

Melanin-Concentrating Hormone: Role in Nursing and Sleep in Mother Rats



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Abstract In mammals, the postpartum female undergoes the most important physiological and behavioral changes in life, which allow orchestrating two essential behaviors for survival: nursing and sleep. Although the melanin-concentrating hormone (MCH) is mainly found within the posterolateral hypothalamus and incerto-hypothalamic area, during lactation this neuropeptide is also expressed in the preoptic area (POA). Remarkably, this brain area controls key components not only of the maternal behavior repertoire but also is involved in the regulation of sleep and wakefulness. In this sense, when MCH is microinjected into the POA, this neuropeptide is capable to reduce the motivational aspects of maternal behavior in postpartum rats while increases sleep in male rats. This effect seems to oppose to one of the dopaminergic systems that promotes wakefulness while in postpartum rats stimulates motivational components of maternal behavior. How the MCHergic system controls maternal behavior and sleep within the POA is still an unresolved question.

In this chapter, we provide neuroanatomical and neurochemical evidences showing that MCHergic and dopaminergic systems interact within the medial POA (mPOA) to regulate maternal behavior and sleep. We suggest that the interplay among these and other neurotransmitter/neuromodulators modulates mother's physiology and behavior assuring not only pups' nutrition and development but also the mother's needs for rest and sleep during this highly demanding period of life. Finally, we discuss some useful directions for future research and some issues yet to be explored.

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1 Introduction

The postpartum period is a highly physically and emotionally demanding period for the mammalian female, characterized by a huge range of physiological and behavioral adaptations that allow the adequate development and survival of the offspring. We recently showed that the mother rat can sleep and nurse the pups at the same time, making possible to fulfill the pups' needs of nutrition together with the maintenance of an adequate homeostasis of her sleep physiology (Benedetto et al. 2017b). Interestingly, the melanin-concentrating hormone (MCH), a neuropeptide synthesized by neurons of the lateral hypothalamus and incerto-hypothalamic areas that project throughout the central nervous system (CNS) (Bittencourt et al. 1992), has been involved in the control of maternal behavior (Alachkar et al. 2016; Benedetto et al. 2014) and sleep (Tortorolo et al. 2011). Thus, MCH microinjections into the medial preoptic area (mPOA), an essential area in the control of maternal behavior, reduce the active components of maternal behavior (Benedetto et al. 2014). Also, local delivery of MCH into the ventrolateral preoptic area (VLPO), a key player in the control of sleep, promotes NREM sleep (Benedetto et al. 2013).

In the present chapter, we describe the maternal and sleep behaviors of the lactating rat as well as the interplay between the MCHergic and dopaminergic system in specific brain areas related to the control of both behaviors. As most studies of the neurobiological basis of maternal behavior and sleep were done in rodents, we will focus on these animals.

2 Maternal Behavior

In the rat, newborn pups are altricial, that means that they are highly immature and totally dependent on the maternal care and nutrition for development and survival. They are born with eyes and ears closed (Fig. 1), are unable to regulate their own temperature, and are incapable of urinating and defecating without the anogenital stimulation provided from the mother (Fig. 2b) (Numan and Insel 2003). These characteristics of the pups require a constant maternal attention and care resulting in a highly demanding stage with important metabolic costs for the mother (Thornburg et al. 2006). Thus, the mother rat provides not only the nutritional requirements to the offspring through lactation but also care and protection, contributing to the establishment of the maternal-infant bonding which is crucial for the development and survival of the young (Numan and Insel 2003). As newborn rats grow up, the mother will be continuously accommodating her own physiology and behavior to the pups' requirements.

To fulfill the pups' needs, mother rats develop a wide variety of behaviors termed as maternal behavior that is aimed to provide food, heat, shelter, cleaning, nourishment, and affect to the offspring (Reisbick et al. 1975; Rosenblatt 1975; Pereira 2016). In rats, if the mother is reunited with the pups after a certain time of separation, she will display a sequence of maternal behaviors. She will transport



Fig. 1. Altricial rat pup. Note that the pup rat is born hairless with eyes and ears closed

materials to build a nest, retrieve the pups into it, and lick and rearrange them in the nest (Stern 1989) (Fig. 2a, b). As these behaviors precede and promote mother-infant contact, they are known as pronurturant or active behaviors (Hansen et al. 1991b; Stern 1989). Following the reunion of the pups, the mother stands over them (Fig. 2c), and with sufficient ventral stimulation, she will adopt quiescent nursing postures, referred as nurturant, passive, or nursing behaviors (Hansen et al. 1991a; Stern and Johnson 1990) (Fig. 2d). Nursing is the behavior that defines us as mammals and is present in all mammalian species. However, it presents a wide variability among species, from the rabbit that nurses a few minutes once a day to the rat that nurses during most of the day in the early period of lactation (Gonzalez-Mariscal et al. 2016; Grota and Ader 1969; Zarrow et al. 1965).

