

HHS Public Access

Curr Drug Abuse Rev. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2019 August 28.

Published in final edited form as: Curr Drug Abuse Rev. 2011 September ; 4(3): 163–173.

Author manuscript

Regulation of Drug and Palatable Food Overconsumption by Similar Peptide Systems

Irene Morganstern, **Jessica R. Barson**, **Sarah F. Leibowitz***

Laboratory of Behavioral Neurobiology, The Rockefeller University, New York, NY 10065, USA

Abstract

This review is aimed at understanding some of the common neurochemical, behavioral and physiological determinants of drug and food overconsumption. Much current work has been devoted to determining the similarities between the brain circuits controlling excessive use of addictive drugs and the overconsumption of palatable foods. The brain systems involved likely include peptides of both mesolimbic and hypothalamic origin. Evidence gathered from expression and injection studies suggests that the consumption of drugs, such as ethanol and nicotine, and also of palatable foods rich in fat is stimulated by different orexigenic peptides, such as enkephalin, galanin, orexin, and melanin-concentrating hormone, acting within the hypothalamus or various limbic structures, while another peptide, neuropeptide Y, is closely related to carbohydrate consumption and shows an inverse relationship with ethanol and nicotine consumption. Moreover, studies in animal models suggest that a propensity to overconsume these reinforcing substances may result from preexisting disturbances in these same peptide systems. These neurochemical disturbances, in turn, may also be closely linked to specific behaviors associated with excessive consummatory behavior, such as hyperactivity or novelty-seeking, palatable food preference, and also fluctuations in circulating lipid levels. Clear understanding of the relationship between these various determinants of consummatory behavior will allow researchers to effectively predict and examine at early stages of exposure animals that are prone to drug and food overconsumption. This work may ultimately aid in the identification of inherent traits that increase the risk for drug abuse and palatable food overconsumption.

Keywords

Ethanol; fat; hypothalamus; mesolimbic; nicotine; peptides

I. INTRODUCTION

The overconsumption of drugs such as ethanol and nicotine and also of palatable foods rich in fat or sugar may be driven by common underlying neurobiological, behavioral and physiological mechanisms. Recent clinical as well as preclinical research has focused attention on understanding the similarities in the brain circuitry involved in the consumption of these various substances, with mesolimbic and hypothalamic regions being particularly

^{*}Address correspondence to this author at the Laboratory of Behavioral Neurobiology, The Rockefeller University, New York, N.Y. 10065 USA; Tel: +1-212-327-8377; Fax: +1-212-327-8447; leibow@rockefeller.edu.

important in mediating such behavior [1–4]. The mesolimbic pathway, which includes the nucleus accumbens (NAc) and ventral tegmental area (VTA), is perhaps the best known for its role in reward and reinforcement [5]. Within this pathway, the release of the neurotransmitter, dopamine, is found to be closely related to the reinforcing effects of commonly abused drugs, such as ethanol and nicotine [6], and, more recently, of palatable foods, such as those rich in fat [7, 8] or sucrose [9, 10]. Within this circuit, there are other neurochemicals, such as the opioid, enkephalin (ENK), which can interact directly with dopamine to alter its neurotransmission and release [11, 12]. In addition to the mesolimbic system that is closely related to substance reinforcement, there are energy-sensing neurochemicals in the hypothalamus that promote the overconsumption of these substances. Within the hypothalamus, the orexigenic peptides include orexin (OX), also known as hypocretin, and melanin-concentrating hormone (MCH) that are expressed by neurons in the perifornical lateral hypothalamus (PFLH) [13–15]; galanin (GAL) and ENK that are expressed in the paraventricular nucleus (PVN) [16, 17]; and also neuropeptide Y (NPY) that is expressed predominantly in the arcuate nucleus (ARC) [18]. With peptides in the ARC strongly linked to the control of energy balance and caloric intake [19, 20] and the PFLH and PVN more closely related to the consumption specifically of dietary fat [2, 19, 21], these energy-sensing circuits within the hypothalamus have recently been shown to play an additional role in the consumption of certain drugs, such as ethanol and also nicotine, possibly by directly interacting with distal mesolimbic regions including the NAc and VTA [2, 22–26].

Consummatory behavior as it relates to both drugs and food may also be driven by various behavioral disturbances, related to locomotor activity, novelty-seeking, anxiety, or sweet preference, and perhaps even physiological factors, such as circulating lipids. For example, animals that are more active in novel situations or that consume greater amounts of a sweet saccharin solution are ultimately found to become high consumers of either drugs or palatable food [27–32]. Moreover, these behaviors themselves are closely associated with unique patterns of mesolimbic or hypothalamic peptide expression. Thus, with specific neurochemicals driving drug and palatable food intake along with behaviors related to anxiety, activity and reward responding, it is possible that animals prone to excessive intake will show altered neurochemical activity even prior to exposure to these substances.

Different rodent models, such as genetically altered mice, selectively bred or inbred rats, and behaviorally distinct outbred rats, provide useful tools for studying common neurochemical, behavioral and physiological factors contributing to drug and food overconsumption. Examining these various models prior to any exposure to the drug or food substance itself is especially important as it may yield significant information regarding the factors causally related to the future consummatory behavior. In the current review, we will summarize evidence collected in such models to demonstrate how animals that are prone to overconsuming ethanol, nicotine or palatable food can be identified by specific patterns of mesolimbic and hypothalamic peptide expression along with disturbances in specific behaviors as well as circulating lipid levels.

II. DRUG OVERCONSUMPTION

Two commonly abused drugs, ethanol and nicotine, may be consumed in excess due to their ability to act on peptide systems within the mesolimbic and hypothalamic circuits. These peptides include ENK, GAL, OX, MCH and NPY, which function to regulate drug intake, in addition to food consumption as discussed in subsequent sections. The intake of ethanol and nicotine can also be promoted by affective behaviors related to consumption, which may also be driven by disturbances in these same peptide systems. The goal of the next few sections is to describe how animals prone to drug overconsumption, prior to drug exposure, can be identified by their distinct patterns of peptide expression, behavioral traits and physiological factors.

Peptide Regulation of Ethanol Intake

The opioid peptide, ENK, has been shown to control ethanol consumption and reinforcement by acting within mesolimbic regions, such as the VTA and NAc, and also the hypothalamic PVN. Injection studies in rats have clearly demonstrated a stimulation of ethanol consumption with administration of specific ENK analogous in the NAc [22, 33, 34] and PVN [35] and also in the VTA where mu- and delta-specific opioid agonists produce signs of place preference [36, 37] but the kappa agonist causes place aversion while reducing ethanol intake [36, 38]. Endogenous expression of ENK in the NAc [39–41] and PVN [42, 43] is also stimulated by acute and chronic exposure to ethanol, suggesting that ethanol itself can activate this peptide system, which in turn functions to further promote consummatory behavior. Similar to ENK in the PVN, the peptide GAL in this region also stimulates ethanol drinking behavior in rats [24, 44], and its expression in the PVN is enhanced by the consumption of ethanol solution [45]. These studies suggest that a positive feedback loop, involving ENK in the NAc and PVN and also GAL in the PVN, may contribute to the overconsumption of ethanol.

Evidence suggests that the peptides OX and MCH, expressed primarily in the PFLH, also play a major role in ethanol consumption. Injection of OX into the PFLH can enhance the drinking of ethanol [24], and peripheral injection of specific OX receptor antagonists reduces both responding and preference for ethanol [46–48]. The peptide MCH, when injected into specific subregions of the PFLH, the NAc or the third cerebral ventricle, also stimulates ethanol drinking in rats, with the most potent effect occurring in the lateral hypothalamus and NAc [23, 49]. Expression of both OX and MCH is also increased by acute oral administration of ethanol but not chronic ethanol [23, 46, 50], suggesting that these PFLH peptides may promote drinking behavior more during the initial stages of ethanol consumption than subsequently during repeated episodes of chronic drinking. In contrast to the circuits mentioned above, the peptide NPY, which is primarily expressed within the ARC, functions to reduce ethanol consumption. In ethanol-preferring animals, central injection of this peptide into the cerebral ventricle or PVN, a specific target projection area, has been shown to reduce ethanol consumption [51, 52]. Also, in contrast to the other peptides, NPY expression in the ARC is reduced by both acute and chronic ethanol intake [45, 53, 54]. This evidence suggests that, while peptides expressed in the PVN and PFLH

may positively regulate ethanol consumption, those in the ARC provide a negative control to limit such behavior.

With this evidence demonstrating how mesolimbic and specific hypothalamic peptides can function to stimulate ethanol consumption while also responding positively to the consumption of this substance, it is likely that disturbances in these systems in various animal models may lead to the overconsumption of ethanol.

Peptide Disturbances in Relation to Ethanol Overconsumption

Animal models of ethanol overconsumption, such as genetically modified or inbred mice or selectively bred rats, exhibit disturbances in several orexigenic peptides known to promote ethanol intake. For example, although ENK knockout mice fail to show disturbances in ethanol responding or preference [55, 56], mice lacking the mu opioid receptor gene demonstrate a reduction in ethanol intake [57], supporting a role for this opioid receptor in controlling the consumption of ethanol. Whereas studies of ENK in ethanol-preferring compared to non-preferring rats have yielded mixed results showing increased [58] as well as reduced [59–61] expression in different limbic regions, the specific opioid receptors, mu and delta, in the NAc are consistently found to be increased in ethanol-preferring rodents under ethanol-naïve conditions [62–64]. The overexpression of GAL is also associated with an increase in drinking behavior in rats [65], while deletion of the GAL gene in mice results in a significant reduction in ethanol intake compared to wild-type (WT) animals [66]. Although the expression of GAL in selectively-bred, ethanol-preferring rodents has yet to be studied, mutations in the genes encoding GAL or the GAL 3 receptor have been associated with clinical alcoholism [67, 68]. These animal and human studies suggest that specific disturbances in ENK and GAL, prior to any ethanol exposure, may drive animals to consume increased amounts of ethanol.

