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(Principal Investigator: Chantelle Ferland-Beckham, PhD)***

Module 2, Video 7: Housing considerations when using male and female animals

Concept introduction: Recent pushes to improve preclinical reproducibility have emphasized that all experimental conditions be transparently reported, including those related to rearing and testing. The home cage environment is often an overlooked source of experimental variability that can have profound effects on how animals behave outside of the cage [1]. Some of these home cage conditions have different effects in males and females. In this video, we will discuss examples of home cage housing conditions that demonstrate how the context can matter by introducing phenotypic variation in males and females both within and across cages.

Deciding whether to house your animals individually or in same-sex pairs or small groups may be the most important of all the housing variables to consider. This decision is often made based on the experimental aims. As social animals, most rodents are well adapted to living in a group and social contact with conspecifics is important for their overall well-being [1]. However, sometimes single housing is used as an experimental design modification to, for example, obtain accurate behavioral measurements during home cage monitoring or ensure the safety of animals following a surgical procedure. If you choose to house your animals individually, it is important to consider that physical and social isolation can produce stress, especially when done chronically. These effects are widely documented in rodents and other social animals and can be expressed as variations in physiology [5-8]. Stress can also be manifested via changes in anxiety and depression phenotypes as well as altered learning and memory.

The effects of isolation are different between males and females and may depend upon the developmental time period, with effects in adulthood skewed towards females and effects post-weaning and adolescence skewed towards males [8-24].

When social isolation is necessary, the different effects on males and females should be accounted for as a potential confounder, particular during development. Alternatively, some mitigation strategies have been proposed including allowing for olfactory, visual and auditory contact with conspecifics [25] or providing environmental enrichment [26].

On the other end of the spectrum, group housing may also lead to unintended phenotypic variation in males and females. There are two primary concerns of group housing. The first is unintentional crowding through either a decrease in spatial density or an increase in social density. In rat studies where the available space was decreased and the number of rats per group was increased, males showed greater HPA responsivity; in contrast, females subjected to the same changes showed either no effects or even positive effects of crowding [27-29]. High housing density has also been suggested to either cause or exacerbate the prevalence of barbering, a repetitive abnormal behavior indicating social stress, especially among female mice [30, 31].

The second concern of group housing is aggressive behavior associated with the establishment and maintenance of social hierarchies. Across species, social hierarchies and aggression are typically studied in the context of male inter-sexual competition, with greater competition leading to higher aggression in males. This aggression can lead to large inter-cage variations in phenotypic expression, with greater effects in male subordinates [32]. Fewer studies have examined the role of hierarchies on phenotypic variation in females, outside of the specific case of the maternal defense of offspring.

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But other group-housed females also form hierarchies, which should be accounted for in design and analysis.

Another important point to consider is whether or not males and females should be housed in separate rooms in the animal care facility. Generally, there are two reasons to argue against this strategy. First, cross-room comparisons are limited when males and females in the same experiment are kept in separate rooms. This is because subtle room-to-room environmental variations cannot be accounted for statistically. However, if the experimental conditions dictate that males and females be housed in separate rooms, replicate batches must be used where the rooms for males and females are switched between the batches to control for between room variables.

Second, the presence of male pheromones is needed for proper female hormone cycling and reproductive viability [35-44]. For example, females housed in groups and isolated from male odors exhibit a prolongation or suppression of the estrous cycle [33, 34] and delayed puberty in juvenile animals.

The presence of cycling females is also needed for proper androgen and sperm production in male mice [45]. In addition, ovarian synchrony in females can be induced by either housing female rats together with males in the same cage or in the same room with airborne olfactory cue exposure [46, 47]; similar findings have been observed in other species [48, 49].

Breeders, however, should always be housed separately from experimental animals for two main reasons. First, female mice exposed to urine from pregnant or lactating females have longer periods of estrus than mice exposed to the urine of single housed females [50]. Second, smelling the urine of an unfamiliar male can block embryo implantation early in pregnancy [51-52], resulting in a return to ovulation.

As demonstrated in this video, the context in which an animal is housed can have wide-reaching implications on experimental outcomes. Males and females can have different behavioral and neurochemical changes in response to the same housing conditions. Thus, known and potential sex differences in response to housing conditions should be accounted for in experimental and statistical design.

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Post-weaning, socially isolated rats in a novel well light environment have increased social interaction (aggressive and avoidance behaviors), treatment with anti-anxiety medication reduced aggressive behaviors but did not increase passive interactions. In a familiar, dim-light environment social interaction decreased in socially isolated rats and increased in socially reared rats, anti-anxiety treatment reduced aggressive behavior and increased passive interactions.

