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Experimental Neurology xxx (2008) xxx-xxx



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Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Experimental Neurology



journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/yexnr

Neuropathic pain is associated with depressive behaviour and induces neuroplasticity in the amygdala of the rat

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ARTICLE INFO

Article history: 12 Received 22 February 2008 13 Revised 24 April 2008 14 Accepted 28 April 2008 15Available online xxxx 16 17 Keywords: 18 Neuropathic pain 19Amvgdala

Adult neurogenesis Depressive-like behaviour

ABSTRACT

Chronic pain is associated with the development of affective disorders but the underlying mechanisms are not fully understood. Changes in brain centres implicated in both emotional and pain processing are likely to be critical in the interplay of pain control and affective emotional behaviour. In the present study, we assessed emotional behaviour and performed a structural analysis of the amygdala (AMY) in neuropathic rats after two months of hyperalgesia and allodynia, induced by the spared nerve injury model (SNI). When compared with Sham-controls, SNI animals displayed signs of depressive-like behaviour. In addition, we found an increased amygdalar volume in SNI rats. No alterations were found in the dendritic arborizations of AMY neurons but, surprisingly, the amygdalar hypertrophy was associated with an increased cell proliferation [bromodeoxyuridine (BrdU)-positive cells] in the central (CeA) and basolateral (BLA) amygdaloid nuclei. The phenotypic analysis of the newly-acquired cells revealed that they co-label for neuronal markers (BrdU+NeuN and BrdU+Calbindin), but not for differentiated glial cells (BrdU+glial fibrillary acidic protein).

We demonstrate that neuropathic pain promotes generation of new neurons in the AMY. Given the established role of the AMY in emotional behaviour, we propose that these neuroplastic changes might contribute for the development of depressive-like symptoms that are usually present in prolonged pain syndromes in humans. © 2008 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

Introduction

Pain is a multidimensional experience with sensitive-discriminative 31 and motivational-affective dimensions (Anand and Craig, 1996). 32 Persistent pain, including chronic pain syndromes (Tal and Bennett, 33 34 1994), is a common condition associated to a wide spectrum of disorders including cancer, inflammation and neuropathic pain. Neuropathic pain 35 (NP) is caused by a primary lesion or dysfunction of the nervous tissue 36 (Merskey and Bogduk, 1994) and results in prolonged hyperalgesia, 3738 allodynia and spontaneous pain (Devor, 2006). NP results from a process of peripheral and central sensitization that generates an enhanced 39 transmission of nociceptive input to the brain (Gao et al., 2005; Ren and 40 41 Dubner, 1996), which may impair the endogenous supraspinal pain control system (Danziger et al., 2001; Kauppila et al., 1998; Pertovaara, 422000; Rasmussen et al., 2004; Tal and Bennett, 1994). 43

The amygdala (AMY) is a central component of the limbic system and plays a crucial role in behavioural responses to emotional stimuli (Davis and Whalen, 2001; Han and Neugebauer, 2001; Neugebauer and Li, 1992). Moreover, the AMY is deeply involved in processing the emotional component of pain, probably through a modulatory role

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0014-4886/\$ - see front matter © 2008 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved. doi:10.1016/j.expneurol.2008.04.043 upon major supraspinal pain control centres (SPCC) (Manning and 49 Mayer, 1995; Manning, 1998; Manning et al., 2001). On the other hand, 50 it is possible that neuroplasticity in higher centres controlling SPCC 51 may contribute to alterations in the fine control of pain. In fact, an 52 imbalance between inhibiting and facilitating descending modulation 53 of nociceptive transmission may underlie, at least in part, the 54 development of chronic pain (Almeida et al., 2006; Lima and Almeida, 55 2002; Pertovaara, 2000; Porreca et al., 2002; Schaible et al., 1991). 56 Accordingly, arthritic and neuropathic pain enhance synaptic trans- 57 mission of nociceptive-specific input to the AMY (Han and Neugebauer, 58 2004; Neugebauer and Li, 1992; Neugebauer et al., 2003), which 59 reinforces the potential role of AMY in SPCC alterations resulting from 60 prolonged pain syndromes.

Chronic pain induces mood disorders, including depression and 62 anxiety (Rasmussen, 2004). In addition, the adverseness of pain is am- 63 plified or reduced depending on the emotional environment (Merskey, 64 1965), and conditions of increased anxiety (Rhudy and Meagher, 2000) 65 and depression (Merskey, 1965; Willoughby et al., 2002; Zelman et al., 66 1991) are usually associated with decreased pain tolerance. This vicious 67 circle may trigger, or even result from, neuronal changes in the limbic 68 system. Accordingly, imaging studies indicate that gross structural 69 changes may occur in the AMY in situations of major depression 70 (Altshuler et al., 2005; Bremner et al., 2000; Frodl et al., 2002; Strakowski 71 et al., 1999; Tebartz van Elst et al., 2000). 72

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As a rationale for the present study, we hypothesized that chronic 73 74 pain induces emotional disturbances that are associated with neuroplasticity of the amygdaloid complex. To assess this hypothesis, 7576 we performed behavioural, stereological and immunocytochemical analysis during or after the induction of a two month neuropathy 77 following the model of Decosterd and Woolf (2000). Part of the present 78 79results have already been published in abstract form (Gonçalves et al., 80 2006).

