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Systemic and Intra-Habenular Activation of the Orphan G Protein-Coupled Receptor GPR139 Decreases Compulsive-like Alcohol Drinking and Hyperalgesia in Alcohol-Dependent Rats

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1 **Systemic and intra-habenular activation of the orphan G protein-coupled receptor GPR139**
2 **decreases compulsive-like alcohol drinking and hyperalgesia in alcohol-dependent rats**

3

4 **Abbreviated title:** GPCR receptor GPR139 in alcohol dependence

5

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11 conducted the experiments. JK, MK, and GdG analyzed the data. JK and OG wrote the
12 manuscript. All authors reviewed and edited the manuscript.

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35 **ABSTRACT**

36 GPR139 is an orphan G protein-coupled receptor (GPCR) that is expressed mainly in the brain,
37 with the highest expression in the habenula. The modulation of GPR139 receptor function has
38 been hypothesized to be beneficial in the treatment of some mental disorders, but behavioral
39 studies have not yet provided causal evidence of the role of GPR139 in brain dysfunction.
40 Because of the high expression of GPR139 in the habenula, a critical brain region in addiction,
41 we hypothesized that GPR139 may play role in alcohol dependence. Thus, we tested the effect of
42 GPR139 receptor activation using the selective, brain-penetrant receptor agonist JNJ-63533054
43 on addiction-like behaviors in alcohol-dependent male rats. Systemic administration of JNJ-
44 63533054 (30 mg/kg but not 10 mg/kg, p.o.) reversed the escalation of alcohol self-
45 administration in alcohol-dependent rats, without affecting water or saccharin intake in
46 dependent rats or alcohol intake in nondependent rats. Moreover, systemic JNJ-63533054
47 administration decreased withdrawal-induced hyperalgesia, without affecting somatic signs of
48 alcohol withdrawal. Further analysis demonstrated that JNJ-63533054 was effective only in a
49 subgroup of dependent rats that exhibited compulsive-like alcohol drinking. Finally, site-specific
50 microinjection of JNJ-63533054 in the habenula but not interpeduncular nucleus reduced both
51 alcohol self-administration and withdrawal-induced hyperalgesia in dependent rats. These results
52 provide robust preclinical evidence that GPR139 receptor activation reverses key addiction-like
53 behaviors in dependent animals, suggest that GPR139 may be a novel target for the treatment of
54 alcohol use disorder, and demonstrate that GPR139 is functionally relevant in regulating
55 mammalian behavior.

56 **Significance statement**

57 GPR139 has been identified as a receptor with high expression in a key brain region for
58 addiction, the habenula. However, no studies have yet provided causal evidence of the role of
59 GPR139 in brain dysfunction. This study found that GPR139 receptor activation reduced alcohol
60 self-administration in alcohol-dependent rats with compulsive-like drinking and decreased
61 withdrawal-induced hyperalgesia. Importantly, we found that the habenula but not
62 interpeduncular nucleus was a mediator of the observed effects. These results represent an
63 important advance in the field because they are the first to demonstrate a role for GPR139 in
64 addiction-related behaviors.

65 **INTRODUCTION**

66 Alcohol use disorder is a chronic relapsing disorder that is characterized by repeated
67 cycles of excessive alcohol use and withdrawal. Major issues in the alcohol field include the
68 limited number of medications that are available for the treatment of alcohol dependence and the
69 lack of novel druggable targets beyond those that are associated with classic neurotransmitter
70 systems (Volkow and Li, 2005). Currently, three medications have received United States Food
71 and Drug Administration (FDA) approval for alcohol dependence (disulfiram, naltrexone, and
72 acamprosate), but these drugs are associated with low compliance, modest effect sizes, and a
73 return to excessive drinking when treatment is discontinued (Peterson, 2007; Garbutt, 2009;
74 Olive, 2010). Therefore, it is critical to develop novel pharmacotherapies with larger effect sizes
75 and fewer side effects to improve the treatment of alcohol use disorder.

76 G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) play an important role in mental disorders. A large
77 proportion (30-60%) of current pharmaceutical drugs exert their therapeutic effects by targeting
78 GPCRs (McCusker et al., 2007; Heng et al., 2013). Considering the prevalence and functional
79 importance of GPCRs, unsurprising is that they remain among the most investigated targets for
80 pharmaceutical discovery, especially because the current GPCR-targeting drugs affect only a
81 small proportion of known GPCRs.

82 Orphan GPCRs are receptors for which endogenous ligands have not yet been fully
83 identified. Most known GPCRs start as orphan GPCRs, and discoveries in the field have had a
84 profound impact on our understanding of brain function (Civelli, 2012). Orphan GPCRs
85 represent compelling novel targets in drug discovery. One such orphan GPCR, GPR139 (also
86 known as GPRg1 or GPCR12), was first identified as a rhodopsin family GPCR that is almost
87 exclusively expressed in the central nervous system (Gloriam et al., 2005; Matsuo et al., 2005).

88 GPR139 receptors were also found to be highly conserved across species (Gloriam et al., 2005).
89 The remarkably high sequence homology across different species and predominant brain
90 expression suggest that GPR139 may play a critical role in brain function. Modulators of
91 GPR139 receptor function may thus be particularly interesting for drug development for the
92 treatment of mental disorders.

93 Interestingly, the highest expression of GPR139 receptors has been reported in the
94 habenula (Matsuo et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2015; Hitchcock S, 2016), a brain region that has been
95 shown to be critically involved in addiction, anxiety, and mood regulation (Fowler and Kenny,
96 2012; Batalla et al., 2017). A comparison of rodent and human transcriptome data recently
97 identified a specific GPR139-including cluster of highly expressed habenular genes that are
98 common to humans and rodents (Boulos et al., 2017). Interestingly, this cluster also expresses
99 the μ opioid receptor, among others. In the medial habenula, GPR139-positive neurons project
100 axons via the fasciculus retroflexus to the interpeduncular nucleus (IPN), where low GPR139
101 immunoreactivity is also detected (Liu et al., 2015). Both the habenula (Matsumoto and
102 Hikosaka, 2007; Fowler et al., 2011; Hsu et al., 2014; Ishikawa and Kenny, 2016; Laurent et al.,
103 2017) and IPN (Taraschenko et al., 2007; Antolin-Fontes et al., 2015; McLaughlin et al., 2017)
104 have been identified as key regions in addiction.

105 Given the high expression of GPR139 in the habenula, we hypothesized that the
106 modulation of GPR139 may be relevant to alcohol addiction-related behaviors. To test this
107 hypothesis, we studied the effects of systemic administration of a selective GPR139 receptor
108 agonist, JNJ-63533054, on alcohol self-administration in alcohol-nondependent and -dependent
109 rats using chronic intermittent exposure (CIE) to alcohol vapor combined with operant self-
110 administration. Addiction-related behaviors were assessed by measuring compulsive-like

111 drinking despite adverse consequence (i.e., resistance to quinine adulteration), somatic signs of
112 withdrawal, and mechanical nociception during withdrawal (i.e. withdrawal-induced
113 hyperalgesia) in alcohol-dependent rats. We selected the CIE model because it has been shown
114 to have predictive validity for alcohol use disorder in humans (Macey et al., 1996; Heilig and
115 Koob, 2007). Finally, we tested the effects of intra-habenular and intra-IPN microinjections of
116 JNJ-63553054 on alcohol self-administration and alcohol withdrawal-induced hyperalgesia in
117 alcohol-dependent rats.

118

119 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

120 **Subjects**

121 Adult male Wistar rats ($n = 46$, Charles River, Raleigh, NC, USA), weighing 250-300 g
122 at the beginning of the experiments, were used. The rats were group-housed, two per cage, in a
123 temperature-controlled (22°C) animal facility on a 12 h/12 h light/dark cycle (lights off at 10:00
124 AM). The rats had access to food and water *ad libitum*. All animal procedures were conducted in
125 adherence to the National Institute of Health's Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory
126 Animals and approved by The Scripps Research Institute Institutional Animal Care and Use
127 Committee. All behavioral testing was conducted during the dark phase.

128

129 **Drugs**

130 A 10% (v/v) alcohol drinking solution was prepared by diluting 95% alcohol with tap
131 water. A 0.04% (w/v) saccharin drinking solution was prepared by diluting saccharin with tap
132 water. JNJ-63533054 was synthesized at Janssen Research & Development (San Diego, CA,
133 USA) as described previously (Dvorak et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2015). For systemic infusion, JNJ-

134 63533054 was dissolved in 0.5% hydroxypropyl methylcellulose (HPMC) and administered
135 orally 6 h into withdrawal, 60 min before behavioral testing, at doses of 10 and 30 mg/kg (2
136 ml/kg). The rats were habituated to the gastric gavage before starting the experiments. For intra-
137 habenular and intra-IPN administration, JNJ-63533054 (0.25 μ g/0.5 μ l) was dissolved in vehicle
138 that was composed of 5% dimethylsulfoxide, 5% Emulphor, and 90% distilled water and infused
139 15 min before behavioral testing. For all of the self-administration studies, JNJ-63533054 was
140 administered using a within-subjects design, and the order of injections of vehicle and JNJ-
141 63533054 was counterbalanced. Quinine hydrochloride was purchased from Sigma Aldrich (St.
142 Louis, MO, USA). Increasing concentrations of quinine (0.005, 0.01, 0.025, and 0.05 g/L) were
143 used to adulterate the alcohol drinking solution.

