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J.R. Gugusheff, Z.Y. Ong, B.S. Muhlhausler

Naloxone treatment alters gene expression in the mesolimbic reward system in 'junk food' exposed offspring in a sex-specific manner but does not affect food preferences in adulthood

Physiology and Behavior, 2014; 133:14-21

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12 August 2015

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1 **Naloxone treatment alters gene expression in the mesolimbic reward system in ‘junk**
2 **food’ exposed offspring in a sex-specific manner but does not affect food preferences in**
3 **adulthood**

4
5 **JR Gugusheff^a, ZY Ong^{a,b} and BS Muhlhausler^{a,b*}**

6
7 ^a FOODplus Research Centre, School of Agriculture Food and Wine, The University of
8 Adelaide, Adelaide 5064, Australia

9 ^b Sansom Institute for Health Research, School of Pharmacy and Medical Science, University
10 of South Australia, Adelaide 5001, Australia

11 **Short title:** Naloxone and postweaning reward system

12
13 ***Please address all correspondence (including reprint requests) to:**

14 Dr Beverly Muhlhausler

15 FOODplus Research Centre

16 School of Agriculture Food and Wine

17 The University of Adelaide

18 Adelaide 5064

19 Australia

20 Phone +61 8 8313 0848

21 Fax: +61 8 8313 7135

22 Email: beverly.muhlhausler@adelaide.edu.au

23
24 **Financial Support:** BM is supported by a Career Development Award from the National
25 Health and Medical Research Council of Australia. JG is supported by Australian
26 Postgraduate Awards. ZO is supported by a President’s Scholarship from the University of
27 South Australia. JG and ZO are the recipients of top-up Scholarships from Healthy
28 Development Adelaide.

29 **Disclosure Statement:** The authors have nothing to disclose.

30

31 **Abbreviations**

32 C, control diet; C-C, offspring exposed to a control diet before weaning and given
33 saline injections; C-N, offspring exposed to a control diet before weaning and given
34 naloxone injections; D1, dopamine receptor 1 ; D2, dopamine receptor 2 ; DAT,
35 dopamine active transporter ; JF, junk food diet; JF-C, offspring exposed to a junk
36 food diet before weaning and given saline injections; JF-N, offspring exposed to a
37 junk food diet before weaning and given naloxone injections; NAc, nucleus
38 accumbens; TH, tyrosine hydroxylase ; VTA, ventral tegmental area.

39

40 **Abstract**

41 We have previously reported that the opioid receptor blocker, naloxone, is less effective at
42 reducing palatable food intake in offspring exposed to a maternal cafeteria diet during the
43 perinatal period, implicating a desensitization of the central opioid pathway in the
44 programming of food preferences. The present study aimed to investigate the effect of a
45 maternal cafeteria diet and naloxone treatment on the development of the mesolimbic reward
46 pathway and food choices in adulthood. We measured mRNA expression of key components
47 of the reward pathway (μ -opioid receptor, proenkephalin, tyrosine hydroxylase, D1 and D2
48 receptors and the dopamine active transporter (DAT)) in the nucleus accumbens (NAc) and
49 ventral tegmental area (VTA) of the offspring of control and cafeteria fed (JF) dams at
50 weaning and after a 10-day naloxone treatment post-weaning; and determined food
51 preferences in adulthood in the remaining offspring. Naloxone treatment decreased the
52 expression of DAT by 8.2 fold in female control offspring but increased it by 4.3 fold in
53 female offspring of JF dams relative to the saline-injected reference groups. Proenkephalin
54 mRNA expression was higher in the NAc of female JF offspring compared to controls,
55 independent of naloxone treatment ($P < 0.05$). There was no effect of naloxone treatment on
56 food preferences in adulthood in either control or JF offspring. These data indicate that
57 prenatal exposure to a cafeteria diet alters the impact of opioid signaling blockade in the early
58 post-weaning period on gene expression in the central reward pathway in a sex specific
59 manner, but that these changes in gene expression do not appear to have any persistent impact
60 on food preferences in adulthood.

61 **Key Words:** opioids, high-fat diet, programming

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66 **1. Introduction**

67 The increased consumption of junk foods is a major contributing factor to the rise in obesity
68 prevalence [1, 2]. The term ‘junk food’ can be used to describe any food that is high in fat,
69 sugar and salt, low in protein and otherwise energy dense and nutrient poor [3]. The ready
70 availability of ‘junk foods’ in modern society makes it important to understand why some
71 people have a greater tendency to over-consume these types of food than others. In this
72 context, it is significant that data from both human and animal studies have shown that food
73 preferences can be established very early in life, and that excessive maternal intake of junk
74 foods during pregnancy and lactation is associated with an increased preference for fat and
75 sugar in juvenile and adult offspring [4, 5].

76 More recently, attempts have been made to understand the mechanisms which contribute to
77 the programming of food preferences, with a particular focus on the impact of perinatal ‘junk
78 food’ exposure on the mesolimbic reward system. We and others have demonstrated that
79 maternal consumption of high-fat and/or cafeteria diets during pregnancy and lactation
80 induces permanent alterations in the structure and function of this system in juvenile and adult
81 offspring [4, 6, 7]. We have previously shown that the mRNA expression of the mu-opioid
82 receptor in the central reward pathway at weaning is reduced by perinatal exposure to a ‘junk
83 food’ diet, and that this was associated with a reduced sensitivity to the effect of the opioid
84 antagonist, naloxone, in reducing fat intake after weaning [8]. These findings led us to
85 hypothesize that the opioid signaling pathway plays a critical role in the early programming of
86 food preferences, and that exposure to excess endogenous opioids during the perinatal period
87 as a result of maternal junk food consumption [9, 10] alters the development of the opioid
88 signaling pathway in the offspring, resulting in persistent effects on the function of the reward
89 system.

90 In the current study, we sought to extend our previous findings by investigating the impact of
91 naloxone administration for a 10 day period after weaning on gene expression of key
92 components of the mesolimbic reward pathway. Specifically, we aimed to determine the

93 effect opioid receptor blockade on the mRNA expression of mu-opioid receptor and the
94 endogenous opioid proenkephalin as well as elements of the dopamine pathway including
95 tyrosine hydroxylase (TH), dopamine receptors 1 and 2 and the dopamine active transporter
96 (DAT), all of which have been previously implicated in the regulation of palatable food
97 intake[11-17]. We hypothesized that opioid receptor blockade would ameliorate the changes
98 in gene expression in the dopamine and opioid pathways we have previously reported in
99 offspring exposed to cafeteria diets during the perinatal period [4, 8]. We also aimed to
100 investigate the hypothesis that opioid antagonist treatment in the immediate post-weaning
101 period would have persistent effects on food preferences in the adult offspring, independent of
102 perinatal dietary exposure.

