

Early Postnatal Ethanol Exposure in Mice Induces Sex-Dependent Memory Impairment and Reduction of Hippocampal NMDA-R2B Expression in Adulthood

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Abstract—Drinking alcohol during pregnancy is particularly detrimental for the developing brain and may cause a broad spectrum of cognitive and behavioral impairments, collectively known as fetal alcohol spectrum disorders (FASDs). While behavioral abnormalities and brain damage have been widely investigated in animal models of FASD, the sex differences in the vulnerability to perinatal ethanol exposure have received less consideration. Here we investigated the long-term behavioral and molecular effects of acute ethanol-binge like exposure during the early postnatal period (equivalent to the third trimester of human pregnancy) in adult male and female mice. CD1 mice received a single ethanol exposure on P7 and were analyzed starting from P60. We found that ethanol-exposed mice showed increased activity in the open field test and in the plus-maze test, regardless of the sex. Interestingly, only ethanol-exposed adult male mice exhibited memory impairment in the water maze and fear-conditioning tests. Remarkably, hippocampal levels of NMDA-R2B were reduced only in ethanol-exposed male, while total BDNF levels were increased in both male and female ethanol-exposed mice. Our data suggest a different susceptibility of early postnatal ethanol exposure in male and female CD1 mice. © 2019 IBRO. Published by Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

Key words: fetal alcohol syndrome, ethanol, brain-derived neurotrophic factor, hippocampus, NMDA, Mice, rodents, memory impairments, hyperactivity, sex difference.

INTRODUCTION

Consuming alcohol during gestation is particularly damaging for the developing brain and may cause fetal alcohol spectrum disorder (FASD) or fetal alcohol syndrome (FAS) depending on the gravity. FASD is an umbrella term describing the multiple effects that can occur in individuals who are exposed to alcohol during the prenatal period. These effects may include physical, mental, behavioral, and/or learning impairments with potential lifespan consequences. FAS refers to the most severe form of the FASD spectrum, which is diagnosed by the contemporary presence of three features: facial malformations, growth restriction and brain abnormalities (Sokol et al., 2003). FASD is the leading preventable cause of mental retardation in

western countries, affecting around 2–5% of the population (Glass et al., 2014). However, despite the effort to inform on the deleterious effects of drinking alcohol during pregnancy, it was estimated that globally around 10% of women consume alcohol regularly during pregnancy (May et al., 2009; Fontaine et al., 2016; Popova et al., 2017). The prevalence of binge drinking (four or more drinks on a single occasion) during pregnancy, which is particularly detrimental to the developing brain, has been estimated to range from 2 to 3% (Bonthuis and West, 1990; Popova et al., 2017). Similar to human, animal models of FASD show several behavioral alterations following perinatal ethanol exposure, including hyperactivity, learning and memory deficits, anxiety (Chokroborty-Hoque et al., 2014; Fontaine et al., 2016; Marquardt and Brigman, 2016; Rojas-Mayorquin et al., 2016), and therefore are a useful tool to investigate the biological mechanisms underlying these behavioral impairments. Whereas the behavioral and neurocognitive effects of alcohol exposure during brain development have been considerably investigated (Mattson et al., 2011), the sex differences in vulnerability to perinatal alcohol exposure have received less attention.

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49 The developing hippocampus is particularly sensitive
50 to the deleterious effects of ethanol during the third
51 trimester and binge-drinking drastically modifies the
52 hippocampal volume, structure and function in both
53 mice and humans (Willoughby et al., 2008; Parnell
54 et al., 2009). Several studies in animal models have
55 shown that postnatal ethanol exposure, which corre-
56 sponds to the third trimester of human pregnancy
57 (Bayer et al., 1993), enhances apoptosis and neuronal
58 cells loss (Ikonomidou et al., 2000; Ieraci and Herrera,
59 2006, 2018; Olney, 2014; Joshi et al., 2019); reduces
60 adult hippocampal neurogenesis, decreases dendritic
61 spines density and impairs synaptic plasticity (Ieraci
62 and Herrera, 2007; Gil-Mohapel et al., 2010; De
63 Giorgio and Granato, 2015; Fontaine et al., 2016).
64 Moreover, perinatal ethanol exposure alters the levels
65 of many molecules that play an important role in synap-
66 tic activity, mood, learning, and memory such as neu-
67 rotrophins, glutamate receptors, and astroglial proteins
68 (Guerri et al., 2001; Parks et al., 2008; Samudio-Ruiz
69 et al., 2010; Goodfellow et al., 2016; Boschen and
70 Klintsova, 2017). Notably, the majority of these results
71 were observed in male rodents, and only a few studies
72 have examined sex differences in either FASD humans
73 or rodent models.

74 An emerging body of research suggests that alcohol
75 exposure during pregnancy differentially affects male
76 and female children. For example, it has been described
77 as a higher incidence of FASD in young boys than in
78 girls, although these sex differences were not manifest
79 later in life (Thanh et al., 2014). FASD males were signifi-
80 cantly more likely to be diagnosed with attention-deficit/
81 hyperactivity disorder than FASD females (Herman
82 et al., 2008). In contrast, the association between low
83 levels of alcohol intake during pregnancy and mental dis-
84 orders was more evident in girls than boys (Sayal et al.,
85 2007). Although relatively few studies have explored sex
86 differences in FASD animal models, some significant
87 sex modifications have been reported. Prenatal ethanol
88 administration reduced the survival of new hippocampal
89 cells in male but not in female rats (Sliwowska et al.,
90 2010; Uban et al., 2010). Hypothalamic–pituitary–adrenal
91 (HPA) axis hyperactivity was described mainly in prenatal
92 ethanol-exposed females but not in males, although the
93 results were depended on the type and the time of the
94 stressors (Weinberg et al., 2008; Fontaine et al., 2016).
95 Ethanol exposure during brain development impaired
96 memory duration but not memory encoding in male rats
97 while having opposite effects in female rats (Kelly et al.,
98 2009). Long-term potentiation was reduced only in
99 ethanol-exposed male rats but not in females (Sickmann
100 et al., 2014). However, other studies were not able to
101 replicate such sex differences (Subbanna et al., 2018;
102 Joshi et al., 2019). Moreover, the molecular mechanisms
103 underlying these sex differences are not yet well
104 understood.