Although the peptides OX and MCH in the PFLH are believed to play a significant role in ethanol overconsumption, their expression has yet to be systematically examined in inbred or selectively-bred ethanol-preferring animals, with one study showing no change in OX mRNA in ethanol-preferring rats [46]. Also, with regard to MCH, mice lacking the MCH receptor are found to consume increased amounts of an ethanol solution, suggesting that this peptide's relationship to ethanol may be complex [69]. The negative relationship of NPY with ethanol intake, as described above, is further supported by studies in mutant mice, showing exaggerated ethanol intake in mice lacking the NPY or NPY receptor gene [70, 71] and reduced ethanol intake in mice overexpressing NPY [71]. It is also evident in several ethanol-preferring rat and mouse models, which exhibit reduced NPY immunoreactivity in the ARC and PVN and also reduced NPY expression in the amygdala [72, 73]. Thus, although mixed results have been obtained for OX and MCH in the PFLH of ethanol overconsuming animals, the evidence for NPY seems clear in suggesting an inverse relationship of this peptide to ethanol preference and intake.

Behavioral Disturbances in Relation to Ethanol Overconsumption

Behaviors such as locomotor activity, novelty- seeking, anxiety and preference or intake of sweet substances are found to be positively associated with ethanol consumption, although

the strength of their relationship can vary. For example, increased locomotor activity has been reported in ethanol-preferring compared to non-preferring rats [74], and it has also been shown to predict ethanol intake in several non-preferring rat strains [75, 76]. The predictive value of locomotor behavior largely depends on the session duration or acclimation to the test chambers, with activity during longer periods or after several exposures to the chamber showing little association with subsequent ethanol consumption [76, 77]. An increase in novelty-induced locomotor activity has also been reported specifically in ethanol-preferring rats [32], although contradictory results have been obtained in outbred rats prior to ethanol access [77–79]. Anxiety also seems to be a weak predictor of ethanol consumption, with several studies showing preferring rats to be more anxious than their non-preferring counterparts [80, 81] but others failing to demonstrate this in certain rat strains [82–84]. Perhaps the strongest predictor of future ethanol consumption is the tendency to consume increased amounts of sweet substances, such as saccharin or sucrose. Increased ethanol intake has been reported in rats selectively bred for high versus low saccharin consumption [29] and also in outbred rats that tend to consume greater amounts of saccharin [29, 85, 86]. Similarly, increased self-administration of a sucrose solution is strongly and positively correlated with the initial consumption of ethanol [87]. Further support for this positive relationship comes from evidence suggesting that rats selectively bred to consume more ethanol also consume more sucrose [88]. These studies indicate that, while locomotor activity, novelty-seeking and anxiety have some limited value in predicting ethanol consumption, the intake of sweet substances is consistently shown to be the strongest marker of this consummatory behavior.

Peptide Disturbances and Behavioral Predictors to Ethanol Overconsumption

Behaviors that promote ethanol consumption, such as activity, novelty-seeking, anxiety and sweet preference/consumption, are also linked to disturbances in orexigenic peptide expression. Indeed, rats exhibiting increased novelty-induced locomotor behavior also exhibit higher levels of ENK mRNA in the PVN but not in other limbic regions [79, 89], suggesting that ENK specifically in the hypothalamus may be a determinant of high noveltyrelated activity in addition to ethanol overconsumption. Data from mutant mice further suggest that the expression of OX or GAL is positively associated with increased locomotor behavior [90, 91], while NPY shows both a direct [70, 92] and inverse relationship [93] with this behavior. Studies of anxiety show this behavior to be positively related to MCH and NPY but inversely related to ENK and GAL. Mutant mice lacking the ENK gene exhibit high anxiety-related behavior [94–96], while inbred animals of high anxiety show reduced ENK expression in the prefrontal cortex and striatum [97], and animals lacking the GAL 2 receptor show exaggerated stress responding [98, 99], while those showing high anxiety have reduced levels of hypothalamic GAL mRNA [100]. In contrast to ENK and GAL, anxiety seems to be directly related to MCH and NPY, with studies showing a clear reduction in various measures of such behavior in mice lacking MCH [101, 102] and specific NPY receptor subtypes [103] and greater anxiety in animals overexpressing NPY [104]. With consumption of sweet substances being the strongest predictor of future ethanol consumption, it is interesting to note that, while mutations of the GAL [66], ENK [105] or NPY [70, 106] systems have little effect on sucrose preference, mice lacking OX exhibit a strong reduction in sucrose intake [91]. Although more work in specific animal strains and

selectively bred rats is needed to fully understand how disturbances in these various behaviors may be a function of inherent peptide differences, the studies reviewed here provide initial evidence to suggest a close relationship among these behaviors and peptides that ultimately drive ethanol consumption. Specifically, a consistent, positive relationship is evident between hypothalamic ENK and novelty-related behaviors, between both OX and GAL and locomotor activity, and both MCH and NPY and anxiety, with OX additionally related to sucrose consumption.

Physiological Disturbances in Relation to Ethanol Overconsumption

There is also evidence that ethanol consumption in outbred rats is closely related to circulating lipid levels. Measurements of serum triglycerides (TGs) after a small fat-rich meal can accurately predict increased ethanol drinking behavior [79]. Moreover, animals that show high levels of fat-induced TGs to also exhibit increased expression of OX and MCH in the PFLH [107] and also of ENK and GAL in the PVN [79, 107], with no difference in NPY expression evident in the ARC [79]. This preliminary, yet promising evidence suggests that fluctuations in lipid levels are related to patterns of ethanol consumption and also peptide disturbances characteristic of ethanol overconsumers.

Peptide Regulation of Nicotine Intake

Recently, much attention has focused on understanding the neurobiological substrates of nicotine abuse, with current investigations pointing to several common circuits regulating the intake of this drug and ethanol. Similar to ethanol, the consumption of nicotine seems to be positively regulated by mesolimbic and hypothalamic ENK as well as OX in the PFLH, with less information on its regulation by GAL or NPY. Acute stimulation by nicotine consistently increases the opioid peptide, ENK, in the hypothalamic PVN and also limbic regions such as the NAc and central nucleus of the amygdala [108–110], whereas chronic nicotine exposure results in either reduced or unchanged expression of ENK in these regions, possibly due to the onset of tolerance [109, 111, 112]. This peptide itself can regulate nicotine consumption, with studies using general or mu-specific opioid antagonists showing a reduction in self-administration behavior [113, 114]. The peptide, OX, can also positively control nicotine consumption, with both acute and chronic nicotine exposure stimulating neurons expressing this peptide as well as peptide levels [115–117]. This positive relationship is further supported by evidence showing cerebroventricular injection of OX-A to increase nicotine-seeking behavior [117] and of OX receptor antagonists to produce a potent and consistent reduction in nicotine self-administration [118, 119]. While no evidence for the role of GAL in nicotine consumption exists, NPY in the ARC and PVN is reduced by acute nicotine exposure [120] and either stimulated or reduced by chronic treatment with this drug [120, 121]. As with ethanol intake, these studies suggest that ENK and OX function to provide a positive control over nicotine consumption, whereas NPY is inversely related to this drug..

Behavioral and Physiological Disturbances in Relation to Nicotine Overconsumption

Similar to ethanol, the overconsumption of nicotine is found to be predicted, to varying degrees, by different behaviors, such as activity and novelty-seeking in addition to ethanol preference itself. In a recent study, mice demonstrating increased locomotor and exploratory

behaviors were characterized as being high consumers of nicotine [30]. Also, noveltyseeking can successfully predict nicotine intake, whereas anxiety appears to be only a weak predictor [122]. Whereas there are no reports of nicotine intake as it relates to an animals' preference for sweet substances, rats that are selectively bred to prefer ethanol are found to self-administer higher amount of nicotine compared to their non-preferring counterparts [31]. These studies, although few in number, provide some evidence that high locomotor activity, novelty-seeking and ethanol preference can identify animals that go on to consume high amounts of nicotine.

As discussed in a previous section, these predictive behaviors are also associated with disturbances in mesolimbic and hypothalamic peptide systems. These include enhanced expression of hypothalamic ENK and OX, which may control locomotor and novelty-related behaviors [79, 91]. These results indicate that animals predicted to consume high amounts of nicotine may have inherent disturbances in the same peptide systems and associated behaviors also linked to high ethanol consumption. Along with these peptide and behavioral characteristics, there is a physiological factor, circulating lipids, which has been linked to increased consumption of nicotine. The administration of nicotine, as with ethanol, has been positively related to high levels of TG and free fatty acids [123, 124]. Since these lipid molecules at high levels are found to be associated with elevated expression of hypothalamic OX, ENK and MCH [107, 125], these physiological variables may also act as valuable predictors of nicotine overconsumption resulting from such peptide disturbances.

III. PALATABLE FOOD OVERCONSUMPTION

Palatable foods include those made with the dietary macronutrients fat and carbohydrate, often sucrose. Both high-fat and high-carbohydrate foods are commonly overconsumed. With fat, this may be due to its caloric density and texture and also to its lesser satiety induction compared to other macronutrients such as protein or carbohydrate [126]. Fatinduced hyperphagia is particularly evident in acute feeding paradigms, with a high-fat compared to low-fat meal followed by a shorter post-meal interval and larger subsequent food intake [127–129]. High-carbohydrate foods are also calorically dense, and it is sweet, high-fat foods that are most often consumed during binge eating [130]. Certain neurochemical systems, particularly those in the hypothalamus and mesolimbic areas, have been associated with palatable food overconsumption. It is important to understand how inherent disturbances in these systems, along with behavioral and physiological factors, can drive the overconsumption of palatable foods in various animal models.

