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The sensation-seeking trait confers a dormant susceptibility to addiction that is revealed by intermittent cocaine self-administration in rats.

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Abstract

Heightened novelty and sensation seeking are associated with an increased risk of substance use disorder in clinical populations. In rats, sensation seeking is often examined by measuring locomotor reactivity to a novel environment. So-called high responders (HR) acquire self-administration of psychostimulants more quickly and consume higher amounts of drug compared to low responder (LR) rats, indicating that the HR trait might confer a stronger addiction propensity. However, studies of addiction-like behaviors in HR vs LR rats have typically utilized self-administration paradigms that do not dissociate individual differences in the hedonic/reinforcing and motivational properties of a drug. Moreover, little attention has been given to whether HR rats are more susceptible to drug-access conditions that promote a state-dependent addiction phenotype. We report that on a behavioral economics task, HR rats have higher preferred brain-cocaine levels compared to LR rats but do not differ with respect to their demand elasticity for cocaine. In contrast, when tested on an intermittent access schedule of cocaine self-administration, which has been shown to promote several addiction-related endophenotypes, HR rats exhibited greater escalation of intake and more drastic reductions in cocaine demand elasticity. Together, these data indicate that the HR trait does not confer higher extant addiction behavior, but rather that this phenotype is associated with a propensity for addiction that remains dormant until it is actuated by intermittent drug intake. These findings reveal a 'trait' (HR) by 'state' (intermittent drug intake) interaction that produces a strong addiction phenotype.

Key words: behavioral economics, demand elasticity, cocaine prime, state vs trait, self-administration, novelty seeking

1 1.0 Introduction

2 A major goal of addiction research is to identify behavioral biomarkers that predict addiction
3 vulnerability. Epidemiological studies indicate that heightened novelty/sensation seeking, defined as an
4 enhanced willingness to take risks for the sake of increases in stimulation and arousal, is associated with
5 a greater propensity to experiment with addictive drugs and thus may predispose to addiction
6 (Mahoney III et al., 2015; Miles et al., 2001; Zuckerman and Neeb, 1979). Significant effort has been
7 dedicated to studying this phenomenon in laboratory animals, whereby rodents (typically rats) are
8 screened for their propensity to exhibit high locomotor reactivity to a novel inescapable environment
9 (high responder, or HR, phenotype) (Belin et al., 2011; Belin and Deroche-Gamonet, 2012; Piazza et al.,
10 1989). Compared to low responder (LR) rats, HR rats exhibit a propensity to acquire self-administration
11 of psychostimulants more quickly, to self-administer higher amounts of drug, and to exhibit greater
12 locomotor reactivity to a non-contingent cocaine injection (Hooks et al., 1991a, b; Klebaur et al., 2001;
13 Marinelli and White, 2000; Piazza et al., 1989). One study reported that following extended cocaine self-
14 administration (~60d), rats selectively bred to exhibit a HR phenotype exhibit stronger behaviors
15 reminiscent of human addiction (Flagel et al., 2016), including cue-controlled cocaine seeking, persistent
16 drug seeking in the absence of drug availability and cued reinstatement of extinguished responding. In
17 contrast however, another study reported no relationship between a spontaneous HR phenotype and
18 propensity to develop a multiphenotypic addiction-like state following a similar duration of cocaine self-
19 administration (Deroche-Gamonet et al., 2004). Thus, although there appears to be a clear relationship
20 between the HR phenotype and cocaine reactivity, its relationship to addiction *per se* remains to be fully
21 understood.

22 How to measure 'addiction' represents an ongoing challenge (Ahmed, 2012; Deroche-Gamonet
23 et al., 2004). A major limitation of many self-administration schedules is that they are dependent on
24 drug dose, pharmacokinetics and baseline shifts in consumption (tolerance), making it difficult to
25 identify the relative contribution of each of these factors to drug-seeking behavior (Bentzley et al.,
26 2013). Moreover, the link between self-administration behavior and 'addiction-like' endophenotypes,
27 such as relapse propensity and compulsive responding is tenuous (Quinn et al., 2018). The behavioral
28 economics (BE) approach has emerged as a powerful paradigm for concurrently measuring multiple
29 aspects of drug behavior, including demand elasticity (α), which reflects how quickly demand for drug
30 falls with increases in price and is thus a measure of drug motivation (Bentzley et al., 2013). In the case
31 of psychostimulants, α is orthogonal to preferred drug intake under null cost conditions (Q_0), meaning
32 that drug motivation can be assessed without the confound of individual differences in baseline cocaine

33 intake (Bentzley et al., 2013). Demand elasticity (α), but not Q_0 , is a strong predictor of several
34 addiction-relevant behaviors for stimulants (Bentzley et al., 2014; James et al., 2019a), and thus may
35 offer a preferable index of 'trait' addiction propensity. To date, however, the link between
36 sensation/novelty seeking and economic demand for cocaine is untested.

37 In addition to individual risk factors, drug exposure itself plays a major role in determining
38 addiction outcomes (Ahmed and Koob, 1998). Thus, it is interesting to consider whether HR animals are
39 also at greater risk of transitioning to addiction under drug consumption conditions that promote
40 compulsive drug seeking. Studies to this end have generally focused on the *amount* of cocaine
41 consumed as a key factor, where animals are given continuous access to cocaine over extended periods
42 of time (Ahmed and Koob, 1998). For example, when rats are provided daily extended (10h) access to
43 cocaine, HR rats exhibit greater escalation of cocaine intake compared to their LR counterparts
44 (Mantsch et al., 2001), which is argued to reflect a transition from controlled drug use to 'addiction'
45 (Ahmed and Koob, 1998). Similarly, as noted above, selectively bred HR rats exhibit stronger addiction-
46 like behaviors across several behavioral indices following prolonged (~60d) daily access to cocaine
47 (Flagel et al., 2016). Emerging evidence, however, indicates that the *pattern* of cocaine intake may be
48 more important than the overall amount of drug consumed in determining addiction outcomes (Allain et
49 al., 2015). Indeed, the intermittent access (IntA) self-administration procedure, whereby brief periods of
50 drug availability are separated by longer periods of non-drug-availability within a single session, has
51 recently been shown to promote more profound addiction-like behaviors compared to extended access
52 paradigms (Algallal et al., 2019; Allain and Samaha, 2019; James et al., 2019b; Kawa et al., 2019b;
53 Zimmer et al., 2012). There is significant variability in the extent to which IntA promotes a shift in
54 motivation for cocaine (Garcia et al., 2020; James et al., 2019a), however the potential factors
55 contributing to this variability, including individual differences in sensation seeking, have not been
56 determined.

57 Here, we show that HR rats exhibit higher cocaine consumption at null cost than LR animals, but
58 do not differ in their demand elasticity. In contrast, HR rats exhibit greater escalation of cocaine intake
59 across the IntA procedure, as well as greater IntA-induced reductions in demand elasticity (increased
60 motivation). Together these data indicate that the HR trait reflects a dormant vulnerability to addiction
61 that is actuated by intermittent drug intake, pointing to a trait (HR) x state (IntA) interaction in the
62 development of addiction.

