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The early origins of food preferences: targeting the critical windows of development

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Short title: Critical windows for programming food preferences

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Abbreviations

- 1 DAT, dopamine active transporter; NAc, nucleus accumbens; PW, postnatal week; TH,
- 2 tyrosine hydroxylase; VTA, ventral tegmental area.

3 **Abstract**

4 The nutritional environment to which an individual is exposed during the perinatal period
5 plays a crucial role in determining their future metabolic health outcomes. Studies in rodent
6 models have demonstrated that excess maternal intake of high-fat and/or high-sugar ‘junk
7 foods’ during pregnancy and lactation can alter the development of the central reward
8 pathway and program an increased preference for ‘junk foods’ and increased susceptibility to
9 diet-induced obesity in the offspring. More recently, there have been attempts to define the
10 critical windows of development during which the reward pathway is most susceptible to
11 alteration, and to determine whether it is possible to reverse these effects through nutritional
12 interventions applied later in development. This review discusses the progress made to date in
13 these areas, highlights the apparent importance of sex in determining these effects and
14 considers the potential implications of the findings from rodent models in the human context.

15

16 **Key Words:** programming, high-fat diet, reward

17 **Introduction**

18 Both human and animal studies have provided compelling evidence that the nutritional
19 environment an individual experiences before birth and/or in early infancy is a key
20 determinant of their subsequent metabolic health outcomes. In particular, individuals who are
21 exposed to maternal overnutrition during the perinatal period have a greater propensity
22 towards excess food intake and weight gain in child and adult life (1-6). More recently,
23 animal studies have demonstrated that in addition to predisposing individuals to consume
24 more energy overall, perinatal exposure to high-fat and/or high-sugar diets also increases the
25 preference for palatable 'junk foods' in the offspring (7, 8).

26 Over the past few years, studies from our group and others have provided novel insights into
27 the biological mechanisms which underlie the developmental programming of food
28 preferences. These studies have strongly implicated altered development of the central
29 mesolimbic reward system in this mechanistic pathway, and demonstrated that both opioid
30 and dopamine signalling within this reward system are persistently altered by prenatal
31 fat/sugar exposure, both in relation to gene expression of key components of these pathways
32 and the way in which they function. The majority of studies to date have focussed on the
33 consequences of being exposed to high-fat and/or high-sugar diets during the entire perinatal
34 period (i.e. before birth and during the suckling period). However, given that the
35 development of central reward systems begins before birth and extends into the fourth week
36 of postnatal life in the rodent (9-11), there has been growing interest in defining whether
37 there are critical windows of reward pathway development during which exposure to a
38 maternal junk food diet is most detrimental. In addition, there remains limited information as
39 to whether and to what extent the effects of early life exposure to poor quality diets can be
40 reversed by interventions applied later in development.

41 This review summarises our current understanding of the key periods of development during
42 which exposure to 'junk food' diets can lead to permanent changes in the mesolimbic reward
43 pathway and establish lifelong food preferences. We also discuss the results of studies which
44 have examined the potential reversibility of these programming effects, and highlight the
45 challenges inherent in extrapolating the findings from the animal studies in this area to a
46 human context.

47

48 **High-Fat/High-Sugar ‘Junk Foods’ and the Mesolimbic Reward System**

49 The drive to consume highly palatable foods has a strong biological basis which goes beyond
50 the need to satisfy hunger. The reason for this is that these foods have the ability to activate
51 the central neural circuits involved in the regulation of motivation and reward (the
52 mesolimbic reward system) in a manner analogous to alcohol and drugs of abuse (12, 13).
53 Studies in both humans and animals have shown that the intake of fat and sugar produces
54 acute increases in the synthesis and secretion of opioids and dopamine within the central
55 reward system (14-19). The similarity between the acute effects of palatable foods and those
56 of well-characterised drugs of abuse has led to the concept of palatable foods as a ‘natural’
57 reward.

