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CHRONIC INTERMITTENT ETHANOL EXPOSURE LEADS TO ALTERATIONS IN BRAIN-DERIVED NEUROTROPHIC FACTOR WITHIN THE FRONTAL CORTEX AND IMPAIRED BEHAVIORAL FLEXIBILITY IN BOTH ADOLESCENT AND ADULT RATS[☆]

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Abstract—Chronic intermittent exposure to ethanol (EtOH; CIE) that produces binge-like levels of intoxication has been associated with age-dependent deficits in cognitive functioning. Male Sprague–Dawley rats were exposed to CIE (5 g/kg, 25% EtOH, 13 intragastric gavages) beginning at three ages: early adolescence (postnatal day [PD] 28), mid-adolescence (PD35) and adulthood (PD72). In experiment 1, rats were behaviorally tested following CIE. Spatial memory was not affected by CIE, but adult CIE rats were impaired at acquiring a non-spatial discrimination task and subsequent reversal tasks. Rats exposed to CIE during early or mid-adolescence were impaired on the first reversal, demonstrating transient impairment in behavioral flexibility. Blood EtOH concentrations negatively correlated with performance on reversal tasks. Experiment 2 examined changes in brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) levels within the frontal cortex (FC) and hippocampus (HPC) at four time points: during intoxication, 24 h after the final EtOH exposure (acute abstinence), 3 weeks following abstinence (recovery) and after behavioral testing. HPC BDNF levels were not affected by CIE at any time point. During intoxication, BDNF was suppressed in the FC, regardless of the age of exposure. However, during acute abstinence, reduced FC BDNF levels persisted in early adolescent CIE rats, whereas adult CIE rats displayed an increase in BDNF levels. Following recovery, neurotrophin levels in all CIE rats recovered. Our results indicate that intermittent binge-like EtOH exposure leads to acute disruptions in FC BDNF levels and long-lasting behavioral deficits. However, the type of cognitive impairment and its duration differ depending on the age of exposure. © 2017 Published by Elsevier Ltd on behalf of IBRO.

INTRODUCTION

Adolescent and early adult alcohol drinking has been linked to development of alcohol use disorders, which can lead cognitive deficits and behavioral problems (Crews et al., 2007; Spear and Swartzwelder, 2014; Risher et al., 2015). Early adolescent ethanol (EtOH) exposure appears to solidify an adolescent-like behavioral phenotype in adulthood, which includes impulsivity, impaired behavioral flexibility, and increased anxiety (Semenova, 2012; Vetreno and Crews, 2012; Risher et al., 2013; Coleman et al., 2014; Gass et al., 2014; Mejia-Toiber et al., 2014). However, mid-adolescent and adult chronic intermittent exposure to ethanol (CIE) has also been associated with deficits in attention, reversal learning and extinction learning (Slawewski, 2006; Kuzmin et al., 2012; Broadwater et al., 2014; Badanich et al., 2016). Thus, further examination of the long-term effects of EtOH exposure across early adolescence into early adulthood is critical for understanding the unique age-specific effects of CIE on cognition and neural adaptation.

Binge-like EtOH exposure, particularly during adolescence, leads to reductions in neurogenesis in the hippocampus (HPC), decreased gliogenesis in the frontal cortex (FC), as well as a loss of forebrain cholinergic neurons (Crews and Nixon, 2009; Koss et al., 2012; Broadwater et al., 2014; Vetreno and Crews, 2015). Such pathology is believed to be caused by EtOH-mediated induction of neuroimmune genes within the FC and HPC that persist into adulthood (Vetreno and Crews, 2012; Crews et al., 2015). Ethanol-induced activation of proinflammatory signaling in the brain can lead to neurodegeneration through exacerbated oxidative stress and excitotoxicity. As such, damage to both the FC, such as decreases in myelination, and neural degeneration in the HPC, visualized using an amino-culpric silver technique, have been observed following adolescent CIE exposure (Crews et al., 2000; Vargas et al., 2014; Vetreno et al., 2014).

Neurotrophins are key modulators of neurodegeneration associated with aging and disease. It has been shown that prenatal and adult chronic EtOH exposure alters levels of neurotrophin, such as brain-

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Abbreviations: ANOVA, analysis of variance; BDNF, brain-derived neurotrophic factor; CIE, Chronic intermittent exposure to ethanol; ELISA, enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays; EtOH, ethanol; FC, frontal cortex; HPC, hippocampus.

55 derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF), in the FC and HPC
56 (Miller et al., 2002; Davis, 2008; Nixon and McClain,
57 2010; Mooney and Miller, 2011; Vedder et al., 2015).
58 However, few studies have assessed neurotrophin
59 expression after adolescent CIE and the results are variable
60 (Briones and Woods, 2013; McClain et al., 2014;
61 Sakharkar et al., 2016). One key factor in alcohol-
62 associated neurotrophin dysfunction is the timing or stage
63 of the disease process during which neurotrophin mea-
64 sures are assessed (see Davis, 2008).

