Mu-opioid receptor knockout on Foxp2-expressing neurons leads to reduced aversion-resistant reward seeking

Harrison M. Carvour, Charlotte A. E. G. Roemer, D'Erick P. Underwood, Edith Padilla, Oscar Sandoval, Megan Robertson, Mallory Miller, Natella Parsadanyan, Thomas W. Perry, & Anna K. Radke*

Department of Psychology and Center for Neuroscience and Behavior, Miami University, Oxford, OH, USA

Correspondence to: Anna K. Radke, Ph.D., 90 N Patterson Ave, Oxford, OH, USA 45056,

email: aradke@miamioh.edu

phone: 513-529-6941H

fax: 513-529-2420

Funding sources: This work was supported by NIH grants R21 AA028602 (AKR) and awards from the Office of Research for Undergraduates (HC, MR, MM, NP) at Miami University.

Conflict of interests: The authors declare no conflicting interests in this work.

Abstract

Mu-opioid receptors (MORs) in the amygdala and striatum are important in addictive and rewarding behaviors. Foxp2 is a marker of intercalated (ITC) cells in the amygdala and a subset of striatal medium spiny neurons (MSNs), both of which express MORs in wild-type mice. For the current series of studies, we characterized the behavior of mice with genetic deletion of the MOR gene *Oprm1* in Foxp2-expressing neurons (Foxp2-Cre/Oprm1$^{fl/fl}$). Male and female Foxp2-Cre/Oprm1$^{fl/fl}$ mice were generated and heterozygous Cre+ (knockout) and homozygous Cre- (control) animals were tested for aversion-resistant alcohol consumption using an intermittent access (IA) task, operant responding for a sucrose reward, conditioned place aversion (CPA) to morphine withdrawal, and locomotor sensitization to morphine. In IA, mice with the MOR-knockout were more sensitive to quinine-adulterated ethanol (EtOH) and less aversion-resistant, as they decreased EtOH consumption from baseline at all quinine concentrations, while control animals did not. In operant conditioning, Cre+ mice similarly exhibited less aversion-resistant reward seeking than Cre- mice when sucrose was adulterated with quinine. For CPA, both control and MOR-knockout mice demonstrated withdrawal-induced aversion. For locomotor sensitization, Cre+ mice demonstrated decreased locomotion following morphine injection compared to Cre- mice. The results of these studies suggest that MOR expression on Foxp2-expressing neurons is not necessary for rewarded behaviors or expression of opioid withdrawal but may be involved in aversion-resistance.

1. Introduction

The endogenous opioid system is an important regulator of rewarding experiences, including pleasure and relief of pain. As such, endogenous opioid peptides and their receptors are implicated in addictive behaviors across a variety of drug classes [1]. The mu-opioid receptor (MOR), which is coded for by the *Oprm1* gene, is widely expressed throughout the central nervous system and directs inhibitory mechanisms both pre- and postsynaptically [2]. MORs are strongly implicated in alcohol drinking behaviors, including consumption, preference, and the acute stimulant and anxiolytic actions of ethanol (EtOH) [3–8]. Specifically, pharmacological blockade of MORs has been shown to reduce alcohol-seeking behaviors in mice [3,9–11]. However, it has not yet been determined how specific subpopulations of MORs contribute to various alcohol drinking behaviors.

The amygdala and striatum are two brain regions that have been identified as critical sites for the influence of MOR activation on addictive behaviors [11–18] . Within each of these nuclei, MORs are expressed on several subpopulations of neurons. In the amygdala, MOR expression is densest in the Foxp2-expressing intercalated (ITC) cells [19,20]. ITC cells are GABAergic interneurons that are critical regulators of extinction learning and increase GABA release when exposed to ethanol (EtOH) [19,21,22]. In the striatum, MORs are found in medium spiny neurons (MSNs), which also express the transcription factor Foxp2. Approximately 65-75% of Foxp2-expressing MSNs co-express dopamine type 1 receptors (D1Rs) and 20-25% co-express dopamine type 2 receptors (D2Rs) [23]. Both D1R and D2R-expressing neurons are thought to be involved in rewarding and addictive behaviors, with D1R-expressing neurons being involved in approach behaviors and D2R-expressing neurons being more involved in aversion and punishment [24,25]. Thus, Foxp2-MORs could be a subpopulation of relevance to alcohol drinking behaviors.

We set out to characterize the contributions of Foxp2-MORs to alcohol consumption, preference, and aversion-resistance using a transgenic line of mice with genetic deletion of the *Oprm1* gene in Foxp2-expressing neurons. To further characterize the line and the potential contribution of Foxp2-MORs to other behavioral manifestations of reward and aversion, we also examined operant responding for a

sucrose reward, morphine withdrawal-induced aversion, and morphine-induced locomotion. Our results suggest that MOR deletion of Foxp2-expressing neurons reduces aversion-resistant reward seeking for EtOH and sucrose.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Subjects

Male and female mice with genetic deletion of *Oprm1* in Foxp2 neurons were generated by crossing B6.129-Oprm1tm1.1 Cgrf/KffJ by B6.C (strain #030074) and Foxp2tm1.1(cre)Rpa/J lines of mice (strain #030541) (Jackson Laboratory, Bar Harbor, ME) (**Figure 1A**). Following three crosses, the Foxp2-Cre/Oprm1$^{fl/fl}$ line was established and Cre- females were bred with Cre+ males to produce offspring that were Cre- or Cre+. For all experiments, groups were balanced across sex and genotype. Mice were housed at Miami University in standard shoe box rectangular mouse cages (18.4 cm x 29.2 cm x 12.7 cm) with food (LabDiet 5001) and reverse-osmosis (RO) water *ad libitum*. For drinking experiments, cage lids were designed to allow for two test bottles to be present at the same time, with food placed in the cage lid troughs. The animals resided in a temperature-controlled room with a 12:12 hour light/dark cycle. All procedures were conducted in accordance with the Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals and were approved by the Miami University Animal Care and Use Committee.