In the mother rat, upright crouching is the most typical nursing posture, also known as kyphosis (Stern and Johnson 1990). This posture is elicited by the sensory stimulation of the mother's ventral area provided by a sufficient number (at least four) of pups (Neville 2006; Stern and Johnson 1990; Wakerley 1996). In this posture, the dam stands still over the litter, in high- or low-arched back posture with its legs rigidly splayed (Fig. 2d). Only during quiescent nursing postures milk ejection occurs (Voloschin and Tramezzani 1979).

The postpartum period of the rat lasts approximately three weeks until weaning during which the mother continuously adapts her maternal responses to pups' needs. Thus, during the first days after parturition, mother rats spend 85% of the day with their pups, rarely leaving the nest. While pups grow older, maternal behavior diminishes toward weaning (Numan 1994; Pereira 2016; Rheingold 1963; Rosenblatt et al. 1985). Both active and nursing behaviors decline significantly from the 10th–12th days onward (Grota and Ader 1969; Pereira 2016; Reisbick et al. 1975).

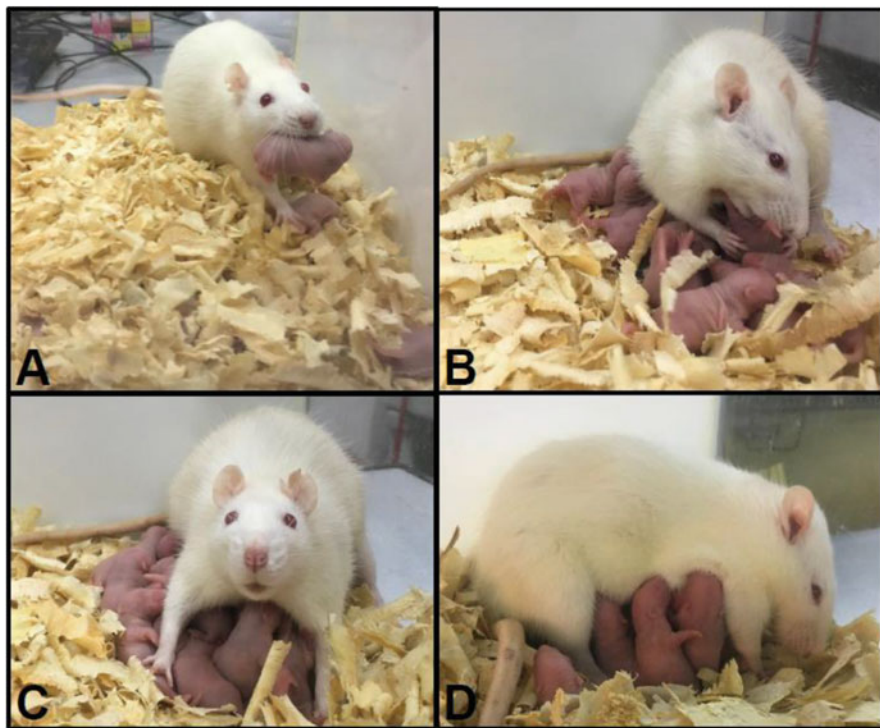


Fig. 2. Active and passive maternal behaviors in the rat. (a) Transporting or retrieving a pup. (b) Licking a pup. (c) Hovering over the pups. (d) Nursing the litter

3 Sleep During Postpartum Period

As mentioned, nursing is one of the most energy-consuming stages for the female (Krasnow and Steiner 2006; Thornburg et al. 2006; Zhao et al. 2010). In contrast, sleep is necessary for the conservation and restoration of energy. Although both processes are essential for the survival of the individual or the offspring, the strategies to reconcile both behaviors vary among species. Recently, we demonstrated that the mother rat can nurse and sleep at the same time (Benedetto et al. 2017b) (see Fig. 3). Thus, during the low upright crouching posture (also known as low kyphosis, the most common nursing posture), mother rats mostly sleep, particularly in NREM sleep, both at the light and dark phases of the cycle (see Fig. 4).