58
59 The pleasurable sensation that is experienced after consuming drugs, alcohol and palatable
60 foods is ultimately due to the activation of dopamine signalling (20). The intake of palatable
61 foods stimulates the synthesis of endogenous opioids, which bind to μ -opioid receptors on
62 inhibitory GABAergic neurons in a region of the mesolimbic reward system known as the
63 ventral tegmental area (VTA). This blocks their inhibitory action on dopaminergic neurons in
64 this brain region and thereby increases dopamine production (21). The terminals of these
65 dopaminergic neurons project from the VTA to another region of the mesolimbic reward
66 pathway, the nucleus accumbens (NAc) and dopamine release into the NAc is thereby
67 increased. Here, it binds to dopamine receptors (D1 and D2) on the post-synaptic NAc
68 neurons and dopamine signalling is activated (21). Opioids can also act directly through
69 receptors in the NAc to further potentiate dopamine signalling (Figure 1).

70
71 The importance of opioid and dopamine signalling in the regulation of palatable food intake
72 has been demonstrated by pharmacological studies in both humans and animals. In rats,
73 microinjections of exogenous opioids or dopamine receptor agonists into either the VTA or
74 NAc enhances the ingestion of foods which are rich in fat and sugar (14, 22, 23), whilst
75 injections of μ -opioid receptor antagonists or dopamine receptor antagonists have the
76 opposite effect (24-27). Similarly, administering the opioid receptor antagonist naloxone to
77 human subjects has been shown to reduce the intake of high fat/high sugar snacks including
78 cookies and chocolate bars without altering the intake of less palatable foods (28).

79

80 In addition to the acute effects of palatable foods on the reward circuitry, prolonged exposure
81 to excessive amounts of fat and sugar is associated with molecular adaptations which mirror
82 those seen in drug and alcohol addiction. Chronic overconsumption of high-fat, high-sugar
83 diets results in reduced expression of the D2 dopamine receptor (29) and decreased dopamine
84 content (18, 30) in the NAc. We have also recently shown that feeding rats a cafeteria diet
85 consisting of a range of common human ‘junk foods’, including chocolate biscuits, sweetened
86 breakfast cereal and extruded potato snacks, for 8 weeks resulted in reduced expression of
87 both tyrosine hydroxylase (TH), the rate limiting enzyme in dopamine synthesis and
88 biomarker of rate of dopamine production, and the μ -opioid receptor mRNA in the NAc (31);
89 consistent with changes in the reward pathway observed after chronic exposure to well-
90 characterised opioid drugs, such as morphine (32). Excess consumption of ‘junk foods’ also
91 leads to behavioural changes indicative of the development of dependence. Rats provided
92 with free access to either high-fat and/or high-sugar diets consume increasing quantities as
93 over time, and exhibit classic withdrawal signs when the diet is removed (33, 34). As a result,
94 overstimulation of brain reward systems through excessive consumption of palatable foods
95 results in the development of compulsive-like consumption of high-fat, high-sugar foods.

96

97 **The Development of the Reward Pathway**

98 Rodents have been the model of choice in which to study the early life ontogeny of various
99 brain circuits, including the mesolimbic reward system. In rodents, mesolimbic opioid and
100 dopamine neurons can be identified as early as embryonic day 13 (11, 35). At birth,
101 dopamine fibres in the NAc are present at a higher density than in the adult rodent (36), and
102 the abundance of the μ -opioid receptor in this brain region also peaks in the first 4 days after
103 birth, before declining to adult levels (37). Dopamine and opioid receptors can be detected in
104 the mesolimbic reward system in early-mid embryonic life in the rat, but only become
105 functional at the late embryonic or postnatal stage, suggesting that the ability of the fetus to
106 respond to endogenous or exogenous dopamine may be limited. It is not until the third to
107 fourth postnatal week that the opioid and dopamine systems in the rodent reach their adult
108 configuration (9-11, 38) (Figure 2).

109 It is important to recognise that the developmental trajectory of these pathways is likely to be
110 different in the altricial rodent model compared to the human. While there have been
111 relatively few human studies in this area, largely relying on information from autopsy studies,

112 evidence from the limited clinical studies that have been conducted suggests that both
113 dopamine and endogenous opioids, including β -endorphin, are expressed in the fetal striatum
114 by 12 weeks gestation (39, 40). In contrast, the associated receptors cannot be detected until
115 gestational week 20 (41, 42). Knowledge of this area is still somewhat limited, and further
116 studies are required to gain a better understanding of the early life ontogeny of the reward
117 pathway in both rodents and humans. These studies will undoubtedly assist research in
118 identifying when during development the reward circuits are likely to be most susceptible to
119 environmental insults.

