A prefrontal cortex-lateral hypothalamus circuit controls stress-driven food intake

L.F. Supiot[1], A.A.C. Benschop[1], A.S.J. Nicolson[1], R. Haak[1], I.G. Wolterink-Donselaar[1], M.C.M.

Luijendijk[1], R.A.H Adan[1], R.B. Poorthuis[1*], F.J. Meye[1*]

1. Department of Translational Neuroscience, Brain Center, UMC Utrecht, Utrecht University,

The Netherlands.

*Equal contribution / corresponding author

Abstract

Stress can drive excessive intake of palatable high-caloric food. The medial prefrontal cortex

(mPFC) is implicated in this, but through unknown downstream circuits and mechanisms. Here

we show, in mice, that the projection from the mPFC to the lateral hypothalamus (LHA) is a

critical substrate for stress-driven fat intake. We show that optogenetic stimulation of the

mPFC-LHA increases fat intake under naïve conditions. Using *in vivo* electrophysiology and

ensemble tagging, we demonstrate that the mPFC-LHA network acutely responds to social

stress. Combining patch clamp and optogenetics, we show that after social stress plasticity

occurs specifically at mPFC synapses onto LHA glutamatergic (but not GABAergic) neurons. Such

stress primes the efficacy with which optogenetic stimulation of mPFC-LHA pathways drives fat

intake, while chemogenetic inhibition of this network specifically blocks stress-driven increased

fat intake. Our findings identify the mPFC as a top-down regulator of distinct LHA feeding

networks, necessary for stress-eating behavior.

Introduction

Stressful experiences drive excessive intake of rewarding foods rich in fat and/or sugar[1–3]. In vulnerable individuals, stress contributes to the development of obesity, or to the recurrent binge eating in Bulimia Nervosa (BN) and Binge Eating Disorder (BED)[4,5]. The prefrontal cortex (PFC), a stress-sensitive region important in decision making and strategy selection[6,7], is likely implicated in stress-driven food intake. In obese individuals and patients with BED/BN the PFC is hyperresponsive to food cues[8,9], and rodent studies have also demonstrated that stimulation of subsets of medial (m)PFC neurons can cause voracious food intake[3,10,11]. Despite its links to regulating eating behavior, it remains unknown whether the mPFC also transforms stressful experiences into excessive intake of palatable food, and if so through which network adaptations.

A likely downstream target of the mPFC is the lateral hypothalamic area (LHA). mPFC glutamatergic pyramidal neurons send direct projections to the LHA[12]. The LHA itself has a prominent role in food intake[13–16], and we recently showed that the LHA interacts with the midbrain to drive stress-driven food intake[3]. Notably however, the LHA is highly heterogeneous in (functional) neuronal subtypes[3,14,15,17,18]. In particular, glutamatergic LHA neurons (LHA_{VGLUT2} cells) are commonly linked to curtailing food intake[15,17], whereas GABAergic LHA neurons (LHA_{VGAT} cells) typically promote food intake[15,17,19]. It is unclear which of these distinct LHA subtypes are innervated by mPFC, and how mPFC control, potentially over distinct LHA cell types, orchestrates (stress-driven) feeding responses.

We hypothesized that stress would alter mPFC control over LHA networks, to causally drive excessive palatable food intake. Here we show, in mice, that optogenetic stimulation of the mPFC-LHA pathway is capable of driving specific intake of fat over chow. We use *in vivo* electrophysiology to demonstrate that mPFC cells projecting to the LHA are directly sensitive to social stress. Combining patch clamp, optogenetics and ensemble tagging, we show that mPFC cells synapse onto multiple LHA cellular subtypes, but that particularly the mPFC projections to LHA glutamatergic cells are directly engaged during acute stress (when the drive for food intake

is temporarily reduced). On the contrary, in the aftermath of stress, when the drive for food

intake is increased (hyperphagia), a predominant weakening of mPFC glutamatergic synapses

onto these LHA glutamate cells is observed. Using *in vivo* optogenetics and chemogenetics we

show that these stress-driven circuit modifications prime the efficacy with which the mPFC-LHA

network can drive fat intake, and we show that mPFC-LHA network activity after stress is

indispensable for stress-eating responses. Overall we identify the mPFC as a direct regulator of

LHA feeding networks, with a critical role in stress-driven food intake.

Results

mPFC-LHA stimulation, in a frequency-dependent manner, increases palatable food intake

We first assessed whether the mPFC-LHA pathway is actually capable of driving intake of

palatable food, as thus far this had not been reported. Instead, prior studies evaluating the

mPFC-LHA pathway showed that high frequency optogenetic stimulation (100Hz bursts) does

not affect regular food intake[20], while continuous chemogenetic stimulation (or 20Hz

optogenetic stimulation) decreases chow intake[21]. Notably, neural circuits of mPFC and LHA are

individually known to have frequency-dependent functions[19,22]. For instance, optogenetic

stimulation of LHA_{VGAT} neuronal subtypes efficiently drives food intake at specifically 5Hz, more

so than at lower or higher frequencies[19]. Therefore, we first tested whether low frequency

stimulation of the mPFC-LHA pathway is capable of increasing palatable food intake. We

stereotactically injected C57B6 mice in the mPFC with an AAV to express the optogenetic

construct CoChR (rAAV5-Syn-CoChR-GFP) or YFP control vector (rAAV5-Syn-eYFP), and targeted

optic fibers to the LHA to optogenetically stimulate the mPFC-LHA pathway (Fig 1A-B; Suppl Fig.

1A). After recovery, mice were placed in a 2-choice food-context containing regular chow and

fat as a palatable food source. Baseline food intake was established over 3 consecutive days,

followed by a session during which the mPFC-LHA pathway was stimulated at a specific

frequency (Fig. 1C). We observed that during sessions of 5Hz stimulation, but not of 1 or 10Hz,

there was an overall increase of fat intake (Fig. 1D). This intake was specific to fat, as it did not

occur for chow (Suppl Fig. 1B).

We then used video-based analysis to examine the feeding behavior within mPFC-LHA

stimulation blocks (ON), contrasting them with behavior during alternating non-stimulated

blocks (OFF). We observed that with 5Hz stimulation mice spent more time in specifically the fat

zone (Suppl. Fig. 1C). Furthermore, we observed that the effect of pathway stimulation on fat

consumption was differed over the course of the task. Interactions with fat normally waned

over the hour (Fig. 1E). Whereas 5Hz stimulation of the pathway did not affect fat intake at the

start when the drive for fat was still high, it instead drove continued fat consumption later on

when such interactions waned in control groups or in 1Hz stimulation conditions (Fig. 1E).

Consequently, 5Hz stimulation resulted in overall more feeding bouts for fat, but not chow (Fig.

1F; Suppl. Fig. 1D). These effects on food intake did not stem from effects of pathway

stimulation on general locomotor activity (which increased linearly in a different pattern from

the effect on food intake; Suppl. Fig. 1E), nor did they stem from any direct alterations of

emotional valence states, as assessed with a real-time place preference/avoidance assay (Suppl.

Fig. 1F). Overall these data indicate that the mPFC-LHA pathway is able, in the lower frequency

domain, to drive the continued intake of palatable fat.

mPFC cells projecting to LHA directly modulate their firing in response to an acute social

stressor that causes hypophagia.

Stressful experiences can have strong bidirectional effects on food intake[23]. Immediately during

a stress experience (i.e. acute stress) a transient reduction occurs in food intake (i.e.

hypophagia). Instead, in the hours to weeks after the stress, excessive food intake can occur (i.e.

hyperphagia)[3,24], ultimately causing weight gain[24]. We reasoned that if the mPFC-LHA network

would be involved in stress-driven effects on food intake, that it should be able to detect

stressful information. To test this hypothesis, we used a social stress experience, where a mouse

is temporarily exposed to the aggression and proximity of a dominant conspecific. This

naturalistic stress experience is capable of inducing separable states of hypo- and hyperphagia.

We and others have previously shown that hours to days after the social stress, increased intake

of fat occurs (hyperphagia)[3,24]. Conversely, we confirmed that immediately after such a social

stress episode (i.e. the first hour after it ends), there is a suppressed intake of palatable fat (i.e.

hypophagia; Suppl. Fig. 2A-B).

We assessed whether social stress would immediately engage the mPFC-LHA pathway. To this

end we performed *in vivo* electrophysiological recordings from mPFC cells projecting to the LHA.

We injected, in C57B6 mice, a canine adeno virus in the LHA to retrogradely deliver cre (Cav2-

Cre) to the mPFC, and an AAV in the mPFC to cre-dependently drive an opsin (AAV-DIO-

hChR2(H134R)-mCherry). We then chronically implanted electrodes together with an optic fiber

(i.e. an optrode) in the mPFC of these mice (Fig. 2A-B). This allowed for optogenetic-assisted

identification (i.e. opto-tagging) of mPFC cells that projected to the LHA (Fig. 2C; Suppl. Fig. 2C-

D). We then exposed these mice to the sensory proximity of a CD1 mouse and the actual fight

experience with such an aggressor, while performing single cell recordings from opto-tagged

mPFC-LHA cells (Fig. 2D). We analysed firing rates of opto-tagged neurons before, during and

after the period in which fighting took place. Divergent responses were observed in mPFC

neurons projecting to LHA during stress, with approximately half of the cells decreasing their

firing rates during fight periods, whereas others instead increased their firing rates (Fig. 2E-F).

These effects were not solely linked to the physical altercation, as they outlasted the fighting

period (Fig. 2E; Suppl. Fig. 2E). In further support of this, we also evaluated the responses of

these same neurons when the CD1 mouse arrived in the cage, while still behind a semi-

permeable barrier (i.e. sensory stress). We observed similar response types, where in particular

the neurons that increased their firing during physical exposure, were also recruited during such

sensory stress (Suppl. Fig. 2F-I). Overall, these data suggest the existence of different

populations of mPFC-LHA neurons, with certain mPFC-LHA neurons acutely decreasing their

activity, and others directly increasing it upon social stress exposure. These findings confirm the

hypothesis that mPFC cells that project to LHA are directly able to detect a social stressor with

both short-term hypophagic and longer-term hyperphagic properties.

mPFC connects to multiple LHA neuronal populations, but during an acute social stress causing hypophagia stress-activated mPFC neurons preferentially target LHA glutamatergic subsets.

Our findings demonstrate that the mPFC neurons projecting to the LHA are capable of altering food intake, and are acutely reactive during stress. However, it is unclear which LHA neuronal subtypes are innervated by the mPFC. The LHA contains both glutamatergic populations, expressing the vesicular glutamate transporter 2 (LHA_{VGLUT2}) and GABAergic populations, identified by expression of the vesicular GABA transporter (LHA_{VGAT}). Recent transcriptomic evidence suggests that essentially all LHA neurons can be ascribed to one of these major classes, with further key subpopulations occurring within them[15,18]. For instance, evidence suggests that orexin (LHA_{OREX}) and melanin-concentrating hormone (LHA_{MCH}) releasing neurons represent subsets of LHA glutamatergic neurons[18]. We reasoned that, despite further heterogeneity within LHA_{VGLUT2}, LHA_{VGAT}, LHA_{MCH} and LHA_{OREX} neuronal sets[15,18], these four populations offer a starting point to understand mPFC functional innervation patterns of the LHA.

To map mPFC connectivity to these four LHA subpopulations we performed an optogenetic-assisted synaptic connectivity study[25,26]. We targeted the mPFC with the opsin CoChR (AAV5-Syn-CoChR-GFP) and fluorescently labeled LHA_{VGLUT2}, LHA_{VGAT}, LHA_{MCH} or LHA_{OREX} populations with viral and transgenic strategies. For LHA_{VGLUT2} and LHA_{VGAT}, populations we used well-established transgenic mice VGLUT2-Cre or VGAT-Cre mice, respectively (Fig. 3A-B). We injected these mice in the LHA with an AAV to cre-dependently express a red fluorophore (rAAV-EF1a-DIO-mCherry) to label either LHA_{VGLUT2} or LHA_{VGAT} neurons, respectively (Fig. 3A-B). Instead to target LHA_{OREX} or LHA_{MCH} neurons we injected C57B6 mice with an AAV to drive expression of a red fluorophore under the control of short promotors for either MCH (AAV-MCHpr-Gq-mCherry) or orexin (AAV-hORXpr-dTomato)[27] (Fig. 3A-B). We established the specificity of this approach using post-hoc labeling of biocytin-filled patched cells expressing either the fluorophore under control of the orexin or the MCH promotor (Suppl. Fig. 3A-C). We also established that the LHA_{VGLUT2} cells that we on average targeted were distinct from the LHA_{OREX} and LHA_{MCH} cells, as

those peptidergic subpopulations of glutamatergic neurons differed strongly in somatic cell size

from typical LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ neurons (Suppl. Fig. 3D). We then performed *ex vivo* patch clamp

recordings to assess the occurrence of mPFC synaptic inputs onto these LHA subpopulations.