Remarkably, while suckling from the pups is sufficient to stimulate the upright crouching posture in the mother rat, this stimulus has to be preceded by a NREM sleep episode for milk ejection occurrence (Lincoln et al. 1980; Sutherland et al. 1987; Voloschin and Tramezzani 1979). In fact, sleep deprivation decreases lactation and impairs pups' weight gain (Voloschin and Tramezzani 1979). This is not the case for other animals, such as rabbits, where suckling is associated with a desynchronized electroencephalogram (Neve et al. 1982). However, as rabbit doe

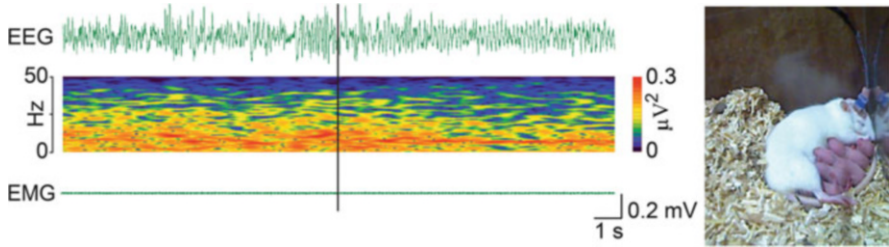


Fig. 3. Mother rat during the first postpartum week. The raw electroencephalogram (EEG), its correspondent spectrogram, and the electromyogram (EMG) of a mother rat during nursing in supine posture. The vertical line indicates the moment when the photograph was taken. Note the transition from NREM to REM sleep

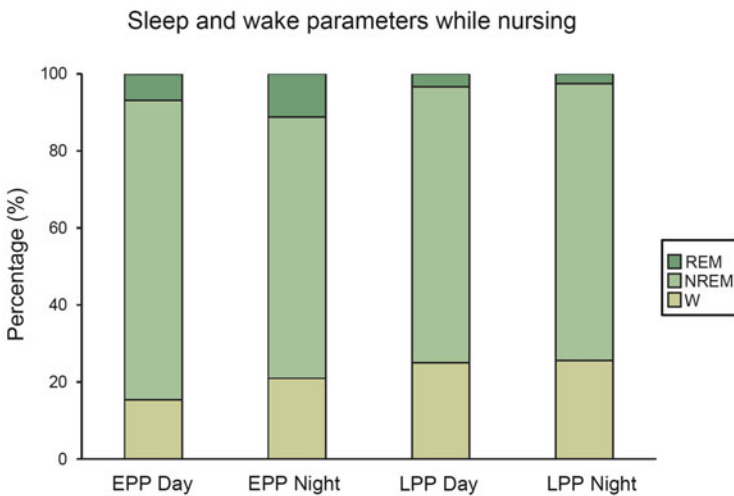


Fig. 4. Graphic charts showing the percentage of time spent in wakefulness (W), NREM, and REM sleep while nursing. Comparisons of the percentage of time of sleep and W during low kyphosis during the first and second postpartum weeks in the light and dark periods. [These data were published in Benedetto et al. (2017b).] *EPP* early postpartum, *LPP* late postpartum

usually nurses once a day (Gonzalez-Mariscal et al. 2016), nursing and pups’ attention would not interfere with maternal sleep.

In some species, sleep deprivation and sleep fragmentation are consequences of the early stages of motherhood (Hunter et al. 2009; Lyamin et al. 2007). In the case of the human mother, partial sleep deprivation and sleep fragmentation have been reported; these sleep disturbances are compensated, at least partially, by a deeper sleep (Montgomery-Downs et al. 2010; Nishihara et al. 2004). Sleep deprivation and fragmentation may lead to maternal irritability and possible psychiatric disorders, with negative consequences for the care and welfare of the newborn (Lee 1998; Sharma and Mazmanian 2003). An extreme case is found in dolphins, where both the

mother and calf are sleep deprived during the first months after birth (Lyamin et al. 2007). In laboratory rat the antecedents are not conclusive, since Voloschin and Tramezzani (1979) reported no sleep deprivation during the second postpartum week, while Sivadas et al. (2016) showed that mother rats are sleep deprived during the day throughout the postpartum period. Our studies showed that NREM sleep during nursing is highly fragmented compared to that observed when the mother sleeps outside the nest (Benedetto et al. 2017b). In this sense, Sivadas et al. (2016) also showed that mother rats have fragmented sleep compared to non-maternal animals.

It is likely that different species have developed specific and unique strategies to conciliate nursing and sleep according to their habitat, ecology, and the degree of development of the young, among other factors. For instance, in mother dolphins, which do not have a burrow to protect their young from possible predators, it would not be adaptive that sleep has to be a prerequisite for milk ejection, as predation risk would increase dramatically during sleep. Also, for the rabbit doe, which usually nurses once a day and for a few minutes (Zarrow et al. 1965), nursing and sleep would not represent a conflict and sleep is not a prerequisite for milk ejection (Neve et al. 1982). Regardless of the strategy used by each species, adaptations have been developed to reconcile the maternal care and nursing of the newborn with mother's sleep physiology that assure the survival of the offspring without affecting the welfare of the mother.

4 Neural Circuits Shared by Maternal Behavior and Sleep

The rapid onset of maternal responsiveness relies on hormonal events that occur close to parturition. Specifically, the ovarian steroids, estrogen and progesterone, as well as lactogenic hormones and oxytocin initially activate the brain areas that control the maternal responsiveness to the newborn litter (Numan and Insel 2003; Rosenblatt 1980; Rosenblatt et al. 1988). Afterward, maternal behavior is maintained by the continued mother-infant interactions and seems to be relatively independent of endocrine regulation (Numan and Insel 2003; Rosenblatt 1980; Rosenblatt et al. 1988).

