain mouse as the aggressor and C57BL/6J as the subject mouse.
► The aggressor-exposed stress inflicted PTSD-like negative behavioral traits on the subject mice.
► Stress inflicted physiological alteration and developed neurological atrophy.
► Stress specific cardiac myopathy and lymphohistiocytic myocarditis was observed.

ABSTRACT

We evaluated repeated exposures of mice to a trained aggressor mouse as a model (adapted from “social stress” models of traumatic stress) for aspects of post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). Using a “cage-within-cage resident-intruder” protocol, subject C57BL/6J mice were exposed to aggressors for 6 h daily for 5 or 10 days. At one to three random times during each 6-h session, subjects were exposed directly to aggressor for 1 min or 10 bites, whichever came first. Behavioral, physiological, and histological changes associated with aggressor-exposure were assessed for up to 6 weeks. During aggressor exposure, subjects displayed less territorial behavior, gained weight, and increased body temperature. One day after the last aggressor exposure, inflammatory cardiac histopathologies were prevalent; after 10 days, only mild myocardial degeneration with fibrosis or fibroplasias was evident, while controls showed almost no cardiac abnormalities at any time. After 4 weeks, the medial prefrontal cortex of control mice showed increased dendritic spine density, but aggressor-exposed mice showed no increase. Behaviors affected by aggressor exposure were evaluated in a partition test wherein the subject mouse is separated from the aggressor by a fenestrated partition that permits sensory cues to pass but prevents direct physical interaction. For up to 4–6 weeks after the last aggressor exposure, subjects showed prolonged grooming, freezing, retarded locomotion and no tail rattling. PTSD and its co-morbidities are often consequent to repeated aggravated “social” assaults (e.g., combat) and manifest socially over time, suggesting the relevance of this repeated aggressor-exposure model to clinical aspects of PTSD.

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1. Introduction

Resurgent interest in post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) pathological mechanisms and medical countermeasures has been

stimulated by the substantial increase in the 2-year prevalence rate associated with the start of the Iraq War and the high incidence of PTSD in U.S. veterans of recent wars in Iraq and Afghanistan. Between 2002 and 2008, a study of 289,328 U.S. veterans who were first-time users of VA health care after military service showed 22% diagnosed with PTSD and 17% diagnosed with depression [1]. Notably, greater combat exposure has been associated with higher risk for PTSD [1], confirming earlier findings [2–4]. Significant controversy in the diagnosis of PTSD [5] has emphasized a pressing need to identify and validate disease-specific
diagnostic biomarkers. A number of animal models of PTSD have been investigated. While no animal model can be expected to fully capture the complexity of human cognitive function in psychiatric disorders, the shared basic emotional processes of humans and other mammals suggests that animal models can capture core endophenotypes of psychiatric disorders [6,7].

Currently, the clinical diagnosis of PTSD rests largely on reported symptoms and reported history. The essential features of PTSD as listed in DSM-IV (309.81) include the development of characteristic symptoms following an event that is an extreme traumatic stressor, which involves threatened death or serious injury to the self, or the witnessing or learning of actual death or threatened death or serious injury happening to others who are family members or close associates (Criterion A). The traumatic event(s) must elicit intense fear, helplessness, or horror (Criterion A2) and produce symptoms that include persistent re-experiencing of the traumatic event(s) (Criterion B), persistent avoidance of stimuli associated with the trauma and numbing of general responsiveness (Criterion C), and persistent symptoms of increased arousal (Criterion D). These symptoms must be present for more than 1 month (Criterion E) and cause clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning (Criterion F) [8].

In mice, a wide variety of physiological and psychogenic stresses, including so-called “social stress,” restraint stress [9], foot shock [10], juvenile abuse [11], and artificial alteration of stress hormones like corticosterone [12] have been shown to produce behaviors reminiscent of PTSD. In “social stress” models, subordinate mice have been subjected to the inescapable exposure to: another mouse made aggressive by isolation and/or training [13,14]; a predator [15]; a predator’s odor from sources such as skin, fur, urine or feces [16]; or, synthetic odors derived from a predator’s feces or anal glands [17].

The quality of an animal model has been assessed using the criteria of face validity, predictive validity, and construct validity—i.e., how closely the model represents symptoms, efficacy of treatments, and cellular and molecular processes, respectively, of the human disease (discussed in [6]). Face validity of models for representing symptoms of psychiatric diseases is typically an assumption of validity. For example, fear of novelty and unprotected areas are assumed to represent anxiety, and the changed behaviors in the Learned Helplessness Model are described as depression-like symptoms. Predictive validity refers to the quality of a model for showing that drugs with efficacy in relieving human symptoms mitigate the animal behaviors that correlate with the human psychiatric symptoms (e.g., effects of antidepressants in Forced Swimming Test and Tail Suspension Test (as discussed in [6]). Construct validity refers to the model’s representation of cellular and molecular processes of the human disorder.

