

1 **Environmental enrichment mitigates**  
2 **the long-lasting sequelae of perinatal fentanyl exposure**  
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16

## Abstract

17 The opioid epidemic is a rapidly evolving societal issue that stems from the use of  
18 prescription and illicit opioids, including increasing use of synthetic opioids like fentanyl.  
19 Fentanyl use among women has increased substantially in the last decade, leading to a  
20 40-fold increase in the number of perinatally-exposed infants. This exposure can result  
21 in neuropsychiatric abnormalities that persist into adolescence and, in some cases,  
22 adulthood. We previously developed a preclinical model to establish the consequences  
23 of perinatal fentanyl exposure and identified a pattern of synaptic pathophysiology that  
24 involves lasting impairments in primary somatosensory (S1) circuit function and  
25 behavior. Here, we ask if these long-lasting effects can be restored by a non-invasive  
26 intervention. We demonstrate that developmental exposure to environmental  
27 enrichment ameliorates many of fentanyl's deleterious behavioral effects, including  
28 hyperactivity, enhanced sensitivity to anxiogenic environments, and sensory  
29 maladaptation in C57BL/6J mice. As an extension of our past work, we find that  
30 perinatal fentanyl alters the frequency of miniature excitatory postsynaptic currents and  
31 impairs long-term potentiation in S1 layer 2/3 neurons. These deficits in synaptic  
32 function were restored by environmental enrichment. Environmental enrichment also  
33 affected neurons in control mice, reducing long-term potentiation and depression, and  
34 increasing frequency of miniature excitatory postsynaptic currents. These results  
35 demonstrate that the lasting effects of fentanyl can be ameliorated with a non-invasive  
36 intervention introduced during early development. These findings can inform efforts to  
37 mitigate the consequences of opioid use among pregnant women.

38

39 **Keywords:** Perinatal opioid exposure; fentanyl; environmental enrichment; plasticity;  
40 somatosensory cortex; anxiety; attention deficit hyperactivity disorder; adolescence;  
41 intervention

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43

## Significance Statement

44 Children and adolescents exposed to opioids during perinatal development have a  
45 higher risk of developing neuropsychiatric disorders. Here, we employ a preclinical  
46 model of perinatal fentanyl exposure that recapitulates these long-term impairments,  
47 and show that environmental enrichment can reverse deficits in somatosensory circuit  
48 function and behavior when introduced early in postnatal development. These findings  
49 have the potential to directly inform and guide ongoing efforts to mitigate the  
50 consequences of perinatal opioid exposure.

51

## Introduction

52 The prevalence of opioid use disorder has steadily increased since the early 1990s, with  
53 women representing more than one-third of opioid users in the United States  
54 (Degenhardt et al., 2018 {30392731}). While opioid overdose deaths were initially driven  
55 by misuse of prescription opioids (like morphine) and their illicit counterparts (e.g.,  
56 heroin), synthetic opioids, such as fentanyl, are now the main catalyst of overdose  
57 deaths (O'Donnell et al., 2017 {29095804}; Jannetto et al., 2019 {30305277}). Just  
58 among women 30-34 years of age, the rate of these overdose deaths have increased  
59 35-fold in the last two decades (from 0.31 to 11 deaths per 100,000; VanHouten et al.,  
60 2019 {30629574}). Opioid use by pregnant women is a growing public health concern,  
61 with a 400% increase in the number of infants born to opioid-using mothers (from 1.5 to  
62 6.5 per 1000 infants born; Haight et al., 2018 {30091969}). Opioid use during pregnancy  
63 increases the risk of miscarriage, premature birth, and stillbirth (Whiteman et al., 2014  
64 {25254116}) whereas the infants who are born suffer from neonatal opioid withdrawal  
65 syndrome (NOWS; Winkelman et al., 2018 {29572288}). Often, NOWS is met with  
66 morphine, methadone, and buprenorphine treatment immediately after birth (Sutter et  
67 al., 2014 {24845493}), likely further compounding the developmental consequences of  
68 perinatal opioid exposure itself.

69 Longitudinal clinical studies indicate an increased risk of developing psychiatric  
70 conditions among children with a history of *in utero* and iatrogenic opioid exposure  
71 (Sherman et al., 2019 {30453858}). Specifically, these children have a higher incidence  
72 of anxiety (Cubas and Field, 1993 {7683453}), attention-deficit hyperactivity (Ornoy et  
73 al., 2001 {11665823}; Nygaard et al., 2016 {27336798}; Schwartz et al., 2021  
74 {33557208}), autism spectrum (Sherman et al., 2019 {30453858}), and sensory  
75 processing disorders (Kivistö et al., 2014 {25354289}). Impairments in sensory  
76 processing is of particular interest because it is a common symptom in syndromes like  
77 attention-deficit hyperactivity and autism spectrum disorders (Ayres, 1964 {14116444};  
78 Robertson and Baron-Cohen, 2017 {28951611}). While infants suffering from NOWS  
79 typically receive treatment for the acute symptoms of opioid withdrawal, there is virtually  
80 no treatment approaches specifically designed to address the other  
81 neurodevelopmental consequences that these children face across their lifetime.

82 Environmental enrichment in rodents can reverse early neurodevelopmental insults  
83 (Nithianantharajah and Hannan, 2006 {16924259}) and improve cognitive (Rijzingen et  
84 al., 1997 {9013497}; Passineau et al., 2001 {11259125}) and emotional functioning  
85 later in life (Brenes et al., 2009 {18786573}). This is due in part to the restoration of  
86 synaptic plasticity (Bayat et al., 2015 {26474515}) and neurogenesis (Gaulke et al.,  
87 2005 {16171896}), which are believed to re-establish neuronal complexity (Wei et al.,  
88 2021 {33940517}) via brain-derived neurotrophic factor signaling (Chen et al., 2005  
89 {16084663}). While the synaptic benefits of environmental enrichment are often  
90 ascribed to its actions within corticolimbic circuitry, some of the most fundamental  
91 studies to establish its importance to synaptic efficacy took place within the  
92 somatosensory cortex (Smail et al., 2020 {32659243}). We previously showed that  
93 perinatal fentanyl exposure increases anxiety-like behavior and impairs synaptic  
94 transmission in anterior cingulate- and primary somatosensory (S1) cortex (Alipio et al.,  
95 2021a {32187805}, 2021b {33853934}). Because environmental enrichment can reduce

96 anxiety-like behavior and restore the functional integrity of cortical circuits (Brenes et al.,  
97 2009 {18786573}; Wei et al., 2021 {33940517}), we hypothesized that environmental  
98 enrichment would mitigate the behavioral and synaptic deficits of perinatal fentanyl  
99 exposure.

100

## Materials and Methods

101 *Animals.* All procedures were reviewed and approved by the University of Maryland  
102 Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee and adhered to the National Institutes of  
103 Health guide for the care and use of laboratory animals and Animal Research Reporting  
104 of In Vivo Experiments guidelines. Male and female C57BL/6J mice were used and bred  
105 in our temperature and humidity-controlled vivarium. When copulatory plugs were  
106 identified, we removed the sires and added fentanyl (10 µg/mL in 2% saccharin) or  
107 vehicle control (2% saccharin) to the water hydration pouches for *ad libitum* access by  
108 dams. Offspring were weaned at postnatal day (PD) 21 and housed 2-5 mice/cage/sex  
109 in standard housing, or 6-8 mice/cage/sex in enriched housing. Enriched housing was  
110 custom made from two One Cage 2100™ Micro-Isolator systems (Lab Products LLC,  
111 Seaford, DE). Enriched housing had a floor area of 420 in<sup>2</sup> and included a variety of  
112 solid items for the mice to interact with (Fig 1. and Table 1). Food and water were  
113 available *ad libitum* and lights were maintained on a 12-hour cycle (0700 lights-on).  
114 Mice were tested in the open field test on PD 45 and in the tactile withdrawal test on PD  
115 47. Slice experiments took place from PD 48-55.

