Intergenerational implications of alcohol intake: metabolic disorders in alcohol-naïve rat offspring

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Alcohol drinking may be associated with an increased risk of various metabolic diseases. Rat lines selectively bred for alcohol preference and alcohol avoidance constitute an interesting model to study inherited factors related to alcohol drinking and metabolic disorders. The aim of the present study was to compare the levels of selected laboratory biomarkers of metabolic disorders in blood samples from naïve offspring of Warsaw alcohol high-preferring (WHP), Warsaw alcohol low-preferring (WLP), and wild Wistar rats. Blood samples were collected from 3-month old (300-350 g) alcohol-naïve, male offspring of WHP (n=8) and WLP rats (n=8), as well as alcohol-naïve, male, wild Wistar rats. Markers of metabolic, hepatic, and pancreatic disorders were analysed (levels of homocysteine, glucose, total cholesterol, triglycerides and γ-glutamyl transferase (GGT), aspartate (AST), alanine aminotransferase (ALT), and amylase serum activities). Alcohol-naïve offspring of WHP, WLP, and wild Wistar rats differed significantly in the levels of triglycerides, total cholesterol, homocysteine, as well as in the activity of GGT, ALT, AST, and amylase enzymes. Most markers in the alcohol-naïve offspring of WHP rats were altered even thought they were never exposed to alcohol pre- or postnatally. This may suggest that parental alcohol abuse can have a detrimental influence on offspring vulnerability to metabolic disorders.

1 **Intergenerational implications of alcohol intake: metabolic disorders in**

2 **alcohol-naïve rat offspring**

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23 **Abstract**

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25 lines selectively bred for alcohol preference and alcohol avoidance constitute an interesting

26 model to study inherited factors related to alcohol drinking and metabolic disorders. The aim of

27 the present study was to compare the levels of selected laboratory biomarkers of metabolic

28 disorders in blood samples from naïve offspring of Warsaw alcohol high-preferring (WHP),

29 Warsaw alcohol low-preferring (WLP), and wild Wistar rats. Blood samples were collected from

30 3-month old (300-350 g) alcohol-naïve, male offspring of WHP (n=8) and WLP rats (n=8), as

31 well as alcohol-naïve, male, wild Wistar rats. Markers of metabolic, hepatic, and pancreatic

32 disorders were analysed (levels of homocysteine, glucose, total cholesterol, triglycerides and γ-

33 glutamyl transferase (GGT), aspartate (AST), alanine aminotransferase (ALT), and amylase

34 serum activities). Alcohol-naïve offspring of WHP, WLP, and wild Wistar rats differed

35 significantly in the levels of triglycerides, total cholesterol, homocysteine, as well as in the

36 activity of GGT, ALT, AST, and amylase enzymes. Most markers in the alcohol-naïve offspring

37 of WHP rats were altered even thought they were never exposed to alcohol pre- or postnatally.

38 This may suggest that parental alcohol abuse can have a detrimental influence on offspring

39 vulnerability to metabolic disorders.

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Introduction

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47   Heavy alcohol drinking can lead to serious health problems, including cardiovascular

48   diseases (CVD) and liver cirrhosis [1-3]. In numerous studies, heavy alcohol drinking was linked

49   to both an increased risk of CVD and metabolic syndrome, leading to the hypothesis that

50   alcohol-induced metabolic disorders could stand behind the relationship between excessive

51   alcohol consumption and CVD [4-6]. The above-mentioned associations may be related to

52   environmental as well as genetic factors. Twin, family, and adoption studies have consistently

53   shown that genetic factors play an important role in the development of alcohol dependence [7-

54   9]. Genetic loading is also an important risk factor for dyslipidaemia, diabetes, and metabolic

55   syndrome [10-12]. Hence, one may hypothesise that excessive alcohol consumption and

56   metabolic abnormalities are related to the same genetic mechanism(s).