81 Materials and methods

82 Animals

All procedures were performed on adult (200-250 g, 55-65 days) 83 male Wistar-Han rats. Animals were housed under standard labora-84 tory conditions (12 h light cycle; 22 °C, 55% humidity; food and water 85 available ad libitum). Experiments were conducted in accordance with 86 local regulations, European Union Directive 86/609/EEC, NIH guide-87 lines on animal care experimentation and IASP ethical guidelines for 88 pain experimentation on awaken animals (Zimmermann, 1983). Sixty 89 animals were divided in two main experimental groups of 30 rats each: 90 91 spared nerve injury (SNI) and sham operated (Sham). A set of rats 92(n=18 each group) received one injection of the cell proliferation marker bromodeoxyuridine (BrdU; Miller and Nowakowski, 1988), 93 50 mg/kg body weight, i.p. (Sigma, St. Louis, MO) for three consecutive 94days before their death (see below), two months after SNI induction or 95Sham surgery. 96

97 Spared nerve injury surgery

98 The SNI model of chronic neuropathic pain included an axotomy and ligation of two of the three peripheral ramifications of the sciatic nerve, 99 100 the tibial and common peroneal nerves and leaving the sural nerve intact, as described elsewhere (Decosterd and Woolf, 2000). The animals 101 were lightly anesthetized with pentobarbital 0.5% (Eutasil, Ceva Saúde 102Animal, Portugal). The common peroneal and tibial nerves were tight-103 ligated with 5.0 silk and sectioned distal to the ligation, removing 2-104 4 mm of the distal nerve stump. Great care was taken to avoid any 105 contact with or stretching of the intact sural nerve. Muscle and skin were 106 closed in two layers. Sham-controls involved exposure of the sciatic 107 nerve and its branches without performing any manipulation. 108

109 Nociceptive tests

Nociceptive tests were performed in all animals a day before and two days after the surgery procedure, followed by testing every two days then forward, during the two months of experimental period. Both the ipsilateral (right hind paw) and the contralateral hind paw were tested in order to evaluate the presence of "mirror pain", described elsewhere as present in neuropathic pain pathologies (Tal and Bennett, 1994).

116 Mechanical allodynia

Animals were placed on an elevated wire grid and the lateral plantar surface of the paw stimulated with a series of ascending force von Frey monofilaments. The nociceptive threshold was taken as the lowest force that evoked a brisk withdrawal response to one of five repetitive stimuli (Tal and Bennett, 1994).

122 Mechanical hyperalgesia

With the animals on the elevated grid, a pin-prick test was performed using a safety pin. The lateral part of the plantar surface of the paw was briefly stimulated at intensity sufficient to touch but not penetrate the skin (Decosterd et al., 1998). The duration of paw withdrawal was measured, with an arbitrary minimal time of 0.5 seconds (s) (for the brief normal response) and maximal cut-off of 20 s (Tal and Bennett, 1994).

Assessment of emotional behaviour

All behavioural tests were performed five days preceding animal 131 sacrifice during light period (9am to 6pm) in a restricted group of 132 animals (n=18 each group). 133

Anxiety-like behaviour <u>elevated</u> plus-maze test (EPM)

Anxiety-like behaviour was evaluated in the EPM test through 135 an apparatus consisting of two open and two closed arms (50.8 × 136 10.2 × 40.6 cm each arm) (MedAssociates Inc., St. Albans, Vermont, 137 USA). Each rat was placed in the centre of the elevated plus-maze 138 facing one of the open arms, and the time spent (s) in the open or 139 closed arms was recorded during a 5-min test period (Mesquita et al., 140 2006; Sousa et al., 2006). The elevated plus-maze was carefully 141 cleaned with 10% ethanol before each animal was placed on the 142 equipment. 143

Depressive_like behaviour __ forced_swimming test (FST) 144 The test was performed as in the original method described 145 elsewhere (Porsolt et al., 1977, 1978). On day 1 (conditioning, pre- 146 test session), rats were individually placed in a clear Plexiglass 147 cylinder (29 cm in diameter and 50 cm in height) containing 30 cm 148 of water (25+0.5 °C) and left to swim for 15 min. The rats were then 149