Experimental evidence has shown that the mPOA and its connections with the mesolimbic dopamine (DA) system play a predominant role in the control of active aspects of maternal behavior (Stolzenberg and Numan 2011). Interestingly, these brain areas are also key components of neural circuits for sleep generation and maintenance (Benedetto et al. 2017a; Kaushik et al. 2011; Mendelson 1996, 2000, 2001; Monti et al. 2016). Also, there is strong evidence that the MCHergic system is also involved in the regulation of both maternal behavior and sleep. Thus, we will focus on these brain areas and systems in this section.

4.1 *The Preoptic Area Controls Maternal and Sleep Behaviors*

4.1.1 Preoptic Area and Maternal Behavior

The first evidence that the POA was involved in maternal behavior was in 1956, when Fisher reported that chemical stimulation of this area with testosterone elicits active maternal behavior in male rats (Fisher 1956). Since then, many studies have demonstrated the involvement of mPOA in maternal behavior. For instance, mPOA damage interferes with all maternal behaviors (Numan et al. 1988) or mainly with the active maternal behavior (Numan and Callahan 1980; Terkel et al. 1979), while chemical stimulation with oxytocin (Pedersen et al. 1994), estrogen implants (Rosenblatt and Ceus 1998), dopaminergic agents (Miller and Lonstein 2005), and prolactin (Bridges et al. 1990) promotes full maternal behavior.

Thus, the mPOA is believed to act as a crucial area in the control of maternal behavior, integrating information from diverse modalities related to the pups and adjusting maternal responses to fulfill the pups' needs as they grow older (Pereira 2016; Pereira and Ferreira 2015; Risold et al. 1994; Simerly and Swanson 1986). Also, it is a key neural site where the hormones such as prolactin (Bridges et al. 1990), vasopressin (Bosch et al. 2010), and oxytocin (Pedersen et al. 1994) and a variety of neurotransmitters/neuromodulators such as DA (Miller and Lonstein 2005; Stolzenberg et al. 2007), hypocretin (Rivas et al. 2016), and MCH (Benedetto et al. 2014) modulate maternal behavior.

Particularly, this area is known to present important plasticity both during pregnancy and postpartum periods (Champagne and Curley 2016; Parent et al. 2017; Pereira and Morrell 2009; Rondini et al. 2010; Schrader et al. 2012) allowing the adaptation of maternal responsiveness to the changing needs of the offspring. Several studies point out a significant anatomical and functional reorganization of different brain areas across postpartum period that are crucial for maternal behavior (Driessen et al. 2014; Insel 1990; Pereira 2016; Pereira and Morrell 2009; Rondini et al. 2010). Specifically, the mPOA has been demonstrated to change its role throughout the postpartum period, from a facilitatory role during early lactation period (Jacobson et al. 1980; Lee et al. 2000; Numan et al. 1977; Pereira and Morrell 2009; Rosenblatt and Ceus 1998) to an inhibitory role during mid-lactation (Pereira and Morrell 2009). Interestingly, Schrader et al. (2012) show that the mPOA loses its daily rhythmicity of Fos activation in pregnant rats compared to diestrous females (Schrader et al. 2012).

4.1.2 Preoptic Area and Sleep

Since the early Von Economo's studies of the hypothalamus, the POA has been proposed as a sleep center (Von Economo 1930). Most studies have pointed out the crucial role of the VLPO and the median POA (MnPN) in the regulation of NREM sleep (Benedetto et al. 2012, 2013; Gong et al. 2004; Gvilia et al. 2006; Lu et al.

2000; Torterolo et al. 2009a), while the extended VLPO (eVLPO) has been involved in REM sleep regulation (Lu et al. 2002). Likewise, the mPOA, the same area that is critical for maternal behavior, has been also involved in the control of sleep (Kumar 2004). In fact, microinjections of different neuropeptides and substances, such as glutamate (Kaushik et al. 2011), triazolam (Mendelson and Martin 1992), pentobarbital (Mendelson 1996), and adenosine (Mendelson 2000), are known to promote NREM sleep. Although most studies relate mPOA to NREM sleep, there is also experimental data that spotlight the importance of this area also in the regulation of REM sleep (Asala et al. 1990; Suntsova and Dergacheva 2004). Particularly, most mPOA neurons increase their firing rate during REM sleep compared to W and NREM. In addition, electrical stimulation of the mPOA at low frequency during NREM sleep promotes the entrance to REM sleep (Suntsova and Dergacheva 2004). Moreover, Asala et al. (1990) induced a reduction of NREM sleep and an increase in REM sleep after mPOA lesions.

