

1 Brain Regional Gene Expression Network Analysis Identifies Unique Interactions Between
2 Chronic Ethanol Exposure and Consumption

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6 M.L. Smith², M.F. Lopez⁵, A.R. Wolen⁴, H.C. Becker^{5,6,7*}, and M.F. Miles^{1,2,3*}

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8 Departments of Pharmacology and Toxicology¹ and Human and Molecular Genetics², the VCU
9 Alcohol Research Center³, and the Center for Clinical and Translational Research⁴, Virginia
10 Commonwealth University, Richmond, Virginia, United States of America

11

12 Departments of ⁵Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences and ⁶Neuroscience, Medical University of
13 South Carolina, and ⁷RHJ Department of Veterans Affairs Medical Center, Charleston, South
14 Carolina, United States of America

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16 Keywords: *CIE, ethanol, drinking, WGCNA, co-expression, network, microarray, brain, synaptic*
17 *plasticity, mouse*

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19 *Corresponding authors:

20 Michael F. Miles

21 E-mail: Michael.miles@vcuhealth.org

22

23 Howard C. Becker

24 Email: beckerh@musc.edu

25

1 **Abstract**

2 Progressive increases in ethanol consumption is a hallmark of alcohol use disorder (AUD).
3 Persistent changes in brain gene expression are hypothesized to underlie the altered neural
4 signaling producing abusive consumption in AUD. To identify brain regional gene expression
5 networks contributing to progressive ethanol consumption, we performed microarray and scale-
6 free network analysis of expression responses in a C57BL/6J mouse model utilizing chronic
7 intermittent ethanol by vapor chamber (CIE) in combination with limited access oral ethanol
8 consumption. This model has previously been shown to produce long-lasting increased ethanol
9 consumption, particularly when combining oral ethanol access with repeated cycles of
10 intermittent vapor exposure. The interaction of CIE and oral consumption was studied by
11 expression profiling and network analysis in medial prefrontal cortex, nucleus accumbens,
12 hippocampus, bed nucleus of the stria terminalis, and central nucleus of the amygdala. Brain
13 region expression networks were analyzed for ethanol-responsive gene expression, correlation
14 with ethanol consumption and functional content using extensive bioinformatics studies. In all
15 brain-regions studied the largest number of changes in gene expression were seen when
16 comparing ethanol naïve mice to those exposed to CIE and drinking. In the prefrontal cortex,
17 however, unique patterns of gene expression were seen compared to other brain-regions.
18 Network analysis identified modules of co-expressed genes in all brain regions. The prefrontal
19 cortex and nucleus accumbens showed the greatest number of modules with significant
20 correlation to drinking behavior. Across brain-regions, however, many modules with strong
21 correlations to drinking, both baseline intake and amount consumed after CIE, showed
22 functional enrichment for synaptic transmission and synaptic plasticity.

23

1 **Introduction**

2 Alcohol use disorder (AUD) is a highly significant public health issue. The condition contributes
3 to over 60 types of diseases, and is responsible for over 2 million deaths worldwide every year
4 [1, 2]. A hallmark of AUD is progressive, abusive ethanol consumption over time. This increase
5 in ethanol consumption is thought to be due to neurobiological adaptations induced by ethanol
6 itself, and the repeated occurrence of ethanol withdrawal [3]. Previous studies in humans and
7 animal models of chronic alcohol exposure have led to the hypothesis that changes in gene
8 expression are a major molecular mechanism contributing to physiological and behavioral
9 alterations accompanying AUD [4-7].

10

11 Technologies such as microarrays have allowed for the study of the genome-wide effects of
12 ethanol exposure on mRNA expression [4], and scale-free network analysis provides a means
13 to organize transcriptome data into networks of co-expressed genes representing functional
14 pathways [8-12]. Further, gene-phenotype correlations allow for the identification of both
15 individual genes and gene networks associated with dependent variables such as ethanol
16 consumption. Using such approaches it may be possible to identify molecular network functions
17 contributing to increased drinking behavior seen with chronic ethanol exposure, and to pinpoint
18 candidate genes whose expression correlates with consumption; thus identifying new potential
19 therapeutic targets for the treatment of AUD.

20

21 Recent studies provide substantial predictive validation of new animal experimental models for
22 the discovery of therapeutic targets in the treatment of AUD [13-16]. Chronic intermittent ethanol
23 vapor exposure (CIE) in rodents is one such model, providing long-term intermittent intoxicating
24 ethanol exposure. As a part of this paradigm, mice or rats experience repeated cycles of high
25 blood ethanol levels provided by vapor exposure followed by withdrawal, similar to behavioral
26 patterns seen in alcoholics [17]. The CIE by vapor chamber model has been shown to cause

1 neurochemical and structural changes at the synapse and increases in ethanol consumption.
2 Our laboratories have also previously identified complex brain region-specific temporal patterns
3 of gene expression changes upon withdrawal from CIE [11, 18]. In mouse models, providing
4 limited access 2-bottle choice ethanol consumption in between cycles of ethanol vapor
5 exposure has been shown to more rapidly and significantly increase ethanol consumption [19].
6 The molecular mechanisms underlying this combined action of voluntary oral ethanol
7 consumption and cycles of high dose ethanol withdrawal on ethanol consumption are unknown
8 but could provide important directions for possible intervention in the progression from social to
9 abuse drinking [19, 20]. Previous studies of gene expression with CIE in C57BL/6J mice have
10 focused on differential gene expression during early withdrawal [21], or on RNA networks during
11 ethanol exposure and withdrawal associated with cell type-specific gene expression [18]. This
12 current study explores the relationship between high-dose ethanol vapor exposure, intermittent
13 drinking, and withdrawal in an attempt to identify mechanisms by which this model leads to
14 progressive increases in ethanol intake.

15
16 This manuscript presents a detailed analysis of gene expression network-level changes caused
17 by CIE exposure with or without intermittent oral ethanol consumption, across multiple brain-
18 regions using Weighted Gene Correlated Network Analysis (WGCNA) [22]. The brain-regions
19 studied have been associated in numerous studies with the development of AUD [15, 23, 24].
20 By combining statistical analysis for genes regulated by ethanol consumption, CIE, or the
21 combination, we identify brain-region selective expression networks responding to particular
22 ethanol exposure models. Specifically we show that prefrontal cortex (PFC) and bed nucleus of
23 the stria terminals (BNST) showed prominent responses to CIE and drinking, but the nucleus
24 accumbens (NAC) and hippocampus (HPC) were primarily responsive to high-dose ethanol
25 vapor exposure alone, while gene expression in the central nucleus of the amygdala (CeA) may
26 be particularly altered by ethanol withdrawal. Furthermore, we identified expression networks

1 that correlated with increased ethanol consumption caused by cycles of CIE and drinking,
2 suggesting mechanistic relationships. We also demonstrate that some of the most strongly
3 correlated genes are those related to synaptic transmission and synaptic plasticity. Together,
4 our findings contribute substantial new knowledge to our understanding of brain regional gene
5 network adaptations contributing to brain plasticity during various stages of AUD.

6

7 **Materials and Methods**

8 *Animals*

9 Adult male C57BL/6J mice were purchased from Jackson Laboratories (Bar Harbor, ME, USA)
10 at 10 weeks of age. Mice were kept under a 12-hour light/dark cycle and given free access to
11 water and standard rodent chow (Harland, Teklad, Madison, WI). Mice were kept on corncob
12 bedding (#7092a and #7902.25 Harland, Teklad, Madison, WI). All studies were conducted in
13 an AALAC-accredited animal facility, and approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use
14 Committee at Medical University of South Carolina (MUSC). All experimental and animal care
15 procedures met guidelines outlined in the NIH Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory
16 Animals.

17

18 *Chronic Intermittent Ethanol (CIE)*

19 Studies were designed to determine genomic responses and interactions between two different
20 ethanol exposure models: intermittent cycles of ethanol vapor exposure in inhalation chambers
21 (CIE), and oral consumption of 15% (v/v) ethanol in a limited access (2 h/session) paradigm.
22 Mice were divided into 4 treatment groups: the CIE-Drinking group received inhaled ethanol in
23 the vapor chambers followed by 2-bottle choice ethanol drinking in between vapor exposure
24 cycles; the Air-Drinking group received only air in the vapor chambers, but had 2-bottle choice
25 ethanol drinking between CIE cycles; the CIE-NonDrinking group received inhaled ethanol in the
26 vapor chambers but only water access in between CIE cycles; and the Air-NonDrinking group

1 remained ethanol naïve with air exposure in vapor chambers and only water consumption
2 between CIE cycles. Following a 2-week acclimation period, mice in the CIE-Drinking and Air-
3 Drinking groups underwent 6-weeks of 2-bottle choice drinking to establish baseline drinking
4 levels. Ethanol and water intake for each individual mouse was measured daily. Following 6-
5 weeks of baseline drinking, mice were placed in Plexiglass inhalation chambers (60x36x60 cm)
6 16 hours/day for 4 days. Ethanol was volatilized with an air stone submerged in 95% ethanol.
7 Vapor chamber ethanol concentrations were monitored daily and air flow was adjusted to
8 ethanol concentrations within 10-13 mg/l air. This ethanol vapor concentration has been shown
9 to yield stable blood ethanol concentrations (175-225 mg/dL) in C57BL/6J mice [25]. Before
10 each vapor chamber session, intoxication was initiated in the CIE group by administration of 1.6
11 g/kg ethanol and 1 mmol/kg pyrazole intraperitoneally (i.p.) at a volume of 0.02 ml/g body
12 weight. Pyrazole is an alcohol dehydrogenase inhibitor used to stabilize blood ethanol
13 concentrations. All mice received the same number and timing of pyrazole injections prior to
14 final removal from the inhalation chambers with control mice receiving saline and pyrazole (i.p.),
15 also at a volume of 0.02 ml/g body weight, prior to being placed into control vapor chambers.
16 Control vapor chambers delivered only air without ethanol vapor. After 4 days in the inhalation
17 chambers, mice underwent a 72-hour period of total abstinence from ethanol. Following the
18 abstinence period, mice in the CIE-Drinking and Air-Drinking groups were given 2-bottle choice
19 drinking for 2 hours per day for 5 days. A total of 4 cycles of CIE-abstinence-drinking were
20 performed. After the end of the 4th cycle mice were sacrificed on the 5th drinking day before
21 receiving ethanol/water access on that day at the time they received 2-bottle choice drinking all
22 previous drinking days (Figure 1).