103 **2. Methods**

104 *2.1 Animals and feeding*

105 This study was approved by the Animal Ethics committee of the University of Adelaide.
106 Details of the experimental procedure have been published previously [8]. Briefly, 37 female
107 and 4 male Albino Wistar rats were allowed to acclimatize to animal housing facility for at
108 least 1 week before the commencement of the dietary intervention. Female rats were divided
109 into either the control (C, $n=18$) or junk food (JF, $n=19$) group, such that the average weight
110 of the animals at the start of the experiment was not different between treatments. The C
111 group received a standard rodent feed (Specialty Feeds, Glen Forrest, WA, Australia), while
112 the JF group received a cafeteria diet that included peanut butter, hazelnut spread, savory
113 snacks, chocolate biscuits, sweetened cereal and a lard and chow mix. Detailed nutritional
114 information on this diet has been published previously [4]. The female rats were provided
115 with their respective diets for two weeks prior to mating and throughout pregnancy and
116 lactation.

117 Females were mated with one of 4 proven males (the same males were used for both groups),
118 that were maintained on a standard rodent feed. Pups were born on day 21-22 of gestation and

119 litters were culled to 8 pups (4 male, 4 female where possible) 24 hours after birth. Pups were
120 housed with their mothers and weighed every second day until weaning at postnatal day 21.
121 The offspring of C and JF dams are referred as C and JF offspring respectively.

122 *2.2 Naloxone treatment*

123 At weaning, pups were either killed for gene expression analysis or housed with a same sex
124 littermate and administered the opioid antagonist naloxone or saline (vehicle). Details of this
125 procedure have been published previously [8]. Briefly, pups were randomly assigned to
126 receive daily intraperitoneal injection of either naloxone, (5mg/kg, naloxone hydrochloride
127 dihydrate, Sigma Aldrich, St Louis, MO USA) or an equivalent volume of saline (vehicle) 30
128 minutes before the onset of the dark cycle for 10 days. Naloxone at this dose has been
129 previously reported to acutely suppress food intake in pre-weaning rat pups [18] and we
130 confirmed in a pilot dose-response study that this dose was the most effective in reducing
131 intake of the cafeteria diet in the immediate post-injection period, without any adverse effects
132 on pup growth/development. All rats were weighed immediately prior to injection to ensure
133 accurate dosage. All offspring were given free access to both the control and cafeteria diet
134 throughout the injection period to allow the determination of food preferences (results
135 previously published [8]). This generated four groups of offspring, offspring of C dams given
136 saline (C-C, $n=15$ male, 16 female), offspring of C dams given naloxone (C-N, $n=16$ male, 16
137 female), offspring of JF dams given saline (JF-C, $n=18$ male, 14 female) and offspring of JF
138 dams give naloxone (JF-N, $n=17$ male, 14 female).

139 *2.3 Determination of gene expression in the NAc and VTA at 3 weeks*

140 Pups not designated to receive the naloxone/saline treatment were killed at weaning and the
141 whole brain was removed (C, $n=10$ male, 8 female and JF, $n=9$ male, 8 female). The nucleus
142 accumbens including both shell and core regions (NAc) and the ventral tegmental area
143 (VTA) were isolated and stored as described previously [4]. Total mRNA was extracted using
144 Trizol reagent (Invitrogen Australia, Mount Waverley, Vic, Australia), purified using an

145 RNeasy Mini kit (Qiagen Australia, Doncaster, Vic, Australia) and cDNA synthesized using
146 Superscript III reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen Australia) and random hexamers.

147 Quantitative real-time RT-PCR was performed on the LightCycler® 480 Real Time PCR
148 System (Roche Diagnostics, Mannheim, Germany) using the SYBR green system. Primer
149 sequences for the mu-opioid receptor and the dopamine related genes: tyrosine hydroxylase
150 (TH), dopamine receptor 1 (D1), dopamine receptor 2 (D2) as well as the dopamine active
151 transporter (DAT) have been previously validated and published [4]. mRNA expression of the
152 reference gene β -actin was measured using the β -actin Quantitect primer assay (Qiagen
153 Australia, Doncaster, Vic, Australia). The amplification efficiency of the primers was 0.997-
154 0.999 and 2 quality controls were added to each plate to verify interplate consistency. The
155 expression of target gene mRNA relative to β -actin expression was calculated using Q-gene
156 qRT-PCR analysis software.

157 *2.4 Determination of gene expression in the NAc and VTA at 3 weeks and 10 days*

158 At the conclusion of the 10 day injection period during which both the standard rodent feed
159 and cafeteria diet were available, a subset of offspring (C-C, $n= 8$ male, 8 female; C-N, $n=8$
160 male, 8 female; JF-C, $n= 9$ male, 8 female; JF-N, $n=9$ male, 8 female) were killed and brain
161 tissue collected. RNA was isolated from the VTA and NAc and cDNA generated as described
162 for the 3wk time point. Quantitative real time PCR was performed using the SYBR green
163 system on the Applied Biosystems ViiA 7 Real-Time PCR machine (Applied Biosystems,
164 Foster City, CA, USA). Target genes were the same as at 3 weeks with the addition of the
165 endogenous opioid proenkephalin. The primer sequences have been previously published [4,
166 19] and the proenkephalin primers were validated for use in our laboratory prior to beginning
167 the experiment. The expression of target genes was quantified relative to three housekeeper
168 genes: β -actin, cyclophilin and GAPDH, using the Applied Biosystems Data Assist software
169 (Applied biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). This software allows expression of each target
170 gene to be measured against the mean normalized expression of the three housekeepers. Two

171 quality controls as well as a negative RT control were used on each 384-well plate to ensure
172 inter-plate consistency and melt curves were obtained at the end of each run.

173 *2.5 Determination of food preferences*

174 Following naloxone/saline treatment, remaining offspring (not used in gene expression
175 analysis) were placed on the standard rodent feed until 10 weeks of age. Offspring (C-C, $n= 7$
176 male, 8 female; C-N, $n=8$ male, 8 female; JF-C, $n= 9$ male, 6 female; JF-N, $n=8$ male, 6
177 female) were then given access to the both the standard rodent feed and the cafeteria diet for a
178 further two weeks until 12 weeks age. The amount of standard rodent feed and each
179 component of the cafeteria diet consumed were assessed every two days and macronutrient
180 preference calculated based on the nutritional composition of each food type. Body weight of
181 the offspring was recorded weekly from weaning.