4.2 Dopaminergic System Modulates Maternal and Sleep Behaviors

4.2.1 Dopaminergic System and Maternal Behavior

The mesocorticolimbic system has been recognized for its central role in several motivated behaviors (Berridge 2004; Salamone and Correa 2012), including maternal behavior (Stolzenberg and Numan 2011). This system is comprised of dopamine (DA)-containing cell bodies in the midbrain ventral tegmental area (VTA) and its major targets, the nucleus accumbens (NAc) and prefrontal cortex (PFC) (Fallon and Moore 1978; Lindvall and Bjorklund 1974; Lindvall et al. 1974; Moore and Bloom 1978). The NAc has been considered as a neural interface between the limbic and motor systems allowing the transition from motivation to motor action (Mogenson et al. 1980). In addition, this nucleus is one of the main projection sites of the MCHergic neurons and has an important MCHergic receptor density (Bittencourt et al. 1992; Hervieu et al. 2000). The interconnection between the mPOA and the mesocorticolimbic DAergic system is known to regulate the motivational aspects of maternal behavior (Numan and Insel 2003; Stolzenberg and Numan 2011).

The central role of the DAergic system in the control of maternal behavior has initially been shown by the actions of systemic DA antagonists that reduced active maternal behavior but enhanced nursing and milk ejection (Stern 1991; Stern and Keer 1999). Interestingly, active maternal behaviors, such as licking the pups, are linked to an elevated DA release and increased DA receptor levels in the NAc (Champagne et al. 2004; Hansen et al. 1993). In accordance, DA receptor antagonism in the NAc inhibits maternal retrieval and licking, but promotes nursing behavior (Keer and Stern 1999). In addition, lesions of DAergic neurons of the VTA also impair pup-directed maternal behavior, but nursing was unaffected (Hansen et al. 1991b).

The administration of DA D1 receptor antagonist (SCH-23390) into mPOA impairs the retrieval and licking of pups but no other components of the maternal behavior (Miller and Lonstein 2005; Numan et al. 2005a), while the infusion of the D2 receptor antagonist raclopride into this area increases nursing, leaving intact active maternal behaviors (Miller and Lonstein 2005). These data suggest that different DA receptors within the mPOA are involved in distinct aspects of maternal behavior, where D1 receptors would control active maternal behavior, while D2 receptors would regulate nursing postures.

4.2.2 Dopaminergic System and Sleep

Interestingly, the DAergic system also plays a critical but complex role in the control of sleep and wakefulness (W). DAergic neurons, mostly present in the VTA and substantia nigra pars compacta (SNc), do not change their mean firing rate across the sleep-wake cycle (Miller et al. 1983; Trulson 1985; Trulson and Preussler 1984; Trulson et al. 1981). However, the temporal pattern of the discharge is strongly modulated during the sleep-wake cycle. Accordingly, during W, DAergic neurons in VTA discharge in burst in response to salient stimuli (Schultz et al. 1993). This increase in bursting activity is accompanied by a substantial increase in DA extracellular levels in striatal regions (Wightman and Robinson 2002). In this regard, microdialysis studies by Lena et al. (2005) have shown that DA release is greater during W in comparison to sleep, both in the prefrontal cortex and the NAc (Lena et al. 2005). In addition, Dahan et al. (2007) demonstrated that there is a prominent burst firing increase in VTA DAergic neurons during REM sleep that resembles the bursting induced by the consumption of palatable food (Dahan et al. 2007). This is in line with previous findings that described an increase in the number of Fos-immunoreactive neurons in the VTA during REM sleep (Maloney et al. 2002). In addition, the release of DA, both in the NAc and prefrontal cortex, increases during REM sleep in comparison to NREM sleep (Lena et al. 2005). In this regard, it has been shown that DAergic VTA neurons participate in the promotion of theta rhythm, a prominent feature of REM sleep (Orzel-Gryglewska et al. 2015).

4.2.3 Dopamine and POA Regulating Maternal Behavior and Sleep Together

In spite of the bunch of evidence that POA modulates both sleep and maternal behavior, there were no studies focused on determining how this brain area acts to promote these two behaviors together.

Based on the findings that (1) nursing and NREM sleep can be co-expressed (Benedetto et al. 2017b), (2) mPOA stimulation increases the time spent in NREM sleep (Kaushik et al. 2011), and (3) the local delivery of a dopaminergic D2 antagonist raclopride increases nursing duration without interfering with active maternal behavior (Miller and Lonstein 2005), we posit that raclopride into mPOA would also be associated with an increase in NREM sleep. Contrary to our expectations, we find

neither an increase in nursing nor in NREM sleep after the microinjection of raclopride within the mPOA. Surprisingly, REM sleep and its transitional stage from NREM were significantly reduced in time after this microinjection procedure. Regarding maternal behavior, the latency to reunite the entire litter into the nest was increased, while the time to the start of nursing was reduced, suggesting that some aspects of the maternal sequence were affected (Benedetto et al. 2017a). Thus, we are carrying out more experiments to elucidate how the dopaminergic system acts to integrate sleep and maternal behavior within the mPOA.