2.2. Drugs

EtOH (20%) was made volume/volume in RO water. Sucrose solutions (10%, 5%, 2%) were made weight/volume in RO water. Quinine hemisulfate (Q1250-50G, Millipore-Sigma, St. Louis, MO) was prepared weight/volume in 20% EtOH, RO water, or sucrose. For intermittent access, solutions were made fresh every day. For operant conditioning, sucrose solutions were prepared every three days.

Morphine sulfate was purchased from Henry Schein (Melville, NY, USA, #1099591) as 50 mg/ml vials. Injectable solutions of 1 mg/mL were prepared by diluting stock solution in sterile 0.9% saline solution (Henry Schein, Melville, NY, USA, #1048688). Naloxone hydrochloride (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA, #N7758) was dissolved in sterile saline to a concentration of 0.25 mg/mL. Prepared solutions were kept in a 4℃ refrigerator. Solutions were injected i.p. at a volume of 10 mL/kg.

2.3. Fluorescent in situ hybridization

Validation of *Oprm1* deletion in the Foxp2-Cre/Oprm1$^{fl/fl}$ line was conducted using RNAscope (Advanced Cell Diagnostics, Newark, CA, USA). Brains from adult mice were extracted and flash frozen. A cryostat was used to collect sections (15 μM) containing the amygdala. Sections were mounted on slides and fixed in chilled formalin and processed using probes for Mm-*Foxp2* (channel 1, cat#XXX-C1) and Mm-*Oprm1* genes (channel 2, cat#315841-C2). Slides were counterstained with DAPI and visualized using a Leica AX70 microscope (**Figure 1B**).

2.4. Intermittent access alcohol drinking

Forty eight Foxp2-Cre/Oprm1$^{fl/fl}$ mice were presented with 20% EtOH in a 24-hour two-bottle choice intermittent access (IA) paradigm. Mice were separately housed three days prior to the start of the experiment. Two empty control cages were also used to account for fluid loss due to evaporation or spillage. Mice received a bottle of 20% EtOH and a bottle of RO water on Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays. For EtOH and RO water sessions, mice were weighed before bottles were presented. On Tuesdays, Thursdays, Saturdays, and Sundays mice received two bottles of RO water only. Bottles were weighed 24-h later for all sessions, except Saturday and Sunday. On Mondays, bottles were also weighed 30-min after presentation to assess binge-like consumption.

After 12 sessions (4 weeks) of EtOH drinking, quinine, a bitter tastant, was added to the EtOH bottles in escalating concentrations (10, 100, 200 mg/L) to test aversion-resistant drinking. Following the quinine sessions, mice received RO water only for one week before beginning a test of quinine sensitivity. For this test, mice had a choice of water and water with quinine in escalating concentrations (0, 1, 10, and 100 mg/L). Data from only 32 animals are included for quinine sessions, as 16 animals mistakenly received the wrong quinine concentrations during testing.

2.5. Operant responding for sucrose

To examine behavioral responses for a non-drug solution, 30 Foxp2-Cre/Oprm1$^{fl/fl}$ mice were tested for sucrose responding using an operant conditioning paradigm in a standard mouse conditioning chamber (Med Associated, ENV-307A, Fairfax VT, USA) (as described in [26]). Nose poke data was

recorded using Med-PC V Behavioral Control Software (Med Associates Inc., Fairfax, VT, USA). Prior to response training, mice were restricted to 85% of their free-feeding body weight to promote engagement with the task. Body weights were recorded before each operant session and food was given immediately after the session ended.

Upon reaching their target body weight, mice began response training, in which active nose poke responses resulted in delivery of 50 µl of a 10% sucrose solution. Responses on the inactive nose poke hole were inconsequential. Rewards were delivered on a Fixed Ratio 1 (FR1) schedule during a 30 min session. After 10 training sessions, mice underwent a sucrose fading procedure where they were given 10%, 5%, and 2% sucrose for 3 sessions each. Next, aversion-resistant responding was tested using 2% sucrose. Mice were trained to respond on an FR3 schedule for 3 additional sessions, to encourage an increased response rate for 2% sucrose. Escalating concentrations of quinine (1, 10, 100, and 200 mg/L) were added to the 2% sucrose solution over 4 sessions, 1 session for each concentration.

