

## 1 **A Bidirectional Network for Appetite Control in Larval Zebrafish**

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### 14 **ABSTRACT**

15 Medial and lateral hypothalamic loci are known to suppress and enhance appetite, respectively,  
16 but the dynamics and functional significance of their interaction have yet to be explored. Here  
17 we report that, in larval zebrafish, primarily serotonergic neurons of the ventromedial caudal  
18 hypothalamus (cH) become increasingly active during food deprivation, whereas activity in the  
19 lateral hypothalamus (LH) is reduced. Exposure to food sensory and consummatory cues  
20 reverses the activity patterns of these two nuclei, consistent with their representation of  
21 opposing internal hunger states. Baseline activity is restored as food-deprived animals return to  
22 satiety via voracious feeding. The antagonistic relationship and functional importance of cH and  
23 LH activity patterns were confirmed by targeted stimulation and ablation of cH neurons.  
24 Collectively, the data allow us to propose a model in which these hypothalamic nuclei regulate  
25 different phases of hunger and satiety and coordinate energy balance via antagonistic control of  
26 distinct behavioral outputs.

## 27 INTRODUCTION

28 The regulated intake of food based on caloric needs is a fundamental homeostatically controlled  
29 process that is essential for health and survival. The hypothalamus is a highly conserved central  
30 convergence point for the neural and biochemical pathways that underlie this regulatory  
31 mechanism. Early studies demonstrated by way of electrical stimulation or lesions that specific  
32 hypothalamic regions play important roles in the regulation of appetite. For example, while  
33 stimulation of ventromedial hypothalamic loci in rodents and cats reduced feeding, activation of  
34 more lateral hypothalamic loci increased both hunting behavior and food intake (Anand and  
35 Brobeck, 1951; Brobeck et al., 1956; Delgado and Anand, 1953; Krasne, 1962). Conversely,  
36 lateral hypothalamic lesions were found to reduce feeding to the point of starvation, whereas  
37 medial hypothalamic lesions resulted in overeating (Anand and Brobeck, 1951; Hoebel, 1965;  
38 Teitelbaum and Epstein, 1962). Thus, the lateral and medial hypothalamic regions came to be  
39 regarded as “hunger” and “satiety” centers, respectively.

40 Recent experiments employing optical and electrophysiological methods have lent  
41 support to these early studies. For example, GABAergic neurons in the lateral hypothalamus  
42 were observed to be activated during feeding and essential for enhanced food intake during  
43 hunger (Jennings et al., 2015; Stuber and Wise, 2016). However, these experiments have  
44 examined only subsets of hypothalamic neurons; their activity patterns and function within the  
45 context of the entire network remain unknown. This limited view hampers our understanding of  
46 the dynamical interactions between the ensemble of brain circuits thought to be important for  
47 the initiation, maintenance and termination of food consumption (Sternson and Eiselt, 2017).

48 Here, we leverage the small and optically accessible larval zebrafish to identify  
49 modulatory regions central to the control of appetite and to shed light on their specific roles and  
50 dynamical activity patterns in relation to behavior. Using pERK-based brain-wide activity  
51 mapping (Randlett et al., 2015), we first identified neuronal populations that display differential  
52 neural activity under conditions that would yield hunger and satiety. We show that lateral and

53 medial hypothalamic regions have anti-correlated activity patterns during food-deprivation, and  
54 voracious or steady state feeding. Next, through a combination of calcium imaging, optogenetics  
55 and ablation analysis, we show that a mainly serotonergic neuronal population in the caudal  
56 periventricular zone of the medial hypothalamus (cH) are state-dependent regulators of feeding  
57 behavior, most likely via their modulation of lateral hypothalamic activity. These results allow us  
58 to propose a model where mutually antagonistic brain states regulate energy balance by  
59 encoding distinct signals for different facets of appetite control.

60

## 61 **RESULTS**

### 62 ***Whole brain activity mapping of appetite-regulating regions***

63 Larval zebrafish hunt prey such as paramecia through a sequence of motor actions that has  
64 been considered a hardwired reflex response to external prey stimuli (Bianco et al., 2011;  
65 Semmelhack et al., 2015; Trivedi and Bollmann, 2013). Only recently has evidence emerged  
66 that this behavior is flexibly modulated by satiation state (Filosa et al., 2016; Jordi et al., 2015,  
67 2018) and that larvae at 7 days post-fertilization (dpf) display enhanced hunting and enhanced  
68 food intake after a period of food-deprivation. A robust readout of food intake in larval zebrafish  
69 was obtained both by the ingestion of fluorescently-labeled paramecia and by behavioral  
70 analysis, both of which have been adapted for this study (Johnson et al., 2019; Jordi et al.,  
71 2015, 2018; Shimada et al., 2012). A 2-hour period of food-deprivation robustly enhances  
72 subsequent food intake (Figure 1a). Up to 15 min after the presentation of prey, food-deprived  
73 animals display a strong upregulation of hunting and prey intake relative to fish that have  
74 continuous access to food (referred to as *fed fish*; Figure 1a), on the basis of fluorescent food  
75 ingestion (left panel, Figure 1a) and hunting bouts (right panel, Figure 1a). We refer to this  
76 behavior as ‘voracious feeding’. Finally, as the fish consume food, their rate of food intake  
77 declines to that of continuously fed fish (Figure 1a). These behaviors likely represent internal  
78 states that are commonly referred to as hunger and satiety, and reflect the animal’s underlying

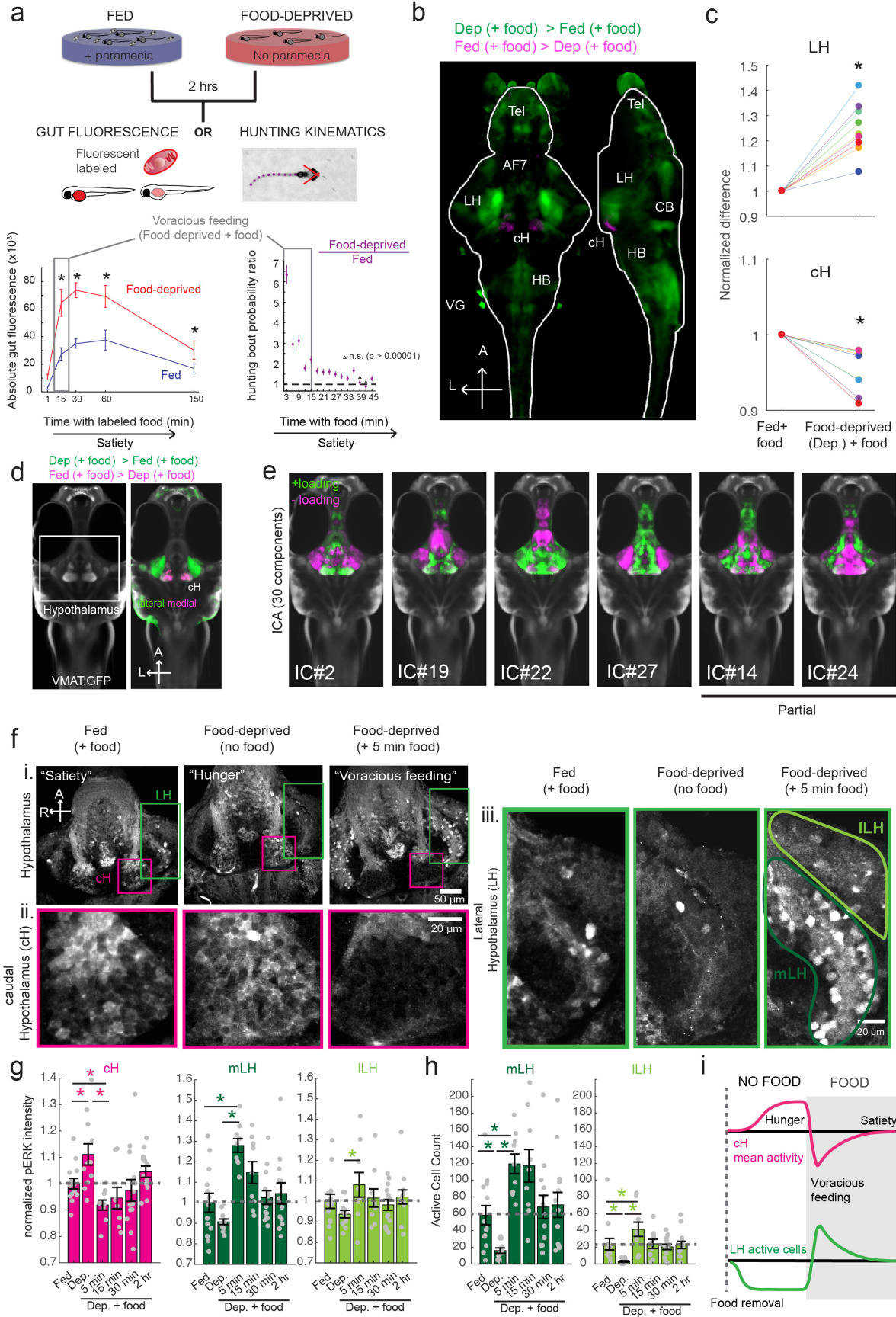
79 caloric or metabolic needs.

80 As a first step toward understanding the homeostatic control of feeding in this simple  
81 vertebrate system, we employed whole-brain neuronal activity mapping via phosphorylated ERK  
82 visualization in post-fixed animals (MAP-mapping; Randlett et al., 2015). Whole brain confocal  
83 image datasets of phospho-ERK expression were gathered from animals sacrificed after 15  
84 minutes of voracious feeding that followed a 2-hour period of food deprivation. For comparison,  
85 image sets were also gathered from animals that had been fed continuously (*fed fish*). The  
86 image volumes were registered to a standardized brain atlas. A difference map (Figure 1b)  
87 reveals significant specific differences in neural activity when comparing voracious feeding with  
88 continuous feeding (Figure 1b-d, Video 1, Supplementary Tables 1-2). Since both experimental  
89 groups experienced the same sensory stimuli (i.e. exposure to paramecia) prior to sacrifice,  
90 differences in brain activity should primarily reflect the animals' internal states, which could  
91 include manifestations of an altered sensitivity to food cues, activity related to hunting and prey  
92 capture, or the motivational history resulting from food deprivation. Indeed, multiple  
93 sensorimotor loci related to hunting showed enhanced activity during feeding that followed the  
94 food-deprived condition, consistent with the increased feeding behavior observed in food-  
95 deprived animals. These loci included the retinal Arborization Fields (AFs; optic tectum and  
96 AF7), pretectum, as well as downstream hindbrain loci, such as reticulospinal and oculomotor  
97 neurons, all of which are known to be engaged during prey capture behavior (Bianco and  
98 Engert, 2015; Muto et al., 2017; Semmelhack et al., 2015). In addition, enhanced activity was  
99 observed in the cerebellum, inferior olive, vagal sensory and motor neurons, area postrema and  
100 locus coeruleus, areas that have been implicated in producing the corresponding motor output  
101 (Ahima and Antwi, 2008; Ammar et al., 2001; Dockray, 2009; Zhu and Wang, 2008).

102 We focused our attention on brain areas likely to be involved in motivational states  
103 related to feeding. These included an area of particularly strong differential activity in the lateral  
104 region of the intermediate hypothalamus (Lateral Hypothalamus, LH; Fig. 1b-d), which has

105 recently been identified as part of the feeding pathway in larval zebrafish (Muto et al., 2017) and  
106 whose mammalian analog has been strongly implicated in appetite control (Sternson and Eiselt,  
107 2017). However, the zebrafish LH, unlike its mammalian counterpart, does not harbor melanin-  
108 concentrating hormone (MCH)-positive, orexin (hypocretin)-positive neurons, or other major  
109 feeding-related peptides (Figure 1- Figure Supplements 1 and 2). We therefore characterized  
110 the expression of multiple appetite-related neuromodulators (AgRP, MSH, CART, NPY, MCH,  
111 Orexin) and found that they are instead expressed in nearby areas of the hypothalamus (Figure  
112 1 - Figure Supplement 1). The zebrafish LH region does however contain a variety of  
113 glutamatergic and GABAergic cell types (Figure 1 - Figure Supplement 2); these non-  
114 peptidergic LH cell types that have been shown in rodents to be important for the regulation of  
115 feeding (Jennings et al., 2015; Stuber and Wise, 2016).

116         Among areas that showed relatively decreased neural activity upon feeding food-  
117 deprived animals, the most significant was the adjacent caudal hypothalamus (cH), which  
118 contains monoaminergic neurons -- mainly serotonergic and dopaminergic cells, with a small  
119 fraction of histaminergic cells (Chen et al., 2016; Kaslin and Panula, 2001; Lillesaar, 2011).  
120 Indeed, in all of nine independent MAP-mapping experiments, activity was reduced in the cH  
121 and increased in the LH within 15 min of food presentation (Fig 1c). The evident inverse  
122 relationship between LH and cH neural activity is supported by independent component analysis  
123 (Randlett et al., 2015), which was applied to feeding-related MAP-mapping data (Figure 1e,  
124 Figure 1 - Figure Supplement 3). Multiple components were uncovered in which cH and LH  
125 activities were strongly anti-correlated. These results led us to hypothesize that the lateral and  
126 caudal hypothalamic regions form a functionally interconnected network with opposing activity  
127 patterns.



129 **Figure 1 with 5 supplements: Whole brain activity mapping reveals anti-correlated hypothalamic**  
130 **regions**

131 **(a)** Top: The protocols used to quantify feeding behavior in larval zebrafish. At 7 or 8 dpf, larvae were  
132 either food-deprived for 2 hours, or fed with excess paramecia for this duration. After 2 hrs (2-4 hours in  
133 the case of behavioral imaging), they were subject to a quick wash, followed either by: 1) addition of  
134 excess fluorescently-labeled paramecia (left), 2) high-resolution behavioral imaging (right; see Johnson et  
135 al., 2019 and methods). Gut fluorescence is both cumulative and diminished by digestion (Jordi et al.,  
136 2015) and so lags the dynamics of hunting behavior. **Bottom left:** Gut fluorescence measurements of  
137 food-deprived (red) or fed (blue) fish as a function of duration of feeding labeled paramecia. Groups of fed  
138 or food-deprived larvae were fixed at the indicated time points (fed: n=7/18/19/17/17 fish, food-deprived:  
139 n= 8/23/20/14/15 fish). Food-deprived fish had significantly higher gut fluorescence than fed fish overall (p  
140 =  $7.5859 \times 10^{-10}$ , Two-way ANOVA, asterisk indicates corrected p-values < 0.05. **Bottom right:** The  
141 probability of performing a hunting-related swim bout across fed and food-deprived fish groups in 3-  
142 minute time bins over 45 minutes. Error bars represent 90% confidence intervals. For all bins except  
143 those indicated with triangles, the null hypothesis that initial feeding condition has no effect on hunting-  
144 bout probability is rejected (p < 0.00001, Fisher's Exact Test comparing binomial probability distributions  
145 per bin). Fed: n = 85655 bouts from 73 fish; Food-deprived n = 75357 bouts from 57 fish. Since the rate of  
146 food intake and hunting behavior was highest in the first 15 minutes (voracious feeding phase, gray  
147 boxes), we chose this time point for subsequent MAP-mapping experiments.

148 **(b)** Brain-wide activity mapping of food-deprived (Dep.) fish exposed to food for 15 minutes, with  
149 subtraction of activity in continuously fed (Fed.) fish. Data from 9 experiments were combined to generate  
150 this difference map based on anti-pERK staining fluorescence. Relative activation from feeding after food  
151 deprivation yields activated regions including the telencephalon (Tel), Arborization field 7 (AF7),  
152 cerebellum (CB), hindbrain (HB), Vagal ganglion (VG) and lateral lobe of the intermediate hypothalamus  
153 (LH). Reduced activity was observed in the caudal hypothalamus (cH) and some areas of the  
154 telencephalon. Scale bar = 100  $\mu$ m. Also see Video 1.

155 **(c)** ROI-specific pixel intensity analysis of LH and cH regions in 9 independent MAP-mapping  
156 experiments (20-30 fish per treatment per experiment). The cH or LH ROI intensities of each individual  
157 fish was normalized to the mean cH or LH ROI intensity of all fed fish. Food-deprived fish consistently  
158 displayed higher LH and lower cH pERK fluorescence after the onset of feeding (p=0.0019 for both cH  
159 and LH, one-tailed Wilcoxon signed-rank test).

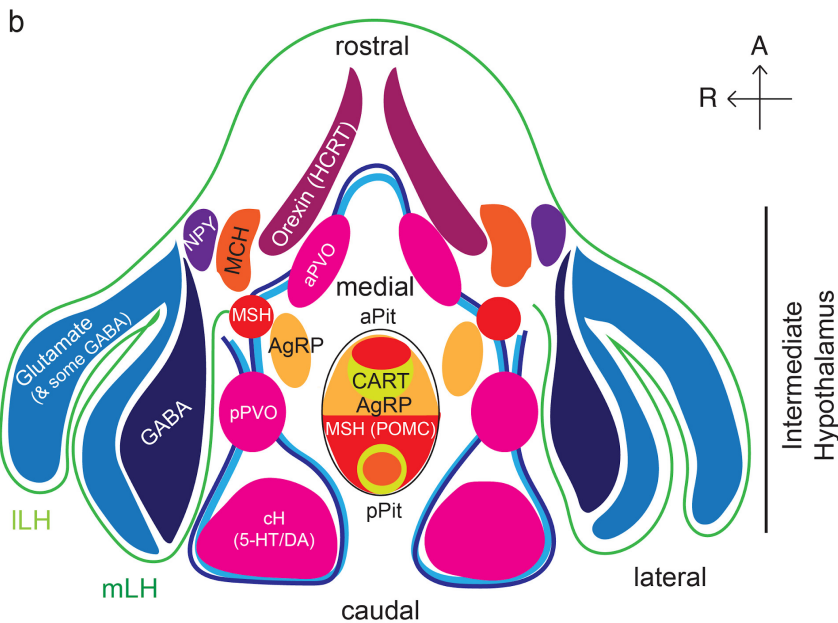
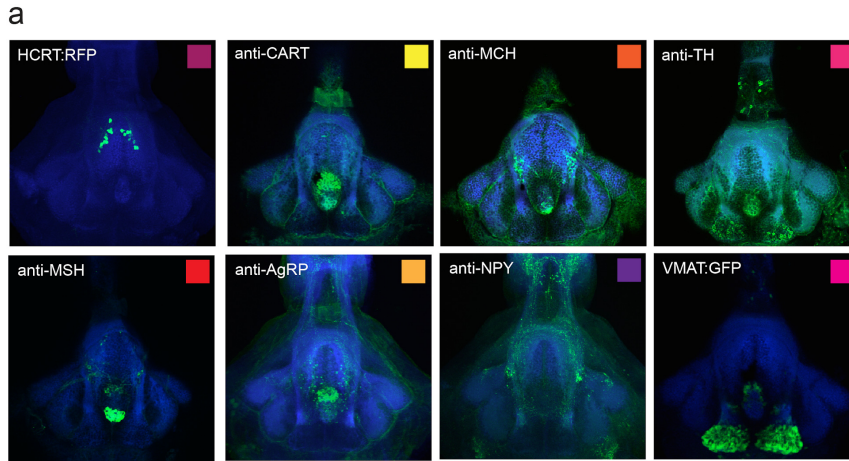
160 **(d)** Z-projection of same MAP-map as described in **(b)** in planes revealing the hypothalamus (right panel),  
161 where lateral regions (e.g. lateral hypothalamus, LH) display strong relative activation and medial regions  
162 (e.g. caudal hypothalamus, cH) display reduced activity in when food-deprived animals were fed for 15  
163 minutes. The map is overlaid onto a stack for the transgenic line *Tg(etVMAT:GFP)* (left panel) to localize  
164 the cH region.

165 **(e)** Six examples of independent component analysis (ICA) maps. Voxels for each recovered independent  
166 component (IC) are shown as maximum projections, with intensity proportional to the z-score of the  
167 loadings of the ICA signal. These ICs, along with others (22/30) highlight LH and cH regions of opposite  
168 loadings, suggesting they may be included in a network that displays anti-correlated activity patterns  
169 between the cH and LH. A subset of these ICs (e.g. #14 and #24) only showed partial anti-correlation  
170 between the cH and the LH. All ICs are shown in Figure 1- Figure Supplement 3. Positive (+) loading and  
171 Negative (-) loadings (z-score values of IC signals) are reflected in green and magenta, respectively.

172 **(f)** Confocal micrographs of anti-pERK antibody stained brains from animals that were continuously fed  
173 (panel (i), left), food-deprived for 2 hours (panel (i), center) and fed for 5 minutes after food-deprivation  
174 (panel (i), right). cH (ii) and LH (iii) insets are shown at higher magnification on the bottom and right side  
175 respectively. The lateral hypothalamus is shown with subdivisions *lateral lateral hypothalamus* (LLH) and  
176 *medial lateral hypothalamus* (MLH). (i) scale bar: 50  $\mu$ m; (ii) and (iii) scale bar: 20  $\mu$ m. Fish are mounted  
177 ventral side up.