120 **Critical Windows of Development in the Programming of Food Preferences**

121 There are currently limited studies which have attempted to determine the separate
122 contributions of prenatal and early postnatal exposure to ‘junk food’ or high-fat diets on
123 subsequent food preferences in the offspring, and fewer still which have looked at the effects
124 of exposure after weaning (Figure 3). However, the results from the studies to date suggest
125 that exposure of the fetus/neonate during different periods before birth and/or in the early
126 postnatal period may have distinct consequences for the programming of the reward circuitry
127 and subsequent food preferences and susceptibility to diet induced obesity in the offspring.

128 *Exposure before birth vs during the suckling period*

129 The relative impact of exposure to a high-fat diet before birth and during the suckling period
130 on later food preferences has been evaluated in a number of studies using a cross-fostering
131 paradigm, in which offspring born to mothers consuming junk food/high-fat diets are
132 transferred to mothers fed a standard chow diet, or vice versa, within 24 hours of birth. This
133 approach provides the opportunity to isolate the effects of exposure to the junk food diet
134 during fetal and suckling periods without any carry over effects associated with switching the
135 same dam from one diet to another, and is thus of considerable value in defining critical
136 developmental windows. In one such study, Chang and colleagues demonstrated that
137 offspring who had been exposed to a high-fat diet *in utero* exhibited an increased body
138 weight, increased body fat mass, and increased fat preference, independent of whether they
139 were suckled by a dam consuming a control or high-fat diet (43). This study went on to show
140 that exposure to a high-fat diet before birth, but not during the suckling period, also resulted
141 in significant increases in the proliferation of neuronal cells involved in regulating fat intake
142 (eg. galanin neurons) in the hypothalamic appetite regulatory centre (43). These results led
143 the authors to conclude that exposure to a high fat diet before birth was both necessary and

144 sufficient to program a preference for high fat foods and thereby predispose the offspring to
145 diet-induced obesity (43).

146 The findings of Chang and colleagues have not, however, been replicated in other cross-
147 fostering studies. In one of these studies, Gorski *et al* demonstrated that exposure to a high-
148 fat diet during the suckling period alone was sufficient to increase the offspring's appetite for
149 high-energy foods in adulthood. In this study, the offspring of obesity-resistant dams that
150 were cross-fostered to obesity-prone dams fed on a high energy diet, exhibited a significantly
151 higher energy intake when given free access to the same high energy diet between 8 and 12
152 weeks post-weaning (44). More recently, we also used a cross-fostering paradigm to evaluate
153 the effect of exposure to a maternal cafeteria diet before birth and/or during the suckling
154 period on food preferences and susceptibility to diet induced obesity in adulthood. Consistent
155 with Gorski's findings, we found that exposure to a maternal cafeteria diet during both the
156 fetal and suckling periods or suckling period alone, but not fetal period alone, was associated
157 with higher intake of fat, carbohydrate and total energy when offspring were given free
158 access to both a control and cafeteria diet at 2 months of age (45). The results of the latter two
159 studies suggest that the suckling period, rather than the prenatal period, plays the more
160 important role in the programming of food preferences. Importantly, these studies also raise
161 the possibility that the effects of prenatal exposure to a cafeteria diet on subsequent food
162 preferences/susceptibility to diet-induced-obesity in the offspring could potentially be
163 reversed by restoring appropriate nutritional intakes during the lactation/suckling period.

164 The results of these cross-fostering studies need to be interpreted with caution in light of
165 reports that switching pups to a foster mother at birth, even if she is consuming the same diet,
166 can impact on the subsequent growth, metabolic profile and behaviour of the offspring (46).
167 However, the apparent importance of the suckling period in determining later feeding
168 behaviour has also been demonstrated in rodent studies in which pups remained with their
169 natural mother throughout the experiment, but the dams were only fed the cafeteria diet
170 during either pregnancy or lactation. In one such study, Bayol and colleagues showed that the
171 offspring of dams fed a cafeteria diet during both pregnancy and lactation had a higher BMI
172 and food intake after weaning than offspring of mothers who were a fed cafeteria diet during
173 pregnancy and were switched to a control diet after delivery (7). Wright and colleagues have
174 also undertaken a similar study, in which behavioural satiety sequence analysis was applied
175 to specifically investigate food consumption patterns of adult offspring exposed to the
176 cafeteria diet whilst suckling, but not before birth. They reported that offspring who had been

177 exposed to a cafeteria diet during the suckling period alone period exhibited an increased
178 number of feeding bouts and spent more time feeding when provided with a cafeteria diet in
179 adulthood, than non-exposed offspring (47). Thus, while more studies are required, the
180 weight of the evidence to date appears to suggest that exposure to a cafeteria/high-fat diet
181 during the suckling period has a greater impact on subsequent food preferences/feeding
182 behaviour than exposure before birth.