116 *Statistical Analyses.* We adhered to accepted standards for rigorous study design and  
117 reporting to maximize the reproducibility and translational potential of our findings as  
118 described in Landis et al. (Landis et al., 2012 {23060188}) and in ARRIVE Guidelines  
119 (Kilkenny et al., 2010 {20649561}). Dams were randomly allocated to receive fentanyl or  
120 vehicle. In all our experiments, the primary end points were prospectively defined for  
121 each experiment. All experimenters were blind to treatment conditions throughout data  
122 collection, scoring, and analysis. Statistical analyses were conducted using Prism v9  
123 (GraphPad, San Diego, CA) and the minimum sample size was determined using  
124 G\*Power Software Suite (Heinrich-Heine, Universität Düsseldorf). Statistical  
125 significance was defined as  $p < 0.05$ . No significant sex differences were observed for  
126 any of the experimental outcomes, thus, data from male and female mice were  
127 combined. There were no differences between mice of different litters within the same  
128 drug exposure group, therefore, individual mice served as a single sample count. For  
129 electrophysiology data, all neurons from a single mouse were averaged and served as a  
130 single sample count (Editorial, 2018). Student's *t*-tests were used for two-group  
131 comparisons and the effect size was determined using Cohen's *d* and defined as small  
132 ( $\leq 0.2$ ), medium ( $\leq 0.5$ ), or large ( $\geq 0.8$ ). Two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was  
133 used when drug condition (vehicle vs. fentanyl) and housing condition (standard vs.  
134 enriched) were independent variables. Three-way repeated-measures ANOVA was  
135 used when drug condition, housing condition, and time (repeated-measure) were  
136 independent variables. When a significant main effect and/or interaction was observed,  
137 Tukey *post-hoc* tests were used to assess pairwise comparisons and partial eta  
138 squared ( $\eta^2$ ) was used to determine if the effect size of the comparison was small ( $\leq$   
139 0.01), medium ( $\leq 0.06$ ), or large ( $\geq 0.14$ ). Fisher's exact tests were used for contingency  
140 occurrence of plasticity (LTP vs. no LTP; LTD vs. no LTD) and *odds ratio* was used to

141 determine if the effect size was small ( $\leq 1.49$ ), medium ( $\leq 3.45$ ), or large ( $\geq 9$ ). Kruskal-  
142 Wallis tests were used for cumulative probability plots and  $P\eta^2$  was used to determine  
143 effect size of those comparisons. Nonparametric alternatives were used if the data did  
144 not pass Spearman's test for heteroscedasticity and D'Agostino-Pearson omnibus K2  
145 test of distribution normality. For two-group nonparametric comparisons, Glass' *delta* or  
146 Hedges' *g* were used to determine if the effect size was small ( $\leq 0.2$ ), medium ( $\leq 0.5$ ),  
147 or large ( $\geq 0.8$ ) whereas  $P\eta^2$  was used to determine the effect size when three or more  
148 groups were being compared.

149 *Open Field Test* was used to assess general locomotor activity and anxiety-like  
150 behavior. Mice habituated to the testing room for at least 1-hr before the testing session  
151 began. Mice were individually placed in an open field arena (49 x 49 x 49 cm; San  
152 Diego Instruments, San Diego, CA) along the outside edge, facing the wall, and were  
153 allowed to freely explore the chamber for 30-min. The testing room was dimly lit with  
154 warm incandescent floor lamps and the center floor of the chamber read  $\sim 30$  lux. The  
155 test was recorded by an overhead digital camera, and distance traveled (cm) and time  
156 spent in the center (defined as 50% of the center area) were automatically scored using  
157 TopScan Software (CleverSys Inc, Reston, VA). Reduced time spent in the center zone  
158 of the arena is considered an anxiety-like response in this task.

159 *Tactile Hind Paw Withdrawal Test* was used to assess sensory threshold and  
160 adaptation. Mice habituated to the testing room for at least 1-hr before the testing  
161 session began, and were habituated to an elevated clear plexiglass box with a mesh  
162 bottom for 10 min. We applied von Frey filaments of increasing forces (in grams: 0.16,  
163 0.40, 0.60, 1.00, 1.40, 2.00) to the plantar surface of the hind paw. A response was  
164 defined as an active withdrawal of the paw from the probing filament. The filament was  
165 applied to the same paw throughout the test. We used the up-down method to  
166 determine withdrawal threshold, as previously described (Dixon, 1965; Chaplan et al.,  
167 1994 {7990513}; Deuis et al., 2017 {28932184}). To assess sensory adaptation, we  
168 applied a von Frey filament one step above threshold to the plantar surface of the hind  
169 paw, opposite to the hind paw used during tactile sensitivity testing. The filament was  
170 applied once every 30 s until the animal stopped responding. The number of times the  
171 animals responded was counted, with persistent responding to tactile stimulation  
172 indicating sensory maladaptation

173 *Drugs and Solutions.* Dams' water hydration pouches contained either 10  $\mu\text{g/mL}$   
174 fentanyl citrate (calculated as free base) in 2% (w/v) saccharin or 2% saccharin (vehicle  
175 control), replenished weekly until litters were weaned on PD 21. Artificial cerebrospinal  
176 fluid (ACSF) compositions and slice preparations were based on slice collection  
177 methods of Ting et al. (Ting et al., 2014 {25023312}) *N*-methyl-D-glucamine (NMDG)  
178 ACSF contained (in mM): 92 NMDG, 30  $\text{NaHCO}_3$ , 20 HEPES, 25 glucose, 5 Na-  
179 ascorbate, 2 thiourea, 1.25  $\text{NaH}_2\text{PO}_4$ , 2.5 KCl, 3 Na-pyruvate, 0.5  $\text{CaCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$  and 10  
180  $\text{MgSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ . Holding ACSF contained (in mM): 120 NaCl, 2.5 KCl, 1.25  $\text{NaH}_2\text{PO}_4$ , 24  
181  $\text{NaHCO}_3$ , 12.5 glucose, 2  $\text{MgSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , and 2  $\text{CaCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ . Recording ACSF contained  
182 (in mM): 120 NaCl, 3 KCl, 1  $\text{NaH}_2\text{PO}_4$ , 25  $\text{NaHCO}_3$ , 20 glucose, 1.5  $\text{MgSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , and  
183 2.5  $\text{CaCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ . ACSF pH was adjusted to 7.4 and osmolarity to  $305 \pm 2$  mOsm. All  
184 ACSF solutions were saturated with carbogen (95%  $\text{O}_2$  and 95%  $\text{CO}_2$ ). Patch pipettes  
185 contained (in mM): 130 cesium methanesulfonate, 10 HEPES, 1 magnesium chloride,

186 2.5 ATP-Mg, 0.5 EGTA, 0.2 GTP-Tris, 5 QX-314, and 2% biocytin. The pH of the  
187 internal pipette solution was adjusted to 7.3 and osmolarity to  $290 \pm 2$  mOSm. To isolate  
188 excitatory postsynaptic currents (EPSCs), gabazine (1  $\mu$ M) was included in the ACSF.  
189 For miniature EPSC (mEPSC) recordings, tetrodotoxin (1  $\mu$ M) was included in the  
190 ACSF. All recordings were obtained at room temperature.

191 *Slice Preparation.* Mice were deeply anesthetized with intraperitoneal injection of  
192 ketamine (180 mg/kg) and xylazine (20 mg/kg) then transcardially perfused with ice-cold  
193 (4 °C) NMDG ACSF. Their brains were rapidly extracted following decapitation. Coronal  
194 slices (300  $\mu$ m thick) containing the primary somatosensory cortex (S1) were cut in ice-  
195 cold (4 °C) NMDG ACSF using a Leica VT1200s vibratome (Leica Biosystems, Buffalo  
196 Grove, IL) and transferred to warm (33 °C) NMDG ACSF for 10 min. The slices were  
197 then transferred to warm (33 °C) holding ACSF and allowed to cool to room temperature  
198 (20-22 °C) for at least 45 min before electrophysiology recordings.

199 *Electrophysiology.* Whole cell patch-clamp recordings were obtained from S1 layer 2/3  
200 neurons with a Multiclamp 700B amplifier (Molecular Devices, San Jose, CA) low-pass  
201 filtered at 1.8 kHz with a four-pole Bessel filter, and digitized with Digidata 1440A  
202 (Molecular Devices). Slices were placed in a submersion chamber and continually  
203 perfused (>2 mL/min) with recording ACSF. Neurons were visually identified by infrared  
204 differential interference contrast imaging and location and neuronal morphology verified  
205 after each recording with biocytin immunohistochemistry. Borosilicate patch pipettes  
206 had an impedance of 4-6 M $\Omega$ . Once G $\Omega$  seal was obtained, neurons were held in  
207 voltage-clamp configuration at -70 mV and the input resistance, resting membrane  
208 potential, and capacitance were measured. Series resistance (<30 M $\Omega$ ) was monitored  
209 throughout recordings and recordings were discarded if series resistance changed by  
210 >20% from baseline. Concentric bipolar tungsten electrodes were used to deliver  
211 electrical stimulation (0.2 ms duration) in S1 layer 5, below the recorded neuron.  
212 Electrically-evoked current responses were recorded at 1.5-fold threshold, defined as  
213 the minimum stimulation intensity required to produce a visible current response beyond  
214 baseline noise.