We observed high degrees (≥80%) of connectivity between mPFC cells and all four LHA

populations (Fig. 3C). We then repeated these experiments in the presence of a

pharmacological cocktail of tetrodotoxin (TTX) and 4-aminopyridine (4-AP) in the external

medium[25,28] and confirmed that the high extent of connectivity of mPFC inputs with all LHA

subtypes was due to direct monosynaptic connections (Fig. 3D). We then further characterized

the properties of LHA cells with confirmed mPFC synaptic inputs. First, we established that the

different LHA neuronal populations could be driven to fire action potentials in response to mPFC

stimulation (Suppl. Fig. 3E). Then, we determined the specific excitability profiles of these mPFC-

innervated LHA cell types. Notably, LHA$_{VGAT}$ neurons were more excitable than the other

populations, particularly at relatively lower current inputs (Suppl. Fig. 3F-J). Together these data

indicate that there is a strong monosynaptic projection from the mPFC cells to all four LHA

subpopulations, and that of all these mPFC-innervated LHA targets, the LHA$_{VGAT}$ cells present the

highest excitability with low stimulation.

These data show that mPFC cells can innervate multiple LHA subtypes. During acute stress,

when there is a hypophagic response (Suppl. Fig. 2A-B), we showed that some mPFC neurons

projecting to LHA show increased firing during this period (Fig. 2E-F). Therefore, we asked

whether particular branches of the mPFC-LHA multiform network would be preferentially

engaged during such a hypophagic state. These could be, for instance, LHA neurons with general

roles in curtailing food intake, like LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ neurons[15,17]. To address this we expressed an

optogenetic construct in those mPFC cells that were reactive during the acute social stress (as

opposed to all mPFC neurons). To that end we used TRAP2 (Targeted Recombination in Active

Populations) transgenic mice, in which the immediate early gene c-Fos can drive Cre-ERT2

expression, which can then be conditionally transported from the cytosol to the nucleus in a

manner dependent on 4-OH tamoxifen[29]. We previously showed that this strategy can be

leveraged to capture social stress-reactive neuronal ensembles[30]. We crossed these TRAP2

transgenic mice with either VGAT-Cre or Vglut2-Cre mice and used the resultant offspring. We

first injected an AAV driving cre-dependent CoChr in the mPFC and exposed the mice to two

acute stress episodes, where each episode was paired with a 4-OH tamoxifen injection. Weeks

later we also injected AAVs in the LHA to fluorescently label specific subpopulations such as

LHA_{VGLUT2}, LHA_{VGAT}, LHA_{OREX} and LHA_{MCH} cells as before (Fig. 3A-B, E). Importantly, while both

TRAP2 transgenic mice, and VGAT-Cre / VGLUT2-Cre transgenic mice, rely on conditional

expression via the same Cre-LoxP system, the viral injection scheme in this case avoided

interference between this. First, we avoided mPFC CoChR expression in a manner not linked to

the TRAPing of an ensemble in the VGLUT2-Cre mice, on the basis of mPFC neurons expressing

VGLUT1 rather than VGLUT2[21,31] (Suppl. Fig. 3K). We also avoided that there would be Cre-

dependent fluorophore recombination in the LHA driven by the TRAP system rather than on the

basis of LHA cell type identity, by performing the LHA viral injection several weeks after the

4OH-tamoxifen dependent TRAPing event in the mPFC had taken place (Fig. 3E), whereas the

time window in which 4OHT allows Cre to travel to the nucleus for recombination is only a

matter of hours[29,30]. Finally, we also took along a control ensemble of exposure to a novel

mouse rather than stressful altercations (Fig. 3E). In both the social stress TRAP experiment and

the novel mouse TRAP experiment we observed expression of CoChR in mPFC ensembles (Fig.

3F; Suppl. Fig. 3L). We then performed patch-clamp recordings in the LHA, and assessed

whether optogenetic stimulation of $mPFC_{NOVEL\ MOUSE}$ or $mPFC_{SOCIAL\ STRESS}$ ensembles resulted in

synaptic contacts with specific LHA cell types. Stimulating the $mPFC_{NOVEL\ MOUSE}$ ensemble caused

little to no synaptic connectivity with any of the LHA cell types (Fig. 3G). In contrast,

optogenetically stimulating the $mPFC_{SOCIAL\ STRESS}$ ensemble resulted in synaptic responses in

LHA_{VGLUT2}, LHA_{MCH}, and LHA_{OREX} neuronal subsets (Fig. 3G). Instead, LHA_{VGAT} neurons received

almost no input (Fig. 3G).

Overall, our data suggest that the mPFC forms a functional network with four distinct LHA

subpopulations, but that during acute social stress (coinciding with hypophagic states), an mPFC

ensemble of neurons is engaged that selectively targets LHA glutamatergic subtypes, of which

LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ cells are commonly linked to curtailing food intake[15,17], over LHA$_{VGAT}$ cells whose

activity typically promotes food intake[15,17,19].

Under subsequent stress-driven hyperphagic conditions, there is reduced mPFC synaptic

strength specifically onto LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ neurons via presynaptic processes.

After the acute hypophagic effects of social stress (Suppl Fig. 2A-B), there is an opposite and

more durable hyperphagic intake of palatable food sources rich in sugar and fat[3,24], which

ultimately results in excess body weight if maintained over weeks[24]. We next asked if, at the

time of stress-driven hyperphagia, mPFC synaptic strength onto distinct LHA neuronal

populations would be altered. Such protracted plasticity effects could occur in specifically the

mPFC$_{ACUTE\ STRESS}$ ensemble, but could also occur in other mPFC cells. Therefore, we again

evaluated (all) mPFC synaptic contacts onto the four distinct LHA populations (LHA$_{VGLUT2}$,

LHA$_{VGAT}$, LHA$_{MCH}$, LHA$_{OREX}$). We expressed an opsin in the mPFC (AAV-CoChR-GFP) and tagged

distinct LHA populations as before (Fig. 3A-B; Fig. 4A-B). We exposed mice to two days of

control experience or social stress, and then the next day, when mice normally engage in higher

intake of palatable food[3], we made brain slices and assessed synaptic properties at mPFC

synapses onto the four broad classes of LHA neuronal populations (Fig. 4A-B).

Interestingly, we observed that specifically at the mPFC synapses onto LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ neuronsthere

was a stress-induced decrease in maximally optogenetically-evoked EPSC magnitudes (Fig 4C-E;

Suppl. Fig 4A). This suggests a weakening of mPFC$_{GLU}$ synapses onto LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ neurons. To

further address the underlying mechanisms for this we assessed the paired pulse ratio (PPR), a

measure inversely related to presynaptic release probability[25]. We observed that specifically at

mPFC- LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ synapses there was an increased PPR, in accordance with a scenario of lower

release probability at these synapses due to prior social stress (Fig. 4F-H; Suppl. Fig. 4B). The

effect of stress was specific to the presynaptic compartment, as we did not observe a difference

in postsynaptic glutamatergic receptor distributions at these synapses (Suppl. Fig. 4C-F). Nor did

we observe changes due to stress in terms of the excitability of the LHA cells or in basic

membrane properties (Suppl. Fig. 4G-N). Overall, these data suggest that a day after a social

stress experience, at a moment where animals are inclined to binge on fat[3], there is a

weakening of mPFC glutamatergic synapses onto LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ neurons, which upon activation

would typically reduce food intake[15,17].

Social stress has divergent effects on distinct populations of mPFC-innervated LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ cells

LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ neurons still represent a very heterogeneous population[18] and in part this

heterogeneity is reflected by their distinct projection targets[32]. For instance, stimulating

LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ projections to the lateral habenula (LHb) suppresses food intake[33]. Similarly

stimulating LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ neuronal projections to midline hypothalamic regions around the third

ventricle (i.e. peri-paraventricular nucleus, or peri-PVN region[34]) is linked to aversive processes[35]

and reduced food intake[36]. Instead LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ projections to the ventral tegmental area (VTA) do

not alter food intake under naïve conditions[3,37,38], but the potentiation of their synapses onto

dopamine neurons causally contributes to the enhanced fat intake occurring after social stress[3].

Given this LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ anatomical but also functional divergence, we therefore asked how social

stress would affect mPFC synapses onto such distinct LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ populations. We first confirmed

that the LHb, VTA and (peri)-PVN were likely downstream targets of mPFC-innervated LHA

neurons. For this we used a transsynaptic tracing strategy (Suppl. Fig. 5A) in which we injected

AAV1-Cre in the mPFC, to cause a transsynaptic jump to downstream neurons[39]. We then

injected an AAV-DIO-GFP in the LHA to perform anterograde tracing of the nerve terminals

belonging to LHA neurons with mPFC-innervation (Suppl. Fig. 5A-C). We indeed observed

anterograde terminals in the aforementioned regions of interest like the VTA, the LHb and the

peri-PVN (Suppl. Fig. 5D-F).

We then investigated if and what type of stress-driven synaptic changes occurred at mPFC

synapses onto LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ neurons projecting to LHb, VTA and peri-PVN. To label LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ cell

types based on their projection output, we injected a Cre-dependent retrograde tracer

(retroAAV-DIO-mCherry) in Vglut2-cre mice in these three different areas (Fig. 4I). We then

again exposed mice to either two days of control or social stress conditions and we prepared

brain slices the day after (Fig. 4I). We observed that mPFC synapses onto LHA$_{VGLUT2}$-Peri-PVN

neurons exhibited higher PPR upon stress (Fig. 4J), in accordance with the general effect of

stress on the LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ neurons (Fig. 4F). Interestingly, mPFC synapses onto LHA$_{VGLUT2}$-VTA

neurons presented a lower PPR after stress, suggesting enhanced release probability of mPFC

synapses onto those specific LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ neurons (Supp. Fig. 5G), while we did not observe PPR

changes at mPFC synapses onto LHA$_{VGLUT2}$-LHb neurons after stress (Supp. Fig. 5H).

Overall, these data suggest that social stress has divergent effects on the strength of mPFC

synapses onto distinct LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ populations. At a time point where stress drives

overconsumption of fat, there is strengthening of the excitatory mPFC synapses onto LHA$_{VGLUT2}$

projections to the VTA in the midbrain: a downstream circuit for which we previously showed

that also strengthening of LHA glutamatergic synapses onto VTA dopamine neurons is linked to

stress-driven fat intake[3]. However, it is likely that these LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ projections to the VTA are a

relative minority amidst other LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ neurons, as the effect of stress on mPFC synapses onto

the general population of LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ neurons was a reduction in synaptic strength. We show that

amongst the LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ populations for which this is the case, are those that project to the peri-

PVN, a region for which the activity is indeed linked to suppressing food intake and promoting

defensive responses[35,36].

After social stress *in vivo* mPFC-LHA stimulation drives fat intake to an even greater extent, by

preventing a decline of interest in fat.

We thus far showed that the mPFC-LHA pathway comprises multiple branches and that social

stress drives divergent synaptic adaptations in some of these, consistent with weakened brakes,

and potentially also strengthened drives, towards palatable food intake. We reasoned that the

consequences of such stress-driven network modifications could prime the mPFC-LHA pathway

to become even more capable of driving palatable food intake when stimulated. We therefore

predicted that 5Hz stimulation of the mPFC-LHA circuit (e.g. as in Fig. 1D-F), after social stress-

driven plasticity in this network had taken place, would result in even further intake of palatable
food.

To test this, we again optogenetically probed the entire mPFC-LHA pathway, by stereotactically
injecting C57B6 mice with an optogenetic construct (rAAV5-Syn-CoChR-GFP) and implanting
optic fibers bilaterally above the LHA (Fig. 5A-B). After recovery we either exposed the mice to
two days of social stress or housed them with a novel cage mate. Subsequently we placed the
animals in a limited access food choice setting, where they could consume fat or chow for 2
hours. Mice were again exposed to recurring blocks of optogenetic stimulation of 5 Hz, or
instead to mock stimulation (Fig. 5A). We observed that even though mice that had previously
experienced stress already consumed more fat than control mice, 5Hz stimulation could drive
their intake of palatable food even further, making these mice the largest consumers of fat (Fig.
5C), in the absence of effects on chow (Suppl. Fig. 6A).