63

64 **2.0 Methods**

65 2.1 Animals

66 Adult male Sprague-Dawley rats (n=120, ~300g, 6-8w upon arrival; Charles River Laboratories, Kingston,
67 NY) were pair housed on a reverse 12:12 hour light/dark cycle in a temperature and humidity-controlled
68 animal facility. Animals had *ad libitum* access to food and water throughout the experiments. Animals
69 were acclimated to the animal facility for at least 1w prior to any surgical or behavioral procedures. All
70 procedures were approved by Rutgers University New Brunswick Institutional Animal Care and Use
71 Committee and conducted in accordance with their guidelines.

72

73 2.2 Drugs

74 Cocaine HCl powder was obtained through the National Institute of Drug Abuse Drug Supply Program
75 and was dissolved in 0.9% sterile saline.

76

77 2.3 Surgery

78 Rats were anesthetized with isoflurane gas and administered an analgesic (rimadyl at 5mg/kg). An
79 intravenous catheter was implanted into the right jugular vein, as described previously (McGlinchey et
80 al., 2016), with the port exiting between the scapulae. During recovery and throughout the entirety of
81 the study, cefazolin (0.1ml; 10mg) and heparin (0.1ml; 100U) were flushed daily through the i.v.
82 catheter.

83

84 2.4 Experiment 1: Examining the relationship between novelty-induced locomotor activity, non- 85 contingent cocaine exposure and cocaine self-administration

86

87 2.4.1 Selection of HRs and LRs to novelty-induced locomotor activity

88 All subjects were tested for their locomotor response to a novel environment 1w prior to self-
89 administration training. Locomotor tests were performed in clear acrylic open field boxes (42cm x 42cm
90 x 30cm), which were housed inside sound attenuating chambers. SuperFlex monitors and software
91 (Omintech Electronics Inc, Columbus, OH) tracked locomotor activity via infrared light beam breaks
92 (16x16 array), as in previous publications from our group (James et al., 2018; James et al., 2019b;
93 McGlinchey et al., 2016). Locomotor activity was recorded as beam breaks in 5min epochs for a period
94 of 2h, and total distance traveled during this time was used to determine an animal's activity score.
95 Each animal was designated as HR or LR depending on whether their activity fell above or below the
96 upper or lower tertile of the overall cohort, respectively. Tertiles were used to capture more extreme

97 ends of the overall population; this was aided by the size of our overall cohort. One day after the
98 novel locomotor reactivity test, a subpopulation of rats were tested for novelty preference using
99 procedures described elsewhere (Belin et al., 2011); data from this test will be presented in a separate
100 manuscript.

101

102 *2.4.2 Locomotor Reactivity Induced by Cocaine*

103 Following classification of rats into HR/LR groups, we first sought to confirm in a subpopulation of these
104 rats (n=49) the previously reported observation that HR rats respond differentially to an acute,
105 experimenter-administered injection of cocaine. This was evaluated in the same open field apparatus as
106 described in the locomotor assessment. On the day immediately following locomotor or novelty
107 preference testing, rats were placed into the open field and baseline locomotor activity was recorded
108 for 30min. Rats were then removed from the open field, given an injection of cocaine (10mg/kg, i.p.) and
109 then immediately placed back in the open field. Locomotor activity was recorded for 120min.

110

111 *2.4.3 Cocaine Self-Administration Training*

112 Two days after the final behavioral screen (novel locomotor test or cocaine prime test), rats began
113 training to self-administer cocaine. Self-administration sessions were conducted in sound attenuating
114 operant chambers, which were connected to MED-PC IV software (Med-Associates, St Albans, VT, USA).
115 Rats were trained on a fixed ratio 1 (FR1) schedule to press an active lever for cocaine infusions
116 (0.2mg/50 μ l infusion; 3.6s), which were paired with a light and tone cue (white light above the active
117 lever; 78-dB, 2900-Hz tone). Infusions were followed by a 20s time-out period where active lever presses
118 did not elicit an infusion or cues. Inactive lever presses at any time did not result in drug infusions or
119 cues. Rats trained in 2h sessions for at least 6d, until they reached criteria (>20 infusions, <25%
120 variability) across 3d, before being tested on the BE paradigm. This schedule of cocaine self-
121 administration is not considered to promote the development of addiction-like behaviors (Ahmed and
122 Koob, 1998; James et al., 2019b; Zimmer et al., 2012).

123

124 *2.4.4 BE procedure and demand curve fitting*

125 Following self-administration training, rats were trained on a within-session behavioral economics
126 procedure to determine demand for cocaine (Bentzley et al., 2013). Using an FR1 schedule, rats
127 received access to decreasing doses of cocaine in successive 10min intervals on a quarter logarithmic
128 scale (383.5, 215.6, 121.3, 68.2, 38.3, 21.6, 12.1, 6.8, 3.8, 2.2 and 1.2 μ g/infusion) over a 110min session,

129 achieved by decreasing pump infusion duration (Bentzley et al., 2013). Each infusion was paired with a
130 light and tone cue and animals could not receive additional infusions by responding on the active lever
131 during this period. Rats were tested on the BE paradigm for a minimum of 6d and until the last 3d
132 generated alpha (α) and consumption (Q_0) values (described below) that were within $\pm 25\%$ of the mean
133 of those days (Bentzley et al., 2014). These mean values derived from the final 3d of BE testing were
134 used as our measure of baseline demand, which was tested for correlations with novelty reactivity.

135 An exponential demand equation was fit to each animals' data from every BE session (Bentzley
136 et al., 2013; Hursh and Silberberg, 2008) and two parameters were derived: Q_0 and α , where Q_0 refers to
137 cocaine consumption (mg) at null cost and α , represents demand elasticity, or rate of consumption
138 decline with increasing cost (inversely scaled with drug motivation and other addiction behaviors
139 (Bentzley et al., 2014; James et al., 2019a)).

140

141 *2.5 Experiment 2: Intermittent access self-administration paradigm*

142 We next sought to explore the extent to which the HR/LR model can predict an animals' propensity to
143 respond to the intermittent access (IntA) self-administration paradigm, which has been shown to
144 robustly promote enhanced addiction-like behaviors for cocaine (Algallal et al., 2019; James et al.,
145 2019b; Kawa et al., 2019b) and other drugs of abuse (Fragale et al., 2020). A subset of rats (n=21) from
146 *Experiment 1* was trained to self-administer cocaine on an intermittent access schedule for 14d (James
147 et al., 2019b; Zimmer et al., 2012). This subgroup was representative of all rats tested in Experiment 1
148 across all behavioral measures (see Results). In this paradigm, rats were given access to cocaine in
149 twelve 5min drug access periods separated by 25min-duration timeouts with no drug access, resulting in
150 a 6h session. Drug access periods were signaled by a 5s light and tone cue and a single priming injection
151 of cocaine (1s, 0.055mg) to prime the catheter line, before the levers were extended and the house light
152 was turned on. During this period, cocaine infusions (1s, 0.055mg) were elicited by responses on the
153 active lever (FR1 schedule) and were paired with a light and tone cue. There was no post-infusion
154 timeout period. Immediately following the 14d of IntA training, rats were re-tested on the behavioral
155 economics paradigm as above, for a minimum of 6d and until the α and Q_0 values were stable (<25%
156 variability) over the last 3 days.

