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Consequences of placentophagia by adult virgin male California mice (*Peromyscus californicus*)

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## Highlights

- Males of some biparental species eat placenta when their young are born.
- We studied the effects of placentophagia in sexually naive male California mice.
- Placenta treatment had no effect on paternal behaviors.
- Placenta treatment decreased latencies to approach pups and novel objects.
- Placenta treatment decreased fos expression in bed nucleus of the stria terminalis.

1 Consequences of Placentophagia by Adult Virgin Male California Mice (*Peromyscus*  
2 *californicus*)  
3  
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24 **1. Introduction**

25 Placentophagia, or ingestion of the afterbirth, is commonly performed by parturient  
26 females of most eutherian species, with some exceptions (e.g., pinnipeds, cetaceans, humans:  
27 Kristal, 1980; Young & Benyshek, 2010). The functional significance of placentophagia is  
28 unclear, but proposed explanations include avoiding predators or pathogens and meeting general  
29 or specific nutritional demands (reviewed by Kristal, 1980; Kristal et al., 2012). Studies on the  
30 effects of maternal placentophagia in several mammalian species have revealed that this behavior  
31 can modulate pain sensitivity and maternal motivation (reviewed by Kristal, 1991). For example,  
32 in rats (*Rattus norvegicus*) and cows (*Bos spp.*), placentophagia enhances opioid-mediated  
33 analgesia through an opioid-enhancing factor (POEF) produced by and found in the placenta  
34 (Hoey et al., 2011; Kristal, 1991; Kristal et al., 2012; Pinheiro-Machado et al., 1997). This  
35 hypoalgesic effect is mediated by the vagus nerve, may occur as soon as 5 minutes after  
36 ingestion, and can last for approximately one hour (Doer & Kristal, 1989; Tarapacki et al., 1992).  
37 Placentophagia-induced hypoalgesia was recently identified as being potentially mediated by  $\delta$ -  
38 opioid receptor activation (Thompson et al., 2018). Decreased pain sensitivity during parturition  
39 may facilitate labor, as neonates are expelled more quickly (Kristal, 1991). Interestingly, POEF  
40 is found in placental tissues even of species that typically do not ingest placenta (i.e., dolphins,  
41 humans), suggesting that this substance is highly conserved among placental mammals (Abbott  
42 et al., 1991).

43 The placenta is an endocrine organ that produces many of the protein and steroid  
44 hormones involved in the onset and maintenance of maternal and paternal care in mammals (e.g.,  
45 progestogens, estrogens, lactogens: Malassine et al., 2003). Although adult, sexually  
46 inexperienced female rats do not express high levels of spontaneous maternal-like behavior (i.e.,

47 alloparental behavior), this can be modified with exposure to pups and placenta, or with oral  
48 administration of placenta. For example, exposure of adult female virgin rats to pups smeared  
49 with placenta and amniotic fluid shortens the latency for the expression of alloparental care (i.e.,  
50 maternal sensitization) (Kristal et al., 1981). Additionally, ingestion of placenta and amniotic  
51 fluid by adult virgin female rats enhances the stimulatory effect of intracerebroventricular  
52 morphine treatment on pup-induced maternal behavior (Neumann et al., 2009). Thus,  
53 placentophagia by some female mammals may induce physiological and behavioral changes that  
54 promote maternal care and, as a result, offspring survival.

55 Males of some mammal species, too, ingest placenta at the birth of their young. In the  
56 uniparental (i.e., only one parent, the mother, provides offspring care) Siberian hamster  
57 (*Phodopus sungorus*), males ingest experimentally presented placenta only if they are present at  
58 the birth of their pups (Gregg & Wynne-Edwards, 2006). Similarly, male rats, which are  
59 commonly averse towards the afterbirth, will begin to eat placenta after continuous exposure to it  
60 (Abbott et al., 1991). In several biparental (i.e., both males and females care for their young)  
61 mammals, males, in addition to females, sometimes ingest placenta during the birth of their  
62 offspring. Among primates, placentophagia by males has been observed in the common  
63 marmoset (*Callithrix jacchus*: T. E. Ziegler, pers. comm.), cotton-top tamarin (*Saguinus oedipus*:  
64 T. E. Ziegler, pers. comm.), and silvery marmoset (*C. argentata*: J. A. French, pers. comm.), as  
65 well as in some human populations (Coyle et al, 2015; Marraccini & Gorman, 2015). In  
66 biparental rodents, placentophagia by males has been reported in dwarf hamsters (*Phodopus*  
67 *campbelli*: Gregg & Wynne-Edwards, 2005; Jones & Wynne-Edwards, 2000), California mice  
68 (*Peromyscus californicus*: Lee & Brown, 2002; Perea-Rodriguez & Saltzman, 2014), and prairie  
69 voles (*Microtus ochrogaster*: K.L. Bales, pers. comm.) (but see McGuire et al., 2003).

70           Studies in dwarf hamsters and California mice indicate that adult males, similar to adult  
71 females, respond differently to placenta depending on their reproductive condition. In these two  
72 species, males are more likely to ingest placenta when housed with their pair-bonded, gestating  
73 mates and when they become fathers than when they are sexually inexperienced (Gregg &  
74 Wynne-Edwards, 2005; Perea-Rodriguez & Saltzman, 2014). These findings suggest that in at  
75 least some biparental mammals, males naturally become attracted to placenta during their mates'  
76 pregnancy and may commonly ingest placenta during the birth of their offspring. Still unknown,  
77 however, are the potential behavioral and/or physiological changes that males undergo as a  
78 consequence of ingesting placenta, and whether these changes influence the males' responses to  
79 their young.