57   Prenatal alcohol consumption has been shown to interfere with the development of

58   multiple organs and systems, resulting in Foetal Alcohol Spectrum Disorders (FASD) [13].

59   Epidemiological studies have revealed that alcohol is the most common teratogen to which

60   humans are exposed. It was estimated that 8 children per 1,000 live births are diagnosed with

61   some degree of FASD [14]. This condition is characterised by a spectrum of structural defects,

62   central nervous system disorders, as well as growth deficits, and metabolic disorders [15,16].

63   Although it is perceived as a childhood disorder, the majority of health problems, including

64   growth restriction, hyperinsulinemia, and other metabolic disruptions are lifelong, persisting into

65   adulthood [17,18].

66   Apart from this well-known unfavourable effect on the foetus, recent studies on rats have

67   highlighted the possible negative impact on offspring of maternal alcohol exposure also around

68   the time of conception. Several lines of evidence have suggested that periconceptional alcohol

69   use may have a negative impact on adult offspring, including increased obesity risk, altered

70   plasma lipids, leptin profiles, and liver steatosis [19]. Furthermore, the study of Dorey et al.

71   (2018) [20] revealed a greater risk of obesity in the offspring of females exposed to alcohol

72   around the time of conception. It was associated with the altered expression of key components

73   of the mesolimbic reward pathway and an increased preference for palatable foods in offspring.

74   However, apart from reports on maternal alcohol use during pregnancy or in the

75   periconceptional period, studies on paternal preconception alcohol exposure on offspring also

76   provide interesting findings. Paternal alcohol intake during the preconception period induces a

77   spectrum of health problems and alters gene expression in rodent offspring [21-24]. The results

78   of the study of Kim et al. (2014) [25] suggest that the preconceptional exposure to ethanol of

79   male mice before mating induces ADHD-like behaviours in offspring, possibly via epigenetic

80   changes in gene expression. Asimes et al. (2017) [26] demonstrated that adolescent binge ethanol

81   exposure altered DNA methylation patterns in the hypothalamus of alcohol-naïve offspring. In

82   another study examining parental binge alcohol abuse, differences in the expression of genes

83   involved in neurogenesis, reproductive function, and regulation of obesity were observed in

84   offspring [27]. Also, the studies of Chang et al. (2019a, 2019b) [28,29] using a mouse model of

85   paternal alcohol exposure have identified the markers of hepatic fibrosis and abnormalities in

86   both lipid production and insulin signaling in the offspring of alcohol-exposed sires. The

87   aforementioned studies raise the possibility that alcohol affects naïve offspring even in the

88   absence of direct foetal alcohol exposure, and epigenetic inheritance may be the mechanism

89   responsible for this phenomenon.

90   In light of the metabolic changes associated with alcohol consumption, whether common

91   metabolic markers differ in alcohol-naïve offspring of high- and low-preferring rats is of interest.

92   Rat lines selectively bred for alcohol preference and alcohol avoidance constitute an interesting

93   model to study the inherited factors related to alcohol drinking and metabolic disorders. The

94   breeding of rats was carried out as previously described by Rok-Bujko et al. (2006) [30].

95   Specifically, Warsaw high-preferring (WHP) and Warsaw low-preferring (WLP) rats were bred

96   from Wistar rats for opposite ethanol preference [30,31]. When given a choice between water

97   and 10% ethanol, WHP rats voluntarily drink excessive amounts of ethanol (>5.0 g/kg/24 h),

98   while WLP rats drink marginal quantities of ethanol [31].

99   The aim of the present study was to compare the common markers reflecting

100 cardiovascular, liver, and pancreatic function in alcohol-naïve offspring of WHP, WLP, and

101 Wistar rats: the levels of homocysteine, glucose, total cholesterol, triglycerides, γ-glutamyl

102 transferase (GGT), aspartate aminotransferase (AST), alanine aminotransferase (ALT), and

103 amylase serum activities. We hypothesise that markers of cardiovascular, liver, and pancreatic

104 function differ between alcohol-naïve offspring of WHP, WLP, and Wistar rats.