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Escape-related behavior correlated with aggressive grooming. Aggressive grooming correlated with pathophysiological response only in males. Females generally had greater escape-related behavior associated with greater pathophysiology regardless of cagemate aggression levels.
7. Martin, A.L. and R.E. Brown, *The lonely mouse: verification of a separation-induced model of depression in female mice*. *Behav Brain Res*, 2010. **207**(1): p. 196-207. [DOI](#)
Isolated housing leads to depressive-like behavior that can be mitigated by antidepressant treatment. However, corticosterone levels were not altered by antidepressant treatment and baseline levels were higher in group-housed than isolated female mice.
8. Hall, F.S., *Social deprivation of neonatal, adolescent, and adult rats has distinct neurochemical and behavioral consequences*. *Crit Rev Neurobiol*, 1998. **12**(1-2): p. 129-62. [DOI](#)
Review covering how the type of social isolation (maternal deprivation vs. peer isolation) and age at time of isolation (neonatal, postweaning, or adulthood) effect the outcomes. Acute social deprivation at any age affects the hypothalamic pituitary axis, norepinephrine, serotonin, and opioids. Adult rat isolation is primarily associated with changes in serotonergic function, aggression and anxiety.
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Following social isolation stress in adolescence rats they were either exposed to an acute stressor, heterotypic stressor (15 min forced swim), or no stressor. In socially stressed male rats the heterotypic stressor increased corticosterone release compared to other males but no differences were observed in depressive-like behavior. In socially stressed females the 45 min after the heterotypic stressor corticosterone release was elevated relative to other females, similarly this group increased depressive-like behavior. These changes did not persist into adulthood.
10. Lukkes, J.L., et al., *Consequences of post-weaning social isolation on anxiety behavior and related neural circuits in rodents*. *Frontiers in behavioral neuroscience*, 2009. **3**: p. 18-18. [DOI](#)
Review that highlights the majority of research from post-weaning social isolation finds altered fear and anxiety behaviors and associated neuroendocrine function and the activity of monoaminergic systems. The increased anxiety behavior is particularly apparent in male rats.
11. Weiss, I.C., et al., *Effect of social isolation on stress-related behavioural and neuroendocrine state in the rat*. *Behav Brain Res*, 2004. **152**(2): p. 279-95. [DOI](#)
Post-weaning social isolation in males but not female rats produced anxiogenic profile and altered hypothalamic-pituitary axis function (higher baseline ACTH levels and enhanced ACTH and corticosterone release following stress).

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12. Pan, Y., et al., *Post-weaning social isolation alters anxiety-related behavior and neurochemical gene expression in the brain of male prairie voles*. *Neurosci Lett*, 2009. **454**(1): p. 67-71. [DOI](#)
Male prairie voles socially isolated for 6 weeks following weaning have increased anxiety-like behavior relative to socially housed counterparts. In addition, socially isolated males had increased mRNA expression for vasopressin, oxytocin, corticotrophin releasing factor, and tyrosine hydroxylase in the paraventricular nucleus of the hypothalamus, which may be regulating the behavioral changes.
13. Lapis, M.D., et al., *Influence of postweaning social isolation in the rat on brain development, conditioned behavior, and neurotransmission*. *Neurosci Behav Physiol*, 2003. **33**(1): p. 13-29. [DOI](#)
Rearing of rats from weaning in social isolation can lead to hippocampal dysfunction. In addition there are persistent behavioral changes observed during young adulthood including hyperactivity in response to novelty and amphetamine, and altered response to conditioning. Rats reared in isolation also have enhanced presynaptic dopamine and serotonin function in the nucleus accumbens associated with decreased presynaptic serotonin function in the frontal cortex and hippocampus. In addition, isolation rearing reduced presynaptic noradrenergic function in the hippocampus, while enhanced presynaptic dopamine function is observed in the amygdala.
14. Westenbroek, C., et al., *Chronic stress and social housing differentially affect neurogenesis in male and female rats*. *Brain Res Bull*, 2004. **64**(4): p. 303-8. [DOI](#)
Footshock stress in individually housed male rats decreased survival of proliferating cells in the dentate gyrus but not socially housed males. In stressed individually housed female rats survival of dentate gyrus cells increased which was prevented by social housing.
15. Bourke, C.H. and G.N. Neigh, *Behavioral effects of chronic adolescent stress are sustained and sexually dimorphic*. *Horm Behav*, 2011. **60**(1): p. 112-20. [DOI](#)
Chronic mixed modality stressor (isolation, restraint, and social defeat) during adolescence in male and female rats. Males had no significant behavioral differences observed in adolescence or adulthood. Female rats exposed to stress had increased depressive-like behavior, hyperactivity and a blunted corticosterone response following an acute forced swim stress during both adolescence and adulthood.
16. McCormick, C.M., et al., *Stress during adolescence enhances locomotor sensitization to nicotine in adulthood in female, but not male, rats*. *Horm Behav*, 2004. **46**(4): p. 458-66. [DOI](#)
Social stress during adolescence enhances adulthood locomotor sensitization to nicotine in female but not male rats. Social stress in adolescence enhanced the adulthood corticosterone response to restraint in male rats previously sensitized with nicotine and decreased corticosterone response in non-sensitized male rats. Females had enhanced corticosterone response following restraint relative to males regardless of group, with the highest response in nicotine sensitized non-stress females.
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Social stress in adolescent females reduced anxiety-like behaviors while having no effect on male rats. When tested in adulthood overall anxiety-like behavior was increased in both males and females; however, estrous cycle influenced anxiety-like behavior in females with reductions during estrous.