Peptide Regulation of Palatable Food Consumption

Similar to drugs of abuse, a number of mesolimbic and hypothalamic peptides have been found to play a role in driving the overconsumption of palatable foods. These include ENK in certain limbic regions, GAL and ENK in the PVN, OX and MCH in the PFLH, and NPY in the ARC. Central administration of ENK agonists into a wide number of regions, including not just the hypothalamus [131] but also the VTA [132, 133], NAc [134], and other mesolimbic regions such as the amygdala and prefrontal cortex [135, 136], can stimulate food intake. Injections into the PVN, NAc or amygdala also specifically increase

fat intake [137–139], although those in the accumbens additionally stimulate sucrose and even salt intake when these foods are presented alone [34]. Recently, injection of ENK analogues in the prefrontal cortex has been shown to selectively increase carbohydrate intake, even in rats with a baseline preference for fat [136]. Within both the hypothalamus and accumbens, however, expression and levels of ENK are positively related to fat intake [27, 125], suggesting that ENK can drive the overconsumption of this diet, similar to drugs of abuse, through actions within hypothalamus as well as nuclei outside of this structure. Like ENK, injection of GAL into the hypothalamus or amygdala stimulates food intake [140, 141]. Injection into the PVN or adjacent third ventricle leads rats to consume a highfat diet more than a low-fat diet [142, 143], and gene expression and peptide production of GAL in the PVN is also stimulated by consumption of dietary fat but not by carbohydrate or protein [144, 145]. These results suggest that GAL acts primarily through the hypothalamus to drive the overconsumption of fatty foods, just as it does with ethanol.

The peptide OX is believed to coordinate arousal with energy balance [146]. Expression of this peptide is upregulated during fasting [15, 147], and both hypothalamic and accumbal injections of OX stimulate food intake [148–151], suggesting that this peptide functions locally within the hypothalamus and also through projection areas to drive feeding behavior. Injection of OX, specifically OX-A, into the third ventricle stimulates consumption of a high-fat diet in preference to a carbohydrate diet [152]. In turn, consumption of a high-fat diet compared to a moderate- or low-fat diet, or acute administration of fats, stimulates expression and levels of OX in the PFLH [128, 153, 154]. On the other hand, increases in glucose levels, as would occur with sucrose intake, do not affect OX expression or levels [147, 155]. Thus, while OX can drive overconsumption of palatable food in general, it appears to be more closely related to fatty food and shows a positive feedback relationship with this macronutrient. Like OX, expression and levels of MCH are increased during fasting [156, 157], and both hypothalamic and accumbal injections of MCH stimulate food intake [158, 159]. Unlike OX, MCH may be equally related to fat and carbohydrate overconsumption. Injection of MCH into the cerebral ventricles stimulates intake of a highfat diet more strongly than it does chow [160], but it also increases intake of both sucrose and glucose [49, 161, 162]. This peptide also shows positive feedback with fat, as consumption of a high-fat diet itself stimulates MCH expression [163]. Thus, this peptide, similar to OX, can drive the overconsumption of palatable foods.

Within the ARC, NPY is clearly related to carbohydrate intake. Expression and levels of this peptide rise immediately prior to scheduled feeding as well as during food deprivation [164, 165], and hypothalamic injection of NPY potently stimulates food intake [166, 167]. When given a choice between diets with different macronutrient content, rats injected with NPY increase their ingestion of carbohydrate rather than fat [166, 168]. While the immediate effects (within minutes) of carbohydrate intake may be to decrease hypothalamic NPY expression, likely due to elevated glucose levels [169, 170], chronic carbohydrate intake ultimately results in higher NPY over the long term [171, 172]. Thus, this peptide appears to be important in the overconsumption of foods high in carbohydrates such as sucrose.

Peptide Disturbances in Relation to Palatable Food Overconsumption

Studies examining mutant mice support a role for the different orexigenic peptides in palatable food overconsumption. Mice lacking the ENK gene show a lower breakpoint for both normal chow and fat chow compared to WT mice [105], and they exhibit lower overall bar pressing for palatable high-fat food [173]. In contrast, they show no difference in sucrose intake or preference [96, 105, 174]. As with injection studies in outbred rodents, these data indicate that ENK may be more closely related to fat overconsumption than to sucrose overconsumption. Similarly, whereas mice lacking or overexpressing the GAL gene are similar to WT mice in their amount of chow intake [175] and sucrose preference [65, 66], they exhibit clear disturbances in their intake and preference for a fat-rich diet, with GAL knockout mice consuming less fat [66, 176] and GAL overexpressors consuming more fat [65]. Thus, GAL too appears to play a stronger role in controlling the overconsumption of fat rather than carbohydrate.

Findings with OX and MCH mutant mice suggest that these peptides are also related to palatable food intake. Mice lacking the gene for OX are less able to acquire the behavioral output necessary to procure food [177, 178], despite showing little change in the intake of laboratory chow [179]. On the other hand, one recent study has shown that OX knockout mice consume less sucrose, even when compared to WT mice with similar levels of locomotor activity [91]. This suggests that OX is more involved in the consumption of palatable foods than in food intake per se. Mice lacking MCH do show decreased chow intake, and consequently they weigh significantly less than WT mice [180, 181]. Although transgenic overexpression of MCH does not lead to significantly greater chow intake, it does lead to greater intake of a high-fat diet [182], confirming that this peptide, generally related to caloric intake, also has a more specific relationship with the intake of palatable food.

In contrast to ENK, GAL, OX and MCH, studies with NPY mutant mice suggest that it is related both to food intake in general, as well as to palatable food in particular. Mice lacking NPY consume less laboratory chow [93, 183] and less of a high-fat diet [184], resulting in a decreased incidence of diet-induced obesity. Further, NPY overexpressors consume more of a sucrose diet and are more likely to become obese on this diet [185]. Thus, studies using genetic knockout and overexpression generally support but also extend findings in outbred animals that use injection and gene expression techniques.

Behavioral Disturbances in Relation to Palatable Food Overconsumption

A number of behavioral tests have been shown in outbred rats to successfully predict which ones will go on to overconsume palatable diets. Using a measure of initial high-fat diet intake during a few days of access that predicts long-term intake, our laboratory has been able to classify rats at normal weight that are either high-fat consumers, which ingest 35% more calories of the high-fat than low-fat chow diet, or controls, which consume a similar number of calories of these two diets [27]. As with alcohol and nicotine, locomotor activity, particularly high locomotor activity in a novel open field, can also predict which rats will go on to consume more dietary fat [186] but not those that go on to consume more sucrose [187, 188]. On the other hand, just as with alcohol and nicotine, anxiety is a weak predictor

of future fat intake [186]. These studies suggest that early fat intake and high noveltyseeking are the best markers for predicting fat overconsumption.

Peptide Disturbances and Behavioral Predictors to Palatable Food Overconsumption

Behaviors that predict fat consumption are also linked to disturbances in peptide expression. High-fat consumers identified by early fat intake, but maintained on a chow diet, exhibit elevated expression of OX and MCH in the PFLH [186] and ENK in the PVN, NAc and central nucleus of the amygdala [27]. Although not tested, it is also very likely that these rats also have increased GAL, as fat-preferring Brattleboro rats have higher GAL mRNA in the PVN than do control Long-Evans rats [189, 190]. This same rat strain shows no difference in NPY levels in the ARC [191]. Those rats that show greater novelty-induced locomotor activity also show higher hypothalamic but not extra-hypothalamic ENK expression [79, 89], and our preliminary work suggests that they also have higher PVN GAL expression [192]. Thus, the same peptides that stimulate fat intake when centrally injected, and are themselves increased by fat intake, may already be more active in animals likely to go on to overconsume dietary fat when chronically available.

Physiological Disturbances in Relation to Palatable Food Overconsumption

High levels of the circulating lipids, TG, can also predict which subjects will overconsume a high-fat diet [107]. As described above, rats with high TG after the same small, high-fat meal have been found to have elevated OX and MCH expression in the PFLH and both ENK and GAL in the PVN, with no difference in NPY in the ARC [79, 107]. Peptide levels for OX and MCH are also increased [107]. Therefore, even when animals have consumed an identical meal, those that have higher levels of circulating lipids after the meal and are predicted to overconsume fat are found to exhibit greater expression and levels of the same peptides that specifically stimulate fat intake.

VI. CONCLUSION

The reviewed literature points to several commonalities among the neurochemical, behavioral and physiological disturbances associated with and possibly casually related to the overconsumption of ethanol, nicotine and palatable food. With the exception of NPY which shows a strong inverse relationship with ethanol and nicotine consumption, the orexigenic peptides GAL, ENK, OX and MCH in the PVN and PFLH each play a specific role in promoting the consumption of these substances and, in turn, are further stimulated by their ingestion, This positive relationship seems to occur predominantly and consistently in hypothalamic regions, such as the PVN and PFLH, rather than in mesolimbic structures or the ARC in the basal hypothalamus, suggesting that the increased activity of the specific orexigenic peptides in dorsal hypothalamic areas may have particular importance in driving the common tendency to overconsume both the drugs and palatable foods. Building on this positive feedback circuit, the literature further demonstrates that the specific peptides in the PVN and PFLH may be disturbed in overconsuming animals even *prior to* any exposure to drugs or palatable food. Moreover, these hypothalamic peptides, with ENK and OX showing the most consistent results, tend to be positively related to increased locomotor activity, novelty-seeking, early consumption patterns, and circulating lipids, all factors that are

effective in predicting an animal's propensity to consume excess amounts of these drugs or food. Based on the outlined literature, we conclude that drugs of abuse, including ethanol and nicotine which have limited or no caloric value, and also palatable foods, particularly those rich in fat or sugar, are overconsumed by animals with similar inherent disturbances in positive feedback circuits of the hypothalamus.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research was supported by USPHS grants AA12882 and DA21518.

