# UC San Diego UC San Diego Previously Published Works

# Title

Chronic voluntary caffeine intake in male Wistar rats reveals individual differences in addiction-like behavior

**Permalink** https://escholarship.org/uc/item/3441g8dg

### **Authors**

Lee, Christine H George, Olivier Kimbrough, Adam

# **Publication Date**

2020-04-01

### DOI

10.1016/j.pbb.2020.172880

Peer reviewed

1	Chronic voluntary caffeine intake in male Wistar rats reveals individual differences in
2	addiction-like behavior
3	
4	Christine H. Lee, Olivier George, Ph.D., Adam Kimbrough, Ph.D.*
5	
6	Department of Psychiatry, University of California San Diego, School of Medicine, MC 0714,
7	La Jolla, California, 92093.
8	
9	*Correspondence: Dr. Adam Kimbrough, Department of Psychiatry, University of California
10	San Diego, School of Medicine, 9500 Gilman Drive, MC 0714, La Jolla, CA 92093-0737. E-
11	mail: akimbrough@uscd.edu. Telephone: +1-858-822-0323
12	
13	This work was supported by National Institutes of Health grants DA044451, DA043799, and
14	AA027301. The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily
15	represent the official views of the National Institutes of Health.
16	

#### 17 Abstract

Caffeine is the most widely consumed psychoactive substance in the world. However, there is controversy about whether becoming addicted to caffeine is possible and a lack of wellestablished animal models to examine caffeine consumption. The present study sought to establish a model of caffeine consumption in Wistar rats, identify different rat populations of caffeine preference, and determine whether extended voluntary caffeine consumption produces compulsive-like caffeine intake and withdrawal symptoms.

Male Wistar rats were used throughout the experiment. The optimal concentration of caffeine to maximize caffeine consumption and caffeine preference was determined. Rats were then given continuous access to caffeine, followed by intermittent access. Rats were tested for signs of withdrawal-like behavior by measuring mechanical nociception and irritability-like behavior. Rats were further examined for compulsive-like caffeine consumption.

29 Dose-response testing indicated an optimal caffeine concentration of 0.3 mg/ml. During 30 intermittent access to caffeine, the rats did not escalate their caffeine intake and instead exhibited 31 a decrease in intake over sessions. Three groups of rats were identified based on caffeine 32 preference (high, medium, and low) across continuous and intermittent access. These three 33 groups of rats matched low (1 cup), medium (2 cups), and high (4 cups) levels of daily coffee 34 consumption in humans. Caffeine-consuming rats did not exhibit differences in mechanical 35 nociception or irritability-like behavior compared with controls. In high caffeine-preferring rats 36 but not in medium or low caffeine-preferring rats, compulsive-like caffeine consumption was 37 observed.

38 The present study established a rodent model of caffeine consumption that resulted in
39 large individual differences in caffeine intake, similar to humans. Compulsive-like caffeine

40	consumption	in high ca	affeine-pre	ferring rat	s in and	differences	in caffeine	preference	between
	1	0	1	0				1	

41 groups suggest that caffeine may result in compulsive-like intake in a subpopulation of subjects.

42 Further testing is necessary to determine the factors that contribute to differences in caffeine

- 43 preference and compulsive-like intake.
- 44

# 45 Keywords

- 46 Caffeine Use Disorder
- 47 Compulsivity
- 48 Dependence
- 49 Substance Abuse
- 50 Two-bottle choice

51

#### 52 Introduction

53 Caffeine is the most widely consumed drug in the world. It is regularly consumed in mild amounts for its anxiolytic and mood-boosting effects. It is generally regarded as safe, with barely 54 55 any restrictions worldwide on purchase and consumption compared with other psychoactive 56 substances (Nehlig et al., 1992; Temple et al., 2017; Nieber, 2017; Richards and Smith, 2016). 57 Over 85% of the United States population consumes at least one caffeinated beverage per day, 58 and many individuals consume more than one caffeinated beverage per day (Mitchell et al., 59 2014; Jain et al., 2019; Juliano et al., 2012). 60 The Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 5th edition, does not recognize caffeine among substance use disorders (SUDs). Although abstinence from chronic 61 62 caffeine consumption can produce withdrawal, unclear is whether it is also associated with 63 uncontrollable drug use and drug use despite adverse consequences (American Psychiatric 64 Association, 2013; Meredith et al., 2013). In humans, high levels of regular caffeine use can lead 65 to withdrawal symptoms, such as anxiety, headaches, fatigue, and irritability (American Psychiatric Association, 2013; Mitchell et al., 2014; Juliano and Griffiths, 2004; Stringer and 66 Watson, 1987; Griffiths and Chausmer, 2000; Heckman et al., 2010; Jain et al., 2019). Although 67 68 caffeine users can present withdrawal symptoms, studies have reported inconsistent evidence of 69 compulsive caffeine consumption (i.e., consuming despite harmful consequences), despite a 70 growing number of cases that meet these criteria (Strain et al., 1994; Hughes et al., 1998; Juliano 71 et al., 2012; Richards and Smith, 2015). Unknown is whether caffeine is addictive and results in 72 dependence or compulsive-like intake.

Few studies have evaluated the effects of caffeine and caffeine dependence in humans
and animal models. Many previous clinical studies focused on specific aspects of the effects of

caffeine on overall health and not caffeine addiction *per se*. A notable common pattern among
these previous studies is that individual humans consume different levels of caffeine (Seal et al.,
2017; Kolahdouzan and Hamadeh, 2017; Mitchell et al., 2014). Given differences in the amount
of caffeine that is consumed among the human population, caffeine dependence and compulsivelike caffeine intake might only be seen in individuals who regularly drink high levels of caffeine,
but this distinction has not yet been well explored.

81 Preclinical animal models are widely used to study addictive behaviors (O'Dell et al.,

82 2004; Gilpin et al., 2008a; Gilpin et al., 2008b Vendruscolo and Roberts, 2014; Wade et al.,

83 2015; Carnicella et al., 2014; Park et al., 2015; Edwards et al., 2012; Avegno and Gilpin, 2019).

84 Caffeine dependence and withdrawal have been reported in studies that utilized animal models of

85 involuntary/forced consumption (Nehlig, 1999). Mixed results have been reported in studies that

86 behaviorally modeled voluntary caffeine intake in rats. Intravenous caffeine self-administration

did not result in consistent levels of caffeine intake (Atkinson and Enslen, 1976). However, rats

88 learned to prefer a flavor that was associated with oral caffeine consumption (Fedorchak et al.,

89 2002), suggesting that caffeine may be voluntarily consumed orally in rats at proper doses and in

90 appropriate models of drinking.

91 The present study established a voluntary model of oral caffeine consumption in Wistar 92 rats. We identified distinct rat populations based on caffeine preference and determined whether 93 extended voluntary caffeine consumption in the two-bottle choice model produces compulsive-94 like caffeine drinking and withdrawal symptoms.

