Full title: Protein lactylation induced by neural excitation

Short title: Protein lactylation in the brain

Authors: Hideo Hagihara[1], Hirotaka Shoji[1], Hikari Otabi[2,3], Atsushi Toyoda[2,3,4], Kaoru Katoh[5],

Masakazu Namihira[5], Tsuyoshi Miyakawa[1*]

Affiliations:

[1] Division of Systems Medical Science, Institute for Comprehensive Medical Science,

Fujita Health University, Aichi, Japan

[2] College of Agriculture, Ibaraki University, Ibaraki, Japan

[3] United Graduate School of Agricultural Science, Tokyo University of Agriculture and

Technology, Tokyo, Japan

[4] Ibaraki University Cooperation between Agriculture and Medical Science (IUCAM),

Ibaraki, Japan

[5] Biomedical Research Institute, National Institute of Advanced Industrial Science and

Technology (AIST), Ibaraki, Japan

*Corresponding Author: Tsuyoshi Miyakawa (miyakawa@fujita-hu.ac.jp)

Keywords: lactylation, lactate, brain, posttranslational modification, histone H1

ORCID ID

Hideo Hagihara: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9602-9518

Hirotaka Shoji: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4843-6949

Hikari Otabi: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5127-8190

Atsushi Toyoda: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0245-3244

Kaoru Katoh: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6590-413X

Masakazu Namihira: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2108-5712

Tsuyoshi Miyakawa: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0137-8200

Abstract

Lactate is known to have diverse roles in the brain at the molecular and behavioral levels

under both physiological and pathophysiological conditions, such as learning and memory

and regulation of mood. Recently, a novel post-translational modification called lysine

lactylation has been found in histone H3 of mouse macrophages, and the lactylation levels

paralleled the intracellular lactate levels[1]. However, it is unknown whether lysine lactylation

occurs in brain cells, and if it does, whether lactylation is induced by the stimuli that

accompany changes in lactate levels. Herein, we reveal that lysine lactylation in brain cells

is regulated by systemic changes in lactate levels, neural excitation, and behaviorally

relevant stimuli. Lysine lactylation levels were increased by lactate treatment and by high-

potassium-induced depolarization in cultured primary neurons; these increases were

attenuated by pharmacological inhibition of monocarboxylate transporter 2 and lactate

dehydrogenase, respectively, suggesting that both cell-autonomous and non-cell-

autonomous neuronal mechanisms are involved in overall lysine lactylation. *In vivo*,

electroconvulsive stimulation increased lysine lactylation levels in the prefrontal cortices of

mice, and its levels were positively correlated with the expression levels of the neuronal

activity marker c-Fos on an individual cell basis. In the social defeat stress model of

depression in which brain lactate levels increase, lactylation levels were increased in the

prefrontal cortices of the defeated mice, which was accompanied by increased c-Fos

expression, decreased social behaviors, and increased anxiety-like behaviors, suggesting

that stress-induced neuronal excitation may induce lysine lactylation, thereby affecting

mood-related behaviors. Further, we identified 53 candidate lysine-lactylated proteins in

the mouse cortex and found that lactylation levels in histone H1 increased in response to

defeat stress. This study may open up an avenue for exploration of a novel role of neuronal

activity-induced lactate mediated by protein lactylation in the brain.

Main text

Lactate in the brain has emerged as an energy substrate and a valuable signaling molecule[2], and its alteration has been implicated in multiple neuropsychiatric disorders. Among various strains/conditions of animal models of neuropsychiatric disorders, we have identified more than 20 out of 65 strains/conditions of mice that show altered lactate levels in whole brain[3,4]. A recent research identified lysine lactylation (Kla) as a novel post-translational modification in histone protein that can be stimulated by lactate[1]. A report by Zhang et al. suggested that histone H3 Kla mediates a metabolic alteration-related lactate regulation of gene expression in mouse bone marrow-derived macrophages[1]. The following reports have described key roles of lactate-induced Kla in macrophages in the transition of macrophages from a proinflammatory state to a reparative state[5] and the pathogenesis of lung fibrosis[6]. However, it has not been elucidated whether this Kla occurs and is regulated by exogenous lactate treatment or by stimulation that increases endogenous lactate levels in other types of cells/tissues including brain cells.

66   **Lactate treatment and neuronal excitation increase protein lactylation in the brain**

67   Kla was detected by western blot analysis in mouse brain tissues, with patterns different

68   from those observed in macrophages and peripheral organs (Fig. 1a, Extended Data Fig. 1).

69   With confocal microscopic imaging, we observed Kla signals throughout the cell, including

70   somata and neurites, with a relatively weak signal in the nucleus region in primary cultured

71   neurons expressing the neuronal marker βIII-tubulin (Fig. 1b). These results suggest that Kla

72   modifications occur in various proteins to varying degrees, potentially with neural cell-

73   specific functional roles different from those found in macrophages.

74   We investigated whether extracellular application of lactate stimulates Kla in

75   neuronal cells as seen in macrophages[1]. Lactate treatment significantly increased Kla

76   immunoreactivity in the primary cultured neurons (Fig. 1c, d), as confirmed by an

77   independent experiment performed at a different institute (Extended Data Fig. 2). The

78   increase in Kla immunoreactivity was attenuated in a dose-dependent manner by α-cyano-

79   4-hydroxycinnamate (4-CIN), a monocarboxylate transporter 2 (MCT2) inhibitor that blocks

80   lactate transport into neurons (Fig. 1d). Considering that there are few astrocyte-like cells

in the culture (Fig. 1e), lactate derived from astrocytes may minimally affect the lactate

contents therein. Furthermore, in an *in vivo* experiment, we found that chronic and

systemic treatment with lactate, shown to increase extracellular lactate concentrations in

the brain[7], increased Kla immunoreactivity in the mouse prefrontal cortex (PFC) (Fig. 1f–h),

but not in the hippocampus (Extended Data Fig. 3), suggesting that exogenous lactate

stimulates protein lactylation in the brain in a region-dependent manner.

To examine in what neural cell types protein lactylation occurs in the brain, we

conducted double-immunostaining of Kla with cell type-specific markers on mouse PFC:

Camk2a for glutamatergic neurons, GAD67 for GABAergic neurons, S100b for astrocytes,

and CD68 for microglia. Kla immunoreactivity was found in all cell types examined,

suggesting that protein lactylation may ubiquitously occur in neural cells in the brain (Fig.

1i).

Neuronal excitation stimulates protein lactylation in the brain

Neuronal excitation increases brain lactate levels[8–12]. We examined lactate and protein

lactylation levels using an *in vitro* neuronal excitation model. Primary neuron cultures were

treated with a high concentration of potassium ions (high-K) (Fig. 2a) to induce

depolarization of neurons *in vitro*. The high-K treatment resulted in increased lactate

concentration in the culture supernatant at 30 minutes after the initiation of treatment (Fig.

2b). The intracellular lactate level showed a trend of time-dependent increase and reached

significant increase at 2 hours after the initiation of high-K treatment (Fig. 2b). The high-K-

induced increase in Kla levels was attenuated by treatment with sodium oxamate (OX),

which inhibits lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) activity in neural[13,14] and other cell types [1] (Fig.