157

158 *2.6 Data analysis*

159 All analyses were carried out using Prism Graphpad versions 6, 8 and 9. *Experiment 1*: For novel
160 locomotor reactivity and cocaine prime tests, data were analyzed using a 2 'phenotype' (HR, LR) x 24

161 'time' (5 min bins) mixed effects ANOVA. Baseline activity prior to cocaine prime injection was analyzed
162 using a separate 2 'phenotype' (HR, LR) x 6 'time' (5 min bins) mixed effects ANOVA. Data from the first
163 5d of self-administration training were compared using a 2 'phenotype' (HR v LR) x 2 'lever' (active,
164 inactive) x 5 'time' (days 1-5) mixed effects ANOVA (active and inactive lever data are presented on
165 different graphs for clarity). For all correlational analyses, Q_0 and α were normalized using log
166 transformation, and correlations were analyzed using Pearson's R regression. A computer error in a
167 subset of rats $n=7$ /group for both HRs and LRs meant that total locomotor activity across the 2h session
168 was calculated, but 5 min epoch data was not collected (as in Figures 1a/1b). One animal was excluded
169 due to its Q_0 value being identified as statistical outlier (>3 SDs beyond the group mean) and one animal
170 was excluded due to unexpected death. One HR animals' inactive lever data was excluded from day 4 of
171 self-administration training data analyses due to an abnormally high number of responses (>1400),
172 which was attributed to a mechanical error with the lever. *Experiment 2*: As with Experiment 1, HR and
173 LR groups were identified by tertile split. Changes in cocaine intake were calculated for each animal as
174 the difference between intake on d14 and d1. Post-IntA α and Q_0 values were converted to percentages
175 of pre-IntA values (post/pre x100); these values were tested for correlations with novelty-induced
176 locomotor scores. Changes in α and Q_0 values from pre- to post-IntA were compared across groups
177 using a 3 'phenotype' (HR, middle, LR) x 2 'time' (pre-IntA, post-IntA) ANOVA. For all repeated measures
178 ANOVAs, sphericity was tested using a Geisser-Greenhouse test and fractional degrees of freedom were
179 used to compute a p value when necessary. For other comparisons, normality of data was assessed
180 using a Shapiro-Wilk test; in one case where normality was violated (comparison of pre- vs. post-IntA α
181 values in Experiment 2), a non-parametric Mann-Whitney-U test was used. An $\alpha=0.05$ was adopted for
182 all statistical tests.

183

184 **3.0 Results**

185 3.1 Experiment 1:

186 *3.1.1 Locomotor reactivity to novelty*

187 Rats were first screened for sensation seeking by assessing locomotor reactivity to a novel
188 environment over 2h and were then divided into HRs and LRs based on a tertile split. Across the 2h test,
189 we observed a main effect of 'phenotype', such that locomotor activity was significantly greater in HR
190 rats compared to LR rats ($F_{1,1536}=180.3$, $p<0.0001$) (**Figure 1a**). There was also a 'phenotype' x 'time'
191 interaction ($F_{23,1536}=2.931$, $p<0.0001$) and post-hoc analyses revealed that HR rats exhibited significantly
192 higher activity at every time point in the first 50min of the test, as well as at 65min (Sidak's multiple

193 comparisons test, $p's < 0.05$). This group difference was also evident when locomotor activity was
194 summed into 30min bins ($F_{1,92} = 94.73$, $p < 0.0001$) (**Figure 1b**) and when locomotor activity was summed
195 across the entire 2h ($t_{75} = 16.46$, $p < 0.0001$) (**Figure 1c**).

196

197 *3.1.2 HR rats exhibit a greater locomotor response to non-contingent cocaine injections*

198 To determine the relationship between sensation seeking and cocaine-related behaviors, we
199 first compared the extent to which the HR/LR phenotype predicted locomotor reactivity to a non-
200 contingent cocaine injection in a 2h test. Analysis of the initial 30min baseline period prior to receiving
201 cocaine revealed a significant 'phenotype' x 'time' interaction ($F_{5,150} = 3.219$, $p = 0.0086$; **Figure 2a**),
202 although subsequent post-hoc comparisons failed to identify significant differences between HR and LR
203 rats at any time point ($p's > 0.05$). When comparing total activity during this baseline period, HRs
204 exhibited significantly greater activity compared to LRs ($t_{30} = 3.105$, $p = 0.0041$; data not shown) and this
205 activity was positively correlated with total activity during the novel locomotor reactivity task
206 ($R^2 = 0.1196$; $p = 0.01492$; data not shown), indicating that the HR trait was stable across days. Analysis of
207 activity following the cocaine priming injection revealed a significant 'phenotype' x 'time' interaction
208 ($F_{23,690} = 1.782$, $p = 0.0138$), however subsequent post-hoc analyses again failed to find significant
209 differences between groups at any time point ($p's > 0.05$). Notably however, there was a main effect of
210 'phenotype' ($F_{1,30} = 7.723$, $p = 0.0093$), indicating that HR rats exhibited higher overall cocaine-induced
211 locomotor activity across the 2h following the injection ($F_{2,78} = 5.156$; $p = 0.0079$). Similarly, when data
212 were summed into 30min bins, we observed a similar main effect of 'phenotype', such that HR rats
213 exhibited higher activity across the entire 2h duration of the test ($F_{1,30} = 7.748$; $p = 0.0092$; **Figure 2b**).
214 Across all animals, there was a significant positive correlation between locomotor reactivity to the novel
215 environment and total activity during the 2h cocaine prime test ($R^2 = 0.1540$; $p = 0.0053$; **Figure 2c**).

216

217 *3.1.3 HR rats have a higher preferred level of cocaine intake at low/null cost but do not differ from LR* 218 *rats in terms of demand elasticity for cocaine*

219 We next examined the relationship between sensation seeking and cocaine self-administration
220 behavior. We trained rats to self-administer cocaine on a simple FR1 schedule before testing them on a
221 BE procedure. Across the first 5d of self-administration training, there was a significant main effect of
222 'lever', indicating that rats made significantly more responses on the active versus inactive lever across
223 all days ($F_{1,77} = 51.82$, $p < 0.0001$; **Figures 3a and 3b**). However, there was no significant main effect of
224 'phenotype' ($F_{1,288} = 1.273$, $p = 0.2601$) or 'day' ($F_{2,58,198.7} = 1.967$, $p = 0.1293$), nor was there an interaction

225 between any factors (all p 's > 0.49). Thus, HR rats did not differ significantly from LR rats with respect to
226 the number of active or inactive lever responses made across the first 5d of self-administration training.
227 Although the number of cocaine infusions earned increased across the first 5d of self-administration
228 training significantly increased with time ('day' main effect: $F_{2,83,254.9}=7.059$, $p=0.0002$), there was no
229 'day' x 'phenotype' interaction ($F_{4,355}=0.9234$, $p=0.4503$) indicating that infusions were similar in HR vs
230 LR rats across the 5d (**Figure 3c**). We observed a significant positive correlation between locomotor
231 reactivity and the average number of cocaine infusions across the first five self-administration FR1
232 training sessions ($R^2=0.03461$, $p=0.04371$; **Figure 3d**). Consistent with a general relationship between
233 locomotor scores and cocaine intake, we observed a relationship between locomotor activity and Q_0
234 (preferred cocaine intake) on the BE test ($R^2=0.03357$; $p=0.04704$; **Figure 3e**). Correspondingly, HR rats
235 had significantly higher Q_0 values compared to LR rats ($t_{76}=2.335$; $p<0.05$; **Figure 3f**). In contrast,
236 locomotor reactivity was not predictive of rats' α values on the BE test ($R^2=0.01533$; $p=0.1817$; **Figure**
237 **3g**) and HR and LR rats did not differ overall on this index ($t_{76}=0.7849$; $p=0.4350$; **Figure 3h**).