80           In this study, we sought to characterize the behavioral and neural responses to an  
81 unfamiliar pup after oral administration of conspecific placenta to adult, virgin male California  
82 mice. We analyzed the presence of the protein Fos, the product of the c-Fos immediate-early  
83 gene that is commonly used as a marker of neuronal activity (Hoffman & Lyo, 2002), in key  
84 brain areas involved in paternal care in rodents. Adult virgin males were used because they are  
85 highly variable in their behavioral responses to pups, whereas virtually all California mouse  
86 fathers show pronounced, rapid-onset paternal care (de Jong et al., 2009; de Jong et al., 2012;  
87 Gubernick & Nelson, 1989; Horrell et al., 2017). We speculated that behavioral and neural  
88 effects of placentophagia were likely to be mediated by steroid hormones, and steroids can exert  
89 both rapid, transient effects via non-genomic mechanisms and delayed, more sustained effects  
90 via changes in gene expression (McEwen, 1991). Therefore, we analyzed responses to pups at  
91 three time points: 1, 7, and 24 h after placenta administration.

92           We hypothesized that the physiological changes resulting from ingestion of placenta lead  
93 to changes in both neural and behavioral responses to pup-related stimuli. We predicted that  
94 mice treated with placenta would approach pups more rapidly, would spend more time engaging  
95 in caretaking behaviors, and would express more Fos-immunoreactivity (Fos-ir) in brain areas  
96 positively linked to paternal care (ventral bed nucleus of the stria terminalis, medial preoptic  
97 area), as well as reduced Fos-ir in brain areas commonly activated by aversive stimuli  
98 (paraventricular nucleus of the hypothalamus, amygdala), compared to controls treated with oil  
99 vehicle only. Finally, we predicted that placenta ingestion would exert these behavioral and  
100 neural effects specifically in response to a pup as opposed to a neutral novel object.

101

## 102 **2. Methods**

### 103 2a. Animals

104           We used male California mice born and reared in our breeding colony at the University  
105 of California, Riverside that were descended from mice purchased from the Peromyscus Genetic  
106 Stock Center (University of South Carolina, Columbia, SC). Mice were housed in standard,  
107 shoebox-style, polycarbonate cages (44 x 24 x 20 cm) containing aspen shavings for bedding and  
108 cotton wool for nesting material, with *ad libitum* access to food (Purina Rodent Chow 5001) and  
109 water. Lighting was on a 14:10 light:dark cycle, with lights on from 05:00 until 19:00 h.

110 Ambient temperature and humidity were kept at approximately 23°C and 70%, respectively.

111 Mice were checked twice daily and weighed twice weekly, and cages were changed weekly.

112           Mice were weaned at 27-31 days of age and housed in same-sex groups of three or four  
113 age-matched individuals; these groups contained no more than two siblings from any one litter.

114 As mice reached the age of sexual maturity (~90 days: Gubernick, 1988), male groups were

115 divided into pairs of unrelated males. We chose adult males specifically because we wanted to  
116 test animals at a stage when they would naturally search for mates, reproduce, and ingest  
117 placenta.

118

## 119 2b. Experimental Design

120 Virgin male California mice were treated with either placenta homogenized in sesame oil  
121 or oil alone via oral gavage (see below). Beginning 1, 7, or 24 h later, each mouse underwent a  
122 1-h behavior test with either a 1- to 4-day-old pup or a control novel object - a pup-sized, oblong  
123 glass marble. Immediately following the behavior test (i.e., 2, 8 or 25 h after placenta or oil  
124 treatment), mice were euthanized and their brains were harvested for immunohistochemical  
125 analyses (see below). Each virgin male mouse was tested under a single treatment condition  
126 (placenta or oil), at a single time point (1, 7, or 24 h after gavage), and with a single test stimulus  
127 (pup or marble). At the time of testing, mice had never been exposed to pups (other than their  
128 own littermates) or marbles. The resulting sample sizes for each treatment, time point, and  
129 stimulus type are shown in Table 1.

130 Mice assigned to the *placenta* group were administered a single near-term placenta (from  
131 a gestating female no more closely related to the male than second cousin) homogenized in  
132 sesame oil. Mice in the *control* group were administered sesame oil alone. We administered  
133 placenta (or oil) via oral gavage because virgin male California mice are not likely to voluntarily  
134 ingest placenta (Perea-Rodriguez & Saltzman, 2014; Perea-Rodriguez & Saltzman, unpub. data).  
135 Mice from the two treatments did not differ in age at the time of testing (placenta:  $158.9 \pm 4.3$   
136 days, mean  $\pm$  SEM; oil:  $162.9 \pm 5.2$  days;  $p=0.63$ ,  $T=0.46$ ,  $df=1$ ; unpaired T-Test).

137



138 2c. Placenta Collection

139 As previously described (Perea-Rodriguez & Saltzman, 2014; Perea-Rodriguez et al.,  
140 2018), placentas were collected from multiparous (2-7 previous litters) females 1-3 days prior to  
141 their estimated parturition date, determined by the date of their previous parturition and  
142 assessment of changes in female body mass based on measurements taken every 3-4 days.  
143 Fetuses were inspected visually to confirm that they were near-term and immediately euthanized  
144 with an intraperitoneal injection (0.1 mL) of pentobarbital sodium (Fatal-Plus: Vortech  
145 Pharmaceuticals, Dearborn, Michigan, USA). Placenta donors were euthanized using CO<sub>2</sub>  
146 inhalation, and placentas were removed and immediately stored at -70° C.