183 *Post-weaning*

184 In the rodent model, offspring are capable of consuming solid foods and are no longer
185 dependent on their mother for nutrition by 3 weeks of age (48). However, as discussed above,
186 the development of the reward pathway has been shown to continue into the fourth postnatal
187 week (10, 11). This suggests that there is the potential for environmental insults in the
188 immediate post-weaning period to also impact on the development of this pathway. In
189 support of this, Teegarden and colleagues demonstrated that mice offspring exposed to a high
190 fat diet only during the fourth week of life (22-28 days of age) exhibited a significant
191 preference for this same high fat diet as adults (49). Importantly, this increased preference for
192 fat was associated with increases in striatal expression of Cdk5 and phosphor-DARPP-32,
193 which are negative regulators of dopamine transmission. The authors proposed that the
194 associated inhibition of dopamine signalling in the reward system was responsible for driving
195 the increased consumption of fat, as a compensatory response to stimulate dopamine
196 signalling and thereby normalise dopaminergic tone (49). The ability of exposure to a highly
197 palatable diet only during the fourth week of life to program adult food preferences has also
198 been demonstrated in a study in which neonatal rats fed a sugary cereal from postnatal days
199 22-27 were shown to exhibit an increased preference for this same food in adulthood (50).

200

201 In order to further investigate the impact of altered reward signalling in the fourth week after
202 birth, we recently undertook a study in our laboratory to determine the effect of blocking
203 opioid signalling in the period immediately after weaning on gene expression in the reward
204 pathway and food preferences in adult life. We found that while administering the opioid-
205 receptor antagonist, naloxone, for ten days after weaning resulted in altered gene expression
206 in the mesolimbic reward pathway at the end of this period, there was no impact on adult
207 food preferences, independent of whether the offspring had been exposed to a control or junk
208 food diet in the fetal and suckling period (*Gugusheff et al, unpublished observations*). While
209 the results from studies to date suggest that there may be the potential for altering the

210 development of the reward pathway, and thus food preferences, in the post-weaning period in
211 rodents further studies are required to confirm this and to determine the underlying
212 mechanism.

213

214 *Adolescence*

215 Adolescence is a period of transition from childhood to adulthood, corresponding to the age
216 of 12 to 18 years in humans and 28 to 56 days in rodents (51). Existing evidence suggests that
217 the adolescent brain is highly plastic, undergoes extensive re-organisation and maturation of
218 neuronal circuits (52), and this plasticity is thought to be one of the main reasons for the
219 increased susceptibility of adolescents to the effects of recreational drugs and alcohol. Studies
220 on nicotine and ethanol addiction in rodents have shown that exposure to these substances
221 during the adolescent period, but not during adulthood, results in neuronal alterations of
222 dopaminergic, cholinergic and glutamatergic systems throughout the brain including
223 hippocampus, striatum and midbrain (53, 54). There are currently no studies which have
224 studied the long-term consequences for the reward pathway/food preferences of being
225 exposed to a high-fat diet/cafeteria 'junk food' diet only during adolescence. However, the
226 fact that drugs of abuse and palatable foods both activate the mesolimbic reward system via
227 similar pathways (21, 55) raises the possibility that a similar phenomenon may be observed.
228 The plasticity of the adolescent brain also suggests that it may be possible to intervene during
229 this period to reverse the negative effects of being exposed to junk food/high fat diets during
230 the perinatal period. Again, however, this has yet to be tested experimentally and remains an
231 important avenue for further research.