2.6. Conditioned place aversion

To determine whether Foxp2-MOR deletion affected the experience of aversion more generally, 14 Foxp2-Cre/Oprm1$^{fl/fl}$ mice were tested for morphine withdrawal-induced conditioned place aversion (CPA). The place conditioning apparatus (Panlab, Barcelona, Spain) was made up of three chambers distinguished by different designs on the wall and different floor textures, with the middle chamber being neutral and not used for conditioning. A camera mounted above the apparatus was used to record the test sessions. All sessions were 25 min in duration and were separated by 24 h.

The experiment began with a pre-conditioning test during which mice freely explored both sides of the apparatus. Following the pre-conditioning test, mice underwent four conditioning sessions. For two sessions, mice received an injection of morphine (10 mg/kg) followed 30-min later by an injection of naloxone (2.5 mg/kg). Mice were confined to the withdrawal-paired conditioning chamber immediately after naloxone injection. For the other two sessions, mice received two injections of saline separated by 30 min before being confined to the other conditioning chamber. The conditioning chamber paired with withdrawal and the order of the conditioning sessions was counterbalanced across animals. After all

conditioning sessions were completed, mice freely explored the apparatus for 25 min in a post-conditioning test.

2.7. Locomotor sensitization

To assess the effects of Foxp2-MOR deletion on baseline and morphine-induced locomotion, 23 Foxp2-Cre/Oprm1$^{fl/fl}$ mice were tested in activity chambers (14 in x 14 in x 8 in) that tracked movement via beam breaks (Omnitech Electronics, Inc, Columbus, OH). One week prior to the experiment, mice were given saline injections to habituate them to handling. Mice were tested for locomotion over two sessions separated by 24 h. The first session was 60 min in duration. For the second session, mice received one injection of 20 mg/kg of morphine 30 min prior to entering the locomotor chamber and activity was monitored for 120 min.

2.8. Data analysis

For intermittent access, bottle weights were expressed as g of EtOH consumed per kg of bodyweight. The amount of solution consumed was measured by calculating =*(Initial Bottle Weight - Final Bottle Weight) - Average Dummy Bottle Weight*. Preference was measured by calculating =*(Volume of solution/Volume of solution + Water consumption)*100*. For quinine sessions, baseline EtOH consumption was determined by averaging the last three sessions before adding quinine (sessions 10, 11, and 12). For the quinine sensitivity test, consumption at 0 mg/L was averaged across both bottles to establish a baseline. This was done because some mice were observed to drink exclusively from one bottle on the 0 mg/L session. For operant experiments, responses at the active and inactive nose-poke holes were averaged across the three sessions for each sucrose solution delivered (10%, 5%, and 2%). Place conditioning data were expressed as time spent (s) and distance traveled (cm) on the withdrawal-paired side of the apparatus during the pre- and post-conditioning tests. For the locomotor tests, total distance traveled (cm) was measured.

For all experiments, data were first analyzed with sex as a variable but later collapsed for presentation and further analysis as sex did not interact with genotype on any behavioral measure. Data were analyzed using two-way repeated measures (RM) ANOVA with genotype as the between subjects

variable and session, concentration, or time as the within-subjects variable. For cases where sphericity was violated ($\varepsilon < 0.75$), the Greenhouse-Geisser correction was used. In instances where values were missing due to spillage, a Mixed Effects ANOVA was used. For operant responding, a three-way RM ANOVA was used to assess responding on the active vs. inactive nose-poke hole. Aversion-resistance was defined *a priori* as the absence of a significant change from baseline ($= 0$ mg/L) and was tested using a Dunnett's test. All data were expressed as mean ± standard error of the mean and all analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism (v 10) software (La Jolla, CA, USA).

3. Results

3.1. Intermittent access alcohol drinking

Foxp2-MOR deletion did not affect EtOH consumption or preference at 24-h (**Figure 2A-B**). For consumption, RM two-way ANOVA revealed a significant main effect of session [$F_{(4.981, 229.1)} = 2.492$, $p < 0.05$], but no significant main effect of genotype [$F_{(1, 46)} = 1.510$, $p > 0.05$] or session x genotype interaction [$F_{(11, 506)} = 1.043$, $p > 0.05$]. Similarly, for EtOH preference, the main effect of session was significant [$F_{(6.443, 296.4)} = 2.544$, $p < 0.05$], but the main effect of genotype [$F_{(1, 46)} = 0.1627$, $p > 0.05$] and session x genotype interaction [$F_{(11, 506)} = 0.6708$, $p > 0.05$] were not significant.

Consumption and preference at 30 min were also measured for one session each week. Cre+ mice with Foxp2-MOR deletion were observed to consume more EtOH on the first 30-min session vs Cre- mice (**Figure 2C-D**). This was evidenced by a significant main effect of session [$F_{(1.057, 48.620)} = 5.766$, $p < 0.05$] and an interaction between session and genotype [$F_{(3, 138)} = 3.131$, $p < 0.05$] on consumption. There was no significant effect of genotype [$F_{(1, 46)} = 2.053$, $p > 0.05$]. For preference, RM two-way ANOVA revealed a significant main effect of session [$F_{(2.806, 129.1)} = 6.100$, $p < 0.01$], but no significant main effect of genotype [$F_{(1, 46)} = 0.6369$, $p > 0.05$] or session x genotype interaction [$F_{(3, 138)} = 1.032$, $p > 0.05$].