REFERENCES

- [1]. Barson JR, Morganstern I, Leibowitz SF. Similarities in hypothalamic and mesocorticolimbic circuits regulating the overconsumption of food and alcohol. Physiol Behav 2011; 104(1): 128– 37. [PubMed: 21549731]
- [2]. Leibowitz SF. Overconsumption of dietary fat and alcohol: mechanisms involving lipids and hypothalamic peptides. Physiol Behav 2007; 91(5): 513–21. [PubMed: 17481672]
- [3]. Nestler EJ. Is there a common molecular pathway for addiction? Nat Neurosci 2005; 8(11): 1445– 9. [PubMed: 16251986]
- [4]. Volkow ND, Wang GJ, Baler RD. Reward, dopamine and the control of food intake: implications for obesity. Trends Cogn Sci 2011; 15(1): 37–46. [PubMed: 21109477]
- [5]. Spanagel R, Weiss F. The dopamine hypothesis of reward: past and current status. Trends Neurosci 1999; 22(11): 521–7. [PubMed: 10529820]
- [6]. Pierce RC, Kumaresan V. The mesolimbic dopamine system: the final common pathway for the reinforcing effect of drugs of abuse? Neurosci Biobehav Rev 2006; 30(2): 215–38. [PubMed: 16099045]
- [7]. Liang NC, Hajnal A, Norgren R. Sham feeding corn oil increases accumbens dopamine in the rat. Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol 2006; 291(5): R1236–9. [PubMed: 16763080]
- [8]. Rada P, Bocarsly ME, Barson JR, Hoebel BG, Leibowitz SF. Reduced accumbens dopamine in Sprague-Dawley rats prone to overeating a fat-rich diet. Physiol Behav 2010; 101(3): 394–400. [PubMed: 20643155]
- [9]. Hajnal A, Norgren R. Accumbens dopamine mechanisms in sucrose intake. Brain Res 2001; 904(1): 76–84. [PubMed: 11516413]
- [10]. Rada P, Avena NM, Hoebel BG. Daily bingeing on sugar repeatedly releases dopamine in the accumbens shell. Neuroscience 2005; 134(3): 737–44. [PubMed: 15987666]
- [11]. Devine DP, Leone P, Wise RA. Mesolimbic dopamine neurotransmission is increased by administration of mu-opioid receptor antagonists. Eur J Pharmacol 1993; 243(1): 55–64. [PubMed: 7902813]
- [12]. Spanagel R, Herz A, Shippenberg TS. Opposing tonically active endogenous opioid systems modulate the mesolimbic dopaminergic pathway. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 1992; 89(6): 2046– 50. [PubMed: 1347943]
- [13]. Bittencourt JC, Presse F, Arias C, et al. The melanin-concentrating hormone system of the rat brain: an immuno- and hybridization histochemical characterization. J Comp Neurol 1992; 319(2): 218–45. [PubMed: 1522246]
- [14]. de Lecea L, Kilduff TS, Peyron C, et al. The hypocretins: hypothalamus-specific peptides with neuroexcitatory activity. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 1998; 95(1): 322–7. [PubMed: 9419374]
- [15]. Sakurai T, Amemiya A, Ishii M, et al. Orexins and orexin receptors: a family of hypothalamic neuropeptides and G protein-coupled receptors that regulate feeding behavior. Cell 1998; 92(4): 573–85. [PubMed: 9491897]
- [16]. Kaplan LM, Gabriel SM, Koenig JI, et al. Galanin is an estrogeninducible, secretory product of the rat anterior pituitary. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 1988; 85(19): 7408–12. [PubMed: 2459706]

- [17]. Yoshikawa K, Williams C, Sabol SL. Rat brain preproenkephalin mRNA. cDNA cloning, primary structure, and distribution in the central nervous system. J Biol Chem 1984; 259(22): 14301–8. [PubMed: 6548748]
- [18]. Gehlert DR, Chronwall BM, Schafer MP, O'Donohue TL. Localization of neuropeptide Y messenger ribonucleic acid in rat and mouse brain by in situ hybridization. Synapse 1987; 1(1): 25–31. [PubMed: 3333197]
- [19]. Leibowitz SF, Wortley KE. Hypothalamic control of energy balance: different peptides, different functions. Peptides 2004; 25(3): 473–504. [PubMed: 15134868]
- [20]. Pickavance L, Dryden S, Hopkins D, et al. Relationships between hypothalamic neuropeptide Y and food intake in the lactating rat. Peptides 1996; 17(4): 577–82. [PubMed: 8804064]
- [21]. Leibowitz SF. Regulation and effects of hypothalamic galanin: relation to dietary fat, alcohol ingestion, circulating lipids and energy homeostasis. Neuropeptides 2005; 39(3): 327–32. [PubMed: 15944030]
- [22]. Barson JR, Carr AJ, Soun JE, Sobhani NC, Leibowitz SF, Hoebel BG. Opioids in the nucleus accumbens stimulate ethanol intake. Physiol Behav 2009; 98(4): 453–9. [PubMed: 19647755]
- [23]. Morganstern I, Chang GQ, Chen YW, et al. Role of melanin-concentrating hormone in the control of ethanol consumption: Region-specific effects revealed by expression and injection studies. Physiol Behav 2010; 101(4): 428–37. [PubMed: 20670637]
- [24]. Schneider ER, Rada P, Darby RD, Leibowitz SF, Hoebel BG. Orexigenic peptides and alcohol intake: differential effects of orexin, galanin, and ghrelin. Alcohol Clin Exp Res 2007; 31(11): 1858–65. [PubMed: 17850217]
- [25]. Thompson JL, Borgland SL. A role for hypocretin/orexin in motivation. Behav Brain Res 2011; 217(2): 446–53. [PubMed: 20920531]
- [26]. Winrow CJ, Tanis KQ, Reiss DR, et al. Orexin receptor antagonism prevents transcriptional and behavioral plasticity resulting from stimulant exposure. Neuropharmacology 2010; 58(1): 185– 94. [PubMed: 19596018]
- [27]. Chang GQ, Karatayev O, Barson JR, Chang SY, Leibowitz SF. Increased enkephalin in brain of rats prone to overconsuming a fatrich diet. Physiol Behav 2010; 101(3): 360–9. [PubMed: 20603139]
- [28]. Colombo G, Agabio R, Carai MA, et al. Different sensitivity to ethanol in alcohol-preferring sP and -nonpreferring sNP rats. Alcohol Clin Exp Res 2000; 24(11): 1603–8. [PubMed: 11104106]
- [29]. Gahtan E, Labounty LP, Wyvell C, Carroll ME. The relationships among saccharin consumption, oral ethanol, and i.v. cocaine self-administration. Pharmacol Biochem Behav 1996; 53(4): 919– 25. [PubMed: 8801598]
- [30]. Gyekis J, Foreman JE, Anthony K, Klein LC, Vandenbergh DJ. Activity-related behaviors in the hole-board predict nicotine consumption in C57B6 mice perinatally exposed to nicotine. Behav Brain Res 2010; 206(1): 139–42. [PubMed: 19715729]
- [31]. Le AD, Li Z, Funk D, Shram M, Li TK, Shaham Y. Increased vulnerability to nicotine selfadministration and relapse in alcohol-naive offspring of rats selectively bred for high alcohol intake. J Neurosci 2006; 26(6): 1872–9. [PubMed: 16467536]
- [32]. Nowak KL, Ingraham CM, McKinzie DL, et al. An assessment of novelty-seeking behavior in alcohol-preferring and nonpreferring rats. Pharmacol Biochem Behav 2000; 66(1): 113–21. [PubMed: 10837850]
- [33]. Heyser CJ, Roberts AJ, Schulteis G, Koob GF. Central administration of an opiate antagonist decreases oral ethanol self-administration in rats. Alcohol Clin Exp Res 1999; 23(9): 1468–76. [PubMed: 10512312]
- [34]. Zhang M, Kelley AE. Intake of saccharin, salt, and ethanol solutions is increased by infusion of a mu opioid agonist into the nucleus accumbens. Psychopharmacology (Berl) 2002; 159(4): 415– 23. [PubMed: 11823894]
- [35]. Barson JR, Carr AJ, Soun JE, et al. Opioids in the hypothalamic paraventricular nucleus stimulate ethanol intake. Alcohol Clin Exp Res 2010; 34(2): 214–22. [PubMed: 19951300]
- [36]. Bals-Kubik R, Ableitner A, Herz A, Shippenberg TS. Neuroanatomical sites mediating the motivational effects of opioids as mapped by the conditioned place preference paradigm in rats. J Pharmacol Exp Ther 1993; 264(1): 489–95. [PubMed: 8093731]