The overall fat intake reflected the outcome at the end of the two hour binge period. We next
addressed, with more fine-grained temporal resolution, whether 5 Hz stimulation was more
efficient in driving fat intake in stressed mice as compared to control mice. We first aimed to
better understand the development of fat intake under stress (without pathway stimulation).
We observed that regular (not stimulated) stressed animals performed over 75% of their fat
feeding bouts in the first 20 minutes of a session, and then strongly diminished interaction with
the fat from thereon (Fig. 5D-E). This binge-like feeding pattern of fat for stressed mice was
different from control mice, which had fewer immediate feeding bouts, but continued having
feeding bouts for a longer period (Fig. 5D-E). We then analyzed how in these two distinct phases
that we refer to as "Binge Phase" (i.e. 0-20 min) and "Post-Binge phase" (20-120 min), mPFC-
LHA pathway stimulation affected fat interaction. Reminiscent of our previous finding of
pathway stimulation early in the two choice session in naïve mice (Fig. 1E), we found that 5 Hz
mPFC-LHA stimulation was not effective in the early "Binge Phase" of the session (Fig. 5F).
Instead in the subsequent "Post Binge" phase 5Hz stimulation particularly drove stressed mice
more potently towards the fat, when they normally would likely be in more sated conditions
(Fig. 5G).

To investigate whether indeed the 5Hz stimulation could prevent a decline of interest for the fat, we plotted the relative drive for fat eating over the course of the task by comparing the relative amount of feeding bouts taking place during the binge and post-binge period. Indeed, particularly in stressed mice, 5Hz stimulation did not affect the binge intake, but it did counteract the normally occurring decline of interest in the fat later on (Fig. 5H; Suppl. Fig. 6B). Overall, these data suggest that in stressed conditions, when specific adaptations occur within the multi-branched mPFC-LHA network, stimulation of this network does not perturb early binge intake, and causes continued fat intake afterwards, contributing to the overall larger fat intake (Fig. 5C).

In vivo mPFC-LHA chemogenetic inhibition specifically reduces excess fat intake after stress.

We showed that mPFC-LHA pathway stimulation leads to an increased drive for palatable food intake and that stress primes the pathway to enhance food intake even further. Next, we addressed whether the mPFC-LHA pathway is necessary for stress-driven food intake and/or for other types of food intake. For that we performed chemogenetic inhibition experiments when mice were either consuming fat under regular conditions (no stress), or under hypophagic conditions (during acute stress) or under hyperphagic conditions (in the aftermath of social stress). For this we bilaterally expressed an inhibitory chemogenetic receptor in the mPFC-LHA pathway in C57B6 mice. Specifically, we stereotactically injected Cav2-Cre retrograde virus in the LHA, and an AAV to Cre-dependently drive hM4Di in the mPFC (Fig. 6A-B; Suppl. Fig. 7A). Interestingly, while inhibiting the pathway had no effect on food intake for non-stressed mice, it could completely counteract overconsumption of palatable food intake in stressed mice (Fig. 6C, Suppl. Fig. 7B). No differences were observed for chow intake (Fig. 6C). These data suggest that within the mPFC-LHA pathway there are at least certain (sub)branches for which the ongoing activity is critical to drive overconsumption of fat after a stressful experience. mPFC-LHA pathway inhibition did not affect locomotor behavior in the 2-choice food paradigm (Suppl. Fig. 7C), nor did it affect measures for locomotor activity or for anxiety in the open field test (Suppl. Fig. 7D-E). To investigate whether the involvement of the mPFC-LHA pathway extends to acute stress, where stress leads to hypophagic responses (Suppl. Fig. 2A-B), we exposed the mice to

acute social stress and put them in the food context immediately 15 min later. Prior mPFC-LHA

pathway inhibition did however not prevent hypophagic responses after acute stress (Fig. 6D;

Suppl. Fig. 7F).

Together these data reveal that mPFC-LHA pathway is necessary to drive hyperphagic responses

after repeated social stress, but is not necessary to drive acute temporary hypophagia during

the social stress experience.

Discussion

The neurobiological underpinnings of stress-driven overconsumption of palatable foods are an important topic, also in view of the contributions of such behavior to disorders like Binge Eating Disorder and Bulimia Nervosa, and to obesity[2,40]. The prefrontal cortex is implicated in binge eating disorders[9], but it has been unclear through which network adaptations it could orchestrate stress-driven food intake. Here we show that there is direct mPFC control over distinct LHA circuits, and that the mPFC-LHA connections specifically contribute to stress-driven overconsumption of fat, but not to regular fat intake under non-stressed conditions.

<u>The mPFC-LHA pathway has a conditional role in regulating food intake</u>

We propose that the connections between the mPFC and LHA do not encode a singular function with regards to food intake, but are rather able to either increase or decrease it, depending on the context. Prior studies showed that chemogenetic or high frequency optogenetic stimulation of the $mPFC_{VGLUT1}$-LHA pathway reduced intake of chow in mice[21]. Here we show that mPFC-LHA pathway activity in relation to food intake depends on the frequency used, with 5Hz stimulation driving increased intake of specifically palatable food. Our study also reveals a food type dependency for the role of mPFC-LHA in feeding. Our feeding assay was a 2-choice paradigm where the ad libitum fed mice could either choose between familiar palatable fat or chow. Notably, 5Hz stimulation of the pathway only altered fat intake but not chow intake. This suggests that the circuit manipulations caused a directed increased drive towards palatable foods, rather than an indiscriminate urge to chew. Finally, our data suggest that internal (satiety) states may contribute to the role of mPFC-LHA pathway in food intake. We observed that the 5Hz manipulations did not cause altered food intake during the early stimulation blocks, when the drive for food intake was relatively high. Instead, it was only in later phases that pathway stimulation resulted in increased time spent eating. A possible interpretation is that mPFC-LHA pathway activity can contribute to continued feeding engagement and/or that it counteracts the experience of satiety. With regards to engagement, recent evidence suggests that cortical inputs to the hypothalamus encode behavioral transitions[41]. With regards to satiety, our experiments were notably all performed in ad libitum-fed animals such that satiety

states may have occurred more readily. Interestingly, also in stressed mice, which in normal

circumstances exhibited an immediate binge-like profile, optogenetic stimulation of the mPFC-

LHA pathway left this extent of bingeing intact (and did not exacerbate it), but strikingly then

such stimulation maintained recurrent intake later on, when the drive towards food for

unstimulated stressed mice had already abated.

The chemogenetic data regarding experiments performing mPFC-LHA inhibition are also in

accordance with such a conditional role of this pathway in food intake. Inhibition of the

pathway under normal conditions did not alter food intake, of neither chow nor fat, in

accordance with an earlier study[21]. Instead, we show that after a social stress experience that

drives excess intake of specifically palatable food (hyperphagia)[3], inhibition of the pathway

abolishes only the amount of excess fat intake due to stress. Aside from the hyperphagic effects

occurring hours-days after social stress days[24], there are also short-lived hypophagic effects

immediately during the stress (i.e. reduced feeding). Chemogenetic inhibition of the mPFC-LHA

pathway did not modulate such acute social stress-driven hypophagia. Notably, a previous study

reported that under different mild anxiogenic conditions (e.g. novel foods, or novel feeding

environments) mPFC-LHA inhibition could prevent reductions in food intake[21]. This apparent

discrepancy on the role of mPFC-LHA in stress-driven hypophagic responses may be due to

either the type of stressor (i.e. novelty versus social stress) or due to the intensity of the stress

(i.e. mild anxiety from novelty, or stronger fight-or-flight like responses). Overall, we propose

that mPFC-LHA activity is not indispensable for regular (palatable) food intake, but is important

for heightened palatable food intake upon stress.

<u>The mPFC-LHA is not a singular pathway: circuit framework for heterogeneous function</u>

If mPFC-LHA pathway activity does not have a uniform relation to food intake, then what are the

underlying biological underpinnings of this? We propose that the large functional anatomical

heterogeneity of mPFC-LHA circuits is at the heart of this. Rather than a singular pathway, we

now show that the mPFC-LHA connection is composed of multiple branches, that can have

diverse functions. Indeed, we observed that mPFC projections innervate multiple LHA

subpopulations based on LHA cell type. We observed strong connectivity with LHA$_{VGAT}$ and
LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ neurons. Furthermore, we observed strong connectivity with functionally distinct LHA
subpopulations such as LHA$_{OREX}$ and LHA$_{MCH}$ neurons. Our findings show that stimulation or
inhibition of mPFC-LHA pathways will affect multiple network branches at the same time. It is
interesting to speculate that distinct frequencies of stimulation of mPFC-LHA pathway may
strike a different balance between engagement of these multiple subbranches. We observed
that food intake was most increased with 5 Hz stimulation of mPFC-LHA pathways. Interestingly,
a previous study reported that 5 Hz optogenetic stimulation of LHA$_{VGAT}$ projections to the VTA
could optimally drive food intake, with neither 2.5 Hz nor 20Hz causing any changes in food
intake[19]. Possibly a 5 Hz mPFC-LHA stimulation proportionally favors engagement of branches,
such as mPFC$_{GLU}$-LHA$_{VGAT}$-VTA to promote food intake, whereas for other stimulation
frequencies a different mixture of branch engagement is reached with no alterations in food
intake or even decreases[21]. In accordance with this idea, we found here that mPFC-innervated
LHA$_{VGAT}$ neurons showed, particularly at relatively lower current input, the highest excitability
out of the major LHA populations we tested.
447
<u>The mPFC-LHA pathway as a (social) stress integrator</u>
Recent studies have shown that the mPFC-LHA pathway is sensitive to social information[20,31,42],
and bulk population-level recordings showed that the pathway exhibits calcium responses to an
air puff[21]. Here we captured single cell dynamics of mPFC cells projecting to the LHA during
social stress experiences with *in vivo* electrophysiology. We observed a heterogeneous response
of these cells. We also leveraged ensemble-tagging technology to show that stress-reactive
mPFC cells directly project to the LHA. We show that the mPFC cells reactive to acute stress (in a
timeframe where hypophagia occurs) project less onto LHA$_{VGAT}$ neurons, which have an
established role in promoting food intake[14,15,17], and more onto LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ neurons and their
subtypes (e.g. LHA$_{OREX}$ and LHA$_{MCH}$). LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ cells, which have a more context-specific role in
food intake, but often suppress it[3,43]. The TRAPed mPFC$_{ACUTE\ STRESS}$-LHA ensemble may not fully
correspond one-to-one with the mPFC-LHA cells that, in the *in vivo* electrophysiology
experiment, exhibited acute activation during the social stress. Nevertheless, these two findings

together suggest that during the hypophagia of an acute social stress, mPFC cells that project to

LHA$_{VGAT}$ cells may exhibit reduced or unchanged activity, whereas mPFC cells that project to

LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ cells (and its subtypes) are acutely recruited. Interestingly, LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ cellular

populations are also those at which we observe social stress-driven synaptic plasticity

afterwards (general weakening), when the stress effects turn into hyperphagic responses. It is

plausible that the initial response to acute stress partakes in the induction mechanism towards

subsequent synaptic plasticity. The involved cascades in this process remain an interesting topic

for further studies.

<u>Stress-driven plasticity within mPFC-LHA circuits</u>

After social stress, at a time point where mice would overeat[3], we observed changes indicative

of reduced release probability selectively at mPFC synapses onto LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ neurons.

Interestingly, many LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ cells are linked to a role in curtailing food intake[15,17].

Consequently, a reduction of the excitatory input on such neurons could be in accordance with

a weakening of a brake on the drive for food intake. A finer grained analysis revealed that the

effect of stress on mPFC synapses onto LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ cells was further dependent on the projection

targets of the hypothalamic cells. We observed evidence for weakened mPFC$_{GLU}$ synapses onto

those LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ cells projecting to a midline hypothalamic region, which indeed upon

stimulation curtails food intake[44]. Oppositely, we found that mPFC$_{GLU}$ synapses onto LHA$_{VGLUT2}$

cells projecting to the VTA exhibit potentiation after stress. This latter finding is in accordance

with our recent report that after social stress LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ projections to VTA dopamine neurons

become potentiated and that this plays a causal role in excess food intake[3]. LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ cells have

several more projection targets than the ones investigated here[45], which may also be changed

by stress. Therefore, the analysis of these specific projections is not meant to be exhaustive, but

it illustrates that mPFC synaptic contacts onto distinct LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ subpopulation are divergently

affected by social stress. It also illustrates that this can occur in a manner where both a

subsystem linked to reducing food intake gets weakened, while a subsystem linked to increasing

stress-driven food intake get strengthened.