182 *2.6 Postmortem*

183 At 3 weeks, 3 weeks +10 days and 12 weeks of age, one male and one female pup from each
184 litter was killed for the determination of body fat mass. The rats were not fasted prior to
185 postmortem and all postmortems were conducted in light phase between 8-10 AM. All
186 animals were weighed immediately prior to being killed with an overdose of CO₂. All internal
187 organs were weighed and individual fat depots including retroperitoneal fat, omental fat,
188 gonadal fat, interscapular fat and subcutaneous fat were isolated to determine the weight of
189 each depot as well as total fat mass. All fat depots were snap frozen in liquid nitrogen and
190 stored at -80°C for future molecular analyses. Blood samples were collected by cardiac
191 puncture into heparinized tubes, and blood was centrifuged at 3,500g, 4°C for 15 minutes and
192 plasma stored at -20°C for subsequent analysis of hormone and metabolite concentrations.

193 *2.7 Determination of hormone and metabolite concentrations*

194 Plasma concentrations of glucose and non-esterified fatty acids (NEFA) were analysed using
195 the Infinity Glucose Hexokinase kit (Thermo Electron, Pittsburgh, PA, USA) and the Wako

196 NEFA C kit (Wako Pure Chemical Industries Ltd, Osaka, Japan), respectively. Assays were
197 performed using Konelab 20 (Thermo Scientific, Vantaa, Finland). Plasma leptin and insulin
198 concentrations were measured by immunoassay using the Crystal Chem Rat Leptin ELISA kit
199 (Crystal Chem Inc, Downers Grove, IL, USA) and the ALPCO Insulin (Rat) Ultrasensitive
200 ELISA kit (ALPCO Diagnostics, Salem, NH, USA). All assays were conducted in accordance
201 with manufacturer's instructions and intra- and inter-assay coefficients of variation were
202 <10%.

203 *2.8 Statistical Analysis*

204 Analysis of gene expression, plasma hormones, food preference and fat mass was conducted
205 using a two-way ANOVA with maternal diet and naloxone/saline treatment as factors. The
206 two-way ANOVA was performed using SPSS statistics 18.0 software (SPSS Inc., Chicago,
207 IL, USA). Offspring body weight gain and food intake over time was analysed by two-way
208 repeated measures ANOVA, which was performed on Stata 11 software (StataCorp., TX,
209 USA). Male and female offspring were analysed separately for all measures to provide clarity
210 in presentation, as three-way ANOVA analysis using sex as an additional factor revealed a
211 significant interaction between sex and treatment for the majority of outcomes measured. All
212 data are presented as mean±SEM with a *P* value of <0.05 considered statistically significant.

213 **3. Results**

214 *3.1 Effect of maternal diet on birth outcomes*

215 Birth outcomes including birth weight of these offspring has been previously published [8].
216 Both male (C= 53.7±1.7g, JF=45.0±1.1g, *P*<0.01) and female offspring (C=52.3±1.6g,
217 JF=43.9±0.8g) of JF dams were significantly lighter at birth than their control counterparts
218 [8].

219

220

221 *3.2 Effect of maternal diet on target gene expression in the VTA and NAc at weaning*

222 As published previously, mRNA expression of the mu-opioid receptor at weaning was lower
223 in the VTA of both male and female JF offspring, and higher in the NAc of male, but not
224 female, JF offspring compared to C offspring [8]. There was no effect of perinatal diet
225 exposure on DAT expression in the VTA (Table 1), whilst in the NAc DAT expression was
226 lower in the offspring of JF dams compared to controls in both males and females ($P<0.05$,
227 Table 1). There was no difference in the mRNA expression of TH or the D1 and D2 dopamine
228 receptors in either brain region between the control and JF offspring in either males or
229 females (Table 1).

230 **Table 1.** Mean normalized gene expression of dopamine related genes in the VTA and NAc of the male and female offspring of C and JF dams at 3 weeks of age

		<i>Male</i>		<i>Female</i>	
Parameter		C	JF	C	JF
	TH	480.0±100.0	410.0 ±100.0	530.0±100.0	610.0±200.0
VTA	D1	0.7±0.2	0.7±0.2	0.7±0.3	0.3±0.1
	D2	100.0±20.0	100.0±20.0	100.0±20.0	140.0±30.0
	DAT	344.5±70.0	432.9±61.8	441.9±79.0	621.2±125.5
	TH	0.5 ±0.1	0.6 ± 0.1	0.6 ± 0.2	0.4±0.1
NAc	D1	30.0±5.0	30.0 ± 4.2	40.0±7.5	40.0 ±7.4
	D2	70.0 ±9.4	70.0 ±10.0	50.0 ±8.5	70.0 ±7.8
	DAT	0.10±0.04	0.04±0.01*	0.20±0.08	0.05±0.02*

Values expressed as mean ± SEM, $n=8-10$ for all groups. * indicates significant differences between groups, $P<0.05$. Values were multiplied by one thousand for ease of presentation

231 *3.3 Effect of naloxone treatment on target gene expression in the VTA and NAc in control and*
232 *JF offspring*