2c), suggesting that neuronal excitation may induce protein lactylation via intracellular

metabolism and the glycolytic pathway. To test this hypothesis *in vivo*, we treated mice with

electroconvulsive stimulation (ECS) and then examined lactate and protein lactylation levels

in the brain. The brain lactate levels increased 10 minutes after ECS and persisted for 1 hour

(Fig. 2d, e). We then examined Kla levels in mouse brains treated with ECS in combination

with OX and/or 4-CIN (Fig. 2f). While the ECS-induced increase in Kla immunoreactivity was

not significantly affected by prior treatment with either OX or 4-CIN alone, it was attenuated

by a combination treatment with OX and 4-CIN (Fig. 2g, h), suggesting that, *in vivo*, both

intracellular new lactate production and extracellular lactate uptake have a role in neuronal

activation-induced protein lactylation in the acute phase.

114   c-Fos is an immediate early gene product used as a marker for neuronal

activation[15]. Utilizing the characteristics of c-Fos expression, we investigated the relation

between Kla and c-Fos expressions in the ECS mouse model. Upon double-immunostaining

analysis of c-Fos-expressing cells in the PFC, we found a significant positive correlation

between Kla and c-Fos immunoreactive intensities on an individual cell basis level (Fig. 2i, j,

Extended Data Fig. 4). Considering that intensity of electrical stimulation positively

correlates with c-Fos-labeling levels in individual neurons[16], our results suggest that the

more neurons are activated, the more Kla is induced in the cells. However, we have to note

that there also are many cells that are Kla-positive but c-Fos-negative, suggesting that some

Kla formations are independent of neuronal activation or lasts longer than that of c-Fos

protein expression after neuronal activation.

Social stress stimulates protein lactylation in the brain

We explored whether protein lactylation in the brain is modified by a physiologically

relevant stimulus using a social defeat stress (SDS) model of depression. SDS has been

shown to increase c-Fos expression levels in many brain regions[17–19]. Brain lactate levels

increased immediately (10 minutes) after a single exposure to the stress, and the increase

was attenuated by prior treatment with OX[1] (Extended Data Fig. 5).

Further, we conducted a chronic experiment where the mice experienced daily

defeat stress with prior treatment with OX or vehicle (saline) for 10 consecutive days. To

examine the correlation between brain lactate and Kla levels and behavioral measures of

anxiety and depression, we conducted a series of behavioral tests prior to brain sampling

(Fig. 3a, Extended Data Fig. 6, 7). In the social avoidance test, the social interaction ratio

decreased in both chronic vehicle-treated and OX-treated socially defeated mice compared

to control mice (Fig. 3b). Based on the standard criteria[20,21], we focused on mice susceptible

to SDS, which showed a social interaction ratio <1 in the social avoidance test and

designated them as defeated mice for the following behavioral and brain tissue analyses.

We found that brain lactate levels were higher in defeated mice than in control

mice (Fig. 3c), as confirmed by independent sets of mice (Extended Data Fig. 8). Brain lactate

levels were paradoxically increased in OX-treated defeated mice at 9 days after the last

stress exposure and OX treatment compared to vehicle-treated defeated mice and control

mice (Fig. 3c). Simple correlation (Fig. 3d; Extended Data Fig. 9) and multiple regression

(Extended Data Table 1) analyses suggested that increased brain lactate levels are

preferentially associated with increased anxiety-like behaviors. In this stress model, Kla

levels in the PFC were increased in vehicle-treated defeated mice and, to a larger extent, in

OX-treated defeated mice compared to control mice (Fig. 3e, f).

Expression of neuronal activity marker c-Fos in the PFC also increased in vehicle-

treated defeated mice and, to a lager extent, in OX-treated defeated mice, in both a familiar

environment in the home cage (non-stimulated basal condition) and novel environment

exposed to the open field (condition with anxiogenic stimulation) (Fig. 3g, h). In the mice

that received anxiogenic stimulation to ensure more c-Fos-expressing cells, we found that

the Kla level positively correlated with the c-Fos expression level in the PFC (Fig. 3i).

Although changes in Kla and c-Fos expression levels were observed in some other brain

regions implicated in anxiety and depression behaviors (e.g., hippocampus, lateral habenula,

and amygdala; Extended Data Fig. 10, 11), no significant correlations were found between

Kla and c-Fos expression levels in brain regions other than the PFC (Extended Data Fig. 12),

suggesting that simultaneous induction of c-Fos and Kla occurs in a brain region-specific

manner following repeated SDS. Furthermore, we found that Kla levels in the PFC, but not

in the amygdala and hippocampal subregions, negatively correlated with the social

interaction ratio in the social avoidance test (Fig. 3j, Extended Data Fig. 13) and with

distance traveled in the dark compartment in the light–dark transition test (Fig. 3k),

indicating that the more susceptible to SDS and the more anxious the mouse is, the higher

the Kla levels in the PFC.

Identification of lactylated proteins in the brain

We sought to identify and quantify the brain proteins modified by lactylation and whose

lactylation levels changed in response to SDS. Accordingly, we analyzed the PFC of defeated

and control mice using Kla antibody immunoprecipitation and mass spectrometry

techniques. This analysis identified 56 candidate lysine-lactylated proteins in the mouse PFC

(Extended Data Table 2). GO-enrichment analysis with DAVID[22,23] showed that these

proteins were mainly enriched in nucleosome- and histone-related biological processes

(Extended Data Table 3). Among them, 12 proteins were suggested to be changed by SDS,

of which seven were upregulated and five were downregulated. Notably, four subtypes of

histone H1 were included in the 12 changed proteins and all were upregulated, suggesting

that SDS increases lactylation at histone H1. We confirmed these observations by

conducting immunoprecipitation with the histone H1 antibody followed by western blot

analysis with the Kla antibody (Extended Data Fig. 14). In the PFC, 59.5% of cells were

positive for histone H1 and nearly all the histone H1-positive cells (94.6%) were Kla positive,

and vice versa (99.1% of Kla-positive cells were histone H1 positive) (Fig. 4a, b). Upon super-

resolution imaging using stimulated emission depletion (STED) microscopy, we observed

histone H1 and Kla double-positive structures in the nucleus, suggestive of lysine lactylation

at histone H1 (Fig. 4c). Importantly, the double-positive structures in the nucleus increased

in the defeated mice compared to control mice (Fig. 4d), further supporting that SDS

enhances lysine lactylation levels at histone H1 in the PFC.

Discussion

In this study, we showed that a novel post-translational modification called lysine

lactylation occurs in brain cells and that its levels can be changed by neuronal excitation.

We found that increasing lactate levels by lactate addition or inducing neuronal excitation

with high-K or ECS increased Kla levels in the mouse brain cells both *in vitro* and *in vivo*. The

lactate and Kla levels also increased by behaviorally induced neuronal excitation associated

with SDS. In the SDS model of depression, Kla levels in the PFC, a core brain region

implicated in depressive and anxiety disorders, correlated with anxiety-like behaviors,

suggesting a potential behavioral significance of Kla in the brain. Furthermore, our

proteomic approach identified 53 candidate lactylated proteins in the mouse PFC and

highlighted that histone H1 lactylation increases in response to chronic stress.

200   Our results using SDS model mice suggest that, in stress-related pathological

conditions, excess neuronal activity may underlie increased protein lactylation in the PFC,

potentially associated with susceptibility to stress and anxiety-like behavior, although the

causal mechanism remained unclear. Given that increased Kla levels reflect neuronal

activity, it might be expected that significant correlations can be seen between Kla levels in

the brain regions other than PFC and behavioral alterations. Adaptation in neuronal activity

has been suggested to occur following repeated SDS in some brain regions; for example,

neurons in the central nucleus of amygdala became less active and showed suppressed c-

Fos expression after repeated SDS[24]. Such adaptation in neuronal activity may affect c-Fos

expression, possibly as well as Kla induction, resulting in no clear correlations between

behavior and Kla levels in brain regions other than the PFC.