Aversion-resistance was assessed by comparing consumption and preference on quinine sessions to the last three EtOH-only sessions. Foxp2-Cre/Oprm1$^{fl/fl}$ Cre+ mice were more sensitive to quinine aversion than Cre- mice (**Figure 2E-F**). For consumption, RM two-way ANOVA found significant main effects of quinine concentration [$F_{(3, 90)} = 43.150$, $p < 0.01$] and genotype [$F_{(1, 30)} = 4.588$, $p < 0.05$]. The

interaction of quinine concentration and genotype was not significant [$F_{(3, 90)}$ = 2.314, p > 0.05]. A Dunnett's multiple comparisons test between consumption at 0 mg/L and each quinine concentration was used to assess aversion-resistance. There were significant decreases at 100 mg/L (p < 0.001) and 200 mg/L (p < 0.001) for Cre- animals. Cre+ mice significantly decreased consumption at 10 mg/L (p < 0.05), 100 mg/L (p < 0.001), and 200 mg/L (p < 0.001) (**Figure 2E**). When assessing EtOH preference, there was a significant main effect of quinine concentration [$F_{(3, 90)}$ = 7.158, p < 0.01] but no effect of genotype [$F_{(1, 30)}$ = 0.8399, p > 0.05] or interaction between the two [$F_{(3, 90)}$ = 1.946, p > 0.05]. A Dunnett's multiple comparisons test vs. baseline preference revealed significant decreases at 200 mg/L (p < 0.001) for Cre- animals and at 100 mg/L (p < 0.05) and 200 mg/L (p < 0.05) for Cre+ animals (**Figure 2F**).

Water consumption on the intervening sessions (T/Th) was also evaluated and no effects of genotype were observed (**Figure 3A**). There was a significant main effect of session [$F_{(1.954, 89.890)}$ = 5.789, p < 0.01] but no significant main effect of genotype [$F_{(1, 46)}$ = 3.151, p > 0.05] nor an interaction between the two [$F_{(9, 414)}$ = 1.421, p > 0.05].

Quinine sensitivity was also assessed one week following the final week of EtOH consumption. Differences in quinine sensitivity were observed, with Cre+ mice appearing to be less sensitive to quinine than Cre- controls (**Figure 3B**). A mixed effects analysis found a significant main effect of quinine concentration [$F_{(3, 125)}$ = 11.810, p < 0.0001] but not genotype [$F_{(1, 42)}$ = 0.010, p > 0.05]. The interaction between concentration and genotype was not significant [$F_{(3, 125)}$ = 1.649, p > 0.05]. A Dunnett's multiple comparisons test used to assess changes from baseline revealed significant decreases at 1 mg/L (p < 0.001), 10 mg/L (p < 0.05), and 100 mg/L (p < 0.001) for Cre- animals, while Cre+ mice significantly decreased consumption at 10 mg/L (p < 0.01) and 100 mg/L (p < 0.001) only.

3.2. Operant responding for sucrose

Foxp2-Cre/Oprm1$^{fl/fl}$ mice learned to respond for sucrose at the active nose-poke hole but Foxp2-MOR deletion did not affect response rates for sucrose at any concentration (**Figure 4A**). A three-way RM ANOVA found significant main effects of sucrose concentration [$F_{(2, 112)}$ = 26.430, p < 0.001] and response [$F_{(1, 56)}$ = 372.6, p < 0.001] along with a sucrose concentration x response interaction

$[F_{(2, 112)} = 35.330, p < 0.001]$. The main effect of genotype was not significant $[F_{(1, 56)} = 0.009, p > 0.05]$ and there were no significant interaction effects for sucrose concentration x genotype $[F_{(2, 112)} = 0.159, p > 0.05]$, response x genotype $[F_{(1, 56)} = 1.257, p > 0.05]$ or sucrose concentration x response x genotype $[F_{(2, 112)} = 0.884, p > 0.05]$. A follow-up two-way RM ANOVA examining active responses across concentrations revealed a significant effect of sucrose concentration $[F_{(1.891, 52.96)} = 35.570, p < 0.001]$ but not genotype $[F_{(1, 28)} = 0.412, p > 0.05]$. There was also no significant interaction between sucrose concentration and genotype $[F_{(2, 56)} = 0.417, p > 0.05]$. A *post-hoc* Holm-Sidak's multiple comparisons test revealed significant decreases in active responses at the 2% concentration (10% vs. 2%, $p < 0.001$; 5% vs. 2%, $p < 0.001$).

When analyzing sucrose responding in the presence of quinine, influences of genotype were uncovered (**Figure 4B**). A three-way RM ANOVA revealed significant main effects of quinine concentration $[F_{(2.937, 158.6)} = 37.020, p < 0.001]$ and response $[F_{(1, 54)} = 96.44, p < 0.001]$. There were also several significant interaction effects, including quinine concentration x response $[F_{(4, 216)} = 39.120, p < 0.001]$, quinine concentration x genotype $[F_{(4, 216)} = 4.049, p < 0.01]$, and quinine concentration x response x genotype $[F_{(4, 216)} = 3.697, p < 0.01]$. However, there was no significant main effect of genotype $[F_{(1, 54)} = 3.433, p > 0.05]$, nor an interaction effect between responses and genotype $[F_{(1, 54)} = 2.826, p > 0.05]$. A follow-up two-way RM ANOVA examining active responses revealed a significant quinine concentration x genotype interaction $[F_{(4, 108)} = 4.505, p < 0.01]$ along with a significant main effect of quinine concentration $[F_{(2.512, 67.83)} = 45.640, p < 0.001]$. There was no significant effect of genotype $[F_{(1, 27)} = 3.359, p > 0.05]$ in this analysis. A Dunnett's multiple comparisons test comparing active responses at each quinine concentration to baseline (= 0 mg/L) revealed significant decreases at 100 mg/L ($p < 0.01$) and 200 mg/L ($p < 0.001$) for Cre- animals. Cre+ mice significantly decreased responding at quinine concentrations of 10 mg/L ($p < 0.05$), 100 mg/L ($p < 0.001$), and 200 mg/L ($p < 0.001$). Two-way RM ANOVA examining inactive responses revealed no significant effects.