232

233 **Potential reversibility of programmed effects**

234 The evidence linking perinatal 'junk food' exposure to an increased preference for these
235 foods later in life, has led to growing interest in determining whether, and to what extent, the
236 negative effects of exposure to highly palatable diets during the fetal/suckling periods can be
237 reversed by interventions applied later in development. In order to examine the potential
238 reversibility of programming induced by maternal junk food feeding, we have undertaken a
239 series of studies in which we investigated whether providing offspring exposed to a maternal
240 cafeteria diet during the perinatal period with a standard rodent diet after weaning could
241 ameliorate the programming of food preferences and mesolimbic reward system. These

242 studies demonstrated that whilst consuming the standard diet for 3 weeks post-weaning did
243 normalise chow intake and fat deposition at 6 weeks of age, the mRNA expression of the D1
244 receptor in the NAc, a marker which has been associated with junk food withdrawal (56),
245 remained higher in offspring of junk food fed dams at this time. Importantly, those offspring
246 exposed to a junk food diet during the perinatal period consumed significantly more total
247 energy than offspring of control dams when free access to the junk food diet was reinstated
248 from 6 to 9 weeks of age (31). These results suggest that providing a nutritionally complete,
249 standard rat feed, for 3 weeks after weaning was insufficient to reverse the programming of
250 an increased preference for junk food as a consequence of perinatal exposure to the junk food
251 diet.

252
253 In this same series of studies, we also determined whether providing offspring of junk food
254 fed dams with a standard rodent feed for a more extended period after weaning would reverse
255 the programming effects. These studies demonstrated that a 3-month period on the standard
256 rat feed after weaning was sufficient to reverse the increased preference for a junk food diet
257 in male, but not female offspring (31). The findings of this study therefore suggest that, at
258 least in male offspring, the programming effects of maternal palatable diets on subsequent
259 food preferences can potentially be ameliorated by eliminating the junk food stimulus from
260 weaning to adulthood (31). The importance of prolonged chow intake post-weaning was also
261 demonstrated in a study by Velkoska and colleagues, which focussed on offspring reared in
262 small litters to induce early postnatal overnutrition. These authors reported that when these
263 offspring were fed on a standard rodent feed from weaning they remained fatter and
264 hyperleptinaemic when compared to animals from normal-sized litters in adolescence (57),
265 but were not different in relation to body weight, body composition or plasma leptin
266 concentrations when fed on the standard feed through to adulthood (57).

267
268 While these studies suggest that the potential exists for mitigating programming effects
269 through extended periods of consuming a nutritionally balanced standard feed post-weaning,
270 at least in male offspring, this is not supported by all rodent studies. Indeed, there are at least
271 2 studies which have reported that offspring exposed to high fat diets *in utero* exhibit an
272 increased preference for sucrose and fat at 18-24 weeks of age, even when they have been fed
273 on a standard rodent feed since weaning (58, 59). The differences in findings may be due to
274 the different timing and duration of the dietary perturbation in the dams, and in the specific
275 composition of the experimental diets (and indeed the 'control' rat feed), and there remains a

276 need to better understand which specific dietary components are the key drivers in the early
277 life origins of food preferences.

278

279 **Sex Differences**

280 The majority of studies to date which have focussed on the critical windows of reward
281 pathway development and the programming of food preferences have only considered male
282 offspring or have failed to separate male and female animals in the analysis (7, 43, 59). Many
283 researchers choose to focus only on male offspring to avoid any possible complications in the
284 interpretation of results introduced by the hormonal fluctuations which accompany the
285 estrous cycle in females (60). However, there is emerging evidence to suggest that male and
286 female offspring respond differently to early life nutritional insults, and that it is often not
287 appropriate to extrapolate results obtained in males to females. By way of example, studies
288 by our group have shown that maternal palatable diet consumption during the lactation
289 increases the preference for high fat food in juvenile male offspring, but not in females, while
290 increasing the propensity to develop diet-induced obesity in female offspring only (45).

291 The sex-specific effects of early life nutritional exposures on subsequent food preferences
292 highlight the importance of separating males and females in the analysis of these experiments.
293 Our studies have also demonstrated that these sex differences in the response to perinatal junk
294 food exposure also extend to the effects on the developing reward pathway. Thus, female
295 offspring of junk food fed dams exhibit increased mRNA expression of key components of
296 the dopamine signalling pathway, TH, the D2 dopamine receptor and the dopamine active
297 transporter (DAT), in response to a junk food challenge in adolescence, while no changes in
298 the expression of these genes is seen in males (31). It is clear that future studies investigating
299 the effects of maternal diet on the food preferences of the offspring will need to consider each
300 sex separately and explore in more detail the mechanisms behind the observed sex
301 differences.