211   Regarding the mechanisms of Kla formation, Zhang et al. showed that, using a ^{13}C-

labeled L-lactate incorporation method, Kla could be derived directly from lactate

exogenously applied to mouse bone marrow-derived macrophages[1]. Conversely, other

studies have suggested that Kla formation could be mediated indirectly by a glycolytic

intermediate, lactoylglutathione, which can provide a lactyl group to lysine residues. L-

Lactate is suggested to suppress the activity of glyoxalase 2, an enzyme catalyzing the

conversion of lactoylglutathione into glutathione and free D-lactate. Such suppression due

to increased L-lactate could elevate lactoylglutathione levels, which in turn, may facilitate

the indirect lactylation pathway. Gaffney et al. used a stable isotope labeling of amino acids

in cell culture (SILAC) model to identify lactylated proteins that could be formed via

lactoylglutathione in the HEK293 cell line[25]. The identified proteins were enriched in

glycolytic and carbon-metabolism enzymes but did not include histone family proteins. As

mentioned above, Kla forms directly from lactate on histone H3[1]. Our list includes histone

H3 as well as the 60S ribosomal protein L30 and Rho guanine nucleotide exchange factor 2,

also found in the 350-protein list published by Gaffney et al.[25] These observations suggest

that direct and indirect lactylation pathways may coexist, rather than being exclusive,

depending on the proteins expressed in the brain. Regardless of the mechanisms, lysine

lactylation may play a role in coupling metabolic changes to gene-expression regulation.

229   Our analyses highlighted that H1 histones increase their Kla levels in response to

SDS. Histone H1 is known to be a linker histone, having a key role in higher-order chromatin

folding and genome stability. Seven subtypes of H1 histone have been identified in

mammalian somatic cells, i.e., H1.0–1.5 and H1.10[26]. Numerous post-translational

modifications have been identified in H1, such as phosphorylation, methylation, acetylation,

formylation, crotonylation, and citrullination[27]. Post-translational modifications of histone

H1 have received less attention than those of core histones; therefore, knowledge on the

functional role of H1 modifications is limited[26,28], especially in brain cells. In the case of

mouse macrophage histone H3, lactylation competes with acetylation at lysine residues to

regulate the expression of a specific gene set. Extrapolating these findings to histone H1

and considering that histone H1 acetylation regulates chromatin compaction and

decondensation and hence the accessibility of linker DNA regions to transcription factors,

histone H1 lactylation may also be involved in gene-expression regulation depending on the

balance of Kla with acetylation.

In conclusion, this study indicates that a novel post-translational modification

called lysine lactylation occurs in the brain, and it is regulated by neuronal activity. While

53 candidate lactylated proteins were identified in the brain, it remains unclear whether

such a modification has functional significance for each protein at the cellular and behavior

levels, and if it does, in what brain regions and in what cell types and in what types of

behavioral phenotypes. It would also be interesting to explore whether protein lactylation

in the brain is related to the etiology and pathophysiology of neuropsychiatric disorders, as

are altered lactate levels in the brains of animals[3]. Further studies may reveal unknown

roles of lactate, linking neural activity, glycolytic metabolism, and molecular signaling

mediated by protein lactylation under physiological and pathophysiological conditions.

Methods

Animals

C57BL/6J mice (7–9 weeks old) were purchased from Charles River Laboratories Japan, Inc.

(Hino, Japan) and Japan SLC (Shizuoka, Japan). Retired ICR mice were purchased from Chubu

Kagaku Shizai Co. Ltd. (Nagoya, Japan) and Japan SLC. The mice were habituated to their

environments for a week before experimentation. All animal experiments were approved

by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of Fujita Health University, Ibaraki

University, and The National Institute of Advanced Industrial Science and Technology based

on the Law for the Humane Treatment and Management of Animals and the Standards

Relating to the Care and Management of Laboratory Animals and Relief of Pain. Every effort

was made to minimize the number of animals used.

Cell culture

Embryonic C57BL/6J mice (15.5–16.5 days old) were used for primary neuron culture. The

frontal cortices and hippocampi were dissected from the brains in cold HEPES-buffered,

calcium and magnesium-free Hank's balanced salt solution (HBSS; 14175-103, Thermo

Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) and dissociated in HBSS containing 0.25% papain

(LS003127, Worthington Biochemical Corporation, Lakewood, NJ, USA), 0.1% L-cysteine

(C7352, Merck, Darmstadt, Germany), 0.1% bovine serum albumin (BSA; A2153, Merck),

and 0.01% DNase I (D4263, Merck) at 37°C for 12 minutes. The enzymatic digestion was

stopped by adding a plating medium (Dulbecco's modified Eagle medium, D5796, Merck,

containing 10% fetal bovine serum). Tissues were dissociated by pipetting, centrifuged at

room temperature for 10 minutes, and resuspended in the plating medium. Cells were

counted, seeded at a density of 25,000 cells/cm^2 on culture plates or glass coverslips

previously coated with 0.01% poly-L-lysine (P8920, Merck), and incubated at 37°C. After 2

hours, the plating medium was replaced by a culture medium (Neurobasal™ medium

[21103-049, Thermo Fisher Scientific] containing B-27™ Supplement [17504-044, Thermo

Fisher Scientific], 0.5 mM L-glutamine [G7513, Merck], and 1% penicillin-streptomycin

solution [P4333, Merck]). The culture medium was changed by one half with fresh medium

every 3–4 days. At 10–14 days *in vitro*, drug treatment experiments, immunocytochemical

analysis were conducted.

Immunocytochemistry

Cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) for 10

minutes, pre-incubated for 30 minutes in 5% BSA (Merck) in PBS containing 0.05% Tween-

20 (PBST), and then incubated for 30 minutes in PBS containing the primary antibodies:

rabbit polyclonal anti-lactyllysine antibody (PTM-1401, PTM Biolabs, Hangzhou, China),

mouse monoclonal anti-tubulin β3 (801201, BioLegend, San Diego, CA, USA), and mouse

monoclonal anti-glial fibrillary acidic protein antibody (G3893, Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, MO,

USA). Immunoreactivity to the antigen was visualized using Alexa Fluor 488- and Alexa Fluor

594-conjugated secondary antibodies (Molecular Probes, Eugene, OR). Nuclear staining was

performed with Hoechst 33258 (Polysciences, Warrington, PA). All reactions were

performed at room temperature. We used a microscope (LSM 510 META; Zeiss, Göttingen,

Germany) to obtain images of the stained cells. The soma of tubulin β3-positive cells was

manually delineated and the signal intensity of Kla staining within the region of interest was

recorded using ZEN software (Zeiss). At least 200 cells from triplicate wells per condition

were analyzed.

The specificity of the Kla antibody was confirmed using dot blot analysis of lysine

residues with various types of modifying groups (i.e., acetyl-, crotonyl-, propionyl-, butyryl-,

trimethyl-, and succinyl-lysine); the antibody showed almost no cross-reactivity with these

modified lysine residues[1,29]. Additionally, lactate treatment dramatically increased Kla

immunoreactivity in human MCF-7, Hela, and MDA-MB-231 cell lines[1,29].

