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## Chronic stress influences nociceptive sensitivity of female rats in an estrous cycle-dependent manner

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1 **Chronic stress influences nociception sensitivity of female rats in an**  
2 **estrous cycle dependent manner**

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23

24 **Abstract**

25 Exposure to chronic stress can influence nociception, and further induce hyperalgesia.  
26 Whether stress modulation on pain in female animals occur in an estrous cycle-specific  
27 manner is still unclear. We profiled the changes in nociception (thermal, mechanical,  
28 formalin induces acute and inflammatory pain) of female Sprague-Dawley rats after  
29 treatment with chronic unpredictable mild stress (CUMS) and investigated whether  
30 these changes occur in an estrous cycle dependent manner. The results showed that  
31 CUMS female rats exhibited a lower mechanical withdrawal threshold in proestrus and  
32 estrus, a longer formalin induced licking time in metestrus and diestrus, but no changes  
33 in the latency time on the tail flick test. The present study findings suggest that chronic  
34 stress induces mechanical and formalin-evoked acute hyperalgesia of female rats in an  
35 estrous cycle dependent manner.

36 **Keywords:** chronic unpredictable mild stress; stress-induced hyperalgesia; nociception;  
37 estrous cycle; hyperalgesia; pain

38

39 **Introduction**

40 Stress is a non-specific adaptive response to a variety of stimuli which can lead to  
41 physical, immunological and psychological diseases (Schneiderman et al., 2005).  
42 Several studies have shown that exposure to chronic stressful events in life can increase  
43 the risk for psychiatric disorders and elicit reactions of hyperalgesia or allodynia  
44 (Jennings et al., 2014, Duman et al., 2016). Research findings on both human and  
45 animals have indicated that males and females show sex differences in behavioral,

46 psychological, endocrine and molecular responses to stress (Lu et al., 2015, Reschke-  
47 Hernandez et al., 2017). However, females are more vulnerable or susceptible to stress-  
48 related disorders compared to males (Bangasser and Valentino, 2012). Accumulated  
49 evidence also supported that, there is increased nociception and low tolerance of  
50 females to pain when compared to males (Rosen et al., 2017). This indicates that being  
51 a male or female play an important role in understanding susceptibility of an individual  
52 to stress-related responses and pain sensitivity (Rosen et al., 2017, Seo et al., 2017).  
53 The gonadal hormones including testosterone and estradiol have been reported to  
54 determine the hypothalamus-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis response in different sexes  
55 after acute stress (Heck and Handa, 2019).

56 Effects of the estrous cycle on the nociception have been reported in both clinical  
57 and animal studies. In a functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) study  
58 conducted among humans, the stress response of women showed alterations in  
59 nociception?? during various phases of the menstrual cycle (Goldstein et al., 2010).  
60 Several studies in rats have also found a low threshold and a high sensitivity of  
61 nociception??? in the proestrus phase (Moloney et al., 2016, Kaur et al., 2018); however,  
62 another study suggested that there is no difference in nociception during the women's  
63 menstrual cycle (Balter et al., 2013). Chronic unpredictable mild stress (CUMS) causes  
64 significant changes in female rats during the diestrus phase in behavior response and  
65 stress-related molecules activation (Lu et al., 2015). However, it is still not clear,  
66 whether female animals have different stress-related pain responses in different estrous  
67 phases. Given the influence of gonadal hormones on the activity of the HPA axis, we

68 hypothesize that the effect of chronic stress on pain differ depending on the phase of  
69 the estrous cycle. This study aimed to investigate the changes in different nociception  
70 (thermal, mechanical, formalin-evoked acute and inflammatory pain) of female rats  
71 after chronic stress treatments.

## 72 **Methods**

### 73 *Animals*

74 Female Sprague–Dawley rats (Animal Centre of the Second Affiliated Hospital,  
75 Harbin Medical University, Certificate No.09-2-1) weighing between 150-170 g on  
76 arrival were used in this study. Rats were individually housed in cages during the five  
77 weeks of the study. The rats were maintained at  $22 \pm 2$  °C with 12:12 light dark cycle.  
78 Food and water were available ad libitum. All the experimental procedures were  
79 approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee, Harbin Medical  
80 University, PR China.