178 **(g)** Quantification of cH and LH activities by normalized anti-pERK fluorescence intensity averaging. The  
179 normalized anti-pERK staining intensity for each region (ROI) was obtained by dividing the anti-pERK  
180 fluorescence from each fish (in all experimental groups) by the average anti-pERK fluorescence for the  
181 same ROI of continuously fed fish. Quantitative analysis performed on fish in 6 independent conditions (n  
182 =13/11/9/9/13/12). Normalized anti-pERK fluorescence intensity (cH/mLH/ILH): Fed vs Dep. ( $p =$   
183  $0.016/0.17/0.17$ ), Dep. vs Dep + 5 min food ( $p=3.1 \times 10^{-4}/9.9 \times 10^{-5}/0.02$ ), Fed vs Dep. + 5 min food ( $p=$   
184  $0.0097/0.001/0.08$ ). Asterisks denote  $p < 0.05$ , one-tailed Wilcoxon rank-sum test.  
185 **(h)** The active cell count metric (bottom panels) was determined as described in Figure 1 - Figure  
186 Supplement 4 by a thresholding protocol to isolate and count individual pERK-positive cells within a z-  
187 stack. This approach could be reliably performed for areas of sparse active cells (e.g. mLH and ILH) but  
188 not where individually labeled pERK-positive neurons are not well separated (such as the cH).  
189 Active Cell count (mLH/ILH): Fed vs Dep. ( $p = 0.001/0.0038$ ), Dep. vs Dep + 5 min food ( $p= 9.7 \times 10^{-}$   
190  $5/1.3 \times 10^{-5}$ ), Fed vs Dep. + 5 min food ( $p= 0.0038/0.048$ ). Asterisks denote  $p < 0.05$ , one-tailed Wilcoxon  
191 rank-sum test.  
192 **(i)** Schematic of inferred cH and LH activity in relation to feeding behavior. Note that, based on data in  
193 Figure 2, the LH active cell count appears to decline more rapidly than the rise in cH activity (based on cH  
194 average fluorescence intensity)  
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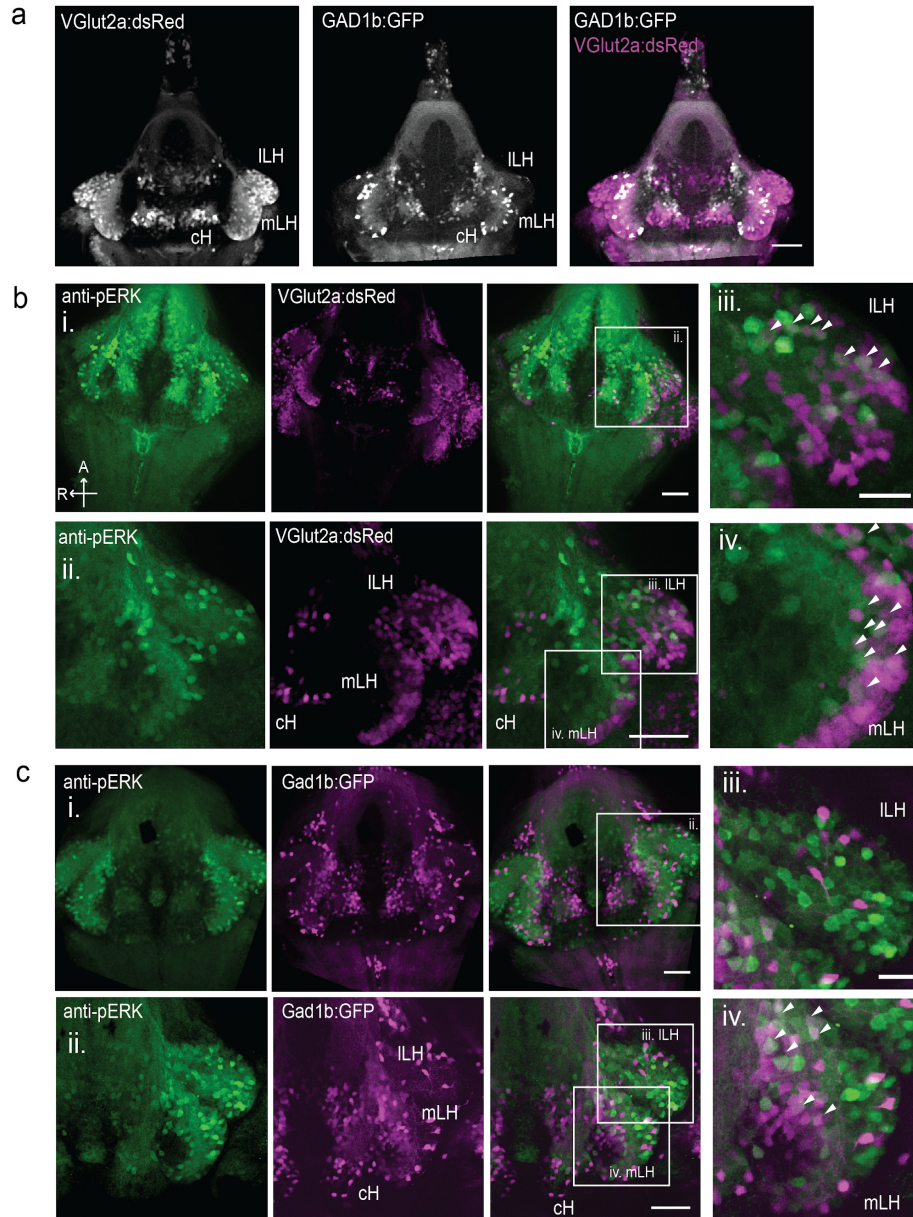


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198 **Figure 1 - Figure Supplement 1: Anatomical characterization of intermediate hypothalamus**  
 199 **expression of appetite related peptides**

200 (a) Expression patterns of a number of feeding-related peptides in the zebrafish hypothalamus, based on  
 201 antibody-staining or transgenic labels (see Methods). HCRT = hypocretin (orexin), CART = cocaine and  
 202 amphetamine related transcript MCH = melanin-concentrating hormone, TH = tyrosine hydroxylase  
 203 (labels dopaminergic and/or noradrenergic neurons), MSH = alpha-melanocyte stimulating hormone,  
 204 AgRP = Agouti-related peptide, NPY = neuropeptide Y, VMAT = vesicular monoamine transporter (labels  
 205 dopaminergic (DA) and serotonergic neurons (5-HT)). Note that MCH and HCRT staining is absent from  
 206 the zebrafish LH. Though not apparent from the schematic, HCRT is located more dorsally. The preoptic  
 207 area, which contains oxytocinergic as well as other peptidergic neurons, is located more dorsally and not  
 208 reflected in this schematic.

209 (b) Schematic view from the ventral perspective summarizing zebrafish hypothalamic peptide expression.  
 210 GABA (dark blue) and glutamatergic (blue) neurons are found in the lateral hypothalamus (see Figure 1-  
 211 Figure Supplement 2) and also throughout the medial regions of the hypothalamus. PVO =  
 212 paraventricular organ, which also contains DA and 5-HT neurons. A number of peptidergic neurons are  
 213 located within the anterior and posterior pituitary/hypophysis (aPit and pPit). Color code corresponds to  
 214 images in (a). A = anterior, R = right.



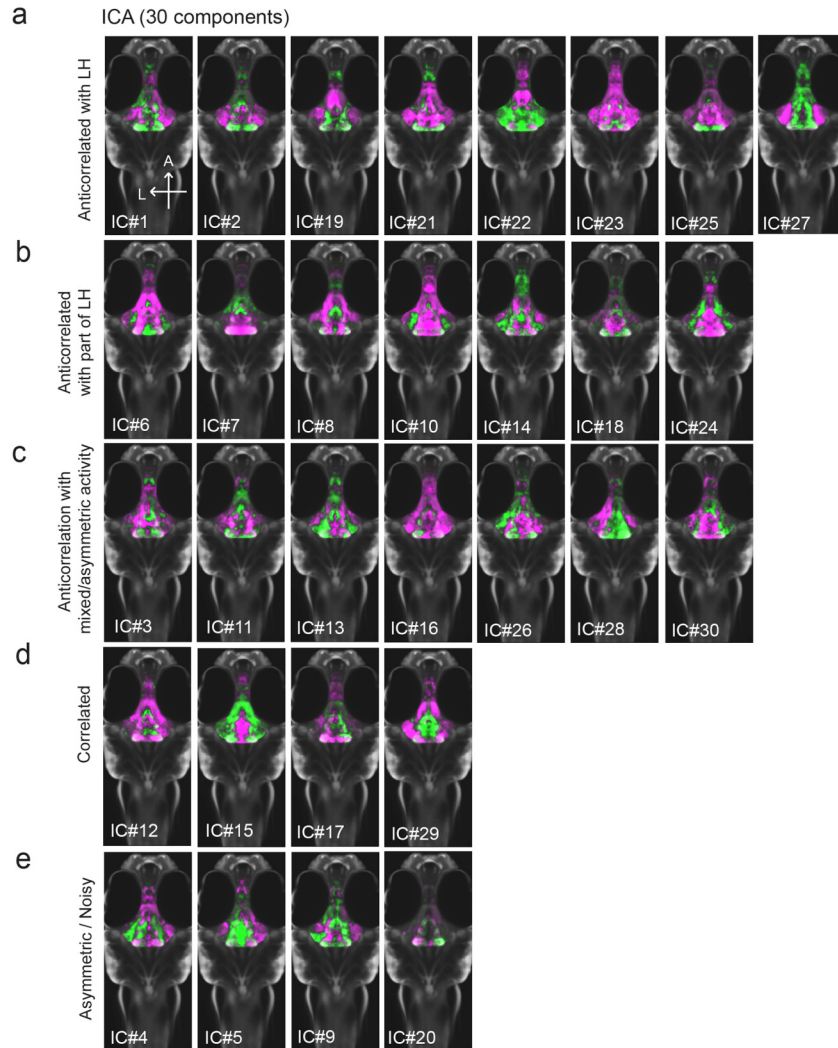
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**Figure 1- Figure Supplement 2: Characterization of neuronal transmitter types in the zebrafish lateral hypothalamus**

**(a)** Glutamatergic and GABAergic neuron distribution in the hypothalamus. *Tg(VGlut2a:dsRed)* and *Tg(GAD1b:GFP)* transgenic fish were dissected, imaged and registered onto a common reference hypothalamus. All fish in this figure were food-deprived for 2 hours and fixed for analysis after 15 minutes of feeding.

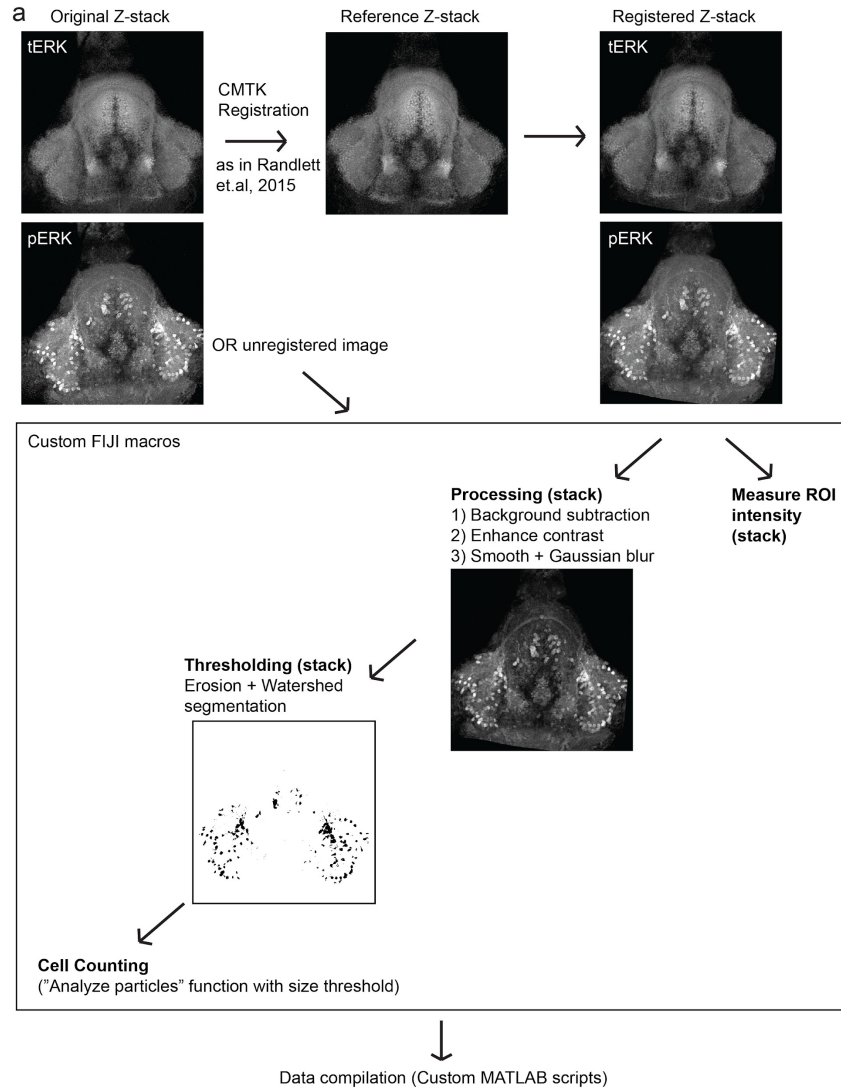
**(b)** Glutamatergic cells, labeled by *Tg(VGlut2a:dsRed)*, overlap with active (pERK-positive) neurons in both the ILH and outer rim of the mLH. (i) Z-projection of hypothalamus. (ii) Higher magnification images of LH (iii-iv) Inset showing overlap of ILH and outer rim of mLH with glutamatergic cells.

**(c)** GABAergic cells, labeled by *Tg(Gad1b:GFP)*, overlap with active neurons in the inner rim of the mLH but not the ILH. (i) Z-projection of hypothalamus. (ii) Higher magnification images of LH showing a subset of z-planes. (iii-iv) Inset showing overlap of inner rim of mLH with GABAergic cells. White arrows point to examples of overlapping cells. All fish were mounted ventral side up. Scale bar (i and ii) = 50  $\mu$ m. Inset (iii and iv) scale bar = 20  $\mu$ m.



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**Figure 1- Figure Supplement 3: All 30 independent components extracted from ICA analysis.** This method separates pERK signals into statistically independent components based on their correlated and anti-correlated activities, thus identifying putative functional connectivity (both positive or negative relationships) between different brain regions (Randlett et al., 2015; see Methods). Fish included in this analysis were either food-deprived (2 hrs), food-deprived and then fed for 15 minutes prior to harvest, or continuously fed (n = 300 fish total). **(a-c)** From this analysis, multiple independent component networks (ICs) were identified in which at least part of the LH displayed an inverse activity relationship (i.e. opposite loadings) with the cH (22/30). **(d)** 4/30 ICs had correlated LH and cH activity. However, in these cases lateral loci displayed some anti-correlated activity with medial loci (especially IC #15 and 29). **(e)** There were 4/30 ICs that displayed asymmetrical or noisy activity patterns that rendered them unclassifiable.



244

245 **Figure 1 – Figure Supplement 4: Automated quantification of pERK-positive (active) cells**

246 **(a)** Method by which pERK-positive ("active") cell count were determined in a high-throughput manner.  
247 Brain z-stacks obtained from confocal microscopy are registered with a selected reference brain within  
248 the same dataset, using the tERK channel, though in experiments where tERK staining was not  
249 performed, unregistered images were used (for which individual ROIs have to be defined for each image).  
250 A series of processing steps were uniformly applied to segment pERK-positive cells, which were selected  
251 using a manually optimized threshold across the entire dataset. Cell counts were obtained using the  
252 *Analyze Particles* algorithm within the Fiji software.

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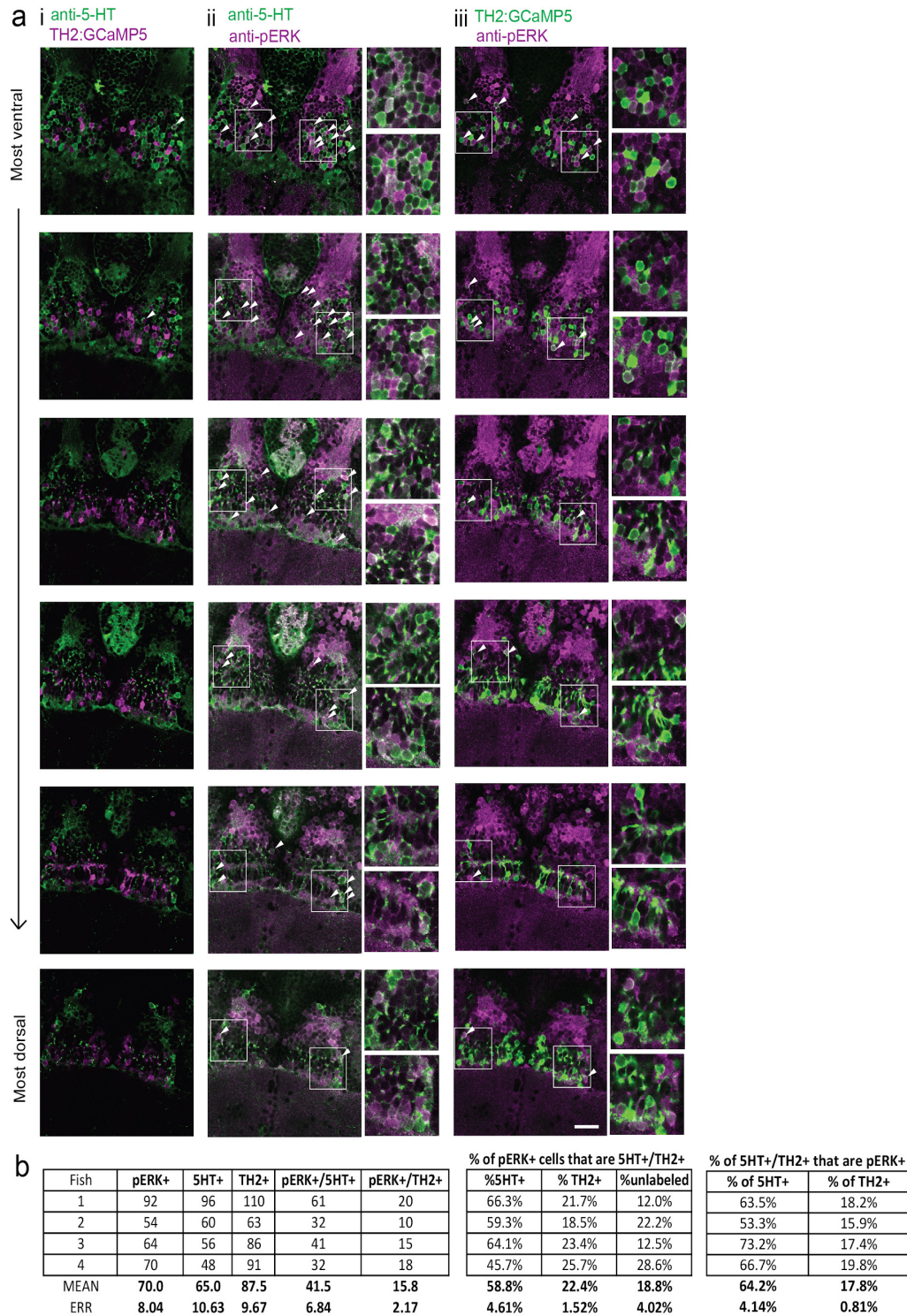
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255 ***Cellular dissection of hypothalamus neural activity reveals modulation by satiation state***

256 To probe these neural activity changes at higher resolution, we performed anti-pERK antibody  
257 staining on isolated brains and examined the hypothalamus in time course experiments  
258 spanning a period of food-deprivation and subsequent feeding (Figure 1f-h, Figure 2). We  
259 quantified the mean anti-pERK fluorescence within a region-of-interest (ROI; Figure 1g, top  
260 panels) as well as the number of active cells or cell clusters (Figure 1h; Figure 1 - Figure  
261 Supplement 4). These two metrics were employed because the high density of pERK-positive  
262 cells in the cH of food-deprived animals made high-throughput quantitation of active cells  
263 unreliable, whereas use of this metric in areas of sparse activity (e.g. mLH and LH) yielded  
264 better differential sensitivity than ROI averaging. Using these respective metrics, we observed  
265 that mean fluorescence in the cH was significantly increased in food-deprived fish, while the  
266 number of active neurons in the medial and lateral lobes of the LH (mLH and ILH, respectively)  
267 was relatively low (Figure 1f-h). Within the cH, enhanced pERK activity during food-deprivation  
268 was most prevalent in serotonergic neurons, but also present in a smaller proportion of  
269 dopaminergic neurons (Figure 1 - Figure Supplement 5, Video S2, S3).

270 During the period of voracious feeding that followed food-deprivation, the pERK-reported  
271 activity of cH neurons fell dramatically to a level significantly below that observed in  
272 continuously fed fish (Figure 1f-h). This characteristically low cH activity level coincided with a  
273 large increase in LH activity, measured by either mean anti-pERK fluorescence or by  
274 measurement of the number of individually active neurons, that lasted throughout the period of  
275 voracious feeding. Thereafter, as feeding continued at a more moderate pace, and the rate of  
276 food ingestion declined, LH neuronal activity likewise declined (especially for ILH neurons;  
277 Figure 1h). Reciprocally, cH activity slowly increased back towards baseline levels. After 30 min  
278 of feeding, neural activity in both the cH and LH had mostly converged to the baseline level  
279 observed for continuously fed fish, consistent with the time course of hunting behavior reduction

280 (Figure 1a, right panel). Thus these cH and LH populations displayed anti-correlated activity  
 281 over time frames that spanned a progression of distinct behaviors associated with food-  
 282 deprivation, voracious feeding and a gradual return to apparent satiety (Figure 1i).