Immunohistochemistry

Immunohistochemical analysis was performed as previously described with some

modifications[30,31]. Briefly, mice were deeply anesthetized with isoflurane and transcardially

perfused with PBS followed by 4% PFA in PBS. The brains were dissected, immersed

overnight in the same fixative, and cryoprotected by sequential incubation in 10, 20, and

30% sucrose in PBS for 2–3 days each at 4°C. After cryoprotection, brains were mounted in

Tissue-Tek optimal cutting temperature compound (Miles, Elkhart, IN), frozen, and cut into

30-µm-thick coronal sections using a microtome (CM1850; Leica Microsystems, Wetzlar,

Germany). The sections were stored in PBS containing 0.1% sodium azide at 4°C until further

use. The sections were pre-incubated for 1 hour at room temperature in 5% skim milk in

PBST and then incubated overnight at 4°C in PBS containing the primary antibodies. We

used rabbit polyclonal anti-lactyllysine antibody (PTM-1401, PTM Biolabs), mouse

monoclonal anti-CaM Kinase II α subunit antibody (05-532, Merck), mouse monoclonal anti-

GAD67 antibody (MAB5406, Millipore), mouse monoclonal anti-S-100 β subunit antibody

(S2532, Merck), rat monoclonal anti-CD68 antibody (ab53444, abcam), and mouse

monoclonal anti-c-Fos antibody (sc-166940, Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz, CA, USA).

For c-Fos staining, antigen retrieval was performed by autoclave heating at 120°C for 1

minute in 0.01 M sodium citrate buffer prior to the blocking step. Immunoreactivity to the

antigen was visualized using Alexa Fluor 488- or Alexa Fluor 594-conjugated secondary

antibody (Molecular Probes). Nuclear staining was performed with Hoechst 33258

(Polysciences). We used a microscope (LSM 510 META; Zeiss) to obtain images of the

stained sections. Three to seven sections from each animal were processed for semi-

quantification analyses in each brain region, and the averaged values were considered as

one sample. c-Fos-positive cells were counted in the indicated brain regions, manually

delineated using ZEN software (Zeiss) according to the mouse brain atlas[32]. For c-Fos and

Kla immunofluorescence intensity analysis in individual cells, c-Fos-positive cells were

circled, and the signal intensity for each antibody within the circled areas was recorded

using Zen software (Zeiss). For Kla immunofluorescence intensity, to reduce potential

artifacts across sections, the values were calculated from the mean signal intensity of the

entire image by subtracting background signals using Zen software (Zeiss). Semi-

quantification analyses were performed in the medial PFC (approximately from 2.1 to 2.4

mm from the bregma), dorsal hippocampus, lateral habenula, and amygdala (approximately

from -2.1 to -1.6 mm from the bregma), and ventral hippocampus (approximately from -3.5

to -3.8 mm from the bregma).

STED microscopy

Brain slices were doubleimmunostained as described above. Mouse monoclonal anti-

histone H1 antibody (sc-8030; Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Inc.) and rabbit polyclonal anti-Kla

antibody were the primary antibodies, and Alexa Fluor 555- and Alexa Fluor 488 conjugated

antibodies (Molecular Probes) were the secondary antibodies.

347   STED images were acquired with a TCS SP8 STED 3X system (Leica Microsystems,

Wetzlar, Germany) with 2ch HyDSMD detectors[33]. A white laser (for excitation) and a 660-

nm laser with a donut beam (for stimulated emission depletion) were used for STED imaging.

For detection of histone H1 and Kla, we used excitation wavelengths of 561 and 488 nm,

respectively. Raw STED images (pixel size: 20 nm) were recorded with a 93× glycerol

immersion objective (Leica HC PL APO 93×/1.30 GLYC motC STED W) and deconvoluted

using the Huygens software (SVI, Hilversum, Netherlands). The percentage of merged area

in a nucleus stained for both histone H1 and Kla was estimated using the ImageJ program.

Immunoprecipitation

The PFCs were dissected, snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80°C until further

use. Fifty microliters of Dynabeads™ Protein G solution (10007D; Thermo Fisher Scientific)

was separated into low-protein absorption tubes (PROKEEP; Watson Bio Lab, Tokyo, Japan)

and reacted with 2 μg of rabbit polyclonal anti-lactyllysine antibody (PTM Biolabs) or normal

rabbit IgG (Cell Signaling Technology, Inc., Danvers, MA, USA). The frozen tissues were then

homogenized in lysis buffer (FNN0021, Thermo Fisher Scientific). Then, 200 μL of 1-μg/μL

tissue lysate was added to the bead-antibody complex and incubated with a rotation of 30

minutes at room temperature. The bead-antibody-antigen complex was then processed for

mass spectrometry.

Mass spectrometry

Trypsin digestion: Bead-antibody-antigen complex was washed with 50 mM ammonium

bicarbonate. The binding proteins were eluted by trypsin (Promega Corporation, Madison,

WI, USA) for 1 hour at 37°C, reduced with 10 mM dithiothreitol for 30 minutes at room

temperature, and alkylated with 20 mM iodoacetamide for 30 minutes at room

temperature, followed by an overnight incubation at 37℃. Digestion was stopped by adding

trifluoroacetic acid. The digested sample was desalted using GL-Tip SDB (GL Sciences, Tokyo,

Japan) and then dissolved in 20 µL of 0.1% trifluoroacetic acid.

Liquid chromatograph-tandem mass spectrometer (LC-MS/MS) analysis: The peptides were

analyzed using LC-MS (EASY-nLC™ 1000, Orbitrap Fusion EDT; Thermo Fisher Scientific).

Injected peptides were trapped on an Acclaim™ PepMap™ 100 C18 LC column (3 µm particle

size, 0.075 mm inner diameter × 20 mm length; Thermo Fisher Scientific) and separated on

an EASY-Spray LC column (3 µm particle size, 0.075 mm inner diameter × 150 mm length;

Thermo Fisher Scientific) with a linear gradient of 0–35% acetonitrile with 0.1% formic acid

over 60 minutes at a flow rate of 300 nL/minute. Data acquisition was performed using

Xcalibur™ (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Full MS spectra (m/z 375–1500) were acquired at a

resolution of 120,000. The most intense precursor ions were selected for collision-induced

fragmentation in the linear ion trap at a normalized collision energy of 35%. Dynamic

exclusion was employed within 60 seconds to prevent repetitive selection of peptides.

Data analysis: Raw data were analyzed using Proteome Discoverer™ (version 2.2, Thermo

Fisher Scientific) with the Mascot search engine (version 2.6.1, Matrix Science Ltd., London,

UK) against the Swiss-Prot database. The search parameters were as follows: mass

tolerances in MS and MS/MS, 10 ppm and 0.6 Da; maximum missed cleavages allowed, 2.

Methionine oxidation and N-acetylation were set as variable modifications, and cysteine

carbamidomethylation was set as a fixed modification. A target-decoy database search was

used to estimate the false-positive ratio for peptide identification; the false discovery rate

was set at 1%.

Western blot analysis

Western blot analysis was performed as previously described, with some modifications[30,34].