215 Long-term potentiation (LTP) was induced using a pairing induction protocol: 80  
216 stimulation pulses at 2 Hz paired with postsynaptic depolarization to +30 mV (Zhao et  
217 al., 2005 {16157280}; Toyoda et al., 2009 {19664265}). Long-term depression (LTD)  
218 was induced using low frequency stimulation: 900 stimulation pulses at 1 Hz. The  
219 occurrence of LTP or LTD was assessed by comparing the average EPSC amplitude  
220 from 5-10 min of the baseline to 25-30 min after the plasticity induction protocol. EPSC  
221 responses to electrically evoked paired pulse stimulation (50 ms intervals) were  
222 recorded after the 10 min baseline and again 30 min after the plasticity induction  
223 protocol. The paired pulse ratio (PPR) was obtained by averaging the mean amplitude  
224 of the second EPSC by that of the first (Kim and Alger, 2001 {11739571}). We recorded  
225 and analyzed 3 min long segments of mEPSCs. Autodetection parameters for inclusion  
226 of events was determined by calculating minimum threshold: root mean square (RMS)<sup>2</sup>  
227  $\times 1.5$ . To control for oversampling and unequal sample size between groups, we  
228 performed quantile sampling of mEPSC frequency and amplitude by computing 29  
229 evenly spaced quantile values from each neuron, starting at the 1<sup>st</sup> percentile and  
230 ending at the 94.2<sup>th</sup> percentile, with a step size of 3.33% (Hanes et al., 2020

231 {32312887}). Data acquisition was performed using Clampex and analyzed with  
232 Clampfit (Molecular Devices). Mini Analysis software (Synaptosoft, USA) was used to  
233 analyze mEPSC recordings.

234

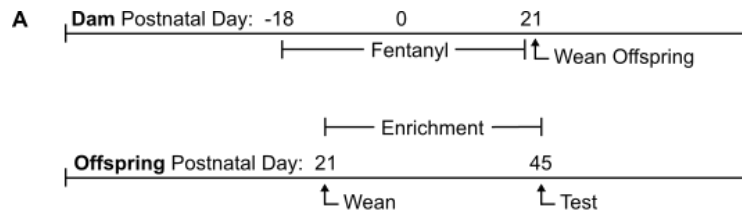
235

## Results

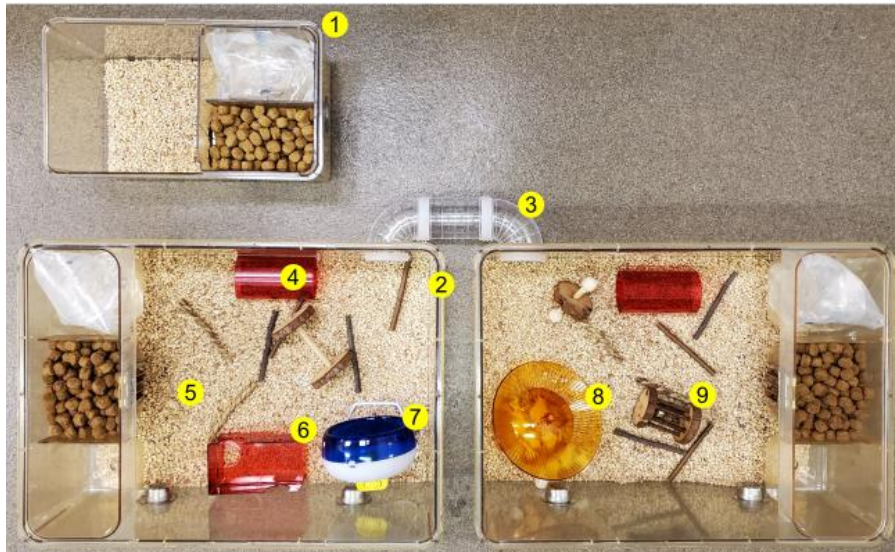
### 236 Perinatal fentanyl exposure

237 We administered fentanyl citrate (10  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ ) in the drinking water of pregnant mouse  
238 dams throughout their pregnancy and until their litters were weaned at postnatal day  
239 (PD) 21 (Fig. 1A). We chose 10  $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$  since it is the optimal concentration mice will  
240 readily self-administer without producing motor deficits (Wade et al., 2008 {18495108},  
241 2013 {24260176}) and is well below the mouse oral LD50 (fentanyl citrate MSDS,  
242 Cayman Chemical, Ann Arbor, MI). We have recently found that perinatal treatment with  
243 10  $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$  results in behavioral and synaptic deficits in adolescent mice (Alipio et al.,  
244 2021b {33853934}). Offspring were weaned into either standard or enriched housing  
245 environments (Fig. 1, Table 1).

246



**B**



247

**Figure 1. Experimental timeline of exposure to perinatal fentanyl and postnatal housing conditions.** (A) Timeline depicting fentanyl exposure of mouse dams throughout pregnancy until weaning of offspring on postnatal day (PD) 21. (B) Offspring were weaned into standard (top cage) or enriched (bottom cage) housing conditions until behavioral (PD 45/47) and electrophysiological (PD 48-55) analyses took place. Enrichment items are numbered (1-9) and listed in Table 1.

248

**Table 1** Product information for individual housing items

| Item | Description                      | Product Info                     | Company           |
|------|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|-------------------|
| 1    | Standard housing                 | Mouse 750™ ventilated cage       | Lab Products      |
| 2    | Environmental enrichment housing | One Cage 2100™                   | Lab Products      |
| 3    | Connecting tunnel                | DIY clear tunnel                 | POPETPOP          |
| 4    | Tunnel                           | Bio-Serv™ Mouse Tunnel           | Fisher Scientific |
| 5    | 1" deep bedding                  | Corn Cob Bedding                 | Lab Supply        |
| 6    | Platform                         | Bio-Serv™ Mouse Retreat          | Fisher Scientific |
| 7    | Standing running wheel           | Silent Spinner Wheel 4.5"        | Kaytee            |
| 8    | Dome and plate running wheel     | Bio-Serv™ InnoDome and InnoWheel | Fisher Scientific |
| 9    | Variety chew toys                | Small animal chew toys           | Niteangel         |

249

## 250 **Environmental enrichment reverses the sustained behavioral deficits that are** 251 **induced by perinatal fentanyl exposure**