238

239 3.2 Experiment 2:

240 *The HR trait confers susceptibility to state (IntA)-induced addiction*

241 Experiment 1 established that the HR/LR model predicts 'trait' cocaine intake but not addiction
242 behaviors *per se*. Here, we examined whether the HR trait confers a greater susceptibility to the state-
243 induced addiction phenotype that results from IntA. Rats selected to undergo IntA ($n=21$) were
244 statistically similar to the remaining 97 rats in terms of novelty-induced locomotor scores (mean \pm SEM:
245 12697 \pm 577cm vs. 14337 \pm 445cm, respectively; $p=0.1023$), cocaine-induced locomotor scores
246 (6093 \pm 599cm vs. 6204 \pm 280.8cm, respectively; $p=0.8637$), self-administration behavior across the first 5d
247 ('phenotype' main effects: active lever responses, $p=0.4143$; inactive lever responses, $p=0.4980$; cocaine
248 infusions, $p=0.4288$), and baseline demand values (α : 0.00373 \pm 0.00043 vs. 0.00405 \pm 0.00036,
249 respectively, $p=0.6871$; Q_0 : 0.5518 \pm 0.0208 vs. 0.5316 \pm 0.0172, respectively, $p=0.5966$). When examining
250 cocaine intake over the 14d of IntA, we observed a significant main effect of group, such that intake was
251 higher in HR rats compared to LR rats ($F_{1,12}=4.764$, $p=0.0497$; **Figure 4a**). Consistent with this, overall
252 cocaine intake across the 14d was higher in HR rats ($t_{12}=2.183$; $p=0.0497$; **Figure 4b**). Because a key
253 feature of the IntA phenotype is escalation across the 14d IntA period (James et al., 2019b; Kawa et al.,
254 2016), we next calculated the difference between cocaine intake on d14 vs. d1 for each animal. We
255 found that the extent to which animals escalated their intake was positively and significantly correlated

256 with their novelty-induced locomotor activity score ($R^2=2.018$; $p=0.0411$; **Figure 4c**). Consistent with
257 this, escalation of intake was higher in HR rats compared to LR rats ($t_{12}=2.345$; $p=0.0371$; **Figure 4d**).

258 When examining changes in demand elasticity (α) as a result of IntA, ANOVA revealed a
259 significant main effect of 'time', indicating that demand elasticity values were significantly lower
260 following IntA compared to pre-IntA across all phenotypes ($F_{1,18}=56.5$, $p<0.0001$; **Figure 4e**). There was
261 no main effect of 'phenotype' ($F_{2,18}=1.20$, $p=0.3241$) or 'phenotype' x 'time' interaction ($F_{2,18}=1.53$,
262 $p=0.2444$), indicating that demand elasticity values and their change as a result of IntA were similar
263 across all groups. When comparing post-IntA α values, HR rats tended to have lower values compared to
264 LR rats, but this failed to reach significance (Mann-Whitney U score=9, $p=0.053$; **Figure f**). There was a
265 significant correlation between locomotor scores and the extent to which IntA produced a decrease in α
266 ($R^2=0.2749$, $p=0.0147$; **Figure 4g**), such that HR rats exhibited significantly greater reductions in α
267 (increased motivation) compared to LR rats ($t_{12}=2.355$; $p=0.0364$; **Figure 4h**). IntA had no effect on Q_0
268 values (main effect 'time': $F_{1,18}=1.85$, $p=0.1908$; main effect 'phenotype': $F_{2,18}=1.41$, $p=0.2695$; 'time' x
269 'phenotype' interaction: $F_{2,18}=0.579$, $p=0.5708$; **Figure 4i**), nor was there a significant difference in post-
270 Q_0 values between HR and LR rats ($t_{12}=0.1167$, $p=0.9090$). Similarly, there was no relationship between
271 locomotor-reactivity to novelty and changes in Q_0 as a result of IntA ($p's>0.05$; **Figures 4k,l**)

272

273 **4.0 Discussion**

274 We report two key findings with respect to the sensation/novelty seeking model as a predictor
275 of addiction vulnerability. First, the sensation-seeking trait, as determined by locomotor reactivity to a
276 novel environment, was predictive of rats' sensitivity to cocaine, but not their motivation for cocaine.
277 HR rats exhibited higher locomotor responses to experimenter-administered cocaine and had a higher
278 preferred level of cocaine intake on a behavioral economics self-administration task, but they did not
279 differ in their willingness to work to defend their preferred level of cocaine intake on the BE task
280 (demand elasticity), a key index of drug motivation and other addiction-related indices. Second,
281 however, HR rats were more susceptible to the addiction-enhancing effects of IntA compared to LR rats,
282 such that they exhibited greater escalation of cocaine intake and proportionally greater reductions in
283 demand elasticity (increases in cocaine motivation). Thus, our data indicate that addiction susceptibility
284 in HR rats is only revealed by certain drug access conditions, pointing to a 'trait' x 'state' interaction in
285 the development of addiction.

286 It is established that locomotor reactivity to a novel environment predicts rats' behavioral
287 response to experimenter-administered cocaine (Hooks et al., 1991a, b). Here, we confirm that

288 compared to LR rats, HR rats exhibit significantly greater locomotor activity following a 10mg/kg cocaine
289 challenge. These differences have been linked with individual variability in the acquisition of cocaine
290 self-administration and consumption (Hooks et al., 1991a, b; Klebaur et al., 2001; Marinelli and White,
291 2000; Piazza et al., 1989), which is consistent with our observation of a positive correlation between
292 locomotor reactivity and the mean number of cocaine infusions earned in the first 5d of low-effort, FR1
293 cocaine self-administration training. However, this type of self-administration behavior is a poor
294 predictor of a rat's 'addiction' propensity (Quinn et al., 2018), and thus we next tested rats on a BE
295 schedule that parses an animal's preferred brain cocaine levels (Q_0) from its motivation to maintain that
296 level of intake (α ; demand elasticity). Consistent with the relationship observed for FR1 intake, we
297 observed a significant positive correlation between sensation seeking and Q_0 , such that Q_0 values were
298 significantly higher in HR rats. In rats, Q_0 is considered an index of the animal's 'hedonic set point' for
299 cocaine, or their preferred brain-cocaine concentrations (Bentzley et al., 2013). Similarly, when applied
300 to clinical populations, demand analyses indicate that Q_0 (also known as demand intensity) is a strong
301 predictor of 'real world' drug use and consumption (Bruner and Johnson, 2014; MacKillop and Murphy,
302 2007). However, the relationship between drug intake and 'addiction' propensity *per se* is less clear. For
303 example, rats classified as 'addiction-prone' based on the "three-criteria" cocaine addiction model do
304 not differ from 'addiction-resilient' rats in terms of overall drug intake (Belin and Deroche-Gamonet,
305 2012; Deroche-Gamonet et al., 2004; Quinn et al., 2018). In paradigms where rats self-administer
306 cocaine on a continuous access schedule for 6-12h/d, changes in motivation for drug are often modest
307 and transient (James et al., 2019b; Kippin et al., 2006; Knackstedt and Kalivas, 2007), despite a persistent
308 increase in preferred brain cocaine levels (Q_0) (James et al., 2019b). In contrast, several preclinical
309 studies now indicate that an animal's willingness to defend their preferred brain cocaine levels, as
310 reflected by demand elasticity (α), is more closely related to an animals' addiction propensity (Bentzley
311 et al., 2014; James et al., 2019a). Similarly, clinical studies indicate that demand elasticity, but not
312 demand intensity (Q_0), is predictive of treatment outcomes and likelihood of polydrug abuse (MacKillop
313 and Murphy, 2007; Morris et al., 2018). It is interesting, therefore, that in the present experiment
314 individual differences in sensation seeking were unrelated to variability in baseline demand elasticity (α).
315 Our findings align with several recent studies indicating that the HR/LR model is not a strong predictor of
316 'trait' addiction-like behaviors across multiple drugs of abuse (Augier et al., 2018) (Swain et al., 2018)
317 and addiction correlates (e.g. incentive salience attribution) (Hughson et al., 2019). Thus, the strength of
318 the HR model in predicting 'trait' drug behavior might not lie in its ability to predict addiction propensity
319 *per se*, but rather preferred drug consumption levels. It is worth noting however, that although