144

145 **Operant alcohol and saccharin self-administration**

146 The rats were trained to self-administer 10% (v/v) alcohol solution during daily 30-min
147 sessions in standard operant conditioning chambers (Med Associates, St. Albans, VT, USA) until
148 stable responding was maintained (\pm 10% over the last three sessions). The rats were first
149 subjected to an overnight session (12 h) in the operant chambers with access to one lever (right
150 lever) that delivered water on a fixed-ratio 1 (FR1) schedule of reinforcement (i.e., each operant
151 response was reinforced with 0.1 ml of water). After 1 day off, the rats were subjected to a 3-h
152 session (FR1) with access to the right lever that delivered 0.1 ml of alcohol. In the next two
153 sessions, the rats were subjected to 2-h and 1-h FR1 sessions, respectively, with the right lever
154 delivering 0.1 ml of alcohol. After this training phase, all subsequent sessions lasted 30 min, with
155 both levers available for water and alcohol (left lever for water and right lever for alcohol) until
156 stable levels of intake were reached. For the saccharin self-administration study, the rats

157 underwent daily 30 min FR1 sessions. Responses on the right lever resulted in the delivery of 0.1
158 ml of saccharin (0.04%, w/v). Lever presses on the left lever delivered 0.1 ml of water. This
159 training lasted 2 weeks until a stable baseline of intake was reached. Behavioral testing occurred
160 three times per week during the dark phase (for the experimental design, see Fig. 1A and 6A).

161

162 **Mechanical nociceptive von Frey test during alcohol withdrawal**

163 Mechanical nociception, reflected by hindpaw withdrawal thresholds, was determined by
164 an observer who was blind to the experimental condition using von Frey filaments, ranging from
165 8.511 to 281.838 g. JNJ-63533054 was administered orally in a between-subjects design ($n = 8$ -
166 9) 60-min before starting the experiment. A test session began after 10 min of habituation to the
167 testing environment. A series of von Frey filaments was applied from below the wire mesh to the
168 central region of the plantar surface of the left hindpaw in ascending order, beginning with the
169 smallest filament (8.511 g). The filament was applied until buckling of the hair occurred, and the
170 filament remained in place for approximately 2 s. Rapid withdrawal of the hindpaw was
171 considered a positive response. The stimulus was incrementally increased until a positive
172 response was observed and then decreased until a negative response was observed to determine a
173 pattern of responses to apply to the statistical methods that were described by Dixon (Dixon,
174 1980). Once the threshold was determined for the left hindpaw, the same testing procedure was
175 applied to the right hindpaw after 5 min. The 50% paw withdrawal threshold was calculated as
176 $Xf + k\delta$, where Xf is the last von Frey filament employed, k is the Dixon value that corresponds
177 to the response pattern, and δ is the mean difference between stimuli. Paw withdrawal thresholds
178 were determined for alcohol-dependent rats during withdrawal.

179

180 **Somatic withdrawal score**

181 Behavioral signs of withdrawal were measured using a rating scale that was adapted from
182 previous studies (Macey et al., 1996; de Guglielmo et al., 2017). JNJ-63533054 was
183 administered orally in a between-subjects design ($n = 8-9$) 60-min before beginning the
184 experiment. The observer was blind to the experimental condition. The following signs were
185 measured: ventromedial limb retraction, irritability to touch (vocalization), tail rigidity, abnormal
186 gait, and body tremors. Each sign was given a score of 0-2, based on the following severity scale:
187 0 = no sign, 1 = moderate, and 2 = severe. The sum of the four observation scores (0-8) was used
188 as an operational measure of withdrawal severity.

189

190 **Effect of systemic JNJ-63533054 administration on alcohol self-administration in**
191 **nondependent and alcohol-dependent rats**

192 Once a stable baseline of operant alcohol self-administration was reached, the rats were
193 divided into two groups: alcohol-dependent ($n = 17$) and nondependent ($n = 12$). A separate
194 cohort of rats was trained to self-administer saccharin (0.04%, w/v) and made alcohol-dependent
195 after stable operant saccharin self-administration was reached. The rats in the alcohol-dependent
196 groups were made dependent by CIE to alcohol vapor as described previously (O'Dell et al.,
197 2004; Ron and Barak, 2016). Briefly, the rats underwent cycles of 14 h of alcohol vapor ON and
198 10 h of alcohol vapor OFF in their home cages for 4 consecutive weeks with no operant self-
199 administration. Tail blood was collected during vapor exposure and used to determine blood
200 alcohol levels (BALs) using gas chromatography. Vapor exposure was gradually increased until
201 BALs ranged from 150 to 250 mg/dl. After 4 weeks of vapor exposure, the rats resumed operant
202 self-administration sessions for 4 weeks to allow them to escalate their alcohol intake. Rats that

203 are made dependent with CIE exhibit clinically relevant BALs, ranging from 150 to 250 mg/dl
204 during vapor exposure (Gilpin et al., 2009), compulsive-like alcohol drinking (i.e., persistent
205 drinking despite aversive, bitter taste of quinine; (Vendruscolo et al., 2012; Seif et al., 2013;
206 Leao et al., 2015; Kimbrough et al., 2017a), and the escalation of alcohol drinking when given
207 access to alcohol during abstinence (O'Dell et al., 2004; Kimbrough et al., 2017a). Additionally,
208 alcohol dependence that is induced by alcohol vapor results in both somatic and motivational
209 withdrawal symptoms during both acute withdrawal and protracted abstinence, including
210 anxiety-like behavior, irritability-like behavior, and mechanical hyperalgesia (Macey et al.,
211 1996; Valdez et al., 2002; Edwards et al., 2012; Williams et al., 2012; Kallupi et al., 2014;
212 Vendruscolo and Roberts, 2014; de Guglielmo et al., 2016; de Guglielmo et al., 2017;
213 Kimbrough et al., 2017b; Smith et al., 2017). Behavioral testing following systemic JNJ-
214 63533054 administration occurred during acute withdrawal (6-8 h after alcohol vapor was turned
215 OFF), during which both brain and blood alcohol levels are negligible (Gilpin et al., 2009). Rats
216 that received intracerebral infusions of JNJ-63533054 underwent surgery after stable, escalated
217 alcohol intake was reached. Alcohol-dependent rats were maintained on CIE until the end of the
218 experiment.

219

220 **Quinine adulteration of alcohol**

221 After behavioral testing, the rats were maintained on an FR1 schedule of operant self-
222 administration until stable levels of alcohol self-administration were established again. To further
223 test for compulsive-like alcohol drinking, quinine adulteration was used, which has been
224 validated as a measure of compulsive-like responding for alcohol (Vendruscolo et al., 2012; Seif
225 et al., 2013; Leao et al., 2015; Kimbrough et al., 2017a). This test measures the persistence of

226 animals to consume alcohol despite the aversive bitter taste of quinine. The alcohol solution was
227 adulterated with increasing concentrations of quinine (0.005, 0.01, 0.025, and 0.05 g/L) and
228 presented between operant self-administration sessions (one concentration per session). To test
229 the selectivity of responses for adulterated alcohol, water intake was assessed using the quinine
230 concentration (0.025 g/L) at which a significant difference in alcohol intake was observed
231 between the subgroups of rats.

232

233 **Intracerebral surgery and effect of site-specific microinjections of JNJ-63533054 on alcohol**
234 **self-administration in dependent rats**

235 The rats were made dependent on alcohol using the aforementioned protocol and then
236 implanted with intracerebral cannulae that targeted the medial habenula and IPN. The
237 coordinates were based on a previous study (Tuesta et al., 2017) and modified slightly based on
238 trial infusions. For intracerebral surgery, the animals were anesthetized with isoflurane (5%
239 induction, 1.5-2.5% maintenance). To reach the medial habenula, 24-gauge guide cannulae
240 (Plastics One, Wallingford, CT, USA) were implanted bilaterally using the following coordinates
241 with reference to bregma: 10° angle toward midline; anterior/posterior: -3.2 mm; medial/lateral:
242 ±1.35 mm, dorsal/ventral: -3.3 mm from dura. For the IPN, the coordinates were the following:
243 10° angle toward midline; anterior/posterior: -6.72 mm; medial/lateral: ±1.6 mm; dorsal/ventral:
244 -6.5 mm from dura. During the injections, the 31-gauge injector needles extended 2 mm below
245 the tip of the cannula for placement into the targeted brain region. The animals were allowed to
246 recover for 1 week after surgery and thereafter returned to the alcohol vapor chambers and
247 allowed to self-administer alcohol until the baseline level of alcohol intake pre-surgery was
248 restored. The rats were then treated with either vehicle or JNJ-63533054 (0.25 µg/0.5 µl)

249 according to a within-subjects Latin-square design (counterbalanced for order). For the
250 microinjections, an infusion volume of 0.5 μ l was delivered over 2 min using a Hamilton syringe
251 (Hamilton, Reno, NV, USA) that was attached to an infusion pump (kdScientific, Holliston, MA,
252 USA) via 31-gauge injectors that projected 2 mm beyond the tip of the cannulae. The injectors
253 were left in place for 1 min following the infusion to allow for diffusion and reduce backflow.
254 Cannula placements were determined according to the Paxinos and Watson rat brain atlas
255 (Paxinos and Watson, 2007). The histological verification of cannula placements revealed three
256 misplacements (two for the medial habenula and one for the IPN); the data from these rats were
257 excluded, leaving 6 rats for habenular infusions and 7 rats for IPN infusions for the final
258 analysis.