105 Here we investigated whether early postnatal acute
106 ethanol exposure, which mimics a binge-like alcohol
107 consumption during the third trimester of pregnancy,
108 differentially promotes behavioral and molecular
109 changes in adult male and female mice.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Animals

Pregnant CD1 female mice were purchased from Charles
River Laboratories. Postnatal seven-day-old (P7) CD1
mice were injected subcutaneously with 20% ethanol in
saline solution delivering 5 g/kg body weight. This
protocol of ethanol administration allow to reach a blood
alcohol concentration above the toxic threshold of 200–
400 mg/dL for several hours (Ieraci and Herrera, 2006,
2018). An equal volume of saline was injected as controls.
Mice were weaned at P21 and then separated by sex and
maintained in a temperature- and humidity-controlled
room with a 12 h light/dark cycle. A total of 107 mice were
used for all the studies (64 mice for the behavioral tests;
43 for the body weight measurements and 24 of these
for the molecular analysis). All animal procedures were
approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Com-
mittees of Weill Cornell Medical College and were per-
formed according to the National Institutes of Health
Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals.

Behavioral analysis

Behavioral tests were conducted on 9–10 weeks-old mice
and the total time necessary to run all the tests was
around 6 weeks. Male and female mice were tested on
separate days. Behavioral tests were conducted in a
blind manner. To minimize possible interference across
the different tests, mice were tested from the least
stressful to the most stressful test with an interval of
one week from one test to the other (Fig. 1A). Mice
were tested in the following order: elevated plus-maze,
open field, water maze and fear conditioning test
(Fig. 1A).

Elevated plus maze. The maze consisted of two open
arms (30 × 5 cm), two closed arms (30 × 5 cm with 15 cm
high black wall), which were elevated to 60 cm above
from the floor. The test is based on the conflict between
the aversion to open spaces and the natural exploratory
behavior of rodents. Time and number of entries in the
open arms correlate with the anxiety-like phenotype,
while total entries into all the arms is related with
hyperactivity. A single animal was positioned in the
center facing an open arm and then allowed to explore
the apparatus for 5 min. All the tests were videotaped
and total entries into all arms, total entries into the open
arms, and total time spent in the open arms were scored.

Open field. For analysis of spontaneous motor
activity, single animals were placed in the center of a
50 × 50 cm square apparatus for 5 min. The floor was
separated into nine equal squares. Each session was
videotaped. Time taken to leave the center, time spent
in the center, number of entries in the center, horizontal
lines crossed, and rearing activities were measured.

Water maze. Mice were tested in a pool of 100 cm of
diameter. Milk powder was added to the water and the
temperature was maintained at 20–22 °C. A 10 cm
diameter Plexiglass platform was hidden 1 cm below the

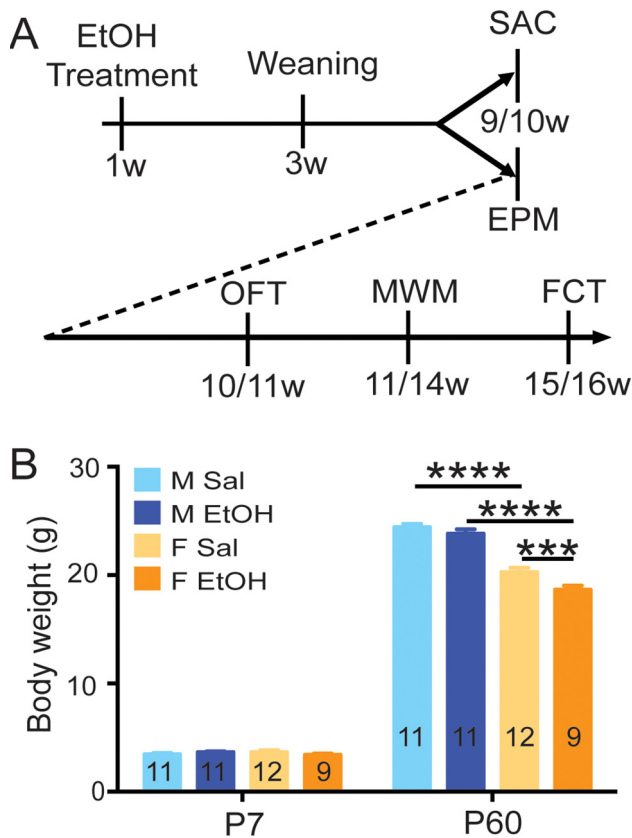


Fig. 1. Post-natal ethanol exposure reduces total body weight increase in female mice. **(A)** Experimental time-table. **(B)** Mice were weighted at P7, before ethanol exposure (5 mg/kg), and at P60, before the sacrifices. Data are presented as mean \pm SEM; ($n = 9–12$ mice per group). Two-way ANOVA followed by Newman–Keuls multiple comparisons analysis. $***P < 0.001$; $****P < 0.0001$. EPM: Elevated Plus Maze; OFT: Open Field Test; MWM: Morris Water Maze; FCT: Fear Conditioning Test; W: weeks; SAC: sacrifice; M: Male; F: Female; Sal: Saline; EtOH; Ethanol.

166 water surface. Visual cues were positioned on the wall of
 167 the room. Each mouse was subjected to four trials per day
 168 with an inter-trial interval of about 60 min for seven
 169 consecutive days. In each trial, a single mouse was
 170 placed into the water, in a different quadrant, facing the
 171 wall of the pool. Mice were allowed to search for the
 172 platform for a maximum time of 60 s. If mice failed to
 173 find the platform, they were gently conducted there.
 174 Mice were allowed to stay on the platform for 15 s
 175 before being returned to their cage. On day 8 a probe
 176 trial, in which the platform was removed from the pool,
 177 was performed. Mice were placed in the opposite
 178 quadrant to the previous location of the platform and
 179 were allowed to swim for 60 s. The total time spent
 180 searching for the platform in every single quadrant was
 181 manually scored and expressed as a percentage of the
 182 total time (60 s). The visible platform task was
 183 performed 24 h after the completion of the probe trial.
 184 All the visual cues were removed, and the platform
 185 positioned randomly in one of the quadrants. Two
 186 different trials were performed for each mouse.

