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

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Abstract

Stress can drive overconsumption of high-fat foods. The medial prefrontal cortex (mPFC) is implicated in such stress-eating, but the underlying circuit mechanisms remain unclear. Here we show that mPFC projections to the lateral hypothalamus (LHA) are required for stress-induced fat intake in male mice. We find that mPFC-LHA stimulation in sated states increases fat intake. Social stress acutely engages mPFC-LHA neurons, and inhibiting this pathway selectively prevents stress-driven excess fat intake. Circuit mapping shows that mPFC neurons innervate GABAergic and glutamatergic LHA (LHA_{VGLUT2}) neurons, but that social stress preferentially engages mPFC-LHA_{VGLUT2} neurons and causes plasticity at mPFC-LHA_{VGLUT2} synapses. Specifically, stress weakens mPFC synapses onto LHA_{VGLUT2} neurons that curtail food intake, while strengthening mPFC synapses onto midbrain-projecting LHA_{VGLUT2} neurons linked to stress-eating. We show that LHA_{VGLUT2} neurons are required downstream mPFC targets for transforming stress into heightened fat intake. Overall, we identify the mPFC-LHA as a multi-branched network, indispensable for stress-eating.

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 ventral tegmental area (VTA) in 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], although there are also glutamatergic LHA neuronal subtypes, including those that project to the VTA, that can promote food intake[3]. Furthermore, certain neuropeptidergic subsets of glutamatergic LHA neurons (e.g. orexin, MCH), as well as GABAergic LHA neurons (LHA_{VGAT} cells) can also 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, by activating LHA neuronal sets linked to promoting food intake, and/or by inhibiting neuronal sets linked to curtailing feeding, to causally drive excessive palatable food intake. Here we show, in mice, that optogenetic stimulation of the mPFC-LHA pathway is capable of driving intake of fat over chow.

We use *in vivo* electrophysiology and fiber photometry to demonstrate that mPFC cells

projecting to the LHA are directly sensitive to social stress and are engaged during fat intake.

We demonstrate that mPFC-LHA pathway activity, while not important for regular feeding,

becomes indispensable for the hyperphagia occurring after social stress. We investigated the

downstream targets of mPFC, by combining patch clamp and optogenetics, showing that mPFC

cells make direct synapses onto multiple LHA cellular subtypes. In the aftermath of stress, when

the drive for food intake is increased, we observe weakening of mPFC glutamatergic synapses

onto LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ cell types linked to reducing food intake but strengthening of mPFC inputs onto

LHA$_{VGLUT2}$-VTA cells, which we previously implicated in mediating stress-driven binge responses[3].

Using *in vivo* optogenetics we show that these divergent stress-driven circuit modifications

increase the efficacy with which the mPFC-LHA network can persistently drive fat intake. Finally,

we use circuit and neuronal ensemble-based approaches to identify that LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ neurons,

downstream of the mPFC, are indispensable integrators of stress information and subsequent

hyperphagia. Overall, we identify the mPFC as a direct regulator of multiple LHA feeding

networks, with a critical role of this network in stress-driven excess intake of palatable fat.

Results

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

We first assessed whether the mPFC-LHA pathway is 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, with lower frequency stimulation able to drive distinct

behaviors[19,22]. Therefore, we tested whether low frequency stimulation of the mPFC-LHA

pathway can increase 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;
Suppl Fig. 1B). Between the two choices, this increased intake was specific to fat, as it did not
occur for chow (Suppl Fig. 1C).

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. 1D). Furthermore, we observed that the effect of pathway stimulation on fat
consumption 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 had typically waned, as seen in the control groups and in the 1Hz stimulation
conditions (Fig. 1E). Consequently, 5Hz stimulation resulted in overall more feeding bouts for
fat, but not chow (Fig. 1F; Suppl. Fig. 1E). 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. 1F), nor did they stem from any direct
alterations of emotional valence states, as assessed with a real-time place
preference/avoidance assay (Suppl. Fig. 1G). Overall, these data indicate that the mPFC-LHA
pathway is able, at least in the lower frequency domain, to drive the continued intake of
palatable fat.

mPFC cells projecting to LHA modulate their firing in response to social stress
Stressful experiences can drive excessive food intake (i.e. hyperphagia)[3,23], ultimately causing
weight gain[23]. 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. We and others have previously shown that
hours to days after such social stress there is an increased intake of high palatable foods such as
fat[3,23].

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. 2A-
B). 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 were not affected or showed increased
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. 2C-D). 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 sensory stress, were
modulated in the same direction during physical exposure (Suppl. Fig. 2E-H). Aside from
evaluating opto-tagged mPFC neurons with confirmed projections to the LHA, we also evaluated
putative pyramidal mPFC neurons that were not opto-tagged. Such neurons responded with
excitations or inhibitions to social stress (Suppl. Fig. 2I-J), although they were less often
modulated by stress than the mPFC-LHA population (Suppl. Fig. 2I). Overall, these data indicate
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 known hyperphagic properties [3,23].

mPFC-LHA pathway activity is indispensable for stress-driven excess fat intake

We showed that activity of the mPFC-LHA pathway is modulated by a social stressor. Next, we

asked whether activity in this pathway is necessary for stress-driven increases in food intake. To

this end 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 (or a control fluorophore) in the mPFC (Fig. 3A-B).

We confirmed that this indeed resulted in chemogenetic control over LHA-projecting mPFC

cells. In brain slices we patch-clamped such mPFC neurons and found that bath administration

of DREADD agonist CNO resulted in strong hyperpolarization of the neurons (Suppl. Fig. 3A).

We then tested whether chemogenetic inhibition of the pathway would alter regular or stress-

driven feeding behavior. We again placed animals in the 2-choice model (as in Fig. 1C) during a

baseline session. Then we exposed the mice to either two days of social stress (which we

previously showed to increase fat intake[3]) or to control exposure. The next day we systemically

administered CNO to the animals, and 45 minutes later reintroduced them to the 2-choice

model (Fig. 3C). Mice with control mCherry vectors in the mPFC-LHA pathway exhibited clear

stress-driven increased intake compared to their baseline. In mice with hM4Di in their mPFC-

LHA pathway, we observed that inhibiting the pathway had no effect on food intake for non-

stressed mice. Instead, in stressed-mice it completely counteracted the amount of

overconsumption that occurred after stress (Fig. 3C-D, Suppl. Fig. 3B). The effects of mPFC-LHA

pathway inhibition were not due to actions on locomotor behavior or altered anxiety (Suppl. Fig.

3C-D). No differences were observed for chow intake (Fig. 3D). Overall, this suggests that mPFC-

LHA pathway activity is not required for regular food intake, but becomes indispensable for

regulating the excess food intake after stress.

mPFC neurons projecting to LHA respond to food intake

We next investigated whether the mPFC-LHA pathway would be responsive to food intake, and

stress-modulations thereof. We investigated the mPFC-LHA pathway in this case by measuring

population-level calcium responses using fiber photometry. We stereotactically injected Cav2-

Cre in the LHA, injected an AAV for Cre-dependent expression of calcium indicator GCaMP8s in

the mPFC, and placed a fiber for photometric measurements above it (Fig. 3E; Suppl. Fig. 3G).

We first validated that we could measure from this pathway. Our in vivo electrophysiology data

had shown that social stress is a modulating experience for this pathway, resulting at the single

cell level at either excitation or inhibition in a considerable subset of cells (Fig. 2E-F). When we

exposed mice to the social aggression of a CD1 mouse, we observed a biphasic calcium response

of the mPFC-LHA at population level to this stimulus, with a peak, and a subsequent dip in

calcium responses (Fig. 3F-G; Suppl. Fig. 3H). This confirms that with fiber photometric

measurements we can pick up relevant dynamics in this pathway.

We then evaluated the response of the mPFC-LHA pathway to food intake. For that we placed

animals in the 2-choice task with access to fat and chow. We observed that when mice ate, and

particularly when they ate fat, there were pronounced dips in calcium signals recorded from

mPFC neurons projecting to LHA (Suppl. Fig 3I). These were time-locked to the onset of food

contact and waned after disengagement from the food source (Suppl. Fig. 3I). We then

evaluated whether such responses, measured from mPFC somata, would be altered by prior

stress. We exposed the mice again to a two-day social stress paradigm (or to control). We then

recorded the day after, where normally there would be an increased food intake (Fig. 3D).

