

1 **Title**

2 Contextual enhancement on binge-like overconsumption of palatable sugar in mice.

3

4 **Authors**

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8

9 **Abstract**

10 Binge eating disorder is an eating disorder characterized by the excessive intake of food
11 within a short period, often beyond physiological needs. Studies using animal models have
12 shown that binge eating animals consume food in quantities that surpass physiological
13 necessity, and that the neural mechanisms underlying this behavior overlap with those
14 involved in habit formation. Habitual behaviors are thought to be automatic responses
15 acquired through extended behavioral training and are dependent on the context in which
16 they were learned. Therefore, this study hypothesized that binge eating has a context-
17 dependent component. We investigated whether the excessive palatable sugar intake
18 observed in an animal model of binge eating is triggered by an associated context as a
19 learned behavior. To test this, mice were trained to develop binge-like sugar consumption in
20 a specific context. During the test phase, we reduced the animals' hedonic needs for sugar
21 solution by providing a two-hour satiety period. Sugar solution was then presented in both
22 the training context and a novel context. The results showed that in the training context, the
23 mice continued to consume sugar solution at levels similar to those observed at the onset
24 of the satiation. In contrast, this context-induced sugar consumption was not observed in
25 the novel context. These findings suggest that, like habitual behaviors, binge eating is
26 induced under in the context-dependent manner and insensitive to the consequence of the
27 behavior.

28

29 keywords: binge, overconsumption, contextual conditioning, habitual behavior

30

31 **Introduction**

32 Binge eating disorder is a behavioral disorder characterized by the inability to control the
33 consumption of large amounts of food in a short period (Brownley, Berkman, Sedway, Lohr
34 & Bulik, 2007; Mathes, Brownley, Mo & Bulik, 2009). With a global prevalence ranging from
35 0.3% to 1.8% in adults, this disorder persists even after physiological hunger has been
36 satiated, leading to significant impairments in psychological well-being and quality of life

37 (Giel et al., 2022). Furthermore, binge eating disorder is often associated with obesity and
38 food addiction, exacerbating its impact on individual health (Cassin & von Ranson, 2007;
39 de Zwaan, 2001). The environmental and behavioral factors, along with the neural
40 mechanisms underlying this disruption of feeding regulation, are actively explored (Keski-
41 Rahkonen, 2021).

42 To investigate the mechanisms underlying binge eating, rodent models have been
43 proposed (Oswald, Murdaugh, King, & Boggiano, 2011; Rossetti, Spina, Halfon, & Boutrel,
44 2014; Yasoshima & Shimura, 2015). For instance, in the protocol proposed by Yasoshima &
45 Shimura (2015), mice were induced to develop binge-like excessive sugar intake through a
46 regimen of successive restricted feeding. In their study, the animals were allowed access to
47 normal chow and palatable sugar (sucrose solution) for only 4 hours each day over a period
48 of 10 days. This repeated restricted feeding led the animals to consume significantly larger
49 quantities of the sugar in a short time than they would normally. Notably, their study also
50 revealed that this feeding behavior persisted even after the animals' physiological need for
51 nutrition had been met, demonstrating that the model successfully mimics clinical
52 characteristics associated with binge eating disorder.

53 The nature of binge eating, marked by unnecessary feeding behaviors, resembles
54 habitual behavior. In psychology of learning, the habits are understood as the acquired
55 automaticity of behaviors (Ciria, Watson, Vadillo & Luque, 2021). In the literature of
56 instrumental learning, habitual behavior is operationally defined as decrement of sensitivity
57 to the outcome produced by behavior (e.g., foods obtained via lever press). The
58 instrumental behavior is typically sensitive to the outcome. For example, the lever press
59 response is reduced by the taste aversion learning or satiation by free access to the
60 reinforcer ('outcome devaluation'; Adams, 1982; Adams & Dickinson, 1981). This mode of
61 behavior is called 'goal-directed' (Dickinson & Balleine, 1994). It has been considered that
62 the goal-directed behavior is emitted based on the current value of the reinforcer to fulfill
63 the specific needs. In contrast, habitual behavior develops via extensive repetition of
64 instrumental behavior, leading to being insensitive to the outcome (Dickinson et al., 1985;
65 Dickinson, Balleine, Watt, Gonzalez & Boakes, 1995).

66 There may be a similarity between habits and overeating in that both involve
67 seemingly automated behaviors, which are insensitive to the immediate needs of animals.
68 Indeed, Furlong and Balleine (2017) demonstrated that the dorsolateral striatum is involved
69 in binge-like behavior, which has been known to play a role in habitual actions, revealing a
70 common neurophysiological basis. The maladaptation of corticostriatal circuits were also
71 found in human neuroimaging (Kessler, Hutson, Herman, & Potenza, 2016). These similarity
72 between binge eating and habitual behavior lead to the hypothesis that if similar

73 mechanisms underlie both habits and binge eating, the factors that control habitual
74 behavior might also apply to overeating.