187 **Fear conditioning.** Mice were individually positioned
 188 into the conditioning chamber (Coulbourn Instrument,

Allentown, PA). After 120 s of habituation, mice received
 189 three tone-shock pairs (tone: 70 db, 2.9 kHz 20 s; foot
 190 shock: 0.7 mA, 1 s) with an intertrial interval of 60 s.
 191 Sixty seconds after the last shock, animals were
 192 returned to their home cage. Twenty-four hours later,
 193 mice were positioned in the same chambers (contextual
 194 conditioning) and the total freezing time (cessation of all
 195 movement other than respiration) was measured for
 196 5 min. Twenty-four hours after the contextual
 197 conditioning test, mice were placed in a different
 198 chamber. After 120 s of habituation, three tone (70 db,
 199 2.9 kHz 20 s) were delivered at 1-min intervals (cued
 200 conditioning). The basal level of freezing in the mice
 201 was scored for 120 s in the new chamber before the
 202 presentation of the tone (pre-tone), to exclude the
 203 possibility that differences in freezing were due to
 204 altered activity.
 205

Western blot

206 Isolated hippocampi were homogenized in ice-cold RIPA
 207 buffer (0.15 mM NaCl, 0.05 mM Tris HCl, pH 7.2, 1%
 208 Triton X-100, 1% sodium deoxycholate, and 0.1% SDS)
 209 with Protease Inhibitor Cocktail (Sigma, St. Louis, MO,
 210 USA), briefly sonicated and centrifuged at 14,000g
 211 for 20 min. DC Protein Assay Kit (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA,
 212 USA) was used to measure protein concentration.
 213 Proteins were loaded in SDS-PAGE gel and blotted to a
 214 PVDF membrane (Immobilon P, Millipore, Bedford, MA,
 215 USA). After 1 h of saturation with 5% nonfat milk in
 216 TBS-T membranes were incubated overnight at 4 °C
 217 with the following primary antibodies: NMDA-R2A
 218 (1:1000; Millipore), NMDA-R2B (1:1000; Millipore),
 219 GFAP (1:1000; Sigma), alpha-tubulin antibody
 220 (1:40,000; Sigma). Membranes were washed several
 221 times with TBS-T to remove the excess of primary
 222 antibodies and then incubated with secondary
 223 antibodies. Peroxidase immunoreactivity bands were
 224 revealed by chemiluminescence method (Pierce,
 225 Rockford, IL, USA), acquired with a scanner and
 226 analyzed by the NIH Image software (Scion, Frederick,
 227 MD, USA).
 228

BDNF ELISA

229 Hippocampal BDNF protein levels were measured using
 230 an anti-BDNF sandwich enzyme-linked immunosorbent
 231 assay (ELISA) method (BDNF Emax Immunoassay
 232 System, Promega, Madison, WI) with recombinant
 233 BDNF as a standard (ranging from 7.8 to 500 pg/mL),
 234 following the manufacturer’s instructions. BDNF levels
 235 were adjusted based on the protein concentration
 236 (Tornese et al., 2019).
 237

Data analysis

238 Statistical analyses were performed with GraphPad Prism
 239 6 (GraphPad Software, La Jolla, CA, USA). Data are
 240 presented as the mean \pm standard error of the mean
 241 (SEM). Normal distributions and equal variances were
 242 verified respectively by the Kolmogorov–Smirnov’s test
 243 and Bartlett’s test. A two-way analysis of variance
 244

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245 (ANOVA) followed a Newman–Keuls post hoc correction
246 was used for multiple comparisons statistical analysis.

247 RESULTS

248 Post-natal ethanol exposure decreased total body 249 weight in adult female mice

250 Mice were weighted on P7 and P60 (before the sacrifice).
251 A repeated two-way ANOVA revealed a significant effect
252 for the time ($F_{(1,39)} = 8717$; $P < 0.0001$), groups
253 ($F_{(3,39)} = 43.13$; $P < 0.0001$) and an interaction of the
254 two ($F_{(3,39)} = 48.32$; $P < 0.0001$). All the groups
255 showed a significant increase in weight between P7 and
256 P60 ($P < 0.0001$), with females being smaller than
257 males at P60 ($P < 0.0001$). Interestingly, a post-hoc
258 analysis revealed a significant reduction in total body
259 weight at P60 only in ethanol-exposed females
260 compared to control females ($P < 0.001$), but not in
261 males ($p > 0.05$) (Fig. 1B).

262 Post-natal ethanol exposure induced hyperactivity 263 and reduced anxiety-like phenotype in adult mice

264 Activity in the elevated plus-maze was significantly
265 different in ethanol-exposed group and female group
266 compared to control and male groups respectively.
267 Ethanol-treated mice showed an increase in the total
268 number of entries (treatment effect: $F_{(1,60)} = 9.620$;
269 $P = 0.0029$); in the percentage of entries in the open
270 arms (treatment effect: $F_{(1,60)} = 7.848$; $P < 0.007$) and
271 in the percentage of time spent in the open arms
272 (treatment effect: $F_{(1,60)} = 7.327$; $P = 0.009$). Female
273 mice showed a higher number of percentage of entries
274 in the open arms (gender effect: $F_{(1,60)} = 4.928$;
275 $P = 0.0302$) and in the percentage of time spend in
276 the open arm (gender effect: $F_{(1,60)} = 6.169$; $P = 0.016$)
277 (Fig. 2).

278 Ethanol-treated mice showed an increase in the
279 number of lines crossed (horizontal activity). A two-way
280 ANOVA showed a main effect on treatment
281 ($F_{(1,60)} = 11.6$; $P = 0.0012$) but not in the gender or in
282 the interaction of the two. We also found that females
283 have a tendency to spend less time in the center
284 (gender effect $F_{(1,60)} = 3.74$; $P = 0.058$). No significant
285 differences were found in the number of rearing and in
286 the number of entries in the center (Fig. 3). Altogether
287 these results suggest that postnatal ethanol exposure
288 increased hyperactivity and decreased anxiety-like
289 behavior in both male and female mice.

290 Post-natal ethanol exposure induced memory 291 impairment only in adult male mice

292 To determine whether early postnatal subcutaneous
293 alcohol administration could impair spatial learning and
294 memory, adult mice were tested in the Morris water
295 maze using the hidden platform version of this task.
296 Repeated measurements with ANOVA for the latency to
297 find the hidden platform across the training days
298 indicated a significant effect for the groups
299 ($F_{(3,60)} = 6.824$; $P = 0.0005$) and days ($F_{(1,6)} = 83.44$;
300 $P < 0.0001$), without a significant interaction effect of