However, we observed the same type of feeding-related dip responses in the pathway in control

and in stressed mice (Fig. 3H-J). Hence, although the mPFC-LHA pathway is modulated during

both stress and during feeding responses, and stress alters feeding responses, we did not

observe signs of stress-driven plasticity in LHA-projecting mPFC soma reactivity during stress-

driven hyperphagia. We next investigated whether stress-driven plasticity would instead occur

at downstream mPFC synapses onto LHA neurons.

mPFC neurons make monosynaptic connections to multiple types of LHA neurons.

Our findings demonstrate that the mPFC neurons projecting to the LHA respond to social stress

and are capable of altering food intake, respond to food intake, and subsequently are necessary

for stress-driven over consumption of fat. However, no changes were observed in somatic

population activity of mPFC-LHA cells after stress while interacting with palatable food. This led

us to hypothesize that plasticity of downstream communication with different populations in

the LHA might underlie alterations in fat intake. 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

distinct subsets of LHA glutamatergic (VGLUT2+) neurons, but also that most LHA_{VGLUT2} neurons

do not belong to those specific subsets[18]. We reasoned that, despite further heterogeneity within

LHA_{VGAT}, LHA_{VGLUT2}, 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[24,25]. 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. 4A-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. 4A-B). Instead to

target LHA_{OREX} or LHA_{MCH} neurons we injected C57B6J 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-TdTomato)[26] (Fig. 4A-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. 4A-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. 4D). The four distinct LHA populations also differed
from each other in other biophysical properties further corroborating that different LHA
populations were sampled from (Suppl. Fig. 4E-I). We also established that both LHA$_{VGAT}$ and
LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ neurons were able to follow protracted optogenetic stimulation of mPFC inputs at
least for 1 and 5 Hz, whereas for 10 Hz fidelity of induced postsynaptic potentials remained
higher onto LHA glutamatergic neurons (Suppl. Fig. 4J).

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. 4C). We then repeated these experiments
in the presence of a pharmacological cocktail of tetrodotoxin (TTX) and 4-aminopyridine (4-AP)
in the external medium[24,27] and confirmed that the high extent of connectivity of mPFC inputs
with all LHA subtypes was due to direct monosynaptic connections (Fig. 4D). Together these
data indicate that there is a strong monosynaptic projection from the mPFC cells to all four LHA
subpopulations.

Stress selectively affects mPFC synaptic contacts onto LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ neuronal populations via
presynaptic processes.

After social stress there is an increased drive for the intake of palatable food sources rich in
sugar and fat[3,23], which ultimately results in excess body weight if maintained over weeks[23]. In
the fiber photometric experiment, we observed that at the level of mPFC cell bodies the two-
day stress model did not affect response magnitudes. However, it remains possible that
downstream, at the synaptic level, changes occurred due to stress. We therefore next asked if,
at the time of stress-driven hyperphagia, mPFC synaptic strength onto distinct LHA neuronal
populations would be altered. To address this, we evaluated the effects of stress on 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. 4A-B; Suppl. Fig. 5A-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]

(Fig. 3D) we made brain slices and assessed synaptic properties at mPFC synapses onto the four

broad classes of LHA neuronal populations (Suppl. Fig. 5A-C).

Interestingly, we observed that specifically at the mPFC synapses onto LHA_{VGLUT2} neurons there

was on average a stress-induced decrease in maximally optogenetically-evoked EPSC

magnitudes (Fig. 5A; Suppl. Fig. 5C). This suggests a weakening of glutamatergic mPFC synapses

onto many 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[24]. 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. 5B; Suppl. Fig. 5D). 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. 5E). Nor did we observe changes due to stress in

terms of the excitability of the LHA cells or in basic membrane properties (Suppl. Fig. 5F-G).

These data suggest that social stress alters mPFC glutamatergic synapses onto LHA_{VGLUT2}

neurons. We next asked whether another stressor would similarly be able to induce these

effects. For another stress experience of a different modality, we exposed mice to restraint

stress (Suppl. Fig. 6A), and we observed that this also subsequently increased intake of fat

(Suppl. Fig. 6B). Similarly to social defeat stress, restraint stress also reduced the magnitude of

mPFC synaptic responses onto LHA_{VLUT2} neurons (Suppl. Fig. 6C-D), and it also increased the PPR

at these synapses, indicating a similar mechanism of reduced release probability between the

different types of stressors (Suppl. Fig. 6E). Overall, these data suggest that after stressful

experiences, which can drive binge intake of fat, there is on average a weakening of mPFC

glutamatergic synapses onto the global population of LHA_{VGLUT2} neurons, which on average

reduces food intake upon activation[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[28]. For instance, stimulating

LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ projections to the lateral habenula (LHb) suppresses food intake[29]. Similarly

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

ventricle (i.e. peri-paraventricular nucleus, or peri-PVN region[30]) is linked to aversive processes[31]

and reduced food intake[32]. Instead LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ projections to the ventral tegmental area (VTA) do

not alter food intake under naïve conditions[3,33,34], 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 assessed

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

neurons. For this we used a transsynaptic tracing strategy (Suppl. Fig. 6F) in which we injected

AAV1-Cre in the mPFC, to cause a transsynaptic jump to downstream neurons[35]. 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. 6F-G). We indeed observed

anterograde terminals in the regions of interest like the VTA, the LHb and the peri-PVN (Suppl.

Fig. 6H).

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. 5C-D). We then

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

brain slices the day after and patched from retrogradely traced LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ neurons, assessing

their mPFC input (Fig. 5C). We observed that mPFC synapses onto LHA$_{VGLUT2}$-Peri-PVN neurons

exhibited higher PPR upon stress (Fig. 5E), in accordance with the general effect of stress on the

LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ neurons (Fig. 5B). We confirmed, via in vivo optogenetic stimulation of the LHA$_{VGLUT2}$

projection to the peri-PVN, that this pathway indeed reduces food intake upon activity (Suppl.

Fig.6K-M) as previously suggested[32]. In contrast to the effect of stress on mPFC-LHA$_{VGLUT2}$-Peri-

PVN synapses, we instead did not observe PPR changes at mPFC synapses onto LHA$_{VGLUT2}$-LHb

neurons after stress (Fig. 5F). Interestingly, we observed that 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 (Fig. 5G). In accordance, we had

previously shown that stress-driven strengthening of LHA glutamatergic synapses onto VTA

dopamine neurons is linked to stress-driven fat intake[3].

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

synapses onto distinct LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ populations. On the one hand weakening excitatory mPFC

synapses onto LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ populations with a role in braking food intake[32], whereas on the other

hand strengthening excitatory PFC synapses onto LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ populations with a role in promoting

food intake under stress[3].

After social stress mPFC-LHA activity is more primed to drive feeding.

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.

To test this, we again optogenetically probed the mPFC-LHA pathway, by stereotactically

injecting C57B6J mice with an optogenetic construct (rAAV5-Syn-CoChR-GFP) and implanting

optic fibers bilaterally above the LHA (Fig. 6A-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. 6A). We observed that even though mice that had previously

experienced stress already consumed more fat than control mice, optogenetic stimulation could

drive their intake of palatable food even further, making these mice the largest consumers of fat

(Fig. 6C), in the absence of effects on chow (Suppl. Fig. 7A).

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 optogenetic 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. 6D-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. 6D-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 2-choice session in naïve mice (Fig. 1E), we found that 5Hz mPFC-LHA stimulation was not effective in the early "Binge Phase" of the session (Fig. 6F). Instead in the subsequent "Post Binge" phase 5Hz stimulation particularly drove stressed mice more potently towards the fat, when they would normally be in more sated conditions (Fig. 6F). 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. 6G). Overall, these data reveal that after stress mPFC-LHA network activity is primed more towards an ability to drive fat intake.