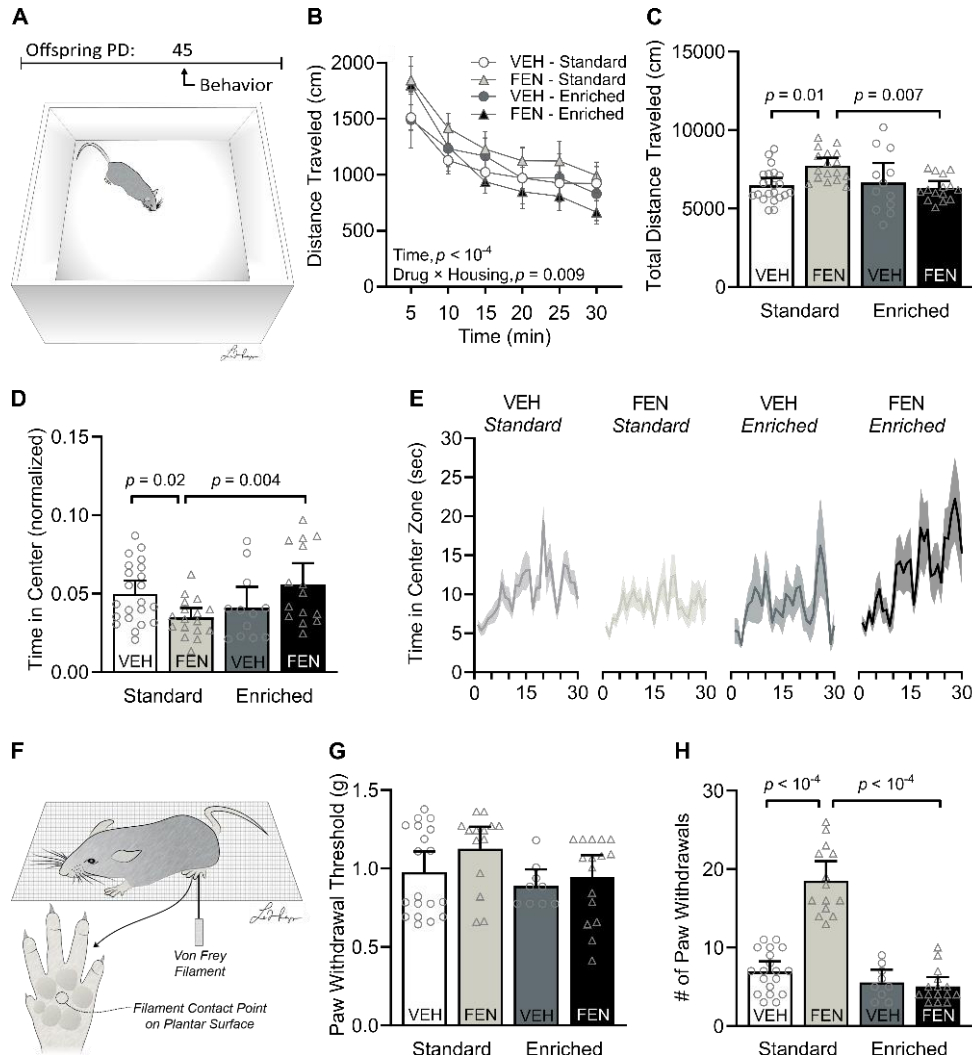
252 **Hyperactivity.** We used the open field test (Fig. 2A) to examine general locomotor  
253 behavior of adolescent mice perinatally exposed to either vehicle or fentanyl, raised in  
254 either standard or an enriched housing environment (Fig. 2B-C;  $n = 15-20$  mice per  
255 group). All mice habituated to the open field over time, in that distance traveled  
256 progressively decreased over the course of the procedure (Fig. 2B;  $F(3.7, 233.7) =$   
257  $119.70, p < 10^{-4}, P\eta^2 = 0.65, large\ effect$ ). There was a significant time  $\times$  drug (Three-  
258 way ANOVA,  $F(5, 310) = 6.69, p < 10^{-4}, P\eta^2 = 0.09, medium-effect$ ) and drug  $\times$  housing  
259 interaction ( $F(1, 62) = 7.07, p = 0.009, P\eta^2 = 0.10, medium-effect$ ). There was a  
260 significant drug  $\times$  housing interaction in total distance traveled (Fig. 2C; Two-way  
261 ANOVA,  $F(1, 62) = 7.07, p = 0.01, P\eta^2 = 0.10, medium-effect$ ), with fentanyl-exposed,  
262 standard-housed mice exhibiting higher total distance traveled than vehicle-exposed,  
263 standard-housed mice (Tukey's post hoc,  $p = 0.01$ , Cohen's  $d = 1.23, large-effect$ ).  
264 While environmental enrichment did not influence locomotor behavior on its own (i.e., in  
265 vehicle-exposed mice; Tukey's post hoc,  $p = 0.97$ ), it attenuated the hyperactivity of  
266 mice perinatally exposed to fentanyl (Tukey's post hoc,  $p = 0.007$ , Cohen's  $d = 1.58,$   
267  $large-effect$ ). These data suggest that perinatal fentanyl exposure leads to hyperactivity  
268 and that environmental enrichment can reverse this effect without itself perturbing  
269 locomotor behavior.

270 **Anxiety-like behavior.** To test our prediction that environmental enrichment will  
271 attenuate anxiety-like behavior, we assessed time spent in the center zone during the  
272 open field test (Fig. 2D;  $n = 15-20$  mice per group; Kruskal-Wallis test,  $H = 10.17, p =$   
273  $0.01, P\eta^2 = 0.01, small-effect$ ). Fentanyl-exposed, standard-housed mice spent less  
274 time in the center zone than did vehicle-exposed, standard-housed mice (Dunn's post



275 hoc,  $p = 0.02$ , Glass'  $\delta = 0.79$ , *medium-effect*), and this, too, was selectively  
276 reversed by environmental enrichment (Dunn's post hoc,  $p = 0.004$ , Glass'  $\delta = 0.88$ ,  
277 *large-effect*). The observation that enrichment improves center-zone exploration of  
278 fentanyl-exposed mice is notable, given the sustained hyperlocomotor/anxiogenic effect  
279 induced by fentanyl under standard-housing conditions. This is further evidenced by  
280 fentanyl-exposed, standard-housed mice spending less time in the center zone over the  
281 course of the procedure relative to their enriched-housed fentanyl-exposed counterparts  
282 (Fig. 2E; Kruskal-Wallis test,  $H = 14.80$ ,  $p = 0.002$ ,  $P\eta^2 = 0.01$ , *small-effect*; Dunn's post  
283 hoc,  $p = 0.01$ , Glass'  $\delta = 1.15$ , *large-effect*), with the hyperlocomotor phenotype  
284 promoting center zone entries among fentanyl-exposed, standard-housed. These data  
285 suggest that environmental enrichment reduces anxiety-like behavior in adolescent  
286 mice that were perinatally exposed to fentanyl.

287 **Sensory adaptation.** We tested sensory adaptation, a reduction in sensitivity to  
288 repeated stimuli, by applying von Frey filaments to the plantar surface of the hind paw  
289 (Fig. 2F-H;  $n = 11-19$  mice per group). To test whether mice can sense tactile stimuli,  
290 we assessed hind paw withdrawal to threshold stimulation (Fig. 2G). There was no  
291 interaction nor main effect of drug and housing condition on paw withdraw threshold,  
292 suggesting that all mice similarly perceive tactile stimuli (Kruskal-Wallis test,  $H = 6.80$ ,  $p$   
293  $= 0.07$ ). Next, we tested whether mice adapt to repeated application of von Frey  
294 filaments above their threshold hind paw withdrawal response (Fig. 2H). There was a  
295 significant drug  $\times$  housing interaction (Two-way ANOVA,  $F(1, 54) = 56.27$ ,  $p < 10^{-4}$ ,  $P\eta^2$   
296  $= 0.51$ , *large effect*). Fentanyl-exposed, standard-housed mice continued to respond to  
297 the stimuli more than twice as much as vehicle-exposed, standard-housed mice  
298 (Tukey's post hoc,  $p < 10^{-4}$ , Glass'  $\delta = 4.31$ , *large-effect*). Enriched housing  
299 completely reversed this sensory maladaptation (Tukey's post hoc,  $p < 10^{-4}$ , Glass'  $\delta$   
300  $= 6.22$ , *large-effect*). These data suggest that perinatal fentanyl exposure leads to a  
301 sustained impairment in tactile sensory adaptation that can be reversed by  
302 environmental enrichment. Notably, while perinatal fentanyl exposure promotes  
303 hyperactivity and anxiety-like behavior relative to vehicle-exposed mice with large and  
304 medium effect, respectively, its influence on sensory adaptation was larger. These data  
305 suggest that fentanyl leads to an enduring sequelae of behavioral changes that can be  
306 fully reversed by environmental enrichment, with sensory maladaptation possibly being  
307 among the most prominent changes induced by perinatal opioid exposure.



308

**Figure 2. Environmental enrichment reverses the sustained behavioral deficits that are induced by perinatal fentanyl exposure.** (A) Timeline depicting behavioral assays and a schematic of the open field test.  $n = 15-20$  mice per group. (B, C) Perinatal fentanyl exposure increases distance traveled across time. (D, E) Perinatal fentanyl exposed mice raised with environmental enrichment have comparable distance traveled with vehicle controls but spend less time in the center area of the open field. Fentanyl-exposed mice raised with environmental enrichment spend more time in the center area of the open field, comparable to vehicle controls. (F) Graphic depicting von Frey tactile stimulation on the plantar surface of the hind paw. (G) There were no differences across groups in the paw withdrawal threshold to tactile stimulation.  $n = 11-19$  mice per group. (H) Standard housed fentanyl exposed mice have a higher number of paw withdrawal responses to repeated stimuli than standard housed vehicle mice. Fentanyl exposed mice raised with environmental enrichment have a lower number of paw withdrawal responses, comparable to vehicle mice raised in standard and enriched environment. Data depict means,  $p$  values, and 95% confidence intervals.