259

260 **Experimental design and statistical analysis**

261 The effects of systemic JNJ-63533054 administration on alcohol self-administration were
262 assessed in both nondependent ($n = 12$) and alcohol-dependent ($n = 17$) male rats using a within-
263 subjects design. To study the effect of JNJ-6353054 on operant self-administration of a natural
264 reinforcer, saccharin, a separate cohort was made alcohol dependent ($n = 9$) and trained to self-
265 administer saccharin during alcohol withdrawal. The data were analyzed using one-way
266 repeated-measures analyses of variance (ANOVA) followed by the Newman-Keuls multiple-
267 comparison *post hoc* test. The effects of systemic JNJ-63533054 administration on mechanical
268 nociception and somatic signs of withdrawal in alcohol-dependent rats were then analyzed
269 during alcohol withdrawal using a between-subjects design by comparing the vehicle-treated
270 control group ($n = 8$) with the JNJ-63533054-treated group ($n = 9$). The data were analyzed using
271 unpaired two-tailed Student's *t*-test (for mechanical nociception) or the nonparametric Mann-

272 Whitney test (for somatic withdrawal signs). Quinine-adulterated alcohol intake was assessed in
273 alcohol-dependent rats, in which each rat received gradual increases in quinine-adulterated
274 alcohol solution. The data were analyzed using two-way repeated-measures ANOVA followed
275 by the Newman-Keuls multiple-comparison *post hoc* test. At the end of the quinine experiment,
276 quinine-adulterated water intake was analyzed using unpaired two-tailed Student's *t*-test. Based
277 on compulsive-like alcohol drinking, the effect of JNJ-63533054 in alcohol-dependent rats was
278 analyzed using repeated-measures two-way ANOVA followed by the Newman-Keuls *post hoc*
279 test. Cohen's *d* was used to calculate the effect size of JNJ-63533054 on paw withdrawal
280 thresholds separately in low-compulsive and high-compulsive rats. A separate cohort of alcohol-
281 dependent rats ($n = 8$) was implanted with cannulae in both the medial habenula and IPN. The
282 effects of intracerebral infusions of JNJ-63533054 on self-administration and mechanical
283 nociception were assessed using a within-subjects design. Data from both experiments that
284 intracerebrally infused JNJ-63533054 ($n = 6$ for habenula and $n = 7$ for IPN) were analyzed
285 using repeated-measures one-way ANOVA followed by the Newman-Keuls multiple-
286 comparison *post hoc* test. The statistical analyses were performed using Statistica and GraphPad
287 Prism 7 software. The statistical analyses, data structure, and results are presented in Table 1.

288

289 **RESULTS**

290 **Systemic administration of the GPR139 receptor agonist JNJ-63533054 selectively** 291 **decreases alcohol self-administration without affecting saccharin self-administration in** 292 **alcohol-dependent rats**

293 The timeline of the experiment with systemic JNJ-63533054 administration in alcohol-
294 dependent rats is shown in Fig. 1A. The dependent animals significantly escalated their alcohol

295 intake after 2 weeks, starting in the 6th test session (Fig. 1B). This was confirmed by one-way
296 repeated-measures ANOVA ($F_{12,192} = 2.618$, $p = 0.0030$) followed by the Newman-Keuls *post*
297 *hoc* test ($p < 0.05$). There was a significant increase in BALs from week 5 to week 8 of alcohol
298 exposure, confirmed by the paired *t*-test ($t_{16} = 7.301$, $p < 0.0001$; Fig. 1C).

299 Once the alcohol-dependent rats reached a stable level of operant responding for alcohol,
300 a within-subjects design ($n = 17$; Fig. 2A) was used to evaluate the effects of JNJ-63533054 on
301 alcohol self-administration. The one-way repeated-measures ANOVA revealed a significant
302 effect of systemic JNJ-63533054 administration on alcohol self-administration ($F_{4,64} = 16.92$, $p <$
303 0.0001). The Newman-Keuls *post hoc* test showed that JNJ-63533054 significantly reduced
304 alcohol self-administration at the dose of 30 mg/kg ($p < 0.01$), with no effect on water intake at
305 either dose of JNJ-63533054 ($F_{4,64} = 0.3664$, $p = 0.8317$; Fig. 2A). The median number of
306 reinforcers per 30-min self-administration session after escalation was 50 reinforcers (Fig. 2B).
307 JNJ-63533054 did not affect alcohol self-administration in nondependent rats, confirmed by the
308 one-way repeated-measures ANOVA ($F_{3,33} = 2.16$, $p = 0.1114$; Fig. 2C). Water self-
309 administration was unaffected by JNJ-63533054 treatment ($F_{3,33} = 1.54$, $p = 0.2225$) in
310 nondependent rats. A separate cohort of rats was made alcohol dependent, in which exposure to
311 alcohol vapor or JNJ-63533054 (30 mg/kg) had no effect on saccharin self-administration ($F_{3,24} =$
312 0.1766 , $p = 0.9112$; Fig. 2D) or water self-administration ($F_{3,24} = 2.405$, $p = 0.0923$), confirmed
313 by the one-way repeated-measures ANOVA.

314

315 **Systemic administration of the GPR139 receptor agonist JNJ-63533054 increases pain**
316 **thresholds during alcohol withdrawal, without affecting somatic signs of withdrawal**

317 Mechanical hyperalgesia and somatic signs of withdrawal were evaluated 7-8 h into
318 withdrawal using a between-subjects design ($n = 8-9$). The results showed a higher threshold for
319 mechanical nociception in JNJ-63533054-treated rats (Fig. 3A). This was confirmed by the
320 unpaired t -test ($t_{15} = 2.943$, $p = 0.0101$). No significant differences in somatic withdrawal signs
321 were found between the two groups (Fig. 3B), confirmed by the nonparametric Mann-Whitney U
322 test ($U = 25.5$, $p = 0.3214$).

323

324 **Alcohol-dependent rats with higher baseline alcohol intake exhibit resistance to quinine**
325 **adulteration**

326 Based on the median reinforcers/session after escalation in dependent rats, two distinct
327 subgroups of rats were identified: one with below-median baseline alcohol intake (< 50
328 reinforcers/session, $n = 8$) and one with above-median baseline alcohol intake (>50
329 reinforcers/session, $n = 9$; Fig. 4A). This was confirmed by a significant difference in baseline
330 alcohol intake between the two subgroups ($t_{15} = 4.908$, $p = 0.0002$). Water intake was not
331 different between the two subgroups ($t_{15} = 0.8706$, $p = 0.3977$; Fig. 4A). No significant
332 difference in body weight was found between the two subgroups (data not shown), indicating
333 that the number of lever presses and consequently alcohol intake were independent of body
334 weight. To further analyze compulsive-like responding for alcohol in these two subgroups, we
335 used the quinine adulteration test, which measures the persistence of alcohol drinking despite the
336 aversive bitter taste of quinine. The subgroups of rats with low baseline alcohol intake also
337 exhibited low compulsive-like drinking, indicated by 10-fold higher sensitivity to quinine (0.005
338 g/L) compared with high-compulsive rats (0.05 g/L). Fig. 4B shows the average number of
339 rewards during the quinine adulteration test with each increasing concentration of quinine

340 between low-intake (i.e., low-compulsive) and high-intake (i.e., high-compulsive) rats ($n = 8$
341 low-compulsive rats, $n = 9$ high-compulsive rats). The two-way repeated-measures ANOVA
342 revealed a significant time \times group interaction ($F_{4,60} = 3.254$, $p = 0.0174$) and significant effects
343 of quinine concentration ($F_{4,60} = 12.31$, $p < 0.0001$) and group ($F_{1,15} = 20.29$, $p = 0.0004$). The
344 Newman-Keuls multiple-comparison test confirmed a significant difference between the
345 subgroups of rats at quinine concentrations of 0.005 g/L ($p < 0.05$), 0.025 g/L ($p < 0.01$), and
346 0.05 g/L ($p < 0.05$). The Newman-Keuls multiple-comparison *post hoc* test indicated that quinine
347 adulteration decreased lever pressing in the low-compulsive group beginning at the lowest
348 concentration of quinine (0.005g/L) compared with baseline ($p < 0.05$ for 0.05 g/L, $p < 0.001$ for
349 0.01 g/L, $p < 0.0001$ for 0.05 g/L), whereas only the highest concentration of quinine (0.05 g/L)
350 decreased lever-pressing in the high-compulsive group ($p < 0.05$). To verify that the effect of
351 quinine was selective for alcohol and did not merely indicate a difference in taste sensitivity
352 between low-compulsive and high-compulsive rats, we tested the quinine concentration (0.025
353 g/L) that caused the most significant difference in alcohol intake between groups ($p < 0.01$) on
354 quinine-adulterated water intake between groups (Fig. 4C). The *t*-test indicated no significant
355 difference in lever-pressing for quinine-adulterated water ($t_{15} = 0.4353$, $p = 0.6695$).