- [37]. Phillips AG, LePiane FG. Reward produced by microinjection of (D-Ala2), Met5 enkephalinamide into the ventral tegmental area. Behav Brain Res 1982; 5(2): 225–9. [PubMed: 7104089]
- [38]. Margolis EB, Fields HL, Hjelmstad GO, Mitchell JM. Delta-opioid receptor expression in the ventral tegmental area protects against elevated alcohol consumption. J Neurosci 2008 11; 28(48): 12672–81. [PubMed: 19036960]
- [39]. Chang GQ, Barson JR, Karatayev O, Chang SY, Chen YW, Leibowitz SF. Effect of chronic ethanol on enkephalin in the hypothalamus and extra-hypothalamic areas. Alcohol Clin Exp Res 2010; 34(5): 761–70. [PubMed: 20184566]
- [40]. Mendez M, Morales-Mulia M. Ethanol exposure differentially alters pro-enkephalin mRNA expression in regions of the mesocorticolimbic system. Psychopharmacology (Berl) 2006; 189(1): 117–24. [PubMed: 17047937]
- [41]. de Gortari P, Mendez M, Rodriguez-Keller I, Perez-Martinez L, Joseph-Bravob P. Acute ethanol administration induces changes in TRH and proenkephalin expression in hypothalamic and limbic regions of rat brain. Neurochem Int 2000; 37(5–6): 483–96. [PubMed: 10871700]
- [42]. Chang GQ, Karatayev O, Ahsan R, et al. Effect of ethanol on hypothalamic opioid peptides, enkephalin, and dynorphin: relationship with circulating triglycerides. Alcohol Clin Exp Res 2007; 31(2): 249–59. [PubMed: 17250616]
- [43]. Oliva JM, Manzanares J. Gene transcription alterations associated with decrease of ethanol intake induced by naltrexone in the brain of Wistar rats. Neuropsychopharmacology 2007; 32(6): 1358– 69. [PubMed: 17063152]
- [44]. Rada P, Avena NM, Leibowitz SF, Hoebel BG. Ethanol intake is increased by injection of galanin in the paraventricular nucleus and reduced by a galanin antagonist. Alcohol 2004; 33(2): 91–7. [PubMed: 15528006]
- [45]. Leibowitz SF, Avena NM, Chang GQ, Karatayev O, Chau DT, Hoebel BG. Ethanol intake increases galanin mRNA in the hypothalamus and withdrawal decreases it. Physiol Behav 2003; 79(1): 103–11. [PubMed: 12818715]
- [46]. Lawrence AJ, Cowen MS, Yang HJ, Chen F, Oldfield B. The orexin system regulates alcoholseeking in rats. Br J Pharmacol 2006; 148(6): 752–9. [PubMed: 16751790]
- [47]. Moorman DE, Aston-Jones G. Orexin-1 receptor antagonism decreases ethanol consumption and preference selectively in highethanol--preferring Sprague--Dawley rats. Alcohol 2009; 43(5): 379–86. [PubMed: 19671464]
- [48]. Richards JK, Simms JA, Steensland P, et al. Inhibition of orexin-1/hypocretin-1 receptors inhibits yohimbine-induced reinstatement of ethanol and sucrose seeking in Long-Evans rats. Psychopharmacology (Berl) 2008; 199(1): 109–17. [PubMed: 18470506]
- [49]. Duncan EA, Proulx K, Woods SC. Central administration of melanin-concentrating hormone increases alcohol and sucrose/quinine intake in rats. Alcohol Clin Exp Res 2005; 29(6): 958–64. [PubMed: 15976521]
- [50]. Morganstern I, Chang GQ, Barson JR, Ye Z, Karatayev O, Leibowitz SF. Differential effects of acute and chronic ethanol exposure on orexin expression in the perifornical lateral hypothalamus. Alcohol Clin Exp Res 2010; 34(5): 886–96. [PubMed: 20331576]
- [51]. Badia-Elder NE, Stewart RB, Powrozek TA, Roy KF, Murphy JM, Li TK. Effect of neuropeptide Y (NPY) on oral ethanol intake in Wistar, alcohol-preferring (P), and -nonpreferring (NP) rats. Alcohol Clin Exp Res 2001; 25(3): 386–90. [PubMed: 11290849]
- [52]. Lucas LA, McMillen BA. Effect of neuropeptide Y microinjected into the hypothalamus on ethanol consumption. Peptides 2004; 25(12): 2139–45. [PubMed: 15572203]
- [53]. Kinoshita H, Jessop DS, Finn DP, et al. Acute ethanol decreases NPY mRNA but not POMC mRNA in the arcuate nucleus. Neuroreport 2000; 11(16): 3517–9. [PubMed: 11095510]
- [54]. Roy A, Pandey SC. The decreased cellular expression of neuropeptide Y protein in rat brain structures during ethanol withdrawal after chronic ethanol exposure. Alcohol Clin Exp Res 2002; 26(6): 796–803. [PubMed: 12068247]
- [55]. Hayward MD, Hansen ST, Pintar JE, Low MJ. Operant self-administration of ethanol in C57BL/6 mice lacking beta-endorphin and enkephalin. Pharmacol Biochem Behav 2004; 79(1): 171–81. [PubMed: 15388297]

- [56]. Koenig HN, Olive MF. Ethanol consumption patterns and conditioned place preference in mice lacking preproenkephalin. Neurosci Lett 2002; 325(2): 75–8. [PubMed: 12044625]
- [57]. Hall FS, Sora I, Uhl GR. Ethanol consumption and reward are decreased in mu-opiate receptor knockout mice. Psychopharmacology (Berl) 2001; 154(1): 43–9. [PubMed: 11292005]
- [58]. Jamensky NT, Gianoulakis C. Comparison of the proopiomelanocortin and proenkephalin opioid peptide systems in brain regions of the alcohol-preferring C57BL/6 and alcohol-avoiding DBA/2 mice. Alcohol 1999; 18(2–3): 177–87. [PubMed: 10456570]
- [59]. Blum K, Briggs AH, DeLallo L, Elston SF, Ochoa R. Whole brain methionine-enkephalin of ethanol-avoiding and ethanol-preferring c57BL mice. Experientia 1982; 38(12): 1469–70. [PubMed: 6891340]
- [60]. Blum K, Briggs AH, Trachtenberg MC, Delallo L, Wallace JE. Enkephalinase inhibition: regulation of ethanol intake in genetically predisposed mice. Alcohol 1987; 4(6): 449–56. [PubMed: 2829941]
- [61]. Cowen M, Chen F, Jarrott B, Lawrence AJ. Effects of acute ethanol on GABA release and GABA(A) receptor density in the rat mesolimbic system. Pharmacol Biochem Behav 1998; 59(1): 51–7. [PubMed: 9443536]
- [62]. de Waele JP, Kiianmaa K, Gianoulakis C. Distribution of the mu and delta opioid binding sites in the brain of the alcohol-preferring AA and alcohol-avoiding ANA lines of rats. J Pharmacol Exp Ther 1995; 275(1): 518–27. [PubMed: 7562594]
- [63]. McBride WJ, Chernet E, McKinzie DL, Lumeng L, Li TK. Quantitative autoradiography of muopioid receptors in the CNS of alcohol-naive alcohol-preferring P and -nonpreferring NP rats. Alcohol 1998; 16(4): 317–23. [PubMed: 9818984]
- [64]. Marinelli PW, Kiianmaa K, Gianoulakis C. Opioid propeptide mRNA content and receptor density in the brains of AA and ANA rats. Life Sci 2000; 66(20): 1915–27. [PubMed: 10821116]
- [65]. Karatayev O, Baylan J, Leibowitz SF. Increased intake of ethanol and dietary fat in galanin overexpressing mice. Alcohol 2009; 43(8): 571–80. [PubMed: 20004335]
- [66]. Karatayev O, Baylan J, Weed V, Chang S, Wynick D, Leibowitz SF. Galanin knockout mice show disturbances in ethanol consumption and expression of hypothalamic peptides that stimulate ethanol intake. Alcohol Clin Exp Res 2010; 34(1): 72–80. [PubMed: 19860804]
- [67]. Belfer I, Hipp H, Bollettino A, et al. Alcoholism is associated with GALR3 but not two other galanin receptor genes. Genes Brain Behav 2007; 6(5): 473–81. [PubMed: 17083333]
- [68]. Belfer I, Hipp H, McKnight C, et al. Association of galanin haplotypes with alcoholism and anxiety in two ethnically distinct populations. Mol Psychiatry 2006; 11(3): 301–11. [PubMed: 16314872]
- [69]. Duncan EA, Rider TR, Jandacek RJ, et al. The regulation of alcohol intake by melaninconcentrating hormone in rats. Pharmacol Biochem Behav.2006; 85(4): 728–35. [PubMed: 17188345]
- [70]. Thiele TE, Koh MT, Pedrazzini T. Voluntary alcohol consumption is controlled via the neuropeptide Y Y1 receptor. J Neurosci 2002; 22(3): RC208. [PubMed: 11826154]
- [71]. Thiele TE, Marsh DJ, Ste Marie L, Bernstein IL, Palmiter RD. Ethanol consumption and resistance are inversely related to neuropeptide Y levels. Nature 1998; 396(6709): 366–9. [PubMed: 9845072]
- [72]. Hayes DM, Knapp DJ, Breese GR, Thiele TE. Comparison of basal neuropeptide Y and corticotropin releasing factor levels between the high ethanol drinking C57BL/6J and low ethanol drinking DBA/2J inbred mouse strains. Alcohol Clin Exp Res 2005; 29(5): 721–9. [PubMed: 15897715]
- [73]. Hwang BH, Zhang JK, Ehlers CL, Lumeng L, Li TK. Innate differences of neuropeptide Y (NPY) in hypothalamic nuclei and central nucleus of the amygdala between selectively bred rats with high and low alcohol preference. Alcohol Clin Exp Res 1999; 23(6): 1023–30. [PubMed: 10397286]
- [74]. McKinzie DL, McBride WJ, Murphy JM, Lumeng L, Li TK. Effects of amphetamine on locomotor activity in adult and juvenile alcohol-preferring and -nonpreferring rats. Pharmacol Biochem Behav 2002; 71(1–2): 29–36. [PubMed: 11812505]