309

## 310 **Environmental enrichment restores long-term potentiation in S1 layer 2/3 neurons** 311 **after perinatal fentanyl exposure**

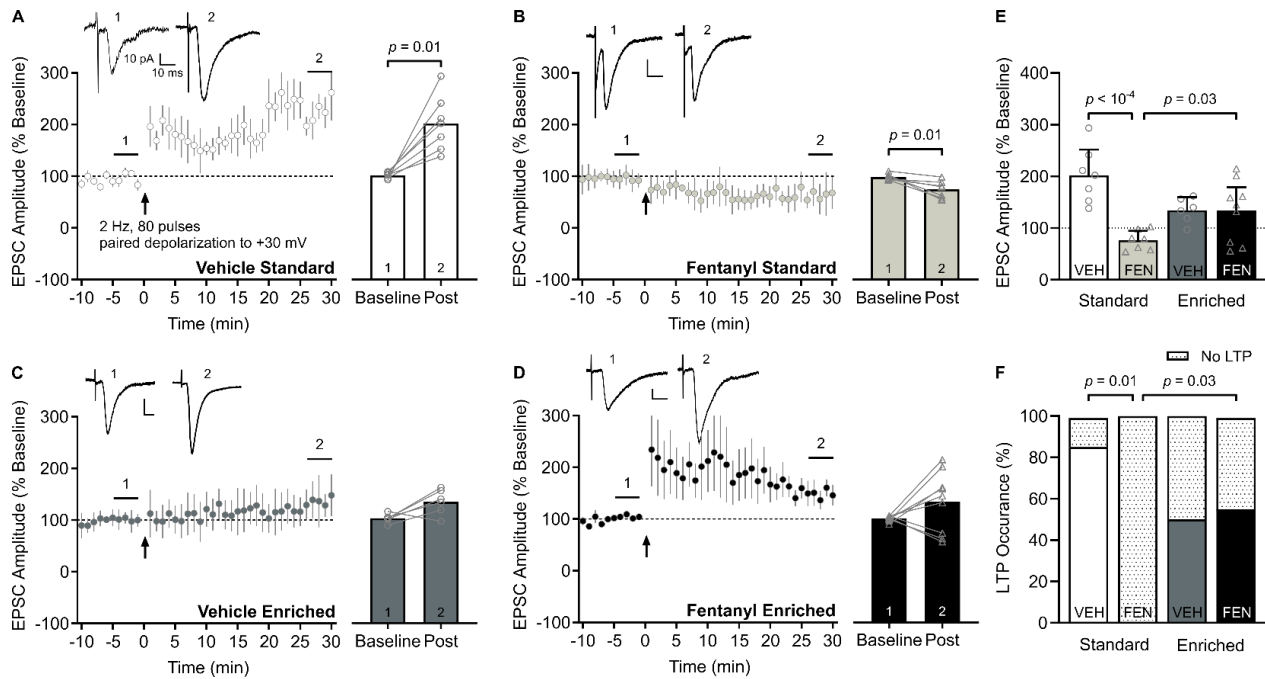
312 The fentanyl-induced impairment in sensory adaptation, as well as its reversal by  
313 environmental enrichment, suggests that these changes may be associated with altered  
314 synaptic plasticity in somatosensory cortex (S1). To test this, we assessed whether  
315 perinatal fentanyl exposure and environmental enrichment influenced long-term  
316 potentiation (LTP) of excitatory postsynaptic currents (EPSCs) in S1 layer 2/3 neurons  
317 (Fig. 3;  $n = 6-9$  mice/group, 1 neuron/mouse).

318 LTP was readily induced in S1 layer 2/3 neurons from vehicle-exposed, standard-  
319 housed mice (Fig. 3A). Amplitudes of evoked EPSCs were higher 30 min after the LTP  
320 paired induction protocol (80 electrical stimulation pulses at 2 Hz paired with  
321 postsynaptic depolarization to +30 mV) relative to baseline (Wilcoxon matched-pairs  
322 signed rank test,  $p = 0.01$ , Glass' delta = 18.27, *large-effect*). In contrast, neurons from  
323 fentanyl-exposed, standard-housed mice did not exhibit LTP, and instead showed a  
324 long-term depression (LTD)-like effect with significantly reduced EPSC amplitudes  
325 relative to baseline (Fig. 3B; Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test,  $p = 0.01$ , Glass'  
326 delta = 3.88, *large-effect*). In vehicle-exposed mice raised with environmental  
327 enrichment, the induction parameters tested here failed to evoke a statistically  
328 significant change in EPSC amplitude from baseline (Fig. 3C; Wilcoxon matched pairs  
329 signed rank test,  $p = 0.06$ ). In fentanyl-exposed mice raised with environmental  
330 enrichment, the LTP-induction protocol produced a short-lasting potentiation about 15-  
331 20 min, but EPSC amplitude was not significantly different from baseline by 25-30 min  
332 post-induction (Fig. 3D; Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test,  $p = 0.16$ ).

333 Consistent with these within-group comparisons, between-group comparisons revealed  
334 a complete block of LTP in neurons from fentanyl-exposed, standard-housed mice and  
335 a partial restoration of LTP by environmental enrichment (Fig. 3E). There was a  
336 significant drug  $\times$  housing interaction (Two-way ANOVA,  $F(1, 26) = 15.68$ ,  $p < 10^{-3}$ ,  $\eta^2$   
337 = 0.37, *large effect*). Neurons from fentanyl-exposed, standard-housed mice had lower  
338 post-LTP EPSC amplitudes than their vehicle-exposed, standard-housed counterparts  
339 (Tukey's post hoc,  $p < 10^{-4}$ , Cohen's  $d = 3.12$ , *large-effect*). Fentanyl-exposed,  
340 enriched-housed mice had higher post-LTP EPSC amplitudes relative to fentanyl-  
341 exposed, standard-housed mice (Tukey's post hoc,  $p = 0.03$ , Cohen's  $d = 1.40$ , *large*  
342 *effect*). However, the paired induction protocol used in the current study did not induce  
343 LTP in neurons from vehicle-exposed, enriched-housed mice (*see Discussion*; Tukey's  
344 post hoc,  $p = 0.05$ ).

345 When quantifying the proportion of neurons that exhibited LTP, we found that while  
346 nearly all neurons from vehicle-exposed, standard-housed mice exhibited LTP (Fig. 3F;  
347 6/7 neurons, 85.7%), none of the neurons from fentanyl-exposed, standard-housed  
348 mice exhibited LTP (0/7 neurons, 0%). About half of the neurons from fentanyl-exposed,  
349 enriched-housed mice (5/9 neurons, 55.55%), and from vehicle-exposed, enriched-  
350 housed mice (3/6 neurons, 50%) exhibited LTP. Between-group comparisons further  
351 indicate that fentanyl-exposed, standard-housed mice had a lower occurrence of LTP  
352 than vehicle-exposed, standard-housed mice (Fisher's exact test,  $p = 0.01$ , *odds ratio* =  
353 42, *large-effect*) and that environmental enrichment increased the proportion of neurons

354 that exhibit LTP in fentanyl-exposed mice compared to fentanyl-exposed, standard-  
 355 housed mice (Fisher's exact test,  $p = 0.03$ , *odds ratio* = 8.75, *medium-effect*). These  
 356 data demonstrate that perinatal fentanyl exposure impairs LTP in S1 layer 2/3 neurons  
 357 from mice raised under standard housing conditions, and that environmental enrichment  
 358 can restore LTP in a subset of these neurons. Neurons from control mice raised in an  
 359 enriched environment exhibit an attenuated and lower occurrence of LTP relative to  
 360 standard housing conditions, which may suggest an occlusive effect of enrichment on  
 361 synaptic plasticity.



362

**Figure 3. Environmental enrichment restores long-term potentiation in S1 layer 2/3 neurons after perinatal fentanyl exposure (A-D)** Time course (left) of long-term potentiation (LTP) of excitatory postsynaptic currents (EPSCs) following paired induction (80 electrical stimulation pulses at 2 Hz paired with postsynaptic depolarization to +30 mV). Bar graphs (right) show group data comparing EPSC amplitudes at baseline (1) and at 25-30 min after LTP induction (2). Insets depict sample traces from times indicated on time course graph. **(A)** Within-group comparisons indicate LTP was induced in S1 layer 2/3 neurons from vehicle-exposed, standard-housed mice. **(B)** LTP paired induction parameters induced long-term depression (LTD) of the EPSC in fentanyl-exposed, standard-housed mice. **(C)** Data from vehicle-exposed, enriched-housed mice and **(D)** fentanyl-exposed, enriched-housed mice indicate no differences in EPSCs at baseline to post LTP induction. **(E)** Between-group comparisons of the EPSC amplitudes post LTP induction. Fentanyl-exposed, standard-housed mice had lower EPSC amplitudes than vehicle-exposed, standard-housed mice. Environmental enrichment increased the EPSC amplitude of fentanyl-exposed, enriched-housed mice, relative to their fentanyl-exposed, standard-housed counterparts. **(F)** Between-group comparisons indicate fentanyl-exposed, standard-housed mice had a lower occurrence of neurons that exhibit LTP than vehicle-exposed, standard-housed mice. Raising fentanyl-exposed mice in environmental enrichment increased the proportion of neurons that exhibit LTP.  $n = 6-9$  mice/group, 1 neuron/mouse. Data depict means and 95% confidence intervals.