302 **Extrapolation to Human Studies**

303 It is important to note that the work done to date looking at periods of plasticity during the
304 development of the mesolimbic reward pathway have been conducted in altricial rodent
305 models, which undergo a considerable degree of their maturation after birth, unlike human
306 infants where brain development is largely completed *in utero*. This difference in the timing

307 of brain development between rodents and humans clearly needs to be considered carefully
308 when making any attempts to translate the findings from the rodent model into a clinical
309 setting (61), particularly in relation to critical developmental windows. It is also clear,
310 however, that studying the impact of maternal diet on offspring feeding behaviour in humans
311 is complicated by a number of logistical and practical considerations. It is clearly not possible
312 from an ethical perspective to randomise women to consume a high-fat junk food diet during
313 pregnancy/lactation, and obtaining reliable food intake data in observational studies is
314 notoriously difficult. In addition to this, the confounding effects of sociodemographic factors
315 in both food intake in mother and the food choices/obesity risk of their children is difficult, if
316 not impossible, to control for. The largest study to attempt to examine this in a human
317 context was published by Brion and colleagues in 2010. These researchers used information
318 on dietary intakes collected prospectively from 5717 mother-child pairs and 3009 father-child
319 pairs from the ALSPAC birth cohort to examine the relationship between macronutrient
320 intakes in the mother/father at different stages of the mother's pregnancy and macronutrient
321 intakes in the child at 9-10 years of age. The study reported that there was a strong correlation
322 between maternal fat intake during pregnancy and the child's preference for fat at 10 years of
323 age (62), but no relationship with the father's fat intake at any time. While it is difficult to
324 completely exclude the possibility of confounding, these are nevertheless important and
325 interesting results which support the potential for programming of food/macronutrient
326 preference in humans.

327 Other studies in humans focussed on early programming of food intake have concentrated to
328 a greater extent on the programming of specific taste preferences. A series of elegant studies
329 by Menella and colleagues showed that exposure to certain flavours (eg carrot, garlic) either
330 *in utero* (63) or via the breast milk (63-65) increased the children's preference towards the
331 same flavour after weaning. In addition, a number of studies have reported that infants who
332 are fed on soy-based as compared to milk-based formulas, which are known to have
333 inherently different tastes, have markedly different taste preference profiles as late as 4-5
334 years of age. Thus, children who had been fed the more bitter soy-based formulas preferred
335 sour- and bitter- flavoured juices at 4-5 years of age, compared to those who were fed the
336 sweeter-tasting milk-based formula (66). This suggests that in addition to changes in the
337 reward circuitry in response to perinatal exposure to high-fat, high-sugar foods could also
338 potentially program a preference towards the flavours of specific junk foods. Despite the
339 paucity of studies conducted to date, the available data does appear to provide support for a

340 fetal/early life origin to child and adult food preferences in humans, but there remains a need
341 for well-constructed clinical studies in this field of research.

342 **Conclusion**

343 There is now clear evidence from animal studies that exposure to excess amounts of fat
344 and/or sugar during the perinatal and immediate post-weaning periods alters the development
345 of the central reward pathway and programs an increased preference for palatable foods later
346 in life. Whilst the number of studies separating the impact of nutritional excess during
347 various developmental periods remains too small to form definitive conclusions, the weight
348 of the evidence appears to suggest that it is exposure to these diets during the suckling period
349 which is most detrimental in relation to these programming effects. However, given that the
350 critical windows of development of the reward pathway are likely to differ between the
351 rodent and the human, it becomes somewhat difficult to extrapolate this to a clinical context.
352 Nevertheless, the studies reviewed in the current paper have highlighted the exciting
353 possibility that the negative effects of exposure to a poor nutritional environment in early
354 fetal life could potentially be prevented by restoring appropriate nutritional intakes either
355 later in gestation or during the early postnatal period and indicate a need for continued
356 research in this field.