81 Rats were randomly assigned into the following two groups: (1) Control rats, n=15;  
82 (2) CUMS rats, n=24. Control rats were maintained in normal condition, and CUMS  
83 rats were exposed to chronic stressors according to the CUMS procedures protocols as  
84 described by Liu et al., (2014) and Lian et al., (2017). The estrous phase was determined  
85 by the examination of vaginal changes. Vaginal cytology samples were collected daily  
86 in the morning. The phase of the estrous cycle (metestrus, diestrus, proestrus or estrus)  
87 was determined by microscopic examination based on the types of cells (leukocytes,  
88 nucleated epithelial or cornfield epithelial cells) (McLean et al., 2012). According to  
89 the phase of the estrous cycle of each rat, Control and CUMS rats were further divided  
90 to eight subgroups: (1) control in the proestrus phase (P control rats); (2) control in the  
91 estrus phase (E control rats); (3) control in the metestrus phase (M control rats); (4)  
92 control in the diestrus phase (D control rats); (5) CUMS in the proestrus phase (P

93 CUMS rats); (6) CUMS in the estrus phase (E CUMS rats); (7) CUMS in the metestrus  
94 phase (M CUMS rats); and (8) CUMS in the diestrus phase (D CUMS rats).

95 ***CUMS female rats' model***

96 The CUMS procedures were performed according to the previously reported CUMS  
97 protocols (Liu et al., 2014, Lian et al., 2017). All CUMS rats were treated by one  
98 stressor each day for 35 days. The stressors included: damp bedding overnight; high  
99 platform; restraint stress; food deprivation (24 hours); swimming in 4 °C cold water for  
100 5 minutes; water deprivation (24 hours). Stressors were scheduled randomly and  
101 administered at any time of day throughout the 5-week's experiment. The stress  
102 sequence was changed every week for unpredictable stress procedure. Control animals  
103 had no contact with CUMS rats. During and after the CUMS exposure, nociception  
104 behavioural analyses were performed by an observer blind to the experimental  
105 conditions.

107 ***Tail flick test***

108 Tail-flick test (Nazeri et al., 2014) was performed after vaginal smear in the  
109 morning on the 3<sup>rd</sup> day of every week and used to measure the pain response to acute  
110 thermal noxious stimuli. The rats were maintained in a tube and placed on the apparatus  
111 (PL-200, Taimeng, Chengdu, China). Their tails were allowed to hang freely. A beam  
112 of light with 55% intensity was focused at a 5 cm distant on the rat's tail. The tail-flick  
113 latency was defined as the time from turning on the light to tail flick to the side. To  
114 avoid tissue hot damage, a cut-off time of 10 seconds was defined as the maximal  
115 thermal pain latency. The average tail flick latency time was calculated from three  
116 consecutive tests with an interval of about five minutes.

117 ***von Frey test***

118 Mechanical paw-withdrawal thresholds were tested after vaginal smear in the  
119 morning on the 4<sup>th</sup> day of every week using the up-and-down method as described by

120 Chaplan et al., (1999). The rats were placed in a transparent cage with a mesh floor.  
121 Ten von Frey filaments were applied and the test was initiated with a 2.0 g filament to  
122 the plantar surface of the paw through the mesh floor. Depending on whether rats  
123 showed positive (a brief paw withdrawal) or negative responses (without any paw  
124 withdrawal), the next weaker or stronger filament was chosen. Counting of six  
125 consecutive points did not begin until the first positive response occurred. The 50%  
126 mechanical withdrawal threshold (50% MWT) was then calculated using the formula  
127 proposed by Chaplan et al., (1994).

### 128 *Formalin test*

129 Inflammatory pain thresholds were measured in the morning on the 36<sup>th</sup> day using  
130 the formalin test (Roche et al., 1996). Fifty  $\mu$ l of formalin 5% was injected  
131 subcutaneously into the right hind paw pad. Then rats were immediately placed in a  
132 transparent chamber with an open roof to observe spontaneous pain responses of the  
133 injected paw. The licking time of Phase I (during 0 - 10 minute after injection) and  
134 Phase II (during 11 - 60 minute after injection) were recorded.