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Materials and methods

Rats and experimental design

111   Twenty-four (8 per group), twelve-week-old, alcohol-naïve Warsaw high-preferring

112 (WHP), alcohol-naïve Warsaw low-preferring (WLP) rats, and male albino Wistar rats (Charles

113 River, Sulzfeld, Germany) were used for the study. The WLP and WHP rats were obtained from

114   the Department of Pharmacology and Physiology of the Nervous System at the Institute of

115   Psychiatry and Neurology in Warsaw, Poland.

116   During the selection, which is a standardized procedure repeated in every generation,

117   WHP and WLP rats were exposed to alcohol for 30 days, after reaching a weight of 250 g. In

118   males, this occurs at around 60 days of age. When given a choice between water and 10%

119   ethanol, WHP rats voluntarily drank excessive amounts of ethanol (>5.0 g/kg/24 h), while WLP

120   rats consumed negligible quantities of ethanol [31]. Periods of binge drinking are observed only

121   in WHP rats. In this study, all parents of examined offspring were previously subject to a

122   standardized selection procedure. After a 30-day period of alcohol exposure, they were mated 24

123   hours after the last ethanol consumption and subsequent offspring were produced. The parents

124   were not intoxicated at the time of mating and were not exposed to alcohol at any time during

125   pregnancy, thus, the analysed offspring were never directly exposed to alcohol. Two rats per

126   litter were used (4 litters in total for each group).

127   All the rats were housed in the same environmental conditions and handled by the same

128   experimenters for at least 30 days before blood sampling. The environmental conditions were as

129   previously described in the study of Zakrzewska et al. (2019) [32]. Specifically, the rats were

130   housed in standard plastic cages, in groups of three, with wood chip bedding on the floor, in fully

131   controlled environmental conditions: temperature 22±2 °C, humidity 50 %±5, and 12-hour

132   light/12-hour dark cycles with lights on at 8.00 a.m. All the rats had unlimited access to tap water

133   and standard laboratory chow (Labofeed H, WPIK, Kcynia, Poland) throughout the duration of

134   the study.

135   The offspring of all rat lines were weighed at 21, 60, and 90 days of age. There were no

136   differences in body weight between the tested rat lines at any stage of their development or their

137 food intake (both F<1.0, p>0.05). In the last measurement at 90 days of age (at the time of

138 sampling) the offspring of WHP, WLP, and Wistar rats weighed 345 g (±27.6), 338 g (±30.5)

139 and 341 g (±25.8), respectively.

140 Blood samples were obtained from 3-month-old (average of 300-350 g) drug- and

141 alcohol-naïve male offspring of WHP (n=8) and WLP rats (n=8). Non-selected 3-month-old,

142 drug- and alcohol-naïve male Wistar rats (Charles River, Sulzfeld, Germany; 300-350 g; n=8)

143 were used as additional controls. The rats were deprived of food for 12 h overnight and were

144 sacrificed by rapid decapitation with a guillotine designed for rodents. Trunk blood was collected

145 into a tube immediately after decapitation. Serum was obtained after centrifugation at 1600 g for

146 15 minutes. The serum was collected into a plain tube and stored at -80°C until the analysis. No

147 haemolysis was observed in any collected sample.

148 The Ethics Committee for Animal Care provided its consent for the study (Agreement no.

149 10/2010). The study was performed in full compliance with respective Polish and European

150 ethical regulations (Directive No. 86/609/EEC).