95

96 Methods

97 Subjects

Adult male Wistar rats (*n* = 36; 60 days old, ~250 g at the start of the study) were used for all of the experiments. The animals were single housed and maintained on a 12 h/12 h light/dark cycle with *ad libitum* access to food and water throughout the experiment. All of the procedures were conducted in strict adherence to the National Institutes of Health Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals and approved by The Scripps Research Institute Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee.

104

105 Experimental Design

106 The rats (n = 24) received continuous or intermittent access to a caffeine solution in a 24-107 h two-bottle choice paradigm. The remaining control rats (n = 12) remained experimentally naive 108 and received no caffeine throughout the study. The rats were first tested to establish a caffeine 109 dose-response curve using four different concentrations (0.07, 0.14, 0.3, and 0.7 mg/ml). The 110 optimal concentration (0.3 mg/ml), based on the dose response, was used for the remainder of the 111 experiment. Following dose-response testing, the rats then received continuous access to caffeine 112 for 8 days. After continuous access, the rats received intermittent access (every other day) to 113 caffeine for 10 total sessions over 3 weeks. During intermittent access, all of the rats were tested 114 for irritability-like behavior in the bottle-brush test and pain sensitivity in the von Frey test 24 h 115 after the last access to caffeine. The rats were then returned to continuous access for 8 days and 116 then tested for compulsive-like caffeine intake in the quinine adulteration test. See Fig. 1 for a 117 diagram of the experimental design.

118

119 Drugs

120	Research-grade caffeine (Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) was dissolved in water.
121	The rats were given access to the caffeine solution in a voluntary two-bottle choice paradigm.
122	The bitter tastant quinine hydrochloride dihydrate (Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) was
123	used for the quinine adulteration test.
124	
125	Dose-response test
126	We first sought to determine which concentration of caffeine (0.07, 0.14, 0.3, and 0.7
127	mg/ml) is most preferred by the rats while maximizing caffeine consumption. Each concentration
128	was tested for 2 days. The positions of the caffeine and water bottles were alternated every day to
129	avoid possible side preference. Caffeine and water intake was recorded by weighing each bottle
130	daily at the end of the rats' light cycle. The 0.3 mg/ml concentration resulted in the highest total
131	caffeine consumption and was the most highly preferred. Therefore, this concentration was used
132	for the subsequent phases of the experiment.
133	
134	Continuous- and intermittent-access two-bottle choice of caffeine and water
135	A model of continuous- and intermittent-access to caffeine in a two-bottle choice
136	procedure was used. This model was similar to previous studies of alcohol drinking (George et
137	al., 2012; Simms et al., 2008; Wise, 1973; Kimbrough et al., 2017b). The rats were presented
138	with 24-h access to two bottles throughout the experiment, one containing water and the other
139	containing caffeine. The bottle positions were switched daily to avoid possible side preference.
140	Daily water and caffeine intake was recorded by weighing the bottles each day at the end of the
141	light cycle. Based on the dose-response test, we used the 0.3 mg/ml concentration for continuous
142	and intermittent access. The rats were first given continuous access to 0.3 mg/ml caffeine and

143	water for 8 days. On the last 2 days of continuous access, caffeine and water intake was recorded
144	for each rat at multiple times throughout the 24-h session (i.e., 2, 6, 12, and 24 h after the
145	beginning of the dark cycle) to examine drinking patterns throughout the day. Following
146	continuous access, the rats were given intermittent access to caffeine, in which caffeine and
147	water days alternated with water-only days for a total of 10 caffeine days over 3 weeks. We
148	sought to determine whether the escalation of caffeine intake would occur. On days when the rats
149	did not receive caffeine (i.e., water-only days), empty bottles were placed in the open slot where
150	the caffeine bottle would be.
151	
152	Determination of separate populations of caffeine preference
153	Average preference across the continuous- and intermittent-access periods was calculated
154	for each rat. The rats were then split into three categories based on preference: high preference (>
155	70% preference for caffeine over water), medium preference (30-70% preference for caffeine
156	over water), and low preference (< 30% preference for caffeine over water).
157	
158	Measurement of mechanical nociception during caffeine withdrawal
159	The von Frey test was used to measure mechanical nociception in rats (Kononoff et al.,
160	2018a; Kallupi et al., 2018). The test was performed 24 h after the rats' last access to caffeine.
161	We used an automated von Frey device (Dynamic Plantar Aesthesiometer, Ugo Basile) to
162	measure touch sensitivity on the plantar surface of the rats' hind paws. The rats were placed in
163	individual chambers on top of an elevated wire grid floor and were given 5 min to acclimate to
164	the apparatus before the procedure began. A thin 0.5 mm von Frey filament was attached to the
165	automated machine and placed under the wire grid. The filament was applied perpendicularly to

the plantar surface of the rat's hind paw. The filament was applied with gradually increasing
force (maximum force = 40 g) until a reflex reaction occurred. The Dynamic Plantar
Aesthesiometer automatically recorded the paw withdrawal latency and force of the filament that
was applied at the time of paw withdrawal. Each rat underwent six trials (three trials for the left
hind paw and three trials for the right hind paw). The chambers were cleaned with ethanol

171 between each session.

172

#### 173 Measurement of irritability-like behavior during caffeine withdrawal

174 We used the bottle-brush test to test for irritability-like behavior 24 h after the rats' last 175 access to caffeine. The test was based on previous studies (Kononoff et al., 2018b; Kimbrough et 176 al., 2017a). The bottle-brush test uses a bottle brush to measure aggressive and defensive 177 responses. Increases in irritability-like behavior in the bottle-brush test have been observed 178 during alcohol and nicotine withdrawal (Sidhu et al., 2018; Somkuwar et al., 2017; Kimbrough et 179 al., 2017a; Xue et al., 2018; Kallupi et al., 2018; Kimbrough et al., 2020). The test began at the 180 start of the rats' dark cycle and was conducted under dim red light. The session consisted of 10 181 trials in a clean plastic cage (26.67 cm  $\times$  48.26 cm  $\times$  20.32 cm; Ancare, Bellmore, NY, USA) 182 with fresh bedding. Each trial began with the rat positioned at the back of the cage. The bottle-183 brush was inserted into the cage from the front, rotating toward the rat's whiskers for 184 approximately 3 s. The rotating brush was then returned to the front of the cage where it hung 185 vertically for approximately 2 s before it was removed entirely from the cage. During this time, 186 three observers recorded aggressive and defensive responses in each trial. Total responses over 187 all 10 trials per session per rat were then summed, and an average across all observers was 188 calculated for each rat. The following aggressive responses were recorded: sniffing the brush,