Our systems biology approach aims to ultimately identify objective diagnostic criteria for PTSD. Here we present initial studies of a mouse model that employs “cage-within-cage resident-intruder” exposures of subject mice to a trained aggressor mouse for 6 h daily for 5 or 10 days. At one to three random times during each 6-h session, subject mice are removed from the cage-within-cage and put into direct physical contact with the aggressor in its home cage for 1 min or 10 bites, whichever comes first. We chose this model of multiple stressor exposures in order to model the stress of the unpredictable threats of daily trauma encountered by warfighters.

During the schedules of exposure of subject mice to the aggressor and over the course of the recovery of the subject mice in their home cages, we evaluated behavioral, physiological, and histological alterations. After significant recovery periods, a number of the acute stress effects, including histological and neurological pathologies and behaviors interpreted to represent human fear and anxiety, were persistent in aggressor-exposed mice, modeling some features of PTSD and co-morbidities.

2. Material and methods

2.1. Mice

2.1.1. Aggressor mice

The SJL albino male mice (6-week old and weighing 30–35 g) were housed individually in polycarbonate cages (48 cm × 27 cm × 20 cm) for 1 month prior to the experiment to induce aggressiveness due to isolation. They were then trained to assault intruders by occasional pairing with olfactory bulbectomized (OBx) male C57BL/6J mice. All mice had free access to food and water and were kept in a temperature-controlled room (21 ± 2 °C) on reverse 12/12 h light/dark cycle (lights off at 06:00 AM).

2.1.2. Subject mice

Male C57BL/6J mice (6-week old weighing 20–25 g) were single housed under the same environmental conditions as the aggressor mice in a different room for 1 week before initiating the experiments. Subject mice were kept in a separate room from aggressor mice. All animal experiments were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) at the Walter Reed Army Institute of Research and the Medistar Research Institute and were performed in a facility accredited by the Association for the Assessment and Accreditation of Laboratory Animal Care International (AAALAC). All mice were purchased from Jackson Laboratory, ME, USA.

2.2. Aggressor exposure

Aggressor exposure (Agg-E) sessions followed a modified “cage-within-cage resident-intruder” protocol in which experimental mice in a wire mesh cage (17.5 cm × 14 cm × 7.5 cm) were placed inside the aggressor’s large plastic cage (48 cm × 27 cm × 20 cm) for 6 h (Fig. 1A). The 6-h sessions were repeated daily for either 5 or 10 consecutive days, as shown in the protocol timeline (Fig. 1B). Control mice were kept inside the same type of wired mesh box inside the same type of larger cage with fresh bedding for 6 h without direct exposure to an aggressor on the same daily schedule. Control and experimental mice were deprived of food and water during the 6-h “cage-within-cage” sessions, while the aggressor mice were provided food and water ad libitum. At the end of each 6-h session, control and experimental mice were returned to their respective home cage with food and water available ad libitum until the next session. At one to three random times during the 6-h session, subject mice were removed from the wire mesh cage and exposed directly to the aggressor mouse for 1 min or until 10 bites were inflicted on the subject mouse, whichever came first. On average, subject mice received 10 bites within 48 s.

2.3. Physiological evaluations

2.3.1. Body weights and temperatures

Body weights and temperatures were recorded before and after each 6-h Agg-E session. The core body temperatures of the mice were recorded using Electronic ID Transponders™ (PITT-300, Bio Medic Data Systems Inc., DE) subcutaneously implanted into the dorsal cervical region 3 days in advance of the first 6-h stress session. Body weights were measured by placing the mice on a standard laboratory scale (Sartorius, Edgewood, NY).

2.3.2. Spleen blood cell counts

Following the partition test, after euthanasia via cervical dislocation of five control and five Agg-E mice, spleen tissue was collected aseptically and transferred into cold media with antibiotics. Immediately, the tissue was mashed through a cell strainer (BD, Inc., MD) and centrifuged at 800 × g. The pellet was resuspended in 1 mL ACK lysis buffer (Lonza, VA) and incubated at room temperature for 5–10 min. Nine milliliters of RPMI-1640 was added followed by centrifugation and resuspension in RPMI-1640 media. A 200 μL aliquot was used for complete cell count using ADWA® 120 Hematology System (Siemens Healthcare Diagnostics, Inc., NY).

2.4. Cardiac and neurohistological evaluations

2.4.1. Heart histopathology

Heart samples were collected from five control and five Agg-E euthanized mice and perfused in ice-cold 4% paraformaldehyde. Tissues were then stained, sliced, and mounted, and a board-certified veterinary pathologist, blinded from the animal condition, identified and analyzed the samples using brightfield optics. Scoring was between one and four: where one = minimum and four = marked. Primary characteristics evaluated were arterial thrombus, myocardial degeneration and infiltration, and lymphohistiocytic epicarditis, myocarditis and vasculitis.

2.4.2. Neurohistology

The brains were carefully removed from the skulls of euthanized mice, impregnated with Golgi-Cox staining solution, and processed following the protocol established by FD Neurotech, Inc. (Ellicott City, MD). Briefly, the impregnated brains
were serially sectioned at a thickness of 100 μm. Every third cryostat section (intervals of 300 μm) was mounted on gelatin-coated slides, stained, dehydrated in ethanol, cleared in xylene, and cover-slipped in Permount. The spine density of mPFC was assessed using the Camera Lucida® technique as described by Wellman and Kolb [18,19] and performed at Sing System, Inc. (Columbia, MD). The brain region of interest, the mPFC, defined as in Van de Werd et al., consisted of three sub-regions: infralimbic, prelimbic, and anterior cingulate cortices [20]. At least 36–40 neurons selected satisfied criteria of having a distinguishable (single) cell soma, and were located in such a way as to have a relatively large portion of their dendritic tree available for analysis.