75 Once a behavior becomes habitual, it is not necessarily irreversible. Recent
76 research has shown that habitual behavior can be sensitive to the context in which it was
77 developed (Steinfeld & Bouton, 2020, 2021; Thraillkill & Bouton, 2015). For example,
78 Steinfeld & Bouton (2021) trained rats to perform a goal-directed instrumental response in
79 one context (context-A) and then extended the training in a different context (context-B) to
80 develop a habit. Devaluation through taste aversion learning was applied in both contexts,
81 followed by an extinction test. The results showed that the instrumental response remained
82 intact in context-B but not in context-A, indicating that habitual behavior is expressed in the
83 context where it was acquired. Given the parallels between overeating and habits, it is
84 plausible that overeating could also be understood as a context-dependent learned
85 behavior.

86 The present study, therefore, investigated whether context could facilitate
87 overconsumption by combining appetitive contextual conditioning with restricted feeding
88 training to induce this behavior. The study consisted of two experiments: Experiment 1
89 examined whether binge-like overconsumption would be facilitated by the trained contexts
90 after sensory-specific satiation. Experiment 2 assessed whether animals that underwent
91 contextual conditioning but did not receive binge eating training would not show
92 overconsuming palatable sugar after satiation.

93

94 **Materials and Methods**

95 Subjects and housing conditions: Thirty-four C57BL/6J male mice (CREA Japan, Osaka)
96 were utilized for this study, with 17 mice assigned to each of the two experiments. Mice
97 were purchased at eight weeks old and acclimated to the housing room for one week. They
98 were housed individually in Plexiglas cages maintained at 22 °C under a 12L/12D cycle,
99 with lights on at 7:00. Prior to the experiments, the mice had ad libitum access to water and
100 a standard chow diet. The standard chow consisted of a pelleted commercial rodent diet
101 (MF, Oriental Yeast Co., Ltd.: 3.6 kcal/g), which was used throughout the experiments. At
102 the onset of the experimental procedures, the animals were 9 weeks old. All experimental
103 procedures were conducted during the light cycle. All animals were treated in accordance
104 with the NIH Guidelines for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals. The study's rationale,
105 design, and experimental protocols were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use
106 Committee of the Graduate School of Human Sciences, Osaka University (approval
107 number: R6-3-0).

108

109 *Experimental procedure*

110 *Experiment 1:* the experiment consisted of training and test phases, and both performed in
111 the home cage. The restricted feeding procedure was utilized for shaping binge-like
112 overconsumption (Yasoshima & Shimura, 2015; Figure 1a, top). All animals were
113 maintained on a 20-h food deprivation schedule followed by 4-h access to the sucrose
114 solution, water, and chow starting at 09:00 h every morning (2-h after lights on). The two
115 bottles were presented side-by-side (two-bottle method): one bottle for the sucrose solution
116 and another for water. The water bottle was provided to ensure that the mice's consumption
117 of the sucrose solution was driven by the sucrose's incentive rather than merely by thirst.

118 These 4-hour feeding occasions ran under the visual 'context'. The context was as
119 vertical or horizontal stripe walls made of acrylic plates. It was positioned to enclose all four
120 sides of the home cage. Given that the context was always paired with palatable sugar and
121 normal chows, the appetitive contextual conditioning was applied, where the context
122 functions as the conditioned stimulus (CS) to signal the sugar/food presentation (US). The
123 context was set just before beginning of the training, and immediately removed after 4-hour
124 periods of food access. The vertical or horizontal patterns were balanced for arranging the
125 groups in the test phase described below. The restricted-feeding training continued 10-
126 days.

127 The test was conducted the day after the last training session (day-11; Figure 1b).
128 Prior to testing, all animals were given 2-hour access to the sucrose solution to achieve
129 sensory-specific satiation. The water bottle was likewise positioned in the same manner as
130 during the training sessions. The satiation session was undertaken without the context.
131 Consumption was measured at one-hour intervals. After the satiation, the animals were
132 given the access to the sucrose solution under the context: trained or novel. The satiation
133 procedure was performed to determine whether the mice would consume sucrose solution
134 in excess of their hedonic needs within the trained context.

135 Thus, immediately after satiation, animals were again granted access to the
136 sucrose solution for 20 minutes in either a trained or novel context. After each feeding trial,
137 the context was switched, allowing the animals another opportunity to feed. This procedure
138 was repeated for three trials in each context, totaling six trials. Thus, the cumulative access
139 time to the sucrose solution in each context was 1 hour. The animals were divided into two
140 groups based on whether they started the test in the trained or novel context: the half of
141 animals initially exposed to the trained context (i.e., trained -> novel -> trained -> novel ->
142 trained -> novel), and another half of animals following in the reversed sequence. Group
143 assignment was matched according to the sucrose solution intake on training day-10 to
144 ensure no biases between the groups.