283

284 **Figure 1 - Figure Supplement 5: Food-deprivation induced activity in caudal hypothalamus**  
285 **monoaminergic neurons.**

286 **(a)** Dopaminergic neurons are labeled in *Tg(TH2:GCaMP5)* fish. These animals were food-deprived for 2  
287 hours and then co-stained with anti-5-HT (to label serotonergic neurons) and anti-pERK antibodies in  
288 order to quantify food-deprivation induced activity in both cell types. Each row shows a different z-plane,  
289 moving from dorsal to ventral. (i) There is minimal overlap between *Tg(TH2:GCaMP5)*-positive cells  
290 (magenta) and 5-HT labeling (green). There is higher overlap of anti-pERK staining (magenta) with (iii) 5-  
291 HT-positive cells (green) as compared to (ii) *Tg(TH2:GCaMP5)*-positive cells (green). White arrows point  
292 to examples of overlapping cells. White boxes indicate region shown in insets. Scale bar = 20  $\mu$ m. Full z-  
293 stacks for (ii) pERK overlap with anti-5-HT staining (Video 2) and (iii) TH2:GCaMP5 expression (Video 3)  
294 are also provided.

295 **(b)** Quantification of overlap between pERK-positive cells and anti-5HT staining or *Tg(TH2:GCaMP5)*  
296 expression. Other cH cell types, including histaminergic neurons (Chen et al., 2016) are not labeled. Fish  
297 1 corresponds to the fish shown in (a).

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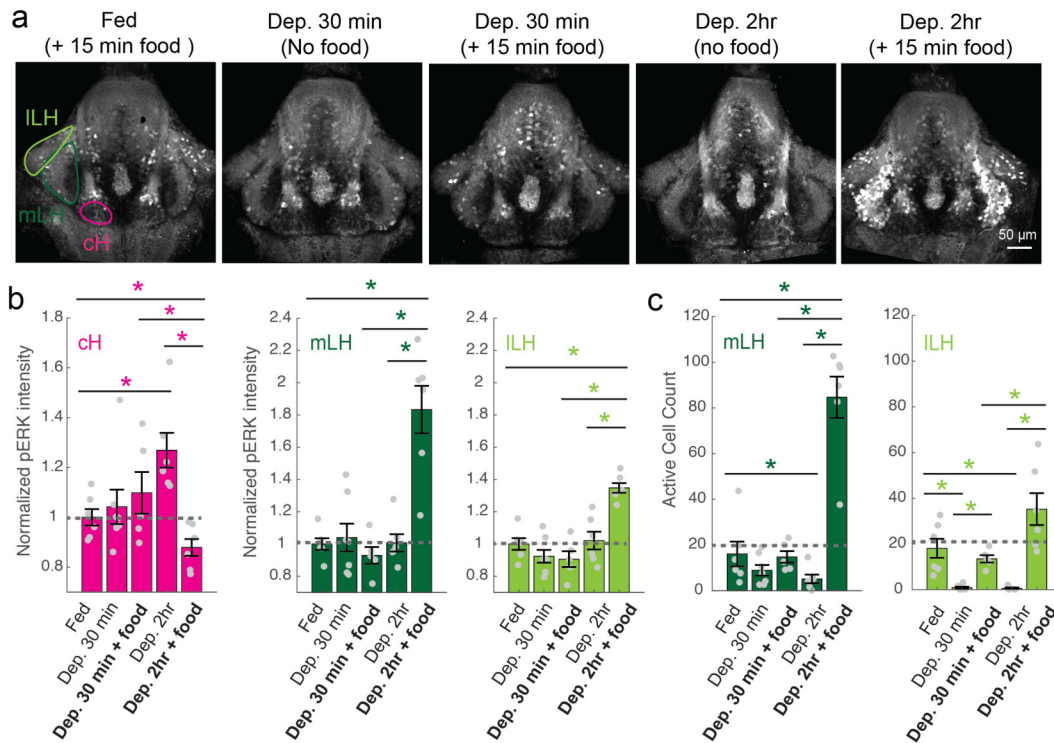
300 ***Satiation state influences the responses of cH and LH populations to food***

301

302 To more closely align the activity patterns of cH and LH neuronal populations with feeding  
303 behavior, we examined these areas after a 30 minute (i.e. short) or 2-4 hour (i.e. long) period of  
304 food-deprivation, with or without a subsequent period of voracious feeding (Figure 2, Figure 2 -  
305 Figure Supplement 1). Following food removal, cH activity increased, with an especially large  
306 anti-pERK average fluorescence intensity increase after 2 hours of food-deprivation (Figure 2a-  
307 b). In contrast to the cH, food removal quickly reduced the frequency of active mLH and ILH  
308 neurons (Figure 2a, c). Despite the reduction in LH active cell count over food deprivation, there  
309 were no obvious changes in mean LH anti-pERK fluorescence over the course of food-  
310 deprivation (Figure 2b). This is because there are few active LH cells in continuously fed and  
311 food-deprived fish, thus their overall contribution to the fluorescence average of the mLH and  
312 ILH regions of interest is small.

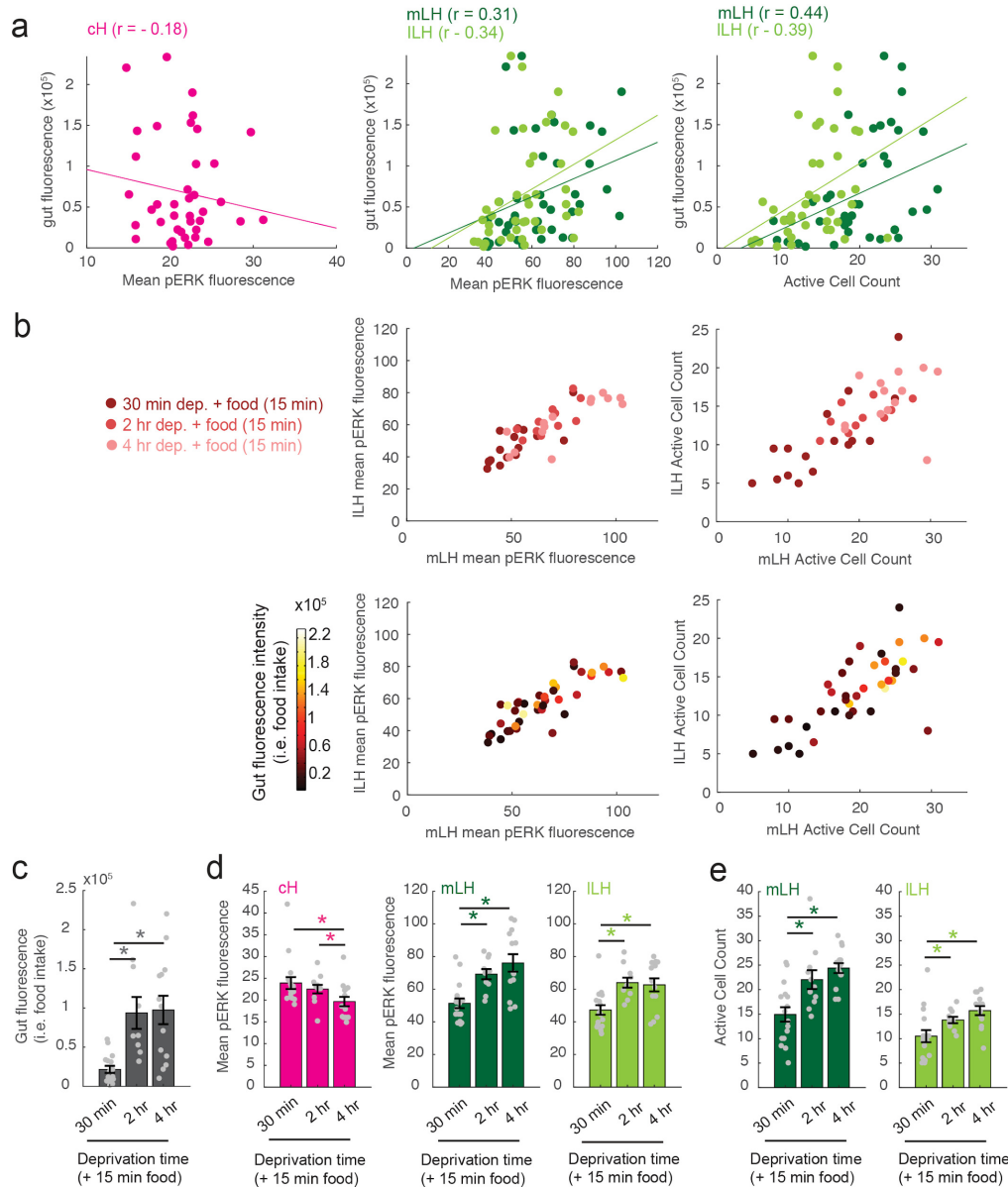
313 Notably, the addition of prey (paramecia) rapidly reversed the food-deprivation induced  
314 patterns of cH and LH neural activity, with an amplitude of change that was correlated with the  
315 length of food-deprivation (Figure 2a-c, Figure 2 - Figure Supplement 1d-e). Fish that had been  
316 food-deprived for longer periods (2 hrs or 4 hrs) displayed a greater increase in the number of  
317 active LH neurons compared to feeding animals that had been food-deprived for only 30  
318 minutes (Figure 2a-c; Figure 2 - Figure Supplement 1d-e). Likewise, the reduction in cH activity

319 after food presentation was greater when it followed a longer period of prior deprivation (Figure  
 320 2a-b; Figure 2 - Figure Supplement 1d). In general, the presence of highly active neurons in the  
 321 lateral hypothalamus was correlated with food consumption (as measured by gut fluorescence,  
 322 Figure 2 - Figure Supplement 1a-e).



323 **Figure 2 with 1 supplement: cH and LH activities are modulated by food and satiation state**  
 324 **(a)** Representative images showing that cH, mLH and ILH activities in the presence and absence of food  
 325 vary with the extent of food-deprivation (dataset quantified in **b** and **c**).  
 326 **(b)** Normalized pERK average fluorescence intensity in cH significantly increases with food-deprivation,  
 327 and is significantly reduced when food is presented to food-deprived fish. Normalized mLH and ILH pERK  
 328 average fluorescence intensity does not change significantly during food deprivation and strongly  
 329 increases during voracious feeding (Dep. 2 hr + food). Asterisks denote  $p < 0.05$ . Normalized pERK  
 330 intensity (cH/mLH/ILH): Fed vs Dep. 30 min ( $p = 0.53/0.47/0.15$ ), Fed vs Dep. 2 hr ( $p = 0.0022/0.41/0.59$ ),  
 331 Dep. 30 min + food vs Dep. 2 hr + food ( $p = 0.041/0.0022/0.0022$ ), Dep. 30 min vs Dep. 30 min + food ( $p$   
 332  $= 0.62/0.73/0.62$ ), Dep. 2 hr vs Dep. 2 hr + food ( $p = 0.0022/0.0011/0.0022$ ), Fed vs Dep. 2 hr + food  
 333 ( $0.047/0.0011/0.0011$ ). Anti-pERK staining fluorescence was averaged over each entire region of interest  
 334 (i.e. cH, mLH and ILH; see Methods for details). The normalized anti-pERK staining intensity for each  
 335 region (ROI) was obtained by dividing the anti-pERK fluorescence from each fish (in all experimental  
 336 groups) by the average anti-pERK fluorescence for the same ROI of continuously fed fish.  
 337 **(c)** The number of active mLH and ILH cells declines within 30 min of food deprivation, and is significantly  
 338 enhanced during feeding, particularly after a longer period of food-deprivation. Active cell count  
 339 (mLH/ILH): Fed vs Dep. 30 min ( $p = 0.155/5.8 \times 10^{-4}$ ), Fed vs Dep. 2 hr ( $p = 0.047/0.011$ ), Dep. 30 min +  
 340 food vs Dep. 2 hr + food ( $p = 0.0022/0.0043$ ), Dep. 30 min vs Dep. 30 min + food ( $p = 0.07/0.013$ ), Dep. 2  
 341 hr vs Dep. 2 hr + food ( $p = 0.0011/0.0011$ ), Fed vs Dep. 2 hr + food ( $p = 0.0022/0.07$ ),  $n = 6/7/5/6/6$  fish,  
 342 one-tailed Wilcoxon rank-sum test.  
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346 **Figure 2 - Figure Supplement 1: Modulation of cH, mLH and ILH activity in relation to feeding.** The  
347 dataset ( $n = 41$  fish) includes animals food-deprived for 30 min ( $n = 16$ ), 2 hr ( $n = 11$ ), or 4 hr ( $n = 14$ ),  
348 and subsequently fed labeled paramecia for 15 min. Brains from these animals were individually-stained  
349 with anti-pERK antibody in multi-well plates in order to correlate each one's food intake with cH, mLH and  
350 ILH neural activity.

351 **(a)** Gut fluorescence (i.e. food intake) of all fish as a function of mean cH pERK fluorescence, mean LH  
352 (mLH and ILH) anti-pERK staining average fluorescence and active cell count. Mean pERK fluorescence  
353 reflects the average fluorescence within the cH, mLH or ILH regions of interest. This dataset was not  
354 normalized. Each datapoint represents an individual fish.

355 **(b) Top:** mLH and ILH mean pERK fluorescence (left), and active cell count (right) of all fish ( $n = 41$ )  
356 plotted as a function of food-deprivation time (denoted by color intensity). **Bottom:** mLH and ILH mean  
357 fluorescence (left) and cell count (right) of all fish ( $n = 41$ ) plotted as a function of gut fluorescence (i.e.  
358 food intake) after 15 min of feeding (denoted by color intensity).

359 **(c-e)** Quantification of gut fluorescence, cH and LH mean pERK fluorescence and LH active cell count  
360 across the different food deprivation times (30 min, 2 hr, and 4 hr). Note that in this dataset, because  
361 anti-pERK was conducted on each brain individually, there is higher variance between specimens and  
362 reduced statistical significance in cH quantification data (compare with Figure 2b, left panel). Asterisks  
363 denote  $p < 0.05$ .  
364 **(c)** Food intake: After 30 min vs 2 hr deprivation ( $p = 2.8 \times 10^{-4}$ ), 30 min vs 4 hr deprivation ( $p = 4.0 \times 10^{-4}$ ), 2  
365 hr vs 4 hr deprivation ( $p = 0.56$ ). Asterisk denotes  $p < 0.05$ ,  $n = 16/11/14$  fish (30 min/2 hr/4 hr food-  
366 deprivation + 15 min food), one-tailed Wilcoxon rank-sum test.  
367 **(d)** Mean pERK fluorescence (cH/mLH/ILH): After 30 min vs 2 hr deprivation ( $p = 0.60/0.001/5.9 \times 10^{-4}$ ), 30  
368 min vs 4 hr deprivation ( $p = 0.084/8.6 \times 10^{-4}/0.058$ ), 2 hr vs 4 hr deprivation ( $p = 0.02/0.24/0.54$ ). Sample  
369 sizes as in **(c)**.  
370 **(e)** Active cell count (mLH/ILH): After 30 min vs 2 hr deprivation ( $p = 0.0073/0.0094$ ), 30 min vs 4 hr  
371 deprivation ( $p = 1.6 \times 10^{-4}/0.0017$ ), 2 hr vs 4 hr deprivation ( $p = 0.056/0.053$ ). Sample sizes as in **(c)**.  
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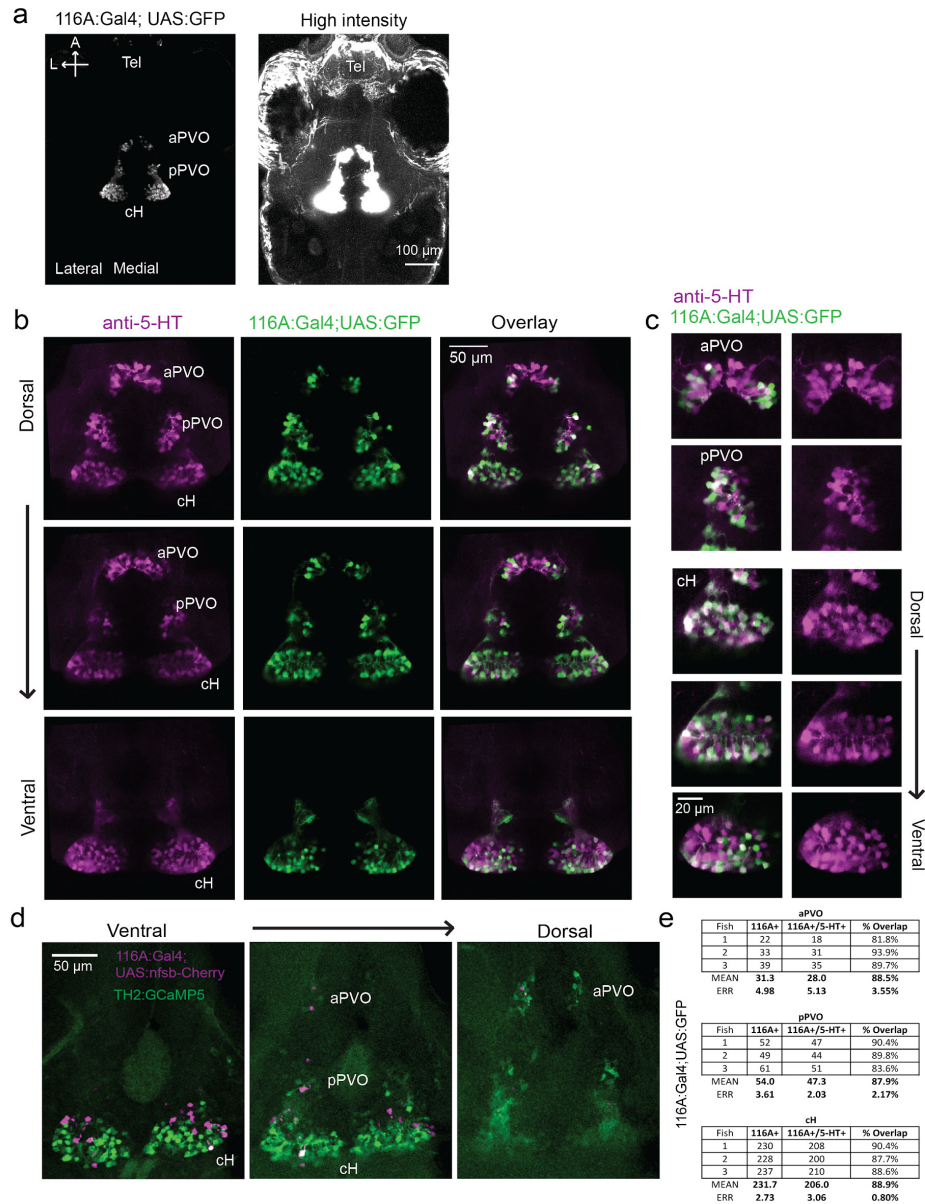
373 ***Caudal and lateral hypothalamic responses to food sensory cues are anti-correlated over***  
374 ***short timescales***

375 We next set out to characterize acute effects of food sensory cues on both the cH and LH, and  
376 also to analyze in more detail the apparent negative activity relationship between these two  
377 nuclei. Such analyses require higher temporal resolution than afforded by anti-pERK staining  
378 analysis, thus we switched to *in vivo* calcium imaging in cH and LH in live animals (Figure 3). To  
379 that end, two transgenic Gal4 drivers, *Tg(116A:Gal4)* and *Tg(76A:Gal4)*, were combined to  
380 express GCaMP6s (*Tg(UAS:GCaMP6s)*) in neuronal subsets of both the cH and LH (Figure 3 -  
381 Figure Supplements 1-2). The 116A:Gal4 transgene drives expression mainly in serotonergic  
382 neurons in the cH ( $88.9 \pm 0.8\%$  5-HT positive) and paraventricular organ (PVO; Figure 3 - Figure  
383 Supplement 1), whereas 76A:Gal4 drives expression in a large proportion of LH cells (Figure 3 -  
384 Figure Supplement 2; Muto et al., 2017).

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**Figure 3 - Figure Supplement 1: Characterization of the 116A:Gal4 line**

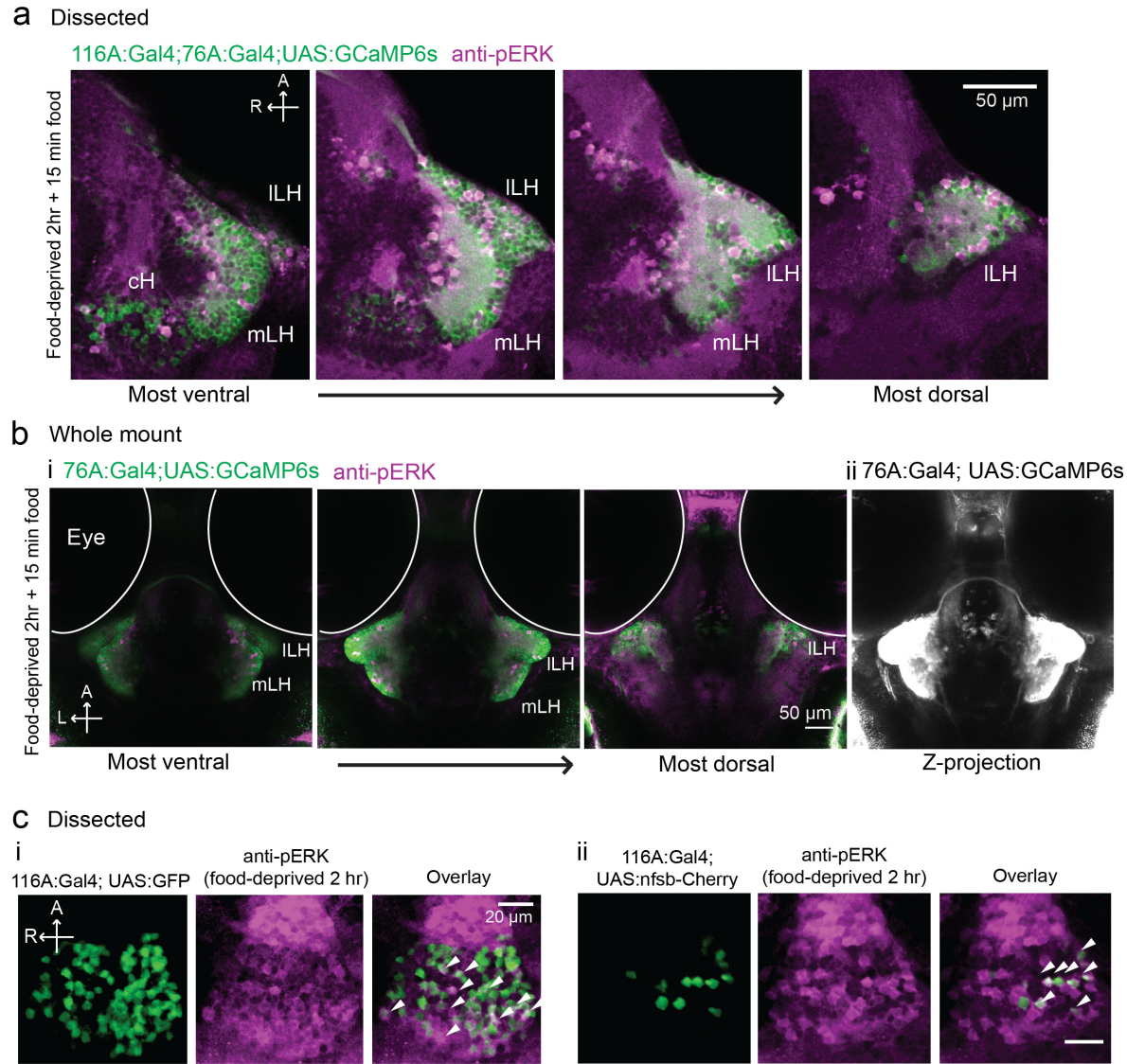
(a) Z-projection images of whole mount *Tg(116A:Gal4;UAS:GFP)* fish at low (left) and high (right) intensities. Scale bar = 100  $\mu$ m.