147

148 2d. Oral Gavage

149 Oral gavage was performed as previously described (Perea-Rodriguez et al., 2018) using  
150 a 5 cm length of Silastic® laboratory tubing (1.57 mm inside diameter x 2.41 mm outside  
151 diameter; Dow Corning, Copley, Ohio, USA) fitted onto an 18-gauge sterile needle; the needle's  
152 tip (~ 0.5 cm) had been filed off to avoid puncturing the tubing and injuring the animal. The  
153 needle was attached to a sterile 1 mL syringe containing either a single placenta (~0.4 g, and 0.1-  
154 0.2 mL in volume) homogenized in sesame oil (total volume: 0.5 mL) or 0.5 mL sesame oil  
155 alone. This volume was selected based on the size of the stomach and to minimize any  
156 discomfort to the mice. We used oil as a vehicle because we anticipated that hormonally  
157 mediated effects of placentophagia would likely be related to steroid hormones (Cornil &  
158 Charlier, 2010), as these hormones readily cross the blood-brain barrier and are biologically  
159 active follow ingestion; steroid hormones are hydrophobic and therefore oil-soluble.

160 Additionally, the sesame oil facilitated the passage of the placental tissues through the gavage  
161 apparatus.

162 Mice underwent oral gavage between 08:30 and 09:30 h. We treated animals in the  
163 morning because this is the time of day when California mice are most likely to give birth  
164 (within a few hours after lights-on: Lee & Brown 2002; Perea-Rodriguez & Saltzman, unpub.  
165 data) and therefore to ingest placenta. Each male mouse was first housed alone for 30 min in a  
166 clean isolation cage containing fresh bedding, food, and water. Placentas were thawed on ice,  
167 homogenized in 0.1-0.2 mL of sesame oil using a mortar and pestle, and collected using the  
168 sterile syringe, which was then attached to the 18-gauge needle fitted with the Silastic tubing; air  
169 bubbles were avoided as much as possible. Mice were lightly anesthetized using isoflurane  
170 (Minrad, Orchard Park, NY, USA) and held vertically as the tubing was carefully inserted into  
171 the esophagus and the contents of the syringe delivered over approximately 5-10 s. The recovery  
172 time from anesthesia was between 60 and 180 s, at which point animals were observed in their  
173 isolation cages for 10 min before being returned to the colony room.

174

## 175 2e. Behavior Testing

176 Each animal underwent a behavior test in the colony room during the lights-on phase of  
177 the light:dark cycle, beginning at 09:30-10:30 h (1 h after oral gavage), 16:30-17:30 h (7 h after  
178 gavage), or 09:30-10:30 h the next day (24 h after gavage). At the outset of each test, a 1- to 4-  
179 day-old pup (no more closely related to the male than second cousin) or a clean, pup-sized,  
180 oblong, glass marble was placed at the opposite end of the male's isolation cage from the focal  
181 animal. Each mouse was exposed to its respective stimulus for 60 min before being euthanized  
182 for tissue collection (see below). Behavior tests were videotaped, and the initial 20 minutes were

183 later scored using JWatcher software (Blumstein & Daniel, 2007). Behaviors scored were latency  
184 to approach the pup or marble, duration of investigating (i.e., sniffing) the pup, and duration of  
185 huddling + licking the pup (i.e., paternal behavior). All videos were scored by a single observer,  
186 who was blind to the animals' treatment.

187

## 188 2f. Brain Collection, Immunohistochemistry, and Fos-ir Quantification

189 Immediately after each hour-long behavior test, the focal mouse was deeply anesthetized  
190 with 10% pentobarbital (Vortech, Dearborn, Michigan, USA; 0.5 mL, i.p.) and perfused  
191 transcardially, first with 0.1M phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and subsequently with 4%  
192 paraformaldehyde (PFA) (de Jong et al., 2009). Brains were placed in 4% PFA for 1 h  
193 immediately after perfusion to further increase tissue robustness. After the additional fixation  
194 period, brains were removed from PFA and stored in 0.1M PBS at 4°C until further processing.  
195 Brains were later cryoprotected in 30% phosphate-buffered sucrose for 2-4 days, embedded in  
196 optimal cutting temperature compound, frozen, and sliced into 30 µm sections on a cryostat set at  
197 -19°C. Five series of brain sections were collected sequentially and stored in 0.1M PBS with  
198 0.01% sodium azide until staining occurred.

199 Fos immunohistochemistry was performed as previously described (de Jong et al., 2009).  
200 After pre-incubation with PBS containing 0.1% bovine serum albumin and 0.3% Triton-X-100  
201 (i.e., PBS-BT), slices were incubated in a 1:10,000 dilution of rabbit-anti-c-Fos antibody (Santa  
202 Cruz Biotechnology, Inc., Santa Cruz, CA, USA) in PBS-BT overnight. The next day, after  
203 removal of excess antibody through a series of PBS washes, the slices were incubated with  
204 donkey-anti-rabbit antibody (Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories, West Grove, PA, USA) in  
205 a 1:1,500 dilution with PBS-BT for 90 min. Signaling was enhanced using ABC-vector (1:800

206 dilution in PBS-BT, Vectastain Elite Kit, Vector Laboratories, Burlingame, CA, USA) before  
207 being stained with 3,3'-diaminobenzidine tetrahydrochloride (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO,  
208 USA) in 0.6% Tris-buffer.

209 Using fine brushes, stained slices were mounted onto glass slides coated with gelatin and  
210 chrome alum. Mounted slices were air-dried overnight, cleared using a range of alcohols, and  
211 embedded in Entellan New (EMS, Hatfield, PA, USA) before being coverslipped. Micrographs  
212 of stained and mounted brain slices were taken using a digital camera (Canon EOS 40D)  
213 attached to a microscope (Leica Leitz DMRB). Micrographs of the medial preoptic area  
214 (MPOA), the dorsal (dBST) and ventral (vBST) regions of the bed nucleus of the stria terminalis,  
215 the paraventricular nucleus of the hypothalamus (PVN), and the central (CeA) and basolateral  
216 (BLA) nuclei of the amygdala were taken for each brain (Figure 1). Because no brain atlas was  
217 available for *Peromyscus* when the study was performed, brain regions/nuclei of interest were  
218 located based on a standard atlas of the mouse brain (Paxinos & Franklin, 2004), as in previous  
219 studies (de Jong et al., 2009; de Jong et al., 2012).