4.3 *The MCHergic System*

The general feature of this system has been described in preceding chapters. Briefly, MCH is an inhibitory neuropeptide synthesized by neurons that are primarily located in the posterolateral hypothalamus and incerto-hypothalamic area (Bittencourt et al. 1992). The MCHergic neurons project widely throughout the central nervous system (CNS).

MCH acts via neurons expressing the MCH receptor 1 (MCHR1) and MCH receptor 2 (called MCHR2) (Macneil 2013; Saito and Nagasaki 2008). The latter has been described in primates (including humans), cats, and dogs but seems to be absent in rodents (Tan et al. 2002).

There is a widespread distribution of the MCHR1 mRNA along with the MCHergic fibers including critical areas for sleep and maternal behavior (Bittencourt et al. 1992; Saito et al. 2001).

4.3.1 **MCH and Sleep**

The role of MCH as a sleep-promoting factor has been assessed in previous chapters of this book and reviewed in detail (Konadhode et al. 2015; Monti et al. 2013; Torterolo et al. 2011, 2015). Briefly, the intracerebroventricular administration of MCH in the rat produces an increase in REM sleep and a moderate enhancement in the time spent in NREM sleep, while the systemic administration of MCHR1 antagonists both decreases sleep and increases wakefulness (Verret et al. 2003; Ahnaou et al. 2008). Microinjection of MCH into the REM-off neuronal areas, such as the dorsal raphe and the locus coeruleus of the rat, facilitates the generation of REM sleep (Lagos et al. 2009; Monti et al. 2015). MCH also promotes REM sleep when microinjected into either the basal forebrain of the rat or the NPO of the cat (Lagos et al. 2012; Torterolo et al. 2009b). In contrast, the administration of MCH into the VLPO, a NREM sleep-promoting area, induced NREM sleep (Benedetto et al. 2013).

Fos and electrophysiological studies have shown that MCHergic neurons are active mostly during sleep (mainly during REM sleep) in the rat (Verret et al. 2003; Hassani et al. 2009). However, Gonzalez et al. (2016) by means of fiber-optic recordings have recently shown that these neurons are active during novelty exploration.

The concentration of MCH in the CSF of rats increases during the light phase, when the animals are predominantly asleep, and is affected by sleep deprivation or sleep restriction (Pelluru et al. 2013; Dias Abdo Agamme et al. 2015). By means of *in vivo* microdialysis, Blouin et al. (2013) have shown that the release of MCH in the amygdala of patients reaches a maximum level at sleep onset.

Studies of ppMCH and MCHR1 KO mice indicate that the sleep of these animals is altered (Ahnaou et al. 2008; Willie et al. 2008; Takase et al. 2014). Recent optogenetic and chemogenetic studies have confirmed the role of MCH in sleep generation. Optogenetic stimulation of MCHergic neurons increased both REM and NREM sleep at night, whereas during the day only REM sleep was increased (Konadhode et al. 2013; Blanco-Centurion et al. 2016). In addition, delta power (an indicator of sleep intensity) was also increased (Blanco-Centurion et al. 2016). Optogenetic activation of MCH neurons at the onset of REM sleep extended the duration of REM sleep episodes (Jego et al. 2013). Also, the acute silencing of these neurons reduced hippocampal theta rhythm during REM sleep without affecting the duration of the episodes. Tsunematsu et al. (2014) showed that the acute optogenetic activation of MCH neurons at 10 Hz induced transitions from NREM to REM sleep and increased REM sleep time. Also, Vetrivelan et al. (2016) have shown that the selective chemogenetic activation of the MCHergic neurons causes specific increases in REM sleep without altering wakefulness or NREM sleep.

4.3.2 MCH and Maternal Behavior

A recent review by Diniz and Bittencourt (2017) described that MCH is involved in motivated behaviors such as feeding, drinking, and mating and also active maternal behavior. In fact, not only MCHergic neurons project toward regions involved both in active maternal behavior, such as the mPOA, VTA, and NAc (Bittencourt et al. 1992), but also mRNA for the MCHR1 has been recognized in these regions (Saito et al. 2001).