145

146 *Experiment 2:* most of the procedure was the same as Experiment 1 unless otherwise
147 noted Figure 1a, bottom). The normal chow was ad libitum throughout the training periods
148 unlike Experiment 1. The sucrose solution was presented in the same way as Experiment
149 1, from 9:00 to 13:00. Thus, the animals were exposed with pairing of the context and
150 sucrose solution. This protocol was adopted because Yasoshima & Shimura (2015)
151 previously revealed that ad libitum to normal chow hindered the development of binge-like
152 overconsumption. The test was performed completely the same as Experiment 1.

153

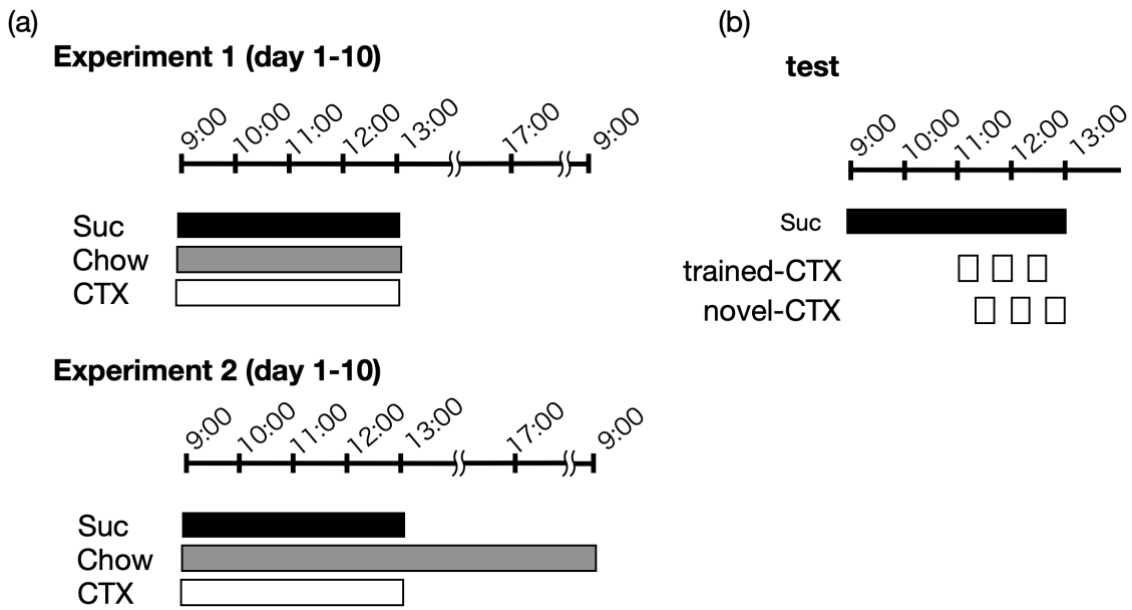
154 *Data Analysis*

155 The increase in food intake during training was analyzed using ANOVA. The
156 Greenhouse-Geisser method was applied to adjust the degrees of freedom for within-
157 subject factors. In the tests, sucrose intake was compared across four conditions: the first
158 and second hours of satiation, and the trained and novel contexts, using pairwise t-tests.
159 Multiple comparisons were reported with p-values corrected using Holm's method (Holm,
160 1979).

161 For the trial-by-trial fluctuation of sucrose consumption during the test sessions,
162 we adopted a linear mixed model to estimate the effect of trials and the context conditions,
163 because the data is not complete; it is obvious that one animal could not simultaneously
164 receive foods under different contexts (e.g., an animal which experienced the trained
165 context in the first trial cannot receive the novel context in that trial). The conditions of
166 contexts and trials were treated as fixed effects, and individual differences were accounted
167 for as random effects.

168 All analysis and visualization were performed under R version 4.1.0 using the
169 packages including 'lme4' v1.1-27.1 and 'car' v3.1-2 for linear mixed model and the
170 likelihood ratio test (lmer() and Anova() function), 'rstatix' v0.7.0 for ANOVA (anova_test()
171 function), and 'tidyverse' v1.3.1 for data handling and processing.