2.5. Behavioral evaluations

2.5.1. Partition test ethogram evaluation (freezing, grooming, partition avoidance, and tail rattling)

We performed ethogram evaluation at 1 day and 1.5 weeks after the 5-day schedule and 1 day, 4 weeks, and 6 weeks after the 10-day schedule using a 5-min partition test [21,22]. 1 h prior to euthanasia. The aggression score was assessed using a plastic fenestrated partition (1 cm² holes) that permits the passage of sensory cues but prevents direct physical contact. The subject mouse was placed on the opposite side of the partition from the aggressor and viewed for the entire 5 min test. The videos were analyzed with EthoVision XT v.7 software (Noldus®, Leesburg, VA, USA) using 15 samples/s, dynamic subtraction detection, object always darker than background, erosion and dilation filters of one pixel, and one sample interval for averaging filter. Grooming duration was taken as the total time spent licking the paws or washing the nose, face and other body parts. Tail rattling was observed as rapid vibration of the tail or vigorous tapping of the tail on the floor when facing the partition.

2.5.2. Urine marking test

Blotter papers (0.8 mm thickness) were placed under the cages of control and Agg-E mice in the 6-h cage-within-cage sessions. At the end of each day, the papers were collected and UV-scanned using Molecular Imager Fx® (BioRad, Hercules, CA). The number of urination marks and the areas contouring the urine markings were measured using Quantity One® software (BioRad, Hercules, CA). The process was repeated on alternate days until the end of the 10-day Agg-E schedule.

2.5.3. Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad® version 5.0 software (GraphPad Software, Inc., CA). Experimental results were expressed as mean ± SEM. Linear regression was used to evaluate body weight, temperature, and urine markings. Unpaired t-test with Welch’s correction was used to assess differences between control and Agg-E mice at specific time points after the 5- and 10-day schedules. Two-way ANOVA, followed by Bonferroni post-test, was used to identify interactions between control or Agg-E mouse behaviors with home-cage rest time.

3. Results

Each subject C57BL/6J mouse was exposed to an SJL albino male trained aggressor mouse for 6 h daily for 5 or 10 days using a modified “cage-within-cage resident-intruder” protocol (Fig. 1A). At one to three random times during each 6-h session, the subject was removed from its cage and exposed directly to the aggressor for 1 min or 10 bites, whichever came first. The aggressor delivered an average of 10 bites to the subject within 48(±22.5) s and the latency of first attack was less than 5 (±1.0) s. Throughout the course of the Agg-E schedules, we recorded body weights and temperatures, and territorial urine markings. One day after the Agg-E schedules and during up to 6 weeks of home cage rest, we assessed changes in physiological, histological and behavioral parameters of Agg-E as compared to control mice (Fig. 1B). Control mice were confined within the cage-within-cage environment with fresh bedding, no aggressor present, and deprived of food and water, on the same 5- or 10-day schedule as the Agg-E mice.

3.1. Body weights and temperatures

Body weights and temperatures were recorded daily prior to each 6-h “cage-within-cage” session (Fig. 2). The average body weights of both control and Agg-E groups increased over the course of the 10-day schedule, but Agg-E mice gained significantly more weight (Fig. 2A; p < 0.001, slopes of the linear regression lines significantly differed). Body temperature of the Agg-E mice was significantly elevated over control mice (Fig. 2B; p < 0.01, linear regression).
3.2. Territorial urine marking

Urine markings were recorded on days 1, 3, 5, 7 and 10 of the 10-day schedule (Fig. 3). After ranking the urine markings by area, the largest 90% were counted. Territorial urine markings of Agg-E mice were initially three-fold lower than control mice (p = 0.03, unpaired t-test with Welch’s correction) on day 1 and remained lower over the 10-day schedule (p = 0.02, linear regression slopes differed), being significantly lower than control mice on day 10 (p = 0.05, unpaired t-test with Welch’s correction).

3.3. Spleen blood cell counts

We measured blood cells in spleen tissue at 1 day after the 5- and 10-day schedules. Red blood cells (RBC), white blood cells (WBC), and platelets of the 5-day Agg-E mice were significantly increased compared to control mice (Fig. 4A–C; p < 0.01 for RBC and WBC, p < 0.05 for platelets; unpaired t-test with Welch’s correction), as was hematocrit (not shown). After the 10-day Agg-E schedule, these blood cell types also appeared to be increased in Agg-E mice, but not to statistically significant levels. Additionally, basophils of Agg-E mice after the 5-day schedule were increased (p < 0.01, unpaired t-test with Welch’s correction), and after the 10-day Agg-E schedule tended toward elevation as well (p = 0.07, unpaired t-test with Welch’s correction) (Fig. 4D).