Tissues from the brain and peripheral organs were collected from adult c57BL6/J mice,

snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80°C until further use. Peritoneal cavity cells

were collected from adult C67BL/6J mice and used as a macrophage sample. Tissues and

cultured cells were homogenized in lysis buffer (MCL1, Merck). Protein homogenates were

separated with gel electrophoresis using NuPAGE™ 4–12% Bis-Tris gels (Thermo Fisher

Scientific) and transferred to polyvinylidene difluoride membranes. Membranes were

preincubated in 5% skim milk in Tris-buffered saline with 0.05% Tween® 20 (TBST) for 1 hour

and incubated for 2 hours in primary antibody, rabbit polyclonal anti-lactyllysine antibody

(PTM Biolabs), or mouse monoclonal anti-β-actin antibody (A5316, Merck) diluted in TBST.

They were then incubated for 1 hour with a secondary antibody conjugated with

horseradish peroxidase (sc-2357, anti-rabbit IgG; sc-516102, anti-mouse IgG; Santa Cruz

Biotechnology) diluted with TBST. All reactions were performed at room temperature.

Immunoreactivity was visualized with a chemiluminescence detection regent (ImmunoStar

LD, 292-69903; FUJIFILM Wako Pure Chemical Corporation, Osaka, Japan) and

photographed with a luminescent image analyzer (LAS-4000 mini; GE Healthcare,

Buckinghamshire, UK).

Electroconvulsive stimulation

The experimental mice were briefly anesthetized with isoflurane, and bilateral

electroconvulsive stimulation (ECS; current: 25 mA; shock duration: 1 s; frequency: 100

pulses/sec; pulse width: 0.5 msec) was administered via ear clip electrodes with a pulse

generator (ECT Unit; Ugo Basile, Gemonio, VA, Italy)[35]. Control mice were handled similarly,

except that they were not administered ECS.

Chronic SDS

Condition 1

SDS serves as a preclinical model of chronic stress[36,37]. We performed chronic social defeat

stress in mice at Fujita Health University, as previously described[37].

Screening of aggressor ICR mice: Retired ICR breeders were screened for aggressive

behavior for 3 consecutive days. They were individually housed in a clear rectangular

hamster cage (26.7 cm [width] × 48.3 cm [depth] × 15.2 cm [height]; Allentown Caging

Equipment, Allentown, NJ, USA) equipped with a clear perforated Plexiglass divider (0.6 cm

[width] × 45.7 cm [depth] × 15.2 cm [height]; Chubu Kagaku Shizai [custom order]) and a

steel-wire top (Allentown Caging Equipment).

Chronic SDS: Experimental C57BL/6J mice were placed in the compartment containing an

aggressor ICR mouse and were exposed to social defeat for 10 minutes. During this period,

the experimental mice generally displayed submissive behaviors. They were then

transferred to the other compartment of the aggressor's cage, allowing sensory interaction

with the intruder C57BL/6J mouse and resident ICR aggressor mouse for approximately 24

hours (cohabitation housing condition). This procedure was repeated for 10 consecutive

days, with each experimental C57BL/6J mouse being exposed to a novel ICR aggressor each

day to prevent habituation. Control C57BL/6J mice were placed in pairs in an identical home

cage separated by a perforated divider. The control animals were rotated to a new cage

compartment daily and allowed to interact with a novel mouse of the same strain. Following

the last defeat session, all C57BL/6J mice were singly housed in standard mouse cages.

Twenty-four hours after the last defeat session, a social avoidance test and other behavioral

tests were conducted as described. Brain sampling was performed 8 days after the last

defeat session. *Condition 1* was used for OX-treatment experiments.

Condition 2

The experiment was performed at Fujita Health University, as described in *Condition 1*,

except that the intruder C57BL/6J mice were individually housed in separate cages, away

from ICR aggressor mice, after the 10-minute-aggression (separation housing condition). As

in *Condition 1*, brain sampling was performed 8 days after the last defeat session.

Condition 3

The experiment was performed at Ibaraki University, as previously described[38]. The intruder

C57BL/6J mice were exposed to sensory interaction with a resident ICR aggressor mouse in

the other compartment of the aggressor's cage for approximately 24 hours (cohabitation

housing condition). Twenty-four hours after the last defeat session, a social avoidance test

was conducted [38]. Brain sampling was performed 2 days after the last defeat session.

Drug treatment

Twenty minutes prior to each defeat session, the mice were intraperitoneally administered

sodium oxamate (OX; 1 g/kg; O2751, Sigma-Aldrich, Tokyo, Japan) or sodium L-lactate (1

g/kg; L-7022, Sigma-Aldrich). They were administered the same amount of saline as the

control. OX is an inhibitor of lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) activity in the central nervous

system[13,14]. The dose of OX that we used was previously shown to be effective in

suppressing seizures in a mouse model of epilepsy[14]. The dose of sodium L-lactate that we

used was previously shown to exert antidepressant-like effects in a corticosterone-induced

chronic stress model in mice[7].

Behavioral tests

Most of the behavioral tests were performed as described elsewhere[39–42], unless otherwise

noted.

Social interaction test: Social interaction was tested 1 day after the last defeat session as

previously described[37], with minor modifications. We used an open field chamber (40 cm

(width) × 40 cm (depth) × 30 cm (height); O'HARA & Co., Tokyo, Japan) and a wire mesh

cage (10.5 cm (width) × 6.5 cm (depth) × 29 cm (height); O'HARA & Co.) to enclose the ICR

aggressor mouse. The ICR aggressor mouse that is novel to the defeated C57BL/6J mouse

was used. Each social interaction test was composed of two 150-second phases: the ICR

aggressor mouse is absent and present in the interaction zone for the first and second phase,

respectively. An identical, empty wire mesh cage was placed for the first phase testing. A

13.7 cm × 23.6 cm rectangular zone including the wire mesh cage was defined as the social

interaction zone. Mouse behaviors were video-monitored, and the trajectory of mouse

ambulation, distance traveled, and time spent in the interaction zone for all test phases

were automatically determined using ImageSI (see "Image analysis"). A social interaction

ratio was calculated by dividing the time spent in the interaction zone when the target was

present by the time spent in the interaction zone when the target was absent. A social

interaction ratio of 1 was considered the threshold for dividing defeated mice into the

susceptible and resilient groups.

Light/dark transition test: A light/dark transition test was conducted as previously

described[39–43]. The apparatus consisted of a cage (42 cm (width) × 21 cm (depth) × 25 cm

(height)) divided into two sections of equal size by a partition with a door (O'HARA & Co.).

One chamber was brightly illuminated (390 lux), whereas the other chamber was dark (2

lux). Mice were placed into the dark chamber and allowed to move freely between the two

chambers with the door open for 10 minutes. The total number of transitions, latency to

first enter the lit chamber, distance traveled, and time spent in each chamber were

recorded using ImageLD (see "Image analysis").

Open field test: The apparatus was a transparent square cage (42 cm (width) × 42 cm (depth)

× 30 cm (height)) equipped with infrared photobeam sensors (VersaMax; Accuscan

Instruments, Columbus, OH, USA) with a white floor[39–42]. The center of the floor was

illuminated at 100 lux. Each mouse was placed in the corner of the cage. The total distance

traveled (cm), vertical activity (rearing measured by counting the number of photobeam

interruptions), time spent in the center area (20 cm × 20 cm), and stereotypic counts

(defined by the number of breaks of the same beam) were recorded for 30 minutes using

the VersaMax system.