220 ImageJ software (1.46r; National Institutes of Health, USA) was used to count the  
221 number of Fos-ir neurons in a 200 x 200  $\mu\text{m}$  square in a representative area of neurons in each  
222 region. The person counting was unaware of the treatment and stimulus condition of each  
223 animal. Some of the brain sections were not usable due to problems during the sectioning or  
224 staining process, so these were excluded from the analyses. The final sample sizes are presented  
225 in the results.

226

227 2g. Statistical Analyses

228 All statistical analyses were performed using R statistical software (R Core Team, 2014).  
229 Behavioral and immunohistochemical data were tested for normality using Shapiro-Wilk tests.  
230 Bartlett's tests were used to determine homogeneity of variance. Because data collection and  
231 immunohistochemical staining for the three time points were performed separately, data from  
232 each time point were analyzed independently. Normally distributed data (latency to approach  
233 stimuli, all Fos-ir data) were analyzed by 2-way ANOVAs, with treatment (placenta, oil) and  
234 stimulus (pup, marble) as factors. If a significant ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) treatment x stimulus interaction was  
235 found, we performed post-hoc pairwise comparisons using Tukey's HSD tests. Tukey's HSD  
236 tests performs all pairwise comparisons while controlling the probability of making Type I  
237 errors. Non-normal data (duration of huddling + licking pup, duration of investigating pup) were  
238 analyzed using Mann-Whitney U tests to compare behavioral responses in placenta- vs. oil-  
239 treated mice within each stimulus condition.

240

### 241 **3. Results**

#### 242 3a. Behavioral Responses to Stimuli

243 Among the mice tested with a pup at each time point, the proportion that showed paternal  
244 behavior (i.e., licking and/or huddling pup) did not differ between placenta- and oil-treated males  
245 (all  $p$ -values  $> 0.50$ , Fisher's Exact test for each time point; Table 1). Additionally, placenta  
246 treatment did not affect the total duration of caretaking behavior (huddling + licking) that mice  
247 engaged in during the pup test at any time point (all  $p$ -values  $> 0.40$ ; Mann-Whitney U test for  
248 each time point; Figure 2). At 7 h post-gavage, placenta-treated mice approached their assigned  
249 stimuli more quickly than oil-treated mice (main effect of treatment:  $F_{1, 25} = 4.22$ ,  $p = 0.05$ ; 2-way  
250 ANOVA); however, this effect did not differ between males tested with pups and those tested

251 with marbles (main effect of stimulus:  $p=0.15$ ; treatment x stimulus interaction:  $p=0.43$ ).  
252 Latencies to approach pups or marbles did not differ significantly between placenta- and oil-  
253 treated mice at either of the other time points (1 h: main effect of treatment:  $p=0.54$ ; main effect  
254 of stimulus:  $p=0.50$ ; treatment x stimulus interaction:  $p=0.66$ ; 24 h: main effect of treatment:  
255  $p=0.63$ ; main effect of stimulus:  $p=0.71$ ; treatment x stimulus interaction:  $p=0.56$ ; 2-way  
256 ANOVA for each time point; Figure 2). Finally, placenta treatment had no effect on the total  
257 duration of time mice spent sniffing pups at any of the time points (all  $p$ -values  $\geq 0.3$ ; Mann-  
258 Whitney U test for each time point).

### 259 260 3b. Neural Responses to Stimuli

261 In general, total Fos-ir in the brain areas investigated was lower in mice treated with  
262 placenta than in those treated with oil; however, most of our planned analyses did not reach  
263 statistical significance (Table 2). Treatment with placenta significantly altered neural responses  
264 to stimuli in the dBST at both the 1 h and 7 h time points. Placenta-treated mice tested 1 h after  
265 oral gavage had significantly lower Fos-ir in the dBST than oil-treated controls (main effect of  
266 treatment:  $F_{1,20}=4.51$ ,  $p=0.04$ ; 2-way ANOVA; Table 2, Figure 3). At this time point, Fos-ir in  
267 the dBST was not influenced by stimulus type (main effect of stimulus:  $p=0.54$ ), nor by an  
268 interaction between treatment and stimulus ( $p=0.87$ ). At the 7 h time point, placenta-treated mice  
269 still showed a reduction in Fos-ir in the dBST compared to oil-treated controls (main effect of  
270 treatment:  $F_{1,18}=4.13$ ,  $p=0.05$ ), and this effect differed between males exposed to a pup and those  
271 exposed to a marble (treatment x stimulus interaction:  $F_{1,18}=7.33$ ,  $p=0.01$ ; 2-way ANOVA).  
272 Among placenta-treated mice, those exposed to a pup 7 h after gavage tended to show a  
273 reduction in dBST Fos-ir compared to males exposed to a marble, but this reduction was not  
274 statistically significant ( $p=0.06$ , Tukey's HSD test); no such effect was seen in oil-treated

275 animals ( $p=0.69$ ) nor did any additional pairwise comparison reach statistical significance. At 24  
276 h post-treatment, Fos-ir in the dBST was not significantly influenced by a main effect of  
277 treatment or stimulus, or by an interaction between these two factors (all  $p$ -values  $>0.33$ ).