23

24 *Tissue Harvesting, RNA Isolation, and Microarray Hybridization*

25 Mice were sacrificed by decapitation, brains were immediately removed from the skull, and
26 brain-regions dissected as previously described [21]. Tissues were stored at -80°C until RNA

1 isolation. Total RNA was extracted using the RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen Valencia, CA). Affymetrix
2 GeneChip® Mouse Genome 430, type 2 arrays were used to measure gene expression.
3 Sample preparation, hybridization, and array scanning were performed at the MUSC
4 ProteoGenomics Core Facility according to procedures optimized by Affymetrix (Santa Clara,
5 CA, USA). Each brain-region was processed separately with treatment groups randomized to
6 minimize batch effects. Array data was stored in CEL file format, and sent to Virginia
7 Commonwealth University (VCU) for analysis.

8

9 *Microarray Analysis*

10 Affymetrix GeneChip® Mouse Genome 430, type 2 arrays were analyzed with The R Project for
11 Statistical Computing (<http://www.r-project.org/>). Microarray quality was assessed by RNA
12 degradation, average background, percent present probesets, and multi-dimensional scale plots
13 (first principal component by second principal component). Arrays showing low quality
14 measures, or that appeared to be outliers, were removed from the dataset. Background
15 correction using Robust Multi-array Average (RMA) and quantile normalization was performed
16 using the affy package for R [26, 27]. Each brain-region was normalized separately. ComBat by
17 RNA hybridization batch was used to correct for any batch effects present in the data [28].

18

19 *CIE and Drinking Responsive Genes*

20 Statistical analysis to identify significantly regulated genes was performed using the limma
21 package for R [29]. Two factor LIMMA looking at treatment and drinking, as well as interaction,
22 was used for initial analysis. However, we also ran LIMMA with each treatment group as an
23 independent variable. This was done based on the fact that, over the course of the study, each
24 group received a different overall dose of ethanol, number of, and duration of exposure. Each
25 possible comparison between the 4 treatment groups was performed leading to 6 total
26 comparisons labeled 1 through 6. Overall significance was also measured by ANOVA. Multiple

1 testing was adjusted using the Benjamini and Hochberg false discovery rate method (FDR) [30].

2 False discovery rates equal to or less than 0.01 were considered significant.

3

4 *Statistical Analysis of 2-Bottle Choice Drinking*

5 Average ethanol intake (g/kg) was calculated across 5 drinking days of each week during the

6 baseline-drinking period. During the testing cycles, mice also drank for 5 days; therefore

7 average drinking across these 5 days was calculated to represent drinking during each CIE

8 cycle. Differences in drinking were determined by Two Way ANOVA with Repeated Measures

9 using SigmaPlot 12.0 (Systat Software, San Jose, CA, USA).

10

11 *Weighted Gene Correlated Network Analysis*

12 Weighted Gene Correlated Network Analysis (WGCNA) was used to perform scale-free network

13 topology analysis of microarrays [22]. Such scale-free network approaches have been used

14 previously to identify biological pathways influenced by ethanol exposure in mice [11, 12].

15 WGCNA was performed on each brain-region separately using the WGCNA package for R [31].

16 Overall significance by one-way ANOVA comparing all groups (FDR equal to or less than 0.01)

17 was used to select probesets to be included in network analysis. A probeset found to be

18 significant by ANOVA in any brain region was included to generate the overall probeset list used

19 for WGCNA across all brain regions. Standard WGCNA parameters were used for analysis with

20 the exceptions of soft-thresholding power and deep split. Appropriate soft-thresholding powers

21 were selected using previously described methods [31]. A soft-thresholding power of 6 was

22 used for all brain-regions except the PFC for which a soft-thresholding power of 8 was used.

23 WGCNA was performed with deep-split values of 0-3. Deep-split value was selected by a multi-

24 dimensional scaling (MDS) plot, which displayed first and second principal components. Deep-

25 split values were to minimize module overlap on the MDS plot. Deep-split values of 3 were

26 chosen for the PFC, NAC, and CeA. For the HPC a deep-split of 2 was chosen, and a deep-split

1 of 0 for the BNST. Modules were validated based a permutation procedure outlined by Lancu et
2 al. [32]. Briefly, the average topological overlap of probesets assigned to each module was
3 compared to the average topological overlap of 100 bootstrapped modules comprised of
4 randomly sampled probesets. Z-scores of average topological overlap between probesets
5 assigned to the module, and modules comprised of random probesets were used to calculate p-
6 values and false discovery rates (FDR). Modules with FDR values ≤ 0.2 were considered
7 validated.

8

9 *WGCNA-Drinking Correlation*

10 Modules identified by WGCNA were related to drinking data by Spearman Rank correlation
11 using the module eigengene as previously described [33, 34]. Individual probesets were also
12 correlated to drinking data with the Spearman Rank method. These correlations were then used
13 to identify modules enriched in genes whose expression showed systemic relationships with
14 drinking behavior across 4 cycles of CIE with 2-bottle choice drinking.

15

16 *Bioinformatics*

17 Modules identified by WGCNA were examined for function using publicly available
18 bioinformatics resources. The Functional Annotation Chart tool from DAVID
19 (<http://david.abcc.ncifcrf.gov/>) [35] was used to identify biological pathways highly represented
20 by genes grouped into each module. Gene Ontology terms were then summarized by semantic
21 similarity using REVIGO (revigo.irb.hr/). GeneMANIA (<http://www.genemania.org>) was also
22 used for functional analysis through use of GO process constituent genes as query lists.
23 GeneMANIA mines public database and publication data to identify known associations
24 between genes and their protein products. Co-expression modules identified in this dataset
25 were also compared to those identified in corresponding brain-regions in a previously published
26 study from our laboratory of the time-dependent effects of multiple cycles of CIE by vapor

1 chamber [11]. This comparison was performed using WGCNA's `userListEnrichment()` function,
2 utilizing hypergeometric overlap to determine significance of enrichment [31]. Hypergeometric
3 overlap p-values were adjusted for multiple testing using false discovery rates [30]. Module
4 overlaps were considered significant at a $FDR \leq 0.05$. Since all brain-regions in this study used
5 RNA from whole tissue samples, modules were also examined for enrichment for genes
6 expressed in specialized cell-types [36] found in brain (neurons, astrocytes, and
7 oligodendrocytes) to determine whether any identified modules represented specific cell-type
8 gene expression changes within a brain-region [37]. The `userListEnrichment()` function was also
9 used for cell-type enrichment analysis, with Bonferroni corrected p-values ≤ 0.05 considered
10 significant.

11

12 *Module Disruption*

13 Changes in network structure were measured based on the module disruption method outlined
14 by Iancu *et al.* [38]. This method was adapted from the module preservation method [39], which
15 examines module statistics across randomly selected network nodes (genes). The module
16 disruption method looked at a set of bootstrap networks ($n=200$) generated by randomly
17 selecting a subset of samples without regard to treatment group. Connectivity statistics as
18 described by WGCNA [39] were then generated for each random network. The average
19 correlation of each network's intramodular connectivity (kIM) and total network connectivity
20 (kME) to that for all other randomly generated networks was calculated. These values were then
21 compared to the correlation of intramodular connectivity ($cor.kIM$) and total connectivity
22 ($cor.kME$) between two treatment groups. For the purposes of this study, we compared the CIE
23 Drinking group to the Air NonDrinking group. Difference in correlation between treatment
24 groups, and all bootstrap networks were quantified using a Z score:

25

$$26 \quad Z = \frac{obs - \mu}{\sigma}$$

1 obs = Correlation between network statistic between treatment groups.

2 μ = Average correlation between network statistic for comparisons of 200 random networks.

3 σ = Standard deviation of correlation between network statistic for comparisons of 200 random
4 networks.

5

6 In accordance with lancu *et al.* [38], modules with Z scores less than -2 were considered

7 significantly disrupted (see Suppl. Table 12).

8

9

10 **Results**

11 *2-Bottle Choice Drinking*

12 Consistent with previous behavioral studies of CIE combined with ethanol consumption [19],

13 Two Way ANOVA with Repeated Measures revealed significant differences in ethanol intake (p-
14 value ≤ 0.05) between the CIE-Drinking and Air-Drinking groups after the first, third, and fourth

15 vapor chamber session. After the second vapor chamber cycle, the CIE-Drinking group

16 decreased ethanol intake compared to the first vapor chamber cycle, therefore, at this time-

17 point, there was no significant difference in amount of ethanol consumed between CIE-Drinking

18 and Air-Drinking groups. However, after the third and fourth vapor chamber sessions, the CIE-

19 Drinking group drank significantly more ethanol than the Air-Drinking group (Figure 2, Suppl.

20 Table 1). Interestingly, both the CIE-Drinking and Air-Drinking groups drank significantly more,

21 compared to baseline, after only one session in the vapor chamber (Figure 2, Suppl. Table 1).

22 This suggests that exposure to the air inhalation chambers may affect ethanol consumption.

23 However, animals exposed to ethanol vapor during inhalation chamber sessions consumed

24 significantly more ethanol, indicating that prolonged exposure to intoxicating levels of ethanol is

25 the major driver of changes in drinking behavior.

26

1 *Gene Expression with CIE and Drinking*

2 To define molecular mechanisms contributing to the actions of chronic ethanol vapor exposure
3 and intercurrent oral ethanol intake on escalating ethanol consumption seen in Figure 2, we
4 performed extensive microarray studies across brain regions implicated in CIE through our prior
5 genomic studies [11, 21]. Statistical analysis of microarray data with LIMMA found more
6 significant differences in gene expression when each treatment group was treated as an
7 independent group (Table 1, Suppl. Table 3). Significant differences in gene expression were
8 found between each of the four treatment groups in the PFC, suggesting prominent treatment-
9 specific responses in that brain region. Other brain regions, however, showed very different
10 patterns of differential gene expression. In the NAC, HPC, BNST, and CeA, significant
11 differences in gene expression were seen only seen with comparisons 1 (CIE-Drinking vs. Air-
12 Drinking), 3 (CIE-Drinking vs. CIE-NonDrinking), and 4 (CIE-Drinking vs. Air-NonDrinking)
13 (Table 1, Suppl. Table 2). Examining overlap between these comparisons revealed that a
14 substantial number of genes were significant across all 3 comparisons, or between any
15 combination of 2 comparisons in the PFC, BNST, and CeA. However, in the NAC and HPC, the
16 majority of overlap was between CIE-Drinking vs. Air-NonDrinking and CIE-Drinking vs. Air-
17 Drinking (Figure 3). Across NAC, HPC, BNST and CeA, the largest number of differentially
18 expressed genes was seen between the CIE-Drinking group and the ethanol naïve Air-
19 NonDrinking group (Table 1, comparison 4). These four regions, however, did show significant
20 differential gene expression in comparison 1 (CIE-Drinking vs. Air-Drinking), and comparison 3
21 (CIE-Drinking vs. CIE-NonDrinking) (Table 1). This finding indicates an interaction between
22 prolonged exposure to inhaled ethanol and voluntary intermittent drinking. Unique to the PFC,
23 large expression differences were seen across all comparisons but comparison 4 (CIE-Drinking
24 vs. Air-NonDrinking) had the smallest number of changes, in contrast to other brain regions
25 (Table 1, Suppl. Table 2).