356

357 **JNJ-63533054 decreases alcohol self-administration only in a subgroup of high-intake rats**
358 **that exhibit compulsive-like drinking**

359 Dependent rats were divided into two subgroups according to both the baseline escalated
360 number of self-administered reinforcers (below the median for low-compulsive rats and above
361 the median for high-compulsive rats [50]) and compulsive-like alcohol consumption in the
362 quinine adulteration test, with a $< 20\%$ reduction of alcohol intake at the lowest concentration of

363 quinine (0.005 g/L) in low-compulsive rats (i.e., 10-fold higher sensitivity to 0.005 g/L quinine)
364 compared with high-compulsive rats. High-compulsive rats ($p = 0.00014$; Fig. 5A) and low-
365 compulsive rats ($p = 0.0287$) escalated their alcohol intake from pre-vapor baseline to post-vapor
366 baseline (i.e., escalation), confirmed by the two-way repeated-measures ANOVA (subgroup \times
367 treatment interaction, $F_{4,60} = 3.191$, $p = 0.0192$) followed by the Newman-Keuls *post hoc* test.
368 The Newman-Keuls *post hoc* test showed that JNJ-63533054 significantly reduced alcohol self-
369 administration at a dose of 30 mg/kg ($p = 0.00274$). JNJ-63533054 did not affect alcohol self-
370 administration in low-compulsive rats at either dose tested ($p < 0.05$). The two-way repeated-
371 measures ANOVA indicated no significant difference in water intake between pre-vapor and
372 post-vapor and no effect of JNJ-63533054 treatment in either high-compulsive rats or low-
373 compulsive rats, reflected by a lack of interaction ($F_{4,60} = 0.2027$, $p = 0.9359$). JNJ-63533054
374 (30 mg/kg) induced a $31.6\% \pm 5.9\%$ (mean \pm SEM) reduction of intake compared with baseline
375 in high-compulsive rats ($t_8 = 5.357$, $p = 0.0007$; Fig. 5B), whereas no significant reduction was
376 observed in low-compulsive rats ($14.7\% \pm 21.1\%$, $t_7 = 0.6963$, $p = 0.5087$).

377 Mechanical hyperalgesia was also analyzed in the different subgroups ($n = 3$ -5/group,
378 data not shown). Pretreatment with JNJ-63533054 caused a $121.18\% \pm 8.11\%$ increase in paw
379 withdrawal thresholds in low-compulsive rats and $174.39\% \pm 42.06\%$ increase in high-
380 compulsive rats. The analysis of the effect size showed that JNJ-63533054 treatment had a
381 greater effect in high-compulsive rats (Cohen's $d = 0.7593$ for low-compulsive rats and 1.1740
382 for high-compulsive rats).

383

384 **Intra-habenular but not intra-IPN infusion of JNJ-63533054 decreases alcohol self-**
385 **administration and mechanical hyperalgesia in alcohol-dependent rats**

386 To identify the brain circuits that mediate the effects of JNJ-63533054 on alcohol self-
387 administration and withdrawal-induced mechanical hyperalgesia, a separate cohort of alcohol-
388 dependent rats was implanted with intra-habenular and intra-IPN cannulae. The timeline for
389 intracerebral infusions of JNJ-63533054 is presented in Fig. 6A. In the intra-habenular group,
390 rats that received CIE to alcohol vapor escalated their alcohol intake from baseline, confirmed by
391 one-way repeated-measures ANOVA ($F_{3,15} = 11.71$, $p = 0.0003$) followed by the Newman-Keuls
392 *post hoc* test (baseline vs. escalation, $p < 0.01$; Fig. 6B). The intra-habenular infusion of JNJ-
393 63533054 (0.25 $\mu\text{g}/0.5 \mu\text{l}$) significantly decreased alcohol self-administration, confirmed by the
394 Newman-Keuls *post hoc* test ($p < 0.01$), without affecting water self-administration ($F_{3,15} =$
395 0.3253, $p = 0.8071$; Fig. 6B). The intra-habenular infusion of JNJ-63533054 also increased paw
396 withdrawal thresholds, indicating a decrease in hyperalgesia during alcohol withdrawal ($t_5 =$
397 5.709, $p = 0.0023$; Fig. 6C). In the intra-IPN group, rats that received CIE to alcohol vapor
398 escalated their alcohol intake from baseline, confirmed by the one-way repeated-measures
399 ANOVA ($F_{3,18} = 7.459$, $p = 0.0019$) followed by the Newman-Keuls *post hoc* test (baseline vs.
400 escalation, $p < 0.01$; Fig. 6F). The intra-IPN infusion of JNJ-63533054 did not affect alcohol
401 self-administration ($p > 0.05$; Fig. 6F) or paw withdrawal thresholds ($t_6 = 0.1455$, $p = 0.8891$;
402 Fig. 6G). At the end of the experiments, cannula placements in the habenula (Fig. 6D) and IPN
403 (Fig. 6H) were verified.

404

405 **DISCUSSION**

406 The present study showed that GPR139 receptor agonism decreases alcohol intake
407 selectively in alcohol-dependent rats, without affecting saccharin intake in alcohol-dependent
408 rats or alcohol intake in nondependent rats. Additionally, the reduction of alcohol intake was

409 observed in a subgroup of alcohol-dependent rats that exhibited a compulsive intake-like
410 phenotype. JNJ-63533054 had no effect on somatic withdrawal signs during acute withdrawal,
411 but a decrease in withdrawal-induced mechanical hyperalgesia was observed after systemic JNJ-
412 63533054 administration. Importantly, the intra-habenular but not intra-IPN infusion of JNJ-
413 63533054 decreased both alcohol self-administration and withdrawal-induced hyperalgesia in
414 alcohol-dependent rats. Overall, we found that GPR139 receptor activation specifically in the
415 habenula selectively reduced key addiction-like behaviors in an advanced preclinical model of
416 alcohol use disorder.

417 These results demonstrate that GPR139 activation is only effective in alcohol-dependent
418 rats, without affecting alcohol intake in nondependent rats. Additionally, JNJ-63533054 had no
419 effect on saccharin intake in alcohol-dependent rats. The selective effect of JNJ-63533054 on
420 alcohol intake suggests that GPR139 may be involved in functional processes that underlie drug
421 dependence and addiction (e.g., by altering the level of GPR139 expression in the brain) and not
422 merely in the reduction of the rewarding effects of alcohol or saccharin.

423 The analysis of individual differences in compulsive-like alcohol drinking indicated that
424 GPR139 receptor activation was particularly effective in alcohol-dependent animals that
425 exhibited high, compulsive-like alcohol drinking. The quinine adulteration test has been
426 previously validated as a model of compulsive-like drinking (Vendruscolo et al., 2012; Seif et
427 al., 2013; Leao et al., 2015; Kimbrough et al., 2017a). In the model of CIE to alcohol vapor,
428 abstinence from alcohol has been shown to trigger an aversive withdrawal syndrome, during
429 which rats exhibit somatic and motivational signs, including hyperalgesia (Edwards et al., 2012;
430 Vendruscolo and Roberts, 2014; de Guglielmo et al., 2017). Additionally, withdrawal from
431 chronic alcohol exposure increases pain sensitivity in alcoholic-dependent humans (Jochum et

432 al., 2010), and chronic intermittent voluntary alcohol intake has been shown to induce
433 hyperalgesia during withdrawal in rats (Fu et al., 2015). Although JNJ-63533054 had no effect
434 on somatic signs of withdrawal, it significantly decreased withdrawal-induced hyperalgesia,
435 measured by paw-withdrawal thresholds in the von Frey test. The increase in paw-withdrawal
436 thresholds was greater in high-compulsive rats compared with low-compulsive rats ($174.39\% \pm$
437 42.06% and $121.15\% \pm 8.11\%$ increases, respectively). In the CIE model, withdrawal-induced
438 hyperalgesia is usually associated with a 25-35% decrease in mechanical thresholds compared
439 with naive or nondependent animals (Edwards et al., 2012; de Guglielmo et al., 2017). Therefore,
440 we hypothesize that JNJ-63533054 treatment may have completely restored pain thresholds to
441 normal levels. Future studies that employ longitudinal designs will be required to test this
442 hypothesis.