278 Fos-ir in the MPOA, vBST, PVN, BLA, and CeA was not significantly affected by  
279 treatment (all  $p$ -values  $>0.07$ ; Table 2, Figure 3). However, 1 h after gavage, Fos-ir in both the  
280 BLA and CeA was significantly higher in mice exposed to a pup than in those exposed to a  
281 marble (BLA: main effect of stimulus:  $F_{1,20}=4.60$ ,  $p=0.04$ ; CeA: main effect of stimulus:  $F_{1,20}=5.71$ ,  
282  $p=0.02$ ; 2-way ANOVAs), compared to mice exposed to a marble (novel object).  
283 Neither of these effects differed between placenta- and oil-treated mice ( $p$ -values  $>0.12$ ).

284

#### 285 **4. Discussion**

286 In this study, we aimed to identify possible neural and behavioral consequences of  
287 placenta ingestion (i.e., placentophagia) by adult virgin males of a monogamous, biparental  
288 rodent species. Specifically, we sought to investigate the possible role placentophagia might play  
289 in facilitating pup-directed care in the California mouse, as males of this species ingest placenta  
290 during the birth of their offspring (Lee & Brown, 2002; Perea-Rodriguez & Saltzman, 2014) and  
291 engage in extensive paternal behavior (Gubernick & Alberts, 1987). We hypothesized that the  
292 physiological changes resulting from ingestion of placenta lead to changes in both neural and  
293 behavioral responses to pup-related stimuli.

294 The majority of our analyses found that placenta treatment had no effect on paternal  
295 behavior. The small number of statistically significant results indicate that 7 hours after  
296 treatment, placenta-treated virgin male mice showed reduced latencies to approach both pups and  
297 novel objects (marbles) compared to oil-treated mice. In addition, placenta treatment reduced

298 pup- and marble-induced activation (Fos-immunoreactivity) of the dorsal region of the bed  
299 nucleus of the stria terminalis (dBST) both 1 and 7 h after treatment. At the 1-h time point,  
300 placenta-treated mice had reduced Fos-ir in response to both pup and marble stimuli, compared  
301 to oil-treated mice. Taken together, these findings indicate that ingesting placenta does not  
302 produce any major effects on paternal care but may reduce responsiveness of the dBST as  
303 rapidly as within 1 h and for as long as at least 7 h. Ingestion of placenta did not alter pup-  
304 directed care or neural activity in other brain regions, including the PVN, BLA, CeA, vBST, and,  
305 most strikingly, the MPOA, which has been implicated in paternal behavior in California mice  
306 and other biparental mammals (Bales & Saltzman, 2016; Horrell et al., 2018; Saltzman &  
307 Ziegler, 2014).

308         In two biparental species, prairie voles and California mice, fatherhood modulates stress  
309 reactivity and anxiety-like behaviors, suggesting that males modify how they perceive potentially  
310 aversive or novel stimuli with changes in reproductive state or reproductive experience (Bardi et  
311 al., 2011; Chauke et al., 2012; Lieberwirth et al., 2013). In the same two species, paternally  
312 responsive males have increased Fos-ir in the medial posteromedial and medial BST after  
313 exposure to pups, compared to parentally unresponsive males (de Jong et al., 2009; Kirkpatrick  
314 et al., 1994). The BST is a limbic forebrain structure that has been linked to paternal care, stress,  
315 anxiety, and aggression in California mice and other species (Bester-Meredith & Marler, 2003;  
316 Davis & Marler, 2004; Davis et al., 2010; de Jong et al., 2009; Gungor & Paré, 2016; Trainor et  
317 al., 2010). Neurochemical changes in the BST can alter an animal's behavioral response to  
318 unpredictable, threatening, and aversive stimuli (i.e., unconditioned fear) (Walker & Davis,  
319 1997). In rodents, the BST contains dorsal and ventral regions that differ in their  
320 electrophysiological properties (Egli & Winder, 2003; Frazier et al., 2006). The dorsal and



321 ventral BST also respond differentially to stressors, possibly due to their dissimilar inputs from  
322 other brain nuclei and to their sensitivity to certain neurotransmitters and neuropeptides (Daniel  
323 & Rannie, 2016); however, both regions show increased Fos-ir under stressful conditions (Di  
324 Bonaventura et al., 2014). Thus, the reduced activity in the dBST seen in placenta-treated mice,  
325 as well as the shorter latencies of these mice to approach pups and marbles, may be associated  
326 overall with increased motivation to interact with environmental stimuli, regardless of whether  
327 the stimuli are pup-related.

328         Studies on the consequences of placenta ingestion suggest that placentophagia by  
329 mothers may trigger behavioral and physiological changes that positively affect their offspring  
330 (e.g., Abbott et al., 1991; González-Mariscal et al., 1998). In the case of males, a study on rats,  
331 which are uniparental, showed that virgin males experience hypoalgesia after ingesting placenta  
332 (Abbott et al., 1991). Recently, we showed that oral administration of placenta to male California  
333 mice, irrespective of reproductive experience, increased exploration of a novel space (an open-  
334 field arena) but had no effect on paternal behaviors (Perea-Rodriguez et al., 2018). Similarly, in  
335 the present study, placentophagia did not enhance pup-directed care, but it decreased latencies to  
336 approach novel stimuli (pups and marbles) and led to changes in neural activity in a brain  
337 nucleus heavily involved in regulating responses to a variety of environmental stimuli, including  
338 pup-related and other social stimuli.