189	biting the brush, boxing the brush, following the brush, and exploring the brush (i.e.,
190	manipulating the brush without biting or boxing). The following defensive responses were
191	recorded: escaping from the brush, digging, jumping, climbing, vocalization, and grooming.
192	
193	Quinine adulteration test
194	After receiving intermittent access, the rats were given continuous access for 8 days to
195	restabilize caffeine intake before beginning the quinine adulteration test. Quinine (5, 10, 25, and
196	50 mg/L) was added to the 0.3 mg/ml caffeine solution. This method has been used in previous
197	studies to examine compulsive-like alcohol drinking despite aversive consequences and results in
198	a reduction of the preference for preferred solutions (Kimbrough et al., 2017b; Vendruscolo et
199	al., 2012; Seif et al., 2013). Beginning at the 5 mg/L quinine concentration, each concentration
200	was tested in ascending order for 2 days. The bottle positions of water and adulterated caffeine
201	solution were switched every day to avoid possible side preference.
202	
203	Determination of the Human Equivalent Dose of caffeine
204	We calculated the Human Equivalent Dose (HED; in mg/kg) of caffeine that was
205	consumed by rats in each preference group (low, medium, and high). Caffeine consumption at
206	the 0.3 mg/ml dose during the dose-response test was used as a baseline value of caffeine
207	consumption in each group. The dose conversion from rats to humans (i.e., the HED) was
208	estimated based on body surface area, which is associated with body weight (Nair and Jacob,

209 2016). To compare our rat HED results to actual human caffeine dose averages, we estimated an

210 approximate daily intake of caffeine in mg/kg for high, medium, and low caffeine drinking

211 humans. We calculated the mg of caffeine consumed for high caffeine drinkers based off of a

212 study indicating that the 90th percentile of US caffeine consumers take 380 mg of caffeine daily 213 (Mitchell et al., 2014). We then calculated the medium caffeine drinkers intake to be 50% of the 214 high caffeine drinkers intake (190 mg) and low caffeine drinkers to be 25% of the high caffeine 215 drinkers intake (95 mg). This equates to approximately 4 cups of coffee for high drinkers, 2 cups 216 for medium drinkers, and 1 cup for low drinkers for an average 95 mg of caffeine cup of coffee. 217 We then calculated intake (in mg/kg) in humans based on an average body weight of 80 kg for 218 each dose (high, medium and low). The resulting mg/kg doses for high, medium and low 219 caffeine drinking humans is displayed in Fig 6.

220

221 Statistical analysis

222 Caffeine preference was calculated as caffeine consumption (in ml) divided by total 223 intake (caffeine + water; in ml). The caffeine intake results are presented as intake (in ml and 224 mg/kg) and preference for caffeine over water. These data are expressed as 2-day averages. The 225 initial dose-response data before splitting the groups into high, medium, and low preference were 226 analyzed using one-way repeated-measures analysis of variance (ANOVA), with caffeine 227 concentration as the within-subjects factor. The data on caffeine intake during the different 228 phases of the study (dose-response, continuous access, and intermittent access), with the groups 229 split into high, medium, and low preference, were analyzed using two-way repeated-measures 230 ANOVA, with group as the between-subjects factor and concentration and days as the within-231 subjects factors. Caffeine intake in the quinine adulteration test was examined using one-way 232 repeated-measures ANOVA for each group, with quinine concentration as the within-subjects 233 factor. The data from the bottle-brush test, body weight, and data from the von Frey test were 234 analyzed using one-way ANOVA, with group as the between-subjects factor. Significant main

235	effects in the ANOVAs were followed by the Student-Newman-Keuls (SNK) post hoc test. The
236	data were analyzed using Statistica software (Tibco). Values of $p < 0.05$ were considered
237	statistically significant.
238	
239	Results
240	Dose-response test
241	For the initial caffeine dose-response test, the one-way repeated-measures ANOVA
242	revealed a significant main effect of caffeine concentration on caffeine consumption ( $F_{3,69}$ =
243	49.70, $p < 0.0005$ ). The SNK <i>post hoc</i> test indicated that caffeine consumption at the 0.07 and
244	0.7 mg/ml caffeine concentrations was significantly lower compared with the 0.14 and 0.3 mg/ml
245	concentrations. Caffeine consumption at 0.3 mg/ml caffeine was significantly higher than
246	caffeine consumption at the 0.14 mg/ml concentration (Fig. 2A).
247	The one-way repeated-measures ANOVA revealed a significant main effect of caffeine
248	concentration on the preference for caffeine ( $F_{3,69} = 49.63$ , $p < 0.0005$ ). The SNK post hoc
249	indicated that caffeine preference at the 0.7 mg/ml caffeine concentration was significantly lower
250	compared with all of the other caffeine concentrations (Fig. 2B).
251	We then analyzed caffeine consumption (in mg/kg) based on separate groups of caffeine
252	preference (high, medium, and low). The two-way repeated-measures ANOVA revealed
253	significant main effects of group ( $F_{2,21} = 5.38$ , $p < 0.05$ ) and concentration ( $F_{3,63} = 59.34$ , $p < 0.05$ )
254	0.0005) and a significant group × concentration interaction ( $F_{6,63} = 7.02$ , $p < 0.0005$ ). The SNK
255	post hoc test indicated that caffeine consumption in the high preference group at the 0.07 and 0.7
256	mg/ml caffeine concentrations was significantly lower than at the 0.14 and 0.3 mg/ml doses.
257	Additionally, in the high preference group, caffeine consumption (in mg/kg) at the 0.3 mg/ml

258 caffeine concentration was significantly higher than caffeine consumption at the 0.14 mg/ml 259 concentration. In the medium preference group, caffeine consumption (in mg/kg) at the 0.3 260 mg/ml caffeine concentration was significantly higher than all of the other concentrations. In the 261 low preference group, caffeine consumption (in mg/kg) at the 0.7 mg/ml caffeine concentration 262 was significantly lower than caffeine consumption at the 0.14 mg/ml concentration. Comparisons 263 among groups showed that the high preference group consumed significantly more caffeine (in 264 mg/kg) compared with the medium and low preference groups at the 0.7 and 0.3 mg/ml caffeine 265 concentration. The medium preference group consumed significantly more caffeine (in mg/kg) 266 than the low preference group at the 0.3 mg/ml concentration (Fig. 2C). The two-way repeated-measures ANOVA revealed significant main effects of group 267 268  $(F_{2,21} = 29.09, p < 0.0005)$  and concentration  $(F_{3,63} = 62.28, p < 0.0005)$  on caffeine preference

and a significant group × concentration interaction ( $F_{6,63} = 6.92$ , p < 0.0005). The SNK post hoc

270 test indicated that caffeine preference in the high and medium preference groups at the 0.7 mg/ml 271 caffeine concentration was significantly lower than all of the other concentrations. In the low 272 preference group, caffeine preference at the 0.07 and 0.14 mg/ml caffeine concentration was 273 significantly higher than at the 0.7 mg/ml concentration. Caffeine preference was significantly 274 lower in the low and medium preference groups at the 0.07, 0.14, and 0.3 mg/ml caffeine 275 concentration compared with the high preference group. Caffeine preference in the low 276 preference group was significantly lower than in the medium preference group at the 0.07 and 277 0.3 mg/ml caffeine concentrations (Fig. 2D).