(b) Overlap of *Tg(116A:Gal4;UAS:GFP)* (green) with anti-5-HT (magenta) immunostaining is seen in all layers of the caudal hypothalamus, as well as the anterior and posterior paraventricular organ (aPVO and pPVO). Each row shows a different z-plane, moving from dorsal to ventral. Scale bar = 50  $\mu$ m.

(c) Higher magnification images of the cH, aPVO and pPVO from left side of image in (b).

(d) Minimal overlap of *Tg(116A:Gal4;UAS:nfsb-mCherry)* (magenta) with dopaminergic neurons labeled by *Tg(TH2:GCaMP5)* (green). Note that the *Tg(116A:Gal4;UAS:nfsb-mCherry)* transgenic, which is used in ablation experiments, shows sparser labeling than with *Tg(UAS:GFP)*. In this fish, 2 out of 17 (11.8%) of *Tg(116A:Gal4;UAS:nfsb-mCherry)* cells overlapped with *Tg(TH2:GCaMP5)* expression. Scale bar = 50  $\mu$ m.

(e) Quantification of 5-HT overlap with *Tg(116A:Gal4;UAS:GFP)* in the cH, aPVO and pPVO.

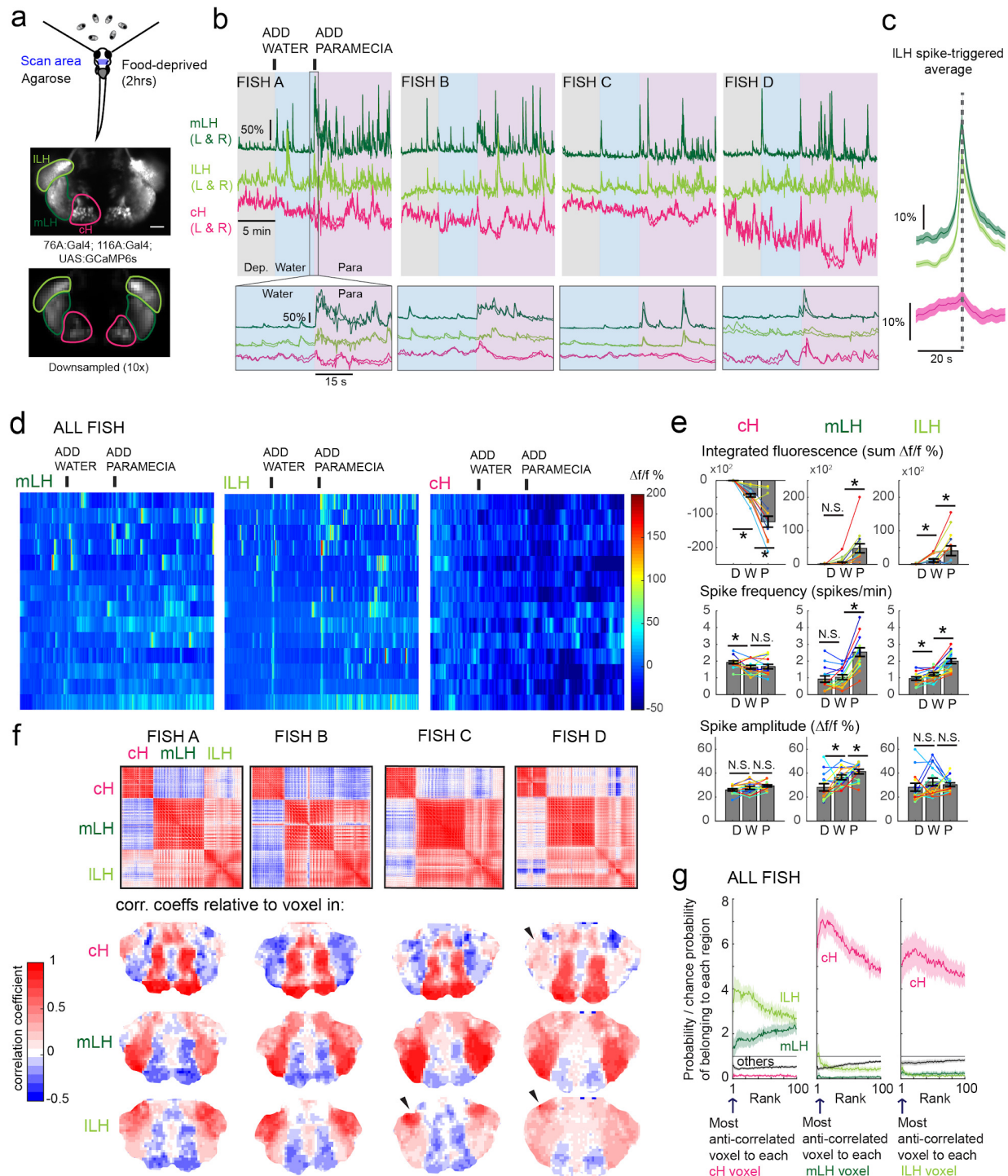


**Figure 3 - Figure Supplement 2: Overlap of 116A:Gal4 and 76A:Gal4 driven reporter expression with hypothalamic activity under conditions of food-deprivation and feeding**

(a) mLH and ILH activity in voraciously-feeding (food-deprived 2 hr + 15 min) paramecia overlaps with *Tg(76A:Gal4;UAS:GCaMP6s)* expression (green, dissected brains). All visible pERK-positive neurons (magenta) were also co-labeled with GCaMP6s. *Tg(116A:Gal4)* is also expressed (green). Scale bar = 50 µm.

(b) mLH and ILH activity in voraciously-feeding fish overlaps with *Tg(76A:Gal4;UAS:GCaMP6s)* expression (whole-mount). All visible pERK-positive neurons were also co-labeled with GFP. Note that more dorsally and anteriorly (as visible in the third panel of (i), and the z-projection in (ii)) other neurons beyond the LH are labeled by *Tg(76A:Gal4;UAS:GCaMP6s)*. Scale bar = 50 µm.

(c) pERK positive cells (magenta) in 2 hr food-deprived fish overlap partially with *Tg(116A:Gal4)* expression (green, dissected brains). (i) Overlap with *Tg(116A:Gal4;UAS:GFP)* (ii) Overlap with *Tg(116A:Gal4;UAS:nfsb-mCherry)*. Scale bar = 20 µm.



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421 **Figure 3 with 3 supplements: Caudal and lateral hypothalamic responses to prey sensory cues are**  
422 **anti-correlated over short timescales**

423 **(a) Top:** Transgenic fish (2 hr food-deprived) with GCaMP6s expressed in cH and LH neurons were  
424 paralyzed, tethered in agarose with their eyes and nostrils free and exposed to live paramécie (prey), as  
425 described in Methods. **Top image:** GCaMP expression in the cH and LH driven by two transgenic lines,

426 *Tg(116A:Gal4)* and *Tg(76A:Gal4)* respectively. **Bottom image:** Downsampled image stack used for  
427 analysis in (f).

428 **(b) Top:** Mean calcium activity ( $\Delta f/f$ ) from respective hypothalamic ROIs (shown in (a)) from 4 individual  
429 fish during a baseline food-deprived period (Dep.), exposure to water alone (Water), and a dense water  
430 drop of paramecia (Para). Traces from left and right hypothalamic lobes of the same animal are overlain,  
431 revealing a high degree of correlated activity on opposite sides of the midline. Paramecia presentation  
432 increases activity in the LH and reduces activity in the cH, revealing opposing activity on short timescales.  
433 **Bottom:**  $\Delta f/f$  traces within area marked by grey box (top), displayed at higher magnification. An increase  
434 in LH activity and corresponding reduction in cH activity is observable within seconds of paramecia  
435 presentation, except for fish D in which maximal responses only occur after a few minutes (beyond the  
436 displayed time window).

437 **(c)** Average  $\Delta f/f$  triggered on ILH calcium spikes (left and right lobes averaged) shows a mean  
438 corresponding reduction in cH activity ( $n = 159$  ILH spikes extracted from mean  $\Delta f/f$  traces from 14 fish  
439 across the entire duration of the experiment).

440 **(d)** Raster plots showing mean calcium activity from the hypothalamic lobes (left and right lobes  
441 averaged) of 14 fish before and after presentation of water alone and water with paramecia.

442 **(e)** Quantification of integrated fluorescence (sum  $\Delta f/f$  %), calcium spike frequency (spikes/min) and  
443 calcium spike amplitude ( $\Delta f/f$  %) per fish across experimental epochs (300 s food-deprived baseline (D),  
444 300 s after water (W) delivery or 600 s after paramecia delivery (P). Each colored line represents data  
445 from an individual fish (left and right lobes averaged). Water alone was sufficient to significantly reduce  
446 cH integrated fluorescence ( $p = 6.1 \times 10^{-5}$ ) and spike frequency ( $p = 0.0127$ ) but not spike amplitude ( $p =$   
447  $0.9324$ ). Water alone was similarly sufficient to increase ILH integrated fluorescence ( $p = 0.029$ ) and  
448 spike frequency ( $p = 0.0098$ ) but not spike amplitude ( $p = 0.13$ ). Conversely, water alone was not  
449 sufficient to significantly modulate mLH integrated fluorescence ( $p = 0.48$ ) or spike frequency ( $p = 0.20$ ),  
450 but was sufficient to increase spike amplitude ( $p = 0.039$ ). Paramecia delivery significantly increased  
451 mLH and ILH integrated fluorescence (mLH,  $p = 1.2 \times 10^{-4}$ ; ILH,  $p = 0.045$ ) and spike frequency (mLH,  $p =$   
452  $6.1 \times 10^{-5}$ ; ILH,  $6.1 \times 10^{-4}$ ), while only significantly increasing mLH spike amplitude (mLH,  $p = 0.045$ , ILH,  $p =$   
453  $0.43$ ), relative to water delivery. In contrast, paramecia delivery significantly reduced cH integrated  
454 fluorescence relative to water delivery alone ( $p = 3.1 \times 10^{-4}$ ), but not spike frequency ( $p = 0.52$ ) nor spike  
455 amplitude ( $p = 0.85$ ). W = water, P = paramecia. Asterisks denote  $p < 0.05$ , one-tailed Wilcoxon signed-  
456 rank test.

457 **(f) Top:** Cross-correlogram of hypothalamic cell-sized voxels (cells and/or neuropil from downsampled  
458 image stacks, see Figure 3a) from 4 fish. The cH and LH voxels were mostly anti-correlated, whereas  
459 voxels within each cluster displayed correlated activity. Black arrowheads indicate region of ILH that  
460 appears to be most anti-correlated with the cH. **Bottom:** Correlation coefficients of other hypothalamic  
461 voxels relative to a selected voxel with the cH, mLH or ILH. See color key for numerical translation of  
462 color maps.

463 **(g)** Summary of data from 14 fish, showing the probability of the  $n^{\text{th}}$  most anti-correlated voxel belonging  
464 to each of the other regions (cH, mLH or ILH), normalized to chance probability (gray line) of belonging to  
465 each region (i.e. the fraction of all voxels occupied by each region). For example, if we consider all the  
466 voxels within the cH, there is a four-fold probability relative to chance of their most anti-correlated voxels  
467 (Rank = 1) being part of the ILH.

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474           Using these transgenic animals we examined calcium dynamics in the cH and LH  
475 regions in tethered animals during the controlled presentation of prey stimuli (Figure 3a). In  
476 these experiments, live paramecia were released in a puff of water in the vicinity of the  
477 immobilized fish, which can neither hunt nor ingest prey. Consistent with the results of anti-  
478 pERK analysis of post-fixed brains (Figures 1 and 2), activity in the mLH and ILH regions was  
479 increased and cH activity quickly reduced, in fact within seconds of paramecia release (Figure  
480 3b, d). Neurons in all three hypothalamic loci also responded to water flow alone, but these  
481 responses were significantly less than those elicited by paramecia (Figure 3b, d, e). These prey-  
482 induced changes in activity were particularly striking for the mLH region, which displayed both a  
483 strongly enhanced spike frequency and spike amplitude upon the introduction of prey. Thus,  
484 prey sensory cues, even in the absence of hunting or prey ingestion, strongly and differentially  
485 regulate neuronal activity in the caudal and lateral hypothalamus.

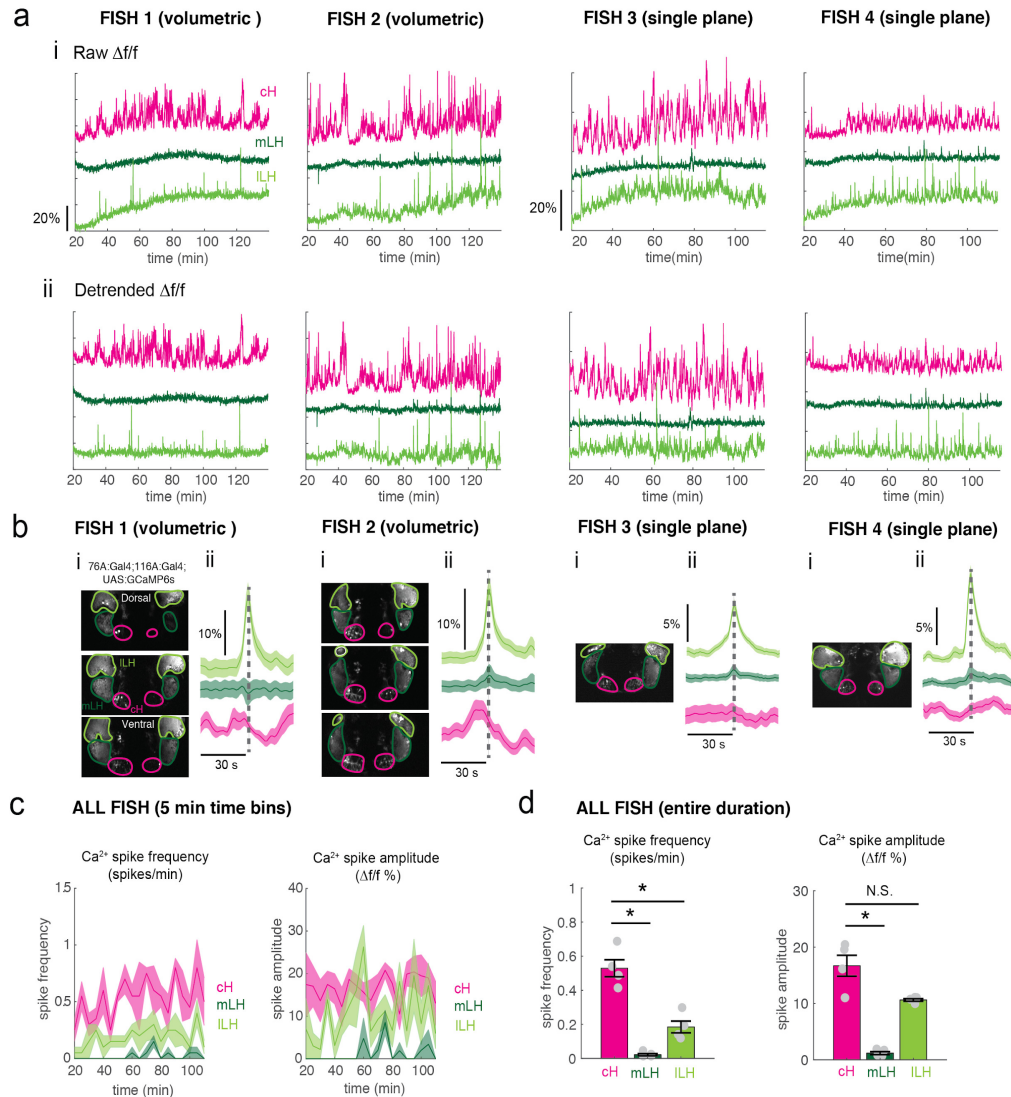
486           The activities of cH and LH neurons also appeared remarkably anti-correlated; both  
487 spontaneous or prey-induced fluctuations in one population were accompanied by  
488 corresponding opposing activity changes in the other (Figure 3b-c). This observation was  
489 supported by cross-correlation analysis between cH, mLH and ILH voxels (Figure 3f), which  
490 revealed high correlation within the same hypothalamic region (red color), and anti-correlation  
491 between cH and LH regions (blue color). Further, ILH voxels showed more spatial heterogeneity  
492 than mLH voxels (Figure 3f), though a small cluster of cells at the most-anterior part of the ILH  
493 was most consistently anti-correlated with cH activity (Fish C and D, black arrowheads). When  
494 ranked according to their degrees of anti-correlation with voxels from other lobes, the cH and  
495 ILH displayed the greatest anti-correlation (Figure 3g). Overall, these results indicate that cH  
496 and LH neurons display generally anti-correlated activity over short timescales, in addition to the  
497 anti-correlation observed over epochs reflecting motivational states imposed by food deprivation  
498 and feeding.

499           In addition to these studies over short timescales, we also analyzed live imaging traces

500 that spanned extended time periods (up to 2 hours) of food-deprivation (Figure 3 - Supplement  
501 Figure 3). This long-term imaging resulted in some confounding modulation of baseline  
502 fluorescence over these timescales (Figure 3 - Figure Supplement 3a, particularly ILH trace),  
503 that do not necessarily reflect changes in neural firing (Berridge, 1998; Verkhatsky, 2005) and  
504 may well be related to modified internal states caused by tethering and immobilization.  
505 Nonetheless, we observed significantly higher calcium spike frequencies and amplitudes in the  
506 cH as compared to LH regions over the course of food deprivation (Figure 3 - Figure  
507 Supplement 3a, c-d), activity patterns that were the opposite of those observed for these  
508 regions when prey was presented (Figure 3b, e). For example, the calcium spike amplitude and  
509 frequency of the cH region were many-fold greater than those observed in the mLH region  
510 during food-deprivation (Figure 3 - Figure Supplement 3d), whereas after prey presentation,  
511 these relative activities were reversed, with the mLH displaying significantly greater spike  
512 amplitude and frequency than the cH (Figure 3b, e). Likewise, ILH calcium spike frequency is  
513 significantly lower than the cH during food-deprivation, but increases significantly after prey  
514 presentation (Figure 3 - Figure Supplement 3d, Figure 3e). Thus, the cH is more active over  
515 food-deprivation, and the LH under conditions in which food is present.

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### Figure 3 - Figure Supplement 3: Calcium imaging of cH and LH over food-deprivation

Calcium imaging of 4 individual fish during food-deprivation. Note that fish were imaged ~20 min after embedding, thus initial food-deprivation time is already 20 min. Thus, the initial reduction in LH active cell count, which occurs within 30 min (Figure 2) may not be observable using this imaging method.

(a) Fish 1 and 2 were imaged using volumetric imaging for 115 min, whereas fish 3 and 4 were imaged only at a single plane, and for a slightly shorter time period of 90 min (see images in (b)) (i): Mean  $\Delta f/f$  across the entire (both lobes) of the cH, mLH and ILH (i.e. raw) show increases in baseline fluorescence over time. (ii) Mean  $\Delta f/f$  with baseline subtracted (i.e. detrended). Since a rising baseline over long imaging periods is difficult to interpret (see text for discussion), we also display detrended traces.

(b) (i): Average intensity projection images showing imaged regions with ROIs outlined. (ii) Spike-triggered averages based on extracted ILH calcium spikes (from detrended traces) usually reveal an accompanying reduction in cH calcium fluorescence ( $\Delta f/f$ ).

(c) Calcium spike frequency (spikes/min, left) and calcium spike amplitude ( $\Delta f/f$  %, right) for each ROI averaged over 5 min bins throughout the imaging session for the above 4 fish. Colored lines are the means, shaded areas reflects SEM.

(d) Over the entire imaging period, calcium spike frequency (left) was significantly higher in the cH as compared to the mLH ( $p = 0.014$ ) and ILH ( $p = 0.014$ ). Calcium spike amplitude (right) was also significantly higher in the cH as compared to the mLH ( $p = 0.014$ ), but not the ILH ( $p = 0.057$ ), one-tailed Wilcoxon rank-sum test.