339         Some important caveats should be kept in mind when interpreting the results of this  
340 study. First, we evaluated effects of placentophagia only in virgin males, rather than in fathers,  
341 because fathers typically show maximum paternal care. In our recent study, however, behavioral  
342 effects of oral treatment with placenta did not differ among California mouse fathers, first-time  
343 expectant fathers, and virgin males (Perea-Rodriguez et al., 2018). Second, although Fos

344 expression has been linked to changes in neuronal activity, this is not always the case; Fos may  
345 or may not be expressed when neurons undergo changes in electrical activity or gene expression  
346 (Hoffman & Lyo, 2002). Third, the sample sizes in this study were relatively small. Fourth, the  
347 oral gavage procedure by which we administered placenta eliminated possible effects that  
348 placenta and amniotic fluid may have via olfactory or accessory olfactory pathways, and the oil  
349 preparation used may have limited absorption of some of the chemicals found in placenta and  
350 amniotic fluid, such as peptide hormones. Fifth, placentophagia may have affected how mice  
351 responded to pups and marbles through neural changes in brain nuclei that were not investigated  
352 in this study (e.g., subregions of the amygdala and BST). Finally, although the oral gavage  
353 procedure does not produce any significant changes in corticosterone secretion in California  
354 mice (unpub. data), the procedure itself could have produced or inhibited any effects of placenta  
355 ingestion, an issue that our experimental design was unable to address.

356

## 357 **5. Conclusions**

358 In conclusion, we found that placentophagia by adult, virgin male California mice did not  
359 lead to significant changes in paternal care. Placenta administration did, however, transiently  
360 reduce males' latencies to approach an unfamiliar pup or a novel object, and reduced Fos-  
361 immunoreactivity in the dorsal region of the bed nucleus of the stria terminalis after exposure to  
362 each of these stimuli. Thus, our results are consistent with findings from a previous study (Perea-  
363 Rodriguez et al., 2018) suggesting that ingestion of placenta may reduce neophobia and anxiety-  
364 related behavior in males, but not paternal behavior *per se*.