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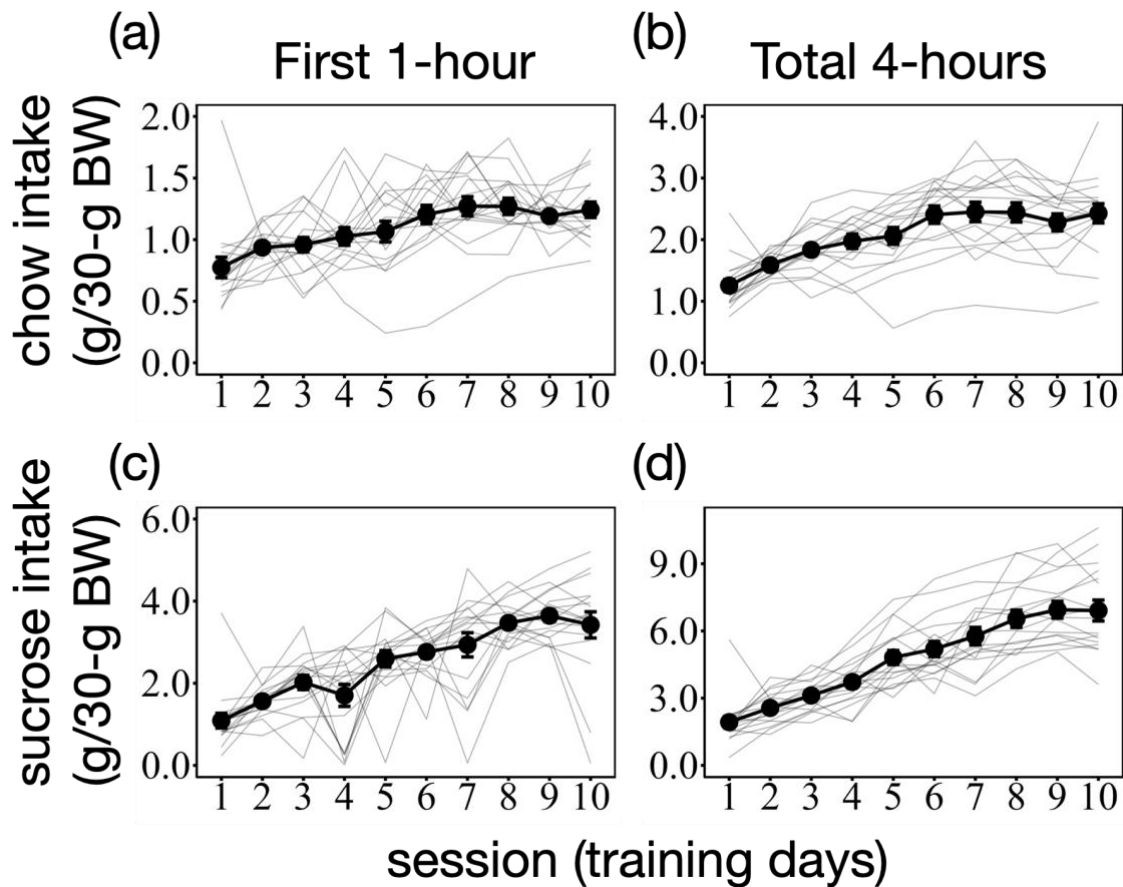


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175 Figure 1. The timeline of the study included (a) a training phase and (b) a test. (a) Training
176 was conducted over 10 consecutive days. (b) Testing took place immediately after the 10th
177 day of training. Half of the animals were first exposed to the trained context after a 2-hour
178 period of satiation, while the other half were initially placed in a novel context. The
179 illustration in the figure represents the time course of the group that started with the trained
180 context. Suc: sucrose, Chow: standard chow, and CTX: context.

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184 Figure 2. The average food consumption increased as the session proceeded and reached
185 asymptotic levels. The thin gray lines represent individual data. The error bars denote
186 standard errors. (a) 1-hour consumption of normal chow. (b) Total consumption of normal
187 chow up to 4-hour daily feeding sessions. (c) 1-hour consumption of sucrose solution given
188 as palatable substance. (d) The 4 hours total consumption of sucrose solution.

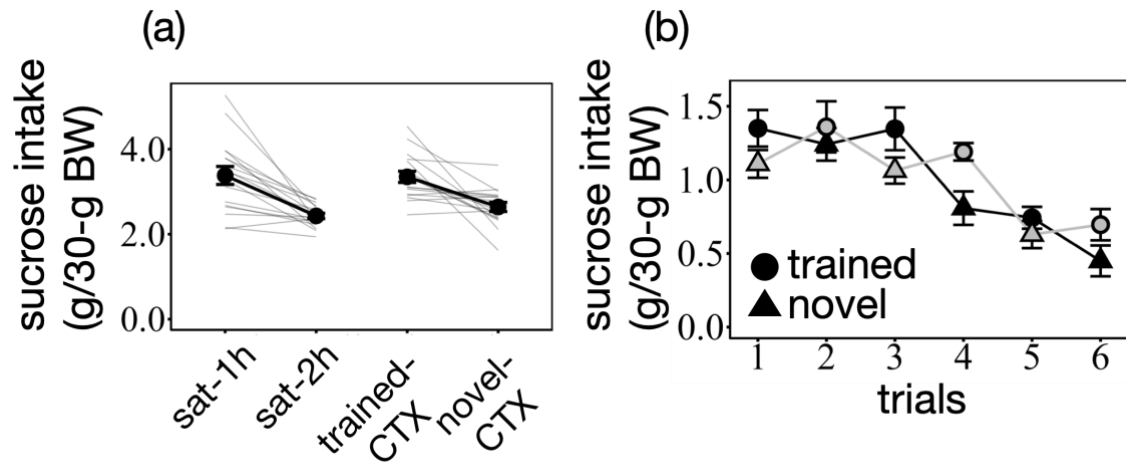
189

190 Results & Discussion

191 *Experiment 1: contextual enhancement on the overconsumption of palatable sugar*