- [75]. Bisaga A, Kostowski W. Individual behavioral differences and ethanol consumption in Wistar rats. Physiol Behav 1993; 54(6): 1125–31. [PubMed: 8295952]
- [76]. Nadal R, Armario A, Janak PH. Positive relationship between activity in a novel environment and operant ethanol self-administration in rats. Psychopharmacology (Berl) 2002; 162(3): 333–8. [PubMed: 12122492]
- [77]. Bienkowski P, Koros E, Kostowski W. Novelty-seeking behaviour and operant oral ethanol selfadministration in Wistar rats. Alcohol Alcohol 2001; 36(6): 525–8. [PubMed: 11704617]
- [78]. Gingras MA, Cools AR. Differential ethanol intake in high and low responders to novelty. Behav Pharmacol 1995; 6(7): 718–23. [PubMed: 11224374]
- [79]. Karatayev O, Barson JR, Carr AJ, Baylan J, Chen YW, Leibowitz SF. Predictors of ethanol consumption in adult Sprague-Dawley rats: relation to hypothalamic peptides that stimulate ethanol intake. Alcohol 2010; 44(4): 323–34. [PubMed: 20692550]
- [80]. Colombo G, Agabio R, Lobina C, et al. Sardinian alcoholpreferring rats: a genetic animal model of anxiety. Physiol Behav 1995; 57(6): 1181–5. [PubMed: 7652041]
- [81]. Stewart RB, Gatto GJ, Lumeng L, Li TK, Murphy JM. Comparison of alcohol-preferring (P) and nonpreferring (NP) rats on tests of anxiety and for the anxiolytic effects of ethanol. Alcohol 1993; 10(1): 1–10. [PubMed: 8095393]
- [82]. Badia-Elder NE, Stewart RB, Powrozek TA, Murphy JM, Li TK. Effects of neuropeptide Y on sucrose and ethanol intake and on anxiety-like behavior in high alcohol drinking (HAD) and low alcohol drinking (LAD) rats. Alcohol Clin Exp Res 2003; 27(6): 894–9. [PubMed: 12824809]
- [83]. McMillen BA, Means LW, Matthews JN. Comparison of the alcohol-preferring P rat to the Wistar rat in behavioral tests of impulsivity and anxiety. Physiol Behav 1998; 63(3): 371–5. [PubMed: 9469729]
- [84]. Overstreet DH, Halikas JA, Seredenin SB, et al. Behavioral similarities and differences among alcohol-preferring and -nonpreferring rats: confirmation by factor analysis and extension to additional groups. Alcohol Clin Exp Res 1997; 21(5): 840–8. [PubMed: 9267533]
- [85]. Gosnell BA, Krahn DD. The relationship between saccharin and alcohol intake in rats. Alcohol 1992; 9(3): 203–6. [PubMed: 1605887]
- [86]. Overstreet DH, Kampov-Polevoy AB, Rezvani AH, Murrelle L, Halikas JA, Janowsky DS. Saccharin intake predicts ethanol intake in genetically heterogeneous rats as well as different rat strains. Alcohol Clin Exp Res 1993; 17(2): 366–9. [PubMed: 8488981]
- [87]. Rogowski A, Kostowski W, Bienkowski P. Sucrose selfadministration predicts only initial phase of ethanol-reinforced behaviour in Wistar rats. Alcohol Alcohol 2002; 37(5): 436–40. [PubMed: 12217934]
- [88]. Stewart RB, Russell RN, Lumeng L, Li TK, Murphy JM. Consumption of sweet, salty, sour, and bitter solutions by selectively bred alcohol-preferring and alcohol-nonpreferring lines of rats. Alcohol Clin Exp Res 1994; 18(2): 375–81. [PubMed: 8048741]
- [89]. Hooks MS, Sorg BA, Kalivas PW. The relationship between MRNA levels and the locomotor response to novelty. Brain Res 1994; 663(2): 312–6. [PubMed: 7874516]
- [90]. Kuteeva E, Hokfelt T, Ogren SO. Behavioural characterisation of young adult transgenic mice overexpressing galanin under the PDGF-B promoter. Regul Pept 2005; 125(1–3): 67–78. [PubMed: 15582716]
- [91]. Matsuo E, Mochizuki A, Nakayama K, et al. Decreased intake of sucrose solutions in orexin knockout mice. J Mol Neurosci 2011; 43(2): 217–24. [PubMed: 21086064]
- [92]. Karl T, Burne TH, Herzog H. Effect of Y1 receptor deficiency on motor activity, exploration, and anxiety. Behav Brain Res 2006; 167(1): 87–93. [PubMed: 16203045]
- [93]. Bannon AW, Seda J, Carmouche M, et al. Behavioral characterization of neuropeptide Y knockout mice. Brain Res 2000; 868(1): 79–87. [PubMed: 10841890]
- [94]. Bilkei-Gorzo A, Racz I, Michel K, Mauer D, Zimmer A, Klingmuller D. Control of hormonal stress reactivity by the endogenous opioid system. Psychoneuroendocrinology 2008; 33(4): 425– 36. [PubMed: 18280051]
- [95]. Konig M, Zimmer AM, Steiner H, et al. Pain responses, anxiety and aggression in mice deficient in pre-proenkephalin. Nature 1996; 383(6600): 535–8. [PubMed: 8849726]

- [96]. Ragnauth A, Schuller A, Morgan M, et al. Female preproenkephalin-knockout mice display altered emotional responses. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 2001; 98(4): 1958–63. [PubMed: 11172058]
- [97]. Guitart-Masip M, Gimenez-Llort L, Fernandez-Teruel A, et al. Reduced ethanol response in the alcohol-preferring RHA rats and neuropeptide mRNAs in relevant structures. Eur J Neurosci 2006; 23(2): 531–40. [PubMed: 16420460]
- [98]. Bailey KR, Pavlova MN, Rohde AD, Hohmann JG, Crawley JN. Galanin receptor subtype 2 (GalR2) null mutant mice display an anxiogenic-like phenotype specific to the elevated plusmaze. Pharmacol Biochem Behav 2007; 86(1): 8–20. [PubMed: 17257664]
- [99]. Lu X, Ross B, Sanchez-Alavez M, Zorrilla EP, Bartfai T. Phenotypic analysis of GalR2 knockout mice in anxiety- and depression-related behavioral tests. Neuropeptides 2008; 42(4): 387–97. [PubMed: 18554714]
- [100]. Lyudyno VI, Abdurasulova IN, Klimenko VM. The role of the neuropeptide galanin in forming type-specific behavioral characteristics. Neurosci Behav Physiol 2008; 38(1): 93–8. [PubMed: 18097766]
- [101]. Roy M, David NK, Danao JV, Baribault H, Tian H, Giorgetti M. Genetic inactivation of melanin-concentrating hormone receptor subtype 1 (MCHR1) in mice exerts anxiolytic-like behavioral effects. Neuropsychopharmacology 2006; 31(1): 112–20. [PubMed: 15988472]
- [102]. Smith DG, Davis RJ, Rorick-Kehn L, et al. Melanin-concentrating hormone-1 receptor modulates neuroendocrine, behavioral, and corticolimbic neurochemical stress responses in mice. Neuropsychopharmacology 2006; 31(6): 1135–45. [PubMed: 16205780]
- [103]. Tasan RO, Lin S, Hetzenauer A, Singewald N, Herzog H, Sperk G. Increased novelty-induced motor activity and reduced depression-like behavior in neuropeptide Y (NPY)-Y4 receptor knockout mice. Neuroscience 2009; 158(4): 1717–30. [PubMed: 19121371]
- [104]. Inui A, Okita M, Nakajima M, et al. Anxiety-like behavior in transgenic mice with brain expression of neuropeptide Y. Proc Assoc Am Phys 1998; 110(3): 171–82. [PubMed: 9625524]
- [105]. Hayward MD, Pintar JE, Low MJ. Selective reward deficit in mice lacking beta-endorphin and enkephalin. J Neurosci 2002; 22(18): 8251–8. [PubMed: 12223579]
- [106]. Thiele TE, Naveilhan P, Ernfors P. Assessment of ethanol consumption and water drinking by NPY Y(2) receptor knockout mice. Peptides 2004; 25(6): 975–83. [PubMed: 15203244]
- [107]. Karatayev O, Gaysinskaya V, Chang GQ, Leibowitz SF. Circulating triglycerides after a high-fat meal: predictor of increased caloric intake, orexigenic peptide expression, and dietary obesity. Brain Res 2009; 1298: 111–22. [PubMed: 19666014]
- [108]. Dhatt RK, Gudehithlu KP, Wemlinger TA, Tejwani GA, Neff NH, Hadjiconstantinou M. Preproenkephalin mRNA and methionineenkephalin content are increased in mouse striatum after treatment with nicotine. J Neurochem 199; 64(4): 1878–83.
- [109]. Houdi AA, Dasgupta R, Kindy MS. Effect of nicotine use and withdrawal on brain preproenkephalin A mRNA. Brain Res 1998; 799(2): 257–63. [PubMed: 9675304]
- [110]. Loughlin SE, Islas MI, Cheng MY, Lee AG, Villegier AS, Leslie FM. Nicotine modulation of stress-related peptide neurons. J Comp Neurol 2006; 497(4): 575–88. [PubMed: 16739166]
- [111]. Hollt V, Horn G. Effect of nicotine on mRNA levels encoding opioid peptides, vasopressin and alpha 3 nicotinic receptor subunit in the rat. Clin Investig 1992; 70(3–4): 224–31.
- [112]. Wewers ME, Dhatt RK, Snively TA, Tejwani GA. The effect of chronic administration of nicotine on antinociception, opioid receptor binding and met-enkelphalin levels in rats. Brain Res 1999; 822(1–2): 107–13. [PubMed: 10082888]
- [113]. Balerio GN, Aso E, Maldonado R. Involvement of the opioid system in the effects induced by nicotine on anxiety-like behaviour in mice. Psychopharmacology (Berl) 2005; 181(2): 260–9. [PubMed: 15778877]
- [114]. Ismayilova N, Shoaib M. Alteration of intravenous nicotine self-administration by opioid receptor agonist and antagonists in rats. Psychopharmacology (Berl) 2010; 210(2): 211–20. [PubMed: 20401605]
- [115]. Kane JK, Parker SL, Matta SG, Fu Y, Sharp BM, Li MD. Nicotine up-regulates expression of orexin and its receptors in rat brain. Endocrinology 2000; 141(10): 3623–9. [PubMed: 11014216]