3.3. Conditioned place aversion

Morphine withdrawal conditioned place aversion was observed in Foxp2-Cre/Oprm1$^{fl/fl}$ mice and did not differ between the genotypes (**Figure 5A**). Analysis of time spent on the withdrawal-paired side revealed that place aversion was successful in both genotypes, as evidenced by a main effect of session $[F_{(1, 12)} = 19.460, p < 0.001]$ but no effect of genotype $[F_{(1, 12)} = 1.992, p > 0.05]$ or interaction between genotype and session $[F_{(1, 12)} = 1.344, p > 0.05]$.

When analyzing distance traveled during the test sessions, a two-way ANOVA revealed that neither genotype $[F_{(1, 12)} = 0.671, p > 0.05]$ or session $[F_{(1, 12)} = 3.607, p > 0.05]$ had a significant effect on locomotion (**Figure 5B**). There were also no interaction between genotype and session on this measure $[F_{(1, 12)} = 0.325, p > 0.05]$.

3.4. Locomotor sensitization

Reduced locomotion at baseline was observed in Cre+ (vs. Cre-) Foxp2-Cre/Oprm1$^{fl/fl}$ mice. A two-way RM ANOVA on session 1 found no significant effects of genotype $[F_{(1, 21)} = 2.380, p > 0.05]$ (**Figure 6A**). There was, however, a significant main effect of time $[F_{(2.218, 46.570)} = 60.850 \ p < 0.001]$ and a time x genotype interaction $[F_{(5, 105)} = 5.193, p < 0.001]$. Following morphine injection, locomotor activity increased and still differed between Cre- and Cre+ mice. A two-way RM ANOVA on session 2 found no significant effects of genotype $[F_{(1, 21)} = 3.068, p > 0.05]$ (**Figure 6B**). There was a significant main effect of time $[F_{(1.500, 31.510)} = 14.660, p < 0.001]$, and a time x genotype interaction $[F_{(11, 231)} = 2.724, p < 0.01]$.

To determine if morphine caused an unconditioned increase in locomotion in either genotype, distance traveled during the first 60 min of each session was averaged and compared using a two-way ANOVA. This analysis revealed a main effect of genotype $[F_{(1, 20)} = 5.715, p < 0.05]$. The main effect of session $[F_{(1, 20)} = 1.199, p > 0.05]$ and session x genotype interaction $[F_{(1, 20)} = 1.586, p > 0.05]$ were not significant. A *post hoc* Holm-Sidak's multiple comparison test found that locomotion was significantly greater in Cre- vs. Cre+ mice on session 2 $(p < 0.05)$ only.

4. Discussion

Together, the results of these studies in mice with genetic deletion of *Oprm1* in Foxp2-expressing neurons suggest that this select subpopulation of MORs contributes to the tendency to seek out or

consume a reward despite the presence of a concurrent aversive stimulus. Cre+ mice with Foxp2-MOR deletion were more sensitive to quinine punishment than their Cre- littermates when consuming alcohol in an intermittent access task and when responding for sucrose in an operant conditioning chamber. This pattern of results cannot be explained by differences in quinine sensitivity between Cre- and Cre+ mice, as the latter were actually less sensitive to quinine in water. Our results with morphine withdrawal-induced place aversion further suggest that Foxp2-MOR deletion does not impact aversive experiences more generally. Considering that EtOH drinking and responding for sucrose also remained intact, Foxp2-MORs also do not appear to be necessary for animals to respond to rewards.

Another notable finding is reduced locomotion following Foxp2-MOR deletion, both at baseline and in response to a morphine challenge. This result is not surprising as approximately 70% of striatal Foxp2 neurons express D1 receptors, which can stimulate locomotion [27–29] and are critical for the locomotor activating effects of opioids [30,31]. Mutations in Foxp2 also cause severe motor impairments in mice [32,33]. Importantly, these changes in locomotor activity did not impact the ability of Cre+ Foxp2-Cre/Oprm1$^{fl/fl}$ mice to engage in the alcohol drinking or operant response tasks and differences in locomotion were not observed in the place conditioning experiment. Considering that the observed differences in activity levels occurred in the first 10-20 minutes of the locomotor activity sessions, it is possible that they are specific to novelty-induced locomotion , which would not impact the majority of the behavioral tests used here.