3.4. Heart histopathology

Most of the Agg-E mice exhibited myocardial degeneration and/or lymphohistiocytic myocarditis 1 day after the 5-day (in six of eight mice) and 10-day (in eight of 11 mice) Agg-E schedules (Table 1). More mice of the 10-day Agg-E group showed myocardial degeneration as compared to the 5-day Agg-E group at this 1 day point. None of the 28 control mice showed myocardial degeneration or lymphohistiocytic myocarditis at any time (control data not shown). Additionally at the 1 day point, mice of both Agg-E schedules exhibited fibrinoid and/or lymphohistiocytic vasculitis (four of eight of 5-day Agg-E; and five of 11 of 10-day Agg-E). Again, none of the control mice exhibited either of these histopathologies at any time. Following the home cage rest periods, the inflammatory histopathologies had disappeared, but myocardial degeneration with fibrosis or fibroplasia persisted. More mice of the 5-day Agg-E group showed myocardial degeneration after 1.5 weeks of home cage rest than did mice of the 10-day Agg-E group after their longer 4-week rest; however, more mice of the 10-day Agg-E group showed myocardial degeneration at the 1 day point.

3.5. Dendritic spine density in the medial prefrontal cortex

The dendritic spine density of pyramidal neurons of the medial prefrontal cortex (mPFC) was evaluated at 1 day and 4 weeks after the 10-day Agg-E schedule (Fig. 5). At 1 day following repeated exposures, control and Agg-E mice showed no difference in dendritic spine density. Four weeks later, the dendritic spine density of control mice had increased significantly by 26% (p < 0.01) compared to the 1 day data, while the Agg-E mice showed only a 9% increase that was not significant. Accordingly, mPFC dendritic spine density of control mice tended to be greater than Agg-E mice at the 4-week point (p = 0.085, unpaired t-test with Welch’s correction).

3.6. Behaviors in the partition test

Agg-E and control mice behaviors were evaluated in a partition test in which subject mice are placed in the aggressor home cage separated from the aggressor by a fenestrated partition that allows transmission of sensory information but prevents direct physical contact (Fig. 6). We evaluated freezing, avoidance of the aggressor, tail rattling (Fig. 7) and locomotion (Supplementary Fig. S1) in the partition zone, and grooming and total distance traveled in the entire subject side of the cage, during the 5-min partition test. The Agg-E and control group values for these behaviors, except for
the tail rattling, were normalized to the value of the control group at each time point (Fig. 7A–C and Supplementary Figs. S1 and S2). ANOVA with Bonferroni post-test (BPT) was used to determine the significance of differences between the control and Agg-E groups at times after the last exposure session.

3.6.1. Freezing

Freezing of mice was computed as the fraction of total time spent immobile (<10% shift of body position between sequential frames of the 15 frames sampled/s) within the partition zone (Fig. 7A). At 1 day following the repeated exposures, mice exposed to the aggressor for 5 days froze more frequently than control mice (p < 0.05, BPT), and this behavior persisted after 1.5 weeks of home cage rest (p < 0.05, BPT). Mice exposed to the aggressor for 10 days also froze more than control mice 1 day later (p < 0.001, BPT) and after 4 weeks of home cage rest (p < 0.05, BPT), but recovered to the control level of freezing in the partition zone after 6 weeks of home cage rest. Overall, freezing did not significantly change between 1 day and 1.5 weeks after the 5-day schedule (F(1,54) = 0.01, p = 0.92; two-way ANOVA), but after the 10-day schedule became significantly less frequent over the course of home cage rest up to 6 weeks (F(2,54) = 3.62, p = 0.03; two-way ANOVA).

3.6.2. Grooming

Grooming duration was measured by visual inspection of partition test videos (Fig. 7B). Grooming duration of 5-day Agg-E mice

![Graphs A, B, C, D showing cell counts](https://example.com/graphs.png)

**Fig. 4.** Spleen blood cell counts of Agg-E mice are increased. Cell counts for red blood cells (RBC), white blood cells (WBC), and platelets, and basophil percent cell count 1 day after the 5- and 10-day Agg-E schedules are shown. Control (diagonal hatching) and Agg-E (shaded) means are plotted ± SEM (unpaired t-test with Welch's correction, *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, *p < 0.1; n = 5 mice per group).

<table>
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*Note: no control mice exhibited any of these histopathologies. Out of all of the 28 control mice, only one mouse at 1.5 weeks and another at 4 weeks showed some brown-black pigment. 1: minimal; 2: mild; 3: moderate; 4: marked. |

a Brown–black pigment.
Fig. 5. Dendritic spine density of pyramidal neurons in mPFC increases from 1 day to 4 weeks after the 10-day schedule in control but not Agg-E mice. Brains were collected at 1 day and 4 weeks after the 10-day schedule and Golgi stained. The density of dendritic spines of 36–40 neurons on 10 μm tissue slices was counted for each mouse. Mean dendritic spine density ± SEM is plotted (unpaired t-test with Welch’s correction. *p < 0.05, **p = 0.085; n = 5 mice per group). Control (diagonal hatching) and Agg-E (shaded).