278

280	One-way repeated-measures ANOVA was used to analyze caffeine preference across the
281	continuous and intermittent access periods, with days (expressed as 2-day averages) as the
282	within-subjects factor. The one-way ANOVA revealed a significant main effect of day on
283	caffeine preference ( $F_{8,184} = 5.73$ , $p < 0.0005$ ). The SNK <i>post hoc</i> test indicated that caffeine
284	preference on Day 1 was significantly higher than on Days 16-28 (Fig. 3A).
285	Two-way repeated-measures ANOVA was also used to analyze caffeine preference, with
286	group (high, medium, and low preference) as the between-subjects factor and days (expressed as
287	2-day averages) during continuous and intermittent access to caffeine as the within-subjects
288	factor. The two-way repeated-measures ANOVA revealed significant effects of group ( $F_{2,21}$ =
289	94.87, $p < 0.0005$ ) and day ( $F_{8,168} = 5.16$ , $p < 0.0005$ ) on caffeine preference but no significant
290	group $\times$ day interaction (Fig. 3B).
291	
292	Determination of separate populations of rats based on caffeine preference
293	The average preference of individual rats across the continuous- and intermittent-access
294	periods was determined and used to split the rats into high, medium, and low preference. One-
295	way repeated-measures ANOVA was used to analyze average caffeine preference in the three
296	different groups across the continuous- and intermittent-access periods. The one-way ANOVA
297	revealed a significant main effect of group on caffeine preference ( $F_{2,21} = 94.94$ , $p < 0.0005$ ). The
298	SNK post hoc test indicated that caffeine preference in the high preference group was
299	significantly higher than in the medium and low preference groups. Caffeine preference in the
300	medium preference group was significantly higher than in the low preference group (Fig. 3C).
301	

302 Behavioral testing

In the von Frey test, the one-way repeated measures ANOVA revealed no effect of group on the paw withdrawal latency ( $F_{3,32} = 1.57$ , p > 0.05) or the force that was required to elicit a withdrawal response ( $F_{3,32} = 1.05$ , p > 0.05; Fig. 4A, B).

306 In the bottle-brush test, the one-way repeated-measures ANOVA revealed no effect of 307 group on aggressive responses ( $F_{3,32} = 1.79$ , p > 0.05) or defensive responses ( $F_{3,32} = 0.63$ , p >308 0.05; Fig. 4C).

309

### 310 Quinine adulteration of caffeine solution

311 One-way repeated-measures ANOVA was used to analyze the effect of increasing 312 concentrations of quinine on caffeine preference. The one-way ANOVA revealed a significant 313 effect of quinine concentration on caffeine preference ( $F_{4,92} = 7.87$ , p < 0.0005). The SNK *post* 314 *hoc* test indicated that caffeine preference significantly decreased compared with baseline at the 315 0.025 and 0.05 g/L quinine concentrations (Fig. 5A).

Two-way repeated measures ANOVA was used to analyze the effect of quinine
concentration on caffeine preference, with group (high, medium, and low preference) as the

between-subjects factor and quinine concentration as the within-subjects factor. The two-way

repeated-measures ANOVA revealed significant main effects of group ( $F_{2,21} = 80.99, p < 0.0005$ )

320 and quinine concentration ( $F_{4,84} = 5.86$ , p < 0.0005) on caffeine preference and a significant

321 group × quinine concentration interaction ( $F_{8,84} = 2.30$ , p < 0.05). The SNK post hoc test

indicated that the high preference group and low preference group did not exhibit a significant

323 decrease in caffeine preference at any quinine concentration tested compared with their baseline

324 preference. The medium preference group exhibited a significant decrease in caffeine preference

325 compared with baseline at the 0.025 and 0.05 g/L quinine concentrations (Fig. 5B).

#### 326

### 327 Human Equivalent Dose of caffeine

The HED of caffeine consumption was 4.15 mg/kg in the high preference group, 2.69 mg/kg in the medium preference group, and 1.21 mg/kg in the low preference group. These HEDs were comparable to estimated doses for high, medium, and low caffeine consumption in humans (Fig. 6).

332

333 Discussion

334 The present study sought to establish a rat model of voluntary oral caffeine consumption 335 using the two-bottle choice paradigm, identify different groups based on caffeine preference, and 336 determine whether chronic caffeine consumption leads to compulsive-like caffeine intake or 337 behavioral signs of withdrawal. We first established an ideal concentration of caffeine (0.3 338 mg/ml) to maximize caffeine preference and total caffeine consumption by testing intake at 339 several doses of caffeine. We found that caffeine consumption did not escalate with intermittent 340 access and instead decreased slightly. Interestingly, separate populations of rats (high, medium, 341 and low caffeine preference) were identified based on caffeine preference throughout the 342 experiment. The rats exhibited an no behavioral signs of withdrawal in all of the caffeine 343 preference groups, but the high preference group exhibited signs of compulsive-like caffeine 344 intake in the quinine adulteration test. When we calculated the HED of caffeine intake in each 345 group of rats (high, medium, and low preference), the amount of intake resembled estimated 346 amounts of caffeine intake in humans. Overall, these data establish a preclinical model of 347 voluntary caffeine drinking that can distinguish different groups of rats based on caffeine 348 preference that resemble human caffeine drinkers.

349 In the dose-response test, caffeine preference and total caffeine intake were evaluated to 350 determine the optimal oral caffeine dose. The 0.3 mg/ml caffeine concentration was the ideal 351 concentration for further testing in the two-bottle choice paradigm. This concentration was 352 highly preferred and led to the largest amount of caffeine consumption. This concentration of 353 caffeine was very similar to the amount of caffeine (0.38 mg/ml) that is contained in an average 354 cup of coffee that is consumed by humans (Temple et al., 2017). Our dose-response data are 355 consistent with a previous study that reported that rats form a flavor preference for lower 356 concentrations of caffeine (0.25 and 0.125 mg/ml) but form aversions to higher concentrations 357 (0.5 and 0.75 mg/ml; Fedorchak et al., 2002). Other studies have employed forced caffeine 358 exposure to assess subsequent free-choice caffeine consumption. Preference has been shown to 359 depend on the concentration of caffeine (Newland and Brown, 1992; Vitiello and Woods, 1975). 360 The present findings and previous studies suggest that rats prefer caffeine at concentrations that 361 are similar to those that are consumed by humans in a standard cup of coffee. 362 Previous rodent studies that examined nicotine, alcohol, and cocaine intake have 363 demonstrated that intermittent-access schedules results in the escalation of drug intake, a 364 hallmark of drug dependence (O'dell and Koob, 2007; Cohen et al., 2012; Melendez, 2011; 365 Kimbrough et al., 2017b; Kawa et al., 2016). Withdrawal symptoms, such as irritability-like 366 behavior, pain sensitivity, and anxiety-like behavior, have been shown to occur within 8-72 h of 367 the last drug exposure in many preclinical models of substance us disorders (Cohen et al., 2012; 368 Melendez, 2011; Kimbrough et al., 2017b; Kawa et al., 2016). Caffeine administration using 369 methods of involuntary or forced consumption in animal models has been shown to produce 370 dependence and withdrawal symptoms (Nehlig, 1999). Forced oral caffeine consumption at high 371 concentrations (1 g/L) for 20 days induced aversions to a flavor that was paired with caffeine

372 withdrawal in rodents (Dingle et al., 2008), suggesting caffeine dependence can be induced by 373 oral consumption. However, in the present study, intermittent access did not results in the 374 escalation of intake compared with continuous access; instead, intermittent access results in a 375 slight decrease in intake. Additionally, the rats did not exhibit behavioral signs of withdrawal 24 376 h after the last access to caffeine. Altogether, these data suggest that voluntary caffeine drinking 377 in an intermittent-access two-bottle choice procedure does not result in caffeine dependence and 378 does not produce the escalation of intake (i.e., two key behaviors that are observed after chronic 379 intermittent access to cocaine, nicotine, and alcohol; O'dell and Koob, 2007; Melendez, 2011; 380 Kimbrough et al., 2017b; Kawa et al., 2016; Cohen et al., 2012; Simms et al., 2008; Ahmed et 381 al., 2002).