65 Our goal was to determine an ontogenetic profile across
66 early adolescence into early adulthood regarding the effect
67 of binge-like EtOH exposure on hippocampal and frontal
68 cortical neurotrophin adaptation. We employed a CIE model
69 in early adolescent, mid-adolescent and young adult rats.
70 In experiment 1, following a 3-week EtOH-free recovery
71 period, which matured both early and mid-adolescent rats
72 to adulthood, spontaneous alternation and a non-spatial
73 discrimination task with reversals were conducted to
74 determine deficits in hippocampal-dependent spatial
75 memory and frontocortical-dependent cognitive flexibility.
76 Since BDNF has been shown to modulate neuroadaptation,
77 we examined the effects of CIE on mature BDNF levels in
78 the FC and HPC in experiment 2. BDNF levels were
79 measured at differing time points during CIE: During the
80 final EtOH exposure (intoxication), 24 h after the final
81 EtOH exposure (acute abstinence), 3 weeks following
82 final EtOH exposure (recovery) and post-behavioral testing.

83 EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

84 Subjects

85 Early Adolescent (PD28), mid-adolescent (PD35), and
86 adult (PD65–78) male Sprague–Dawley rats were
87 obtained from litters bred at Binghamton University. No
88 more than one rat from each litter was randomly
89 assigned within each treatment condition.

90 Rats were pair housed in a temperature- (20 °C) and
91 humidity-controlled colony under a 12-h light/dark cycle
92 (onset at 7:00 am). Rats were provided with *ad libitum*
93 access to lab chow and water. During CIE treatment,
94 rats were weighed on each treatment dosing date. After
95 CIE, rats were weighed on a weekly basis to ensure
96 normal weight gain and health. Experimental procedures
97 were in compliance with the National Institutes of Health
98 (NIH) Guide for Care and Use of Laboratory Animals
99 and approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use
100 Committee (IACUC) at the State University of New York
101 at Binghamton.

102 Experiment 1: Behavioral testing and BDNF 103 measurement

104 Rats at each age range were randomly divided into CIE
105 (Early Adolescent: $n = 10$; Mid-adolescent: $n = 9$;
106 Adult: $n = 9$) and water-treated control groups (Early
107 Adolescent: $n = 10$; Early Adolescent: $n = 11$; Adult:
108 $n = 10$). Three weeks following CIE cessation, rats
109 were behaviorally tested. This cohort also served as the
110 time-point 4 (behaviorally tested) cohort in Experiment

2. Fig. 1 demonstrates a schematic of the exposure and
treatment timeline.

Chronic intermittent ethanol treatment

For both experiments 1 and 2, adolescent and adult rats
were subject to 13 intragastric gavages of either 25%
EtOH (v/v) or water, administered at a dose of 5 g/kg.
The dosing schedule followed a modified 2-day on/off
cycle, where animals were dosed once per day for
2 days, followed by a 2-day recovery period until the
12th gavage. The final gavage (#13) was administered
2 days following gavage #12. Blood samples were
collected via a small incision in the lateral tail vein
30 min to an hour following the first, fifth, and final
gavage. Blood collection occurred during the time
course when BEC levels would be increasing, but not at
peak intoxication (Livy et al., 2003; Quertemont et al.,
2003). Plasma was separated using a centrifuge and
stored at $-20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ until blood ethanol content (BEC) levels
were measured using an AM1 Alcohol Analyzer (Analox
Instruments, MA, USA). Throughout treatment, all ani-
mals gained weight, and there was no significant effect
of CIE treatment on animal weights.

Following the cessation of CIE, rats in experiment 1
had a 3-week recovery period, during which they were
weighed and handled once per week. Prior to the start
of behavioral testing, rats were food restricted to 90%
of their free feed weight over the course of 5 days to
induce searching and digging motivation. Spontaneous
alternation testing occurred first, followed by training in a
multiple phase, non-spatial discrimination task. Fig. 1
illustrates the exposure protocol.

Spontaneous alternation

Details for our spontaneous alternation protocol can be
found in Fernandez et al., 2016. In brief, rats were tested
once for spontaneous alternation behavior in a plus maze
(105.5 cm \times 14.4 cm \times 15 cm) with clear, plastic walls
and black, wooden floors. The animal was habituated to
the testing room for 20 min, after which it was placed on
the center of the maze. Each rat explored the maze for
18 min. Arm entries were recorded during testing, and
percent alternation scores were analyzed. An alternation
was defined as entry into four different arms in a succes-
sive sequence. Spontaneous alternation scores were cor-
rected to account for significant differences in activity
between groups: arm entries were only recorded up to
27 possible arm entries, which was the average number
of arm entries made by the lowest activity group (adults).
The normalization of percent alternation scores is
adapted from Savage (2012) and Fernandez et al. (2016).

Non-spatial discrimination learning and reversal task

Details regarding the non-spatial discrimination and
reversal task can be found in Fernandez et al. (2016). In
brief, the day after spontaneous alternation testing, rats
began dig training in their home cage. Ceramic bowls
were filled with wood shavings and baited with Cheerios.

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