3.6.3. Avoidance of aggressor (time spent per visit to the partition zone)

The time mice spent per visit to the partition zone was used as a measure of avoidance of the aggressor (Fig. 7C). Although Agg-E and control mice made a similar number of total visits to the partition zone, both 5- and 10-day Agg-E mice spent significantly less time per visit to the partition zone than control mice after 1 day (p < 0.01 and p < 0.001, respectively, BPT). Five-day exposed mice did not show a significant change in visit time over the 1.5 week home cage rest (F(1,53) = 2.73, p = 0.1; two-way ANOVA). But 10-day Agg-E mice increased the time per visit to the partition zone over the 6-week course of home cage rest (F(2,54) = 5.73, p = 0.005; two-way ANOVA).

3.6.4. Tail rattling

Tail rattling by Agg-E and control mice was monitored by visual inspection of the partition test videos. Mice exposed to the 10-day schedule of aggressor exposures did not show any tail rattling 1 day after the last session, with the exception of one mouse (denoted by a dot in the figure). At the 4- and 6-week recovery points, none of these 10-day Agg-E mice showed any tail rattling (Fig. 7D, star represents zero mice). Similarly, none of the mice exposed to the 5-day schedule of aggressor exposures showed any tail rattling 1 day later. After 1.5 weeks, only one Agg-E mouse exhibited tail rattling (denoted by a dot in figure). In contrast, 45% of control mice demonstrated tail rattling 1 day after the sham, 5-day Agg-E schedule, which increased to 83% of mice after 1.5 weeks of home cage rest. After the sham, 10-day Agg-E schedule, 33% of control mice demonstrated tail rattling at day 1, and after 4 and 6 weeks of home cage rest, the number of control mice exhibiting tail rattling increased to 67% and 100%, respectively.

4. Discussion

4.1. Ethological relevance of the model

We found that mice repeatedly confined cage-within-cage in an aggressor home cage and at random times repeatedly subjected to attack by the aggressor, exhibited acute stress-induced alterations of heart tissue and brain structure as well as alterations in behaviors associated with fear, hypo- and hyper-responding and anxiety, some of which persisted. We chose the aggressor-exposure procedure, adapted from social stress paradigms, because of its ethological relevance to the traumatic stress encountered by warfighters, associated with high incidence PSTD and comorbidities. Social stress models vary greatly in both the procedures for inducing stress and the consequent stress effects [23]. Social stress procedures have been evaluated as models of anxiety disorders, depression and PSTD. Combat veterans with PTSD often meet criteria for several comorbid mood and anxiety disorders, which may be a consequence of the combat arena where multiple exposures can potentially produce synergistic or sensitizing effects.
Highly significant relationships have been found between the cumulative number and event severity of post-disaster negative life events and the incidence rate and severity of avoidance-depression dimension of PTSD symptomatology [25]. Also, greater combat exposure has been associated with higher risk for PTSD [1–4].

4.2. Acute stress effects during or 1 day after repeated Agg-E

During the 5- and 10-day schedules, Agg-E mice gained more weight, increased body temperature, and produced fewer territorial urine markings. One day after the 5-day schedule, splenic blood cell counts of Agg-E mice were increased (RBC, WBC, platelets, and basophils). Cardiac histopathologies were also present 1 day after the 5- and 10-day schedules. Specifically, lymphocytic myocarditis, lymphocytic and fibrinoid vasculitis, as well as myocardial degeneration were found in Agg-E mice; none of these heart histopathologies were observed in any control mice. Altered behaviors of Agg-E mice 1 day after the last Agg-E session included: prolonged grooming throughout the entire subject side of the partitioned cage, reduced time spent per visit to the partition zone; and, reduced locomotion and tail rattling and increased freezing within the partition zone.

The weight gain of Agg-E mice that we observed persisted over the entire 10-day Agg-E schedule. In contrast, weight loss has been observed in some social defeat models, including those evaluated for aspects of ethologically relevant stresses associated with existing PTSD models [26–29]. However, other studies have shown weight gain. For example, following chronic social defeat stress for 10 days (5 min of direct aggressor exposure followed by housing across a plastic separator with holes for 24 h), C57BL/6J maintained on standard chow gained weight [30]. In an adult male mouse resident-subordinate social stress model, body weight increased without an increase in food intake [31]. In contrast, the increased body mass and adiposity of Syrian hamsters subjected to Agg-E was accompanied by an increase in food intake [32]. C57BL/6 and BALB/c mice repeatedly exposed (10 days) to an aggressor for 3 min resulted in weight gain, whereas the same number of repeats of aggressor exposure for 10 min did not produce significant changes in weight in either strain [33]. Thus, conflicting effects of social defeat stress on body weight appear to be largely explained by the procedure used to induce stress and genetic strain differences. In humans, chronic stress induces either increased comfort food intake and body weight gain or decreased intake and body weight loss [34].

The increased body temperature that we observed has been previously observed in social defeat models [27,35]. Repeated social defeat of male NMRI mice increased their core body temperature and corticosterone, indicative of a chronic stress state [36]. In our study, body temperature was elevated across the 10-day Agg-E schedule, consistent with previous reports of social stress resulting in no adaptation to the tachycardic or hyperthermic responses [36].