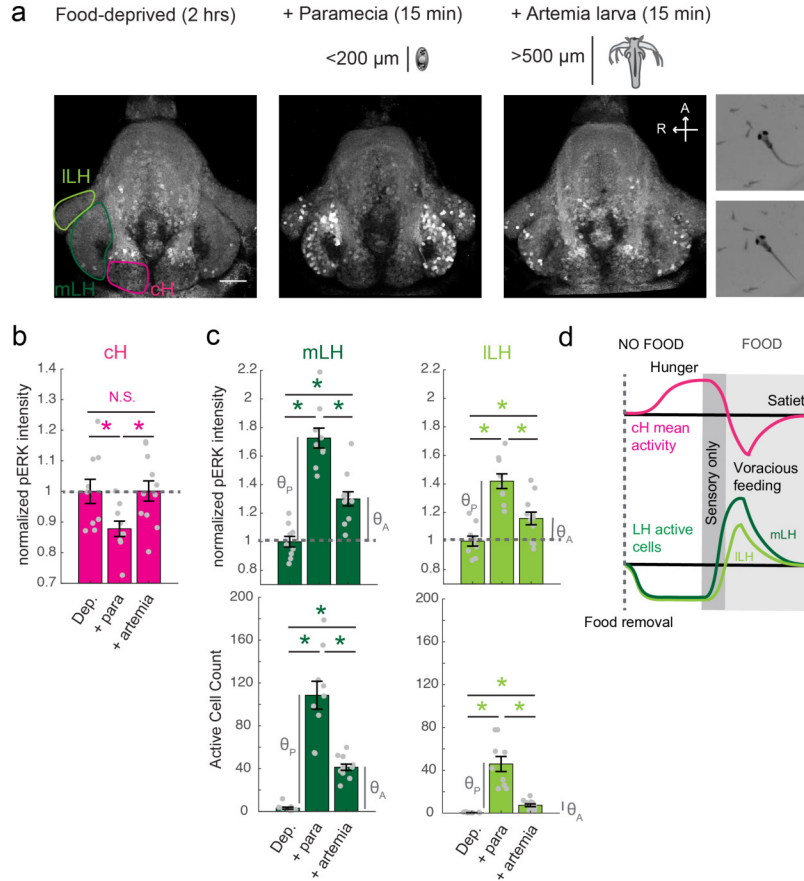
539 ***Separation of cH and LH neuronal activities associated with prey detection and ingestion***

540 We next sought to characterize the responses of hypothalamic regions to prey ingestion, as  
541 opposed to the mere detection of prey. To distinguish between the consequences of sensory  
542 and consummatory inputs, we compared neural activities in food-deprived fish exposed to  
543 paramecia or artemia. Artemia are live prey commonly fed to adult zebrafish and are actively  
544 hunted by fish at all stages, including larvae (Figure 4a, Video 4). Thus, artemia provide sensory  
545 inputs that elicit hunting behavior in larval animals. They are however too large to be swallowed  
546 and consumed by larvae. Thus, the comparison between these two types of prey dissociates  
547 neural activity triggered by prey detection and hunting from that of food ingestion.

548 Prey ingestion can only occur in freely behaving animals and thus we needed to return  
549 to pERK based activity mapping in post-fixed animals for our analysis. We found that artemia  
550 exposure caused significant increases in both mLH and ILH activity, whereas little change was  
551 detected in cH neurons (Figure 4a-c). Exposure to paramecia on the other hand triggered an  
552 even larger response in both LH lobes and led, as expected, to a significant reduction in cH  
553 activity. In order to quantify the relative changes in the mLH and ILH lobes, we compared the  
554 artemia-induced activity change ( $\theta_A$ ) to the paramecia-induced activity change ( $\theta_P$ ) for each  
555 lobe. The average mLH anti-pERK fluorescence only displayed a marginally greater artemia-  
556 induced increase ( $\theta_A/\theta_P = 41\%$ ) than the ILH region ( $\theta_A/\theta_P = 38\%$ ; Figure 4c, top panel).  
557 However, when the frequency of active neurons was compared, the mLH displayed a much  
558 larger response ( $\theta_A/\theta_P = 32\%$ ) to artemia than the ILH ( $\theta_A/\theta_P = 15\%$ ). Taken together with our  
559 calcium imaging results (Figure 3), these observations indicate that while all three hypothalamic  
560 regions (cH, mLH and ILH) are modulated by prey sensory cues, they respond more strongly to  
561 prey ingestion. Among these regions, the mLH appears to be the most highly tuned to prey  
562 detection in the absence of prey ingestion (Figure 4d).

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566 **Figure 4: Sensory cues and prey ingestion differentially regulate cH and LH neural activity**

567 **(a)** Representative images of activity induced by exposure of 7-8 dpf larval zebrafish to parametia or  
 568 artemia larvae, as examined by anti-pERK antibody staining. Hatched artemia are actively hunted but are  
 569 too large to consume, allowing for the dissociation of sensory cues and hunting behavior from prey  
 570 consumption. Scale bar = 50  $\mu\text{m}$ . Rightmost two panels (top and bottom): Larval zebrafish hunt live  
 571 artemia, performing J-bends and pursuits with eyes converged (see video 4; Bianco et al., 2011).  
 572 Asterisks denote  $p < 0.05$ .

573 **(b)** cH activity (normalized pERK fluorescence intensity) is significantly reduced by exposure to  
 574 parametia but not by exposure to artemia ( $p = 0.016$  (parametia),  $0.648$  (artemia)).

575 **(c)** LH activity can be induced by artemia, and more strongly by parametia. Both normalized pERK  
 576 intensity (mLH:  $p = 2.06 \times 10^{-5}$  (parametia vs control),  $p = 7.09 \times 10^{-4}$  (artemia vs control),  $p = 5.43 \times 10^{-5}$   
 577 (artemia vs parametia); ILH:  $p = 2.06 \times 10^{-5}$  (parametia vs control),  $p = 0.020$  (artemia vs control),  $p =$   
 578  $0.0019$  (artemia vs parametia)) and active cell count (mLH:  $p = 2.06 \times 10^{-5}$  (parametia vs control),  $p =$   
 579  $9.58 \times 10^{-5}$  (artemia vs control),  $p = 1.77 \times 10^{-4}$  (artemia vs parametia); ILH:  $p = 2.06 \times 10^{-5}$  (parametia vs  
 580 control),  $p = 9.75 \times 10^{-5}$  (artemia vs control),  $p = 9.86 \times 10^{-5}$  (artemia vs parametia)) are shown, with  $n =$   
 581  $9/9/11$  fish, one-tailed Wilcoxon rank-sum test). Anti-pERK staining fluorescence was averaged over each  
 582 entire region of interest (cH, mLH and ILH; see Methods for details). The normalized anti-pERK staining  
 583 intensity for each region (ROI) was obtained by dividing the anti-pERK fluorescence from each fish (in all  
 584 experimental groups) by the average anti-pERK fluorescence for the same ROI of food-deprived (i.e.  
 585 control) fish. We also compared the artemia-induced activity change ( $\theta_A$ ) to the parametia-induced  
 586 activity change ( $\theta_P$ ) for each lobe (see main text).

587 **(d)** Differential neural activation of the cH and LH regions in response to prey sensation and hunting as  
 588 compared to prey ingestion.

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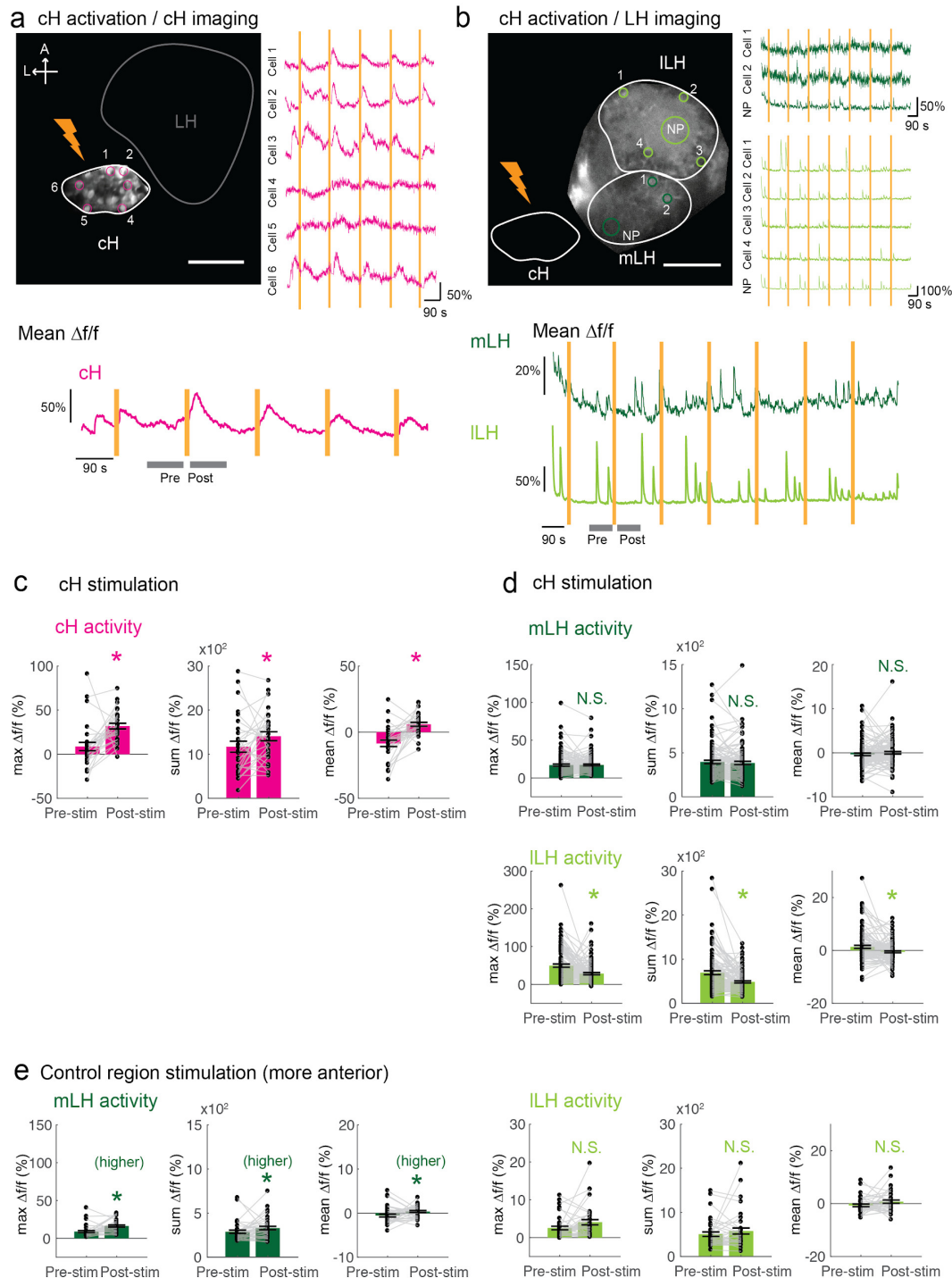
590 ***Optogenetic cH activation suppresses ILH neural activity***

591 The observed anti-correlated patterns of caudal and lateral hypothalamus neural activity in both  
592 our calcium imaging and pERK-based activity data suggest they might interact via mutual  
593 inhibition. For example, during food deprivation, rising cH activity could restrain LH activity,  
594 while a subsequent experience of prey detection and ingestion might trigger LH activity that  
595 inhibits cH activity. This reduction in cH activity may, in turn, relieve suppression of LH activity, a  
596 neural ‘switch’ that could drive voracious feeding behavior.

597 As an initial test of this hypothesis, we determined whether optogenetic excitation of cH  
598 neurons would be sufficient to inhibit LH neural activity. We used the *Tg(y333:Gal4)* line  
599 (Marquart et al., 2015) to drive expression of a red-shifted channelrhodopsin (*Tg(UAS:ReaChR-*  
600 *RFP)* (Dunn et al., 2016; Lin et al., 2013) in cH neurons (see Figure 5- Figure Supplement 1  
601 regarding choice of *Tg(y333:Gal4)*). The *y333:Gal4* line drives ReaChR expression in a large  
602 fraction of cH serotonergic neurons ( $57.4 \pm 2.1\%$ ; Figure 5- Figure Supplement 1), as well as a  
603 smaller fraction of dopaminergic cells ( $23.9 \pm 2.2\%$ ; up to 30% overlap observed, Figure 5-  
604 Figure Supplement 2). *Tg(HuC:GCaMP6s)* was co-expressed to monitor inhibition of  
605 spontaneous LH neuron calcium activity.

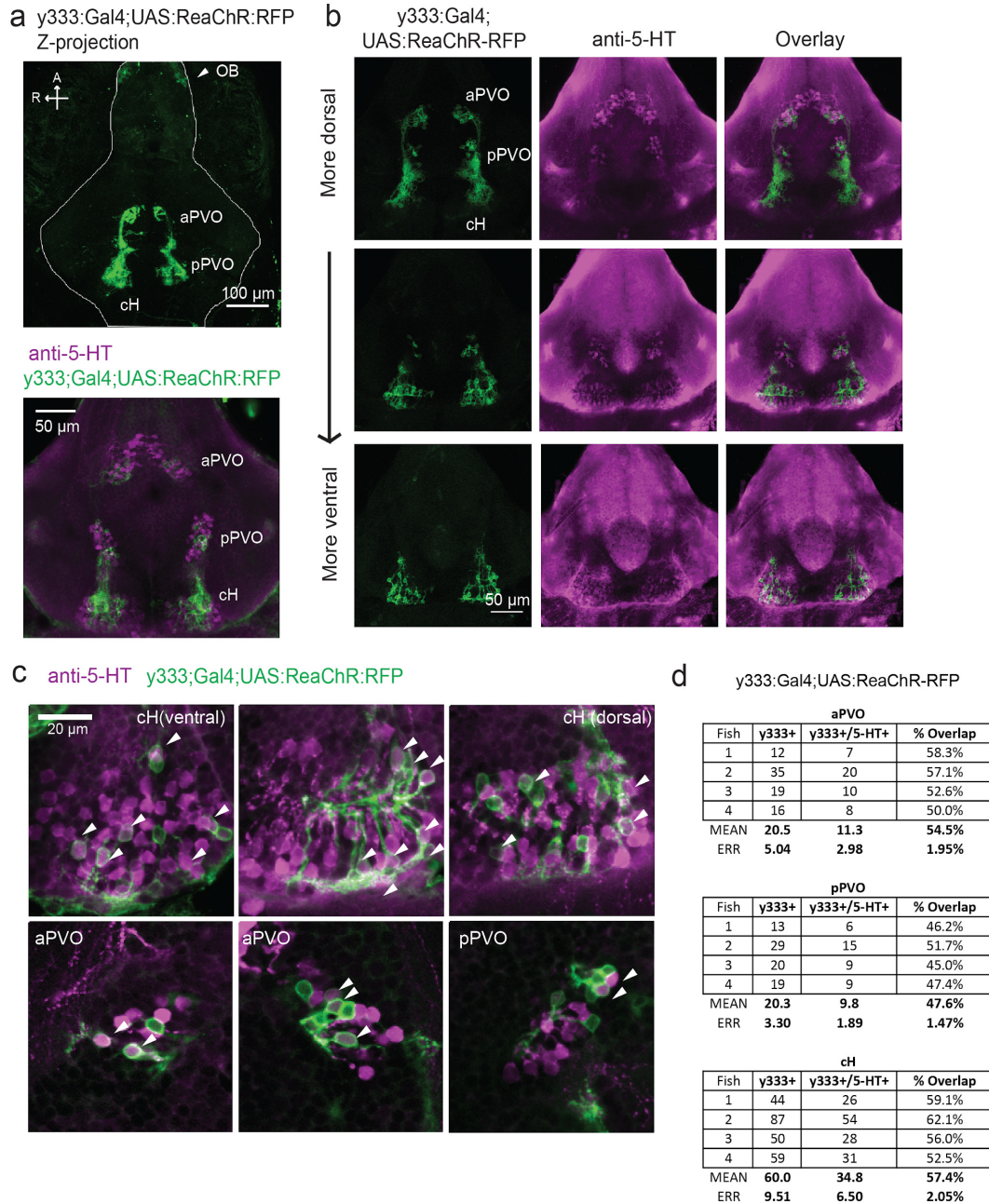
606 These tethered transgenic fish were subjected to targeted laser (633 nm) illumination of  
607 the cH region to locally activate the ReaChR channel. We found that ReaChR activation in the  
608 cH was sufficient to induce cH neural activity (Figure 5a, c). In contrast, ReaChR activation  
609 significantly reduced spontaneous ILH calcium spike activity within a 90 second period that  
610 followed laser illumination (Figure 5b, d), whereas no significant decrease was observed in mLH  
611 activity (Figure 5b, d). Illumination of a control preoptic area region, where *Tg(y333:Gal4 )-*  
612 driven ReaChR is not expressed, did not affect ILH activity, though we did observe a small  
613 increase in mLH activity (Figure 5e). This effect might be visually induced or driven by light-  
614 sensitive opsins known to be expressed in the preoptic area (Fernandes et al., 2012). Since no  
615 increase was not observed when the cH itself was optogenetically activated, it is plausible that

616 an inhibitory effect of cH stimulation on the mLH is masked by an opposing light response  
 617 sensitivity. In sum, optogenetic stimulation of cH neural activity is sufficient to inhibit ILH neural  
 618 activity, consistent with the notion that cH and LH regions interact to modulate the animal's  
 619 motivational state in response to food deprivation and feeding.



620

621 **Figure 5 with 2 supplements: Optogenetic cH stimulation reduces ILH activity in tethered fish**  
622 **(a)** ReaChR activation of neurons. **Top Panels:** Targeted 633 nm laser illumination(see Methods) of a  
623 defined cH area (imaged area) in *Tg(y333:Gal4;UAS:ReaChR-RFP; UAS:GCaMP6s)* fish. These animals  
624 express a *Tg(UAS:GCaMP6s)* reporter in the cH under *Tg(y333:Gal4)* control. The animals were  
625 subjected to repetitive 10 second laser illumination, with a periodicity of 120 s. Following the 633 nm laser  
626 pulses, there is widespread induction of cH activity, as indicated by GCaMP fluorescence ( $\Delta f/f$ ) in most  
627 regions of interest plotted to the right of the image panel. Scale bar = 50  $\mu\text{m}$ . **Bottom Panel:** Mean  $\Delta f/f$   
628 across the entire outlined cH region versus time. Laser illumination pulses are indicated by orange bars.  
629 Gray bars indicate **pre-** and **post-**stimulation periods for which metrics shown in **c-e** were determined.  
630 **(b)** Inhibition of LH activity by activation of cH neurons in *Tg(y333:Gal4;UAS:ReaChR-RFP;*  
631 *HuC:GCaMP6s)* fish. The animals were subjected to repetitive 10 s laser illumination, with a periodicity of  
632 180 seconds. Laser pulses were delivered to the cH (orange lightning symbol) as in **a**, and calcium  
633 imaging was recorded from the indicated LH areas (white outlines). Region of interest traces are shown to  
634 the right of the image panel for the indicated areas (**cells** and neuropil (**NP**)). There is an apparent  
635 reduction of spontaneous ILH GCaMP fluorescence spikes in the post-stimulation period. Scale bar = 50  
636  $\mu\text{m}$ . Bottom: Mean  $\Delta f/f$  across mLH and ILH ROIs over time.  
637 **(c-e)** Comparison of mean, summed and maximum  $\Delta f/f$  metrics for 90 s window before and after ReaChR  
638 stimulation (gray bars in bottom panels in **a** and **b**). Each data point represents a single stimulation event,  
639 like those shown in **a** and **b**. Asterisks denote  $p < 0.05$ .  
640 **(c)** cH activity increases after illumination of *Tg(y333:Gal4; ReaChR:RFP)*-positive cH neurons,  $n = 29$   
641 illuminations across 8 fish,  $p = 0.0002$  (max  $\Delta f/f$ ) / 0.036 (sum  $\Delta f/f$ ) /  $9.2 \times 10^{-5}$  (mean  $\Delta f/f$ ), one-tailed  
642 Wilcoxon signed-rank test.  
643 **(d)** ILH activity is inhibited ( $p = 0.0003$  (max  $\Delta f/f$ ) /  $1.8 \times 10^{-6}$  (sum  $\Delta f/f$ ) / 0.049 (mean  $\Delta f/f$ )), whereas mLH  
644 activity appears unchanged after after illumination of *Tg(y333:Gal4; ReaChR:RFP)*-positive cH neurons ( $p$   
645 = 0.74 (max  $\Delta f/f$ ) / 0.85 (sum  $\Delta f/f$ ) / 0.13 (mean  $\Delta f/f$ )),  $n = 108$  stimulations across 9 fish, two-tailed  
646 Wilcoxon signed-rank test.  
647 **(e)** Illumination of a control preoptic region (outside of the area labeled by *Tg(y333:Gal4; ReaChR:RFP)*  
648 expression) resulted in a small increase in mLH activity ( $p = 0.0003$  (max  $\Delta f/f$ ) / 0.039 (sum  $\Delta f/f$ ) / 0.039  
649 (mean  $\Delta f/f$ ) and no change ILH activity ( $p = 0.099$  (max  $\Delta f/f$ ) / 0.65 (sum  $\Delta f/f$ ) / 0.096 (mean  $\Delta f/f$ )),  $n = 37$   
650 stimulations from 5 fish, two-tailed Wilcoxon signed-rank test.  
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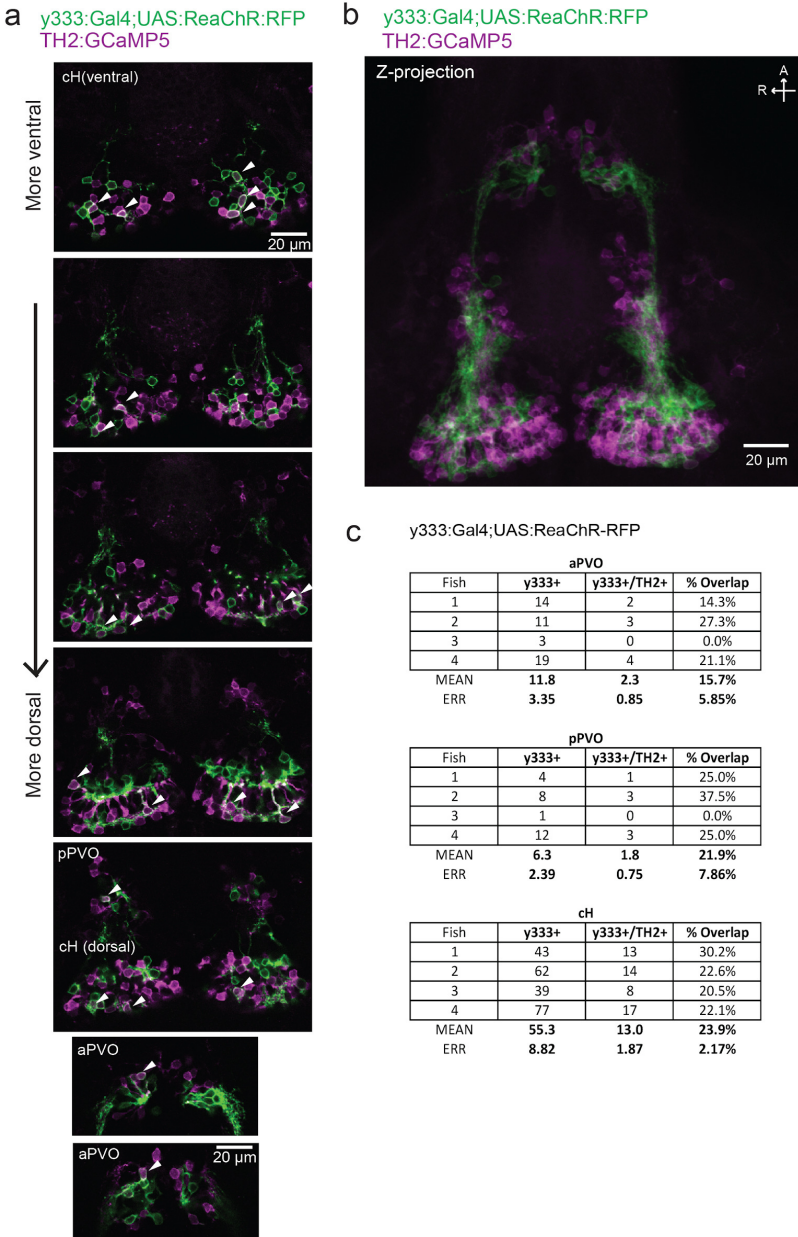
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**Figure 5- Figure Supplement 1: Serotonergic identity of *y333:Gal4*-positive neurons**