443 Interestingly, lesions of the medial habenula have been shown to increase pain sensitivity
444 and increase the analgesic effect of morphine (Meszaros et al., 1985). A recent study found that
445 the analgesic effect of morphine is mediated by the medial habenula (Darcq et al., 2012). Given
446 that the highest expression of GPR139 receptors is found in the medial habenula (Matsuo et al.,
447 2005; Liu et al., 2015; Hitchcock S, 2016), GPR139 receptors may modulate opioidergic systems
448 in the medial habenula to produce the analgesic effects that were observed in the present study.
449 Indeed, a comparison of rodent and human transcriptome data revealed a specific GPR139-
450 including cluster of highly expressed habenular genes that are common to humans and rodents
451 that also notably express μ opioid receptors (Boulos et al., 2017). We observed no effect of JNJ-
452 63533054 on somatic withdrawal signs. The GPR139-mediated reduction on withdrawal
453 symptoms was selective to hyperalgesia, further indicating that GPR139 may interact with the
454 opioidergic system in the habenula.

455 JNJ-63533054 is a selective, high-affinity, small-molecule agonist of GPR139 receptors
456 that has good drug-like properties, including favorable pharmacokinetics and brain penetration
457 after oral dosing in rats, with no cytochrome P450 (CYP450) inhibition (Dvorak et al., 2015). To
458 our knowledge, only one behavioral study has been published to date regarding GPR139
459 receptors, in which the GPR139 receptor agonist JNJ-63533054 (10 and 30 mg/kg) induced
460 spontaneous hypolocomotion during the first hour after the injection (Liu et al., 2015). To avoid
461 the potential confound of hypolocomotion, we delayed the testing of alcohol self-administration
462 for 1 h after systemic JNJ-6353054 administration. Considering that we did not observe any
463 decrease in water drinking in any of the groups, did not observe decreases in alcohol drinking in
464 nondependent rats, and did not observe a reduction of operant responding for the natural
465 reinforcer saccharin, hypolocomotion unlikely explains the present results.

466 One limitation of the present study is the lack of GPR139 antagonist administration. The
467 lack of availability of such antagonists is a known weakness in the field. Although several small-
468 molecule antagonists have been shown to have reasonable potency *in vitro*, little to no selectivity
469 data have been reported (Hu et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2015). Additionally, no studies of safety
470 and efficacy *in vivo* have been reported. Whether these compounds are selective and brain-
471 penetrant, have favorable pharmacokinetics, and are suitable for *in vivo* experiments remains to
472 be investigated.

473 The main signal transduction pathway of GPR139 receptors remains unknown, but
474 previous studies have reported signaling through G_i (Susens et al., 2006), G_s (Hu et al., 2009),
475 and particularly G_q (Matsuo et al., 2005; Shi et al., 2011; Isberg et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2015;
476 Bayer Andersen et al., 2016) protein pathways. The endogenous aromatic L-amino acids L-
477 tryptophan (a precursor of serotonin) and L-phenylalanine (a precursor of tyrosine) activate

478 GPR139 receptors (Isberg et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2015). Interestingly, a recent study reported
479 that tryptophan depletion was associated with compulsive-like behavior in rats (Merchan et al.,
480 2017), thus indicating a possible link between GPR139 receptors and the compulsive-like
481 behavior that was observed in the present study. Moreover, low plasma concentrations of
482 tryptophan have been suggested to be correlated with alcohol abuse in humans (Virkkunen and
483 Linnoila, 1990). Withdrawal from alcohol has also been shown to significantly decrease brain
484 tryptophan concentrations (Bano et al., 1996). GPCR-interacting proteins are known to regulate
485 the activity, trafficking, and localization of GPCRs (Magalhaes et al., 2012). Low plasma and
486 brain tryptophan concentrations that are induced by chronic alcohol intake (Virkkunen and
487 Linnoila, 1990; Bano et al., 1996) may thus alter the function and/or expression of GPR139 (e.g.,
488 through upregulation). Additionally, withdrawal from alcohol increases the expression of the
489 transcription factor Fos in the habenula (Li et al., 2016), which also interacts with the
490 GH16I020080 regulatory element of the *GPR139* gene, acting as an enhancer of the gene
491 (Genecards, 2018). These alternative mechanisms may explain why the GPR139 receptor agonist
492 was effective only in alcohol-dependent rats, specifically in the subgroup that had a compulsive-
493 like phenotype and exhibited high alcohol intake. However, further studies are necessary to
494 better investigate this phenomenon.

495 Experiments that characterize the pharmacology and function of GPR139 receptors and
496 identify antagonist compounds with favorable pharmacokinetics *in vivo* are currently ongoing
497 (Wang et al., 2015; Hitchcock S, 2016; Shehata et al., 2016; Nohr et al., 2017). GPR139 receptor
498 mRNA is abundantly expressed in the habenula, ventrolateral region of the caudate putamen,
499 zona incerta, and medial mammillary nucleus. High and specific expression of the GPR139
500 receptor has been found in the habenula and septum in mice, with the highest immunoreactivity

501 in the medial habenula (Matsuo et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2015; Hitchcock S, 2016). A low level
502 of expression has also been detected in the IPN (Liu et al., 2015). The habenula is a central
503 structure that regulates monoaminergic systems, notably dopamine and serotonin, and integrates
504 cognitive, emotional, and sensory processing (Boulos et al., 2017). The habenula receives inputs
505 from the basal ganglia, septum, hypothalamus, anterior cingulate cortex, and medial prefrontal
506 cortex and projects to several midbrain regions, most importantly the IPN and rostromedial
507 tegmental nucleus (RMTg), regulating the activity of monoaminergic nuclei (Herkenham and
508 Nauta, 1979; Bianco and Wilson, 2009). Thus, the habenula is a crucial intersection between
509 cortical and subcortical structures that are implicated in emotion, stress, and reward processing
510 (Batalla et al., 2017). Both the lateral and medial habenula have been implicated as parts of
511 intrinsic reinforcement circuitry, making it an interesting target for addiction studies (Matsumoto
512 and Hikosaka, 2007; Hsu et al., 2014; Velasquez et al., 2014). Emerging evidence suggests that
513 medial habenula-IPN circuitry is critical in addiction and anxiety (McLaughlin et al., 2017).
514 GPR139 receptors are predominantly expressed in the medial habenula. Therefore, we
515 hypothesize that the reduction of alcohol self-administration in dependent rats that was observed
516 in the present study may be mediated by habenular circuits. Importantly, we found that the local
517 activation of GPR139 receptors in the habenula but not IPN reversed the escalation of alcohol
518 self-administration in alcohol-dependent rats and decreased withdrawal-induced hyperalgesia,
519 further indicating that the habenula is a mediator of the effects of GPR139 agonism on alcohol
520 dependence.

521 In summary, the present study provided robust preclinical evidence that GPR139 receptor
522 activation reverses compulsive-like alcohol drinking and decreases withdrawal-induced
523 hyperalgesia in a subgroup of alcohol-dependent rats that exhibit symptoms of alcohol

524 dependence. The reductions of alcohol self-administration and withdrawal-induced hyperalgesia
525 were mediated by the habenula and not IPN. JNJ-63533054 is orally bioavailable and has a
526 favorable pharmacokinetic profile. It selectively decreased alcohol intake in a subgroup of
527 dependent rats that exhibited a compulsive-like phenotype, suggesting that this GPR139 receptor
528 agonist may be a candidate for further drug development for the treatment of alcohol use
529 disorder. Further studies are needed to determine the underlying mechanisms by which GPR139
530 receptors regulate compulsive-like alcohol drinking and mechanical hyperalgesia and whether
531 targeting GPR139 receptors may also affect addiction-like behaviors with other drugs of abuse
532 and/or non-drug-related compulsivity.

533

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715

716 **LEGENDS**

717

718 **Table 1. Statistical table.**

719

720 **Figure 1. Timeline of the experiment, escalation of alcohol self-administration, and blood**
721 **alcohol levels after exposure to alcohol vapor.** (A) Timeline of the experiment with systemic
722 JNJ-63533054 administration in alcohol-dependent rats. (B) Rats that were exposed to alcohol
723 vapor escalated their alcohol intake after the 6th session of operant self-administration. $*p <$
724 0.05 , vs. pre-vapor baseline. (C) Blood alcohol levels (BALs) significantly increased after 8
725 weeks of alcohol vapor exposure. $****p < 0.0001$.

726

727 **Figure 2. GPR139 receptor agonist JNJ-63533054 reverses the escalation of alcohol self-**
728 **administration in alcohol-dependent rats, with no effect in nondependent rats.** (A) Rats in
729 the alcohol-dependent group were made dependent by chronic intermittent alcohol vapor
730 exposure. Once the animals were made alcohol-dependent and escalated their alcohol intake
731 ($****p < 0.0001$, pre-vapor baseline [BSL] vs. escalated baseline [ESC]), the effect of JNJ-
732 63533054 on alcohol self-administration was evaluated using a within-subjects design ($n = 17$).
733 One hour before the session, the rats were orally administered a single dose of JNJ-63533054.
734 JNJ-63533054 significantly reduced alcohol self-administration at a dose of 30 mg/kg ($**p <$
735 0.05). Water intake was unaffected by JNJ-63533054 treatment. (B) The median number of
736 reinforced responses for alcohol in alcohol-dependent rats was 50 after escalation. (C) Once a
737 stable baseline of alcohol intake was reached ($\pm 10\%$ over the last three sessions), the effect of
738 JNJ-63533054 on alcohol intake was tested in nondependent rats. One hour before the session,

739 the rats were orally administered a single dose of JNJ-63533054 in a within-subjects design ($n =$
740 12). JNJ-63533054 did not significantly affect alcohol self-administration in nondependent rats.
741 Water self-administration was unaffected by JNJ-63533054 treatment. (D) The effect of JNJ-
742 63533054 (30 mg/kg, p.o.) on 0.04 % (w/v) saccharin self-administration was tested in a separate
743 cohort of rats that were made alcohol-dependent by chronic intermittent alcohol vapor exposure.
744 Both saccharin and water self-administration was unaffected by vapor exposure or JNJ-
745 63533054.