26

1 *Weighted Gene Correlated Network Analysis*

2 To identify networks of coordinately regulated genes that might point to specific biological
3 functions, we performed WGCNA analysis independently across all brain regions. To limit the
4 WGCNA input to those genes showing some expression response to ethanol, we combined
5 LIMMA-positive gene lists across all brain regions as described in Methods and our prior studies
6 [11]. WGCNA identified modules of co-expressed genes in all brain-regions. Module sizes
7 varied from over 3000 probesets to less than 35 (Table 2). Module validation using topological
8 overlap showed that most modules identified withstood permutation of constituent genes, as
9 indicated by Z-score false discovery rates ≤ 0.2 (Suppl. Table 11). One module in the CeA,
10 greenyellow, did not show a significant false discovery rate, indicating that module may be the
11 result of spurious associations. Additionally, in each brain region, the FDR of topological overlap
12 Z-scores for the grey modules was 1 as expected, since WGCNA groups all genes which do not
13 show significant topological overlap with any other module into the grey module. When WGCNA
14 modules were interrogated by over-representation analysis for LIMMA-positive genes from
15 various treatment comparisons across brain regions, PFC showed the largest extent of
16 enrichment for LIMMA-positive genes across modules and these were generally distributed
17 across multiple treatment comparisons (Figure 4, Suppl. Table 11). In PFC 17 out of 21
18 modules, excluding the Grey module, were enriched for LIMMA-positive results across at least
19 one comparison group. These generally included both CIE-Drinking and CIE-NonDrinking
20 groups. In contrast, other brain regions generally showed few modules enriched for LIMMA-
21 positive genes and these all involved treatment comparisons with CIE-Drinking animals,
22 although these brain regions also did not have as many LIMMA-positive genes across multiple
23 treatment groups (Figure 4).

24

25 *WGCNA Module Phenotypic Correlations*

1 To define WGCNA modules functionally related to ethanol drinking behaviors, we calculated
2 Spearman correlations for module eigengenes with phenotypic data collected across the course
3 of the experiment (Figures 5 and 8; Suppl. Figures 1-3 and Suppl. Table 5). Across brain
4 regions, the highest correlation between drinking data and module eigengene expression was
5 seen with ethanol intake with after CIE cycle 4, and with change in ethanol intake between
6 baseline and CIE cycle 4. The PFC and NAC showed the largest number of modules with highly
7 significant correlation to drinking (Figure 5 and 8). The HPC, BNST, and CeA did not show as
8 many strong correlations to drinking, but certain modules showed module-phenotype
9 correlations with significant p-values (≤ 0.05) at specific session time-points (Suppl. Figures 1-3).

10

11 *WGCNA Module Disruption in CIE-Drinking vs. Air-Nondrinking Groups*

12 In addition to identifying network modules over-represented for LIMMA-positive genes or
13 correlating with ethanol behavioral phenotypes as above, we also identified networks showing
14 the largest degree of network structure disruption caused by CIE. Such metrics can identify
15 more subtle changes in expression networks caused by a given treatment. For the purposes of
16 focusing on the presumed most extreme changes, as described in Methods, we performed
17 network disruption analysis between the Air-NonDrinking and CIE-Drinking groups. Network
18 disruption was calculated for both the average correlation of intramodular connectivity (cor.kIM)
19 and total connectivity (cor.kME) with full results in Suppl. Table 12. The $Z_{\text{cor.kIM}}$ values gave
20 larger numbers of disrupted modules but largely overlapped with $Z_{\text{cor.kME}}$ results, and are
21 thus discussed further here and shown in Table 3. Larger modules, in general, showed more
22 significant disruption scores (Pearson $r = -0.696$, $p=0.0013$) but there was not a strict
23 correspondence between the number of modules and their size vs. the number significantly
24 disrupted by CIE treatment across brain regions. NAc showed the largest number and
25 percentage of disrupted modules (17/24), followed by CeA (9/18), BNST (5/14), HPC (4/15) and
26 then PFC (4/21). Thus, despite NAc only showing two modules with over-representation for

1 Air_Nondrinking vs. CIE_Drinking regulated genes, that brain region showed the greatest
2 percentage of modules with connectivity disrupted by CIE. This suggests a dissociation between
3 more subtle network-level responses to CIE versus robust CIE-regulation of individual genes.

4

5 *Bioinformatics Analysis of WGCNA Modules*

6 Prefrontal Cortex -- As previously noted, the strongest correlations between ethanol intake and
7 modules in the PFC were seen after the 4th CIE cycle. The strongest correlations between
8 WGCNA modules and all intake measures were between change from baseline drinking after
9 CIE cycle 4 and eigengenes for the turquoise module ($r=0.8$, $p\text{-value} = 1e-12$), the magenta
10 module ($r=0.65$, $p\text{-value} = 6e-7$), and the grey60 module ($r=-0.72$, $p\text{-value} = 9e-9$) (Figure 5).

11 The magenta and turquoise modules showed Gene Ontology (GO) hits related to neuron
12 development and synaptic transmission (Suppl. Table 6). Specific genes within these GO
13 categories include *Ngfr*, *Ppp1r9a*, *Fgfr1*, *Sox1*, *Slc1a3* (turquoise module), and *Grin2b*, *Htt*,
14 *Cacna1a*, *Ppp3ca*, *Rims1* (magenta module). All of these genes, individually, show significant
15 correlation with change in drinking between baseline and CIE cycle 4 (Suppl. Tables 4-6). The
16 green module also showed significant correlation to ethanol intake after CIE cycle 4, and to
17 absolute and percent change in ethanol intake between CIE cycle 4 and baseline ($r=0.49$, $p\text{-}$
18 $\text{value}=6e-4$ with ethanol intake, $r=0.39$, $p\text{-value}=0.009$ with absolute change from baseline,
19 $r=0.35$, $p\text{-value}=0.02$ with percent change from baseline) (Suppl. Tables 4-6). This module had
20 significant enrichment for regulation of neurotransmission as indicated by several GO categories
21 (Figure 6). In addition, this module was significantly enriched for genes involved in neuron
22 ensheathment by myelin (GO: 0007272, GO: 0008366, GO: 0042552). Myelin genes within this
23 module include *Cd9*, *Lgi4*, *Cldn11*, *Olig2*, *Gjc3*, *Gas3st1*, and *Mbp* (Suppl. Tables 4-6). Using
24 the myelin-related genes from the green module as an input list, GeneMANIA validated that
25 those genes have shown co-expression, co-localization, or protein-protein interactions in
26 previous published studies (Figure 6). The large turquoise module also showed a strong GO hit

1 for chromatin modification (GO:0016568). Genes in the turquoise module within this category
2 include many well-known chromatin modification genes such as *Dnmt1*, *Dnmt3b*, *Hdac8*, *Bcor*,
3 *Crebbp*, *Ctcf*, *Bptf*, *Smarca5*, and *Smarcc1* [40-45] (Figure 7). The grey60 module also showed
4 a significant GO hit for chromatin (GO:0000785). Genes within this category were *H1f0*, *Tcp1*,
5 and *Klhdc3* (Suppl. Table 6). Of these genes, *Hdac8*, *Bcor*, *Crebbp*, *Ctcf*, *Bptf*, *Smarca5*,
6 *Smarcc1*, *H1f0*, *Tcp1*, and *Klhdc3* were significantly correlated with change in baseline intake
7 after CIE cycle 4 or with ethanol intake after CIE cycle 4 (Suppl. Tables 4-6).

8
9 Nucleus Accumbens -- Patterns of module-ethanol intake correlations in the NAC were more
10 scattered than those seen in the PFC, but the strongest correlations were still seen with intake
11 after the 4th cycle of CIE (Figure 8). These modules were the royalblue ($r=0.74$, $p\text{-value} = 3e-10$
12 with ethanol intake, $r=0.67$, $p\text{-value} = 6e-8$ with percent change from baseline), and salmon
13 modules ($r=-0.79$, $p\text{-value} = 8e-13$ with ethanol intake, $r=-0.47$, $p\text{-value} = 6e-4$ with change in
14 drinking from baseline). The royalblue module contained probesets for several subunits of the
15 ribosomal complex (*Rps7*, *Rsp10*, *Rps13*, *Rps17*, *Rps26*, *Rpl12*, *Rpl28*, *Rpl32*, *Rpl35*, *Rpl36*,
16 *Rpl37a*, *Fau*) indicating this module may play a role in regulation of protein synthesis (Suppl.
17 Tables 5 and 7). Whereas GO hits for cellular metabolic processes, such as glucose, fumarate,
18 glutamate, and aspartate processing, were seen in the salmon module (Suppl. Table 7). The
19 lightyellow and yellow modules repeatedly showed significant correlation with both baseline
20 drinking, and with drinking after each cycle of CIE. In both of these modules, however, this
21 correlation decreased following the 4th CIE cycle. Finally, several modules (blue, lightyellow, tan,
22 magenta, salmon, and yellow) showed very strong correlation to baseline drinking. Of these, the
23 blue, lightyellow, magenta, and yellow showed GO hits related to synaptic transmission or
24 synaptic plasticity (Suppl. Table 7). The magenta and tan modules contained genes related to
25 chromatin modification (Magenta: *Ing4*, *Ing3*, *Hdac1*, *Rbbp4*, *Kat5*. Tan: *Hdac9*, *Zbtb16*), and
26 development (Magenta: *Rtn4*, *Sox9*, *Bmpr1b*. Tan: *Fgf9*, *Hdac9*, *Igf3*, *Zbtb16*) (Suppl. Table