While MORs have been widely implicated in many alcohol drinking behaviors, this study is the first to extend these findings to aversion-resistant drinking. Also, given the known role of the ventral striatum in mediating risk and punishment [34], including aversion-resistant EtOH drinking [35,36], we speculate that the effects of Foxp2-MOR deletion rely on this nucleus. However, an important caveat of the approach used here is that we cannot rule out a role for amygdala ITC cells or other Foxp2-expressing subpopulations, such as cortico-striatal projection neurons [33,37]. Future investigations into the role of MORs in aversion resistance should strive for increased region and cell-type specificity to fully characterize the role of these receptors in drinking despite negative consequences.

Acknowledgements

The authors are grateful to Kiara Ream, Ezra Eccles, and Caroline Scribner for assistance with behavioral experiments.

Author contributions: Harrison Carvour: Conceptualization, Formal Analysis, Investigation, Writing - Original Draft, Visualization. Charlotte Roemer: Investigation, Writing - Original Draft. D'Erick Underwood: Investigation, Writing - Original Draft. Edith Padilla: Formal Analysis, Investigation, Writing - Original Draft. Oscar Sandoval: Investigation, Writing - Original Draft. Megan Robertson: Formal Analysis, Investigation, Writing - Original Draft. Mallory Miller: Formal Analysis, Investigation. Natella Parsadanyan: Formal Analysis, Investigation. Thomas Perry: Investigation, Visualization. Anna Radke: Conceptualization, Formal Analysis, Writing - Review and Editing, Visualization, Supervision, Funding Acquisition.

Figure Legends

Figure 1. Selective genetic deletion of the mu opioid receptor *Oprm1* gene on Foxp2-expressing neurons. A) Heterozygous Foxp2-Cre males (Foxp2tm1.1(cre)Rpa/J, strain #030541) were bred with homozygous *Oprm1* floxed females (B6.129-Oprm1tm1.1 Cgrf/KffJ by B6.C, strain #030074) to produce a Cre-mediated deletion of the MOR gene (*Oprm1*) on Foxp2-expressing neurons. Foxp2-Cre/Oprm1$^{fl/fl}$ Cre- offspring had intact MORs while Cre+ offspring were missing MORs on Foxp2-expressing neurons. **B)** Fluorescent *in situ* hybridization confirmed *Oprm1* deletion in *Foxp2* neurons in the amygdala. Green = *Foxp2*, red = *Oprm1*, blue = DAPI nuclear stain.

Figure 2. Mu opioid receptor deletion on Foxp2-expressing neurons does not affect ethanol consumption or preference but does reduce aversion-resistant drinking. A) Consumption of 20% EtOH escalated across sessions, but MOR deletion did not lead to differences in 24-h consumption or **B)** preference. **C)** Consumption of 20% EtOH during the first thirty minutes of intermittent access sessions was higher in Cre+ Foxp2-Cre/Oprm1$^{fl/fl}$ mice on session 1. **D)** Preference did not differ between genotypes during the first thirty minutes of consumption. **E)** Quinine reduced consumption of EtOH in Cre- control mice at concentrations of 100 and 200 mg/L. Consumption was decreased in Cre+ mice at all concentrations. **F)** Preference for EtOH vs. water was significantly reduced in Cre- mice at the 200 mg/L quinine concentration. In Cre+ mice, preference was reduced at the 100 and 200 mg/L quinine concentrations. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$ main effect (2-way ANOVA). # $p < 0.05$, ## $p < 0.01$ vs. 0 mg/L (Dunnett's test).

Figure 3. Foxp2 *Oprm1* deletion alters sensitivity to quinine in water. A) Water consumption on intervening days of the intermittent access paradigm did not differ between Cre- and Cre+ Foxp2-Cre/Oprm1$^{fl/fl}$ mice. **B)** Cre- controls decreased water consumption at all quinine concentrations (1, 10, and 100 mg/L) while Cre+ mice with Foxp2-MOR deletion only reduced consumption at 10 and 100 mg/L. ** $p < 0.01$ main effect (2-way ANOVA). # $p < 0.05$, ## $p < 0.01$ vs. 0 mg/L (Dunnett's test).

Figure 4. Foxp2 *Oprm1* deletion does not alter responding for sucrose but does affect aversion-resistance. A) Foxp2-Cre/Oprm1^{fl/fl} mice responded for sucrose on the active nose-poke hole but responding was not affected by genotype. For both genotypes, active responses were lower for 2% vs. 10% and 5% sucrose. ## $p < 0.01$ (Holm-Sidak test). **B)** Cre- mice significantly decreased active responding for 2% sucrose at quinine concentrations of 100 and 200 mg/L. Cre+ mice were less aversion-resistant, significantly decreasing active responding to 2% sucrose at quinine concentrations of 10, 100, and 200 mg/L. # $p < 0.05$, ## $p < 0.01$ vs. 0 mg/L (Dunnett's test). ** $p < 0.01$ main effect (3-way ANOVA).

Figure 5. Genetic deletion of Foxp2 *Oprm1* does not impact aversion to morphine withdrawal. A) Mice decreased time spent on the withdrawal-paired side during the post- vs. pre-conditioning test. The magnitude of aversion was not influenced by genotype. ** $p < 0.01$ main effect (2-way ANOVA). **B)** Distance traveled did not differ between sessions or genotypes.