746

747 **Figure 3. GPR139 agonist decreases withdrawal-induced hyperalgesia without affecting**
748 **somatic signs of withdrawal.** (A) JNJ-63533054 (30 mg/kg, p.o.) increased paw withdrawal
749 thresholds compared with vehicle-treated rats in the mechanical nociceptive von Frey test ($**p <$
750 0.05), indicating an increase in pain thresholds during alcohol withdrawal. (B) JNJ-63533054 did
751 not affect the number of somatic signs of alcohol withdrawal. $n = 8-9$ /group.

752

753 **Figure 4. Dependent rats that exhibit high alcohol drinking exhibit high compulsive-like**
754 **alcohol drinking.** (A) Two distinct subgroups of rats in the alcohol-dependent group were
755 identified according to the median of 50 alcohol-reinforced responses during baseline alcohol
756 self-administration after escalation. Baseline alcohol intake was significantly higher in high-
757 compulsive rats compared with low-compulsive rats ($***p < 0.001$, $n = 8-9$). (B) To further test
758 the compulsivity of alcohol intake, the rats in the low- and high-compulsive subgroups
759 underwent the quinine adulteration test. The rats were subjected to operant alcohol self-
760 administration sessions with increasing concentrations of quinine that were added to the alcohol
761 solution. The data are expressed as the percent change relative to the escalated baseline (i.e.,

762 lever presses for alcohol alone before quinine adulteration). High-compulsive rats maintained
763 their alcohol drinking despite the aversive, bitter taste of quinine in the alcohol solution (i.e.,
764 they were high-compulsive alcohol drinkers). Low-compulsive rats decreased their alcohol
765 intake (> 20% from baseline) starting with the lowest concentration of quinine (0.005 g/L; i.e.,
766 they were low-compulsive), whereas only the highest quinine concentration (0.05 g/L) decreased
767 alcohol intake in high-compulsive rats. # $p < 0.05$, ## $p < 0.01$, ### $p < 0.001$, #### $p < 0.0001$,
768 significant difference compared with own baseline; * $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.001$, significant
769 difference between low-compulsive rats and high-compulsive rats. (C) The intake of quinine
770 (0.025 g/L)-adulterated water was not different between low-compulsive and high-compulsive
771 rats.

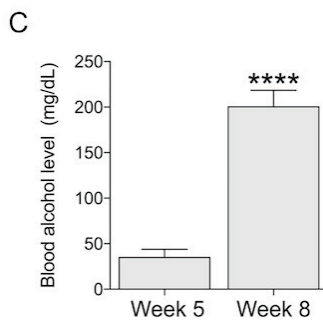
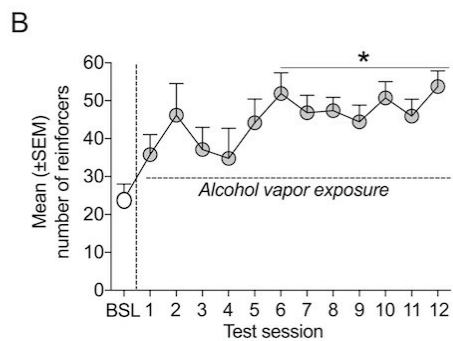
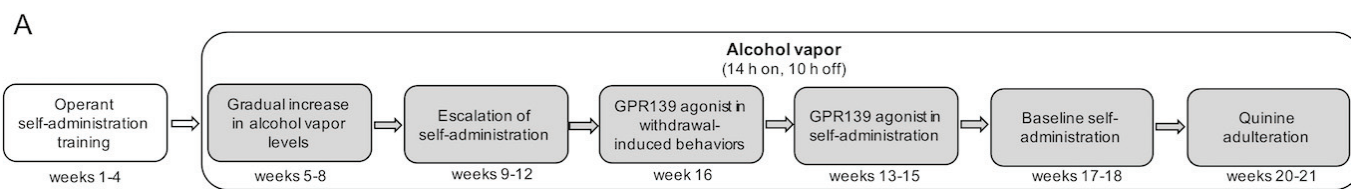
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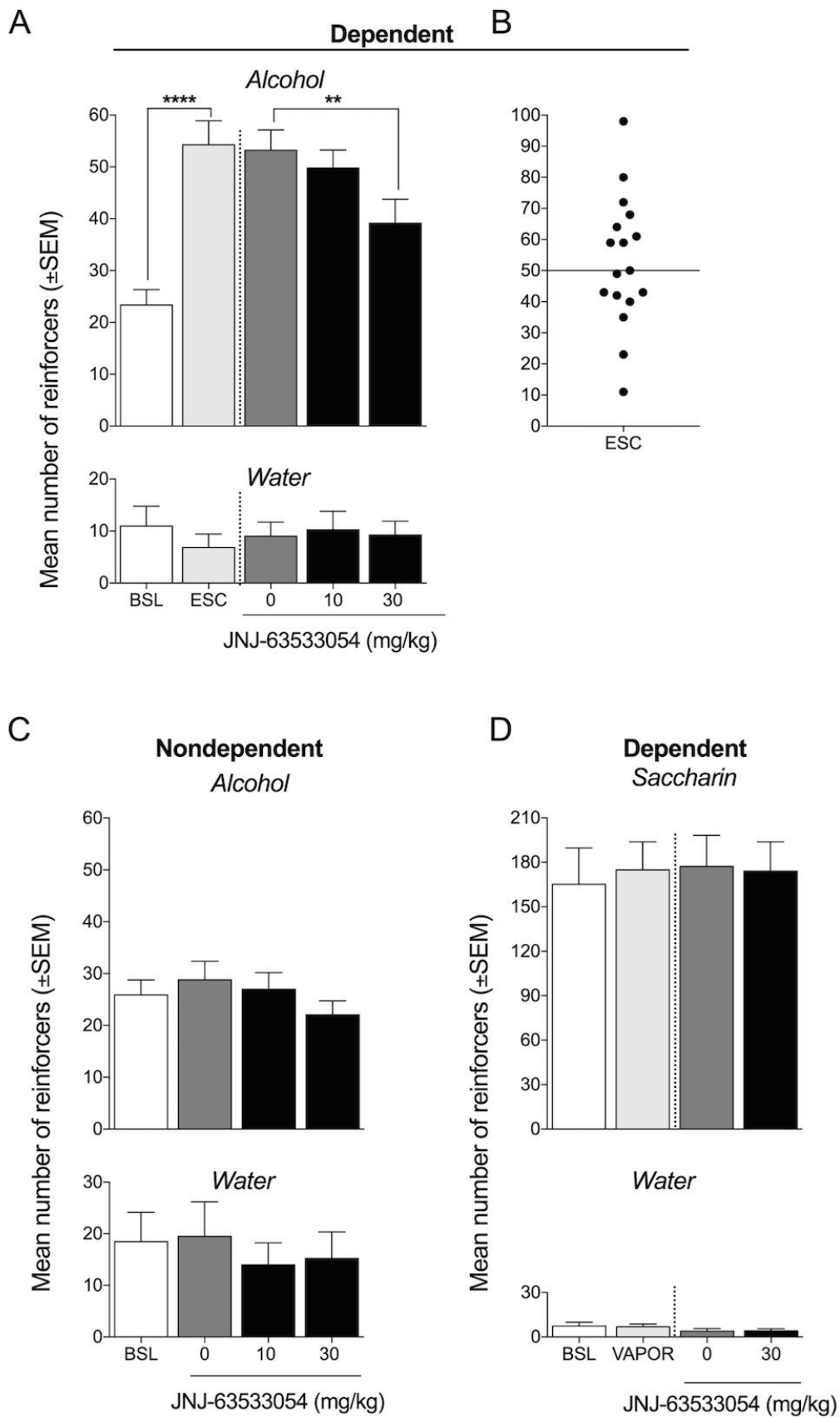
773 **Figure 5. JNJ-63533054 decreases alcohol intake in high-compulsive alcohol-dependent rats**
774 **but has no effect on alcohol intake in low-compulsive alcohol-dependent rats.** (A) Rats in the
775 high-compulsive subgroup of alcohol-dependent rats ($n = 9$) escalated their alcohol intake
776 (**** $p < 0.0001$, pre-vapor baseline [BSL] vs. escalated baseline [ESC]). JNJ-63533054 (30
777 mg/kg, p.o.) significantly decreased alcohol intake in high-compulsive rats (** $p < 0.01$). Rats in
778 the low-compulsive subgroup escalated their alcohol intake after alcohol vapor exposure (* $p <$
779 0.05) but JNJ-63533054 had no effect on alcohol intake in low-compulsive rats ($n = 8$). (B) JNJ-
780 63533054 (30 mg/kg) decreased (> 30% reduction) alcohol self-administration in high-
781 compulsive rats (** $p < 0.0001$) but had no effect in low-compulsive rats.