Porsolt forced-swim test: A Plexiglas cylinder (20 cm height × 11.4 cm diameter; O'HARA &

Co.) filled with water (21–23 °C) up to a height of 8 cm was placed in a white plastic chamber

(32 cm (width) × 44 cm (depth) × 49 cm (height); O'HARA & Co.) [39–42]. Mice were placed into

the cylinder, and both immobility and distance traveled were recorded over a 10-minute

test period. The test was conducted for 2 consecutive two days, and the results of the first

trial are shown. Images were captured at two frames per second. For each pair of successive

frames, the amount of area (pixels) in which the mouse moved was measured. When the

amount of area was below a certain threshold, mouse behavior was classified as "immobile."

When the amount of area equaled or exceeded the threshold, the mouse was classified as

"moving". The optimal threshold to judge movment was determined by adjusting it to the

amount of immobility measured by human observation. Immobility lasting for less than 2

seconds was not included in the analysis. Data acquisition and analysis were performed

automatically, using ImagePS/TS (see "Image analysis").

Tail suspension test: Each mouse was suspended 30 cm above the floor by the tail in a white

plastic chamber (41cm (width) × 31 cm (depth) × 41 cm (height); O'Hara & Co.)[39–42]. The

behavior was recorded for 10 minutes. Images were captured through a video camera, and

immobility was measured. Similar to the Porsolt forced swim test mentioned above,

immobility was judged using ImagePS/TS (see "Image analysis") according to a certain

threshold. Immobility lasting <2 seconds was not included in the analysis.

529 *Sucrose preference test*: C57BL/6J mice were subjected to a two-bottle choice test, in which

530 mice were provided with a bottle containing water and a second bottle containing 1%

531 sucrose solution, with the left/right positions of the bottles counterbalanced across groups

532 [40,41]. The mice were habituated to a two-bottle condition during all the experimental period.

533 Sucrose preference during 4-hour in the test day was calculated as the percentage of

534 sucrose preference = 100 × {[sucrose intake (g)]/(sucrose intake (g) + water intake (g)]}.

536 *Locomotor activity monitoring in the home cage*: Locomotor activity monitoring in the home

537 cage was performed as previously described[30,42]. A system that automatically analyzes the

538 locomotor activity of mice in their home cage was used[44]. The system contains a home cage

539 (29 cm (width) × 18 cm (depth) × 12 cm (height)) and filtered cage top, separated by a 13-

540 cm-high metal stand containing an infrared video camera, attached to the top of the stand.

541 Each mouse was individually housed in each home cage, and their locomotor activity was

542 monitored for 6 days. Mice were allowed to habituate to the test apparatus, and hence, the

data of the latter 3 days were analyzed. Distance traveled was measured automatically

using ImageHA (see "Image analysis").

Image analysis: For the social interaction test, light/dark transition test, Porsolt forced swim

test, and tail suspension test, image analysis programs (ImageSI/LD/PS/TS/HA) were used

to automatically analyze mouse behaviors. The application programs, based on the public

domain ImageJ program (developed by Wayne Rasband at the National Institute of Mental

Health, Bethesda), were developed and modified for each test by Tsuyoshi Miyakawa.

ImageLD program can be freely downloaded from the website of the "Mouse Phenotype

Database" (http://www.mouse-phenotype.org/)[45].

Measurements of brain lactate levels and pH

In the *in vivo* experiments, the whole brain was used to measure tissue pH and lactate levels

as previously described[3]. Briefly, snap-frozen tissues were homogenized in ice-cold distilled

H$_2$O (5 mL per 500 mg of tissue). The pH of the homogenates was measured using a pH

meter (LAQUA F-72, HORIBA, Ltd., Kyoto, Japan) equipped with a Micro ToupH electrode

(9618S-10D, HORIBA, Ltd.) after a three-point calibration at pH 4.0, 7.0, and 9.0. Following,

the concentration of lactate in the homogenates was determined using a multi-assay

analyzer (GM7 Micro-Stat; Analox Instruments Ltd., London, UK) after calibration with an

8.0-M standard lactate solution (GMRD-103, Analox Instruments). A 20-µL aliquot of

centrifuged supernatant was used for the measurement. In the *in vitro* experiments, lactate

concentrations of the cultured cells and culture supernatant were measured using the

lactate colorimetric assay kit II (K627-100; BioVision, Milpitas, CA, USA). Light transmittance

was measured at a wavelength of 450 nm using a spectrophotometer (DU730; Beckman

Coulter, Tokyo, Japan).

Statistical analysis

The data were analyzed by Student's t-test, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), two-way

ANOVA, followed by Tukey's honestly significant difference post-hoc test, or linear

regression analysis using R version 3.5.2 or SAS Studio software version 9.4 (SAS Institute

Inc., Cary, NC, USA).

Data availability

The original blot images are provided in Extended data figures. The full statistical results are

provided in Extended data tables.

References

1.   Zhang, D. *et al.* Metabolic regulation of gene expression by histone lactylation.
Nature **574**, 575–580 (2019).
2.   Magistretti, P. J. & Allaman, I. Lactate in the brain: from metabolic end-product
to signalling molecule. *Nat. Rev. Neurosci.* **19**, 235–249 (2018).
3.   Hagihara, H. *et al.* Decreased brain pH as a shared endophenotype of psychiatric
disorders. *Neuropsychopharmacology* **43**, 459–468 (2018).
4.   Hagihara, H. *et al.* Systematic analysis of brain lactate and pH levels in 65 animal
models related to neuropsychiatric conditions. *Submitted to bioRxiv*.
5.   Irizarry-Caro, R. A. *et al.* TLR signaling adapter BCAP regulates inflammatory to
reparatory macrophage transition by promoting histone lactylation. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.*
117, 30628–30638 (2020).

6.   Cui, H. *et al.* Lung myofibroblasts promote macrophage profibrotic activity

through lactate-induced histone lactylation. *Am. J. Respir. Cell Mol. Biol.* **64**, 115–125

(2020).

7.   Carrard, A. *et al.* Peripheral administration of lactate produces antidepressant-

like effects. *Mol. Psychiatry* (2016) doi:10.1038/mp.2016.179.

8.   Busnello, J. V. *et al.* Acute and chronic electroconvulsive shock in rats: Effects on

peripheral markers of neuronal injury and glial activity. *Life Sci.* **78**, 3013–3017 (2006).

9.   Díaz-García, C. M. *et al.* Neuronal stimulation triggers neuronal glycolysis and

not lactate uptake. *Cell Metab.* **26**, 361-374.e4 (2017).

10.   Lazeyras, F. *et al.* MRI, 1H-MRS, and functional MRI during and after prolonged

nonconvulsive seizure activity. *Neurology* **55**, 1677–1682 (2000).

11.   Najm, I. M. *et al.* Temporal changes in proton MRS metabolites after kainic acid-

induced seizures in rat brain. *Epilepsia* **38**, 87–94 (1997).

12.   Oses, J. P. *et al.* Sustained elevation of cerebrospinal fluid glucose and lactate

after a single seizure does not parallel with mitochondria energy production. *Epilepsy Res.*

152, 35–41 (2019).

13.   Lam, T. K. T., Gutierrez-Juarez, R., Pocai, A. & Rossetti, L. Regulation of blood

glucose by hypothalamic pyruvate metabolism. *Science* **309**, 943–947 (2005).

14.   Sada, N., Lee, S., Katsu, T., Otsuki, T. & Inoue, T. Targeting LDH enzymes with a

stiripentol analog to treat epilepsy. *Science* **347**, 1362–1367 (2015).