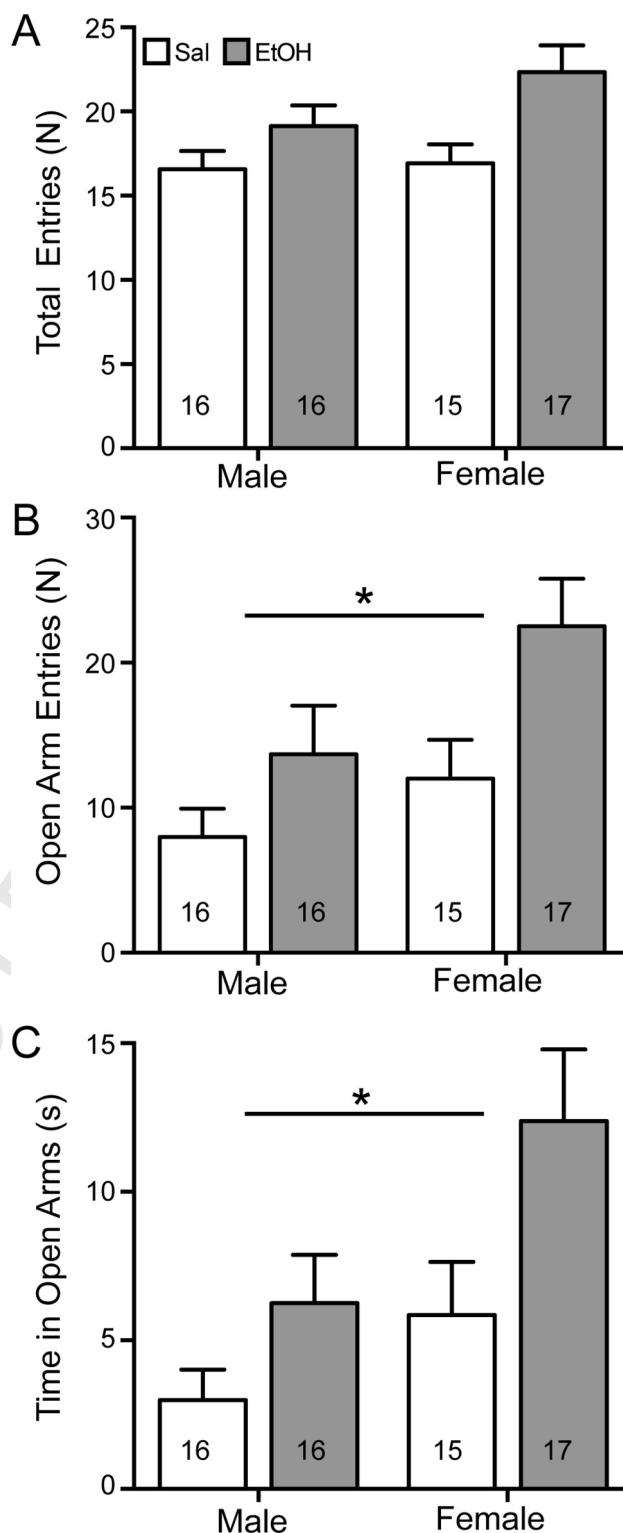


Fig. 2. Effect of postnatal ethanol exposure in the elevated plus maze test in adult mice. Total entries in the arm (A), in the open arms (B) and the percentage of time spent in the open arm (C). Data are presented as mean \pm SEM; ($n = 15$ – 17 per group). Two-way ANOVA. * $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$. Sal: Saline; EtOH; Ethanol.

the two (Fig. 4A). All groups learned where the platform was located, but the ethanol-treated mice took a longer time to find the hidden platform than control mice. In

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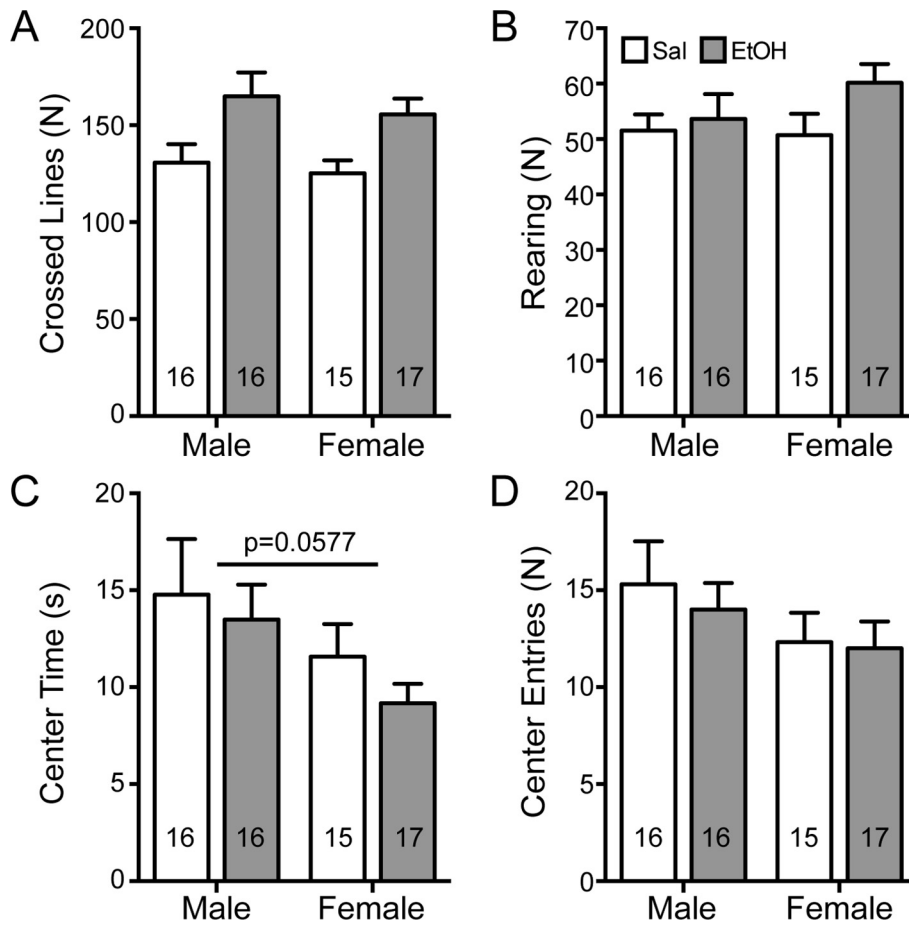


Fig. 3. Effect of postnatal ethanol exposure in the open field test in adult mice. Number of crossed lines (A), rearing (B), entries in the center (C) and time spent in the center (D). Data are presented as mean \pm SEM; (n = 15–17 per group). Two-way ANOVA. * $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$. Sal: Saline; EtOH; Ethanol.

particular female mice took a significantly longer time on days 2, 3 and 4 (Fig. 4A), while ethanol-exposed male mice took a longer time to reach the platform on day 4 (Fig. 4A). Animals were then tested in the probe trial, the proper criterion to attest the memory acquisition of the water maze test. A two way-ANOVA analysis revealed a main quadrant effect ($F_{(3,240)} = 144$; $p < 0.0001$) and an interaction between groups and quadrants ($F_{(9,240)} = 1.972$; $p = 0.043$) (Fig. 4B). The following Newman–Keuls multiple comparison analysis showed a significant difference only for ethanol-exposed male compared to control, but not for female, for the time spent in the target quadrant ($p < 0.05$). These differences were not due to a possible impairment in motor or visual functioning as there were no significant differences in the latency time to reach a visible platform among the different groups (Fig. 4C).