Overall, our work identifies the mPFC-LHA pathway as a critical node driving overconsumption

of fat after stress and emphasizes that mPFC interactions with the LHA are multi-form to

provide a flexible system with a conditional, situation-dependent, role in (stress-driven) food

intake.

Material & Methods

Animals

In all experiments naïve adult male mice were used (20-35 g, >6 weeks). C57Bl6J (Jax #664), Vglut2-Cre[46] heterozygous (Jax #28863), VGAT-Cre[46] heterozygous (Jax #016962) and TRAP2 heterozygous[29] (Jax #030323), animals were bred in-house but originated from the Jackson Laboratory. Swiss-CD1 mice (35-45 g, >12 weeks), were purchased from Janvier (France). All mice (except Swiss-CD1 mice) were group-housed (2-5 per cage) unless otherwise specified. Mice were housed in a 12:12 light/dark cycle (lights on at 07:00 a.m.) at 22 ± 2° C (60-65% humidity). Unless otherwise specified (during brief binge eating recording sessions, see below), animals had access to ad libitum water and lab chow (3.61 kcal/g, CRM (E), 801730, Special Diets Services). Experiments were approved by the Animal Ethics Committee of Utrecht University, and by the national authority (CCD). Experiments were conducted in agreement with the Dutch law (Wet op de Dierproeven, 2014) and the European regulations (Guideline 86/609/EEC).

Stereotaxic surgery

For stereotactic surgery, all mice were anesthetized with ketamine (75mg/kg i.p.; Narketan, Vetoquinol) and dexmedetomidine (1mg/kg i.p.; dexdomitor, Vetoquinol). Lidocaine (0.1ml; 10% in saline; B. Braun) was injected under the skin on the skull a few minutes before surgery. Eye ointment cream (CAF, Ceva Sante Animale B.V.) was applied before surgery. All mice were at least 6 weeks of age at the time of surgery. Animals were fixed on a stereotactic frame (UNO B.V.) and kept on a heat pad during surgery (33° C). When animals were implanted with either optic fibers or cannulas the skull surface was scratched with a scalpel and phosphoric acid (167-CE, ultra-Etch, ultradent, USA) was applied for 5 minutes to roughen the surface at the start of surgery. Injections were done using a 31G metal needle (Coopers Needleworks) attached to a 10 μl Hamilton syringe (model 801RN) via flexible tubing (PE10, 0.28 mm ID, 0.61 mm OD, Portex). The Hamilton syringe was controlled by an automated pump (UNO B.V. -model 220). Injections were done bilaterally unless otherwise specified and volumes ranged between 250 and 300 nl

per side, at an injection rate of 100 nl/min. The injection needle was retracted 100 μm, 9 min

after the infusion and withdrawn completely 10 min after the infusion. The skin was sutured

post-surgery (V926H, 6/0, VICRYL, Ethicon). Animals were then subcutaneously injected with the

dexmedetomidine antagonist atipamezole (50 mg/kg; Atipam, Dechra), carprofen (5 mg/kg,

Carporal) and 1 ml of saline and left to recover on a heat plate of 36° C. Carprofen (0.025 mg/L)

was provided in the drinking water for one week post-surgery. Animals were single-housed

post-surgery and rejoined with their cage mates three days after surgery, unless otherwise

stated.

For ex vivo optogenetic-assisted electrophysiology experiments:

For transgenic lines: VGAT-Cre and Vglut2-Cre, mice were injected with AAV5-Syn-CoChR-GFP

(3.8*10^12 gc/ml; 300nl; UNC Vector Core) in mPFC (+1.8mm anterior to bregma; 0.90 mm

lateral; -2.2 mm ventral from skull under an angle of 10°) and injected with AAV5-hSyn-DIO-

mCherry (3*10^12 gc/ml; 300nl; Addgene) in LHA (-1.3 mm posterior to bregma; 1.9 mm lateral;

-5.4 mm ventral from skull under an angle of 10°) to visualize GABAergic neurons in VGAT-cre

mice and glutamatergic neurons in Vglut2-cre mice.

To visualize neuropeptide populations in LHA, we used C57bl6 mice, they were injected with the

same protocol for the mPFC than the Vglut2-cre and Vgat-cre. Mice were injected with rAAV5-

MCHpr-Gq-mCherry (1*10^12 gc/ml) for labelling the MCH populations and with AVV5-

hORXpr1-3TdTomato (1*10^12 gc/ml) for the Orexinergic neurons. Both were injected in the

LHA with the same coordinate and volume than for the transgenic mice.

To identified glutamatergic LHA neurons projecting to LHb, VTA and ADMH, we used a cre-

dependent retrograde tracer retroAAV-hSyn-DIO-mCherry (2.8*10^12 gc/ml; Addgene) in

Vglut2-cre mice. Mice were then injected in one of these areas: in the LHb (-1.6 mm posterior to

bregma; 1.2 mm lateral; -3.05 mm ventral from skull under an angle of 15°), in VTA (-3.2 mm

posterior to bregma; 1.65 mm lateral; -5.0 mm ventral from skull under an angle of 15°) and

ADMH (-0.8 mm posterior to bregma; 1.1 mm lateral; -5.4 mm ventral from skull under an angle

of 10°). Mice were also injected in mPFC with AAV5-Syn-CoChR-GFP.

For ex vivo TRAP-assisted electrophysiology experiments:

VGAT-cre::TRAP2 and Vglut2-cre::TRAP2 mice were first injected in mPFC with rAAV5-Syn-Flex-CoChR-GFP (4.4*10^12 gc/ml; UNC Vector Core). After a minimum of two weeks, mice went under stress and tamoxifen i.p injection (25mg/kg). After a minimum of one week, mice were injected in LHA with AAV5-hSyn-DIO-eGFP (1*10^12vc/ml; Addgene) and co-injected with rAAV5-ORXpr1-3TdTomato (1*10^12 gc/ml) or rAAV5-MCHpr-Gq-IRES-mCherry (1*10^12 gc/ml).

For in vivo optogenetic experiments:

To drive the mPFC-LHA pathway at various frequencies, C57BL6 mice > 3 months of age were bilaterally injected with the light-sensitive Channelrhodopsin variant CoChR (300 nl rAAV5-Syn-CoChR-GFP at a titer of 3.8*10^12 gc/ml) or a fluorophore for control animals (300 nl rAAV5-Syn-eYFP, titer of 5.6*10^12 gc/ml) (Penn Vector Core, USA) in the mPFC (AP +1.8; ML ±0.92 mm from bregma; DV -2.24 mm from the skull at a 10° angle; 100 nl/min). After injection a 10-min delay was implemented and, two minutes before retraction, the needles were lifted 100 micrometers to allow for proper diffusion of the virus. To stimulate mPFC axon terminals innervating the LH, optic fibers (diameter 200 μm; FT200UMT, 0.39NA, Thorlabs, Germany) fitted with ceramic ferrules (230μm bore size, Precision Fiber Products, MM-FER2002, USA or Thorlabs, CFLC230-10, Germany) were targeted to the lateral hypothalamus and implanted bilaterally at AP -1.2; ML ±1.85 from bregma and DV -4.85 mm from the skull under a 10° angle. The implants were fixed to the skull using 2 stainless steel screws, C&B-Metabond (Parkell Inc., USA), and dental cement (GC Corporation, Japan). After surgery mice were individually housed for the remainder of the experiment.

For in vivo chemogenetic experiments

The pAAV-hSyn-DIO-hM4D(Gi)-mCherry (DREADD virus) (4*10^12 gc/ml, Addgene, United States, addgene.org) or pAAV-hSyn-DIO-mCherry (4.2*10^12 gc/ml, Addgene, United States,

addgene.org) were bilaterally injected into the mPFC, (in mm: +1.8AP, -1.2ML from Bregma and, -2.3 DV, from skull, at a 10° angle) with an injection-rate of 100 nl/min, and a volume of 300 nl. The Cav2-cre-virus (2*10^12 gc/ml, Plateforme de Vectorologie de Montpellier, https://plateau-igmm.pvm.cnrs.fr/), combined with red-retrobeads (60x dilution, Lumafluor Inc, lumafluor.com) for injection site verification, was bilaterally injected into the anterior LHA (in mm: -1AP, 1.85ML, 5.36DV from Bregma, at a 10° angle), and posterior LHA (in mm: -1.85AP, 1.9ML, 5.41DV, from Bregma, at a 10° angle) with an injection-rate of 100nl/min. After injection of the viral construct, the needle was kept in place for 8 minutes after which it was retracted for 100 um and left in place for two more minutes to allow proper diffusion of the virus. Thereafter, the needle was fully subtracted at a slow pace. After injection, the skin was sutured (V926H, 6/0, VICRYL, Ethicon). After surgery mice were individually housed for the remainder of the experiment.

For in vivo electrophysiology with optrode experiments
To identify mPFC neurons that project to the LHA in electrophysiological recordings we used a dual viral approach. First the Cav2-cre-virus (2*10^12 gc/ml, Plateforme de Vectorologie de Montpellier, https://plateau-igmm.pvm.cnrs.fr/) was injected, combined with red-retrobeads (60x dilution, Lumafluor Inc, lumafluor.com) for injection site verification, into LHA (in mm: -1.3AP, 0.9 ML, -5.3DV from Bregma, 0° angle). A second virus pAAV-EF1α-doublefloxed-hCHR2(H134R)-mCherry was injected at two locations in the mPFC (+1.8 mm AP, -0.45 mm ML, -2.5 mm DV and +1.8 mm AP, -0.45 mm ML, +1.8 mm AP from Bregma, 0° angle, 100-150nl per site and a titer of 2-4*10^12 gc/ml). All injections were done unilateral and targeting the left hemisphere, except for 2 mice which received a bilateral injection in the LHA. Injections for electrophysiological recordings were done using glass pipettes (#504949 , World precision instruments) coupled to a Nanojet injector (#504127, World Precision Instruments). To allow for proper expression of the virus before electrophysiological recordings, the optrode was placed in a second surgery, >3 weeks after viral injections, in the left mPFC (+1.8mm AP, -0.5mm ML from Bregma, -2.0mm DV from the surface of the brain). During this surgery a craniotomy was made above the mPFC and the dura removed, whereafter the optrode was inserted in the brain using

a micromanipulator (Scientifica, UK). Two screws were placed in the skull for attachment of the

optrode to the skull and the ground was placed through a small hole in the skull on the

cerebellum and fixed with a small drop of superglue. After closure of the craniotomy with

silicone, the whole implant was fixed with C&B-Metabond (Parkell Inc., USA), and dental cement

(GC Corporation, Japan). Recordings during behavior were made at least 3 weeks after

implantation of the optrode to allow for proper recovery. After surgery mice were individually

housed for the remainder of the experiment.

Patch-clamp Electrophysiology

Mice were anesthetized with isoflurane (Zoetis, UK) in the morning and were then rapidly

decapitated. Coronal brain slices of 250 µm were cut on a vibratome (1200 VTs, Leica, Rijswijk,

The Netherlands) in ice-cold carbogenated (95% O_2, 5% CO_2) cutting solution, which contained

(in mM) choline chloride (92); ascorbic acid (10); $CaCl_2$ (0.5); glucose (25); HEPES (20); KCl (2.5);

N-Acetyl L Cysteine (3.1); $NaHCO_3$ (25); NaH_2PO_4 (1.2); NMDG (29); $MgCl_2$ (7); sodium pyruvate

(3); Thiourea (2). Slices were transferred for 5-10 min to a warmed solution (34 °C) of the same

composition, before they were kept at room temperature in carbogenated incubation medium,

which contained (in mM): ascorbic acid (3); $CaCl_2$ (2); glucose (25); HEPES (20); KCl (2.5); NaCl

(92); $NaHCO_3$ (20); NaH_2PO_4 (1.2); NMDG (29); $MgCl_2$ (2); sodium pyruvate (3) and Thiourea

(2). During recordings, slices were immersed in artificial cerebrospinal fluid (ACSF) containing (in

mM): NaCl (124); KCl (2.5), $CaCl_2$ (2.5); glucose (11); HEPES (5); $NaHCO_3$ (26); NaH_2PO_4 (1);

$MgCl_2$ (1.3) and were continuously superfused at a flow rate of 2 ml min−1 at 32° C.