135

### 136 *Statistical analyses*

137 Analysis of data was performed using SPSS 19.0 software (IBM). All data were  
138 expressed as the mean  $\pm$  standard error of mean (S.E.M). Friedman measure analysis of  
139 variance was performed to test the differences in 50% mechanical withdrawal  
140 thresholds between CUMS female rats and controls. One-way repeated measures  
141 ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's post-hoc test was performed to determine the  
142 differences in the tail flick latency, and the body weight between CUMS female rats  
143 and controls. Independent t-test was performed to determine the differences in the  
144 licking time of the formalin test between the group analyses. Due to the small number



145 in each subgroup, Mann-Whitney U was used to determine differences in the 50%  
146 mechanical withdrawal thresholds, the licking time in the formalin test, the tail flick  
147 latency between CUMS subgroup and its corresponding control subgroup at a specific  
148 phase of the estrous cycle. Spearman rank correlation was used to test the association.  
149 Statistical significance was determined as  $p < 0.05$ .

## 150 **Results**

### 151 *Mechanical pain sensitivity of the estrous cycle after exposure to chronic stress*

152 Results of von Frey tests showed that 50% mechanical withdrawal threshold (MWT)  
153 was significantly ( $\chi^2(9) = 21.89, p = 0.009$ ) decreased in the female CUMS rats  
154 compared to the control group, during the 3<sup>rd</sup> week ( $2.48 \pm 1.7$  g vs.  $5.31 \pm 4.1$  g) and  
155 the 5<sup>th</sup> week ( $2.54 \pm 1.5$  g vs.  $5.48 \pm 4.3$  g) after the stress exposure. This indicated that  
156 the stress-induced mechanical hyperalgesia occurred from the 3<sup>rd</sup> week (Figure 1A).

157 The MWT decreased significantly in the P CUMS rats compared to the P controls  
158 during the 5<sup>th</sup> week ( $2.05 \pm 1.4$  g vs.  $7.46 \pm 4.1$  g,  $U = 2.00, p = 0.023$ ) (Figure 1B).  
159 However, no statistical significant difference in the mean MWT was observed among  
160 the other CUMS subgroups (estrus, metestrus and diestrus) when correspondingly  
161 compared to their control subgroups. These results indicated that CUMS rats in the  
162 proestrus stage showed more sensitive to mechanical stimulus than the control rats in  
163 the proestrus. There was no difference between the subgroups of the control rats.

164 At the 3<sup>rd</sup> week the rat number of the control subgroups in the proestrus was only 1,  
165 so was the number of CUMS subgroups in the proestrus at the 4<sup>th</sup> week. The number of  
166 rats left over as at the end of the 3<sup>rd</sup> week in the proestrus control subgroups as well as  
167 the 4<sup>th</sup> week in the proestrus CUMS subgroups were 1 each, respectively. Therefore,  
168 the rats in the proestrus and estrus were combined into one group (P/E subgroup with  
169 high levels of gonadal hormones), while the rats in the metestrus and diestrus were

170 combined into one group as well (M/D subgroup with low levels of gonadal hormones  
171 for subgroup statistical analyses) (Egan et al., 2018). During the 3<sup>rd</sup> ( $2.57 \pm 1.44$  g vs.  
172  $6.01 \pm 4.03$  g,  $U = 33.00$ ,  $p = 0.005$ ) and the 4<sup>th</sup> ( $2.76 \pm 2.05$  g vs.  $5.28 \pm 4.00$  g,  $U =$   
173  $45.00$ ,  $p = 0.033$ ) weeks, the mean MWTs were significantly reduced in P/E CUMS  
174 rats compared to the controls (Figure 1C, D). During the 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> weeks, there were  
175 no difference in the mean MWTs between the CUMS subgroups and their  
176 corresponding control subgroups (Figure 1E, F).

### 177 ***CUMS induced acute hyperalgesia in M/D female subgroup in the formalin test***

178 Chronic stress exposure did not change the average licking time in formalin induced  
179 pain in both phases I ( $t = -1.44$ ,  $p = 0.16$ ) and phase II ( $t = -0.60$ ,  $p = 0.55$ ) (Figure 2A).  
180 However, there was a significant increase in the average licking time among the M/D  
181 CUMS rats when compared to the M/D control group ( $9.00 \pm 2.79$  sec vs.  $5.19 \pm 2.91$   
182 sec,  $U = 10.00$ ,  $p = 0.045$ ) in phase I (Figure 2B) but not in phase II (Figure 2C). These  
183 results suggested that formalin-evoked acute but not inflammatory hyperalgesia in  
184 female CUMS rats in the metestrus and diestrus stages. There was no difference in the  
185 licking time among the control subgroups. In the CUMS rats, a positive correlation was  
186 found between MWTs and the average licking time in phase I of the formalin test ( $r_s$   
187  $(22) = 0.412$ ,  $p = 0.045$ ). No correlation was found between MWTs and the average  
188 licking time in phase I of the formalin test in the control rats.