A role for glutamatergic LHA neurons in transferring effects of stress into binge of fat

We further sought to investigate the importance of LHA neuronal subsets downstream of the mPFC in mediating stress-driven feeding. Glutamatergic LHA neurons are an interesting candidate. It is on this subset that we observed stress-driven plasticity of mPFC synaptic inputs (Fig. 5A-B). Moreover, LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ neurons show strong increased calcium reactivity during social stress[3]. We first asked whether inhibiting the activity of LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ neurons during social stress would prevent subsequent binge eating. To test this, we injected a Cre-dependent inhibitory DREADD (AAV-DIO-hM4Di-mcherry) in the LHA of Vglut2-Cre mice (Fig. 7A-B). We subsequently subjected the mice to either the two-day social stress paradigm or its control. Prior to such stress (or control) events we administered either vehicle or CNO. Chow intake in general was minimal and unaffected (not shown). Importantly however, we observed that inhibition of

LHA_{VGLUT2} neurons during social stress episodes fully blocked subsequent binge eating of fat (Fig.

7C). Indicating that these neurons are important for the induction of stress-eating.

We next evaluated whether activity of LHA_{VGLUT2} neurons could also contribute to the effects of

optogenetic stimulation of the mPFC-LHA pathway on food intake. In Vglut2-Cre mice, we

injected AAV-hSyn-CoChR-GFP in the mPFC and placed optic fibers in the LHA for pathway

stimulation. We also injected an AAV-DIO-hM4Di-mCherry in the LHA to be able to

chemogenetically inhibit LHA_{VGLUT2} neurons (Suppl. Fig. 7B-C). We then assessed food intake

during a baseline period in the mice in the 2-choice paradigm (Fig. 1C). After baseline periods

we, in randomized order, re-exposed mice to the 2-choice paradigm during one of four

conditions: optogenetic stimulation of the mPFC-LHA pathway or not, with chemogenetic

inhibition of LHA_{VGLUT2} neurons (CNO administration prior to the test) or not. When we did not

inhibit LHA_{VGLUT2} neurons we again observed an increase in fat intake in response to pathway

stimulation (Suppl. Fig. 7D). Chemogenetic inhibition of LHA_{VGLUT2} neurons (without stimulation)

also gave a trend towards increased food intake. If the sole role of LHA_{VGLUT2} neurons would be

to inhibit food intake, then mPFC-LHA stimulation without LHA_{VGLUT2} contributions (i.e. mainly

then favoring mPFC-innervated LHA_{VGAT} recruitment) should make mPFC-LHA stimulation even

more potent in driving food intake. Instead, we observed that optogenetic stimulation of the

mPFC-LHA pathway during LHA_{VGLUT2} inhibition did not significantly further increase the intake

of fat beyond LHA_{VGLUT2} inhibition itself (Suppl. Fig. 7D). This did not appear to be due to a time-

constraint limit on feeding, as overnight food deprived animals still consumed considerably

more as a control (Suppl. Fig. 7D).

Together these results suggest that activity of LHA_{VGLUT2} neurons during stress is required for

subsequent excess food intake, and it also suggests that despite many LHA_{VGLUT2} neurons

curtailing food intake, the activity of at least some LHA_{VGLUT2} subsets also participates in the

mPFC-LHA pathway ability to drive food intake upon stimulation.

Stress-sensitive mPFC neurons project to glutamatergic LHA neurons and can drive increased

intake of fat

We then also employed another strategy to try to parse out the most relevant branches in the

mPFC-LHA network involved in stress-driven food intake. For this we used an activity-dependent

genetic labeling approach and investigated the neurons in the mPFC-LHA axis sensitive to stress,

to determine their role in feeding. We expressed an optogenetic construct in those mPFC cells

that were reactive during the social stress (as opposed to all mPFC neurons). For this 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[36]. We previously

showed that this strategy can be leveraged to capture social stress-reactive neuronal

ensembles[37]. 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 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. 7D-F;

Suppl. Fig. 7B-C). 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[21,38] (Suppl. Fig. 7E). 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. 7D), whereas the time window in which 4OHT allows Cre to travel to the

nucleus for recombination is only a matter of hours[36,37]. Finally, we also took along a control

ensemble of exposure to a novel mouse rather than stressful altercations (Fig. 7D). In both the

social stress TRAP experiment and the novel mouse TRAP experiment we observed expression

of CoChR in mPFC ensembles (Fig. 7E; Suppl. Fig. 7F). 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$_{\text{NOVEL MOUSE}}$ ensemble caused relatively little connectivity with the LHA, though there

was connectivity with LHA$_{\text{MCH}}$ neurons (Fig. 7G-H). In contrast, optogenetically stimulating the

mPFC$_{\text{SOCIAL STRESS}}$ ensemble resulted in synaptic responses in LHA$_{\text{VGLUT2}}$, LHA$_{\text{MCH}}$, and LHA$_{\text{OREX}}$

neuronal subsets (Fig. 7G-H). Instead, LHA$_{\text{VGAT}}$ neurons received almost no input (Fig. 7G-H).

These results suggest that mPFC neurons that are modulated within the time window of several

hours during social stress experiences send preferential projections to glutamatergic neurons

(including its peptidergic subtypes[18]) over GABAergic LHA neurons. Given that we had shown

the importance of glutamatergic LHA neurons in mediating the effects of stress on food intake

(Fig. 7C), we next asked whether optogenetically stimulating mPFC$_{\text{SOCIAL STRESS}}$ projections to

these glutamatergic LHA neurons would modulate food intake. We used TRAP2 mice in which

we again expressed an optogenetic construct (AAV-DIO-CoChR-GFP) in the mPFC, placed an

optic fiber in the LHA, and triggered recombination of the opsin in the mPFC either by pairing

the social stress experiences or the novel mouse experiences with 4OH-tamoxifen injections

(Fig. 7I-J). After recovery we optogenetically stimulated these pathways with 5 Hz in the context

of the 2-choice food assay. We observed that optogenetic stimulation of the mPFC$_{\text{SOCIAL STRESS}}$ to

LHA pathway resulted in increased fat intake (Fig. 7K), without altering chow intake (Suppl. Fig.

7G). Together these results suggest that glutamatergic LHA neurons are important downstream

targets of the mPFC for the effects of stress on increased food intake.

Discussion

Uncovering the neurobiological substrate for stress-driven overconsumption of palatable foods is an important topic, also in view of the contributions of such behavior to eating disorders like Binge Eating Disorder and Bulimia Nervosa, and to obesity[2,39]. 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 stress-driven alterations of the mPFC-LHA network contribute to overconsumption of palatable fat. Here we discuss multiple facets of these findings.

<u>The mPFC-LHA pathway has a conditional role in food intake driving excess intake</u>
Our pathway stimulation and inhibition experiments reveal that the mPFC-LHA network plays a conditional role in food intake. Firstly, the role of the pathway in feeding was only unmasked by stress. Chemogenetic inhibition of the pathway under normal (non-stressed) conditions did not alter food intake, in accordance with an earlier study[21]. Instead, we show that after a social stress experience that drives excess intake of specifically palatable food[3], inhibition of the pathway abolished not all feeding, but rather only the amount of excess fat intake due to stress. This suggests that the pathway is not generally necessary for feeding behavior, but its importance emerges under certain conditions like a stressed state.

Secondly, mPFC-LHA pathway stimulation increased the intake of palatable fat, without affecting concurrently available chow. This indicates that the circuit manipulations caused a directed increased drive towards palatable foods, rather than an indiscriminate urge to chew. Although not explicitly tested here, we consider it likely that the stress-driven effects mediated by the mPFC-LHA network results in an increased preference for palatable food in general, rather than a nutrient-specific preference for fat. In support of this, moderate social stress causes preference for palatable food in general, including both fat and sucrose[3]. Thirdly, our data suggest that internal states may contribute to the role of mPFC-LHA pathway in food intake. We observed that the optogenetic stimulation of the pathway did not cause altered food intake at the start of feeding sessions, when the drive for food intake was still high. Instead, it

was only at later timepoints, when normally food interest would have waned, that pathway
stimulation caused continued food interest and time spent eating. This finding also indicates
that the role of mPFC-LHA networks will likely depend on whether or not animals are food
deprived. In our pathway manipulation experiments animals were ad libitum-fed, perhaps
allowing disinterest in food to occur more quickly under normal circumstances, and revealing a
role for mPFC-LHA network activity more readily.