1 7). Together, these modules indicate that, in addition to alterations in mRNA expression, CIE-
2 induced changes in protein and metabolite populations in the NAC may be involved in the
3 observed increase in ethanol intake (Figure 2) [19].
4
5 Hippocampus -- In the hippocampus, a noticeable pattern of module-intake correlation was also
6 seen in after the 4th cycle of CIE. In the greenyellow, black, purple, and yellow modules
7 significant correlations were seen with change in intake from baseline to CIE cycle 4. All of
8 these modules showed significant overlap with GO categories related to synaptic transmission
9 (black, purple and yellow) or neuron development (purple, greenyellow, and yellow) (Suppl.
10 Figure 1, Suppl. Table 8). The pink and magenta modules showed significant correlation to
11 percent change in intake from baseline after CIE cycle 3 (pink module: $r=0.4$, p -value = 0.009,
12 magenta module: $r=0.42$, p -value = 0.006). Significant correlations with intake in CIE cycle 1,
13 and percent change from baseline intake were also seen in a few modules such as the yellow,
14 cyan, and brown. Like the yellow module, the brown and magenta modules showed GO hits
15 specifically for neuron development or synaptic transmission. GO analysis of the pink module
16 showed many hits related to electron transport chain regulation, and cell motility. However, this
17 module also showed significant overlap with two GO categories related to dendrite structure
18 (GO:0043197, GO:0030425) (Suppl. Table 8). Genes from the pink module within these
19 categories included *Ppp1r9a*, *Fbxo2*, and *Gria3*. *Ppp1r9a* correlated significantly with ethanol
20 intake after CIE cycle 1 and percent change from baseline to CIE cycle 1; and *Fbxo2* and *Gria3*
21 significantly correlated with percent change from baseline to CIE cycle 3 and CIE cycle 4
22 (Suppl. Figure 1).
23
24 Bed Nucleus of the Stria Terminalis -- Fewer compelling intake correlations were seen in the
25 BNST compared to other brain-regions. However, the turquoise and black modules showed very
26 strong correlations to intake after the first cycle of CIE (black module: $r=0.57$, p -value = $4e-05$

1 with ethanol intake, turquoise module: $r=-0.55$, $p\text{-value} = 9e-05$ with ethanol intake). Both of
2 these modules showed multiple GO hits for synaptic transmission (Suppl. Figure 2, Suppl. Table
3 9). The black module also contained 4 gene ontology hits related to myelination (GO:0042552,
4 GO:0008366, GO:0007272, GO: 0019911) (Suppl. Table 9). Genes contained within these
5 categories included some of the known myelin building blocks such as myelin basic protein
6 (*Mbp*), myelin-associated oligodendrocyte basic protein (*Mobp*), galactose-3-O sulfotransferase
7 1 (*Gal3st1*), oligodendrocyte transcription factor (*Olig2*), and Cd9 (*Cd9*) [46, 47]. Although most
8 of these genes correlated with ethanol intake after CIE cycle 1, and with percent change from
9 baseline to CIE cycle 1 (Suppl. Table 5), very little change in mRNA expression, with any of the
10 6 comparisons examined, was seen in the BNST (Suppl. Table 4). Compared to other brain-
11 regions, the BNST also showed fewer modules with strong correlations to intake after CIE cycle
12 4. The red module is a notable exception, with a correlation coefficient of 0.55, and $p\text{-value}$ of
13 $7e-05$ with change in drinking from baseline. This module also showed significant overlap with
14 several GO categories for synaptic transmission (Suppl. Table 9). Similar to the myelin-related
15 genes seen in the black module, however, most of the genes within these GO categories did not
16 show significant differences in mRNA expression across treatment groups (Suppl. Table 4). In
17 spite of these relatively level gene expression patterns, certain genes in this module did show
18 significant correlation with ethanol intake after CIE cycle 4 and percent change in drinking from
19 baseline to CIE cycle 4 (Suppl. Figure 2). These genes included ionotropic glutamate receptor
20 subunits: *Gria4*, *Grin2b* and *Grin3a*. Metabotropic glutamate receptor 2 (*Grm2*) also correlated
21 significantly with ethanol drinking at CIE cycle 4 and percent change from baseline.

22

23 Central Nucleus of the Amygdala -- Module-drinking correlations seen in the CeA were
24 sporadic, with few noticeable trends for correlation to a specific drinking measure. The two
25 strongest correlations observed were correlations between the blue module and percent change
26 from baseline and CIE cycle 4, and the green module with intake with CIE cycle 4 (Suppl. Figure

1 3). Functionally, the blue module contained several genes related to ion-mediated synaptic
2 transmission such as *Gria4*, *Grin2b*, *Grin1*, *Grid2*, *Kcnma1*, *Cacnb4*, and *Cacna1a* (Suppl.
3 Table 10). The green module, however, showed many GO hits related to chromatin
4 modification. Several of the genes in these categories were the same as those seen in the PFC
5 turquoise module such as *Bcor*, *Smarcc1*, *Smarca5*, *Bptf* and *Ctcf*. Other known chromatin
6 remodeling genes present in the CeA green module included *Smarca4*, *Ncor1*, *Rcor1*, and
7 *Rbbp4*. All of these genes except *Bptf*, *Rcor1*, and *Rbbp4* strongly correlated with ethanol intake
8 after CIE cycle 4 (Suppl. Table 10). This finding is, perhaps, not surprising considering the
9 green module as a whole (as indicated by module eigengene) also significantly correlated to
10 ethanol drinking during the final CIE cycle (Suppl. Figure 3).

11

12 **Discussion**

13 Through a systems biology approach we have characterized the transcriptome level response to
14 chronic intermittent ethanol by vapor chamber with and without 2-bottle choice drinking, and
15 identified modules of co-expressed genes in 5 regions of the mesocorticolimbic system and
16 extended amygdala. The CIE plus drinking model has been shown; both in this study and in
17 previous ones, to increase ethanol consumption with each successive vapor chamber cycle
18 (Figure 2) [19, 48].

19

20 Differential expression analysis with LIMMA showed that both CIE and drinking affect gene
21 expression in the PFC. Through overlap analysis between all comparisons of all 4 treatment
22 groups, our results further suggested that gene expression changes in the NAC and HPC are
23 primarily regulated by CIE, whereas in the PFC, BSNT, and CeA an interaction effect between
24 CIE and drinking is seen (Table 1, Figure 3). Differences across treatment categories might
25 simply reflect a linear or non-linear response to the total amount of ethanol exposure. However,
26 the nature of the CIE and drinking model also raises the possibility that withdrawal time

1 influences gene expression differences between the 4 treatment groups. The drinking groups, at
2 time of sacrifice, have been abstinent from ethanol for 22 hours, whereas the non-drinking
3 groups have been abstinent for roughly 8 days.

4
5 Network analysis with WGCNA revealed specific patterns of correlated gene expression in each
6 brain region used in this study. This network-centric approach also allowed us to correlate both
7 individual genes and modules of co-expressed genes directly to ethanol drinking. The strongest
8 correlations between gene co-expression modules and drinking were seen in the PFC and NAC.
9 These results suggest that these brain regions may have the strongest influence on the
10 increase in drinking seen with CIE (Figure 2). The influence of the prefrontal cortex on behaviors
11 associated with alcohol use disorders such as increased ethanol consumption and uncontrolled
12 intake have been associated with this brain region's role in impulse control and compulsivity [49,
13 50]. The nucleus accumbens, however, has been hypothesized to impact ethanol drinking
14 behavior due to its involvement in reward [51, 52]. Therefore, ethanol-responsive gene
15 expression changes in areas of the brain that control impulsivity and reward are implicated by
16 network analysis in the increase in drinking seen following repeated exposure to intoxicating
17 levels of ethanol.

18
19 One particularly striking finding was that those modules most strongly correlated with drinking
20 after CIE exposure were consistently overrepresented for genes involved in synaptic
21 transmission and synaptic plasticity (Suppl. Tables 6-10). This finding is not unexpected, as
22 ethanol exposure has previously been shown to affect synaptic transmission, and synaptic
23 architecture in several of the brain regions studied in these experiments [15, 23, 24, 53, 54].
24 These findings build on previous investigations into the molecular mechanisms of ethanol
25 response in the brain, to suggest that the effect of repeated, prolonged ethanol exposure on
26 synaptic transmission and synaptic architecture may have a direct influence on behavior both in

1 animal models and human alcoholics. Specifically, correlated changes in expression of genes
2 involved in synaptic remodeling in the mesocorticolimbic system and extended amygdala, in
3 response to repeated cycles of CIE by vapor chamber, may underlie the observed increase in
4 voluntary ethanol intake (Figure 2). In fact, recent research utilizing neuroimaging technologies
5 have explored the effect of alcohol addiction on brain structure and function, and the relation to
6 drinking behavior in humans [55, 56]. These studies have linked reduced grey matter volume in
7 the medial PFC with increased risk of relapse in people with AUD [57]. SPECT and PET
8 scanning have also shown correlations between decreased basal activity in the medial PFC
9 during alcohol abstinence, as indicated by blood flow and glucose metabolism respectively, with
10 poor AUD treatment outcome [58, 59]. Neuroimaging studies in mouse models are fewer;
11 however, it is hypothesized based on previous comparative research, including those of the
12 gene expression and behavioral response to ethanol [8, 24], that neuroplasticity changes in
13 response to chronic ethanol exposure are highly conserved between species. Indeed, such a
14 hypothesis has been employed in recent work using neuroimaging in rodent models to study the
15 effect of ethanol exposure during gestation on fetal brain structure [60-62]. The results of our
16 microarray analyses, therefore, may help shed light onto the molecular mechanisms underlying
17 both the sustained increase in drinking observed with the CIE model, and, potentially,
18 neuroadaptations observed in the brains of humans. Further study is needed to establish such
19 mechanisms, and will be the topic of future research by this group.