233 *3.3.1 Mu-opioid receptor and proenkephalin*

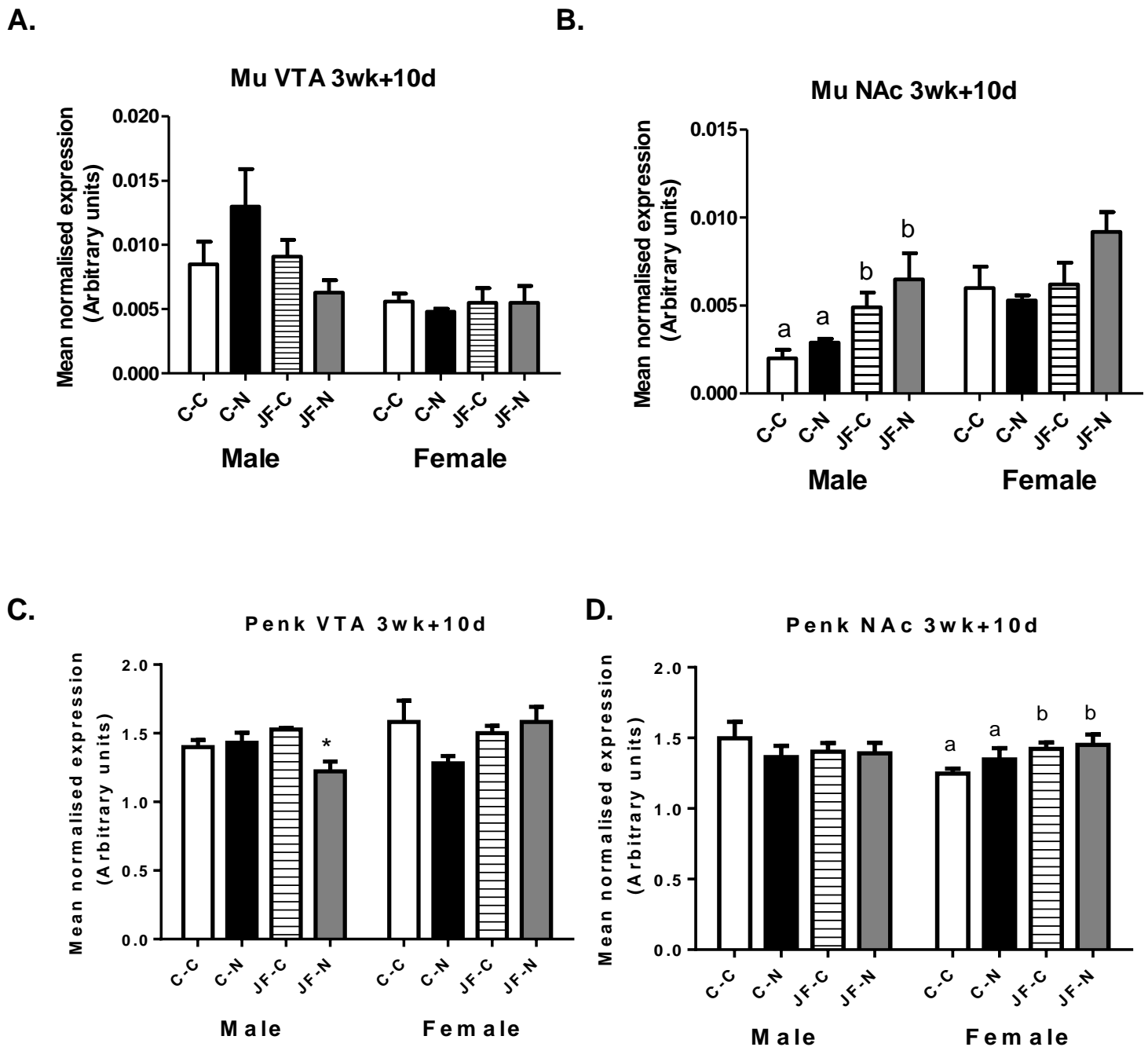
234 There was no effect of naloxone treatment on mu-opioid receptor expression in the VTA of
235 either male or female C or JF offspring (Fig. 1A). The mRNA expression of the mu-opioid
236 receptor in the NAc was higher in male JF offspring compared to controls ($P<0.05$), and also
237 tended ($P=0.07$) to be higher in female JF offspring, independent of whether they received
238 naloxone or saline (Fig. 1B).

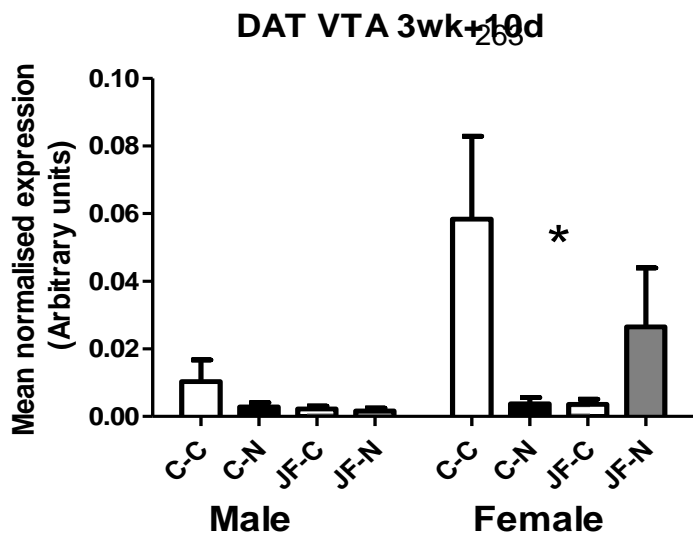
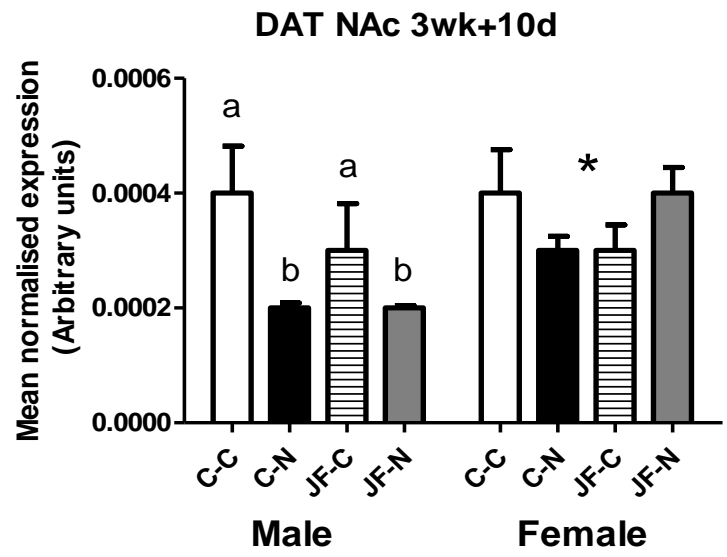
239 The effect of naloxone treatment during the post-weaning period on mRNA expression of the
240 endogenous opioid, proenkephalin, in the VTA of male offspring was influenced by perinatal
241 diet, such that mRNA expression was reduced by naloxone treatment only in those offspring
242 exposed to a JF diet before weaning ($P<0.05$, Fig 1C). There was no effect of either perinatal
243 diet or naloxone treatment on proenkephalin mRNA expression in the NAc of male offspring
244 (Fig. 1C). In females, there was no effect of either naloxone treatment or perinatal diet on
245 proenkephalin mRNA expression in the VTA. Proenkephalin expression in the NAc,
246 however, was significantly higher in female JF offspring compared to control offspring
247 independent of naloxone treatment ($P<0.05$, Fig. 1D).

248 *3.3.2 DAT, TH and the D1 and D2 dopamine receptors*

249 In female offspring, the effects of naloxone treatment on DAT expression in both the VTA
250 and NAc was dependent on perinatal dietary exposure; such that DAT expression was
251 decreased by naloxone treatment in C offspring but increased by naloxone treatment in JF
252 offspring in both brain regions ($P<0.05$, Fig. 1E, F). In male offspring, naloxone treatment
253 decreased DAT expression in the NAc of both C and JF offspring ($P<0.05$, Fig. 1F), but there
254 was no effect of either perinatal dietary exposure or naloxone treatment on DAT mRNA
255 expression in the VTA (Fig. 1E).