Given our results from the water maze test, we questioned whether we could detect a similar impairment in another hippocampal-dependent memory task, such as the fear-conditioning test. In this test, mice learn to associate a context (experimental chamber) or a cue (tone) with a foot shock. Context fear conditioning is hippocampus-dependent, while cued fear conditioning is hippocampus-independent. Twenty-four hours after

training, ethanol-treated mice froze less than control mice in response to spatial context (treatment effect $F_{(1,60)} = 14.74$; $P = 0.0003$). Moreover, there was also a significant interaction effect for treatment and gender ($F_{(1,60)} = 4.155$; $P = 0.0459$) (Fig. 5A). Interestingly, the further post-hoc analysis revealed a significant difference only in ethanol-exposed male mice compared to control ($p < 0.001$), but not in female ($p > 0.05$). In contrast, there were no differences in hippocampal-independent memory. All mice spent similar freezing time in a novel context both before and during the presentation of the cued (tone), 48 hours after the training (Tone: $F_{(3,120)} = 77.29$; $P < 0.0001$; Groups: $F_{(1,120)} = 0.27$; $P = 0.6$; Interaction $F_{(1,60)} = 0.64$; $P = 0.59$) (Fig. 5B).

Adult hippocampal BDNF levels are augmented in postnatally ethanol-exposed mice

To investigate the possible molecular mechanism(s) underlying the memory impairment specifically revealed in male exposed to ethanol postnatally, we assessed the levels of various proteins implicated in neuronal plasticity, learning and memory.

We measured hippocampal BDNF protein levels by using a BDNF ELISA kit. A two-way ANOVA analysis revealed a significant effect of treatment ($F_{(1,20)} = 11.04$; $p = 0.0034$) and only a trend of gender ($F_{(1,20)} = 4.29$; $p = 0.0515$), but not an interaction of the two ($F_{(1,20)} = 0.33$; $p = 0.856$). The levels of BDNF were overall higher in ethanol-exposed mice compared to control mice, both in male ($p < 0.05$) and in female ($p < 0.05$) (Fig. 6A).

Adult hippocampal NMDA-R2B levels are decreased only in postnatally ethanol-exposed male mice

Next, we assessed the hippocampal protein levels of NMDA-R2A and NMDA-R2B by western blot analysis. We found a significant reduction of NMDA-R2B levels specifically in the HPC of ethanol-exposed male mice compared to male control ($p < 0.05$), but not in female ($p > 0.05$) (treatment: $F_{(1,20)} = 2.719$; $p = 0.115$; gender $F_{(1,20)} = 0.126$; $p = 0.726$; interaction $F_{(1,20)} = 4.153$; $p = 0.0463$) (Fig. 6C). There were no significant differences in the NMDA-R2A protein levels (treatment: $F_{(1,20)} = 0.052$; $p = 0.82$; gender

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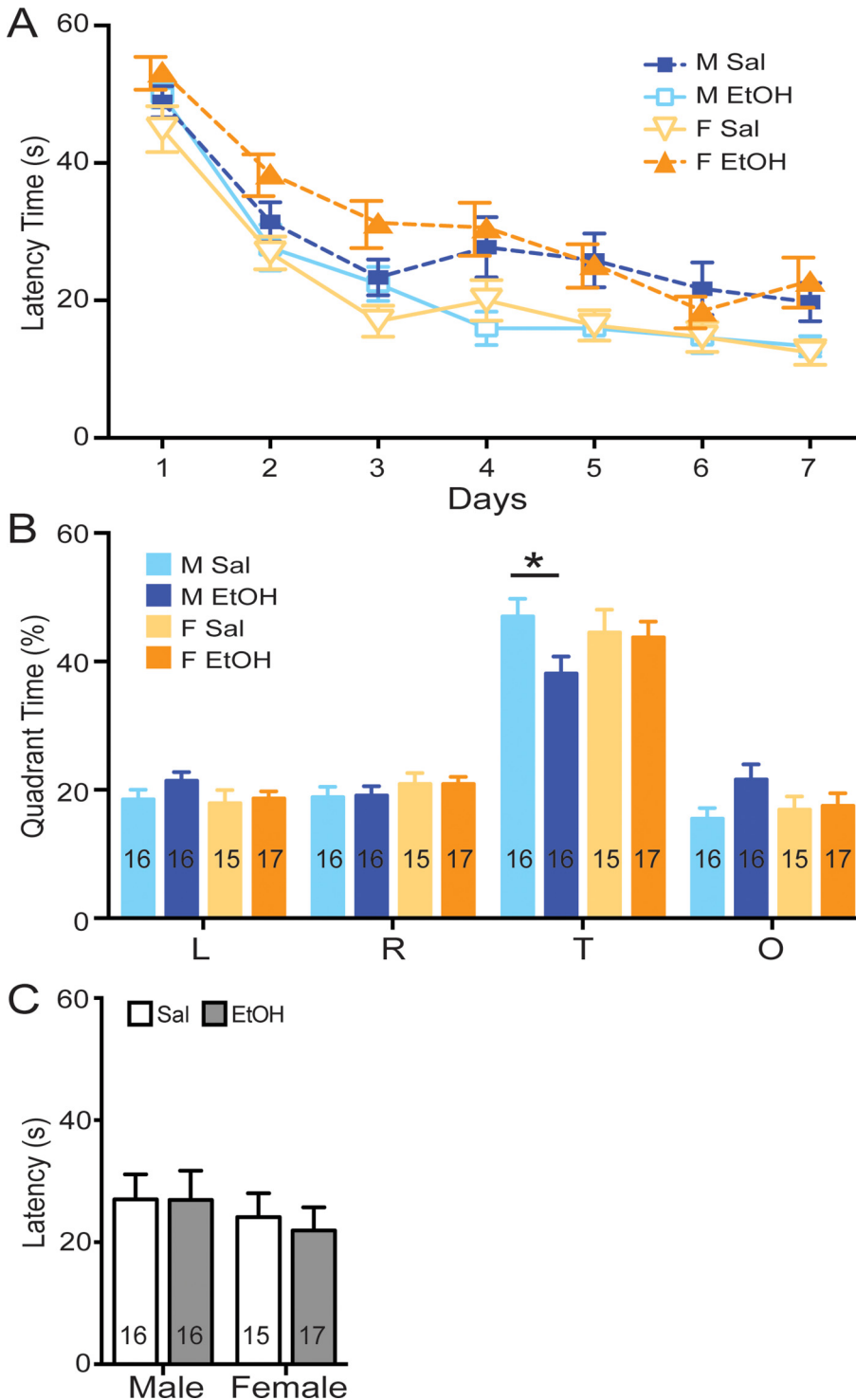


Fig. 4. Effect of postnatal ethanol exposure in the water maze test in adult mice. Water maze learning (A), probe test (B) and visible platform test (C) in control and ethanol postnatal exposed mice. Data are presented as mean \pm SEM; ($n = 15\text{--}17$ per group). Two-way ANOVA. ** $P < 0.01$. M: Male; F: Female; Sal: Saline; EtOH; Ethanol: T: target; O: opposite; L: left; R: Right.