320 statistically significant, the relationship between locomotor reactivity and FR1 intake and Q_0 was weak
321 ($\sim R^2=0.03$ for both indices) and baseline Q_0 differences were not observed between HR and LR rats in
322 Experiment 2. Despite this, our data are consistent with many previous reports indicating that novelty
323 seeking is a reliable predictor of low-effort drug intake (Hooks et al., 1991a, b; Klebaur et al., 2001;
324 Marinelli and White, 2000; Piazza et al., 1989).

325 It is well-recognized that drug exposure itself is a predisposing factor for addiction (Ahmed,
326 2012). Although there has been a longstanding focus in preclinical studies on the amount of drug
327 consumed (Ahmed and Koob, 1998), recent evidence indicates that the pattern of drug intake might
328 play a more important role in determining the development of an addiction phenotype (Allain et al.,
329 2015). Here, we show that locomotor reactivity to a novel environment was predictive of two key
330 behaviors associated with the IntA schedule of cocaine self-administration. First, HR animals exhibited
331 higher overall intake across the 14d of IntA to cocaine – a finding consistent with higher baseline Q_0
332 values in these rats – and also exhibited a significantly greater escalation of intake across the IntA
333 period, compared to LR rats. Second, although a significant decrease in α values following IntA was
334 observed across all rats, proportionally this change was greatest in HR rats. It is unclear if these two
335 observations are causally linked, although it seems likely that the greater escalation of intake in HR rats
336 reflects a motivational shift rather than the development of tolerance (increased preferred brain
337 cocaine levels), as HR and LR rats did not differ in terms of post-IntA Q_0 values. It is also possible that
338 increased drug-cue pairings in HR rats during the IntA phase (resulting from a higher number of
339 infusions) might have subsequently affected motivated responding on the BE task, which is highly cue-
340 dependent (Bentzley and Aston-Jones, 2015). One limitation of our study is that we did not test the
341 expression of other addiction-relevant behaviors in HRs vs LRs. Thus, it is unclear whether the sensation-
342 seeking trait is limited to predicting changes in demand following IntA, or if it also has utility for
343 identifying rats at risk of developing other endophenotypes that reflect key diagnostic criteria for
344 substance use disorder. Interesting in this regard is a recent study which reported that rats that exhibit
345 the greatest escalation of cocaine intake over the course of IntA exhibit higher binge-like cocaine intake,
346 more robust locomotor sensitivity to cocaine, and higher levels of cued reinstatement (Garcia et al.,
347 2020). Moreover, we have previously reported that drug seeking during initial abstinence, reinstatement
348 propensity and withdrawal-associated emotional behavior are strongly correlated with post-IntA α
349 values (James et al., 2019a). Thus, it might be anticipated that HR animals might also exhibit bigger shifts
350 in the expression of several addiction endophenotypes compared to LR rats, however this will need to
351 be tested directly by future studies. Indeed, these studies will be critical for evaluating the HR/LR model

352 as an approach for predicting animals that are at-risk of transitioning to a multiphenotypic addiction-like
353 state after IntA. Future studies should also examine the possibility that HR rats have higher spontaneous
354 activity levels compared to LR rats; our analyses of inactive lever responding did not indicate significant
355 differences between groups, however homecage monitoring would provide a more robust estimate of
356 basal activity. These studies would thus determine the extent to which the higher activity observed here
357 can be attributed to exposure to a novel environment or a cocaine priming injection versus higher
358 overall basal activity, as well as any relationship between basal activity and addiction propensity
359 following IntA.

360 Our findings contrast to a previous study that failed to show a link between the HR/LR trait and
361 the expression of compulsive drug taking/seeking in rats following prolonged cocaine self-administration
362 (long access) (Belin et al., 2011), and may point to differing contributions of the HR phenotype in the
363 expression of addiction behaviors following continuous vs. intermittent cocaine self-administration.
364 Interesting in this regard is that Flagel et al. (2016) reported that bHR rats exhibit stronger addiction-like
365 behaviors compared to LR rats following prolonged daily access to cocaine in daily sessions that were
366 divided into cycling periods of drug availability (40min) and non-drug availability (20min); although
367 different to the IntA schedule used here, this schedule of access is likely to have produced spiking
368 patterns of brain-cocaine levels, and thus to some degree may reflect a trait (bHR) x state (IntA)
369 interaction (although note that Deroche-Gamonet et al. (2004) used a similar schedule and failed to find
370 a relationship between the HR trait and several addiction-like behaviors). Given recent interest in the
371 IntA model described here for its ability to induce a more persistent addiction-like endophenotypes in
372 rats compared to conventional extended access models (Kawa et al., 2019a), the HR/LR model might
373 serve as a useful and rapid behavioral screen to identify those rats most likely to exhibit state-
374 dependent (IntA) potentiation of addiction behaviors, allowing for examination of neural systems that
375 contribute to addiction vulnerability without the confound of cocaine exposure.