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for 5 min, and finally returned to their home cage. Twenty-four 151 hours later, the rats were tested under the same conditions for 5 min 152153(test session). Rats were judged to be immobile when both hind legs 154were not moving, and the rat was slightly bent forward (Mesquita et al., 2006). 155

Locomotion and exploratory behaviour – open field test (OF) 156

Motor activity and exploratory behaviour were evaluated by 157158placing the rat into an infrared photobeam controlled open field 159activity test chamber in a brightly illuminated (white light) room. Animals were tested for 10 min in an arena (43.2 cm×43.2 cm 160 transparent acrylic walls and white floor) (MedAssociates Inc., St. 161Albans, Vermont) that was divided into a central and a peripheral zone. 162163 The time spent by each animal in the central and peripheral (residual) zone and its vertical activity (rearings) were the parameters evaluated 164in this test (Mesquita et al., 2006). Environmental odours were 165 removed with 10% ethanol solution. 166

Tissue preparation 167

Both the SNI and Sham groups were divided as follows: i) in the 168 first group (n=6 each), designated to stereological analysis, the 169 170 animals were anaesthetized with pentobarbital and perfused with 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA), the brains were removed, embedded in 2-171 hydroxyethyl glycol methacrylate, serially sectioned in a microtome at 17230 μ m and stained with Giemsa; ii) in the second group (n=6 each), 173designated to 3D-morphologycal analyses of dendritic arborization of 174175AMY neurons, the animals were anesthetized with pentobarbital, perfused with saline and the brains were removed and processed for 176posterior staining following the Golgi-Cox method (Gibb and Kolb, 177 1998) and slicing in a vibratome at 100 μ m; iii) in the third group 178 179(n=18 each), processed for immunocytochemistry for detection of 180 BrdU, GFAP (glial fibrillary acidic protein), NeuN (neuronal nuclei) and Calb (Calbindin), the animals were decapitated, the brains dissected, 181frozen in liquid nitrogen and sectioned in a cryostat (-14 °C). 182

Stereological procedures

The amygdaloid complex was subdivided in its nuclear compo- 184 nents as in Paxinos and Watson (1998): central (CeA), lateral (La), 185 basolateral anterior (BLA) and posterior (BLP), basomedial anterior 186 (BMA) and posterior (BMP) nuclei. The nuclei volume and cell number 187 estimation in AMY nuclei in every 8th section stained with Giemsa 188 was obtained through the Cavalieri's principle and optical fractionator 189 methods using the Stereoinvestigator software (MicroBrightField, Inc., 190 Williston, VT, USA). 191

3D-morphologycal analysis of dendrites

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The brain sections stained with the Golgi-Cox method were 193 observed at the optical microscope and multipolar and bipolar AMY 194 neurons completely and perfectly stained (Cerqueira et al., 2007) were 195 considered for further analysis using the Neurolucida software 196 (MicroBrightField, Inc., Williston, VT, USA). The dendrites and spines 197 of 6 AMY neurons per animal were drawn. 198

Immunohistochemical procedures

All quantifications of markers for cell division and neuronal fate 200 were performed in the AMY. Positive controls for histochemical 201 reactions were confirmed by analysing the subgranular zone (SGZ) of 202 the hippocampus, since neuronal proliferation is known to occur in 203 this area (Gould et al., 1999a). As negative controls of immunocyto- 204 chemical reactions, the primary antibody was not included in the 205 protocol of each reaction; no specific immunoreaction was observed 206 following negative controls. 207

BrdU immunohistochemistry and quantification of BrdU-labelled cells 208 Bromodeoxyuridine (BrdU; an analogue of thymidine, incorpo- 209 rated into the newly synthesized DNA of replicating cells) incorpora- 210 tion was detected by immunocytochemistry on every 8th serial brain 211



Fig. 2. Performance of SNI and Sham groups during behavioural tests. No differences were observed between the two groups in the EPM test (A), neither in the time spent in the open or closed arms. In the FST (B), the time of activity was lower in the SNI animal, which indicates the presence of depressive-like behaviour. No differences were observed for the OF test (C, C') in any of the parameters evaluated.