Adult hippocampal GFAP levels are unchanged in postnatally ethanol-exposed mice

Finally, we measured hippocampal GFAP protein levels by western blot. Two-way ANOVA did not reveal any differences in the hippocampal levels of GFAP among all the groups (treatment: $F_{(1,20)} = 0.0009$; $p = 0.976$; gender $F_{(1,20)} = 0.045$; $p = 0.833$; interaction $F_{(1,20)} = 0.27$; $p = 0.609$) (Fig. 6D).

DISCUSSION

The goal of this work was to investigate potential sex differences in behavioral alterations and hippocampal molecular changes in mice following a single binge-like ethanol exposure during the third trimester-equivalent (P7). We found that only ethanol-exposed adult male mice showed significant hippocampal memory impairments measured in the water maze and fear-conditioning tests. Interestingly, these deficits were paralleled by a reduction of hippocampal NMDA-R2B levels in ethanol-exposed males but not in females. On the contrary, hyperactivity and hippocampal BDNF levels were increased in adult mice exposed postnatally to ethanol, regardless of the sex.

A coherent finding both in individuals with FASD and preclinical animal models of FAS is a deficit in spatial learning and memory (Valenzuela et al., 2012; Patten et al., 2014; Marquardt and Brigman, 2016). However, few studies have investigated sex difference in memory performance in adult animals exposed to ethanol perinatally (Goodlett and Peterson, 1995; Johnson and Goodlett, 2002; Wagner et al., 2014; Goodfellow et al., 2016; Subbanna et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2018; Joshi et al., 2019). Here we report that a single exposure to ethanol in the early postnatal period induced a long-lasting hippocampal-dependent spatial memory deficit in adult male mice but not in female mice. Consistent with this study it has been previously reported

387 $F_{(1,20)} = 0.023$; $p = 0.88$; interaction $F_{(1,20)} = 2.54$;
388 $p = 0.124$) (Fig. 6B).

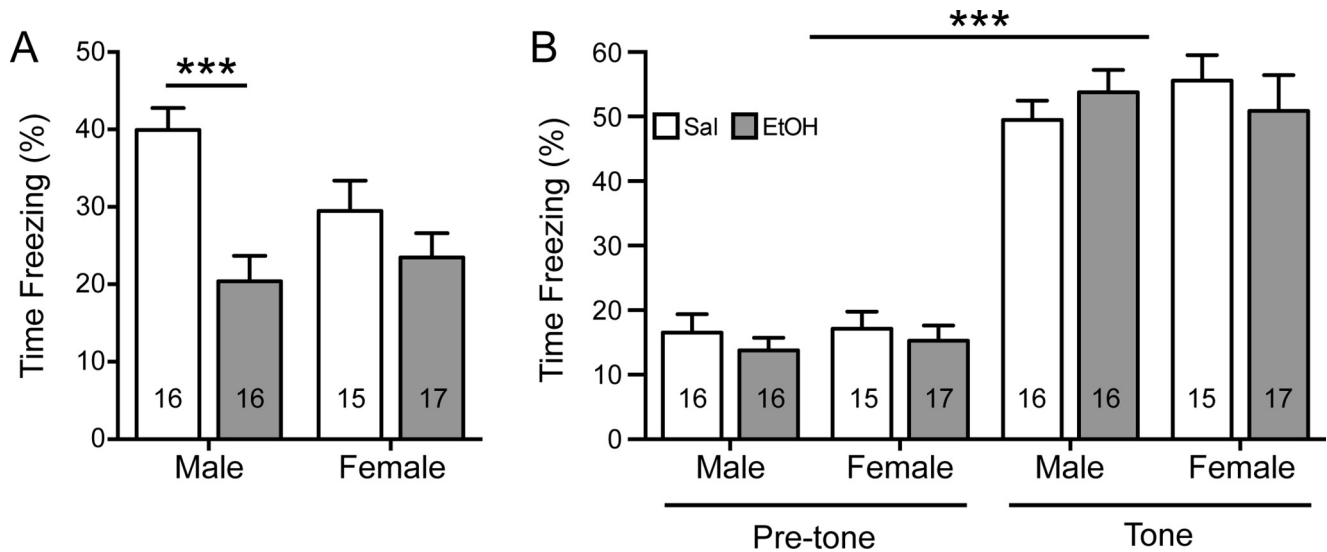


Fig. 5. Effect of postnatal ethanol exposure in the fear-conditioning test in adult mice. Context indicates the freezing levels in the shocking chamber after training (A). Pre-tone indicates the freezing levels in a new chamber after training and before the tone testing (B). Tone indicates the freezing levels in the new chamber during the presentation of tone (B). Context was done 24 h after training and tone was done 48 h after training. Data are presented as mean \pm SEM; ($n = 15\text{--}17$ per group). Two-way ANOVA followed by Newman–Keuls multiple comparisons analysis. *** $P < 0.001$; **** $P < 0.0001$. Sal: Saline; EtOH; Ethanol.