382 Interestingly, examinations of caffeine preference in individual rats during the extended 383 period of two-bottle choice revealed three distinct populations of rats that could be divided into 384 high, medium, and low preference groups. The high preference group maintained high and 385 consistent caffeine preference throughout the experiment. The low preference group exhibited a 386 similar behavioral pattern as the high preference group, with low preference throughout the 387 continuous- and intermittent-access periods. The medium preference group exhibited a modest 388 decrease in caffeine preference from the continuous-access period to the intermittent-access 389 period. In humans, similar populations of caffeine drinkers have been distinguished (Goncalves 390 et al., 2017; Barnung et al., 2018; Mitchell et al., 2014, Kuang et al., 2018, Cornelis, 2019). 391 Interestingly, the amount of caffeine that was consumed in the different preference groups in the 392 present study were similar to amounts of caffeine that are consumed in different groups of 393 humans who drink caffeinated beverages. The HED of caffeine (in mg/kg) that was consumed by 394 rats in the present study was 4.15 mg/kg in the high preference group, 2.69 mg/kg in the medium

395 preference group, and 1.21 mg/kg in the low preference group. These HED doses in rats are 396 comparable to estimated human doses of 4.2 mg/kg for high-preferring drinkers, 2.1 mg/kg for 397 medium-preferring drinkers, and 1.1 mg/kg for low-preferring drinkers (see Fig. 6; Mitchell et 398 al., 2014; Nair and Jacob, 2016). The similarity of caffeine intake in rats in the present study to 399 caffeine intake in humans supports the use of the present model of caffeine self-administration in 400 future preclinical studies that explore voluntary caffeine consumption and genetic determinants 401 of caffeine preference.

402 We tested compulsive-like caffeine intake using the quinine adulteration test. The high 403 preference group but not the low or medium preference groups exhibited persistent caffeine 404 preference even at high concentrations of quinine. The low preference group did not exhibit a 405 significant decrease in preference as the quinine concentration increased. This is likely 406 attributable to a floor effect. The 0.05 g/L concentration of quinine that high caffeine drinking 407 rats showed s persistent preference for caffeine without reduction is the same concentration of 408 quinine that resulted in a significant reduction of alcohol intake in alcohol dependent rats 409 (Vendruscolo et al., 2012), but not alcohol dependent rats with a prior binge drinking history 410 (Kimbrough et al., 2017b). This suggests that although the rats did not escalate their caffeine 411 intake or exhibit withdrawal symptoms, rats that consistently preferred higher concentrations of 412 caffeine exhibited compulsive-like caffeine drinking.

In summary, the present study established a model of voluntary oral caffeine
consumption, and we identified 0.3 mg/ml as the most appropriate concentration in this model.
Intermittent access to caffeine did not result in the escalation of caffeine intake. We identified
three distinct populations of rats (high, medium, and low preference) based on caffeine
preference that mirrored intake in humans. We found evidence of compulsive-like caffeine

418 intake in the high preference group. The present model of voluntary oral caffeine consumption 419 recapitulates caffeine preference that is observed in humans, suggesting its utility for studying 420 the neurobiological and pharmacological effects of caffeine. The significant difference in 421 caffeine preference that was observed between the high, medium, and low groups suggests 422 potential genetic differences that result in different rewarding or aversive effects. We did not 423 observe the escalation of caffeine intake with intermittent access, which contrast with other 424 common drugs of abuse. However, compulsive-like caffeine intake in the high preference group 425 suggests that compulsive-like behavior may develop after chronic caffeine use in individuals 426 with a high preference for caffeine. Caffeine intake has been shown to modulate the consumption of alcohol and nicotine (Fritz et al., 2016; Rezvani et al., 2013), suggesting complex interactions 427 428 with these drugs that warrant further investigation. 429

### 430 Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank Michael Arends for his diligent work in proofreading themanuscript.

433

#### 434 **Conflicts of Interest**

- 435 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.
- 436

#### 437 **References**

AHMED, S. H., KENNY, P. J., KOOB, G. F. & MARKOU, A. 2002. Neurobiological evidence
for hedonic allostasis associated with escalating cocaine use. *Nat Neurosci*, 5, 625-6.

- 440 AMERICAN PSYCHIATRIC ASSOCIATION. 2013. Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of
- 441 *Mental Disorders*, 5th edition. American Psychiatric Press, Washington, DC.
- 442 ATKINSON, J. & ENSLEN, M. 1976. Self-administration of caffeine by the rat.
- 443 *Arzneimittelforschung*, 26, 2059-61.
- 444 AVEGNO, E.M. & GILPIN, N.W. 2019. Inducing Alcohol Dependence in Rats Using Chronic
- 445 Intermittent Exposure to Alcohol Vapor. *Bio Protoc*, 9, e3222.
- 446 BARNUNG, R, B., NØST T, H., ULVEN, S. M., SKEIE, G. & K, S. O. 2018. Coffee
- 447 Consumption and Whole-Blood Gene Expression in the Norwegian Women and Cancer
  448 Post-Genome Cohort. *Nutrients*, 10.
- CARNICELLA, S., RON, D. & BARAK, S. 2014. Intermittent ethanol access schedule in rats as
  a preclinical model of alcohol abuse. *Alcohol*, 48, 243-52.
- 451 COHEN, A., KOOB, G. F. & GEORGE, O. 2012. Robust escalation of nicotine intake with
- 452 extended access to nicotine self-administration and intermittent periods of abstinence.

453 *Neuropsychopharmacology*, 37, 2153-60.

- 454 CORNELIS, M. C. 2019. The Impact of Caffeine and Coffee on Human Health. *Nutrients*, 11.
- 455 DINGLE, R. N., DREUMONT-BOUDREAU, S. E. & LOLORDO, V. M. 2008. Caffeine
- 456 dependence in rats: effects of exposure duration and concentration. *Physiol Behav*, 95,
  457 252-7.
- 458 EDWARDS, S., VENDRUSCOLO, L. F., SCHLOSBURG, J. E., MISRA, K. K., WEE, S.,
- 459 PARK, P. E., SCHULTEIS, G. & KOOB, G. F. 2012. Development of mechanical
- 460 hypersensitivity in rats during heroin and ethanol dependence: alleviation by CRF(1)
- 461 receptor antagonism. *Neuropharmacology*, 62, 1142-51.