The importance of this neuropeptide in the postpartum period is evidenced by the fact that in males and cycling females most MCHergic neurons are located within the lateral hypothalamus and incerto-hypothalamic area, while during lactation, neurons of the mPOA express pre-pro-MCH mRNA and MCH, being most of them GABAergic (approximately 95%) (Knollema et al. 1992; Rondini et al. 2010). Remarkably, the number of MCHergic neurons in the mPOA varies along lactation (Alvisi et al. 2016; Knollema et al. 1992; Rondini et al. 2010). Taken together, these interesting results suggest that the number of MCH neurons within the mPOA varies according to a curve in which: their number is very low on PPD5, moderated at PPD12, and maximum at PPD15–16, starts to decrease at PPD17–19 (but is higher than at PPD12), at PPD21, has a similar number as in PPD12, finally disappearing after weaning (Alvisi et al. 2016; Knollema et al. 1992; Rondini et al. 2010). This changing pattern in the number of mPOA MCHergic neurons is likely associated to maternal behavior, such that these cells are maximal when active maternal behaviors begin to decrease, as the pups grow older, become more

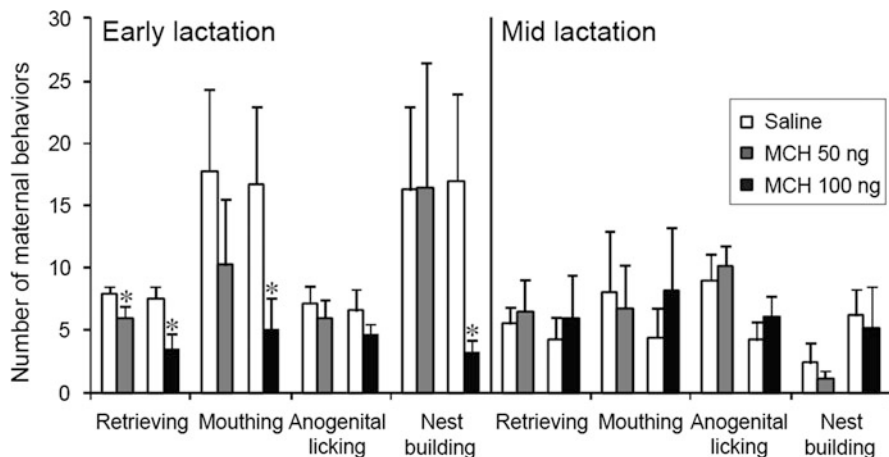


Fig. 5. Effects of MCH microinjections into the mPOA on active components of maternal behavior during early and mid-lactation. Graphic chart showing the number of different active maternal responses after bilateral administration of saline and MCH (50 and 100 ng) in a 30-min maternal test. All values are presented as means \pm SEM; significant differences are indicated by asterisks ($*p < 0.05$). Part of the early lactation results was published in Benedetto et al. (2014)

independent, and start to consume food (Hall and Rosenblatt 1978; Reisbick et al. 1975), and decline at the end of lactation. However, these changes could be also related to hormonal variations along lactation (Ferreira et al. 2017).

Benedetto et al. (2014) have shown that bilateral microinjections of MCH into the mPOA decrease active maternal behaviors during the early postpartum period (PPD5–6) to levels characteristic of the late postpartum period (Benedetto et al. 2014). The fact that only active maternal behaviors but not huddling and nursing were reduced after MCH treatment agrees with published evidence showing that interference with mPOA function mainly affects these active components (Jacobson et al. 1980; Numan 1974; Numan and Insel 2003; Pereira and Morrell 2009; Terkel et al. 1979). Interestingly, the same procedure during the PPD14–15, the period in which MCH reaches its maximum levels, did not provoke any change in maternal behavior compared to control saline microinjections (Fig. 5). It could be speculated that during this latter stage, external MCH does not significantly change maternal behavior, such that increasing its levels exogenously does not potentiate the inhibitory effect of the high endogenous levels at this moment. It would be interesting to explore if MCHR1 varies within the mPOA along lactation, promoting these functional changes. These differential results found according to the postpartum stage are in line with the knowledge of the mPOA as a plastic area that changes its functionality during the postpartum period (Champagne and Curley 2016; Pereira 2016; Pereira and Morrell 2009).

It has also been shown that MCHR1 KO mother mice show a decrease in the survival of the pups during PPD1–2 compared to pups from wild-type mothers (Adams et al. 2011; Alachkar et al. 2016). However, beyond the PPD2 pups' mortality did not differ between these two groups. Authors hypothesized that

MCH would be important for the initiation of maternal behavior, but not for its maintenance (Alachkar et al. 2016). Although these results might seem contradictory with Benedetto et al. (2014), it can be speculated that the requirement of MCH may fluctuate at the different stages of the postpartum period to display an appropriate maternal behavior that matches with the changing characteristics and needs of the offspring; when MCH is outside its normal range, the maternal care of the pups could be altered.