We observed reduced territorial urine markings during the cage-within-cage sessions over the course of the 10-day schedule, while the control animals showed a high level of urine marking (a hyper-exploratory behavior) at the earlier part of the schedule that subsided, probably due to habituation. In a previous study mice that received 30 bites from trained aggressors during three 2-min encounters showed a deficit in territorial urine marking [37]. A similar deficit in territorial scent marking was also observed in socially stressed Mongolian gerbils [38,39].
The increased blood cell counts of Agg-E mice were determined from spleen sampled 1 day after the 5-day schedule and immediately after the stress of the partition test. The WBC elevation in Agg-E mice is a likely consequence of their fear associated with the conspecific aggressor present in the partition test, which increased plasma catecholamines that are known to transiently increase leukocyte redistribution and leukocyte blood levels within minutes [40]. The RBC elevation is also likely associated with the stress of the partition test as elevated RBC counts are associated with acute stress [41,42]. Only a non-significant trend toward heightened blood cell counts of Agg-E mice is evident the day after the 10-day schedule. Possible explanations for the greater difference in blood cell counts of Agg-E versus control mice after 5 days of Agg-E than after 10 days of Agg-E are that, over the longer stress period, control mice increased their allostatic load as a consequence of the greater number of repeated sham Agg-E exposures (e.g., 6 h daily fasting [43,44]), which may have heightened their stress response to the partition test, resulting in elevated RBC, WBC and platelets. Another possible explanation is that in Agg-E mice, the repeated catecholamine-induced redistribution of leukocytes became down-regulated (WBC and basophils) upon repeated stimulation.

Repeated stress and repeated stimulation of blood cells may lead to chronic blood cell dysfunction. Chronic stress has been associated with alterations in blood cell activities and numbers, such as increased platelet reactivity in war veterans with PTSD [45], and elevated leukocyte and total T-cell counts in patients with chronic, primarily combat-related PTSD 20 years after exposure to severe stress of combat [46]. In a repeated social stress model (C57BL/6J mice), exposure to the aggressor for 2, 4 or 6 consecutive days gradually increased the percentages and numbers of neutrophils and monocytes in the blood and the spleen [47]. Persistent stimulation of immune cells by repeated stress may lead to the development of glucocorticoid resistance of leukocytes [47] and other dysregulated immune parameters that have been associated with PTSD [48].

The lymphocytic myocarditis, lymphocytic and fibrinoid vasculitis, and myocardial degeneration in Agg-E mice at 1 day after the 5- and 10-day schedule were not observed in any of the control mice. Other models of stress have shown cardiac disturbances, but none to our knowledge have reported histopathologies such as we have observed. Chronic overcrowding stress of borderline hypertensive Wistar rats was associated with marked subcellular injury of endothelial cells in aorta with mitochondrial damage, presence of vacuoles, increased number of lysosomes, Weibel–Palade bodies, changes of intercellular connections, and local disruption of endothelium; only slight changes were seen in Wistar rats [49]. Repeated social stress of seven consecutive days in a rat resident-intruder model resulted in adrenal hypertrophy and heart rate variability, both of which were inhibited by an antagonist of the corticotropin-releasing factor-1 receptor [50]. Repeated exposure (10 consecutive times, on alternate days) to defeat by a conspecific in a rat model resulted in transient disturbance of heart rate circadian rhythmicity, moderate right ventricle hypertrophy, and the rats failed to develop habituation of cardiac autonomic responsiveness (tachycardia and vagal withdrawal) upon re-exposure to a homotypic acute stressor [51].

The cardiac histopathologies we have observed may be related to Takotsubo cardiomyopathy, also known as “broken heart syndrome”, or stress-induced cardiomyopathy, a syndrome characterized by cardiac-type chest pain and ECG changes, mimicking anterior myocardial infarction and apical aneurysmal dilatation of the left ventricle, which is triggered by a recent severe emotional or physical stressor, and thought to be likely due to catecholamine-mediated myocyte damage and microvascular dysfunction [52].

4.3. Stress effects persisting to 1.5–6 weeks

Some acute stress effects of the aggressor exposure schedules lessened or disappeared with single-housed home cage rest. But other effects became evident or persisted.

4.3.1. Persistent cardiac and neurological histopathologies

The cardiac inflammatory histopathologies disappeared at 1.5 and 4 weeks after the 5- and 10-day Agg-E schedules, respectively. But after these recovery periods, myocardial degeneration with fibroplasia or fibrosis was present in several mice, suggesting that the inflammatory histopathologies resolved into fibroplasia or fibrosis. Interestingly, Takotsubo cardiomyopathy is usually followed by complete recovery; however, in a follow-up of 4.4 ± 4.6 years of 100 patients, 31 patients had continued episodes of chest pain, and 10 patients had recurrent disease, though no difference in survival was found over this follow-up period of only 4 years [53]. Increasing evidence suggests that PTSD is associated with cardiovascular disease, including increased heart rate, elevated blood pressure, decreased heart rate variability, dyslipidemia, and low-grade systemic inflammation and hypercoagulability [54,55]. A review of 4328 male U.S. military veterans has reported that PTSD diagnosis is associated with increased risk of death from early-age heart disease [56].