447 that even 3-days of ethanol exposure (P7-9) induced spatial
 448 learning deficits in both juvenile and adult male but not
 449 in female rats (Goodlett and Peterson, 1995; Johnson and
 450 Goodlett, 2002) while longer postnatal Ethanol exposure
 451 (over 5–6 days) promoted memory impairments both in
 452 male and female rats (Goodfellow et al., 2016; Xu et al.,
 453 2018). In contrast to our results, Wagner et al. found that
 454 one or three days of postnatal alcohol exposure resulted
 455 in significant spatial learning impairments in the water
 456 maze in both male and female adult mice (Wagner
 457 et al., 2014). These contrasting results may be due to
 458 some experimental differences in ethanol administration,
 459 the strain of mice and behavioral analysis between our
 460 studies and the previous one. For example, in the Wagner
 461 et al. study, mice were given a shorter period on the plat-
 462 form after finding the submerged platform (10 s compared
 463 to 15 s in this study) and a shorter inter-trial interval (3 min
 464 compared to 60 min in this study). Moreover, the pool
 465 used in Wagner et al was larger (125 cm vs 100 cm),
 466 yielding a more searchable surface area, which may
 467 increase the sensitivity of the task (Wagner et al.,
 468 2014). Altogether, these results suggest that after epi-
 469 sodes of binge-like ethanol exposure during the third tri-
 470 mester, males are more susceptible to long-lasting
 471 memory impairments in less challenging tasks than
 472 females. However, future studies will be necessary to
 473 clarify whether multiple ethanol injections or the oral
 474 administration of ethanol to the mother during pregnancy
 475 and the postnatal period, a more physiological model of
 476 FASD, are able to produce similar effects in both sexes,
 477 or if males are similarly more sensitive than females in
 478 conditions of greater ethanol exposure.

479 NMDA are ionotropic glutamatergic receptors
 480 important during brain development, synaptic plasticity
 481 and learning and memory processes. It is well known

482 that ethanol is an NMDA antagonist and previous
 483 studies have reported that ethanol exposure during
 484 pregnancy altered the NMDA subunits expression in the
 485 adult brain. In particular NR2B, a dynamic NMDA
 486 subunit which is expressed early during brain
 487 development and plays an important role in adult brain
 488 function is very sensitive to alcohol exposure. Indeed, it
 489 has been previously reported that prenatal ethanol
 490 exposure reduced the NR2B expression in both juvenile
 491 and adult hippocampus (Zhang et al., 2005; Toso et al.,
 492 2006; Incerti et al., 2010). Our result, showing that post-
 493 natal ethanol administration down-regulated the NR2B
 494 expression in the adult male hippocampus, confirms and
 495 extends these previous findings, suggesting that even a
 496 single binge-like ethanol episode in the postnatal mice
 497 brain development, equivalent to the third trimester in
 498 human, is sufficient to significantly reduce the NR2B
 499 expression, at least, in the adult male hippocampus.
 500 Moreover, this decrease of NR2B may partially explain
 501 the memory impairments observed only in ethanol-
 502 exposed male mice. Indeed, it has been shown that trans-
 503 genic mice overexpressing NR2B by different strategies
 504 show improved learning and memory and enhanced long
 505 term potentiation, suggesting an important role for NR2B-
 506 containing NMDARs in the adult brain (Tang et al., 1999;
 507 von Engelhardt et al., 2008).

508 BDNF is a neurotrophin which plays a key role in brain
 509 development, neuroplasticity, synaptic function, behavior,
 510 learning and memory (Ieraci et al., 2016; Mitre et al.,
 511 2016; Boschen and Klintsova, 2017; Mallei et al., 2018;
 512 von Bohlen und Halbach and von Bohlen und Halbach,
 513 2018). Although several studies have extensively investi-
 514 gated the consequences of ethanol exposure on BDNF
 515 levels in the adult brain and the possible contribution of
 516 BDNF to FASD pathophysiology has been hypothesized,