### 189 ***Thermal pain sensitivities of female rats did not vary after exposure to chronic stress***

190 Tail-flick tests were performed every week to study the changes in thermal nociception  
191 during the stress exposure. Chronic stress treatment did not change the tail-flick latency  
192 ( $F_{(4,148)} = 0.991$ ,  $p = 0.259$ , at the 5<sup>th</sup> week  $5.53 \pm 1.44$  sec vs.  $6.01 \pm 1.31$  sec, at the 4<sup>th</sup>  
193 week  $6.34 \pm 1.92$  sec vs.  $5.48 \pm 1.22$  sec) (Figure 3A). Furthermore, there was no  
194 difference between CUMS subgroups compared to their corresponding control

195 subgroups (at the 5<sup>th</sup> week for P/E  $5.63 \pm 1.6$  sec vs.  $6.15 \pm 1.37$  sec, for M/D  $5.41 \pm$   
196  $1.23$  sec vs.  $5.13 \pm 0.09$  sec,  $\chi^2(3) = 3.52$ ,  $p = 0.32$ ; at the 4<sup>th</sup> week for P/E  $6.05 \pm 2.07$   
197 sec vs.  $5.19 \pm 1.27$  sec, for M/D  $6.6 \pm 1.81$  sec vs.  $6.3 \pm 0.6$  sec,  $\chi^2(3) = 6.63$ ,  $p = 0.085$ )  
198 (Figure 3B).

### 199 *Rats in the CUMS group exhibited a retardation in body weight gain*

200 There was no significant difference in basic body weight between CUMS rats and  
201 control rats prior to initiation of the CUMS treatment. Rats in CUMS group exhibited  
202 a retardation in body weight gain from the 7<sup>th</sup> day until the end of the CUMS procedure,  
203 compared to the rats in the control group (Figure. 4A; the 7<sup>th</sup> day:  $161.75 \pm 20.0$  g  
204 vs.  $193.98 \pm 14.7$  g; the 35<sup>th</sup> day:  $233.26 \pm 29.52$  g vs.  $267.5 \pm 9.3$  g,  $F_{(2.997,110.887)} =$   
205  $144.864$ ,  $p = 0.002$ ). In both the CUMS rat (Figure. 4B;  $r_s(22) = -0.47$ ,  $p = 0.021$ ) and  
206 the control rat groups ( $r_s(13) = -0.675$ ,  $p = 0.006$ ), weight gain fraction (body weight  
207 at 35<sup>th</sup> day-basic body weight)/ basic body weight) was negatively correlated with 50%  
208 MWT in the von Frey test.

### 209 **Discussion**

210 Understanding stress related hyperalgesia mechanisms which underlie the  
211 prevalence of persistent pain conditions in women is important for improving women's  
212 health. Even though confirmed conclusion has not yet been achieved on chronic mild  
213 stress-induced hyperalgesia in female animals, we designed an experiment to  
214 characterize the change of nociception sensitivity among female rats across the estrous  
215 cycle. Our findings indicated that (1) chronic stress induced mechanical hyperalgesia  
216 in proestrus and estrus females, whereas formalin-evoked acute hyperalgesia but not  
217 thermal hyperalgesia in metestrus and diestrus rats; (2) there were positive correlations  
218 between the mechanical withdrawal thresholds (MWTs) and formalin-evoked acute  
219 hyperalgesia after chronic stress exposure, but a negative correlations between

220 mechanical withdrawal thresholds and the body weight gain. We noticed that the von  
221 Frey MWTs in the control rats were lower than what was usually reported for rats of  
222 the size used in a previous experimental study (Chaplan et al., 1994). Since the vaginal  
223 smear procedure is also a known stressor, it should be considered to play a potential  
224 role in affecting the nociception responses.