(a) We used an alternative cH-labeling *Gal4* line, *Tg(y333:Gal4)* (Marquat et al., 2015) to drive *Tg(UAS:ReaChR-RFP)* expression, as we were unable to detect any *Tg(116A:Gal4)* driven *ReaChR* expression on the basis of its Red Fluorescent Protein tag. **Top:** Whole mount confocal z-stack of a *Tg(y333:Gal4;UAS:ReaChR-RFP)* (green) shows relatively specific expression in the caudal hypothalamus, as well as some labeling in the olfactory bulb (white arrow) and other scattered cells. Scale bar = 100  $\mu$ m. A = anterior, R = right. **Bottom:** Z-projection image of an isolated anti-5-HT (magenta) stained brain mounted ventral side up. Scale bar = 50  $\mu$ m.

(b) Overlap of *Tg(y333:Gal4;UAS:ReaChR-RFP)* (green) with anti-5-HT immunostaining (magenta) visible in all layers of the caudal hypothalamus. There is also a lower amount of overlapping expression in the

663 paraventricular organ (PVO). Each row displays a different Z-plane, from dorsal (top) to ventral. Brains  
 664 are mounted ventral side up. Scale bar = 50  $\mu$ m.  
 665 (c) Higher magnification view showing moderate overlap of *Tg(y333:Gal4;UAS:ReaChR-RFP)* with anti-5-  
 666 HT staining in the cH and PVO. Arrows indicate cells with overlapping RFP and 5-HT expression. Scale  
 667 bar = 20  $\mu$ m.  
 668 (d) Quantification of overlap between 5-HT and *Tg(y333Gal4;UAS:ReaChR-RFP)* expression in the cH  
 669 and PVO.  
 670



671  
 672 **Figure 5- Figure Supplement 2: Characterization of dopaminergic identity of y333:Gal4 line**  
 673 The *Tg(y333:Gal4; UAS:ReaChR-RFP)* line (green) was crossed to *Tg(TH2:GCaMP5)* (magenta) to  
 674 quantify the overlap of *Tg(y333:Gal4)* with dopaminergic (TH2-positive) cells.  
 675 (a) High magnification image showing moderate overlap of *Tg(y333:Gal4;UAS:ReaChR-RFP)* (green)  
 676 with TH2-expressing cells (magenta) in the cH and PVO. Arrows indicate cells with overlapping RFP and



677 TH2 expression. Scale bar = 20  $\mu\text{m}$ . A = anterior, R = right.  
678 **(b)** Z-projection image of the same brain shown in **(a)**, with *Tg(TH2:GCaMP5)* expression shown in  
679 magenta. Scale bar = 50  $\mu\text{m}$ .  
680 **(c)** Quantification of overlap between *Tg(TH2:GCaMP5)* and *Tg(y333Gal4;UAS:ReaChR-RFP)*  
681 expression in the cH and PVO.  
682

### 683 ***Functional dissection of the role of cH serotonergic neurons in feeding behavior***

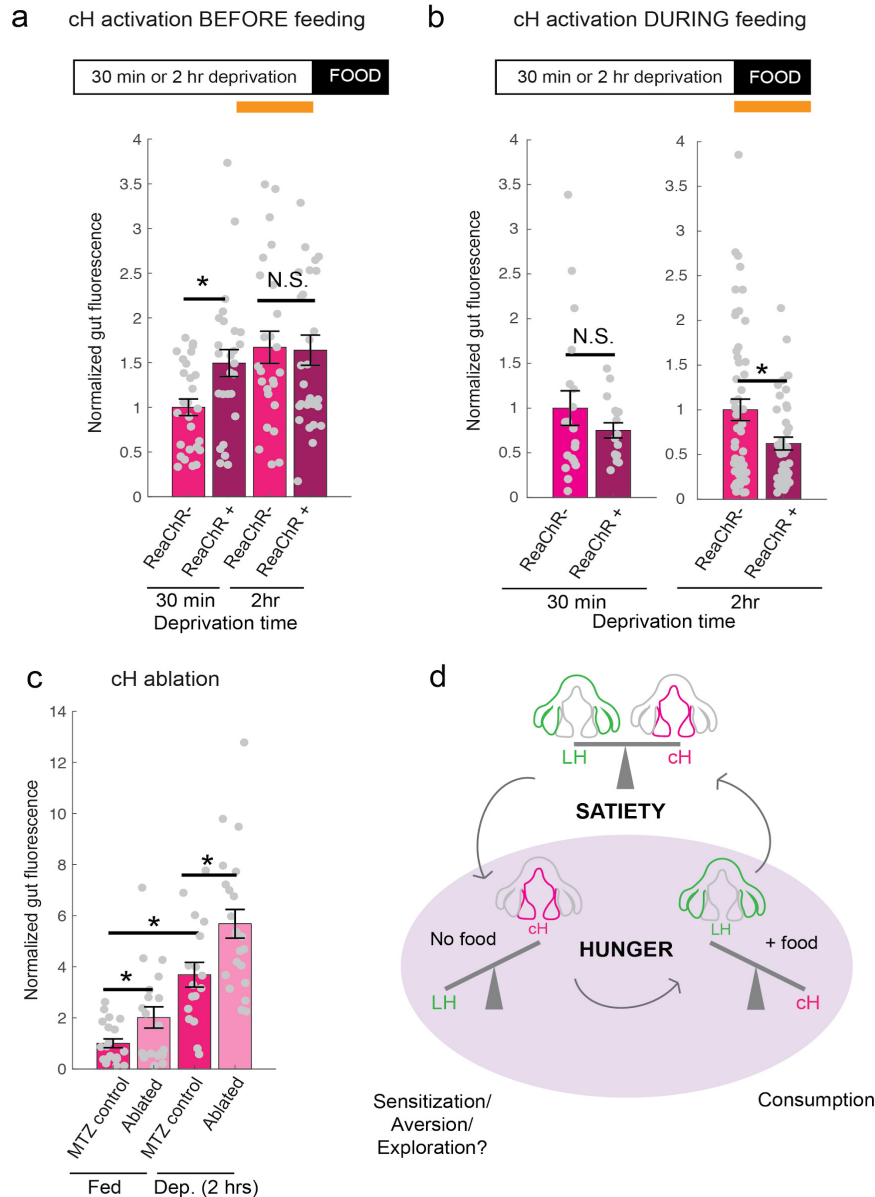
684 The opposing patterns of cH and LH activity suggest they might encode opposing  
685 functions in the motivation and control of feeding behavior. Increased cH activity during food  
686 deprivation might encode a motivated state that leads to enhanced prey detection, enhanced  
687 hunting behavior and increased prey ingestion. In contrast, the incremental increase in cH  
688 activity during feeding (Figure 1g) might progressively inhibit LH activity (Figure 5) and thus  
689 inhibit prey ingestion (Muto et al., 2017). To test these expectations, we used optogenetic  
690 ReaChR activation to increase cH neuron activity during food deprivation or during voracious  
691 feeding. We reasoned that since after a short period of food deprivation, cH activity is relatively  
692 low (Figure 2a, b), optogenetic cH neuron activation in such animals would mimic a longer food  
693 deprivation and yield subsequent voracious feeding. In contrast, animals that are already  
694 feeding voraciously will have very low cH activity (Figures 1f-g, 2a-b); cH activation in these  
695 animals might thus reduce voracious feeding by mimicking the 'satiated' state (Figure 1f, g).

696 Accordingly, animals expressing ReaChR in cH neurons (*Tg(y333:Gal4)*,  
697 *Tg(UAS:ReaChR-RFP)*) were exposed to 630 nm illumination and assessed for ingestion of  
698 fluorescently labeled paramecia (Figure 6). Such animals exhibited enhanced cH activity  
699 following illumination (Figure 6- Figure 6 Supplement 1). As expected, animals that had been  
700 illuminated during a short period of food-deprivation subsequently consumed significantly more  
701 paramecia than control fish, which were similarly food-deprived and illuminated, but lacked the  
702 ReaChR transgene (Figure 6a). In contrast, fish that had been illuminated at the end of a two-  
703 hour food-deprivation period displayed a high level of prey ingestion irrespective of whether the  
704 ReaChR channel was present. Thus, the high level of cH activity produced by two hours long

705 food deprivation could not be augmented by optogenetic activation.

706 On the other hand, when cH activity was optogenetically excited during voracious  
707 feeding (where cH activity would normally be very low), the animal's prey ingestion was reduced  
708 (Figure 6b). We presume that increased cH activity inhibits ILH activity (Figure 5), which in turn  
709 is associated with satiation and lack of feeding (Figure 1f, g). Indeed, such inhibition of ILH  
710 signaling has been shown to reduce prey capture success in comparable studies (Muto et al,  
711 2017).

712 Finally, we asked what would happen if cH activity was reduced by partial ablation of  
713 serotonergic cells. Chemical-genetic ablation was performed via expression of a transgenic  
714 bacterial nitroreductase (*Tg(UAS:nfsb-Cherry)* (Curado et al., 2008; Davison et al., 2007;  
715 Pisharath and Parsons, 2009) that was driven in cH serotonergic neurons by *Tg(116A:Gal4)*  
716 (Figure 2- Figure Supplement 2). Animals treated with the chemical MTZ displayed a loss of  
717 neurons that express *nfsb-mCherry* (Figure 6 - Figure Supplement 2). These animals were  
718 compared in prey ingestion to sibling control animals lacking the *Tg(UAS:nfsb-Cherry)*  
719 transgene (Figure 6c). Fish with ablated cH serotonergic neurons displayed greater food  
720 ingestion than control animals irrespective of whether the animals had been food-deprived or  
721 continuously fed (Figure 6c). Animals that had been continuously fed displayed greater prey  
722 ingestion when fluorescently tagged prey were ingested. They thus would appear to display a  
723 defect in cH mediated inhibition of feeding (Figure 6b) that could underlie satiety. Animals that  
724 had been food deprived and given fluorescently tagged paramecia displayed greater than  
725 normal (relative to non-ablated control animals) voracious feeding (Figure 6c). Taken together,  
726 these results are consistent with the notion that cH activity regulates hunting and prey ingestion,  
727 at least partially via inhibition of hunting and prey ingestion behaviors.

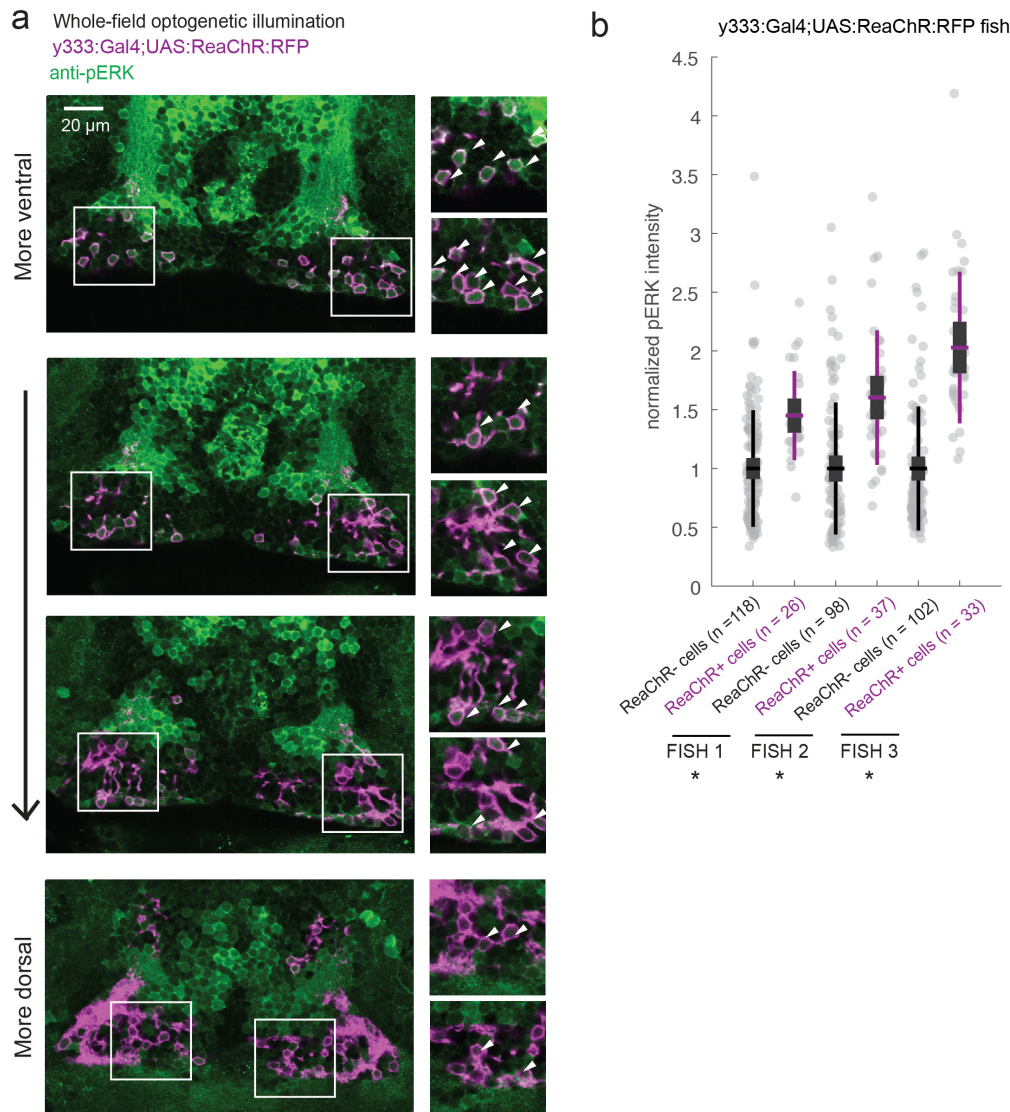


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729 **Figure 6 with 2 supplements: Role of the cH in behavioral control**

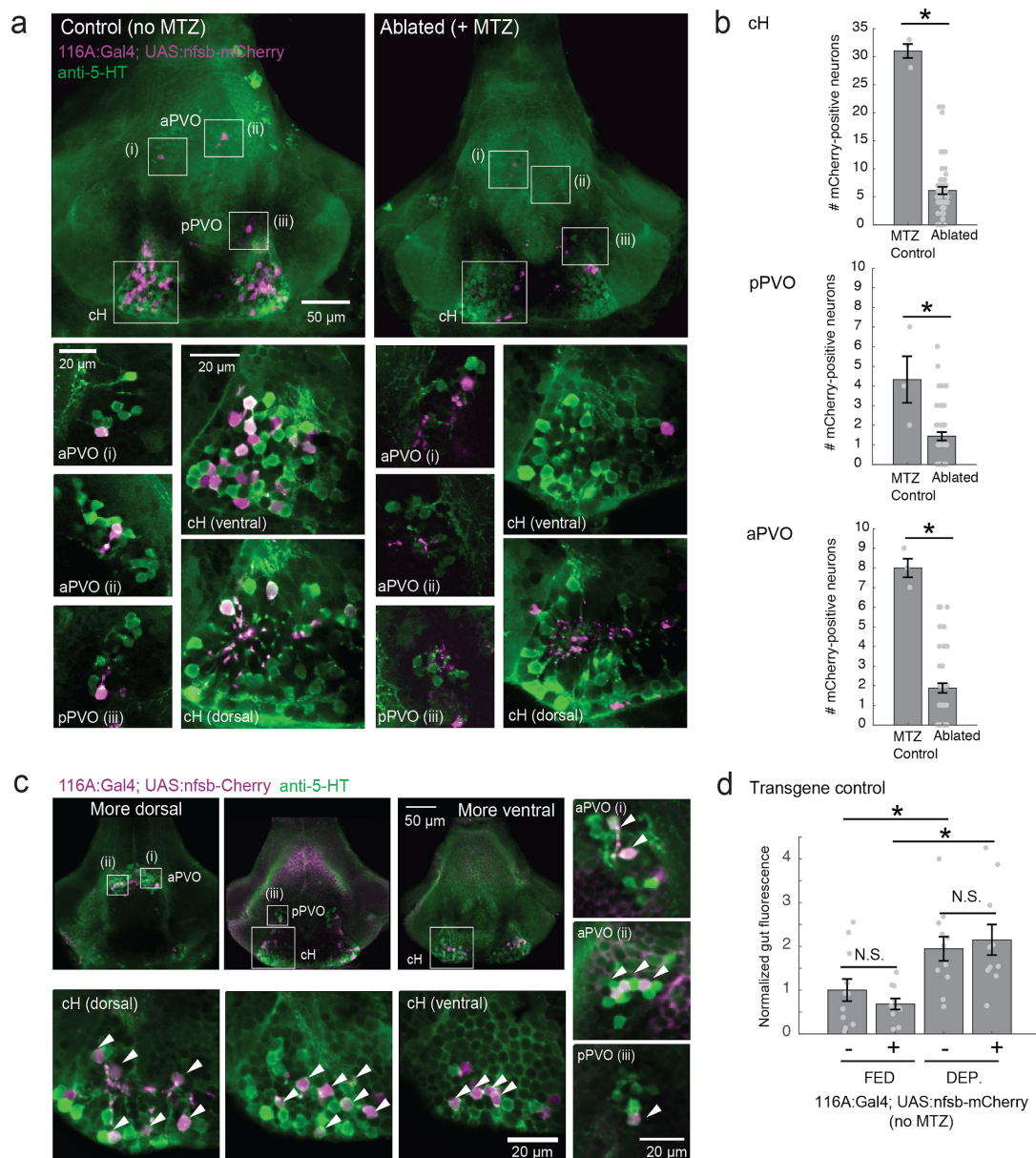
730 **(a)** Animals expressing the ReaChR transgene *Tg(UAS:ReaChR-RFP)* under control of the  
 731 (*Tg(y333:Gal4)* driver were exposed to 630 nm illumination (orange bar in schematic) for 10 minutes prior  
 732 to feeding and assessed for subsequent ingestion of fluorescently labeled paramecia. *Tg(y333:Gal4;*  
 733 *UAS:ReaChR-RFP)* stimulation increased food intake in 30 min food-deprived but not 2 hr food-deprived  
 734 fish, during subsequent food presentation. Dep. (30 min):  $n = 27/26$  (ReaChR-/ReaChR+),  $p = 0.005$ .  
 735 Dep. (2 hr):  $n = 25/29$  (ReaChR-/ReaChR+),  $p = 0.36$ , one-tailed Wilcoxon rank-sum test. Asterisks  
 736 denote  $p < 0.05$ . Since ReaChR expression via 116A:Gal4 was negligible, we used another Gal4  
 737 (*Tg(y333:Gal4)*) line that is also specific to the cH when ReaChR is expressed. Fed and food-deprived  
 738 fish were assayed simultaneously, thus all results were normalized to fed controls. ReaChR- controls do  
 739 not have visible *Tg(y333:Gal4;UAS:ReaChR-RFP)* expression, and thus are a mixture of siblings  
 740 expressing *Tg(y333:Gal4)* only, *Tg(UAS:ReaChR-RFP)* or neither of these transgenes, each with  $\frac{1}{3}$   
 741 probability.