192 The animals increased the feeding amount across the training periods, and reached the
193 asymptotic levels in both normal chows and sucrose solution (Figure 2), replicating the
194 previous binge-like consumption (Yasoshima & Shimura, 2015). A one-way analysis of
195 variance (ANOVA) revealed the significant effect of 1-hour consumption of sucrose solution
196 ($F(4.05,64,86) = 21.21, p < .0001$), that of total 4-hours ($F(3.23,51.63) = 71.33, p < .0001$),
197 1-hour consumption of chow ($F(4.93,78.87) = 7.85, p < .0001$), and that of total 4-hours
198 ($F(4.12,65.92) = 24.72, p < .0001$). On average, the animals consumed sucrose solutions
199 more than 20% of animals' body weights in the later sessions, whereas less than 10% in

200 the initial sessions.
201



202
203 Figure 3. The contextually-induced binge-like consumption is resistant to sensory-specific
204 devaluation by satiation of sucrose solution. (a) The consumption of sucrose solution on the
205 test day. The 'sat' and 'CTX' represent satiation and context, respectively. (b) The trial-by-
206 trial fluctuation of sucrose solution consumption under the trained and novel contexts
207 revealed the context-specific elicitation of feeding behavior in the sated animals. The circles
208 and triangles represent the trained and novel contexts, respectively. The black marker and
209 line represent the group that began with the trained context, while the gray markers and
210 line indicate the group that started with the novel context. The error bars represent SEM.
211

212 In the next day after accomplishing restricted feeding training (i.e., day-11),
213 animals were tested the following procedure: at first, the animals were given 2-hours free
214 access to the sucrose solutions to satiate (i.e., sensory-specific devaluation) without the
215 context. The satiation has been commonly used in experiments of habit to judge a target
216 instrumental behavior is sensitive to the values of an outcome (Dickinson & Balleine, 1994),
217 and our results revealed the consumption of sucrose solution decreased during the 2 hours
218 devaluation session (Figure 3a, left side, $t(16)=4.80$, adjusted $p = .001$).

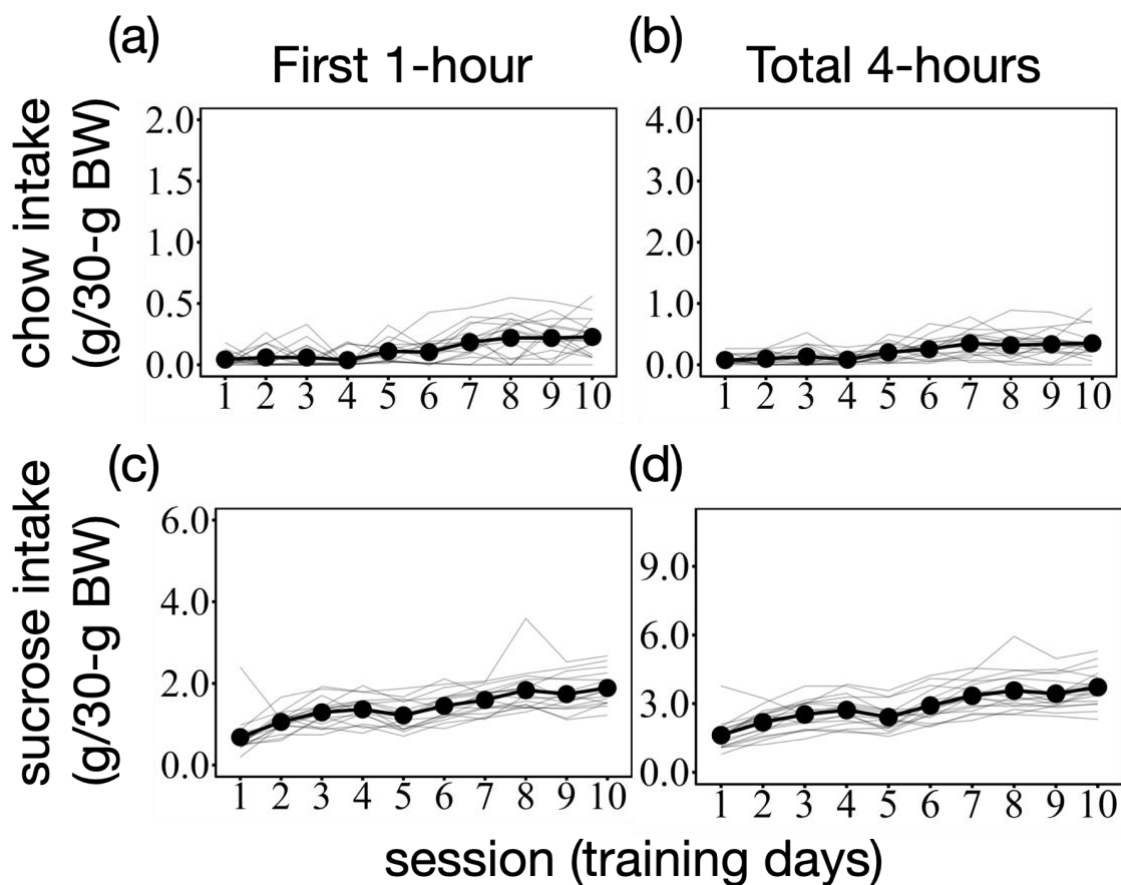
219 After the 2-hours free access to the sucrose solution, we asked whether binge-like
220 overconsumption is resistant to devaluation of the palatable sugar. For that purpose, after
221 the satiation, the animals were given access to sucrose solutions under the trained context
222 or novel context. Each access continued 20 minutes, and the access was given in another
223 context (trained-> novel or novel -> trained). Three alternations of context conditions
224 (trained or novel) were conducted, resulting in a total of six trials and 1 hour eating
225 occasion in the respective contexts. The total amounts of consumption given contexts were