- [116]. Pasumarthi RK, Reznikov LR, Fadel J. Activation of orexin neurons by acute nicotine. Eur J Pharmacol 2006; 535(1–3): 172–6. [PubMed: 16545369]
- [117]. Plaza-Zabala A, Martin-Garcia E, de Lecea L, Maldonado R, Berrendero F. Hypocretins regulate the anxiogenic-like effects of nicotine and induce reinstatement of nicotine-seeking behavior. J Neurosci 2010; 30(6): 2300–10. [PubMed: 20147556]
- [118]. Hollander JA, Lu Q, Cameron MD, Kamenecka TM, Kenny PJ. Insular hypocretin transmission regulates nicotine reward. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 2008; 105(49): 19480–5. [PubMed: 19033203]
- [119]. LeSage MG, Perry JL, Kotz CM, Shelley D, Corrigall WA. Nicotine self-administration in the rat: effects of hypocretin antagonists and changes in hypocretin mRNA. Psychopharmacology (Berl) 2010; 209(2): 203–12. [PubMed: 20177882]
- [120]. Frankish HM, Dryden S, Wang Q, Bing C, MacFarlane IA, Williams G. Nicotine administration reduces neuropeptide Y and neuropeptide Y mRNA concentrations in the rat hypothalamus: NPY may mediate nicotine's effects on energy balance. Brain Res 1995; 694(1–2): 139–46. [PubMed: 8974638]
- [121]. Slawecki CJ, Thorsell AK, El Khoury A, Mathe AA, Ehlers CL. Increased CRF-like and NPYlike immunoreactivity in adult rats exposed to nicotine during adolescence: relation to anxietylike and depressive-like behavior. Neuropeptides 2005; 39(4): 369–77. [PubMed: 16038974]
- [122]. Abreu-Villaca Y, Queiroz-Gomes Fdo E, Dal Monte AP, Filgueiras CC, Manhaes AC. Individual differences in novelty-seeking behavior but not in anxiety response to a new environment can predict nicotine consumption in adolescent C57BL/6 mice. Behav Brain Res 2006; 167(1): 175– 82. [PubMed: 16214235]
- [123]. Chattopadhyay K, Chattopadhyay BD. Effect of nicotine on lipid profile, peroxidation & antioxidant enzymes in female rats with restricted dietary protein. Indian J Med Res 2008; 127(6): 571–6. [PubMed: 18765876]
- [124]. Sreekala S, Indira M. Effect of exogenous selenium on nicotine induced hyperlipidemia in rats. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 2008; 52(2): 132–40. [PubMed: 19130856]
- [125]. Chang GQ, Karatayev O, Ahsan R, Gaysinskaya V, Marwil Z, Leibowitz SF. Dietary fat stimulates endogenous enkephalin and dynorphin in the paraventricular nucleus: role of circulating triglycerides. Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab 2007; 292(2): E561–70. [PubMed: 17283367]
- [126]. Shor-Posner G, Brennan G, Ian C, Jasaitis R, Madhu K, Leibowitz SF. Meal patterns of macronutrient intake in rats with particular dietary preferences. Am J Physiol 1994; 266(4 Pt 2): R1395–402. [PubMed: 8184984]
- [127]. Burggraf KK, Willing AE, Koopmans HS. The effects of glucose or lipid infused intravenously or intragastrically on voluntary food intake in the rat. Physiol Behav 1997; 61(6): 787–93. [PubMed: 9177548]
- [128]. Gaysinskaya VA, Karatayev O, Chang GQ, Leibowitz SF. Increased caloric intake after a highfat preload: relation to circulating triglycerides and orexigenic peptides. Physiol Behav 2007; 91(1): 142–53. [PubMed: 17383691]
- [129]. Lucas F, Ackroff K, Sclafani A. High-fat diet preference and overeating mediated by postingestive factors in rats. Am J Physiol 1998; 275(5 Pt 2): R1511–22. [PubMed: 9791068]
- [130]. Yanovski S. Sugar and fat: cravings and aversions. J Nutr 2003; 133(3): 835S–7S. [PubMed: 12612163]
- [131]. McLean S, Hoebel BG. Feeding induced by opiates injected into the paraventricular hypothalamus. Peptides 1983; 4(3): 287–92. [PubMed: 6314291]
- [132]. Cador M, Kelley AE, Le Moal M, Stinus L. Ventral tegmental area infusion of substance P, neurotensin and enkephalin: differential effects on feeding behavior. Neuroscience 1986; 18(3): 659–69. [PubMed: 2427971]
- [133]. MacDonald AF, Billington CJ, Levine AS. Effects of the opioid antagonist naltrexone on feeding induced by DAMGO in the ventral tegmental area and in the nucleus accumbens shell region in the rat. Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol 2003; 285(5): R999–R1004. [PubMed: 12907414]

- [134]. Mucha RF, Iversen SD. Increased food intake after opioid microinjections into nucleus accumbens and ventral tegmental area of rat. Brain Res 1986; 397(2): 214–24. [PubMed: 3026557]
- [135]. Gosnell BA. Involvement of mu opioid receptors in the amygdala in the control of feeding. Neuropharmacology 1988; 27(3): 319–26. [PubMed: 2836755]
- [136]. Mena JD, Sadeghian K, Baldo BA. Induction of hyperphagia and carbohydrate intake by muopioid receptor stimulation in circumscribed regions of frontal cortex. J Neurosci 2011; 31(9): 3249–60. [PubMed: 21368037]
- [137]. Glass MJ, Billington CJ, Levine AS. Naltrexone administered to central nucleus of amygdala or PVN: neural dissociation of diet and energy. Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol 2000; 279(1): R86–92. [PubMed: 10896868]
- [138]. Naleid AM, Grace MK, Chimukangara M, Billington CJ, Levine AS. Paraventricular opioids alter intake of high-fat but not high-sucrose diet depending on diet preference in a binge model of feeding. Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol 2007; 293(1): R99–105. [PubMed: 17428895]
- [139]. Zhang M, Gosnell BA, Kelley AE. Intake of high-fat food is selectively enhanced by mu opioid receptor stimulation within the nucleus accumbens. J Pharmacol Exp Ther 1998; 285(2): 908–14. [PubMed: 9580643]
- [140]. Kyrkouli SE, Stanley BG, Seirafi RD, Leibowitz SF. Stimulation of feeding by galanin: anatomical localization and behavioral specificity of this peptide's effects in the brain. Peptides 1990; 11(5): 995–1001. [PubMed: 1704616]
- [141]. Smith BK, York DA, Bray GA. Effects of dietary preference and galanin administration in the paraventricular or amygdaloid nucleus on diet self-selection. Brain Res Bull 1996; 39(3): 149– 54. [PubMed: 8866690]
- [142]. Nagase H, Nakajima A, Sekihara H, York DA, Bray GA. Regulation of feeding behavior, gastric emptying, and sympathetic nerve activity to interscapular brown adipose tissue by galanin and enterostatin: the involvement of vagal-central nervous system interactions. J Gastroenterol 2002; 37(Suppl 14): 118–27. [PubMed: 12572879]
- [143]. Tempel DL, Leibowitz KJ, Leibowitz SF. Effects of PVN galanin on macronutrient selection. Peptides 1988; 9(2): 309–14. [PubMed: 2453854]
- [144]. Akabayashi A, Koenig JI, Watanabe Y, Alexander JT, Leibowitz SF. Galanin-containing neurons in the paraventricular nucleus: a neurochemical marker for fat ingestion and body weight gain. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 1994; 91(22): 10375–9. [PubMed: 7524093]
- [145]. Leibowitz SF, Akabayashi A, Wang J. Obesity on a high-fat diet: role of hypothalamic galanin in neurons of the anterior paraventricular nucleus projecting to the median eminence. J Neurosci 1998; 18(7): 2709–19. [PubMed: 9502828]
- [146]. Sakurai T Roles of orexin/hypocretin in regulation of sleep/wakefulness and energy homeostasis. Sleep Med Rev 2005; 9(4): 231–41. [PubMed: 15961331]
- [147]. Cai XJ, Widdowson PS, Harrold J, et al. Hypothalamic orexin expression: modulation by blood glucose and feeding. Diabetes 1999; 48(11): 2132–7. [PubMed: 10535445]
- [148]. Dube MG, Kalra SP, Kalra PS. Food intake elicited by central administration of orexins/ hypocretins: identification of hypothalamic sites of action. Brain Res 1999; 842(2): 473–7. [PubMed: 10526145]
- [149]. Edwards CM, Abusnana S, Sunter D, Murphy KG, Ghatei MA, Bloom SR. The effect of the orexins on food intake: comparison with neuropeptide Y, melanin-concentrating hormone and galanin. J Endocrinol 1999; 160(3): R7–12. [PubMed: 10077743]
- [150]. Sweet DC, Levine AS, Billington CJ, Kotz CM. Feeding response to central orexins. Brain Res 1999; 821(2): 535–8. [PubMed: 10064843]
- [151]. Thorpe AJ, Kotz CM. Orexin A in the nucleus accumbens stimulates feeding and locomotor activity. Brain Res 2005; 1050(1–2): 156–62. [PubMed: 15979595]
- [152]. Clegg DJ, Air EL, Woods SC, Seeley RJ. Eating elicited by orexina, but not melaninconcentrating hormone, is opioid mediated. Endocrinology 2002; 143(8): 2995–3000. [PubMed: 12130565]