Please cite this article as: Goncalves, L, et al., Neuropathic pain is associated with depressive behaviour and induces neuroplasticity in the amygdala of the rat, Exp. Neurol. (2008), doi:10.1016/j.expneurol.2008.04.043

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212 section containing the amygdaloid complex. Briefly, sections were 213 fixed in 4% PFA for 30 minutes (min), permeabilized for 10 min in a solution containing 0.2% Triton X-100 in Tris buffer saline (TBS) after a 214 2153×3 min wash in TBS, heated during 20 min in citrate buffer 0.1 M following a 3×3 min wash and acidified in HCl 2 M for 30 min after 216rinsing in distillated water. Endogenous peroxidase activity was O3217 blocked with 3% H2O2 in TBS for 10 min after a 3×3 min wash in 218TBS, followed by immersion in 4% bovine serum albumin (BSA) in TBS 219220 for 30 min (to block non-specific staining) after a 3×3 min wash. After 221 another 3×3 min wash in TBS, the tissue was incubated overnight with a primary monoclonal anti-BrdU antibody raised in mouse (1:50, 222 Dako, Glostrup, DK) and stained cells were detected using a universal 223detection system (BioGenex, San Ramon, CA, USA) and diaminobenzi-224 225dine (DAB 0.025% and H2O2 0.5% in Tris-HCl 0.05M pH 7.2), after a 3×2 min wash in TBS and a 1×3 min wash in Tris-HCl, followed by 226 counterstaining with haematoxylin. BrdU-positive cells were counted 227 throughout the entire AMY area. 228

229 Immunofluorescence and quantification of double-labelled cells

Double-staining immunofluorescent reactions were performed in 230order to reveal three different groups: (i) BrdU and GFAP (glial fibrillary 231 acidic protein; a marker of astrocyte glial cells; Reeves et al., 1989), (ii) 232233 BrdU and NeuN (protein expressed exclusively in mature neurons; Mullen et al., 1992) and (iii) BrdU and Calb (Calbindin; a calcium-234 binding protein present in functional mature neurons Meguro et al., 2352004). The following primary antibody dilutions were used: rat anti-236BrdU (1:500, Accurrate, Westbury, MA), mouse anti-GFAP (1:500, Dako 237238Glostrup, Denmark), mouse anti-NeuN (1:500, Chemicon International, Temecula, CA, USA) and rabbit anti-Calb (1:200, Chemicon 239International, Temecula, CA, USA). The initial protocol procedure (until 240241 the primary antibody incubation) was the same in the first three groups and similar to that described above for revealing BrdU. The 242 243following specific procedures for each double-staining method are explained briefly and separately for each group. 244

Brain sections were mounted in slides with Vectashield (Vector Laboratories, Burlingame, CA, USA) to delay fluorescence decay, and observed two days later in a fluorescence microscope. Data were confirmed posteriorly using confocal microscopy (Olympus FluoViewTM FV1000, OLYMPUS).

250 i) BrdU and GFAP

251After overnight incubation with the primary antibody anti-BrdU raised in rat, sections were washed 3 × 2 min in TBS and then incubated 252with a fluorescent Alexa 568 secondary antibody (goat anti-rat, 1:200; 253Molecular Probes, Eugene, OR) for 1 h, Following a 3×3 min wash in 254TBS, sections were incubated during 3 h with the primary antibody 255256mouse anti-GFAP, followed by the fluorescent Alexa 488 secondary antibody (goat anti-mouse, 1:100, Molecular Probes, Eugene, OR) for 2571 h, The sections were finally washed 2×2 min in TBS and 2 min in 258distillate water before being mounted in slides. 259

260 ii) BrdU and NeuN

Sections were incubated overnight with the primary antibody anti-261BrdU raised in rat followed by the fluorescent Alexa 568 secondary 262antibody (goat anti-rat, 1:200; Molecular Probes, Eugene, OR) for 1 h, 263after a 3×3 min wash in TBS. Then, sections were immersed for 3 h 264with the primary antibody anti-NeuN raised in mouse (1:500) and 265washed 3×3 min. Subsequently, they were incubated with biotiny-266 lated secondary antibody anti-mouse (1:200) for 1 h and, after a 2673×3 min wash, incubated with Alexa Streptavidine 488 (1:100, 268Molecular Probes, Eugene, OR) for one final hour. The sections were 269washed in TBS and distillate water as above and mounted in slides. 270

271 iii) BrdU and Calb

Sections were incubated overnight with the rat anti-BrdU and mouse anti-Calb primary antibodies. In the next day, after a 3×3 min wash in TBS sections were firstly incubated with fluorescent Alexa 568 274 (goat anti-mouse, 1:200) secondary antibody for $1 h_{a}$ and then with 275 fluorescent Alexa 488 (goat anti-rat, 1:200; Molecular Probes, Eugene, 276 OR) secondary antibody, after a 3×3 min wash. The sections were 277 washed in TBS and distillate water and mounted in slides. 278

Statistic analysis

For the analysis of baseline thresholds of SNI/Sham and ipsi/ 280 contralateral hind paws in the von Frey and pin-prick tests, one-way 281 analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed. Considering that in the 282

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Fig. 3. Morphological analysis of AMY nuclei. (A) Volumes of different AMY nuclei were higher in neuropathic animals when compared to Sham, with differences being statistically significant for the CeA and BLA nuclei. (B) Cell number is also higher in all amygdalar nuclei of SNI animals, with differences being significant again in the CeA and BLA nuclei. (C) Structural analysis through Golgi-Cox method showed no differences in cell body volume and dendrite length of AMY neurons between SNI and Sham groups.