Our fiber photometric data show that the mPFC-LHA pathway shows a transient decrease in
activity during food intake, which reverses upon the end of contact with the food, in accordance
with a previous study[21]. It is of note that increasing mPFC-LHA pathway activity, at least at
certain frequencies, drives food intake, whereas mPFC-LHA pathway activity decreases during
the actual food intake. It is interesting to compare this with systems with a link to feeding. For
instance, arcuate nucleus AgRP neurons are potent drivers of food intake when stimulated yet
also show dips in their activity during food intake. This may reflect an encoded energy need
signal of these neurons that is then attenuated during caloric intake[40–43]. Somewhat
analogously, mPFC-LHA pathway activity may reflect not a generic energy deficit signal, but
more a conditional one, promoting further intake of palatable energy-dense foods, emerging
under specific circumstances, such as after stress. Another interpretation is that mPFC-LHA
pathway activity reflects an engagement signal to continue to seek out palatable food instead of
moving on to other activities. Actual consumption of the food may then require a brief decrease
in such activity to allow for consumption instead of seeking/approach behaviors. Recent
evidence does indeed suggest that cortical inputs to the LHA participate in the encoding of
behavioral transitions, including those linked to feeding[44].

Overall, these data suggest that the mPFC-LHA network activity, while not indispensable for
regular food intake, does become critically important for excessive intake during stress-driven
hyperphagic states. This may be due to pathway activity indicating further energy needs,
overriding satiety states and/or by causing continued food engagement to facilitate excessive
intake in short periods of time.

<u>The mPFC-LHA is not a singular pathway, but a multi-branched network</u>

Rather than a singular pathway, we now show that the mPFC-LHA network is composed of

multiple branches, that can have diverse functions. mPFC neurons innervate multiple LHA

subpopulations based on LHA cell type. We observed strong connectivity with LHA$_{VGAT}$ and

LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ neurons, and with LHA$_{OREX}$ and LHA$_{MCH}$ neurons, which according to transcriptomic

analyses represent glutamatergic VGLUT2-positive subsets[18]. In the current study we also

identified that mPFC-innervated glutamatergic LHA neurons project to multiple downstream

targets, including VTA, LHA and Peri-PVN. Within the current study we did not further

investigate distinct projection targets of mPFC-innervated LHA GABAergic or specific

neuropeptidergic populations, but it is likely that these too will have multiple distinct targets[15].

Global mPFC-LHA pathway manipulation or measurement studies therefore need to consider

that the effects observed represent the net total of multiple sub-pathways, which likely can be

in part functionally distinct from each other.

To what extent are these branches within the mPFC-LHA network anatomically distinct from

each other, as opposed to representing collaterals? At the LHA level prior evidence does suggest

that for instance LHA glutamatergic neurons with distinct output targets are at least distinct

subsets. Such as LHA$_{VGLUT2}$-VTA and LHA$_{VGLUT2}$-LHb neurons, which are anatomically and

molecularly distinct sets[28]. At the level of the mPFC, it is an open question to which extent

different or the same mPFC neurons innervate distinct LHA neuronal subsets (e.g. LHA$_{GABA}$

versus LHA$_{GLUTAMATE}$). However, our ensemble-based tagging experiments do indicate that there

is at least not full collateralization. We observed that there are mPFC neurons that when

stimulated do synapse onto glutamatergic but not on GABAergic LHA neurons, or that even

synapse on specific neuropeptidergic populations such as LHA$_{MCH}$ neurons.

Further studies will need to unravel the exact identity of how distinguishable mPFC neurons are

embedded in different anatomical and functional branches within the larger mPFC-LHA

network.

<u>The mPFC projections to LHA and its glutamatergic neurons as a (social) stress integrator</u>

In this study 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, with some excited and some inhibited. Bulk photometric calcium recordings
reflected a biphasic population level response, which on the basis of our in vivo
electrophysiology data we consider to be likely mediated by separate subsets of neurons. There
was a modest enrichment of stress-modulated responses within the mPFC-LHA pathway
compared to non-optotagged mPFC neurons, in accordance with findings that also other mPFC
pathways are stress-sensitive[7]. Social stress is a naturalistic but complex stimulus (e.g. featuring
stress, social interaction, pain, movement). Social interaction in itself can modulate mPFC-
LHA[20,31,42], but it is likely that the stressful aspects of the stimulus are also engaging the
network. Our patch clamp data showed also that restraint stress, which has very different
features from social stress as an experience (e.g. non-social vs social, immobilization vs bursts of
movement), caused increased food intake and similar synaptic alterations at mPFC-LHA$_{VGLUT2}$
synapses as did social stress. Also, a previous studied has shown that the mPFC-LHA pathway is
sensitive to another type of aversive stimulus, namely air puff stimuli[21].

Our in vivo electrophysiology studies show that during stress some neurons exhibit an increase
in activity and others a decrease. Given the multiple type of connections made downstream in
the LHA it is possible that these different stress-induced responses in mPFC neurons correspond
to distinct branches of the mPFC-LHA network. There is evidence to suggest that at least mPFC
neurons projecting to LHA glutamatergic neurons are amongst those that are excited by social
stress. Our previous work showed that glutamatergic LHA neurons themselves show an
immediate strong excitation during social stress[3], and we here show that a high percentage of
these neurons (~80%) receive excitatory input from the mPFC. Furthermore, in the current
study we show that activity in these LHA glutamatergic neurons during social stress is
indispensable for the subsequent hyperphagia. We also demonstrate that optogenetically
stimulating stress-recruited mPFC ensemble projections to glutamatergic LHA subsets can drive
feeding. Overall these findings point to mPFC control over LHA glutamatergic neuronal subsets
as a key substrate in driving stress-driven feeding.

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

After social stress, at a time point where mice would overeat[3], we observed synaptic changes at
mPFC-LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ synapses. On a population-level, patching LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ neurons without knowing
their downstream target, we observed evidence for weaker mPFC glutamatergic input on these
cells, via 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 glutamatergic mPFC
synapses onto those LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ cells projecting to a midline hypothalamic region, which indeed
upon stimulation curtails food intake[45]. Oppositely, we found that glutamatergic mPFC 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[46], 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.

Aside from mPFC-LHA branches that did exhibit stress-driven plasticity, there were also several
that did not (e.g. mPFC synapses onto LHA$_{VGAT}$ neurons). Of note is that even if mPFC synapses
onto LHA$_{VGAT}$ neurons did on average not show stress-driven plasticity, these connections are
still engaged when stimulating the mPFC-LHA pathway, potentially contributing to increasing
food intake. The findings of plasticity in certain branches, should then also be observed in the
context of the network as a whole. We do not claim here that one particular sub-branch is solely
responsible for stress-driven feeding. Rather, stress has multiple actions in the network. mPFC-
LHA branches (conditionally) linked to promoting food intake are either strengthened or
unaffected by the stress experience, whereas branches linked to promoting food intake are
either weakened or unaffected. As a whole, this likely gears the mPFC-LHA network more
towards favoring further intake of palatable food.

One relevant aspect that our study did not address is the extent to which individual animals may

be more prone to exhibiting stress-driven overconsumption of palatable food, and whether this

depends on individual differences in alterations in the mPFC-LHA pathway. Chronic social stress

has known heterogeneous effects between mice on metrics such as willingness to engage in

social interactions and extent of induced anhedonia. Classification systems of (distinct types) of

stress-susceptible and unsusceptible animals[47,48] have been informative in this regard. Future

studies will need to address whether moderate social stress effects on increased palatable food

intake, and/or on related eventual weight gain over time[23] also cluster in distinct behavioral

profiles.

<u>Different types of mPFC-LHA stimulation result in different outcomes regarding food intake</u>

Prior studies showed that chemogenetic (i.e. likely strong and continuous) or high frequency

optogenetic stimulation of the mPFC-LHA pathway reduced intake of chow in mice[21]. Here we

show with our global pathway manipulations that optogenetic stimulation of the mPFC-LHA

network, at least at lower frequencies can increase food intake. We found that continuous

periods of 5 Hz stimulation drove food intake, whereas continuous periods of 1 Hz or 10 Hz

stimulation did not. Interestingly, a previous study reported that 5Hz optogenetic stimulation of

LHA projections to the VTA could more potently drive food intake than either 2.5Hz or 20Hz[19].