20

21 Network analysis also identified modules in both the PFC and BNST enriched for myelin-related
22 genes (Figure 6, Suppl. Tables 6 and 9). In the prefrontal cortex, the green module showed
23 significant overlap with 3 GO categories related to myelination. Previous studies at our
24 laboratory, as well as anatomical observations of the brains of human alcoholics, have
25 suggested a role for myelination in the PFC in response to both acute and chronic ethanol
26 exposure [13, 63-66]. Fewer studies have taken place on myelination in the BNST; however, our

1 analyses identified the BNST black module as one with significant correlations to ethanol intake
2 after the 1st and 2nd CIE cycles. Although the BNST is a lesser-studied brain region in the myelin
3 field, this region has previously been associated with the negative reinforcing properties of
4 alcohol [24, 67]. Our findings suggest that repeated exposures to intoxicating ethanol may also
5 have an effect on myelination in other brain regions that have, up to this point, not been
6 examined as often as other regions more commonly associated with ethanol related
7 demyelination, and that changes in myelin gene expression may be another mechanism
8 underlying increased drinking. Future avenues of study will involve examining the effect of CIE
9 by vapor chamber on myelination in implicated brain regions, and on the effect of induced
10 demyelination on voluntary ethanol intake with repeated exposures to prolonged levels of
11 intoxicating ethanol.

12

13 Bioinformatic analysis also pointed to chromatin remodeling as a potential regulator of the
14 transcriptomic response to CIE. The PFC turquoise module and CEA green module both
15 contained genes involved in both DNA methylation [68] and members of known chromatin
16 remodeling complexes [69-71]. *Smarcc1* has been associated with ethanol response in mouse
17 whole brain meta-analyses [72], and *Smarca5* was found to be associated with alcohol
18 response in network analysis of post-mortem brain tissue from human alcoholics [8]. Indeed,
19 ethanol's effects on epigenetic modifications to chromatin have been an area of intense study,
20 both in humans and rodent models, during recent years [8, 73-75]. These included a study from
21 Dr. Jennifer Wolstenholme at the Miles laboratory which found that chromatin modification
22 genes correlated with individual variation in ethanol consumption in C57BL/6 mice [75]. Based
23 on our findings in the other brain-regions studied, we hypothesize that this reflects the
24 transcription level response in the brain to chronic ethanol exposure leading to downstream
25 transcriptional regulation such as the observed changes in genes related to synaptic
26 transmission, synaptic plasticity, and myelination.

1
2 In summary, differential gene expression and scale-free network analysis of microarray data
3 after multiple cycles of CIE with and without intermittent access drinking has revealed brain
4 region and treatment specific changes. Differential expression in the PFC, CEA, and BNST
5 indicated an interaction effect between CIE and drinking; where as in the NAC and HPC, the
6 primary effect came from CIE. Analysis of drinking patterns across multiple cycles of CIE
7 showed that both CIE and air control mice increase their drinking, however, mice exposed to
8 CIE drink significantly more than control. These results are in line with previous studies [19], and
9 indicate that the CIE paradigm consistently produces progressive, lasting increases in voluntary
10 ethanol intake in response to chronic high dose ethanol exposure. Furthermore, we have used
11 the capabilities of network analysis through WGCNA to attempt to bridge the gap between gene
12 expression and behavior by identifying co-expressed networks of genes in each brain region,
13 and then correlating those networks to ethanol drinking. This strategy revealed that the most
14 highly drinking correlated modules were seen in the PFC and NAC. In both brain-regions, as
15 well as those with fewer significant drinking correlations, those modules with the strongest
16 correlations to drinking, particularly after the 4th CIE cycle, were enriched for genes involved in
17 synaptic transmission or synaptic plasticity. Modules from the PFC and BNST also indicated
18 that changes in myelin gene expression also strongly correlate to changes in drinking. These
19 results are of particular interest as previous studies from our group have observed significant
20 changes in myelin gene expression with acute ethanol exposure [4]. Our results also suggest a
21 role for chromatin remodeling, particularly in the PFC and CEA, in the gene expression
22 response to chronic, prolonged ethanol exposure. Future studies will further explore the link
23 between chromatin remodeling and altered synaptic transmission, possibly leading to structural
24 changes in the brain, such as altered myelination. Such changes may be mechanistically
25 important in the drinking behavior response to chronic intermittent ethanol exposure.

26

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2

3

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1 **Figure Legends**

2

3 **Figure 1: Schematic representation of CIE and drinking experimental design.**

4

5 **Figure 2: Ethanol intake in CIE and air control mice.** Statistical difference in ethanol intake
6 measured by two-way ANOVA with repeated measures, * p-value ≤ 0.05 , ** p-value ≤ 0.01 .

7

8 **Figure 3: Overlap between 3 treatment/drinking group comparisons in all brain-regions.**

9 Overlap venn Diagrams of differentially expressed genes in PFC, NAC, HPC, BNST, and CeA
10 between comparison of the CIE Drinking group and CIE control (CIE Non-Drinking), drinking
11 control (Air Drinking), and ethanol naïve control (Air Non-Drinking). Significant differential
12 expression: LIMMA FDR ≤ 0.01 .

13

14 **Figure 4: Overlap between WGCNA modules and all 6 treatment/drinking group**

15 **comparisons in all brain-regions.** Cell numbers indicate number of overlapping probsets
16 between module and significantly differentially expressed genes for each comparison (LIMMA p-
17 value ≤ 0.05). Cell color indicates significant of overlap. Significant overlap: p-value ≤ 0.05 .

18

19 **Figure 5: Heatmap of correlation between PFC modules and ethanol intake.** Eigengene

20 values (1st principal component of gene expression) were correlated to ethanol intake
21 measures. Cell color indicates strength of correlation (green = negative correlation, red =
22 positive correlation).

23

24 **Figure 6: Eigengene expression for each sample in PFC green module, Gene Ontology**

25 **enrichment, connectivity of myelin genes.** A) Eigengene (1st principal component) value from
26 each PFC sample. Red=CIE Drinking, Blue=Air Drinking, Pink=CIE Non-Drinking, Light blue=Air

1 Non-Drinking. B) Gene Ontology biological processes significantly enriched in the PFC green
2 module, grouped by biological theme using REVIGO. C) GeneMANIA network generated from
3 PFC green module genes involved in myelination.

4

5 **Figure 7: Eigengene expression for each sample in PFC turquoise module and**
6 **connectivity of chromatin modification genes.** A) Eigengene (1st principal component) value
7 from each PFC sample. Red=CIE Drinking, Blue=Air Drinking, Pink=CIE Non-Drinking, Light
8 blue=Air Non-Drinking. B) Connectivity, represented by expression correlation, between genes
9 involved in chromatin modification for each group. Line thickness and opacity represent strength
10 of connectivity between genes.

11

12 **Figure 8: Heatmap of correlation between NAC modules and ethanol intake.** Eigengene
13 values (1st principal component of gene expression) were correlated to ethanol intake
14 measures. Cell color indicates strength of correlation (green = negative correlation, red =
15 positive correlation).

16

17 **Table Legends**

18

19 **Table 1: Significantly differentially expressed probsets and genes between all**
20 **comparisons of 4 treatment groups.** Cells contain number of significant probesets and
21 number of genes in parenthesis. Significant differential expression: LIMMA group comparisons,
22 $FDR \leq 0.01$.

23

24 **Table 2: Module names and sizes for each brain region.** Module size shown in number of
25 probesets. Module names are arbitrary colors assigned by WGCNA and do not indicate similar
26 modules across brain regions.

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Table 3: Combined analysis of WGCNA module responses to ethanol. Results show modules significant for Module Disruption ($Z_cor.kIM \leq -2$), correlation with Ethanol Consumption ($p < 0.01$ for percent change vs. baseline after CIE cycle 4), or over-representation for ethanol responsive genes by LIMMA analysis of Air Nonddrinking vs. CIE Drinking ($FDR < 0.01$). Overlap is indicated for modules present in at least two analyses (bolded module names). Module names are arbitrary colors assigned by WGCNA and do not indicate similar modules across brain regions.

Supplementary Figure Legends

Supplementary Figure 1: Heatmap of correlation between HPC modules and ethanol intake. Eigengene values (1st principal component of gene expression) were correlated to ethanol intake measures. Cell color indicates strength of correlation (green = negative correlation, red = positive correlation).

Supplementary Figure 2: Heatmap of correlation between BNST modules and ethanol intake. Eigengene values (1st principal component of gene expression) were correlated to ethanol intake measures. Cell color indicates strength of correlation (green = negative correlation, red = positive correlation).

Supplementary Figure 3: Heatmap of correlation between CeA modules and ethanol intake. Eigengene values (1st principal component of gene expression) were correlated to ethanol intake measures. Cell color indicates strength of correlation (green = negative correlation, red = positive correlation).

1 **Supplementary Table Legends**

2

3 **Supplementary Table 1: Statistical results for drinking comparisons.** Two-way repeated
4 measures ANOVA comparing ethanol intake in g/kg between CIE and air control (ctrl).
5 Significance: p-value ≤ 0.05

6

7 **Supplementary Table 2: Detailed results of linear models for microarray analysis**

8 **(LIMMA).** Results include log-ratio (coefficients), t-statistics for each comparison with p-values
9 and FDR adjusted p-values. F-statistics from one-way ANOVA, F-statistic p-values, F-statistic
10 FDR adjusted p-values, and RMA values.

11

12 **Supplementary Table 3: Summary of results of linear models for microarray analysis**

13 **(LIMMA).** Significant differential expression: LIMMA two-factor model, FDR ≤ 0.01 .

14

15 **Supplementary Table 4: Connectivity statistics of WGCNA modules for each brain-region.**

16 Connectivity measures, WGCNA module assignment, RMA values, log-ratios, and F-statistics
17 from one-way ANOVA, module membership (gene expression correlation to module eigengene)
18 and module membership p-values for all genes used for WGCNA.

19

20 **Supplementary Table 5: Gene-trait correlation statistics for all probesets to ethanol**

21 **intake.** Spearman rank correlation and p-values for all baseline and CIE drinking measures for
22 all genes used in WGCNA, and Spearman rank correlation and p-values in parenthesis for all
23 WGCNA modules (modules as a whole represented by 1st principal component).

24

25 **Supplementary Table 6: Significant DAVID functional annotation for each WGCNA**

26 **module in the PFC.** Gene Ontology categories, overlapping genes and significance values are

1 shown for all categories with uncorrected significance of p-value ≤ 0.05 . Also shown are Revigo
2 ordering statistics for the same GO categories.

3

4 **Supplementary Table 7: Significant DAVID functional annotation for each WGCNA**

5 **module in the NAC.** Gene Ontology categories, overlapping genes and significance values are
6 shown for all categories with uncorrected significance of p-value ≤ 0.05 .