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rest of this study only comparisons between two groups were performed, the sStudent's *t*--test was used to analyse the results of all tests and procedures. The results were considered to be statistically different when p < 0.05. Data are presented as mean± standard deviation.

288 Results

289 The spared nerve injury model induces hypersensitivity for at least 290 2 months

Assessment of mechanical allodynia and hyperalgesia using, 291respectively, von Frey filament and pin-prick tests, were performed 292twice before the SNI surgery (baseline measurements) and every two 293days afterwards (during a two month period). Both neuropathic (SNI 294 group) and sham-control (Sham group) animals presented a similar 295 baseline withdrawal threshold measured by von Frey filaments (SNI: 296 ipsilateral 38±6.1 s, contralateral 25±8.2 s; Sham: ipsilateral 36±7.3 s, 297contralateral 35±5.1; Fig. 1A). A bilateral decrease in nociceptive 298 threshold was observed in neuropathic animals within 24 h after 299surgery. This threshold decrease reached the level of 0–5 g five days 300 after the surgery, a value that remained constant until the end of the 301 302 two month experimental period. These data showed that the SNI group 303 developed and maintained a strong mechanical allodynia in both hind paws, as a consequence of the surgery. On the contrary, nociceptive 304 threshold in Sham animals decreased slightly with the sham surgery, 305 returning to baseline values within a week, never reaching thresholds 306 as low as those presented by SNI animals (Fig. 1A). In what concerns the 307 pin-prick test, the baseline duration of hyperalgesic behaviour was less 308 than 1 s in all animals, and there were no differences between groups 309 (SNI: ipsilateral 0.17±0.17 s, contralateral 0.11±0.8 s; Sham: ipsilateral 310 0.13±1.11 s, contralateral 0.2±0.2; Fig. 1B). Within 24 h from the 311 surgery, SNI animals reached the maximal duration of hyperalgesic 312 behaviour in both hind paws (20 s) whereas no changes were observed 313 in Sham animals (Fig. 1B). These data showed that the SNI group 314 developed and maintained a clear hyperalgesic state during virtually 315 the entire experimental period. In summary, data on pain-related 316 behaviour demonstrated that SNI animals developed a clear neuro- 317 pathy that extended throughout the complete experimental period. 318

Neuropathic animals develop a depressive-like behaviour but do not 319 display signs of increased anxiety 320

Emotional behaviour was assessed seven weeks after the surgery. 321 EPM was performed to evaluate anxious behaviour, FST to assess 322 depressive-like behaviour and the OF test to determine locomotion 323 and exploratory behaviour (Mesquita et al., 2006). In the EPM, no 324 differences were found in the behavioural responses between SNI and 325



Fig. 4. Cell fate resulting from amygdalar neuroplasticity. (A) The number of cells that were BrdU-positive was significantly superior in SNI animals, but no differences were observed in the number of BrdU+GFAP double-labelled cells between SNI and Sham groups. (A') Representative images of GFAP, BrdU and GFAP+BrdU (double-stained)-positive cells. (B) BrdU+NeuN double-labelled cells were present only in AMY nuclei, being absent in Sham animals. (B') Representative images of BrdU, NeuN and NeuN+BrdU double-stained cells. (C) Calb+BrdU double-stained cells. (C) Calb+BrdU double-stained cells. (C) Calb+BrdU double-stained cells. (C) Representative images of BrdU, Calb and Calb+BrdU double-stained cells. Magnification bar: 60 µm (A'), 20 µm (B', C').

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Sham groups (Fig. 2A), thereby showing that the anxiety levels were 326 327 unaltered by induction of SNI. On the other hand, the FST revealed significant differences between experimental groups (Fig. 2B): while 328 329 Sham animals were active for 230±27 s, SNI animals only tried to escape/swim for 180 ± 38 s (p=0.012), which indicates the presence 330 of a learned helplessness (depressive-like) behaviour in neuropathic 331 animals. Since FST test includes movement of the paws and 332 neuropathic animals are hyperalgesic and allodynic in both ipsilateral 333 334 and contralateral hind paws, the OF test was performed in order to validate the FST test. This test revealed that the SNI group had no 335 differences in the locomotion ability when compared with Sham 336 group and it also revealed that the number of rearings (an indicator of 337 exploratory behaviour) did not differ between experimental groups 338 (Figs. 2C,C'). The absence of differences in the time spent in central vs. 339 peripheral part of the OF arena also indicates the absence of altered 340 anxiety behaviour in neuropathic animals. In summary, these 341 behavioural studies demonstrate that a 2 month neuropathy induced 342 a depressive-like, but not anxious-like, behaviour. 343