The lack of effect on food intake of mPFC-LHA 1 Hz stimulation may have been due to

insufficient engagement of the mPFC-LHA network. Continuous 10 Hz stimulation was

qualitatively distinct from 5 Hz stimulation in terms of its effect on food intake. This could not

be explained by an ineffective stimulation in itself, as animals exhibited more locomotor activity

to the 10 Hz stimulation, which in itself might have contributed to the lack of increased intake of

food as compared to stimulating the pathway with 5Hz. At the mechanistic level, our *ex vivo*

data showed however that over time 10 Hz stimulation of mPFC inputs was less easily followed

by LHA_{VGAT} neurons than by LHA_{VGLUT2} neurons in terms of synaptic transmission fidelity. It is

therefore possible that the lack of a 10 Hz effect was more due to the continuous nature of

delivery rather than the frequency per se. These data together with previous reports, show that

distinct ways of mPFC-LHA stimulation can produce differential effects on feeding behaviors,

possibly by striking a different balance in the sustained engagement of distinct mPFC-LHA

subbranches.

Overall, our work identifies the mPFC-LHA as a multi-branched network, with an important role

in particular for mPFC control over glutamatergic LHA neuronal populations with regards to

integrating information about stress and the subsequent excess in the intake of palatable food

sources such as fat after stress. These findings may ultimately be relevant in the context of

eating disorders in which stress triggers bouts of binge eating behavior.

Methods

Animals

In all experiments naïve adult male mice were used (20-35 g, >6 weeks). C57Bl6J (Jax #664), Vglut2-Cre[49] heterozygous (Jax #28863), VGAT-Cre[49] heterozygous (Jax #016962) and TRAP2 heterozygous[36] (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 local animal welfare body (AWB, or IvD in Dutch) of Utrecht University / University Medical Center Utrecht, 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 Peri-PVN, 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
Peri-PVN (-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). To manipulate the mPFC ensemble-LHA, TRAP2 mice were bilaterally also injected with

rAAV5-Syn-Flex-CoChR-GFP (4.4*10^12 gc/ml; UNC Vector Core, mPFC: +1.8mm anterior to

bregma; 0.90 mm lateral; -2.2 mm ventral from skull under an angle of 10°) and 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

implanted bilaterally in the LHA (-1.2 mm posterior to bregma; 1.85 mm lateral; -4.85 mm

ventral from skull under an angle of 10°). After surgery mice were housed collectively for at

least 6 weeks.

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 LHA, 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 the optogenetic stimulation of the LHA$_{VGLUT2}$-periPVN pathway, the optogenetic procedure

of surgery remained the same, vglut2-cre mice were injected bilaterally with the light-sensitive

Channelrhodopsin variant CoChR (300 nl rAAV5-Syn-Flex-CoChR-GFP 2.2*10^12 gc/ml, UNC

Vector Core) or with the fluorophore for control (300 nl rAAV5-Syn-DIO-GFP 2.2*10^12 gc/ml,

Addgene) in LHA (-1.2 mm posterior to bregma; 1.85 mm lateral; -4.85 mm ventral from skull

under an angle of 10°), and the optic fibers were place above the peri-PVN (-0.8 mm posterior to

bregma; 1.1 mm lateral; -4.85 mm ventral from skull under an angle of 10°).

After surgery Vglut2-cre mice were housed collectively for at least 8 weeks for the PFC-LHA$_{VGLUT2}$

experiments and a minimum of 6 weeks for LHA$_{VGLUT2}$-periPVN.

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 experiments where we optogenetically stimulated mPFC-LHA while having chemogenetic
control over LHA_{VGLUT2} neurons we used VGLUT2-cre mice. The pAAV-hSyn-DIO-hM4D(Gi)-
mCherry DREADD virus (300 nl 4*10^12 gc/ml, Addgene, United States) was injected in the LHA
and to combined with the optogenetic optic fibers were implanted bilaterally in the LHA (-1.2
mm posterior to bregma; 1.85 mm lateral; -4.85 mm ventral from skull under an angle of 10°)
and the light-sensitive Channelrhodopsin variant CoChR (300 nl rAAV5-Syn-CoChR-GFP at a titer
of 3.8*10^12 gc/ml, UNC Vector Core) was injected bilaterally in the mPFC (+1.8mm anterior to
bregma; 0.90 mm lateral; -2.2 mm ventral from skull under an angle of 10°).

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 DV 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.

For in vivo fiber photometry experiments:

For *in vivo* fiber photometry we unilaterally injected a retrograde CAV2-cre virus (2x10^12

gc/ml, 200 nl per site) in the LHA (AP -1.0; ML 1.85; DV -5.40 & AP -1.85; ML 1.9; DV -5.40) and

rAAV-syn-FLEX-jGCaMP8s-WPRE (3*10^12 gc/m, 300 nl) in the PFC (AP+1.8; ML 0.90; DV -2.2) of

C57BL/6 mice. Next, we inserted an optical fiber (ø400 μm, Thorlabs) above the injection site

(DV: -1.9). We fixated the fiber with superbond glue (Sun Medical Co.), and dental cement (Fuji

PLUS-capsules, G.C. corporation). After the surgery, mice were allowed to recover for 4 weeks,

while being socially housed, before the behavioral recordings started to ensure virus expression.

Patch-clamp Electrophysiology

After a minimum of six weeks following surgery, 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

minutes of 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); MgCl2 (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.

Spike fidelity over 10 minutes

Recordings were made in current clamp in a potassium gluconate based internal (see above), cells were clamped at 0pA, except if they were spontaneously firing (-20pA or -30pA); and were opto-stimulated during 10 minutes at 1Hz, 5hz and 10hz in a random order. EPSP was counted if the change of amplitude was equal or more than 2mV compared to the overall baseline.

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 $1/1000^{th}$ 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-built 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[50],

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)[51]. 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[52] 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 [53,54] (Average isolation distance of optotagged mPFC-LHA cells=38.9, Minimum=20.3,

Maximum=115.2).

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)[53]. 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 (through-

to-peak). 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[53,55,56]. According to these criteria mPFC-LHA neurons could

be photo-identified in 12 out of 16 mice that had correct placement of the optrode and proper

expression of channelrhodopsin. All broad-spiking neurons that were not positively identified

were categorised as non-identified mPFC neurons. To enhance the quality of comparison

between opto-tagged and non-identified neurons, we only used non-identified neurons for

analysis if in the same mice opto-tagged neurons were present.

***In vivo* fiber photometry recordings**

We used a 2-site photometry system (Doric lenses) to detect calcium and non-calcium

dependent dynamics (GFP and isobestic channel). Two light-emitting diode delivered blue (465

nm, 40 ± 1 µw in the brain) and purple (405 nm, 20 ± 1 µw in the brain) light, which was guided

to the mouse via a mini cube (ilFMC5-G2_IE(400-410)_E(460-490)_F(500-540)_O(580-680)_S)

and optical patch cord (ø400 µm). Emitted light was detected with the mini-cube integrated

photodetectors and transmitted to the console with different reference frequencies (GFP 572

Hz, ISO 209 Hz). The photometry system was controlled by Doric Studio software (version

6.3.2.0), which recorded 243 samples per second (50 times decimated). The relative changes in

light (ΔF/F) were calculated with custom-made Python scripts (version 3.13.5). Code accessible

here: https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.18670225.

First, outliers were removed (>4 std aways from a mean signal of 9 minutes) and data was smoothed (per 100 data points). We calculated the ΔF/F for each trial with -10 to -2 seconds before the onset as a baseline. Next, the session average and peak signals were extracted.

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. The schematics on social stress (Fig. 2D and Suppl. Fig. 2C) were created in BioRender. Meye, F. (2026) https://BioRender.com/mula9s9.

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

978   22 h of the day. The figure 1 panel C schematic of the food choice paradigm was created in
979   BioRender. Meye, F. (2026) https://BioRender.com/ayjpdtm.
980
981

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.
999

1000   *Food intake video analysis*
1001   Videos were taken from the side of the feeding cage with webcams (HD C270, Logitech,
1002   Switzerland) and acquired using the Windows Camera App or Bonsai. Feeding bout analysis was
1003   done manually and blind for the virus type. Data were acquired over different batches which
1004   were analyzed by an independent observer.
1005

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.

1016

1017   *Restraint stress*

1018   This stressor was induced by restraining mice twice a day during 15 minutes each and during

1019   two days. The mice were place individually in a conical Falcon tube (50mL) previously drilled

1020   with thirty holes. Control mice were handled and place back to their home cage after couple

1021   minutes.

1022

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 block of 10 minutes.

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.