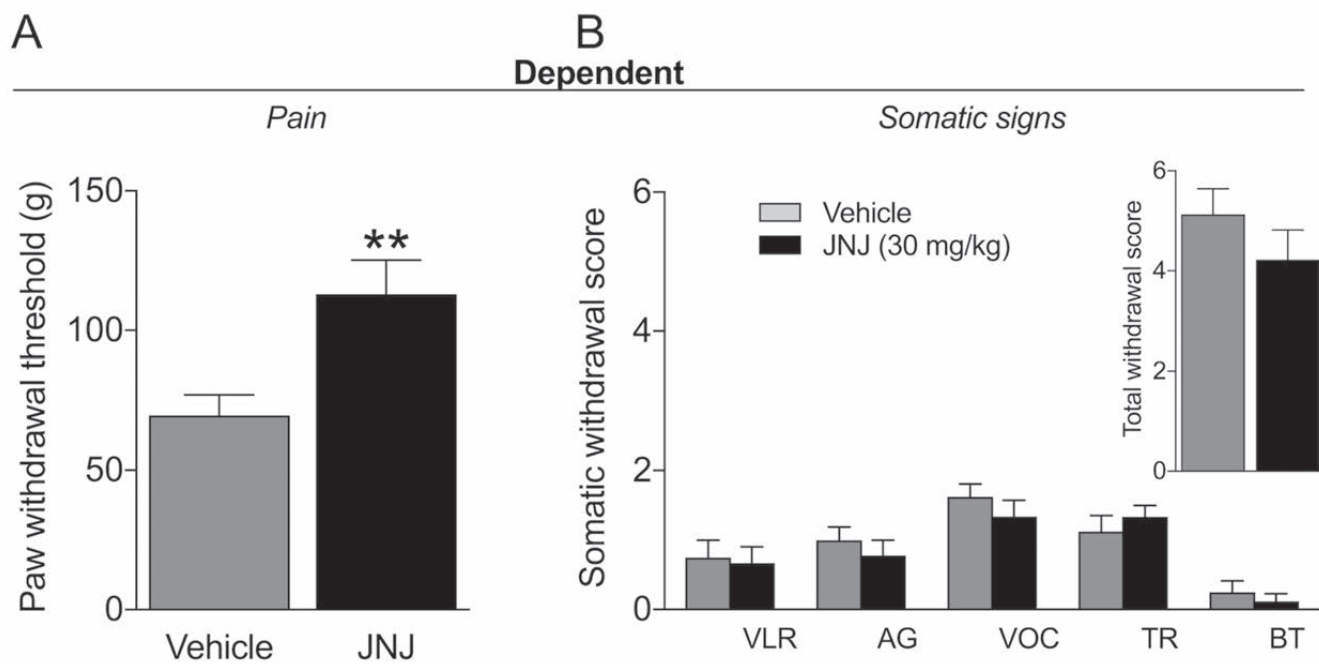
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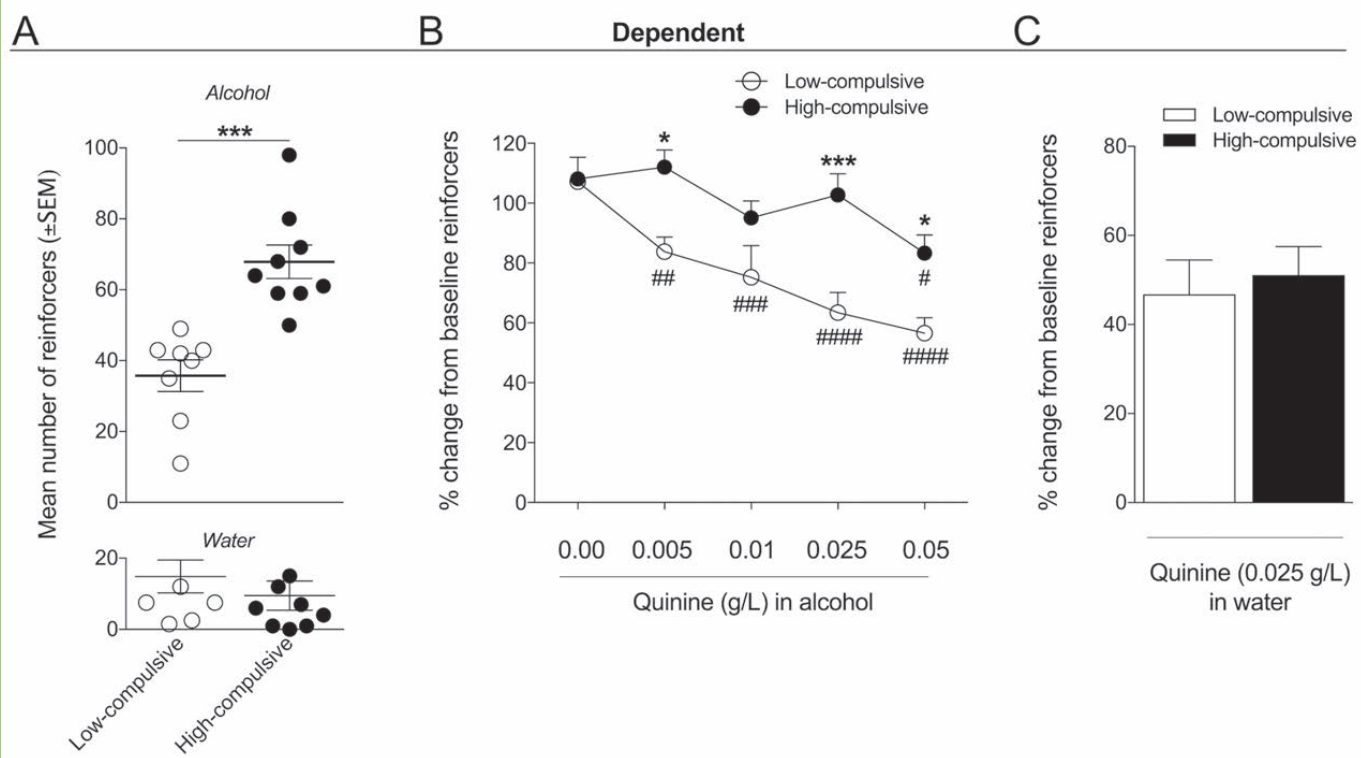
783 **Figure 6. Intra-habenular but not intra-IPN JNJ-63533054 administration decreases**
784 **alcohol intake and increases paw withdrawal thresholds in alcohol-dependent rats.** (A)

785 Timeline of microinfusions of JNJ-63533054 in alcohol-dependent rats. (B) Intra-habenular
786 infusion of JNJ-63533054 (0.25 µg/0.5 µl) decreased alcohol self-administration in dependent
787 rats (** $p < 0.01$), without affecting water self-administration ($n = 6$). (C) Intra-habenular
788 infusion of JNJ-63533054 increased paw withdrawal thresholds during alcohol withdrawal (** p
789 < 0.01). (D) Histology of accurate injection sites in the habenula (black circles) and misplaced
790 injection sites (white circles). 5× magnification. (E) *In situ* hybridization of GPR139 receptors in
791 mouse habenula. Modified from Allen Mouse Brain Atlas (AllenMouseBrainAtlas, 2004). (F)
792 Intra-IPN infusion of JNJ-63533054 did not affect alcohol or water self-administration in
793 alcohol-dependent rats ($n = 7$). (G) Paw withdrawal thresholds during alcohol withdrawal were
794 unaffected by intra-IPN infusion of JNJ-63533054. (H) Histology of accurate injection sites in
795 the IPN (black circles) and misplaced injection sites (white circles). 2.5× magnification. (F) *In*
796 *situ* hybridization of GPR139 receptors in the mouse IPN. Modified from Allen Mouse Brain
797 Atlas (AllenMouseBrainAtlas, 2004). Abbreviations: cp, cerebral peduncle; DG, dentate gyrus;
798 D3V, dorsal third ventricle; IPN, interpeduncular nucleus; LHb, lateral habenula; MHb, medial
799 habenula; ml, medial lemniscus; SN, substantia nigra; VTA, ventral tegmental area.