Figure 6. Locomotion is decreased by Foxp2 *Oprm1* deletion. A) Locomotor activity was decreased in Cre+ Foxp2-Cre/Oprm1^{fl/fl} mice in a time-dependent manner. **B)** Following a 20-mg/kg injection of morphine, locomotor activity was lower in Cre+ mice with MOR deletion in a time-dependent manner. **C)** Morphine-induced increases in locomotion were greater in Cre- vs. Cre+ mice. The first 60-min of the morphine challenge session are shown. ** $p < 0.01$ main effect (2-way ANOVA). # $p < 0.05$ (Holm-Sidak test).

References

[1] C. Gianoulakis, Endogenous opioids and addiction to alcohol and other drugs of abuse, Curr. Top. Med. Chem. 9 (2009) 999–1015.

[2] E. Erbs, L. Faget, G. Scherrer, A. Matifas, D. Filliol, J.-L. Vonesch, M. Koch, P. Kessler, D. Hentsch, M.-C. Birling, M. Koutsourakis, L. Vasseur, P. Veinante, B.L. Kieffer, D. Massotte, A mu-delta opioid receptor brain atlas reveals neuronal co-occurrence in subcortical networks, Brain Struct. Funct. 220 (2015) 677–702.

[3] C.J. Heyser, A.J. Roberts, G. Schulteis, G.F. Koob, Central administration of an opiate antagonist decreases oral ethanol self-administration in rats, Alcohol. Clin. Exp. Res. 23 (1999) 1468–1476.

[4] F.S. Hall, I. Sora, G.R. Uhl, Ethanol consumption and reward are decreased in mu-opiate receptor knockout mice, Psychopharmacology . 154 (2001) 43–49.

[5] A. Becker, G. Grecksch, J. Kraus, H.H. Loh, H. Schroeder, V. Höllt, Rewarding effects of ethanol and cocaine in μ opioid receptor-deficient mice, Naunyn-Schmiedeberg's Arch Pharmacol. 365 (2002) 296–302.

[6] S. Ghozland, K. Chu, B.L. Kieffer, A.J. Roberts, Lack of stimulant and anxiolytic-like effects of ethanol and accelerated development of ethanol dependence in mu-opioid receptor knockout mice, Neuropharmacology. 49 (2005) 493–501.

[7] M. Méndez, M. Morales-Mulia, Role of mu and delta opioid receptors in alcohol drinking behaviour, Curr. Drug Abuse Rev. 1 (2008) 239–252.

[8] L.A. Ray, S. Bujarski, J. MacKillop, K.E. Courtney, P.M. Monti, K. Miotto, Subjective response to alcohol among alcohol-dependent individuals: effects of the mu-opioid receptor (OPRM1) gene and alcoholism severity, Alcohol. Clin. Exp. Res. 37 (2013) E116–E124.

[9] P. Hyytiä, K. Kiianmaa, Suppression of ethanol responding by centrally administered CTOP and naltrindole in AA and Wistar rats, Alcohol. Clin. Exp. Res. 25 (2001) 25–33.

[10] N.W. Gilpin, H.N. Richardson, G.F. Koob, Effects of CRF1-receptor and opioid-receptor antagonists on dependence-induced increases in alcohol drinking by alcohol-preferring (P) rats, Alcohol. Clin. Exp. Res. 32 (2008) 1535–1542.

[11] P.W. Marinelli, D. Funk, W. Juzytsch, A.D. Lê, Opioid receptors in the basolateral amygdala but not dorsal hippocampus mediate context-induced alcohol seeking, Behav. Brain Res. 211 (2010) 58–63.

[12] M.F. Olive, H.N. Koenig, M.A. Nannini, C.W. Hodge, Stimulation of endorphin neurotransmission in the nucleus accumbens by ethanol, cocaine, and amphetamine, J. Neurosci. 21 (2001) RC184.

[13] M. Zhang, A.E. Kelley, Intake of saccharin, salt, and ethanol solutions is increased by infusion of a mu opioid agonist into the nucleus accumbens, Psychopharmacology . 159 (2002) 415–423.

[14] K.L. Foster, P.F. McKay, R. Seyoum, D. Milbourne, W. Yin, P.V.V.S. Sarma, J.M. Cook, H.L. June, GABAA and Opioid Receptors of the Central Nucleus of the Amygdala Selectively Regulate Ethanol-Maintained Behaviors, Neuropsychopharmacology. 29 (2003) 269–284.

[15] M.P. Lam, P.W. Marinelli, L. Bai, C. Gianoulakis, Effects of acute ethanol on opioid peptide release in the central amygdala: an in vivo microdialysis study, Psychopharmacology . 201 (2008) 261–271.

[16] C.J. Perry, G.P. McNally, μ-Opioid receptors in the nucleus accumbens shell mediate context-induced reinstatement (renewal) but not primed reinstatement of extinguished alcohol seeking, Behav. Neurosci. 127 (2013) 535–543.

[17] J.M. Richard, H.L. Fields, Mu-opioid receptor activation in the medial shell of nucleus accumbens promotes alcohol consumption, self-administration and cue-induced reinstatement, Neuropharmacology. 108 (2016) 14–23.