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1033   ***In vivo* circuit approaches during behavioral experiments**

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1035   *In vivo optogenetic stimulation experiments*

1036

Optogenetic stimulation of mPFC-LHA 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. Mice had an incubation time of at least 12 weeks
after viral injection for this 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.

1051

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.

1062

Optogenetic stimulation of mPFC-LHA in control versus stressed mice:

Viral incubation time and 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.

1085

Optogenetic stimulation of mPFC$_{SOCIAL\ STRESS}$ ensemble projections to LHA:

Mice were extensively handled and received mock intraperitoneal injections couple days before

to be expose to an acute social stress (20scs) and received tamoxifen i.p injection (25mg/kg)

three hours later. Control mice were placed in new cage with another C57Bl6 mice separated by

a perforated wall and received tamoxifen 3 hours later as well. After a minimum of 6 weeks,

mice were handled and habituated to the food-context, fat and optogenetic cables. After at

least two baseline days in the 2-choice paradigm, mice were tested in this paradigm during one

hour, during which there was 5 Hz stimulation, presented in a pattern of 3 seconds on (5 Hz

stimulation), 1 second off.

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1096 *Optogenetic stimulation of* the LHA_{VGLUT2}-*periPVN pathway experiment in stress-naïve mice.*

1097 The experimental setup is similar to the $mPFC_{SOCIAL\ STRESS}$ ensemble-LHA pathway experiment,

1098 but the mice were only stimulated at 10Hz (alternation of 3 seconds ON, 1 second OFF).

1099

1100 <u>*In vivo chemogenetic inhibition experiments*</u>

1101

Chemogenetic inhibition of mPFC-LHA pathway in control versus stressed mice during food

intake.

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.

1117

Chemogenetic inhibition of LHA_{VGLUT2} neurons during *optogenetic stimulation of mPFC-LHA.*

Mice were extensively handled and habituated to the food-context, fat and optogenetic cables

and mock intraperitoneal injections for at least 2 weeks before the start of the experiment.

Experimental setup is similar as described above, as well as the dose of CNO (5 mg/kg) 45

minutes before being place in the food context, expect that the mice were not exposed to stress

and will be optogenetically stimulated at 5 Hz (alternation ON/OFF every 10 minutes). To ensure

that the food intake measured during this experiment is not due to ceiling effect, on the last day

mice were deprived of food for 21h and re-expose two hours to the 2-choice context.

1126

Chemogenetic inhibition of LHA_{VGLUT2} *neurons during stress.*

Mice were habituated to the food context several days prior to the experiment. Mice then

either experienced (40 seconds; ~5 minutes), on each of two consecutive days, social stress via a

CD1 aggressor, or instead a control experience by co-housing with a novel conspecific. On both

days, 45 minutes prior to the experience, the mice received an i.p. injection of 5mg/kg CNO.

Food intake was monitored the subsequent day during 2 hours.

1133

In vivo fiber photometric recordings during stress and feeding.

Mice were exposed to lard and chow in an operant chamber (ENV-008CT) for 90-minute

sessions. Food contacts were detected via infrared beam breaks (ENV-254-FB) and recorded

using MED Associates software (MED-IV). From these recordings, we extracted total eating

duration and the number of eating bouts. An eating bout was defined as a continuous period of

food contact lasting at least one second, with successive contacts separated by less than one

second considered part of the same bout. Once the mice were habituated to the eating

procedure, we recorded their neural activity photometrically during eating under baseline

conditions. For the post-stress eating recordings, we employed a crossover design in which the

order of conditions was pseudo-randomly determined using RandoMice[57], accounting for signal

strength, fiber efficiency, and initial recording time. During this protocol, mice were subjected to

the two-day social defeat paradigm as described previously. On the day following the defeat

sessions, photometric recordings were performed again while the mice were eating. A recovery

period of two weeks was provided between stress and control sessions. To record mPFC–LHA

activity during social stress, we first conducted a three-minute baseline recording in the

subject's home cage to minimize stress and allow for photobleaching. The subject was then

exposed to a CD1 aggressor mouse in the aggressor's home cage while simultaneous

photometric and video recordings were obtained. The mice were allowed to engage in fighting,

and recordings were terminated after 40 seconds of active fighting. Video recordings were used

to manually score for aggressive behaviors, including slamming, biting, chasing, and aggressive

standing, but not approach behaviors, with one-second temporal precision. The offset of each

fight was defined as the end of the interaction or, when applicable, the landing of the C57BL/6

mouse. Aggressive behaviors occurring less than one second apart were considered part of a

single fighting bout.

1158

1159

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 in vivo experiments, a total of 13 mice were excluded based on histological

assessment. For histology we used the Paxinos & Franklin mouse brain atlas (The Mouse Brain,

in stereotaxic coordinates, 2nd ed, 2001, Academic Press).

1172

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.

1189

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 a confocal microscope.

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1206   *Microscopy*
1207   Slices were imaged using an EPI fluorescence microscope (Axio imager M2, Zeiss) or a confocal
1208   microscope (LSM880, Zeiss).

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Data analysis and statistics

Experimental data were analyzed with Ethovision (V9.0, Noldus, NL), GraphPad (v9.0, Dotmatics,

UK), SPSS (v26, USA), PatchMaster (v2x78.2, HEKA, USA), Python (v3.13.5), Igor Pro-8

(Wavemetrics, USA), FIJI (v2.14) and Matlab (vR2023B/vR2024B, Mathworks, USA).

Experimental sample sizes were predetermined using power calculations (requiring power >0.8).

These power calculations were performed together between the researchers and the local

animal welfare body (AWB Utrecht). These calculations were 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. Behavioral and physiological

experiments were always performed in multiple batches of animals (≥2), ensuring also internal

replicability. Bar 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, Multi-way Repeated-

measures ANOVAs or t-tests 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 Mann-Whitney U or

Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Testing was always performed two-sided with $\alpha=0.05$. Complete

outcome of statistical analysis is shown in Supplementary Data 1.

1228

Data availability statement

1230 All detailed outcomes of statistical test are provided in Supplementary Data 1. Source Data are

1231 provided with this paper. Other data files are available from the corresponding author on

1232 request.

1233

Code availability statement

1235 The location for the codes used for the analyses in the current study have been referenced in

1236 the Methods section of the manuscript.

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Author contributions

LFS performed and analysed all *ex vivo* electrophysiological recordings. KLK performed the fiber photometric recordings, together with LFS. LFS performed and analysed the following behavioral experiments: opto-stimulation of LHA_{VGLUT2}-Peri-PVN, opto-stimulation of mPFC-LHA_{VGLUT2} combining with chemogenetic inhibition, opto-stimulation of mPFC TRAP ensemble and restraint stress exposure. For these experiments LFS was further supported by FJM, WD and DR. RBP performed and analysed all other behavioral experiments, supported by AACB, ASJN and RH. RBP performed and analysed *in vivo* electrophysiological recordings. LFS, RBP, IW-D and MCML performed stereotactic surgeries. FJM designed the study with RBP and LFS. FJM wrote the manuscript with LS, RAHA, RBP and the help of all other authors.

Competing interests statement

The authors declare no competing interests.

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1403   **Figures and Figure legends**

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Figure 1. Frequency-dependent increase 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 subterritories cingulate cortex (Cg1), Prelimbic cortex (PrL) and infralimbic cortex (IL) (top), and optic fiber location in LHA (bottom, white arrows indicate end of optic fibers). 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)** Bar graphs showing fat consumption normalized to intake of the first three baseline days for different stimulation frequencies. Plots show fat intake on baseline day 3, stimulation day and post-stimulation day. For 1Hz: YFP n=19, CoChR n=19, Two-way RM ANOVA, Day-Virus interaction $F_{(2,72)}=1.34$, p=0.18). For 5Hz: YFP n=19, CoChR n=19, Two-way RM ANOVA, Day-Virus interaction, $F_{(2,72)}=3.37$, p=0.04. Opsin-expressing mice on stimulation day compared to baseline (YFP n=19, CoChR n=19, Sidák's multiple comparison test, p=0.007). **(E)** Bar graphs of video-based analysis of feeding bouts over the hour without or with mPFC-LHA optogenetic stimulation. Effect of 1 Hz (left): YFP n=13, CoChR n=13, Two-way RM ANOVA, Interaction Time-Virus, $F_{(5,120)}=0.17$, p=0.95). Effect of 5 Hz (right): YFP n=12, CoChR n=12, Two-way RM ANOVA, Interaction Time-Virus, $F_{(5,110)}=2.83$, p=0.037. Sidák's multiple comparison test 30-40m, YFP vs CoChR, p=0.038 and 50-60m, p=0.013. **(F)** Bar graphs for effect of mPFC-LHA stimulation on feeding bouts quantified according to laser ON and OFF blocks. For 1Hz: YFP n=13, CoChR n=13, Two-way RM ANOVA, Interaction Time-Virus, $F_{(1,24)}=0.06$. For 5Hz: YFP n=12, CoChR n=12, Two-way RM ANOVA, Interaction Time-Virus, $F_{(1,22)}=7.64$, p=0.011, Sidák's multiple comparison test ON blocks YFP vs CoChR, p=0.003).