365

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376

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380

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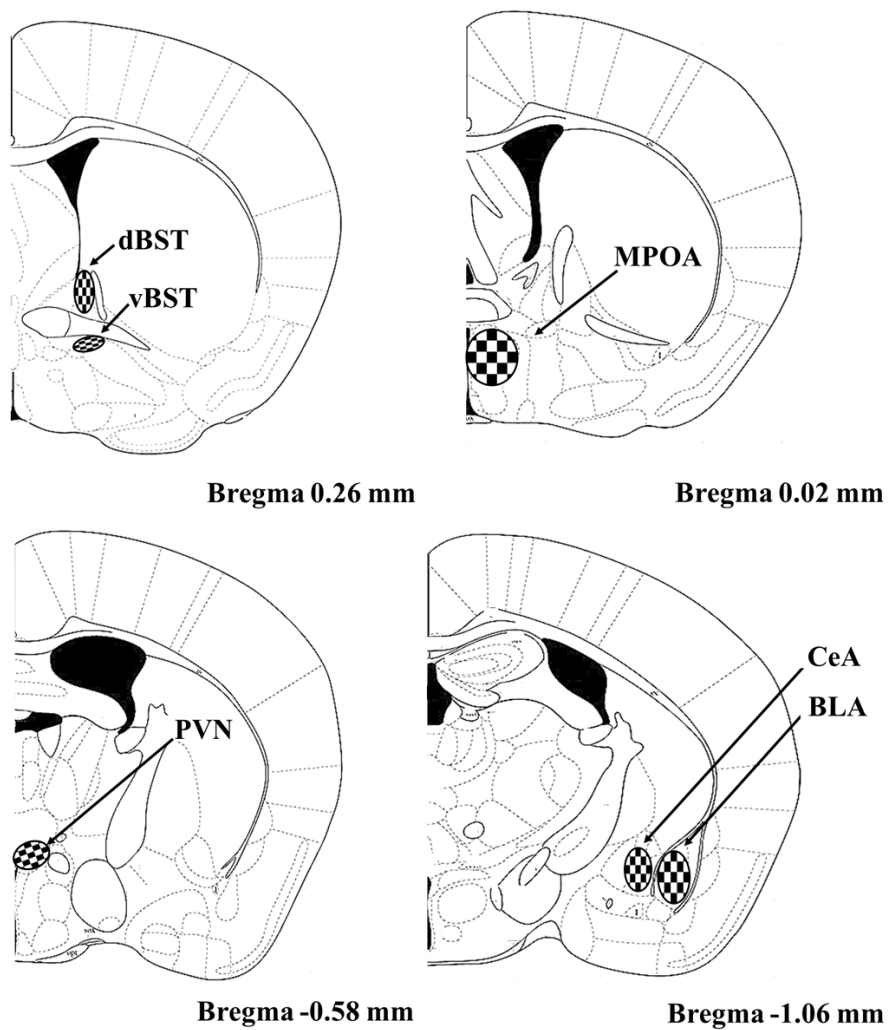
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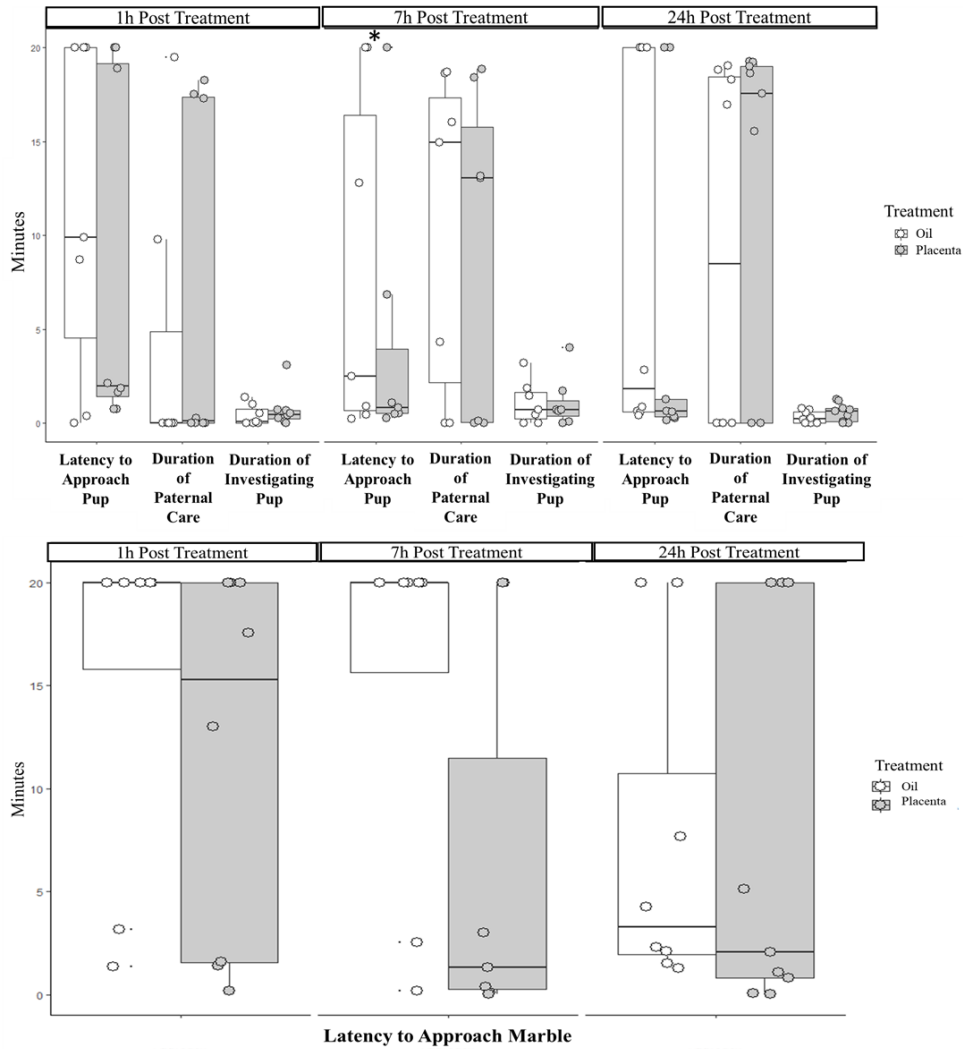
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583 **Figure 1:** Brain nuclei in which Fos-immunoreactivity was quantified. dBST: dorsal bed nucleus of the stria terminalis; vBST: ventral bed nucleus  
584 of the stria terminalis; MPOA: medial preoptic area of the hypothalamus; PVN: paraventricular nucleus of the hypothalamus; BLA: basolateral  
585 amygdala; CeA: central nucleus of the amygdala.  
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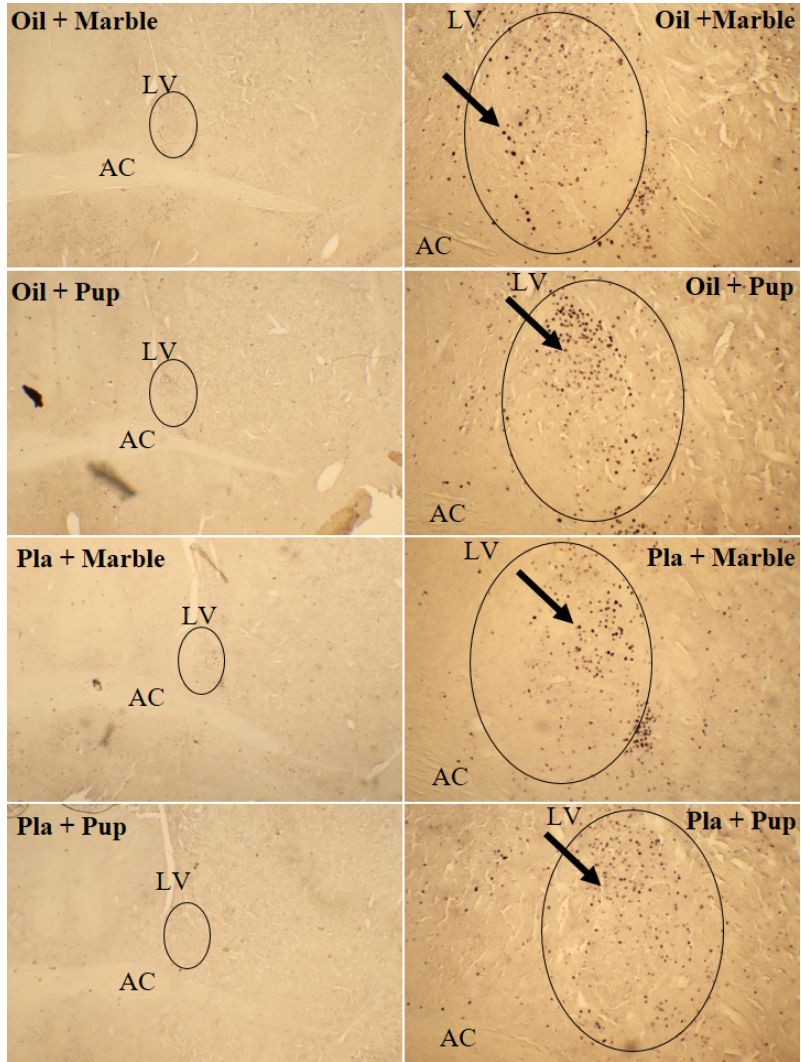
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589 **Figure 2:** Behavioral responses to a 1- to 4-day-old pup (top) and an oblong, pup-sized glass marble (bottom) by virgin male California mice 1, 7,  
 590 or 24 after treatment with oil or placenta. Bars represent 1<sup>st</sup> quartiles, medians, and 3<sup>rd</sup> quartiles. The asterisk indicates a significant difference  
 591 between treatments ( $p \leq 0.05$ ).  
 592



593

594 **Figure 3:** Representative photomicrographs of Fos labeling in the dorsal bed nucleus of the stria terminalis of virgin male California  
595 mice exposed to a pup or a marble for 1 h, beginning 1 h following oral treatment with placenta or oil. Each image in the right-hand  
596 column shows a higher magnification (100x) of the adjacent image (25x), with arrows indicating the black nuclear staining of Fos-  
597 positive neurons. AC - anterior commissure; LV - lateral ventricle. Ovals indicate the area sampled.