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152 **Biochemical analysis**

153 The activities of AST, ALT, GGT, and amylase, as well as the levels of glucose, total

154 cholesterol, and triglycerides were measured in the serum using automated enzymatic

155 colorimetric methods (Cobas Integra, Roche Diagnostics, Rotkreuz, Switzerland). Serum

156 homocysteine determination was carried out using fully automated chemiluminescence assay

157 (ADVIA Centaur, Siemens Healthcare Diagnostics, Erlangen, Germany). The assays were

158 performed in accordance with the manufacturers' instructions in the analytical laboratory of the

159 Institute of Psychiatry and Neurology in Warsaw.

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161 **Statistical analysis**

162   A one-way ANOVA was used to evaluate between-group differences in the biochemical

163 measures. The Newman-Keuls test was applied for post hoc comparisons. The normality of

164 distribution of the tested variables was verified using the Shapiro-Wilk test. For two tested

165 variables: ALT and triglycerides, the distribution could not be considered as normal. For the

166 analysis of these parameters, the Kruskal-Wallis test was applied, while Dunn's multiple

167 comparisons test was used for post hoc comparisons. P-values of less than 0.05 were considered

168 significant. The study was exploratory in nature, thus, no correction for multiple comparisons

169 was applied. The Statistica 12.0 software package (StatSoft, Inc., Tulsa, OK, USA) was used to

170 analyse all the data.

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175 # Results

176   The one-way ANOVA revealed that the offspring of WHP, WLP, and Wistar rats

177 differed significantly in the following laboratory parameters: homocysteine ($F_{(2, 21)}$=9.65,

178 p=0.001), total cholesterol ($F_{(2, 21)}$=44.63, p<0.001), AST ($F_{(2, 21)}$=6.74, p=0.005), amylase

179 ($F_{(2, 21)}$=14.30, p<0.001), and GGT ($F_{(2, 21)}$=135.87, p<0.001) (Table 1). There were no

180 differences in blood glucose levels ($F_{(2, 21)}$ = 0.86, p=0.437).

181
182 [Table 1]

183   The post hoc Newman-Keuls comparisons indicated that the alcohol-naïve offspring of

184   WHP rats had significantly higher levels of total cholesterol and homocysteine, as well as

185   significantly higher AST and amylase activity as compared to the alcohol-naïve WLP and the

186   Wistar controls. The offspring of WHP rats had a significantly higher level of homocysteine as

187   compared to the offspring of WLP rats, but not the Wistar rats. Surprisingly, the offspring of

188   WHP subjects showed significantly lower GGT activity as compared to the WLP and the Wistar

189   rats.

190   Regarding ALT as well as triglycerides, the Kruskal-Wallis test revealed a highly

191   significant difference between the tested groups: (H(2)=17.6, p<0.001, (H(2)=20.2, p<0.001,

192   respectively. Post hoc comparisons for these markers revealed significant differences between

193   WHP and Wistar rats (both p<0.001) for both markers, as well as between WHP and WLP rats

194   (p=0.04, p=<0.001, for ALT and triglycerides, respectively).

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196

197   **Discussion**

198   This is the first study to show changes in selected biochemical markers of metabolic

199   disorders in naïve Wistar rats selected for high alcohol preference (WHP rats). A major finding

200   of the present study is that the alcohol-naïve offspring of WHP rats have significantly higher

201   blood levels of total cholesterol, triglycerides, and homocysteine than their WLP counterparts

202   and wild Wistar rats. Some differences were also observed in the markers of hepatic and

203   pancreatic function between alcohol-naïve offspring of WHP, WLP, and Wistar rats (ALT, AST,

204   and amylase were increased, whereas GGT activity was decreased in WHPs).

205   Interestingly, our previous study showed an increased level of leptin—a risk factor for

206   obesity and hypertension— in alcohol-naïve WHP rats as compared to alcohol-naïve WLP rats

207   [33]. Although leptin is involved in lipid metabolism [34], the exact mechanism of the above

208   observation in alcohol-naïve WHP rats remains unclear. In other studies, chronic alcohol

209   exposure in rodents was shown to reduce the serum level of leptin [35]. Furthermore, leptin

210   deficiency was associated with the development of fatty liver in mice [36].