In bar graph (D, E, F) the superimposed points represent individual animals and error bars represent their SEMs. *= p<0.05; **= p<0.01.

Figure 2. mPFC-LHA neuronal activity is diversely modulated by social stress. **(A)** Viral strategy and implantation of optrodes (i.e. 32 electrode wires and an optic fiber) for extracellular recordings of opto-identified LHA-projecting mPFC neurons. **(B)** Left: Histological verification of placement of electrode tip in between opsin-expressing mPFC neurons projecting to LHA. Tip of optrodes indicated with a yellow arrow. Right: Histology of LHA targeting with the Cav2-Cre retrograde virus. Anatomical reference point: fmi=forceps minor of the corpus callosum, EPN=entopeduncular nucleus, f=fornix. **(C)** Optogenetic-assisted identification of mPFC pyramidal neurons projecting to the LHA. Neurons were classified as being opto-tagged if they showed a significant increase in firing rate after light stimulation compared to baseline using the SALT-test (see methods for test, and see Suppl. Datafile for individual neuron SALT p values). **(D)** Behavioral paradigm to record mPFC-LHA cellular activity during social stress. **(E)** Bidirectional modulation of distinct mPFC-LHA neurons by social stress. Top: histograms of single cell examples (10s bins comparing 180 seconds right before and after fight onset, Wilcoxon signed-rank test, p<0.05). Bottom: Histograms showing group averages (n=26 opto-identified mPFC-LHA cells from 12 mice; mPFC-LHA cells that decrease firing n=13 cells; mPFC-LHA cells that increase firing n=7 cells). Dotted line indicates the average length of the stress exposure. Error bars in histograms indicate SEMs across neurons. **(F)** Pie chart showing mPFC-LHA neurons which were significantly modulated by, or not responsive to, the social stress experience (n=26 opto-tagged mPFC-LHA cells from 12 mice). *= p<0.05.

Figure 3. mPFC-LHA neuronal activity is required for stress-driven over intake of fat and the pathway is modulated by feeding. **(A)** Viral strategy to make mPFC-LHA neurons susceptible to chemogenetic inhibition. **(B)** Histology of injection sites of CAV2-Cre in the LHA using red beads, and of hM4Di-mCherry expression in mPFC subterritories PrL and IL (antibody for green fluorescence). Anatomical reference point: cp=cerebral peduncle. **(C)** Timeline of the stress-driven food intake experiment with chemogenetic mPFC-LHA manipulation. **(D)** Effect of chemogenetic inhibition of mPFC-LHA on food intake. Delta food intake during test day (Day +3) compared to the baseline session (Day -5). Left: Effect on (stress-driven) fat intake (mCherry-Control n=13, hM4Di-control n=13, mCherry-Stress n=14, hM4Di-Stress n=14, Two-way ANOVA, Treatment-Virus interaction, $F_{(1,50)}=4.69$, $p=0.035$, Sidáks multiple comparison test mCherry-control vs mCherry-Stress, $p=0.015$, hM4Di-control vs hM4Di-Stress, $p>0.99$, mCherry-control vs hM4Di-control, $p=0.61$). Right: Effect on chow intake (mCherry-Control n=13, hM4Di-control n=13, mCherry-Stress n=14, hM4Di-Stress n=14, Two-way ANOVA, Treatment-Virus interaction, $F_{(1,50)}=0.07$, $p=0.79$). **(E)** Schematic and timeline for fiber photometric measurements from mPFC neurons projecting to LHA. **(F)** Line graph showing average calcium response time course of the mPFC-LHA population to social stress. Dotted lines show SEMs, based on different mice (n=8). **(G)** Left: Bar graph quantifying the peaks after social stress. N=8 mice, Wilcoxon matched pairs, W=36, $p=0.008$. Right: Bar graph quantifying the dips after social stress. N=8 mice, Wilcoxon matched pairs, W=34, $p=0.016$. **(H)** Line graph showing time courses of dips in mPFC-LHA pathway during onset of food intake in either control context (n=8 mice) or after 2 days of social stress (n=8 mice). Shaded areas show SEMs, based on different animals. **(I)** As (H) but for offset of fat interaction. **(J)** Bar graph quantifications of dips with respect to baseline both in control (n=8) or after social stress (n=8). Two-Way ANOVA, Stress-Time interaction, $F_{(1,14)}=0.53$, $p=0.48$. Main effect Time ($F1,14)=21.01$, $p=0.0004$. Fisher's LSD multiple comparison control baseline vs fat contact $t(14)=3.754$, $p=0.0021$, stress baseline vs fat contact $t(14)=2.729$, $p=0.0163$. In bar graph (D, G, J) superimposed points represent individual animals and error bars represent SEMs. *= $p<0.05$; **= $p<0.01$.

Figure 4. mPFC sends direct excitatory projections to multiple LHA neuronal populations. (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. Scale bar 200µm. Right: Representative image of the different LHA neuronal subsets (red) during patch clamp experiments. Scale bar 10µm. **(C)** Quantifications of extent of synaptic connectivity between mPFC and different LHA subpopulations. From left to right, cumulative probability plots of opto-evoked AMPAR amplitudes, after mPFC input stimulation, in LHA$_{VGAT}$ (n cells = 23 from 9 mice), LHA$_{Vglut2}$ (n cells = 30 from 10 mice), LHA$_{MCH}$ (n cells = 31 from 10 mice) and LHA$_{OREX}$ (n cells= 38 from 10 mice) 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). For the voltage-clamp trace examples 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. SEMs represent variation in binned sweeps (bins of 60 seconds). Right: Bar graph showing the percentage of connectivity to mPFC for the 4 LHA populations in presence of 4AP + TTX (n VGAT cells= 10, 1 mouse, n Vglut2 cells= 11, 1 mouse, n MCH cells= 9, 2 mice and n Orexin cells= 12, 2 mice), showing a high monosynaptic connectivity that was similar across cellular populations (Pearson Chi-Square test, $\chi2$=3.166, p = 0.367).

Figure 5. Social stress drives divergent plasticity at mPFC synapses onto distinct LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ neuronal subsets. (A) Cumulative probability plots of opto-evoked AMPARs in neurons from distinct LHA subpopulations for control (black) and stress (red) conditions, with representative example trace insets. Top: mPFC-LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ synapses (n control=30, 10 mice, n stress=35, 11 mice; Mann-Whitney test, U=342, p=0.0152). Middle: mPFC-LHA$_{VGAT}$ synapses (n control=23, 8 mice, n stress= 21, 9 mice; Mann-Whitney test, U=232, p=0.8341). Bottom: mPFC-LHA$_{OREX}$ population (n control=37, 10 mice, n stress=35, 9 mice; Mann-Whitney test, U=582, p=0.4663). **(B)** Example traces (left) and bar graphs (right) for paired pulse ratios (PPRs) at mPFC synapses onto distinct LHA subpopulations, for control (black) and stress (red) conditions. PPRs at distinct inter pulse intervals (IPIs) of 60, 100 and 200 ms are shown. Top: mPFC- LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ synapses (n control=19, 10 mice, n stress= 20, 11 mice; two-way RM ANOVA, Main effect of group, $F_{(1,37)}=4.55$, p=0.04). Middle: mPFC-LHA$_{VGAT}$ synapses (n control= 16, 7 mice, n stress= 18, 9 mice; Two-way RM ANOVA, Main effect of group, $F_{(1,32)}=0.160$, p=0.691). Bottom: mPFC-LHA$_{OREX}$ synapses (n control= 32, 10 mice, n stress= 34, 9 mice; Two-way RM ANOVA, Main effect of group, $F_{(1,64)}=1.752$, p=0.19). **(C)** Schematic and experimental timeline for patch clamp recordings of mPFC synaptic inputs on LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ cells with distinct downstream targets. **(D)** Representative images of retrograde targeting VTA, Peri-PVN or LHb. Scale bar 200µm. **(E)** Left: example traces for mPFC-LHA$_{VGLUT2}$-Peri-PVN synapses in control (black) and stress (red) conditions during 100 ms IPI. Right: Bar graph representation of PPRs (n control= 14, 5 mice, n stress= 12, 4 mice; two-way RM ANOVA, Main effect of group, $F_{(1,24)}=5.975$, p=0.022). **(F)** As E, but for mPFC-LHA$_{VGLUT2}$-LHb synapses (n control= 9, 4 mice, n stress= 7, 4 mice; Two-way RM ANOVA, Main effect of group, $F_{(1,14)}=0.099$, p=0.758). Scale bar 200µm. **(G)** As E, but for mPFC-LHA$_{VGLUT2}$-VTA synapses (n control= 27, 9 mice, n stress=17, 6 mice; Two-way RM ANOVA, Main effect of group, $F_{(1,42)}=7.13$, p= 0.011). In bar graphs (B, E-G) superimposed points represent individual neurons and error bars represent their SEMs. *= p<0.05.