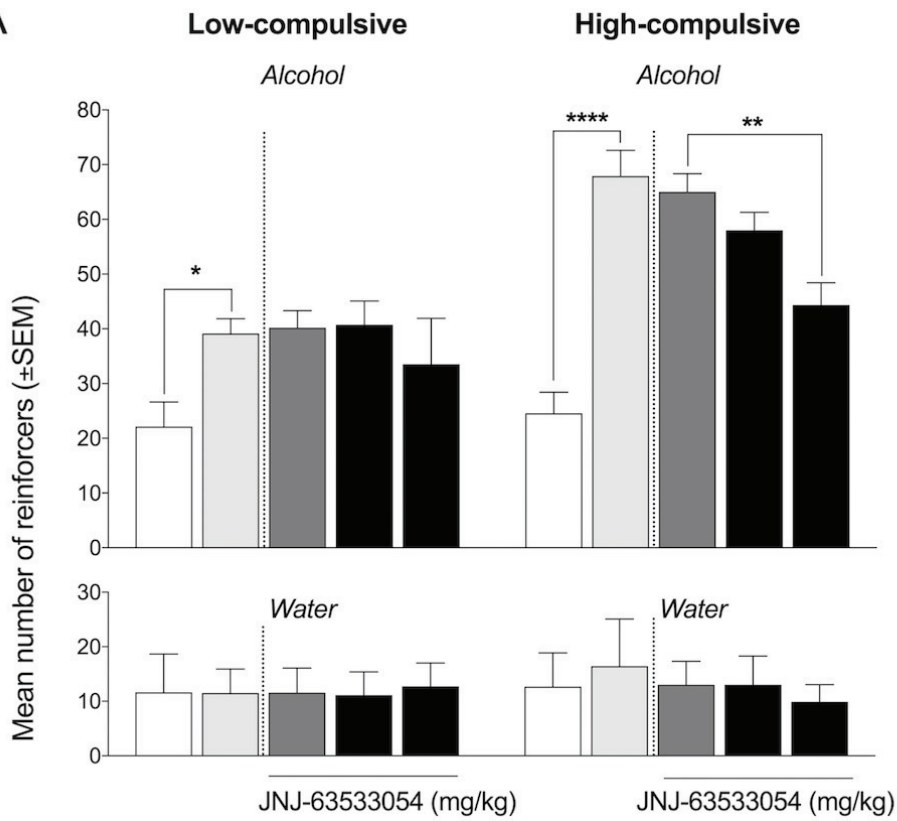




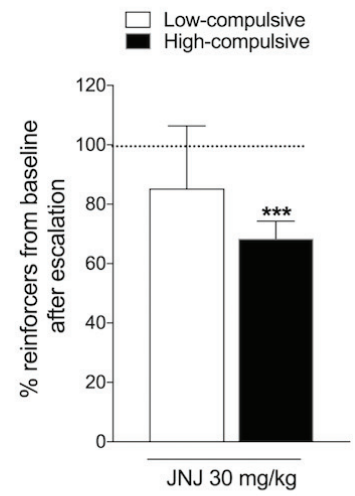




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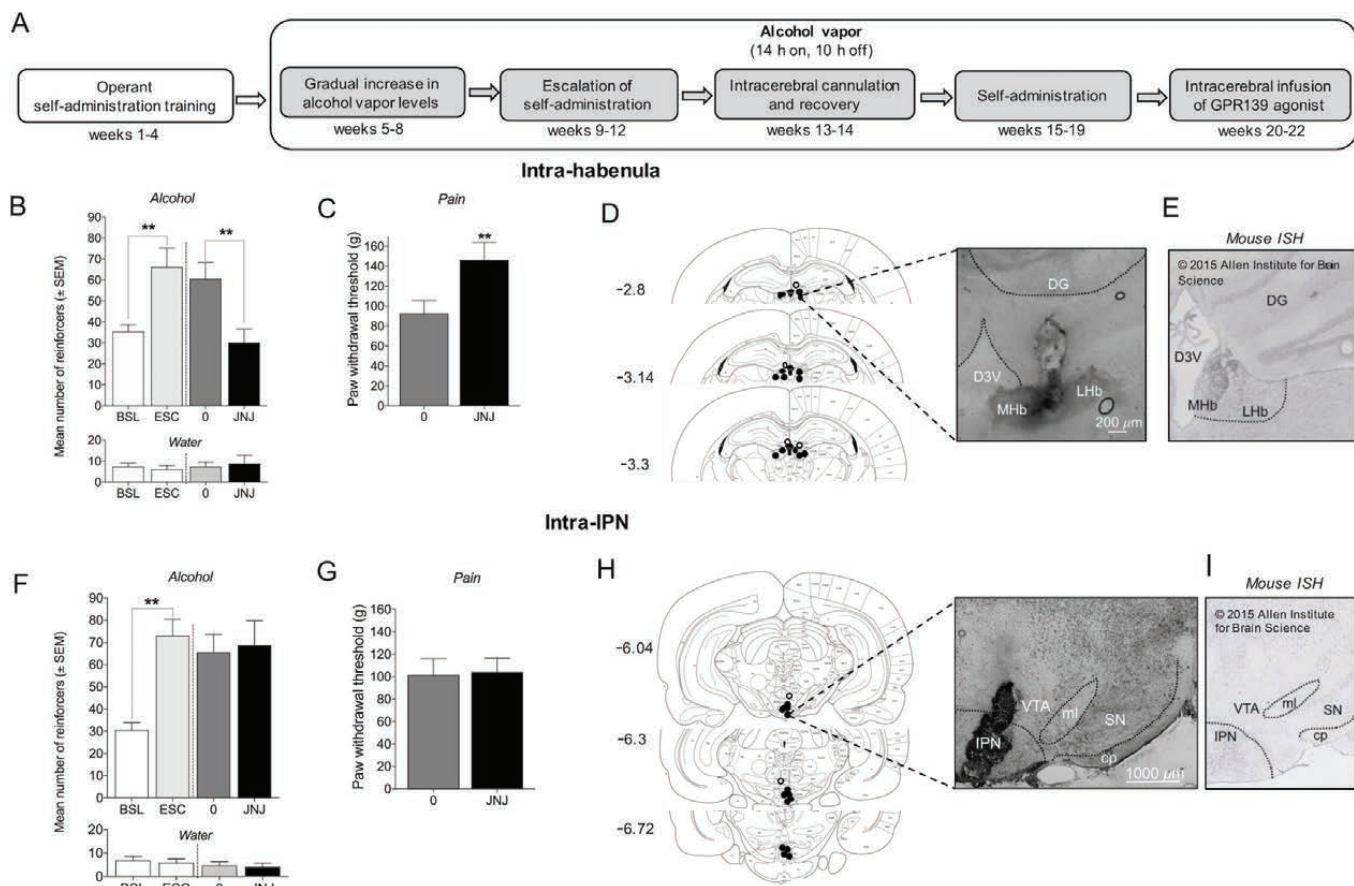


Table 1. Statistical table.

| Figure | Data structure | Type of test | Statistical value | p |
|--------|---------------------------------------|---|---------------------------------|---|
| 1B | One factor (time) | One-way repeated-measures ANOVA Newman-Keuls | $F_{12,192} = 2.618$ | 0.0030 < 0.05 |
| 1C | Normal distribution, two-tailed | Paired t -test | $t_{16} = 7.301$ | < 0.0001 |
| 2A | One factor (treatment) | One-way repeated-measures ANOVA Newman-Keuls | $F_{4,64} = 16.92$ | < 0.0001 < 0.01 |
| 2C | One factor (treatment) | One-way repeated-measures ANOVA | $F_{3,33} = 2.16$ | 0.1114 |
| 2D | One factor (treatment) | One-way repeated-measures ANOVA | $F_{3,24} = 0.1766$ | 0.9112 |
| 3A | Normal distribution, two-tailed | Unpaired t -test | $t_{15} = 2.943$ | 0.0101 |
| 3B | Nonparametric | Mann-Whitney U | $U = 25.5$ | 0.3214 |
| 4A | Normal distribution, two-tailed | Unpaired t -test | $t_{15} = 4.908$ | 0.0002 |
| 4B | Two factors (compulsivity, treatment) | Two-way repeated-measures ANOVA Newman-Keuls | Interaction: $F_{4,60} = 3.254$ | 0.0174 < 0.05 (0.005 g/L for low-compulsive rats) > 0.05 (0.005 g/L for high-compulsive rats) |
| 4C | Normal distribution, two-tailed | Unpaired t -test | $t_{15} = 0.4353$ | 0.6695 |
| 5A | Two factors (compulsivity, treatment) | Two-way repeated-measures ANOVA Newman-Keuls | Interaction: $F_{4,60} = 3.191$ | 0.0192 > 0.05 (30 mg/kg for low-compulsive rats) < 0.01 (30 mg/kg for high-compulsive rats) |
| 5B | Normal distribution, two-tailed | Paired t -test | $t_8 = 5.357$ | 0.0007 |
| 6B | One factor (treatment) | One-way repeated-measures ANOVA Newman-Keuls | $F_{3,15} = 11.71$ | 0.0003 < 0.01 |
| 6C | Normal distribution, two-tailed | Paired t -test | $t_5 = 5.709$ | 0.0023 |
| 6F | One factor (treatment) | One-way repeated-measures ANOVA Newman-Keuls | $F_{3,18} = 7.459$ | 0.0019 > 0.05 |
| 6G | Normal distribution, two-tailed | Paired t -test | $t_6 = 0.1455$ | 0.8891 |