742 **(b) Left:** Optogenetic activation of *Tg(y333:Gal4; UAS:ReaChR-RFP)* fish (orange bar in schematic)  
 743 during feeding in fish that were food-deprived for 30 min does not significantly reduce food intake: n =  
 744 19/16 (ReaChR-/ReaChR+), p = 0.44 (N.S.); **Right:** Optogenetic activation of *Tg(y333:Gal4;*  
 745 *UAS:ReaChR-RFP)* fish during feeding in 2 hr food-deprived fish reduces food intake: n = 53/44  
 746 (ReaChR-/ReaChR+), p = 0.042. Since 30 min and 2 hr food-deprived fish were assayed in different  
 747 experiments, gut fluorescence normalized to their respective controls, one-tailed Wilcoxon rank-sum test.  
 748 **(c)** Nitroreductase-mediated ablation of the cH in (*Tg(116A:Gal4;UAS-nfsb:mCherry)* or negative fish  
 749 treated with metronidazole (MTZ) from 5-7 dpf significantly enhances food intake in 8 dpf fish. p =  
 750 0.0042/0.041/1.38x10<sup>-5</sup> (fed control vs fed ablated, 2 hr deprived control vs 2 hour deprived ablated, fed  
 751 vs 2 hr deprived), n = 29 (fed control) /28 (fed ablated) /22 (dep. control) /29 (dep. ablated), two-tailed  
 752 Wilcoxon rank-sum test. Controls do not have visible *Tg(116A:Gal4;UAS:nfsb-mcherry)* expression, and  
 753 thus are a mixture of siblings expressing *Tg(116A:Gal4)* only, *Tg(UAS:nfsb-mcherry)* or neither of these  
 754 transgenes, each with 1/3 probability.  
 755 **(d)** Schematic summarizing our results. We propose distinct roles of the cH during hunger, depending on  
 756 the presence or absence of food. See Supplementary File 1 – Conceptual Circuit Model for elaboration.  
 757



758  
 759

760 **Figure 6 – Figure Supplement 1: ReaChR activation by whole-field optogenetic illumination**  
 761 **(a)** *Tg(y333:Gal4;UAS:ReaChR-RFP)* (magenta) optogenetic stimulation during feeding is sufficient to  
 762 induce pERK activity (green) in many transgene-positive neurons. Fish were food-deprived for 2 hours  
 763 and then fed in the presence of whole-field 630 nm LED illumination (as in Figure 6). White arrows  
 764 indicate examples of cells with higher pERK activity. Scale bar =20  $\mu$ m. Insets (white boxes) are shown at  
 765 higher magnification on the right. Width of insets = 40  $\mu$ m.  
 766 **(b)** The pERK intensities of ReaChR-positive and -negative cells (normalized to the mean pERK intensity  
 767 of ReaChR-negative cells for each fish) are plotted for 3 individual fish. To sample ReaChR-negative  
 768 cells, all visible cells lacking red channel expression were selected in every 3rd to 5th z-plane (to  
 769 minimize oversampling). Fish 1 corresponds to the fish in **(a)**. Box plot indicates mean value (horizontal  
 770 line), 1 SD (gray box) and 95% confidence intervals (vertical line). Individual cells are plotted as circles.  
 771 In *Tg(y333:Gal4;UAS:ReaChR-RFP)* transgene-positive fish, ReaChR positive cells have significantly  
 772 higher pERK fluorescence intensity, demonstrating the effectiveness of optogenetic activation ( $p =$   
 773  $2.7 \times 10^{-6}/2.7 \times 10^{-8}/6.5 \times 10^{-13}$  for each fish respectively, one-tailed Wilcoxon rank-sum test).  
 774  
 775



776

777 **Figure 6 - Figure Supplement 2: Nitroreductase-mediated ablation of cH serotonergic neurons**  
778 **(a)** Ablation of *Tg(116A:Gal4;UAS:nfsb-mCherry)*-labeled neurons. Note that due to sparse expression of  
779 the transgenes, ablation of the cH/PVO populations is likely to be partial (<50%). Representative  
780 projection images are shown of non-ablated animals (left) and animals following exposure to the chemical  
781 MTZ (right, see Methods). Scale bar = 50  $\mu$ m. Insets (white boxes) show the locations of higher-  
782 magnification single-plane images of transgene-labeled cH, aPVO and pPVO areas and neuronal overlap  
783 with 5-HT expression (anti-5-HT antibody staining, green color). Scale bar = 20  $\mu$ m.  
784 **(b)** Quantification of ablation. When *Tg(116A:Gal4;UAS:nfsb-mCherry)* fish were incubated with MTZ, we  
785 observed  $6.1 \pm 0.66$  (mean  $\pm$  SEM) mCherry-positive cells ( $n = 54$  fish). When MTZ was omitted,  $31 \pm 1.5$   
786 cells were mCherry-positive ( $n = 3$  fish). The reduction resulting from ablation was thus  $\sim 80\%$  ( $p =$   
787  $0.0019$ , one-tailed Wilcoxon rank-sum test). pPVO ( $4.3 \pm 1.5$  control vs  $1.4 \pm 0.2$  ablated,  $p = 0.0162$ )  
788 and aPVO ( $8.0 \pm 0.6$  control vs  $1.9 \pm 0.3$  ablated,  $p = 0.0015$ ) cells were also affected. Some of the  
789 remaining mCherry-positive cells were dimly fluorescent and misshapen/deformed, indicating damage  
790 that might impair function.  
791 **(c)** Similar to *Tg(116A:Gal4;UAS:GFP)* (Figure 2 - Figure Supplement 2), there is strong overlap of  
792 *Tg(116A:Gal4;UAS:nfsb-mCherry)* with anti-5-HT immunostaining (green color). Scale bar = 50  $\mu$ m.  
793 Insets (white boxes) show higher-magnification single-plane images of cH, aPVO and pPVO labeling by  
794 this transgene and overlap with 5-HT expression. Scale bar = 20  $\mu$ m.  
795 **(d)** The *Tg(116A:Gal4;UAS:nfsb-mCherry)* transgene does not affect feeding in the absence of MTZ,  
796 relative to siblings lacking transgene expression. Fed:  $p = 0.64$ ,  $n = 11$ (negative)/10(positive); Dep.:  $p =$   
797  $0.91$ ,  $n = 11$ (negative)/10(positive), Fed vs Dep.:  $p = 0.035$ (negative)/ $7.7 \times 10^{-4}$ (positive).  
798

## 799 **DISCUSSION**

800 Decades-old studies on appetite regulation in mammals have suggested that the hypothalamus  
801 consists of modular units that functionally interact to suppress or enhance food intake. Here we  
802 show that the larval zebrafish hypothalamic network can similarly be divided into medial and  
803 lateral units on the basis of neural activity and function. These units show anti-correlated activity  
804 patterns extending through various states and distinct behaviors during periods of food  
805 deprivation and feeding. We propose these states are analogous to those commonly referred to  
806 as hunger and satiety and reflect the animal's drive to maintain energy homeostasis (Figure 6d).  
807 Furthermore, we show that within these broad neural response classes lie subpopulations that  
808 encode specific stimuli and perform distinct functions depending on the timing of their activation.

### 809 ***Mutually opposing hypothalamic networks control zebrafish appetite***

810 We show that the medial hypothalamic zone, especially the caudal hypothalamus (cH), is  
811 strongly activated by food-deprivation and silent during voracious feeding, and that these  
812 changes in activity occur on a timescale of seconds to minutes. Here, we focused mainly on the  
813 cH serotonergic neurons, although many medially localized neurons show similar activity

814 patterns. In contrast, the lateral hypothalamus (LH), which contains GABAergic and  
815 glutamatergic neurons, can be inhibited by the cH (Figure 5) and is silent in the absence of food;  
816 conversely it is most strongly active during voracious feeding when cH serotonergic neurons are  
817 least active. Interestingly, fish that display satiated feeding behavior exhibit intermediate activity  
818 levels in the two hypothalamic regions (Figure 1). Thus, larval zebrafish have a motivational  
819 state dependent upon food deprivation (i.e. hunger), which is encoded by two alternative and  
820 distinct states of activity in opposing brain regions, with restoration of energy homeostasis (i.e.  
821 satiety) paralleled by an intermediate state of balanced activity.

822 While generally anti-correlated, the cH and LH also appear to be differentially modulated  
823 by both internal energy states and external factors such as prey. In the absence of food, LH  
824 neural activity decreases rapidly (Figure 2), suggesting a requirement of external food cues to  
825 drive LH activity, though some modest rate of spontaneous activity is still observed (Figure 5,  
826 Figure 3 - Figure Supplement 3). In contrast, the slower timescale of increasing cH activity  
827 during food deprivation (Figure 2, Figure 3 - Figure supplement 3) may reflect a rising caloric  
828 deficit. Notably, many of the cH neurons are cerebrospinal fluid-contacting and thus have  
829 access to circulatory information (Lillesaar, 2011; Pérez et al., 2013).

830 When prey is presented to a food-deprived animal, a rapid state change occurs as LH  
831 neural activity is strongly increased and cH activity rapidly diminishes (Figure 1-4). Importantly,  
832 the silence of cH neurons and strength of LH activity were correlated with the extent of prior  
833 food-deprivation (Figure 2), suggesting a role for these nuclei in regulating food intake based on  
834 energy needs. Also, the relatively quick timescale of these changes in activity suggests that they  
835 do not reflect a change in caloric deficit (i.e. a change in hunger state), which would take  
836 significantly longer to be alleviated. Further, the striking anti-correlation between the cH and LH  
837 is consistent with their mutual inhibition, and suggests that the acute reduction in cH activity  
838 allows for rapid LH excitation upon the presentation of prey cues. We supported this notion by  
839 showing that optogenetic stimulation of a subset of cH neurons could inhibit LH activity (Figure

840 5). However, the mechanisms for cH and LH mutual interactions are still unknown. It is possible  
841 that the cH may act via nearby inhibitory GABAergic neurons, and/or exert its effects through  
842 direct secretion of monoamines into the ventricles or perineuronal space. However, the fast  
843 (seconds) anti-correlation between cH and LH calcium activity (Figure 3), suggests the  
844 presence of direct inhibitory connections. The LH, which was previously characterized in Muto  
845 et. al (2017), similarly does not appear to send direct projections to the cH, but could potentially  
846 interact via intermediary neurons in the medial/periventricular regions of the hypothalamus.

847

#### 848 ***The cH and LH show differential sensitivity to prey sensory and consummatory cues***

849 Ingestive behavior has been proposed to comprise a series of sequential phases: 1) the  
850 initiation phase, triggered by energy deficit, in which the animal begins to forage; 2) the  
851 procurement phases, triggered by the presence of food sensory cues, in which the animal seeks  
852 and pursues food; and 3) the consummatory phase, which usually involves more stereotyped  
853 motor programs (Berthoud, 2002; Watts, 2000). An animal's energy status is sensed internally  
854 and may influence the initiation, procurement and consummatory stages of ingestive behavior.  
855 Thus, a hungry animal will be more alert to food cues, seek food more persistently and also eat  
856 it more voraciously.

857 In mammals, LH neurons are responsive to both external food sensory cues and  
858 consummatory cues (Jennings et al., 2015). Here, we show that the LH lobes in zebrafish also  
859 respond differentially to food cues. In the "sensory" stage, the mLH and ILH are already  
860 activated, which may reflect an enhanced sensitivity to food cues during hunger. In contrast, cH  
861 activity transiently falls (as shown by calcium imaging in Figure 3) but remains overall high.

862 Notably, cH inhibition and LH activation during the sensory stage is not as strong as  
863 post-food consumption (Figure 4), which induces massive and opposing changes in the activity  
864 of both domains. Since LH and cH activity are modulated within minutes of food consumption,  
865 they are unlikely to reflect satiety signals, and rather might play a role in further driving



866 voracious food consumption, at least until the activity of both populations returns to baseline.  
867 While it is unclear which consummatory cues modulate LH and cH activity, based on live  
868 imaging results from Muto et al (2017), the greatest enhancement of LH activity was observed  
869 almost immediately (milliseconds to seconds) after paramecia consumption. Thus, the cue is  
870 likely a fast pregastric signal (taste/tactile/swallowing), rather than postgastric absorption or  
871 hormone secretion.

872 Finally, our data raises the possibility of functional compartmentalization within the LH.  
873 Especially in terms of cellular pERK activity, the ILH is more weakly activated by food sensory  
874 cues compared to the mLH, suggesting that the ILH, similar to the cH, may be more sensitive to  
875 consummatory cues than sensory food cues alone. These results are also consistent with a  
876 generally stronger anti-correlation of the ILH with cH activity (compared to mLH), as also  
877 observed in our calcium imaging and optogenetic experiments. Further molecular, cellular and  
878 functional dissection of the individual LH lobes will allow for a better understanding of their  
879 behavioral roles.

### 880 ***Functional roles of the cH and LH in and beyond appetite control***

881 Finally, we test the hypothesis that the cH and LH form mutually antagonistic functional units  
882 that dominate different phases of hunger and drive appropriate behavioral responses during  
883 each phase (Figure 6). In particular, we show that the activation state of the cH is a crucial  
884 regulator of satiation-state dependent food intake. Artificial cH activation in satiated fish *prior* to  
885 feeding is sufficient to drive subsequent voracious feeding. Based on observed cH dynamics,  
886 we propose that the degree on cH inhibition during voracious feeding is proportional to the  
887 degree of cH activation prior to feeding. This could be mediated by the release of  
888 serotonin/other neuromodulators over the course of food-deprivation, which may be capable of  
889 sensitizing the LH even in the absence of food cues. In this way, zebrafish are able to retain a  
890 “memory” of their hunger state, which is released once food is presented. This motif might help  
891 ensure that the animal eventually returns to a stable equilibrium, that is, satiety.

892 We furthermore show that the acute effect of cH activation *during* feeding is suppression  
893 of food intake, whereas cH ablation enhances food intake, which is again consistent with  
894 mammalian studies of medial hypothalamic areas. At first glance, the observation that the cH  
895 acutely suppresses food intake is inconsistent with the idea that it is most active during hunger.  
896 However, the critical difference here is the presence or absence of food. Once food is presented  
897 to a hungry fish, high activity in the cH may simply suppress LH activity, and hence elevate the  
898 initial threshold for food intake.

899 The seemingly paradoxical roles of the cH during hunger may also make sense when  
900 considering that, in the absence of food, consummatory behavior would in fact be  
901 counterproductive. Thus, during food-deprivation, the cH may play complementary roles such as  
902 the sensitization of the LH and/or other feeding-related circuits (as discussed above), or drive  
903 alternative behavioral programs, like foraging or energy-conserving measures (see  
904 Supplementary File 1 - Conceptual Circuit Model for a more in-depth discussion). Given that cH  
905 neurons appear also to be activated by aversive stimuli (Randlett et al., 2015; Wee et al., 2019),  
906 they might quite generally encode a negative valence state, of which being hungry in the  
907 absence of food is an example. This then suggests that the silence of these neurons in a hungry  
908 fish where food is present implies a positive valence state, a notion that is in ready agreement  
909 with human subjective experience. Similar features of hunger-related (i.e. AgRP) neurons have  
910 also been described in mammals (Betley et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2015; Dietrich et al., 2015;  
911 Mandelblat-Cerf et al., 2015).

912 Although the cH does not have an exact mammalian homolog, its functions have been  
913 proposed to be adopted by other modulatory populations, such as the serotonergic raphe  
914 nucleus in mammals (Gaspar and Lillesaar, 2012; Lillesaar, 2011). While known to be a potent  
915 appetite suppressant, serotonin is also released during food deprivation, and has been shown to  
916 enhance food-seeking behavior (Elipot et al., 2013; Katak et al., 1978; Pollock and Rowland,  
917 1981; Voigt and Fink, 2015). Thus, our results showing opposing cH activity patterns during

918 hunger could reflect similarly complex roles of serotonin in zebrafish, potentially explaining  
919 some of its paradoxical functions. The cH and PVO also express dopaminergic (intermingled  
920 with 5-HT) and a much smaller fraction of histaminergic neurons, which appear to be densely  
921 interconnected (Chen et al., 2016; Kaslin and Panula, 2001). We note that our data, while  
922 confirming a role of serotonergic neurons, does not rule out an involvement of these other  
923 neuromodulators in appetite control, particularly dopamine.

924 Further, we do not rule out the involvement of other circuits in appetite control; in fact,  
925 there are likely numerous players involved. For example, the PVO appears to be modulated by  
926 food cues and food-deprivation, is anti-correlated with LH activity, and labeled by our transgenic  
927 lines (albeit more sparsely), suggesting it may complement the role of the cH. Our conclusions  
928 are also limited by the available tools and methodologies -- since different transgenic lines were  
929 utilized for stimulation and ablation, we cannot be certain that we are manipulating the same  
930 population of neurons, though both share mutual overlap with serotonergic cells. Also, due to  
931 the lack of complete transgene specificity, there is a possibility that our manipulations may affect  
932 non-specific targets such as the olfactory bulb.

933 The strong LH activation after food-deprivation suggests that this region is involved in  
934 the induction of voracious feeding. This notion is supported by Muto et al (2017) who recently  
935 demonstrated that inhibition of the LH impairs prey capture, a behavior that is clearly related to  
936 voracious feeding.. Furthermore, electrical stimulation of the homologous region (lateral recess  
937 nuclei) in adult cichlids and bluegills (Demski, 1973; Demski and Knigge, 1971) can elicit  
938 feeding behavior, which is consistent with our hypothesis. Interestingly, while stimulating some  
939 of these regions induced food intake, the activation of others induced behaviors such as the  
940 “snapping of gravel”, which are reminiscent of food search or procurement. In mammals,  
941 electrical or optogenetic stimulation of LH neurons triggers voracious eating, again consistent  
942 with our findings that the LH is highly activated during the voracious eating phase in hungry fish  
943 (Delgado and Anand, 1953). In particular, GABAergic neurons that do not co-express MCH or

944 Orexin have been shown to be responsive to food cues and are sufficient to stimulate food  
945 intake in mammals (Jennings et al., 2015). Whether these GABAergic and glutamatergic  
946 neurons of the zebrafish LH co-express other neuromodulators, as has been recently  
947 discovered in mammals (Mickelsen et al., 2019) remains to be explored. Overall, these data  
948 suggest that the zebrafish LH may play an important role in driving food intake during hunger,  
949 despite some differences in peptidergic expression from mammalian LH. Certainly, since cues  
950 such as water flow and optogenetic stimulation light are sufficient to modulate cH and/or LH  
951 neurons, these hypothalamic loci are likely also involved in other sensorimotor behaviors  
952 beyond appetite regulation.

953 In conclusion, we have shown here how anatomically segregated hypothalamic nuclei  
954 might interact to control energy homeostasis. We argue that the medial-lateral logic of  
955 hypothalamic function that is well established in mammalian systems may be conserved even in  
956 non-mammalian vertebrates, though their activity patterns may possibly be more complex than  
957 originally believed. Our data suggests diverse roles of neuromodulators such as serotonin in  
958 regulating behavioral responses during hunger, which may complement mammalian  
959 observations. Finally, we propose that investigating large-scale network dynamics may reveal  
960 an additional layer of insight into the principles underlying homeostatic behavior, which might be  
961 overlooked when studies are restricted to the observation and perturbation of smaller  
962 subpopulations.

963  
964 **SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE LEGENDS**

965  
966 **Supplementary Table 1:** Z-brain anatomical regions that are more activated in voraciously  
967 feeding (food-deprived + food) fish as compared to fed fish.

968  
969 **Supplementary Table 2:** Z-brain anatomical regions that are more activated in fed fish as  
970 compared to voraciously feeding (food-deprived + food) fish.

971  
972 **Video 1:** Z-stack (dorsal to ventral) of brain activity map shown in Figure 1b.

973  
974 **Video 2:** Z-stack (ventral to dorsal) of anti-5HT (green) and anti-pERK (magenta) staining in

975 food-deprived fish

976

977 **Video 3:** Z-stack (ventral to dorsal) of TH2:GCaMP5 transgene expression (green) and anti-  
978 pERK (magenta) staining in the same food-deprived fish

979

980 **Video 4:** Video of larval zebrafish hunting artemia larvae. Prey-capture behavior, such as J-  
981 bends and pursuits, but no capture swims, were observed in response to artemia larvae.  
982 Recording rate: 30 fps. Playback rate: Real time.

983

984 **Supplementary File 1: Conceptual Circuit Model**

985 A comprehensive overview of our circuit model and current understanding, including a circuit  
986 diagram, detailed elaboration and testable predictions.