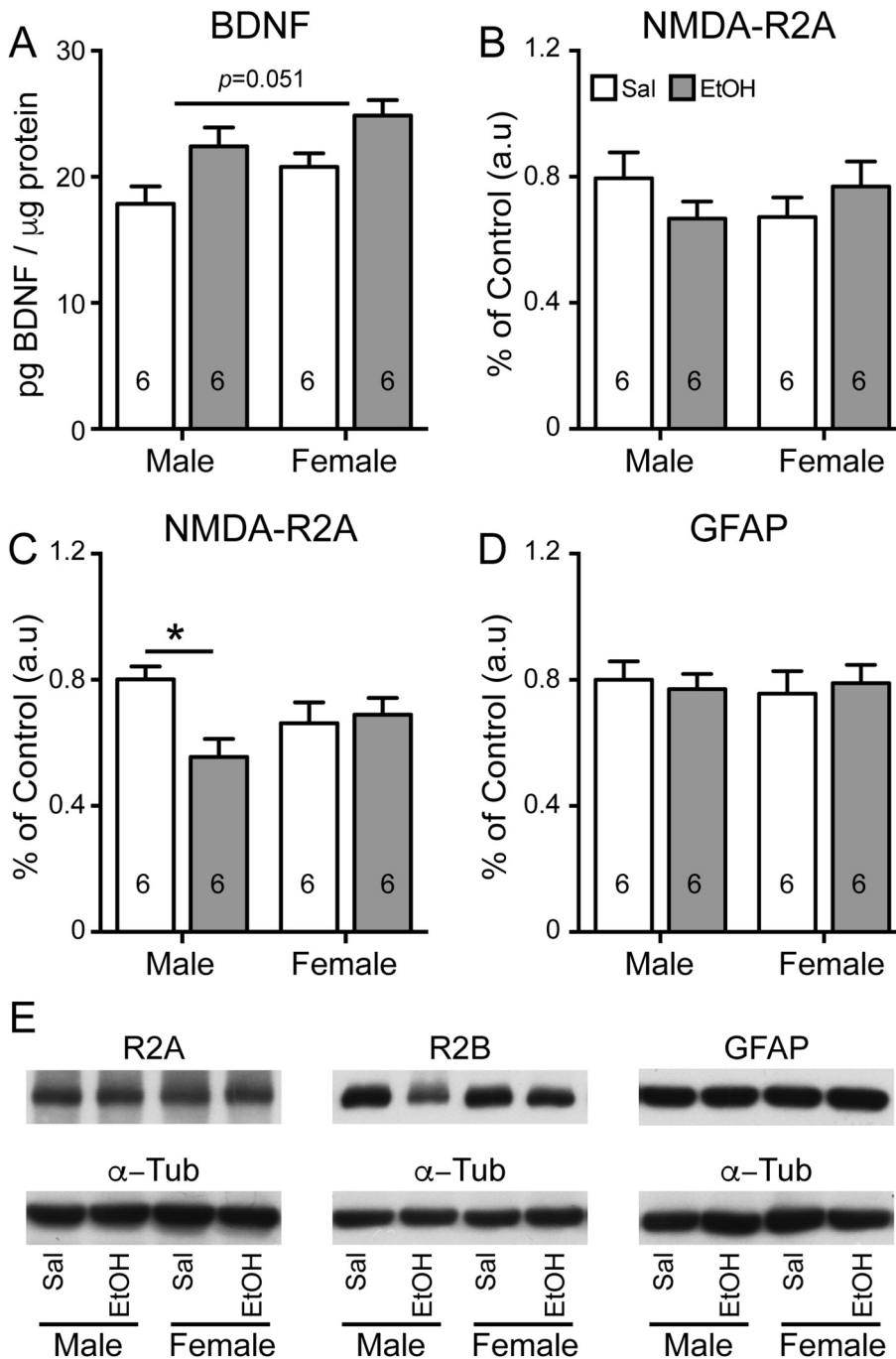


Fig. 6. Effect of postnatal ethanol exposure on hippocampal levels of BDNF, NR2A, NR2B and GFAP. Total hippocampal BDNF protein levels measured by ELISA (A). Representative western blot pictures of NR2A (B); NR2B (C) and GFAP (D) proteins from adult hippocampus and relative densitometric quantification (B–D). (E) Representative western blot images for R2A, R2B and GFAP proteins. Data are presented as mean ± SEM; (n = 6 per group). Two-way ANOVA followed by Newman–Keuls multiple comparisons analysis. ****P < 0.001; *****P < 0.0001. Sal: Saline; EtOH; Ethanol.

the variation of BDNF expression following EtOH exposure were conducted in rats (Light et al., 2001; Balaszczuk et al., 2013; Boschen et al., 2017) with BDNF levels being analyzed shortly after EtOH exposure, between 2 and 24 h (Light et al., 2001; Balaszczuk et al., 2013). Interestingly, it has been reported that six consecutive days of EtOH treatment (postnatal days 4–9) did not cause long-lasting alterations in hippocampal BDNF mRNA levels in the Long-Evans rat (Boschen et al., 2017). This suggests that the long-lasting BDNF alteration induced by postnatal EtOH administration may be different in mice and rats, or alternatively that postnatal EtOH exposure affects the BDNF protein levels, but not the mRNA levels. In contrast with previous results showing no effect of ethanol exposure during pregnancy on BDNF levels in adult hippocampus of C57BL/6J mice (Caldwell et al., 2008; Boehme et al., 2011), we found that a single ethanol exposure in the early postnatal period promotes an increase of BDNF protein levels in the hippocampus of both male and female mice.

These results may suggest that BDNF is more sensitive to ethanol exposure during postnatal period consistent with the evidence that BDNF expression is low in prenatal brain developing and start to increase in postnatal brain (Maisonpierre et al., 1990). In addition, we found higher levels of hippocampal BDNF in female compared to male CD1 mice. In some way, this might suggest that higher levels of BDNF are protective in females. However, it has been reported that chronic stress in young-adult mice promotes memory impairment only in male but not in female

heterozygous BDNF +/– mice (Klug et al., 2012). Moreover, in the BDNF Val66Met, in which the activity-dependent release of BDNF is reduced, prenatal alcohol exposure promotes greater behavioral changes in male compared to female (Bird et al., 2019). Altogether these results suggest that female mice are protect from different

the long-term effects of perinatal ethanol exposure on BDNF levels in the adult brain have been relatively less explored (Davis, 2008; Boschen and Klintsova, 2017). To the best of our knowledge, the present study is the first to investigate the effects of post-natal binge-like ethanol exposure on hippocampal BDNF protein levels in adult CD1 mice. Previously, most of the studies addressing

585 adverse stimuli even when BDNF activity/levels are
586 reduced indicating that other protecting mechanisms are
587 probably involved (e.g. hormones).

588 Here we found that ethanol-exposed animals were
589 hyperactive in two different tests, OFT and EPM,
590 regardless of the sex, suggesting that post-natal ethanol
591 exposure promotes a generalized increase of locomotor
592 activity. In addition, in the EPM test, we found both an
593 augment of time spent and the percentage of entries in
594 the open arms in ethanol-exposed mice compared to
595 control mice. Although increased exploration in the open
596 arms is usually associated with decreased anxiety-like
597 behavior in rodents, this interpretation is complicated by
598 the fact that mice in the present study also
599 demonstrated locomotor hyperactivity, which may be
600 attributable to an increase in novelty-seeking behavior
601 and/or impulsivity, defined respectively as enhanced
602 exploration of new environments and a tendency to act
603 suddenly without foresight for the possible
604 consequences. These observations are in line with
605 previous data showing that hyperactivity, novelty-
606 seeking behavior and impulsivity are some of the
607 features observed in both animal models and FASD
608 patients (Herman et al., 2008; Juárez et al., 2013; Kim
609 et al., 2013; Atalar et al., 2016; Furtado and Roriz,
610 2016; Rojas-Mayorquín et al., 2016; Lange et al., 2018;
611 Wang et al., 2019). Interestingly, overexpression of BDNF
612 in the forebrain reduced the anxiety-like phenotype in
613 mice (Weidner et al., 2014) and higher levels of BDNF
614 have been found in the hippocampus of the hyperactive
615 serotonin-2C receptor knock-out mice (Hill et al., 2011).
616 High-novelty-seeking behavior in rodents has been asso-
617 ciated with higher BDNF level in the hippocampus and
618 cerebellum, compared with low-novelty-seeking animals
619 (Duclot and Kabbaj, 2013; Laricchiuta et al., 2018) and
620 infusion of BDNF in the cerebellum increased exploration
621 and novelty-seeking behavior in mice (Laricchiuta et al.,
622 2018). Moreover, a positive correlation between BDNF
623 serum level and impulsivity has been found in post-
624 traumatic stress disorders and major depressive disor-
625 ders (Park et al., 2014; Martinotti et al., 2015). Consistent
626 with this observation, we found that BDNF protein levels
627 were increased in the hippocampus of ethanol-exposed
628 mice, suggesting that BDNF might regulate some of these
629 behavioral impairments, although future studies will be
630 required to investigate the BDNF level in other brain
631 regions and its role in the behavioral alteration induced
632 by postnatal ethanol exposure.

633 In conclusion, the present study has shown that single
634 binge-like alcohol exposure during the brain growth spurt,
635 in the early postnatal period, induces behavior and
636 molecular changes differentially in male and female
637 mice. This highlights the risk of sporadic consumption of
638 alcohol during pregnancy or early in life, given that the
639 brain growth spurt period extends several years after
640 birth in humans. Moreover, future studies examining
641 perinatal drug and alcohol exposure should carefully
642 analyze both males and females to reveal important and
643 significant sex differences that might be useful for the
644 diagnosis and/or therapeutic interventions targeting
645 affected children.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST

None.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

AI and DGH designed the study, analyzed the data, and
contributed to writing the paper. AI performed the
experiments.

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