7

8 **Supplementary Table 8: Significant DAVID functional annotation for each WGCNA**

9 **module in the HPC.** Gene Ontology categories, overlapping genes and significance values are
10 shown for all categories with uncorrected significance of p-value ≤ 0.05 . Also shown are Revigo
11 ordering statistics for the same GO categories.

12

13 **Supplementary Table 9: Significant DAVID functional annotation for each WGCNA**

14 **module in the BNST.** Gene Ontology categories, overlapping genes and significance values
15 are shown for all categories with uncorrected significance of p-value ≤ 0.05 .

16

17 **Supplementary Table 10: Significant DAVID functional annotation for each WGCNA**

18 **module in the CeA.** Gene Ontology categories, overlapping genes and significance values are
19 shown for all categories with uncorrected significance of p-value ≤ 0.05 . Also shown are Revigo
20 ordering statistics for the same GO categories.

21

22 **Supplementary Table 11: Topological overlap statistics and results of overlap analysis**

23 **between WGCNA modules and LIMMA significant results.** Topological overlap statistics
24 include module topological overlap, resampled topological overlap, Z-score, p-value and FDR.
25 Overlap results feature number of overlapping probesets, p-values, and Bonferroni corrected p-
26 values.

1 **Supplementary Table 12: Module disruption results for all WGCNA modules.** Module
2 disruption results include module size in probesets, correlation of total connectivity between the
3 CIE drinking group and the Air Non-Drinking group (mod.cor.kME), mean correlation of total
4 connectivity between all bootstrap networks (mean.boot.cor.kME), standard deviation of
5 correlation of total connectivity between all bootstrap networks (sd.boot.cor.kME), Z-score of
6 correlation of total connectivity between CIE drinking group vs. Air Non-Drinking group and
7 mean of bootstrap networks (Z_cor.kME), correlation of within module connectivity between the
8 CIE drinking group and the Air Non-Drinking group (mod.cor.kIM), mean correlation of within
9 module connectivity between all bootstrap networks (mean.boot.cor.kIM), standard deviation of
10 within module connectivity between all bootstrap networks (sd.boot.cor.kIM), Z-score of
11 correlation of within module connectivity between CIE drinking group vs. Air Non-Drinking group
12 and mean of bootstrap networks (Z_cor.kIM).
13

Table 1	Comparison1	Comparison2	Comparison3	Comparison4	Comparison5	Comparison6
	CIE-Drinking vs. Air-Drinking	CIE-NonDrinking vs. Air-NonDrinking	CIE-Drinking vs. CIE-NonDrinking	CIE-Drinking vs. Air-NonDrinking	CIE-NonDrinking vs. Air-Drinking	Air-Drinking vs. Air-NonDrinking
PFC	840 (775)	569 (527)	843 (764)	325 (306)	759 (705)	629 (573)
NAC	127 (122)	0 (0)	9 (9)	1219 (1069)	1 (1)	0 (0)
HPC	549 (502)	0 (0)	37 (37)	1615 (1395)	0 (0)	0 (0)
BNST	419 (391)	0 (0)	178 (168)	543 (508)	0 (0)	0 (0)
CeA	78 (76)	0 (0)	721 (641)	818 (726)	0 (0)	0 (0)

Table 2

Brain Region	Module Color	Module Size	Module Color	Module Size
PFC (n=22)	Black	250	Lightyellow	40
	Blue	1926	Magenta	108
	Brown	1588	Midnightblue	66
	Cyan	71	Pink	192
	Darkred	33	Purple	98
	Green	513	Red	422
	Greenyellow	87	Royalblue	37
	Grey	1828	Salmon	74
	Grey60	49	Tan	81
	Lightcyan	64	Turquoise	1943
	Lightgreen	43	Yellow	771
NAC (n=25)	Black	304	Lightgreen	63
	Blue	1406	Lightyellow	52
	Brown	1369	Magenta	212
	Cyan	103	Midnightblue	97
	Darkgreen	40	Pink	220
	Darkgrey	33	Purple	204
	Darkred	42	Red	490
	Darkturquoise	38	Royalblue	44
	Green	975	Salmon	118
	Greenyellow	192	Tan	127
	Grey	550	Turquoise	2339
	Grey60	66	Yellow	1107
	Lightcyan	96		
HPC (n=16)	Black	276	Midnightblue	45
	Blue	1856	Pink	184
	Brown	1735	Purple	179
	Cyan	54	Red	422
	Green	461	Salmon	93
	Greenyellow	165	Tan	115
	Grey	1451	Turquoise	2415
	Magenta	184	Yellow	630
BNST (n=15)	Black	387	Pink	239
	Blue	1451	Purple	180
	Brown	1087	Red	808
	Cyan	57	Salmon	72
	Green	829	Tan	150
	Greenyellow	174	Turquoise	2653
	Grey	901	Yellow	1080
	Magenta	201		

CeA (n=19)	Black	251	Magenta	187
	Blue	2010	Midnightblue	59
	Brown	1202	Pink	245
	Cyan	70	Purple	125
	Green	931	Red	755
	Greenyellow	96	Salmon	72
	Grey	802	Tan	89
	Grey60	35	Turquoise	2205
	Lightcyan	43	Yellow	1035
	Lightgreen	34		

Table 3: Combined Analysis of WGCNA Module Responses to Ethanol

Brain Region	Module Disruption by Ethanol	Ethanol Consumption Correlated	Over-represented Ethanol Regulated	Overlaps
PFC	Brown, Green, LightYellow, Turquoise	Grey60, Lightgreen, Magenta, Midnightblue, Pink, Red, Salmon, Tan, Turquoise	Black, Darkred, Turquoise	Turquoise
NAc	Black, Blue, Brown, Darkgreen, Darkred , Green, Grey60, Lightgreen, Lightyellow, Magenta, Midnightblue, Pink, Purple, Royalblue , Tan, Turquoise , Yellow	Darkred , Lightcyan, Royalblue , Turquoise , Yellow	Salmon, Turquoise	Darkred, Royalblue, Turquoise, Yellow
HPC	Blue, Salmon, Tan, Turquoise	Black, Greenyellow, Purple, Turquoise , Yellow	Green, Turquoise	Turquoise
BNST	Black, Blue , Brown, Green, Yellow	Red	Blue	Blue
CeA	Black, Blue , Brown, Green , Purple, Red, Tan, Turquoise, Yellow	Blue	Blue , Green	Blue, Green

Results show modules significant for Module Disruption ($Z_{cor.kim} \leq -2$), correlation with Ethanol Consumption ($p < 0.01$ for %change vs. baseline after CIE cycle 4), or over-representation for ethanol responsive genes by LIMMA analysis of Air_Nondrinking vs. CIE_Drinking ($FDR < 0.01$). Overlap is indicated for modules present in at least two analyses (bolded module names). Module names are arbitrary colors assigned by WGCNA and do not indicate similar modules across brain regions. Primary data is from Suppl. Tables 5,11,13 and 14.