357 Moreover, this review has demonstrated that there are several important knowledge gaps
358 remaining in this field of research. First, no studies conducted thus far that have investigated
359 the role of the adolescent period as a critical window of development for food preferences.
360 Given studies into the effects of drugs of abuse have highlighted the susceptibility of the
361 reward pathway to alteration during this period, it is possible that junk food diet exposure
362 during this time could be crucial for establishing lifelong food preferences but more
363 importantly, may also offer an opportunity for positive nutritional intervention to overcome
364 the negative effects of exposures earlier in development. Additional investigation is also
365 required to more clearly define sex differences in the response to perinatal junk food
366 exposure on the reward system and to evaluate the possibility of there being different critical
367 windows in the development of the reward and/or taste pathways in males and females. In the
368 face of the current obesity epidemic and increased availability of energy-dense junk foods,
369 there is a need for continued research to clearly define the critical windows of development
370 most sensitive to nutritional manipulations. Identification of these critical windows will not
371 only improve our understanding of the mechanisms involved in the programming of food

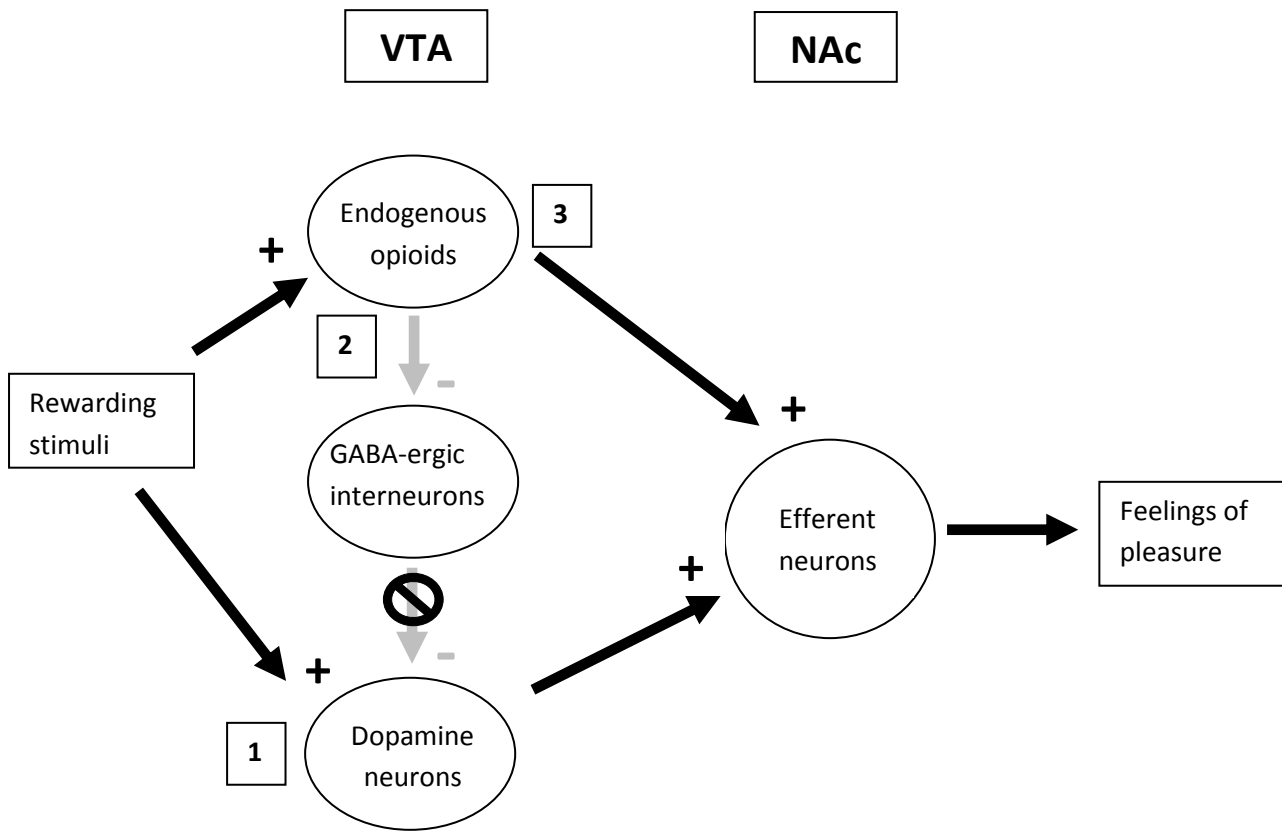
372 preferences but more importantly will provide an opportunity to design targeted interventions
373 which will be critical to breaking the current intergenerational cycle of obesity and poor
374 metabolic health.