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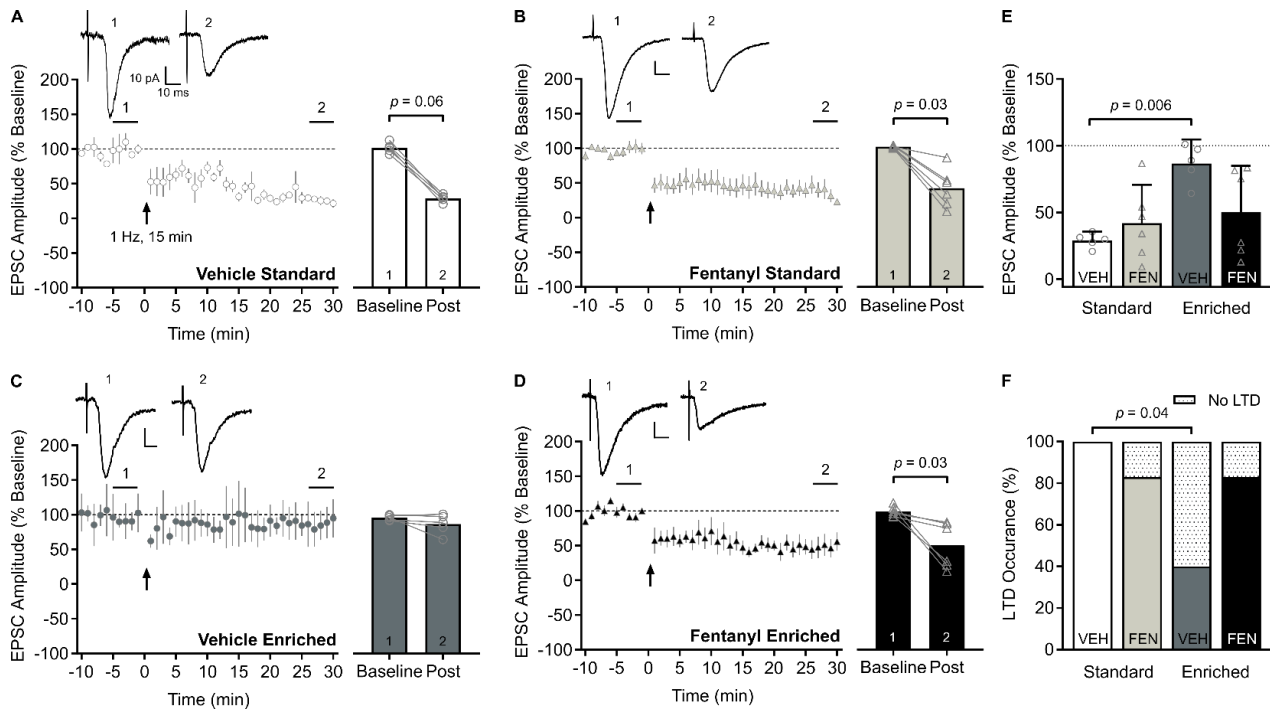
### 364 Environmental enrichment suppresses long-term depression

365 We assessed whether perinatal fentanyl exposure influenced LTD of EPSCs in S1 layer  
366 2/3 neurons and the impact of environmental enrichment on these changes (Fig. 4;  $n =$   
367 5-6 mice/group, 1 neuron/mouse). LTD of EPSC amplitudes were evident following low-  
368 frequency electrical stimulation (900 stimuli, 1 Hz) in S1 layer 2/3 neurons from vehicle-  
369 exposed, standard-housed mice (Fig. 4A; Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test,  $p =$   
370 0.06, Glass'  $\delta = 9.76$ , *large-effect*) and in fentanyl-exposed, standard-housed mice  
371 (Fig. 4B; Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test,  $p = 0.03$ , Glass'  $\delta = 40.11$ , *large-*  
372 *effect*). However, LTD was not induced in neurons from vehicle-exposed mice raised in  
373 an enriched environment (Fig. 4C; Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test,  $p = 0.12$ ).  
374 In contrast, LTD was readily induced in fentanyl-exposed, enriched-housed mice (Fig.  
375 4D; Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test,  $p = 0.03$ , Glass'  $\delta = 6.46$ , *large-*  
376 *effect*).

377 Consistent with this, between-group comparisons of post-LTD EPSC amplitudes  
378 revealed a significant drug  $\times$  housing interaction (Fig. 4E; Two-way ANOVA,  $F(1, 18) =$   
379 5.86,  $p = 0.02$ ,  $\text{Pr}^2 = 0.24$ , *large-effect*) with greater LTD in neurons from vehicle-  
380 exposed, standard-housed mice, relative to vehicle-exposed, enriched-housed mice  
381 (Tukey's post hoc,  $p = 0.006$ , Cohen's  $d = 5.26$ , *large-effect*). All neurons from vehicle-  
382 exposed standard-housed mice exhibited LTD (5/5 neurons) whereas only 20% of  
383 neurons from vehicle-exposed, enriched-housed mice exhibited LTD (Fig. 4F; 1/5  
384 neurons; Fisher's exact test,  $p = 0.04$ , *odds ratio = 40*, *large-effect*). Most neurons from

385 fentanyl-exposed mice exhibited LTD (5/6 neurons 83.33%) in either housing condition,  
386 respectively.

387 These data demonstrate that perinatal fentanyl exposure does not appear to affect LTD  
388 induction or expression, regardless of housing conditions. Similar to LTP, LTD is readily  
389 induced in S1 layer 2/3 neurons of mice raised in standard, conventional cages, but not  
390 in neurons from mice raised in an enriched environment.



391

**Figure 4. Environmental enrichment suppresses long-term depression. (A-D)**

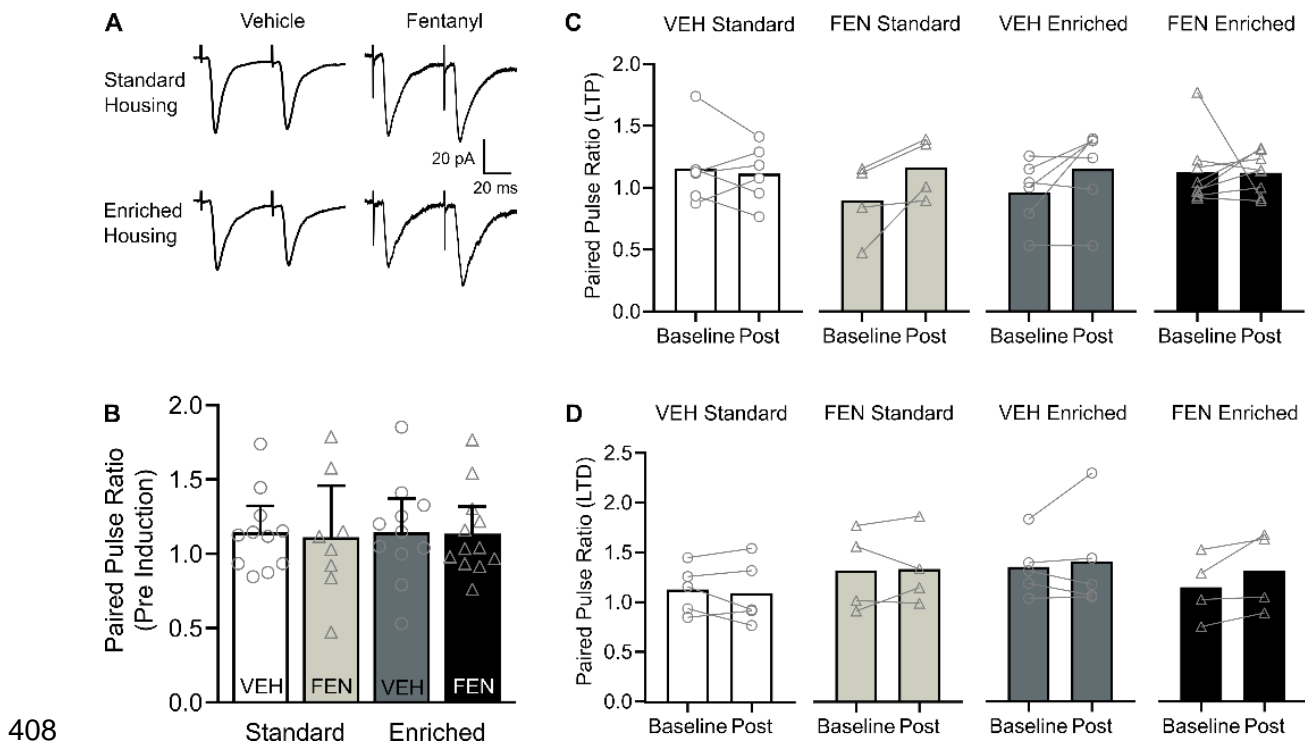
Time course (left) of long-term depression (LTD) of excitatory postsynaptic currents (EPSCs) following low frequency stimulation (900 electrical stimulation pulses at 1 Hz). Bar graphs (right) show group data comparing EPSC amplitudes at baseline (1) and at 25-30 min after LTD induction (2). Insets depict sample traces from times indicated on time course graph. (A) Within-group comparisons indicate LTD was induced in S1 layer 2/3 neurons from vehicle-exposed, standard-housed mice and in (B) fentanyl-exposed, standard-housed mice. (C) LTD was not induced in vehicle-exposed, enriched-housed mice, but was in (D) fentanyl-exposed, enriched-housed mice. (E) Between-group comparisons of the EPSC amplitudes post-LTD induction indicate that vehicle-exposed, enriched-housed mice failed to induce LTD compared to their vehicle-exposed, standard-housed counterparts. (F) Between-group comparisons of the occurrence of LTD indicate vehicle-exposed, enriched-housed mice had a lower occurrence of neurons that exhibit LTD than vehicle-exposed, standard-housed mice.  $n = 5-6$  mice/group, 1 neuron/mouse. Data depict means and 95% confidence intervals.