 Figure 6. *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.
(C) Bar graphs showing fat intake over the 2 hours for experimental groups (Control n=27, Stress
n=23 Stress; Two-way ANOVA, main effect treatment, $F_{(1,46)}=15$, p=0.0003). Main effect
stimulation $F_{(1,46)}=10.38$, p=0.002). Stress plus mPFC-LHA stimulation resulted in largest
consumption of fat (Sidák's multiple comparison tests: Stress-5Hz vs Stress-Mock, $t_{(46)}=3.27$,
p=0.01; Stress-5Hz vs Ctrl-5Hz, $t_{(46)}=3.78$, p=0.003). **(D)** Cumulative plots for feeding bouts over
the course of two hours for mock and 5Hz stimulation (Mock Stim: Control n=14, Stress n=12;
5Hz Stim: Control n=13, 5 Hz n=11). **(E)** Bar graph quantification of feeding bouts for non-
stimulated mice during the Binge and Post-binge phase for controls (n=12) and stressed mice
(n=14). Binge phase (0-20 min): unpaired t-test, $t_{(24)}=3.49$, p=0.002. Post-binge phase (20-120
min): Mann-Whitney test, $U_{(24)}=15$, p=0.0001. **(F)** Bar graph quantification of 5Hz stimulation
effect on feeding bouts during the Binge phase (Control Mock n=14, Control 5Hz n=13, Stress
Mock n=12, Stress 5Hz n=11; Two-Way ANOVA, interaction Stimulation- Treatment,
$F_{(1,46)}=0.52$, p=0.48), and the Post-Binge phase (Control Mock n=14, Control 5Hz n=13, Stress
Mock n=12, Stress 5Hz n=11, Two-Way ANOVA, Stimulation-Treatment interaction,
$F_{(1,46)}=4.05$, p=0.05, Sidák's multiple comparison test mock stim vs 5Hz in stressed condition,
$t_{(46)}=4$, p=0.0004). **(G)** Bar graph of data in F normalized to total feeding bouts indicating
persistence of fat consumption beyond the Binge phase (Two-Way ANOVA, interaction
Stimulation-Treatment, $F_{(1,46)}=9.47$, p=0.004, Sidák's multiple comparison test Mock stim vs
5Hz in stressed condition, $t_{(46)}=4.825$, p=0.0001). In bar graphs (C, E-G) the superimposed
points represent individual animals and error bars represent their SEMs. *= p<0.05; **= p<0.01;
***=p<0.001.

Figure 7. LHA glutamatergic neurons are important mediators of the effects of stress on food intake. (A) Schematic for viral targeting and experimental timeline. **(B)** Histological verification of targeting LHA with chemogenetic actuator (red). **(C)** Bar graph of fat intake over 2 hours (Vehicle-control n=6, Vehicle-stress n=7, CNO-control n=6, CNO-stress n=6; Two Way ANOVA, Stress-CNO interaction $F_{(1,21)}$=4.408, p=0.048. Sidak post hoc comparisons vehicle-control versus vehicle-stress, p=0.034; CNO-control versus CNO-stress, p=0.99; Vehicle-stress versus CNO-stress, p=0.03. **(D)** Schematic and timeline for TRAPing mPFC ensemble during social stress (mPFC$_{SOCIAL\ STRESS}$) or during novel mouse exposure (mPFC$_{NOVEL\ MOUSE}$). **(E)** Left: Representative image of opsin expression after TRAP recombination after an acute stress episode in mPFC. Scale bar 200μm. Right: Representative images of viral fluorophore expression for co-labeling distinct LHA populations. Top: MCH (red) and VGAT (green) neurons, Bottom: Orexin (red) and Vglut2 (green) neurons. **(F)** Schematic approach of patch recordings from specific LHA neuron types in brain slices, while optogenetically stimulating mPFC ensemble axons. **(G)** Representative examples of averaged mPFC$_{SOCIAL\ STRESS}$ opto-evoked EPSC in LHA$_{VGAT}$ (purple), LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ (blue), LHA$_{MCH}$ (green) and LHA$_{OREX}$ (yellow) neurons. Blue rectangle indicates 1ms opto-stimulation. **(H)** Pie charts for connectivity of mPFC$_{SOCIAL\ STRESS}$ and mPFC$_{NOVEL\ MOUSE}$ ensembles with distinct LHA populations (VGAT, Vglut2, MCH and Orexin). mPFC$_{SOCIAL\ STRESS}$ ensemble connected more with glutamatergic than GABA LHA subtypes (n-VGAT =31, 6 mice; n-Vglut2=49, 11 mice; n-MCH=15, 5 mice; n-Orexin=23, 8 mice; Pearson Chi-Square test, Z=21, p=0.0007). mPFC$_{SOCIAL\ STRESS}$ ensemble connected more to LHA$_{VGLUT2}$ (Pearson Chi-Square test, Z=7.14, p=0.008); and LHA$_{OREX}$ neurons (Pearson Chi-Square test, Z=8.37, p=0.004) than did the mPFC$_{NOVEL\ MOUSE}$ ensemble. **(I)** Schematics for approach and timeline for ensemble pathway stimulation in the 2-choice food assay. **(J)** Histological validation of the opsin in mPFC ensemble somata (left) and axons in LHA (right). **(K)** Bar graph quantification of fat intake over the 2 hours for mPFC$_{SOCIAL\ STRESS}$ (n=7) and mPFC$_{NOVEL\ MOUSE}$ (n=7) ensemble projection to LHA, as a delta from baseline. Mann Whitney U=7.5, p=0.027. In bar graphs (C and K) the superimposed points represent individual animals and error bars represent their SEMs. *= p<0.05; **= p<0.01; ***=p<0.001.

A

AAV-DIO-hM4Di-mCherry or
AAV-DIO-mCherry

Cav2-Cre
(+ red beads)

mPFC

LHA

C57B6J

B

Red beads

RFP-Alexa488

LHA   CP

PrL
IL
fmi   fmi

pia

500 μm   100 μm

C

Day

-21   Habituation

-5   Baseline
Food intake (2h)

1 + 2   Control
or Stress

3   CNO
(after 45 min)
Food intake (2h)

D

Control   Stress

Fat intake (Δbsl; kCal)

*

*

mCherry   hM4D(Gi)

Chow intake (Δbsl; kCal)

mCherry   hM4D(Gi)

E

AAV-DIO-GCaMP8s
+ optic fiber

Cav2-Cre +
red beads

mPFC

LHA

C57B6J

F

Fight onset

ΔF/F

Time (s)

G

Fight peak (ΔF/F)

**

Bsl   Peak

Fight dip (ΔF/F)

*

Bsl   Dip

H

Fat Onset

ΔF/F

Time after fat onset (s)

I

Fat Offset

ΔF/F

Time after fat offset (s)

J

Response to Fat (dF/F)

**

*

n.s.

Bsl   Fat   Bsl   Fat
Control   Stress

Control   Stress