Neurons were patch-clamped using borosilicate glass pipettes (2.7–4 MΩ; glass capillaries,

GC150-10, Harvard apparatus, UK), under a BX51WI Olympus microscope (Olympus, France).

For voltage or current clamp recordings, signal was amplified, low-pass filtered at 2.9 kHz with a

4-pole Bessel filter and digitized at 20 kHz with an EPC9/2 dual patch-clamp amplifier (HEKA

Elektronik GmbH). Data were acquired using PatchMaster v2x78.2 software. After break-in, 10

minute waiting time occurred prior to the start of the recording. Series resistance was

determined in Voltage clamp with a −4 mV step from -65 mV to -69 mV lasting 50 ms, using the

resultant capacitive current transients and Ohm's law. Light pulses (470 nm, 1 ms; 25.4mW)

were delivered with a pE-4000, CoolLed, UK illumination system. All electrophysiological

measures are recorded with a 10 seconds inter sweep interval (0.1Hz) and all data points are

shown as an average of 10-20 sweeps, unless otherwise specified.

Paired-pulse ratio (PPR): PPR experiments were performed with cesium methanesulfonate-

based internal medium, containing (in mM) cesium methanesulfonate (139), CsCl (5), HEPES

(10), EGTA (0.2), creatine phosphate (10); Na2ATP (4); Na3GTP (0.3); MgCl (2 2). Averaged

AMPAR-mediated currents in LHA neurons were measured in response to optogenetic

stimulation of mPFC terminals using two pulses with a 60, 100 or 200 ms inter-pulse interval and

measuring the resulting peak amplitude of the two synaptic responses. The PPR was calculated

by dividing the amplitude of the synaptic response to the 2nd pulse by the amplitude of the

synaptic response to the 1st pulse.

NMDAR-AMPAR ratios: Synaptic LHA optogenetically evoked AMPAR and NMDAR currents were

measured in response to a single light pulse. Recordings were made in voltage clamp with the

aforementioned cesium methanesulfonate-based internal medium. Under these conditions, it

was possible to detect inward glutamatergic currents (at −65 mV) and NMDAR (at 40mV at 100

ms). Experiments were done in the presence of 100 µM picrotoxin, to block potential $GABA_A$

receptor contributions. The NMDA/AMPA ratio was calculating by dividing the amplitude of the

EPSC after 100ms at +40mV by the amplitude of the synaptic response at -65mV.

mPFC-LHA connectivity experiments: Recordings were made in voltage clamp in a cesium

methane sulfonate based internal medium as described above. Under these conditions, it was

possible to detect inward glutamatergic currents (at −65 mV). Cell type specific connectivity was

determined based on whether a neuron showed an optogenetically-evoked synaptic response

larger than 5 pA. For monosynaptic confirmation, cells were recorded and opto-stimulated

(1ms) once per sweeps, first during at least 15 sweeps with ACSF, then 1µM of TTX was added

to ACSF for a minimum of 25 sweeps to observe the effect on the synaptic response and finally

100μM 4-AP was added to the mix and recorded for a least 20 sweeps.

Intrinsic excitability and mPFC-driven LHA cell firing experiments: Recordings were made in

current clamp in a potassium gluconate based internal containing (in mM), Potassium Gluconate

(139); HEPES (10); EGTA (0.2); creatine phosphate (10); KCl (5); Na2ATP (4); Na3GTP (0.3); MgCl2

(2). Only LHA cells showing a synaptic response larger than 5pA at -65mV after 1ms of opto-

stimulation went under this following protocol. To determine current-voltage relationships and

biophysical properties, membrane resistance and firing pattern, cells were recorded in current

clamp. Cells were clamped at 0 pA and from there were subjected to 17 subsequent sweeps.

Every sweep started with a 0 pA injection of 400 ms, followed by a current step of 800 ms length

of -150 pA (with a +25 pA increasing increment on each subsequent sweep), followed by a

return to 0 pA for 1000 ms. Inter-sweep interval was 10 seconds.

To assess if the opto-stimulation of mPFC inputs was sufficient to fire the LHA neurons, cells

were clamped at -50pA to prevent the spontaneous firing and 25 pulses of 1ms were applied at

5Hz for 10 sweeps.

Drugs for patch-clamp experiments

All drugs were obtained from Sigma (UK), Abcam (UK) and Tocris (UK). With the exception of

picrotoxin (DMSO, 0.01% final bath concentration) all drugs were dissolved in purified water.

Drugs were aliquoted at a concentration of 1/1000th of the final bath concentration and stored

at -20°C. Upon use they were thawed and quickly dissolved in the recording medium.

***In vivo* electrophysiology recordings**

Recording single unit activity of prefrontal cortical neurons.

Extracellular single-unit activity was recorded using custom-build optrodes. An electrode bundle

consisting of 32 individually isolated nichrome wires (12 μm diameter; 80% nickel, 20%

chromium; Kanthal, Sandvik Material Technology, Germany) was glued to an optic fiber (Thorlabs, Germany, 200 μm diameter, 0.39NA, with the tip placed at 300-700 μm above the electrodes) to allow for optogenetic identification of mPFC-LHA cells. Electrodes were attached with gold pins to a 32-pin Omnetics connector using an electrode interface board (Open Ephys, www.openephys.org) which was mounted on a 3D printed holder (based on the Flexdrive[47], Open Ephys). The microwires were cut at an angle so that they were organized in a vertical space of 200-400 μm, whereafter they were gold-plated (Neuralynx, United States) to an impedance of 100kΩ using a NanoZ impedance tester (Plexon, United States). The connector was grounded through a bare platinum-iridium wire (127 μm diameter; 90% platinum, 10% iridium; Science Products, Germany) placed on the cerebellum. Analog signals were acquired using a 32-channel RHD2132 headstage (Intan Technologies, USA), bandpass filtered between 2.5 and 7603.88Hz, and digitized at 30 kHz. Data were transferred to the Open Ephys acquisition board using an Intan Technologies Serial Peripheral Interface cable (2.9 mm, interference of the cable during behavior was reduced by counterbalancing the weight of the cable with flexibly moving counterweights) and acquired by the Open Ephys GUI interface (version 0.5.2.2; https://open-ephys.org/gui)[48]. Behavior of the mice was recorded from above the cage using a Blackfly S USB camera (BFS-U3-31S4M-C, Teledyne FLIR) which was synchronized with the electrophysiological data by sending a TTL pulse for every acquired frame (sample rate 30Hz) to the Open Ehpys I/O board. The mice were also recorded front view using a webcam (HD C270, Logitech, Switzerland). This data was synchronised by a light signal generated at a fixed interval by an Arduino controlled LED which light signal was duplicated as a TTL output to the I/O board.

Spike sorting.

Before spike-sorting first a common average reference (https://github.com/cortex-lab/spikes/blob/master/preprocessing/applyCARtoDat.m) [49] was applied to remove common noise contamination across channels. Spikes were then automatically detected and assigned to clusters using the template-matching algorithm of kilosort (version 2.0; https://github.com/MouseLand/Kilosort/releases/tag/v2.0) with the following settings: Ops.Th [10 4], Ops.AUCsplit [0.9], ops.Lam [10], ops.minFR [0.1]. Clustering results were manually

checked for waveform shape, stable amplitude over time and the presence of a clear refractory
period. Moreover, resembling clusters were assessed to see if nearby clusters belonged to the
same cell and were merged when appropriate. Data checking and curation was done in Phy
(https://github.com/cortex-lab/phy). After curations in Phy the isolation distance was calculated
as a final quality control. Single units with an isolation distance of >20 were included in the
dataset [50,51] (Average isolation distance of optotagged mPFC-LHA cells=38.5, Minimum=20.9,
Maximum=115.2).
733
Optogenetic identification of mPFC-LHA neurons.
After every behavioral session, we applied short light pulses (2ms) from a 473 nm DPSS laser
(CNI Laser, China) with a random 6-9 s interval for ~30 min (over 200 trials) triggered using a
microcontroller (Arduino, Italy)) and ~5-8 mW output at the fiber tip above the recording site.
Depending on the presence of a voltage-volley during laser stimulation, a window of 1 or 2 ms
after the laser onset was blanked. Significant light-induced activation was determined with the
stimulus-associated spike latency test (SALT, P < 0.01; http://kepecslab.cshl.edu/salt.m)[50]. In
brief, SALT compares the distribution of first spike latencies relative to the light pulse to epochs
of the same duration in the stimulus-free baseline period. Additional criteria were included to
prevent inclusion of false-positive neurons through network-related activity: a peak z-
score>1.65, average first spike latency < 7ms, jitter < 3.5ms, reliability > 0.03, Pearson's
correlation between the average waveform of a cluster and the average waveform of the first,
putatively light-evoked spikes > 0.8 and a waveform duration above 550 microseconds. Similar
criteria have been used for mPFC-LHA opto-tagging and ex-vivo data of mPFC-LHA neurons
suggest that a first spike latency below 8ms limits false-positive identification of non-expressing
neurons through recurrent connectivity [20] and the same criteria were also used in other mPFC
opto-tagging studies[50,52,53]. According to these criteria mPFC-LHA neurons could be photo-
identified in 6 out of 10 mice that had correct placement of the optrode and proper expression
of channelrhodopsin.
753
Behavioral paradigms

All behavioral manipulations and tests were performed during the light phase.

Two-day Social stress paradigm

The social subordination stress protocol used was designed according to a resident intruder

paradigm. The resident, a Swiss-CD1 male previously used for breeding, was housed in a large

Makrolon cage (type IV, Tecniplast, Italy), an intruder; an experimental male mouse, was placed

in this cage. Fighting time was tracked live and animals were allowed to fight for 20 s, twice a

day for two days, one fighting session in the morning (8.30 – 11.00a.m.) and one in the

afternoon (16.00 – 18.30p.m.). For the remainder of the day, animals were separated by a

perforated transparent splitter, allowing sensory, but no physical interaction. The control

animals were co-housed with a non-familiar C57B6J male mouse for two days, preventing

physical interaction. This short stress paradigm has been shown to not change body weight in

the first days after the stressful experience when food intake is measured[3]. Consistent with this,

no difference in body weight were observed between the experimental groups in this study.

Limited access choice diet

In the limited access choice diet paradigm, animals were exposed to fat (i.e. tallow; Blanc de

Boeuf, Vandermoortele, 9.0 kcal/g) and regular chow for 2 hours a day in a clean cage

(Makrolon cage type IV, Tecniplast, Italy). Animals were habituated to the limited access cage

and fat, during 3 occasions at least, before the start of the experiment. Animals were subjected

to stress as described above and on the day after, fat intake was measured over a 2-hour fat

access period, starting between 9 a.m. and 11 a.m.. Unlimited chow was provided the remaining

22 h of the day.

Real-time place preference / aversion test

The conditioned place preference test consisted of two sessions separated over two days. The

test cage (73x25 cm) consisted of two chambers (30x25 cm) clearly separated by a narrower

middle area. The two chambers had different flooring (fine grid vs coarse grid) and different

walls (striped vs black) to provide contextual discriminability. In the baseline session mice were

allowed to freely explore the test cage. During the test session (20 minutes total duration) one

of the compartments (counterbalanced design) was paired with optogenetic stimulation using

closed-loop optogenetics. After 10 minutes the stimulation site was paired with the other

compartment, to limit effects of a priori preference for one of the compartments. Mice were

recorded by a webcam (HD C270, Logitech, Switzerland). Closed-loop optogenetics was

established by automatically tracking mice in Bonsai (Open Ephys) which triggered the Master-8

pulse generator through an Arduino upon entering the stimulation chamber, in turn triggering

the laser at the dedicated frequency as long as the mouse was present in the stimulation

compartment. The position of the animal was tracked in the cage offline using Ethovision 9

(Noldus, Wageningen). Preference score was calculated by scoring the total time spent in the

stimulation compartment divided by the total time spent in the stimulation and non-stimulated

compartment. Cages were cleaned in between animals with 70% ethanol.

Food intake video analysis

Videos were taken from the side of the feeding cage with webcams (HD C270, Logitech,

Switzerland) and acquired using the Windows Camera App or Bonsai. Feeding bout analysis was

done manually and blind for the virus type. Data were acquired over different batches which

were analyzed by an independent observer.

Recordings during social stress.

For social stress recordings mice were handled extensively to get used to fixation and getting

used to being attached to the recording cable. During the day of social stress recordings mice

were put into an unfamiliar cage of a CD1 aggressor mouse, which was temporarily removed

from its home cage. After 15 minutes the CD1 mouse was introduced into the cage but physical

contact was prohibited by a transparent barrier. After another 45 minutes the barrier was re

moved and the mice were allowed to physically interact (fight) for a cumulative 20 seconds

whereafter the barrier was put back. This period lasted on average more than 4 minutes. Hence,

during the total stress exposure time physical contact which could introduce noise in the

recording was limited.