987

988

989 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

990

991 **Key Resource Table**

Reagent type (species) or resource	Designation	Source or reference	Identifiers	Additional information
genetic reagent ( <i>danio rerio</i> )	<i>Tg(pGal4FF:116A)</i>	Characterized in this manuscript		Dr. Koichi Kawakami (NIG, Japan)
genetic reagent ( <i>danio rerio</i> )	<i>Tg(pGal4FF:76A)</i>	PMID: 28425439		Dr. Koichi Kawakami (NIG, Japan)
genetic reagent ( <i>danio rerio</i> )	<i>Tg(y333:Gal4)</i>	PMID: 26635538		Dr. Harold Burgess (NIH)
genetic reagent ( <i>danio rerio</i> )	<i>Tg(HuC:GCaMP6s)</i>	PMID: 28892088		Dr. Florian Engert (Harvard)
genetic reagent ( <i>danio rerio</i> )	<i>Tg(UAS:GCaMP6s)</i>	PMID: 28425439		Dr. Koichi Kawakami (NIG, Japan)
genetic reagent ( <i>danio rerio</i> )	<i>Tg(UAS:ReaChR-RFP)</i>	Characterized in this manuscript		Dr. Misha Ahrens (Janelia Research Campus)
genetic reagent ( <i>danio rerio</i> )	<i>Tg(UAS-E1b:NTR-mCherry)</i>	PMID: 17335798		Available from ZIRC

<b>genetic reagent (<i>danio rerio</i>)</b>	<i>Tg(Vglut2a:dsRed)</i>	PMID: 19369545		
<b>genetic reagent (<i>danio rerio</i>)</b>	<i>Tg(Gad1b:loxP-dsRed-loxP-GFP)</i>	PMID: 23946442		
<b>genetic reagent (<i>danio rerio</i>)</b>	<i>Tg(Gad1b:GFP)</i>	PMID: 23946442		
<b>genetic reagent (<i>danio rerio</i>)</b>	<i>Tg(TH2:GCamP5)</i>	PMID: 26774784		Dr. Adam Douglass (University of Utah)
<b>genetic reagent (<i>danio rerio</i>)</b>	<i>Tg(ETvmat2:GFP)</i>	PMID:18164283		
<b>genetic reagent (<i>danio rerio</i>)</b>	<i>Tg(HCRT:RFP)</i>	PMID: 25725064		
<b>antibody</b>	Rabbit monoclonal anti-pERK	Cell Signaling	4370 RRID:AB_231511 2	IHC (1:500)
<b>antibody</b>	mouse monoclonal anti-ERK	Cell Signaling	4696 RRID:AB_390780	IHC (1:500)
<b>antibody</b>	rabbit polyclonal anti-5-HT	Sigma-Aldrich	S5545 RRID:AB_477522	IHC (1:500)
<b>antibody</b>	goat polyclonal anti-5-HT	AbCam	ab66047 RRID:AB_114279 4	IHC (1:500), 2% BSA in PBS, 0.3% Triton blocking solution)
<b>antibody</b>	goat polyclonal anti-MSH	EMD Millipore	AB5087 RRID:AB_91683	IHC (1:500), 2% BSA in PBS, 0.3% Triton blocking solution)
<b>antibody</b>	rabbit polyclonal anti-AGRP	Phoenix Pharmaceuticals	H-003-53 RRID:AB_231390 8	IHC (1:500)
<b>antibody</b>	rabbit polyclonal anti-MCH	Phoenix Pharmaceuticals	H-070-47 RRID:AB_100136 32	IHC (1:500)
<b>antibody</b>	rabbit polyclonal anti-CART	Phoenix Pharmaceuticals	55-102 RRID:AB_231361 4	IHC (1:500)

<b>antibody</b>	rabbit polyclonal anti-NPY	Immunostar	22940 RRID:AB_230735 4	IHC (1:500)
<b>antibody</b>	mouse monoclonal anti-TH	Immunostar	22941 RRID:AB_162424 4	IHC (1:500)
<b>chemical compound, drug</b>	DiD' solid (lipid dye)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	D-7757	Stock solution (10mg/ml), working solution (2.5mg/ml), in ethanol

992

993 Fish husbandry and transgenic lines

994

995 Larvae and adults were raised in facility water and maintained on a 14:10 hr light:dark cycle at  
 996 28°C. All protocols and procedures involving zebrafish were approved by the Harvard  
 997 University/Faculty of Arts & Sciences Standing Committee on the Use of Animals in Research  
 998 and Teaching (IACUC). WIK wildtype larvae and *mit1fa*<sup>-/-</sup> (*nacre*) larvae in the AB background,  
 999 raised at a density of ~40 fish per 10 cm petri dish, were used for behavioral and MAP-  
 1000 mapping experiments.

1001

1002 Transgenic lines *Tg(UAS-E1b:NTR-mCherry)* (Davison et al., 2007) (referred to as UAS:nfsb-  
 1003 mCherry), *Tg(UAS:GCaMP6s)* (Muto and Kawakami, 2011; Muto et al., 2017)  
 1004 *Tg(HuC:GCaMP6s)* (Kim et al., 2017), *Tg(Vglut2a:dsRed)* (Miyasaka et al., 2009),  
 1005 *Tg(Gad1b:loxP-dsRed-loxP-GFP)* and *Tg(Gad1b:GFP)* (Satou et al., 2013), *Tg(TH2:GCaMP5)*  
 1006 (McPherson et al., 2016), *Tg(ETvmat2:GFP)* (referred to as VMAT:GFP) (Wen et al., 2008),  
 1007 *Tg(HCRT:RFP)* (Liu et al., 2015) have all been previously described and characterized.  
 1008 *Tg(pGal4FF:116A)* (referred to as 116A:Gal4) was isolated from a gene trap screen by the  
 1009 Kawakami group (Kawakami et al., 2010), *Tg(pGal4FF:76A)* was recently published by the  
 1010 same group (Muto et al., 2017) (Muto et al., 2017). *Tg(y333:Gal4)* from a different enhancer trap  
 1011 screen was used to drive expression in the cH in cases where 116A:Gal4-driven expression  
 1012 was sparse (Marquart et al., 2015) (Marquart et al., 2015). *Tg(UAS:ReaChR-RFP)* was  
 1013 generated by Chao-Tsung Yang (Ahrens lab, Janelia Research Campus) using Tol2  
 1014 transgenesis. The same optogenetic channel was previously validated in zebrafish in Dunn et  
 1015 al., 2016.

1016

1017 MAP-mapping of appetite regions

1018

1019 More details on the MAP-mapping procedure can be found in Randlett et al (2015). 5-6 dpf,  
 1020 *mit1fa*<sup>-/-</sup> (*nacre*) larvae in the AB background larvae were fed an excess of paramecia once  
 1021 daily. On the day of the experiment (at 7 dpf), the larvae were distributed randomly into two  
 1022 treatment groups: 1) Food-deprived, where larvae were transferred into a clean petri dish of  
 1023 facility water, taking care to rinse out all remaining paramecia or 2) Fed, where after washing

1024 and transferring they were fed again with an excess of paramecia. After two hours, larvae in  
1025 both groups were fed with paramecia. After 15 minutes, larvae were quickly funneled through a  
1026 fine-mesh sieve, and the sieve was then immediately dropped into ice-cold 4%  
1027 paraformaldehyde (PFA) in PBS (PH 7.2-7.4). Fish were then immunostained with procedures  
1028 as reported below (see Immunostaining methods). The rabbit anti-pERK antibody (Cell  
1029 Signaling, #4370) and mouse anti-ERK (p44/42 MAPK (Erk1/2) (L34F12) (Cell Signaling,  
1030 #4696) were used at a 1:500 dilution. Secondary antibodies conjugated with alexa-fluorophores  
1031 (Life Technologies) were diluted 1:500. For imaging, fish were mounted dorsal-up in 2% (w/v)  
1032 low melting agarose in PBS (Invitrogen) and imaged at ~0.8/0.8/2  $\mu\text{m}$  voxel size (x/y/z) using an  
1033 upright confocal microscope (Olympus FV1000), using a 20x 1.0NA water dipping objective. All  
1034 fish to be analyzed in a MAP-Mapping experiment were mounted together on a single imaging  
1035 dish, and imaged in a single run, alternating between treatment groups.

### 1036 1037 ICA analysis

1038 ICA analysis was performed exactly as reported in Randlett et al, 2015. The central brain (not  
1039 including eyes, ganglia, or olfactory epithelia) from each fish was downsampled into  $4.7\mu\text{m}^3$   
1040 sized voxels to generate a pERK level vector for each fish. Fish in which any of the voxels was  
1041 not imaged (due to incomplete coverage) were excluded from the analysis. Fish were  
1042 normalized for overall brightness by dividing by the 10th percentile intensity value, and voxels  
1043 normalized by subtracting the mean value across fish. The fish-by-voxel array was then  
1044 analyzed for spatially independent components using FastICA  
1045 (<http://research.ics.aalto.fi/ica/fastica/>, Version 2.5), treating each fish as a signal and each  
1046 voxel as sample, using the symmetric approach, 'pow3' nonlinearity, retaining the first 30  
1047 principal components and calculating 30 independent components. Independent component  
1048 (IC) maps are displayed as the z-score values of the IC signals.

1049  
1050 Since ICA analysis requires a substantial sample size, the original analysis reported in Randlett  
1051 et al (2015) included 820 fish exposed to various treatments, including fish sampled at different  
1052 points of the day and night, and fish given various noxious or food stimuli, additional fish  
1053 stimulated with electric shocks, light flashes, moving gratings, heat, mustard oil, melatonin,  
1054 clonidine, nicotine, cocaine, ethanol and d-amphetamine.

1055  
1056 Here, to focus the analysis on more naturalistic feeding conditions, we restricted the dataset to  $n$   
1057 = 300 fish that were either food-deprived (2 hrs), or presented with food in food-deprived or fed  
1058 conditions.

### 1059 1060 Whole-mount Immunostaining

1061  
1062 24 hours after fixation (4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) in PBS), fish were washed in PBS + 0.25%  
1063 Triton (PBT), incubated in 150mM Tris-HCl at pH 9 for 15 min at 70°C (antigen retrieval),  
1064 washed in PBT, permeabilized in 0.05% Trypsin-EDTA for 45 min on ice, washed in PBT,  
1065 blocked in blocking solution (10% Goat Serum, 0.3% Triton in BSS or 2% BSA in PBS, 0.3%  
1066 Triton) for at least an hour and then incubated in primary and secondary antibodies for up to 3  
1067 days at 4°C diluted in blocking solution. In-between primary and secondary antibodies, fish were  
1068 washed in PBT and blocked for an hour. If necessary, pigmented embryos were bleached for 5  
1069 min after fixation with a 5%KOH/3%H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> solution.



1070 The protocol was similar for dissected brains, except that the brains were dissected in PBS after  
1071 24 hours of fixation, and the Tris-HCL antigen retrieval/permeabilization step in Trypsin-EDTA  
1072 was omitted. Dissected brains were mounted ventral up on slides in 70% glycerol prior to  
1073 imaging. Confocal images of dissected brains were obtained using either a Zeiss LSM 700 or  
1074 Olympus FV1000.

1075

#### 1076 Quantification of food intake

1077

1078 Paramecia cultures (~1-2 500 ml bottles) were harvested, spun down gently (<3000 rpm) and  
1079 concentrated, and subsequently incubated with lipid dye (DiD' solid, D-7757, Thermo Fisher  
1080 Scientific, dissolved in ethanol) for > 2 hrs (5 µl of 2.5mg/ml working solution per 1 ml of  
1081 concentrated paramecia) on a rotator with mild agitation. They were then spun down gently  
1082 (<3000 rpm), rinsed and reconstituted in deionized water. An equal amount (100µl, ~500  
1083 paramecia) was pipetted into each 10 cm dish of larvae. This method was adapted from  
1084 Shimada et al., 2012. After the experiment, larvae were fixed and mounted on their sides on  
1085 glass slides or placed in wells of a 96 well plate. They were then imaged using the AxioZoom  
1086 V16 (Zeiss) and analyzed using custom Fiji (Schindelin et al., 2012) software. In cases where  
1087 the identity of larvae needed to be maintained, for example, to correlate food intake with brain  
1088 activity, larvae were imaged and subsequently stained individually in 96 well plates. This led to  
1089 more variable staining which affects analysis of mean fluorescence.

1090

1091 Larvae were always distributed randomly into experimental groups.

1092

#### 1093 Quantification of LH and cH activity in dissected brains

1094

1095 Brains within each dataset were usually registered onto a selected reference image from the  
1096 same dataset using the same CMTK registration software used in MAP-mapping. Further  
1097 analysis was then performed using custom Fiji and MATLAB software.

1098

1099 For quantification of cH, mLH and pERK fluorescence intensity, ROIs were manually defined  
1100 using the reference image, and pERK intensity was quantified over all registered images and  
1101 averaged across the entire lobe (multiple z-planes) as well as across both lobes. Analysis of cH  
1102 pERK fluorescence was restricted to the most ventral planes, as more dorsal cH neurons show  
1103 weaker correlation with feeding states (e.g. Figure 1 - Figure Supplement 5).

1104

1105 For quantification of mLH and ILH active cell count, automated analysis of cell count was again  
1106 performed using custom Fiji software, namely: 1) Image processing to reduce background and  
1107 enhance contrast 2) Adaptive thresholding to isolate strongly-stained cells 3) Applying the  
1108 "Analyze Particles" function to quantify the number of cells within each manually-defined ROI.

1109

1110 Aggregation and visualization of results was performed using custom MATLAB software.

1111

1112 Note that, in experiments in which the data was collected without the tERK channel (e.g. from  
1113 Figure 2), thus prohibiting image registration, ROIs were drawn manually over each region

1114 across all z-planes and averaged to obtain mean fluorescence values.

1115

1116 For Figure 2 - Figure Supplement 1, where individual fish were stained, all measurements,  
1117 including cell count, were made manually. In addition, background fluorescence was measured  
1118 for each sample and subtracted from measured values.

1119

#### 1120 Semi-automated quantification of ReaChR overlap with pERK

1121 This section describes the analysis method for Figure 6 - Figure Supplement 1. The multi-point  
1122 picker on ImageJ was first used to select all visible 5-HT, ReaChR-positive or ReaChR-negative  
1123 cells within each z-stack for each fish. A custom Fiji macro was then used to extract mean  
1124 pERK intensities from all identified cells, and data was further processed using MATLAB. Data  
1125 was plotted using the notBoxPlot.m Matlab function.

1126

#### 1127 Calcium imaging

1128

1129 For confocal calcium imaging of the cH and LH simultaneously in the presence of food,  
1130 *Tg(76A:Gal4;116A:Gal4; UAS:GCaMP6s)* triple transgenic fish were embedded in 1.8%  
1131 agarose, with their eyes/nostrils were released. GCaMP activity from a single z-plane (where  
1132 the cH and LH neurons could be seen) was imaged using a confocal microscope (Olympus  
1133 FV1000) at 1 fps. After a 5 min habituation period and a 10 min baseline period, a dense drop of  
1134 paramecia was pipetted into the dish. Due to paramecia phototaxis, most of the paramecia  
1135 moved into close vicinity of the fish's head under the laser, allowing for strong visual/olfactory  
1136 exposure to paramecia. After image registration (TurboReg Fiji Plugin, Thevenaz et al., 1998),  
1137 and downsampling (Fiji/MATLAB), manually-segmented ROIs were selected and total  
1138 fluorescence within the ROI was calculated. Cross-correlation and other analyses were  
1139 performed using custom MATLAB software.

1140

1141 For long-term 2P imaging of the cH and LH simultaneously in the absence of food (Figure 3 -  
1142 Figure Supplement 3), *Tg(76A:Gal4;116A:Gal4; UAS:GCaMP6s)* triple transgenic fish were  
1143 embedded in 1.8% agarose. GCaMP activity from either multiple slices (3 z-planes spanning a  
1144 ~20  $\mu\text{m}$  volume of the intermediate hypothalamus using an electrically-tunable liquid lens  
1145 (Edmund Optics, 83-922), 237 ms per z-plane) or a single z-plane where the cH and LH  
1146 neurons (1.5 fps) could be seen was imaged using custom 2P microscopes. After image  
1147 registration and downsampling to cell-sized voxels (Fiji/MATLAB), manually segmented ROIs  
1148 were selected and total fluorescence within the ROI was calculated. Clustering, spike detection  
1149 and other analyses were performed using custom MATLAB software. Baseline detrending was  
1150 performed on "raw"  $\Delta f/f$  traces by fitting a quadratic polynomial and subtracting it from the trace.  
1151 Calculations on spike frequency and amplitude were subsequently performed using baseline-  
1152 detrended calcium traces.

1153

#### 1154 Optogenetic stimulation and simultaneous calcium imaging

1155

1156 Optogenetic stimulation and calcium imaging was performed on a confocal microscope (Zeiss  
1157 LSM 880) using a 633 nm laser for ReaChR activation, and a 488 nm laser for calcium imaging.

1158 *Tg(y333:Gal4;UAS:ReaChR-RFP; HuCGCaMP6s)* triple-transgenic fish were used to record LH  
1159 activity after ReaChR activation. As *Tg(HuC:GCaMP6)* does not label the cH, in some cases we  
1160 used fish that also had *Tg(UAS:GCaMP6s)* co-expressed in cH, allowing for monitoring of cH  
1161 activity directly.

1162  
1163 The ReaChR activation spectrum is wide and 488 nm laser power at sufficiently high intensities  
1164 is sufficient to activate ReaChR. Since *Tg(y333:Gal4;UASGCaMP6s)* is expressed strongly in  
1165 the cH, weak 488 nm laser power can be used to monitor cH activity after ReaChR activation of  
1166 cH. On the other hand, *Tg(HuC:GCaMP6s)* expression in the LH is considerably weaker than  
1167 *Tg(UAS:GCaMP6s)* expression driven by *Tg(y333:Gal4)*, and recording LH activity requires high  
1168 laser power. Thus, during LH recording trials, we could not simultaneously image the cH.

1169  
1170 Fed fish were embedded in 1.8%-2% agarose, with tails, mouth and eyes freed, 15-20 minutes  
1171 before imaging in the absence of food. For baseline recording, spontaneous activities in cH or  
1172 LH were recorded. ReaChR activation was then induced in one side of cH periodically for 10-15  
1173 s, and ensuing activity in one or both sides of LH or cH was recorded continuously during  
1174 intervals (of 120-180 s) between stimuli.

1175  
1176 *Nitroreductase-mediated ablations*

1177  
1178 Larvae expressing *Tg(116A:Gal4;UAS:nfsb-mCherry)*, or their non-transgenic siblings were  
1179 incubated in 2.5 mM Metronidazole (Sigma-Aldrich, M3761) from 4-6 dpf/5-7 dpf. MTZ was  
1180 subsequently washed out, and food intake was measured at 7 or 8 dpf. For these experiments,  
1181 the MTZ-treated non-transgenic siblings were used as the control group. Each control or ablated  
1182 group was food-deprived or fed for 2 hrs, and labeled food was added to quantify food intake. In  
1183 the case of fed fish, unlabeled food was very gently washed out 15 mins before the experiment  
1184 and the food-deprived fish were also agitated slightly to simulate a short washout.

1185  
1186 *Optogenetic stimulation with behavior*

1187  
1188 Optogenetic stimulation was done by placing a square LED panel (630 nm, 0.12mW/mm<sup>2</sup> driven  
1189 at full current, Soda Vision, Singapore) directly on top of petri dishes containing ReaChR  
1190 positive or negative fish, for 10 minutes continuously before or during feeding. We had  
1191 attempted other methods of stimulating the fish (e.g. pulsed LED stimulation) but found that it  
1192 was disruptive to behavior.

1193  
1194 *Artemia Hunting Video*

1195  
1196 7 dpf larval fish were food-deprived for 2 hours, acclimatized in 24 well plates for 30 minutes,  
1197 and then fed either an excess of hatched artemia or paramecia. Raw videos of hunting behavior  
1198 were then recorded for 10 min at 30 fps using a high-resolution monochrome camera (Basler  
1199 acA4924) and custom Python-based acquisition software.

1200  
1201

1202 *High-resolution behavioral tracking*

1203

1204 We developed a system (Johnson et al., 2019) in which a high-speed infrared camera moves on  
1205 motorized rails to automatically track a zebrafish larvae in a large pool (300 x 300 x 4mm). A  
1206 single fish is recruited to the arena center with motion cues delivered from a projector to initiate  
1207 each trial. Paramecia are dispersed throughout the middle of the pool For analysis 60 Hz image  
1208 frames are centered and aligned. In every frame, the tail was skeletonized and the gaze angle  
1209 of each eye is calculated. The eyes can each move from around zero degrees (parallel to body-  
1210 axis) to 40 degrees (converged for hunting). Each bout was then represented as a point in 220-  
1211 dimensional posture space by accumulating 22 posture measurements (20 tail tangent angles to  
1212 encode tail shape, and 2 eye gaze angles) across 10 image frames (~167 ms) from the  
1213 beginning of each bout. All bouts were then mapped to a 2-D space with t-distributed stochastic  
1214 neighbor embedding (t-SNE). Four major hunting bout types can be identified from this  
1215 embedding. Hunts begin with the “j-turn”, and fish follow and advance toward prey objects with  
1216 “pursuit” bouts. Hunts end with an “abort” or a “strike”. When the fish is not actively involved in  
1217 a hunt, it explores the arena with “exploratory” bouts. Fractions of hunting bouts were then  
1218 compared between fed and food-deprived fish in 3-minute time bins over 45 min.

1219

1220 *Statistics*

1221

1222 All error bars show mean  $\pm$  SEM over fish. Significance was reported as follows: \* $p < 0.05$ .  
1223 Significance was determined using the non-parametric Wilcoxon signed-rank test for paired data  
1224 and the Wilcoxon rank-sum test for independent samples. One-tailed tests were performed in  
1225 cases where there was a prior prediction regarding the direction of change. A one-or two-way  
1226 ANOVA (Tukey-Kramer correction, MATLAB statistical toolbox) was used in cases where  
1227 multiple comparisons were involved.

1228

1229 *Code availability*

1230

1231 Analysis code used in this manuscript is available on [www.github.com/carolinewee](http://www.github.com/carolinewee)

1232

1233 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

1234

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1238 behavioral imaging. Support from Steve Turney and the CBS imaging facility, and the Harvard  
1239 Center for Biological Imaging were essential for the successful completion of many experiments.  
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1241 Hughes at Harvard for providing invaluable fish care.

1242

1243 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

1244 The authors declare no competing interests.

1245

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