462	FEDORCHAK, P. M., MESITA, J., PLATER, S. A. & BROUGHAM, K. 2002. Caffeine-
463	reinforced conditioned flavor preferences in rats. Behav Neurosci, 116, 334-46.
464	FRITZ, B. M., QUOILIN, C., KASTEN, C. R., SMOKER, M. & BOEHM, S. L., 2ND 2016.
465	Concomitant Caffeine Increases Binge Consumption of Ethanol in Adolescent and Adult
466	Mice, But Produces Additive Motor Stimulation Only in Adolescent Animals. Alcohol
467	<i>Clin Exp Res</i> , 40, 1351-60.
468	GEORGE, O., SANDERS, C., FREILING, J., GRIGORYAN, E., VU, S., ALLEN, C. D.,
469	CRAWFORD, E., MANDYAM, C. D. & KOOB, G. F. 2012. Recruitment of medial
470	prefrontal cortex neurons during alcohol withdrawal predicts cognitive impairment and
471	excessive alcohol drinking. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA, 109, 18156-61.
472	GILPIN, N. W., RICHARDSON, H. N. & KOOB, G. F. 2008a. Effects of CRF1-receptor and
473	opioid-receptor antagonists on dependence-induced increases in alcohol drinking by
474	alcohol-preferring (P) rats. Alcohol Clin Exp Res, 32, 1535-42.
475	GILPIN, N.W, RICHARDSON, H.N., COLE, M. & KOOB, G.F. 2008b. Vapor inhalation of
476	alcohol in rats. Curr Protoc Neurosci, Chapter 9.
477	GONCALVES, L. S., PAINELLI, V. S., YAMAGUCHI, G., OLIVEIRA, L. F., SAUNDERS,
478	B., DA SILVA, R. P., MACIEL, E., ARTIOLI, G. G., ROSCHEL, H. & GUALANO, B.
479	2017. Dispelling the myth that habitual caffeine consumption influences the performance
480	response to acute caffeine supplementation. J Appl Physiol (1985), 123, 213-220.
481	GRIFFITHS, R. R. & CHAUSMER, A. L. 2000. Caffeine as a model drug of dependence: recent
482	developments in understanding caffeine withdrawal, the caffeine dependence syndrome,
483	and caffeine negative reinforcement. Nihon Shinkei Seishin Yakurigaku Zasshi, 20, 223-
484	31.

485	HECKMAN, M. A.	, WEIL, J. & GONZA	LEZ DE MEJIA, E	E. 2010. Caffeine (1, 3, 7-
-----	----------------	--------------------	-----------------	-----------------------------

- 486 trimethylxanthine) in foods: a comprehensive review on consumption, functionality,
  487 safety, and regulatory matters. *J Food Sci*, 75, R77-87.
- 488 HUGHES, J. R., OLIVETO, A. H., LIGUORI, A., CARPENTER, J. & HOWARD, T. 1998.
- 489 Endorsement of DSM-IV dependence criteria among caffeine users. *Drug Alcohol*
- 490 *Depend*, 52, 99-107.
- JAIN, S., SRIVASTAVA, A. S., VERMA, R. P. & MAGGU, G. 2019. Caffeine addiction: Need
  for awareness and research and regulatory measures. *Asian J Psychiatr*, 41, 73-75.
- 493 JULIANO, L. M., EVATT, D. P., RICHARDS, B. D. & GRIFFITHS, R. R. 2012.
- 494 Characterization of individuals seeking treatment for caffeine dependence. *Psychol*495 *Addict Behav*, 26, 948-54.
- 496 JULIANO, L. M. & GRIFFITHS, R. R. 2004. A critical review of caffeine withdrawal: empirical
- 497 validation of symptoms and signs, incidence, severity, and associated features.
- 498 Psychopharmacology (Berl), 176, 1-29.
- 499 KALLUPI, M., XUE, S., ZHOU, B., JANDA, K. D. & GEORGE, O. 2018. An enzymatic
- approach reverses nicotine dependence, decreases compulsive-like intake, and prevents
  relapse. *Sci Adv*, 4, eaat4751.
- 502 KAWA, A. B., BENTZLEY, B. S. & ROBINSON, T. E. 2016. Less is more: prolonged
- intermittent access cocaine self-administration produces incentive-sensitization and
  addiction-like behavior. *Psychopharmacology (Berl)*, 233, 3587-602.
- 505 KIMBROUGH, A., DE GUGLIELMO, G., KONONOFF, J., KALLUPI, M., ZORRILLA, E. P.
- 506 & GEORGE, O. 2017a. CRF1 Receptor-Dependent Increases in Irritability-Like

507	Behavior During Abstinence from Chronic Intermittent Ethanol Vapor Exposure. Alcohol
508	<i>Clin Exp Res</i> , 41, 1886-1895.
509	KIMBROUGH, A., KIM, S., COLE, M., BRENNAN, M. & GEORGE, O. 2017b. Intermittent
510	Access to Ethanol Drinking Facilitates the Transition to Excessive Drinking After
511	Chronic Intermittent Ethanol Vapor Exposure. Alcohol Clin Exp Res, 41, 1502-1509.
512	KIMBROUGH, A., LURIE, D., COLLAZO, A., KREIFELDT, M., SIDHU, H., MACEDO, G.

- 513
- 514 architecture remodeling by alcohol dependence and abstinence. Proc Natl Acad Sci US

C., D'ESPOSITO, M., CONTET, C. & GEORGE, O. 2020. Brain-wide functional

- 515 A, In Press.
- 516 KOLAHDOUZAN, M. & HAMADEH, M. J. 2017. The neuroprotective effects of caffeine in 517 neurodegenerative diseases. CNS Neurosci Ther, 23, 272-290.
- 518 KONONOFF, J., KALLUPI, M., KIMBROUGH, A., CONLISK, D., DE GUGLIELMO, G. &
- 519 GEORGE, O. 2018a. Systemic and Intra-Habenular Activation of the Orphan G Protein-
- 520 Coupled Receptor GPR139 Decreases Compulsive-Like Alcohol Drinking and
- 521 Hyperalgesia in Alcohol-Dependent Rats. eNeuro, 5.
- 522 KONONOFF, J., MELAS, P. A., KALLUPI, M., DE GUGLIELMO, G., KIMBROUGH, A.,
- 523 SCHERMA, M., FADDA, P., KANDEL, D. B., KANDEL, E. R. & GEORGE, O. 2018b.
- 524 Adolescent cannabinoid exposure induces irritability-like behavior and cocaine cross-
- 525 sensitization without affecting the escalation of cocaine self-administration in adulthood.
- 526 Sci Rep, 8, 13893.
- 527 KUANG, A., ERLUND, I., HERDER, C., WESTERHUIS, J. A., TUOMILEHTO, J. &
- 528 CORNELIS, M. C. 2018. Lipidomic Response to Coffee Consumption. Nutrients, 10.