Locomotor activity and time spent in food zones.

Mice position and speed in the food cage were automatically tracked in real-time from camera images or offline from the acquired webcam videos using Ethovision (version 9.1; Noldus Technologies, The Netherlands). Food zones were 9x11 cm in size. Time in the food zone was determined by calculating the cumulative time spent in the food zone per 10 minute block. The effect of 5Hz stimulation on time in food zone was determined by calculating the difference in time spent in the food zone during the individual three ON-Blocks with the preceding OFF-block and consequently taking the average of these three values obtained for the separate ON-Blocks.

In vivo circuit manipulation and food intake experiments

In vivo optogenetic stimulation experiment in stress-naïve mice

Before every experiment, mice were extensively handled and habituated to the food-context, fat and optogenetic cables for at least 2 weeks before the start of the experiment. A single experiment consisted of three baseline days, an optogenetic stimulation day followed by another non-stimulation day. Mice were also attached to patch cables on days where no stimulation was applied. Raw food intake was measured on all days after one hour in which the mice were able to freely feed on regular chow (3.61 kcal/g, CRM (E), 801730, Special Diets Services) or Tallow (Blanc de Boeuf, Vandemoortele, 9,0 kcal/g). On stimulation days mice were recorded with a webcam from the top, to allow for later offline tracking of the position of the mice in the food cages using Ethovision (Noldus, Netherlands). In a subset of the experiments feeding behavior was recorded from the side using webcams (HD C270, Logitech, Switzerland). Time of testing across days was kept constant as much as possible. Different frequencies were tested on the same mice and in the order 5Hz, 10Hz and 1Hz with one week without stimulation in between each stimulation experiment.

On stimulation days, mice were connected to optogenetic patch cables (Thorlabs, 200 µm, 0.39 NA, FT200UMT) which ended in a ceramic ferrule (230 µm bore size, Thorlabs or Precision Fiber

Products) and connected to the implant through a sleeve (Precision Fiber Products). Cables

were connected to the laser (473 nm DPSS laser, CNI Laser, China) using an FC-connector

(Thorlabs) and via a rotary joint (Doric lenses, Canada), which divided light intensity equally over

the two hemispheres. Light intensity was set to 5mW at the tip of the fiber above the LHA. Light

pulses (5ms duration) at indicated frequencies were applied during blocks of ten minutes using

a Master-8 pulse stimulator (A.M.P.I., Jerusalem, Israel) and were alternated with non-

stimulation blocks of similar length. Mice were single-housed and food and water were present

ad libitum in the home cage.

In vivo optogenetic stimulation experiment control versus stressed mice

Experimental setup for optogenetic stimulation is similar as described above. 5Hz stimulation

was applied in alternating OFF and ON blocks with a duration of ten minutes. Mock-stimulated

animals were attached to patch-cables and laser-stimulated, but light transmission was

completely blocked in the connecting sleeve on the head of the animal. For this experiment in

particular, mice were habituated to fat (three times) in the food context and to optogenetic

cables in the test cage for two weeks. Baseline food intake was measured 4-5 days before

exposure to stress. During this session animals were similarly attached to patch cables but no

stimulation was applied. Social stress paradigm was performed as described[3]. C57BL6 mice were

introduced into a cage (Makrolon cage, type IV, Tecniplast, Italy) of an aggressor mouse (CD1,

Janvier) and subjected to 4x 20s of physical fight over the course of two days (one fight in the

morning and one in the afternoon) after which they were separated by a transparent wall for

the remainder of the time. The cage of the Swiss-CD1 male mice contained enrichment that was

previously used in the home cage, while the cage part of the experimental C57BL6 mice was

enriched with 3 tissues. Food and water were present ad libitum as in the stress and home cage.

Control mice were subjected to 2 days of cohousing with a conspecific in the same cage, but

separated by a transparent wall. On the day after stress mice were put directly from the stress-

context into the food context and returned to their home cage afterwards. One mouse was

excluded from analysis on the basis of being a large statistical outlier. Three mice were excluded

due to technical problems (e.g. malfunctioning video recording). All mice were individually
housed during the experiment and had ad libitum access to food and water.

In vivo chemogenetic inhibition experiment control versus stressed mice

Mice were extensively handled and habituated to the food context (3 times) and fixation and
mock intraperitoneal injections for at least two weeks. First, mice were tested for their baseline
fat and chow intake in the 2-choice context (2 hours). For this baseline test, they received an
intraperitoneal saline injection (150 μl) to rule-out a potential effect of stress of this procedure.
Baseline measurements were done at least 4 days before being subjected to stress to prevent
any influence of palatable food intake on their susceptibility to stress. The 2day social stress
paradigm was done as described above. CNO was made fresh on the day of testing and applied
at a dose of 5 mg/kg, 45 minutes before being placed in the food context. Mice removed from
the stress context were injected with CNO and placed back in their home cage with ad libitum
food before being put in the food context. Similarly, for the acute stress experiment mice
received the CNO injection 45 minutes before being place in the food context and 25 minutes
prior to stress. All mice were individually housed during the experiment and had ad libitum
access to food and water. Two mice were excluded due to technical problems.

Histology and microscopy

For each recording the virus injection sites, as well as the placement of optic fibers and/or the
optrodes were examined. Only data obtained from mice with correct placements were included.
After experiments, mice were anesthetized with pentobarbital (75-100 mg/kg) and
transcardially perfused with Phosphate-Buffered Saline (PBS) containing 4% paraformaldehyde
(PFA). Brains were post-fixed in 4% PFA overnight and transferred to PBS. Before slicing, brains
were embedded in 4% agarose to maintain structural integrity. Coronal sections of the entire
brain were sliced at 60um using a vibratome (VT1000s, Leica, Rijswijk, The Netherlands). For
patch clamp experiments out of 272 mice, 27 were excluded on the basis of misinjection of
viruses. For behavioral experiments, a total of 6 mice were excluded based on histological
assessment.

Immunohistochemical staining for histology experiments

To stain for Channelrhodopsin, hM4DGi or control mCherry virus, tissue sections were washed in PBS (0.01 M, pH=7.4) three times for 10 minutes before incubating them for 2 hours with blocking solution (3% BSA, 0.5% Triton-X in 1x PBS). The primary antibody Rabbit Anti-RFP (Rockland, 1:1000 in blocking solution, Lot:46510) that targets mCherry, was administered to the tissue sections using ~400 ul per well. Incubation was carried out overnight at 4 degrees on a shaker to facilitate optimal antibody priming. The next day tissue sections were washed three times with PBS before applying a secondary antibody (goat-anti-Rabbit Alexa-488, Abcam, 1:500, Lot:GR3375958-2, Lot:GR3442006-1). The sections were incubated with the secondary antibody for two hours before being washed in PBS again for 3 times. Finally, tissue slices were mounted on glass slides and embedded in FluorSave (Millipore, 345789, Amsterdam, Netherlands) and covered with cover glasses. The microscopy slides were allowed to air dry overnight at room temperature before being stored in a 4-degree environment to maintain sample integrity. For staining of CoChR-GFP anti-GFP antibody was used (Aves, GFP-1020, 1:1000 in blocking solution) and goat-anti-chicken Alexa-568 (Abcam, 1:500) as a secondary antibody.

Validation of AAV approach to label LHA_{MCH} and LHA_{OREX} cells for patch clamp

Fluorescent cells were co-filled during electrophysiology recording with internal solution and biocytin (2mg/ml). After recording, slices stayed overnight with 4% PFA at 4° C and were then transferred to PBS 0.01% NaAz. For immunolabeling, slices were first wash from NaAz with PBS solution three time for 10min in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) then blocked 1 hour in room temperature (RT) with blocking solution (10% normal goat serum (NGS) and 5% Triton X-100 in PBS). Followed by overnight at 4°C incubation in primary antibody solution (with 1° antibodies, 2% NGS and 0.4% Triton X-100 in PBS). Next day, slices were washed three time during 15 min in PBS, and incubated for three hours at RT with the 2° antibody solution (with 2° antibodies, 2% NGS and 0.4% Triton X-100 in PBS). After, slices were washed three times for 10 minutes in PBS. For the Orexin cells, first antibody used was Rabbit anti-Orexin A (1:1000, Abcam), followed by

the secondary antibodies Goat anti-Rabbit 405 (1:500, Abcam) and streptavidin-AF488 (1:500).

For MCH cells, slices were stained with Rabbit anti-MCH (1:1000, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO,

USA) followed by Goat anti-Rabbit 488 (1:500, Abcam) and streptavidin-AF555 (1:500). Cells

were imaged with confocal microscope.

Microscopy

Slices were imaged using an EPI fluorescence microscope (Axio imager M2, Zeiss) or a confocal

microscope (LSM880, Zeiss).

Data analysis and statistics

Experimental data were analyzed with (Ethovision V9.0 (Noldus, Netherlands)), GraphPad

(version 9.0), SPSS (IBM V26), Python, Igor Pro-8 (Wavemetrics, USA), and Matlab (Mathworks,

USA). Experimental sample sizes were predetermined, guided by published studies, in-house

expertise, and experimental pilots. Mice were randomly assigned to experimental groups. Mice

or data points were not excluded from analyses unless noted. Data graphs are always reported

and represented as mean ± SEM, with single data points plotted (single cell for

electrophysiology and single animal for behavioral experiments). When statistically appropriate,

One-way ANOVAs, Two-way ANOVAs or Multi-way Repeated-measures ANOVAs were applied.

Post hoc analyses were performed in case of significant omnibus ANOVA outcomes. In the event

the data were not normally distributed statistical testing of group differences was performed

using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Testing was always performed two-tailed with $\alpha=0.05$.

Complete outcome of statistical analysis is shown in Supplementary Table 1.

Acknowledgements

We thank Fabien Ducrocq, Salvatore Lecca, Manuel Mameli, and the entire Meye Lab for

discussions and critical reading of the manuscript. We thank Zoe Bor and Luc Sangers for

assistance in analysis and Nicky van Kronenburg for assistance in mouse breedings. This work

was supported by (to FM) the ERC under the European Union's Horizon 2020 research and

innovation programme (grant agreement 804089; ReCoDE), the NWO VIDI grant 203.102, and

partially by the NWO Gravitation project BRAINSCAPES: A Roadmap from Neurogenetics to
Neurobiology (024.004.012) and a Marie-Curie Individual Fellowship (CoMPOSE, grant
agreement 898036) to RP.

Author contributions

LS performed and analysed all *ex vivo* electrophysiological recordings. RP performed and
analysed behavioral experiments, supported by AB, AN and RH. RP performed and analysed *in
vivo* electrophysiological recordings. LS, RP, IWD and ML performed stereotactic surgeries. FM
designed the study with RP and LS. FM wrote the manuscript with LS, RP and the help of all
other authors.

Corresponding authors

Primary correspondence to Frank J. Meye: f.j.meye-2@umcutrecht.nl

Rogier Poorthuis: rogier.poorthuis@gmail.com

Competing interests statement

The authors declare no competing interests.

Data availability statement

All detailed outcomes of statistical test are provided in Supplementary Table 1. The datasets
generated during and/or analysed during the current study are available from the
corresponding author on request.

Code availability statement

The codes used for the analyses in the current study have been referenced in the manuscript.