- [153]. Park ES, Yi SJ, Kim JS, et al. Changes in orexin-A and neuropeptide Y expression in the hypothalamus of the fasted and high-fat diet fed rats. J Vet Sci 2004; 5(4): 295–302. [PubMed: 15613812]
- [154]. Wortley KE, Chang GQ, Davydova Z, Leibowitz SF. Peptides that regulate food intake: orexin gene expression is increased during states of hypertriglyceridemia. Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol 2003; 284(6): R1454–65. [PubMed: 12560202]
- [155]. Griffond B, Risold PY, Jacquemard C, Colard C, Fellmann D. Insulin-induced hypoglycemia increases preprohypocretin (orexin) mRNA in the rat lateral hypothalamic area. Neurosci Lett 1999; 262(2): 77–80. [PubMed: 10203235]
- [156]. Harthoorn LF, Sane A, Nethe M, Van Heerikhuize JJ. Multi-transcriptional profiling of melaninconcentrating hormone and orexin-containing neurons. Cell Mol Neurobiol 2005; 25(8): 1209– 23. [PubMed: 16388333]
- [157]. Qu D, Ludwig DS, Gammeltoft S, et al. A role for melanin-concentrating hormone in the central regulation of feeding behaviour. Nature 1996; 380(6571): 243–7. [PubMed: 8637571]
- [158]. Guesdon B, Paradis E, Samson P, Richard D. Effects of intracerebroventricular and intraaccumbens melanin-concentrating hormone agonism on food intake and energy expenditure. Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol 2009; 296(3): R469–75. [PubMed: 19129377]
- [159]. Rossi M, Beak SA, Choi SJ, et al. Investigation of the feeding effects of melanin concentrating hormone on food intake--action independent of galanin and the melanocortin receptors. Brain Res 1999; 846(2): 164–70. [PubMed: 10556632]
- [160]. Gomori A, Ishihara A, Ito M, et al. Chronic intracerebroventricular infusion of MCH causes obesity in mice. Melanin-concentrating hormone. Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab 2003; 284(3): E583–8. [PubMed: 12453827]
- [161]. Benoit SC, Clegg DJ, Woods SC, Seeley RJ. The role of previous exposure in the appetitive and consummatory effects of orexigenic neuropeptides. Peptides 2005; 26(5): 751–7. [PubMed: 15808905]
- [162]. Sakamaki R, Uemoto M, Inui A, et al. Melanin-concentrating hormone enhances sucrose intake. Int J Mol Med 2005; 15(6): 1033–9. [PubMed: 15870910]
- [163]. Elliott JC, Harrold JA, Brodin P, et al. Increases in melanin-concentrating hormone and MCH receptor levels in the hypothalamus of dietary-obese rats. Brain Res Mol Brain Res 2004; 128(2): 150–9. [PubMed: 15363890]
- [164]. Kalra SP, Dube MG, Sahu A, Phelps CP, Kalra PS. Neuropeptide Y secretion increases in the paraventricular nucleus in association with increased appetite for food. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 1991; 88(23): 10931–5. [PubMed: 1961764]
- [165]. Marks JL, Li M, Schwartz M, Porte D Jr., Baskin DG. Effect of fasting on regional levels of neuropeptide Y mRNA and insulin receptors in the rat hypothalamus: An autoradiographic study. Mol Cell Neurosci 1992; 3(3): 199–205. [PubMed: 19912861]
- [166]. Stanley BG, Chin AS, Leibowitz SF. Feeding and drinking elicited by central injection of neuropeptide Y: evidence for a hypothalamic site(s) of action. Brain Res Bull 1985; 14(6): 521–4. [PubMed: 3839709]
- [167]. Stanley BG, Leibowitz SF. Neuropeptide Y: stimulation of feeding and drinking by injection into the paraventricular nucleus. Life Sci 1984; 35(26): 2635–42. [PubMed: 6549039]
- [168]. Brown CM, Fletcher PJ, Coscina DV. Neuropeptide Y-induced operant responding for sucrose is not mediated by dopamine. Peptides 1998; 19(10): 1667–73. [PubMed: 9880070]
- [169]. Chang GQ, Karatayev O, Davydova Z, Wortley K, Leibowitz SF. Glucose injection reduces neuropeptide Y and agouti-related protein expression in the arcuate nucleus: a possible physiological role in eating behavior. Brain Res Mol Brain Res 2005; 135(1–2): 69–80. [PubMed: 15857670]
- [170]. Lindqvist A, Baelemans A, Erlanson-Albertsson C. Effects of sucrose, glucose and fructose on peripheral and central appetite signals. Regul Pept 2008; 150(1–3): 26–32. [PubMed: 18627777]
- [171]. Giraudo SQ, Kotz CM, Grace MK, Levine AS, Billington CJ. Rat hypothalamic NPY mRNA and brown fat uncoupling protein mRNA after high-carbohydrate or high-fat diets. Am J Physiol 1994; 266(5 Pt 2): R1578–83. [PubMed: 8203634]

- [172]. Wang J, Akabayashi A, Dourmashkin J, et al. Neuropeptide Y in relation to carbohydrate intake, corticosterone and dietary obesity. Brain Res 1998; 802(1–2): 75–88. [PubMed: 9748512]
- [173]. Hayward MD, Low MJ. The contribution of endogenous opioids to food reward is dependent on sex and background strain. Neuroscience 2007; 144(1): 17–25. [PubMed: 17049174]
- [174]. Hayward MD, Schaich-Borg A, Pintar JE, Low MJ. Differential involvement of endogenous opioids in sucrose consumption and food reinforcement. Pharmacol Biochem Behav 2006; 85(3): 601–11. [PubMed: 17166571]
- [175]. Hohmann JG, Krasnow SM, Teklemichael DN, Clifton DK, Wynick D, Steiner RA. Neuroendocrine profiles in galanin-overexpressing and knockout mice. Neuroendocrinol 2003; 77(6): 354–66.
- [176]. Adams AC, Clapham JC, Wynick D, Speakman JR. Feeding behaviour in galanin knockout mice supports a role of galanin in fat intake and preference. J Neuroendocrinol 2008; 20(2): 199– 206. [PubMed: 18088361]
- [177]. Akiyama M, Yuasa T, Hayasaka N, Horikawa K, Sakurai T, Shibata S. Reduced food anticipatory activity in genetically orexin (hypocretin) neuron-ablated mice. Eur J Neurosci 2004; 20(11): 3054–62. [PubMed: 15579160]
- [178]. Sharf R, Sarhan M, Brayton CE, Guarnieri DJ, Taylor JR, DiLeone RJ. Orexin signaling via the orexin 1 receptor mediates operant responding for food reinforcement. Biol Psychiatry 2010; 67(8): 753–60. [PubMed: 20189166]
- [179]. Kaur S, Thankachan S, Begum S, et al. Entrainment of temperature and activity rhythms to restricted feeding in orexin knock out mice. Brain Res 2008; 1205: 47–54. [PubMed: 18343358]
- [180]. Alon T, Friedman JM. Late-onset leanness in mice with targeted ablation of melanin concentrating hormone neurons. J Neurosci 2006; 26(2): 389–97. [PubMed: 16407534]
- [181]. Shimada M, Tritos NA, Lowell BB, Flier JS, Maratos-Flier E. Mice lacking melaninconcentrating hormone are hypophagic and lean. Nature. 1998 12 17; 396(6712): 670–4. [PubMed: 9872314]
- [182]. Ludwig DS, Tritos NA, Mastaitis JW, et al. Melanin-concentrating hormone overexpression in transgenic mice leads to obesity and insulin resistance. J Clin Invest 2001; 107(3): 379–86. [PubMed: 11160162]
- [183]. Edelsbrunner ME, Painsipp E, Herzog H, Holzer P. Evidence from knockout mice for distinct implications of neuropeptide-Y Y2 and Y4 receptors in the circadian control of locomotion, exploration, water and food intake. Neuropeptides 2009; 43(6): 491–7. [PubMed: 19781771]
- [184]. Patel HR, Qi Y, Hawkins EJ, et al. Neuropeptide Y deficiency attenuates responses to fasting and high-fat diet in obesity-prone mice. Diabetes 2006; 55(11): 3091–8. [PubMed: 17065347]
- [185]. Kaga T, Inui A, Okita M, et al. Modest overexpression of neuropeptide Y in the brain leads to obesity after high-sucrose feeding. Diabetes 2001; 50(5): 1206–10. [PubMed: 11334428]
- [186]. Morganstern I, Chang GQ, Karatayev O, Leibowitz SF. Increased orexin and melaninconcentrating hormone expression in the perifornical lateral hypothalamus of rats prone to overconsuming a fat-rich diet. Pharmacol Biochem Behav 2010; 96(4): 413–22. [PubMed: 20600243]
- [187]. Gosnell BA, Mitra A, Avant RA, Anker JJ, Carroll ME, Levine AS. Operant responding for sucrose by rats bred for high or low saccharin consumption. Physiol Behav 2010; 99(4): 529–33. [PubMed: 20096717]
- [188]. Hendley ED, Conti LH, Wessel DJ, Horton ES, Musty RE. Behavioral and metabolic effects of sucrose-supplemented feeding in hyperactive rats. Am J Physiol 1987; 253(3 Pt 2): R434–43. [PubMed: 3307458]
- [189]. Odorizzi M, Max JP, Tankosic P, Burlet C, Burlet A. Dietary preferences of Brattleboro rats correlated with an overexpression of galanin in the hypothalamus. Eur J Neurosci 1999; 11(9): 3005–14. [PubMed: 10510165]
- [190]. Rokaeus A, Young WS 3rd, Mezey E. Galanin coexists with vasopressin in the normal rat hypothalamus and galanin's synthesis is increased in the Brattleboro (diabetes insipidus) rat. Neurosci Lett 1988; 90(1–2): 45–50. [PubMed: 2457856]

- [191]. Beck B, Max JP. Neuropeptide Y in the arcuato-paraventricular pathway and diet selection in the vasopressin-deficient Brattleboro rat. Brain Res Bull 2008; 76(4): 454–7. [PubMed: 18502321]
- [192]. Barson JR, Fagan SE, Leibowitz SF. Hypothalamic peptides are altered in rats predicted to consume fat or ethanol. Abstracts of the 19th Annual Meeting of the Society for the Study of Ingestive Behavior (SSIB), 12–16 July 2011, Clearwater, Florida 2011; 57(Supplement): S4.

Future Research Questions

- **•** Since the consumption of nicotine may share similar peptide circuits with ethanol and fat, with each stimulating the intake of the other, future research should examine the influence of nicotine on the consumption of ethanol and fat, and vice versa.
- **•** Evidence shows that animals exhibiting increased locomotor activity, noveltyseeking, early consumption patterns, and circulating levels of lipids, may go on to consume greater amounts of drugs or palatable foods. Future studies should be aimed at examining how manipulating these behavioral traits themselves may lead to changes in consummatory behavior. Since certain peptides appear to be altered in animals showing these traits, studies should further explore how altering the activity of these peptides may affect not only the behaviors but also the ingestion of drugs and palatable foods.
- **•** With research showing that hypothalamic peptides within the PFLH and PVN are important in driving consummatory behavior, possibly prior to any substance exposure, one important future step would be to measure the status of these peptides in several well-established animal models known to consume increased amounts of ethanol, fat or even nicotine.

Key Learning Objectives

- **•** Similar peptides within the PVN and PFLH stimulate the consumption of ethanol, palatable foods and sometimes also nicotine, and the peptides themselves are also stimulated by the consumption of these substances.
- **•** Behaviors related to locomotion, novelty-seeking and early consumption patterns are influenced by peptides within the PVN and PFLH and can drive future consumption of certain drugs and palatable foods.
- **•** Circulating TG levels are consistently elevated in animals predicted to consume increased amounts of ethanol, fat and possibly nicotine.
- **•** Inherent disturbances in hypothalamic feedback circuits may predispose animals to drug and palatable food overconsumption.