Dendritic spine density in the mPFC was not different between controls and Agg-E mice at 1 day after the 10-day schedule, but 4 weeks later, dendritic spine density had significantly increased in the control but not in the Agg-E mice. In mouse models, socially stressed animals have exhibited decreased dendritic spine density in both hippocampus and mPFC, as well as an increased dendritic spine density in the basolateral amygdala [57]. Glucocorticoid stress hormones are known to target mPFC and either chronic stress or chronic glucocorticoid administration produces dendritic remodeling in prefrontal pyramidal neurons. Stress also causes increased release of the excitatory amino acid glutamate, which binds NMDA receptors in mPFC [58].

Alterations in mPFC and adjacent and connected neural structures have been revealed in a number of rat stress models [59]. Repeated and chronic restraint stress resulted in a reduced dendritic spine density of pyramidal cells of mPFC [60–62]. The combination of prenatal restraint stress and postnatal chronic mild stress reduced mPFC dendritic spine density [63]. Chronic stress of isolation reduced the volume of the mPFC [64]. The mPFC infralimbic region of the rat in response to chronic restraint stress showed dendritic retraction and spine loss that co-occurred with receptor-mediated impairments to catecholaminergic facilitation of synaptic plasticity; post-stress recovery did not reverse distal dendritic retraction, but showed over extension of proximal dendritic arbors [65]. A competitive NMDA receptor antagonist administered during chronic restraint stress resulted in hypertrophy of apical dendrites, suggesting that NMDA receptor activation is crucial for stress-induced dendritic atrophy in mPFC [58].

PTSD in combat nurses and veterans, firefighters, and those with cumulative adverse life events has been associated with decreased volume of the mPFC [66–68]. PTSD has also been associated with mPFC hypo-responsiveness during symptomatic states and the performance of emotional cognitive tasks, which associated inversely with PTSD symptom severity [69].

4.3.2. Persistent altered behaviors

Behaviors altered in Agg-E mice also diminished or disappeared with home cage rest. But others persisted. Visits of Agg-E mice to the partition zone (partition avoidance) were shorter 1 day after the last 6-h session, and this effect disappeared with as little as 1.5 weeks of home cage rest. In contrast, grooming duration persisted after the 10-day Agg-E schedule, remaining elevated out to 6 weeks of home cage rest. Tail rattling in the partition zone, an
agonistic response to the aggressor, was suppressed in Agg-E mice throughout the post-Agg-E period; 100% of control mice displayed tail rattling while none of the 10-day Agg-E mice displayed this behavior after 6 weeks, and only two Agg-E mice ever displayed any tail rattling. Freezing of Agg-E mice in the partition zone was increased the day after the last Agg-E session and persisted to 4 weeks. A summary of all the persistent effects of the Agg-E stress is presented in Table 2.

Table 2
Summary of acute and persistent stress effects of repeated aggressor exposure.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>Days of Agg-E</th>
<th>Acute</th>
<th>Persistence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Body weight</td>
<td>↑</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>During</td>
<td>nd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Body temperature</td>
<td>↑</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>During</td>
<td>nd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urine marking</td>
<td>↓</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>During</td>
<td>nd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blood cell counts</td>
<td>↑↑</td>
<td>5 and 10</td>
<td>1 day</td>
<td>nd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heart inflammation or degeneration</td>
<td>↑↑</td>
<td>5 and 10</td>
<td>1 day</td>
<td>1.5 and 4 weeks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heart degeneration</td>
<td>↑</td>
<td>5 and 10</td>
<td>1 day</td>
<td>1 day to 4 weeks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mPFC dendritic spine density</td>
<td>↓*</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoidance (time per visit to partition)</td>
<td>↑</td>
<td>5 and 10</td>
<td>1 day</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freezing (in partition zone)</td>
<td>↑</td>
<td>5 and 10</td>
<td>1 day</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grooming (in entire subject half cage)</td>
<td>↑</td>
<td>5 and 10</td>
<td>1 day</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tail rattling (in partition zone)</td>
<td>↓</td>
<td>5 and 10</td>
<td>1 day</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Locomotion (in partition zone)</td>
<td>↓</td>
<td>5 and 10</td>
<td>1 day</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Locomotion (in entire subject half cage)</td>
<td>↓</td>
<td>5 and 10</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Increased in control between 1 day and 4 weeks but not in Agg-E; lower dendritic spine density of control suggested at 4 weeks (p = 0.085).

Table 2
Summary of acute and persistent stress effects of repeated aggressor exposure.

nd: not determined.

Locomotion

Blood

Body

Urine

a Increased

model

weeks

Tail

Freezing

rattling

[74].

of

weight

marking

the

a

increased

duration

in

( Supplementary Fig. S1 and made similar numbers of visits to the partition zone (not shown). The only difference was that Agg-E mice traveled less within the partition zone (Supplementary Fig. S2), which may indicate their fear of the aggressor.