[18] S. Ben Hamida, L.-J. Boulos, M. McNicholas, P. Charbogne, B.L. Kieffer, Mu opioid receptors in GABAergic neurons of the forebrain promote alcohol reward and drinking, Addict. Biol. 24 (2019) 28–39.

[19] E. Likhtik, D. Popa, J. Apergis-Schoute, G.A. Fidacaro, D. Paré, Amygdala intercalated neurons are required for expression of fear extinction, Nature. 454 (2008) 642–645.

[20] P. Campbell, R.L. Reep, M.L. Stoll, A.G. Ophir, S.M. Phelps, Conservation and diversity of Foxp2 expression in muroid rodents: functional implications, J. Comp. Neurol. 512 (2009) 84–100.

[21] Y. Silberman, O.J. Ariwodola, J.L. Weiner, Differential effects of GABAB autoreceptor activation on ethanol potentiation of local and lateral paracapsular GABAergic synapses in the rat basolateral amygdala, Neuropharmacology. 56 (2009) 886–895.

[22] K.M. Hagihara, O. Bukalo, M. Zeller, A. Aksoy-Aksel, N. Karalis, A. Limoges, T. Rigg, T. Campbell, A. Mendez, C. Weinholtz, M. Mahn, L.S. Zweifel, R.D. Palmiter, I. Ehrlich, A. Lüthi, A. Holmes, Intercalated amygdala clusters orchestrate a switch in fear state, Nature. (2021). https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-021-03593-1.

[23] W.L. Fong, H.-Y. Kuo, H.-L. Wu, S.-Y. Chen, F.-C. Liu, Differential and Overlapping Pattern of Foxp1 and Foxp2 Expression in the Striatum of Adult Mouse Brain, Neuroscience. 388 (2018) 214–223.

[24] M.K. Lobo, E.J. Nestler, The striatal balancing act in drug addiction: distinct roles of direct and indirect pathway medium spiny neurons, Front. Neuroanat. 5 (2011) 41.

[25] T. Hikida, M. Morita, T. Macpherson, Neural mechanisms of the nucleus accumbens circuit in reward and aversive learning, Neurosci. Res. 108 (2016) 1–5.

[26] E.A. Sneddon, O.R. Ramsey, A. Thomas, A.K. Radke, Increased Responding for Alcohol and Resistance to Aversion in Female Mice, Alcohol. Clin. Exp. Res. 44 (2020) 1400–1409.

[27] W. Gong, D.B. Neill, M. Lynn, J.B. Justice Jr, Dopamine D1/D2 agonists injected into nucleus accumbens and ventral pallidum differentially affect locomotor activity depending on site, Neuroscience. 93 (1999) 1349–1358.

[28] A.H. Tran, R. Tamura, T. Uwano, T. Kobayashi, M. Katsuki, T. Ono, Dopamine D1 receptors involved in locomotor activity and accumbens neural responses to prediction of reward associated with place, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 102 (2005) 2117–2122.

[29] R.I. Desai, P. Terry, J.L. Katz, A comparison of the locomotor stimulant effects of D1-like receptor agonists in mice, Pharmacol. Biochem. Behav. 81 (2005) 843–848.

[30] A. Becker, G. Grecksch, J. Kraus, B. Peters, H. Schroeder, S. Schulz, V. Höllt, Loss of locomotor sensitisation in response to morphine in D1 receptor deficient mice, Naunyn. Schmiedebergs. Arch. Pharmacol. 363 (2001) 562–568.

[31] N.M. Urs, T.L. Daigle, M.G. Caron, A dopamine D1 receptor-dependent β-arrestin signaling complex potentially regulates morphine-induced psychomotor activation but not reward in mice, Neuropsychopharmacology. 36 (2011) 551–558.

[32] E. Fujita, Y. Tanabe, A. Shiota, M. Ueda, K. Suwa, M.Y. Momoi, T. Momoi, Ultrasonic vocalization impairment of Foxp2 (R552H) knockin mice related to speech-language disorder and abnormality of Purkinje cells, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 105 (2008) 3117–3122.

[33] C.A. French, S.E. Fisher, What can mice tell us about Foxp2 function?, Curr. Opin. Neurobiol. 28 (2014) 72–79.

[34] P.T. Piantadosi, L.R. Halladay, A.K. Radke, A. Holmes, Advances in understanding meso-cortico-limbic-striatal systems mediating risky reward seeking, J. Neurochem. 157 (2021) 1547–1571.

[35] T. Seif, S.-J. Chang, J.A. Simms, S.L. Gibb, J. Dadgar, B.T. Chen, B.K. Harvey, D. Ron, R.O. Messing, A. Bonci, F.W. Hopf, Cortical activation of accumbens hyperpolarization-active NMDARs mediates aversion-resistant alcohol intake, Nat. Neurosci. 16 (2013) 1094–1100.

[36] E.A. Sneddon, K.M. Schuh, J.W. Frankel, A.K. Radke, The contribution of medium spiny neuron subtypes in the nucleus accumbens core to compulsive-like ethanol drinking, Neuropharmacology. 187 (2021) 108497.

[37] T. Hisaoka, Y. Nakamura, E. Senba, Y. Morikawa, The forkhead transcription factors, Foxp1 and Foxp2, identify different subpopulations of projection neurons in the mouse cerebral cortex, Neuroscience. 166 (2010) 551–563.