344 Volume and cell number are increased in amygdaloid nuclei

After animal perfusion, 6 brains of each experimental group were prepared for stereological analysis and other 6 SNI and Sham brains were processed for tri-dimensional morphological analysis. For stereological analysis the AMY was divided in 6 nuclei (Paxinos and Watson, 1998): central (CeA), lateral (La), basolateral anterior (BLA) and posterior (BLP), basomedial anterior (BMA) and posterior (BMP). We found a general increase in the volume of all these nuclei in SNI 351 neuropathic animals, with a significant increase being observed in CeA 352 (p=0.02) and BLA (p=0.019) nuclei (Fig. 3A). In order to determine the 353 causes for these structural changes of AMY, we analysed potential 354 alterations in cell numbers and cellular volumes. SNI neuropathic 355 animals showed a general increase in the number of cells in all AMY 356 nuclei, with a significant difference being present again in CeA 357 (p=0.015) and BLA (p=0.016) nuclei (Fig. 3B). On the contrary, 3D- 358 morphological analysis revealed no significant differences in dendritic 359 lengths (Fig. 3C) or perikarya areas (Fig. 3D) between neuropathic and 360 Sham animals, both in bipolar and multipolar AMY neurons. Taken 361 together, these results indicate that the significant increase observed 362 in CeA and BLA nuclear volumes of SNI animals was due, at least in 363 part, to an increase in cell numbers.

Newborn neurons contribute to increased cell numbers in AMY

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Rats received one injection of the cell proliferation marker 366 bromodeoxyuridine (BrdU) in the three consecutive days before 367 their sacrifice. The aim of this procedure was to determine if cell 368 proliferation was responsible for the higher number of cells observed 369 in the CeA and BLA nuclei in SNI animals. Immunohistochemistry 370 revealed the presence of BrdU-positive cells in the AMY of both 371 SNI and Sham groups, but with significantly higher numbers in 372 neuropathic animals (*p*=0.001; Fig. 4A). In order to identify the 373 phenotype of these newly-acquired cells, two different double- 374 staining immunohistochemistry reactions were performed: BrdU+ 375



Fig. 5. (A–D) Microphotograph showing examples of BrdU+NeuN double-labelled cells in the CeA. The rectangle in micrograph A is magnified in figures B_A-D; the border of CeA nucleus is outlined by a continuous line. CPu_A - caudate putamen (striatum); MePD_A - medial amygdaloid nucleus, posterodorsal part; ic_A - internal capsule; opt_A - optic tract. Magnification bar: 100 µm (A), 20 µm (B_A-F).

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Fig. 6. Examples of BrdU+NeuN (A) and BrdU+GFAP (B) double-labelled cells (arrows) obtained in positive-control sections from the subgranular zone of the dentate gyrus of the hippocampus. Magnification bar: 20 μm (A), 10 μm (B).

glial fibrillary acidic protein marker (GFAP) and BrdU+post-mitotic 376 377 neuronal marker (NeuN). The number of BrdU+GFAP-positive cells was similar between the SNI and Sham groups. On the other hand, 378 BrdU+NeuN double-labelled cells were observed only in the SNI 379 group; interestingly, they were mainly located in the CeA and BLA 380 nuclei (Figs. 4B, B', 5). These findings indicate the presence of newly 381 proliferating neurons in the AMY after prolonged SNI, as further 382 demonstrated by the presence of BrdU+Calbindin-positive cells in 383 the AMY of neuropathic animals (Fig. 4C,C'). Positive control sections 384 obtained from the subgranular zone of the hippocampal dentate 385 gyrus showed the presence of both BrdU+NeuN and BrdU+GFAP 386 double-labelled cells (Fig. 6). 387

In summary, data demonstrate not only that recently-divided
 newborn neurons are formed in the AMY of chronic pain animals, but
 also that these neurons reach a physiologically mature (i.e., functional)
 state.

392 Discussion

After two months of neuropathic pain, SNI animals exhibited 393 394signs of sustained persistent pain associated with a significant 395 depressive-like behaviour. At the CNS level, a structural reorganization of the amygdaloid complex was observed that was associated 396 with a significant increase in the volume of the basolateral (BLA) and 397 central (CeA) AMY nuclei. The volume increase was due to an in-398 creased number of AMY cells, and not to hypertrophy of dendrites or 399 perikarya of amygdalar neurons. The present study is the first dem-**O4**400 onstrating cell proliferation in a limbic area, as a result of chronic 401 neuropathic pain. Earlier, only electrophysiological studies have 402 shown chronic pain-related neuroplasticity of AMY neurons in per-403sistent arthritis, visceral pain (Han and Neugebauer, 2004) or neuro-404pathy (Ikeda et al., 2007). Moreover, this is the first study 405406 demonstrating that chronic pain results in depressive-like behaviour 407 associated with neuroplasticity in a major brain centre implicated in 408 the control of both emotions and pain.