376 Indeed, the present findings raise important questions regarding the neurobiological link
377 between individual differences in sensation seeking and the related addiction behaviors identified here.
378 To date, the large majority of studies examining differences in brain reward function in HR vs LR rats
379 have focused on the mesolimbic dopamine system (Marinelli and White, 2000; Norbury and Husain,
380 2015; Salamone et al., 2018). Microdialysis studies indicate that under basal conditions, HR rats have
381 lower DA uptake and higher extracellular DA levels in nucleus accumbens (NAc) compared to LR rats
382 (Chefer et al., 2003). Following a priming injection of cocaine, all rats exhibit a significant increase in
383 extracellular DA levels in NAc, however the magnitude of this change is greatest in HR rats (Chefer et al.,

2003; Hooks et al., 1991b). Moreover, increased accumbal DA release and uptake in NAc is observed following IntA to cocaine (Calipari et al., 2013; Kawa et al., 2019b), and pharmacological blockade of DA signaling in NAc reduces cocaine seeking following IntA (Singer et al., 2018). Thus, higher cocaine-evoked DA release in HR rats might promote higher initial intake in these rats, resulting in the development of cocaine tolerance and increased preferred brain-cocaine levels (Q_0), as observed here. Curiously however, increased DA signaling has been shown to increase motivation on BE, progressive ratio and several other effort-related tasks (Mahler et al., 2019; Salamone et al., 2018), and thus higher DA signaling in HR rats might be expected to also result in higher baseline motivation for cocaine – which we did not observe. Alternatively, other neural systems might be involved in driving the enhanced motivational profile in HR rats. The orexin system is a promising candidate, as orexin neurons are increased in number and reactivity following IntA to both cocaine and opioids, and normalization of orexin system signaling selectively reduces drug motivation (but not intake at low cost) in IntA rats (Fragale et al., 2020; James et al., 2019a; James et al., 2019b). Notably, rats with higher motivation (lower α values) for cocaine following IntA or a history of polysubstance use are most susceptible to the anti-addiction properties of an orexin-1 receptor antagonist (James et al., 2019a; James et al., 2021), indicating that the HR trait might have utility in identifying individuals most likely to benefit from these forms of therapeutics, which are currently being investigated for clinical use (James and Aston-Jones, 2020; James et al., 2020; Suchting et al., 2019). Attention should also be given to exploring whether HR and LR rats differ in terms of cocaine reactivity in corticolimbic circuits which was recently linked with the expression of the IntA phenotype (James, 2020; Minogianis and Samaha, 2020).

In conclusion, behavioral economic analyses of cocaine demand revealed that the HR/LR sensation-seeking trait is predictive of rats' preferred brain cocaine levels but not their baseline willingness to expend effort to defend those levels, which is more closely related to addiction severity. In contrast, the sensation-seeking trait was highly predictive of individual differences in propensity to exhibit state-dependent addiction behaviors, such that HR rats exhibit lower post-IntA demand elasticity (higher motivation) for cocaine, a phenotype closely associated with several addiction indices. Together these findings indicate that the utility of the HR/LR model of sensation seeking may be to identify individuals most at risk of developing addiction after certain patterns of drug consumption.

412

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414 **Author contributions:** GAJ and MHJ conceived the work. SOC and MHJ acquired and analyzed the data.

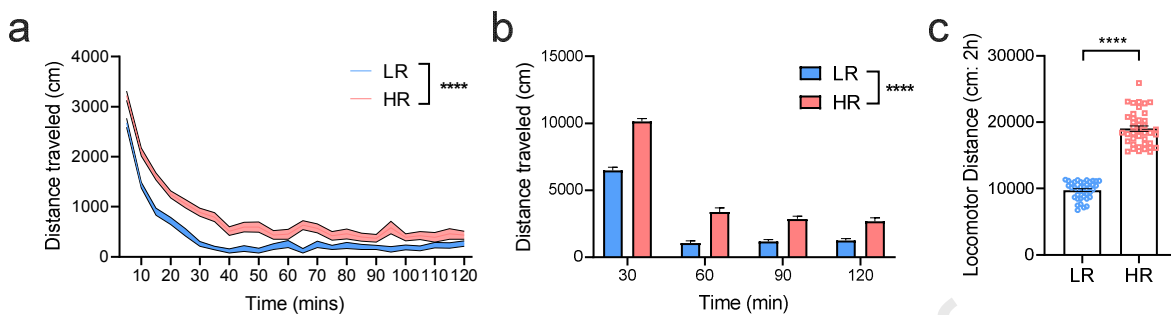
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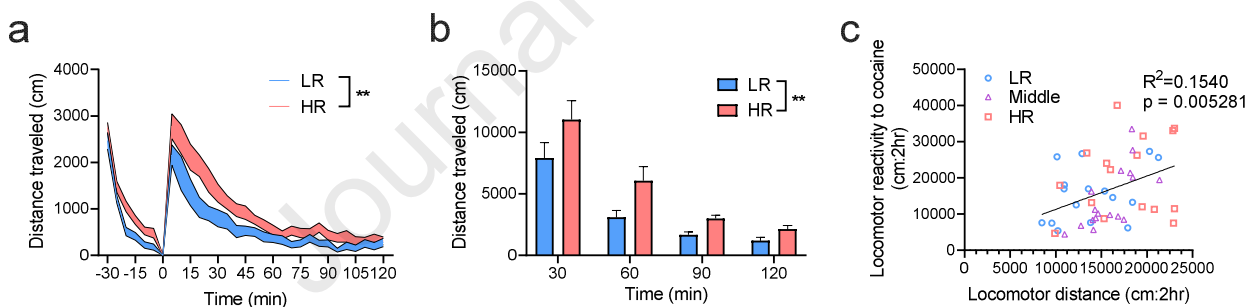
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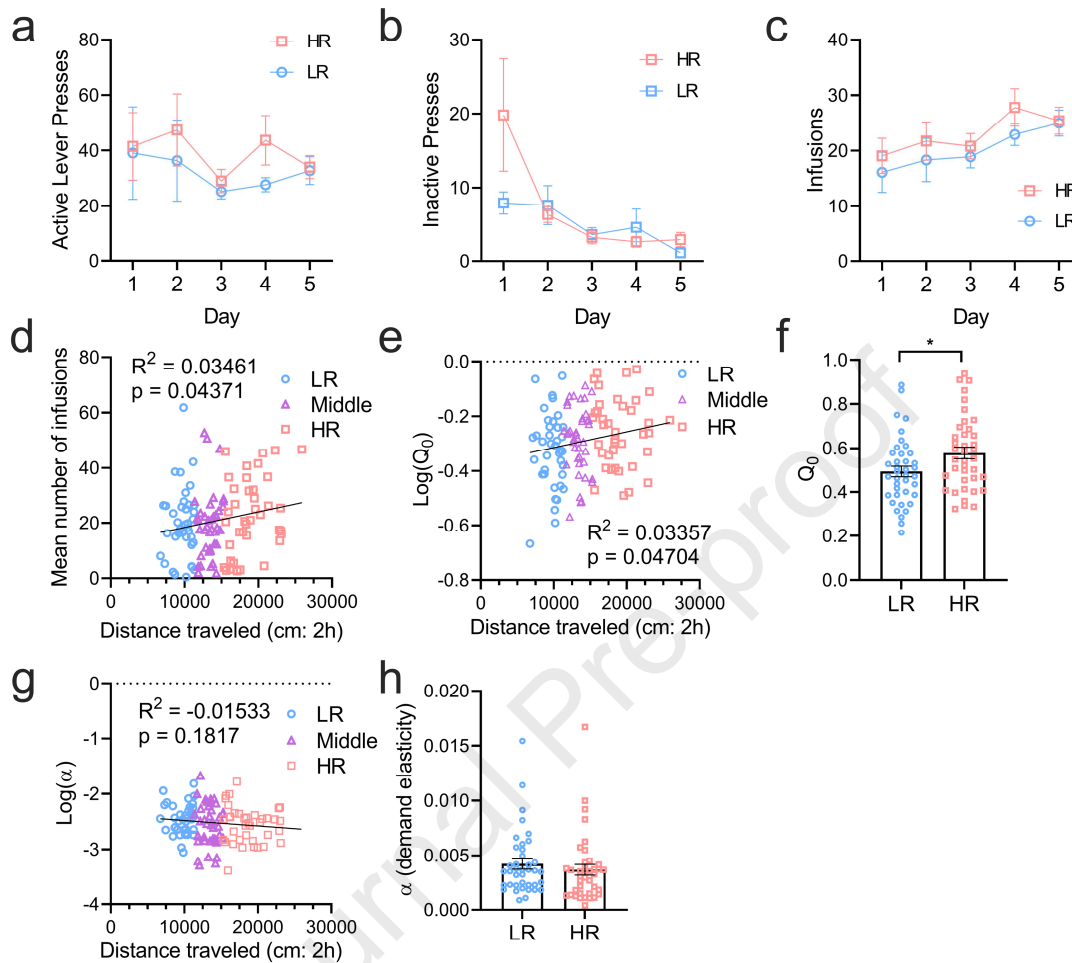
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428 **Figures**