211   A high level of total cholesterol or triglycerides is associated with an increased risk of

212   atherosclerosis, myocardial infarction, and stroke [37-39]. Elevated levels of homocysteine are

213   thought to facilitate the development of atherosclerosis and are considered a risk factor for

214   coronary disease and stroke [40-41]. Several studies have shown a positive correlation between

215   the amount of alcohol consumption and the blood homocysteine level [42-43]. It has also been

216   shown that active drinking and early abstinent alcoholics have a higher level of homocysteine in

217   the serum as compared to the general population [44-45]. There are also some epidemiological

218   analyses showing a link between familial alcoholism and obesity among men and women [46].

219   There are many hypotheses aimed at explaining the increased risk of metabolic diseases

220   in alcoholics. Our study indicates that some inherited factors (genetic, epigenetic) may play a

221   role. These factors transmitted from alcoholic parents to their offspring could, at least partially,

222   be responsible for the increased risk of metabolic disorders. A few studies have attempted to

223   identify the genes responsible for the differences in alcohol preference among the naïve offspring

224   of high- and low-preferring rats [47-49]. One such study indicated that alcohol preference may

225   share some genetic factors with the cardiovascular system and metabolism [49], however, this

226   study failed to identify any gene differences between high- and low-preferring rats. Thus, it does

227   not support the hypothesis that the observed phenotypic differences are gene related. One can

228   hypothesise that other factors, for example, the epigenetic mechanism, may have a dominant role

229   in the observed phenomenon. Many reports in the literature have indicated that environmental

230   factors can have long-term effects on gene expression through epigenetic mechanisms [50].

231   Epigenetics refers to mechanisms that modify gene expression without any changes in the DNA

232   sequence. Recent evidence suggests that epigenetic modifications can be carried to the offspring

233   via the germline and are responsible for the transmission of alcohol-related disorders across

234   generations [51-52]. Interestingly, there are studies showing the association of parental alcohol

235   intake with subsequent changes in gene expression in naïve offspring [24-26], as well as with

236   changes in lipid metabolism [27]. Moreover, Pennington et al. (2002) [53] showed that maternal

237   preconceptional alcohol intake may be associated with hypertriglyceridemia in adult offspring

238   who have never been exposed to alcohol. Paternally inherited alterations in epigenetic

239   programming were also shown to be related to metabolic defects observed in foetal alcohol

240   spectrum disorders. In rodents, chronic paternal alcohol use affected insulin signaling and lipid

241   homeostasis in the offspring through paternally inherited alterations in liver x receptor activity

242   [28]. Similar findings were reported by Chang et al. (2019b) [29], assessing long-term impacts of

243   chronic preconception paternal alcohol use in mice. Evidence of metabolic programming in

244   offspring included suppressed cytokine profiles within the liver and pancreas, consistent with

245   findings from this study.

246   In our study, most of the tested hepatic biomarkers in the alcohol-naïve offspring of WHP

247   rats had changed similarly to the heavy alcohol abusers. Surprisingly, the serum activity of the

248   most specific alcohol-related biomarker, GGT, was decreased as compared to the WLP

249   counterparts and the Wistar controls. These contrary results are difficult to explain. GGT, unlike

250   AST and ALT, is located on the external surface of cellular membranes. Chronic alcohol use is

251 considered to induce membrane GGT solubilization and increase the release of the enzyme, thus,

252 the mechanism of release of given liver enzymes is related to the degree of cell damage. One can

253 also hypothesise that different epigenetic mechanisms regulate the activity of these enzymes [54]

254 and one of the possible mechanisms could be linked to the changes in cellular membrane

255 properties. Nevertheless, the mechanism responsible for this is yet to be discovered.

256   The results of this study should be interpreted in light of certain limitations. WHP and

257 WLP line breeding involves the process of selecting rats in each generation through exposure to

258 alcohol. Therefore, the design of the study could not include a control group of the offspring of

259 WHP unexposed rats and, similarly, for this reason distinguishing between the paternal and

260 maternal effects was also unfeasible as both males and females were required to be exposed to

261 alcohol. Also, due to ethical concerns, we were only able to include a limited number of rats per

262 group, thus, only male offspring were examined. However, there are sex-specific effects on

263 offspring growth and long-term metabolic programming [29], thus, comparable studies on

264 female offspring are warranted.