4.4. Relevance of Agg-E model to PTSD

Animal models relevant to PTSD have been discussed by Yehuda and Antelman [94], Rasmusson and Charney [95], Stam et al. [96], and Siegmund and Wojtak [6]. In our studies, the persistence of some acute stress-related behaviors after home cage rest for up to 4–6 weeks suggests symptoms similar to those reported in PTSD and co-morbid depression and anxiety disorders. Our model includes uncontrollable and unpredictable stressors (randomly timed attacks by aggressors) which have been associated with models wherein animals are much more likely to develop behavioral and biochemical manifestations similar to core PTSD symptoms [95,97].

The Agg-E model that we used meets several criteria proposed for the establishment of an animal model of PTSD [6,94]. We assessed behavioral correlates of associative trauma-related memories (i.e., the aggressor), and found increased frequency of freezing, decreased locomotion, and decreased tail rattling in response to the conspecific aggressor (i.e., within the partition zone). Non-associative stimuli are the subject of future studies; however, other published data show that somewhat similar stressors sensitize animals to display anxiety-like behavior in response to novel stressors [26]. Our longitudinal study design revealed...
desensitization with time to both freezing in the partition zone and partition avoidance (fear responses). The aversive stimulus (stressor), repeated Agg-E, induced the persistent phenotype we observed, and the intensity of the stressor (5 or 10 days of Agg-E) generally correlated with the severity of symptoms. Although we have not addressed more acute Agg-E, a single social defeat produces robust activation of the HPA-axis [98] and can have long-term consequences ranging to weeks [27]. The symptoms we have observed persisted for several weeks: cardiac degeneration, failure to show the normal increase mPFC dendritic spine density, more grooming, and less tail rattling, less locomotion and more freezing in the partition zone. These symptoms are interpreted to include exaggerated fear responses to the trauma-related cue of the conspecific aggressor across the partition. Although we have not observed hypervigilance, the Agg-E mice showed similar overall activity as controls, as the total locomotion of the two groups outside of the partition zone was similar. Hyperarousal has been suggested in rats exposed to repeated social defeat, as acoustic startle was enhanced and prolonged for up to 10 days [26]. In our study, grooming is considered an arousal-related behavior [75]. The PTSD-like symptoms we observed also included signs that may be interpreted as hyporesponding (emotional blunting, social withdrawal)—i.e., almost nonexistent tail rattling in the partition zone. We also observed considerable inter-individual variability of PTSD-like symptoms, which may possibly result from predispositions to vulnerability and resilience established prior to the experiment, such as during rearing. Predictive validity, i.e., that therapeutics effective in the treatment of PTSD should ameliorate at least part of the PTSD-like symptoms, was also not addressed in the current study. However, it has been noted that social defeat models respond to chronic, but not acute, administration of antidepressants, as is the case in humans; such pharmacological validity has not been observed in other stress models, which responded equally to both acute and chronic antidepressant treatments [99–101].

Our data support some of the validity criteria for an animal model of PTSD and general dimensions of traumatic psychosocial stress with regard to the “ethological validity” of the unpredictable and uncontrollable nature of the trauma, “face validity” of symptoms representing PTSD symptoms (associative memory fear, anxiety and hypo- and hyper-responding) and “construct validity” of representing cellular and molecular processes (cardiac pathologies and lack of expected increased dendritic spine density of pyramidal neurons of mPFC).

In other models of repetitive stress or prolonged glucocorticoid administration, neurologic structural changes have been observed, including reduced neurogenesis in the dentate gyrus [102], decreased hippocampus granule cells, and changed electrophysiological properties of hippocampal neurons (see [90] and references therein) as well as the changes to dendritic spine density in mPFC that we and others have observed [103]. Such structural changes are suggested to involve excessive excitatory transmission [90,104]. Recently, Wohleb et al. have shown that the acute stress of repeated social defeat enhanced the inflammatory profile of CD11b+ microglia and macrophages in the brain, induced c-Fos activation (in brain regions associated with threat and fear appraisal), anxiety-like behavior, as well as neuroinflammation, and these effects were blocked by β-adrenergic receptor antagonism and required a functional IL-1 receptor type-1 [105].

4.5. Summary

The repeated Agg-E procedure we used induced marked physiological changes consistent with repeated stimulation of the hypothalamic–pituitary axis and sympathetic nervous system that acutely altered the metabolism of heart and brain tissue that later manifest as cardiac fibroplasia or fibrosis, reduced dendritic spine density of pyramidal neurons in the mPFC, and persistent behaviors indicative of fear, hypo-responding, hyper-responding, and anxiety, reminiscent of features of PTSD and comorbid dimensions.

Disclaimers

The views, opinions, and/or findings contained in this report are those of the authors and should not be construed as official Department of the Army position, policy, or decision, unless so designated by other official documentation.

Research was conducted in compliance with the Animal Welfare Act, and other Federal statutes and regulations relating to animals and experiments involving animals and adheres to principles stated in the Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals (NRC 2011) in facilities that are fully accredited by the Association for the Assessment and Accreditation of Laboratory Animal Care, International.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.bbr.2012.07.022.

References


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