429
 430 **Figure 1. Classification of rats by novelty-induced locomotor activity.** a) Two-hour time course of
 431 locomotor activity in high (HR) and low responding rats (LR). Classification of rats as HRs or LR
 432 was based on the group tertile split of total locomotor activity across the 2h test. In addition to a main effect
 433 of 'phenotype', indicating higher overall activity in HR rats, there was a 'phenotype' x 'time' interaction
 434 with HR rats differing significantly from LR rats in the initial 50 mins of the test (see Results for details).
 435 b) Differences in locomotor activity between HRs and LR were sustained for the duration of the
 436 novelty-induced locomotor test session. c) When locomotor activity was summed across the 2h test, HRs
 437 exhibited higher overall activity compared to LR. (n=39/group). ****P<0.0001. Bar charts depict mean
 438 \pm SEM.
 439



440
 441 **Figure 2. HR rats exhibit greater locomotor reactivity to acute cocaine.** a) Time course of locomotor
 442 activity in HRs and LR before and after a single injection of cocaine (10mg/kg, i.p.) at time 0 min. b)
 443 When locomotor reactivity to cocaine was collapsed into 30 min bins, HRs showed a greater activity
 444 across all compared to LR timepoints (main effect of 'phenotype'). c) Locomotor reactivity to novelty
 445 predicts total locomotor reactivity in the 2h following cocaine priming injection. **p<0.01. Bar chart
 446 depicts mean \pm SEM. HR: n=16; LR: n=16.
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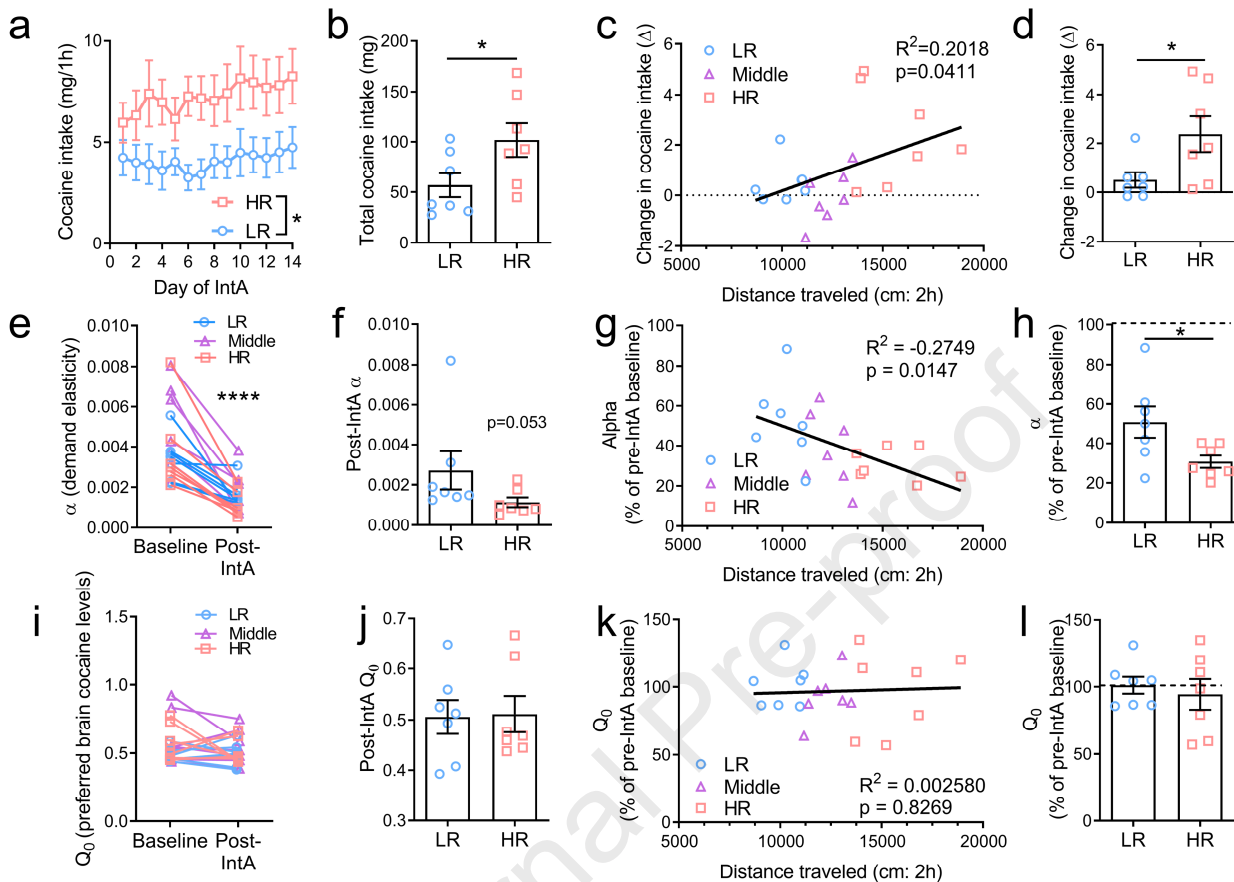
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Figure 3. HR rats exhibit higher levels of low-cost cocaine consumption. HR and LR rats did not differ on the number of active (a) or inactive lever (b) responses, nor the number of cocaine infusions earned (c) over the first 5 FR1 self-administration training sessions. d) Locomotor reactivity to a novel environment was positively correlated with the mean number of infusions during the first 5 FR1 self-administration training sessions. e) Locomotor reactivity to a novel environment is positively correlated with Q_0 values (estimated cocaine intake at null cost) on a behavioral economics test. f) HR rats have higher Q_0 values compared to LRs. g) There was no relationship between locomotor reactivity and demand elasticity (α) on the behavioral economics task. h) HR and LR rats did not differ in terms of baseline α values. * $p < 0.05$. Bar charts depict mean \pm SEM. $n = 39/\text{group}$, except in panels a-c where one HR rat's data are not displayed due to mechanical issues during a self-administration session across the first 5d of training.