256 **Figure 1** Expression of the mu-opioid receptor, proenkephalin (Penk) and DAT in the VTA
 257 (A, C, E) and NAc (B,D, F) in the male and female offspring of control dams given saline (C-
 258 C, open bars) or naloxone (C-N, closed bars) and offspring of junk food dams given saline
 259 (JF-C, striped bars) or naloxone (JF-N, grey shaded bars) at 3 weeks +10 days. Results
 260 presented as mean±SEM. $n=8-9$ pups for all groups. Different letters above the bars denote
 261 significant differences between groups $P<0.05$. * indicates a significant interaction between
 262 maternal diet and naloxone/saline treatment.



F.**F.**

264 There was no effect of either perinatal diet or naloxone treatment on TH, D1 or D2 mRNA
265 expression in male offspring in either the NAc or VTA. In contrast, TH and D2 mRNA
266 expression was decreased in the VTA of female JF offspring compared to C offspring,
267 independent of naloxone treatment (Table 2). Naloxone treatment also reduced D1 receptor
268 expression in the VTA, but not NAc, of female JF offspring. In contrast D1 and D2 receptor
269 expression in the NAc was decreased by naloxone treatment in C offspring (Table 2).

270 *3.4 Effect of maternal diet and naloxone on plasma hormone and metabolite concentrations at*
271 *3 weeks +10 days*

272 There was no effect of either perinatal diet or naloxone treatment on plasma concentrations of
273 glucose, NEFA, insulin or leptin at 10 days postweaning in either male or female offspring
274 (Table 3).

275 *Effect of maternal diet and naloxone treatment on offspring growth and food intake*

276 From weaning (day 21) until 12 weeks of age (day 90) both male ($P<0.05$, Fig. 2A) and
277 female ($P<0.05$, Fig. 2B) JF offspring were significantly lighter than C offspring. There was
278 no effect of naloxone treatment on body weight at any time point during the experiment in
279 either C or JF offspring

280 As previously reported, during the 10 day naloxone treatment post-weaning, when all
281 offspring had free access to both the cafeteria diet and standard laboratory chow female, but
282 not male, JF offspring consumed more fat and energy than their control counterparts [8].

283 From the end of the 10 day naloxone treatment (3weeks + 10 days of age) until 10 weeks of
284 age all offspring were fed standard laboratory chow. For the first 4 weeks on the chow diet
285 both male and female offspring of JF dams had significantly higher food intake than C
286 offspring independent of whether they had been treated with saline or naloxone ($P<0.05$, Fig,
287 4A,B). An interaction was present between perinatal diet and postnatal week, such that the
288 difference in food intake between C and JF offspring decreased with increasing postnatal age.

289 In male offspring only, there were no longer any significant differences in food intake
290 between C and JF offspring by the fifth week on the chow diet (10 postnatal weeks) (Fig. 3A).
291 Chow intake in female offspring remained significantly higher than C offspring throughout
292 this period ($P < 0.05$, Fig. 3B).

293

294 **Table 2.** Mean normalized gene expression of dopamine related genes in the VTA and NAc of male and female offspring of C and JF dams treated with saline or naloxone at 3weeks and 10 days

Parameter	<i>Male</i>				<i>Female</i>				
	C-C	C-N	JF-C	JF-N	C-C	C-N	JF-C	JF-N	
VTA	TH	20.0±7.1	3.10±1.3	10.0±2.7	8.50±5.3	30.0±9.1 ^a	8.6±2.2 ^a	1.1±1.1 ^b	1.2±0.4 ^b
	D1	1.3±0.3	2.1±0.6	1.5±0.2	1.4±0.4	0.6±0.1	0.6±0.2	0.9±0.1	0.5±0.1 [*]
	D2	20.0 ±2.7	20.0 ±2.7	20.0 ±3.1	20.0±2.0	20.0±1.3 ^a	20.0±2.2 ^a	10.0±3.4 ^b	10.0±1.5 ^b
NAc	TH	0.5±0.1	0.5±0.1	0.4±0.1	0.5±0.1	0.6±0.1	0.8±0.1	0.5 ±0.1	0.5 ±0.1
	D1	30.0±9.1	30.0±5.3	40.0±8.8	50.0±10.0	30.0 ±3.8	10.0 ±1.8 [*]	30.0 ±3.8	30.0±4.0
	D2	50.0±10.0	90.0±20.0	60.0±10.0	50.0±10.0	120.0±10.0	50.0 ±7.6 [*]	70.0 ±20.0	80.0 ±8.2

Values expressed as mean±SEM, $n= 8-9$ for all groups. Values have been multiplied by one thousand for ease of presentation. Different superscript letters denote significant differences between groups within each sex * indicates interaction between maternal diet and naloxone treatment, $P<0.05$

295 **Table 3.** Plasma concentrations of glucose, NEFA, insulin and leptin in male and female offspring of C and JF
 296 dams treated with either saline or naloxone at 3wk+10days

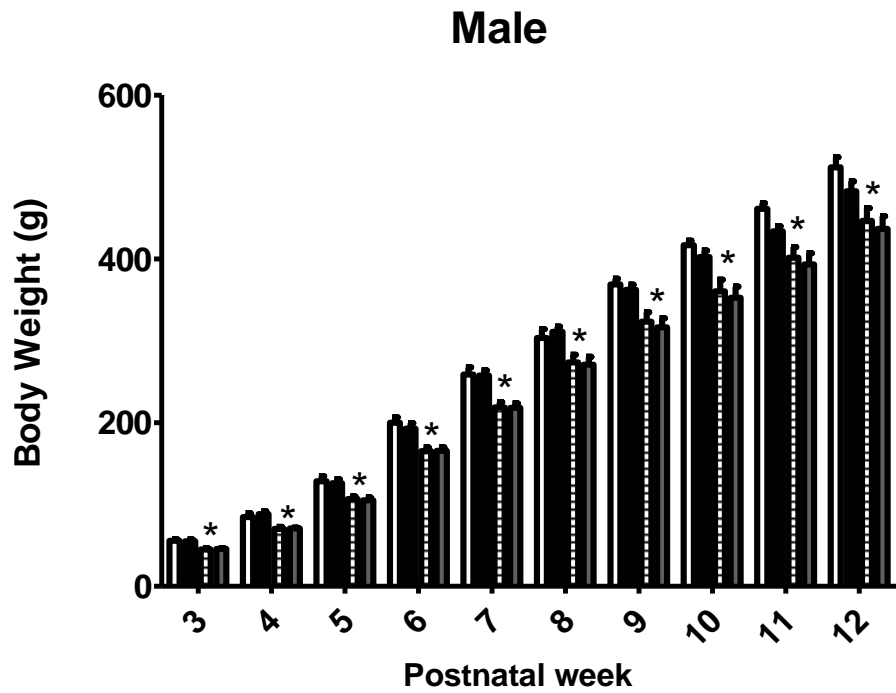
Parameter	<i>Male</i>				<i>Female</i>			
	C-C	C-N	JF-C	JF-N	C-C	C-N	JF-C	JF-N
Glucose (mM)	7.5±0.52	7.6±0.51	7.9±0.34	8.2±0.42	9.1±1.17	7.8±0.24	7.6±0.48	8.9±1.13
NEFA (meq/ml)	0.3±0.03	0.3±0.03	0.3±0.04	0.3±0.04	0.4±0.06	0.3±0.05	0.4±0.05	0.3±0.08
Insulin (µU/ml)	0.4±0.10	0.4±0.06	0.4±0.11	0.6±0.13	0.3±0.10	0.7±0.17	0.6±0.16	0.7±0.20
Leptin (µg/L)	9.9±0.93	12.5±1.16	9.4±1.12	10.8±0.65	11.1±0.75	11.7±1.27	10.9±0.90	10.2±1.44