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18. Lundberg, S., et al., *Altered corticosterone levels and social play behavior after prolonged maternal separation in adolescent male but not female Wistar rats*. *Horm Behav*, 2017. **87**: p. 137-144. [DOI](#)
Post-weaning isolation shows increased stress effects in male but not female rats as early as adolescence.
19. Leussis, M.P. and S.L. Andersen, *Is adolescence a sensitive period for depression? Behavioral and neuroanatomical findings from a social stress model*. *Synapse*, 2008. **62**(1): p. 22-30. [DOI](#)
Group housed females exhibited more depressive-like behaviors than group-housed males. Social isolation increased depressive-like behaviors in male rats.
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Social conditioned place preference demonstrated in male and female rats in both adolescence and adulthood, with the strongest preference emerging in adolescent males.
21. Rivera-Irizarry, J.K., M.J. Skelly, and K.E. Pleil, *Social Isolation Stress in Adolescence, but not Adulthood, Produces Hypersocial Behavior in Adult Male and Female C57BL/6J Mice*. *Front Behav Neurosci*, 2020. **14**: p. 129. [DOI](#)
Six weeks of social isolation in adolescent C57BL/6J mice produced a hypersocial phenotype in both males and females. Anxiolytic phenotype in the elevated plus maze was observed only in female mice.
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Review indicating more pronounced/understood effects of adolescent social isolation in male vs. female rodents.
23. Lukkes, J.L., et al., *Adult rats exposed to early-life social isolation exhibit increased anxiety and conditioned fear behavior, and altered hormonal stress responses*. *Horm Behav*, 2009. **55**(1): p. 248-56. [DOI](#)
Despite 2 weeks of group-housing, 3 weeks of social isolation starting at p21 increased anxiety-like and fear behavior, and reduced social contact during social interaction tests relative to group-housed counterparts in adulthood. In addition, isolation-reared male rats had depressed levels of plasma corticosterone following restraint stress.
24. Ros-Simó, C. and O. Valverde, *Early-life social experiences in mice affect emotional behaviour and hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis function*. *Pharmacol Biochem Behav*, 2012. **102**(3): p. 434-41. [DOI](#)
CD-1 male mice at p21 were individually-housed for 7 weeks resulting in higher locomotion and anxiety-like behavior than animals in enrichment or socially-housed. In addition, male mice in social isolation had lower basal plasma corticosterone but had an increased response following a stressful event, suggesting enhanced response of the hypothalamic-pituitary axis following stress.
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- Male rats had higher corticosterone levels under crowded conditions, while female rats had higher levels when individually housed. Spatial crowding was the key variable for males, the number of other animals was more important for females.
28. Scalera, G., *Taste preferences, body weight gain, food and fluid intake in singly or group-housed rats*. *Physiol Behav*, 1992. **52**(5): p. 935-43. [DOI](#)
Crowded rats gained less body weight and ate less food than dually or isolated male rats. Crowded rats also drank more water, sweet solution, and total fluid (less salted solution) than dually or singly housed male rats. These results highlight that when appetite, taste, or weight are independent variables, all rats should be housed under the same social and environmental conditions.
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One week of crowding (16/cage) rats reduced body weight and food intake relative to control housing (4/cage). Exploratory behavior in the open field was unaltered by housing condition. 1 day crowding was not sufficient to alter corticosterone levels resting or in response to a cold-swim stressor.
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In CD-1 mice living in stable dominance hierarchies there was no association between social rank and corticosterone or testosterone plasma levels. When social hierarchies had alpha males that socially suppress other group members, testosterone levels in subordinate males were significantly lower than in alpha males. When there are high rates of competitive interactions in hierarchies subordinate males have elevated testosterone relative to socially suppressed subordinate males. Subordinate males living in hierarchies had higher levels of corticosterone than alpha males.
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6

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