Changes in emotional behaviour and neuroplasticity in the AMY

Morphological plasticity in the AMY was previously suggested in 410 cases of prolonged emotional disturbance, as shown by increased AMY 411 volumes measured by structural magnetic resonance in patients with 412 depression and anxiety (Frodl et al., 2002; Tebartz van Elst et al., 2000). 413 Clinical data also reveal that prolonged pain conditions are associated 414 with a high incidence of emotional disorders, including anxiety and 415 depression (Rasmussen et al., 2004). Herein, we show that in the rat, a 416 two month neuropathy resulted also in a depressive-like behaviour 417 measured by the forced-swimming test (FST), but no alterations in 418 anxiety levels were detected in the elevated plus-maze and open field 419 tests. We also show that increased immobility time in the FST should 420 not be ascribed to motor impairments as there were no changes in 421 locomotor activity and exploratory behavior. As in humans, SNI 422 neuropathy associated with emotional alterations may result from, 423 or contribute to, the structural changes observed in the AMY. It has 424 been proposed that the increase in AMY volume observed in de- 425 pressive patients was a consequence of the continuous prolonged 426 activation of this area (Frodl et al., 2002). Following the same rationale, 427 the present increase in AMY volume may result from the continuous 428 flow of nociceptive information into AMY regions receiving sensory 429 information (including the BLA) and the consequent prolonged activity 430 of AMY neurons triggering the appropriate response action (CeA is the 431 main effector of AMY). Especially relevant is the increase in the CeA 432 volume, as its latero-capsular part is defined as the 'nociceptive 433 amygdala' due to its high content in neurons implicated in nociceptive 434 processing (Bernard et al., 1996; Neugebauer and Li, 1992; Neugebauer 435 et al., 2004).

The volume increase in the AMY after two months of neuropathic 437 pain may have resulted from one or various different processes: cell 438 size (soma and dendritic size) increase, cell number (neurons or glial 439 cells) increase, or increased extracellular volume. However, subse- 440 quent analysis revealed that the increased volume of the AMY in SNI 441 animals could not be ascribed to cell size variations, but rather to an 442 increase in cell number. Interestingly, such increase in cell numbers 443 was confirmed by the observation of newly proliferating cells in AMY 444 nuclei of SNI animals. Although the presence of newborn neurons in 445 the adult brain of mammals is considered to be restricted to two areas, 446 the subgranular zone (SGZ) of the hippocampus and the subventricular 447 zone (SVZ) (Doetsch et al., 1997; Gould et al., 1999b; Kempermann and 448 Gage, 2000), the possibility of neurogenesis in the AMY has already 449 been raised in a study showing evidence for the presence of newly 450 generated neurons in the AMY of adult primates, at basal conditions 451 (Bernier et al., 2002). The results of double-immunoreactions (BrdU+ 452 NeuN) performed in the present study demonstrate that a significant 453 number of these newly-born cells undergo a neuronal phenotype. 454 Thus, the genesis of newborn neurons is responsible, at least in part, 455 for the increase in cell number underlying the increase of volume 456 observed in the AMY of SNI animals. In contrast, the number of cells 457 stained simultaneously for markers of cell proliferation (BrdU) and glia 458 (GFAP) revealed no additional glial cell proliferation in the AMY 459 following SNI induction; this indicates that SNI results only in ad- 460 ditional neuronal proliferation, with a similar basal rate of astrocyte 461 cell division being common to both Sham and SNI animals. 462

Neurogenesis and the AMY

Our observation of NeuN and BrdU co-localization in AMY cells 464 indicate that newly generated cells reached neuronal maturation in the 465 amygdaloid complex. This is in accordance with the time points for 466 expression of neuronal differentiation markers described by Kemper- 467 mann et al. (2004) and Steiner et al. (2004): in the hippocampus of adult 468 mice NeuN expression becomes higher than immature-neuron 469 markers 3 days after cell division. Additionally, the presence of BrdU+ 470 Calb double-labelled neurons in the AMY confirms the maturation and 471

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472 phenotypical differentiation of newborn neurons in definitive AMY of473 SNI animals.