Fig. 1

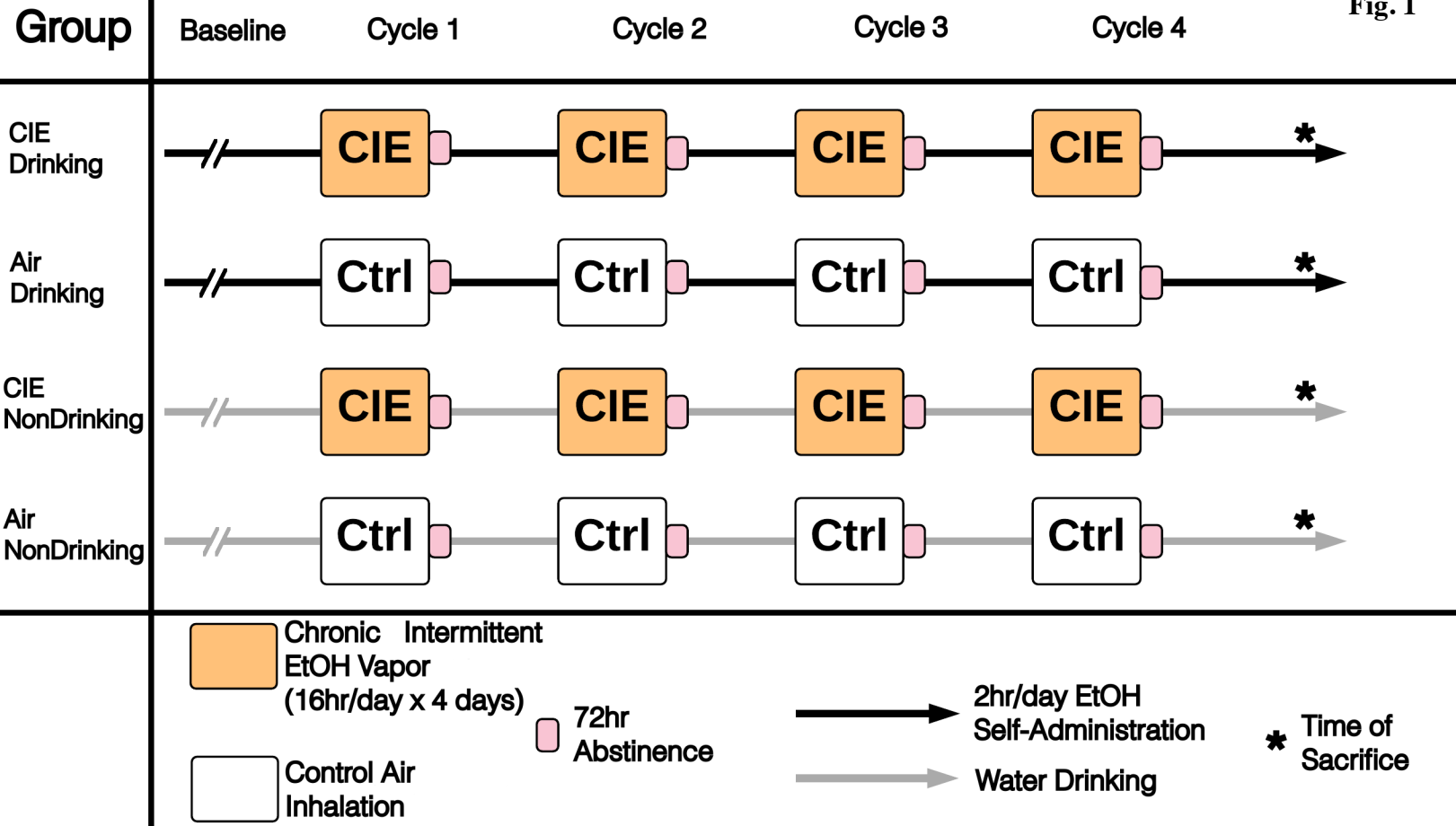


Fig. 2

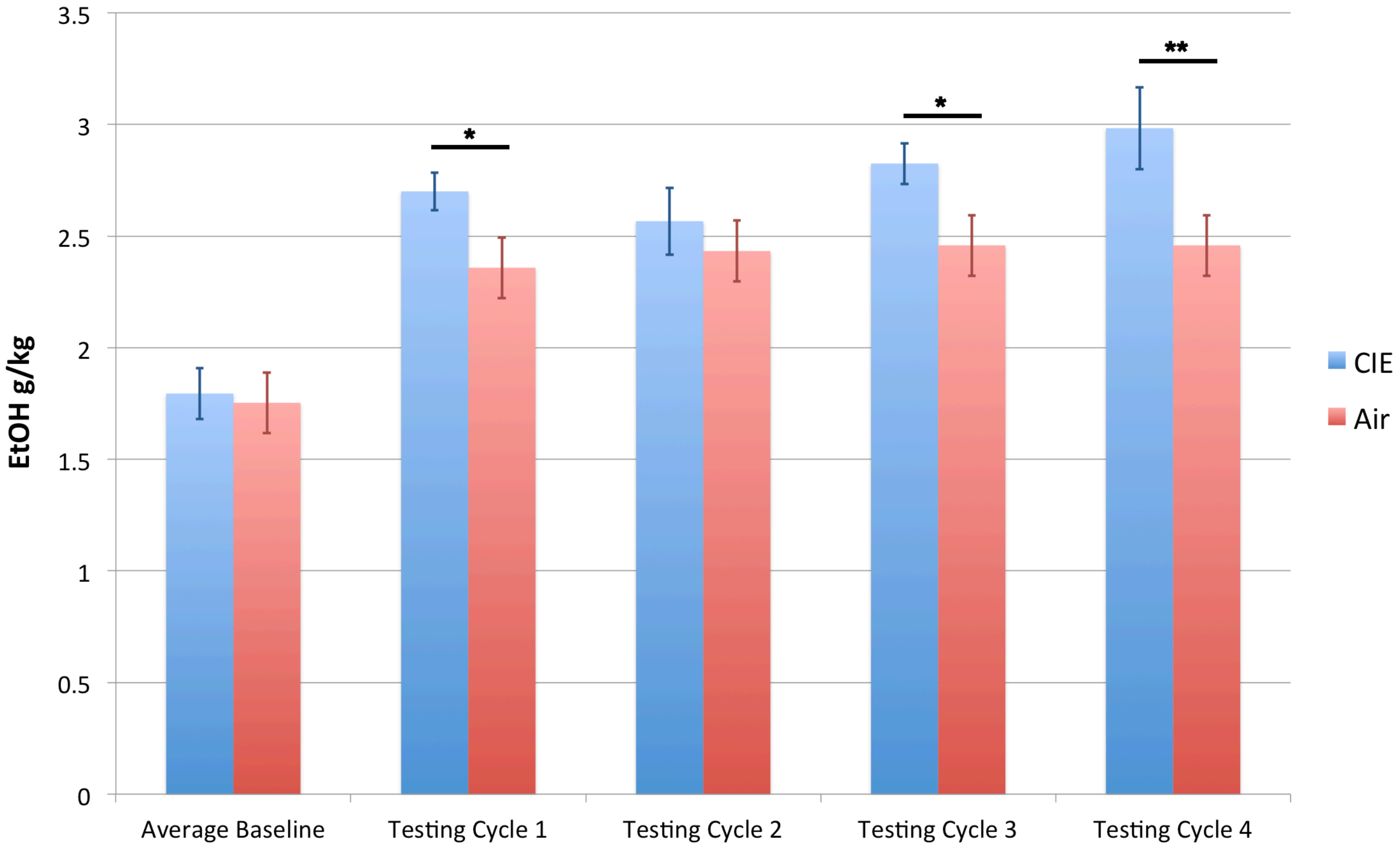
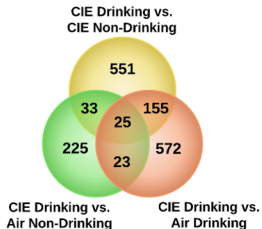
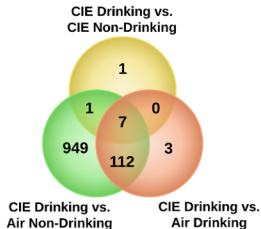
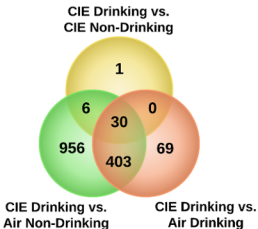
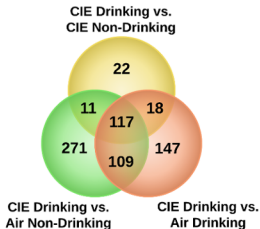
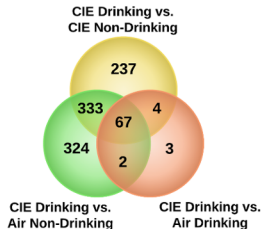