226 statistically significant (Figure 3a, right side, $t(16) = 3.75$, adjusted $p = .007$). The
227 consumption under the trained context was comparable to that during the initial 1 hour of
228 satiation ($t(16) = .125$, adjusted $p = .90$). Similarly, the consumption under the novel context
229 was on par with that during the last 1 hour ($t(16) = 1.50$, adjusted $p = .31$).

230 It can be observed that feeding behavior is influenced by specific contexts in the trial-by-
231 trial fluctuation of consumption (Figure 3b). The linear mixed model revealed that both the
232 trial and context was significant ($\chi^2(5) = 75.46$, $p < .0001$ for trials and $\chi^2(1) = 12.77$,
233 $p = .0004$), while the significant interaction was not observed ($\chi^2(5) = 2.09$, $p = .84$).

234 Taken together, these results indicate that contextual enhancement can lead to the
235 overconsumption of palatable food, even after 2 hours of satiation. However, it is important
236 to consider whether this observation is specific to the binge-like behavior model. Since
237 animals were trained with contextual appetitive conditioning over 10-days, with consistent
238 pairing of context and food, the context itself might acquire a controlling effect that elicits
239 feeding behavior beyond hedonic needs. In other words, mere contextual conditioning
240 might be sufficient to influence excessive food intake. Experiment 2 was designed as a
241 control experiment to investigate this possibility.

242



243

244

245 Figure 4. The average food intake remained at a lower level compared to Experiment 1.
246 The thin gray lines represent individual data. The error bars denote standard errors. The
247 ranges of the vertical axis were set the same as Figure 2. (a) 1-hour consumption of normal
248 chow. (b) Total consumption of normal chow up to 4-hours daily feeding sessions. (c) 1-
249 hour consumption of sucrose solution given as palatable food. (d) The 4 hours total
250 consumption of sucrose solution.

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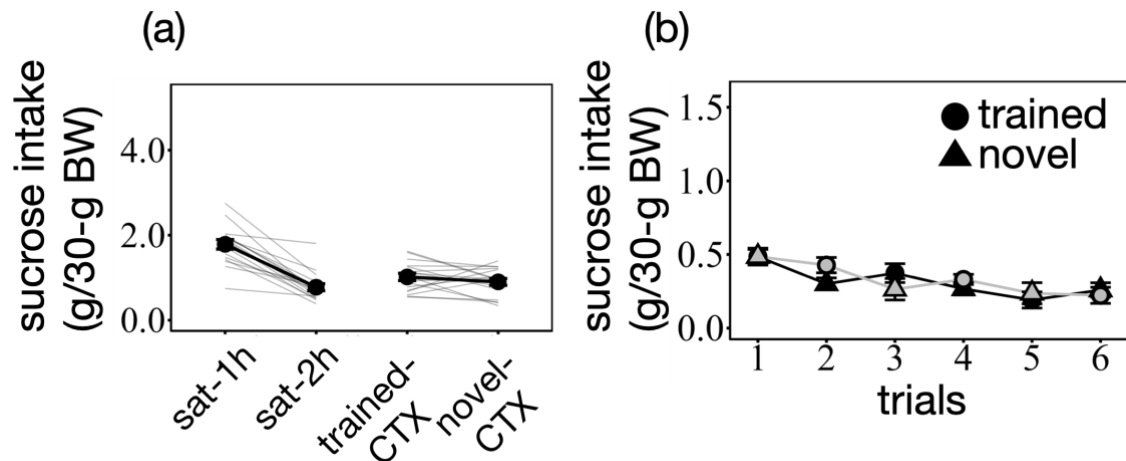
253 *Experiment 2: specificity of contextual control in the binge-eating model*