529	MELENDEZ, R. I. 2011. Intermittent (every-other-day) drinking induces rapid escalation of
530	ethanol intake and preference in adolescent and adult C57BL/6J mice. Alcohol Clin Exp
531	<i>Res</i> , 35, 652-8.

- 532 MEREDITH, S. E., JULIANO, L. M., HUGHES, J. R. & GRIFFITHS, R. R. 2013. Caffeine Use
- 533 Disorder: A Comprehensive Review and Research Agenda. *J Caffeine Res*, 3, 114-130.
- 534 MITCHELL, D. C., KNIGHT, C. A., HOCKENBERRY, J., TEPLANSKY, R. & HARTMAN,
- 535 T. J. 2014. Beverage caffeine intakes in the U.S. *Food Chem Toxicol*, 63, 136-42.
- 536 NAIR, A. B. & JACOB, S. 2016. A simple practice guide for dose conversion between animals
  537 and human. *J Basic Clin Pharm*, 7, 27-31.
- NEHLIG, A. 1999. Are we dependent upon coffee and caffeine? A review on human and animal
  data. *Neurosci Biobehav Rev*, 23, 563-76.
- 540 NEHLIG, A., DAVAL, J. L. & DEBRY, G. 1992. Caffeine and the central nervous system:
- 541 mechanisms of action, biochemical, metabolic and psychostimulant effects. *Brain Res*542 *Brain Res Rev*, 17, 139-70.
- 543 NEWLAND, M. C. & BROWN, K. 1992. Oral caffeine consumption by rats: the role of flavor
- history, concentration, concurrent food, and an adenosine agonist. *Pharmacol Biochem Behav*, 42, 651-9.
- 546 NIEBER, K. 2017. The Impact of Coffee on Health. *Planta Med*, 83, 1256-1263.
- 547 O'DELL, L. E., ROBERTS, A. J., SMITH, R. T. & KOOB, G. F. 2004. Enhanced alcohol self-
- 548 administration after intermittent versus continuous alcohol vapor exposure. *Alcohol Clin*
- 549 *Exp Res*, 28, 1676-82.

- 550 O'DELL, L.E. & KOOB, G.F. 2007. 'Nicotine deprivation effect' in rats with intermittent 23-
- hour access to intravenous nicotine self-administration. *Pharmacol Biochem Behav*, 86,
  346-53.
- 553 PARK, P. E., SCHLOSBURG, J. E., VENDRUSCOLO, L. F., SCHULTEIS, G., EDWARDS, S.
- & KOOB, G. F. 2015. Chronic CRF1 receptor blockade reduces heroin intake escalation
  and dependence-induced hyperalgesia. *Addict Biol*, 20, 275-84.
- 556 REZVANI, A. H., SEXTON, H. G., JOHNSON, J., WELLS, C., GORDON, K. & LEVIN, E. D.
- 557 2013. Effects of caffeine on alcohol consumption and nicotine self-administration in rats.
- 558 Alcohol Clin Exp Res, 37, 1609-17.
- RICHARDS, G. & SMITH, A. 2015. Caffeine consumption and self-assessed stress, anxiety, and
   depression in secondary school children. *J Psychopharmacol*, 29, 1236-47.
- 561 RICHARDS, G. & SMITH, A. P. 2016. A Review of Energy Drinks and Mental Health, with a

562 Focus on Stress, Anxiety, and Depression. *J Caffeine Res*, 6, 49-63.

- 563 SEAL, A. D., BARDIS, C. N., GAVRIELI, A., GRIGORAKIS, P., ADAMS, J. D.,
- 564 ARNAOUTIS, G., YANNAKOULIA, M. & KAVOURAS, S. A. 2017. Coffee with High
- but Not Low Caffeine Content Augments Fluid and Electrolyte Excretion at Rest. *Front Nutr*, 4, 40.
- 567 SEIF, T., CHANG, S. J., SIMMS, J. A., GIBB, S. L., DADGAR, J., CHEN, B. T., HARVEY, B.
- 568 K., RON, D., MESSING, R. O., BONCI, A. & HOPF, F. W. 2013. Cortical activation of
- 569 accumbens hyperpolarization-active NMDARs mediates aversion-resistant alcohol
- 570 intake. *Nat Neurosci*, 16, 1094-100.

571	SIDHU, H., KREIFELDT, M. & CONTET, C. 2018. Affective disturbances during withdrawal
572	from chronic intermittent ethanol inhalation in C57BL/6J and DBA/2J male mice.
573	Alcohol Clin Exp Res.
574	SIMMS, J. A., STEENSLAND, P., MEDINA, B., ABERNATHY, K. E., CHANDLER, L. J.,
575	WISE, R. & BARTLETT, S. E. 2008. Intermittent access to 20% ethanol induces high
576	ethanol consumption in Long-Evans and Wistar rats. Alcohol Clin Exp Res, 32, 1816-23.
577	SOMKUWAR, S. S., VENDRUSCOLO, L. F., FANNON, M. J., SCHMEICHEL, B. E.,
578	NGUYEN, T. B., GUEVARA, J., SIDHU, H., CONTET, C., ZORRILLA, E. P. &
579	MANDYAM, C. D. 2017. Abstinence from prolonged ethanol exposure affects plasma
580	corticosterone, glucocorticoid receptor signaling and stress-related behaviors.
581	Psychoneuroendocrinology, 84, 17-31.
582	STRAIN, E. C., MUMFORD, G. K., SILVERMAN, K. & GRIFFITHS, R. R. 1994. Caffeine
583	dependence syndrome. Evidence from case histories and experimental evaluations.
584	JAMA, 272, 1043-8.
585	STRINGER, K. A. & WATSON, W. A. 1987. Caffeine withdrawal symptoms. Am J Emerg
586	Med 5, 469
587	TEMPLE, J. L., BERNARD, C., LIPSHULTZ, S. E., CZACHOR, J. D., WESTPHAL, J. A. &
587 588	TEMPLE, J. L., BERNARD, C., LIPSHULTZ, S. E., CZACHOR, J. D., WESTPHAL, J. A. & MESTRE, M. A. 2017. The Safety of Ingested Caffeine: A Comprehensive Review.
587 588 589	<ul> <li>TEMPLE, J. L., BERNARD, C., LIPSHULTZ, S. E., CZACHOR, J. D., WESTPHAL, J. A. &amp;</li> <li>MESTRE, M. A. 2017. The Safety of Ingested Caffeine: A Comprehensive Review.</li> <li><i>Front Psychiatry</i>, 8, 80.</li> </ul>

- 591 T. W., JR., LOGRIP, M. L., RIVIER, C., REPUNTE-CANONIGO, V., ZORRILLA, E.
- 592 P., SANNA, P. P., HEILIG, M. & KOOB, G. F. 2012. Corticosteroid-dependent
- 593 plasticity mediates compulsive alcohol drinking in rats. *J Neurosci*, 32, 7563-71.

594	VENDRUSCOLO, L. F. & ROBERTS, A. J. 2014. Operant alcohol self-administration in
595	dependent rats: focus on the vapor model. Alcohol, 48, 277-86.