Whether these newly-born cells observed in the AMY of SNI rats 474475result from local progenitor cells or migrate from adjacent neurogenic regions is still not known. However, several studies have shown that 476 besides the normal migration of proliferative cells from the SVZ to the 477 olfactory bulb (through the rostral migratory stream, RMS) or from the 478 SGZ to other areas of the DG, they can migrate from the SVZ to injured 479480 areas of the brain (Iwai et al., 2003; Parent et al., 2002; Van Kampen et al., 2004). Therefore, it is possible that the new neurons here 481 482 observed have their origin in SVZ progenitor cells that, through migration, reached the amygdaloid complex following the prolonged 483pain syndrome induced by the SNI model. Supporting this hypothesis, 484 485post-natal neurogenesis in the SVZ and SGZ can be regulated positively through the enhancement of the survival of newly generated cells and 486 negatively through the down regulation of cell proliferation (Gould 487 and Gross, 2002) following different stimuli (Jin et al., 2001). On the 488 other hand, a growing amount of evidence supports the notion that the 489 CNS itself is not as static as once believed: BrdU-positive cells were 490shown to be present in several regions of the adult CNS currently 491 thought to be mitotically quiescent (Rietze et al., 2000); studies report 492 that neurogenesis is prone to occur in other areas of adult mammals, 493 494 like the neocortex (Gould et al., 1999a; Takemura, 2005), the striatum (Van Kampen et al., 2004; Bedard et al., 2006), the substantia nigra 495 (Yoshimi et al., 2005) and the amygdala itself (Bernier et al., 2002). 496 Taking into account these data, it should not be excluded the possibility 497 that neural stem cells could be present in the AMY and proliferate 498 499following the prolonged neuropathy resulting from the SNI model. Further experimental procedures must be performed to elucidate this 500issue. 501

502 Roles of AMY in pain and emotional processing

Several data implicate the AMY in pain modulation, as shown by 503changes in pain tolerance induced by AMY manipulation (Manning, 5041998). Moreover, the AMY has a role in both pain inhibition and pain 505 facilitation (Manning and Mayer, 1995; Manning et al., 2001; 506 Tershner and Helmstetter, 2000). This dual effect may result from 507direct AMY projections to brainstem areas implicated in both de-508scending antinociception and pronociception (Almeida et al., 1999; 509Bouhassira et al., 1992; Porreca et al., 2002). As a balance between 510511 descending inhibiting (antinociceptive) and facilitating (pronociceptive) actions upon spinal nociceptive transmission can contribute to 512the normal control of pain perception (Lima and Almeida, 2002; 513Pertovaara, 2000; Porreca et al., 2002; Ren and Dubner, 1996; 514Schaible et al., 1991), the AMY may have a crucial role as a higher 515516centre modulating the brainstem pain centres responsible for the fine regulation of the spinal nociceptive transmission. Thus, it is 517possible that the here observed amygdalar neuroplasticity may con-518tribute not only to emotional changes but also to alterations in 519nociception. In support of this hypothesis, volume changes of AMY were 520521already shown in imaging studies of patients with a major depression 522(Drevets, 2000) and changes in synaptic function of nociceptive AMY neurons have been described in sustained pain conditions (Han and 523Neugebauer, 2004; Ikeda et al., 2007). Additionally, the neuronal 524proliferation observed in AMY areas involved in afferent (BLA) and 525526efferent (CeA) nociceptive processing may disrupt fine neuronal networks between high brain centres, which provide a structural basis 527for deregulation of emotional behaviour. 528

529 Conclusion

In conclusion, this study shows that besides mechanical hyperalgesia and allodynia, animals subjected to the SNI model of neuropathic pain during a two month period developed a depressive-like behaviour associated with an increased volume of AMY nuclei that results from cell proliferation. Importantly, this is the first study providing evidence for 534 the presence of newly-born cells in the amygdaloid complex as a 535 consequence of a sustained chronic (neuropathic) pain condition. We 536 hypothesize that these neuroplastic changes of the AMY could be 537 associated with the development of depressive-like behaviour in 538 neuropathic animals. Nonetheless, future studies on the origin of 539 newborn neurons and their integration in the pre-existing synaptic 540 network should be performed in order to determine the relevance of this 541 phenomenon.

Uncited references 543 **O5** Aliashkevich et al., 2003 544Almeida et al., 2002 545Coutaux et al., 2005 546 Gage, 2002 547Gage et al., 1998 548Kuhn et al., 1996 549 Kumar et al., 2005 550 LeDoux et al., 1990 551 McEwen, 2003 552McQuay et al., 1996 553 Mini et al., 1995 55/ **Reynolds and Weiss, 1992** 555 Shim et al., 2005 556Taub, 1982 557Vanegas and Schaible, 2004 558Watkins and Maier, 2002 559Weiss et al., 1996 560 Zhao et al., 2003 561

Acknowledgments

This study was supported by Fundação para a Ciência e Tecnologia 563 (FCT) Project no. POCTI/NSE/46399/2002, FEDER and Fundação 564 Calouste Gulbenkian Project no. 74551. Leonor Gonçalves is a PhD 565 Fellow supported by FCT. 566

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