254 The sucrose and chow consumption were developed across days (Figure 4). A one-way
255 analysis of variance (ANOVA) revealed the significant effect of 1-hour consumption of
256 sucrose solution ($F(3.44,55.11) = 33.85, p < .0001$), that of total 4-hours ($F(2.37,37.97) =$
257 $36.77, p < .0001$), 1-hour consumption of chow ($F(9.0,144.0) = 11.22, p < .0001$), and that
258 of total 4-hours ($F(9.0,144.0) = 13.27, p < .0001$). Even though chow was ad libitum in the
259 experiment 2, both chow and sucrose consumption were significantly increased as the
260 session proceeded.

261 However, when food consumption between experiment 1 and 2 was compared
262 using two-way ANOVA (session \times experiment), all measures in Figure 2 and 4 showed
263 significant difference between experiment and interaction: 1-hour consumption of sucrose
264 solution (experiment: $F(1.00,32.00) = 85.89, p < .0001$, the interaction: $F(4.51,144.39) =$
265 $7.69, p < .0001$), that of total 4-hours (experiment: $F(1.00,32.00) = 45.30, p < .0001$, the
266 interaction: $F(3.18,101.9) = 25.01, p < .0001$), 1-hour consumption of chow (experiment:
267 $F(1.0,32.0) = 552.71, p < .0001$, the interaction: $F(5.43,173.88) = 2.93, p = .012$), and that
268 of total 4-hours (experiment: $F(1.0,32.0) = 305.91, p < .0001$, the interaction:
269 $F(4.48,143.51) = 12.62, p < .0001$). These results demonstrate that the amount of food
270 consumption grew up far more in the restricted feeding than under the free access to the
271 chow. Thus, binge-like food consumption was notable in Experiment 1, but not in
272 Experiment 2.

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274



275

276 Figure 5. The mere contextual conditioning did not facilitate feeding behavior resistant to
277 the satiation. The ranges of the vertical axis were set the same as Figure 3. (a) The
278 consumption of sucrose solution on the test day. The 'sat' and 'CTX' represent satiation and
279 context, respectively. (b) The trial-by-trial fluctuation of sucrose solution consumption under
280 the trained and novel contexts revealed the context-specific elicitation of feeding behavior
281 in the sated animals. The circles and triangles represent the trained and novel contexts,
282 respectively. The black marker and line represent the group that began with the trained
283 context, while the gray markers and line indicate the group that started with the novel
284 context. The error bars represent SEM.

285

286 The test was conducted the next day after 10 days training, and the testing
287 procedure was completely the same as experiment 1. Similarly to Experiment 1, the 2-
288 hours satiation decreased the sucrose consumption (the left of Figure 5a; $t(16) = 8.80$,
289 adjusted $p < .0001$), revealing that the satiation effectively reduced the sucrose
290 consumption. However, unlike Experiment 1, the sucrose consumption under the trained or
291 novel context did not produce the significant difference (the right side of Figure 5a; $t(16) =$
292 1.14 , adjusted $p = .39$). The animals consumed less sucrose under the trained context than
293 in the initial 1-hour of satiation ($t(16)=7.52$, adjusted $p < .0001$). Thus, the satiation was still
294 at work to reduce the consumption of sucrose even in the trained context.

295

296 The trial-by-trial fluctuation also demonstrated that the sucrose consumption did
297 not differ between the trained and novel context (Figure 5b). Indeed, the linear mixed model
298 revealed that only the trial was significant ($\chi^2(5) = 39.38$, $p < .0001$), while the significant
299 effect of the context was not observed ($\chi^2(1) = 1.67$, $p = .20$). The interaction between
300 these neither significant ($\chi^2(5) = 5.61$, $p = .35$). These results indicated that the contextual
enhancement was not found in the animals that did not develop the binge-like consumption

301 of the palatable food.

302

303 **General Discussion**

304 The present study aimed to determine whether binge-like consumption in a mouse model is
305 subject to contextual enhancement of palatable sugar intake and whether feeding behavior
306 beyond satiation depends on the context in which binge eating is developed. To investigate
307 these possibilities, we employed a restricted feeding protocol to induce overconsumption
308 within a specific context and subsequently assessed whether the mice would seek sucrose
309 solutions even after a 2-hour period of satiation.