Fig. 3**PFC****NAC****HPC****BNST****CeA**

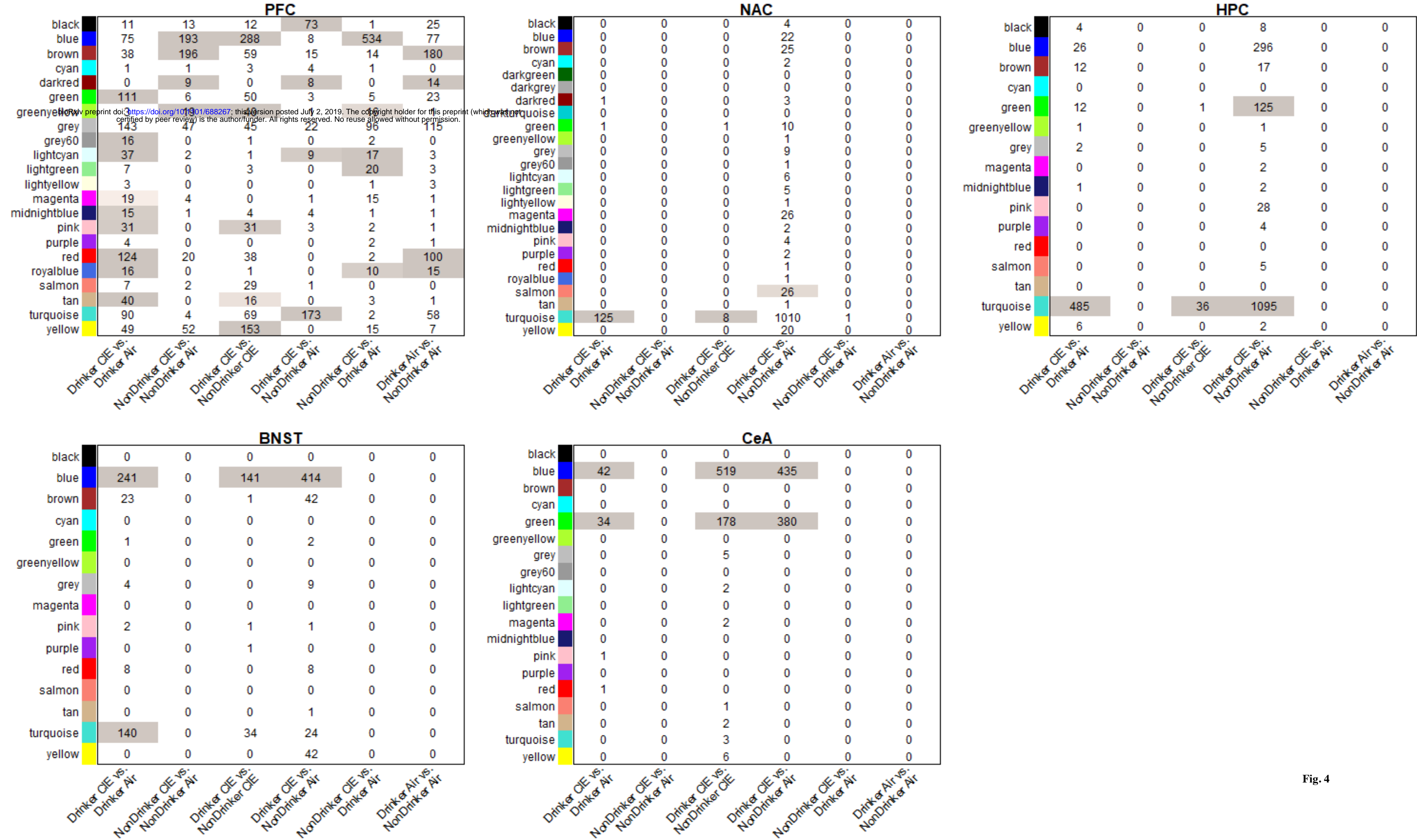


Fig. 4

PFC Module-Drinking Correlation

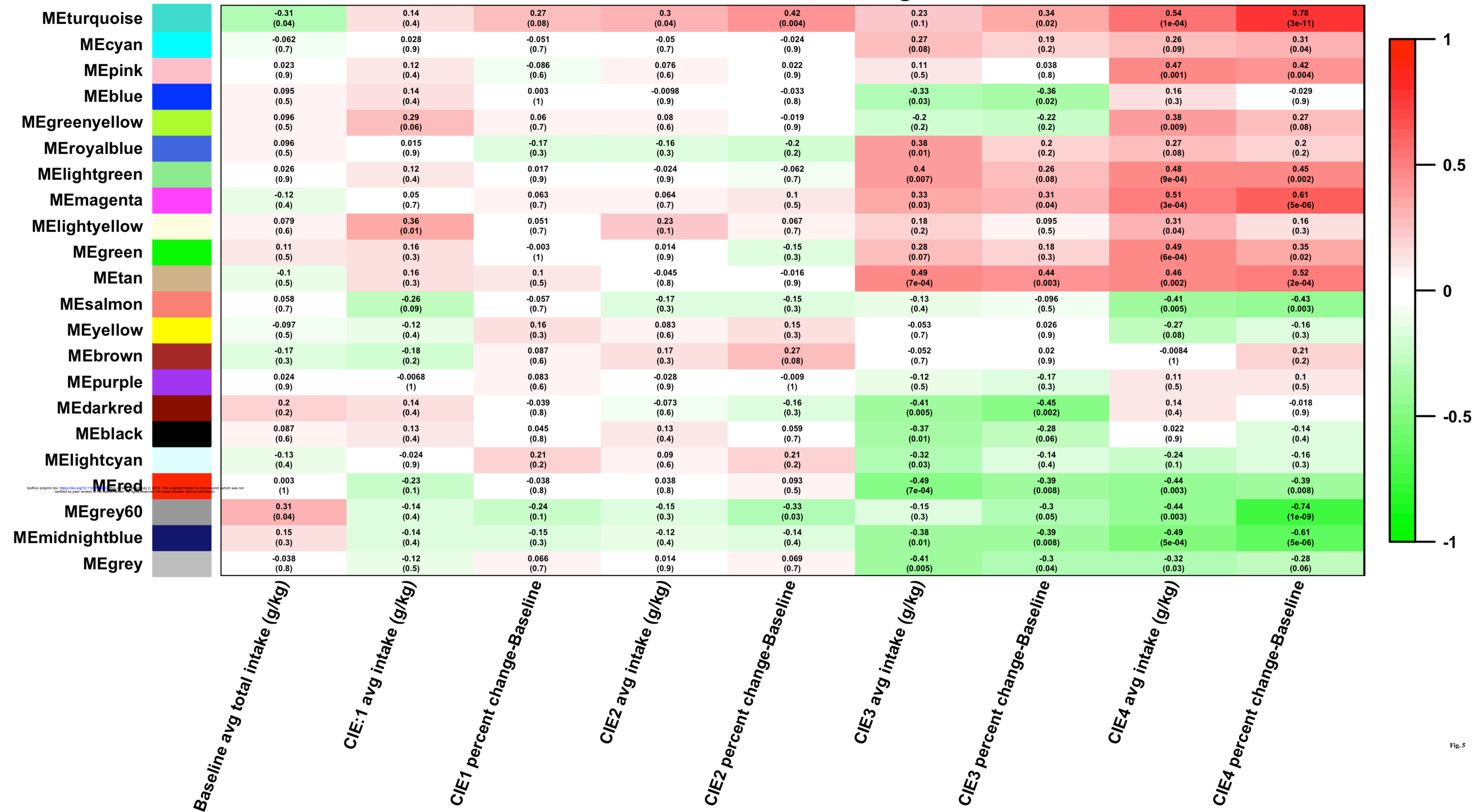
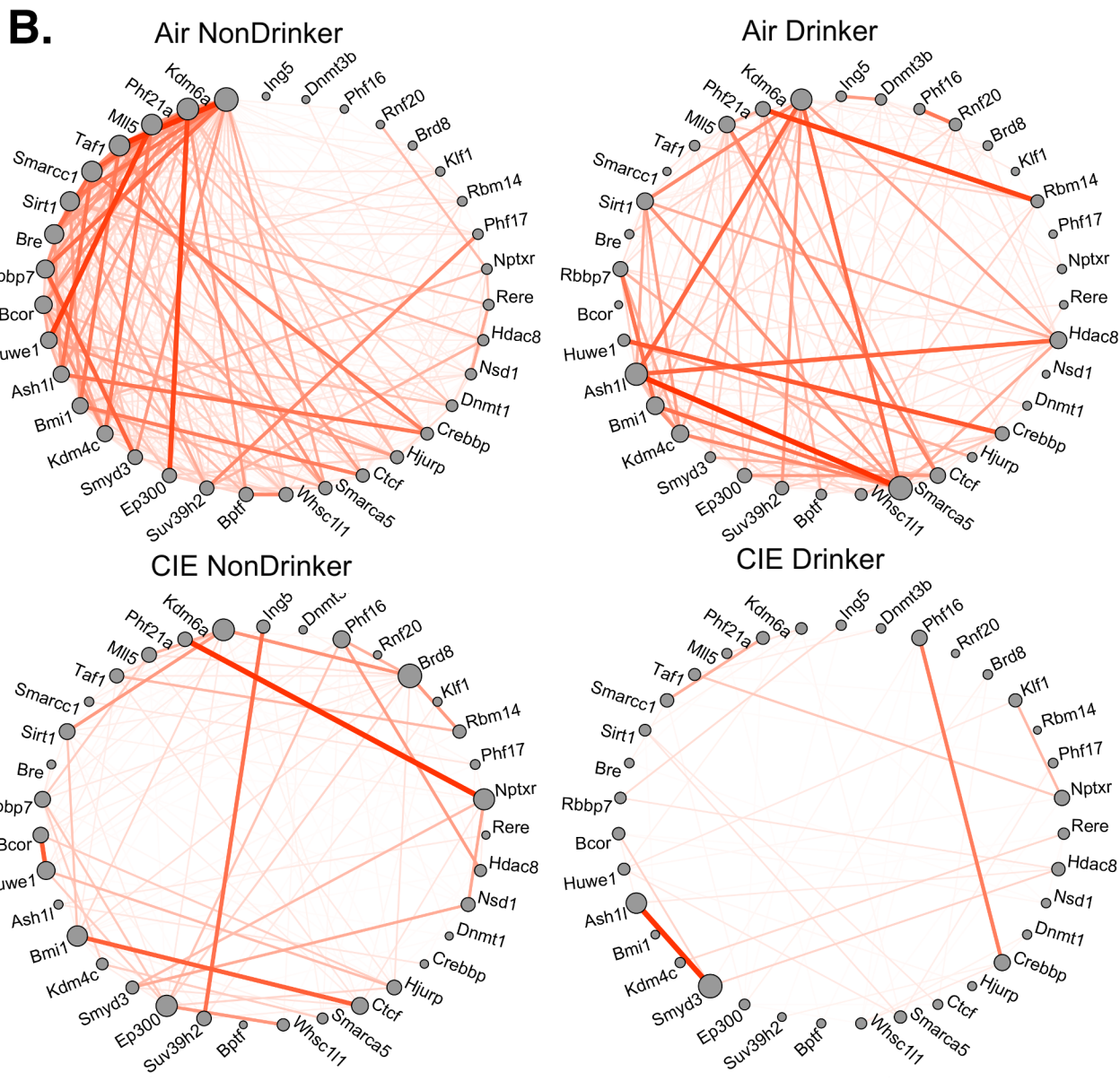
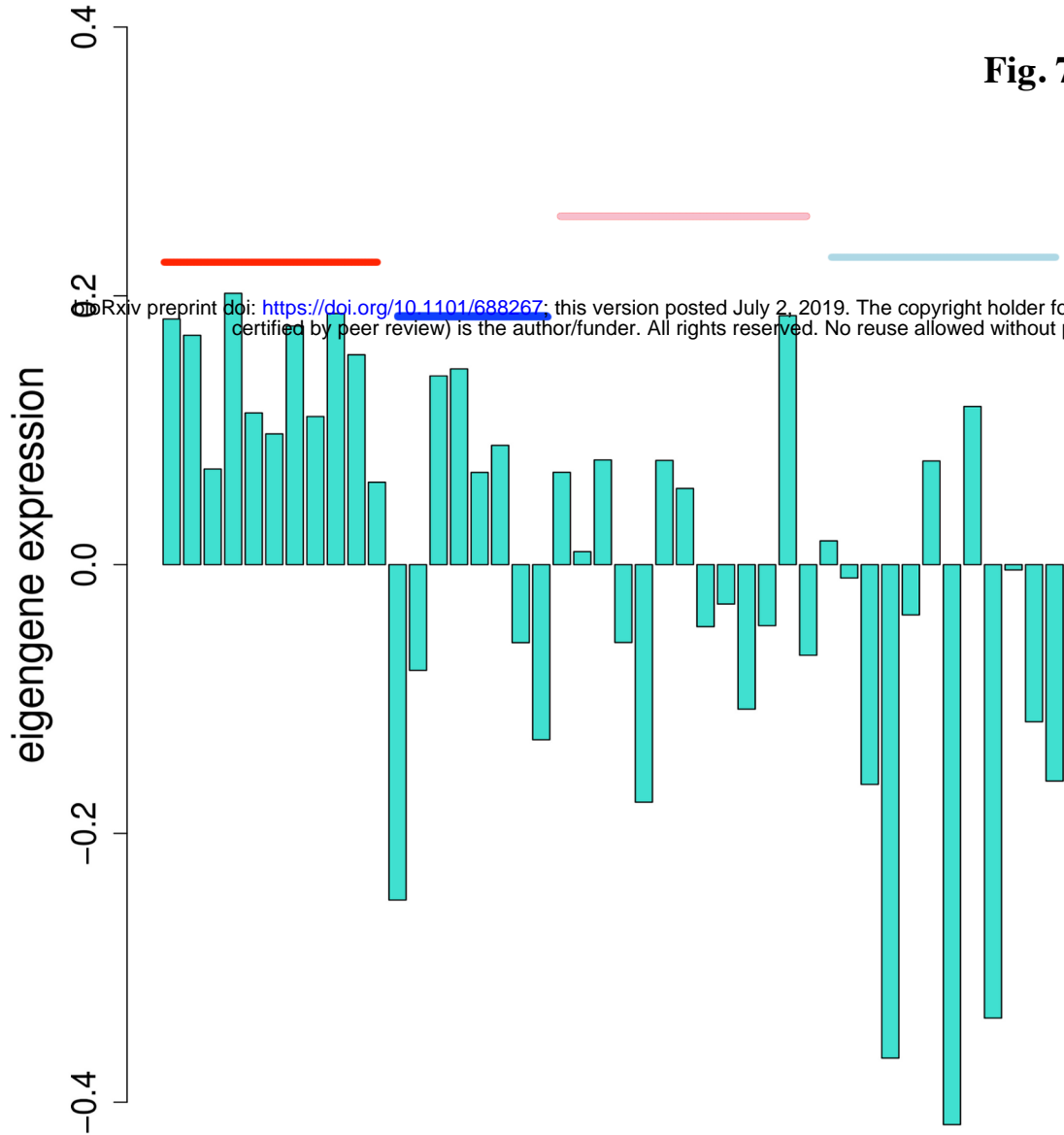


Fig. 5

Fig. 7

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NAC Module-Drinking Correlation