Values expressed as mean±SEM, *n*= 8-9 for all groups.

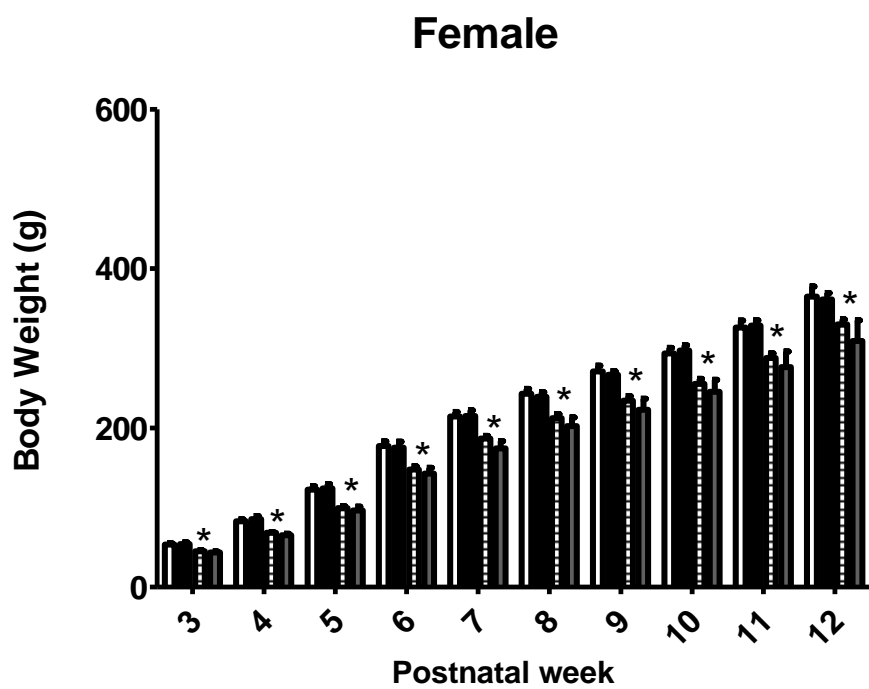
297 **Figure 2** Body weight of male (A) and female offspring of control dams given saline (C-C,
 298 open bars) or naloxone (C-N, closed bars) and offspring of junk food dams given saline (JF-
 299 C, striped bars) or naloxone (JF-N, grey shaded bars) from postnatal week 3 to postnatal week
 300 12. $n=6-8$ animals for all groups, results presented as mean \pm SEM. * indicates a significant
 301 effect of maternal diet on offspring body weight $P<0.05$

302

A.



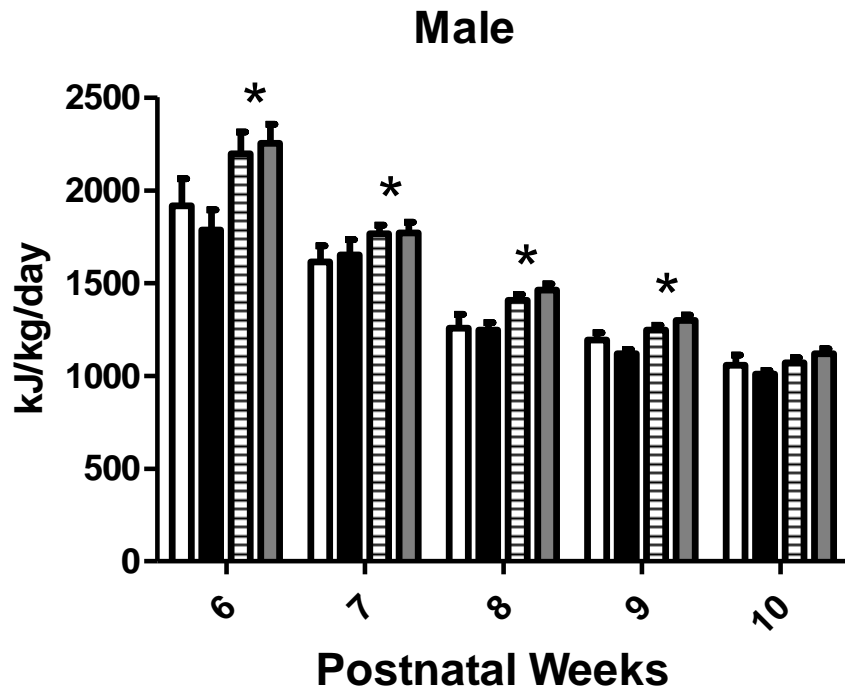
B.