598

599 **Table 1:** Sample sizes of placenta-treated and oil-treated virgin male California mice per time point and stimulus. Bold numbers  
 600 represent the number of mice tested with a pup that showed paternal behavior (huddling and licking pup).  
 601

<b>1 h Post-treatment</b>		
	<u>Stimulus</u>	
Treatment	Pup	Marble
Placenta	8; <b>4</b>	6
Oil	7; <b>2</b>	6
<b>7 h Post-treatment</b>		
	<u>Stimulus</u>	
Treatment	Pup	Marble
Placenta	7; <b>5</b>	6
Oil	7; <b>5</b>	5
<b>24 h Post-treatment</b>		
	<u>Stimulus</u>	
Treatment	Pup	Marble
Placenta	9; <b>6</b>	7
Oil	8; <b>4</b>	7

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605 **Table 2:** Numbers of Fos-positive neurons following exposure to a pup or control object (marble) at each of three time points after  
606 treatment with placenta or oil. Data were analyzed using 2-way ANOVAs. Means, standard errors, and sample sizes are shown, as  
607 well as p-values for main effect of treatment, main effect of stimulus, and treatment x stimulus interaction. P-values  $\leq 0.05$  are shown  
608 in bold. MPOA – medial preoptic area of the hypothalamus, dBST – dorsal bed nucleus of the stria terminalis, vBST – ventral bed  
609 nucleus of the stria terminalis, PVN – paraventricular nucleus of the hypothalamus, BLA – basolateral amygdala, CeA – central  
610 nucleus of the amygdala.  
611

Brain Area	Time Post-treatment	Marble		Pup		P-Value		
		Oil	Placenta	Oil	Placenta	Treatment	Stimulus	Treatment * Stimulus
MPOA	1h	14.75 ± 4.73 n=6	22.75 ± 6.10 n=6	27.83 ± 5.02 n=6	19.00 ± 3.25 n=6	0.93	0.35	0.10
	7h	10.10 ± 2.35 n=5	13.08 ± 3.21 n=6	7.33 ± 1.20 n=6	7.91 ± 2.85 n=6	0.46	0.13	0.64
	24h	15.60 ± 5.71 n=5	13.14 ± 2.81 n=7	17.62 ± 4.92 n=8	13.00 ± 2.49 n=8	0.65	0.85	0.78
dBST	1h	36.00 ± 5.48 n=6	27.58 ± 2.95 n=6	34.08 ± 4.40 n=6	24.25 ± 3.93 n=6	<b>0.04</b>	0.54	0.87
	7h	24.80 ± 5.42 n=6	26.91 ± 3.80 n=6	30.50 ± 2.86 n=6	12.80 ± 1.49 n=5	<b>0.05</b>	0.26	<b>0.01</b>
	24h	18.00 ± 5.83 n=5	27.57 ± 6.58 n=7	25.87 ± 5.56 n=8	24.5 ± 6.12 n=8	0.75	0.85	0.33
vBST	1h	12.33 ± 1.97 n=6	10.91 ± 1.43 n=6	11.33 ± 1.92 n=6	14.25 ± 1.27 n=6	0.78	0.40	0.27
	7h	8.60 ± 1.81 n=5	11.66 ± 2.11 n=6	10.08 ± 1.47 n=5	7.10 ± 0.92 n=5	0.49	0.80	0.93
	24h	9.87 ± 1.57 n=4	11.25 ± 1.25 n=2	10.33 ± 1.45 n=3	12.2 ± 3.10 n=5	0.49	0.80	0.93
PVN	1h	37.60 ± 4.61 n=5	27.7 ± 2.22 n=6	53.83 ± 11.03 n=6	34.54 ± 6.65 n=6	0.07	0.07	0.37
	7h	22.90 ± 2.14 n=5	27.36 ± 4.01 n=6	20.58 ± 6.56 n=6	24.16 ± 5.06 n=6	0.41	0.59	0.93

	24h	24.85 ± 3.54 n=7	23.50 ± 5.50 n=6	26.57 ± 5.69 n=8	35.42 ± 5.38 n=7	0.72	0.23	0.31
BLA	1h	24.83 ± 2.52 n=6	24.00 ± 4.52 n=6	39.91 ± 5.43 n=6	30.41 ± 6.63 n=6	0.31	0.04	0.39
	7h	21.90 ± 5.08 n=5	20.41 ± 3.23 n=6	21.08 ± 5.85 n=6	20.90 ± 1.17 n=5	0.85	0.99	0.88
	24h	21.33 ± 3.17 n=6	29.00 ± 5.95 n=7	33.60 ± 3.60 n=5	36.66 ± 11.02 n=6	0.60	0.21	0.69
	1h	28.41 ± 2.33 n=6	27.50 ± 2.50 n=6	41.41 ± 3.46 n=6	31.16 ± 4.98 n=6	0.12	0.02	0.19
CEA	7h	40.40 ± 6.23 n=5	43.83 ± 7.65 n=6	30.83 ± 4.20 n=6	28.00 ± 5.16 n=5	0.30	0.33	0.65
	24h	28.66 ± 4.40 n=6	30.28 ± 2.54 n=7	28.00 ± 5.16 n=5	33.16 ± 9.32 n=6	0.81	0.88	0.80

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