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467 **Figure 4. HR animals are more susceptible to the addiction-promoting effects of the intermittent**
 468 **access procedure. a)** HR rats exhibited significantly higher overall cocaine intake across the 14d
 469 to cocaine. **b)** Cumulative cocaine intake across the 14d of IntA was significantly higher in HR rats
 470 compared to LR rats. **c)** Change in cocaine intake across the 14d of IntA (Δ d14-d1) was positively
 471 correlated with locomotor reactivity to novelty. **d)** HR rats exhibited a higher change in cocaine intake
 472 (escalation) across the IntA period compared to LR rats (D14 intake – D1 intake). **e)** Across all rats,
 473 there was α values were significantly lower (increased cocaine motivation) following IntA compared to
 474 baseline (pre-IntA). **f)** Post-IntA α values tended to be lower (reflecting higher motivation) in HR rats,
 475 compared to LR rats. **g)** Post-IntA α values, calculated as percentage of baseline α values, were
 476 negatively correlated with locomotor reactivity to novelty, indicating that the biggest reductions in α
 477 values were in those rats with higher locomotor scores. **h)** Post-IntA α values, as a percentage of
 478 baseline values, were significantly lower in HR rats compared to LR rats. **i)** Across all rats, IntA was not
 479 associated with a change in Q_0 values (preferred brain-cocaine levels). **j)** Post-IntA Q_0 values were similar
 480 between HR and LR rats. **k)** There was no relationship between IntA-induced changes in Q_0 and
 481 locomotor reactivity to novelty. **l)** HR and LR rats did not differ in the extent to which IntA produced
 482 changes in Q_0 values. * $p<0.05$, **** $p<0.0001$. HR, $n=7$; middle, $n=7$; LR, $n=7$. Bar charts depict mean \pm
 483 S.E.M.

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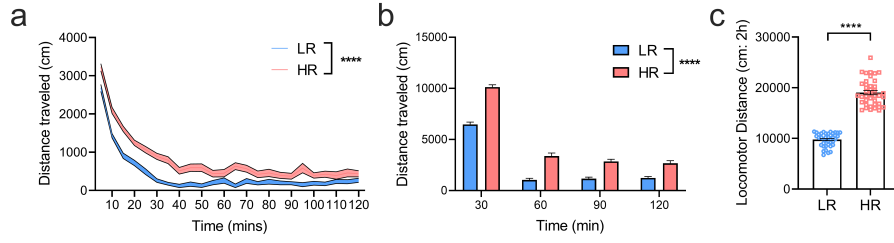
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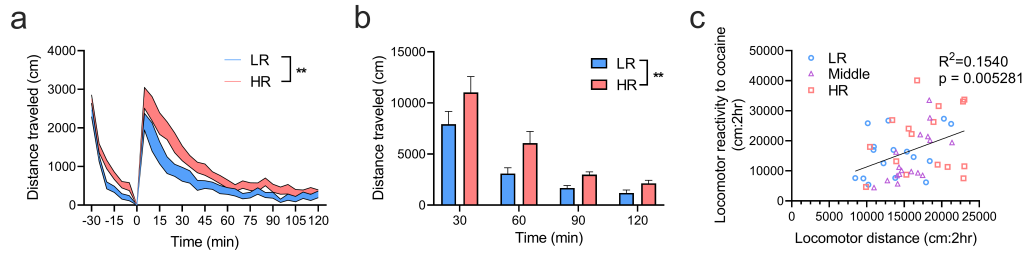
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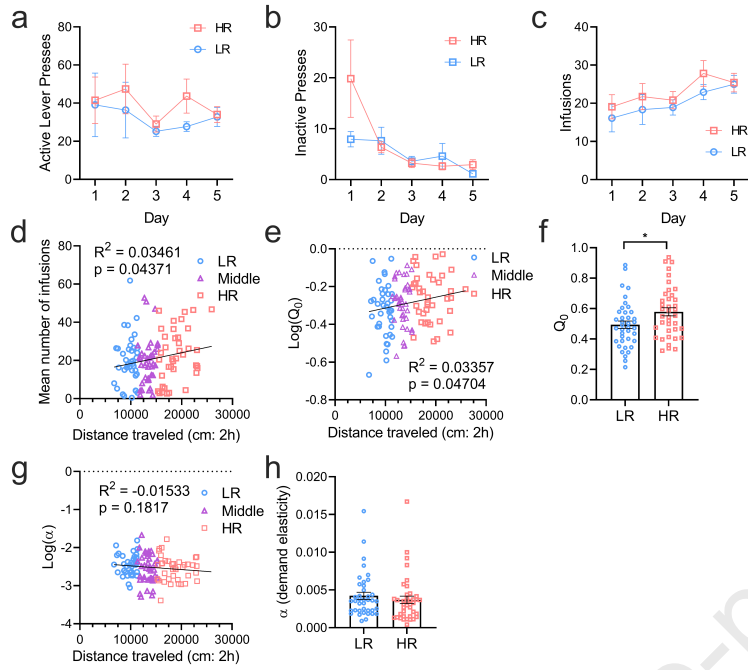
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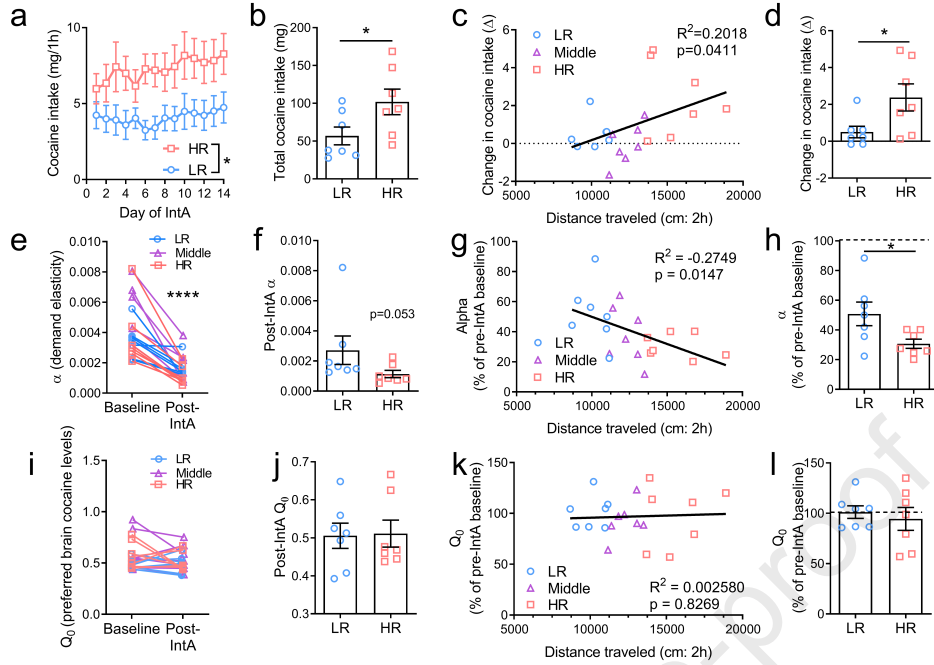
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- High locomotor responsivity (HR) to a novel environment is an index of sensation seeking
- Limited cocaine access reveals higher null-cost cocaine demand in HR rats but no difference in elasticity
- Intermittent access (IntA) to cocaine reveals greater propensity to escalate intake in HR rats
- HR rats also exhibit greater reductions in cocaine demand elasticity after IntA
- These data point to a trait (HR) x state (IntA) interaction in the development of addiction

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