392

393 **Evoked glutamate release probability is not influenced by perinatal fentanyl**  
394 **exposure or environmental enrichment**

395 We assessed paired pulse ratios (PPRs) to determine if the changes in plasticity  
396 induced by perinatal fentanyl exposure and environmental enrichment were mediated  
397 by presynaptic changes in vesicle release probability (Fig. 5). Figure 5A depicts sample  
398 traces from each of the experimental groups. Before LTP/LTD induction, there were no  
399 differences in baseline PPR among the experimental groups (Fig. 5B;  $n = 9-12$   
400 mice/group, 1 neuron/mouse; Kruskal-Wallis test,  $p > 0.05$ ), nor did PPR change  
401 following the induction of LTP (Fig. 5C:  $n = 4-6$  mice/group, 1 neuron/mouse; Paired  $t$ -  
402 test,  $p > 0.05$ ) or LTD (Fig. 5D:  $n = 4-6$  mice/group, 1 neuron/mouse; Paired  $t$ -  
403 test,  $p > 0.05$ ). These data suggest that neither perinatal fentanyl exposure nor environmental  
404 enrichment influence the probability of evoked glutamate release at baseline, or  
405 following induction of LTP or LTD in S1 layer 2/3 neurons with the induction protocols  
406 used in the current study.

407



408

**Figure 5. Evoked glutamate release probability is not influenced by perinatal fentanyl exposure or environmental enrichment.** (A) Representative traces of EPSC responses to paired pulse stimulation. (B) There were no differences in the paired pulse ratio (PPR) between groups prior to plasticity induction ( $n = 9-12$  mice/group, 1 neuron/mouse). (C, D) Within each group, there were no differences in baseline PPR compared to PPR post-LTP or LTD induction ( $n = 4-6$  mice/group, 1 neuron/mouse). Data depict means and 95% confidence intervals.

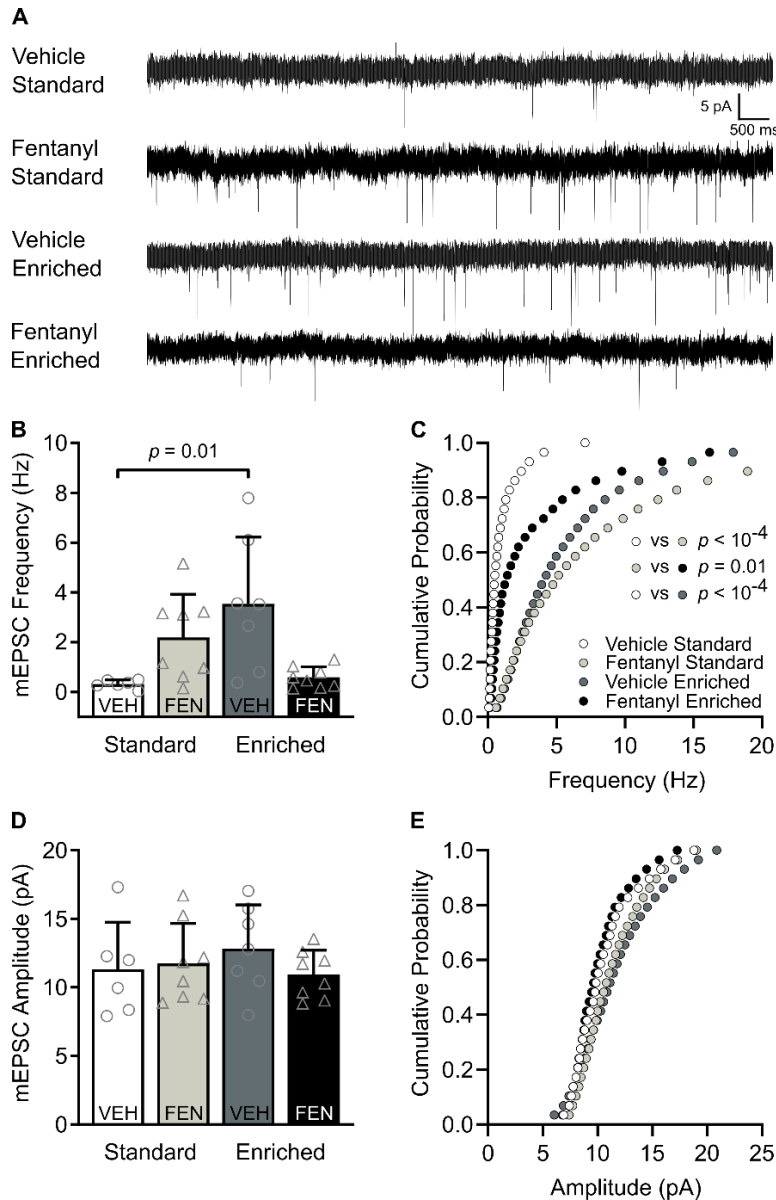
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410 **Environmental enrichment restores changes in mEPSC frequency induced by**  
411 **perinatal fentanyl exposure**

412 Some of the mechanisms and functions of spontaneous synaptic transmission are  
413 distinct from that of action potential-evoked synaptic transmission (Kavalali, 2015  
414 {25524119}). To determine if perinatal fentanyl exposure influenced spontaneous  
415 excitatory synaptic transmission, we recorded miniature excitatory postsynaptic currents  
416 (mEPSCs) in S1 layer 2/3 neurons (Fig. 6;  $n = 6-8$  mice/group, 1-2 neurons/mouse). We  
417 averaged all events from each neuron and animal for between-group comparisons of  
418 mEPSC frequency (Fig 6B; Kruskal-Wallis test,  $H = 12.41$ ,  $p = 0.006$ ,  $P\eta^2 = 0.03$ ,  
419 *medium-effect*). Neurons from vehicle-exposed, enriched-housed mice had higher  
420 mEPSC frequency than vehicle-exposed, standard-housed mice (Dunn's post hoc,  $p =$   
421  $0.01$ , Glass'  $\delta = 21.00$ , *large-effect*).

422 Given that averaging mEPSC events can be confounded by cell-to-cell differences in  
423 vesicle release dynamics and/or postsynaptic cluster sizes (Wu et al., 2007  
424 {17360928}), we further assessed these differences in mEPSC frequency by examining  
425 their cumulative probability (Fig. 6C; Kruskal-Wallis test,  $H = 42.61$ ,  $p < 10^{-4}$ ,  $P\eta^2 <$   
426  $0.008$ , *small-effect*). Since we observed measurable differences among the groups in  
427 the total number and range of release events, we used a quantile-based approach  
428 described by Hanes et al., 2020 (Hanes et al., 2020 {32312887}) to control for these  
429 unequal distributions. Neurons from fentanyl-exposed, standard-housed mice had  
430 higher mEPSC frequency than neurons from vehicle-exposed, standard-housed mice  
431 (Dunn's post hoc,  $p < 10^{-4}$ , Glass'  $\delta = 2.98$ , *large-effect*) and environmental  
432 enrichment normalized this increase in mEPSC frequency (Dunn's post hoc,  $p = 0.01$ ,  
433 Glass'  $\delta = 0.52$ , *medium-effect*). Environmental enrichment also enhanced mEPSC  
434 frequency in vehicle-treated conditions relative to neurons from mice raised in standard  
435 housing (Dunn's post hoc,  $p < 10^{-4}$ , Glass'  $\delta = 3.34$ , *large-effect*). In contrast, there  
436 was no significant interaction nor main effect on the average (Fig. 6D; Two-way  
437 ANOVA,  $p > 0.05$ ) or cumulative probability (Fig. 6E; Kruskal-Wallis test,  $p > 0.05$ ) of  
438 mEPSC amplitudes among the groups. These data suggest that both environmental  
439 enrichment and perinatal fentanyl exposure, independently establishes a higher  
440 frequency of miniature excitatory release at this synapse. Among perinatal fentanyl  
441 exposed mice, environmental enrichment restores the mEPSC frequency to a more  
442 quiescent state, resembling that of vehicle-exposed, standard-housed mice.