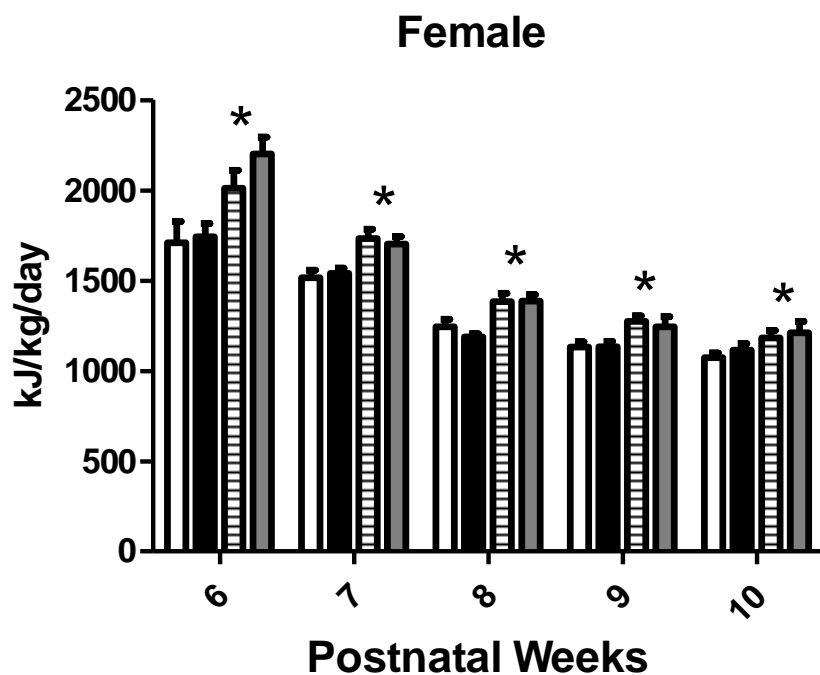
303 **Figure 3** Intake of total energy from standard laboratory chow of male (A) and female (B)
 304 offspring of control dams given saline (C-C, open bars) or naloxone (C-N, closed bars) and
 305 offspring of junk food dams given saline (JF-C, striped bars) or naloxone (JF-N, grey shaded
 306 bars) from postnatal week 6 to postnatal week 10. Results presented as mean±SEM, $n=6-8$
 307 animals for all groups. * indicates a significant effect of maternal diet on offspring energy
 308 intake $P<0.05$.

309

A.



B.



310 *3.5 Effect of maternal diet and naloxone treatment on offspring food preference and body*
311 *composition*

312 When all offspring were provided with free access to both the control and cafeteria diet for
313 two weeks from 10-12 weeks of age, there was no difference in food intake between groups in
314 either males or females. Thus, neither perinatal diet nor naloxone treatment had any effect on
315 the intake of fat, carbohydrate, protein or total energy during this period (Table 4). There was
316 also no difference between groups in the intake of any individual component of the cafeteria
317 diet or the control diet in either males or females (data not shown).

318 At 12 weeks of age, there was no significant differences in the percentage of total body fat
319 mass between C and JF offspring nor any effect of naloxone treatment in either males (C-C
320 $16.5 \pm 0.95\%$, C-N $16.0 \pm 0.64\%$, JF-C $14.2 \pm 0.72\%$, JF-N $14.8 \pm 0.57\%$) or females (C-C
321 $19.3 \pm 0.10\%$, C-N $19.0 \pm 0.78\%$, JF-C $18.5 \pm 0.13\%$, JF-N $18.7 \pm 0.15\%$).

322

323 **Table 4.** Average daily macronutrient intake of control and junk food offspring treated with either saline or naloxone, when given access to both the control and JF diet from 10-12 weeks of age

Parameter	Male				Female			
	C-C	C-N	JF-C	JF-N	C-C	C-N	JF-C	JF-N
Fat (g/kg/day)	16.5±0.47	14.9±1.29	17.1±0.66	16.6±0.55	19.2±0.48	18.4±1.06	19.6±0.62	20.3±0.72
Carbohydrate (g/kg/day)	37.9±0.76	35.4±2.08	38.8±1.69	39.9±1.30	43.7±1.20	43.9±1.91	44.6±3.00	44.8±2.17
Protein (g/kg/day)	9.3±0.32	8.5±0.53	9.0±0.35	9.0±0.36	9.6±0.21	9.8±0.30	9.2±0.50	9.5±0.43
Energy (kJ/kg/day)	1411.0±18.72	1289.2±81.97	1415.1±48.40	1422.1±35.39	1578.9±21.14	1564.2±56.10	1601.5±72.11	1637.8±68.69

Values expressed as mean±SEM, *n*= 6-8 for all groups.

324 4. Discussion

325 This study has shown that administration of the opioid antagonist naloxone for 10 days after
326 weaning alters the gene expression of key components of the opioid and dopamine signaling
327 pathways in the mesolimbic reward system in a sex-specific manner. Importantly, the effects
328 of naloxone treatment on a number of these genes were dependent on whether pups had been
329 exposed to a cafeteria ('junk food') diet during the perinatal period. The differences in gene
330 expression at the end of the period of naloxone treatment were not, however, associated with
331 altered food preferences in adulthood in either C or JF offspring. Thus, perinatal junk food
332 exposure alters the short-term response of the reward pathway to opioid receptor blockade in
333 the immediate post-weaning period, but opioid receptor blockade during this time does not
334 appear to cause persistent alterations in food preferences, independent of the perinatal diet.

335 *4.1 Maternal JF consumption and naloxone treatment for 10 days postweaning can alter gene* 336 *expression in the reward pathway of offspring*

337 In the present study, we found no difference in expression of the mu-opioid receptor in the
338 VTA between C and JF offspring at 10 days after weaning, independent of whether the
339 offspring had been treated with naloxone or saline during this period. This is different to the
340 situation at weaning, at which time mu-opioid receptor expression in the VTA is lower in JF
341 offspring than controls [8]. In interpreting these findings, it is important to note that all
342 offspring, independent of their perinatal nutrition, were provided with free access to the
343 cafeteria diet during the 10 day period of naloxone/saline treatment. One possible explanation,
344 therefore, is that a 10 day period of junk food exposure after weaning was sufficient to induce
345 a down-regulation of mu-opioid receptor expression to the same level as in offspring who
346 were also exposed to junk food during the perinatal period. In males, mu-opioid receptor
347 expression in the NAc was increased in JF offspring both at weaning [8] and after the 10 day
348 naloxone/saline treatment. Increases in expression of the mu-opioid receptor in the NAc have
349 also been observed in the adult offspring of JF-fed dams, suggesting that this is a persistent

350 consequence of perinatal exposure to a palatable diet [6]. These results also highlight that the
351 response to perinatal dietary exposures varies between specific brain regions. It is possible
352 that the increased mu-opioid expression in the NAc is a result of chronic exposure to the
353 cafeteria diet during the development of the reward pathway, since chronic sugar
354 consumption has been previously reported to increase mu-opioid receptor expression in this
355 brain region in adult rats [20].

356 Interestingly, we found no effect of naloxone treatment on mu-opioid expression in either the
357 NAc or VTA. This was unexpected given that naloxone treatment in rodents prior to weaning
358 has previously been shown to increase mu-opioid receptor levels in the striatum [21, 22].
359 However, in these prior studies naloxone treatment was given from birth and receptor levels
360 were measured using radio-labelled binding analysis which may have contributed to the
361 incongruent results. It is also possible, however, that the availability of the cafeteria diet
362 during the period of naloxone exposure, and the associated stimulation of endogenous opioid
363 production, was sufficient to counteract the effect of opioid receptor blockade, thus resulting
364 in a maintenance of receptor expression.