- 596 VITIELLO, M. V. & WOODS, S. C. 1975. Caffeine: preferential consumption by rats.
- 597 Pharmacol Biochem Behav, 3, 147-9.
- 598 WADE, C. L., VENDRUSCOLO, L. F., SCHLOSBURG, J. E., HERNANDEZ, D. O. & KOOB,
- G. F. 2015. Compulsive-like responding for opioid analgesics in rats with extended
  access. *Neuropsychopharmacology*, 40, 421-8.
- WISE, R. A. 1973. Voluntary ethanol intake in rats following exposure to ethanol on various
  schedules. *Psychopharmacologia*, 29, 203-10.
- 603 XUE, S., KALLUPI, M., ZHOU, B., SMITH, L. C., MIRANDA, P. O., GEORGE, O. &
- 504 JANDA, K. D. 2018. An enzymatic advance in nicotine cessation therapy. *Chem*
- 605 *Commun (Camb)*, 54, 1686-1689.
- 606
- 607
- 608

#### 609 Figure Legends

610 Figure 1. Rats (n = 24) received continuous and intermittent access to a caffeine solution in a 24-611 h two-bottle choice paradigm. The remaining control rats (n = 12) remained experimentally naive 612 and received no caffeine throughout the experiment. The rats were first tested to establish a 613 caffeine dose-response curve using four different concentrations of caffeine (0.07, 0.14, 0.3, and 614 0.7 mg/ml). The optimal concentration (0.3 mg/ml), based on the dose response, was used for the 615 subsequent experiments. After the dose-response test, the rats received continuous access to 616 caffeine for 8 days. After continuous access, the rats received intermittent access (every other 617 day) to caffeine for 10 total sessions over 3 weeks. During intermittent access, all of the rats 618 were tested for irritability-like behavior and pain sensitivity 24 h after the last access to caffeine. 619 The rats were then returned to continuous access to caffeine for 8 days and then tested for 620 compulsive-like caffeine intake in the quinine adulteration test.

621

622 Figure 2. Dose-response test. To determine an optimal concentration for voluntary caffeine 623 consumption, the rats were given 24-h continuous access to caffeine in a two-bottle choice 624 procedure (caffeine solution and water) with four different caffeine concentrations (0.07, 0.14, 625 0.3, and 0.7 mg/ml) for 2 days per concentration. (A) Caffeine intake, expressed as mg/kg. The 626 rats consumed significantly less caffeine at the 0.7 mg/ml caffeine concentration compared with 627 all of the other concentrations. The rats also consumed significantly more caffeine at the 0.3 628 mg/ml concentration compared with all of the other concentrations. (B) Percent preference for 629 caffeine over water. Caffeine preference at the 0.7 mg/ml caffeine concentration was 630 significantly lower than all of the other concentrations. (C) Caffeine intake in the high preference 631 group (bright pink), medium preference group (pink), and low preference group (light pink,

632 expressed as mg/kg. Caffeine consumption in the medium preference group was significantly 633 higher at the 0.3 mg/ml caffeine concentration than caffeine consumption at the 0.7 mg/ml 634 concentration. Caffeine consumption in the high preference group was significantly higher at the 635 0.07, 0.14, and 0.3 mg/ml caffeine concentrations than caffeine consumption at the 0.7 mg/ml636 concentration. Caffeine consumption in the high and medium preference groups at the 0.07 and 637 0.14 mg/ml caffeine concentrations was significantly lower than at the 0.3 mg/ml concentration. 638 Caffeine consumption at the 0.3 mg/ml caffeine concentration was significantly lower in the low 639 and medium preference groups than in high preference group. Caffeine consumption at the 0.3 640 mg/ml caffeine concentration was significantly lower in the low preference group than in the 641 medium preference group. (D) Percent preference for caffeine in the high preference group 642 (bright pink), medium preference group (pink), and low preference group (light pink). All three 643 preference groups at all caffeine concentrations, with the exception of 0.3 mg/ml in the low 644 preference group, exhibited significantly higher caffeine preference than at the 0.7 mg/ml 645 concentration. Caffeine preference at the 0.07, 0.14, and 0.3 mg/ml concentrations was 646 significantly lower in the medium and low preference groups than in the high preference group. 647 Caffeine preference at the 0.07 and 0.3 mg/ml caffeine concentrations was significantly lower in 648 the low preference group than in the medium preference group. The data are expressed as 2-day 649 averages for each concentration. p < 0.05, compared with 0.7 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, p < 0.05, 650 compared with 0.07 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3 mg/ml within group; p < 0.05, compared with 0.3, compared with 0.3, comp 651 0.05, compared with high preference group; p < 0.05, compared with medium preference group. 652

**Figure 3.** Caffeine preference during 24 h continuous and intermittent access to caffeine. (A)

654 Percent caffeine preference across continuous (green) and intermittent (blue) drinking days.

655 Caffeine preference significantly decreased compared with the initial 2-day average during 656 continuous access on days 16-28, shortly after the beginning of intermittent access. The data are 657 expressed as 2-day averages for each data point. \*p < 0.05, compared with day 2. (B) Percent 658 caffeine preference in the high preference group (dark pink), medium preference group (pink), 659 and low preference group (light pink) across continuous (green) and intermittent (blue) drinking 660 days. The data are expressed as 2-day averages for each data point. (C) Average caffeine 661 preference in the high, medium, and low preference groups across the entire continuous and 662 intermittent periods. The medium and low preference groups exhibited significantly lower 663 preference for caffeine (\*p < 0.05). The medium preference group exhibited significantly higher 664 preference for caffeine than the low preference group (# p < 0.05).

665

Figure 4. Behavioral testing 24 h after the last access to caffeine. (A, B) No significant
difference in the paw withdrawal latency (A) or force required to elicit a paw withdrawal
response (B) was found between groups in the von Frey test. (D) No significant differences in
the number of defensive or aggressive responses were found between groups in the bottle-brush
test.

671

**Figure 5.** Compulsive-like caffeine intake in the quinine adulteration test. Four different quinine concentrations (0.005, 0.01, 0.025, and 0.05 g/L) were added to the caffeine solution and tested for 2 days at each concentration. (**A**) Caffeine preference was significantly lower than baseline at the 0.025 and 0.05 g/L quinine concentrations. (**B**) Caffeine preference was significantly lower at the 0.025 and 0.05 g/L quinine concentrations in the medium preference group (pink). No significant differences in caffeine preference from baseline were observed in the high preference

678	group (bright pink) or low preference group (light pink). The data are expressed as 2-day
679	averages for each concentration. $*p < 0.05$ , compared with the rats' own baseline.
680	
681	Figure 6. Human Equivalent Dose in rats (pink) compared with estimated caffeine consumption
682	in human caffeine drinkers (gray). A Human Equivalent Dose was calculated for each group
683	(high, medium, and low preference) based on the amount of caffeine consumed. An estimated
684	dose for humans who drink similar levels of caffeine was calculated for comparison. For each
685	group, the rat HED was comparable to the estimated dose of human consumption.

686