Figures and Figure legends

Figure 1. Frequency dependent modulation of palatable food intake by mPFC-LHA pathway stimulation. (A) Experimental timeline and viral and optogenetic strategy to manipulate mPFC-LHA pathway activity. **(B)** Left: Histological verification of CoChR-GFP expression in mPFC and optic fiber location in LHA. Right: mPFC axons in LHA. **(C)** Schematic of behavioral paradigm. Food intake on the test day was measured against three baseline days. On stimulation day mPFC-LHA pathway was stimulated in blocks of 10 minutes alternated by non-stimulated blocks. **(D)** Fat consumption normalized to intake of the first three baseline days for different stimulation frequencies. Plots show fat intake on baseline day3, stimulation day and post-stimulation day. 1Hz stimulation did not change fat consumption (Two-way RM ANOVA, Day x Virus interaction $F_{(2,72)}=1.34$, $p=0.18$). 5Hz stimulation modulated fat intake (Two-way RM ANOVA, Day x Virus interaction, $F_{(2,72)}=3.37$, $p=0.04$) and opsin-expressing mice showed a specific increase in fat intake on stimulation day compared to baseline (Sidák's multiple comparison test, $p=0.007$). This effect did not extend to 10Hz stimulation (Two-way RM ANOVA, Day x Virus interaction, $F_{(2,72)}=2.52$, $p=0.09$). **(E)** Video-based analysis of feeding bouts shows that under control conditions interest in food slowly declines during the hour, but 5Hz stimulation increases food interactions during later phases of the feeding period (Two-way RM ANOVA, Interaction Time x Virus, $F_{(5,110)}=2.83$, $p=0.02$, Sidák's multiple comparison test 30-40m, YFP vs CoChR, $p=0.04$ and 50-60m, $p=0.01$). Mice stimulated with 1Hz displayed a decline of interest in the fat during the hour and this was not different from control mice (Two-way RM ANOVA, Interaction Time x Virus, $F_{(5,120)}=0.17$, $p=0.97$). **(F)** Effect of mPFC-LHA stimulation quantified according to laser ON and OFF blocks. 5Hz stimulation specifically increased fat interaction during stimulation periods (Two-way RM ANOVA, Interaction Time x Virus, $F_{(1,22)}=7.64$, $p=0.01$, Sidák's multiple comparison test ON blocks YFP vs CoChR, $p=0.003$). 1Hz stimulation did not affect feeding bout number (Two-way RM ANOVA, Interaction Time x Virus, $F_{(1,24)}=0.06$, $p=0.81$). * = $p<0.05$; ** = $p<0.01$.

Figure 2. mPFC-LHA neuronal activity is diversely modulated by acute social stress. **(A)** Viral strategy and implantation of optrodes (i.e. 32 electrode wires and an optic fiber) for extracellular recordings of identified neurons during social stress. **(B)** Left: Histological verification of placement of electrode tip in between Channelrhodopsin-expressing mPFC-LHA neurons. Tip of optrodes indicated with a yellow arrowhead. Right: Histology of LHA targeting with the Cav2-cre retrograde virus. **(C)** Optogenetic-assisted identification of mPFC pyramidal neurons projecting to the LHA. Neurons were classified as being light responsive if they showed a significant increase in firing rate after light stimulation compared to baseline using the SALT-test. **(D)** Behavioral paradigm to record mPFC-LHA cellular activity during social stress. **(E)** Top: single cell examples. During the social stress period distinct mPFC-LHA neurons were modulated in both directions (10s bins comparing 180 seconds right before and after fight onset, Wilcoxon signed-rank test, $p < 0.05$). Bottom: Group averages. Note that the responses outlast the period of potential physical interaction. Dotted line indicates the average length of the stress exposure. **(F)** Pie chart showing mPFC-LHA neurons which were significantly modulated by, or not responsive to, the social stress experience.

Figure 3. mPFC sends projections to multiple LHA neuronal populations and the mPFC cells responsive to acute hypophagic social stress directly innervate LHA glutamatergic neurons. (A) Schematic of the viral strategies to identify LHA populations and to express an opsin in mPFC. **(B)** Left: Representative image of the viral expression in mPFC (in green) and in LHA cell types (in red) in coronal slices. Anatomical reference points: fmi forceps minor of the corpus callosum, EPN entopeduncular nucleus. Right: Representative image of the different LHA neuronal subsets (red) during patch clamp experiments. **(C)** Experiments to determine synaptic connectivity. From left to right, cumulative probability plots of opto-evoked AMPAR amplitudes, after mPFC input stimulation, in LHA_{VGAT} (n cells = 23), LHA_{Vglut2} (n cells = 30), LHA_{MCH} (n cells = 31) and LHA_{Orexin} (n cells = 37) populations. Alongside are pie chart representations of the proportion of LHA cells connected to mPFC (n VGAT cells = 27, n Vglut2 cells = 31, n MCH cells = 32 and n Orexin cells = 38). Trace example within the graph, blue rectangles represent 1 ms of opto-stimulation. **(D)** Left: Example timeline of EPSCs in an LHA_{VGLUT2} cell during baseline, during application of TTX and with further addition of 4-AP. Right: Bar graph showing the percentage of connectivity to mPFC for the 4 LHA populations in presence of 4AP + TTX (n VGAT cells = 10, n Vglut2 cells = 11, n MCH cells = 9 and n Orexin cells = 12), showing a high monosynaptic connectivity that was similar across cellular populations (Pearson Chi-Square test, $\chi2=3.166$, p = 0.367). **(E)** Schematic and timeline for TRAPing mPFC ensemble during acute stress ($mPFC_{ACUTE\ STRESS}$) or during novel mouse exposure ($mPFC_{NOVEL\ MOUSE}$). **(F)** Representative image of opsin expression after TRAP recombination after an acute stress episode in mPFC. (fmi: forceps minor of the corpus callosum, CPu: caudate-putamen, Prl: prelimbic cortex, IL: infralimbic cortex, DP: dorsal peduncular cortex). **(G)** Left: Pie charts for connectivity of $mPFC_{ACUTE\ STRESS}$ and $mPFC_{NOVEL\ MOUSE}$ ensembles with distinct LHA populations (VGAT, Vglut2, MCH and Orexin). Opto-stimulation of a TRAPed $mPFC_{ACUTE\ STRESS}$ ensemble resulted in more connectivity in glutamatergic LHA subtypes than LHA_{VGAT} cells ((n VGAT cells = 31, n Vglut2 cells = 49, n MCH cells = 12 and n Orexin cells = 23, Pearson Chi-Square test, $\chi2=15.783$, p = 0.001). Instead, $mPFC_{NOVEL\ MOUSE}$ ensemble connectivity rates were low with LHA subtypes and did not differ between them (n VGAT cells = 19, n Vglut2 cells = 8, n MCH cells = 2 and n Orexin cells = 12, Pearson Chi-Square test, $\chi2=1.187$, p = 0.756). Comparing connectivity rates for cell types between ensembles showed that $mPFC_{ACUTE\ STRESS}$ ensemble connected more to LHA_{VGLUT2} and LHA_{OREX} neurons than did the $mPFC_{NOVEL\ MOUSE}$ ensemble (LHA_{Vglut2} cells; Pearson Chi-Square test, $\chi2=4.653$, p = 0.031; LHA_{OREX} cells; Pearson Chi-Square test, $\chi2=8.37$, p = 0.004). Right: example of $mPFC_{ACUTE\ STRESS}$ opto-evoked EPSC averaged over sweeps in LHA_{VGAT} (purple), LHA_{VGLUT2} (blue), LHA_{MCH} (green) and LHA_{OREX} (yellow) neurons. Blue rectangle indicates 1ms opto-stimulation). * = p<0.05; ** = p<0.01.

Figure 4. In the aftermath of social stress, during its hyperphagic phase, specifically the mPFC
synapses to LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ neurons are weakened. (A) Schematic and timeline for patch clamp
electrophysiology in condition of prolonged stress. **(B)** Representative image of opsin expressed
in mPFC and red labeling of the Vglut2 population in the LHA from AAV-DIO-mCherry
recombination, in a Vglut2-cre transgenic line (f: fornix, EPN: entopeduncular nucleus). **(C)**
Cumulative probability of opto-evoked AMPAR amplitude in LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ population, in control
(black) and stress (red), shows a decrease of amplitude after stress (n control = 30, n stress = 35;
Mann-Whitney test, U=342, p = 0.0152). **(D)** Cumulative probability plot for opto-evoked
AMPAR amplitudes at mPFC-LHA$_{VGAT}$ synapses, which are not altered by stress (n control = 23 , n
stress = 21; Mann-Whitney test, U=232, p = 0.8341). **(E)** Cumulative probability plot for opto-
evoked AMPAR amplitudes at mPFC-LHA$_{OREX}$ population (n control = 37 , n stress = 35; Mann-
Whitney test, U=582, p = 0.4663). **(F)** Left: Example traces of mPFC- LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ synaptic
responses during a paired pulse protocol, with 60 ms interpulse interval (IPI) (top), 100 ms
(middle) and 200 ms (bottom). Right: bar graph representation of the paired pulse ratios (PPR)
of mPFC- LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ synapses. Across the 3 IPI protocols there is a significant increase of the PPR
after stress (red), compared to control (black) (n control = 19, n stress = 20; two-way RM
ANOVA, Main effect of group, F(1,37)=4.55, p = 0.04). For C-F data for control cells are as in Fig.
3C. **(G)** Stress does not alter the PPR for mPFC-LHA$_{VGAT}$ synapses (n control = 16, n stress = 18;
two-way RM ANOVA, Main effect of group, F(1,32)=0.160, p = 0.691). **(H)** Stress does not alter
the PPR for mPFC-LHA$_{OREX}$ synapses (n control = 32, n stress = 34; two-way RM ANOVA, Main
effect of group, F(1,64)=1.752, p = 0.19). Blue rectangles represent 1ms opto-stimulation. **(I)**
Schematic and timeline for patch clamp electrophysiological recordings from mPFC-innervated
LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ cells with distinct downstream targets, like Peri-PVN. **(J)** Top left: representative image
of retrograde red tracer targeting of the Peri-PVN. Bottom left: example traces for mPFC-
LHA$_{VGLUT2}$-Peri-PVN synapses in control (black) and stress (red) conditions during 100 ms paired
pulse protocol. Right: Bar graph representation of the PPR from the three IPIs (n control = 14, n
stress = 12; two-way RM ANOVA, Main effect of group, F(1,24)=5.975, p = 0.022). * = p<0.05.

1095

1096

Figure 5. *In vivo* **mPFC-LHA stimulation further increases fat intake after stress, by preventing a decline of interest in the fat. (A)** Experimental strategy to stimulate mPFC-LHA pathway in control and stressed conditions. **(B)** Histological verification of mPFC axonal processes in LHA. Note the dense labeling in LHA, but not in the MH. **(C)** Quantification of fat intake over the 2 hours for experimental groups. Stressed mice consumed more fat than control mice (Two-way ANOVA, main effect treatment, $F_{(1,46)} = 15$, $p<0.001$) and 5 Hz stimulation increased fat (Two-way ANOVA, main effect stimulation ($F_{1,46}) = 10.38$, $p=0.002$) intake across groups. 5 Hz led to a further increase in fat intake even in stressed mice, making this group the largest consumers of fat (Sidák's multiple comparison test, $p=0.01$). **(D)** Cumulative plot of feeding bouts for stressed and control conditions (under mock stimulation) over time. Stressed mice exhibited a binge-like eating pattern, with over 75% of their feeding bouts occurring within the first 20 minutes (the Binge phase) with only 25% of further feeding bouts occurring in the subsequent 100 min (Post-Binge phase). **(E)** Quantification of feeding bouts for non-stimulated mice during the Binge and Post-binge phase. Stressed mice had significantly more feeding bouts within the first 20 minutes than controls (Unpaired t-test, $p<0.01$), whereas they interacted less with the fat in the Post-binge phase than controls (Mann-Whitney test, $p<0.001$). **(F)** 5 Hz stimulation did not affect the number of feeding bouts within the Binge phase (first 20 minutes of the feeding session; Two-Way ANOVA, interaction Stimulation x Treatment, $F_{(1,46)} = 0.52$, $p=0.48$). **(G)** Instead in the Post-Binge phase, 5 Hz stimulation was more effective in stressed mice than in control mice in terms of driving further feeding bouts (Two-Way ANOVA, interaction Stimulation x Treatment, $F_{(1,46)} = 4.05$, $p=0.05$, Sidák's multiple comparison test mock stim vs 5 Hz in stressed condition, $p<0.001$). **(H)** Data in G normalized to total feeding bouts again showing 5 Hz stimulation of the mPFC-LHA in stressed mice drives further fat consumption (Two-Way ANOVA, interaction Stimulation x Treatment, $F_{(1,46)} = 9.47$, $p=0.004$, Sidák's multiple comparison test Mock stim vs 5 Hz in stressed condition, $p<0.001$). * = $p<0.05$; ** = $p<0.01$; *** = $p<0.001$.