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380 **Figure 1.**

381



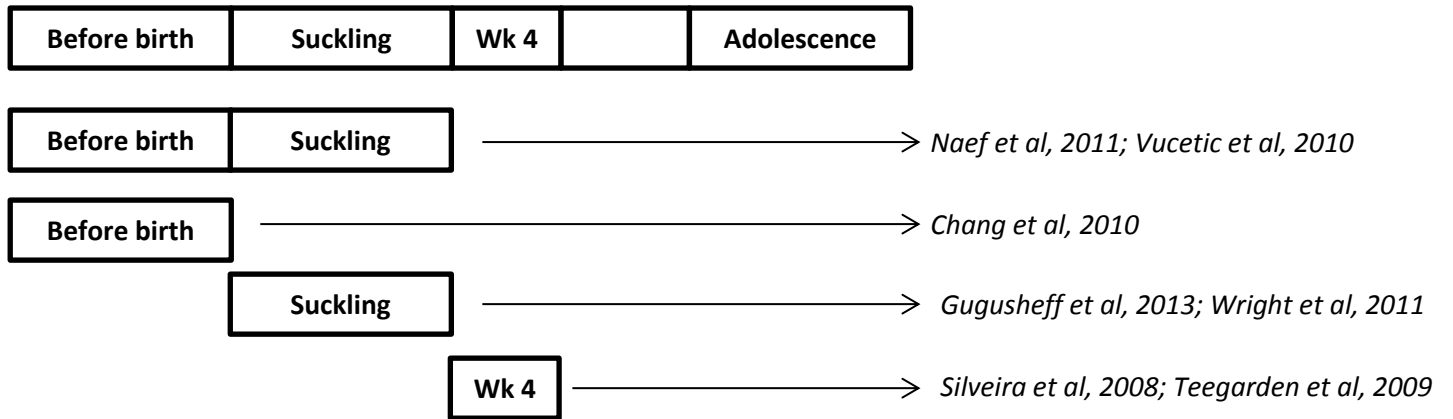
DOPAMINE SYSTEM

E12 First mesolimbic DA neurons identifiable	E14 First detectable expression of D1 and D2 receptor in neural tissue	E18 DA axons enter the striatum and DA receptors isolated in NAC and VTA	DA fibers and both receptors are expressed higher than adult levels in NAC	D2 receptor levels significantly higher than D1 receptor levels in NAC.	D2 receptor levels remain higher than D1 receptor levels in NAC	Peak expression of D1 and D2 receptors in NAC
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In utero	Birth	PW1	PW2	PW3	PW4
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E13 Endogenous opioid β -endorphin first detectable	E14 Opioid receptors first detectable using Naloxone	E15 β -endorphin levels peak in striatum	μ - and κ -opioid receptors present at birth reach peak expression in the NAC by end of week 1	δ -receptor first detectable	Peak μ -opioid receptor expression in forebrain	Peak levels of opioid peptides enkephalin and endorphin
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OPIOID SYSTEM



385 **Figure 1. Simplified schematic of reward pathway activation_1)** A rewarding stimulus
386 such as drugs and palatable foods can stimulate the dopamine neurons at the VTA, resulting
387 in the release of dopamine at the NAc. **2)** The rewarding stimulus can activate the release of
388 endogenous opioids at the VTA, which inhibits GABAergic interneurons. GABA normally
389 inhibits dopamine release. Therefore, this inhibition of GABA release disinhibits dopamine
390 neurons resulting in increased dopamine release at the NAc. **3)** Opioids can also bind to their
391 receptors located at the NAc. The activation of efferent target neurons at the NAc through **1),**
392 **2) and 3)** creates a pleasurable feeling associated with the rewarding stimuli. Black and grey
393 arrows indicate neuronal activation and inhibition respectively. Neurons are represented in
394 circles. Adapted from (67).

395 **Figure 2. Ontogeny of dopamine and opioid systems** Summary of key events in the
396 development of the dopamine (top) and opioid (bottom) systems within the mesolimbic
397 reward system throughout prenatal and first 4 weeks of postnatal life in the rodent. By
398 postnatal week 4, dopamine and opioid systems are similar to that of an adult. Abbreviations:
399 DA, dopamine; E, embryonic day; NAc, nucleus accumbens; MSN; medium spiny neuron;
400 PW, postnatal week; VTA, ventral tegmental area. See text for references. Adapted from (68).

401 **Figure 3. Critical windows for programming food preferences** A summary of the studies
402 which have investigated the periods of development in rodents during which high-
403 fat/cafeteria diet exposure is able to program an increased preference for these foods in
404 adulthood.

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