265   It should be emphasized that although the offspring were not directly exposed to alcohol,

266 the last estrogenic cycle for females, as well as spermatogenesis in males, were exposed to

267 alcohol. Thus, it cannot be excluded that periconceptional exposure could have an impact on

268 gametes and affect, for example, oocyte maturation [55-57]. Similarly, this may influence the

269 perinatal behaviours of parents and food intake in such a way that it may have indirect effects on

270 metabolism. It has been shown, for example, that exposure to alcohol three weeks before

271 conception affects the birth weight and body growth of offspring [23]. In our study, however, we

272 failed to observe any differences in weight gain between the examined rat lines.

273 **Conclusions**

274   In conclusion, the present study revealed that the alcohol-naïve offspring of high alcohol

275 preference rats differed significantly from their low alcohol preference counterparts and wild

276 Wistar rats in terms of common markers reflecting cardiovascular, liver, and pancreatic

277 disorders. To our knowledge, this is the first study showing the differences in selected

278 biochemical markers of metabolic disorders in high- and low-preferring rats. One can

279 hypothesise that these changes are associated with epigenetic changes at the level of the gametes

280 and/or with the genetically inherited phenotype. Either way, this study suggests that parental

281 alcohol abuse can have a detrimental influence on offspring vulnerability to metabolic disorders.

282   Given the detrimental influence of excessive alcohol consumption and metabolic

283 disorders on individuals and societies, the present findings should be verified in further

284 preclinical and clinical studies.

285

286 # Acknowledgments

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288

289 # References

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Biochemical characteristics of the alcohol-naïve offspring of WHP, WLP and alcohol-naïve wild Wistar rats.

*offspring of WHP rats vs offspring of WLP rats; # offspring of WHP rats vs Wistar rats;

†offspring of WLP rats vs Wistar rats; values represent mean (SD); p-value from Newman-Keuls test or Dunn's test (for ALT and triglycerides)

1 **Table 1.** Biochemical characteristics of the alcohol-naïve offspring of WHP, WLP and alcohol-

2 naïve wild Wistar rats.

Parameters	WHP (n=8)	WLP (n=8)	Wistar (n=8)	P-value
Homocysteine (μmol/L)	7.48 (1.37)*#	4.77 (1.55)	6.57 (0.68)	*p<0.001; #p=0.009
Glucose (mg/dL)	143.5 (13.55)	149.83 (12.11)	143.16 (8.03)	all p>0.05
Total cholesterol (mg/dL)	79.37 (16.30)*#	34.87 (3.87)†	46.00 (2.72)	*p<0.001; #p<0.001; †p=0.033
Triglycerides (mg/dL)	74.28 (22.94)*#	25.06 (4.63)	37.91 (2.47)	*p<0.001; #p<0.001
ALT (U/L)	97.75 (13.18)*#	74.25 (7.95)†	63.81 (5.18)	*p=0.04; #p<0.001; †p=0.02
AST (U/L)	200.5 (22.78)#	177.66 (29.34)	152.53 (25.87)	#p=0.004
GGT (U/L)	4.95 (0.74)*#	9.85 (0.54)	9.67 (0.72)	*p<0.001; #p<0.001
Amylase (U/L)	2174.37 (359.72)#	2073.25 (189.26)†	1559.37 (131.57)	#p<0.001; †p<0.001

4 *offspring of WHP rats vs offspring of WLP rats; # offspring of WHP rats vs Wistar rats;

5 †offspring of WLP rats vs Wistar rats;

6 values represent mean (SD); p-value from Newman-Keuls test or Dunn's test (for ALT and

7 triglycerides)