225 In the present experiment, a positive correlations were found between mechanical  
226 withdrawal thresholds and the average licking time in phase I of the formalin test in  
227 CUMS rats but not in the controls. This result indicated that the correlation between the  
228 mechanical nociception and formalin induced acute nociception depends on the chronic  
229 stress condition. Also, the negative correlations found between the weight gain fraction  
230 and 50% MWT in both CUMS and control rats, indicated that the weight gaining rats  
231 are associated with a lower mechanical pain threshold and are also susceptible to stress-  
232 induced mechanical hyperalgesia.

233 Although these mechanisms are not fully understood, there might be sex  
234 differences contributing to the changes of nociception induced by chronic stress  
235 exposure. Previous studies have reported that women are at increased risk for many  
236 chronic pain conditions compared to men (Fillingim et al., 2009, Mogil, 2012). In our  
237 preliminary study after the exposure of male rats to chronic stress, we found that the  
238 male rats showed a transient mechanical hyperalgesia, but demonstrated thermal and  
239 formalin-induced acute and inflammatory hypoalgesia, suggesting that male rats could  
240 have distinct pain response depending on the different types of pain after chronic stress  
241 (Lian et al., 2017). Results in the present study showed that female rats were highly  
242 susceptible to mechanical and formalin-induced acute nociception but not to thermal  
243 pain under chronic stress condition, evidencing that female rats exhibited the different  
244 changes of nociception compared to male rats after chronic stress exposure (Lian et al.,

245 2017). The difference in response to pain in relation to sex might be explained by the  
246 differences in sex hormones and microglia activity (Sorge and Totsch, 2017).

247 Responses of the hypothalamic–pituitary–gonadal axis (HPA) axis to stress have  
248 been associated with the female estrous cycle (Stephens et al., 2016). After restrictive  
249 stress treatment, the deprived females at the proestrus phase had a higher corticosterone  
250 level compared to the normal females (Mourlon et al., 2011). Corticosterone has been  
251 shown to decrease the expression of cannabinoid receptor 1 in dorsal root ganglion  
252 neurons of rats with chronic stress induced visceral hyperalgesia. (Hong et al., 2011).

253 Stress sensitivity in women also seems to be linked with the variations in ovarian  
254 hormones during the menstrual cycle (Handa and Weiser, 2014). Fluctuations in  
255 gonadal hormones have been found to modulate the way males and females react to  
256 stress and nociception (Oyola and Handa, 2017, Rosen et al., 2017), although the exact  
257 mechanism is still unclear. A previous study conducted among females suggested that  
258 estrogen and its receptors produce antinociceptive and antihyperalgesic effects  
259 (Robinson et al., 2016) whereas another study reported a contradictory results (Nag and  
260 Mokha, 2016).

261 The data in this current study confirmed that estrous cycle and chronic stress are  
262 critical factors in mechanical pain and formalin-evoked acute nociception in female  
263 rodents. Mechanical hyperalgesia occurred in CUMS rats in proestrus and estrus, but  
264 in contrast, formalin-evoked acute hyperalgesia was observed in metestrus and diestrus;  
265 and positive correlations between mechanical thresholds in von Frey tests and the  
266 licking time in phase I of the formalin test. Several studies, however, have reported  
267 different conclusions regarding how the effect of stress on the estrous cycle induces  
268 nociception (Devall et al., 2011, Moloney et al., 2016). Research conducted among rats  
269 who underwent maternal separation in early life showed a decreased pain thresholds

270 and an increased pain behaviours to colorectal distension (visceral pain) across all  
271 phases of the estrous cycle (Moloney et al., 2016). Exposure to mild stress induced a  
272 decrease in tail flick latency and hyperalgesia in animals in the late diestrus phase  
273 (Devall et al., 2011). These discrepancies in rats stress models may be due to stressor  
274 diversity and nature of pain.

## 275 **Conclusion**

276 In conclusion, our studies showed that chronic stress influences nociception  
277 sensitivity of female rats in an estrous cycle-dependent manner. Future studies are  
278 warranted to elucidate these potential mechanisms which underlie the hypothalamic–  
279 pituitary-gonadal axis modulation of stress-induced hyperalgesia in females.

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283

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