15.   Bullitt, E. Expression of C-fos-like protein as a marker for neuronal activity

following noxious stimulation in the rat. *J. Comp. Neurol.* **296**, 517–530 (1990).

16.   Bullitt, E., Lee, C. L., Light, A. R. & Willcockson, H. The effect of stimulus duration

on noxious-stimulus induced c-fos expression in the rodent spinal cord. *Brain Res.* **580**,

172–179 (1992).

17.   Kollack-Walker, Don, Watson, & Akil. Differential Expression of c- *fos* mRNA

Within Neurocircuits of Male Hamsters Exposed to Acute or Chronic Defeat. *J.*

Neuroendocrinol. **11**, 547–559 (1999).

18.   Martinez, M., Calvo-Torrent, A. & Herbert, J. Mapping brain response to social

stress in rodents with c-fos expression: A review. *Stress* **5**, 3–13 (2002).

19.   Matsuda, S. *et al.* Persistent c-fos expression in the brains of mice with chronic

social stress. *Neurosci. Res.* **26**, 157–170 (1996).

20.   Ma, M. *et al.* Adjunctive treatment of brexpiprazole with fluoxetine shows a

rapid antidepressant effect in social defeat stress model: Role of BDNF-TrkB signaling. *Sci.*

Rep. **6**, 1–12 (2016).

21.   Yang, B. *et al.* Comparison of R-ketamine and rapastinel antidepressant effects

in the social defeat stress model of depression. *Psychopharmacology (Berl.)* **233**, 3647–

3657 (2016).

22.   Huang, D. W., Sherman, B. T. & Lempicki, R. A. Systematic and integrative

analysis of large gene lists using DAVID bioinformatics resources. *Nat. Protoc.* **4**, 44–57

(2009).

23.   Huang, D. W., Sherman, B. T. & Lempicki, R. A. Bioinformatics enrichment tools:

paths toward the comprehensive functional analysis of large gene lists. *Nucleic Acids Res.*

37, 1–13 (2009).

24.   Martinez, M., Phillips, P. J. & Herbert, J. Adaptation in patterns of c-fos

expression in the brain associated with exposure to either single or repeated social stress

in male rats. *Eur. J. Neurosci.* **10**, 20–33 (1998).

25.   Gaffney, D. O. *et al.* Non-enzymatic lysine lactoylation of glycolytic enzymes. *Cell*

Chem. Biol. **27**, 206-213.e6 (2020).

26.   Andrés, M., García-Gomis, D., Ponte, I., Suau, P. & Roque, A. Histone H1 post-

translational modifications: update and future perspectives. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* **21**, 5941

(2020).

27.   Wisniewski, J. R., Zougman, A., Krüger, S. & Mann, M. Mass spectrometric

mapping of linker histone H1 variants reveals multiple acetylations, methylations, and

phosphorylation as well as differences between cell culture and tissue. *Mol. Cell.*

Proteomics MCP **6**, 72–87 (2007).

28.   Kamieniarz, K. *et al.* A dual role of linker histone H1.4 Lys 34 acetylation in

transcriptional activation. *Genes Dev.* **26**, 797–802 (2012).

29.   Anti-L-lactyllysine rabbit pAb. *PTM BIO*

https://www.ptmbiolabs.com/product/anti-lactyllysine-rabbit-pab/ (2019).

30.   Hagihara, H. *et al.* Circadian gene circuitry predicts hyperactive behavior in a

mood disorder mouse model. *Cell Rep.* **14**, 2784–2796 (2016).

31.   Hagihara, H., Ohira, K., Toyama, K. & Miyakawa, T. Expression of the AMPA

receptor subunits GluR1 and GluR2 is associated with granule cell maturation in the

dentate gyrus. *Front. Neurosci.* **5**, (2011).

32.   Franklin, K. B. J. & Paxinos, G. *The Mouse Brain in Stereotaxic Coordinates*.

(Academic Press Inc.. San Diego., 1997).

33.   Tanaka, M. *et al.* Fascin in lamellipodia contributes to cell elasticity by

controlling the orientation of filamentous actin. *Genes Cells* **24**, 202–213 (2019).

34.   Hagihara, H., Ohira, K., Toyama, K. & Miyakawa, T. Expression of the AMPA

receptor subunits GluR1 and GluR2 is associated with granule cell maturation in the

dentate gyrus. *Front. Neurosci.* **5**, (2011).

35.   Imoto, Y., Segi-Nishida, E., Suzuki, H. & Kobayashi, K. Rapid and stable changes in

maturation-related phenotypes of the adult hippocampal neurons by electroconvulsive

treatment. *Mol. Brain* **10**, 8 (2017).

36.   Krishnan, V., Berton, O. & Nestler, E. The use of animal models in psychiatric

research and treatment. *Am. J. Psychiatry* **165**, 1109 (2008).

37.   Golden, S. A., Covington, H. E., Berton, O. & Russo, S. J. A standardized protocol

for repeated social defeat stress in mice. *Nat. Protoc.* **6**, 1183–1191 (2011).

38.   Goto, T. *et al.* Subchronic and mild social defeat stress accelerates food intake

and body weight gain with polydipsia-like features in mice. *Behav. Brain Res.* **270**, 339–348

(2014).

39.   Shoji, H. & Miyakawa, T. Age-related behavioral changes from young to old age

in male mice of a C57BL/6J strain maintained under a genetic stability program.

Neuropsychopharmacol. Rep. **39**, 100–118 (2019).

40.   Shoji, H. & Miyakawa, T. Increased depression-related behavior during the

postpartum period in inbred BALB/c and C57BL/6 strains. *Mol. Brain* **12**, 70 (2019).

41.   Shoji, H. & Miyakawa, T. Differential effects of stress exposure via two types of

restraint apparatuses on behavior and plasma corticosterone level in inbred male

BALB/cAJcl mice. *Neuropsychopharmacol. Rep.* **n/a**,.

42. Nakajima, R. *et al.* Comprehensive behavioral analysis of heterozygous Syngap1

knockout mice. *Neuropsychopharmacol. Rep.* **39**, 223–237 (2019).

43. Takao, K. & Miyakawa, T. Light/dark transition test for mice. *J. Vis. Exp. JoVE* 104

(2006) doi:10.3791/104.

44. Miyakawa, T. *et al.* Conditional calcineurin knockout mice exhibit multiple

abnormal behaviors related to schizophrenia. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* **100**, 8987–

8992 (2003).

45. Hattori, S., Okumura, Y., Takao, K., Yamaguchi, Y. & Miyakawa, T. Open source

code for behavior analysis in rodents. *Neuropsychopharmacol. Rep.* **39**, 67–69 (2019).

Acknowledgements

We thank Giovanni Sala for invaluable comments on statistics. We also thank Tamaki

Murakami, Chikako Ozeki, Wakako Hasegawa, Yumiko Mobayashi, Yoko Kagami, Harumi

Mitsuya, Yoshihiro Takamiya, Satoko Hattori and Miho Tanaka for their technical assistance.

This work was supported by MEXT KAKENHI Grant Number JP16H06462, MEXT Promotion

of Distinctive Joint Research Center Program Grant Number JPMXP0618217663, JSPS

KAKENHI Grant Number JP20H00522, JP18K07378, and JP16H06276 (AdAMS), and AMED

Strategic Research Program for Brain Sciences Grant Number JP18dm0107101.