The MCHergic system seems to be linked also to an endocrine function during lactation. Recent evidences presented by Ferreira et al. (2017) show that the number of mPOA-MCH neurons is positively correlated with the litter size (Ferreira et al. 2017), likely caused by the suckling stimulus from pups that also promotes the release of prolactin and oxytocin (Wakerley 1996). In this sense, Parkes and Vale (1993) found that MCH directly stimulates the release of oxytocin acting on neurohypophysis cell cultures (Parkes and Vale 1993). On the contrary, MCH was significantly decreased in a model of hyperprolactinemia compared to control rats (Garcia et al. 2003). Thus, prolactin seems to be inversely related to MCH levels. Further experiments are needed to understand the functionality of these mPOA-MCH neurons.

4.4 MCH and DAergic System Interaction in the Control of Sleep and Maternal Behavior

As described before, it can be proposed that the DAergic system promotes motivation and arousal, while the MCHergic system stimulates consummatory behaviors and sleep. Hence, it could be speculated that DAergic and MCHergic systems have opposite functions. Based on this idea, it could be hypothesized that MCH may decrease motivation and arousal, at least in part, by inhibiting the DAergic system.

As mentioned, the NAc is a main target of the mesolimbic DAergic neurons and is an essential area for a proper care of the offspring (Hansen et al. 1993; Mogenson et al. 1980; Numan et al. 2005a, b). This nucleus is also one of the main projection sites of the MCHergic neurons and has an important MCHR1 density (Bittencourt et al. 1992; Hervieu et al. 2000). MCHR1 is co-expressed with DAergic receptors in the shell of the NAc, which raises the possibility that MCH and DA interact in NAc shell during motivated responses (Chung et al. 2009; Georgescu et al. 2005). This idea has been explored using a whole-cell patch-clamp recording from the NAc shell where the administration of MCH alone had no effect on spike firing, but the discharge rate showed an increase when MCH was applied in combination with D1 or D2 agonists (Chung et al. 2009; Hopf et al. 2013). Furthermore, biochemical analysis in NAc shell explants showed that MCH signaling blocks DA-induced phosphorylation of the AMPA glutamate receptor (Georgescu et al. 2005).

In addition, MCHR1 KO mice present hyperactivity that may be explained by interactions between MCHergic and DAergic systems (Lalonde and Qian 2007; Marsh et al. 2002). In fact, MCHR1 KO mice are supersensitive to the locomotor activating effects of d-amphetamine and D1 agonists as compared to wild-type animals. Besides, deletion of MCHR1 results in an upregulation of mesolimbic DA receptors, and the lack of MCH leads to an increase in DA release and in limbic DA transporter levels, indicating that MCH may negatively modulate mesolimbic monoamine function (Mul et al. 2011; Smith et al. 2005).

From these data, it could be expected that during highly aroused motivated behaviors, such as maternal behavior, the DAergic system may inhibit the MCHergic neurons. In fact, DA hyperpolarizes MCHergic neurons by activating G-protein-activated inwardly rectifying K⁺ (GIRK) channels by means of the activation of alpha-2a noradrenergic receptors (Alberto et al. 2011; Conductier et al. 2011). Conductier et al. (2011) also showed that MCH neurons receive both GABAergic and glutamatergic inputs and that DA modulates these inputs in a complex manner. At low concentrations, DA activates D1-like receptors promoting presynaptic activity, while at higher concentrations, DA activates D2-like receptors that inhibits presynaptic activity. Overall, DA leads to a decrease in the excitability of MCHergic neurons.

Regarding sleep and lactation from these data described above, we hypothesize that the DAergic and MCH system may interact to decrease the activity of the motivational system to promote sleep, thus allowing milk ejection.

5 Conclusions and Future Directions

In the present report, we analyzed data that support the interconnection between sleep and maternal behavior, two crucial behaviors for survival of mammals. We also propose a possible mechanism by which the MCHergic system modulates both behaviors together. We show that MCH induces sleep and reduces active maternal behaviors, thus promoting energy conservation for the mother. As mPOA is a critical area for the modulation of both behaviors, it is possible that MCH, acting in this area, will enhance sleep during nursing, thus promoting milk ejection occurrence. We are currently assessing this possibility.

As the stimulus of sucking from the pups induces not only nursing postures (and thus immobility) but also the synthesis and release of prolactin, hormone known to promote sleep and milk production (Wakerley 1996), mPOA-MCH cells might also have an endocrine function that indirectly promotes sleep and milk ejection, assuring the welfare of the pups and also of the mother (Alachkar et al. 2016). Also it would be important to explore the putative relationship between MCH and oxytocin in the control of both behaviors, as this hormone is stimulated by the sucking from the pups and promotes milk ejection.

Although MCH is expressed in mPOA neurons during the postpartum period, its functionality in lactating rats is still not clear. Also, behavioral experiments during

the postpartum period focused on the effect of MCH agents on both maternal behavior and sleep are still needed to fully understand the complex interaction between both behaviors and its relation with the MCHergic system.

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