365 While there were no differences in the expression of the mu-opioid receptor in the NAc
366 between control and JF offspring in females, mRNA expression of the endogenous opioid,
367 proenkephalin, was increased in this brain region in female JF offspring, but was not affected
368 by naloxone treatment. This is consistent with previous studies in which exposure to a high-
369 fat and/or high-sugar diet was reported to increase the release of endogenous opioids [9, 10].
370 It is possible that the higher proenkephalin expression in female JF offspring was a
371 consequence of their higher fat intake in the 10 days post-weaning, since previous studies
372 have reported positive associations between proenkephalin expression and fat consumption in
373 adult rodents [23]. In male offspring, proenkephalin mRNA expression was reduced by
374 naloxone treatment in offspring of JF dams, but not in offspring of control dams. Given that
375 opioid receptor blockade is typically associated with a compensatory up regulation of
376 endogenous opioids [24], this result suggests that perinatal junk food exposure alters the

377 subsequent response of the reward pathway to opioid receptor blockade, indicating a potential
378 dysregulation of opioid signaling in these offspring.

379 *4.2 Female offspring more are more susceptible to the effects of maternal JF diet and*
380 *naloxone treatment on the dopamine pathway*

381 The majority of the effects of perinatal junk food exposure and naloxone treatment on
382 components of the dopamine signaling pathway were confined to female offspring, with the
383 dopamine active transporter (DAT) being the only gene affected in both sexes.

384 At weaning (prior to naloxone/saline treatment), DAT mRNA expression in the NAc was
385 decreased in JF offspring compared to controls in both males and females. This result is
386 consistent with previous studies in our laboratory, in which DAT mRNA expression at 6
387 weeks of age was reduced in offspring exposed to a junk food diet during the perinatal period
388 [4]. Since DAT is primarily responsible for the reuptake of dopamine from the synapse, and
389 therefore terminating the dopamine signal, the lower DAT mRNA expression would be
390 expected to result in increased dopamine signaling in the JF group. Interestingly, there were
391 no longer any differences in DAT mRNA expression between the control and JF offspring at
392 the end of the 10 day period of naloxone/saline treatment. Again, it is possible that exposure
393 of the control offspring to junk food during this period could have resulted in reduced DAT
394 mRNA expression. Interestingly, we saw no effect of either naloxone treatment or perinatal
395 junk food exposure on DAT expression in the VTA, which is considered to be the main site of
396 DAT activity [25, 26], however the significance of this finding remains unclear.

397 We found that naloxone treatment reduced expression of DAT in the NAc of male offspring
398 and in the VTA and NAc of female control offspring. Opioid receptor blockade has
399 previously been shown to lower extracellular dopamine concentrations [27, 28], which may
400 have elicited a compensatory downregulation of DAT in order to maintain dopamine
401 signaling. Given that the naloxone treatment was applied at a time when the reward pathway
402 is still undergoing development, and that dopamine plays an important role in the ontogenic

403 increase in DAT mRNA expression, an alternate explanation may be that naloxone treatment
404 inhibited this normal developmental process [29, 30]. Interestingly, in female JF offspring
405 naloxone treatment increased DAT expression in both the VTA and NAc. This unexpected
406 response to opioid receptor blockade may suggest a dysregulation of the reward pathway in
407 these animals as a result of early life exposure to a junk food diet.

408 In female offspring, but not in males, the expression of TH, D1 and D2 receptor mRNA was
409 decreased by naloxone treatment in offspring exposed to the junk food diet during the
410 perinatal period. Decreases in the expression of elements of the dopamine pathway have been
411 previously associated with chronic cafeteria diet consumption [31, 32], whilst opioid
412 antagonism has been shown to reduce extracellular dopamine levels [27, 33]. Different
413 responses to exogenous opioids between sexes has also been widely reported in adults [34,
414 35] and may be due to differences in levels of gonadal hormones between males and females,
415 as estrogen is known to contribute to the regulation of the endogenous opioid system [36].

416 *4.3 Maternal JF consumption increases offspring chow intake during the juvenile period but*
417 *did not affect palatable food intake in adult hood*

418 In the present study both male and female JF offspring exhibited an increased intake of
419 standard rodent feed throughout the juvenile period (6-9 weeks) compared to controls. This
420 hyperphagia was most marked immediately after weaning, and became less pronounced with
421 increasing postnatal age. The presence of hyperphagia in offspring exposed to an increased
422 supply of fat and/or sugar during the perinatal period has been widely reported in previous
423 studies [37, 38], and is thought to be a consequence of programming of the central appetite
424 regulating circuits [19].

425 However, contrary to our hypothesis, we found no effect of opioid receptor blockade post-
426 weaning on food preferences in adulthood, independent of perinatal junk food exposure. Since
427 the development of the reward circuitry extends into the fourth postnatal week in rodents [39,
428 40], one explanation for the lack of effect observed may be that the junk food exposure after

429 weaning was sufficient to program an increased preference for fat in adult control offspring
430 equivalent to that induced by exposure to the cafeteria diet for the entire perinatal period. This
431 is supported by data from a previous study, in which mice exposed to a palatable diet only
432 during the fourth week of life were found to exhibit a greater preference for palatable foods as
433 adults when compared to animals who had never been exposed to the palatable diet [41].
434 Furthermore, in our study, naloxone treatment was only administered at concentrations
435 (5mg/kg) capable of reducing food intake for two hours post injection [42, 43]. The acute
436 nature of the treatment may have limited any long term effects, since a previous study has
437 identified changes in feeding behavior in juvenile rats which were treated with the opioid
438 antagonist naltrexone (which is capable of reducing food intake for 6hrs post-injection [44]))
439 from birth until weaning [45].

440 *4.4 Conclusions*

441 We have shown for the first time that opioid receptor blockade induced by naloxone
442 administration immediately post weaning alters gene expression in the reward pathway in a
443 sex-specific manner, and that these effects are altered by perinatal junk food exposure.
444 Contrary to our initial hypothesis, however, opioid receptor blockade in the fourth week of
445 life did not have any long term effects on food preferences. These findings add to the growing
446 body of literature suggesting that the developing opioid and dopamine pathways are
447 susceptible to alteration by palatable food exposure during the perinatal period, but further
448 studies are required in order to determine whether alterations to the opioid signaling system
449 are the biological basis for the changes in food preferences observed. Better understanding the
450 mechanisms behind the programming of food preferences will be vital if we hope to design
451 interventions to prevent the cycle of obesity from mother to child from continuing.

452 *Acknowledgements*

453 The authors acknowledge the expert assistance of Pamela Sim with animal protocols.
454 The authors would also like to thank John Carragher for editorial assistance.

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