Author information

Contributions. H.H. and T.M. designed experiments. H.H. wrote the manuscript. K.N., K.K.,

and T.M. helped draft the manuscript. H.H., H.S., H.O., and A.T. performed the behavioral

tests and analyzed the data. K. K. and K. N. contributed to STED microscopy. T.M. supervised

all aspects of the present study. All authors have approved the final manuscript.

Corresponding authors. Correspondence to Tsuyoshi Miyakawa.

Ethics declarations

The authors declare no competing interests.

 Figure legends

 Figure 1. Protein lactylation induced by exogenous lactate in brain cells. (a) Western blot

 images of lactylated lysine (Kla) in mouse tissues/cells (hippocampus (HIP), cerebral cortex

 (CX), and resident macrophages (MP). Entire membrane images are provided in the

 Extended Data Fig. 1. (b) Double immunostaining for Kla and the neuronal marker βIII-

 tubulin in primary cultured cortical neurons (10 days in vitro, DIV). Scale bar: 20 μm. (c, d)

 Kla levels in primary cultured cortical neurons (10 DIV) examined 30 minutes after

 treatment with lactate (25 mM, +) and/or 4-CIN (0.01 mM, +; 1 mM, ++) using

 immunocytochemistry. Arrow in (c) indicates the sampling time point. At least 200 cells

 were examined for each condition. Statistical results are provided in Extended Data Table

 4. (e) Glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP) and Kla double immunostaining at 10 DIV in culture.

 Open arrows indicate GFAP-positive astrocyte-like cells. Solid arrows indicate GFAP-

 negative neuronal cells. Scale bar: 50 μm. (f–h) Mice were intraperitoneally injected with 1

 g/kg lactate or saline, once daily for 21 days. (g) Kla immunostaining images of the

 prefrontal cortices (PFCs) of control and lactate-treated mice. Scale bar: 100 μm. (h) Bar

graph showing Kla immunoreactivity levels of the PFC of control and lactate-treated mice

(P = 0.022, n = 7, 6). (i) Mouse PFC: Double immunostaining images of Kla and the

glutamatergic neuron marker Camk2a (upper left panel), the GABAergic neuron marker

GAD67 (upper right panel), the astrocyte marker S100b (lower left panel), and the microglial

marker CD68 (lower right panel). Scale bar: 25 μm.

Figure 2. Neuronal excitation stimulates protein lactylation in neurons. (a–c) Primary

cultured cortical neurons (10 DIV) were treated with potassium chloride (KCl), with or

without sodium oxamate (OX). Arrows indicate sampling time points (a). Cultured neurons

were treated with KCl (100 mM) and lactate concentrations were measured in the culture

supernatant (upper panel, b) and cell lysate (lower panel, b). *P < 0.05, one-way analysis of

variance (ANOVA) followed by post-hoc pairwise comparisons. N = 5 for each condition.

Statistical results are provided in the Extended Data Table 5. (c) Results of Kla

immunostaining analysis of cultured neurons expressing βIII-tubulin treated with KCl [10

mM (+) or 100 mM (++)] and OX [20 mM (+)] (c) At least 300 cells were examined for each

condition. **P < 0.01; ##P < 0.01 compared to the KCl/OX condition; one-way ANOVA

followed by post-hoc pairwise comparisons (Extended Data Table 6). (d, e) Brain lactate

levels in mice treated with electroconvulsive stimulation (ECS) (N = 8 mice for each

condition). ##P < 0.01 compared to control; one-way ANOVA followed by post-hoc pairwise

comparisons (Extended Data Table 7). (f–h) Kla in the mouse brain treated with ECS. Adult

mice were treated with ECS 30 minutes after treatment with OX, α-cyano-4-

hydroxycinnamate (4-CIN), or saline. Brain sampling was performed 1 hour after ECS

treatment (arrow, f). Immunostaining images of Kla in the prefrontal cortex (PFC). Scale bar:

100 μm (g). Graph showing Kla immunoreactivity in the PFCs of the mice (h). #P < 0.05

compared to ECS-/OX-/4-CIN-, $P < 0.05 compared to ECS+/OX-/4-CIN-; one-way ANOVA

followed by post-hoc pairwise comparisons. N = 6–7 mice for each condition (Extended Data

Table 8). (i) Kla and c-Fos double immunostaining images of the mouse PFC at 1 hour after

an ECS. Open and solid arrowheads indicate cells with low and high levels of Kla + c-Fos,

respectively. Scale bar: 50 μm. (j) Scatterplot showing a correlation between Kla and c-Fos

immunoreactivity in individual cells in the PFC (represented as Z-score transformed values).

Data from 543 cells from 15 mice in four different conditions (Extended Data Fig. 4) are

integrated in the graph.

Figure 3. Social stress induces protein lactylation in the brain. (a–c) Mice were exposed to

repeated social defeat stress, with or without sodium oxamate injections and then analyzed

by a series of behavioral tests (a). Arrow in (a) indicates the sampling time point. FS: Porsolt

forced swim test; LD: light-dark transition test; OF: open field test; OX: sodium oxamate; SA:

social avoidance test; SDS: social defeat stress; SP: sucrose preference test; TS: tail

suspension test. (b) Social avoidance test. (c) Brain lactate levels in the three groups of mice.

N = 10–14 mice for each condition. Statistical results are provided in the Extended Data

Table 9 and 10, respectively. (d) Correlation matrix showing correlation coefficients

between behavioral measures and brain lactate levels in control and socially defeated mice.

(e, f) Brain sampling for immunohistochemical analysis was performed using another set of

mice exposed to SDS with or without OX injection. (e) HC: home cage locomotor activity

monitoring test. (f) Immunostaining images of Kla and bar graph showing Kla

immunoreactivity in the prefrontal cortex (PFC). Scale bar: 100 μm. **P < 0.01, one-way

analysis of variance followed by post-hoc pairwise comparisons; N = 6 mice for each

condition (Extended Data Table 11). (g) Immunostaining images of c-Fos in the PFC. (h) Bar

graphs showing c-Fos-positive cells in the PFC (Extended Data Table 12). Mice in the home

cage group were sampled immediately after being removed from the home cage. Mice in

the OF group were sampled after a 2-hour exposure to the open field. (i–k) Scatterplots

showing correlations between Kla immunoreactivity and c-Fos expression in the PFC and (i)

the social interaction ratio in the social avoidance test (j), and the distance traveled in the

dark compartment in the light/dark transition test, in mice from the OF group. N = 6 for

each condition.

Figure 4. Histone H1 lactylation in the brain is increased by social stress. (a) Double

immunostaining of Kla and histone H1 in the mouse PFC. Arrows indicate Kla-negative and

histone H1-positive Hoechst-stained cells, and arrowheads indicate Kla-negative and

histone H1-negative Hoechst-stained cells. Scale bar: 50 μm. (b) Venn diagram showing the

overlap between Kla-positive and histone H1-positive cells in the mouse PFC. (c) Super-

resolution images of Kla and histone H1 in the nuclei of neurons of socially defeated mice

recorded with STED microscopy. Arrowheads indicate Kla- and histone H1-double–positive

structures. Scale bars: 5 μm (upper panels), 1 μm (lower panels). (d) Bar graphs show the

percentage of Kla and histone H1 merged area in the nucleus. N = 18 cells from 3 mice for

each condition. *P = 0.012, linear regression analysis.

Figure 1

     Figure 2

797   Figure 3

798
799

800   Figure 4

802