310 Experiment 1 clearly demonstrated that animals were more likely to consume
311 sucrose solutions in the context where they had developed binge-like overconsumption.
312 This contextual enhancement was specific to the context associated with binge eating
313 (Figure 3), as the novel context did not exert the same regulatory influence. The total
314 sucrose consumption in the trained context was comparable to the amount consumed
315 during the initial hour of free access to sucrose during satiation. In contrast, consumption in
316 the novel context was similar to that observed during the final hour of satiation. Since
317 sucrose consumption decreased over the course of satiation, it suggests that the animals
318 had access to an adequate amount of palatable sugar. Thus, exposure to the trained
319 context facilitated food consumption beyond satiety. This context-specific facilitation of
320 overconsumption was not observed in Experiment 2, where animals had free access to
321 standard chow during the training, resulting in the absence of binge-like eating.

322 The observed lack of sensitivity to the reinforcer resembles habitual behavior in
323 instrumental learning (Dickinson et al., 1983). It is well-established that behaviors
324 developed through both classical and instrumental learning are typically sensitive to the
325 value of the reinforcer (Adams & Dickinson, 1981; Holland, 1981; Rescorla, 1973). The
326 outcome devaluation, including satiation or taste aversion learning, are commonly used to
327 reduce the value of the reinforcer, which is known to diminish the animal's response (Colwill
328 & Rescorla, 1985). This mode of behavior is termed 'goal-directed' because it is motivated
329 by the value of the outcome to fulfill specific needs (Dickinson & Balleine, 1994). In
330 contrast, habitual behavior emerges through extended learning periods, and is
331 characterized by insensitivity to the value of the outcome (Dickinson, 1985). For instance,
332 instrumental responses can persist even after the reinforcer has been devalued (Dickinson
333 et al., 1983). This form of habitual behavior has also been observed in human studies
334 (Cushman & Morris, 2015; Tricomi, Balleine, & O'Doherty, 2009). Additionally, behavioral
335 automaticity resulting from extended training has been documented in Pavlovian learning in
336 crickets (Mizunami et al., 2019). In these studies, behaviors were considered automated

337 and insensitive to the value of the behavioral consequence due to repeated exposure to
338 specific environment-behavior cycles, similar to the contextually-induced feeding observed
339 in our study. This view of value-insensitivity is supported by a theoretical model that
340 describes the development of habitual behavior (Yamada & Toda, 2023).

341 The physiological mechanisms underlying habitual behavior involve the
342 dorsolateral striatum, which is crucial for generating automated behaviors, whereas the
343 dorsomedial striatum is more associated with goal-directed behavior (Gremel & Costa,
344 2013; Yin, Knowlton & Balleine, 2004). The dorsolateral striatum is also implicated in binge
345 eating behavior (Furlong et al., 2014). Abnormalities in striatal function have been reported
346 in patients with binge-eating disorder (Kessler et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2011). Striatal
347 circuits involved in behavioral automaticity overlap with those implicated in other disorders,
348 such as obsessive-compulsive disorder and drug addiction (Kenny, 2011; Simmler &
349 Ozawa, 2019). For instance, striato-midbrain-striatal connectivity plays a critical role in
350 habitual cocaine-seeking behavior (Belin & Everitt, 2008). These circuits may serve as a
351 common pathway for executing automated behaviors driven by environmental cues,
352 including the overconsumption elicited by contextual factors observed in our study.

353 The functional impairments specific to binge eating may reside in the mechanisms
354 governing feeding regulation. Normally, feeding is terminated by detecting stimulation of the
355 gut (Aitken et al., 2024; Kim et al., 2024). In binge eating, however, this feeding termination
356 may be disrupted by other regulatory mechanisms that promote food intake. Recent
357 research, indeed, has shown that exposure to food-related contexts can enhance appetite
358 through increased activity in the lateral hypothalamus (Subramanian et al., 2023).
359 Additionally, sympathetic nerve activity has been found to inhibit the release of glucagon-
360 like peptides 1, further promoting appetite (Ren et al., 2024). It is possible that these top-
361 down processes, rather than bottom-up signals from the gut, likely involve context-specific
362 amplification of eating behaviors. However, the mechanisms by which contextual factors
363 drive food consumption beyond satiety remain poorly understood. Further studies are
364 needed to elucidate how environmental factors modulate feeding regulation.

365 In summary, the present experiments demonstrated that the context in which
366 binge-like behavior developed facilitated feeding beyond satiety. This effect was context-
367 specific and resembled habitual behavior in instrumental learning. However, simply
368 establishing a Pavlovian association between the context and palatable substance was
369 insufficient for eliciting contextual facilitation of overconsumption in our study. Instead,
370 contextual facilitation may emerge when food restriction is combined to binge-like
371 behavioral abnormalities.

372

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375

376 **Declaration of generative AI**

377 The authors used ChatGPT 4.0 for language-proofing to refine the manuscript written by
378 non-native English speakers.

379

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