443

**Figure 6. Environmental enrichment restores changes in mEPSC frequency induced by perinatal fentanyl exposure.** (A) Representative traces of miniature excitatory postsynaptic currents (mEPSCs). (B) Grouped data of the averaged events from each neuron and animal indicating that mEPSC frequency is higher after environmental enrichment, compared to controls. (C) Cumulative probability curves of the frequency suggest perinatal fentanyl exposure results in increased mEPSC frequency, and that raising fentanyl-exposed mice with environmental enrichment reverses this increase. Enrichment also increased mEPSC frequency of vehicle control mice independent of perinatal fentanyl exposure. (D, E) There were no differences in mEPSC amplitudes.  $n = 6-8$  mice/group, 1-2 neurons/mouse. Data depict means, and 95% confidence intervals.

444

445

## Discussion

446 We hypothesized that environmental enrichment would mitigate the behavioral and  
447 synaptic deficits of perinatal fentanyl exposure. Consistent with our prediction,  
448 environmental enrichment attenuated the behavioral aberrations induced by perinatal  
449 fentanyl exposure, including hyperactivity, anxiety-like behavior, and sensory  
450 maladaptation. Enrichment also normalized long-term potentiation (LTP) and  
451 spontaneous excitatory synaptic transmission in primary somatosensory (S1) layer 2/3  
452 neurons from perinatal fentanyl exposed mice. Notably, in naïve, control mice  
453 environmental enrichment results in attenuated LTP and long-term depression (LTD), as  
454 well as increased spontaneous excitatory synaptic transmission.

### 455 Behavior

456 We previously showed that perinatal fentanyl exposure results in lasting anxiety-like  
457 behavior and sensory maladaptation (Alipio et al., 2021b {33853934}, 2021a  
458 {32187805}). Here, we expand upon our model by showing that perinatal fentanyl  
459 exposure leads to hyperactivity, a prominent feature of attention-deficit hyperactivity  
460 disorder (Montarolo et al., 2019 {31455763}), which is often diagnosed in children that  
461 were exposed to opioids perinatally (Schwartz et al., 2021 {33557208}).

### 462 Synaptic plasticity

463 Because perinatal fentanyl exposure led to impairments in sensory-related processing,  
464 we investigated changes in the efficacy of synaptic transmission in S1 layer 2/3.  
465 Whereas LTP was readily induced by pairing repeated stimuli with postsynaptic  
466 depolarization of S1 layer 2/3 neurons, this LTP induction protocol failed to induce LTP  
467 in neurons from fentanyl-exposed mice. In contrast, perinatal fentanyl exposure did not  
468 influence the induction of LTD in response to low frequency stimulation. These results  
469 are consistent with previous studies showing that prenatal exposure to morphine  
470 suppresses LTP in the dentate gyrus of juvenile rats (Niu et al., 2009 {19115391};  
471 Ahmadalipour et al., 2018 {29175674}).

### 472 Synaptic activity

473 We have previously reported that perinatal fentanyl exposure suppresses glutamate  
474 release onto S1 layer 5 neurons, and promotes glutamate release onto anterior  
475 cingulate cortex (ACC) layer 5 neurons (Alipio et al., 2021b {33853934}). In contrast to  
476 S1 layer 5, here we find that fentanyl exposure promotes glutamate release onto S1  
477 layer 2/3 neurons. That neurons in different cortical layers and areas express  
478 differences in the lasting effects of perinatal fentanyl exposure likely reflects differences  
479 in cortical developmental trajectory. Our data suggest that neurons that develop earlier  
480 (S1 layer 2/3 neurons) express a lasting increase in excitatory synaptic activity, whereas  
481 later developing neurons (S1 and ACC layer 5 neurons) exhibit decreased synaptic  
482 activity.

### 483 Environmental enrichment effects on behavior

484 Environmental enrichment restored the hyperactivity induced by perinatal fentanyl  
485 exposure, as well as the increase in anxiety-like behavior in a novel open field  
486 environment. This is consistent with studies demonstrating that rearing rodents in an

487 enriched environment improves maladaptive phenotypic changes in preclinical models  
488 of ADHD and anxiety (Botanas et al., 2016 {26656767}; Korkhin et al., 2020  
489 {31704636}; Yazdanfar et al., 2021 {33592274}). Environmental enrichment also  
490 restored the sensory maladaptation induced by perinatal fentanyl exposure. These  
491 findings might be relevant to addressing the sensory-related deficits in children that  
492 were perinatally exposed to opioids.

493 Other preclinical studies have shown that environmental enrichment can ameliorate  
494 behavioral changes induced by perinatal exposure to other drugs of abuse, including  
495 nicotine, cocaine, morphine, ethanol, antiadrenergic, and antihypertensive drugs (Ryan  
496 and Pappas, 1990 {2392095}; Dow-Edwards et al., 2014 {24435324}; Mychasiuk et al.,  
497 2014 {24616009}; Ahmadalipour et al., 2018 {29175674}; Wille-Bille et al., 2020  
498 {31926456}; Yazdanfar et al., 2021 {33592274}). These results suggest that enrichment  
499 may benefit infants and children with such exposures. Importantly, our data also support  
500 that environmental enrichment may be a favorable intervention during early  
501 development, since it does not produce untoward behavioral outcomes on its own, at  
502 least not in the behavioral outcomes assessed in the current study.

### 503 **Environmental enrichment effects on synaptic plasticity**

504 Environmental enrichment restored the perinatal fentanyl exposure-induced impairment  
505 in LTP in S1 layer 2/3 neurons. This is consistent with findings that environmental  
506 enrichment restores stress-induced reduction of LTP in hippocampal dentate gyrus and  
507 prefrontal cortical neurons, and that enrichment does not further increase LTP in non-  
508 stressed controls (Wang et al., 2020 {32748366}; Wu and Mitra, 2020 {32710912}).

509 We also found that environmental enrichment suppressed the ability of S1 layer 2/3  
510 neurons to express either LTP or LTD. These findings are consistent with previous  
511 reports, showing that environmental enrichment-induced plasticity occludes further  
512 potentiation of S1 layer 2/3 and 4 neurons (Mégevand et al., 2009 {19386929}).  
513 Similarly, enrichment reduces or blocks the induction of LTP in the dentate gyrus (Feng  
514 et al., 2001 {11738035}; Irvine et al., 2006 {16261558}; Eckert et al., 2010 {20393057}),  
515 perhaps by occluding LTP (Foster et al., 1996 {8930330}).

### 516 **Environmental enrichment effects on synaptic activity**

517 Environmental enrichment restored the amplified spontaneous excitatory synaptic  
518 transmission in S1 layer 2/3 neurons induced by perinatal fentanyl exposure, and  
519 increased it in control mice. The contrasting effects of enrichment on fentanyl and on  
520 control mice reflect the multifactorial mechanisms in which enrichment influences  
521 cortical synaptic transmission (Baroncelli et al., 2010 {20019745}). Relevant findings  
522 demonstrate that environmental enrichment restores the decreased mEPSC frequency  
523 in S1 layer 2/3 neurons induced by sensory deprivation, and increases mEPSC  
524 frequency in control, non-deprived mice (Zheng et al., 2014 {24464043}). The  
525 mechanisms involved in the increased excitatory synaptic activity induced by perinatal  
526 fentanyl exposure and the restoration by environmental enrichment has yet to be  
527 determined.

528 Converging evidence from longitudinal human studies and preclinical models  
529 demonstrate that perinatal exposure to opioids results in long-lasting molecular, circuit,  
530 network, and behavioral aberrations. Current treatment options are aimed at relieving  
531 acute symptoms exhibited by newborns with neonatal opioid withdrawal. No such  
532 treatments are available for the developing child or adolescent. Our results provide  
533 insights into the underlying circuit changes involved in the lasting anxiety and sensory-  
534 related deficits induced by perinatal fentanyl exposure, and suggest that environmental  
535 enrichment may be leveraged to ameliorate or reverse the lasting deleterious effects of  
536 this early opioid exposure.

537

538

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544

545

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552

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