Figure 6. *In vivo* **mPFC-LHA chemogenetic inhibition specifically reduces excess fat intake after stress. (A)** Viral strategy to make mPFC-LHA neurons susceptible to chemogenetic inhibition. **(B)** Histological verification injection sites of CAV2-Cre in the LHA using red beads, and of hM4Di-mCHerry expression in mPFC (stained against with an antibody for green fluorescence). Note typical cell distribution of mPFC-LHA neurons in deep layers of the cortex. **(C)** Top: Timeline of the 2 day social stress experiment driving hyperphagia. Bottom: Delta food intake during test day (Day +3) compared to a prior baseline session (Day -5). Left: Chemogenetic inhibition of mPFC-LHA abolished stress-induced overeating of palatable fat, but did not affect food intake under control conditions (Two-way ANOVA, Treatment x Virus interaction, $F_{(1,50)}$ = 4.69, p=0.04, Sidáks multiple comparison test mCherry control vs mCherry Stress, p=0.02, hM4Di control vs hM4Di Stress, p>0.99, mCherry control vs hM4Di control, p=0.61). Chow intake was not modulated by stress or by mPFC-LHA inhibition (Two-way ANOVA, Treatment x Virus interaction, $F_{(1,50)}$ = 0.07, p=0.79). **(D)** Top: Timeline of the acute social stress experiment driving transient hypophagia. Acute social stress leads to hypophagia (Two-way ANOVA, main effect of treatment $F_{(1,38)}$ = 0.22, p<0.001, Sidák's multiple comparison hM4Di control vs hM4Di stress, p=0.007), but mPFC-LHA inhibition did not abolish this effect (Sidák's multiple comparison mCherry stress vs hM4Di stress, p=0.96). * = p<0.05; ** = p<0.01.

References

1. Oliver, G. & Wardle, J. Perceived effects of stress on food choice. *Physiol Behav* **66**, 511–515 (1999).

2. Adam, T. C. & Epel, E. S. Stress, eating and the reward system. *Physiol Behav* **91**, 449–458 (2007).

3. Linders, L. E. *et al.* Stress-driven potentiation of lateral hypothalamic synapses onto ventral tegmental area dopamine neurons causes increased consumption of palatable food. *Nat Commun* **13**, (2022).

4. Dallman, M. F., Pecoraro, N. C. & La Fleur, S. E. Chronic stress and comfort foods: Self-medication and abdominal obesity. *Brain Behav Immun* **19**, 275–280 (2005).

5. Ulrich-lai, Y. M., Fulton, S., Wilson, M., Petrovich, G. & Rinaman, L. Stress Exposure, Food Intake, and Emotional State. **18**, 381–399 (2016).

6. Arnsten, A. F. T. Stress signalling pathways that impair prefrontal cortex structure and function. *Nat Rev Neurosci* **10**, 410–22 (2009).

7. Vander Weele, C. M., Siciliano, C. A. & Tye, K. M. Dopamine tunes prefrontal outputs to orchestrate aversive processing. *Brain Research* Preprint at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.brainres.2018.11.044 (2019).

8. Balodis, I. M., Grilo, C. M. & Potenza, M. N. Neurobiological features of binge eating disorder. *CNS Spectrums* vol. 20 557–565 Preprint at https://doi.org/10.1017/S1092852915000814 (2015).

9. Val-Laillet, D. *et al.* Neuroimaging and neuromodulation approaches to study eating behavior and prevent and treat eating disorders and obesity. *Neuroimage Clin* **8**, 1–31 (2015).

10. Land, B. B. *et al.* Medial prefrontal D1 dopamine neurons control food intake. *Nat Neurosci* **17**, 248–53 (2014).

11. Mena, J. D., Selleck, R. A. & Baldo, B. A. Mu-Opioid Stimulation in Rat Prefrontal Cortex Engages Hypothalamic Orexin / Hypocretin-Containing Neurons , and Reveals Dissociable Roles of Nucleus Accumbens and Hypothalamus in Cortically Driven Feeding. *The Journal of Neuroscience* **33**, 18540–18552 (2013).

12. Reppucci, C. J. & Petrovich, G. D. Organization of connections between the amygdala, medial prefrontal cortex, and lateral hypothalamus: a single and double retrograde tracing study in rats. *Brain Struct Funct* **221**, 2937–2962 (2016).

13. Stuber, G. D. & Wise, R. A. Lateral hypothalamic circuits for feeding and reward. *Nat Neurosci* **19**, 198–205 (2016).

14. Bonnavion, P., Mickelsen, L. E., Fujita, A., de Lecea, L. & Jackson, A. C. Hubs and spokes of the lateral hypothalamus: cell types, circuits and behaviour. *Journal of Physiology* **594**, 6443–6462 (2016).

15. Rossi, M. A. Control of energy homeostasis by the lateral hypothalamic area. *Trends in Neurosciences* Preprint at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tins.2023.05.010 (2023).

1177   16.   Berthoud, H. R. & Münzberg, H. The lateral hypothalamus as integrator of metabolic and
1178   environmental needs: From electrical self-stimulation to opto-genetics. *Physiol Behav* **104**, 29–39
1179   (2011).

1180   17.   Stuber, G. D. Neurocircuits for motivation. *Science (1979)* (2023).

1181   18.   Mickelsen, L. E. *et al.* Single-cell transcriptomic analysis of the lateral hypothalamic area reveals
1182   molecularly distinct populations of inhibitory and excitatory neurons. *Nat Neurosci* **22**, 642–656
1183   (2019).

1184   19.   Barbano, M. F., Wang, H.-L., Morales, M. & Wise, R. A. Feeding and Reward Are Differentially
1185   Induced by Activating GABAergic Lateral Hypothalamic Projections to VTA. *The Journal of*
1186   *Neuroscience* **36**, 2975–2985 (2016).

1187   20.   Padilla-Coreano, N. *et al.* Cortical ensembles orchestrate social competition through hypothalamic
1188   outputs. *Nature* **603**, 667–671 (2022).

1189   21.   Clarke, R. E. *et al.* Identification of a Stress-Sensitive Anorexigenic Neurocircuit From Medial
1190   Prefrontal Cortex to Lateral Hypothalamus. *Biol Psychiatry* **93**, 309–321 (2023).

1191   22.   Benchenane, K., Tiesinga, P. H. & Battaglia, F. P. Oscillations in the prefrontal cortex: A gateway to
1192   memory and attention. *Current Opinion in Neurobiology* vol. 21 475–485 Preprint at
1193   https://doi.org/10.1016/j.conb.2011.01.004 (2011).

1194   23.   Yau, Y. H. C. & Potenza, M. N. Stress and eating behaviors. *Minerva Endocrinol* **38**, 255–267
1195   (2013).

1196   24.   Razzoli, M., Sanghez, V. & Bartolomucci, A. Chronic Subordination Stress Induces Hyperphagia and
1197   Disrupts Eating Behavior in Mice Modeling Binge-Eating-Like Disorder. *Front Nutr* **1**, (2015).

1198   25.   Linders, L. E. *et al.* Studying Synaptic Connectivity and Strength with Optogenetics and Patch-
1199   Clamp Electrophysiology. *International Journal of Molecular Sciences* vol. 23 Preprint at
1200   https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms231911612 (2022).

1201   26.   Petreanu, L., Huber, D., Sobczyk, A. & Svoboda, K. Channelrhodopsin-2-assisted circuit mapping of
1202   long-range callosal projections. *Nat Neurosci* **10**, 663–668 (2007).

1203   27.   Kakava-Georgiadou, N. *et al.* An intersectional approach to target neural circuits with cell- and
1204   projection-type specificity: Validation in the mesolimbic dopamine system. *Front Mol Neurosci*
1205   (2019) doi:10.3389/fnmol.2019.00049.

1206   28.   Petreanu, L., Mao, T., Sternson, S. M. & Svoboda, K. The subcellular organization of neocortical
1207   excitatory connections. *Nature* **457**, 1142–1145 (2009).

1208   29.   DeNardo, L. A. *et al.* Temporal evolution of cortical ensembles promoting remote memory
1209   retrieval. *Nat Neurosci* **22**, 460–469 (2019).

1210   30.   Koutlas, I. *et al.* Characterizing and TRAPing a Social Stress-Activated Neuronal Ensemble in the
1211   Ventral Tegmental Area. *Front Behav Neurosci* **16**, (2022).

31. Biro, L. *et al.* Task division within the prefrontal cortex: Distinct neuron populations selectively
control different aspects of aggressive behavior via the hypothalamus. *Journal of Neuroscience*
38, 4065–4075 (2018).

32. Rossi, M. A. *et al.* Transcriptional and functional divergence in lateral hypothalamic glutamate
neurons projecting to the lateral habenula and ventral tegmental area. *Neuron* (2021)
doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2021.09.020.

33. Stamatakis, A. M. *et al.* Lateral Hypothalamic Area Glutamatergic Neurons and Their Projections
to the Lateral Habenula Regulate Feeding and Reward. *Journal of Neuroscience* **36**, 302–311
(2016).

34. Herman, J. P., Tasker, J. G., Ziegler, D. R. & Cullinan, W. E. Local circuit regulation of
paraventricular nucleus stress integration. *Pharmacol Biochem Behav* **71**, 457–468 (2002).

35. Chen, L. *et al.* Glutamatergic lateral hypothalamus promotes defensive behaviors.
Neuropharmacology **178**, (2020).

36. Berrios, J. *et al.* Food cue regulation of AGRP hunger neurons guides learning. *Nature* **595**, 695–
700 (2021).

37. Nieh, E. H. *et al.* Inhibitory Input from the Lateral Hypothalamus to the Ventral Tegmental Area
Disinhibits Dopamine Neurons and Promotes Behavioral Activation. *Neuron* **90**, 1286–1298
(2016).

38. Nieh, E. H. *et al.* Decoding neural circuits that control compulsive sucrose seeking. *Cell* **160**, 528–
541 (2015).

39. Zingg, B. *et al.* AAV-Mediated Anterograde Transsynaptic Tagging: Mapping Corticocollicular
Input-Defined Neural Pathways for Defense Behaviors. *Neuron* **93**, 33–47 (2017).

40. Dallman, M. F. Stress-induced obesity and the emotional nervous system. *Trends in Endocrinology
and Metabolism* **21**, 159–165 (2010).

41. Chen, C. *et al.* The dynamic state of a prefrontal–hypothalamic–midbrain circuit commands
behavioral transitions. *Nat Neurosci* (2024) doi:10.1038/s41593-024-01598-3.

42. Noritake, A., Ninomiya, T., Kobayashi, K. & Isoda, M. Chemogenetic dissection of a prefrontal-
hypothalamic circuit for socially subjective reward valuation in macaques. *Nat Commun* **14**,
(2023).

43. Rossi, M. A. *et al.* Obesity remodels activity and transcriptional state of a lateral hypothalamic
brake on feeding. *Science (1979)* **364**, 1271–1274 (2019).

44. Sternson, S. M. & Eiselt, A. K. Three Pillars for the Neural Control of Appetite. *Annual Review of
Physiology* vol. 79 401–423 Preprint at https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-physiol-021115-104948
(2017).

45. Zupančič, M. *et al.* Brain-wide mapping of efferent projections of glutamatergic (Onecut3 [+])
neurons in the lateral mouse hypothalamus. *Acta Physiologica* **238**, (2023).

46. Vong, L. *et al.* Leptin Action on GABAergic Neurons Prevents Obesity and Reduces Inhibitory Tone
to POMC Neurons. *Neuron* **71**, 142–154 (2011).

47. Voigts, J., Siegle, J. H., Pritchett, D. L. & Moore, C. I. The flexDrive: an ultra-light implant for optical
control and highly parallel chronic recording of neuronal ensembles in freely moving mice. *Front*
Syst Neurosci **7**, (2013).

48. Siegle, J. H. *et al.* Open Ephys: an open-source, plugin-based platform for multichannel
electrophysiology. *J Neural Eng* **14**, 045003 (2017).

49. Ludwig, K. A. *et al.* Using a Common Average Reference to Improve Cortical Neuron Recordings
From Microelectrode Arrays. *J Neurophysiol* **101**, 1679–1689 (2009).

50. Kvitsiani, D. *et al.* Distinct behavioural and network correlates of two interneuron types in
prefrontal cortex. *Nature* **498**, 363–366 (2013).

51. Schmitzer-Torbert, N., Jackson, J., Henze, D., Harris, K. & Redish, A. D. Quantitative measures of
cluster quality for use in extracellular recordings. *Neuroscience* **131**, 1–11 (2005).

52. Terra, H. *et al.* Prefrontal Cortical Projection Neurons Targeting Dorsomedial Striatum Control
Behavioral Inhibition. *Current Biology* **30**, 4188-4200.e5 (2020).

53. Burgos-Robles, A. *et al.* Amygdala inputs to prefrontal cortex guide behavior amid conflicting cues
of reward and punishment. *Nat Neurosci* **20**, 824–835 (2017).

1265

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6